Image Encryption Schemes: A Complete Survey

Yamini Jain¹, Ritesh Bansal², Gaurav Sharma³, Bhuvnesh Kumar⁴ and Shailender Gupta⁵

¹ YMCA University of Science and Technology, Faridabad ² YMCA University of Science and Technology, Faridabad ³ YMCA University of Science and Technology, Faridabad ⁴ YMCA University of Science and Technology, Faridabad ⁵ YMCA University of Science and Technology, Faridabad ¹ jain, yamin34@gmail.com, ² ritesh.bansal@hotmail.com, ³ sharma.grv69@gmail.com, ⁴ singh.bhuvneshkmr@gmail.com, ⁵ shailender81@gmail.com

Abstract

Advancement in digital technologies has resulted in increased data transfer over internet in recent years. As a result, security of images/data is one of the biggest concern of many researchers. Therefore several cryptographic schemes have been proposed for image/data encryption. An efficient cryptographic scheme is one that have high brute force search time, low execution time complexity and should be able to provide good security. In this paper, several ciphers (traditional as well as modern) for images are compared based on various parameters such as: Time complexity, Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR), Number of Pixels Change Rate (NPCR), Unified Average Changing Intensity (UACI) and Entropy. In addition, the paper also shows the shortcomings of traditional ciphers that were used for text and how modern ciphers overcome this limitations. The analysis of simulation result shows that chaotic encryption schemes are most efficient and better than others.

Keywords: Entropy, Key Sensitivity, Chaotic, Correlation.

1. Introduction

Increased use in communication of images and data over internet has also enhanced risk of information leakage. Therefore, need for secure data transmission has risen. Cryptography [1-2] is one mechanism that provides confidentiality of data and thus ensures data security. In this mechanism, the image/data to be sent is transformed into another form known as cipher text making it difficult for the intruder to read. The reverse process of transformation known as decryption is carried out at the receiver side to recover the plain text. The cryptography mechanisms can be broadly classified into two categories:

- **Symmetric key Cryptography**: The same key will be used for encryption and decryption of images/data.
- Asymmetric key Cryptography: In this mechanism, two types of keys are used: Public key (known to all) and Private Key (known to intended user). The sender encrypts the data using public key of the destination and the receiver decrypts it via its private key. This mechanism provides much better security in comparison to symmetric key cryptography but at the cost of high time complexity.

As aforementioned, symmetric key mechanism provides high speed for encryption, therefore are popularly used for image encryption. In the early stages of image encryption, traditional ciphers like DES [7-13], AES [6-14], 3-DES [9-19] and several others were used but were a failure due to the reasons mentioned below:

- Strong correlation among adjacent pixels therefore doesn't provide good security
- High computational time due to huge amount of data present in images.
- Low speed of execution.

Thus, researchers focused their attention on other techniques that could not only provide good randomness between plain and encrypted image but at the same time should have large key space thus ensures high brute force search time. Also, the processing time should be as low as possible. In this paper, all these things are taken into consideration for comparing various ciphers available in literature. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides the details of various techniques used for comparison. Section 3 deals with simulation setup parameters while section 4 describes performance metrics. Results are presented and compared in section 5. Section 6 provides the concluding remarks followed by references.

2. Techniques Used for Comparison

Various techniques implemented in this paper have been described in this section.

2.1. Data Encryption Standard (DES)

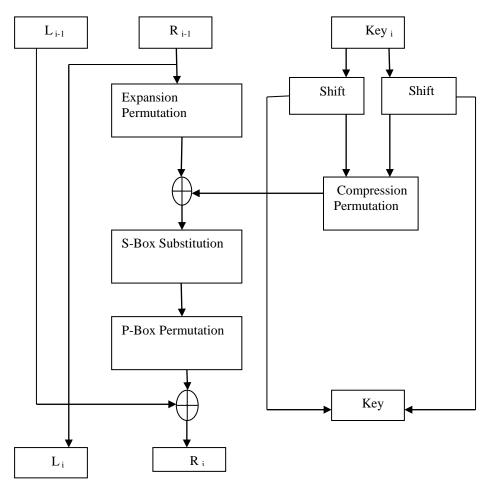


Figure 1. Single Round of DES

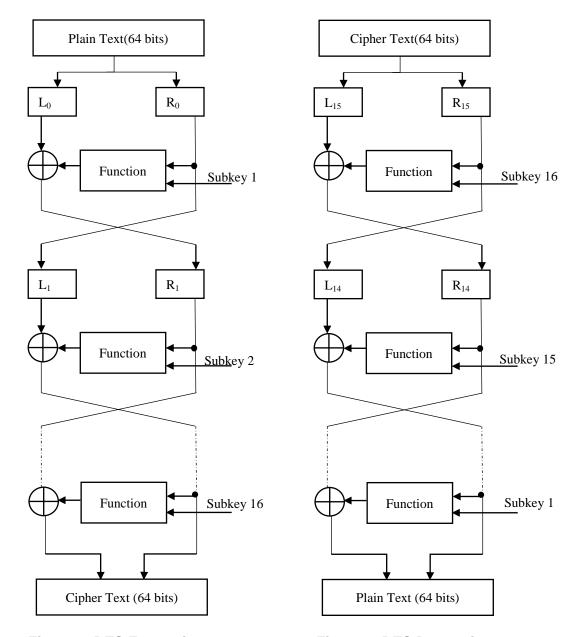


Figure 2. DES Encryption

Figure 3. DES Decryption

The Data Encryption Standard is a symmetric-key algorithm used for the encryption of electronic data. It was developed in the early 1970s at IBM and is based on an earlier design by Horst Feistel. DES is based on a cipher known as the Feistel block cipher. It consists of a number of rounds where each round contains bit-shuffling, non-linear substitutions (S-boxes) and exclusive OR operations. DES is therefore a symmetric, 64 bit block cipher as it uses the same key for both encryption and decryption and operates on 64 bit blocks of data at a time. In image encryption, the data is divided into blocks of 64 bits and then DES is applied to each block. The key size used is 56 bits, however a 64 bit (or eight-byte) key is actually input. The least significant bit of each byte like every 8th, 16th, 24th, 32nd etc. bit is either used for parity (odd for DES) or is set arbitrarily and does not increase the security by any means. If the number of bits in the message is not evenly divisible by 64, then the last block will be padded with extra zeroes. Multiple permutations and substitutions are assimilated throughout in order to increase the difficulty of performing a cryptanalysis on the cipher. DES algorithm consists of 16

identical rounds as shown by figure 2 and figure 3. Figure 1 shows the block diagram of a single round. The detail of each round is given below:

- 1. **The E-box expansion permutation**: Here the 32-bit input data from R_{i-1} is expanded and permuted to give the 48 bits necessary for combination (ex-or) with the 48 bit key.
- 2. The bit by bit addition modulo 2 (or exclusive OR) of the E-box output and 48 bit sub-key K_i.
- 3. **The S-box substitution** This is a highly important substitution which accepts a 48-bit input and outputs a 32-bit number. The S-boxes are the only non-linear operation in DES and are therefore the most important part of its security. The input to the S-boxes is 48 bits long arranged into 8, 6 bit blocks. There are 8 S-boxes each of which accepts one of the 6 bit blocks. The output of each S-box is a four bit number.
- 4. **The P-box permutation** This simply permutes the output of the S-box without changing the size of the data. It has a one to one mapping of its input to its output giving a 32 bit output from a 32 bit input.

The detailed algorithm of DES encryption is given below:

Algorithm for DES Cryptography (Sender Side)

Key Generation:

- 1. Select a 64 bit key. Convert it into a 56 bit key using permutation.
- 2. Split the 56 bit key into two equal parts of 28 bits each and name them C_0 and D_0 .
- 3. Perform left circular shift operation of one bit on C_0 and D_0 to obtain C_1 and D_1 . Similarly obtain values up to C_{16} and D_{16} .

```
C_I=circshift (C_0, [0,-(1)]); *-ve sign is
for left shift
D_I=circshift (D_0, [0,-(1)]);
```

- 4. Combine C1 and D_1 to get 56 bit key. Apply permutation to compress this key to 48 bits and call it key K_1 .
- 5. Similarly obtain all 16 (48 bit) subkeys, K_1 to K_{16} .

