

1 Systematic errors of an optical encryption 2 system due to the discrete values of a spatial light 3 modulator

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60 1 Introduction

61 Recent technological advances, such as the availability of
62 high-quality spatial light modulators (SLMs), high-

Abstract. An optical implementation of the amplitude encoded double random phase encryption/decryption technique is implemented, and both numerical and experimental results are presented. In particular, we examine the effect of quantization in the decryption process due to the discrete values and quantized levels, which a spatial light modulator (SLM) can physically display. To do this, we characterize a transmissive SLM using Jones matrices and then map a complex image to the physically achievable levels of the SLM using the pseudorandom encoding technique. We present both numerical and experimental results that quantify the performance of the system. © 2009 Society of Photo-Optical Instrumentation Engineers. [DOI: 10.1117/1.3076208]

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resolution digital cameras (CCDs) and powerful desktop
computers, coupled with the advantages of high throughput
and computational speed of optical processing systems
(arising due to their inherent parallel nature and speed of
light operation), continue to stimulate interest, most re-
cently, in the field of information security by means of

69 optical encryption.¹⁻³ Optical encryption offers the possibil-
 70 ity of high-speed parallel encryption of two-dimensional
 71 complex data. Such encryption techniques often involve the
 72 capture of the full field information (i.e., both the field am-
 73 plitude and the phase).

74 Digital holographic (DH) techniques⁴⁻⁷ are employed to
 75 allow pre- and postcapture digital signal processing of the
 76 wavefront. When in digital form, these holograms can be
 77 easily stored, transmitted, processed, and analyzed.^{8,9} Digi-
 78 tal compression techniques can be used to enable efficient
 79 storage and transmission of holographic data.^{8,10}

80 In order to decrypt the data optically, the complex-
 81 valued, encrypted image must be physically displayed us-
 82 ing an SLM and then propagated through the decryption
 83 system. To date, there have been numerous optical encryp-
 84 tion systems of this type proposed in the literature;^{2,11-17}
 85 however, there have been relatively few experimental
 86 evaluations of the practical performance of SLMs in optical
 87 encryption/decryption systems.

88 Lohmann et al.¹⁸ have shown that the evolving space-
 89 bandwidth product (SBP) of a signal as it propagates
 90 through an optical system cannot exceed the SBP of the
 91 optical system without loss of information. The signals'
 92 Wigner distribution Function has been used to track the
 93 SBP of an optical signal propagating through an optical
 94 system.¹⁹ By successfully tracking the SBP of a signal in
 95 this way, one can identify the sampling rate necessary in
 96 order to adhere to the Nyquist sampling criteria.²⁰ There are
 97 many factors that affect the SBP of a signal as it propagates
 98 through an optical system. These include the following:

- 99 1. the finite aperture of the elements such as lenses,
 100 SLMs, and CCD cameras
- 101 2. the effective pixel size and fill factor of discrete op-
 102 toelectronic input and output devices, such as SLMs
 103 and CCD cameras,
- 104 3. the quantization effects introduced by these same op-
 105 toelectronic devices.

106 These operations may also introduce systematic noise in
 107 the signal, as opposed to random noise introduced due to
 108 optical scatter (speckle) and electronic noise introduced by
 109 the SLMs, CCD, or lasers.

110 Typically, optical encryption techniques proposed in the
 111 literature involve a coherent field propagated through some
 112 bulk optical system that consists of thin lenses and sections
 113 of free space. Such lossless paraxial quadratic phase sys-
 114 tems can be conveniently described mathematically using
 115 the linear canonical transformation (LCT).¹⁹ The optical
 116 Fourier, fractional Fourier, and Fresnel transforms are sim-
 117 plified forms of the LCT.

118 Implementation of these systems often requires the use
 119 of several SLMs. Voltages applied to individual SLM pixels
 120 are used to discretely modulate the amplitude and/or phase
 121 of the complex wave field at the input plane. The behavior
 122 of SLMs are thus of considerable practical importance be-
 123 cause they are used to present the input fields to the optical
 124 encryption systems or to provide the encryption/decryption
 125 phase keys within the system.

