Deepfake Audio Synthesis and Detection: A Review of Recent Advances and Open Challenges

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***Abstract*—There has been tremendous growth in the application of Deep Learning algorithms in recent years, and this has brought about significant advancements in voice synthesis, allowing the possibility of lifelike 'deepfake audio' to be generated with models such as Transformers, GANs, and hybrids. These developments have enriched applications in terms of customization and ease of use but simultaneously bring about high risks associated with cybersecurity, social engineering, and misinformation with respect to 'deepfake audio' because of its possibility due to such advancements. This article review has considered 50 recent studies on 'deepfake voice' creation and detection to discuss its full application in this paper, developed in two stages. Stage 1 introduces synthesis techniques such as 'prosody with attention,' 'diffusion models for diversity,' and 'GAN-based voice synthesis' to describe recent advancements in 'multilingual, zero-shot, and expressive capabilities.Phase 2 is focused on detection techniques that address spectral, temporal, and multimodal artifacts in addition to traditional methods for robustness in low-resource environments. These techniques include Transformer encoders, CNN hybrids, and self-supervised frameworks. Despite significant advancements, challenges with adversarial attacks, multilingual deepfakes, real-world noise, and generalization to unknown models still exist. In order to protect voice-based technologies in an AI-driven era, the review identifies future directions, that are centered around multimodal integration, continuous learning, and interpretable forensics.**

***Index Terms*—Deepfake audio, voice cloning, zero-shot TTS, voice conversion, audio forensics, anti-forensic detection, self-supervised learning, neural codec models**

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the biggest risks to digital authenticity in the present informational ecosystem is the quick spread of deepfake audio technology. Malicious actors can now synthesize or manipulate human voices with unmatched realism by utilizing sophisticated deep learning algorithms. This makes way for a variety of fraudulent applications, such as financial fraud, cyber extortion, political disinformation, and celebrity impersonation. Forged audio clips, for example, have been used to mimic world leaders in fake speeches, impact public confidence during elections, or trick people into sending money under false pretenses.Large datasets and generative models have come together to produce this development, which allows systems to imitate the accents and emotional variations besides timbre and intonation with minimal input data.The universal nature of social media platforms and communication tools raises ethical, legal, and social issues about the decreasing verifiable truth in spoken content due to the increased potential for widespread misuse. Initial alerts about such threats in significant works on voice modification emphasized the need for robust countermeasures to preserve the integrity of audio as evidence [1], [2].

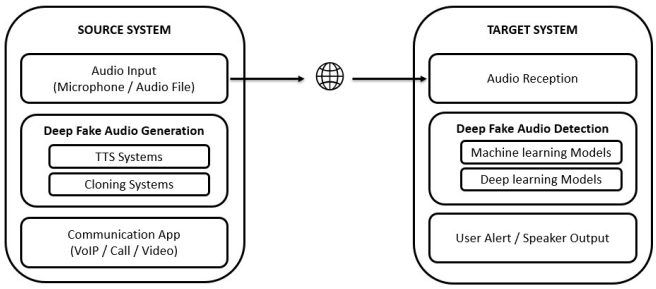


Fig. 1. Process of synthetic based deepfake [3]

Synthesis techniques have progressed from basic recurrent networks like Tacotron [4] to sophisticated GAN-based vocoders like HiFiGAN [5] and diffusion models that produce almost identical results.These advancements enable zero-shot or few-shot voice cloning, as demonstrated by large-scale systems such as VALL-E [6], which can generate speech in unseen voices using brief samples. Methods for detecting subtle artefacts have shifted to multimodal and self-supervised frameworks, such as Whisper-based encoders for cross-lingual robustness [7] and hybrid ensembles that combine CNNs with attention mechanisms for better generalization [8]. However, real-world deployment reveals persistent vulnerabilities, such as vulnerability to adversarial perturbations [9] and performance losses under compression or noise [10].This discrepancy highlights the limitations of current datasets, particularly for low-resource scenarios [11], which often lack diversity in environmental conditions, languages, and accents.

This review paper fills in these gaps by providing an extensive classification of deepfake voice synthesis models, detection methods, and classical machine learning alternatives. It does this by integrating information from over 50 recent studies to present an all-encompassing picture of the field. Our work highlights audio-specific challenges, such as multilingual manipulation and forensic interpretability, while suggesting future directions for robust, real-time systems, in contrast to previous reviews that narrowly focus on visual deepfakes or general AI ethics [12]. We hope to help researchers, policymakers, and practitioners create more potent defenses by classifying the literature into synthesis phases, detection paradigms, and emerging trends.The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: Section 2 details voice synthesis

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models,explores deep and classical machine learning-based detection and related surveys, Section 3 discusses challenges and future directions, and Section 4 concludes with key takeaways.