Image Encryption:

- 1. Obtain the image and convert it into grey image.
- 2. Divide it into sub blocks of 64 bits each and perform the following steps on each block.
- 3. Split the 64 bit data into two equal parts of 32 bits each and name them L_0 and R_0 .
- 4. 16 rounds are used to calculate L_{16} and R_{16} from L_0 and R_0 .

```
for (i=1 \text{ to } 16)

L_i=R_{i-1} \text{ and } R_i=L_{i-1}+\text{function } (K_i, R_{i-1})

end
```

- 5. The 'function' comprises of three steps.
 - a) First compress 56 bit R_{i-1} block to a 48 bit block by permutation. Apply $K_i + R_{i-1}$. Divide these 48 bits into 8 groups of 6 bits each. Data= $b_1b_2b_3b_4b_5b_6b_7b_8$.
 - b) Apply S-box permutation on each group to convert it from 6 bits to 4 bits each.

```
i=binary\ to\ decimal\ (([b_1(1)\ b_1(6)]));
j=binary\ to\ decimal\ (([b_1(2)\ b_1(3)\ b_1(4)\ b_1(5)]));
S_1b_1=s_1(i,j);
S_1b_1=decimal\ to\ binary\ (S_1b_1,4));
end
end
data=S_1b_1S_2b_2S_3b_3S_4b_4S_5b_5S_6b_6S_7b_7S_8b_8.
As\ each\ Sb\ combination\ is\ of\ 4\ bits,\ length\ of\ data\ becomes\ 32\ bits.
```

- c) Apply P-box permutation to further enhance the randomness in data of 32 bits.
- 6. Obtain last block of 64 bits (L_{16} and R_{16}) as cipher text. Similarly, obtain all cipher blocks and combine them all to form cipher image.

Decryption of DES is same as encryption. DES algorithm is applied on cipher text with subkeys used in the reverse order as shown in the figure 3. Decrypted output or plain text is obtained as an output.

Algorithm for DES Cryptography (Receiver Side)

- 1. Obtain cipher image. Divide it into blocks of 64 bits after converting it into gray image.
- 2. Apply same steps like encryption but on the cipher image.
- 3. Take the same subkeys but in reverse order.
- 4. Obtain plain image as the result.

2.2 3DES (Triple DES) Cryptography

Triple DES (3 DES) was incorporated as a part of Data Encryption Standard in 1999. 3DES uses three different keys and three DES executions. The effective key length is 168 bits as it uses three distinct keys. The function follows an encrypt-decrypt-encrypt sequence. Figure 4 and figure 5 shows the block diagram of 3DES encryption and decryption. The DES algorithm is explained above.

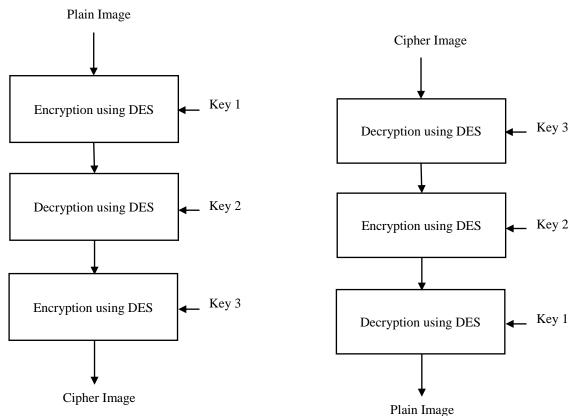


Figure 4. 3-DES Encryption

Figure 5. 3-DES Decryption

Algorithm for Triple DES encryption is decried below:

Algorithm for Triple DES Cryptography (Sender Side)

```
1. Obtain the image and select three different keys of 64 bits each.
```

```
2. Follow the steps below using three different keys.

[row col] = size (image);

for i=1: row

for j=1:8: col

im_block= (a (i ,j: j+7));

output_1=des_encryption (key1, im_block);

output_2=des_decryption (key2, output_1);

output_3=des_encryption (key3, output_2);

cipher (i, j: j+7)=output_3;

end

end
```

3. Get the cipher image as a result.

Decryption is just reverse of encryption and the various steps in detail are mentioned below:

Algorithm for Triple DES Cryptography (Receiver Side)

```
1. Obtain the encrypted image as 'encr_im'.
```

```
2. Apply DES encryption and decryption on ciphered image in the following sequence. for i=1:row
```

```
for i=1:8:col
encr_block = (encr_im (i,j:j+7));
output_1 = des_decryption (key_3, encr_block);
output_2 = des_encryption (key_2, output_1);
output_3 = des_decryption(key_1, output_2);
original (i,j:j+7)=output_3;
end
end
```

3. The result obtained is the original image.

2.3 AES (Advanced Encryption Standard) Cryptography

The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) [6, 20] is a specification for the encryption of electronic data established by the U.S. National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in 2001. AES, based on a design principle known as a substitution-permutation network, is a combination of both substitution and permutation, and is fast in both software and hardware. Unlike its predecessor DES, AES does not use a Feistel network. AES is a symmetric key algorithm with key length of 128 bits. For image encryption, data is divided into 64 bits sub blocks and the technique is applied. AES has 10 rounds of complex operations that are performed on the plain block of 64 bits to get the cipher text of same length. Figure 6 and figure 7 shows the overall structure of AES encryption and Decryption.

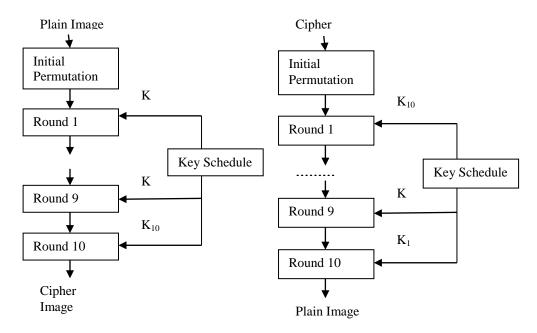


Figure 6. AES Encryption

Figure 7. AES Decryption

Each round requires four operations described below:

1. Sub Bytes

This operation is a simple substitution that converts every byte into a different value. AES defines a table of 256 values for the substitution. The contents of the substitution table are not arbitrary, the entries are calculated using a mathematical formula but mostly implementations simply have the substitution table stored in memory.

2. Shift Rows

As the name suggests, Shift Rows operates on each row of the state array. Each row is rotated to the right by a certain number of bytes. The 16 bytes are first converted to a 4X4 matrix. Each row of the matrix is then separately circularly shifted through (row-1) times to the right.

3. Mix Columns

This operation is the most challenging, both to explain and to perform. Each column of the state array is processed separately to produce a new column. The new column replaces the old one. The processing involves a matrix multiplication. The data is arranged in a 4 row matrix, as arranged in shift row. Process consists of two parts, first part explains the how the multiplication is to be done with a fixed polynomial. We have a multiplication matrix, for the multiplication step. The multiplication is done using one column of data matrix at a time. The result of the multiplication is simply the result of a lookup of the L table, followed by the addition of the results, followed by a look up to the E table.

4. Add Round Key

After the Mix Columns operation, the Add Round Key is very simple indeed and hardly needs its own name. This operation simply takes the existing state array, XORs the value of the appropriate round key, and replaces the state array with the result. It is done once before the rounds start and then once per round, using each of the round keys in turn.

Round 10 is a bit different from others as it doesn't contain the Mix Column step. Figure 8 shows the block diagram of a single round of AES encryption algorithm.

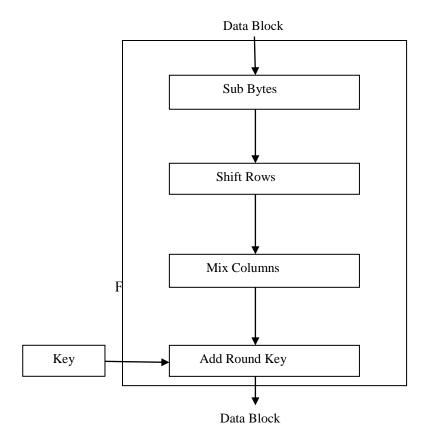


Figure 8. Single Round of AES

AES encryption is performed on a data block of 16 bytes with an expanded key of size 176 bytes. The data transforming functions, Add_round_key(), Sub_bytes(), Shift_Row(), Mix_Column() are applied in a particular manner:

- 1. The first transformation has 1:16 elements of the key along with the data block input in Add_round_key() function.
- 2. The changed state of data is then processed in a loop utilizing key elements from 17:160 and forwarding the data in the sequence Sub_bytes() -> Shift_Row() -> Mix_Column() -> Add_round_key(), with Add_round_key() taking the changed state from Mix_Column() and next 16 bytes of key as inputs. No other function uses key.
- 3. After the 9 rounds of transformation, the data is again forwarded in the same sequence but excluding Mix_column() from that process. The last 16 key bytes are thus employed in Add_round_key() for the last time, and the resulting block is the encrypted data block.

For the implementation of AES various transformation functions have been used which are described below:

Transformation functions used in key expansion:

Rot word:

This function performs same as Shift Row. It shifts the data bytes circularly.

Sub Word:

It is same as Byte sub. A same s-box table is used for the substitution of the incoming state bytes.

Rcon:

This function returns a 4 byte value based on the predefined values:

Transformation functions used during encryption and decryption:

Shift row decr:

The 16 bytes are first converted to a 4X4 matrix. Each row of the matrix is then separately circularly shifted through (row-1) times to the left.

Inverse Sub byte:

A corresponding inverse of the S box is used for this function. The search process is same as that in Sub byte.

