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Efficient Image Encryption Scheme Using Henon Map, Dynamic S-Boxes and Elliptic Curve Cryptography

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ABSTRACT Image encryption schemes can be vulnerable to a variety of cryptanalysis attacks. The use of key-dependent dynamic S-boxes has been shown to improve security. Threats of chosen-plaintext and chosen-ciphertext attacks still linger. In this paper, we present an efficient algorithm for constructing secure dynamic S-boxes derived from Henon map. We use the proposed dynamic S-box to construct an image encryption scheme that includes a novel combination of security features to resist chosen-plaintext and chosen-ciphertext attacks. Namely, a hash verification step at the end of the decryption procedure effectively thwarts chosen-ciphertext attacks. The hash also serves as an image dependent initialization for the keystream, which together with using an image dependent S-box resist known-plaintext attacks. Furthermore, encryption keys are protected against cryptanalysis using elliptic curve cryptography (ECC). Therefore, the recovery of secret keys is as hard as the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem even in the unlikely case of the recovery of the temporary S-box or keystream. Our evaluation of the proposed image encryption scheme reveals that it achieves a higher security standard than existing techniques. Moreover, the proposed scheme is computationally efficient with encryption throughput approaching 60 MB/s.

INDEX TERMS Chaotic map, elliptic curve cryptography, image encryption, substitution box.

I. INTRODUCTION

The process of securing images content and preventing it from potential malicious access has become an integral part for various applications such as securing users' images when sharing data through social media, secure cloud environment and copyright protection. Encryption techniques transform a plaintext message to corresponding ciphertext message such that only an authorized user, who has access to a confidential decryption key, can recover the original message.

A secure encryption scheme must satisfy certain criteria such as confusion, diffusion and key-dependence requirements [1]. However, the high correlation between adjacent image pixels presents a special challenge. An adversary can exploit such correlation to launch various statistical attacks and infer some information about the content of the original image. Therefore, additional criteria must be met by image encryption schemes to guarantee immunity to such attacks.

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A common technique to overcome this problem is complementary addition with a pseudorandom number (PRN) sequence. The image encryption method proposed by [2] uses a PRN sequence, which is generated using a complete order defined on the points of an elliptic curve (EC) with secret parameters. Another well-studied PRN complementary padding method uses Henon chaotic map [3], which yields extremely efficient implementations [4].

Another peculiar feature of image encryption is the large volume of data and the subsequent requirement for efficient algorithms for encrypting image data. Asymmetric key encryption techniques, such as RSA and ECC are known for their relatively high computational cost. Therefore, symmetric key encryption algorithms are preferable for encrypting image data. A variety of symmetric key image encryption schemes have been proposed in literature [4]–[6]. Symmetric key techniques based on a cryptographically secure substitution box (S-box) have received special attention in literature such as [7], [8], because of their superior performance advantage. In this paper, we propose a novel image encryption scheme that utilizes elliptic curve cryptography and secure hash algorithms to fend off chosen-plaintext and chosen-ciphertext attacks. The proposed encryption combines the efficiency and desirable statistical properties of Henon map with the additional security provided by dynamic S-box confusion. Our contribution can be summarized in the following points

- 1) proposing an efficient dynamic S-box construction method based on Henon map,
- using an elliptic curve cryptosystem technique to protect encryption keys, and
- 3) using secure hash algorithm to identify malformed cipher message to resist chosen ciphertext attacks.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 covers the necessary background and related work on S-box construction techniques, elliptic curve cryptography and Henon map. Section 3 describes the proposed image encryption approach, including the new dynamic S-box construction algorithm. Section 4 evaluates the performance of the S-box construction algorithm and the strength of the generated S-boxes. Section 5 evaluates the performance of image encryption scheme. Section 6 highlights the advantages of the proposed image encryption scheme in comparison to related schemes. Finally, concluding remarks are drawn in Section 7.

II. BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

A secure encryption scheme must achieve Shannon's objectives of confusion and diffusion. To satisfy the confusion objective of cryptographic systems, symmetric key schemes often use substitution boxes as a basic building block. An $n \times m$ S-box carries out a substitution function which transforms a set of n input bits into a corresponding set of m output bits. The proposed encryption scheme uses invertible $n \times n$ S-boxes.

A. S-BOX BASED ENCRYPTION

Two main categories of S-boxes are used in encryption methods: static S-boxes and dynamic S-boxes [9]. A dynamic S-box has an advantage over a static S-box due to the former's additional key space. Consequently, dynamic S-boxes harden a cipher against potential brute-force attacks by increasing the key space [10]. In order to measure the strength of an S-box, researchers compare their S-box performance against available benchmark including Nonlinearity (NL), Linear Approximation Probability (LAP), Differential Approximation Probability (DAP), Strict Avalanche Criterion (SAC) and Bit Independence Criterion (BIC) [2], [7], [10]-[17]. Efficient methods for S-box construction, such as [7], [11], [14], generate a single or a limited number of static S-boxes. To address this limitation, several dynamic S-box construction methods have been developed such as [1], [2], [10], [12], [13], [16].

A dynamic S-box was utilized in [1]. The algorithm consists of five steps in order to construct a randomized S-box. However, one of the proposed steps depends on brute-force method to calculate all points of the chosen finite elliptic curve, which has the limitation of using small parameters. Therefore, the algorithm may be vulnerable to brute-force attacks. Reference [18] offers a similar construction algorithm, which shares the same limitation.

Reference [16], presents a secure dynamic S-boxes based on linear fractional transformations with randomized coefficients. Although their proposed algorithm is efficient, it has just about 2^{32} key space, which is within the reach of bruteforce attacks.

In [10], authors proposed a new dynamic S-box, which utilizes chaos and the composition of basis S-boxes. The main drawback of this method is its relatively high computational cost for large key sizes.

Soft-computing methods have been applied to the problem of S-box construction. Reference [13] uses a genetic algorithm optimization to gradually improve the constructed S-box to achieve the nonlinearity and other strength objectives. However, soft-computing methods are not fast enough to allow real-time construction of dynamic S-boxes.

B. CHAOTIC SYSTEMS

Chaos systems are dynamic systems which are highly sensitive to initial conditions. Therefore, they are ideal candidates for generating cryptographic pseudorandom sequences. Chaotic sequences such as Henon map, Baker map, logistic map, Arnold cat mat, etc., have been used in many encryption algorithms that are found in literature.

Reference [19], proposes a new chaos map and a corresponding S-box-based encryption scheme with chaotic block permutation. In [14], the proposed S-box is applied along with a chaotic map for image encryption.

Recently, Hegui Zhu *et al.* in [20] proposed a 2-dimensional logistic-sine-modulated sine-coupling-logistic (LSMCL) chaotic map with two round of diffusion and permutation. The proposed system exhibits high security against standards attacks. However, the composition of multiple simple chaotic systems to enhance chaotic performance comes at an increased computational cost.

In [21], the authors introduced a new 1-D chaotic map by exponential chaotic model. They used the exponential arithmetic operation for nonlinearity. Their system can produce a new chaotic map from base maps (two maps) and exponent maps. In addition, the produced chaotic map shows a better performance in the presence of noise. The authors in [22] proposed a hybrid chaos system that combines more than one map in a cascading manner to produce new chaotic maps with improved chaos complexity.

