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Non-degenerate multi-stable discrete chaotic system for image encryption

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Received: 13 March 2024 / Accepted: 24 July 2024 / Published online: 1 August 2024 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Nature B.V. 2024

Abstract The design of cryptographic algorithms using the chaos theory has become a hotspot in the field of information security. However, existing chaotic systems are prone to chaotic degradation, and generally do not exhibit multi-stability. In view of these issues, we first propose a non-degenerate multi-stable discrete chaotic system (NMDCS). After a rigorous theoretical analysis, it is proved that the NMDCS has an infinite number of unstable fixed points, and the number of positive Lyapunov exponents (LE) is equal to the system dimensions, indicating that the system has an infinite number of coexisting attractors and is not susceptible to chaotic degradation. In addition, Simulation experiments demonstrate that the NMDCS displays significant chaotic behavior and high efficiency. Finally, to satisfy the confidentiality protection demands for sensitive images, an efficient image encryption algorithm is designed by combining the NMDCS with an adaptive zigzag transformation method. Simulation experiments demonstrate that our image encryption algorithm has high efficiency in both encryption and decryption

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Keywords Chaos · Non-degeneracy · Coexisting attractor · Image encryption

1 Introduction

Communication over the globe is becoming a basic need of populaces [\[1](#page-21-0)]. However, the inherent openness, dynamism, and complexity of the Internet frequently result in information leakage incidents, which makes it imperative to enhance the security level of sensitive information. The most direct method for the protection of information confidentiality is encryption, and various classic encryption algorithms, such as data encryption standard (DES) and advanced encryption standard (AES), have been proposed successively. Although these algorithms are easily available, extensively tested, and widely accepted for text data encryption, their application in image encryption is constrained due to the large amount of data, strong correlation between adjacent pixels, and high redundancy of image data.

Chaos is a central research topic of nonlinear theories. It exhibits distinctive properties, including initial state sensitivity, topological transitivity, and periodic orbit density [\[2](#page-21-1)]. These properties establish a natural connection between chaos and traditional cryptography, resulting in wide application in various fields such

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as S-box design $[3,4]$ $[3,4]$ $[3,4]$ and information hiding $[5,6]$ $[5,6]$ $[5,6]$. At present, more than 32% of image encryption algorithms are designed based on chaos theory. Chaotic image encryption algorithms offer confidentiality protection for sensitive images in a variety of fields, such as e-medicine, military reconnaissance, remote sensing mapping, etc., thus avoiding the security risks associated with leaks of private information and misuse of data.

The fundamental prerequisite for the design of chaotic image encryption algorithms is the establishment of chaotic systems with excellent dynamic behavior. Chaotic systems are classified into two types: continuous chaotic systems and discrete chaotic systems. Currently, researchers mainly focus on continuous chaotic systems. For example, Yang et al. [\[7\]](#page-21-6) designed a fractional-order hyperchaotic system based on the Lorenz system and analyzed the dynamical behavior of this system in detail using the Adomian decomposition method. Ma et al. [\[8\]](#page-21-7) presented a multistable chaotic system with coexisting attractors by tuning the offset operation. However, continuous chaotic systems are inefficient due to the necessity of using time-consuming numerical analysis methods, like the Runge–Kutta method or the Adomian decomposition method, to generate chaotic sequences [\[9\]](#page-21-8). Discrete chaotic systems have proven to be more efficient than continuous chaotic systems, and a variety of classical chaotic maps, such as the Logistic map and the Tent map, have been successively introduced. However, Hua et al. [\[10\]](#page-21-9) pointed out that the structure of these chaotic maps is relatively simple. In general, high-dimensional discrete chaotic systems are more likely to produce hyperchaotic attractors, which implies better chaotic properties. Choi et al. [\[11](#page-21-10)] constructed generalized high-dimensional Arnold systems using the Laplace theorem. Hua et al. [\[12](#page-21-11)] constructed high-dimensional discrete chaotic systems by composing classical low-dimensional discrete chaotic systems. Through rigorous theoretical analysis, Liu et al. [\[13\]](#page-21-12) demonstrated that the third-order nonlinear filter can exhibit strong chaotic behavior if its system parameters are chosen appropriately. Unfortunately, the limited number of positive LE in the mentioned discrete chaotic systems is significantly lower than their dimensions, making them susceptible to chaotic degradation during digitization. To tackle this issue, Hua et al. [\[14\]](#page-21-13) first discussed the internal relationship between the number of positive LE and the Arnold parameter matrix. Then, they presented a high-dimensional discrete chaotic system with an arbitrary number of positive LE. Wang et al. [\[15\]](#page-21-14) and Zang et al. [\[16\]](#page-21-15) designed non-degenerate discrete chaotic systems by using the chaotic inverse control method and the strict diagonal occupation matrix respectively. Liu et al. [\[17](#page-21-16)] also proposed a non-degenerate discrete chaotic system with uniform trajectories using nonlinear filters and the feedforward and feed-back structure. Since the above discrete chaotic systems have a much greater number of positive LE compared to general chaotic systems, they are capable of displaying complex chaotic behavior. However, these systems do not exhibit multi-stability, which means that they are unable to switch freely between various steady states to meet diverse demands. Qin [\[18](#page-21-17)] pointed out that chaotic systems with more equilibrium points may contain more attractors, resulting in different coexisting attractors. Due to the inherent nonlinearity and periodicity of trigonometric functions, researchers have recently begun to investigate the design of multi-stable chaotic systems using them [\[19](#page-21-18)]. For example, Ali et al. [\[20\]](#page-21-19) constructed a novel chaotic map using two sine functions with irrational frequency ratios but comparable amplitude and phase, and found coexisting attractors. Huang et al. [\[21](#page-21-20)] proposed a three-dimensional (3D) multi-stable hyperchaotic map with a concise symmetric structure. Furthermore, memristors are employed to enhance the dynamic behavior of multi-stable chaotic systems due to their distinctive nonlinear characteristics [\[22](#page-21-21)]. Ma et al. [\[23](#page-21-22)] designed a memristive chaotic system that has infinite equilibrium points and can exhibit seven different types of attractors. Liu et al. [\[24](#page-21-23)] and Marco et al. [\[25](#page-21-24)] proposed a class of discrete multi-stable chaotic systems using discrete memristors, respectively. However, these chaotic systems do not meet the non-degeneracy requirement and remain susceptible to chaotic degradation.