2. RELATED WORK

Phase 1, which focuses on deepfake voice synthesis, and Phase 2, which focuses on deepfake voice detection, are the two main phases of this section's literature review. Based on the reviewed papers, each phase is arranged into the appropriate model categories and subcategories.

2.1 DEEPFAKE VOICE SYNTHESIS

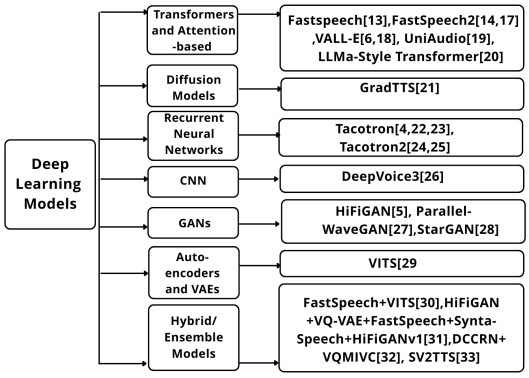


Fig. 2. Phase:1 Deepfake Voice Synthesis

2.1.1 Deep Learning Models

1) Transformers and Attention-Based:

Modern text-to-speech (TTS) and voice cloning systems have made significant strides ,thanks to transformer-based architectures. Many expressive TTS systems rely on FastSpeech and FastSpeech 2, which provide duration, pitch, and energy predictors for extremely controllable prosody [13]. Personalized lightweight TTS models use structured pruning to increase efficiency without sacrificing voice quality [14].Further research improved the controllability of accented TTS [15], multi-speaker expressive synthesis [16],and multimodal adversarial training for zero-shot voice cloning [17]. Neural codec language models like VALL-E and VALL-E 2 use discrete codec tokens rather than mel-spectrograms for high-fidelity zero-shot synthesis [18]; multilingual voice transformation is made possible by cross-lingual neural codec modeling [6]. Large-scale models like VoiceTuner emphasize self-supervised pretraining for efficient fine-tuning [19], whereas SyncSpeech presents low-latency TTS aligned with LLM-style architectures using dual-stream temporal Transformer masking [20]. When taken as a whole, these models demonstrate how attention-driven architectures dominate the production of expressive, multilingual, and controllable synthetic speech.

2) Diffusion Models:

Probabilistic speech generation through sequential refinement of noisy latent representations has been investigated in diffusion-based TTS research. GradTTS uses this reverse-diffusion mechanism to produce high-quality speech from untranscribed data, which makes it very useful for adaptation with limited resources [21]. Diffusion's stochastic properties allow for robust voice reconstruction across a variety of speaking patterns and more natural prosody modeling.

3) Recurrent Neural Networks:

Because of its strong performance in expressive speech modeling and its simple encoder-decoder structure, Tacotron and its variations continue to be influential. Tacotron systems that are multilingual have proven to be flexible in environments with limited resources [22], whereas advanced speaker embeddings in zero-shot multi-speaker TTS highlights the importance of embedding-based speaker identity control [23]. Prosodic clustering techniques improve phoneme-level expressiveness [4], and Tacotron 2 innovations in few-shot cloning and meta-learning frameworks (META-VOICE) further facilitate quick style transfer and speaker adaptation [24], [25].

4) CNN-Based Models:

CNN-based TTS frameworks such as DeepVoice3 utilize convolutional mechanisms to process data in parallel, allowing for large multi-speaker capacity and real-time synthesis [26]. Despite their constraints in simulating long-term dependencies, these models effectively help in robust and scalable voice generation.

5) GAN-Based Models:

Adversarial audio synthesis is still important for amplifying realism and reducing noise artifacts. Systems based on HiFi-GAN introduce noise-robust voice conversion capabilities [5] , while ParallelWaveGAN supports unsupervised cross-domain singing voice conversion [27]. StarGAN-based architectures demonstrate the adaptability of GANs in cross-speaker scenarios by enabling speaker-agnostic one-shot voice conversion through domain translation [28].

6) Autoencoders and Variational Models:

Autoencoder-driven TTS systems such as VITS provide end-to-end probabilistic modeling combining flows and variational inference [29]. Recent work introduced dual-style feature modulation to support zero-shot style adaptation, enabling highly expressive speaker similarity even with limited samples.