C. HENON MAP

M. Henon proposed this classical dynamic system in discrete time domain [3]. Henon map transforms a point (x_p, y_p) into (x_{p+1}, y_{p+1}) as follows:

$$x_{p+1} = 1 - ax_p^2 + y_p, \quad y_{p+1} = bx_p$$
 (1)

where *a* and *b* are the Henon map parameters. The behavior of the map depends on the value of *a* and *b*. When a = 1.4

and b = 0.3, the map is guaranteed to be chaotic [4]. Cryptologists leveraged the powerful features of Henon map in cryptographic systems. For image encryption, Henon map can provide confusion and histogram uniformity.

Henon chaotic map is computationally efficient and exhibits near optimal randomness properties. Pseudorandomness tests, including balance test, run test and autocorrelation test, were performed on Henon map sequence and the reported results were very close to the theoretical optimal [23]. In [24], Henon-based permutations were shown to be closer to a random permutation than those based on Standard map and Arnold Cat map, and thus images scrambled with 3-round Henon map permutation don't contain any visible texture patterns.

D. ELLIPTIC CURVE PRELIMINARY

A finite elliptic curve (FEC) over a prime field is defined by the equation

$$E(p, a, b) = \left\{ (x, y) | x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_p, y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p} \right\} \\ \cup \{\mathcal{O}\},$$
(2)

where p is a prime number, $\mathbb{Z}_p = \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$, a and $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ which satisfy the following criteria

$$4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0 \,(\text{mod } p). \tag{3}$$

 \mathcal{O} is called "the point at infinity" and serves as a special additive identity element, as will be shown shortly in Equation (4). In practice, \mathcal{O} is represented by a pair of coordinates $\notin \mathbb{Z}_p$.

The inverse of a point $P = (x, y) \in E(p, a, b)$, is

$$-P = \begin{cases} \mathcal{O}, & P = \mathcal{O} \\ (x, p - y), & otherwise. \end{cases}$$
(4)

For each pair of points $P, Q \in E(p, a, b)$, the sum point R = P + Q is defined as the inverse of the third intersection point of the line $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{PQ}$ with the curve *E*. When P = -Q, the result of the addition is defined as the additive identity point \mathcal{O} .

$$P + Q = \begin{cases} P, & Q = \mathcal{O} \\ Q, & P = \mathcal{O} \\ \mathcal{O}, & P = -Q \\ R(x_R, y_R), & otherwise \end{cases}$$
(5)

where $x_R = \lambda^2 - x_P - x_Q \pmod{p}$, $y_R = \lambda (x_P - x_R) - y_P \pmod{p}$ and

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} (y_Q - y_P)/(x_Q - x_P), & P \neq Q\\ (3x_P^2 + a)/2y_P, & P = Q \end{cases}$$

For a point $P \in E(p, a, b)$ and a multiplicand $k \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, scalar-point multiplication is defined as

$$kP = \begin{cases} O, & k = 0\\ P + (k - 1)P, & otherwise \end{cases}$$
(6)

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In practice, multiplication is implemented using a variation of the efficient double-and-add algorithm.

According to Hasse's theorem, the number of points on a FEC, E(p, a, b), is bounded by

$$p+1-2\sqrt{p} \le \#E(p,a,b) \le p+1+2\sqrt{p}.$$
 (7)

The elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem (ECDLP) aims to find $k \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, given $P, G \in E(p, a, b)$ such that kG = P. There is no efficient algorithm to find k and the hardness of this problem forms the basis of elliptic curve cryptography. Namely, a secret k can be hidden in the structure of P = kG.

Since its introduction in 1985 by Koblitz [25] and Miller [26], ECC has been increasingly used in applications to replace the less efficient RSA alternative. A preliminary on elliptic curves and EC cryptosystems can be found in [25]–[28].

E. CHAOS-BASED IMAGE ENCRYPTION

A plethora of chaos-based image encryption schemes have been proposed in literature in the past two decades. The role chaotic sequences play in image encryption varies from controlling pixel location permutation, pixel value substitution or application as an additive mask to pixel values. In this subsection, we review recent chaotic image encryption work most relevant to the proposed scheme. Namely, we focus on chaotic image encryption schemes employing dynamic S-boxes, Henon map, elliptic curve cryptography (ECC) or a combination thereof.

1) S-BOX-BASED CHAOTIC IMAGE ENCRYPTION

Several recent image encryption schemes depend on dynamic S-boxes. Reference [29], proposes an image encryption scheme, which starts by constructing three dynamic S-boxes. Image pixels are XORed with a keystream derived from a chaotic pseudorandom number generator, then each pixel is substituted using a randomly chosen S-boxes.

The scheme proposed in [30] uses a single dynamically constructed S-box for two rounds of chained substitution followed by one round of pixels permutation.

The authors of [31] apply a pixel location permutation, then chaotically choose one of multiple dynamically generated S-boxes, to substitute pixel values.

The schemes in [32] and [14], start with a permutation stage, followed by a dynamic-S-box-based substitution and finally a diffusion stage using a chaotic keystream.

On the other hand, the scheme in [33] starts by a dynamic-S-box-based substitution, then a permutation using a chaotic sequence, and finally a diffusion stage using a fractal image as a keystream.

An image encryption scheme, which starts by a diffusing stage with a chaotic keystream, followed by a substitution stage with 8 dynamic S-boxes, was proposed by [19]. Finally, another chaotic diffusion stage and a block permutation function are applied. A chaotic map was used as a source of the dynamic S-box construction parameters. In [34], the authors used a similar dynamic S-box construction method to propose an image encryption scheme based on block permutation, substitution and diffusion with chaotic keystream.

The scheme in [35] tries to improve the computational efficiency by keeping few S-boxes and tries to improve security by using the plain image pixels to dynamically modify the S-boxes.

In [36], the authors proposed a novel synchronous chaining structure employing two dynamic S-boxes.

2) HENON MAP-BASED IMAGE ENCRYTION

Recently, several image encryption schemes employing Henon map appeared in literature. The scheme proposed in [37] integrated fractal and 3D Henon maps, with image based initialization, to generate keystreams, which control the a permutation phase, followed by an XOR diffusion phase. The scheme proposed in [24] performed three rounds of permutation-diffusion driven by a 2D Henon map. The initialization of chaotic maps was also derived from the image to resist chosen plaintext attacks.

Another Henon map-based scheme was proposed in [38], in which a modified Henon map controls pixel row and column permutation, whereas diffusion is performed using Sine map. A modified Henon-sine map was proposed in [39] to generate chaotic keystreams which control a DNA-based diffusion phase and a pixel permutation phase. However, the initial values of maps in both schemes are directly derived from secret keys, which make the scheme susceptible to chosen plaintext attacks.

3) ELLIPTIC CURVE-BASED IMAGE ENCRYTION

Several attempts to use ECC for image encryption have been presented in literature. Most recently, the scheme in [40] embeds the pixels of the scrambled image into an elliptic curve to apply ECC, then uses chaos game with DNA for diffusion. SHA-512 of the image was used to generate the initialization of chaotic maps to resist chosen plaintext attacks. However, the use of ECC for actual pixel encryption leads to high computational cost.

The scheme of [2] used EC to construct an S-Box and a pseudorandom keystream. The image dependent initialization was calculated using a simple sum operation, which may be vulnerable to chosen-plaintext attacks.

In [41], an EC public key cryptosystem was employed for the generation of shared encryption key. For actual image encryption, a self-invertible key matrix is multiplied by each image block. However, results of differential analysis expose some weakness.

An earlier scheme in [42] used public key ECC to encrypt diffused image pixels, which again is computationally taxing.

