

Pseudo Quantum Steganography with “Color Barcode” in M-band Wavelet Domain

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Abstract: - The world we are living in is growing exponentially with the help of application of mathematics, technology, and new innovation. The needs for security of transmitting private (secrete) information are high on demand whether information is from a corporation, the government, social media, or an individual. To solve such problems, many steganography and cryptograph algorithms have been developed. With the current advancements and development of quantum computers and quantum computing theory, new quantum steganography schemes are more and more attractive due to their unconditional security assured by Heisenberg’s uncertainty principle. In this paper, instead of using real quantum methods such as quantum key distribution (QKD, quantum secret sharing (QSS), quantum secure direct communication (QSDC) without a “real” quantum computer, we propose a Pseudo Quantum Steganography with “Color Barcode” in M-band Wavelet Domain. The probability to decode our hidden information is about $\frac{1}{2^n}$ where n is the size of that information. Assured by Heisenberg’s uncertainty principle and no-cloning theorem, this algorithm is nearly impossible for any attackers to decode if our algorithm is performed on a quantum computer.

Key- Words: - pseudo quantum steganography; pseudo quantum signal; M-band wavelets; Color barcode

1 Introduction

Steganography is a technique of hiding one piece of secret information within another, such as text, audio, image, video, and so on [4-9,16-19,21,29]. Modern steganography started during 1980’s when personal computers were affordable to general public and being applied to classical steganography problems [29]. Compared to traditional cryptography, steganography can be thought as generalized cryptography using embedding techniques. The advantage of steganography is that messages can avoid causing third party’s attention; therefore, it is more secured. Recent advancements in mathematical steganography theorems, quantum computing, and Big Data continue to support new algorithms, which will enforce the protection of privacy information among all users of the internet [16]. These new developments will enhance the security for electronic communication on the internet. There are many efficient steganography schemes having been proposed.

As in [4] and [5], a secret sharing scheme is created so that an encryption key is used to encrypt the secret information that is to be securely stored/transmitted. The encrypted message is then divided into several (possibly redundant) pieces. The

key is divided into shares, and these shares are stored along with the pieces of the encrypted message as an overhead

In [12], a secured robust approach of information security is proposed. The paper presents two component based LSB (Least Significant Bit) methods for embedding secret data in the LSB’s of blue components and partial green components of random pixel locations in the edges of images. An adaptive LSB based steganography is proposed for embedding data based on data available in MSB’s of red, green, and blue components of randomly selected pixels across smooth areas. It is more robust as it is integrated with an Advanced Encryption Standard (AES).

On the other hand, [13] provides a new high capacity stenographic scheme using 3D geometric models. The algorithm re-triangulates a part of a triangular mesh and embeds the secret information into a newly added position of triangular meshes. This algorithm also resists against uniform affine transformations such as cropping, rotation and scaling. The stego key is generated from the message to be embedded.

In [14], data is embedded into the red plane of the image and the pixel is selected using a random number generator. It is almost impossible to notice

the changes in the image. A stego key is used to seed the PRNG (Pseudo Random Number Generator) to select pixel locations. This paper focuses on increasing the security of the message and reducing distortion rate.

Recently, more and more researchers have shifted their attentions to quantum steganography methodology due to its unconditional security.

Researchers have developed three major different quantum related steganography methods. Quantum key distribution (QKD) [1-3] is provably secure, but it remains to be made efficient in real-world applications over distances and at bit rates consistent with the requirements of modern communications. Many other quantum cryptography schemes also have been proposed and pursued, such as quantum secret sharing (QSS)[30-39], quantum secure direct communication (QSDC)[40-51], and so on. QSS is the generalization of classical secret sharing to quantum scenario and can share both classical and quantum messages among sharers. QSDC's object is to transmit the secret message directly without first establishing a key to encrypt them, which is different to QKD. QSDC can be used in some special environments which have been shown by Boström and Deng [41, 45].

