

# DESIGN OF ADAPTIVE EMBEDDING SCHEMES FOR DIGITAL IMAGES

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## Abstract

*The minimum-distortion framework is dedicated to the problem of optimizing distortion functions so that they better correspond to statistical detectability as restrained by blind feature-based steganalyzers. In reality, utmost distortion functions are gotten heuristically and do not generalize well to other cover sources. Here, we restrain ourselves to independent embedding variations and present practical tools that can use for "learning" the embedding algorithm for a given cover source.*

## Keywords:

*Batch steganography, stegosystem, Gibbs constructional,*

## 1. Introduction

Our motivation for solving the problem of the cost-function design comes from the HUGO algorithm that assigns the costs of individual changes based on the pixel neighborhood. Unfortunately, this approach does not easily generalize to other cover sources, such as JPEG or color bitmap images, neither is it clear how to optimize the design. Here we open the question of the cost-function design and strive for a robust approach that generalizes well to unseen cover images and unseen steganalytic features to avoid overfitting to a particular cover source and featurespace. For example, the Feature Correction Method, which is a heuristic approach to embed

while approximately preserving the cover-image feature vector, is known to be overly sensitive to the chosen feature set and does not generalize or scale well. The work in has an alternate featurepreservation approach and also empirically considers the dynamics between steganographer and steganalyzer.

## 2. Empirical Design of Cost Functions

We focus on designing adaptive embedding schemes for the payload-limited sendersubjected to sequential steganalysis. In this regime, the sender decides on the number of bits he wants to hide in a given cover object, embeds his payload, and sends the stego object through a passively monitored channel. In sequential steganalysis, the warden has to decide whether a given image is cover or stego solely based on a single object. We deliberately omit the possibility of intentionally spreading the payload into a group of cover images – a technique known as the batchsteganography. This mode can improve the security of the scheme; however, it should no longer be tested with sequential steganalysis.

A common way of testing steganographic schemes is to report a chosen detection metric (ROC curve, accuracy, minimum error probability under equal priors  $P_E$ , etc.) empirically estimated from a database of cover and stego images where each stego image carries a fixed relative

payload. Whenever possible, we report results obtained from cover images of roughly the same size to reduce the effect of the square root law [1]. Our goal is to design a set of functions  $A = r^2 i, i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ , which, given the original cover image, assign the cost of changing individual cover elements to their new values. For digital images, the dependence between two cover pixels rapidly decreases with their distance. In case of gray-scale spatial-domain digital images, the cost of changing a single pixel should mainly depend on its immediate neighborhood. For this reason, we constrain  $\rho$  to be a real-valued function  $\rho$  with small support,  $\rho(x, y) = \Theta(x \rho(i), y_i)$ , where  $x \rho(i)$  denotes cover pixels spatially close to pixel  $i$ . From practical experiments, it is possible to identify the quantity that should drive the costs.

### 3. Inverse single-difference cost model

Let  $\theta \geq 0$  and  $N_i = \{x_i, \uparrow, x_i, \downarrow, \dots, x_i, \downarrow\}$  be a set of eight pixels from the  $3 \times 3$  neighborhood of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  pixel. We use the  $\pm 1$  embedding operation,  $I = \{x_i - 1, x_i, x_i + 1\} \cap I$ , and define

$$\rho_i(x, y) = \Theta(N_i, y_i) = \begin{cases} 0 \\ \infty \\ \sum_{z \in N_i} (1 + \theta |z - x_i|)^{-1} + (1 + \theta |z - y_i|)^{-1} \end{cases}$$

At the image boundary, the set of neighboring pixels  $N_i$  is reduced accordingly. This cost assignment penalizes changes in textured areas less than those in smooth regions depending on the differences between neighboring pixels.