The scheme proposed in [43] combines public key ECC and AES to reduce the number of EC point multiplications and hence provide more efficient image encryption. Although this scheme uses two of the strongest encryption constructs, i.e. ECC and AES, the strength of the resulting

| Algorithm 1 Precondition Initial Point | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Input : Key point (x_K, y_K) . | | | | | | |
| Output : Initial system state (x_0, y_0) | | | | | | |
| $\overline{x_0 \leftarrow \operatorname{abs}(x_K), y_0 \leftarrow \operatorname{abs}(y_K)}$ | | | | | | |
| while $x_0 > 0.5$ do | | | | | | |
| $x_0 \leftarrow x_0/2$ | | | | | | |
| end while | | | | | | |
| while $y_0 > 0.5$ do | | | | | | |
| $y_0 \leftarrow y_0/2$ | | | | | | |
| end while | | | | | | |

scheme is questionable due to the lack of image-dependent initialization.

A comprehensive review of recent image encryption schemes can be found in [44].

III. THE PROPOSED IMAGE ENCRYPTION SCHEME

Prior to the commencement of the proposed scheme, the communicating parties are configured to use an elliptic curve E(p, a, b) and a generating point $G \in E(p, a, b)$. They agree on a shared composite encryption key (K_1, K_2) , such that K_1 and $K_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{256}$. The proposed image encryption scheme generates a dynamic S-box modulated by K_1 , and an image-dependent chaotic keystream modulated by K_2 , which enables the proposed scheme to resist chosen plain-text attacks. Both the construction of the S-box and the generation of the keystream are derived from a Henon map pseudorandom sequence generator.

A. HENON MAP PSEUDORANDOM SEQUENCE GENERATOR

Given an initialization point (x_0, y_0) , and a desired output length, t, we propose the following algorithm to generate a sequence of pseudorandom integers modulo-256, denoted $S_{(x_0,y_0)}^{L,t} = (r_0, r_1, \ldots, r_{t-1})$. Using (1), calculate the next t + L points (x_i, y_i) , where $0 \le i \le t + L$, and L is the a constant number of initial iterations to get rid of the transient effect and improve key sensitivity. A pseudorandom integer r_i is obtained from a point (x_i, y_i) using the formula

$$r_i = 2^{24} x_{L+i+1} \bmod 256 \tag{8}$$

To avoid sequence divergence, the components of the initialization point (x_0, y_0) are limited in the interval $0 \le x_0, y_0 \le 0.5$. Since the given key point (x_K, y_K) may not fall in this domain, Algorithm 1 is performed to derive the initialization point from the key point.

B. DYNAMIC S-BOX CONSTRUCTION

To construct a bijective 8×8 S-box, the S-box key, K_S , is represented as a pair of double values (x_S, y_S) , preconditioned using Algorithm 1. Then the Henon map pseudorandom sequence generator $(r_i) = S_{(x_0,y_0)}^{L,t}$ is calculated, where $L = 100, t = 256 \omega$, and ω is a parameter determining the number of permutation rounds. The sequence (r_i) is used to



end for



FIGURE 1. Proposed image encryption procedure.

construct the S-box by repeatedly swapping S-box elements guided by the pseudorandom sequence. The details of the S-box construction process are shown in Algorithm 2.

C. IMAGE ENCRYPTION AND DECRYPTION PROCEDURES

During the image encryption/decryption phase, each image passes through three main operations at the sender: 1) hash calculation of the plain image, 2) calculation and application of Henon map mask, 3) application of S-box. The main corresponding three inverse operations are then applied in reverse order at the receiver.

1) ENCRYPTION ALGORITHM

As shown in the block diagram in Figure 1, the encryption procedure starts with a plain image, *I*. First, two random nonce values π and $\rho \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{256}$ are generated. The nonce, π , along with key K_1 control the construction of a dynamic S-box with key point $K_S = (\pi + K_1) G$, where *G* is generator point of the elliptic curve used for encryption. In this paper, we used a standard elliptic curve known as Curve25519 [45]. For higher levels of security, larger curves such as Curve448 may be used. The important role of elliptic curve multiplication in securing the key, K_1 , against cryptanalysis will be discussed in Section 5. Next, we compute the secure hash of the plain image concatenated with random

| Algorithm 3 Image Encryption |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Input: plain image, (I) , session key (K_1, K_2) , number of |
| permutation rounds, ω . |
| Output: cipher message, C. |
| $\overline{1, \rho \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_2^{256}, \pi \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_2^{256}}.$ |
| 2. $K_S \leftarrow (\pi + K_1) G$ |
| 3. $(x_S, y_S) \leftarrow$ precondition (double (K_S)) |
| 4. $S \leftarrow \Pi_{(x_S, y_S), \omega}$ using Algorithm 2 |
| 5. $K_H \leftarrow (SH([\rho, I]) + K_2) G$ |
| 6. $(x_H, y_H) \leftarrow \text{precondition}(\text{double}(K_H))$ |
| 7. $I_M \leftarrow S^{100,\#I}_{(x_H,y_H)} \oplus I$ |
| 8. $C = [\pi, \overset{\forall n, \forall n}{S}([\rho, SH([\rho, I]), I_M])] \blacksquare$ |

nonce ρ , using the SHA-256 algorithm. The notation *SH*(.) is short for *SHA*256 ([ρ , *I*]). The other key point, *H*, is obtained by adding *SH* ([ρ , *I*]) to key, *K*₂, and multiplying by the generator point *G*. Then *H* is used to seed another Henon map sequence generator to generate an additive chaotic mask. This formulation ensures that the chaotic mask is sensitive to changes in the plain image and thus resistant to chosen plaintext attacks.

The Henon map key point (x_H, y_H) is derived from the elliptic curve point K_H by taking the least significant 52 bits of each coordinate and converting it to a floating-point, i.e.

double(H) =
$$2^{-52} \left(x_{K_H} mod 2^{52}, y_{K_H} mod 2^{52} \right)$$
. (9)

Henon pseudorandom sequence generator is used to generate the sequence, $M = S_{x_H, y_H}^{100, \#I}$, where #I denotes the number of pixels in image *I*. The mask *M* is then XORed with plain image pixels to introduce confusion and histogram uniformity into the resulting masked image, I_M . The S-box substitution is applied byte-by-byte to ρ , SH(I), and I_M to produce the cipher message $C = [\pi, S([\rho, SH([\rho, I]), I_M])]$. The detailed steps of the encryption algorithm are listed in Algorithm 3.

2) DECRYPTION ALGORITHM

The block diagram of the decryption procedure is shown in Figure 2. First, we extract π from the cipher message and use it along with K_1 to construct the inverse S-box S^{-1} . We then apply the inverse S-box to the remaining part of the cipher message to obtain the random nonce, ρ , the hash of the nonce and image, $SH([\rho, I])$ and the masked image, I_M . Using $SH([\rho, I])$ and key, K_2 , we obtain the pseudorandom mask, M, by following the same steps used during encryption. The decrypted image I_D is the XOR of I_M with M. If the decryption is successful, then $SH([p, I_D])$ must match the $SH([p, I_D])$ extracted from the cipher message. To resist chosen-ciphertext attacks, the algorithm withholds I_D if this integrity check fails. The detailed steps of the decryption algorithm are listed in Algorithm 4.



FIGURE 2. Proposed image decryption procedure.

Algorithm 4 Image Decryption

Input: cipher message *C*, session key (K_1, K_2) , number of permutation rounds, ω .

Output: decrypted image, *I*_D.