In this research we borrow the idea from [21] to propose a pseudo quantum steganography with "Color Barcode" in M-band Wavelet Domain. First we perform encryption of images, audios, text messages into a (pseudo) color barcode, which is tremendously useful for holding a large capacity of data due to its nature. We then perform M-band wavelet transform to the barcode and use pseudo quantum signal transformation to encrypt our hidden information and approximation portions of the barcode. Next, we embed hidden pseudo quantum signal into the pseudo quantum signal corresponding to approximation portions of the barcode. After the embedding, we apply the inverse wavelet transformation to get the encrypted barcode. Assured by Heisenberg's uncertainty principle and no-cloning theorem, this algorithm is nearly impossible to any attackers to decode if our algorithm is performed on a quantum computer.

2 Primaries

2.1 Quantum Computer, Qubit, and Quantum Computing

A quantum computer is a device for computations that makes direct use of quantum mechanical properties. In April of 2015, IBM researchers, for the first time, solved the key problem for building a true quantum computer: how to detect and measure

both bit-flip and phase-flip quantum errors simultaneously. They also outlined a new, square quantum bit circuit design that could scale to much larger dimensions [16].

While normal computation and information are based on classical bits, quantum computation and quantum information are based on quantum bits (qubits). Just like a classical bit, either 0 or 1, a qubit also has a state. Their difference is that a qubit can be in both $|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $|1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ states simultaneously and any linear combinations of them. $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ are called computational basis states or basis and

$$|\psi\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \tag{1}$$

is called super position of $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$, where a and b are complex numbers satisfying $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$. Moreover, $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ form an orthonormal basis for 2-D Hilbert space, a special vector space. We can think the qubit as the following geometric representations (Fig.1), which can be rewritten as the form of qubit:

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\frac{\theta}{2}|0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}\sin\frac{\theta}{2}|1\rangle, \tag{2}$$

where θ and φ are real numbers and a qubit defines a point on the unit 3-D sphere. Since there are infinitely many points on the unit sphere, one could store an entire text of the Shakespeare in the infinite binary expansion of θ [52].

2.2 Pseudo-Quantum Signal

For the signal $S = [s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n]^t$, we define linear transformations F so that $F(s^*) = \frac{m\pi}{3}$ and $F(s_*) = \frac{m\pi}{6}$,

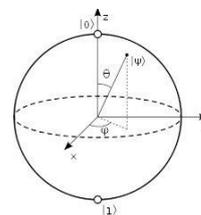


Fig. 1: Qubit

where $s^* = \max\{s_k\}$, $s_* = \min\{s_k\}$, and $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, through F we transform S into the interval $[\frac{m\pi}{6}, \frac{m\pi}{3}]$ with $\theta_k = F(s_k)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

We call F the "pseudo quantum signal converter" as we can transform the classical signals into the form of quantum signals through it. We now define qubit $|s_k\rangle = \cos\theta_k|0\rangle + \sin\theta_k|1\rangle$. This transform changes the signal values into the form of angles, thus we can define corresponding qubits to represent the signal.

Definition: The corresponding qubits $|s_k\rangle = \cos\theta_k |0\rangle + \sin\theta_k |1\rangle$ are called pseudo quantum signals.

After all, they are not exactly the same as real quantum signals, so we call them “pseudo quantum signals”. This can help us simulate quantum signals and quantum computing in situations where quantum computers are not available.

2.3 Pseudo Color Barcode

Barcodes are optical machine-readable representations of data, capable of storing digital information about the physical object to which they are attached. Both the increasing demand for higher density barcodes and the wide availability of on-board cameras in mobile phones seem to motivate naturally the need for 2D color barcodes. In this research, we do not use the real color barcode; instead, we convert the three pieces of host signals into an image which looks like a color barcode with three different color channels. This pseudo color barcode can hold three books such as three volumes of The Lord of the Rings. We then embed our secrete information into this “barcode”.

2.4 M-Band Wavelet

Discrete M-Band Wavelet Transform uses a set of M filter banks ($M \geq 2$) to break a k dimensional signal into M^k different frequency levels. Daubechies wavelets are classical 2-Band wavelets. A 4-Band, 2-dimensional wavelet transform decomposes an image into one approximation (low frequency) component and 15 detail (high frequency) components. The 2-D discrete M -Band wavelet transformation of an image matrix I is done by multiplying a wavelet transform matrix to the left side of input image, and then by its transpose to the right side, written as TIT^t , where T is the wavelet transform matrix which is orthonormal, and T^t is the transpose of T and hence $T^t = T^{-1}$.

