

Shadows Don't Lie and Lines Can't Bend!

Generative Models don't know Projective Geometry...for now

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<https://projective-geometry.github.io/>

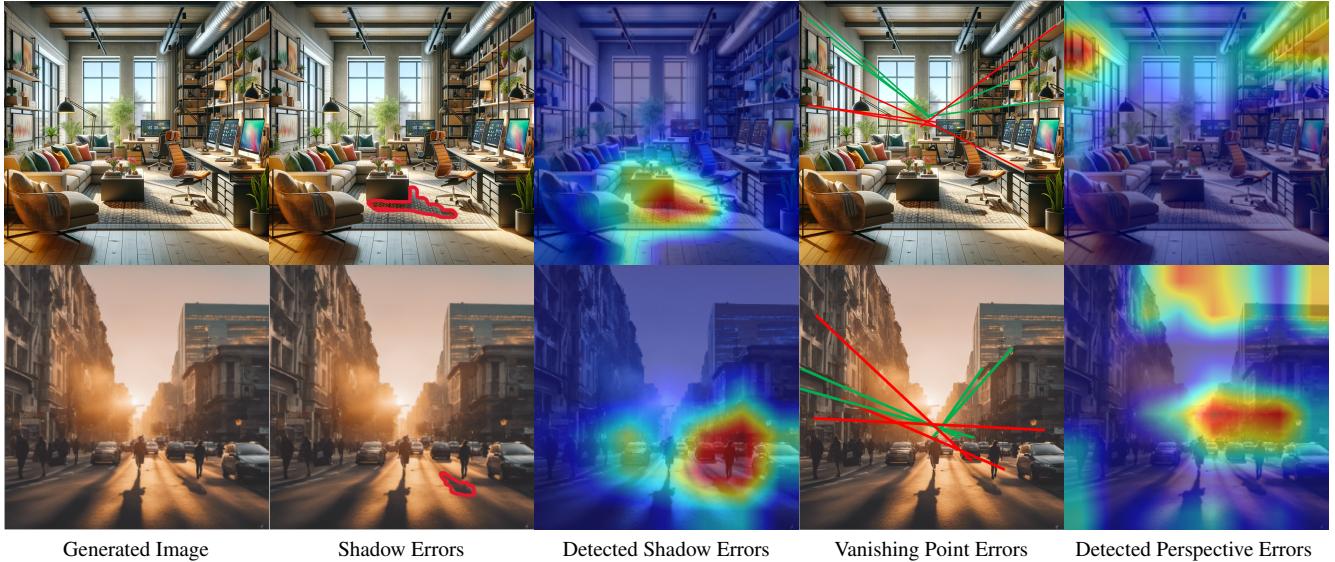


Figure 1. The first column presents visually compelling AI-generated images. However, a closer examination reveals fundamental inconsistencies, such as those in shadow alignment (second column) and vanishing point accuracy (fourth column). Our model’s analysis, shown in the third and fifth columns, detects these shadow and perspective geometry errors. We show that these errors are systematic and can be used to identify generated images.

Abstract

Generative models can produce impressively realistic images. This paper demonstrates that generated images have geometric features different from those of real images. We build a set of collections of generated images, prequalified to fool simple, signal-based classifiers into believing they are real. We then show that prequalified generated images can be identified reliably by classifiers that only look at geometric properties. We use three such classifiers. All three classifiers are denied access to image pixels, and look only at derived geometric features. The first classifier looks at the perspective field of the image, the second looks at lines detected in the image, and the third looks at relations between detected objects and shadows. Our procedure detects generated images more reliably than SOTA local signal based detectors,

for images from a number of distinct generators. Saliency maps suggest that the classifiers can identify geometric problems reliably. We conclude that current generators cannot reliably reproduce geometric properties of real images.

1. Introduction

Both StyleGAN [21–23] and diffusion models [35–37] are renowned for generating images that are strikingly similar to real-world photographs and consistently fool people. But, as we show, generated images have distinctive geometric features, likely from a failure to fully capture projective geometry.

Chen et al. [9], Zhan et al.[48], and Bhattad et al.[5] have shown generative models implicitly capture the complex scene properties, including normals, depth, albedo, and support relations. These works suggests these models “un-

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derstand” geometry, which would be useful for rendering 3D scenes. Our detailed, population-level analysis of generated images suggests generative models [1, 3, 4, 11, 31] cannot fully translate this “understanding” into accurate geometry. Specifically, we demonstrate that generative models produce images with lines that differ from those of real images (likely due to problems aligning vanishing points); that generative models produce images with perspective fields that are unlike those of real images; and that object-shadow relations in generated images differ reliably from those in real images. We use advanced pretrained models (Line Segment Detection [30]; Perspective Fields [20]; and PointNet [33]) that inspect geometric representations to distinguish between real and generated images.

To ensure our findings’ integrity and accuracy, we adopt a rigorously designed data curation process. This critical step involves meticulously filtering out any biases related to color, texture, and local features within our test set. Such precision in data selection is crucial to isolate and accurately assess the subtle, yet significant, inconsistencies in projective geometry and illumination present in generated images. This careful approach ensures that our results are not obscured by common artifacts typically found in generated images, thereby enhancing the reliability of our conclusions. Our contributions are:

- **Unearthing Geometric Discrepancies:** We present a comprehensive analysis that goes beyond existing literature to both demonstrate and quantify geometric discrepancies produced by current generative models.
- **Data curation:** We offer a data curation process that can be used to hone in on generative model errors.
- **Broadening the Scope of Model Assessment:** Our approach offers an alternative method for evaluating models: do they get projective geometry right?

2. Related Work

Generative Models: The advancement of generative models, particularly in creating visually realistic images, marks a significant milestone in computer vision. Pioneering efforts by Karras et al. [21–23] with StyleGAN, and the emergence of diffusion models [35–37], have set new benchmarks in realism. These models, used in diverse fields from art to data augmentation, have yet to fully grasp the nuances of projective geometry, which is the focus of our analysis, primarily using open Stable Diffusion models.

Geometric Understanding in Generative Models: While studies like Chen et al. [9], Zhan et al. [48], and Bhattacharjee et al. [5] demonstrate these models’ potential in understanding scene geometry, our work diverges by scrutinizing the generated images themselves, examining their adherence to the principles of projective geometry and illumination, rather than analyzing learned features.

Detecting Generated Images: The realism of modern gen-

erative models has made image forensics increasingly challenging. Traditional methods focused on detecting synthetic images using signals like resampling artifacts [32] and JPEG quantization [2]. Kee et al. [24] introduced a geometric technique for detecting shadow inconsistencies, paralleling our pursuit of physical realism. However, our work extends beyond identifying photo manipulation to evaluating the overall perspective geometry and illumination consistency in images from generative models.

Zhang et al.’s work [12] focuses on detecting AI-generated images using diverse generative models and online training for future model adaptation. Our research, in contrast, assesses the projective geometry in these images, examining their ability to render scenes with accurate perspective and illumination. Boháček et al. [6], while detecting geometric inconsistencies related to shadows, align with our interest in physical realism. However, we delve deeper, thoroughly evaluating perspective geometry and illumination in generative models for a more comprehensive understanding of their geometric accuracy.

The rise of deep generative methods has steered image forensics towards using discriminative methods to detect synthetic content [7, 13, 18, 41, 42, 47, 49]. These advancements align with our objective of analyzing the physical and geometrical congruence of generated images. However, our work goes a step further by critically assessing whether generative models fundamentally understand and accurately replicate projective geometry, rather than simply distinguishing between real and synthetic images. This deeper level of analysis aims to unveil the intricacies and limitations of current models in faithfully rendering geometrically coherent images.

Evaluation Metrics: Traditional metrics like the Inception Score (IS) [38] and Fréchet Inception Distance (FID) [17] focus on pixel-level fidelity. The emergence of CLIP-based scores [16, 34] and DIRE [44] offers a semantic perspective. In contrast, our approach, distinct in its focus on perspective geometry and illumination consistency, seeks to ensure comprehensive realism, bridging the gap between visual and physical authenticity.

Recent studies like Davidsonian Scene Graph [10] and ImagenHub [25] address fine-grained evaluation inconsistencies, while the HEIM benchmark [26] assesses models across multiple aspects. Our work complements these by providing an in-depth evaluation of the physical and geometric realism of images generated by state-of-the-art models.

3. Background on Projective Geometry

Projective geometry is a mathematical framework that enables the accurate representation of three-dimensional spaces in two-dimensional images. It provides the rules for perspective, which are crucial for creating realistic scenes with depth and spatial orientation [14]. In this section, we will examine

the common inconsistencies that may arise during image synthesis according to projective geometry. Our evaluation framework is intended to detect and measure these discrepancies, which are essential for evaluating the realism and physical plausibility of generated images.

Inconsistent Vanishing Points. Vanishing points are fundamental to capturing the essence of perspective in images. They should align with the direction of parallel lines converging at a distance. Generated images often exhibit inconsistencies where these lines do not meet at the correct vanishing points, leading to a distorted sense of perspective.

Lighting and Shadow Inconsistencies. Accurate shadows are essential for reinforcing the position and shape of objects within a scene. Discrepancies in shadow direction, length, and softness can indicate a misalignment with the scene’s light sources, disrupting the image’s three-dimensionality.

Scale Discrepancies. The principle of size constancy dictates that objects of the same size should appear smaller as their distance from the observer increases. Generated images sometimes fail to maintain this scaling, resulting in a compromised depth perception.

Distortion of Geometric Figures. Geometric figures should maintain their shape when projected onto the image plane, barring intentional perspective distortion. Errors in this projection can result in circles appearing as ellipses or squares as trapezoids, indicating a flawed perspective rendering.

Depth Cues. Depth perception in images is conveyed through cues such as overlapping, texture gradients, and relative size. Misrepresentation of these cues can lead to an unnatural spatial arrangement that the human eye can readily detect as artificial.

Our evaluation framework, detailed in the subsequent sections, is designed to rigorously test generated images against these projective geometry principles. While a comprehensive evaluation of projective geometry would consider all the aforementioned inconsistencies, our framework prioritizes the detection of inconsistent vanishing points and lighting and shadow inconsistencies. These elements are particularly telling indicators of an image’s projective geometry realism and are often the most challenging for generative models to replicate accurately.