Algorithm for AES encryption is as follows:

Algorithm for AES Cryptography (Sender Side)

The AES key expansion takes 16 bytes of hex data and processes it for 43 rounds to expand it into 176 bytes of key. The key scheduling scheme uses transformation functions, SubWord(), RotWord(), and Rcon().

```
1. function key expansion(key)
       while i \le 32
               make groups of key's elements(key array), each group being 8 hex or 8
               words long
       end
       i=4;
       for i < =43
               temp = key\_array(i)
               if (mod(i, 4) = 0)
                      temp = (SubWord (RotWord(temp)) xor Rcon(i)) xor
       key_array(i-3)
                      key\_array(i+1) = temp
               else
                      temp= key_array(i) xor key_array(i-3)
                      key\_array(i+1) = temp
               end
   end
```

2. Data block is of 64 bits as in case of DES encryption and key used here is expanded key of 176 bytes.

```
state1=Add_round_key(key(1:16), data_block)
for i=2 to 10

state2=Sub_Bytes(state1)
state3=Shift_Row(state2)
state4=Mix_Column(state3)
state1= Add_round_key(key(((i-1)*16)+1: (i*16)), state4)
end
state2=Sub_bytes(state1)
state3=Shift_Row(state2)
state1= Add_round_key(key((i*16)+1: ((i+1)*16)), state3) //
key(160:176)
encrypted_data_block= state1
```

The decryption process has a process structure familiar to that of encryption. The major change in the decryption process is the use of key in reverse order. The transformation function are applied as follows:

- 1. The Add_round_key() function is same as that used in encryption, changing the state of data block. It takes last 16 key bytes along with the data block as input.
- 2. Then, as in encryption, this changed state is processed in a loop till upto 17th key byte is utilized in Add_round_key(). The use of function is as, inverse_ Shift_Row() -> inverse_Sub_Bytes() -> Add_round_key() -> inverse_Mix_Column().
- 3. The last round utilizing 1:16 bytes of the key is carried out without inverse Mix Column(), same as done in encryption process.

Algorithm for AES decryption is:

Algorithm for AES Cryptography (Receiver Side)

1. Data block is again of 64 bits and key is of 176 bytes.

state1=Add_round_key(key(161:176), encrypted_data_block)

For i=10 with steps of -1 to 2

state2= inverse_Shift_Row (state1)

state3=inverse_Sub_Bytes (state2)

state4= Add_round_key(key(((i-1)*16)+1: (i*16)), state3)

state1= inverse_Mix_Column(state4)

end

state2= inverse_Shift_Row (state1)

state3= inverse_Sub_bytes (state2)

state1= Add_round_key(key(1: 16)), state3)

decrypted_data= state1

2.4.RC4 Stream Cipher

RC4 is a variable key size stream cipher with byte oriented operations. It was designed by Ron Rivest for RSA security. The algorithm bases its operation on use of random permutation.

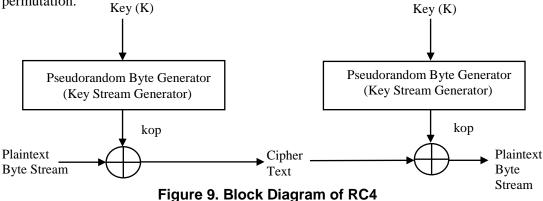


Figure 9 shows the block diagram of RC4 [5] encryption and decryption procedures. It includes two main processes,

- 1. Key scheduling algorithm (KSA)
- 2. Pseudorandom generation algorithm (PRGA).

In KSA, a variable length key (*Key*) of 1 to 256 bytes is used to initialise a 256 byte state vector 'M'. The pseudorandom generation algorithm (PRGA) makes use of each state of the previous matrix to output the ciphered data using bit-xoring. A byte 'kop' is generated

from M by selecting one of the 255 entries in a symmetric order. The method of key stream generation is depicted in the following pseudo code.

Pseudo code for KSA and PRGA in RC4 Cryptography

```
KSA (Key Scheduling Algorithm):

for k = 0 \text{ to } 255 \text{ do}

M[k] = k;

T[k] = Key[k \text{ mod keylength}];

j = 0;

for k = 0 \text{ to } 255 \text{ do}

j = (j + M[k] + T[k]) \text{ mod } 256;

Swap (M[k], M[j]);
```

PRGA (pseudorandom generation algorithm):

```
k, j = 0;

while (true)

k = (k + 1) \mod 256;

j = (j + M[k]) \mod 256;

Swap (M[k], M[j]);

t = (M[k] + M[j]) \mod 256;

kop = M[t];
```

The byte 'kop' thus obtained is XORed with the next byte of plain text to obtain the cipher text.

Algorithm for RC4 Cryptography (Sender Side)

- 1. Get the image of size m*n and convert it into a 1-D stream, 'im 1D'.
- 2. Perform bit by bit xoring of 'kop' value and the image byte.

```
for i=1 to m*n

Cipher (i) = bitxor(kop(i),im_1D(i));

end
```

- 3. Get the cipher stream.
- 4. Convert it back into image dimensions.

For decryption, XOR the value of 'kop' with next byte of cipher text as shown in figure

Algorithm for RC4 Cryptography (Receiver Side)

- 1. Obtain the cipher image.
- 2. Convert it into 1-D data stream, 'cipher 1D'.
- 3. Perform bit by bit xoring of 'kop' value with the data stream.

```
for i=1 to m*n
original(i)=bitxor (kop(i),cipher_1D(i));
end
```

4. Obtain the 'original' data stream. Change the dimensions of stream to that of an image, to get the decrypted image.

2.5. IDEA Cryptography

International Data Encryption Algorithm (IDEA) [4] was first described in 1991. It is a block cipher which was originally called improved PES (improved Proposed Encryption Standard). This cipher works on 64 bits of plain text and uses a 128 bit key. In case of

image encryption whole image is subdivided into blocks of 64 bits each. Unlike DES and AES, this technique avoids the use of substitution boxes and the associated table lookups. For encryption, the plain text of 64 bits is divided into four blocks of 16 bits each.

Key of 128 bits is divided to form 52 subkeys of 16 bits each. The procedure to form 52 subkeys from 128 bit key is described as follows:

- 128 bit key is first divided to form 8 subkeys of 16 bit. These subkeys are used directly.
- 128 bit key is the circularly shifted to 25 positions and the result obtained is then divided to again form 8 subkeys of 16 bits each. This operation is repeated until 52 different subkeys are generated.

Each round uses 6 subkeys and there are total 8 rounds (6X8=48). Last 4 subkeys are used to gets the cipher text of 64 bits. IDEA uses three different algebraic groups [3] in each round. Figure 10 shows the detailed structure of single round of IDEA algorithm.



This depicts the 2¹⁶ modulo addition of two 16 bit integers.

This depicts multiplication modulo $2^{16}+1$ of two 16 bit integers.

This depicts the bitwise exclusive or of two 16 bit integers.

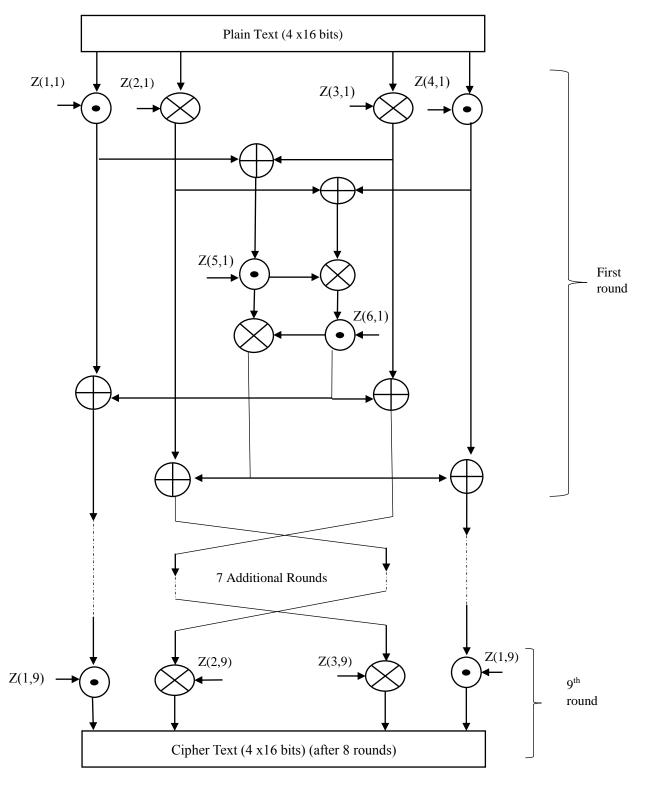


Figure 10. IDEA Encryption Algorithm

Algorithm for IDEA Cryptography (Sender Side)

- 1. Obtain the image and convert it into its binary form. Size of image remains same (m*n). Each round is applied on a data of 64 bits.
- 2. Select a 128 bit key.
- 3. A set of 52 subkeys (16 bits each) is formed by applying circular rotations and divisions as explained in above paragraph. Step to form first 12 subkeys is shown below:

```
subkey(1,:)=key;

for i=2 \ to \ 13

subkey(i,:)=circular \ shift(subkey(i-1,:),[0\ -25]);

end

for i=1 \ to \ 6

Z(i,:,1)=subkey(1,16*i-15:16*i);

end

for i=7 \ to \ 8

Z(i-6,:,2)=subkey(1,16*i-15:16*i);

end
```

4. Perform modulo addition and modulo multiplication as specified in the figure above. First step of one round is shown below. Similarly, other steps are included to complete one round.

```
for \ round=1 \ to \ 8 \\ data(1,:)=mod(data(1,:)*Z(1,:,round),2^{16}+1); \\ data(4,:)=mod(data(4,:)*Z(4,:,round),2^{16}+1); \\ data(2,:)=mod(data(2,:)+Z(2,:,round),2^{16}); \\ data(3,:)=mod(data(3,:)+Z(3,:,round),2^{16}); \\ end
```

5. Cipher image is obtained after applying complete 8 rounds on each block of 64 bits data.

Decryption using IDEA is similar to encryption mechanism but 52 subkeys are used in the reverse order.