In order to apply DMWT to a color image, we decompose the RGB-mode color image into three matrices, I_1 , I_2 , and I_3 for red, green, and blue, respectively. We then apply DMWT to each one of them to obtain

$$I'_k = TI_kT^t \tag{3}$$

for $k = 1,2,3$, respectively. Therefore the transformed image can be formed by the combination of I'_1, I'_2 , and I'_3 . An example of 4-band wavelet transform matrix T is given below:

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 & v_5 & v_6 & v_7 & v_8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 & v_5 & v_6 & v_7 & v_8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 & v_5 & v_6 & v_7 & v_8 & 0 & 0 \\ v_5 & v_6 & v_7 & v_8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ w_1^{(1)} & w_2^{(1)} & w_3^{(1)} & w_4^{(1)} & w_5^{(1)} & w_6^{(1)} & w_7^{(1)} & w_8^{(1)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & w_1^{(1)} & w_2^{(1)} & w_3^{(1)} & w_4^{(1)} & w_5^{(1)} & w_6^{(1)} & w_7^{(1)} & w_8^{(1)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & w_1^{(1)} & w_2^{(1)} & w_3^{(1)} & w_4^{(1)} & w_5^{(1)} & w_6^{(1)} & w_7^{(1)} & w_8^{(1)} & 0 & 0 \\ w_5^{(1)} & w_6^{(1)} & w_7^{(1)} & w_8^{(1)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ w_1^{(2)} & w_2^{(2)} & w_3^{(2)} & w_4^{(2)} & w_5^{(2)} & w_6^{(2)} & w_7^{(2)} & w_8^{(2)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & w_1^{(2)} & w_2^{(2)} & w_3^{(2)} & w_4^{(2)} & w_5^{(2)} & w_6^{(2)} & w_7^{(2)} & w_8^{(2)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & w_1^{(2)} & w_2^{(2)} & w_3^{(2)} & w_4^{(2)} & w_5^{(2)} & w_6^{(2)} & w_7^{(2)} & w_8^{(2)} & 0 & 0 \\ w_5^{(2)} & w_6^{(2)} & w_7^{(2)} & w_8^{(2)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ w_1^{(3)} & w_2^{(3)} & w_3^{(3)} & w_4^{(3)} & w_5^{(3)} & w_6^{(3)} & w_7^{(3)} & w_8^{(3)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & w_1^{(3)} & w_2^{(3)} & w_3^{(3)} & w_4^{(3)} & w_5^{(3)} & w_6^{(3)} & w_7^{(3)} & w_8^{(3)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & w_1^{(3)} & w_2^{(3)} & w_3^{(3)} & w_4^{(3)} & w_5^{(3)} & w_6^{(3)} & w_7^{(3)} & w_8^{(3)} & 0 & 0 \\ w_5^{(3)} & w_6^{(3)} & w_7^{(3)} & w_8^{(3)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where:

$$\begin{aligned} v &= [-0.06737176, 0.09419511, 0.40580489, \\ & 0.56737176, 0.56737176, 0.40580489, \\ & 0.09419511, -0.06737176] \\ w^{(1)} &= [-0.09419511, 0.06737176, 0.56737176, \\ & 0.40580489, -0.40580489, -0.56737176, \\ & -0.06737176, 0.09419511] \\ w^{(2)} &= [-0.09419511, -0.06737176, 0.56737176, \\ & -0.40580489, -0.40580489, 0.56737176, \\ & -0.06737176, -0.09419511] \\ w^{(3)} &= [-0.06737176, -0.09419511, 0.40580489, \\ & -0.56737176, 0.56737176, -0.40580489, \\ & 0.09419511, 0.06737176]. \end{aligned}$$

It's easy to verify that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^8 v_i &= \sqrt{4} = 2, \sum_{i=1}^8 w_i^{(1)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^8 w_i^{(2)} = \sum_{i=1}^8 w_i^{(3)} = 0, \\ \|v\| &= \|w^{(1)}\| = \|w^{(2)}\| = \|w^{(3)}\| = 1, \\ v \cdot w^{(1)} &= v \cdot w^{(2)} = v \cdot w^{(3)} = w^{(1)} \cdot w^{(2)} = \\ w^{(1)} \cdot w^{(3)} &= w^{(2)} \cdot w^{(3)} = 0 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