4. Dataset Curation via Multi-Stage Filtering

Our data curation process begins with the selection of real images, subsequently captioned using a recent state-of-the-art (SOTA) method, where we utilize the ViT-bigG-14/laion2b_s39b_b160k model [19] along with the BLIP-2 [27] model. These captioned images are then processed through the Stable Diffusion-XL model [31]. This initial phase establishes a robust dataset where real and generated images are aligned based on common captions. Such alignment is crucial for a thorough and equitable evaluation of projective geometry nuances in generated images, ensuring

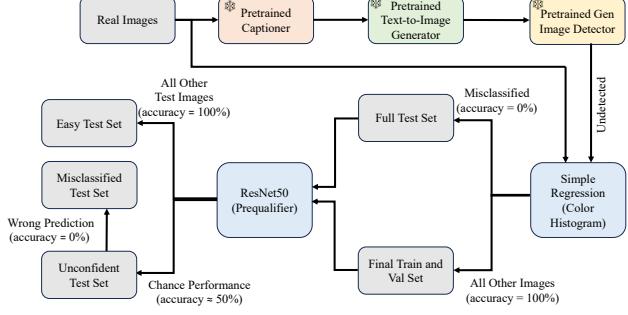


Figure 2. The diagram illustrates the sequential flow of our data curation methodology. Initially, images undergo captioning [27] [19], followed by processing through Stable Diffusion-XL [31]. Post-generation, these images are subjected to CNN Detection [42] and then filtered using a Histogram-Based Logistic Regression model. Subsequently, a ResNet50 [15] Prequalifier refines the selection, resulting in the final curated dataset.

that our dataset is ideally suited for examining the subtle aspects of image generation.

Transitioning from this initial phase, the integrity of our evaluation framework becomes paramount. To guarantee its robustness, we employ a multi-stage data curation process. This meticulous procedure is tailored to eliminate biases that may arise from small signal artifacts, color distribution, or textural features—elements often exploited by conventional CNN detectors. Systematically filtering out images based on these criteria allows us to isolate those that exhibit subtle yet essential inconsistencies in projective geometry and illumination. This rigorous approach ensures that our evaluation is not skewed by superficial artifacts, but rather, it becomes a true test of a generative model’s grasp of complex physical and geometric principles. The following sub-sections detail each stage of this multi-stage filtering process and our data curation process is summarized in Figure 2.

4.1. Off-the-shelf CNNDetector Validation

Our process begins with the generation of scenes using the Stable Diffusion XL model, each scene crafted from real images paired with descriptive captions. These generated images are subjected to the CNNDetector [42], a CNN-based state-of-the-art detector. Surprisingly, the CNNDetector could not distinguish any of the generated scenes from Stable Diffusion-XL, indicating a level of visual fidelity that surpasses conventional detection capabilities.

4.2. Filtering Using Color Histograms

The next step in refining our dataset involves a logistic regression model that leverages color histogram statistics to differentiate between real and synthetic images. This model analyzes the color distribution within each image and assigns a probability of it being generated based on learned patterns in these distributions.

Table 1. Statistical overview of the Data Curation and Filtering Process: We present the distribution of real and generated images for indoor and outdoor datasets through consecutive stages of our data curation pipeline. Starting with large sets, we apply CNN detection and LR histogram filtering to refine the datasets, significantly reducing the number of generated images and highlighting the effectiveness of these preliminary filters. The ResNet50 Prequalifier further narrows down the datasets, creating an ‘Unconfident Set’ for images with low classifier certainty and a ‘Misclassified Subset’ for images incorrectly labeled by the classifier. These rigorously curated sets are instrumental for our subsequent analysis, concentrating on projective geometry while mitigating the influence of signal cues. The datasets for each prequalifier—indoor, outdoor, and combined—are prepared separately to tailor the models to their specific contexts.

| | Indoor Real | Indoor Generated | Outdoor Real | Outdoor Generated | Combined Real | Combined Generated |
|--|--------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| Total Images | 400,000 | 400,000 | 125,000 | 125,000 | 525,000 | 525,000 |
| Post CNN Detection & LR Histogram Filtering | | | | | | |
| Remaining Images | 53,974 | 53,974 | 8,316 | 8,316 | 62,290 | 62,290 |
| Training and Test Sets | | | | | | |
| Training Set Size | 280,000 | 280,000 | 95,000 | 95,000 | 375,000 | 375,000 |
| Validation Set Size | 48,000 | 48,000 | 17,000 | 17,000 | 65,000 | 65,000 |
| Test Set Size | 53,974 | 53,974 | 8,316 | 8,316 | 62,290 | 62,290 |
| Post ResNet50 Prequalifier | | | | | | |
| Unconfident Set | 10,078 | 19,588 | 6,399 | 5,249 | 10,511 | 16,739 |
| Misclassified Subset | 3,366 | 10,928 | 3,420 | 1,910 | 3,535 | 8,132 |

This stage effectively filters out approximately 90% of the dataset, highlighting the predictive power of color histograms in identifying synthetic content that a CNN detector was otherwise unable to detect. We pool the misclassified set at this stage as our full test set and all other detected images are pooled into our training and validation test set.

4.3. Texture Consistency Examination

As we progress through our data curation process, we integrate a ResNet50 [15] classifier to serve as a prequalifier, drawing on methods established in CNNDetection [42] and the recent online detection of AI-generated images [13]. This prequalifier, though analyzing images in their entirety, demonstrates a fine-tuned sensitivity to both local distortions and textural inconsistencies—attributes attributable to the architectural depth and sophistication of ResNet50.

The ResNet50 classifier is shown to be good at distinguishing the intricate textural features that differentiate real images from generated ones, capitalizing on the local and global discrepancies introduced by generative processes. It evaluates the overall texture consistency and coherency of the image, offering a holistic yet detail-oriented perspective.

5. Analyzing Projective Geometry

After curating the dataset, we meticulously analyze the unfiltered images, consisting of 10,928 indoor and 1,910 outdoor scenes. These images have successfully passed prior filtering stages; that is they are detected as real images. We then subject them to a thorough evaluation for geometric and shadow inconsistencies, focusing on their conformity to projective geometry principles. This process ensures that our dataset tests the models rigorously, challenging them to replicate not only surface details (color or texture inconsistencies) but

also the underlying geometric correctness and photometric accuracy of generated images.

It must be noted that projective geometry inconsistencies are prevalent in most of the generated images, yet they often escape detection by conventional analysis. Our approach focuses on the “hard set”—challenging scenarios where the prequalifying classifier, trained directly on images, either operates at the chance (the **unconfident test set**) or inversely misclassifies real and generated images (the **misclassified test set**). This distinction is critical, as it allows us to rigorously test our models, which, unlike the prequalifier, do not have direct access to the images. Trained solely on geometric abstractions and projective cues extracted from the images, our models are competent at detecting subtle but decisive inaccuracies that simple texture artifacts cannot account for. This level of abstraction in training guarantees that our models focus on the fundamental aspects of projective geometry, identifying errors that could significantly impact the practical applicability of generated visuals in real-world contexts. Below, we detail different models that comprise our approach.

5.1. Line Segment Cues

Our method for assessing the projective geometry in generated images starts by identifying key structural lines within each image using a Deep Learning-based Line Segment Detector (Deep LSD) [30]. These lines are crucial for our analysis as they indicate how well the generated images adhere to the rules of perspective. To classify the images based on these line segments, we train a PointNet-like architecture [33] known for its ability to handle unordered data sets like the ones we encounter with line segments. This model is trained to recognize patterns that help differentiate real images from generated ones by understanding the arrangement

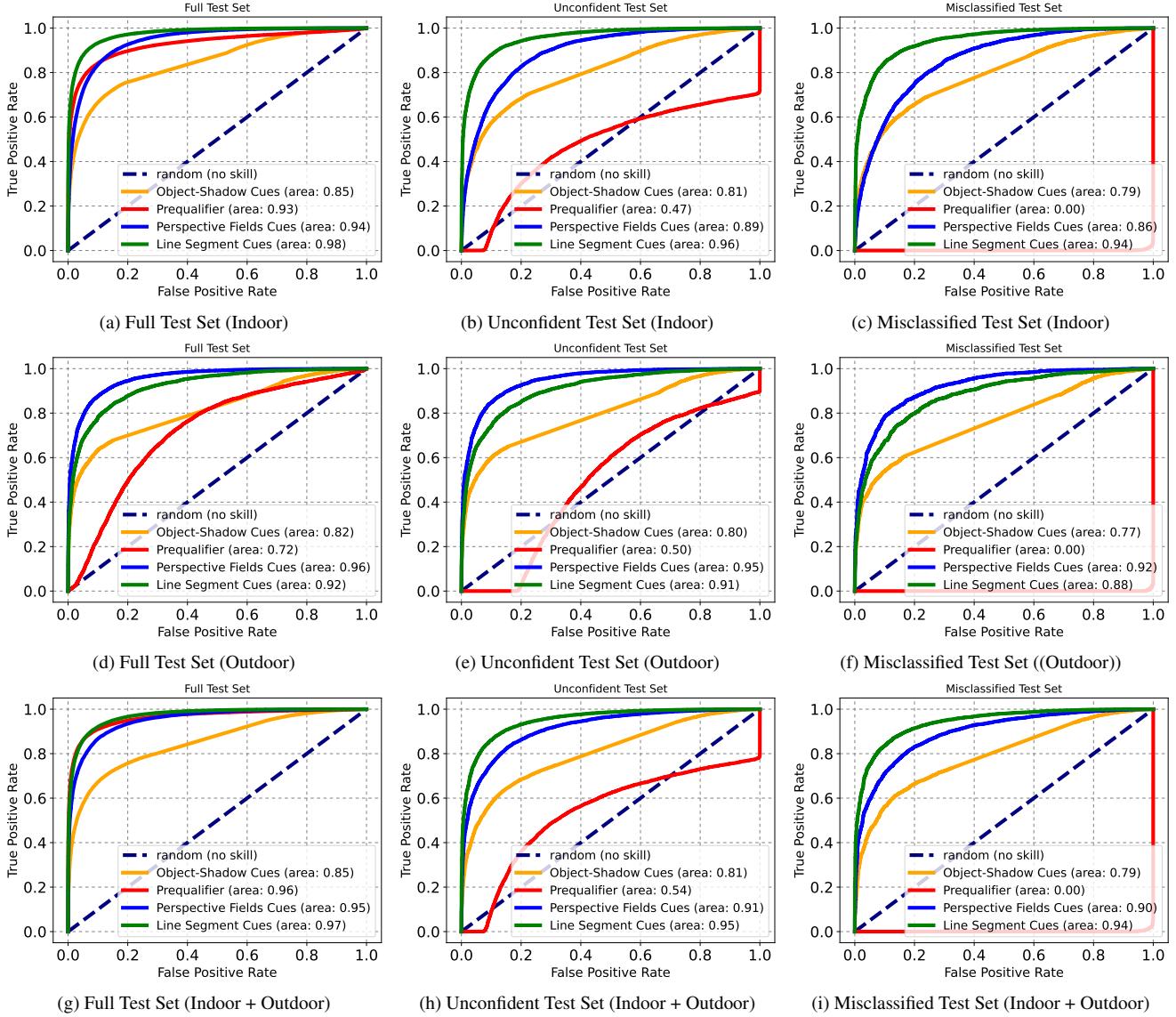


Figure 3. ROC Curves Assessing Projective Geometry Cues in Generated Images by Stable Diffusion XL. We trained separate models for indoor scenes, outdoor scenes, and a combination of indoor and outdoor scenes. In the full test set (a), (d), (g), our line segment classifier was found to be more accurate (with AUCs of 0.98, 0.92, and 0.97) compared to the prequalifier (with AUCs of 0.93, 0.72, and 0.96). Prequalification helps to determine whether the methods are using signal cues or not. Our results show that they are not, as demonstrated by (b), (c), (e), (f), (h), and (i). For the unconfident test set, where the prequalifier has an AUC of 0.47 (b), 0.50 (e), and 0.54 (h) for indoor, outdoor, and combined partition, our classifiers can still accurately identify the generated images with high AUCs. Similarly, for the misclassified test set, where the prequalifier has an AUC of 0.00, our classifiers remain reliable. We conclude that generated images contain geometric structures not seen in real images, and these structures very reliably identify generated images.

and consistency of these lines.