### 4. Blind Steganalysis

The only way of evaluating the security of steganographic schemes for

empirical covers is to subject them to a steganalysis test. According to Kerckhoffs' principle, we allow the warden to know all elements of the stegosystem (the cover source statistics, the embedding algorithm and the size of the possible payload) except for the (possibly encrypted) message. Given a single image, the warden has to decide whether it is cover or stego. In this simple binary hypothesis test, the warden can make two types of errors – either detect the cover image as stego (false alarm) or recognize the stego image as cover (missed detection). The corresponding probabilities are denoted  $PFA$  and  $PMD$ , respectively. The relationship between these two errors is completely described by the ROC curve obtained by plotting  $1 - PMD(PFA)$  as a function of  $PFA$ . Unfortunately, ROC curves cannot be directly used for evaluating steganalyzers (embedding algorithms) as they cannot be ordered (they may overlap).

### 5. L2R\_L2LOSS - soft-margin optimization criterion

Although there exist many algorithms for binary classification, SVMs are popular for their good ability to generalize to unseen data samples. The success of SVMs lies in the optimization criterion which, for the case of a linear classifier, looks for the separating hyperplane maximizing the distance (often called *margin*) between itself and the closest data points. Intuitively, the larger the margin between two classes, the better they can be separated and the smaller the  $PE$  error becomes. We use the *size of the margin* for a linear SVM as the optimization criterion. Let  $C$  be the set of  $N$  cover images and  $S$  the set of  $N$  stego images obtained from  $C$  by embedding a pseudo-random message into each image. By extracting a  $d$ -dimensional feature from each image, we obtain a set of  $2N$  vectors  $\{f_i \in \mathbb{R}^d | i \in \{1, \dots, 2N\}\}$ . We also define the labels  $g_i, i \in \{1, \dots$

$\dots, 2N\}$ , as  $g_i = -1$  if  $\mathbf{f}_i$  was obtained from a cover image and  $g_i = +1$  otherwise. Furthermore, we normalize all cover feature vectors  $\mathbf{f}_i$  so that the sample variance of each element is 1. This scaling is then applied to stego features as well. SVMs with a linear kernel [3] classify a new sample  $\mathbf{f}$  as cover if  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{f} < 0$ , where  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is the normal vector of the decision hyper plane obtained by solving the optimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + C \sum_{i=1}^{2N} \xi(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{f}_i, g_i).$$

Here,  $\rho(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{f}_i, g_i)$  is a loss function and  $C > 0$  is a penalty parameter. By minimizing (7.1.2), we maximize the margin while penalizing the misclassified samples. We focus on the so-called L2-SVM penalty function  $\rho(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{f}_i, g_i) = \max(1 - g_i \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{f}_i, 0)$ . The optimization problem can also be formulated in its dual form [3]:

$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{2N}} h(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \alpha^T \bar{\mathbf{Q}} \alpha - \sum_{i=1}^{2N} \alpha_i$$

$$\text{subject to } 0 \leq \alpha_i, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, 2N\},$$

Where  $\bar{\mathbf{Q}} = \mathbf{Q} + \mathbf{D}$ ,  $\mathbf{D}$  being a diagonal matrix with  $D_{ii} = (2C) - 1$ , and  $Q_{ij} = g_i g_j \mathbf{f}_i^T \mathbf{f}_j$ ,  $i, j \in \{1, \dots, 2N\}$ . Given, the solution to is  $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{2N} g_i \alpha_i \mathbf{f}_i$ . From the duality, the value of  $h(\hat{\alpha})$ , for any  $\rho$  with  $\rho \geq 0$ , bounds the optimal solution to the primal problem from below. We call the optimal value of  $h(\rho)$ , the L2RpL2LOSS (L2-regularized L2-loss) criterion. The smaller the value of this criterion, the larger the optimal value of, and the smaller the possible margin between cover and stego samples becomes. Therefore, steganographers should be interested in minimizing L2RpL2LOSS.

We used a dual coordinate descent method [3] with 104 iterations,  $C = 0.1$ , and  $\rho = 0.1$  as implemented in the LIBLINEAR

[2] package to calculate L2RpL2LOSS. Evaluating L2RpL2LOSS with second-order SPAM features took 1–2 seconds for  $N = 80$   $512 \times 512$  cover images on a cluster of 40 CPUs when the message-embedding and feature-extraction parts were distributed using OpenMPI.

