New image encryption approach using a dynamic-chaotic variant of Hill cipher in $\mathbb{Z}/4096\mathbb{Z}$

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ABSTRACT

Currently, digital communication generates a considerable amount of data from digital images. Preserving the confidentiality of these images during transmission through network channels is of crucial importance. To ensure the security of this data, this article proposes an image encryption approach based on enhancing the Hill cipher by constructing pseudo-random matrices operating in the ring $\mathbb{Z}/2^{12}\mathbb{Z}$ injected into a controlled affine transformation. This approach relies on the use of chaotic maps for generating matrices used in the encryption process. The use of the ring $\mathbb{Z}/2^{12}\mathbb{Z}$ aims to expand the key space of our cryptosystem, thus providing increased protection against brute-force attacks. Moreover, to enhance security against differential attacks, a matrix of size $(4 \times 4)$, not necessarily invertible, is also integrated into a diffusion phase. The effectiveness of our technique is evaluated through specific tests, such as key space analysis, histogram analysis, entropy calculation, negative pixel count rate (NPCR) and unified average changing intensity (UACI) values, correlation analysis, as well as avalanche effect assessment.

1. INTRODUCTION

With the increasing connectivity and interoperability of devices and online platforms, data has become increasingly exposed to external threats such as hacking, data interception, and malware attacks. Therefore, it has become essential to implement robust security measures to ensure that data, including digital images, remains confidential and secure throughout its transfer over networks. To address this problem, several security measures have been established, among which cryptography holds a prominent place. Image encryption finds its utility in various domains, including Internet communications, medical imaging, and military communications.

Encryption can be categorized into two main types: symmetric and asymmetric [5], [6]. In symmetric encryption, the sender and the receiver share the same key, just like in the Hill cipher and the Vigenère cipher [7], [8], while in asymmetric encryption, two distinct keys are used. The first key called the public key, is used by the sender to encrypt the message, while the second key, called the private key, is used by the receiver to decrypt the message, as in the Rivest–Shamir–Adleman (RSA) encryption [9], [10]. Recently, several techniques have shown their effectiveness in information transfer, among which are chaos-
based techniques [11]–[14]. Chaos, as a complex and unpredictable phenomenon inherent in nonlinear dynamical systems, has generated increasing interest in the field of encryption.

The application of chaos in encryption provides fertile ground for exploring new secure approaches in the field of cryptography. On the other hand, several encryption techniques have been developed, among which is the Hill cipher [15], [16], which is a classical technique generally applied to text. It is based on two steps: the first is the decomposition of the plaintext into blocks of size \( n \), where \((n, n)\) represents the size of the fixed invertible matrix in a carefully selected ring. This matrix is considered the encryption key. Then, each block is transformed using the key matrix to obtain the encrypted image.

Although the Hill cipher offers advantages, like other classical cryptographic techniques, it has certain limitations that require special attention. Therefore, many researchers have relied on combining the Hill cipher and chaos to enhance data security. Qobbi et al. [17] proposed a novel method for encrypting color images. They employed an affine transformation with an invertible matrix and a dynamic translation vector to process image blocks. A substitution matrix controlled by chaotic maps was used for preliminary confusion. In their article, Jarjar et al. [18] proposed a new encryption system for arbitrary-sized color images. This approach enhances the classical Hill method by using a \((3 \times 3)\) invertible matrix in the ring \( Z/12Z \). Simulations conducted on a wide range of images demonstrate that this approach can withstand various known attacks. Almaiah et al. [19] proposed a new hybrid encryption approach between the elliptic curve cryptosystem and Hill cipher (ECCHC) to convert Hill cipher from a symmetric technique to an asymmetric one, thereby enhancing its security and efficiency and resisting attacks. Santoso [20] utilized hybrid encryption by combining Hill cipher with a \( 3 \times 3 \) matrix key and RSA cryptography with a 512-bit key. The demonstration indicates that this approach overcomes security issues during data exchange, ensuring that sent messages cannot be read by unauthorized individuals. Verma and Agarwal [21] proposed an advanced and hybrid cryptosystem in which a \( 62 \times 62 \) table is employed instead of 26, and the Hill cipher is combined with it to bolster security.

In this article, we propose the use of an invertible matrix of dimension \((4 \times 4)\) operating within the ring \( Z/2^{12}Z \). This combination adds extra complexity, making the task of potential attackers more challenging. This manuscript is structured as follows: section 1 provides the introduction, where we address the issue of image transfer security and various techniques to tackle this problem. In section 2, we present some previous research. Then, in the third section, we describe our proposed method. Section 4 focuses on presenting the results obtained and their comparison with previous works. Finally, we conclude our study.

