



# Article Strong and Efficient Cipher with Dynamic Symbol Substitution and Dynamic Noise Insertion

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Abstract: As our dependency on the digital world increases, our private information becomes widely visible and an easy target. The digital world is never safe and is full of adversaries who are eager to invade our privacy and learn our secrets. Leveraging the great advantages of the digital world must necessarily be accompanied by effective techniques for securing our information. Although many techniques are available, the need for more effective ones is, and will remain, essential. This paper proposes a new, robust and efficient encryption technique. Our technique has an innovative computational model that makes it unique and extremely effective. This computational model offers (1) a fuzzy substitution method augmented with distortion operations that introduce deep changes to their input and (2) a key manipulation method, which produces key echoes whose relationships to the original encryption key are highly broken. These operations work synergistically to provide the highest degree of diffusion and confusion. Experiments on our proof-of-concept prototype showed that the output (cipheredtexts) of our technique passed standard security tests and is therefore highly immune against different attacks.

Keywords: encryption method; mobile-point substitution method; key echo generation; key expansion

# 1. Introduction

Although the digital world opens great opportunities to store and exchange information, it is creating real and dangerously growing challenges. In particular, threats against privacy have become critical issues that undermine our trust in the digital world. These threats stem from two perspectives. First, unless sufficiently protected, our information is highly exposed to an unfriendly environment, where adversaries are ready to exploit every opportunity to learn this valuable information. Second, as our tools for securing information reasonably advance, so do the privacy-violating tools.

Encryption is undoubtedly a key element of comprehensive information-centric security since it maximizes information protection regardless of whether the information is on a device or in a transit and provides an effective way to ward off privacy intruders. Researchers have proposed many encryption techniques. The conventional encryption techniques [1–11] offer the most widely used models whose effectiveness is built on the encryption key and the masking operations. These methods can be classified according to the way they process their input (stream or block ciphers) and according to the number of keys used (symmetric or asymmetric). The DNA techniques [12–20] offer an encryption model that makes use of the genetic properties of the DNA sequences. The general idea behind all these methods is to conceal the plaintext within complex DNA sequences. More specifically, a DNA-encoded message is first camouflaged within the enormous complexity of human genomic DNA and then further concealed by confining this message to a microdot [21]. Honey encryption techniques [22–25] provide an intriguing model for data encryption. This model purports to ensure resilience against a class of attacks called brute-force. The main idea is that for every incorrect key, the decryption process yields a plausible, but fake document. Researchers finally proposed hybrid approaches [26–29]. In hybrid approaches,



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**Copyright:** © 2022 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). two or more encryption algorithms are orchestrated and executed in a certain order. To maximize the strength of the hybrid algorithm, some of the parameters of the involved encryption methods may be tuned.

We do, however, understand that privacy intruders are working diligently to improve their hacking techniques. This incredible enhancement of hacking techniques makes the digital world the most privacy-threatening place on one hand and imposes critical challenges to the encryption techniques on the other hand. Honey encryption techniques have their own weaknesses and attacks against them are reported in [30]. Attacking techniques against the other methods do exist [31–35]. Constantly looking for highly effective techniques seems to be justifiable and supports our efforts to contend advanced threats and beat the ever-advancing cryptanalysis techniques.

This paper proposes a fully-fledged encryption technique. This technique combines a deep masking process with smart/fuzzy key manipulation operations along with a secure random generator to provide the maximum information protection. The deep masking process conceals the plaintext in enormously complex computations resulted from the fuzzy substitution and intelligent noise insertion operations. The output of the technique is further camouflaged within enormously complicated codes generated from the encryption key using a fuzzy operation.

The paper offers the following contributions. First, it proposes a deep masking process whose functionality combines both fuzzy substitutions and intelligent noise insertions. Second, it proposes an effective way to double (expand) the key. Third, it proposes an innovative method for generating key echoes, and finally it utilizes all three techniques above to provide a robust and efficient cipher.

### 2. Chaotic Random Number Generator

The proposed cipher uses three-dimensional Brownian motion [36]. The effectiveness of Brownian motion as a source of confusion is reported in many articles [37,38]. This motion can be simulated by the following equations.

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= x_k + \left( Random(0, 1) - \frac{1}{2} \right) \times dt \\ y_{k+1} &= y_k + \left( Random(0, 1) - \frac{1}{2} \right) \times dt \\ z_{k+1} &= z_k + \left( Random(0, 1) - \frac{1}{2} \right) \times dt \end{aligned}$$
(1)

where *Random* (0, 1) returns a random value within the interval (0, 1) and 0 < dt < 1. It is clear that the principal parameters that influence the computed values of *x*, *y*, and *z* using the equations above are the *seed* of the random generator and *dt*. To effectively link the 3D Brownian motion to our system, it is imperative to base the initialization of both the *seed* and *dt* on the encryption key. Suppose the key has *n* symbols  $c1c2 \dots cn$ . The following Equations (2) and (3) use the key to compute values for these two parameters.

$$dt = Fraction\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} c'_i \times Log_e([2^p]^{n-i})\right]$$
(2)

Seed = Floor 
$$\left(\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} c'_{i} \times Log_{e}([2^{p}]^{n-i})\right] \times 10^{m}\right)$$
 (3)

where  $c'_i$  ( $i = 1 \dots n$ ) are the deeply transformed values that correspond to the original key symbol  $c_i$ ,  $Log_e$  is the logarithm function with base e, p is the maximum number of bits that represent the used symbols (typically, p = 8 because we use the symbols from 0 to 255), and m is the number of decimal digits that constitute the seed. The operator *Fraction* (x) returns the fraction part of the number x and *Floor* (x) returns the largest integer less than x. It is important to mention that we calculated three different pairs for the three dimensions x, y, and z.

The paper proposes the routine Algorithm 1 for computing key-dependent values for the two parameters using the Equations (2) and (3) and *Transform* (.) subroutine (Figure 1).

The subroutine *Transform* (Figure 1) plays a vital role in deeply manipulating the key (n symbols) and producing a new sequence with n symbols but with a higher entropy. It uses a random behavior (subroutine *Randomize* ()) and an XOR operation to produce values pc's that result from XORing the input key symbol c' with p bits extracted from the rightmost of L using the division remainder operator (Mod). Observe, the variable L accumulates the effect of all the previously processed symbols due to the way it is updated. This effectively enables the previous symbols to influence the transformation of the symbol being processed. Additionally, thanks to the randomization of L, the influence of the previously processed symbols induces high confusion, making the transformation produce very different sequences.