Chaos theory offers a plethora of beneficial insights for the design of image encryption algorithms. In 1989, Matthews et al. put forward the first chaotic image encryption algorithm using the Logistic map. Subsequently, Li et al. [\[26](#page-21-25)] constructed a key stream generator using the Tent map and applied it to the design of a stream cipher algorithm that is suitable for image confidentiality protection. Sang et al. [\[27\]](#page-21-26) generated cipher images with excellent statistical features by scrambling plain images using the Logistic map and incorporating uniform distribution constraints to the training of deep auto-encoder. However, the above image encryption algorithms suffer from potential security risks due to the simple structure of the chaotic maps they use. In response to the above problem, Lai et al. [\[28](#page-21-27)] designed a novel neuron model with significant chaotic properties and applied it to the design of image encryption algorithms. Wang et al. [\[29](#page-22-0)] first designed a hyperchaotic system with complex chaotic behavior based on the Lorenz system and then proposed a color image encryption algorithm by combining the chaotic system and deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) coding. Hua et al. [\[30\]](#page-22-1) put forward an image encryption algorithm using a novel Logistic-Sine-coupling chaotic system. Javeed et al. [\[31](#page-22-2)] put forward an image encryption algorithm using the Rabinovich-Fabricant chaotic system. The above research has contributed to the research progress in the field of chaotic image encryption. However, none of the above chaotic systems are non-degeneracy, which may lead to security risks in image encryption algorithms due to chaotic degradation. To overcome this drawback, Wen et al. [\[32\]](#page-22-3) and Wang et al. [\[33](#page-22-4)] proposed plaintext-related chaotic image encryption algorithms using non-degenerate discrete chaotic systems and the hash values of plain images, respectively. However, the derived key in the above algorithm is strongly linked to the hash values of plain images, making even a slight alteration in the hash value during transmission could result in decryption failure. Thus, how to securely transmit the hash value of a plain image limits the application of such image encryption algorithms.

Although chaotic cryptography has achieved several important research results after years of development, the existing chaotic systems are susceptible to chaotic degradation and generally do not exhibit multi-stability, and the current chaotic image encryption algorithms suffer from low efficiency in encryption and decryption and inadequate security measures. As such, existing research faces challenges in meeting the criteria for safeguarding the confidentiality of sensitive images In conclusion, there is still considerable research value in investigating non-degenerate multi-stable discrete chaotic systems and applying them to the design of effective image encryption algorithms.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section [2](#page-2-0) presents a non-degenerate multi-stable discrete chaotic system that is analyzed through theoretical analysis and simulation experiments. In Sect. [3,](#page-8-0) we propose an image encryption algorithm based on nondegenerate multi-stable discrete chaos, and its performance is evaluated. Section [4](#page-20-0) concludes this paper.

2 Non-degenerate multi-stable discrete chaotic system

In this section, we design a discrete chaotic system called NMDCS. Rigorous theoretical analyses and simulation experiments demonstrate that the NMDCS exhibits multi-stability and is not prone to chaotic degradation.

2.1 Mathematical expression of our discrete chaotic system

The mathematical model of *N*-dimensional NMDCS is described by Eq. (1) , whose block diagram is shown in Fig. [1.](#page-3-0)

$$
\begin{cases}\nx_{1,t+1} = \sin (\pi \cdot x_{2,t}) \\
\vdots \\
x_{N-1,t+1} = \sin (\pi \cdot x_{N,t}) \\
x_{N,t+1} = x_{N,t} + \sin (\pi \cdot x_{1,t}) - \frac{a}{\pi} \cdot \sin (\frac{\pi \cdot x_{N,t}}{a})\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(1)

where $a = \frac{b}{2c}$ is the system parameter, $b, c \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ are coprime, $|b| > 6 \cdot |c|$, { $x_{1,t}, x_{2,t}, \cdots, x_{N-1,t}$ } ∈ *I* and $x_{N,t} \in I^*$ are the chaotic state variables at moment $t, I = [-1, 1]$ and $I^* = [-1+k \cdot b + \varepsilon_1, 1+k \cdot b + \varepsilon_2]$ are the chaotic intervals, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, and the absolute values of ε_1 and ε_2 are far less than 1.

2.2 Theoretical analysis of our discrete chaotic system

In this section, we prove that the NMDCS system has unstable fixed points, and is not susceptible to chaotic degradation.

2.2.1 Fixed points analysis

According to Eq. [\(1\)](#page-2-1), the fixed point equation of our NMDCS system can be derived as Eq. [\(2\)](#page-2-2).

$$
\begin{cases}\nx_{1,t} = \sin(\pi \cdot x_{2,t}) \\
\vdots \\
x_{N-1,t} = \sin(\pi \cdot x_{N,t}) \\
x_{N,t} = x_{N,t} + \sin(\pi \cdot x_{1,t}) - \frac{a}{\pi} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi \cdot x_{N,t}}{a}\right)\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(2)

Obviously, Eq. [\(2\)](#page-2-2) has an infinite number of solutions. Therefore, the fixed points of the NMDCS system can be expressed as $X = \{0, 0, \dots, 0, k \cdot b\}.$

Fig. 1 Block diagram of **NMDCS**

The Jacobian matrix of Eq. [\(2\)](#page-2-2) at *X* is described by Eq. [\(3\)](#page-3-1).

$$
\mathbf{J}_{t} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \pi & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \pi & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \pi & \cos(\pi \cdot k \cdot b) \\ \pi & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix}
$$
(3)

The characteristic polynomial of Eq. [\(3\)](#page-3-1) is defined by Eq. (4) .

$$
g(\lambda_t) = \lambda_t^N + (-\pi)^N \cdot \cos(\pi \cdot k \cdot b)
$$
 (4)

According to Eq. [\(4\)](#page-3-2), we can derive the eigenvalues as Eq. [\(5\)](#page-3-3).

$$
\lambda_t = -\pi \cdot e^{\frac{i \cdot \pi \cdot (k \cdot b + 1)}{N}}
$$
\nwhere $i^2 = -1$.

\n(5)

It is clear that there must be eigenvalues with zero or positive real parts, which means that the fixed point *X* may be critically stable or unstable.

2.2.2 Non-degenerate analysis

In this section, we analyze the trajectories of our NMDCS system using the following lemmas. Afterwards, we prove that the NMDCS system is a nondegenerate chaotic system using the above lemmas.