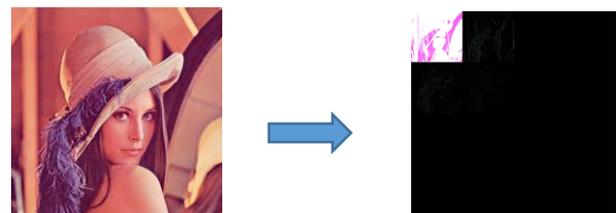


Fig. 2 Original image and its corresponding wavelet transformed image. In the right picture, left top part is approximation; other parts are details.

3 Steganography procedure

The steganography algorithm consists of the following seven steps.

3.1 Convert the host information into pseudo barcodes

Each alphabet and the special characters correspond to an American Standard for Information Interchange (ASCII) code. For example, “a” corresponds to number 63, “b” corresponds to number 64, “c” corresponds to number 65, “period/.” corresponds to number 46, “comma/,” corresponds to number 44, etcetera. We convert the entire host message into a sequence of ASCII numbers and then reshape them into a square matrix. If the message does not completely fill the square matrix, we insert extra “spaces” to fill it. “Space” corresponds to number 32 in ASCII format.

In our example, we are using true color (RGB) barcode, so it consists of three color channels: red, green, and blue. Therefore, we can have up to three host messages corresponding to each color channel and up to three types of secret information to be embedded in corresponding host messages.

Text secret information will be converted and reshaped into the square matrix using a similar method as the host messages. Image secret information will be converted into greyscale. Then we use MATLAB to get the corresponding color intensity at each pixel. Audio secret information will be digitalized and reshaped into square matrix. The size of the secret information is one-sixteenth to the host message since we will embed the secret information into the approximation portion of the host message. Approximation portion is the results of M-Band Wavelet Transformation, which will be presented in step B.

Each host message channel is in greyscale, and the color intensity has a bound of 0-255. By combining three grayscale images, we obtain a RGB color image. Call each image R, G, B respectively.

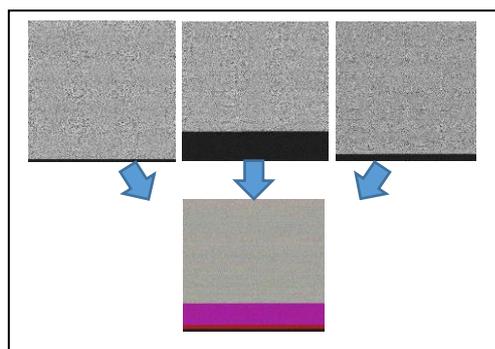


Fig. 3: Lord of The Rings books in the “color barcode”

3.2 M-Band Wavelet Transformation

As in the description of M-Band Wavelet in Part II, by performing M-Band Wavelet transformation, we get the approximation portion, which contains the most energy of the host message (as see in Fig. 2). Because we are using 4-Band Wavelet, the approximation portion is one-sixteenth the size of the barcode. We want to encrypt the secret information into these approximation portions. Therefore, the size of the secret information must match the size of the approximation portion. We call each transformed matrix WR, WG, WB.

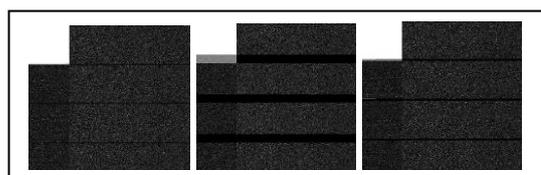


Fig. 4: Post Wavelet Transformation on host information

3.3 Secret Information

We want to embed the secret information into the approximation portion of the host channels. Secret information can be in the form of text, image, and audio. We call these pieces of secret information X, Y, Z respectively. The ways to digitalize the secret information has been mentioned in part A.

3.3.1 Texture:

If the host message has the size of 1024 x 1024, then the text secret information can get up to 65536 (approximate 9000 words).

3.3.2 Image:

Any grayscale image with the size of the approximation portion of the host image.

3.3.1 Audio:

We use MATLAB to break down audio index and reshape it into a square matrix with the same size as other secret information.