Unlike traditional models that may require the data to be in a specific format, PointNet is flexible and considers each line segment without the need for pre-sorting, making it particularly suited for our geometric analysis. It assigns a score representing the likelihood that an image is real based on the spatial arrangement of its lines. By analyzing the scores from PointNet, we can determine the model’s proficiency

in detecting subtle discrepancies in line arrangements that often indicate a generated image.

5.2. Perspective Field Cues

Our framework’s second model utilizes Perspective Fields [20], vector fields that encode the spatial orientation of pixels in relation to vanishing points and the horizon. These dense fields could be instrumental in assessing the

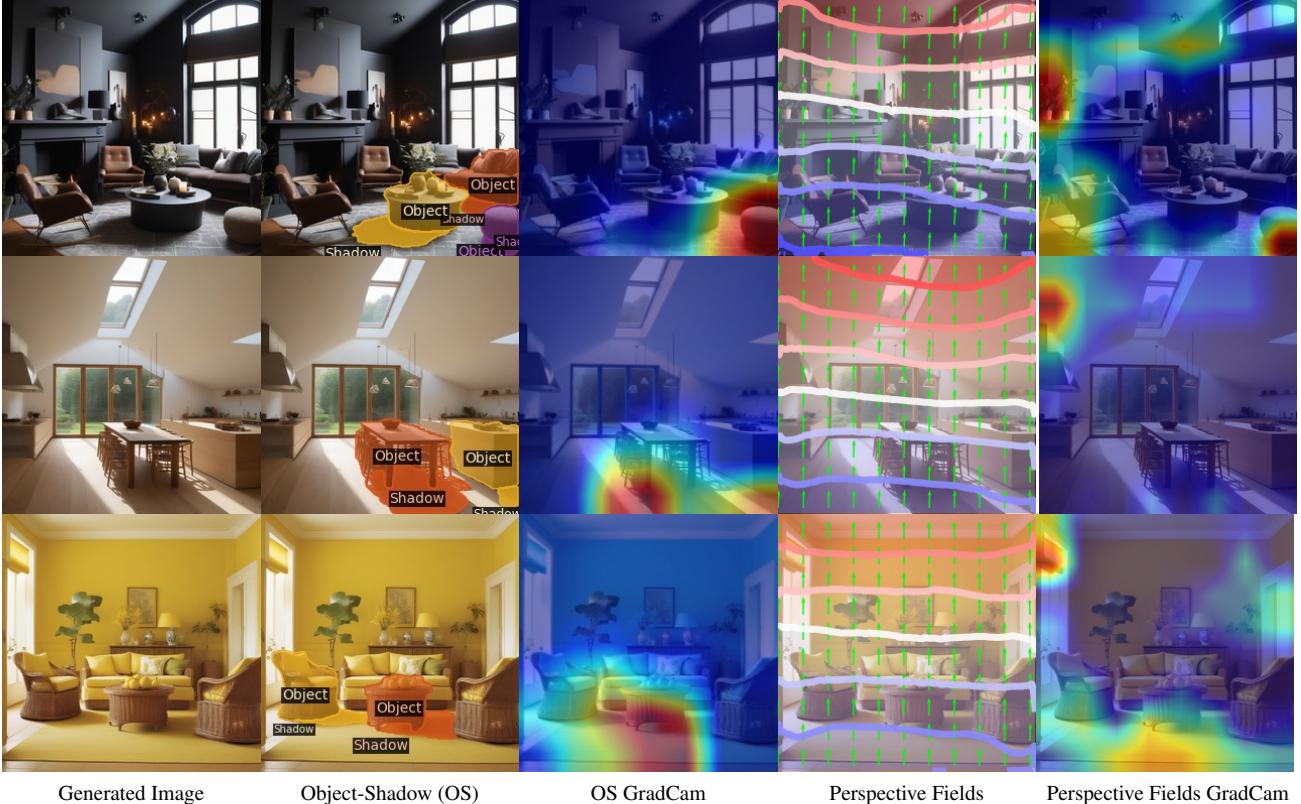


Figure 4. Grad-CAM can be applied to our Object-Shadow and Perspective Field classifiers. Doing so suggests that the high AUCs of Figure 3 are vested in real geometric errors. Here we show indoor scenes. The first column displays images generated by Stable Diffusion-XL. The second column overlays detected object-shadow pairs from [43], highlighting the model’s ability to identify these features. The third column applies Grad-CAM to our Object-Shadow classifier. This shows areas most diagnostic of synthetic generation. Note: in the first row, the shadow cast by the ottoman is in the wrong direction and Grad-CAM identifies this error as diagnostic for our classifier; in the second row, the Grad-CAM weights suggest a shadow problem at the left side chair, which is difficult to check but plausible; in the third row, the shadow cast by the coffee table is in the wrong direction and Grad-CAM identifies this error as diagnostic. The fourth column shows the Perspective Fields of [20], and the fifth column shows Grad-CAM when applied to our Perspective Fields classifier. Note: in the first row, Grad-CAM weights identify an oddly oriented line in the top left corner; in the second row, Grad-CAM weights identify a problem with the top of the cupboard on the left, which is difficult to confirm but plausible; in the third row, Grad-CAM weights identify a visible problem with the blind on the left. Best viewed on screen.

projective geometry of images. We use a pretrained model to generate Perspective Fields from single images, which serve as a basis for understanding the scene’s geometric structure.

We then train a ResNet50 classifier on these fields to differentiate between real and generated images, focusing on anomalies in projective geometry. The classifier evaluates the consistency of Perspective Fields with projective geometry principles, scoring images on their geometric plausibility. This method allows for a precise and focused evaluation of projective geometry in generated images, enhancing the detection of subtle inconsistencies.

5.3. Object-Shadow Cues

The third model in our framework addresses the illumination aspect by examining object-shadow relationships. Shadows are inherently tied to the shapes that cast them, following

the principles of projective geometry that dictate how three-dimensional forms are translated onto a two-dimensional plane. The direction, length, and shape of a shadow should be consistent with the light source’s position and the geometry of the casting object. Any inconsistency in this alignment can reveal the synthetic nature of an image.

To detect such inconsistencies, we analyze the shadows in relation to their corresponding objects and the presumed light source direction. We employ an object-shadow instance detection algorithm [43] to identify shadows and then use geometric heuristics to evaluate their plausibility given the objects and their orientation in the scene. This is accomplished by training a ResNet50 classifier on binary masks of object and shadow instances. The consistency of these shadows with the objects is scored, and images with implausible shadows are marked as likely generated.

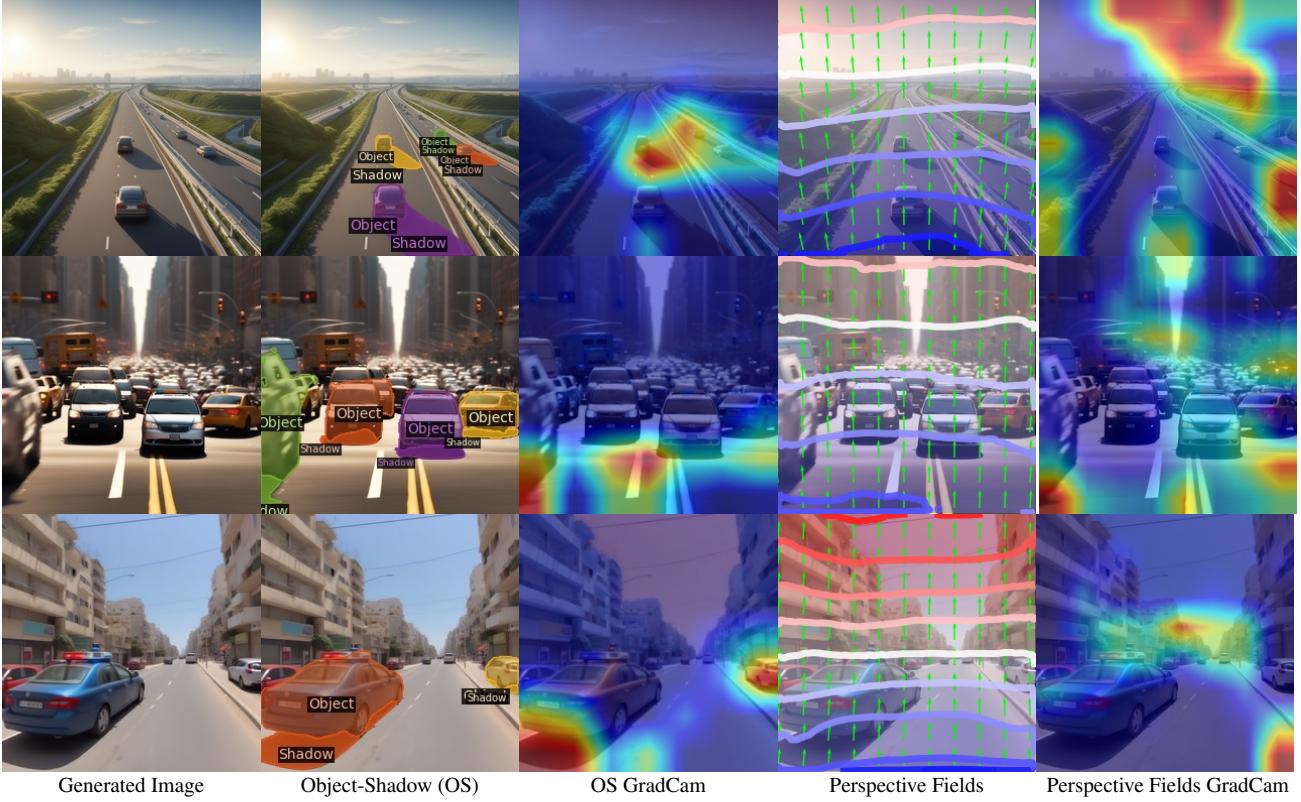


Figure 5. Grad-CAM results for outdoor scenes, after the model of Figure 4. The first column displays images generated by Stable Diffusion-XL. Note: in the first row, the cars cast shadows in different directions and Grad-CAM identifies this error as diagnostic; in the second row, two cars in front cast shadows in different directions and Grad-CAM identifies this error as diagnostic; in the third row, Grad-CAM identifies the (very odd) structure of the buildings near the vanishing point as a problem, based on perspective field distortion.