2. PROPOSED METHOD

In this work, we propose a combination of chaos and the Hill cipher, where the elements of an invertible matrix of size \((4 \times 4)\) operate within the ring \( Z/2^{12}Z \). This innovative approach aims to leverage chaotic characteristics to enhance resistance against various cryptographic attacks. The integration of chaos and the Hill cipher paves the way for significant advancements in designing robust encryption systems tailored to current information security challenges. Our study is structured as follows:

Step 1: Generation of chaotic sequences
Step 2: Preparation of the original image of size \(1 \times 3NM\).
  - Vectorization of the original image
  - Transition from the ring \( Z/2^8Z \) to the ring \( Z/2^{12}Z \)
Step 3: Creation of the confusion matrix
Step 4: Creation of the diffusion matrix
Step 5: Encryption process on the ring \( Z/2^{12}Z \)
Step 6: Transition from the ring \( Z/2^{12}Z \) to \( Z/2^8Z \)

2.1. Generation of chaotic sequences

Based on the concept of chaos, this study employs two of the most renowned chaotic maps in the field of cryptography. These maps are selected for their effectiveness and widespread recognition. Their utilization aims to enhance the security and complexity of our cryptographic methods.

2.1.1. The sine map

In this study, we focus on the one-dimensional chaotic sine map [22]. It is a well-known chaotic map used in cryptography. The expression for this map is given by (1).

\[
x_{n+1} = \mu \sin(x_n)
\]

With \( \mu \in [0, 1] \) as the control parameter exhibiting chaotic behavior for \( \mu \in [0.87, 1] \).

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2.1.2. The PWLCM map

Piecewise linear chaotic map (PWLCM) [23] are utilized to generate pseudo-random sequences for cryptographic applications. These maps are effective in enhancing security. The mathematical definition is provided in (2).

\[
y_n = F(y_{n-1}, d) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{y_{n-1}}{d}, & 0 \leq y_{n-1} \leq d \\
\frac{y_{n-1}}{d} - \frac{d}{2}, & d \leq y_{n-1} \leq 0.5 \\
F(1 - y_{n-1}, d), & d \leq y_{n-1} \leq 1
\end{cases}
\]  \tag{2}

The PWLCM is known to exhibit chaotic behavior when its chosen initial condition lies within the interval: \(y_0 \in [0; 1]\) and its parameter \(d \in [0; 0.5]\).

2.2. Preparing the original image of size N\times M

After loading the original image of size N\times M and extracting three color channels, the image undergoes the following transformations:

- The 2-dimensional array representing the image is transformed into a one-dimensional array \(U\) of size \((1 \times 3NM)\).
- The elements of array \(U\) are converted to the ring \(\mathbb{Z}_{12}\).

2.2.1. Generating pseudo-random vectors \(L\) and \(C\)

To introduce a pseudo-random aspect to the image preparation phase, we will use a pseudo-random vector \(L\) of size \(1 \times 3NM\) generated from chaotic maps using Algorithm 1:

Algorithm 1. Generation of a pseudo-random vector

For \(i=0\) to \(3NM-1\)

\(L[i] = \text{int}((x[i] \times 10^9) \% 50)\)

The pseudo-random vector \(L\) will be used to generate another pseudo-random vector \(C\) in the ring \(\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}\) of size \(1 \times 3NM\), subdivided into blocks of three elements, with each block containing distinct values of 0, 1, and 2. The use of vector \(C\) allows for the creation of a random distribution of elements from the three vectors representing the three channels (R, G, B), as well as the creation of controlled pseudo-random sequences. This is accomplished according to Algorithm 2 as:

Algorithm 2. Pseudo-random vector \(C\)

For \(i=0\) to \(NM-1\)

\(d=0\)

For \(j=0\) to \(3NM-1\)

For \(k=0\) to \(2\)

If \(L[3i+k]=j\)

\(C[3i+k]=d\)

\(d=d+1\)

2.2.2. Vectorization of the original image

The three channels (R, G, B) are converted into three vectors \(VR, VG, VB\), each of size \(1 \times NM\). These three vectors are concatenated to generate the one-dimensional vector \(U\) of size \(1 \times 3NM\), using the pseudo-random vector \(C\). The assignment of elements to the vector \(U\) of rank \(i\) is as follows:

