

Ingemar J. Cox  
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# Digital Watermarking

Third International Workshop, IWDW 2004  
Seoul, South Korea, October/ November 2004  
Revised Selected Papers

 Springer

Ingemar J. Cox Ton Kalker  
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## Preface

We are happy to present to you the proceedings of the 3rd International Workshop on Digital Watermarking, IWDW 2004. Since its modern reappearance in the academic community in the early 1990s, great progress has been made in understanding both the capabilities and the weaknesses of digital watermarking.

On the theoretical side, we all are now well aware of the fact that digital watermarking is best viewed as a form of communication using side information. In the case of digital watermarking the side information in question is the document to be watermarked. This insight has led to a better understanding of the limits of the capacity and robustness of digital watermarking algorithms. It has also led to new and improved watermarking algorithms, both in terms of capacity and imperceptibility. Similarly, the role of human perception, and models thereof, has been greatly enhanced in the study and design of digital watermarking algorithms and systems.

On the practical side, applications of watermarking are not yet abundant. The original euphoria on the role of digital watermarking in copy protection and copyright protection has not resulted in widespread use in practical systems. With hindsight, a number of reasons can be given for this lack of practical applications.

We now know that watermark imperceptibility cannot be equated to watermark security. An information signal that cannot be perceived by the human sensory system is not necessarily undetectable to well-designed software and hardware systems. The existence of watermark readers bears proof of this observation. Designing watermarking methods that are robust to intentional and targeted attacks has turned out to be an extremely difficult task. Improved watermarking methods face more intelligent attacks. More intelligent attacks face improved watermarking methods. This cycle of improved attacks and counterattacks is still ongoing, and we do not foresee it ending soon.

It was the goal of IWDW 2004 to update the scientific and content-owner communities on the state of the art in digital watermarking. To that end, more than 60 submissions to IWDW 2004 were carefully reviewed, with at least three reviewers each. Emphasizing high quality and the state of the art, fewer than 50% of the submitted papers were selected for oral presentation. The topics that were addressed in the accepted papers cover all the relevant aspects of digital watermarking: theoreticals modeling, robustness, capacity, imperceptibility and the human perceptual system, security and attacks, steganography, methods, and watermarking systems. Every effort was made to give the authors the best possible podium to present their findings.

We hope that you enjoy the workshop proceedings and find it an inspiration for your future research.

October 2004

Ingemar J. Cox  
Ton Kalker  
Heung Kyu Lee

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# Reversible Data Hiding

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**Abstract.** Reversible data hiding, in which the stego-media can be reversed to the original cover media exactly, has attracted increasing interests from the data hiding community. In this study, the existing reversible data hiding algorithms, including some newest schemes, have been classified into three categories: 1) Those developed for fragile authentication; 2) Those developed for achieving high data embedding capacity; 3) Those developed for semi-fragile authentication. In each category, some prominent representatives are selected. The principles, merits, drawbacks and applications of these algorithms are analyzed and addressed.

## 1 Introduction

Digital watermarking, often referred to as data hiding, has recently been proposed as a promising technique for information assurance. Owing to data hiding, however, some permanent distortion may occur and hence the original cover medium may not be able to be reversed exactly even after the hidden data have been extracted out. Following the classification of data compression algorithms, this type of data hiding algorithms can be referred to as *lossy* data hiding. It can be shown that most of the data hiding algorithms reported in the literature are lossy. Here, let us examine three major classes of data hiding algorithm. With the most popularly utilized spread-spectrum watermarking techniques, either in DCT domain [1] or block 8x8 DCT domain [2], *round-off* error and/or *truncation* error may take place during data embedding. As a result, there is no way to reverse the stego-media back to the original without distortion. For the least significant bit-plane (LSB) embedding methods, the bits in the LSB are substituted by the data to be embedded and the bit-replacement is *not memorized*. Consequently, the LSB method is not reversible. With the third group of frequently used watermarking techniques, called quantization index modulation (QIM) [3], *quantization* error renders lossy data hiding.

In applications, such as in law enforcement, medical image systems, it is desired to be able to reverse the stego-media back to the original cover media for legal consideration. In remote sensing and military imaging, high accuracy is required. In some scientific research, experimental data are expensive to be achieved. Under these circumstances, the reversibility of the original media is desired. The data hiding schemes satisfying this requirement can be referred to as *lossless*. The terms of *reversible*, or *invertible* also used frequently. We choose to use reversible in this paper.