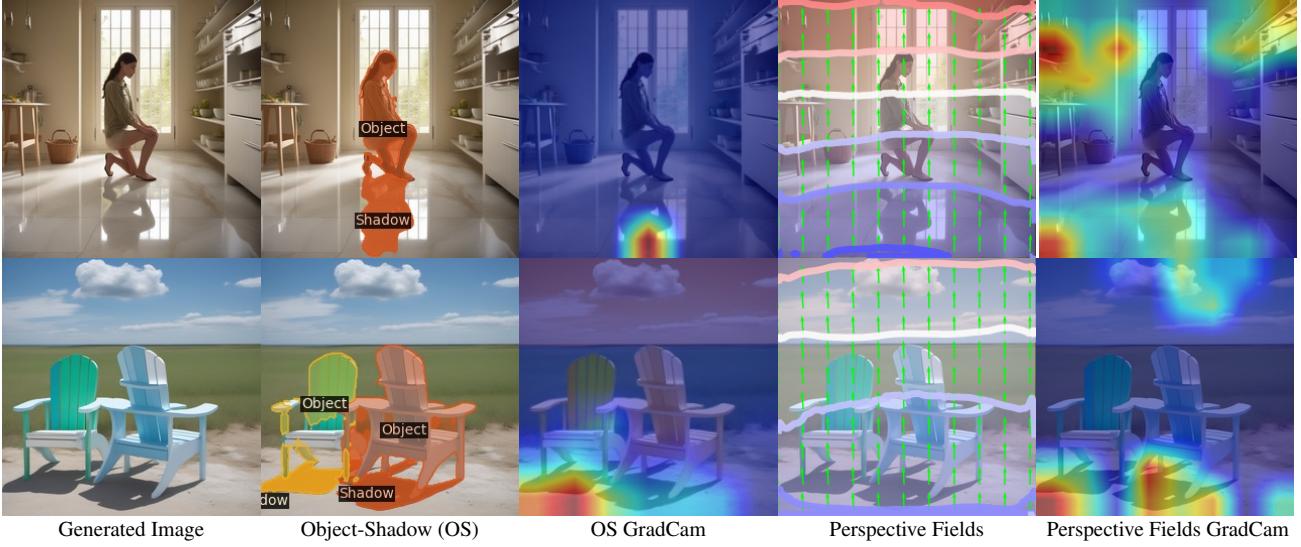


Figure 6. Our projective geometry classifiers identify distinct types of problems. The top row shows an example that was classified real by the Object-Shadow classifier, but correctly identified as generated by the Perspective Fields classifier. The shadow cast by the person appears realistic; but, as the Perspective Fields GradCAM identifies, the shelf on the top left has problematic geometry. The bottom row shows an example that was correctly identified as generated by the Object-Shadow classifier but was classified as real by the Perspective Fields classifier. Here the perspective effects in the image appear inoffensive, but the two chairs are casting shadows from different light sources, as the Grad-CAM weights correctly show.

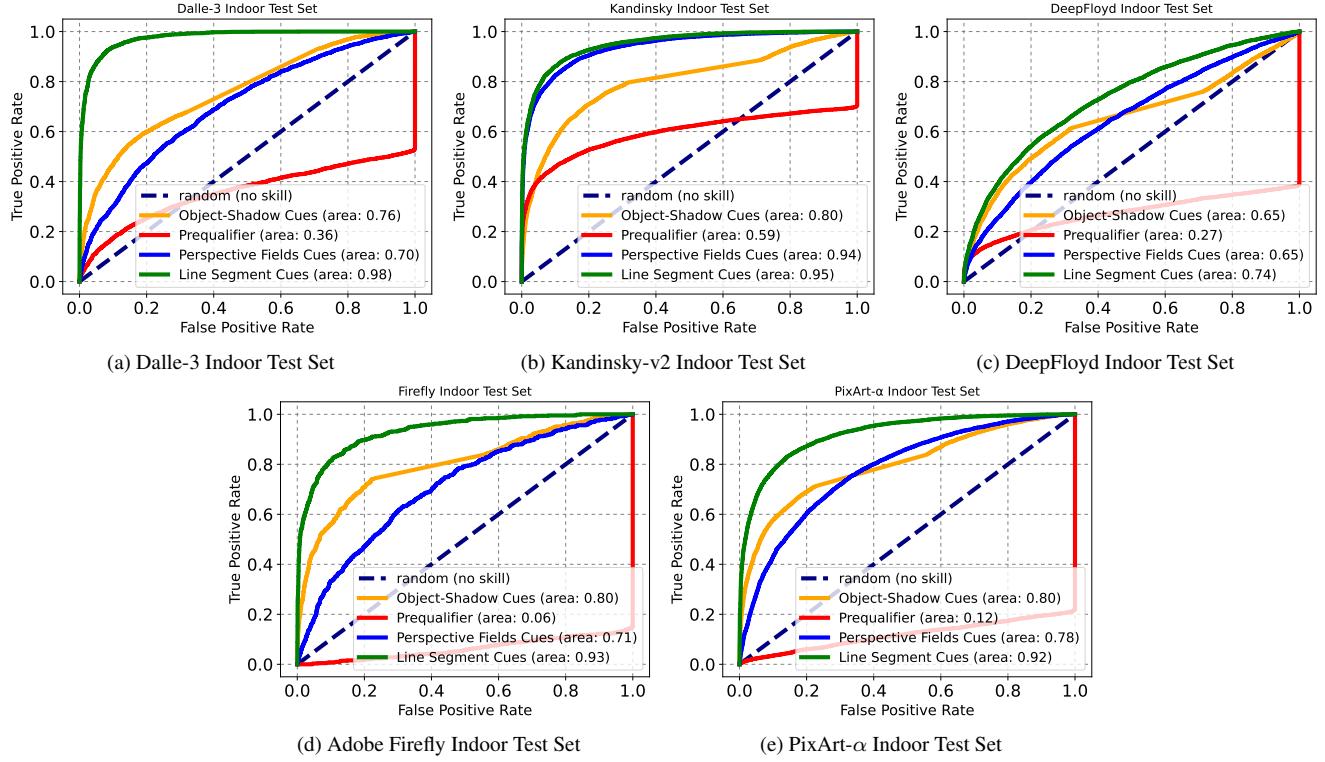


Figure 7. Evaluating the effectiveness of our classifiers in distinguishing projective geometry cues in indoor images generated by various models. We use our classifiers trained on the Stable Diffusion XL dataset and evaluate their performances on test sets generated by Dall-E 3 (a), Kandinsky-v2 (b), and DeepFloyd (c), using the same text prompts from the “unconfident” Stable Diffusion XL generated test set as described in Table 1. The Prequalifier’s AUC scores were notably lower across all test sets, registering AUCs of 0.36 for Dall-E 3, 0.59 for Kandinsky-v2, and 0.27 for DeepFloyd. In the Dall-E 3 Test Set, Line Segment Cues classifier showed the highest accuracy with an AUC of 0.98, while Object-Shadow Cues and Perspective Fields Cues also showed decent accuracy with AUCs of 0.76 and 0.70, respectively. In the Kandinsky-v2 Test Set, Line Segment Cues and Perspective Fields Cues demonstrated robust detection with AUCs of 0.95 and 0.94, while Object-Shadow cues were detected with an AUC of 0.80. The DeepFloyd Test Set seems to have smaller geometric distortion, with Line Segment Cues, Object-Shadow Cues, and Perspective Fields Cues achieving AUCs of 0.74, 0.65, and 0.65, respectively, outperforming the Prequalifier (AUC of 0.27). In the Adobe Firefly test set, the Line Segment Cues classifier demonstrates the highest discrimination ability with an AUC of 0.93, closely followed by Object-Shadow Cues with an AUC of 0.80, while the Prequalifier lags behind with an AUC of 0.06. Similarly, in the PixArt- α Indoor Test Set, Line Segment Cues lead with an AUC of 0.92, indicating robust performance across different generative models. Based on these findings, we can conclude that current generative models exhibit a fundamental gap in replicating projective geometry, and our derived geometry cues can reliably distinguish between real and synthetically generated images.

6. Evaluation

6.1. Dataset

Our evaluation consists of a diverse set of images, including:

Indoor Scenes: A collection of interior images featuring a variety of furniture arrangements and lighting conditions. These were sourced from LSUN (specifically Bedroom, Dining Room, Kitchen, and Living Room) [45].

Outdoor Scenes: A dataset of outdoor environments with varying landscapes and urban settings. These were sourced from Berkeley Deep Drive 100K [46] and Mapillary Vistas[29].

6.2. Classifiers Results

Figure 3 shows ROC curves for each method on indoor, outdoor and combined (indoor+outdoor) scenes. In each case, classifiers are trained on images that are *not* prequalified and tested on prequalified scenes, meaning that performance estimates are biased *low* — likely training on prequalified data would lead to even more accurate classification. Each classifier is effective, with AUCs ranging from 0.72 to 0.97. Recall these classifiers see *only* derived geometric features and do not see the image itself.

Qualitative examples using Grad-CAM [39] appear in Figures 4 and 5. Notice how images that might be acceptable to a line analysis often fail a shadow analysis. Figure 6 shows examples to emphasize this point.