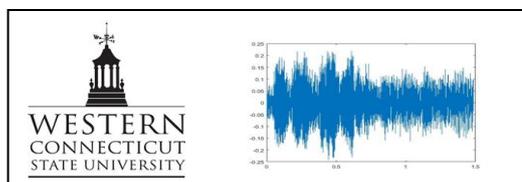


Fig. 5: Image and audio secret information

3.4 Angle Transformation

In order to perform quantum encryption, which has been introduced in Part II, the host and the secret information must be in the form of an angle. For encryption, we only encrypt the secret information to the approximation portion. Therefore, we only take the approximation portions, called matrix A_R , from the matrix W_R , and transform it into angle

element in the interval $[\frac{m\pi}{6}, \frac{m\pi}{3}]$ using the

following operation f .

Let $\mu_1 = \max(A_{(R,ij)}), \nu_1 = \min(A_{(R,ij)})$. We acquire:

$$\theta_{R,ij} = f(A_{R,ij}) = \frac{m\pi(A_{R,ij} + \mu_1 - 2\nu_1)}{6(\mu_1 - \nu_1)} \quad (5)$$

And denote $\theta_R = [\theta_{R,ij}]$.

Then, we perform the same operation to the secret information X in the interval of $[\frac{n\pi}{6}, \frac{n\pi}{3}]$

Let $\mu_2 = \max(X_{ij}), \nu_2 = \min(X_{ij})$. We acquire:

$$\alpha_{ij} = f(X_{ij}) = \frac{n\pi(X_{ij} + \mu_2 - 2\nu_2)}{6(\mu_2 - \nu_2)} \quad (6)$$

Let: $\alpha = [\alpha_{ij}]$

Perform step 3 for matrix W_G, W_B, Y , and Z to obtain $\theta_G, \theta_B, \beta, \gamma$ respectively; then, save all the maximum and minimum values into codebooks.

3.5 Random Qubit

For each pixel (i,j) if we have a quantum computer, then we can get a random qubit

$$|k_{ij}\rangle = P_{ij1}|0\rangle + P_{ij2}|1\rangle \quad (7)$$

Since we are performing the transformation on a classical computer, we cannot generate a true quantum qubit. Therefore, we applied the random number generator to represent the randomness of quantum qubit.

$$k_{ij} = rand(0,1) \quad (8)$$

k_{ij} is the random number between 0 and 1. We generate K for each pixel of the matrix.

3.6 Embedding Using Quantum/Pseudo Quantum Signals

For quantum signal:

$$\theta_{ER,ij} = m \begin{cases} \cos^{-1}(\cos(\frac{\theta_{R,ij}}{m}) + \epsilon \cos(\frac{\alpha_{ij}}{n})), & |P_{ij1}| \geq |P_{ij2}| \\ \sin^{-1}(\sin(\frac{\theta_{R,ij}}{m}) + \epsilon \sin(\frac{\alpha_{ij}}{n})), & |P_{ij1}| < |P_{ij2}| \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

Let: $\theta_{ER} = [\theta_{ER,ij}]$

For pseudo quantum signal:

$$\theta_{ER,ij} = m \begin{cases} \cos^{-1}(\cos(\frac{\theta_{R,ij}}{m}) + \epsilon \cos(\frac{\alpha_{ij}}{n})), & k_{ij} \geq 0.5 \\ \sin^{-1}(\sin(\frac{\theta_{R,ij}}{m}) + \epsilon \sin(\frac{\alpha_{ij}}{n})), & k_{ij} < 0.5 \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

We perform step B and F to the θ_G, θ_B to obtain θ_{EG}, θ_{EB} . To get the encrypted approximation portion, we perform the inverse of transformation f^{-1} from step 3.

$$A_{WR,ij} = \frac{6\theta_{ER,ij}(\mu_1 - \nu_1)}{m\pi} - \mu_1 + 2\nu_1 \quad (11)$$

Let $A_{WR} = A_{WR,ij}$

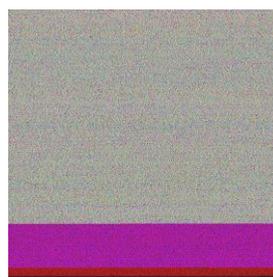
A_{WR} is the encrypted approximation portion for the red channel.