126 The double random phase encoding (DRPE) technique,
 127 as proposed by Refregier and Javidi¹ in 1995, is a method
 128 of optically encoding a primary image to stationary white

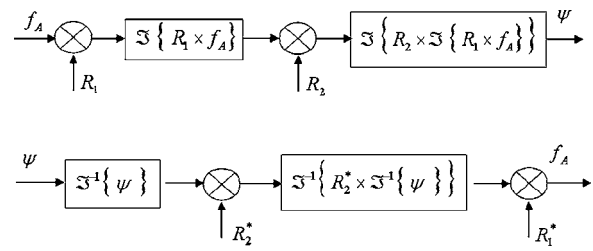


Fig. 1 Let f_A represent the input data to be encrypted. Let $\mathcal{F}\{\bullet\}$ and $\mathcal{F}^{-1}\{\bullet\}$ represent a Fourier and an inverse Fourier transform, respectively. In (a), the input signal f_A is multiplied by a random phase key R_1 , a Fourier transform is performed, it is multiplied by a second random phase key R_2 and subsequently transformed by a second Fourier transform to provide the encrypted image $\psi(x)$. The decryption process in (b) is equivalent to the encryption process inverted.

noise by the use of two statistically independent random
 phase keys. One of these keys, R_1 , is placed in the input
 plane and the other, R_2 , in the Fourier plane of a $2f$ system.
 In this paper, we discuss the operation of the encryption
 system in an amplitude encoding (AE) mode, in this case
 the input image is grey scale and real, and the phase key R_2
 located in the Fourier plane provides the only relevant en-
 crypton key.²¹ The AE DRPE technique can be numeri-
 cally simulated using finite matrices containing discrete
 complex values and the fast Fourier transform.

Figure 1 illustrates encryption/decryption using the
 DRPE technique. It can be seen that the amplitude encoded
 input image, f_A , is multiplied by the input-plane encryption
 phase key, R_1 . A Fourier transform is subsequently pre-
 formed with the resultant complex-valued image multiplied
 by the Fourier-plane encryption phase key, R_2 . An addi-
 tional Fourier transform is then performed to produce the
 encrypted image, ψ . This encrypted image can be math-
 ematically described as

$$\psi = \mathcal{F}[R_2 \times \mathcal{F}(R_1 \times f_A)], \tag{1}$$

and the recovered decrypted image can be described as

$$f_A = \mathcal{F}^{-1}[R_2^* \times \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\psi)] \times R_1^*, \tag{2}$$

where the asterisk denotes the complex conjugate. It should
 be noted that when using the DRPE technique with an
 amplitude-encoded input image, the removable or multipli-
 cation of the conjugate input-plane phase key (R_1^*) is not
 required because the intensity can be obtained as follows:

$$I_{f_A} = |f_A|^2 = |\mathcal{F}^{-1}[R_2^* \times \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\psi)]|^2. \tag{3}$$

This is the case because the encryption/decryption phase
 keys have unit amplitude.

We perform our analysis by first numerically simulating
 the optical setup, and then we physically build and test our
 setup in the lab. It should be noted that in our simulations
 we do not model any of the physical limitations present in
 a real system other than that of quantization, which is our
 primary concern in this paper. Results measured in a physi-
 cal system are compared to numerical simulations in Sec-
 tion 5.

When numerically implementing the DRPE technique,
 complex values can easily be simulated and stored. The

169 experimental display or representation of complex values,
 170 using SLMs, in an optical implementation is significantly
 171 more complicated. SLMs can operate in an amplitude or in
 172 a phase mode; however, for most commercial SLMs there
 173 is no independent control of the amplitude and phase (i.e.,
 174 they operate in a coupled mode), and this increases the
 175 difficulty when trying to display complex values. Cohn²²
 176 and Duelli et al.²³ have devised a method using a pseudo-
 177 random encoding technique (PET) as a method of statisti-
 178 cally approximating desired complex values with those val-
 179 ues that are achievable with a given SLM.