Algorithm 1 Computing values for Seed and dt

Key:  $C_1C_2 \dots C_n$  **Key'** =  $(C'_1 C'_2 \dots C'_n)$  = Transform (Key) Compute *dt* using Equation (2)  $C'_1 C'_2 \dots C'_n$  = Transform (**Key'**) Compute Seed using Equation (3)

$Transform(k_1k_n)$ /**original input key symbols*/ $L = k_1k_2k_3k_4$ /** the variable L is the concatenation of the leftmost 4 symbols of the key*/	Randomize(L)
L = Randomize(L)	$L = L \oplus (L << 13)$
For <i>i</i> =1 to <i>n</i> Do	$L = L \oplus (L >> 17)$
$pc = k_i \bigoplus Mod(L, 2^p)$	$L = L \oplus (L \ll 5)$
Res = Res + Char(pc)	Return L
$L = L \bigoplus k_i$	
L = Randomize(L)	
$\operatorname{Res} = k_1' k_2' \dots k_n'$	
For <i>i=n</i> downto 1 Do	
$pc = k'_i \oplus Mod(L, 2^p)$	
Seq = Char(pc) + Seq	
$L = L \oplus k_i$	
$L = Randomize(L)$ $\nearrow$	
Return Seq	

Figure 1. The transformation subroutine (arrows just indicators of call direction).

After initializing the parameters, the chaotic random numbers  $(x_r, y_r, z_r)$  are generated using the following algorithmic steps. As a convention throughout the paper, we call the sequence of random numbers  $x_r$ 's the X-channel. Likewise, we call the sequences of random numbers  $y_r$ 's and  $z_r$ 's the Y-channel and Z-channel, respectively.

Generating chaotic numbers $(x_r, y_r, z_r)$
Repeat
Execute the Equation (1)
$x_r = Mod (floor (x_{k+1} \times 10^{14}), 2^p)$
$y_r = Mod (floor (y_{k+1} \times 10^{14}), 2^p)$
$z_r = Mod (floor (z_{k+1} \times 10^{14}), 2^p)$
End

## 3. The Deep Masking Round

Secure ciphering requires effective transformation of the symbols from their plaintext space to an entirely different space in which the relation between the plaintext symbols and the resulting symbols is untraceable. The deep masking round consists of two effective methods (the substitution method and the distortion method) that deeply mask the blocks of plaintext. Each method uses different techniques to make sharp changes to its input block. Their collective impact on the input results in an output block whose relation to the input block is highly complicated. This section therefore first discusses these two methods (Sections 3.1 and 3.2) and then discusses how these two methods work synergistically to perform deep masking for its input blocks (Section 3.3).

### 3.1. The Substitution Method

The substitution uses a dynamic method to replace the plaintext symbols bi with new ones ci. It adopts a fuzzy and data-dependent computational model whose functional behavior depends not only on the symbols to be substituted, but also on move operations that fuzzify the substitution operation by executing different move patterns within the substitution space. This section explains the main constituents of the substitution method: the substitution space, the move operations, and then concludes the section by offering a specific way for selecting a particular move operation.

### 3.1.1. The Substitution Space

The substitution space (M-TAB) is a  $2^{p/2} \times 2^{p/2}$  array that contains all possible permutations of *p* bits. The entries are initially organized in M-TAB as specified by AES encryption technique. The substitution technique uses M-TAB for mapping symbols to new ones. Specifically, the substitution method maps a symbol bi by splitting its bits into two halves, where the left half indexes a row, and the right half indexes a column. The indexed cell is the mapping outcome. For instance, to map the symbol "i" ("01101001"), the left four bits ("0110") index row 6 and the right four bits ("1001") index column 9. The value at the cell (6, 9) is, therefore, the outcome of mapping the symbol "i".

### 3.1.2. The Move Operations

The move operations add a high degree of fuzziness to the substitution. Table 1 shows the move operations along with descriptions of their functionality. The operations execute either unidirectional or bidirectional moves. Left (*g*) and Right (*g*) are examples of unidirectional move operations. The former moves g steps to the left of a specific cell (*r*, *c*), while the latter moves g steps to the right of the cell (*r*, *c*). For instance, the operation LU (5, 12) performs moves in two different directions: move 5 cells to the left then 12 cells up. LU (*i*, *g*) (*i*, *g* =1 ...  $2^{p/2}$ ) is an example of a bidirectional operation since it executes a move with two different directions: it first moves *i* positions to the left of a cell (*r*, *c*) and then moves *g* positions up. It is worth mentioning that we use (*i* + *r*) mod  $2^{p/2}$  instead of simply adding *i* to *r*, to stay in the grid. Similarly, we use *c* and *g*.

Table 1.	The move	operations.
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Operation	Functionality	Operation	Functionality
Left (g)	Move <i>g</i> positions from the current position tothe left	Right (g)	Move <i>g</i> positions from the current position to the right.
Top (g)	Move <i>g</i> positions from the current position tothe top	Down (g)	Move <i>g</i> positions from the current position to the down
LU (i, g)	Move first left <i>i</i> steps, then move up <i>g</i> steps	LD (i, g)	Move first left <i>i</i> steps, then move down g steps.
RU (i, g)	Move first right $i$ steps, then move up $g$ steps	RD (i, g)	Move right left <i>i</i> steps, then move down <i>g</i> steps

Each move operation has an inverse operation. Table 2 shows the move operations and their respective inverse operations. For instance, if *Left* (*g*) performs a move within M–TAB from the position (*r*, *c*) to (r', c'), *Right* (*g*) performs a move back from (r', c') to the original position (*r*, *c*). In addition, if we move from position (*r*, *c*) to the new position (r', c') using the operation *LU* (*i*, *g*), we can move back from the new position (r', c') to the original position by executing the inverse operation *RD* (*i*, *g*).

Operation	Its Inverse	Operation	Its Inverse
Left (g)	Right (g)	LU (i, g)	<i>RD</i> (i, <i>g</i> )
Up (g)	Down (g)	LD (i, g)	RU (i, g)
Right (g)	Left (g)	RU (i, g)	LD ( <i>i</i> , g)
Down (g)	Up (g)	<i>RD</i> ( <i>i</i> , <i>g</i> )	LU (i, g)

Table 2. The move operations and their inverse.

3.1.3. Move Operation Selection

The way in which the move operations are selected is extremely important. Chaotic but key-based selection enables the substitution method to execute haphazard patterns of moves within the substitution space. These move-patterns, though haphazard, are reproducible due to their dependency on the key. Such a functional behavior induces substantial confusion in the substitution process and yields a large shift from the plaintext space.

The paper proposes a selection method that uses key-driven chaotic numbers (from *X*, *Y* and *Z*-channels) to chaotically choose a move operation. Figure 2 outlines the selection process. The selection method makes use of three lists (*OP*, *i*, *g*), each with  $2^p$  entries. The list *OP* is populated with even replications of the move operations (Table 1). The lists *i* and *g* provide values for the arguments of the move operations and are populated with the integers in the range  $[0 \dots 2^{p/2}]$ . The entries of each list are randomly reordered using a sequence of random numbers obtained from the chaotic system.





The chaotic selection receives the chaotic input value  $c_k$  (obtained from *X*, *Y*, *or Z*-channel in a round robin fashion) and this input  $c_k$  is consumed by two actions that both stimulate the chaotic behavior in the selection method. The first action left shifts the entries of the three lists (*OP*, *i*, *g*) before indexing them. The action maintains for this purpose a

16-bit state variable W, which is initialized with a chaotic value from the chaotic system and is updated using the formula:  $W = W \oplus (c_k << (i \times p))$ , where *i* is the rightmost bit of  $c_k$  and *p* is the maximum number of bits that represent a symbol. The 16 bits  $(b_i's)$  of the state variable W are split to three values  $h_1$ ,  $h_2$ , and  $h_3$  and these values are used to left-shift the three lists as shown in Figure 2. The second action uses the chaotic input symbol  $c_k$ to index the same entry of the three lists (*OP*, *i*, *g*) to retrieve a move operation from *OP* and two values for the arguments of the selected method from the lists *i* and *g*. If the move operation is unidirectional, the extra value from the list *i* is discarded.