When optimizing  $\rho$  using L2RpL2LOSS, we fix the set of cover images  $C$  and the set of pseudorandom messages we will be embedding. We did this by fixing the seeds used for choosing the cover images and the seed used by the embedding simulator. Although L2RpL2LOSS may have different values when evaluated across different sets  $C$ , the minimum w.r.t.  $\rho$  stays approximately the same.

The figure shows the value of the L2R\_L2LOSS criterion based on the CDF set when evaluated for different values of  $\rho$  in (7.1.1) and the number of images in  $C$ . We can see that even with 40 images, the optimal value of  $\rho$  is close to the value obtained from the SVM-based classifier. Because the L2R\_L2LOSS criterion can be evaluated quickly, it can be minimized using numerical methods even for a high dimensional  $\rho$ . Unfortunately, for higher dimensional  $\rho$ , the surface obtained by this criterion w.r.t.  $\rho$  is not smooth enough for gradient-based optimization methods to be used efficiently. Instead, we used the Nelder–Mead simplex-reflection method with elements of the initial simplex generated uniformly at random in  $[0, 1]$ . Due to the non-smooth nature of the optimization criterion, we cannot guarantee that we reached a global minimum (in fact, the solution will be most likely a local minimum).

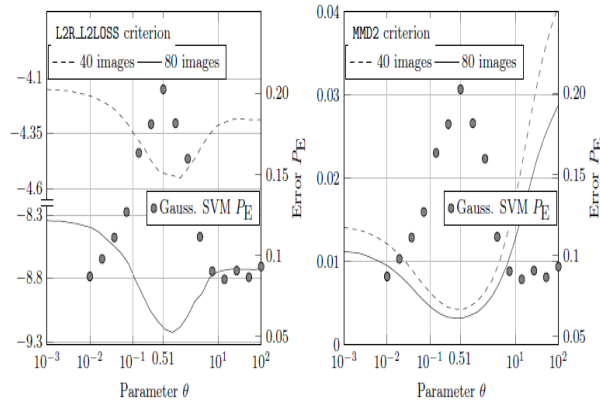


Figure: Comparison of different cost assignments in the inverse single-difference cost model with a payload-limited sender embedding 0.5 bpp using the L2RpL2LOSS (left) and MMD2 (right) optimization criteria. The results are compared with the PE error obtained from an SVM-based classifier. All results were produced using the CDF set and the BOWS2 database of  $512 \times 512$  grayscale images.

## 6. Other optimization criteria and their relevance to cost design

Due to the non-smooth optimization surface, we may be interested in other metrics. Metrics leading to a smooth optimization surface may produce an embedding algorithm whose cost assignments may be easier to interpret. Here, we present one such metric – the Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD) [54, 96]. MMD has been used for comparison of steganographic methods [5] and other machine learning problems, such as feature selection [6]. Originally, MMD was designed as a statistical test for the two-sample problem – to decide whether two data sets were obtained from the same distribution. The theoretical derivation of MMD appears in [5]. Here, we only review the connection between MMD and binary hypothesis testing.

Let  $C_0$  and  $S_0$  be the sets of  $N_0$  cover and stego images, respectively. We require the set of cover images used for creating  $S_0$  to be disjoint with  $C_0$ . Let  $c_i, s_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, i \in \{1, \dots, N_0\}$ , be the feature vectors representing the  $i$ th cover and stego image, respectively. As in Section 7.1.2, we normalize  $c_i$  and  $s_i$  to unit variance obtained from the cover features. An unbiased estimate of MMD2

$$\text{MMD}(C', S')^2 = \frac{1}{N'(N'-1)} \sum_{i \neq j} k_\lambda(c_i, c_j) - k_\lambda(c_i, s_j) + k_\lambda(s_i, s_j) - k_\lambda(s_i, c_j),$$

is the Gaussian kernel with parameter  $\rho = 0$ . We set the width of the Gaussian kernel to  $\rho = 10^{-3}$ , which closely corresponds to the “median rule” [4]. In practice, we used the set of  $N \approx 2N_0$  cover images from which  $C_0$  and  $S_0$  were derived using a pseudo-random permutation. For a given set of  $N$  cover images, we define the MMD2 criterion as the sample mean of  $\text{MMD}(C_0, S_0)^2$  calculated over  $M$  pseudo-random partitions. For the 1234-dimensional CDF set, evaluating MMD2 using  $N = 80$   $512 \times 512$  cover images with  $N_0 = 40$  and  $M = 105$  took 4 seconds on a 40-CPU computer cluster when all operations were parallelized using OpenMPI.