- If \(C(i) = 0\), the element comes from vector \(VR\)
- If \(C(i) = 1\), the element comes from vector \(VG\)
- If \(C(i) = 2\), the element comes from vector \(VB\)

This is achieved using Algorithm 3:

Algorithm 3. Vectorization of the original image

For \(i=0\) to \(NM-1\)

For \(k=0\) to \(2\):

if \(C[3i+k]==0\) then

\(U[3i+k]=VR[i]\)

else if \(C[3i+k]==1\) then

\(U[3i+k]=VG[i]\)

else:

\(U[3i+k]=VB[i]\)
Figure 1 provides a detailed breakdown of the various stages of the vectorization process. This process effectively reduces the intense correlation between adjacent pixels. We can think of this first step as a moderate form of encryption of the original image. A second cycle is necessary to increase the complexity of our method, thus making differential attacks more difficult to perform.

2.2.3. Transition from the ring $\mathbb{Z}/2^8\mathbb{Z}$ to the ring $\mathbb{Z}/2^{12}\mathbb{Z}$

The transition from the ring $\mathbb{Z}/2^8\mathbb{Z}$ to the ring $\mathbb{Z}/2^{12}\mathbb{Z}$ aims to enhance the robustness and security of the encryption process. After vectorizing the original image, all elements of $U$ are converted into an 8-bit binary form, and after concatenating all the bits, each block of 12 bits of the resulting vector is converted into a decimal value ($V_i$) in the ring $\mathbb{Z}/2^{12}\mathbb{Z}$. Figure 2 illustrates the various steps necessary to obtain the vector $V$ of size 1×2NM in the ring $\mathbb{Z}/2^{12}\mathbb{Z}$.

2.2.4. Adaptation of the vector $V$ size

As we will be using Hill matrices of order (4×4), we divide the vector $V$ into two sub-vectors:
- Vector $W$ of size (1×4t), where $t$ is the number of blocks of size 4.
- Vector $Z$ of size (1×r), where $r$ represents the size of the vector to be truncated.

The sizes of $W$ and $Z$ are determined based on the following expressions:

\[2 \times N \times M = r \quad [4]\]
\[0 \leq r \leq 3\]
\[t = \frac{2 \times N \times M - r}{4}\]

With: $r$ is the size of $Z$ if $r \neq 0$; $t$ is the number of blocks of size 4. This division is illustrated by Algorithm 4:
Algorithm 4. Adjustment of the image size
//Construction de W
For i=0 to 4t-1
W(i)=V(i)
Next i
//Construction de Z
For i=4t to 2MN-M-1
Z(i)=V(i)
Next i

This adaptation is illustrated by Figure 3.

2.3. Improvement of Hill cipher
Hill cipher is an encryption technique that relies on matrix manipulation and matrix calculations to encrypt data. In our system, we have incorporated two matrices:
- The first matrix $CH_1$, of size $4 \times 4$, which is invertible and used for the confusion process.
- The second matrix $CH_2$, also of size $4 \times 4$, which is not necessarily invertible and used for diffusion.

To overcome the linearity issue associated with Hill cipher, we incorporate two pseudo-random vectors, denoted by $K$ and $T$, of size $1 \times 2NM$, defined by Algorithm 5 as follows:

Algorithm 5. Generation of two chaotic vectors
For i = 0 to $2NM-1$
$K[i]=$int($\frac{(\max(x[i], y[i]) \times 10^9)}{2^{12}}$)
$T[i]=$int($\frac{(\min(x[i], y[i]) \times 10^9)}{2^{12}}$)

2.3.1. Construction of the confusion matrix
In our approach, the improvement of the Hill cipher involves generating an invertible matrix of order $(4 \times 4)$ by using the product of two matrices $A$ and $B$, one upper triangular and the other lower triangular, where all elements of these matrices are of pseudo-random nature, injected into the ring $Z/2^{12}Z$.

\[
A = \begin{pmatrix}
    a1 & a2 & a3 & a4 \\
    0 & a5 & a6 & a7 \\
    0 & 0 & a8 & a9 \\
    0 & 0 & 0 & a10
\end{pmatrix}
\quad \text{and} \quad
B = \begin{pmatrix}
    b1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    b2 & b5 & 0 & 0 \\
    b3 & b6 & b8 & 0 \\
    b4 & b7 & b9 & b10
\end{pmatrix}
\]

The two matrices $A$ and $B$ are invertible if and only if all diagonal elements of $A$ and $B$ are odd. Then, the inverse of $CH_1$ is denoted by $CH_1^{-1}$ and is obtained by calculating the product of the inverses of $B$ and $A$.