### 3.2. Symbol-Distortion Method

This method manipulates the output symbols of the substitution method. The method defines several distortion operations and proposes a specific way of selecting any of them. The distortion method processes its input symbols using either individual operations or composite operations, where each composite operation consists of two or three all-different operations that execute sequentially left to right.

### 3.2.1. Distortion Operations

Table 3 presents three operations that manipulate the individual input symbol. All these operations perform bitwise processing on the input symbol *b*. *Mutate* (*b*, *u*) XORes the input symbol *b* with a selected pattern *u*, where *u* is composed of 0's and 1's. Unlike *Mutate* (.), *Swap* (*b*, *u*) operation modifies the internal structure of the input symbol but not its bits. In particular, this operation permutes the bits of *b* according to some pattern *u*, where the symbol *b* consists of *p* bits and the pattern *u* consists of *p* integers  $d_1d_2 \ldots d_p$ , where  $d_i \in [0 \ldots p]$ . The swap operation permutes the bits of *b* by swapping b[i] with  $b[d_i]$  only if  $d_i > 0$ . The value  $d_i = 0$  instructs the swap operation to skip to the next digit in the pattern without permuting. The *L*-*Rotate* (*b*, *n*) operation rotates the bits of the input symbol *n* positions to the left. The number of positions *n* is an integer less than the number of bits representing the symbol *b*. The selection of the patterns and *n* is explained below.

Operation	Functionality
Mutate (b, p)	Flips a number of bits of the input symbol b based on the input <i>p</i> . The pattern <i>p</i> specifies the positions of the bits to be flipped. For instance, the pattern "01001010" flips the 2nd, 5th, and 7th bits. The flipping is performed by XOR operation: $b \oplus p$ . Note if the symbol <i>b</i> is represented by 8 bits, then we have 256 possible mutation operations
Swap (b, p)	Swaps bits from $b$ based on the pattern $p$ . For instance, if the pattern "05020000", repositions the 5th in the second position, the 2nd in the 4th position.
L-Shift (b, n)	Left shifts the bits of <i>b</i> by <i>n</i> bits.

 Table 3. Noise operations.

There is a distortion operation inverse for each distortion operation. When a symbol x is processed using *Mutate* (x, e), it can be restored by executing this function with the same pattern e. When a symbol x is processed using Swap(x, z) to yield the symbol y, the symbol x can be restored using the inverse operation  $Swap^{-1}(y, z)$ . The functionality of  $Swap^{-1}(y, z)$  is slightly different from that of Swap(y, z): it parses the swapping pattern z from right to left and swaps the bits when  $d_i > 0$  by swapping  $b[d_i]$  with b[i]. When a symbol x is processed using *L*-*Rotate* operation, it can be restored using the *R*-*Rotate* (right shift) operation. Finally, when a symbol x is processed using a composite operation, the symbol x can be restored by executing the composite inverse operation in the reverse order. For instance, if x is processed by executing the composite operation  $Swap() \rightarrow Mutate() \rightarrow L$ -*Rotate* ()  $\rightarrow Mutate() \rightarrow Swap^{-1}$  ().

To effectively use the distortion operations, we need to define (1) the flipping and swapping patterns and (2) the way in which the noise operations are selected to process a specific input. The patterns used for flipping bits are the integers from 0 to  $2^p - 1$  and we do not discuss them any further. However, the swapping patterns and the noise operation selection method need further discussion.

# 3.2.2. Swapping Pattern Generation Process

The distortion operation *Swap* requires swapping patterns for manipulating the bits of its input symbols. Effective generation of the swapping patterns must depend on the encryption key so that different keys produce different swapping patterns. Let us suppose that each symbol is represented by p bits. A swapping pattern consists of p integers  $d_i$ , where  $d_i \in [0 \dots p]$ . For instance, if each symbol is represented by eight bits, the swapping pattern consists of eight integers in the range  $[0 \dots 7]$ . Figure 3 outlines the three stages for creating swapping patterns along with their logic. The initialization stage populates the list SWL with  $N = 2^p$  integers, each integer is in  $[0 \dots p]$ . The population stage receives two input values:  $\alpha \in (0, 1]$  is the percentage of the non-zero digits in the list SWL and p is the number of bits that represent a symbol—we call  $\alpha$  the intensity of active swapping. To give each non-zero digit that same chance to be part of a pattern, we set the number of non–zeros digits in the list SWL to  $M = MULT^{p}(\alpha * N)$ , where  $MULT^{p}(x)$  returns the least upper bound of its argument x that is divisible by p. In this case, each non-zero digit is repeated M/p times in the list SWL. The remaining " $2^p - M$ " entries in the list SWL are zeros. After the list SWL is fully populated, its entries are randomly shuffled using a sequence of random numbers  $r_1 r_2 \dots r_N$ . The entries of SWL are randomly shuffled by swapping the entry at index *i* with the entry at index  $r_i$ .



Figure 3. The swapping pattern generation operations.

To illustrate, suppose that p = 8 and  $\alpha = 0.65$ . The total number of non–zero elements in the list *SWL* is 0.65 \* 256 = 166.5. The operation *MULT*<sup>*p*</sup> (166.5) returns the least upper bound divisible by 8, which is 168. Therefore, the list *SWL* is populated with 168 non-zero digits, where each of the digits  $1 \dots 8$  is repeated 168/8= 21 times. The remaining entries (256 – 168 = 88) are populated with zeros.

Once the *SWL* is fully initialized, the pattern generation operation starts. The input to this method is a sequence of p symbols  $b_1b_2 \dots b_p$ . (The sequence of the symbols  $b1b2 \dots$  bp is obtained from the key in a process (key doubling) that is described in later sections.) The output is a swapping pattern with p digits, each of which is an integer in  $[0 \dots p]$ . The output is a swapping pattern with p digits each of which is an integer in  $[0 \dots p]$ . The method uses an effective computational model that uses each symbol  $b_i$  to obtain two integers  $CIndex = b_i/L$  and  $Offset = b_i \mod R$ , where  $L = R = 2^{p/2}$  and p is the number of bits that represent the symbol  $b_k$ . The number CIndex represents how many positions the SWL is left rotated. After the left rotation is performed, the entry at the index Offset is retrieved and appended to the intermediate pattern. The operation "Generate swapping patterns" can repeat with new input until the desired number of patterns is created.