Lemma 1 *If xn*,⁰ *follows the uniform distribution in the interval I, the probability density function of* $x_{n,1}$ = $f(x_{n,0}) = \sin(\pi \cdot x_{n,0})$ can be derived as $p(x_{n,1})$ $f(x_{n,0}) = \sin(\pi \cdot x_{n,0})$ can be derived as $p(x_{n,1}) =$
 $\left(\frac{1}{x_{n,1}} \right) = \frac{1}{x_{n,1}}$ ⎨ \mathbf{I} 1 π $\sqrt{2}$ $1 - x_n^2$ $\frac{1}{2^{n}}$, *if* $x_{n,1} \in I$ 0, *other s , where* $n \in \{1, 2, ..., N\}$.

Proof Since $x_{n,0}$ follows the uniform distribution in the interval *I*, its probability density function is $p(x_{n,0}) =$ $\begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}, if x_{n,0} \in I \\ 0, others \end{cases}$. Divide the interval *I* into a series of subintervals $I_l = \left[\frac{l-1}{2}, \frac{l}{2}\right)$, where $l \in \{-1, 0, 1, 2\}$. Let $h(x_{n,1})$ be the inverse function of $f(x_{n,0})$, whose expression is shown in Eq. [\(6\)](#page-3-4).

$$
h(x_{n,1}) = \begin{cases} \frac{\arcsin(x_{n,1})}{\pi}, if x_{n,0} \in I_0 \cup I_1 \\ -\frac{\arcsin(x_{n,1})}{\pi} \mp 1, if x_{n,0} \in I_{-1} \cup I_2 \end{cases}
$$
 (6)

According to Eq. (6) , the probability density function of $x_{n,1} = f(x_{n,0})$ can be derived as Eq. [\(7\)](#page-3-5).

$$
p(x_{n,1}) = \begin{cases} p(h(x_{n,1})) \cdot |h'(x_{n,1})|, if x_{n,1} \in I \\ 0, others \end{cases}
$$

=
$$
\begin{cases} \sum_{l=-1,0} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left| (-1)^l \cdot \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,1}^2}} \right|, if x_{n,1} \in I_{-1} \cup I_0 \\ \sum_{l=1,2} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left| (-1)^{l-1} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,1}^2}} \right|, if x_{n,1} \in I_1 \cup I_2(7) \\ 0, others \end{cases}
$$

=
$$
\begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,1}^2}}, if x_{n,1} \in I \\ 0, others \end{cases}
$$

Lemma [1](#page-3-6) is thus proved. \square

Lemma 2 *If* $x_{n,0}$ *follows the uniform distribution in the interval I, the probability density function of* $x_{n,2}$ = $f(f(x_{n,0})) = \sin(\pi \cdot \sin(\pi \cdot x_{n,0}))$ can be derived

$$
as \; p(x_{n,2}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1 - x_{n,2}^2}} \cdot \sum_{i=0,1} 1\\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi^2 - (\arcsin|x_{n,2}| - i \cdot \pi)^2}}, if x_{n,2} \in I, \\ 0, others \end{cases}
$$

where $n \in \{1, 2, ..., N\}.$

Proof Divide the interval *I* into a series of subintervals $I_l = \left[\frac{l-1}{2}, \frac{l}{2}\right)$, where $l \in \{-1, 0, 1, 2\}$. Let $h(x_{n,2})$ be the inverse function of $f(x_{n,1})$, whose expression is listed in Eq. [\(8\)](#page-4-0).

$$
h(x_{n,2}) = \begin{cases} \frac{\arcsin(x_{n,2})}{\pi}, if x_{n,1} \in I_0 \cup I_1 \\ -\frac{\arcsin(x_{n,2})}{\pi} \mp 1, if x_{n,1} \in I_{-1} \cup I_2 \end{cases}
$$
 (8)

From Eq. [\(8\)](#page-4-0), the probability density function of $x_{n,2} = f(x_{n,1})$ can be derived as Eq. [\(9\)](#page-4-1).

$$
p(x_{n,2}) = \begin{cases} p(h(x_{n,2})) \cdot |h'(x_{n,2})|, if x_{n,2} \in I \\ 0, otherwise \end{cases}
$$

\n
$$
= \begin{cases} \sum_{l=-1,0} \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,1}^2}} \\ \left| (-1)^l \cdot \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,2}^2}} \right|, if x_{n,2} \in I_{-1} \cup I_0 \\ \sum_{l=1,2} \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,2}^2}} \\ \left| (-1)^{l-1} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,2}^2}} \right|, if x_{n,2} \in I_1 \cup I_2 \\ 0, others \\ 0, others \end{cases}
$$

\n
$$
= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,2}^2}} \cdot \sum_{l=-1,0} \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,2}^2}}, if x_{n,2} \in I_{-1} \cup I_0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi^2 - (\arcsin(x_{n,2}) - l \cdot \pi)^2}}, if x_{n,2} \in I_1 \cup I_2 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi^2 - (\arcsin(x_{n,2}) - (l-1) \cdot \pi)^2}}, if x_{n,2} \in I_1 \cup I_2 \\ 0, others \\ 0, others \end{cases}
$$

\n
$$
= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{1-x_{n,2}^2}} \cdot \sum_{i=0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi^2 - (\arcsin|x_{n,2}| - i \cdot \pi)^2}}, if x_{n,2} \in I \\ 0, others \end{cases}
$$

Lemma [2](#page-3-7) is thus proved. \square

Theorem 1 *The NMDCS system is a non-degenerate discrete chaotic system.*

Proof From Eq. [\(1\)](#page-2-1), the Jacobian matrix of the NMDCS system at moment *t* is shown in Eq. [\(10\)](#page-4-2).

$$
\mathbf{J}_{t} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & f'(x_{2,t}) & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & f'(x_{3,t}) & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & f'(x_{N,t}) \\ f'(x_{1,t}) & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 - \cos\left(\frac{\pi \cdot x_{N,t}}{a}\right) \end{pmatrix}
$$
(10)

Where $f'(x_{n,t}) = \pi \cdot \cos(\pi \cdot x_{n,t})$ and $n \in$ $\{1, 2, \ldots, N\}$. The characteristic polynomial of (10) can be derived as [\(11\)](#page-4-3).

$$
g(\lambda_t) = \lambda_t^{N-1} \cdot \left(\lambda_t - 1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi \cdot x_{N,t}}{a}\right)\right)
$$

$$
+ (-\pi)^N \cdot \prod_{n=1}^N \cos\left(\pi \cdot x_{n,t}\right) \tag{11}
$$

As is shown in Sect. [2.1,](#page-2-3) it is clear that $|a| > 3$. Thus, we can derive Eq. (12) from Eq. (11) .