7) Hybrid Models:

Hybrid deepfake synthesis integrates the strengths of multiple architectures. Systems combining FastSpeech and VITS enable spontaneous TTS style modeling [30]; others fuse HiFiGAN, VQ-VAE, and FastSpeech to create noise-robust voice conversion [31]. Real-time cloning frameworks have adopted multiple modules such as DCCRN and VQMIVC for enhanced perceptual quality [32]. Large-scale pipelines such as Mega-TTS demonstrate scalable zero-shot TTS via intrinsic inductive biases [33].

These trends are contextualized by a survey on voice cloning systems, which also highlights important constraints such as prosody control, emotional variability, and multilingual performance gaps [34].

2.2 DEEPFAKE VOICE DETECTION

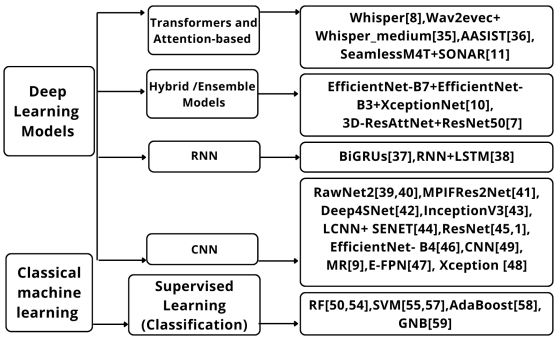


Fig. 3. Phase:2 Deepfake Voice Detection

2.2.1 Deep Learning Models

1)Transformers and Attention-based Models:

Transformer-based detectors use trustworthy, pre-trained encoders to identify small manipulation cues. Singing voice deepfake detection has been successfully accomplished by Whisper-based encodings [7], while Wav2Vec in conjunction with Whisper-medium enhances generalization across various datasets [35]. The significance of voiced versus unvoiced segmentation in identifying synthesis artifacts is highlighted by AASIST-based models [36]. SeamlessM4T and SONAR multimodal frameworks address manipulation in low-resource languages by extending the detection into multilingual and hate-speech scenarios [11].

2)Hybrid/Ensemble Models:

Several works incorporate CNNs, attention modules, and residual structures to perform spectral analysis. EfficientNet, XceptionNet hybrids provide robustness against adversarial perturbations [9], while attention-based 3D-ResAttNet and ResNet50 support audio–visual deepfake analysis. A paper Proposes an ensemble multimodal deepfake detection method to identify auditory and facial manipulations by exploiting correspondence between audio-visual modalities; utilizes unimodal (audio and video) and cross-modal learning networks with an attention-based deep convolutional neural network [8].

3) Recurrent Neural Networks:

BiGRU-based systems utilize cross-modal attention for fine-grained temporal inconsistencies. It Propose a novel multimodal attention framework for robust audio-visual deepfake detection and localization, leveraging contextual information and addressing modality gaps by Introducing Multi-Modal Multi-Sequence Bi-Modal Attention (MMMS-BA), an RNN-based framework [37]. RNN+LSTM architectures tailored for Urdu speech present the importance of linguistic diversity in detection [38].

4) CNN-Based Fake Audio Detection:

Many models remain variants of CNNs due to their strong representation of spectro-temporal artifacts. The use of raw features through HuBERT embeddings strengthens robustness against codec distortions in RawNet2 detectors [39], [40].MPIF-Res2Net models emphasize frequency-mix distillation [41], Deep4SNet emphasizes adversarial resistance [42], and InceptionV3 pursues defensive strategies [43]. Permutation entropy is introduced by LCNN+SENET models to regularize the feature space [44]. Other ResNet-based hybrids include works leveraging spectral enhancement and adversarial training, strengthening the importance of spectral analysis [45], [46]. Noise-reliant detectors such as MR and focused architectures on the presence of compression artifacts such as E-FPN further improve robustness against compression and quality variations [10], [47]. Few-shot contrastive approaches leveraging Xception alleviate issues caused by limited datasets [48]. Artifact simulation-based methods further improve diversity in training data [1]. CNN and Ensemble model has been used with random forest for auditory analysis, GAN-based discriminator, audio-visual spectral analysis [49] .

2.2.2 Classical Machine Learning Models

Deepfake audio detection still heavily relies on traditional machine learning techniques, especially in settings with limited resources or when interpretability is more important than raw performance. These techniques usually use conventional classifiers in conjunction with manually created acoustic features, most frequently Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCCs).