In Section 2, we classify the reversible data hiding techniques that have appeared in the literature over the past several years into three different categories. In each category, the most prominent representatives are selected and the principles, merits, drawbacks and applications of these algorithms are analyzed in Sections 3, 4, and 5, respectively. Conclusions are drawn in Section 6.

## 2 Classification of Reversible Data Hiding Algorithms

The following list contains, to our knowledge, most of reversible data hiding algorithms published in the literature. The list is not expected to be completed as the research in this area continues to make vigorous progress. These algorithms can be classified into three categories: 1<sup>st</sup>, those for fragile authentication, 2<sup>nd</sup>, those for high embedding capacity, and 3<sup>rd</sup>, those for semi-fragile authentication. Among each category, one or two prominent algorithms are selected as representative. Their fundamental idea and scheme to achieve reversibility, and their performance are discussed in the following sections.

1. Barton's U.S. Patent 5,646,997 (97) (1<sup>st</sup>)
2. Honsinger et al.'s US Patent 6,278,791 B1 (01) (1<sup>st</sup>)
3. Fridrich et al.'s method (SPIE01) (1<sup>st</sup>)
4. de Vleeschouwer et al.'s method (MMSP01) (3<sup>rd</sup>)
5. Goljan et al.'s method (IHW01) (2<sup>nd</sup>)
6. Xuan et al.'s method (MMSP02) (2<sup>nd</sup>)
7. Ni et al.'s method (ISCAS03) (2<sup>nd</sup>)
8. Celik et al.'s method (ICIP02) (2<sup>nd</sup>)
9. Tian's method (CSVT03) (2<sup>nd</sup>)
10. Yang et al.'s method (SPIE04) (2<sup>nd</sup>)
11. Thodi & Rodríguez's method (SWSIAI04) (2<sup>nd</sup>)
12. Ni et al.'s method (ICME04) (3<sup>rd</sup>)
13. Zou et al.'s method (MMSP04) (3<sup>rd</sup>)
14. Xuan et al.'s method (MMSP04) (2<sup>nd</sup>)
15. Xuan et al.'s method (IWDW04) (2<sup>nd</sup>)

## 3 Those for Fragile Authentication

The first several reversible data hiding algorithms developed at the early stage belong to this category. Since fragile authentication does not need much data to be embedded in a cover medium, the embedding capacity in this category is not large, normally between 1k to 2k bits. For a typical 512×512 gray scale image, this capacity is equivalent to a data hiding rate from 0.0038 bits per pixel (bpp) to 0.0076 bpp.

In this category, we choose Honsinger et al.'s patent in 2001 [5] as its representative. It describes in detail a reversible data hiding technique used for fragile authentication. Their method is carried out in the image spatial domain by using modulo-256 addition. In the embedding,  $I_w = (I + W) \bmod 256$ , where  $I_w$  denotes the marked image,  $I$  an original image,  $W$  is the payload derived from the hash function of the original image. In the authentication side, the payload  $W$  can be extracted from the marked image by subtracting the payload from the marked image, thus reversibly recovering the original image. By using modulo-256 addition, the issue of over/underflow is avoided. Here, by over/underflow, it is meant that grayscale values either exceeding its upper bound (*overflow*) or its lower bound (*underflow*). For instance, for an 8-bit gray image, its gray scale ranges from 0 to 255. The overflow refers to grayscale exceeds 255, while the underflow refers to below 0. It is clear that either case will destroy reversibility. Therefore this issue is often a critical issue in reversible data hiding. Using modulo-256 addition can avoid over/underflow on the one hand. On the other hand, however, the stego-image may suffer from the salt-and-pepper noise during possible grayscale flipping over between 0 and 255 in either direction due to the operation of modulo-256 addition. The effect caused by salt-and-pepper noise will become clear when we discuss an algorithm also using modulo-256 addition in the third category.

## 4 Those for High Data Embedding Capacity

All the reversible data hiding techniques in the first category aim at fragile authentication, instead of hiding large amount data. As a result, the amount of hidden data is rather limited and may not be suitable for applications such as covert communications and medical data systems. Hence, Goljan et al. [10] presented a first reversible data hiding technique, referred to as R-S scheme, which is suitable for the purpose of having high data embedding capacity. Later, a difference expansion scheme was developed by Tian [15], which has greatly advanced the performance of reversible data hiding in terms of data embedding capacity versus PSNR of marked images with respect to original images. Recently, some integer wavelet transform based reversible data hiding schemes have been developed by Xuan et al. [16,17], which have demonstrated superior performance over that reported in [15]. These representative schemes are presented in this section.