$$
g(\lambda_t) \approx \lambda_t^N + (-\pi)^N \cdot \prod_{n=1}^N \cos(\pi \cdot x_{n,t}) \qquad (12)
$$

According to Eq. [\(12\)](#page-4-4), we can derive the eigenvalues as Eq. [\(13\)](#page-4-5).

$$
\left|\lambda_{n,t}\right| = \left|\pi \cdot \cos\left(\pi \cdot x_{n,t}\right)\right| \tag{13}
$$

From Eq. [\(13\)](#page-4-5) and Lemma [2,](#page-3-7) we can derive the LE of our NMDCS system as $\{LE_1, \cdots, LE_n, \cdots, LE_N\}$, where LE_n is calculated by Eq. [\(14\)](#page-4-6).

$$
LE_n = \int_{-1}^{1} \ln |\lambda_{n,t}| \cdot p(x_{n,t}) dx_{n,t}
$$

\n
$$
\approx \int_{-1}^{1} \ln |\lambda_{n,2}| \cdot p(x_{n,2}) dx_{n,2}
$$

\n= 0.6672 (14)

In conclusion, the LE of the NMDCS system are all 0.6672, indicating that our NMDCS system is a nondegenerate discrete chaotic system.

2.3 Simulation experiments of our discrete chaotic system

This section demonstrates that our NMDCS system shows excellent chaotic behavior from the aspects of LE, coexisting attractors, Poincaré section, sensitive dependence on initial conditions, and iterative efficiency. Our experiments were conducted on a Windows machine running on an Intel Core i5-6300HQ and 12 GB RAM.

2.3.1 Lyapunov exponent spectrum

LE is always used to measure the rate of convergence or divergence of adjacent trajectories of a dynamical system. A positive LE means that the system stays in a chaotic state. If there are more than two positive LEs, the chaotic map becomes hyper-chaos and

Fig. 2 Lyapunov exponent spectrum of our discrete chaotic system

Fig. 3 Coexisting attractors of our discrete chaotic system

exhibits complex chaotic behavior in multiple dimensions. This section conducts simulation experiments to estimate the LE of the NMDCS, and the experimental results are shown in Fig. [2.](#page-5-0)

As is shown in Fig. [2,](#page-5-0) the number of positive LE of our NMDCS system is equal to its dimension, regardless of the selection of the system parameter *a*. Additionally, the LE values are all very close to the theoretical value of 0.6672 derived from Theorem [1.](#page-4-7) Therefore, the NMDCS system is a non-degenerate discrete chaotic system with stronger chaotic behavior than most of the existing chaotic systems, and is not prone to chaotic degradation during digitization.

2.3.2 Coexisting attractor analysis

Due to the periodic properties of trigonometric functions, the position of the attractor of the NMDCS system depends on the initial state $x_{N,0}$, which means

Table 1 Efficiency comparison results

Chaotic system	Efficiency (Mbps)
Ours	53.2595
Zang $[16]$	64.6367
Qin [18]	21.3385
Liu $[24]$	75.6923
Ye $[34]$	18.3195
Yang $\lceil 35 \rceil$	17.2291

Bold value indicates the optimal performance of the corresponding test items

that our NMDCS system has coexisting attractors. This behavior is very interesting, and next we will draw the phase diagrams of the NMDCS system by selecting different $x_{N,0}$ to understand this phenomenon more intuitively. The simulation results are listed in Fig. [3.](#page-5-1)

From Fig. [3,](#page-5-1) it is obvious that the coexisting attractors of the NMDCS system are all square or cube, regardless of the initial state, which means that these coexisting attractors are all homogeneous. This is because although the initial states between different coexisting attractors are completely different, 2*a* and $4a$ are the period of the nonlinear term $\sin\left(\frac{\pi \cdot x_{N,t}}{a}\right)$ in Eq. [\(1\)](#page-2-1) respectively, so there will be no significant difference in the shape of the coexisting attractors.

2.3.3 Efficiency analysis

Efficiency is a crucial factor in assessing the practicality of chaotic systems. This section examines the effectiveness of chaotic systems through the symbol transfer rate. During the analysis, each chaotic system generated 320 Mbit of chaotic sequences. Table [1](#page-5-2) shows the results of the efficiency analysis.

As demonstrated in Table [1,](#page-5-2) the efficiency of our NMDCS exceeds that of the chaotic systems in [\[18,](#page-21-17) [34,](#page-22-5)[35\]](#page-22-6). This is because chaotic systems in [\[18](#page-21-17),[34](#page-22-5),[35\]](#page-22-6) necessitate the utilization of time-consuming numerical analysis techniques, such as the Runge–Kutta

(e) $a = -19/4$, Initial states (0.5,-0.2,0.7) (f) $a = -19/4$, Initial states (0.5,-0.2,0.7)

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Fig. 4 Poincaré sections of our chaotic system

method, throughout the iterative process. Although the efficiency of the NMDCS may not be on par with the chaotic systems described in [\[16](#page-21-15),[24\]](#page-21-23) due to the use of slightly time-consuming trigonometric function operations, it still achieves a symbol transmission rate of 53.2595 Mbps. Therefore, we can conclude that our NMDCS exhibits a commendable level of efficiency.

2.3.4 Poincaré section analysis

The Poincaré section is always used to analyze the dynamical behavior of multivariate autonomous systems. If there are only a few points on the Poincaré section, the motion is periodic. Otherwise, if there is a closed curve on the Poincaré section, the motion is determined to be quasi-periodic. When there are patches of dense points on the Poincaré section, the

Fig. 6 Block diagram of IEA-NMDCS

motion is assumed to be chaotic. This section sets various system parameters, and the Poincare section of our NMDCS system is shown in Fig. [4.](#page-6-0)

As is shown in Fig. [4,](#page-6-0) it can be seen that although the system parameters of the NMDCS are different, there are patches of dense points distributed on each Poincaré section. The above results further indicate that our NMDCS is chaotic.

2.3.5 Sensitivity to initial conditions

Initial condition sensitivity is the most essential property of chaotic systems, reflecting the inherent randomness of chaotic systems. Initial condition sensitivity refers to the fact that tiny differences between the initial states of a chaotic system will result in completely different trajectories, indicating that the long-term motion state of a chaotic system is unpredictable. In this section, different system parameters are selected to test the initial condition sensitivity of our NMDCS system, and the results are shown in Fig. [5.](#page-7-0)

As is shown in Fig. [5,](#page-7-0) it is obvious that slight changes between the initial values will cause our chaotic system to exhibit completely different trajectories. Therefore, our NMDCS system is highly sensitive to initial conditions and is particularly suitable for the design of cryptographic algorithms.