180 This paper is organized as follows: In Section 2 we dis-
 181 cuss a method using Jones algebra, of characterizing our
 182 SLM, which is a Holoeye LC2002.^{8,15} In Section 3, we use
 183 the PET and apply it to our SLM using the parameters
 184 obtained from the characterization carried out in Section 2.
 185 In Section 4, we describe our experimental decryption
 186 setup. In Section 5, we present and compare numerical
 187 simulations and experimental results. Finally, in Section 6,
 188 we present a brief conclusion.

189 2 SLM Characterization

190 In all physical optical systems, the polarization of a light
 191 beam can be described using a Jones vector. Similarly, the
 192 effect of any linear optical element on the polarization state
 193 of a field can be described by a Jones matrix.²⁴ Jones cal-
 194 culus is an extremely useful tool for describing the effect
 195 that linear optical elements have on the polarization state of
 196 an incident field. The beam is described in terms of an
 197 electric vector²⁴

$$198 \vec{E} = \begin{bmatrix} E_x(t) \\ E_y(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (4)$$

199 where $E_x(t)$ and $E_y(t)$ are the horizontal and vertical scalar
 200 components of \vec{E} , respectively. This instantaneous polariza-
 201 tion state of \vec{E} can also be written in complex form as

$$202 \vec{E} = \begin{bmatrix} E_{0x}e^{i\varphi_x} \\ E_{0y}e^{i\varphi_y} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (5)$$

203 where φ_x and φ_y represent the horizontal and vertical
 204 phase components, respectively. Because the Jones vector
 205 of a beam is made up of orthogonal horizontal and vertical
 206 polarization states, each state can be separately written as

$$207 \vec{E}_h = \begin{bmatrix} E_{0x}e^{i\varphi_x} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{E}_v = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ E_{0y}e^{i\varphi_y} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (6)$$

208 If a beam of light, which has linear polarization, is incident
 209 on a linear optical element, it emerges with a new polariza-
 210 tion vector. The linear optical element has transformed the
 211 original vector into a new vector by a process that can be
 212 described mathematically using a 2×2 Jones matrix²⁴ Each
 213 pixel in a transmissive SLM acts as a linear optical element
 214 if a constant gray-scale level is displayed on it. In most
 215 SLMs, gray-scale values are set by applying a voltage and
 216 associated with each voltage are amounts of both phase and
 217 amplitude. The form of modulation of the incident beam
 218 depends on in which mode the SLM is operating. Typically,
 219 it can be assumed that each SLM pixel acts identically as

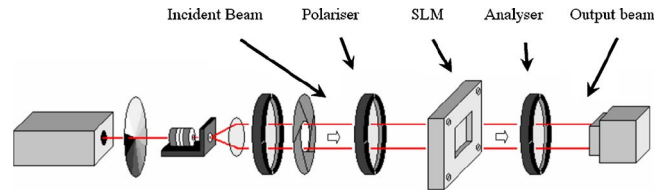


Fig. 2 Experimental setup for determining the amplitude modulation of our SLM for each gray-scale level voltage.

long as all the pixels are set to the same constant gray-scale
 level. By finding the SLM pixel's Jones matrix, for each
 gray-scale level, we can characterize the device. In order to
 characterize the SLM, two experiments were carried out to
 determine (i) the amplitude and (ii) the phase, correspond-
 ing to a particular applied voltage.

