

Improved Statistical Steganalysis Using Syndrome-Trellis Codes

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ABSTRACT: The word stego is a Greek word known as "Secret". The process of embedding a secret message into an image is called steganography. Basically, distortion occurs when length of pixels increased, if distortion increases hackers can easily attack the system and can easily view the information that is embedded in the image. Hence to minimize the distortion, in this paper we are using the non-binary embedding system through syndrome-trellis codes. A cover "X" with a message "M" and key "K" is embedded into a Stego element "Y" and is when passed through a stego channel image, security is increased. Here "X" and "Y" are random variables on image function. Here the probability distribution on X and Y are same hence no statistical test can detect the steganography. Stego element "Y" is produced by slightly modifying the element "X". In Syndrome trellis two rules are applied, the rule 1 is Embed entropy bits into MSB's with low costs. 2. Embed entropy bits into LSB's with costs. In this paper every pixels i.e. {0, 1, 2, 3} is embedded into MSB and LSB, hence MSB contains {0, 1} and LSB contains {2, 3} pixel values.

Keywords: Watermarking, Steganography, Non-binary embedding system, Stego-image, Stego element, Syndrome trellis code.

1. Introduction

Conventional cryptographic systems permit only valid key holders access to encrypted data, but once such data is decrypted there is no way to track its reproduction or retransmission. Therefore, conventional cryptography provides little protection against data piracy, in which a publisher is confronted with unauthorized reproduction of information. A digital watermark is intended to complement cryptographic processes. It is a visible, or preferably invisible, identification code that is permanently embedded in the data and remains present within the data after any decryption process.

Watermarking is a technology for embedding various types of information in digital content. In general, information for protecting copyrights and proving the validity of data is embedded as a watermark. Watermarked content can prove its origin, thereby protecting the data. Here a cover "X"

with a message "M" and key "K" is embedded into a Stego element "Y" and is when passed through a stego channel, security. Here "X" and "Y" are random variables on image function which is exactly given in fig 1.

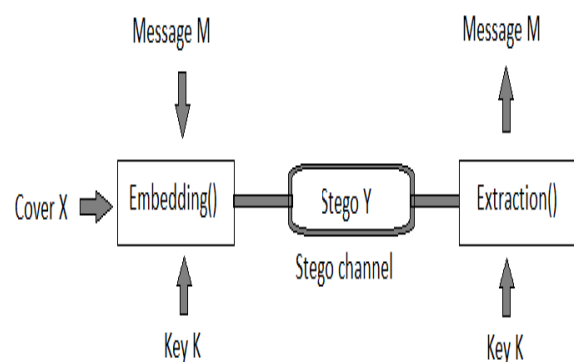


Fig1: Embedding and extraction of a message M into Cover X with key K

1.1 Steganography

Steganography, coming from the Greek words “stegos”, meaning roof or covered and “graphia” which means writing, is the art and science of hiding the fact that communication is taking place. Using steganography, we can embed a secret message inside a piece of unsuspecting information and send it without anyone knowing of the existence of the secret message. Steganography and cryptography are closely related. Cryptography scrambles messages so they cannot be understood. Steganography on the other hand, will hide the message so there is no knowledge of the existence of the message in the first place. In some situations, sending an encrypted message will arouse suspicion while an “invisible” message will not do so. Both sciences can be combined to produce better protection of the message. In this case, when the steganography fails and the message can be detected, it is still of no use as it is encrypted using cryptography techniques. With steganography you can send messages without anyone having knowledge of the existence of the communication. There are many countries where it is not possible to speak as freely as it is in some more democratic countries. Steganography can be absolute which makes it possible to send news and information without being censored and without the fear of the messages being intercepted and traced back to you.

Hiding information inside images is a popular technique nowadays. An image with a secret message inside can easily be spread over the World Wide Web or in newsgroups. To hide a message inside an image without changing its visible properties, the cover source can be altered in “noisy” areas with many color variations, so less attention will be drawn to the modifications. *Least-Significant Bit (LSB), Masking, Filtering and Transformations* on the cover image are

the most commonly used methods to make these alterations. These techniques can be used with varying degrees of success on different types of image files.