3 Image encryption algorithm based on non-degenerate multi-stable discrete chaos

Since our NMDCS system is not susceptible to chaotic degradation and has an infinite number of coexisting attractors, the chaotic system is used to design an efficient and secure image encryption algorithm.

3.1 Overall flow of the algorithm

Our image encryption algorithm based on non-degenerate multi-stable discrete chaos (IEA-NMDCS) mainly involves four steps of key derivation, pixel confusion, adaptive zigzag transformation, and cross-plane permutation, and its block diagram is shown in Fig. [6.](#page-8-1)

3.1.1 Key derivation

Our key derivation algorithm takes the 144-bit master key $MK = MK_1||MK_2||MK_3$ as input to generate the derived keys SK_1 , SK_2 for subsequent encryption and decryption operations, where the lengths of MK_1 , MK_2 , MK_3 are all 48-bit, and $||$ represents the link symbol. The procedure of the algorithm is shown in Algorithm [1.](#page-9-0)

(1) It calculates the chaotic initial state IV ${I}{V_i}_{i \in \{1,2,3\}}$, where $IV_i = \frac{MK_i}{2^{47}} - 1$.

- (2) It generates a chaotic sequence *Q* of size $R \times C \times 3$ by iterating NMDCS according to *I V*.
- (3) It quantifies the chaotic sequence Q using Eq. [\(15\)](#page-9-1).

$$
DQ = \text{floor}\left(Q \times 10^{15}\right) \tag{15}
$$

(4) It computes the confusion key SK_1 = ${SK_1 (r, c, d)}_{r \in \{1, \cdots, R\}, c \in \{1, \cdots, C\}, d \in \{1, 2, 3\}}$, where $SK_1(r, c, d)$ is computed using Eq. [\(16\)](#page-9-2).

$$
SK_1 (r, c, d) = \text{mod} (DQ(r, c, d), 256) \tag{16}
$$

(5) It computes the cross-plane key $SK_2 = \{SK_2 (r, c, d)\}_{r \in \{1, \ldots, R\}}$ cell ω_1 , where ${SK_2(r, c, d)}_{r∈{1, ···}, R}, c∈{1, ···}, C}, d∈{1, 2},$ $SK_2(r, c, d)$ is computed using Eq. [\(17\)](#page-9-3).

$$
SK_2(r, c, d) = \text{mod}(DQ(r, c, d), D-d+1)+1
$$
\n(17)

3.1.2 Pixel confusion

Confusion is a nonlinear transformation that intricately disrupts the correlation between plain images and cipher images as well as between key and cipher images by changing pixels. In this section, the S-Box in [\[9](#page-21-8)] is used as the nonlinear confusion component

Algorithm 1 Key derivation

Input: *M K* **Output:** *SK*1, *SK*²

- 1: $IV \leftarrow$ Calculate the initial chaotic states using MK
- 2: $Q \leftarrow$ Iterate our NMDCS according to *IV*
- 3: $DQ \leftarrow$ Quantify *Q* using Eq. [\(15\)](#page-9-1)
- 4: $SK_1 \leftarrow$ Calculate the confusion key using DQ and Eq. [\(16\)](#page-9-2)
- 5: $SK_2 \leftarrow$ Calculate the cross-plane key using DQ and Eq. [\(17\)](#page-9-3)
- 6: Return SK_1 , SK_2

to enhance the probabilistic statistical analysis resistance of our IEA-NMDCS algorithm, and the specific process is shown in Algorithm [2.](#page-9-4)

Fig. 7 Schematic diagram of the adaptive zigzag transformation

Fig. 8 Schematic diagram of the cross-plane permutation

3.1.3 Adaptive zigzag transformation

The correlation between neighboring pixels of a plain image can be effectively eliminated using the zigzag transformation. However, the initial position of the traditional zigzag transformation remains unaffected by the plain images, so minor alterations in a plain image will not transmit to the whole cipher image, resulting in its limited diffusion capability. To address the above problem, this section uses the mean value of the pixels and our NMDCS system to design a novel adaptive zigzag transformation that can improve the diffusion capability of our IEA-NMDCS algorithm while eliminating the correlation of neighboring pixels. The details are shown in Fig. [7.](#page-9-5)

(1) It calculates the average value of the pixels in each plane of the cipher image and records them as ${e_d}_{d \in \{1,2,3\}}$.

(2) It calculates the chaotic initial state x^0 = $\left\{ x_d^0 \right\}_{d \in \{1,2,3\}}$ by Eq. [\(18\)](#page-10-0).

$$
x_d^0 = \frac{e_d}{128} - 1\tag{18}
$$

- (3) It generates a chaotic sequence of length $T + 2$ using the NMDCS system, and records the last two chaotic states as $x^{T+1} = \left\{ x_d^{T+1} \right\}$ *d*∈{1,2,3} , and $x^{T+2} = \left\{ x_d^{T+2} \right\}$.
- *d*∈{1,2,3} (4) It calculates the initial coordinates of the rows and columns using Eqs. (19) and (20) , and records them as $\mathbf{r}^0 = \begin{bmatrix} r_d^0 \end{bmatrix}_{d \in \{1,2,3\}}$ and $\mathbf{c}^0 = \begin{bmatrix} c_d^0 \end{bmatrix}_{d \in \{1,2,3\}}$ respectively.

$$
r_d^0 = mod\left(floor\left(\frac{x_d^{T+1}}{d} \times 10^{15}\right), R\right) + 1 \quad (19)
$$

$$
c_d^0 = mod\left(floor\left(\frac{x_d^{T+2}}{d} \times 10^{15}\right), C\right) + 1 \quad (20)
$$

(5) It performs a zigzag transformation on the cipher image starting at $\mathbf{r}^0 = \{r_d^0\}_{d \in \{1,2,3\}}$ and $\mathbf{c}^0 = \{c_d^0\}_{d \in \{1,2,3\}}$ respectively. c_d^0 _d_{$d \in \{1,2,3\}$} respectively.