The first experiment was to determine the amplitude
 characteristics of the pixels of the SLM (see Fig. 2). The
 Jones vector of the incident beam in Fig. 2 can be written
 as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{I}/\sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{I}/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{I_0} \\ \sqrt{I_0} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (7)$$

where I is the intensity of the beam, and the polarization of
 the light beam has been set, by a linear polarizer, to 45 deg.
 The Jones matrix that corresponds to a polarizer that is set
 at either 0 or 90 deg is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (8)$$

respectively. Therefore, the Jones vector for the output
 beam, when the polarizer and the analyzer have been set to
 an angle of 0 deg, can be calculated as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A\sqrt{I_0} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{I_0} \\ \sqrt{I_0} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (9)$$

By measuring the intensity of the output beam for the four
 possible combinations of the orientation of the polarizer
 and the analyzer (each set at either 0 or 90 deg), we can
 fully determine the 2×2 Jones matrix corresponding to
 that specific grey-scale level displayed on the SLM. Using
 the following formulas provides us with the amplitude
 modulation of the SLM for each grey-scale level:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A\sqrt{I_0} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow |A|^2 I_0 = I_{\text{measured}}, \quad (10)$$

$$|A| = \sqrt{\frac{I_{\text{measured}}}{I_0}}. \quad (11)$$

In order to measure the phase modulation of the SLM, we
 make use of a DH setup¹⁰ in which we capture the output
 interference pattern using a CCD camera (see Fig. 3). We
 split the SLM screen into two areas, displaying a reference
 grey scale on the top half and varying the gray-scale level
 on the bottom half. This allows us to measure the relative
 phase shift of the interference fringes recorded for each of

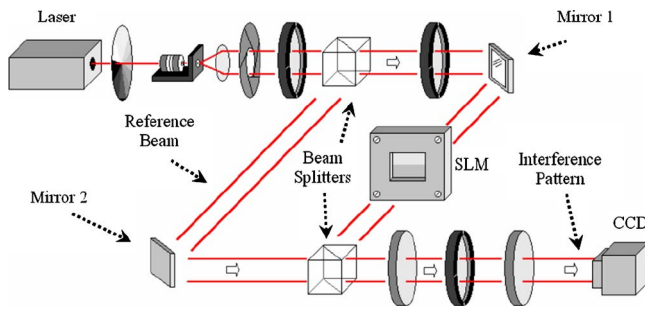


Fig. 3 Experimental setup for determining the phase modulation of our SLM for each gray-scale level voltage.

256 the four different combinations of the polarizer and ana-
 257 lyzer (i.e., each again being set to either 0 or 90 deg). In
 258 this way, we can fully determine the 2×2 Jones matrix
 259 corresponding to the SLM for phase modulation of the pix-
 260 els for each grey-scale level. The polarizer/analyzer combi-
 261 nations of 0/0, 90/0, 0/90, and 90/90 deg correspond to
 262 the individual phase components of ϕ_1 , ϕ_2 , ϕ_3 , and ϕ_4 .
 263 Combining this information with the amplitude modulation
 264 measurements gives us

$$265 \begin{bmatrix} |A| \angle \phi_1 & |B| \angle \phi_2 \\ |C| \angle \phi_3 & |D| \angle \phi_4 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (12)$$

266 Figure 4 shows the resulting polar plot that characterizes
 267 the SLM and clearly demonstrates that the SLM operates in
 268 the coupled mode.

269 Now that the SLM is fully characterized, the next prob-
 270 lem is to map the complex numbers that we wish to display,
 271 to the complex numbers (quantized levels) that our SLM
 272 can physically represent. We do this using the PET.^{22,23,25}