Algorithm for IDEA Cryptography (Receiver Side)

- 1. Obtain the cipher image and the key.
- 2. The inverse subkeys 'inverse_mul' used for modulo multiplication are calculated as:

```
[g,c,d] = greatest\ common\ divisor\ (2^{16}+1,\ key);
if\ d<0
d=2^{16}+1+d;
else\ if\ d=0
d=2^{16};
else
d=d;
end
inverse\_mul=d;
```

3. The inverse subkeys 'inverse add' for modulo addition are calculated as:

```
if key=0

inverse_add=2<sup>16</sup>;

else

Inverse_add=2<sup>16</sup>-key;

end
```

4. The subkeys used for decryption are generated in the following fashion. First four subkey generation 'Z de' is shown below:

```
r1=1;
Z_{de(1,:,r1)=inverse\_mul(Z_{de(1,:,10-r1)});
Z_{de(2,:,r1)=inverse\_add(Z_{de(2,:,10-r1)});
Z_{de(3,:,r1)=2^{16}-Z_{de(3,:,10-r1)};
Z_{de(4,:,r1)=inverse\_mul(Z_{de(4,:,10-r1)});
```

- 5. Step 4 of encryption procedure is employed with subkeys 'Z_de' (instead of 'Z' as shown in encryption algorithm), to obtain the original data.
- 6. *Obtain the original image.*

2.6. Visual Cryptography

1.

Visual cryptography [11-17] is an encryption technique which allows information (pictures, text, etc.) to be encrypted in such a way that decryption becomes a mechanical operation that does not require a computer. Moni Naor and Adi Shami developed it in 1994. They demonstrated a visual secret sharing scheme, where an image was broken up into p shares so that only somebody with all p shares could decrypt the image, while any p-1 shares revealed no information about the original image. Each share was printed on a separate transparent sheet, and decryption was performed by overlaying the shares. When all p shares were overlaid, the original image would appear.

There is a simple algorithm for binary (black and white) visual cryptography that generates two encrypted messages called *share1* and *share 2* from an original message. The algorithm for the above mentioned scheme is shown below.

Algorithm for Visual Cryptography (Sender Side)

Obtain a binary image.

```
2. [row column]=size(image);

for i= 1 to row
for j=1 to column
Share1(i,j)=randi([0,1])
end
end
3. for i=1 to row
for j=1 to column
if (image(i,j)==1)
share 2(i,j)=share1(i,j);
else
```

4. Transmit (share1,share2).

end

end

Receiver side only needs to combine all the shares obtained. This combination procedure is performed with the help of XOR operator.

share2(i,j)=not(share1(i,j));

Algorithm for Visual Cryptography (Receiver Side)

- 1. Obtain share1 and share2.
- 2. *Original image=XOR(share1,share2)*.

2.7. Hierarchical Cryptography

Hierarchical visual cryptography [12] encodes the image in two levels. Initially the image is encrypted in two different meaningless shares called share1 and share2 like in visual cryptography. This is the first level of Hierarchical visual cryptography. In the second level, these two shares are encrypted independently. Share1 is encrypted to yield share11 and share12. Similarly, share2 is encrypted to yield share21 and share22. At the end of second level of HVC four shares are available. Any three shares are taken and combined to form *keyshare*. The *keyshare* along with the remaining share is transmitted. The algorithm for encryption process is described below:

Algorithm for Hierarchical Visual Cryptography (Sender Side)

```
1. Obtain a binary image.
   [row column]=size(image);
           for i = 1 to row
               for j=1 to column
                       Share1(i,j)=randi([0,1])
                end
            end
3. for i=1 to row
       for j=1 to column
                Share11(i,j)=randi([0,1])
        end
   end
4. for i=1 to row
       for j=1 to column
                Share 21(i,j) = randi([0,1])
        end
       end
5. for i=1 to row
       for j=1 to column
                if(image(i,j)==1)
                        share 2(i,j)=share 1(i,j);
                else
                       share2(i,j)=not(share1(i,j));
                end
           end
        end
6. for i=1 to row
```

```
for j=1 to column
                if (share1(i,j)==1)
                         share12(i,j)=share11(i,j);
                else
                         share12(i,j)=not(share11(i,j));
                end
           end
        end
7. for i=1 to row
       for j=1 to column
                if (share2(i,j)==1)
                         share 22(i,j)=share 21(i,j);
                else
                         share22(i,j)=not(share21(i,j));
                end
           end
   keyshare = XOR(share 12(i,j), XOR(share 21(i,j), share 22(i,j))).
9. Transmit (keyshare, share 11).
```

Receiver side only needs to combine all the shares obtained. This combination procedure is performed with the help of XOR operator.

Algorithm for Hierarchical Visual Cryptography (Receiver Side)

- 1. Obtain keyshare and share 11.
- 2. *Original image=XOR(keyshare,share11)*.

2.8. Elliptic Curve Cryptography

Elliptic curve cryptography [8, 15, 16] is the public key mechanism. It has many advantages over other public key cryptosystems such as RSA. In this technique, an elliptic curve 'E' ($y = x^2 + a*x + b$) is assumed.

A point 'P' is selected on the curve and is used as a part of public key and private key is taken to be any random integer 'k'. Q = k*P is calculated and E, P, n and Q together makes the complete public key. Encryption procedure is described as follows:

Algorithm for Elliptic Curve Cryptography (Sender Side)

- 1. Obtain the image to be encrypted, convert all pixels into their binary equivalents and store them all in a 1-D array. Size of image is m*n (m rows and n columns) and size of 1-D array becomes, m*n*8.
- 2. Embed the binary values in the curve 'E' to form 'Pm'.

```
for i=1 to m*n*8
x=array(i);
y=x^2+a*x+b;
*curve E, a and b are random values*
Pm=[x,y];
end
```

3. A random integer, 'd' is selected such that d < n.

```
d=randi([1,n-1]);
4. Select a point random point P on curve E. Calculate Q=d*P.
5. Pm + d*Q and d*P are calculated.
               C1=d*P;
               C2=Pm+d*O:
  (d^*P, Pm+d^*Q) is the encrypted pixel. It is converted back into the matrix and sent it
   as an encrypted image.
               v1=de2bi(C1);
               v2=de2bi(C2);
               [m1 \ n1] = size(v1);
               [m2 \ n2] = size(v2);
               j=1; e=1;
               for i=1 to 2*m1
                       cipher1(e:e+n1-1)=v1(j,:);
                       e=e+n1:
                       j=j+1;
                       if i==m1
                               v1=v2;
                               j=1;
                                n1=n2;
                       end
               end
```

Decryption procedure is as follows:

Algorithm for Elliptic Curve Cryptography (Receiver Side)

- 1. Obtain the encrypted image and convert it into a 1-D array (encrypt).
- 2. Decryption is done by using the private key 'k'.
- 3. Message (m) can be decoded as, m = (Pm+d*Q) d*k*P.

 for i=1 to length(encrypt) m(i)=C2(i,1)-k*C1(i,1);end
- 4. This is again converted into matrix form to get the original image.