- $CH_1 = A \ast B$
- $CH_1^{-1} = B^{-1} \ast A^{-1}$

2.3.2. Construction of the diffusion matrix
To enhance security against brute force attacks and implement the diffusion process, we use a matrix $CH_2$ of order $(4 \times 4)$. This matrix is not necessarily invertible and its elements belong to the ring $Z/2^{12}Z$. The components of $CH_2$ are derived from chaotic maps, utilizing Algorithm 6 as follows:
Algorithm 6. The elements of matrix $CH_2$

For $k=0$ to 3:
  For $j=0$ to 3:
    $CH_2[k,j] = K[2*N+3*k+j]$

2.4. Encryption process of vector $W$ over the ring $\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z}$

2.4.1. Installing the diffusion phase

To set up this phase, an initialization vector IS of size $(1\times 4)$ is introduced. The element of vector IS are obtained through Algorithm 7. In this context, $t$ represents the number of blocks of size 4 in vector $W$.

Algorithm 7. Initialization vector generation

$IS[0]=0$

For $i=1$ to $4t-1$

$IS[0]=IS[0] \oplus W[i]$

Next $i$

$IS[1]=IS[0] \oplus W[1]$


$IS[3]=IS[0] \oplus W[3]$

2.4.2. Modification of the first block $V_0$

The elements of the initialization vector are used to initiate a diffusion step. This step is essential for enhancing security. The operation is executed using the subsequent expressions.

$W[0]=W[0] \oplus IS[0]$


2.4.3. Confusion phase

Confusion is the initial step of our encryption system. In this step, we use the matrix $CH_1$ in a specified affine transformation. Vector $Y$ represents the encrypted image.

$Y[4i] = CH_1 \times (W[4i] \oplus (K[4i])) \\ Y[4i+1] = CH_1 \times (W[4i+1] \oplus (K[4i+1])) \\ Y[4i+2] = CH_1 \times (W[4i+2] \oplus (K[4i+2])) \\ Y[4i+3] = CH_1 \times (W[4i+3] \oplus (K[4i+3]))$

2.4.4. Diffusion phase

To bolster security against potential differential attacks, we adopt cipher block chaining (CBC) mode. This mode enhances encryption by incorporating the previous ciphertext block into the encryption of the current block. Its implementation helps fortify our encryption method.

$W[4(i+1)] = CH_2 \times (Y[4i] \oplus (T[4i])) \\ W[4(i+1)+1] = CH_2 \times (Y[4i+1] \oplus (T[4i+1])) \\ W[4(i+1)+2] = CH_2 \times (Y[4i+2] \oplus (T[4i+2])) \\ W[4(i+1)+3] = CH_2 \times (Y[4i+3] \oplus (T[4i+3]))$

2.5. Encryption process of vector $Z$ over the ring $\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z}$

Let $X(1\times r)$ be the encrypted vector of vector $Z(1\times r)$. The encryption process of $Z$ varies depending on the value of $r$, allowing the determination of the elements of $Z$ to be encrypted as:

If $r = 1$

$X[0]=Z[0] \oplus K[1]$

If $r = 2$

$X[0]=Z[0] \oplus K[2] \oplus K[N+1]$

If $r = 3$

$X[0]=Z[0] \oplus K[N+2]$

Let $Y_c$ be the final output vector of size $(1\times 2NM)$ representing the encrypted image, obtained by concatenating vector $Y$ with vector $X$, according to Algorithm 8. Figure 4 provides a detailed illustration of the proposed encryption process.
Algorithm 8. Encrypted image

For i=0 to 4t-1
Yc[i]=Y[i]
Next i
For i= 0 to r-1
Yc[i+4t]=X[i]
Next i

2.6. Decryption

The decryption process is the reverse operation of the initial mechanism, using the same encryption keys. Our method relies on a symmetric encryption system with diffusion implementation. This process is carried out by following the steps below:

Axis 1: Transformation of the encrypted image into a one-dimensional array.
Axis 2: Convert each 12-bit block into a decimal value.
Axis 3: Generation of chaotic sequences.
Axis 4: Creation of the invertible matrix CH⁻¹ using the following mathematical form: CH⁻¹ = B⁻¹*A⁻¹
Axis 5: Adaptation of the encrypted image vector.
Axis 6: Decryption of vector X(1×r).
Axis 7: Inverse confusion phase and inverse diffusion of vector Y(1×4t).