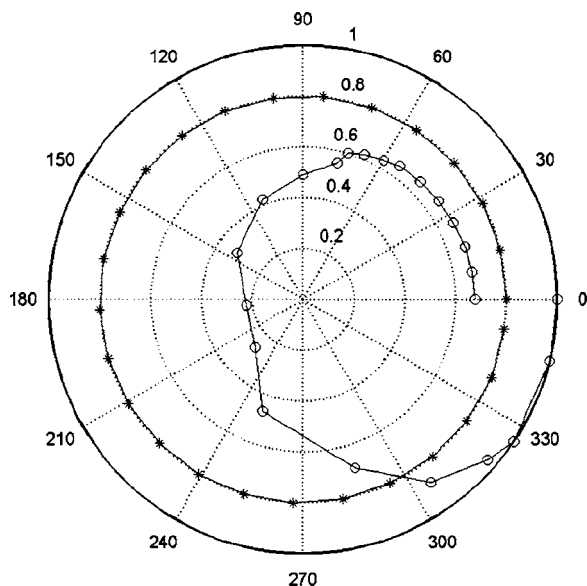


Fig. 4 A polar plot of the states physically achievable on our SLM, which operates in a coupled mode (denoted by circular dots). An ideal SLM operating in an ideal phase mode would have very little or no amplitude modulation (denoted by stars). Note that the circle has a radius of 0.8, only for ease of graphical presentation).

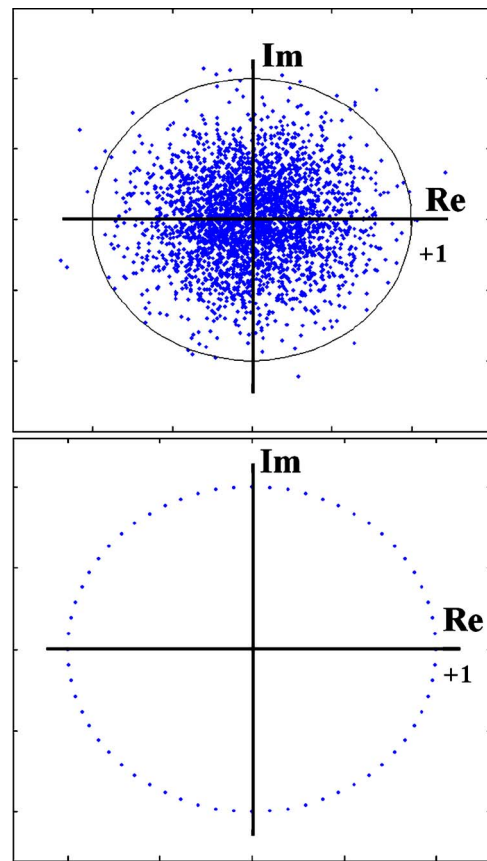


Fig. 5 (a) A polar plot of an encrypted image made up of complex values and (b) the encrypted image displayed in (a) that has been mapped to the achievable quantization levels of an ideal lossless phase-only mode SLM.

273 3 Pseudorandom Encoding Technique

Our SLM, which works in a coupled phase/amplitude 274
 mode, can only display a certain range of discrete complex 275
 values that we have determined in Section 2. Figure 5(a) 276
 shows a typical example of a polar plot displaying a 277
 complex-valued image. If this image were mapped directly 278
 to a lossless phase-only SLM, with $2^6=64$ finite 279
 quantization levels, then it would appear as the polar plot 280
 shown in Fig. 5(b). Because the encrypted image and the 281
 decrypting phase key, which we wish to display on the 282
 SLM, are normally randomly distributed in the complex 283
 plane (i.e., having phase values spread randomly from 0 to 284
 2π), we need to map these complex values to the discrete 285
 complex values (quantization levels) that the SLM can dis- 286
 play. To do this, we employ the PET,^{22,23,25} which is a sta- 287
 tistical method of approximating a required complex value 288
 using only those values that are achievable. Figure 6 shows 289
 an example of the application of PET to display a complex 290
 number, a_c . On a polar diagram, the distance from the ori- 291
 gin represents the amplitude, while the angle of the vector 292
 represents the phase. We now wish to display a_c using the 293
 three possible SLM quantization levels, (V_1 , V_2 , and V_3) as 294
 shown in Fig. 6. 295

A simple minimum Euclidean distance algorithm would 296
 map the state a_c to V_2 ; however using the PET, a probabil- 297
 ity is assigned to each possible mapping, which is deter- 298

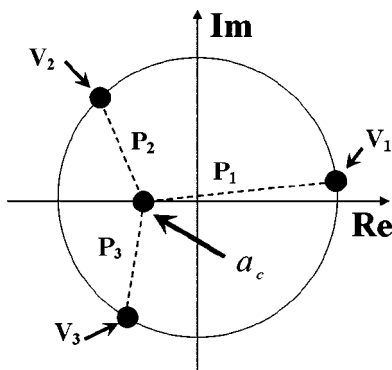


Fig. 6 A polar plot displaying a required complex value, a_c , and three achievable values that the SLM can display.