### 4.1 R-S Scheme

The mechanism of this scheme is described as follows. The pixels in an image are grouped into non-overlapped blocks, each consisting of a number of adjacent pixels. For instance, it could be a horizontal block consisting of four consecutive pixels. A discrimination function that can capture the smoothness of the groups is established to classify the blocks into three different categories, Regular, Singular and Unusable. An invertible operation  $F$  can be applied to groups. That is, it can map a block from one category to another as  $F(R)=S$ ,  $F(S)=R$ , and  $F(U)=U$ . It is invertible since applying it to a block twice produces the original block. This invertible operation is hence called

*flipping*  $F$ . An example of the invertible operation  $F$  can be the permutation between 0 and 1, 2 and 3, 3 and 4, and so on. This is equivalent to flipping the least significant bit (LSB). Another example is the permutation between 0 and 2, 1 and 3, 4 and 6, and so on, i.e., flipping the second LSB. Apparently, the *strength* of the latter flipping is stronger than the former. The principle to achieve reversible data embedding lies in that there is a bias between the number of regular blocks and that of singular blocks for most of images. This is equivalent to say that there is a redundancy and some space can be created by lossless compression. Together with some proper bookkeeping scheme, one can achieve reversibility.

The proposed algorithm first scan a cover image block-by-block, resulting in a so-called  $RS$ -vector formed by representing, say, an  $R$ -block by binary 1 and an  $S$ -block by binary 0 with the  $U$  groups simply skipped. Then the algorithm losslessly compresses this  $RS$ -vector – as an overhead for bookkeeping usage in reconstruction of the original image later. By assigning binary 1 and 0 to  $R$  and  $S$  blocks, respectively, one bit can be embedded into each  $R$  or  $S$  block. If the bit to-be-embedded does match the type of a block under consideration, the flipping operation  $F$  is applied to the block to obtain a match. The actual embedded data consist of the overhead and the watermark signal (pure payload). In data extraction, the algorithm scans the marked image in the same manner as in the data embedding. From the resultant  $RS$ -vector, the embedded data can be extracted. The overhead portion will be used to reconstruct the original image, while the remaining portion is the payload.

While it is novel and successful in reversible data hiding with a large embedding capacity, the amount of data that can be hidden by this technique is still not large enough for some applications such as covert communications. From what is reported in [10], the estimated embedding capacity ranges from 0.022 bpp to 0.17 bpp when the embedding strength is six and the PSNR of the marked image versus the original image is about 36.06 dB. Note that the embedding strength six is rather high and there are some block artifacts in the marked image generated with this embedding strength. On the one hand, this embedding capacity is much higher than that in the first category discussed in the previous subsection. On the other hand, however, it may be not high enough for some applications. This limited embedding capacity is expected because each block can at most embed one bit,  $U$  blocks cannot accommodate data, and the overhead is necessary for reconstruction of the original image. Another problem with this method is that when the embedding strength increases, the embedding capacity will increase, at the same time the visual quality will drop. Often, block artifacts will take place at this circumstance, thus causing visual quality of marked image to decrease.

## 4.2 Difference Expansion Scheme

Tian presented a promising high capacity reversible data embedding algorithm in [15]. In the algorithm, two techniques are employed, i.e., difference expansion and generalized least significant bit embedding, to achieve a very high embedding capacity, while keep the distortion low. The main idea of this technique is described below. For a pair of pixel values  $x$  and  $y$ , the algorithm first computes the integer average  $l$

and difference  $h$  of  $x$  and  $y$ , where  $h = x - y$ . Then  $h$  is shifted to the left-hand size by one bit and the to-be-embedded bit  $b$  is appended into the LSB. This is equivalent to  $h' = 2 \times h + b$ , where  $h'$  denotes the expanded difference, which explains the term of Difference Expansion. Finally the new  $x$  and  $y$ , denoted by  $x'$  and  $y'$ , respectively, are calculated based on the new difference values  $h'$  and the original integer average value  $l$ . In this way, the stego-image is obtained. To avoid over/underflow, the algorithm only embeds data into the pixel pairs that shall not lead to over/underflow. Therefore, a two-dimensional binary bookkeeping image is losslessly compressed and embedded as overhead.