The MMD2 criterion is related to binary classification using Parzen windows. A simple binary hypothesis testing problem (deciding whether a given image is cover or stego) can be solved optimally using the Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT) once the exact probability distributions of cover,  $PC$ , and stego feature vectors,  $PS$ , are available. Given an unknown feature vector  $\mathbf{f}$ , the LRT calls  $\mathbf{f}$  cover if  $PC(\mathbf{f}) > PS(\mathbf{f})$  and stego otherwise. Because neither  $PC$  or  $PS$  are available, one may want to estimate them from a set of  $N$  cover and  $N$  stego training samples  $\mathbf{f}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  with labels  $g_i, i \in \{1, \dots, 2N\}$ . The Parzen estimate of  $PC(\mathbf{f})$  defined as



$$\hat{P}_C(\mathbf{f}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{g_i=-1} K_\lambda(\mathbf{f}_i, \mathbf{f})$$

"counts" the number of training vectors that are close to  $\mathbf{f}$ . Here,  $K_\rho(\mathbf{f}_i, \mathbf{f})$  is a kernel giving larger weights to vectors closer to  $\mathbf{f}$ . A popular choice for  $K_\rho$  is the Gaussian kernel

$$K_\rho(\mathbf{f}_i, \mathbf{f}) = k_\rho(\mathbf{f}_i, \mathbf{f}) = \exp(-\gamma \|\mathbf{f}_i - \mathbf{f}\|_2^2)$$

The Parzen estimate of  $PS(\mathbf{f})$ , denoted  $\hat{PS}(\mathbf{f})$ , is defined in a similar way. When we substitute  $\hat{PC}(\mathbf{f})$  and  $\hat{PS}(\mathbf{f})$  into the LRT, we obtain the Parzen window classifier. Therefore, MMD(C0, S0)2 calculates a finite-sample estimate of the average detection criterion with equal-priors:

$$\text{MMD}(P_C, P_S)^2 = E_{\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}_1 \sim P_C, \mathbf{f}_2 \sim P_S} [k_\lambda(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}_1) - k_\lambda(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}_2)] + E_{\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}_1 \sim P_C, \mathbf{f}_2 \sim P_S} [k_\lambda(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}_2)]$$

This obtained using the leave-one-out cross-validation. Due to the Gaussian kernel  $k_\rho$ ,  $\text{MMD}(P_C, P_S) \geq 0$  and  $\text{MMD}(P_C, P_S) = 0$  if and only if  $P_C = P_S$ . For this reason, the steganographer should *minimize* the MMD2 criterion when calculated from  $N = 80$  and  $N = 40$  cover images using  $N_0 = N/2$  and  $M = 105$  over different values of  $\rho \geq 0$ . The results obtained from the SVM-based classifier are plotted for reference. Due to bootstrapping, the MMD2 criterion results in a smooth optimization surface even for a high-dimensional  $\rho$ . We used a simple gradient descent-based optimization technique to minimize MMD2.

## 7. Application to Digital Images in DCT Domain

Most adaptive embedding schemes for JPEG images embed message bits while quantizing the DCT coefficients during JPEG compression and minimize an additive distortion function derived from the rounding errors. This approach utilizes the side-information in the form of a never-compressed image, which may not always be available. In this section, we focus on designing adaptive embedding schemes