 $\frac{1. [\pi, Q] \leftarrow C}{2. K_S \leftarrow (\pi + K_1) G} \\
3. (x_S, y_S) \leftarrow \text{precondition (double } (K_S)) \\
4. S \leftarrow \Pi_{(x_S, y_S),\omega} \text{ using Algorithm 2} \\
5. [\rho, SH ([\rho, I]), I_M] = S^{-1} (Q). \\
6. K_H \leftarrow (SH ([\rho, I]) + K_2) G \\
7. (x_H, y_H) \leftarrow \text{precondition (double } (K_H)) \\
8. I_D \leftarrow S_{(x_0, y_0)}^{100, \#I} \oplus I_M \\
9. \text{ If } SH ([\rho, I]) = SH ([\rho, I_D]), \text{ output } I_D. \text{ Otherwise,}$

9. If $SH([\rho, I]) = SH([\rho, I_D])$, output I_D . Otherwise, discard I_D and report failure

IV. EVALUATION OF S-BOX CONSTRUCTION ALGORITHM

To evaluate the security of the proposed encryption scheme, we first evaluate the cryptographic strength of the constructed S-boxes. Namely, we generate dynamic S-boxes with random initialization (x_S , y_S), then test the strength of each generated S-box by running a set of standard S-box tests, including nonlinearity, linear approximation probability, differential approximation probability, bit-independence criterion, and the strict avalanche criterion [46]–[48]. Table 1 lists the standard criteria used for testing S-boxes and the optimal value corresponding to each test.

Table 2 shows a sample S-box in the standard 16×16 format. Table 3 shows the tests results for some of the high-quality S-boxes that are generated using the proposed

TABLE 1. Standard tests of S-box cryptographic strength.

| Test | Optimal Value |
|----------------------------------------------|---------------|
| Nonlinearity (NL) Test | 120 |
| Linear Approximation Probability (LAP) | 0 |
| Differential Approximation Probability (DAP) | 0 |
| Strict Avalanche Criterion (SAC) | 0.5 |
| Bit Independence Criterion (BIC) | 0.5 |

TABLE 2. S-box corresponding to $(x_S, y_S) = (0.7854811649683301, 0.9868192007103721)$ and $\omega = 1$.

| 171 | 65 | 212 | 246 | 169 | 41 | 25 | 0 | 62 | 192 | 129 | 22 | 136 | 10 | 214 | 91 |
|-----|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 66 | 189 | 123 | 196 | 139 | 164 | 134 | 82 | 177 | 193 | 1 | 150 | 117 | 243 | 80 | 95 |
| 99 | 35 | 132 | 215 | 130 | 86 | -93 | 111 | 121 | 73 | 186 | 222 | 40 | 18 | 21 | 74 |
| 12 | 200 | 140 | 61 | 43 | 219 | 75 | 94 | 135 | 137 | 103 | 17 | 106 | 218 | 68 | 92 |
| 223 | - 98 | 230 | 179 | 252 | 153 | 184 | 245 | 47 | 30 | 104 | 239 | 203 | 52 | 154 | 118 |
| 38 | - 89 | 83 | 148 | 50 | 195 | 63 | 13 | 176 | 209 | 116 | 55 | 185 | 110 | 29 | 33 |
| 227 | 237 | 27 | 109 | 28 | 232 | 201 | 205 | 54 | 23 | 216 | 57 | 112 | 158 | 115 | 250 |
| 155 | 157 | 188 | 100 | 37 | 255 | -90 | 182 | 16 | 224 | 165 | 124 | 96 | 127 | 113 | 210 |
| 84 | 122 | 19 | 160 | 67 | 114 | 217 | 48 | 174 | 119 | 64 | 244 | 142 | 254 | 149 | 242 |
| 34 | 101 | 79 | 226 | 234 | 9 | 20 | 11 | 238 | 163 | 126 | 42 | 249 | 175 | 225 | 183 |
| 229 | 190 | 87 | 213 | 248 | 144 | 145 | 76 | 77 | 151 | 2 | 15 | 69 | 178 | 44 | 60 |
| 143 | 85 | 53 | 199 | 194 | 207 | 240 | 206 | 49 | 138 | 161 | 125 | 220 | 26 | 71 | 147 |
| 173 | 198 | 97 | 70 | 236 | 180 | 221 | 31 | 7 | 39 | 152 | 253 | 4 | 3 | 58 | 156 |
| 8 | 167 | 170 | 233 | 24 | 14 | 78 | 88 | 166 | 235 | 6 | 211 | 133 | 51 | 159 | 228 |
| 172 | 146 | 208 | 204 | 187 | 197 | 128 | 202 | 241 | 36 | 108 | 46 | 45 | 59 | 131 | 72 |
| 107 | 81 | 56 | 32 | 231 | 247 | 251 | 168 | 5 | 181 | 105 | 120 | 102 | 162 | 141 | 191 |

TABLE 3. S-box analysis results for a sample of S-boxes generated by the proposed algorithm with $\omega = 1$.

| Dov | MI | LAD | | S | AC | BIC-SAC | | |
|------------------------------------|-----|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|--------|--|
| DOX | INL | LAP | DAP | min. | max | min. | max | |
| $\boldsymbol{S_1}^{a}$ | 106 | 0.1250 | 0.0391 | 0.4219 | 0.5781 | 0.4668 | 0.5254 | |
| S 2 ^b | 106 | 0.1328 | 0.0391 | 0.4062 | 0.5781 | 0.4766 | 0.5254 | |
| S 3° | 106 | 0.1328 | 0.0391 | 0.4219 | 0.5781 | 0.4688 | 0.5293 | |
| S ₄ ^d | 106 | 0.1250 | 0.0391 | 0.4063 | 0.5781 | 0.4844 | 0.5195 | |

 $a(x_s, y_s) = (0.7523418512788702, 0.8479819270232232)$

 ${}^{b}(x_{s}, y_{s}) = (0.015801752485450238, 0.09712270996915162)$

 $c(x_5, y_5) = (0.0352940019873631, 0.33767566645781344)$ $d(x_5, y_5) = (0.1411387127531113, 0.6636150003084085)$

algorithm. All test results in Table 3 are very close to the optimal values indicated in Table 1. To compare the nonlinearity of the S-boxes generated by the proposed scheme with respect to other dynamic S-box construction methods, we constructed ten thousand S-boxes with random keys using each of the compared methods and reported the resulting statistics in Table 4. Results indicate that the proposed method generates good nonlinearity with higher probability than other methods.

Table 5 compares the results of standard tests of a selected sample of dynamic S-boxes generated by the proposed algorithm and dynamic S-boxes constructed by rival methods. Clearly, the proposed dynamic S-box construction algorithm is able to construct high quality S-boxes, which pass test results very close to the optimal values indicated earlier in Table 1.

The main advantages of using Henon map as a source of entropy for S-box construction are the relative simplicity and computational efficiency of Henon map.