### 3.2.3. Distortion Operation Selection

After discussing the distortion operations, we propose a specific method, called the symbol-sensitive sliding technique, of selecting any of them to manipulate the input symbols. Figure 4 shows the main components of the sliding technique and its logic. It utilizes a  $4 \times 2^p$  array, a ring of  $2^p$  entries, and a state variable  $G^i$  (initialized to 0). Each of the entries of the first row contains either a single distortion operation  $\langle Mutation (M), Swap (S), L-Shift (L) \rangle$  or a composite operation consisting of two or three operations. The composite operations are: *LS*, *SL*, *LM*, *ML*, *SM*, *MS*, *LMS*, *LSM*, *MLS*, *MSL*, *SLM*, and *SML*. These operations (single or composite) are replicated evenly in the array. If there are fewer entries than the number of the distortion operations, these entries are populated with N (NULL operation that does nothing). The second row contains the swapping patterns  $W_i$  ( $i = 1 \dots 2^p$ ). The third row contains the amount of left shifting ( $L_i$ ), which are the integers from 0 to  $\langle 2^p - 1 \rangle$ . The fourth row contains the amount of left shifting ( $L_i$ ), which are the integers  $L_i = i \mod p$  ( $i = 1 \dots 2^p - 1$ ). These four rows are randomly scattered using a sequence of random numbers from X to channel. The  $2^p$  entries of the ring contain random numbers, where each entry contains a number from the range [0, 1].



Figure 4. The noise operation selection method.

The sliding technique takes a symbol  $b_k$  as input. It uses its logic to generate a new value for the state variable  $G^{l}$  and use this variable to access one of the four-row arrays columns. To update  $G^i$ , the sliding technique exploits both the value of the input symbol  $b_k$  $(b_k$  is a key symbol) and its bit structure. First,  $G^i$  is XORed with the current input symbol  $b_k$ . The new value of  $G^i$  is additionally updated using the structure of  $b_k$ 's bits. In particular, the sliding technique parses the bits of the input  $b_k$  one at a time and tunes the value of  $G^i$ as follows. The pointer  $G^{i}$  moves around the ring clockwise or counterclockwise depending on whether the currently parsed bit is respectively "1" or "0". The amount of the move is fully determined by the 1-lookahead bit (the bit immediately after the current bit). If the 1-lookahead bit is different from the current bit, the pointer  $G^{i}$  moves clockwise or counterclockwise by only one. If the 1-lookahead bit is the same as the current bit,  $G^{i}$ moves clockwise or counterclockwise by 1 + e. The value e is called the sliding value and is computed by multiplying the value  $\gamma$  (from the ring) to which G<sup>*i*</sup> currently points and  $2^{p}$  (the total number of the ring's entries). For instance, if  $G^{i}$  currently points to the value 0.0456 and the number of entries in the ring is 256,  $G^i$  is moved from its current position by "1 + 0.0456 \* 256 = 12" steps clockwise/counterclockwise based on whether the current and lookahead bits are 1's or 0's. After processing all the bits of  $b_{k}$ , the pointer  $G^{i}$  indexes one of the columns, where the corresponding distortion operation along with the necessary arguments for this operation are accessed. For instance, if the corresponding operation is S (swapping), only the swapping pattern is accessed.

Prior to processing any new input symbol  $b_{k+1}$ , the array's rows are left shifted using the value to which the pointer  $G^i$  is currently pointing. For instance, if  $G^i$  is currently pointing to value  $\gamma$  ( $0.\lambda_1\lambda_2...\lambda_m$ )  $\in$  (0, 1), the rows 1 through 4 are left shifted by  $\lambda_i$ (i = 1, 2, 3, 4). Note due to the specific way in which  $G^i$  is calculated, changes in any input symbol will affect all the subsequent values of  $G^i$ . Furthermore, due to the left shifting after processing each input symbol, the indexing outcome changes for every subsequent input symbol, making the distortion operation selection highly fuzzy.

# 3.3. The Deep Masking Process

Referring to Figure 5, the deep masking process consists of two operations: the substitution operation  $\langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle$  and the distortion operation  $\langle 4, 5 \rangle$ . (The numbers at the top of the boxes represent the execution order.) The substitution operation replaces the symbols  $b_1b_2 \dots b_n$  of plaintext using the actions (1, 2, and 3). The Move Operation Selection uses the symbol *x* to choose one of the move operations  $M - Op_l$  and its arguments as described in Section 3.1.3. The input plaintext symbol  $b_k$  designates a location (*i*, *j*) within M-TAB, where *i* is the left half bits of  $b_k$  and *j* is its right half bits. The selected move operation  $M - Op_l$  is then executed starting from (*i*, *j*) to yield a new location ( $L_1, L_2$ ) within the substitution space. The symbol *T* is retrieved from the new location ( $L_1, L_2$ ) of the substitution space M-TAB as an intermediate substitute for the input plaintext symbol  $b_k$ . To increase the fuzziness of the masking process, the symbol *x* is also used to obtain a distortion operation D- $Op_z$  along with the required arguments as described in Section 3.2.3. The selected distortion operation is executed on the symbol *T* to yield the new symbol T', which is the deeply masked substitute for the input symbol  $b_k$ .

### 3.4. Deep Masking Inverse Process

The deep masking inverse process reverses the effects of the deep masking process. That is, this inverse process restores the plaintext symbols from the masked symbols. Figure 6 shows the operations of the deep masking inverse. The logic of this process is similar to that of the deep masking process except that the order of the execution is reversed: distortion operation inverse is executed first then the substitution operation inverse. The distortion operation inverse receives the masked symbol T' as an input and removes the masking effect of the distortion operation (used during the masking). It removes the impact of the distortion operation by using the input *x* to retrieve the appropriate distortion operation inverse and executes this operation on the input symbol T'. The output is a new

symbol *T* that is passed to the substitution operation inverse for removing the impact of the substitution operation as follows. The symbol *T* is looked up from the M-TAB and its location within the substitution space  $(L_1, L_2)$  is passed to action 5 for further processing. Next, the deep masking inverse process uses the symbol *x* to select a move operation inverse M-Op<sup>-1</sup>. The selected move inverse operation slides back from the index  $(L_1, L_2)$  to the original index (i, j). Finally, the bits *i* and *j* are concatenated (ij) to yield the original symbol  $b_k$ .



Figure 5. The deep masking process.



Figure 6. Deep masking inverse process.

# 4. Key Doubling Operation

The Key Doubling operation expands its *n*-symbol sequence input to a 2*n*-symbol sequence. It is intended mainly to extend the key. Figure 7 shows the main four actions of this operation.



Figure 7. The Key Doubling operation algorithmic steps.

# 4.1. Diffusion Action (D-Action)

The diffusion action processes its input in two passes: Forward-pass and Backwardpass (See Figure 8). Due to its bidirectional processing model, the diffusion action (1) is highly sensitive to the input changes regardless of their position and magnitude and (2) makes any change that occurs to a symbol in its input affect all the symbols in the input sequence. The forward-pass uses M-TAB to substitute the input symbol  $b_1$  to yield a new symbol  $c_1$ . For the remaining input symbols  $b_i$  (i > 1), the forward-pass first XORes  $b_i$  with the previous output symbol  $c_{i-1}$  and substitutes the outcome of the XOR to produce the symbol  $c_i$ .





Figure 8. The algorithmic steps of the diffusion action.