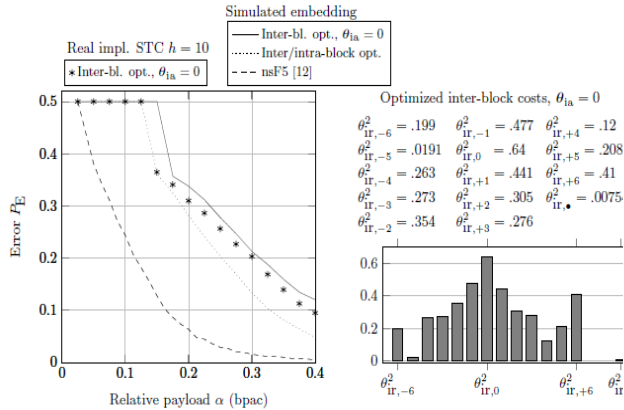
that start directly from a JPEG image and derive the cost of changing a single DCT coefficient from its neighborhood.

We used a mother database of 6,500 images obtained from 22 different cameras at their full resolution in a raw format from which a database of 6,500 grayscale JPEG cover images was created. Each raw image was first converted to grayscale, resized to a smaller size of 512 pixels using bilinear interpolation while preserving the aspect ratio, and finally JPEG compressed using quality factor 75. A common way of expressing the payload in DCT-domain steganography is the number of bit embedded per non-zero AC DCT coefficient [8], which we denote as "bpac." This is because essentially all embedding schemes for DCT domain never change zero coefficients and some even avoid changing DC coefficients due to their high impact on statistical detectability. According to [8], the most secure algorithm that does not rely on any side-information is the nsF5, which minimizes the number of changed non-zero AC DCT coefficients. Using our terminology, the nsF5 uses a binary embedding operation that decreases the absolute value of a non-zero AC DCT coefficient, i.e.,  $I_i = \{x_i, x_i - \text{sign}(x_i)\}$  whenever  $x_i \neq 0$  is an AC coefficient, and  $I_i = \{x_i\}$  otherwise. The detection was implemented using the CDF set with a Gaussian SVM-based steganalyzer. Similar to the spatial domain, we design the costs based on the differences between DCT coefficients either from neighboring blocks or from similar DCT modes in the same  $8 \times 8$  block. This allows us to express the context in which a single change is made. We represent a JPEG image  $\mathbf{x}$  in a matrix notation, where  $x_{i,j} \in \{-1024, \dots, 1024\}$  denotes the DCT element of mode  $(i \bmod 8, j \bmod 8)$  in the  $d_i/8e, d_j/8e$ th block. The set  $\{x_{i,j} | i \bmod 8 \neq 0 \wedge j \bmod 8 \neq 0\}$  describes all AC DCT coefficients in  $\mathbf{x}$ . We

define the following cost model, which we use with a ternary embedding operation.

### 8. Inter/intra-block cost model:

Let  $\rho = (\rho_{ir}, \rho_{ia})$  be the model parameters



describing the cost of disturbing inter- and intra-block dependencies with  $\rho_{ir} = (\rho_{ir}, -\rho, \dots, \rho_{ir}, \rho_{ir}, \bullet)$  and  $\rho_{ia} = (\rho_{ia}, -\rho, \dots, \rho_{ia}, \rho, \rho_{ia}, \bullet)$ . The cost of changing any (even zero) AC DCT coefficient

$$x_{i,j} \text{ to } y \in \mathcal{I}_{i,j} \triangleq \{x_{i,j} - 1, x_{i,j}, x_{i,j} + 1\} \cap \mathcal{I}$$

$$\rho_{i,j}(x,y) = \Theta(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y = x_{i,j}, \\ \infty & \text{if } y \notin \mathcal{I}_{i,j}, \\ \sum_{z \in \mathcal{N}_{ia}} \theta_{ia,z}^2 + \sum_{z \in \mathcal{N}_{ir}} \theta_{ir,z}^2 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where  $\mathcal{N}_{ir} = \{xi+8,j, xi,j+8, xi-8,j, xi,j-8\}$  and  $\mathcal{N}_{ia} = \{xi+1,j, xi,j+1, xi-1,j, xi,j-1\}$  are inter- and intrablock neighborhoods, respectively. As before,  $\rho_{ia,z} = \rho_{ia,\bullet}$  and  $\rho_{ir,z} = \rho_{ir,\bullet}$  whenever  $|z| > \rho$ . We reduced the sum in (7.3.1) accordingly when the required element fell outside of the image boundary. Compares the performance of embedding algorithms based on the above inter/intra-block cost model when optimized using the L2R $\rho$ L2LOSS criterion with CC-PEV features and payload 0.5 bpac. We report the performance of two algorithms for  $\rho = 6$ . In the first version, both