V. PERFORMANCE OF THE PROPOSED IMAGE ENCRYPTION SCHEME

Due to the peculiar nature image data and its related applications, a secure image encryption scheme has other objectives

TABLE 4. Statistical comparison of nonlinearity of a random sample of 100'000 S-boxes by each method.

| NL | Ref. [2] | Ref. [49] | Ref. [10] | Proposed |
|------|----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Min. | 56 | 0 | 82 | 82 |
| Avg. | 92.44 | 89.67 | 99.08 | 99.07 |
| Max. | 102 | 106 | 106 | 106 |

TABLE 5. Test results of high-quality S-boxes generated by the proposed algorithm compared to results of relevant dynamic S-box algorithms.

| S-Box | LAP | DAP | SAC Max_offset | BIC Max_offect |
|-----------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-------------------|
| S. | 0.1250 | 0.0391 | 0.0781 | 0.0332 |
| S_1 | 0.1328 | 0.0391 | 0.0938 | 0.0254 |
| S_3 | 0.1328 | 0.0391 | 0.0781 | 0.0312 |
| S_4 | 0.1250 | 0.0391 | 0.0781 | 0.0195 |
| Ref. [50], 2020 | 0.1328 | 0.0391 | 0.1094 | 0.0508 |
| Ref. [51], 2020 | 0.1328 | 0.0391 | 0.1094 | 0.0313 |
| Ref. [2], 2019 | 0.1484 | 0.0391 | 0.0938 | 0.0449 |
| Ref. [16], 2019 | 0.1406 | 0.054 | 0.0938 | 0.0391 |
| Ref. [15], 2018 | 0.1875 | 0.0391 | 0.1094 | 0.0352 |
| Ref. [13], 2017 | 0.1328 | 0.0391 | 0.1406 | 0.0254 |
| Ref. [49], 2017 | 0.1328 | 0.0391 | 0.1250 | 0.0273 |
| Ref. [52], 2017 | 0.1250 | 0.0391 | 0.1094 | 0.0332 |
| Ref. [10], 2014 | 0.0938 | 0.0313 | 0.0938 | 0.0293 |
| Ref. [53], 2012 | 0.1406 | 0.0391 | 0.0781 | 0.0313 |

in addition to confusion and diffusion. According to [1], an image encryption scheme should be; 1) secure, 2) computationally efficient, 3) based on standardized algorithms, and 4) flexible, and 5) the scheme should produce a cipher image not larger than the plain image. To evaluate the performance of the proposed scheme, standard tests are performed including statistical analysis, differential analysis, key sensitivity analysis, key space analysis, and encryption speed analysis.

A. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis includes a set of tests which assess immunity to statistical ciphertext-only attacks.

1) HISTOGRAM TEST

The closer to a uniform (flat) distribution the histogram of the encrypted image, the stronger the scheme's resistance to statistical attacks is. We have performed the histogram test to a set of standard images and two special one-color images. Table 6 shows the histograms of the encrypted images generated by the proposed scheme. Histograms appear uniform indicating that the proposed scheme passes this test. Numerically, histogram uniformity can be estimated using χ^2 null hypothesis testing. The test measures how likely the histogram, f_i , matches the histogram of a truly random image with the same number of pixels, N, using the formula

$$X^{2} = \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} \left(f_{i} - \frac{N}{256} \right)^{2} / \left(\frac{N}{256} \right),$$

The resulting X^2 , also known as the *p*-value, is tested against the χ^2 (255, α) distribution, where α is the desired significance level. If the *p*-value is greater than α , the

histogram passes the randomness test. The *p*-values corresponding to each of the encrypted image histograms are listed in Table 6, indicating that encrypted images are indistinguishable from random images at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$.

2) CORRELATION TEST

Another common test measures the disparity between the encrypted image and the plain image. The correlation test is utilized to measure how uncorrelated the two images are. Obviously, the optimal correlation is zero. The correlation test is performed as follows:

$$C_{x,y} = \frac{cov(x, y)}{\sqrt{v(x)} \cdot \sqrt{v(y)}}$$
(10)

where x and y are the pixels values of the plain image and encrypted image, respectively and N is the dimension of the image,

$$cov(x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (x_j - \bar{x}) (y_j - \bar{y}),$$

$$v(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{1j=1}^{N} (x_j - \bar{x})^2, \text{ and}$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} x_j.$$

Table 7 shows that the values of correlation are near zero indicating that our scheme achieves high confusion.

One of the characteristics of a plain image is spatial correlation, i.e., correlation between neighboring pixels. An adversary can use the correlation between neighboring cipher pixels to infer some information about the plain image. Therefore, any encryption system must minimize such correlation.

Table 8 shows the values of correlation between the neighboring pixels in horizontal, vertical and diagonal directions for the plain and encrypted images. The correlation values for plain images are almost 1, which indicates a high correlation between pixels, while the correlation values for the encrypted images are almost 0, which indicates that the proposed scheme succeeds in bringing the correlation between neighboring pixels down to a satisfactory level.

The spatial correlation distribution is depicted in Figure 3 for the plain and encrypted images, illustrating how the strong spatial correlation in the plain image was removed in the encrypted image.

3) ENTROPY TEST

A good encryption scheme must maximize randomness of the cipher image. To evaluate the randomness in the cipher image the global entropy test is carried out as follows:

$$E(X) = -\sum_{j=0}^{L-1} P_j \log_2 P_j$$
(11)

The local Shannon entropy (LSE) is a more reliable metric of randomness than global entropy, because LSE is the mean entropy of a set of randomly selected blocks. Since a perfect cipher image is indistinguishable from a random image,



TABLE 6. Histogram analysis of the proposed scheme.

TABLE 7. Correlation between original and encrypted images.

| Test | Cameraman | Liftingbody | Onion | Cell |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|----------|----------|
| Correlation | -0.00308 | 0.000002 | -0.00496 | -0.00023 |

TABLE 8. Correlation for plain and encrypted images in horizontal (H), vertical (V) and diagonal (D) directions.

| Image | | Cameraman | Liftingbody | White | Black |
|-------------|---|-----------|-------------|---------|---------|
| Plain image | Η | 0.9335 | 0.9707 | | |
| | V | 0.9592 | 0.9711 | | |
| | D | 0.9087 | 0.9530 | | |
| | | | | | |
| Encrypted | Н | -0.0039 | 0.0015 | -0.0160 | -0.0071 |
| image | V | 0.0003 | 0.0052 | -0.0062 | 0.0026 |
| | D | 0.0047 | -0.0028 | -0.0028 | 0.0027 |

the cipher image should achieve an acceptable level of LSE metric. LSE is calculated as follows:

1- Randomly select N_B non-overlapping blocks B_1, B_2, \dots, B_{N_B} from the encrypted image, with block size T_B pixels.



FIGURE 3. Effect of the proposed encryption scheme on spatial correlation. Plain image, *I*, spatial correlation in (a), (b) and (c). Cipher image, I_C , spatial correlation in (d), (e) and (f).

2- Calculate the entropy $E(B_i)$, $i = 1, 2, ..., N_B$ for each block using equation (11).

 TABLE 9. Entropy test results.

| Test | Image | C-man | L-body | White | Black |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Global entropy | Plain Cipher | 7.0097 7.9973 | 6.4903 7.9994 | 0 7.9992 | 0 7.9992 |
| $LSE \frac{N_B=30}{T_B=1936}$ | Cipher | 7.9023 | 7.9028 | 7.9025 | 7.9027 |

3- Compute the mean (LSE) as follows:

$$\bar{E_{N_B,T_B}}(B) = \frac{1}{N_B} \sum_{i=1}^{N_B} E(B_i)$$
 (12)

According to [54], the optimum value of LSE is 7.9024693 when $N_B = 30$ and $T_B = 1963$. The acceptable values of LSE, with confidence level $\alpha = 0.05$, are in the interval (7.901901305, 7.903037329).

Table 9 shows that the global entropy test results for images encrypted with the proposed scheme are near the value 8, which indicates a completely uniform distribution of pixel values. The LSE results shown in Table 9 indicate that images encrypted with the proposed scheme satisfy the randomness hypothesis with confidence level $\alpha = 0.05$.