3.1.4 Cross-plane permutation

Due to color images consisting of three planes of red, green, and blue, the cross-plane permutation algorithm must be developed to remove the correlation of pixels across different planes. Our IEA-NMDCS algorithm uses the cross-plane permutation key and the shuffling algorithm to blur the pixels between different planes of the image. The specific process is shown in Fig. [8](#page-10-3) and Algorithm [3.](#page-11-0)

Table 2 NIST randomness test results

Statistical test	P -value	Proportion	Result
Frequency	0.616305	1	Pass
Block frequency	0.213309	0.98	Pass
Cumulative sums 1	0.514124	1	Pass
Cumulative sums 2	0.181557	1	Pass
Runs	0.366918	0.97	Pass
Longest run	0.867692	0.99	Pass
Rank	0.304126	0.98	Pass
FFT	0.851383	0.99	Pass
Non overlapping template.	0.978072	1	Pass
Overlapping template	0.719747	0.98	Pass
Universal	0.657933	0.98	Pass
Approximate entropy	0.045675	1	Pass
Random excursions	0.585209	1	Pass
Random excursions variant	0.848588	1	Pass
Serial 1	0.437274	0.98	Pass
Serial ₂	0.026948	0.98	Pass
Linear complexity	0.514124	0.99	Pass

3.2 Security and efficiency analysis

This section evaluates the performance of our IEA-NMDCS algorithm from the following aspects. The test images are all taken from the USC-SIPI database and the CVG-UGR database.

3.2.1 Key space analysis

Key space is an important indicator reflecting the resistance of encryption algorithms to brute force attacks. The larger the key space, the more difficult it is to obtain the correct key through brute forces. Typically, a key space of at least 2^{100} possible secret keys is expected [\[36\]](#page-22-7). Since our IEA-NMDCS algorithm uses a 144-bit master key to generate derived subkeys, its key space is much larger than 2^{100} . The above results show that our IEA-NMDCS algorithm is sufficient to withstand brute force attacks.

3.2.2 NIST randomness test

The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) provides a series of guidelines for statistical tests known as the NIST Test Suite 800-22. In this section, the randomness of the cipher images obtained using the IEA-NMDCS algorithm has been evaluated through the application of this test suite. The test results are shown in Table [2.](#page-11-1)

It can be clearly seen from Table [2](#page-11-1) that the Pvalue and proportions are all greater than 0.01 and 0.96 respectively. Therefore, the cipher images obtained using the IEA-NMDCS algorithm exhibit excellent randomness.

3.2.3 Histogram analysis

The histogram of an image can intuitively reflect the distribution of image pixels. In general, the histogram of a plaint image does not follow the uniform distribution, so it is susceptible to probabilistic statistical analysis. For an optimal encryption algorithm, the cipher images encrypted using the algorithm ought to conform to the uniform distribution. Figure [9](#page-12-0) displays the histogram test results for the plain images and their cipher images encrypted with the IEA-NMDCS algorithm.

As can be seen from Fig. [9,](#page-12-0) the histogram of the plaint image exhibits an uneven distribution, whereas the histogram of its cipher image is uniformly dis-

Fig. 9 Histogram test results of the IEA-NMDCS algorithm

tributed, indicating that the cipher image does not leak any statistical information from the plain image.

To further demonstrate that the IEA-NMDCS algorithm can effectively withstand statistical analysis, we employ the chi-square test and the variance analysis to verify the uniformity of the histogram of the cipher images. The calculation methods for the chi-square test and the variance analysis are shown in Eq. (21) and $[37]$ $[37]$, respectively.

$$
\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{256} \frac{(\eta_i - \mu)^2}{\mu} \tag{21}
$$

Size	Name	χ^2 value	Variance
512×512	Butfish1	278.3431	3340
	Butrfly1	250.7715	3009
	Cactusfl	233.6686	2804
	Clinmill	227.7832	2733
	Daisyfle	245.4714	2946
	Elephant	276.9434	3323
	Frog	279.4447	3353
	Goldgate	243.4102	2921
	Ivytree	267.2324	3207
	Malight	253.0684	3037
256×256	4.1.01	251.7344	755
	4.1.02	248.6484	746
	4.1.03	254.3385	763
	4.1.04	281.1536	843
	4.1.05	267.9635	804
	4.1.06	242.5521	728
	4.1.07	290.8464	873
	4.1.08	246.8958	741

Table 3 Histogram analysis results

where η_i and μ represent the number of observations and the expected number of each pixel in the image, respectively. We set a significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, and determine the following hypotheses using the chisquare test and the variance analysis. The analysis results are listed in Table [3.](#page-13-0)

*H*0: The cipher images encrypted using the IEA-NMDCS algorithm are uniformly distributed.

 H_1 : The cipher images encrypted using the IEA-NMDCS algorithm are not uniformly distributed.

From Table [3,](#page-13-0) the Chi-square test values for the cipher images encrypted with the IEA-NMDCS algorithm are all less than $\chi_{0.05}^2$ (255) = 293.2478. In addition, the histogram variance values of the $512 \times 512 \times 3$ and $256 \times 256 \times 3$ cipher images are approximately 3000 and 800, respectively. The above results indicate that the H_0 assumption is correct. In conclusion, the cipher images generated by the IEA-NMDCS algorithm are uniformly distributed, so they can effectively resist statistical analysis.

3.2.4 Key sensitivity analysis

Key sensitivity refers to the fact that even minor alterations in the master key will produce an entirely different encryption or decryption result. A secure encryption algorithm must be sensitive to the master key. To test the key sensitivity of the IEA-NMDCS algorithm, we first randomly chose a master key K_1 = c1e**1**bda054ebc9f6accfd2f7c5ca9783618**2** of size 144 bit, and obtain the keys $K_2 = c1e1bda054ebc9f6a$ ccfd2f7c5ca97836180 and $K_3 = c1e0bda054ebc9f6acc$ fd2f7c5ca97836182 by randomly changing 1-bit of *K*1. Then,we encrypted and decrypted the images using *K*1, K_2 , and K_3 respectively. The specific results are shown in Figs. [10](#page-14-0) and [11.](#page-16-0)

Figure [10](#page-14-0) demonstrates that although the plain images have specific statistical features, the cipher images encrypted with the IEA-NMDCS algorithm are similar to the random noise, and they are completely different when using different keys. Therefore, our IEA-NMDCS algorithm is sensitive to the master key during the encryption process.

Figure [11](#page-16-0) clearly illustrates that only decrypting the cipher image with the correct key will obtain the corresponding plain image, while the images decrypted by incorrect keys are similar to random noises. Furthermore, the images decrypted by different wrong keys are completely different. Therefore, our IEA-NMDCS algorithm is responsive to the master key utilized in the decryption procedure.