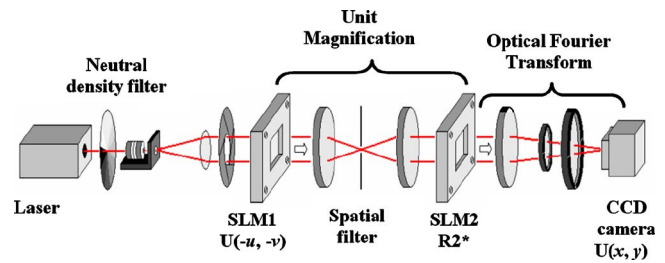


Fig. 7 The experimental optical decryption setup.

329 mined by the distance from a_c to each quantization level. If
 300 we have an image that has multiple values at a_c , each value
 301 at a_c is mapped to one of the SLM levels with the given
 302 associated probabilities. The PET²² finds a value of the en-
 303 semble average of a random variable, a , such that $\langle a \rangle = a_c$.
 304 Because this is a statistical method, the greater the number
 305 of values is at a_c , the more accurate the assignment method
 306 becomes.

307 When we increase the number of quantization levels that
 308 can be displayed, determining the probability associated
 309 with each distance becomes more complicated, and a linear
 310 relationship between Euclidean distances and probability
 311 does not always provide the most efficient method. In Fig.
 312 6, we have assigned a probability to each of the three
 313 achievable levels, V_1 , V_2 , and V_3 , such that

$$314 \quad P_1 + P_2 + P_3 = 1. \quad (13)$$

315 This implies that a_c will be given by

$$316 \quad a_c = P_1 a_{V_1} + P_2 a_{V_2} + P_3 a_{V_3}, \quad (14)$$

317 where a_{V_n} is the number of points of value a_c mapped to
 318 level, V_n . Separating Eq. (14) into its real and imaginary
 319 parts gives

$$320 \quad \text{Re}[a_c] = P_1 \text{Re}[a_{V_1}] + P_2 \text{Re}[a_{V_2}] + P_3 \text{Re}[a_{V_3}] \quad (15)$$

321 and

$$322 \quad \text{Im}[a_c] = P_1 \text{Im}[a_{V_1}] + P_2 \text{Im}[a_{V_2}] + P_3 \text{Im}[a_{V_3}]. \quad (16)$$

323 Writing Eqs. (14)–(16) as simultaneous equations gives

$$324 \quad \begin{bmatrix} \text{Re}[a_c] \\ \text{Im}[a_c] \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Re}[a_{V_1}] & \text{Re}[a_{V_2}] & \text{Re}[a_{V_3}] \\ \text{Im}[a_{V_1}] & \text{Im}[a_{V_2}] & \text{Im}[a_{V_3}] \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P_1 \\ P_2 \\ P_3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (17)$$

325 and using simple matrix algebra, we can determine the
 326 three mapping probabilities P_1 , P_2 , and P_3 . Expanding this
 327 method, we can take a complex valued image, to be dis-
 328 played on an SLM with a fixed number of available levels,
 329 and encode the image to those levels based on the calcu-
 330 lated probabilities. In Section 5, we discuss the results
 331 found when encoding a complex-valued encrypted image

and a complex-valued decryption key to a SLM, assuming 332
 4, 8, and 16 available quantization levels. 333