2.9. Vigenère Cryptography

It is a multi-alphabetic substitution encryption which uses two or more cipher alphabets. First step in this encoding process is to form a vigenère [10, 18] table which is as follows. In this table each row is formed by shifting circularly the sequence of characters towards left. First row is formed by 0 alphabets shifting, second row by one step shifting and third row by two steps shifting and like this whole table can be formed. Key is of fixed size and value. Find the letter of key on row side and data to be encrypted on column side. For each particular value of row and column, an alphabet is present and this alphabet is used as the encrypted letter. Decryption of data is also done using same symmetric table. But as images do not use alphabets, this technique has been modified to work on numbers as each pixel of an image consists of an 8 bit value. The mathematical interpretation of modified vigenère cipher is as follows:

```
Encryption
```

```
ciphered\ pixel = mod((pixel + key), 256)
```

Decryption

```
original message= mod((ciphered pixel-key),256)
```

The key must be cycled until all the pixels are encrypted(like for short keys, if K is the key, KK;KKK and so on can be the equivalent keys). For example: suppose we have a pixel value 10, and the hex key as '0B', this hex value corresponds to a decimal value of 11, the encryption process will be carried out as:

```
ciphered pixel= mod((10+11),256) = 21
```

and the decryption process will be as follows:

```
original message= mod((21-11),256)=10.
```

Detailed description of the encryption algorithm is depicted below:

Algorithm for Vigenère Cryptography (Sender Side)

- 1. Obtain the image. Convert it into gray scale. Suppose image comprises of 'm' rows and 'n' columns.
- 2. Obtain a key of 32 hex values. Convert it into a 1-D array of decimal values.

```
for i=1 to length(key)
    key_str=char(key(i));
    key_dec(i)=hex2dec(key_str);
end
```

3. Encrypted image 'encrypt' can be formed by following steps below:

```
for i=1 to m
  pntr=1;
  while pntr < n
    for j=1 to size (key)
       encrypt(i,pntr)=mod(key(1,j)+image(i,pntr),256);
      pntr=pntr+1;
    end
  end
end</pre>
```

Description for decryption using vigenère scheme is given below:

Algorithm for Vigenère Cryptography (Receiver Side)

1. Obtain the encrypted image and the key.

```
2. Get the decrypted or original image 'decrypt' by applying the following procedure: for i=1to m. pntr=1; while pntr < n for j=1to size(key) decrypt(i,pntr)=mod(encrypt(i,pntr)-key(1,j),256); pntr=pntr+1; end end</p>
```

2.10. Chaotic Encryption Technique

This encryption scheme is based on a Peter De Jong Chaotic Map [25] and RC4 Stream Cipher. This technique is comprised of a round key generation function and three encryption functions as shown in figure 11. Original image is converted to grey image and

end

stored in 'I' whose size is M x N. 128 Peter De Jong Chaotic [21, 22] values are generated and converted into integer form. An initial set of parameters (X_0, Y_0, a, b, c, d) is taken. The (X, Y) values becomes the initial key for RC4 stream generator. To increase the security this stream generation and encryption can be carried out multiple times.

- Permutation: M + N Peter De Jong Chaotic values are generated. X₁ to X_M values are stored in array A while Y₁ to Y_N in array B. Both A and B are sorted and the positions of sorted chaotic [23, 24] values in original sequence are found and stored in array C and D. Each and every row is circularly rotated in alternate orientations and amount of rotation is based on array C. Circular rotation of each column in alternate orientation is done based on array D.
- 2. Pixel Value Rotation: M x N RC4 pseudo random numbers are generated and mod 8 is applied to obtain all values in the range of 1 to 7. These numbers are used for circular rotations by first reading the image horizontally and applying alternate left/right circular rotation on pixel to pixel basis and then, by reading it vertically and applying alternate left/right circular rotation on pixel by pixel basis.
- 3. Diffusion: Image is scanned row wise and then column wise in alternate orientations and the forward and backward diffusion is applied.

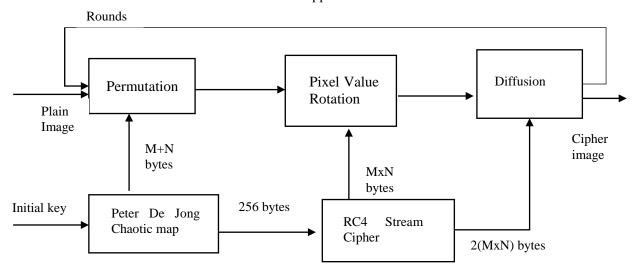


Figure 11. Block Diagram of Chaotic Encryption

The detailed description of chaotic encryption algorithm is depicted below:

Algorithm for Chaotic Cryptography (Sender Side)

Key set = $\{X_0; Y_0; a; b; c; d\}$

** Generating Keyset

- 1. Generate 128 Peter De Jong chaotic values {X and Y sequence} using keyset & Transform it to the integer form.
- 2. Assign 128 X sequence values to Key[0], ..., Key[127], and Y sequence to Key[128], ..., Key[255]

**Permutation

- 1. M & N Peter De Jong chaotic values $\{X1 = (X_1,...,X_M), Y1 = (Y_1,...,Y_N)\}$ are generated.(M and N are rows and columns of image).
- 2. Sort X1, and Y1, Lets call the positions of the sorted chaotic values in the original chaotic sequence are found and are stored in X2, Y2.

```
for i=1:M
    X2(i)=find(X1=value at loc i of sorted array);
end
Similarly, for Columns same approach is applied
```

3. Scramble rows and columns according to X2, and Y2 values respectively.eg swap the row values of X2(1) row with X2(2) and so on.

```
for i=1:M
    swap(Image (i,:) = Image(X2(i),:));
end
Similarly, for Columns same approach is applied
```

4. Circularly rotate each and every row in alternate orientations and the amount of rotation is based on X2 . eg. The first row is rotated by X2(1) , the second row is rotated by X2(2) , and so on (- means opposite direction)

```
for i=1to M

if(odd value of i)%% alternate orientation

Image(i,:)= circshift(Image(i,:), -X2(i));

else

Image(i,:)= circshift(Image(i,:), X2(i));

end

end

Similarly, for Columns same approach is applied
```

5. Repeat this step with columns, using Y2 values.

**Pixel Value Circular Rotations

M * N RC4 pseudo random numbers determine the amount of rotation for the circular rotation.

- 1. Generate M * N RC4 pseudo random numbers
- 2. Read the image horizontally and then apply alternate left/right Circular rotation on pixel by pixel basis. Repeat the same in vertical direction

```
for i=1to M
for j=1to N
if(odd value of i)%% alternate orientation
Image(i,j)= pixelshift(Image(i,j),-Psudo_random(i));
else
Image(i,j)= pixelshift(Image(i,j), Psudo_random(i));
end
```

end

end

Similarly, for Vertical direction same approach can be applied

** Diffusion

- 1. forward and backward diffusion is applied after scanning the image row-wise in alternate orientations.
- 2. Here image is scanned column wise in alternate orientation and the farward and backward diffusion is applied (I = Image scanned row wise)

Forward Diffusion:

```
Εi
                                         = (((((Pi + Ei - 2) mod 256) + Ei
                                         -1)mod256 xor R1i) + R2i)mod256; i
                                         = 1; 2; ...; MN
        Backward Diffusion:
                          Fί
                                         = ((((Ei + Fi + 2) mod 256) + Fi
                                         +1)mod 256 xor R1i) + R2i)mod256; i
                                         = MN; \ldots; 1
% % forward diffusion
for i = 1 to M*N
% % Permuted and rotated pixel
  P = I(i);
% % foremely encrypted pixels
  E2 = Diffused\_row\_far(i-2);
  E1 = Diffused\_row\_far(i-1);
  end
% % Pseudo random no.
  R1_num = R1(i);
  R2 \quad num = R2(i);
% % forward diffusion
  Diffused\_row\_far(i) = forward\_diffusion(P,E2,E1,R1\_num,R2\_num);
end
% % backward diffusion
for i = M*N to 1
% % Permuted and rotated pixel
  E = Diffused\_row\_far(i);
% % foremely encrypted pixels
  F2 = Diffused\_row\_back(i+2);
  F1 = Diffused\_row\_back(i+1);
  end
% % Pseudo random no.
  R1\_num = R1(i);
  R2 \quad num = R2(i);
% % forward diffusion
Diffused\_row\_back(i) = backward\_diffusion(E,F2,F1,R1\_num,R2\_num);
```

end

Similarly, for Column direction same approach can be applied.

Decryption includes reconstruction of the original image by following inverse steps. First of all, diffusion is applied on the encrypted image then pixel values are circularly rotated in reverse direction and finally the inverse permutation is applied to obtain the original image.

3. Simulation Setup Parameters

Setup parameters are given in table 2.

Table 2. Setup Parameters

Image size	128*128 256*256
	384*384
Image type	.jpg, .tiff
Simulation tool	MATLAB 7.14.0.739
	64 bit (win 64)
Processor	Core-i5 2.2GHz RAM 8GB
Cryptographic Parameters	Key=2b7e151628aed2a6abf7158809cf4f3c
(AES)	(in hexadecimal)
Cryptographic Parameters	Key=133457799BBCDFF1
(DES)	(in hexadecimal)
Cryptographic Parameters (3-	Key=133457799BBCDFF1123456789abcd12
DES)	3ababededabeddeba
	(in hexadecimal)
Vigenère Cryptography	Key=2b7e151628aed2a6abf7158809cf4f3c
	(in hexadecimal)
IDEA Cryptography	Key=101110101011110111000101010110010
	1011100010111011100010100011001010111
	01010111011100010101011001011111101010
	1110111000001010110010 (in binary)
Visual Cryptography	No of shares in which data is divided=2
Hierarchical Cryptography	No of shares in which data is divided=4
RC4 Cryptography	Key=1 to 256
Elliptic Curve Cryptography	Randomly generated key
Chaotic Cryptography	Key=[0.6, 0.4, 1.77, 1.67, -0.85, 2.1]

4. Performance Metrics

For complete analysis of the techniques, numerous parameters have been used. This section deals with the details of all those parameters.