3.2.5 Sensitivity analysis for plain images

Plaintext sensitivity refers to the capability of algorithms to withstand chosen plaintext attacks and differential attacks. Researchers commonly use the pixel change rate (NPCR) and normalized average change intensity (UACI) to assess the intensity of plaintext sensitivity. The calculation methods for these assessments are thoroughly described in [\[12\]](#page-21-11). The NPCR and UACI are anticipated to be 99.6094% and 33.4635% respectively. In addition, Wu et al. [\[38](#page-22-9)] have highlighted the necessity for NPCR values to surpass a defined threshold N_{α} and for UACI values to fall within the interval $(U_{\alpha}^-, U_{\alpha}^+)$, where $N_{\alpha} = 99.5693\%$ and $(U_{\alpha}^-, U_{\alpha}^+)$ = (33.2824%, 33.6447%) for an image of size 256 × 256, and $N_{\alpha} = 99.5893\%$ and $(U_{\alpha}^{-}, U_{\alpha}^{+}) =$ $(33.3730\%, 33.5541\%)$ for an image of size 512×512 . The NPCR and UACI scores for the cipher images encrypted using the IEA-NMDCS algorithm are displayed in Tables [4](#page-15-0) and [5](#page-15-1) respectively.

As is evidenced by Tables [4](#page-15-0) and [5,](#page-15-1) the NPCR and UACI scores for the cipher images encrypted using

Fig. 10 Key sensitivity analysis during encryption

the IEA-NMDCS algorithm are all within the acceptable intervals, with values very close to 99.6094% and 33.4636% respectively. To further demonstrate the excellent plaintext sensitivity of our IEA-NMDCS algorithm, we use the 'Lena' as the plain image, and encrypt it using different image encryption algorithms. The NPCR and UACI comparison results can be found in Tables [6](#page-17-0) and [7](#page-17-1) respectively.

From Tables [6](#page-17-0) and [7,](#page-17-1) the NPCR and UACI scores for the cipher images encrypted by different image algorithms are all within acceptable intervals, and the difference between them is very small, so they all

Table 4 NPCR scores of

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Table 4 NPCR scores of	Size	Name	NPCR $(\%)$			Result
cipher images			Red	Green	Blue	
	$512 \times 512 \times 3$	Butfish1	99.6078	99.6151	99.6288	Pass
		Butrfly1	99.6151	99.6124	99.6140	Pass
		Cactusfl	99.6006	99.6033	99.6170	Pass
		Clinmill	99.6136	99.6311	99.6078	Pass
		Daisyfle	99.6098	99.6140	99.6037	Pass
		Elephant	99.6437	99.6204	99.6040	Pass
		Frog	99.5991	99.5991	99.6101	Pass
		Goldgate	99.5983	99.6010	99.6140	Pass
		Ivytree	99.5960	99.6166	99.5930	Pass
		Malight	99.6235	99.6128	99.6170	Pass
	$256 \times 256 \times 3$	4.1.01	99.6048	99.6475	99.6109	Pass
		4.1.02	99.6140	99.6155	99.6307	Pass
		4.1.03	99.6323	99.6262	99.6292	Pass
		4.1.04	99.6109	99.5911	99.5758	Pass
		4.1.05	99.6368	99.5850	99.5819	Pass
		4.1.06	99.6170	99.6124	99.6353	Pass
		4.1.07	99.6033	99.6002	99.6384	Pass
		4.1.08	99.6033	99.6078	99.6216	Pass

Table 5 UACI scores of

Fig. 11 Key sensitivity analysis during decryption

achieve excellent plaintext sensitivity. However, the derived keys of the image encryption algorithms in [\[40](#page-22-10)[,41\]](#page-22-11) associated with plain images, and how to securely transmit the information has become a critical security bottleneck that constrains the application of such image encryption algorithms. Therefore, it can be deduced that our IEA-NMDCS algorithm is capable

of withstanding chosen plaintext attacks and differential attacks.

3.2.6 Relevance analysis

Generally, the adjacent pixels in a plain image are highly correlated with each other. An excellent image

Table 6 Comparison results of NPCR scores

Table 7 Comparison results of UACI scores

encryption algorithm should eliminate the correlation between adjacent pixels through substitution and permutation to enhance the pseudo-randomness of the cipher images. Consequently, the correlation between adjacent pixels becomes an essential indicator in the assessment of an algorithm's security. The correlation coefficient *R* is calculated by Eq. (22) .

$$
\begin{cases}\nE(X) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n} \\
D(X) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - E(X))^2}{n} \\
cov(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - E(X))(Y_i - E(Y))}{n} \\
R(X, Y) = \frac{cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{D(X) \times D(Y)}}\n\end{cases} (22)
$$

where *X* denotes the set consisting of image pixels, *Y* denotes the set consisting of adjacent pixels of pixels in *X*, and *n* is the number of pixels. The lower the correlation coefficient, the lower the correlation between adjacent pixels. In this section, we randomly select 12,000 pairs of adjacent pixels to calculate the correlation coefficients in the horizontal, vertical, and diagonal directions. The details are displayed in Fig. [12](#page-18-0) and Table [8.](#page-18-1)

As can be seen from Fig. [12](#page-18-0) and Table [8,](#page-18-1) it is clear that the adjacent pixels of the plain images exhibit a high level of correlation, whereas the adjacent pixels of their cipher images display very low correlation. In addition, the correlation between the adjacent pixels of the cipher images encrypted using the IEA-NMDCS algorithm is very close to the ideal value of 0. To further prove that our algorithm can withstand statistical attacks, we performed correlation coefficient comparison tests for different image encryption algorithms. The comparison results are shown in Table [9.](#page-19-0)

As illustrated in Table [9,](#page-19-0) the correlation coefficients of the cipher image encrypted with our IEA-NMDCS algorithm are closer to 0 than those of existing image encryption algorithms. The aforementioned results demonstrate that our image encryption algorithm is capable of effectively reducing the correlation among the adjacent pixels of images.