$\rho_{ir}$  and  $\rho_{ia}$  were optimized, while in the second version only the inter-block part  $\rho_{ir}$  was optimized while  $\rho_{ia} = (0, \dots, 0)$ . To show that the optimized algorithms are not over-trained to the CC-PEV features calibrated by cropping by  $4 \times 4$  pixels, we report the PE error obtained from a Gaussian SVM-based steganalyzer utilizing the CDF set. Similar performance results were obtained using the CC-PEV feature set with calibration by cropping by  $2 \times 4$  pixels, which suggests that the algorithms are not over-trained to a specific feature set. Unfortunately, the algorithm optimized w.r.t. both inter- and intra-block parts did not achieve a better performance than the algorithm with  $\rho_{ia} = 0$ , which is just a special case. This is due to the fact that the Nelder-Mead algorithm converged to a local minimum (the L2R $\rho$ L2LOSS criterion was smaller for the case with  $\rho_{ia} = 0$ ).

When compared with the non-adaptive nsF5 algorithm, both versions increased the payload for the same level of security more than twice. All algorithms can be implemented using the multi-layered STCs [7] in practice. In the figure shows that the loss introduced by such a practical implementation is small when implemented using STCs with constraint height  $h = 10$ . We found out experimentally that it is more effective to optimize the cost functions w.r.t. larger payloads. Methods optimized for smaller payloads, such as 0.1 bpac, did not achieve as high performance for higher payloads as methods optimized for larger payloads.

### 9. Conclusion

The basic premise behind steganography designed to embed while minimizing a certain distortion function is that the distortion is related to statistical detectability. In the past, steganographers used heuristically defined distortion functions and focused on the

problem of embedding with minimal distortion while no attempt was made to justify the choice of the distortion function or optimize its design. Since the problem of embedding with minimal distortion has been resolved in a near-optimal fashion in Chapters 5 and 6, what remains to be done and where the biggest gain in steganographic security lies is the form of the distortion function. The main contribution of this chapter is a practical methodology using which one can optimize the distortion to design steganographic schemes with improved security. We do so by representing images in a feature space in which we define a criterion evaluating the separability between these sets of cover and stego features. The distortion function is parametrized and the parameters are found by optimizing them w.r.t. the chosen criterion on a set that is relatively small – 80 cover and stego images. The result is validated on various cover sources using blind steganalyzers. We intentionally use steganalyzers that utilize different feature spaces than the one in which we optimize to demonstrate that our optimized design generalizes to other feature sets as well cover sources. We work with additive distortion functions that can be written as a sum of costs defined for each pixel, while each pixel cost depends on neighboring cover pixels. After investigating three different choices for the criterion, we selected the margin of a linear SVM as the most suitable one that is computationally efficient yet still closely tied to detectability as determined by a binary classifier trained on a large set of images. The merit of the proposed work is demonstrated by incorporating the optimized cost for the  $\pm 1$  embedding operation in the spatial domain and the  $\pm 1$  operation for the DCT domain. The improvement over current state of the art is especially apparent in the DCT domain where the methods with optimized costs can

embed more than twice as large payloads for the same detectability as the nsF5 algorithm. The costs are robust in the sense that the improvement can be observed even when the new method is tested with steganalyzers using a different feature set and even on a slightly different cover source. Without any doubts, better parametric models for the distortion in the DCT domain can and should be considered. For example, the cost parameters should be dependent on the spatial frequency of DCT coefficients. This would substantially increase the dimensionality of the parameter space which would need to be balanced out by a corresponding increase of the number of images. This appears to be a mere issue of increased complexity rather than one that would render our approach inapplicable and we might consider it in our future work.

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