Let Z of size (1×r) be the decrypted vector of vector X of size (1×r). The decryption process of vector X is determined by the following expression, which varies according to the value of r, thereby deducing the elements of X to decrypt:

If r = 1
Z[0] = X[0] ⊕ K[0]

If r = 2
Z[0] = X[0] ⊕ K[0]

If r = 3
Z[0] = X[0] ⊕ K[0]

Axis 7: Inverse confusion phase and inverse diffusion of vector Y(1×4t).

Let Y[i] represents the encrypted block i of the image and W[i] represent the decrypted block i of the image, we have:

\[ Y_i = CH_1(W_i) \oplus K(i) \quad \text{and} \quad W_i = W_i \oplus (CH_2(Y_{i-1}) \oplus T(i-1)) \]
\[ \text{So} \quad Y_i = CH_1(W_i \oplus (CH_2(Y_{i-1}) \oplus T(i-1))) \oplus K(i) \]
\[ W_i = CH_1^{-1}[Y_i \oplus K(i)] \oplus [CH_2(Y_{i-1}) \oplus T(i-1)] \]
The vector $V$ of size $(1 \times 3NM)$ representing the original image is obtained by concatenating the vector $W$ with the vector $Z$, as described in Algorithm 9. The various encryption steps are illustrated in Figure 5.

Algorithm 9. Original image

For $i=0$ to $4t-1$
$V[i]=W(i)$
Next $i$

For $i=0$ to $r-1$
$V[i+4t]=Z(i)$
Next $i$

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To assess the security of a cryptosystem, it must undergo various efficiency tests against all known attacks, including exhaustive, statistical, and differential attacks. Our approach is thus tested on a diverse set of color and medical images using Python on a Windows 10 operating system. The hardware setup includes an Intel(R) Core (TM) i5-6300U CPU @ 2.40 GHz processor with a speed of 2.50 GHz and 8 GB of RAM.

3.1. Visual testing

The encryption scheme we proposed was evaluated using various standard images commonly used for image processing tests. We particularly highlighted the results obtained for three specific images: Baboon $(512 \times 512)$, House $(256 \times 256)$ and Peppers $(512 \times 512)$. Figure 6 presents the original images along with their encrypted versions. The results confirm that the encrypted image contains no information from the original image.

3.2. Analysis of brute force attacks

3.2.1. Key space

For a robust encryption algorithm, it is crucial that the key space is extensive, ideally surpassing $2^{100}$. In our algorithm, we leverage two chaotic maps derived from four real parameters, with each parameter encoded in 32 bits. This configuration results in an overall key space of $2^{128}$, significantly exceeding the desired threshold of $2^{100}$.

3.2.2. Number of possible matrices

The elements $a_2$, $a_3$, $a_4$, $a_6$, $a_7$, and $a_9$ of matrix $A$ can take values from 0 to 4095, thus offering 4096 possibilities for each element. Therefore, the total number of possibilities to choose the values of $a_2$, $a_3$, $a_4$, $a_6$, $a_7$, and $a_9$ is $(4096)^6 = (2^{12})^6 = 2^{72}$. By imposing the condition that the diagonal elements must be odd, each element of $a_1$, $a_5$, $a_8$, and $a_10$ has $2^{11}$ possibilities, or $(2^{11})^4 = 2^{44}$. Thus, the total number of choices for the elements of $A$ is $2^{72} \times 2^{44} = 2^{116}$. Similarly, for $B$, we get $2^{116}$ possibilities. Therefore, the number of possibilities for matrix $CH_1$ is $(2^{116})^2 = 2^{232}$. On the other hand, each element of matrix $CH_2$ can take 2 different values. Thus, the total number of possibilities to choose matrix $CH_2$ is $(2^{12})^{16} = 2^{192}$. Consequently, the total number of possible matrices is $2^{232} \times 2^{192} = 2^{424}$, which is significantly very large. It is deduced that our approach is immune to brute force attacks.
3.2.3. Key sensitivity

Our system utilizes two well-established chaotic maps commonly used in cryptography due to their exceptional sensitivity to initial conditions. This sensitivity guarantees a high degree of responsiveness to our encryption key. This is demonstrated in Figure 7.

This ensures that the original image cannot be recovered without knowing the genuine encryption secret key. In other words, the security of the encryption process relies on the confidentiality of this key. Without it, retrieving the original image from the encrypted one is impossible.