B. DIFFERENTIAL ANALYSIS (PLAINTEXT SENSITIVITY)

Differential attacks exploit the difference between cipher images to infer information about plain images. To resist differential attacks, an encryption scheme should produce widespread changes in the cipher images corresponding to small changes in plain images. To test immunity to differential attacks the encryption scheme is applied to two plain images with a slight variation. The encryption scheme should produce a corresponding major variation in the cipher image (diffusion). The test is performed by evaluating the Unified Average Change Intensity (UACI), the Number of Pixels Change Rate (NPCR), the Structural Similarity (SSIM) and correlation.

The test induces a change in one pixel of the original image and measures the changes in the resulting encrypted image. The encryption scheme shows immunity against differential attacks if the UACI value is close to 33.4635% [55], the NPCR value is close to 99.6094% [55], and the SSIM and the correlation are close to 0. Let the plain image I_1 produce a cipher image I_{C1} , and plain image with the only one-pixel value change is I_2 produce a cipher image I_{C2} . The UACI, NPCR and SSIM are computed as follows.

$$UACI = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{i,j} \frac{|I_{C2}(i,j) - I_{C1}(i,j)|}{255} \times 100\%$$
(13)

$$NPCR = \sum_{i,j} \frac{D(i,j)}{MN} \times 100\% \tag{14}$$

$$SSIM (I_{C1}, I_{C2}) = \frac{(2\mu_{c1}\mu_{c2} + \alpha)(2\sigma_{c1c2} + \beta)}{(\mu_{c1}^2 + \mu_{c2}^2 + \alpha)(\sigma_{c1}^2 + \sigma_{c2}^2 + \beta)}$$
(15)

TABLE 10. Summary of differential attack test.

| Test | | Cameraman | Liftingbody | Black |
|-------------|------|-----------|-------------|----------|
| UACI | min | 33.1535 | 33.2798 | 33.1204 |
| | avg. | 33.4409 | 33.4308 | 33.4179 |
| | max | 33.7453 | 33.5781 | 33.7571 |
| NPCR | min | 99 4598 | 99.5445 | 99 4598 |
| in on | avg. | 99.6086 | 99.6087 | 99.6093 |
| | max | 99.7436 | 99.6719 | 99.7345 |
| SSIM | min | -0.00749 | -0.00049 | -0.01429 |
| | max | 0.01869 | 0.01289 | 0.02720 |
| Correlation | min | 0.000005 | 0.000001 | 0.000003 |
| Conclution | avg. | 0.00350 | 0.00167 | 0.00567 |
| | max | 0.01477 | 0.00705 | 0.02146 |

TABLE 11. Results of key sensitivity analysis for changes in K_1 .

| Test | Cameraman | Liftingbody | Black |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|---------|
| Correlation | -0.0561 | -0.0566 | -0.0551 |
| NPCR | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| UACI | 33.9193 | 33.9863 | 33.9566 |

TABLE 12. Results of key sensitivity analysis for changes in K_2 .

| Test | Cameraman | Liftingbody | Black |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|---------|
| Correlation | -0.0060 | 0.0029 | 0.0012 |
| NPCR | 99.6292 | 99.6025 | 99.6025 |
| UACI | 33.5387 | 33.3840 | 33.4424 |

where

$$D(i,j) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } 1_{C1}(i,j) \neq 1_{C2}(i,j) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and μ_{c1} , μ_{c2} , σ_{c1} , σ_{c2} , and σ_{c1c2} are the local means, standard deviations, and cross-covariance of cipher images I_{C1} and I_{C2} , whereas α and β are arbitrary constants.

The UACI, NPCR, SSIM and correlation tests were carried out 1000 times. For each run, the value of just one randomly chosen bit of the image is flipped. The pixel position and the bit position of the change are randomly chosen. The results shown in Table 10 indicate that the proposed scheme is immune to differential cryptanalysis.

C. KEY SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

To resist key analysis attacks, the encryption scheme should be sensitive to slight changes in the decryption key. If an attacker attempts to decrypt the image with a wrong key that is relatively close to the correct key, the resulting decrypted image should still be uncorrelated to the plain image. To test the key sensitivity of the proposed scheme, the plain image, I, is encrypted with an encryption key (K_1, K_2) to produce the cipher image I_C . A related key (K'_1, K_2) is generated by inducing a one-bit change to K_1 and used to produce the cipher image I'_C . The difference between I_C and I'_C is tested using correlation, NPCR and UACI tests.

Results presented in Table 11 and Table 12 show the key sensitivity analysis for (K'_1, K_2) and (K_1, K'_2) , respectively. The correlation coefficient is close to 0, the NPCR is greater

than 99.60%, and the UACI is close to 33.46%, which indicates that the scheme is highly sensitive to both encryption keys.

D. KEY SPACE ANALYSIS (BRUTE-FORCE ATTACK)

Based on Kerchoff's principle [56], the security of an encryption scheme depends on the key search space. In our scheme, the behavior of the system is modulated by two keys $K_1, K_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{256}$. When mapped to floating-point numbers using (9), the limited precision of the floating-point number reduces the number of significant key bits to 52 bits for each floating-point number. Therefore, the total number of effective key bits is $4 \times 52 = 208$ bits. Therefore, the size of the key space is $2^{208} \cong 4.11 \times 10^{62}$, which rules out the possibility of a brute-force attacks.

E. RESISTANCE TO CHOSEN-PLAINTEXT AND CHOSEN-CIPHERTEXT ATTACKS

In a chosen-plaintext attack, the adversary has temporary access to the encryption oracle and can feed it with carefully chosen plaintexts to reveal some information about the encryption key. Immunity to chosen-plaintext attacks precludes known plaintext-attacks, in which the adversary exploits knowledge of one or more plaintext-ciphertext pairs. In a chosen-ciphertext attack, the adversary gains temporary access to the decryption oracle and can feed it with carefully chosen ciphertext to infer come information about the encryption key.

A simple chosen-plaintext attack might use an all-white or an all-black image and attempt to detect any non-random patterns in the cipher image. As shown earlier in Table 6, the resulting cipher images have no visible patterns and their histogram is uniform. Moreover, Table 9, shown earlier, demonstrates that the entropy of the cipher images corresponding to the all-white and all-black images are very close to the ideal of a pseudorandom image.

The rest of this subsection discusses the special precautions taken to make the proposed scheme resistant to chosenplaintext and chosen-ciphertext attacks.

1) RESISTANCE TO KNOWN- AND CHOSEN-PLAINTEXT ATTACKS

According to [57], chaos systems which are defined by polynomial nonlinearities, such as Henon map, are susceptible to known-plaintext cryptanalysis. Namely, if the attacker were able to obtain the chaotic sequence, M, its corresponding Henon map initialization, H, may be recoverable by an algebraic attack. However, as noted in [44], chaotic encryption schemes which include an S-box have more security against cryptanalysis. By applying the S-box, the cipher image, $I_C = S(I \oplus M)$, doesn't provide direct information about the mask M. The adversary in this case must cryptanalyze both the chaotic mask, M, and the S-box function, S, simultaneously.