1) Random Forest-based Approaches:

Random Forest classifiers have been used in conjunction with transfer learning–based feature extraction to detect fake audio scenes, especially in constrained or low-data settings [50]. By extracting MFCC features from audio samples and feeding them into a Random Forest model, there has been proposed a system that achieves reliable detection by learning spectral patterns that differentiate real speech from artificial manipulations [51]. Bohara and Bairwa investigated spectrogram-based representations converted into machine learning-ready features, using Random Forest among ensemble techniques to identify deepfake audio and emphasizing its efficiency in capturing time-frequency disparities [52]. A multi-algorithmic approach demonstrated better generalization across various deepfake generation techniques by integrating Random Forest into a larger ensemble that also takes multimodal cues (audio and video) into account [53]. In order to preserve audio integrity through binary classification, Random Forest has been used on extracted features to precisely unmask artificially generated voices in controlled environments [54].

2) Support Vector Machine-based Approaches:

An SVM classifier trained on MFCC features taken from the FoR dataset was presented, that has highlighted SVM's superiority for separating complex spectral patterns in deepfake audio and reporting accuracy up to 97.28% [55]. SVM outperformed other ML models (including Gradient Boosting) on short audio segments when paired with MFCC features, according to extensive experiments on ASVspoof and FoR datasets [56]. "AudioVeritas," is a lightweight SVM-based model that incorporated multiple acoustic features (MFCCs,

chroma, spectral properties), has achieved strong classification performance suitable for practical deployment [57].

3) AdaBoost-Based Approach:

There has been introduced a new biologically inspired feature called speech pause patterns. It has been achieved by training a *AdaBoost* ensemble by looking at pause duration, frequency, and distribution—features affected by human respiration and cognition—and demonstrated promising discrimination between real and artificial voices, especially from platforms like Descript and ElevenLabs [58].

4)Gaussian Naive Bayes-Based Approach:

There has been employed *Gaussian Naive Bayes* on acoustic features to detect deepfake voices, employing probabilistic modeling for efficient classification in scenarios with limited computational resources [59].

Adversarial attacks, multimodal deepfake detection, and audio deepfake detection summarize systemic issues such as adversarial susceptibility, dataset bias, lack of generalization, and the quickly changing field of synthetic audio technologies [2], [60], [12].

3. CHALLENGES AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Despite the fact that the methods of synthesis and detection are not yet finished and continue to evolve quite swiftly, there are various fundamental challenges that remain. It has been shown that the challenge of generalization across the domain remains, where the detectors tend to generally do well on known datasets but experience strong drops when confronted with unfamiliar generative models or mismatch conditions. Other key challenges are robustness to adversarial samples; where even complex hybrid baselines, which consist of CNNs, attention mechanisms, and residual networks, can be affected severely even with small perturbations, and noise-trained methods such as MR and artifacts-aware architectures such as E-FPN highlight the challenges of quality variability and codec and real-world audio distortions introduced by noise, compression, or transmission pathways.

Another factor that has increased the complexity is the availability of multilingual and cross-linguistic deepfakes. In low-resource languages, deepfakes are more complex because of limited training data and intricate language patterns. In artifact simulation and few-shot contrastive approaches, the concern is that current deepfake algorithms are becoming better at eliminating observable artifacts, causing spectro-temporal features to become less useful. Biased datasets and an overall lack of diversity in resources also harm other more established areas, making Random Forest classification systems less effective in forensic analysis. In order to protect against an increase in synthetic audio threats and risks, benchmarking and noise-robust training, as well as an overall ethical framework, are going to be necessary.

4. CONCLUSION

From the early days of autoregressive models and GAN networks to extremely realistic evolving models like the state-of-the-art transformer networks today, these models still only scratch the surface. the fact that existing models are typically very strong at known synthesis techniques but weak on models that have not yet been seen. To close the upcoming gap, much more than small architectural advances will be required. In the upcoming years, it will be necessary to focus on generalizability across tasks and domains, robustness against adversaries with fraudulent goals, and the complexity constraints under practical deployment conditions. This will require a variety of sets of innovative benchmarks, noise-robust training strategies, and open source evaluation structures. It is also crucial to design traceable forensics solutions that can not only identify manipulation of any kind but also produce evidence-based traces that are pertinent to the related legal proceedings. In order to effectively lessen the downstream effects on society for the use of the emerging audio deepfakes, it is ultimately necessary for the emerging solutions to the problem at hand to be proactively governed through multifaceted initiatives from media education and collaborative research and development schemes involving the community at all levels with the help of related technology organizations and relevant policy makers.

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