Fig. 12 Diagram of correlation coefficients

Table 8 Correlation coefficients of images

Size	Name	Plain image			Cipher image		
		Horizontal	Vertical	Diagonal	Horizontal	Vertical	Diagonal
512×512	Butfish1	0.9472	0.9451	0.9209	0.0073	0.0075	0.0071
	Butrfly1	0.9462	0.9532	0.9265	0.0076	0.0072	0.0074
	Cactusfl	0.8748	0.8743	0.8604	0.0072	0.0074	0.0075
	Clinmill	0.9382	0.9423	0.9095	0.0077	0.0076	0.0070
	Daisyfle	0.9772	0.9782	0.9621	0.0079	0.0073	0.0075
	Elephant	0.9835	0.9792	0.9706	0.0071	0.0072	0.0080
	Frog	0.9422	0.9537	0.9183	0.0070	0.0071	0.0069
	Goldgate	0.9526	0.9517	0.9290	0.0069	0.0075	0.0073
	Ivytree	0.8861	0.8795	0.8175	0.0069	0.0074	0.0073
	Malight	0.9770	0.9845	0.9675	0.0073	0.0078	0.0077
256×256	4.1.01	0.9564	0.9675	0.9464	0.0076	0.0082	0.0079
	4.1.02	0.9512	0.9328	0.9003	0.0070	0.0087	0.0080
	4.1.03	0.9183	0.9759	0.9015	0.0078	0.0078	0.0069
	4.1.04	0.9796	0.9655	0.9483	0.0082	0.0075	0.0087
	4.1.05	0.9514	0.9761	0.9367	0.0076	0.0080	0.0098
	4.1.06	0.9396	0.9631	0.9265	0.0076	0.0073	0.0078
	4.1.07	0.9824	0.9796	0.9641	0.0071	0.0077	0.0077
	4.1.08	0.9754	0.9732	0.9494	0.0079	0.0081	0.0069

Table 9 Correlation coefficient comparison results	Algorithm	Cipher image			
		Red	Green	Blue	
	Ours	0.0069	0.0073	0.0074	
	Hua $[12]$	0.0075	0.0074	0.0077	
	Wang [39]	0.0073	0.0074	0.0074	
	Gao [40]	0.0079	0.0075	0.0074	
	Hosny $[41]$	0.0078	0.0073	0.0077	
Bold values indicate the optimal performance of the corresponding test items	Alawida [42]	0.0076	0.0073	0.0075	
	Zhou $[43]$	0.0081	0.0078	0.0081	
	Hua [44]	0.0073	0.0074	0.0080	

Table 10 Information entropy values of cipher images

3.2.7 Information entropy

In this section, we evaluate the pseudo-randomness of the cipher images using information entropy. Each pixel of an image contains 8 bits of information, so the theoretical maximum value of its information entropy is 8. Table [10](#page-19-1) displays the information entropy values of the plain images and their cipher images encrypted using the IEA-NMDCS algorithm.

From Table [10,](#page-19-1) it can be seen that although the information entropy of the plain images is far less than the ideal value of 8, the information entropy of the cipher images encrypted with the IEA-NMDCS algorithm is very close to 8, indicating that the cipher images are uniformly distributed and have excellent pseudorandomness. To further evaluate the encryption effect of the IEA-NMDCS algorithm, we encrypted the Lena image using the existing image encryption algorithms

Table 11 Information entropy comparison results

Algorithm	Cipher image			
	Red	Green	Blue	
Ours	7.9993	7.9994	7.9994	
Hua $[12]$	7.9994	7.9993	7.9994	
Wang [39]	7.9993	7.9993	7.9993	
Gao $[40]$	7.9993	7.9993	7.9993	
Hosny $[41]$	7.9993	7.9994	7.9994	
Alawida [42]	7.9992	7.9993	7.9993	
Zhou $[43]$	7.9993	7.9993	7.9994	
Hua [44]	7.9993	7.9993	7.9994	

Bold values indicate the optimal performance of the corresponding test items

as well as our algorithm, and the information entropy values of the cipher images are listed in Table [11.](#page-20-1)

From Table [11,](#page-20-1) the information entropy values of the cipher image encrypted with our IEA-NMDCS algorithm are 7.9993, 7.9994, and 7.9994 respectively, which are better than those of existing image encryption algorithms except $[12,41]$ $[12,41]$ $[12,41]$. Thus, it can be concluded that our IEA-NMDCS algorithm can generate the cipher images with a uniform distribution that is highly resistant to probabilistic statistical analysis.

3.2.8 Efficiency analysis

Efficiency is a crucial factor in evaluating the practicality of image encryption algorithms. Because decryption is the reverse process of encryption, it has the same algorithmic efficiency as encryption, this section only lists the comparison results of the encryption efficiency between the IEA-NMDCS algorithm and existing image encryption algorithms in Table [12.](#page-20-2)

From Table [12,](#page-20-2) it can be seen that the IEA-NMDCS algorithm is more efficient in encryption than the existing image encryption algorithms. This is mainly because our IEA-NMDCS algorithm does not require time-consuming numerical analysis methods to generate pseudo-chaotic sequences. Furthermore, it possesses efficient substitution and permutation operations.

Table 12 Efficiency comparison results of image encryption algorithms

Time-consuming (s)	
$256 \times 256 \times 3$	$512 \times 512 \times 3$
0.36	1.33
1.72	6.52
0.48	1.86
1.29	4.92
2.67	9.12
1.86	7.45
1.70	18.98
2.87	10.71

Bold values indicate the optimal performance of the corresponding test items

4 Conclusion

This paper first designs a non-degenerate multi-stable discrete chaotic system that can be demonstrated to exhibit the properties of multi-stability and nondegeneracy through rigorous theoretical analysis. Simulation experiments demonstrate that our discrete chaotic system exhibits strong chaotic behavior and high efficiency in terms of Lyapunov exponents, coexisting attractors, Poincaré sections, sensitivity to initial conditions, and iterative efficiency. Then, an efficient image encryption algorithm is proposed by combining the aforementioned discrete chaotic system and an adaptive zigzag transformation method. Simulation experiments show that our image encryption algorithm offers superior performance in terms of encryption and decryption efficiency, as well as impressive security properties, including histogram, key sensitivity, plaintext sensitivity, correlation between adjacent pixels, and information entropy. The proposed image encryption algorithm provides a robust foundation for the confidentiality protection of sensitive images in key industries, including government agencies, healthcare systems and financial institutions. In the future, we will design chaotic image compression and encryption algorithms based on the compressed perception theory, which can reduce the storage and transmission costs of sensitive images as well as ensure their confidentiality.

Author contributions Xiaojun Tong: Supervision, Writing review & editing, Funding Acquisition. Xudong Liu: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Writing original draft. Miao Zhang: Investigation. Zhu Wang: Validation. Yunhua Fan: Data curation.

Funding This work was supported by the following projects and foundations: Project ZR2019MF054 supported by Shandong Provincial Natural Science Foundation, National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No.61902091).

Data availibility The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no Conflict of interest.

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