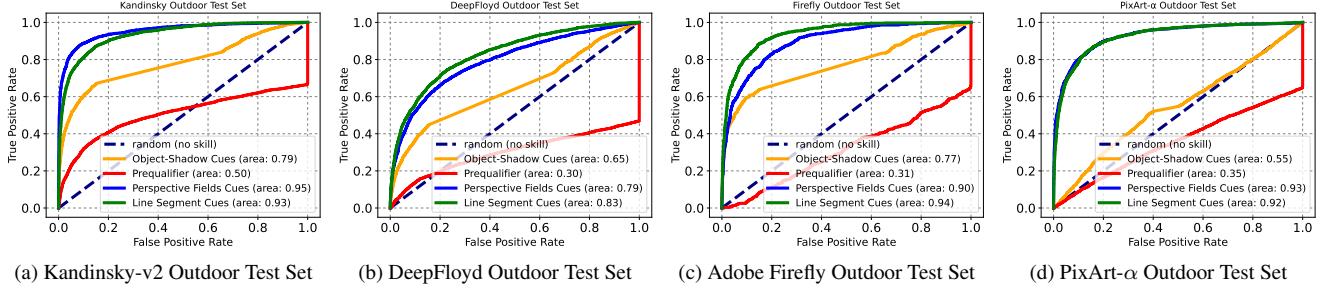


Figure 8. ROC Curves for Outdoor Generated Scenes: The performance of our classifiers on outdoor test sets from Kandinsky-v2 (a), DeepFloyd (b), Adobe Firefly (c), and PixArt- α (d). Across the datasets, our derived geometry cues consistently outperform the Prequalifier, showcasing their robustness in distinguishing generated images with high accuracy ($AUC > 0.90$). Based on these findings, we can conclude that current generative models exhibit a fundamental gap in replicating projective geometry, and our derived geometry cues can reliably distinguish between real and synthetically generated images.

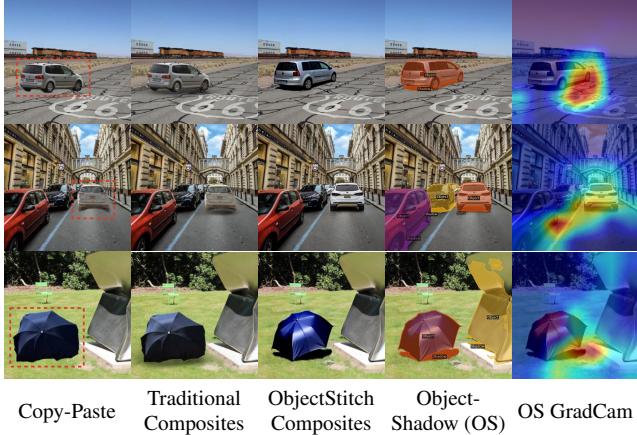


Figure 9. Detecting Composite Errors with Object-Shadow (OS) Cues. We show images directly taken from Figure 1 (teaser) of [40]. Our OS cues effectively identify composite images, such as those created by the recent SOTA insertion method [40], by pinpointing inaccuracies in shadow orientation. The bottom row provides a clear example where, despite the sun being positioned behind the camera, the shadows are mistakenly cast to the right. Also see the shadow of the adjacent object (marked in yellow), which is pointing upward in the opposite direction. Similarly, in the top row, shadows are cast in an implausible direction. The OS GradCam visualizations on the right successfully highlight these misdirected shadows.

7. Other Generators Evaluated

Our investigation primarily leverages the widely utilized and open-sourced Stable Diffusion XL (SDXL) model [31] as the training data for our classifiers. Our classifiers do not see pixels, but derived geometric features. This means that one could expect a form of generalization across generators. We illustrate that this generalization occurs - ROC curves in Figure 7 demonstrate that classifiers trained to distinguish Stable Diffusion XL images from real images can also re-

liably distinguish Kandinsky-v2 [3], DeepFloyd [11] and PixArt- α [8] from the open-source domain. Additionally, we assess the efficacy of our models against images from proprietary generators such as OpenAI’s Dalle-3[4] and Adobe’s Firefly [1], representing some of the most advanced tools in image generation. Finally, we show we can detect composite made by a recent SOTA method [28] by looking at Object-Shadow cues in Figure 9.

8. Discussion

We have shown that generated images can be reliably distinguished from real images by looking only at derived geometric cues. This is likely because image generators do not fully implement the geometry one observes in real images. Producing accurate perspective geometry or accurate shadow geometry requires very tight coordination of detailed information over very long spatial scales. Our results, together with the notorious tendency of face image generators to award subjects’ left and right earlobes of different shapes, suggest that doing so is beyond the capacity of current generators. We speculate that fixing this difficulty requires structural innovation in the generator, rather than simply exposing the generator to more data.

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Shadows Don't Lie and Lines Can't Bend!
Generative Models don't know Projective Geometry...for now

Supplementary Material

9. Additional Analysis

In Table 2, we provide quantitative analysis that our Line Segment cues and Perspective Field cues are correlated and look at similar geometric cues while Object-Shadow cues look for different geometric cues to identify if an image is generated or real.

We also provide statistical distributions of geometry cues leveraged for detecting projective geometry distortion. These include Object-Shadow pairs, Perspective Fields, and line segment distributions obtained from DeepLSD. The distributions are in Figures 13, 14, 15, 16, and 17.

An ROC plot in Figure 18 shows that while using statistical biases helps detect generated images over chance, ResNet classifiers trained directly on these cues still outperform them.

Table 2. We quantify the distribution of detection agreement among three types of cues: Line Segment (LS), Perspective Fields (PF), and Object-Shadow (OS), for the images processed by Stable Diffusion-XL. The output indicates whether each method can accurately identify generated images as either real or generated. The “Yes” indicates that the method has correctly detected generated images, whereas “No” indicates that the method has identified generated images as real. We have also provided the absolute and percentage values of images for both indoor and outdoor domains’ unconfident test set in the last two columns. The table reveals a statistically significant correlation between Line Segment and Perspective field cues ($p\text{-value} \approx 2e^{-16}$), suggesting they are not independent in their detection of generated images. Conversely, Object-Shadow Cues demonstrate a different pattern of detection, with the probability of identifying an image as generated being lower than that of Line Segment Cues. This shows that they are complementary and look at distinct discrepancies in the images. A qualitative figure demonstrating a complementary capability is in Figure 6 of the main text.

| LS cues | PF cues | OS cues | Indoor | Outdoor |
|---------|---------|---------|----------------|---------------|
| Yes | Yes | Yes | 10520 (53.71%) | 2382 (45.38%) |
| Yes | Yes | No | 4844 (24.73%) | 1314 (25.03%) |
| Yes | No | Yes | 1033 (5.27%) | 287 (5.47%) |
| Yes | No | No | 725 (3.70%) | 260 (4.95%) |
| No | Yes | Yes | 872 (4.45%) | 322 (6.13%) |
| No | Yes | No | 874 (4.46%) | 423 (8.06%) |
| No | No | Yes | 285 (1.45%) | 102 (1.94%) |
| No | No | No | 435 (2.22%) | 159 (3.03%) |