4.1. Visual Assessment

Good encryption technique means there should be no visual information in the encrypted images. Encrypted images should be random-like and highly disordered. Any intruder should not be able to interpret anything from the encrypted image.

4.2. Key-Space Analysis

Image encryption schemes should be sensitive to keys or any initial parameters which are used during encryption. Large key space diminishes brute force attacks. Large is the key space, more is the time taken to decode the key.

4.3. Statistical Analysis

This analysis is done to analyse the confusion and diffusion properties of an encrypted image. Evaluation of correlation coefficients signifies how strongly the pixels are related to each other and histograms demonstrate pixel relation in frequency domain. Correlation analysis and histogram analysis can specify which technique has better confusion and diffusion properties, which can resist statistical attacks.

4.4. Histogram Analysis

Histograms of an image is the frequency description of each pixel value. Histograms of encrypted images should be completely statistically different from original images. For the technique to be resistant to statistical histogram attacks, encrypted images should have uniform histograms.

4.5. Correlation Analysis

This parameter calculates the correlation among the adjacent pixels of an image. A good encryption technique should result into an encrypted image with no or zero correlation between adjacent pixels. In order to test the correlation between two adjacent pixels in plain-image and cipher-image, we have analysed the correlation between pairs of plain-image channels and cipher-image channels. The following formulae is used to calculate the correlation coefficients in the horizontal, vertical and diagonal directions.

$$r\alpha\beta = \frac{cov(\alpha,\beta)}{\sqrt{D(\alpha)}\sqrt{D(\beta)}}\tag{1}$$

$$E(\alpha) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha i \tag{2}$$

$$E(\alpha) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\alpha i - E(\alpha)^2)$$
(3)

$$cov(\alpha,\beta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\alpha i - E(\alpha))(\beta i - E(\beta)))$$
(4)

where α and β denote two adjacent pixels and N is the total number of duplets (α,β) obtained from the image.

4.6. Differential analysis

An image encryption technique should be sensitive to a small change in key and plain image. In order to assess the changing a single bit of key or any pixel value in the plain-image on the cipher-image, the number of pixel change rate (NPCR) and the unified averaged changing intensity(UACI) are computed in the encryption scheme. The NPCR is used to measure the change rate of the number of pixels of the cipher-image when only one bit of key or pixel is modified. The UACI measures the average intensity of two one bit changes of cipher-images. Let us assume, the two ciphered images C_1 and C_2 whose

corresponding plain images have only one-pixel difference. The color RGB-level values of ciphered images C_1 and C_2 at row i, column j are labelled as $C_1(i,j)$ and $C_2(i,j)$, respectively. The NPCR is defined as

$$NPCR = \frac{\sum_{i,j} D(i,j)}{M \times N} \times 100 \% \tag{5}$$

where M and N are the width and height of two random images and D(i,i) is defined as

$$D(i,j) = f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } C_1(i,j) \neq C_2(i,j) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (6)

Further, the UACI, is used to measure the average intensity difference in a color component between the two cipher images $C_1(i,j)$ and $C_2(i,j)$. It is defined as

$$UACI = \frac{1}{M \times N} \left[\sum_{ij} \frac{C_1(i,j) - C_2(i,j)}{255} \right] \times 100 \%$$
 (7)

4.7. Key Sensitivity

Key sensitivity means that a slightly different key produces an entirely different cipher image. NPCR and UACI are calculated to measure difference between two cipher images. One being encrypted using the original key and other one with a single bit change in the key. NPCR > 99% and UACI around 33% shows that the scheme can resist differential attack.

4.8. Pixel/Plain image sensitivity

Plain image sensitivity infers that even a single bit change in the plain image should produce a completely different encrypted image. NPCR and UACI are calculated to check the difference between the two encrypted images. One bit is altered in the plain image and then it is encrypted using the same key and initial parameters to form the second cipher image, first being the cipher formed from the original image. The scheme showing NPCR over 99% and UACI over 33% is considered to be secure against differential attack and to be highly sensitive to pixel change.

4.9. Information Entropy Analysis

nformation entropy is the amount of randomness in information content of the image. The entropy H(S) of a message m can be calculated as

$$H(S) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} P(S_i) \log_2 \frac{1}{P(S_i)}$$
 (8)

where P(Si) represents the probability of the occurrence of symbol Si and log denotes the base 2 logarithm. If there are 256 possible outcomes of the message S with equal probability, it is considered as random. In this case, H(S) = 8, is an ideal value. The value of entropy close to value 8 signifies that the encryption algorithm is secure against entropy attack.

4.10 Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR) analysis

In PSNR analysis, the original image is considered as the signal while the encrypted image is taken as the noise. The MSE stands for cumulative squared error between the stego image and the original image. Lower the value of MSE means lower error. It is defined by the relation given below any m x n monochrome image. Where, MAX_I represents maximum value of pixel of the image. In the images with pixel having 8 bits per sample, its value is 255.

Formula used for calculation of PSNR are given below.

$$MSE = \frac{1}{mn} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} [I(i,j) - K(i,j)]^2$$
(9)

$$PSNR = 10.\log_{10}(\frac{MAX_I^2}{MSE}) \tag{10}$$

4.11 Computational Speed Analysis

As images are bulky, so the encryption mechanism should be fast and take less encryption time. Computational speed may depend upon the type of processor used, type of programming language and type of encryption technique.

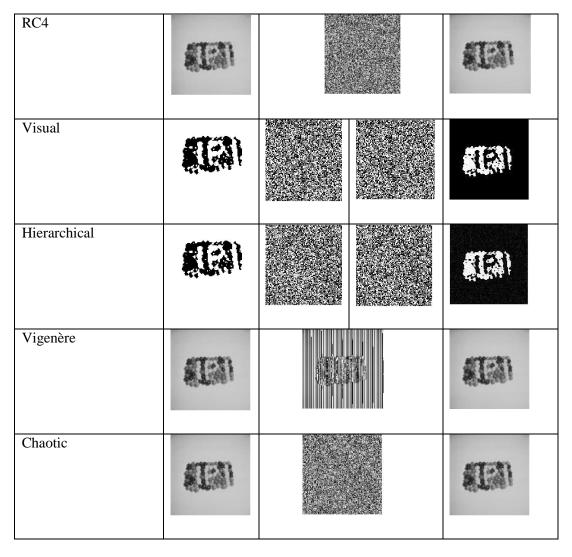
5. Results

5.1. Visual Assessment

Results of various techniques have been given in table 3.

Table 3. Snapshots

Encryption Technique	Plain image	Encrypted image	Decrypted image
DES	ata)		ara)
3-DES			
AES	ATE)		aran -
Elliptic			aran
Idea			



As it can be seen from Table 3, encrypted output of the encryption schemes is totally different from original data and no meaningful information can be deduced from it.

5.2. Key Space Analysis

Table 4 gives the comparison of key space of all the techniques implemented.

Table 4. Key Space Analysis

Cipher	Key length	Key space
DES	56	2^{56}
3DES	168	2^{168}
AES	128	2 ¹²⁸
RC4	256	2^{256}
Elliptic	2*64	2^{128}
Idea	128	2 ¹²⁸
Vigenère	128	2^{128}
Chaotic	6*64	2 ³⁸⁴

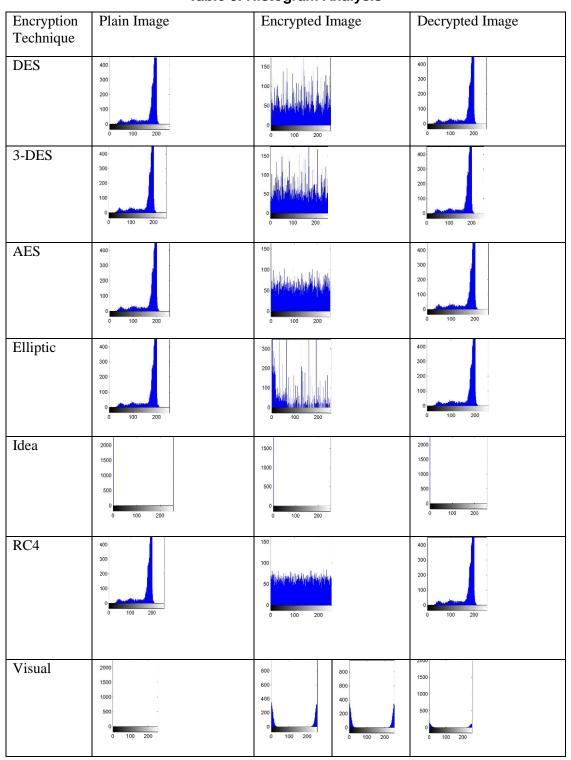
Out of all the schemes implemented it is clearly visible that chaotic scheme has the largest key space that is 2^{384} .