![Visual test of selected images](image)

Figure 6. Visual test of selected images

![Key sensitivity](image)

Figure 7. Key sensitivity

3.3. Robustness to statistical attacks

3.3.1. Correlation analysis

The encryption operation aims to reduce the correlation between adjacent pixels to almost zero in order to counter statistical attacks. The correlation coefficient [24] is calculated using (3), (4), and (5).
where \( x \) and \( y \) represent the color component values of adjacent pixels in the image, \( N \) is the total number of selected adjacent pixels in the image, and \( r_{xy} \) is the correlation coefficient. The correlation coefficient is presented in Table 1. Our method has demonstrated that all evaluated image metrics exhibited values extremely close to zero. This confirms the robustness of our algorithm against any statistical attack.

Table 1. Correlation coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Images</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baboon</td>
<td>0.0020</td>
<td>0.0013</td>
<td>0.0017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House</td>
<td>0.0044</td>
<td>0.0070</td>
<td>0.0059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peppers</td>
<td>-0.0005</td>
<td>0.0003</td>
<td>-0.0033</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.2. Histogram analysis

Ideally, a robust encryption algorithm [24] should distribute values in a random or pseudo-random manner. Figure 8 provides an illustration of the histograms of the encrypted image. The histogram outcomes of images encrypted by our algorithm reveals a uniform distribution.

3.3.3. Entropy analysis

Entropy measures the amount of random information present in the encryption. It is expressed [25] by (6):

\[
H(m) = -\sum_{i=0}^{255} p(m_i) \log_2(p(m_i))
\]

The theoretical entropy is equal to 8. Table 2 illustrates the entropy values of the three images encrypted by our system. Each of the images evaluated by our method exhibits entropy close to 8. This ensures the resilience of our system against entropy-based attacks.
Table 2. Entropy analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Image</th>
<th>Entropy Original image</th>
<th>Entropy Encrypted image</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baboon</td>
<td>7.6444</td>
<td>7.9993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House</td>
<td>7.2718</td>
<td>7.9969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peppers</td>
<td>7.2978</td>
<td>7.9993</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4. Differential attacks

3.4.1. NPCR and UACI

The negative pixel count rate (NPCR) and the unified average changing intensity (UACI) [26] are commonly used measures in the field of steganography and cryptography to assess the sensitivity to changes in pixels in encrypted images. These two parameters are calculated as (7)-(9):

\[ \text{NPCR} = \left( \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{i,j=1}^{NM} D(i,j) \right) \times 100 \]  
\[ D(i,j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } C_1(i,j) \neq C_2(i,j) \\ 0 & \text{if } C_1(i,j) = C_2(i,j) \end{cases} \]  

\[ \text{UACI} = \left( \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{i,j=1}^{NM} \frac{\text{ABS}(C_1(i,j) - C_2(i,j))}{255} \right) \times 100 \]

Table 3 provides the NPCR and UACI values for several pairs of slightly different values. The NPCR and UACI values obtained with our proposed scheme are remarkably close to the expected values, set at 99.6% and 33.4%, respectively. This suggests that our algorithm is highly resistant to any form of differential attack.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Images</th>
<th>NPCR (%)</th>
<th>UACI (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baboon</td>
<td>99.7381</td>
<td>33.4995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House</td>
<td>99.8672</td>
<td>33.8410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peppers</td>
<td>99.6136</td>
<td>33.5024</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4.2. Avalanche effect

The avalanche effect, the study [27] is a property whereby a small, minimal variation in input data should result in substantial differences in the encrypted results. The avalanche effect (AE) is calculated by expression (10):

\[ \text{AE} = \frac{\text{Number of changed bits}}{\text{Total number of bits in encrypted image}} \]

Table 4 illustrates the avalanche effect values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Images</th>
<th>Avalanche effect (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baboon</td>
<td>52.6683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House</td>
<td>53.3358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peppers</td>
<td>50.0215</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the obtained values exceed 50%. This observation ensures that a change of a single bit in the clear image results in significant modifications of the bits in the encrypted image. Thus, our system is robust against any known attack.

3.5. Comparison

In Table 5, we will conduct a thorough performance analysis, comparing our technique to various other approaches. The comparison will primarily emphasize entropy, NPCR, UACI, and correlation coefficient values. This detailed review aims to offer a comprehensive understanding of the encryption strengths and capabilities of our technique.
REFERENCES


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