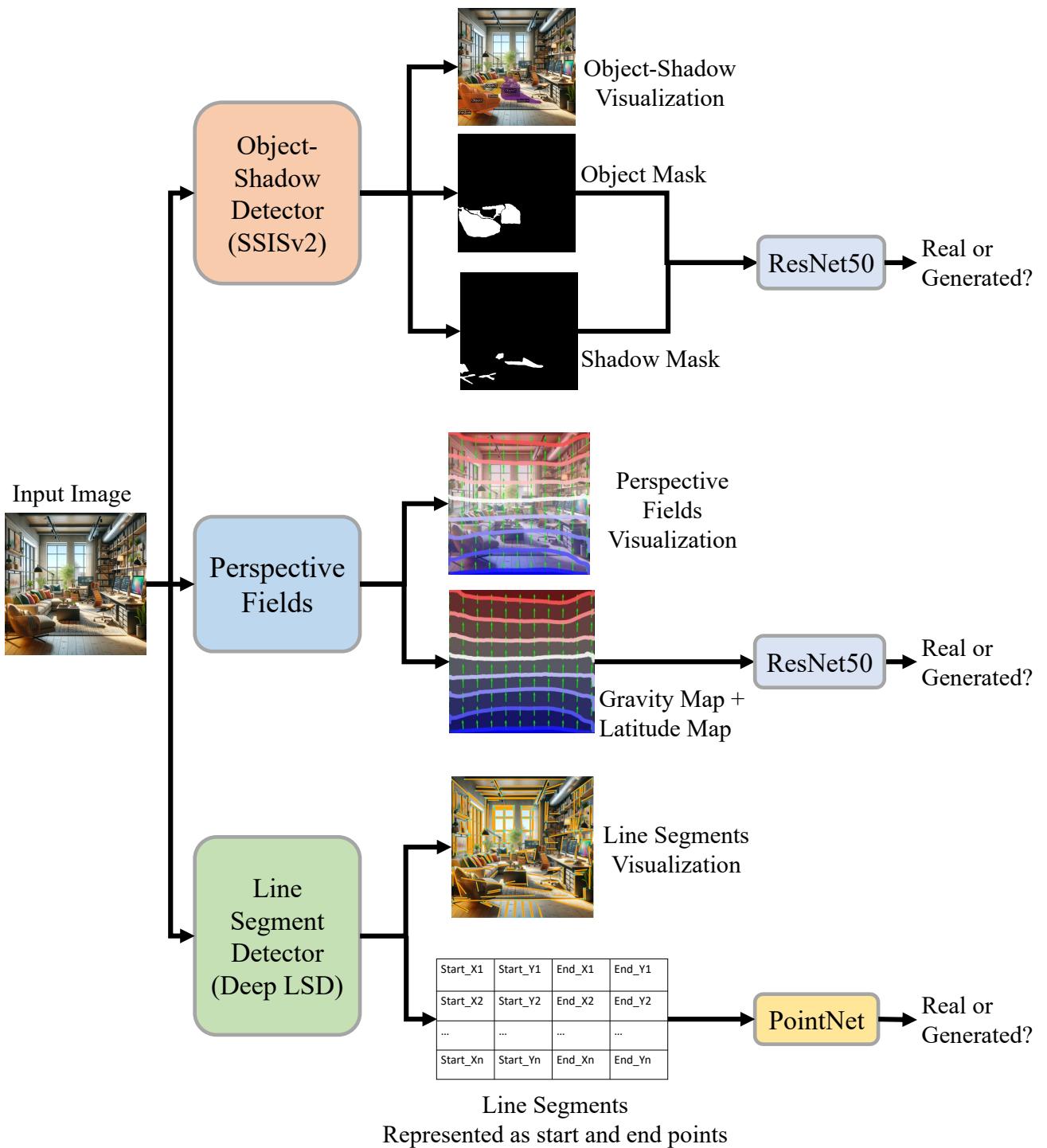
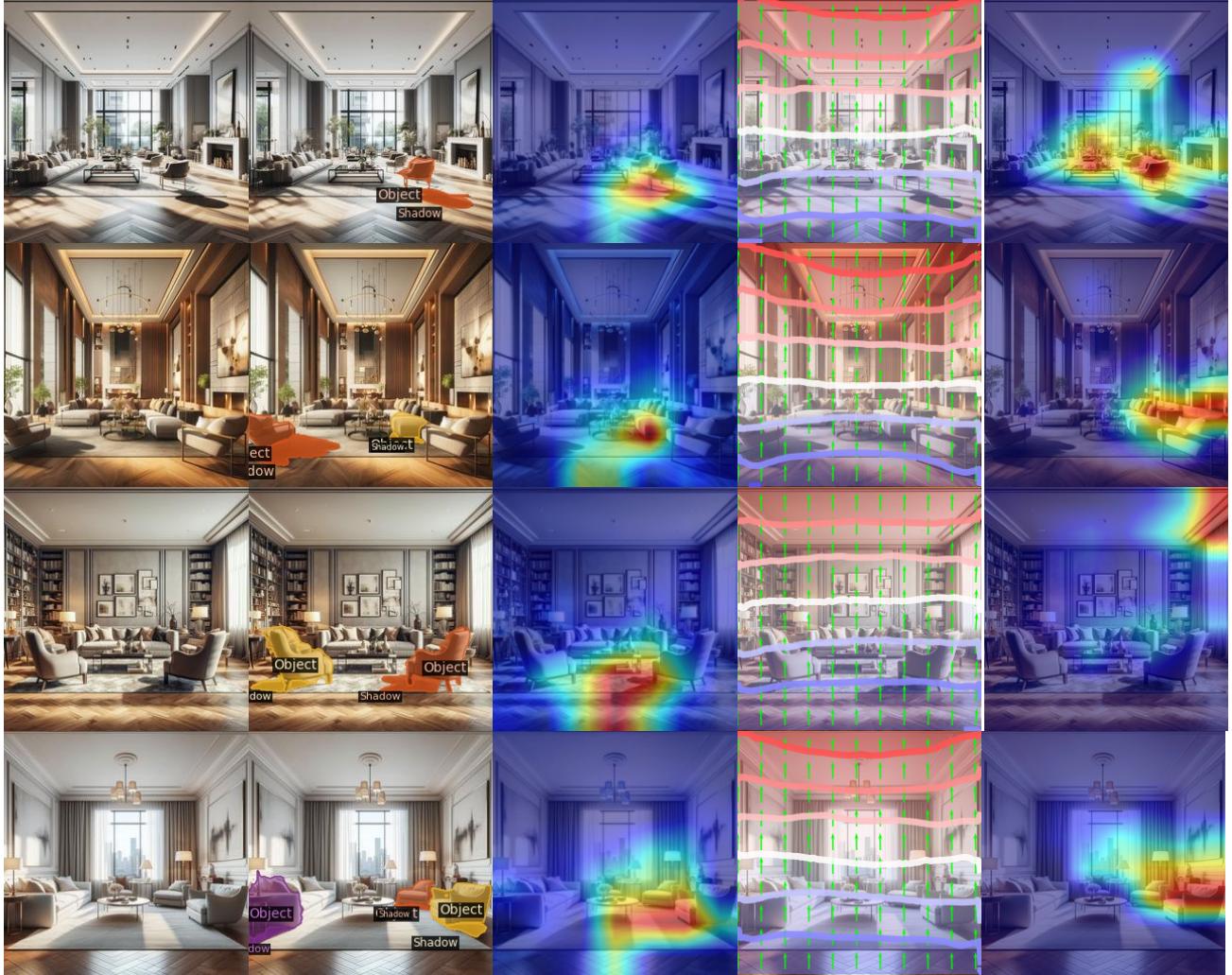
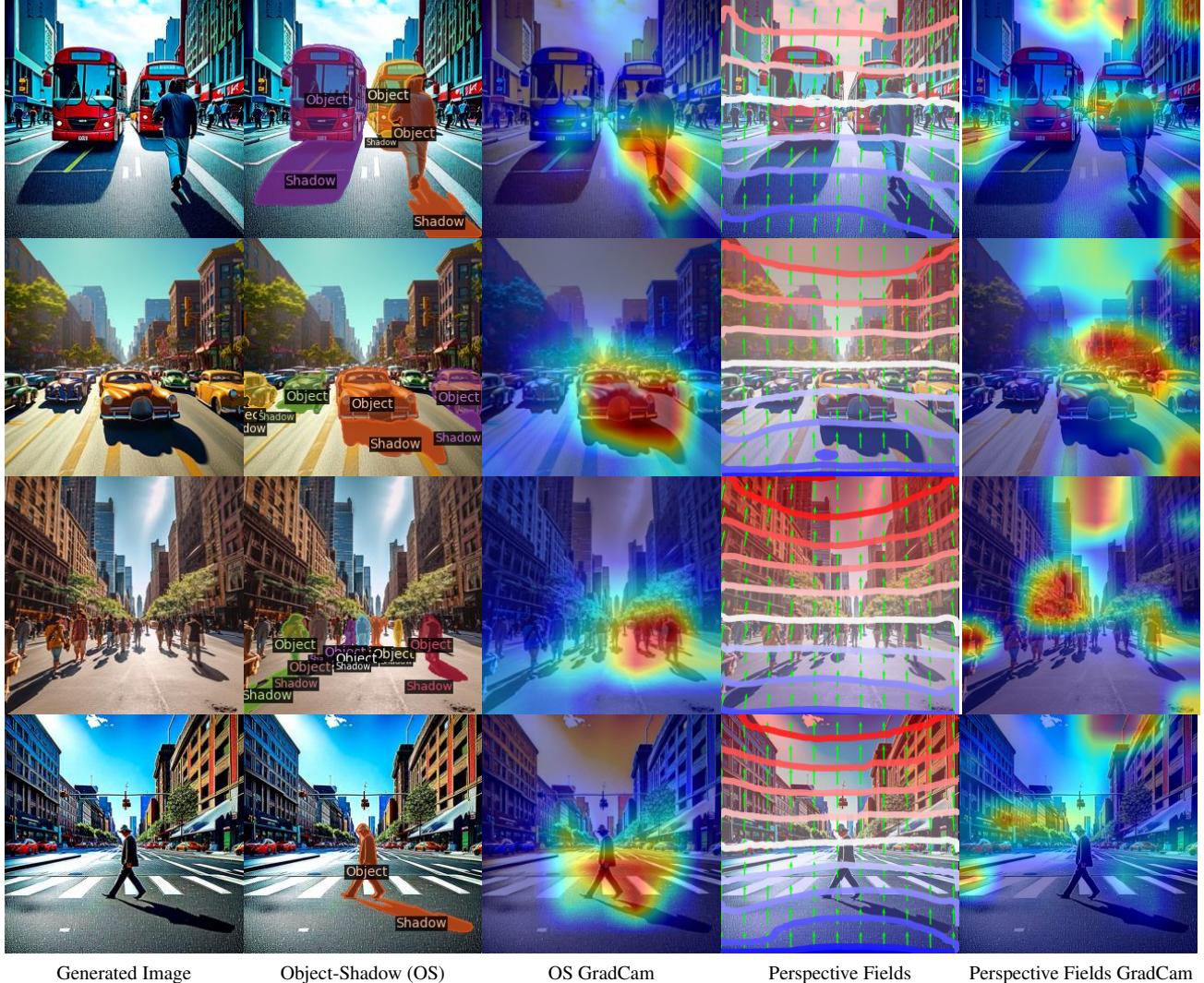


Figure 10. The schematic represents our pipeline, which begins by extracting geometric cues from images (left), such as object-shadow associations (top), perspective fields (middle), and line segments (bottom). These cues serve as the data describing geometry of images for training our classifiers. We utilize a ResNet architecture for Object-Shadow and Perspective Fields and PointNet for Line Segments in processing unordered data sets (Right).



Generated Image Object-Shadow (OS) OS GradCam Perspective Fields Perspective Fields GradCam

Figure 11. All interior scenes generated using Dalle-3. We analyze them using Object-Shadow (OS) cues and Perspective Fields (PF), along with their respective GradCam visualizations. The OS GradCam highlights areas where shadow directions or lengths don't appear to match the scene's lighting. For example, in the first and third rows, the shadows beneath the furniture don't seem to fit the objects casting them. The second row's OS GradCam shows an unnatural shadow on the sofa that's difficult to spot. Meanwhile, the PF analysis exposes inaccuracies in line alignment and vanishing points. In the top and third rows, the PF GradCam highlights inconsistencies along the room's ceiling lines and window frames that don't match the rest of the scene's perspective geometry. In the second and fourth rows, it detects inconsistencies on the side wall beneath the painting region.



Generated Image Object-Shadow (OS) OS GradCam Perspective Fields Perspective Fields GradCam

Figure 12. The generated street scenes in Adobe’s Firefly have inconsistencies in projective geometry. We show Object-Shadow (OS) and Perspective Fields (PF) analyses and have presented each generated image alongside the results. In the first row, the shadow of the bus on the left is in one direction, while the shadow of the bus on the right and the pedestrian point is in opposite directions. The second row shows the OS GradCam pinpointing a car’s shadow that is unrealistically elongated on one side. In the third and fourth rows, we observe pedestrians with shadows that are inconsistent with the lighting. The Perspective Fields analysis in rows two and three detects line inconsistencies deep in the scene and near vanishing points, while in the first and last rows, it captures discrepancies on the road markings and building facades.

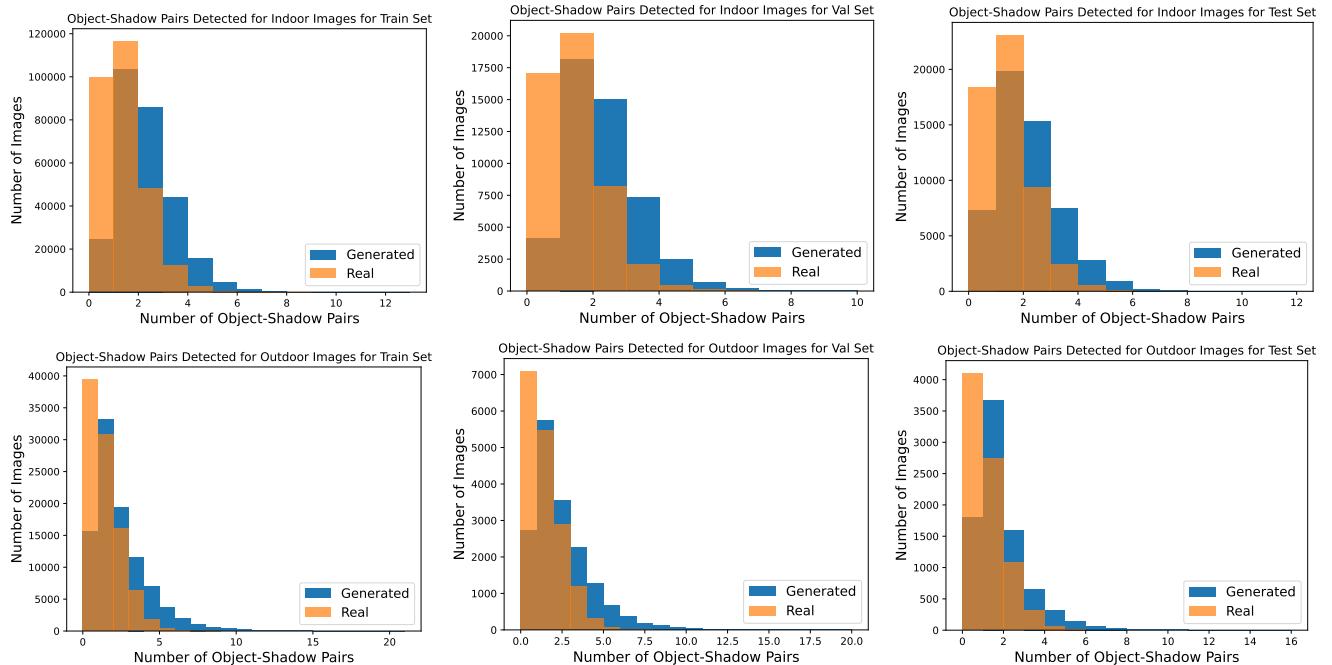


Figure 13. A statistical distribution analysis of a number of object-shadow pairs for both indoor and outdoor datasets. A classifier could exploit some of the statistical biases to distinguish between generated and real images. However, we found that our derived geometry cues perform much better than a classifier trained to look at such statistical signals, as shown in Figure 18. Furthermore, the GradCam analysis indicates that these derived object-shadow cues correctly identify erroneous regions.