2. Least-significant bit modifications:

The most widely used technique to hide data, is the usage of the LSB. Although there are several disadvantages to this approach, the relative easiness to implement it, makes it a popular method. To hide a secret message inside an image, a proper cover image is needed. Because this method uses bits of each pixel in the image, it is necessary to use a lossless compression format, otherwise the hidden information will get lost in the transformations of a loss compression algorithm. When using a 24 bit color image, a bit of each of the red, green and blue color components can be used, so a total of 3 bits can be stored in each pixel. Thus, an 800×600 pixel image can contain a total amount of 1,440,000 bits (180,000 bytes) of secret data. For example, the following grid can be considered as 3 pixels of a 24 bit color image, using 9 bytes of memory:

```
(00100111 11101001 11001000)
(00100111 11001000 11101001)
(11001000 00100111 11101001)
```

When the character A, which binary value equals 10000001, is inserted, the following grid results:

```
(00100111 11101000 11001000)
(00100110 11001000 11101000)
(11001000 00100111 11101001)
```

In this case, only three bits needed to be changed to insert the character successfully. On average, only half of the bits in an image will need to be modified to hide a secret message using the maximal cover size. The resulting changes that are

made to the least significant bits are too small to be recognized by the human eye, so the message is effectively hidden. While using a 24 bit image gives a relatively large amount of space to hide messages, it is also possible to use an 8 bit image as a cover source. Because of the smaller space and different properties, 8 bit images require a more careful approach. Where 24 bit images use three bytes to represent a pixel, an 8 bit image uses only one. Changing the LSB of that byte will result in a visible change of color, as another color in the available palette will be displayed. Therefore, the cover image needs to be selected more carefully and preferably be in gray scale, as the human eye will not detect the difference between different gray values as easy as with different colors. Disadvantages of using LSB alteration are mainly in the fact that it requires a fairly large cover image to create a usable amount of hiding space. Even nowadays, uncompressed images of 800 x 600 pixels are not often used on the Internet, so using these might raise suspicion. Another disadvantage will arise when compressing an image concealing a secret using a lossy compression algorithm. The hidden message will not survive this operation and is lost after the transformation.

In special domain, the hiding process such as least significant bit (LSB) replacement is done in special domain, while transform domain methods. Hide data in another domain such as wavelet domain. Least significant bit (LSB) is the simplest form of Steganography. LSB is based on inserting data in the least significant bit of pixels, which lead to a slight change on the cover image that is not noticeable to human eye. Since this method can be easily cracked, it is more vulnerable to attacks. LSB method has intense effects on the statistical information of image like histogram. Attackers could be aware of a

hidden communication by just checking the Histogram of an image. A good solution to eliminate this defect was LSB matching. LSB-Matching was a great step forward in Steganography methods and many others get ideas from it.

Now, it is planned to introduce a method that embed 2 bits information in a pixel and alter one bit from one bit plane but the message does not necessarily place in the least significant bit of pixel and second less significant bit plane and fourth less significant bit plane can also host the message. Since in our method for embedding two bits message we alter just one bit plane, fewer pixels would be manipulated during embedding message in an image and it is expected for the steganalysis algorithm to have more difficulty detecting the covert communication. It is clear that in return complexity of the system would increase.

In our method there are only three ways that a pixel is allowed to be changed:

- 1) Its least significant Bit would alter (So the gray level of the pixel would Increase or decrease by one level)
- 2) The second less significant bit plane would alter (So the gray level of the pixel would increase or decrease by two levels)
- 3) The fourth less significant bit plane would alter (So the gray level of the pixel would increase or decrease by eight levels)

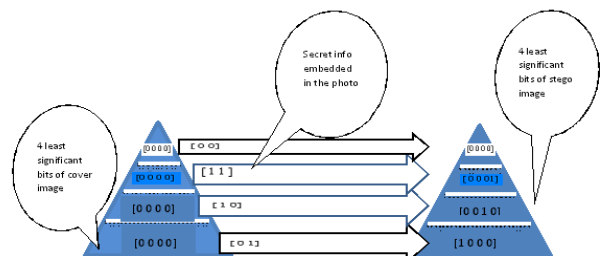


Fig 2: How cover pixel with four less significant bits of [0000] change according to different message.

3. Problem Formulation

The distortion function D is additive over individual cover pixels $D(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \rho_i(x, y_i)$