Perform the same operation for the approximation portion of the green and blue channel.

Note: Unlike image and audio secret information, text secret information is difficult to decrypt due to rounding error. For image and audio secret information, a human can recognize the image and sound if they are similar to each other (see Statistical Result). However, for text secret information, we have not yet achieved 100% similarity. Therefore, in order to decrypt the message, we have to save the rounding error to the code book and add it back during the decryption step.

3.7 Embedded Barcode

Now, we replace the encrypted approximation portion to the wavelet transformed host matrix. Call these new matrices W_{ER}, W_{EG}, W_{EB} . Then, we perform the inverse wavelet transformation to these matrices to obtain the encrypted host message.



$$\begin{aligned} R_E &= T^{-1}W_{ER}T \\ G_E &= T^{-1}W_{EG}T \\ B_E &= T^{-1}W_{EB}T \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Fig. 6: Encrypted Barcode

4 Decryption

4.1 Get into the encrypted approximation portions

After the receiver obtains the original and the encrypted barcodes along with the code book, he/she needs to perform the same procedures of Step B and C from Part III to get into the encrypted approximation portions of each channel in angle form. From the procedure, he will obtain $\theta_{R,ij}, \theta_{G,ij}, \theta_{B,ij}$ from the original barcode and $\theta_{ER,ij}, \theta_{EG,ij}, \theta_{EB,ij}$ from the encrypted ones.

4.2 Decrypt secret information

For quantum signal:

$$\alpha_{ij} = n \begin{cases} \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\cos(\frac{\theta_{ER,ij}}{m}) - \cos(\frac{\theta_{R,ij}}{m})}{\varepsilon}\right), & |P_{ij1}| \geq |P_{ij2}| \\ \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\sin(\frac{\theta_{ER,ij}}{m}) - \sin(\frac{\theta_{R,ij}}{m})}{\varepsilon}\right), & |P_{ij1}| < |P_{ij2}| \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

For pseudo-quantum signal:

$$\alpha_{ij} = n \begin{cases} \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\cos(\frac{\theta_{ER,ij}}{m}) - \cos(\frac{\theta_{R,ij}}{m})}{\varepsilon}\right), & k_{ij} \geq 0.5 \\ \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\sin(\frac{\theta_{ER,ij}}{m}) - \sin(\frac{\theta_{R,ij}}{m})}{\varepsilon}\right), & k_{ij} < 0.5 \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

Perform the same operation to obtain β and γ .

Remember that α is the secret information embedded into the red channel, β is the secret information for the green channel, and γ is the audio secret information for the blue channel.

However, α , β , and γ are in the angle form due the transformation from step B from part III. Therefore, we need to perform the inverse linear transformation to get back to the original signal.

$$R_{\text{secret}_{ij}} = \frac{6\alpha_{ij}(\mu_2 - \nu_2)}{n\pi} - \mu_2 + 2\nu_2 \quad (15)$$

We perform the same transformation for β and γ to get G_{secret} and B_{secret} . For B_{secret} (audio secret information), we need to reshape back to get the audio form that was performed the method from step C3 of Part III.

4.3 Decryption Results

Original secret information	Decrypted Secret information
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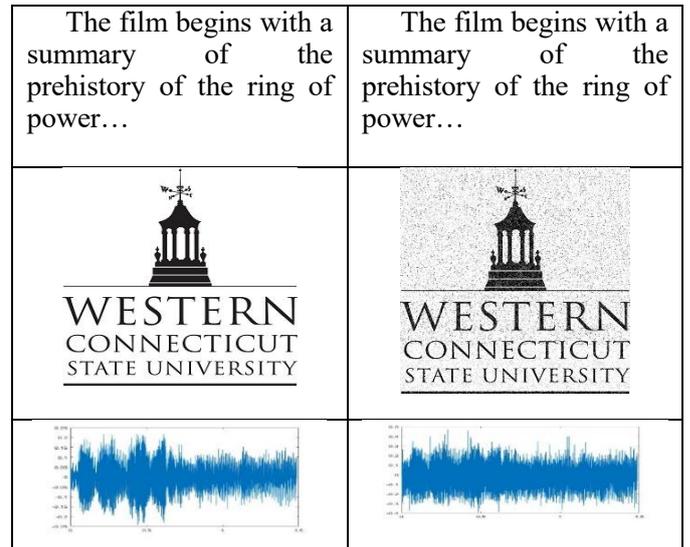


Fig. 7: Comparison of the original secret information and the decrypted secret information.