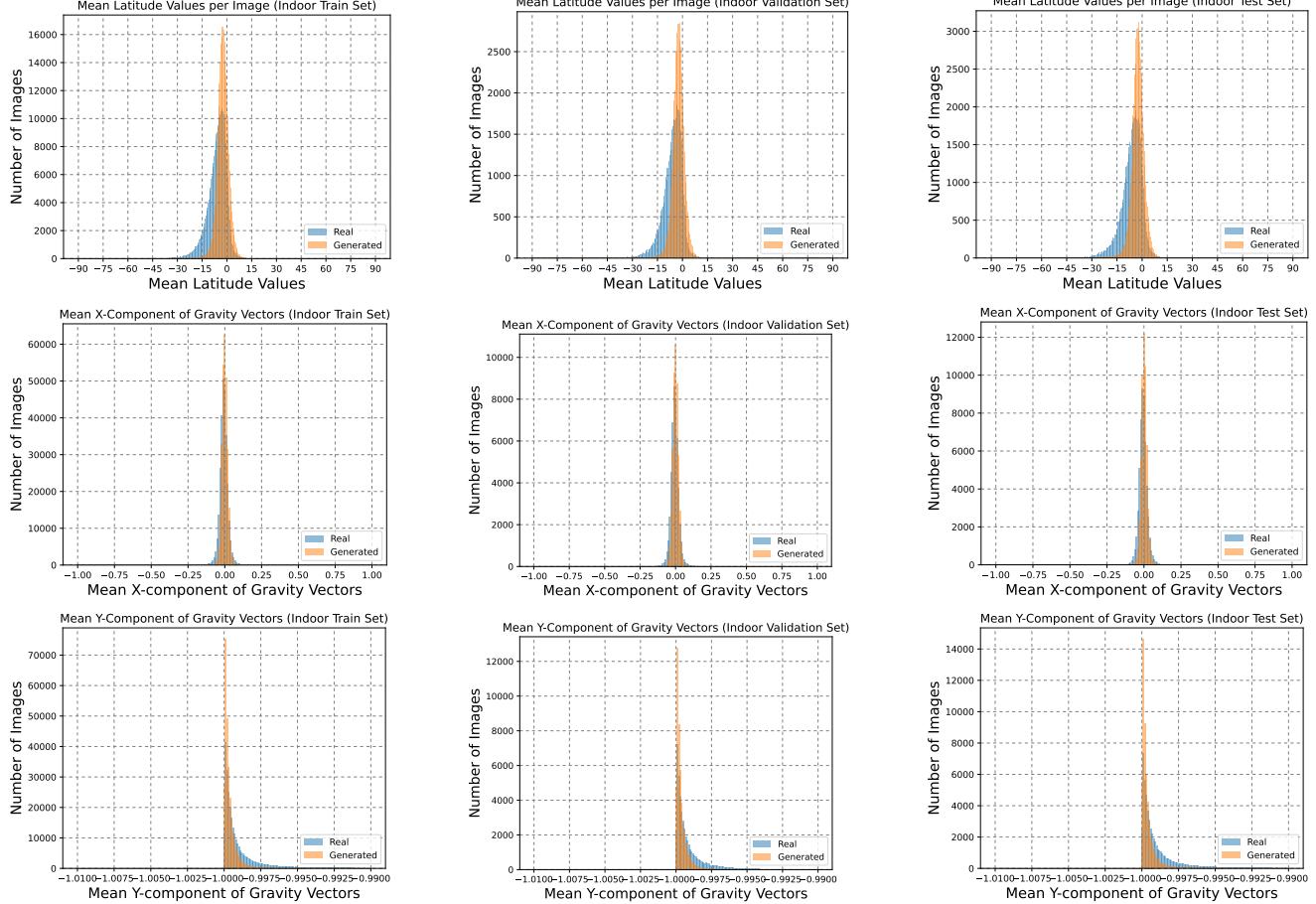


Figure 14. This set of histogram plots displays the statistical distribution of perspective field metrics in indoor scenes, comparing the training, validation, and test sets. The top row histograms reveal a significant difference in the distribution of latitude angles between real and generated images. The middle and bottom row plots illustrate the mean X and Y components of gravity vectors in the images, showing a clear separation between the real and generated images. These metrics indicate minor spatial inconsistencies between the real and generated images. Although these basic statistical differences provide some discriminative power, they are less effective than our ResNet classifier trained on Perspective Fields, which efficiently detects and focuses on critical geometric inconsistencies. This is validated by our comprehensive ROC analysis in Figure 18.

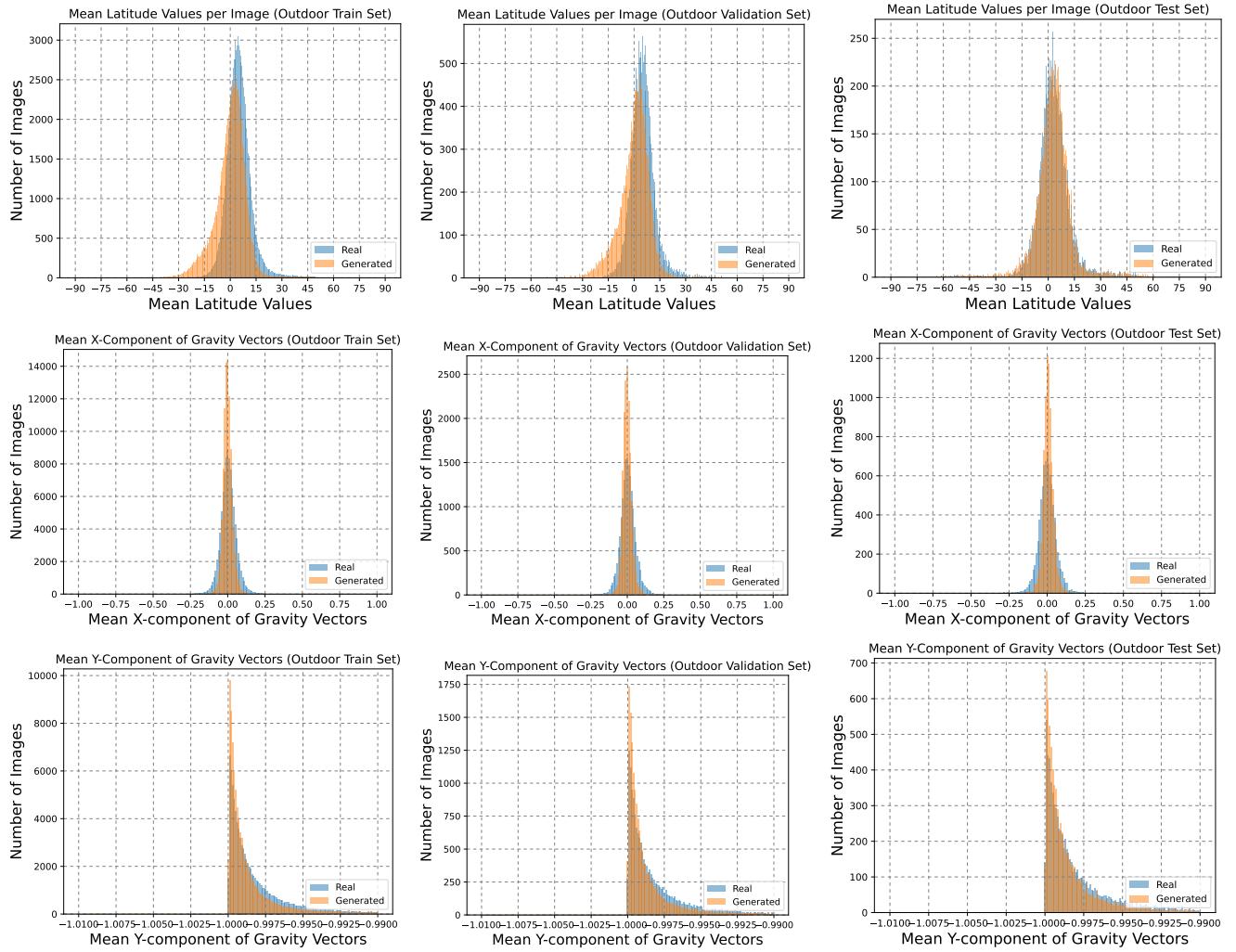


Figure 15. This set of histogram plots displays the statistical distribution of perspective field metrics in outdoor scenes, comparing the training, validation, and test sets. The top row histograms reveal a significant difference in the distribution of latitude angles between real and generated images. The middle and bottom row plots illustrate the mean X and Y components of gravity vectors in the images, showing a clear separation between the real and generated images. These metrics indicate minor spatial inconsistencies between the real and generated images. Although these basic statistical differences provide some discriminative power, they are less effective than our ResNet classifier trained on Perspective Fields, which efficiently detects and focuses on critical geometric inconsistencies. This is validated by our comprehensive ROC analysis in Figure 18.