Where $\rho_i: X \times I_i \rightarrow [-K, K]$, $0 < K < 1$, are bounded functions expressing the cost of replacing the cover pixel x_i with y_i . Note that ρ_i may arbitrarily depend on the entire cover image \mathbf{x} , allowing thus the sender to place the embedding changes adaptively w.r.t. the image content. The fact that the value of $\rho_i(\mathbf{x}, y_i)$ is independent of changes made at other pixels implies that the embedding changes do not interact. The boundedness of $D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is not limiting the sender in practice since the case when a particular value y_i is forbidden can be resolved by excluding y_i from I_i . In practice, the sets I_i , $i \in \{1, n\}$, may depend on cover pixels and thus may not be available to the receiver. To handle this case, we expand the domain of ρ_i to $X \times I$ and define $\rho_i(\mathbf{x}, y_i) = 1$ whenever $y_i \in I_i$. We intentionally keep the definition of the distortion function rather general. We assume the sender obtains her payload in the form of a pseudo-random bit stream, such as by compressing or encrypting the original message. We further assume that the embedding algorithm associates every cover image \mathbf{x} with a pair $\{Y, \Pi\}$, where Y is the set of all stego images into which \mathbf{x} can be modified and Π is their probability distribution characterizing the sender's actions, $\Pi(\mathbf{y})$, $P(Y = \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x})$. We think of \mathbf{x} as a constant parameter that is fixed in the very beginning and thus we do not further denote the dependency on it explicitly. For this reason, we simply write $D(\mathbf{y}), D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$. If the receiver knew \mathbf{x} , the sender could send up to $H(\Pi)$ bits on average while introducing the average distortion $E[\Pi[D]]$ by choosing the stego image according to Π . Here \mathbf{x} does not give

any fundamental advantage to the receiver and the same performance can be achieved as long as \mathbf{x} is known to the sender.

4. Syndrome Coding

Let us first assume a binary version of both embedding problems. Let $P: I \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be parity function shared between the sender and the receiver satisfying $P(x_i) \neq P(y_i)$ such as $P(x) = x \bmod 2$. The sender and the receiver need to implement the embedding and extraction mappings defined as $\text{Emb}: X \times \{0, 1\}^m \rightarrow Y$ and $\text{Ext}: Y \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ satisfying $\text{Ext}(\text{Emb}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m})) = \mathbf{m}$ $\forall \mathbf{x} \in X, \mathbf{m} \in \{0, 1\}^m$, respectively. In particular, we do not assume the knowledge of the distortion function D at the receiver and thus the embedding scheme can be seen as being universal in this sense. A common information-theoretic strategy for solving the PLS problem is known as binning, which we implement using cosets of a linear code. Such a construction, better known as syndrome coding, is capacity achieving for the PLS problem if random linear codes are used. In syndrome coding, the embedding and extraction mappings are realized using a binary linear code C of length n and dimension $n - m$:

$$\text{Emb}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m}) = \arg \min_{\mathbf{y} \in C(\mathbf{m})} D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}),$$

$$\text{Ext}(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbb{H} \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{y})^T,$$

Where $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{y}) = (\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{y}_1) \dots \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{y}_n))$, $\mathbb{H} \in \{0, 1\}^{m \times n}$ is a parity-check matrix of the code C , $C(\mathbf{m}) = \{\mathbf{z} \in \{0, 1\}^n | \mathbb{H} \mathbf{z}^T = \mathbf{m}\}$ is the coset corresponding to syndrome \mathbf{m} , and all operations are in binary arithmetic.

4. Syndrome-Trellis Codes

We focus on solving the binary PLS problem with previous distortion function and propose a large class of linear codes which we call the syndrome-trellis codes. The construction behind STCs is not new from an information-theoretic perspective, since

the STCs are trellis codes represented in a dual domain. However, STCs are very interesting for practical steganography since they allow solving both embedding problems with a very small coding loss over a wide range of distortion profiles even with wet pixels. The same code can be used with all profiles making the embedding algorithm practically universal. STCs offer general and state-of-the-art solution for both embedding problems in steganography. Here, we give the description of the codes along with their graphical representation, the syndrome trellis. Such construction is prepared for the Viterbi algorithm, which is optimal for solving prior art. Important practical guidelines for optimizing the codes and using them for the wet paper channel are also covered. Finally, we study the performance of these codes by extensive numerical simulations using different distortion profiles including the wet paper channel. Syndrome-trellis codes targeted to applications in steganography were described in, which was written for practitioners. In this chapter, we expect the reader to have a working knowledge of convolutional codes which are often used in data-hiding applications such as digital watermarking.

Our main goal is to develop efficient syndrome-coding schemes for an *arbitrary* relative payload with the main focus on small relative payloads (think of $\alpha \leq 1/2$ for example). In steganography, the relative payload must decrease with increasing size of the cover object in order to maintain the same level of security, which is a consequence of the square root law. Moreover, recent results from steganalysis in both spatial and DCT domains suggest that the secure payload for digital image steganography is always far below $1/2$. Another reason for targeting smaller

payloads is the fact that as $\alpha \rightarrow 1$, all binary embedding algorithms tend to introduce changes with probability $1/2$, no matter how optimal they are. Denoting with $R = (n - m)/n$ the rate of the linear code C , then $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ translates to $R = 1 - \alpha \rightarrow 1$, which is characteristic for applications of syndrome coding in steganography.