The backward-pass processes the output of the forward-pass to deepen the mutualimpact between the symbols. It uses similar logic as the forward-pass except that it processes the input backward: from the end of the input block. The backward-pass therefore substitutes  $c_n$  to yield the output symbol  $S_n$ . For the remaining symbols  $c_i$  (i = n-1, n-2, ..., 1), it performs an XOR operation between the current input symbol  $c_i$  and the previous output symbol  $S_{i+1}$  and substitutes the outcome of the XOR to yield the output symbol  $S_i$ .

The forward-pass drives the impact of the symbol  $b_i$  forward to influence the subsequent symbols  $b_j$  (j > i). The backward-pass drives the impact of the symbol  $b_k$  backward to affect the predecessor symbols  $b_i$  (i < k). Thanks to the dual-direction processing, the diffusion action is highly sensitive to symbol-changes and intensifies the mutual-influence between input symbols.

### 4.2. Permutation Action (P–Action)

The permutation action adopts a data-dependent functionality to scramble the order of the symbols of the input sequence. Algorithm 2 delineates the processing steps. In such a data-dependent functionality, the symbol  $x_i$  determines the new position for the immediate successor symbol  $x_{i+1}$  (within the input sequence). As Algorithm 2 shows, the permutation action moves the symbol  $x_2$  to the new position determined by the ascii index of the symbol  $x_1$ . When processing the remaining symbols, the data-dependence is intensified even more by introducing other factors. For i > 1, the new position of the symbol  $x_{i+1}$  depends not only on its immediate predecessor symbol  $x_i$  but also on the last point of insertion *LIP*. When the ascii index of the symbol  $x_i$  is greater than the value *LIP*, the permutation action moves  $x_{i+1}$  to the new position determined by the formula:  $x_i \oplus LIP$ . If otherwise, the permutation action moves  $x_{i+i}$  to the new position determined by the ascii index of  $x^{\sim}$  (complement of  $x_i$ ).

Algorithm 2 The algorithmic steps of the permutation action
PERMUTE $(x_i, x_{i+1})$
If $i = 1$ , the symbol $x_{i+1}$ is moved to the position $k = x_i$
<b>For</b> all <i>i</i> > 1, PERMUTE ( $x_i$ , $x_{i+1}$ ) moves $x_{i+1}$ to a new position as follows
a. Compute the position <i>k</i>
If $LIP > x_i$ move $x_{i+1}$ to the position $k = x_i$ XOR $LIP$
<b>Else</b> move $x_{i+1}$ to the position $k = Complement(x_i)$
b. Update $LIP = k$

### 4.3. Mutation/Augmentation Actions

The mutation action utilizes both the diffusion action and the M-TAB substitution to impose radical changes to the original input sequence  $x_1x_2 \ldots x_n$  and decays the relationship between the input and the output  $y_1y_2 \ldots y_n$ . In particular, the diffusion action makes sharp changes to its input making the output far different from the input. Furthermore, the M-TAB substitution also has the impact of shifting the input sequence to a different space (set of symbols) that dissolves the correlation to the original symbol (As reported in [39], substituting the symbols of an input sequence using the M-TAB deteriorates the relationship between the sequence input and the output of the substitution). Collectively, the final output sequence  $s_1s_2 \ldots s_n$ , which is the outcome of the XOR operation between the original input sequence and the processed sequence, has no correlation to the original input. The augmentation action essentially carries out the same steps, except that the outcome of the substitution  $a_i$  is appended to the end of the input  $s_1s_2 \ldots s_n$ .

Using these four actions, the input doubling operation is executed as follows. The input  $x_1x_2 \ldots x_n$  is deeply manipulated using the mutation action. The augmentation action doubles the input to produce a sequence of 2n symbols. Finally, the permutation action scrambles the block by imposing data-dependent reordering. The right *n* symbols

are passed back to produce more 2n-symbol sequences. The left n symbols are used to support different operations of the encryption/decryption process.

### 5. Key Echo Generation Method

This method is a three-stage process that uses the encryption key to produce a long stream of codes for hiding the ciphertext symbols. The method conservatively passes the key through sophisticated processing operations that dissolve the trace of the key within the enormously complicated generated codes. Figure 9 shows the logic of the processing stages.



Figure 9. The key echo generation operation.

The first processing stage consists of the Diffusion Action and the Re-Directives. The diffusion action uses D-Action (Section 4.1) to maximize the avalanche effect due to the input changes.

The Re-Directives operation is a multi-stage mapping operation that is composed of m layers  $L_i$  ( $i = 1 \dots m$ ). Each layer is populated with integers from 0 to some specific integer ( $2^p - 1$ ), where p is the maximum number of bits that represent a symbol. The integers in each array are independently reordered using a sequence of random numbers  $r_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, 2^p$ ), where the integer at index k is swapped with the integer at the index  $r_k$ . The input to the first layer is a symbol  $s_i$  and the output is a symbol  $x_i$  indexed by the ascii value of  $s_i$ . The output of each layer  $L_{i-1}$  is first processed by diffusion action and is passed as an input to the next layer  $L_i$ .

The second processing stage is the mutation operation. This operation imposes finegrained changes to some symbols by flipping their bits according to a mutation value defined next. The mutation operation adopts a probabilistic model for selecting which of the symbols passing through must be subjected to the mutation. In such a probabilistic model, the mutation operation is activated to handle the symbol with a probability of  $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ . We call  $\gamma$  the intensity of mutation, where  $\gamma = 0$  means no symbol-mutation, while  $\gamma = 1$  means all of the symbols are mutated. To effectively implement this probabilistic model; we define a list with  $2^p$  entries. This list is populated with  $H (\leq 2^p)$  replications of mutation operation, where  $H = Max (2^{p/4}, h)$  and h is a random value. The remaining entries " $2^p - H$ " are populated with the NULL operation (Idempotent operation). The content of this list is randomly scattered using a sequence of  $2^p$  random numbers. Given this list, the intensity of the mutation is defined by  $\gamma = H/2^p$ . Note, due to the random reordering of the elements in the list, the probability of selecting the mutation operation is  $H/2^p$ .

The third processing stage uses the noise operations to change the structure of the output sequence by reordering its symbols. The noise operations make use of two actions: Permute (or P-Action) and left shift (*L-Shift*) action. The Permute action reorders its input as described in Section 4.2. The *L-Shift* action left shifts the input sequence symbols to a number of positions.

The update handler maintains a set of M state variables that are used to perform specific actions on the re-directive lists, mutation operation, and the noise operations. Table 4 lists these state variables, their descriptions, and how they are updated. We associate a state variable  $V_{Li}$  with each layer  $L_i$  of the re-directives. These state variables are used to perform some reordering to the elements of the corresponding layer. We associate two state variables  $V_{M1}$  and  $V_{M2}$  to the mutation operation, where the first variable is used as an activator for the mutation operation and the second is used as a mutation value. We finally associate two state variables VSL and  $V_{Lp}$  to the noise operations to support its functionality.

Table 4. The state variables and their update mechanism.