5 Statistical Results

To measure the quality, security, and robustness of embedded information and to compare the similarity between the host information and the embedded information, we use the following algorithms.

Given a noise-free $m \times n$ image (host barcode) I and its noisy approximation K (Encrypted barcode), MSE (Mean Square Error) is defined as:

$$MSE = \frac{1}{mn} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n (I_{ij} - K_{ij})^2. \quad (16)$$

Then, the Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio is defined and denoted as

$$PSNR = 10 \cdot \log\left(\frac{255^2}{MSE}\right). \quad (17)$$

Normally, the higher PSNR means the better quality of encrypted “color barcodes”.

For images (barcodes) I_1 and I_2 , the relative similarity (RS) of I_2 to I_1 is defined by

$$RS(I_2, I_1) = 1 - \frac{\|I_2 - I_1\|_1}{\|I_1\|_1}, \quad (18)$$

where $\|A\|_1$ is the 1-norm of matrix A .

The following table shows the PSNR and RS for encrypted “color barcodes” with different embedding intensity and parameters m and n .

		n=6, m=6		n=12, m=12	
Channel	ε	PSNR	RS	PSNR	RS
		R			

Red	.003	48.05	.9939	48.04	.9939
	.005	43.85	.9902	43.83	.9901
	.01	37.91	.9805	37.89	.9805
	.02	31.86	.9609	31.85	.9608
Green	.003	47.87	.9932	47.88	.9932
	.005	43.67	.9843	43.68	.9890
	.01	37.78	.9782	37.76	.9782
	.02	31.69	.9561	31.70	.9562
Blue	.003	46.18	.9923	46.17	.9882
	.005	41.88	.9874	41.88	.9874
	.01	35.87	.9749	35.86	.9748
	.02	29.81	.9495	29.81	.9495

		n=6, m=6		n=12, m=12	
Secret	ϵ	PSNR	RS	PSNR	RS
Text	.003	35.01	.6344	34.96	.6326
	.005	36.51	.6924	36.47	.6913
	.01	43.45	.9617	43.56	.8634
	.02	51.99	.9483	51.97	.9482
Image	.003	10.65	.6867	10.69	.6884
	.005	14.25	.7932	14.44	.7977
	.01	21.48	.9096	51.45	.9093
	.02	50.20	.9668	30.19	.9668

To compare the original and the extracted audio secret information, we use a different algorithm called Signal to Noise Ratio:

$$SNR = 10 \log \left\{ \frac{\sum_{a=1}^{M_t} Z^2(a)}{\sum [Z(a) - Z^*(a)]^2} \right\} \quad (19)$$

where Z is the original audio signal, and Z^* is the extracted audio signal. As the difference between the original signal and the extracted signal is small, we are expected to get a bigger ratio since we are dividing by a small denominator.

In our sample, at $\epsilon = .005$, we are getting an extracted audio with noises. However, it is clear enough for the audience to receive the audio message.

		n=6, m=6	n=12, m=12
Secret	ϵ	SNR	SNR
Audio	.005	5.76	5.73
	.01	19.57	19.49
	.02	39.44	39.33
	.1	75.34	75.32

6 Conclusion and future research

In this paper, we present a new pseudo quantum steganography with “Color Barcode” in M-band

Wavelet Domain. We have shown the efficiency and security in applying our method for performing encryption of our hidden information. As a result, the encrypted “color barcodes” with such a well-chosen embedding domain is much safer and more difficult to attack. This algorithm can be carried out on both classical computers and quantum computers, so it can be widely used for audio, video, and still image file’s encryption and security information transmission, etc. Assured by Heisenberg’s uncertainty principle and no-cloning theorem, this algorithm is nearly impossible for any attackers to decode if our algorithm is performed on a quantum computer.

In our future research, we will derive a true color barcode based Pseudo Quantum Steganography algorithm, which will hold more information. Moreover, it will be more convenient for receivers to decode while more difficult for attackers to defeat.

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