Note that the above-mentioned relationship between the pair of integers  $x$  and  $y$  versus the pair of integers  $l$  and  $h$  is implemented in the following manner.

$$\begin{aligned} l &= \lfloor 0.5 \times (x + y) \rfloor & x &= l + \lfloor 0.5 \times (h + 1) \rfloor \\ h &= x - y & y &= l - \lfloor 0.5 \times h \rfloor \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where the floor operation is utilized. According to integer Haar transform, it is reversible between these two integer pairs. Apparently, the reversible transformation between integers avoids round-off error. This together with the bookkeeping data mentioned above guaranteed reversibility.

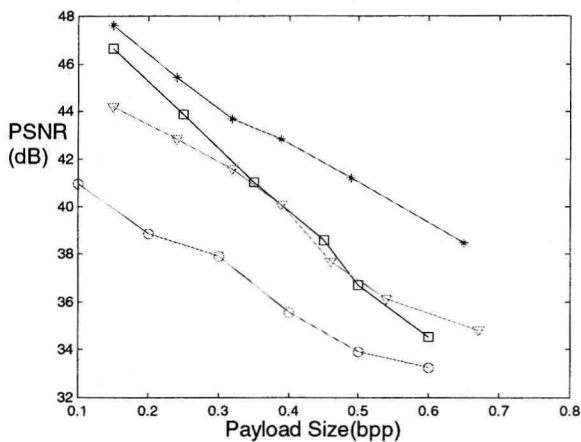
It has been reported in [15] that the embedding capacity achieved by the difference expansion method is much higher than that achieved by [10]. This does not come with surprise since intuitively each pair of pixels can possibly embed one bit, while only each block of pixels can possibly embed one bit.

### 4.3 Integer Wavelet Transform Based Schemes

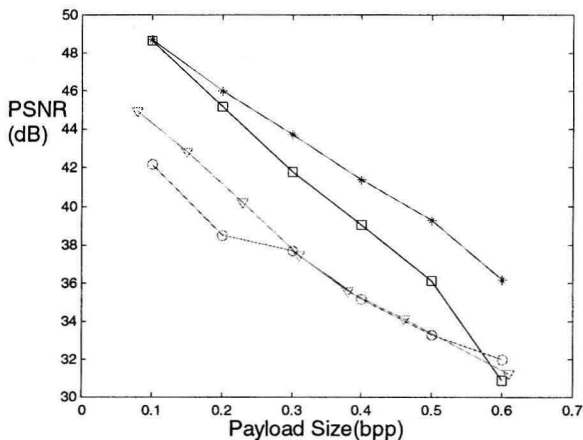
Xuan et al. proposed three high capacity reversible data hiding algorithms based on integer wavelet transform (IWT) [11, 16, 18]. These three algorithms have three features in common. The first is that they are all implemented in the IWT domain. Consideration is as follows. IWT as a WT is known to be able to decorrelate signal well in the transformation domain. Its feature consists with that of our human vision system (HVS). WT can be implemented efficiently by using lifting scheme. IWT can further ensure the reversible forward wavelet transform and inverse wavelet transform. For these reasons, IWT have been used in JPEG2000 for lossless compression. It is shown in Xuan et al.'s algorithms that IWT plays an important role in reversible data hiding. The second feature is that these algorithms all contain a preprocessing stage, histogram modification, in order to prevent overflow and underflow. That is, an efficient scheme has been developed to shrink the histogram towards the center, leaving two ends empty. Consequently, the perturbation caused by modification of selected IWT coefficients will not cause overflow and underflow. For reversibility, the histogram modification parameters need to be embedded as overhead. Because of the efficiency of the modification scheme [12], the overhead is not heavy. The third feature is that all of three algorithms embed data in IWT coefficients of high frequency subbands. This is because the modification of coefficients in these subbands will be imperceptible if the magnitude of the modification is not large.



The first algorithm [11, 12] losslessly compresses some selected middle bit-planes of IWT coefficients in high frequency subbands to create space to hide data. Since the bias between binary 1 and 0 in the bit-planes of IWT high frequency coefficients becomes much larger than that in the spatial domain, this method achieves rather higher embedding capacity than [7], that is the counterpart of this algorithm in spatial domain.



(a)



(b)

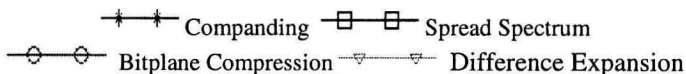


Fig. 1. Comparison results on Lena (left) and Barbara (right) images