<b>Processing Stage</b>	State Variables	Description	Update Method
Re-Directives Operation	$V_{L1}, V_{L2}, \ldots, V_{Lm}$	Each state variable $V_{Li}$ is used to update the order of the corresponding layer $L_i$ .	Performing an XOR operation between the state variable $V_{Li}$ and the output of the layer $L_i$ before the diffusion takes place.
Mutation Operation	V <sub>M1</sub> , V <sub>M2</sub>	$V_{M1}$ is used to activate the mutation operation. $V_{M2}$ is used as a mutation value	$V_{M1}$ , $V_{M2}$ are up-dated by XORing them with respectively the content of $L_j[l]$ and $L_{j+1}[l]$ .
Noise Operations	V <sub>SL</sub> , V <sub>LP</sub>	$V_{SL}$ determines the order in which the noise operations are executed. $V_{LP}$ is the shift amount (used by the shift operation).	These two variables are refreshed by XORing their values with two random numbers.

All the state variables are initialized to 0 (zero). The update handler uses the intermediate results of the re-directives operation to continuously tune the values of the state variables (after processing each input symbol) as follows. The update handler refreshes the values of the state variables  $V_L i$  by XORing  $V_L i$  with the output of the layer  $L_i$  before the diffusion has taken place. It refreshes the values of the state variables  $V_{M1}$  and  $V_{M2}$ using the content of the layers  $L_i$ . Namely, the values of  $V_{M1}$  and  $V_{M2}$  are refreshed by XORing  $V_{M1}$  and  $V_{M2}$  with the content of  $L_j[I]$  and  $L_{j+1}[I]$  respectively. The indexes j and l are calculated by  $j = I_k$  MOD m and  $l = I_k/m$ , where m is the number of layers,  $I_k$  is the symbol of the original input corresponding to the symbol that is being processed  $s_k$ , and MOD is the division remainder. The state variables  $V_{SL}$  and  $V_{Lp}$  associated with the noise operations are refreshed by XORing them with two random numbers obtained from the random generator. The rationale behind this update mechanism is to make the first two processing stages highly influenced by the input symbols, while the third processing stage masks the trace of the input symbols but maintains their impact on the output.

After defining the three processing stages of the key echo method, we describe how the key echo generation works. Suppose a key of *n* symbols  $I_1I_2 \ldots I_n$ . The symbols are diffused using the diffusion action, yielding the new sequence  $s_1s_2 \ldots s_n$ . Each symbol  $s_i$ 

is subjected to successive mappings through the re-directive layers. Each layer maps its input to a new output symbol. The output symbol is used to update the corresponding state variable and then is passed to the diffusion action (using D-Action) before mapping it to the next layer. The output of the re-directives may be further manipulated by applying the mutation operation. The state variable  $V_{M1}$  is used to access the list (associated with the mutation operation). If the accessed element is NUL, no mutation is performed on the current symbol. Otherwise, the mutation operation flips bits of the input symbol by XORing this symbol with the state variable  $V_{M2}$ . Regardless of whether the mutation operation is invoked or not, the two state variables ( $V_{M1}$  and  $V_{M2}$ ) must be updated as described above. The sequence of symbols is eventually passed to the noise operations. The noise operations apply the two actions: *Permutate* and *L-Shift*. The state variable  $V_{SL}$ determines the sequence in which the two operations are executed (*Permutate*  $\rightarrow$  *L-Shift*" if  $V_{SL}$ MOD 2 = 0; the order is "*L-Shift*  $\rightarrow$  *Permutate*" otherwise. The state variable  $V_{LP}$  determines the shift amount, namely we take the rightmost three bits as the amount of shift.

Before processing any new input sequences, the entries of the layers of the re-directives must be partially reordered. In particular, the layer  $L_i$  is first left shifted one position and the entry of  $L_i[0]$  is swapped with the entry of  $L_i[V_Li]$ ).

### 6. The Encryption Process

The encryption process uses the operations that we discussed in the previous sections to cipher blocks of plaintext  $a_1a_2 \ldots a_n$ . Figure 10 delineates the encryption process components and the control flow between these components. The encryption process has two fundamental subprocesses: initialization and ciphering (the numbers on the operations represent the order of the execution. Operations with the same numbers can execute in parallel). The initialization stage prepares the different inputs that are required by the ciphering operations. The initialization subprocess feeds the encryption key (*n* symbols) as an input to the input doubling operation, which produces 2*n* symbol sequence (Section 4). The left half of the 2n sequence (n symbols) becomes an input to the random number generator and the right *n* symbols are passed as a new input to the doubling operation to produce more 2*n* symbol sequences. The random number generator uses the seed to generate sequences of random numbers. The random shuffling operation uses these sequences of random numbers to reorder (1) the contents of the lists (*i*, *g*, Op,  $N_{OP}$ , and SWL) that are used to support the functionality of the deep masking method and (2) the contents of the lists ( $MUT_{OP}$ ,  $L_1$ ,  $L_2$ , ...,  $L_n$ ) that support the functionality of the key round. In addition, the Swap Pattern Generation operation uses the input from the input doubling operation to generate the swapping patterns during the initialization stage.

The ciphering subprocess receives plaintext blocks  $a_1a_2 \dots a_n$  as input and outputciphered-blocks  $\delta_1\delta_2 \dots \delta_n$ . The ciphering applies first the deep masking operation to the input block. This operation processes its input by first performing substitution (Section 3.1) followed by block distortion (Section 3.2). The deep masking operation iterates itself one time before it passes the intermediate output to the key round operation. The key round operation receives an input from the input doubling operation and generates the key echo  $\beta_1\beta_2 \dots \beta_n$ . The key echo effect is added to the output of the deep masking operation ( $\alpha_1\alpha_2$  $\dots \alpha_n$ ) by XORing each symbol  $\alpha_i$  with the corresponding key echo symbol  $\beta_i$  to yield the ultimate ciphered-block symbols  $\delta_i$ .





Figure 10. The encryption process.

# 7. The Decryption Process

The decryption process takes a ciphered block as an input and outputs the original plaintext block. Like the encryption process, the decryption process consists of two stages. The initialization stage is identical to that of the encryption process and thus we will not discuss it further. The decryption stage slightly differs in both the order of the operations execution and the operations functionality. Figure 11 shows only the part of the decryption process that needs detailed explanation.



Figure 11. The Decryption process.

The decryption process executes its operations backwards: the key round first followed by the block deep distortion. The key round generates a key echo sequence  $\beta_1\beta_2 \dots \beta_n$ and XORes each  $\beta_i$  with the input ciphered text symbols  $\delta_i$ . The outcome is the sequence  $\alpha_1\alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n$ , which is passed to the inverse deep masking process for further processing. The inverse deep masking applies first the inverse distortion operations to the input and then inverse substitution operations. The outcome is the original plaintext input block  $a_1a_2 \dots a_n$ .

# 8. Performance Analysis

The performance analysis consists of three important tasks. First, we study the security of the proposed technique by applying variety of randomness tests (Section 8.1). Second, we study the time requirement of the proposed technique (Section 8.2). Third, we discuss common cryptanalyses attacks (Section 8.3).

## 8.1. Security Analysis

We analyze the performance of the proposed technique in this section. In our analysis, we follow the guidelines of the NIST testing framework. To effectively test the performance, we created the following test cases as specified by NIST framework.