A trivial attack against the S-box attempts to gain access to its input and corresponding output. The use of the random nonce, ρ , plays an important role in protecting the S-box
 TABLE 13. Execution time of the encryption procedure of the proposed algorithm.

| Image Size (pixels) | Encryption Time (ms) | Encryption Throughput (MB/s) |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------|
| $256 \times 256 \cong 65K$ | 16.8 | 3.9 |
| $512 \times 512 \cong 262K$ | 19.3 | 13.6 |
| $1024 \times 1024 \cong 1MB$ | 29.6 | 35.4 |

TABLE 14. Comparison of cipher-image spatial correlation and global entropy with recent image encryption schemes.

| Scheme | Correlation | | | Global entropy | |
|------------------|-------------|--------|--------|--------------------|--------------------|
| | Н | V | D | Small ^a | Large ^b |
| Proposed | 0.0021 | 0.0117 | 0.0125 | 7.9973 | 7.9994 |
| Ref. [58] , 2020 | 0.0026 | 0.0051 | 0.0264 | 7.9970 | |
| Ref. [59] , 2020 | 0.0016 | 0.0020 | 0.0014 | 7.9987 | 7.9993 |
| Ref. [60] , 2020 | 0.0001 | 0.0015 | 0.0013 | 7.9972 | |
| Ref. [2] , 2019 | 0.0012 | 0.0003 | 0.0010 | | 7.9993 |
| Ref. [61] , 2019 | 0.0058 | 0.0064 | 0.0059 | 7.9988 | |
| Ref. [62] , 2019 | 0.0004 | 0.0030 | 0.0030 | - | |
| Ref. [20] , 2019 | 0.0002 | 0.0013 | 0.0006 | - | |
| Ref. [22] , 2019 | 0.0084 | 0.0017 | 0.0019 | 7.9975 | |
| Ref. [63] , 2019 | 0.0032 | 0.0007 | 0.0002 | - | |
| Ref. [64] , 2019 | 0.0022 | 0.0013 | 0.0029 | 7.9975 | |
| Ref. [40] , 2019 | 0.0019 | 0.0024 | 0.0011 | | 7.9993 |
| Ref. [65] , 2019 | 0.0025 | 0.0029 | 0.0027 | | 7.9993 |
| Ref. [66] , 2019 | - | - | - | 7.9455 | |
| Ref. [14] , 2018 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 7.9979 | |
| Ref. [24] , 2018 | 0.0005 | 0.0030 | 0.0008 | - | |
| Ref. [42], 2018 | 0.0012 | 0.0044 | 0.0046 | 7.9986 | |
| Ref. [67] , 2018 | 0.0060 | 0.0134 | 0.0068 | - | |
| Ref. [6] , 2018 | - | - | - | 7.9965 | |
| Ref. [68] , 2017 | 0.0001 | 0.0089 | 0.0091 | 7.9916 | |
| Ref. [43] , 2017 | 0.0004 | 0.0018 | 0.0001 | 7.9985 | |
| Ref. [19] , 2016 | 0.0095 | 0.0170 | 0.0119 | 7.9985 | |
| Ref. [69] , 2016 | 0.0032 | 0.0004 | 0.0009 | - | |
| Ref. [70] , 2017 | - | - | - | 7.9901 | |

^aSmall image has 256×256 pixels

^bLarge image has 512×512 pixels

against such an attack. With a chosen-plaintext attack, the attacker in this case has access to I, $S(\rho)$, $S(SH([\rho, I]))$, and $S(I \oplus M)$. We must prevent the attacker from accessing any of the S-box inputs, i.e., ρ , $SH([\rho, I])$, and $I \oplus M$. We have already shown that M is difficult to obtain. Due to the security of the SHA256 hash function, it is also difficult to guess ρ given I and $S(SH([\rho, I]))$. And it is equally difficult to guess $SH([\rho, I])$ given $S(\rho)$ and I. Thus, the S-box is safe against chosen-plaintext attacks.

2) RESISTANCE TO CHOSEN-CIPHERTEXT ATTACKS

The integrity verification step at the end of the decryption algorithm effectively thwarts all forms of chosen-ciphertext attacks. An attacker attempting to use the decryption oracle to decrypt a chosen cipher image, I_C , must form a consistent cipher message with $S(\rho)$, $S(SH([\rho, S^{-1}(I_C)]))$, and $I_C = S(I \oplus M)$. Upon adjusting I_C , the corresponding adjustment in the hash value $SH([\rho, S^{-1}(I_C)])$ is intractable due to the properties of secure hash functions. Malformed cipher messages are rejected by the decryption algorithm, as shown in Figure 2, thus thwarting the chosen-ciphertext attack.

| TABLE 15. | Comparison of local | Shannon entropy with r | ecent image encryption so | chemes. <i>K</i> = 30, <i>T_B</i> = | = 1936, α = 0.05 ⊢ LSE ∈ | [7.901901305, 7.903037329]. |
|-----------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
|-----------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|

| File name | [71] 2013 | [72] 2015 | [73] 2017 | [74] 2018 | [22] 2019 | [20] 2019 | [60] 2020 | Proposed |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|----------|
| 5.2.08 | 7.902356 | 7.903327 | 7.9043155 | 7.90194564 | 7.902487 | 7.89911169 | 7.902733 | 7.902776 |
| 5.2.09 | 7.899853 | 7.901765 | 7.9036303 | 7.90229806 | 7.902681 | 7.9021513 | 7.901584 | 7.902132 |
| 5.2.10 | 7.902654 | 7.902748 | 7.9024444 | 7.90299861 | 7.902150 | 7.9009431 | 7.902983 | 7.902858 |
| 5.3.01 | 7.902647 | 7.901772 | 7.9032011 | 7.90238296 | 7.902531 | 7.9029481 | 7.901996 | 7.902628 |
| 5.3.02 | 7.910474 | 7.903328 | 7.9029093 | 7.90194284 | 7.902483 | 7.9024863 | 7.902003 | 7.902637 |
| 7.1.01 | 7.902634 | 7.901305 | 7.9021978 | 7.90222122 | 7.902725 | 7.9027466 | 7.903056 | 7.902732 |
| 7.1.02 | 7.901634 | 7.901578 | 7.9029369 | 7.90279019 | 7.893536 | 7.8999371 | 7.903288 | 7.902297 |
| 7.1.03 | 7.905423 | 7.903099 | 7.9022684 | 7.90198572 | 7.900743 | 7.9039913 | 7.901603 | 7.901087 |
| 7.1.04 | 7.902125 | 7.902607 | 7.9009099 | 7.90220791 | 7.902163 | 7.9017415 | 7.902366 | 7.902165 |
| 7.1.05 | 7.883653 | 7.905305 | 7.9065666 | 7.90246781 | 7.902208 | 7.9021942 | 7.902362 | 7.902634 |
| 7.1.06 | 7.902356 | 7.902695 | 7.9043870 | 7.90229890 | 7.903055 | 7.9019996 | 7.902365 | 7.901596 |
| 7.1.07 | 7.902364 | 7.902896 | 7.9026480 | 7.90280377 | 7.902832 | 7.9021436 | 7.902942 | 7.902235 |
| 7.1.08 | 7.904456 | 7.901632 | 7.9019985 | 7.90234949 | 7.902407 | 7.9020712 | 7.901728 | 7.902929 |
| 7.1.09 | 7.903012 | 7.903173 | 7.9006977 | 7.90299876 | 7.902674 | 7.9009463 | 7.901992 | 7.902409 |
| 7.1.10 | 7.901598 | 7.901524 | 7.9050126 | 7.90280083 | 7.902699 | 7.9033234 | 7.902994 | 7.902524 |
| 7.2.01 | 7.901989 | 7.902454 | 7.9042864 | 7.90290947 | 7.901923 | 7.9021532 | 7.901713 | 7.902332 |
| boat.512 | 7.901879 | 7.903088 | 7.9035797 | 7.90242160 | 7.902488 | 7.9023686 | 7.902938 | 7.902466 |
| ruler.512 | 7.903001 | 7.903052 | 7.9040475 | 7.90291543 | 7.898703 | 7.9029163 | 7.903170 | 7.902432 |
| gray21.512 | 7.905107 | 7.902688 | 7.9028993 | 7.90281517 | 7.887108 | 7.8989296 | 7.903376 | 7.901355 |
| Pass | 10/19 | 6/19 | 8/19 | 19/19 | 14/19 | 11/19 | 11/19 | 16/19 |