4 Decryption Experimental Setup 334

In the DRPE technique decryption process, two Fourier 335
 transforms are required. In our implementation, in order to 336
 simplify the optical setup, we perform the first Fourier 337
 transform numerically. This first Fourier transform is an 338
 unambiguous step because no knowledge of the decrypting 339
 phase key is required. Figure 7 shows a diagram of our 340
 experimental decryption setup. Using two transmissive 341
 SLMs (both operating in a mostly phase-only mode), which 342
 have been imaged onto one another by means of a 4f im- 343
 aging system, we display the inverse Fourier transform of 344
 the encrypted image on SLM1 and the decryption phase 345
 key R_2^* on SLM2. The complex images are mapped to the 346
 SLMs employing Cohn's PET as described in Section 3. 347
 The second Fourier transform is performed optically using 348
 free-space propagation and a thin lens. The resulting intensi- 349
 ty of the wavefront is then captured using a CCD camera. 350

As stated, we are concerned here with AE images; there- 351
 fore, the intensity of the wavefront is all that is required in 352
 order to recover the encrypted image. A spatial filter (aper- 353
 ture) is placed in the Fourier domain of the 4f imaging 354
 system, between the two SLMs, so as to filter out the 355
 higher-order diffraction terms introduced by the periodicity 356
 of SLM1. 357

5 Results 358

We studied the effect of quantization in the decryption pro- 359
 cess due to the discrete levels that an SLM can display. The 360
 encrypted image and the random phase key R_2^* are complex 361
 valued, and when either is displayed on a practical SLM 362
 (one that can only display a finite number of levels), this 363
 gives rise to errors during the decryption process. For the 364
 experimental results [shown later in Fig. 9(d)–9(f)], a 365
 532-nm wavelength laser was used. 366

Figure 8 shows a sequence of numerically simulated re- 367
 sults in which we use an SLM that has three available 368
 quantization levels, and we simulate the setup described in 369
 Fig. 7. Significant differences can be noted between data 370
 encoded to 16 levels and the same data encoded to 3 levels. 371
 These differences correspond to a loss of information in the 372
 desired decrypted image [Fig. 8(b)] and inaccuracy in the 373
 phase key [Fig. 8(d)], the encoded decrypted image, [Fig. 374
 8(c)], and the encoded phase key [Fig. 8(e)]. Usually, this 375
 loss of detailed information, due to the reduction in quan- 376
 tization levels, has the effect of making the image appear 377
 brighter. 378

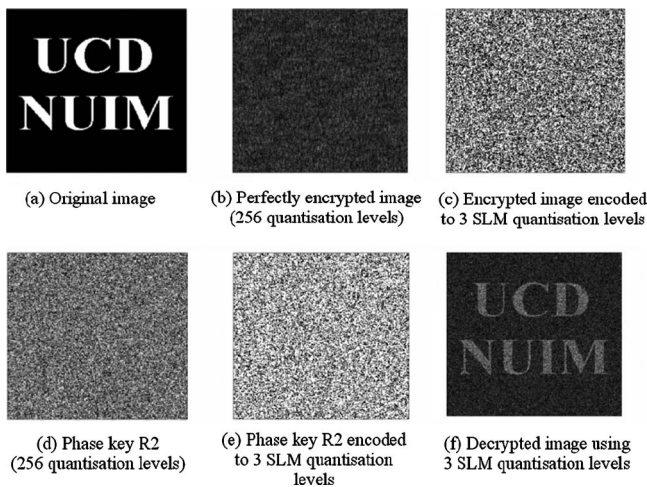


Fig. 8 (a) Original image, (b) encrypted image, (c) encrypted image as represented on SLM with three quantized levels, (d) Fourier decryption phase key, (e) Fourier decryption phase key as represented on SLM with three quantized levels, and (f) decrypted image with three quantized levels.

Table 1 The NRMS and cross-correlation values associated with the decrypted images shown in Fig. 9.