1. Key test case. The objective of this test is to analyze the reaction of the encryption technique to the key changes. Effective techniques should react to any change in the key by producing different and random ciphertext. To create this test case, we used 1000 different keys that only differ by one bit and one plaintext (fixing the plaintext ensures that the only changing factor is the key). All of the keys were 16 bytes, while the plaintext was 50,000 bytes.

- 2. Plaintext test case. This test case was used to study the reaction of the encryption technique to the plaintext changes. To create this test case, we neutralized the impact of the key by using only one key and used 1000 different plaintext sets. Similar to the key test case, all the plaintexts were 50,000 bytes and the fixed key was 16 bytes.
- 3. Plaintext/ciphertext correlation. The main objective of this test case is to test if there is any correlation between plaintext and its corresponding ciphertext. To create this text case, we performed an XOR operation between each plaintext (in the plaintext test case) and its corresponding ciphertext. The XOR operation was performed at the symbol level: each symbol of the plaintext was XORed with the corresponding symbol of the ciphertext.

We ran the three test cases using the same hardware and software (the encryption technique was implemented in Python 3.11). We then tested the ciphertext resulting from encrypting each test case using NIST standard randomness tests.

Tables 5–7 show the results. The results are presented in terms of the number of passed/failed sequences and the success percentage (Pass percentage).

Randomness Tests	Passed Sequences	Failed	Pass Percentage	Max Fail
Runs test	960	40	96%	105
Monobit test	960	40	96%	105
Spectral test	880	120	88%	105
Serial test	910	90	91%	105
Cumulative sums test	920	80	92%	105
Non-overlapping template matching	940	60	94%	105
Overlapping template matching	940	60	94%	105
Linear Complexity	920	80	92%	105
Approximate entropy	920	80	92%	105

Table 5. Key test case: NIST randomness test results.

Table 6. Plaintext test case: NIST randomness test results.

Randomness Tests	Passed Sequences	Failed	Pass Percentage	Max Fail
Runs test	970	30	97%	105
Monobit test	980	20	98%	105
Spectral test	900	100	90%	105
Serial test	930	70	93%	105
Cumulative sums test	890	110	89%	105
Non-overlapping template matching	960	40	96%	105
Overlapping template matching	950	50	95%	105
Linear Complexity	980	20	98%	105
Approximate entropy	960	40	96%	105

Randomness tests	Passed Sequences	Failed	Pass Percentage	Max Fail
Runs test	980	20	98%	105
Monobit test	990	10	99%	105
Spectral test	880	120	88%	105
Serial test	910	90	91%	105
Cumulative sums test	910	90	91%	105
Non-overlapping template matching	930	70	93%	105
Overlapping template matching	920	80	92%	105
Linear Complexity	970	30	97%	105
Approximate entropy	940	60	94%	105

Table 7. Plaintext/ciphertext test case: NIST randomness test results.

Referring to Tables 5 and 6, one can see that the performance of the technique is stable: the technique reacts to the changes in the plaintexts and the keys by producing random ciphertexts with high percentage. In most of the cases, we have a more than 90% pass rate. Although the spectral test (Table 5) has a pass percentage of 88%, which is lower than other tests, this percentage is still reasonably high. The results in Table 7 show that the sequences that resulted from XORing plaintext with its corresponding ciphertext are random with a high percentage. Note that the pass percentage was higher than 90% (except for Spectral test). The randomness of these XOR-created sequences indicates that the plaintext has no significant correlation with its corresponding ciphertext.

We realize that these performance numbers must be based on standard security measurements for better interpretation. Given that it is impossible to test any encryption technique for all possible inputs, NIST developed a criterion (Equation (4)) that gives assurance (with some confidence level) of whether the encryption technique is secure. The values in equation 8.1 are the number of used sequences (S), and the level of significance used ( $\alpha$ ). According to NIST recommendations, the values of  $\alpha$  should be less than 10%.

$$Max \ Fail = S \times \left( \alpha + 3 \times \sqrt[2]{\frac{\alpha \times (1 - \alpha)}{S}} \right)$$
(4)

Equation (4) computes an upper bound of the number of sequences (ciphertexts) that possibly fail a particular randomness test. If the number of sequences that fail each randomness test exceeds the upper limit (Max Fail), the security of the encryption technique becomes questionable. To abide by the NIST recommendation, we computed the maximum number of sequences that fail a particular test for our data sets (recall that each of our three data sets consists of 1000 sequences). We used a level of significance of 0.05. The rightmost column of each of Tables 5–7 show the results. Observe that the number of sequences that failed a particular randomness test is less than the maximum number of sequences that possibly fail as predicted by Equation (4). However, there are three incidences in Tables 5–7, where the number of failed sequences slightly exceeds the maximum. For instance, in Table 6, the number of sequences that failed the "Cumulative sums test" randomness test is 110, which slightly exceeds the maximum expected number (105).

The performance of the proposed technique is a result of the effectiveness of the constituent operations. First, although the substitution operation uses AES Sbox, the substitution operation is significantly different from the substitution technique used in AES. While the AES substitution operation is static (mapping is fully determined by the symbol itself), the substitution technique of the proposed technique is dynamic. That is, the outcome of substituting a symbol depends on the symbol itself and the state of the

substitution operation, which is controlled by the move operations. Second, the deep distortion operation has a deep modification impact on its input. It utilizes several actions that perform deep bit manipulations and uses a data-dependent mechanism to specify both the applied distortion action and the manipulation pattern. Third, the key echo generation method uses a novel generation technique that produces a highly complicated key stream. This key stream significantly contributes to the security of the proposed technique.

## 8.2. Time Complexity Analysis

In this section, we show the time complexity of the individual operations first and then the overall complexity of the system:

- 1. *Key Transform*: Main steps are
  - A. Forward pass: is a for loop from 1 to n, each operation in the loop is carried out in a constant time and hence the loop is  $O(n \times c)$ , where c is a constant. But n is very small (number of symbols in the key), hence, the loop is executed in a constant time C.
  - B. Backward pass: similar to the forward pass.

Therefore, the key transformation is carried out in a constant time.

2. Move Operations

All the move operation are index manipulation operations and hence are carried out in O(1).

3. Move operation selection

The main operation here is updating the variable W (*Xor*, *Sub*, and *Shift*) then indexing the different lists *Op*, *i* and *g*. All of them are carried out in constant time O(c).

- 4. Symbol distortion methods
  - a. Mutate: is only an Xor carried out in O(1)
  - b. Swap: is a loop from 1 to 8, each iteration is carried out in a constant time and hence the whole loop is carried out in a constant time.
  - c. Shift operation: is a simple shift that is also carried out in a constant time.
- 5. Swap pattern generation

Is a loop from 1 to *n* (*n* usually 8). Each iteration has an *And*, *Mod* and *Shift* operation, all of which are carried out in a constant time, hence, the whole operation is carried out in a constant time.

6. Mutate Patterns

Mutate patters are simple random numbers, hence, they need constant time.