TABLE 16. Comparison of differential attack metrics with recent image encryption schemes.

| Scheme | Differential Analysis | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|---------|--|
| | UACI | NPCR | |
| Proposed | 33.4409 | 99.6086 | |
| Ref. [58], 2020 | 33.4590 | 99.6100 | |
| Ref. [59], 2020 | 33.4509 | 99.6110 | |
| Ref. [60], 2020 | 24.2534 | 76.1681 | |
| Ref. [2], 2019 | 33.50 | 99.60 | |
| Ref. [40], 2019 | 33.4682 | 99.6113 | |
| Ref. [62], 2019 | 33.3797 | 99.6495 | |
| Ref. [20], 2019 | 33.5253 | 99.6094 | |
| Ref. [61], 2019 | 33.6259 | 99.6118 | |
| Ref. [65], 2019 | 33.4756 | 99.6173 | |
| Ref. [14], 2018 | 33.6046 | 99.6369 | |
| Ref. [42] , 2018 | 33.11 | 99.95 | |
| Ref. [24] , 2018 | 33.4928 | 99.6087 | |
| Ref. [6] , 2018 | 34.1474 | 99.6446 | |
| Ref. [75] , 2018 | 33.6435 | 99.6094 | |
| Ref. [67] , 2018 | 33.5226 | 99.5986 | |
| Ref. [74] , 2018 | 33.6413 | 99.6231 | |
| Ref. [43], 2017 | 33.48 | 99.60 | |
| Ref. [68], 2017 | 33.47 | 100.0 | |
| Ref. [76] , 2017 | 33.41 | 99.59 | |
| Ref. [77] , 2017 | 33.32 | 99.61 | |
| Ref. [78] , 2016 | 33.4018 | 99.4644 | |
| Ref. [19] , 2016 | 33.7786 | 99.6205 | |
| Ref. [79] , 2016 | 33.3830 | 99.5574 | |

3) THE ROLE OF ELLIPTIC CURVE CRYPTOGRAPHY

By using elliptic curve cryptography, we add a last line of defense to the proposed scheme against cryptanalysis. Namely, if the attacker somehow manages to gain access to the Henon map initialization H for a set of encryption instances, calculating the key K_2 incurs solving $(SH([\rho, I]) + K_2) G = H$, which requires solving the ECDLP. Similarly, if we assume the attacker were able to recover the S-box, S, for some specific encryption instances, and guesses the initialization of the S-box construction, K_S . To recover the encryption key K_1 , the attacker must solve $(\pi + K_1) G = K_S$, which again requires solving the ECDLP.

| TABLE 17. | Comparison of encryption throughput with related image |
|------------|--------------------------------------------------------|
| encryption | schemes. |

| Scheme | Implementation | Throughput |
|-----------|--------------------------------|------------|
| Proposed | Java / Core i7 @ 1.8 GHz | 55.7 MB/s |
| Ref. [80] | Mathematica / Xeon @ 3.6 GHz | 2.5 MB/s |
| Ref. [37] | — / Atom @ 1.6 GHz | 0.01 MB/s |
| Ref. [63] | — / Core i7 @ 3.6 GHz | 0.64 MB/s |
| Ref. [20] | / | 0.06 MB/s |
| Ref. [61] | Mathematica ./ Xeon @ 3.7 GHz | 0.14 MB/s |
| Ref. [43] | C# / Core i7 | 1.77 MB/s |
| Ref. [42] | / | 0.01 MB/s |
| Ref. [24] | MATLAB / Core i7 @ 2.9GHz | 1.35 MB/s |
| Ref. [67] | MATLAB / AMD 1.9 GHz | 0.77 MB/s |
| Ref. [74] | MATLAB / Core i5 @ 2.3 GHz | 0.051MB |
| Ref. [78] | MATLAB / AMD A4 @ 1.9 GHz | 2.27 MB/s |
| Ref. [81] | — / Core i5 @ 2.6 GHz | 9.6 MB/s |
| Ref. [82] | Mathematica / Core i7 @2.2 GHz | 2.8 MB/s |
| Ref. [40] | MATLAB / Core 3.9GHz | 0.05 MB/s |
| Ref. [41] | / | 0.05 MB/s |
| Ref. [83] | MATLAB / Core i5 @ 3.4 GHz | 0.1 MB/s |
| Ref. [35] | C++ / Core i5 @ 3.1 GHz | 55.2 MB/s |

F. SPEED ANALYSIS

One of the most important features of the proposed scheme is its encryption speed. This is in particular because of the use of very efficient encryption constructs, namely the S-box and Henon map. To assess the efficiency of the proposed scheme, we performed the speed analysis with MATLAB on a PC with a Core-i7-8565U with a base frequency of 1.8 GHz and 12GB of RAM. Table 13 shows the average execution time of the proposed encryption algorithm for images of different sizes. Experimental results in Table 13 indicate the linear complexity of the proposed encryption algorithm.

VI. COMPARISON AND DISCUSSION

The proposed scheme exhibits a near optimal and competitive performance compared to recent image encryption schemes. Table 14 compares the spatial correlation in horizontal, vertical and diagonal directions with recent schemes. The table also compares the global entropy of encrypted images. The comparison is split into two columns depending on the size of the image being encrypted. Small images have 256×256 pixels, whereas large images have 512×512 pixels. The results indicate that the proposed scheme achieves a correlation value and global entropy that is very close to the ideal value and in harmony with the results of the other schemes.

Table 15 shows the LSE test results for the USC-SIPI "Miscellaneous" image dataset in comparison with recent schemes. The proposed scheme achieves one of the highest passing rates among its peers.

Regarding plain image sensitivity, Table 16 shows that the proposed scheme achieves some of the best values of UACI and NPCR among recent schemes. These results indicate that the proposed scheme offers competitive immunity against differential attacks.

It's worth noting that the use of a cryptographic secure hash function to calculate the initialization of a chaotic system makes it sensitive to any change in pixel values. In contrast, the summation method proposed by [2], for instance, does not recognize pixel value changes when the summation is not affected by the change, i.e. when changes cancel each other. The sensitivity of the hash function makes it extremely difficult for an attacker to launch a differential cryptanalysis attack, as shown earlier by the optimal values for NPCR and UACI criteria in Table 10.

As shown in Table 17, the encryption throughput of the proposed scheme is very competitive.

VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we presented an image encryption scheme based on a dynamic S-box and a chaotic additive mask. The proposed scheme is shown to resist chosen-plaintext and chosen-ciphertext attacks by utilizing two techniques: 1) the use of random nonce and secure hash algorithm in calculating per-image Henon map initialization, and 2) the use of elliptic curve encryption in protecting the secret key. The proposed algorithm has high computational efficiency achieving encryption speeds close to 60 MB/s. Although this scheme is designed to encrypt gray scale uncompressed images, it can easily be extended to uncompressed color images. Joint image compression and encryption is an interesting challenge that may be the subject of future research.

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