5.3. Statistical Analysis

To avoid statistical attacks histogram analysis and correlation analysis should be done. The results of these both analysis have been shown in sections below.

5.3.1. Histogram Analysis:

Table 5. Histogram Analysis



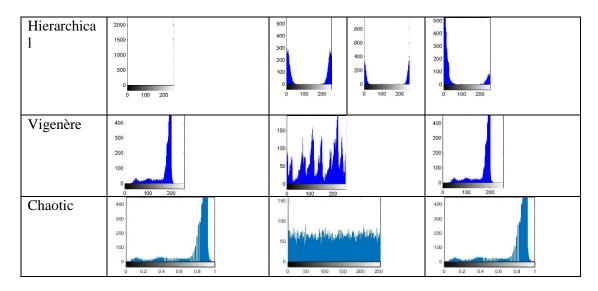


Table 5 completely depicts the differences in the histograms of encrypted images obtained after applying different cryptography mechanisms. Histogram of the chaotic technique proves to be best amongst all as it is most uniform and avoids to leak any information to the intruder by just analysing the histogram of the encrypted image.

5.3.2. Correlation Analysis

Table 6. Correlation Analysis (128*128)

		horizontal	vertical	diagonal
128x128		cor	cor	cor
DES		0.28075	-0.04335	-0.01436
3DES		0.256303	0.016179	0.013917
AES		0.192696	-0.00748	-0.00302
RC4		0.007782	0.005397	0.00822
Elliptical		0.226187	-0.29583	-0.08822
	share1	0.025931	0.001132	-0.01622
Visual	share2	0.005039	-0.01608	0.002604
	share1	0.009229	0.009746	-0.02127
Hierarchical	share2	-0.00021	0.001722	0.002928
Idea		0.626377	-0.07712	-0.05115
Vigenère		0.920082	-0.08558	-0.09983
			-	
Chaotic		-0.00084	0.000143	-0.00085

Table 7. Correlation Analysis (256*256)

256x256	horizontal cor	vertical cor	diagonal cor
DES	0.223646	-0.0072	0.008191
3DES	0.025587	0.02113	0.005366
AES	-0.00644	0.004249	-0.00816
RC4	-0.01506	-0.00355	-0.00572
Elliptical	-0.36302	-0.37163	0.39189

	share1	0.005936	-0.00834	-0.00894
Visual	share2	-0.00029	0.105361	0.005007
	share1	-0.0085	-0.00565	-0.00287
Hierarchical	share2	0.005412	-0.01054	0.007931
Idea		0.072471	-0.06382	-0.07115
Vigenère		0.094932	-0.08938	-0.07724
Chaotic		0.011001	0.013503	0.005449

Table 8. Correlation Analysis (384*384)

204204		horizontal	vertical	diagonal
384x384		cor	cor	cor
DES		0.007271	0.000662	-0.01984
3DES		0.023216	0.005585	0.014257
AES		0.008107	0.001876	0.01386
RC4		0.004488	-0.00614	0.013457
Elliptical		-0.16037	-0.23271	0.20705
	share1	-0.00268	-0.01269	0.001067
Visual	share2	-0.00773	-0.00506	-0.00128
	share1	-0.01079	0.003835	0.00665
Hierarchical	share2	0.005794	-0.00035	-0.00457
Idea		0.0306146	-0.01122	-0.01073
Vigenère		0.045662	0.031529	0.04528
				-
chaotic		0.01575442	-0.003393	0.012342

Correlation analysis has been shown by the above three tables for different image sizes. Table 6 shows correlation analysis for size 128*128, table 7 for size 256*256 while table 8 shows results for size 384*384. All the three tables depict that hierarchical cryptography, visual cryptography and RC4 stream cipher have less correlation among adjacent pixels but chaotic cryptography has the least amongst all. So according to this analysis, chaotic cryptography emerges as the best one.

5.4. Sensitivity Analysis

This section includes results for key and pixel sensitivity on three different size of images.

5.4.1. Key Sensitivity Analysis

Table 9. NPCR Analysis for Modified Key

key sensitivity	NPCR	128x128	256x256	384x384
DES		99.78637	99.7039	99.59649
3DES		99.5788	99.54681	99.61954
AES		99.60327	99.59106	99.60734
RC4		99.70703	99.59869	99.59581
Elliptical		94.37255	95.05463	94.94154

	share1	85.449211	0.067139	0.02577
Visual	share2	85.449211	0.067139	0.02577
	share1	95.12939	95.34149	95.29012
Hierarchical	share2	85.5951	85.31800	85.69539
Idea		51.1111	51.42212	50.11868
Vigenère		60.88867	60.40192	46.70817
chaotic		99.68261	99.60327	99.6154785

Table 10. UACI Analysis for Modified Key

key sensitivity	UACI	128x128	256x256	384x384
DES		33.7640739	33.62179	33.48515
3DES		30.683378	36.365314	31.02695
AES		33.42187	33.483575	33.47523
RC4		33.60569	33.60861	33.59704
Elliptical		22.84768	24.0126905	25.43578
	share1	0.015079	0.00370399	0.001465
Visual	share2	0.0150792	0.00370399	0.001465
	share1	47.94814165	48.01805084	48.18511
Hierarchical	share2	49.2855057	49.31867412	49.46135
Idea		0.200434	0.201655	0.196544
Vigenère		34.5897719	34.30220062	29.92964
chaotic		33.43711	33.7295053	33.469275

Table 9 and table 10 shows the comparison of NPCR and UACI for a slight change in the initial key used. Chaotic, DES and RC4 have comparable results for NPCR and prove to be better than others in the table 9. Table 10 depicts the chaotic to be best for highest UACI amongst all.

5.4.2. Pixel Sensitivity analysis

Table 11. NPCR Analysis for Modified Pixel

plain image				
sensitivity	NPCR	128x128	256x256	384x384
DES		0.048828	0.012207	0.005425
3DES		0.048828	0.012207	0.005425
AES		0.097656	0.024414	0.010851
RC4		99.59106	99.57122	99.63718
Elliptical		98.71728	96.66675	96.6132
	share1	85.98022	85.5011	85.36377
Visual	share2	85.74829	85.48126	85.28849
	share1	95.15381	95.31708	95.22434
Hierarchical	share2	85.5896	85.66589	85.56857
Idea		0.1892	0.047302	0.021021

Vigenère	0.006104	0.001526	0.000678
chaotic	99.6459	99.3881	91.65581

Table 12. UACI Analysis for Modified Pixel

		T	T	1
plain image				
sensitivity	UACI	128x128	256x256	384x384
DES		0.009885301	0.0037997	0.001183
3DES		0.016252106	0.0057145	0.001293
AES		0.03784179	0.0100408	0.003856
RC4		33.7229	33.52	33.65881
Elliptical		29.65049	33.4245	36.16463
	share1	49.82833	49.75162	49.49279
Visual	share2	49.83431	49.74495	49.48651
	share1	48.2023351	48.3676147	48.2556
Hierarchical	share2	49.5082481	49.64775	49.56005
Idea		0.00074199	0.000185499	8.24E-05
Vigenère		2.39354E-05	5.98384E-06	2.66E-06
chaotic		33.25583	33.5760258	33.178189

Table 11 and 12 shows the comparison of NPCR and UACI for a single bit change in the original image. NPCR is best for chaotic cryptography as shown by table 11. Chaotic cryptography proves to be best for UACI for a single bit change in the original image.

5.5. Entropy Analysis

Table13. Entropy Analysis

			1	1
Entropy		128x128	256x256	384x384
DES		7.87846	7.992748	7.998581
3DES		7.87729	7.993408	7.998705
AES		7.968921	7.997115	7.998785
RC4		7.98768	7.99584	7.996573
Elliptical		6.540688	6.674694	7.104149
	share1	4.077702	4.032366	4.027419
Visual	share2	4.059462	4.032138	4.030686
	share1	5.512987	5.496993	5.511118
Hierarchical	share2	4.032961	4.013899	4.041041
Idea		0.99999	0.999984	0.999973
Vigenère		7.693441	7.673212	7.979659
Chaotic		7.9871	7.9969	7.99871

Table 13 contains the results for entropy or randomness in all the encrypted images. DES, AES and 3-DES have high randomness but chaotic has the highest amongst all.