		SLM quantization levels	$2^2=4$	$2^3=8$	$2^4=16$
Simulations	NRMS		0.9324	0.8940	0.8636
	Cross correlation		0.2250	0.2620	0.3638
Experimental	Cross correlation		0.1835	0.2085	0.2147
	Cross correlation, blocking the central bright spot		0.1875	0.2135	0.2201

cryptions are cross correlated with a perfectly decrypted image. NRMS values for the experimental results are not presented due to variations in the laser power used. We have also shown the cross correlation for the experimental results when a black circle is numerically applied to cancel the large bright term in the centre of the experimental images. We note that removing this bright spot has little effect on the resulting cross correlating values in Table 1. Despite the significant assumptions made when performing the simulations and the limitations of the experimental setup used, the trends observable for the numerical and experimental results match reasonably well.

6 Conclusions

In this paper, the effects of quantization and imperfect operation of the SLM during decryption have been examined. Employing 2×2 Jones matrices, the SLM used was characterized by assuming that each pixel acts as a linear optical element. The Jones matrix was found for each voltage-controlled gray level possible by independently measuring both the amplitude and phase modulation of the device. By characterizing the SLM, which operates in a coupled mode, the complex values (quantization levels) it can display were determined.

In Section 3, the PET is applied to our SLM using the parameters presented in Section 2. This permits the minimization of the systematic errors that occur when a complex-valued image is displayed on the SLM. The decryption setup, which is implemented for AE DRPE technique decryption, is described in Section 4. In Section 5, both numerical and experimental results for such a system are presented. Although there was a relatively strong central spot in the experimental results, the trend observed in the cross correlations for the experimental results were in close agreement with those predicted by the numerical simulations.

Using the PET, it is possible to systematically display complex-valued images on a SLM that is only capable of displaying a limited range of quantization levels. We have shown that the PET can be applied when implementing the AE DRPE technique and that it is possible to perform satisfactory decryption.

These practical results have implications for the technique used to capture data in optical encryption systems²⁵

379 Figure 9 shows two sets each of three images, decrypted
 380 using a SLM with 4, 8, and 16 quantization levels. The first
 381 set [see Fig. 9(a)–9(c)] has been produced numerically as
 382 discussed the decryption setup shown in Fig. 7. The second
 383 set [see Fig. 9(d)–9(f)] gives the corresponding experimen-
 384 tal results generated using the setup, shown in Fig. 7, cap-
 385 tured with an Imperx IPX-1M48 CCD camera. It should be
 386 noted that there is a relatively strong central spot in the
 387 experimental results that is due to the $<100\%$ diffraction
 388 efficiency of the SLM. It arises due to nonideal SLM op-
 389 eration (fill factor, mixed mode operation, etc.) and to
 390 implementation errors and lens aberrations. Such physical
 391 effects, including the low-pass filter present in the optical
 392 system (see Fig. 7), are not modeled in the numerical simu-
 393 lation. In Table 1, NRMS and cross correlation values are
 394 presented. The resultant simulated and experimental de-

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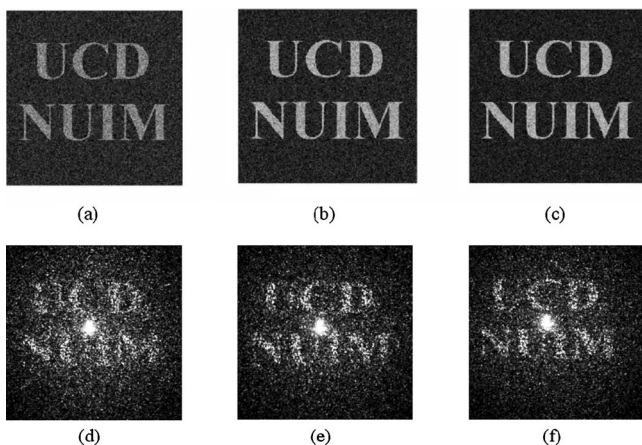


Fig. 9 Images decrypted using the setup shown in Fig. 7: (a–c) Results that have been numerically simulated for cases when we used a SLM with 4, 8, and 16 available values, respectively. (d–f) Experimental results for cases when we used a SLM with 4, 8, and 16 available values, respectively.

438 and, ultimately, for the security of such systems.²⁶ The full
439 implications require further detailed study.

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