7. Symbol distortion methods selection:

The main operations here are a. updating the  $G^i$  variable *b*. selecting the operation from the specific lists based on Ring[ $G^i$ ] value. To update  $G^i$  we use a loop from 1 to n - 1 (*n* is 8). In the loop, each iteration has an if statement and an addition or subtraction operation; both are carried ou in constant time and, hence, the whole loop is carried out in constant time. Selecting the operation is simply involves indexing the specific list and, hence, is carried out in O(1).

- 8. *Deep masking:* It has the following steps:
  - a. Select Move operation: carried out in constant time from the above.
  - b. Execute Move operation: carried out in constant time from the above.
  - c. Substitute operation: is an array indexing carried out in O(1).
  - d. Distortion operation/s selection: carried out in constant time from the above.
  - e. Execute Distortion operations: carried out in constant time from the above.

All of these operations are carried out in constant time and, hence, the Deep Masking process is also carried out in a constant time.

- 9. *Key doubling operation* This process has the following steps:
  - a. Diffusion Action: Has two loops from 1 to n 1 (n number of symbols in the key). Each iteration has an *Xor* operation and a substitution, both of which require constant time and, hence, the overall operation is carried out in constant time.
  - b. Mutation Action: A loop from 1 to *n*. Each iteration has an *Xor*, hence it requires a constant time.
  - c. Augmentation Action: Similar to the Mutation Action.
  - d. Permutation Action: A loop from 1 to 2*n*, where the symbols are reordered. The process is carried out in constant time since *n* is very small (8, 16, or 32).

### 10. Key echo generation

This operation has a main loop from 1 to n (n number of symbols in key). In each iteration, we update a number of state variables. Updating the variables is carried out through arithmetic operations, Diffusions and Mutation. All the operations require constant time as shown above and, hence, the whole process is carried out in constant time.

### 11. Encryption Process

This process has one main loop from 1 to n (n is the number of bytes in a block of data). In each iteration, a data symbol (character), is deeply masked, a key echo is generated, and the deeply masked output is Xored with the key echo. Deep masking requires constant time as shown above. Key echo also requires a constant time. The Xor operation is also carried out in a constant time. Hence, all three actions in each iteration require a constant time c, then the encryption process is carried out in  $O(c \times n)$  and, hence, in linear time.

### 8.3. Common Cryptanalysis Attacks

Strong ciphers are designed in a way that makes it extremely hard for a cryptanalyst to break them. In this section, we discuss how the proposed design is secure against common cryptanalysis attacks.

### 8.3.1. Known-Plaintext Analysis (KPA)

By knowing parts of the plaintext and their ciphertext and by using reverse engineering, the attacker tries to recover the key and use it to decipher the rest of the ciphertext. This attack may work when one key is used to cipher the whole text. In the proposed cipher, each individual plaintext symbol is encrypted with a separate key (Key Echo) and, hence, it is immune to this attack.

### 8.3.2. Chosen-Plaintext Analysis (CPA)

By choosing random plaintexts and obtaining the corresponding ciphertext, the attacker tries to recover the key. Similar to KPA, knowing one key will not allow the attacker to decrypt the rest of the ciphertext as other key echoes are used in the encryption process.

### 8.3.3. Ciphertext-Only Analysis (COA)

The attacker knows only the ciphertext and needs to recover both the key and the plaintext. This attack is very hard but most probable. Figures 4–6 show that our cipher produces excellent randomness results, which indicates that the relation between plaintext and ciphertext symbols is very random. The results indicate that recovering a plaintext symbol from a ciphertext symbol is extremely hard.

### 8.3.4. Brute-force Attacks

Trying out all possible key values is referred to as brute-force attack. This attack works well on short keys but is unfeasible for longer keys (using current computing infrastructure). In the proposed algorithm, we do not impose a limit on the length of the key. It could be 256, 512 or more bits and hence it is safe here as well.

### 8.3.5. Differential Cryptanalysis

This attack is a type of CPA attack, where the attackers monitor a number of plaintext parts and analyze how they transform into ciphertext, hoping to deduce the key. Since we use multiple key echoes to encrypt, our cipher can effectively withstand these type of attacks.

# 8.3.6. Linear Cryptanalysis

In this attack a number of KPAs is performed on a number of messages that were encrypted using the same key. The more messages the attacker has the higher the probability of finding a key. In our approach, we never use the original key to encrypt with. We use key echoes instead. Knowing a key echo will not reveal the original key due to the fact that we use chaotic random numbers to produce key echoes, and we use the Transform function (Figure 1) to seed the chaotic random number generators. The Transform function produces a random value from the original key. To obtain the original key from a key echo, the attacker needs to know the sequence of random numbers leading back to the seed and then from the seed, the attacker needs the inverse of the Transform function to obtain the original key.

### 8.3.7. Side Channel Attacks

The attackers here monitor power consumption, radiation emission and/or time of data processing. This technique may reveal some information leading to the key if the cipher is not well designed. In the proposed system, although we use plaintext dependent actions, we made sure that processing is unified. That is, regardless of the symbol we are processing, time and power consumption are almost identical. All relevant loops are iterated on all bits of the symbol (8 for example) and all the branches in any loop require a similar amount of time as they are almost identical. In the dynamic substitution processes, deciding the substituent requires the same amount of time and power regardless of the input symbol. In addition to that, accessing the substituent cell is the same regardless of the input symbol. We strongly believe that this type of attack will not reveal any useful information to the attacker. However, what if it did? The attacker may obtain information related to some key echoes only. Recovering the original key is extremely hard, as we have shown above (Section 8.3.6).

### 9. Conclusions

We proposed in this paper an encryption technique. The technique has many powerful processing operations that effectively transform its input (plaintext) to a random uncorrelated ciphertext. In particular, the technique has a substitution technique whose functionality depends not only on the input symbols but also on the set of distortion operations that make the substitution nondeterministic. The technique is provided with masking operations that increase the confusion and the avalanche effect. Importantly, the functionality of the masking operations and their selection is carried out using a data dependent mechanism. This means that any change in the input imposes changes to the resulting ciphertext. The key echo generation process uses effective techniques and an expansion method that produce powerful key codes for further hiding the ciphertext and hiding the key identity. These features make the proposed technique highly dynamic and very sensitive to the changes in the input.

The security tests showed that the technique is powerful and secure. As Tables 5–7 show, the output of the technique is random as a high percentage of the sequences passed the standard NIST randomness tests. The technique is also time efficient. Our complexity analysis indicates that the technique has linear complexity with the size of the input, making it suitable for systems that need high speed.

The proposed algorithm can be utilized in a number of applications. For example, it is very suitable for any application that runs on a smart device such as smartphone or an

IOT device with limited hardware. The current version is implemented in Python, which makes time comparison with other Ciphers unfair.

Due to time constraints, we left a few issues for future work. First, we plan to implement an optimized version of the proposed cipher using an efficient language such as *C* language and compare its performance with state-of-the-art algorithms such as AES. Second, we intend to review all constants and functions to make sure that they use "nothing up my sleeve numbers". Third, we also hope to review the applicability of the impossible differential attack (used against ciphers with multiple rounds; ours use only one round) and the algebraic attack (used mainly against stream ciphers).

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