5.1 Transforming Convolutional Codes to Syndrome-Trellis Codes

Convolutional codes were probably the first “practical” codes used for this problem. This is because the gap between the bound on the expected per-pixel distortion and the distortion obtained using the optimal encoding algorithm (the Viterbi algorithm) decreases exponentially with the constraint length of the code. The complexity of the Viterbi algorithm is linear in the block length of the code, but exponential in its constraint length (the number of trellis states grows exponentially in the constraint length). This makes convolutional codes (of small constraint length) suitable for our application because the entire cover object

can be used and the speed can be traded for performance by adjusting the constraint length. Note that the receiver does not need to know D since only the Viterbi algorithm requires this knowledge. By increasing the constraint length, we can achieve the average per-pixel distortion that is arbitrarily close to the bounds and thus make the coding loss approach zero. Convolutional codes are often represented with shift-registers that generate the code word from a set of information bits. In channel coding, codes of rates $R = 1/k$ for $k = 2, 3, \dots$ are usually considered for their simple implementation. The main drawback of convolutional codes, when implemented using shift-registers, comes from our requirement of small relative payloads (code rates close to one). A convolutional code of rate $R = (k - 1)/k$ requires $k - 1$ shift registers

when used in the source-coding problem with Hamming measure (uniform distortion profile). Unfortunately, the computational complexity of these algorithms does not permit us to use them for the code design. Instead, we rely on estimates obtained from embedding a pseudo-random message into a random cover object. The author was unable to find a better algorithm than an exhaustive search guided by some simple design rules. First, \hat{H} should not have identical columns because the syndrome trellis would contain two or more different paths with exactly the same weight, which would lead to an overall decrease in performance. By running an exhaustive search over small matrices, we have observed that the best sub matrices \hat{H} had ones in the first and last rows. For example, when $h = 7$ and $w = 4$, more than 97% of the best 1000 codes obtained from the exhaustive search satisfied this rule. Thus, we searched for good matrices among those that did not contain identical columns and with all bits in the first and last rows set to 1 (the remaining bits were assigned at random). In practice, we randomly generated 10 – 1000 sub matrices satisfying these rules and estimated their performance (embedding efficiency) experimentally by running the Viterbi algorithm with random covers and messages. For a reliable estimate, cover objects of size at least $n = 106$ are required. To investigate the stability of the design w.r.t. to the profile, the following experiment was conducted. We fixed $h = 10$ and $w = 2$, which correspond to a code with $\alpha = 1/2$. The code design procedure was simulated by randomly generating 300 sub matrices $\hat{H}_1, \dots, \hat{H}_{300}$ satisfying the above design rules. The goodness of the code was evaluated using the embedding efficiency ($e = m/D(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$) by running the Viterbi algorithm on a random cover object (of size $n = 106$) and with a random message. The codes with a high embedding efficiency on the constant

profile exhibit high efficiency for the other profiles, we consider the code design to be stable w.r.t. the profile and use these matrices with other profiles in practice. All further results are generated by using these matrices.

7. Conclusions

The concept of embedding in steganography that minimizes a distortion function is connected to many basic principles used for constructing embedding schemes for complex cover sources today, including the principle of minimal-embedding-impact, approximate model-preservation, or the Gibbs construction. The current work describes a complete practical framework for constructing steganographic schemes that embed by minimizing an additive distortion function. Once the steganographer specifies the form of the distortion function, the proposed framework provides all essential tools for constructing practical embedding schemes working close to their theoretical bounds. The methods are not limited to binary embedding operations and allow the embedder to choose the amplitude of embedding changes dynamically based on the cover-image content. The distortion function or the embedding operations do not need to be shared with the recipient. In fact, they can even change from image to image. The framework can be thought of as an off-the-shelf method that allows practitioners to concentrate on the problem of designing the distortion measure instead of the problem of how to construct practical embedding schemes. The merit of the proposed algorithms is demonstrated experimentally by implementing them for the JPEG and spatial domains and showing an improvement in statistical detectability as measured by state-of-the-art blind steganalyzers. We have demonstrated that larger embedding changes provide a significant gain in security when placed

adaptively. Finally, the construction is not limited to embedding with larger amplitudes but can be used, e.g., for embedding in color images, where the LSBs of all three colors can be seen as 3-bit symbols on which the cost functions are defined. Applications outside the scope of digital images are possible as long as we know how to define the costs. The implicit premise of this chapter is the direct relationship between the distortion function D and statistical detectability. Designing (and possibly learning) the distortion measure for a given cover source is an interesting research problem by itself. Examples of distortion measures presented in this work are unlikely to be optimal and we include them here mainly to illustrate the concepts.

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