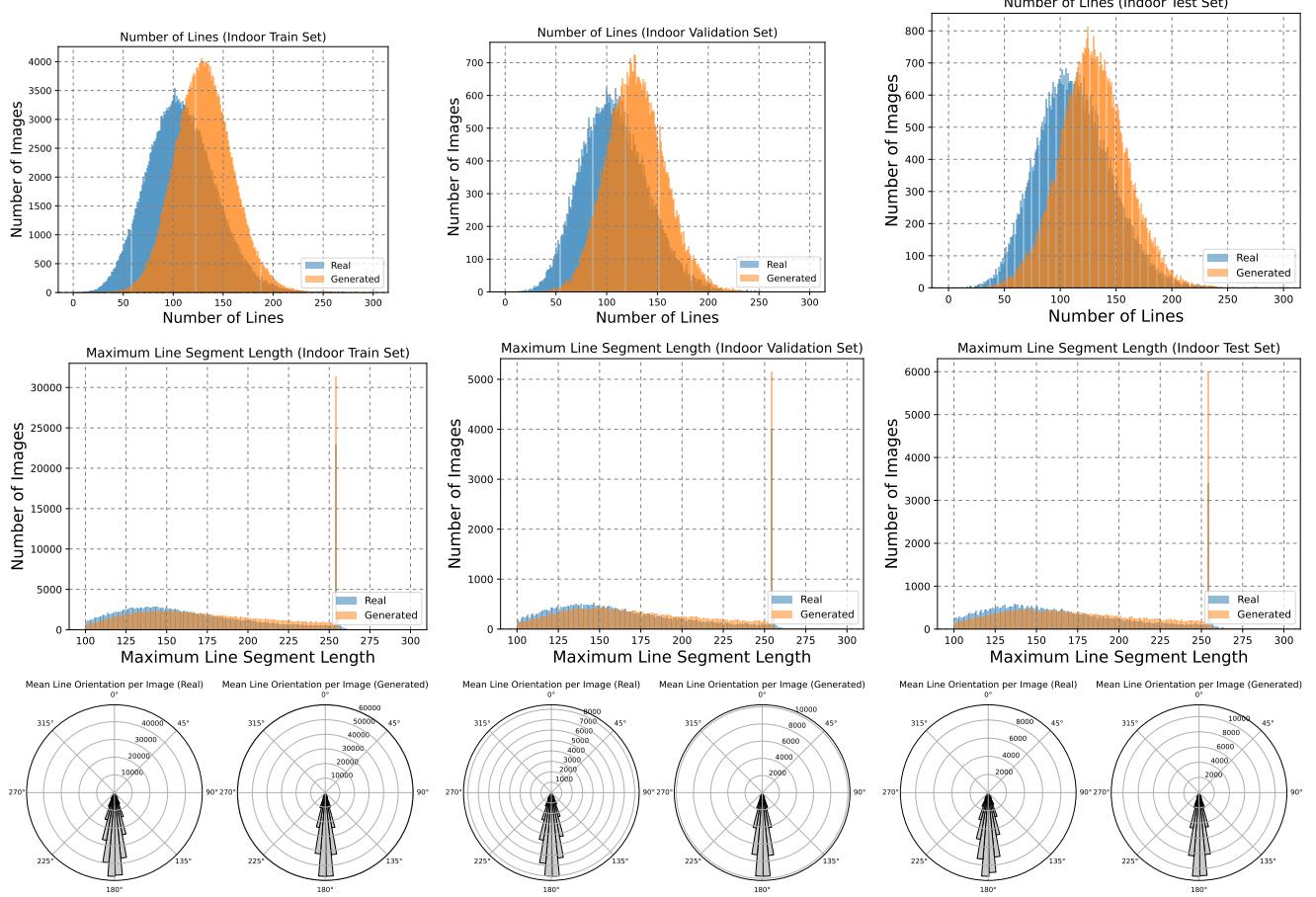


Figure 16. Line Segment Distribution in Indoor Scenes: We show the distribution of line segment counts and lengths in indoor scenes across training, validation, and test sets. The histograms (top row) compare the number of line segments detected in real versus generated images, with generated images generally exhibiting a different distribution, suggesting a discrepancy in line segment occurrence. The line segment length plots (middle row) show the maximum length of line segments. The polar plots (bottom row) illustrate the mean line orientation per image. While these basic statistical differences provide some discriminative power, they are notably less effective than our PointNet classifiers, which demonstrate a profound ability to detect and focus on critical geometric inconsistencies, as validated by our comprehensive ROC analysis in Figure 18.

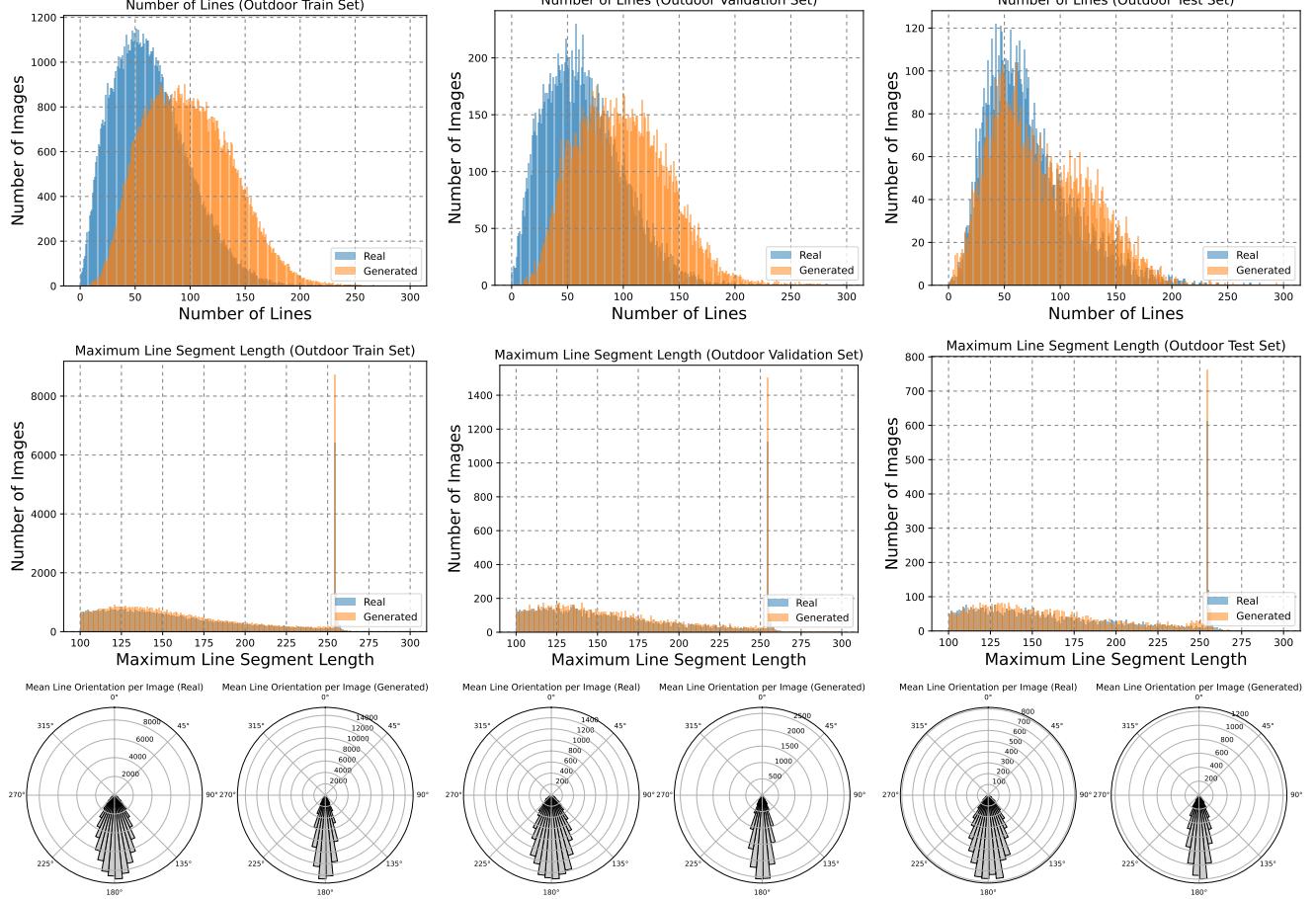


Figure 17. Line Segment Distribution in Outdoor Scenes: We show the distribution of line segment counts and lengths in outdoor scenes across training, validation, and test sets. The histograms (top row) compare the number of line segments detected in real versus generated images, with generated images generally exhibiting a different distribution, suggesting a discrepancy in line segment occurrence. The line segment length plots (middle row) show the maximum length of line segments. The polar plots (bottom row) illustrate the mean line orientation per image. While these basic statistical differences provide some discriminative power, they are notably less effective than our PointNet classifiers, which demonstrate a profound ability to detect and focus on critical geometric inconsistencies, as validated by our comprehensive ROC analysis in Figure 18.

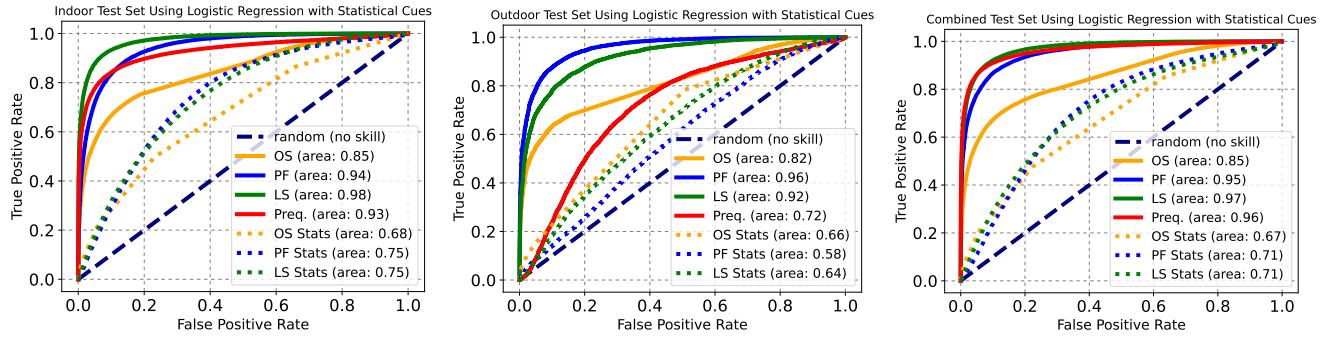


Figure 18. ROC analysis comparing our classifiers against basic statistical cues on our full test set. We compare the performance of our sophisticated classifiers – Object-Shadow (OS), Perspective Fields (PF) ResNet, and Line Segments (LS) PointNet classifiers – with basic statistical measures applied via logistic regression (LR) on indoor, outdoor, and combined test sets shown in dotted lines. While basic statistical cues like the count and mean lengths of line segments, the number of object shadows, and gravity changes per pixel indicate better-than-chance performance (AUCs ranging from 0.58 to 0.75), they are eclipsed by the more robust classifiers we developed and also the ResNet prequalifier. Our classifiers excel in identifying generated images with incorrect projective geometry by focusing on incorrect regions, not just statistical cues, as demonstrated by GradCAM visualizations.