5.6. PSNR Analysis

Table14. PSNR Analysis

PSNR	SNR		256x256	384x384	
DES		8.5915	8.47027	9.2545	
3DES		8.45439	8.45200	9.2393	
AES		8.3620	8.413060	9.2147	
RC4		8.29485	8.3579395	9.1092	
Elliptical		7.9074	7.9017	7.2939	
	share1	3.1685	3.1359	3.1698	
Visual	share2	3.0984	3.0045	3.1145	
	share1	3.3554	3.3606	3.3649	
Hierarchical	share2	3.1960	3.1680	3.1502	
Idea		51.1358	51.11718	51.14782	
Vigenère		9.77257	9.78182	10.1096	
Chaotic		8.4211	8.47	9.24621645	

PSNR analysis is shown by table 14. For a good encryption, low values of PSNR are appreciated. Visual and Hierarchical cryptography have the lowest PSNR values but they deal with the black and white images while all other techniques are working on grayscale images. Data is lost considerably when the image is converted to black and white and hence AES has good PSNR value closely followed by chaotic. Elliptic curve cryptography shows the best PSNR results.

5.7. Computational Time Analysis

Table 15. Encryption Time Analysis

Encryption			
time	128x128	256x256	384x384
DES	11.91755	48.8177	107.7703
3DES	35.25612	140.5683	344.148
AES	40.90502	168.47	365.0551
RC4	0.058099	0.229511	0.576165
Elliptical	50.87072	200.4698	465.5531
Visual	0.090859	0.346871	0.791562
Hierarchical	0.3094	1.111671	2.5075
Idea	1.1699	4.674032	10.16392
Vigenère	0.006247	0.018642	0.045694
Chaotic	0.79132	3.268887	7.333148

Encryption should be done in least time and hence visual and hierarchical cryptographies are better than others as shown in table 15. But Vigenère proves to be the fastest amongst all.

6. Overall Conclusion

This paper is an effort to provide a detailed comparison of various image encryption mechanisms. Ciphers ranging from traditional ciphers to more recent ones such as based

on chaotic encryption mechanism are compared in detail. After implementation of all said schemes, a detailed comparison was drawn .Table 16 provides the whole gist of the results, where all the schemes are given a particular score based on performance. Chaotic method emerges out to be the best amongst all on the basis of overall score.

- Chaotic technique provides high randomness as depicted by the high value of entropy.
- Chaotic technique has a very high sensitivity to a single bit change in original pixel or key.
- PSNR value of hierarchical and visual cryptography is lowest but these techniques work on black and white image and data is lost while conversion, so for grayscale and coloured images AES, RC4 shows better results closely followed by Chaotic.
- Pixels are highly uncorrelated in chaotic technique which again makes it best amongst all.
- Large key space increases the brute force search time and further enhances the security in chaotic mechanism.
- Uniform histograms are also its characteristic feature which make chaotic mechanism stand on top among all.

Table 16. Overall Comparison

Techniques Implemented	Computational time	Entropy	PSNR	Key sensitivity	Pixel sensitivity	Correlation analysis	Key space	Histogram analysis
DES	Very poor	Good	Good	Best	Very poor	moderate	Very poor	Moderate
3-DES	Very poor	Good	Good	Best	Very poor	Moderate	Poor	Moderate
AES	Very poor	Good	Good	Best	Very poor	Moderate	Poor	Good
RC4	Good	Good	Good	Best	Best	Good	Moderate	Good
Elliptical	Very poor	Poor	Best	Good	Good	Moderate	Poor	Moderate
Visual	Good	Poor	Best	Moderate	Moderate	Good	Best	Poor
Hierarchical	Moderate	Poor	Best	Good	Moderate	Good	Best	Poor
IDEA	Poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Very poor
Vigenère	Best	Moderate	Good	Poor	Very poor	Very poor	Poor	Very poor
Chaotic	Moderate	Best	Good	Best	Best	Best	Best	Best

All the techniques discussed in the paper are in spatial domain. Every technique has some advantages and disadvantages but chaotic techniques proved to be more secure and hence in future these may be combined with some frequency domain technique to further obtain better results in terms of enhanced robustness against attacks and reduced time complexity.

References

- W. Stallings, "Cryptography and Network Security: principles and practices", Pearson education, 3rd Edition, Prentice Hall of India, (2003).
- [2] B. Schneier, "Applied Cryptography", 2nd Edition, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, (1996).
- [3] G. W. Reitwiesner, "Binaryarithmetic", in Advances in Computers, Academic Press New York, vol. 1, (1960), pp. 231–308.
- [4] M. P. Leong, O. Y. H. Cheung, K. H. Tsoi and P. H. W. Leong, "A bit-serial implementation of the international data encryption algorithm IDEA", in the proceedings of Field-Programmable Custom Computing Machines, IEEE, (2000), pp. 122-131.
- [5] S. Fluthrer, I. Mantin and A. Shamir, "Weaknesses in the Key Scheduling Algorithm of RC4", SAC2001 (S. Vaudenay, A. Youssef,eds.), col. 2259 of LNCS, springer- Verlag, (2001), pp. 1-24.
- [6] M. Zehgid, M. Machhout, L. Khriji, A. Baganne and R. Tourki, "A Modified AES Based Algorithm for Image Encryption" in International Journal of Computer, Electrical, Automation, Control and Information Engineering, vol. 1, (2007), pp. 745-750.
- [7] S. E. Zoghdy, Y. A. Nada and A. A. Abdo, "How Good Is The DES Algorithm in Image Ciphering?" in International Journal of Advanced Networking and Applications, vol. 2, no. 5, (2011), pp. 796-803.
- [8] M. Kolhekar and A. Jadhav, "Implementation of Elliptic Curve Cryptography on Text and Image" in International Journal of Enterprise Computing and Business Systems, vol. 1, no. 2, (2011) July.
- [9] S.Karthik and A. Muruganandan, "Data Encryption and Decryption by Using Triple DES and Performance Analysis of Crypto Systems", in International Journal of Scientific Engineering and Research, vol. 2, no. 11, (2014), pp. 24-31.
- [10] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vigenère_cipher.
- [11] M. E. Hodeish and Dr. V. T. Humbe, "State-of-the-Art Visual Cryptography Schemes", in International Journal of Electronics Communication and Computer Engineering, vol. 5, no. 2, (2014), pp. 412-420.
- [12] P. V. Chavan, Dr. M. Atique and Dr. L. Malik, "Design and Implementation of Hierarchical Visual Cryptography with Expansionless Shares", in International Journal of Network Security & Its Applications, vol. 6, no. 1, (2014), pp. 91-102.
- [13] National Bureau of Standards Data Encryption Standard, FIPS Publication, no. 46, (1977).
- [14] NIST, "Advanced Encryption Standard Call", NIST, http://www.nist.gov/aes/, (1997).
- [15] A. Cilardo, L. Coppolino, N. Mazzocca and L. Romano, "Elliptic Curve Cryptography Engineering" in the proceedings of 0018-9219/\$20.00, IEEE, vol. 94, no. 2, (2006), pp. 395-405.
- [16] M.Amara and A. Siad, "Elliptic Curve Cryptography and its Applications" in 7th International workshop on Systems, Signal Processing and their applications (WOSSPA), (2011), pp. 247-250.
- [17] V. Alikkal, Dr. T. S. Prakash and A. Hussain, "Enhanced Hierarchical Design for Visual Cryptography-Overview", in International Journal on Engineering Technology and Sciences, vol. 2, no. 4, (2015).
- [18] http://chettinadtech.ac.in/storage/12-09-01/12-09-01-15-19-28-1569-mrajendiranece.pdf
- [19] A. Nadeem and Dr. M. Y. Javed, "A Performance Comparison of Data Encryption Algorithms" in the proceedings of 0-7803-9421-6/05/\$20.00, IEEE, (2005), pp. 84-89.
- [20] M. Umaparvarthi and Dr. D. K. Varughese, "Evaluation of Symmetric Encryption Algorithm for MANETs" in the proceedings of 978-1-4244-5967-4/10/\$26.00, IEEE, (2010).
- [21] N. K. Pareek, V. Patidar and K. K. Sud, "Discrete chaotic cryptography using external key", in Physics Letters A, vol. 309, (2003), pp. 75–82.
- [22] M. Francois, T. Grosges, D. Barchiesi and R. Erra, "A New Image Encryption Scheme Based on Chaotic Function" in Signal Processing-Image Communication Elsevier, (2011), pp. 249-259.
- [23] S. Sam, P. Devraj and R. S. Bhuvaneshavaran, "A Novel Image Cipher based on Mixed Transformed Logistic Maps", in the proceedings of multimedia tools applications, DOI 10.1007/s11042-010-0652-6, pp 315-330, Springer Science + Business Media, LLC, (2010).
- [24] S. Sam, P. Devraj and R. S. Bhuvaneshavaran, "An interwining Chaotic maps based Image Encryption Scheme" in the proceedings of Nonlinear Dynamics, DOI 10.1007/s11071-012-0402-6, Springer Science + Business Media, (2012), pp. 1995-2007.
- [25] G. Hanchinamani and L. Kulkarni, "An Efficient Image Encryption Scheme Based on a Peter De Jong Chaotic Map and a RC4 Stream Cipher" in 3D Research Center, Kwangwoon University and Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg, DOI 10.1007/s13319-015-0062-7, (2015), pp. 6-30.

International Journal of Signal Processing, Image Processing and Pattern Recognition Vol. 9, No. 7 (2016)