

Keystroke Authentication with a Capacitive Display using Different Mobile Devices

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Abstract: This study investigates keystroke dynamics as biometric authentication on different smartphones. We analysed different sensors in the smartphones which affect the error rates of the authentication. We also evaluate the effectiveness of different features based on the error rates. In addition, a framework is presented for using one device as a base model to authenticate the same person on other devices. We conduct with an experiment with three devices and three different keywords to assess how well different devices can be used (error rates smaller than 3.5 %) and suitable combinations of devices. Moreover, our experiment results showed that passwords spread over the whole keyboard have lower error rates.

1 INTRODUCTION

The loss of iPhone 3 or 4 in public places attracted the awareness of the public because of the bad consequences of leaked personal data stored on the phone. Though we do not have an accurate number of lost smart phones per year, we may have a rough idea by knowing the fact – that in the cabs of London 55,000 mobile devices are forgotten in half a year (Twentyman, 2009).

At the same time utilizing security features of mobile devices is becoming increasingly popular. Usually we are able to store sensitive data on the smartphone or accessing some information with apps.

In general, passwords are used as an authentication method but this is an unreliable authentication because malicious attacks against static passwords are mature technologies. For example, shoulder surfing or social engineering work effectively with little or no technical knowledge (O’Gorman, 2003). That is why, we would like to use static passwords as well as the keystroke during typing the password as a biometrical feature.

However, the error rate of keystrokes is too high to be useful. Hence, many research in recent years has focused on decreasing the error rates for keystroke dynamics. In particular, multiple classifiers are recently introduced to this context.

However, most research focuses on minimizing the error rates for a specific mobile device (see

(Banerjee and Woodard, 2012)). Thus, it is almost impossible to use the learned features on different smart phones without recalibration. It depends on each scenario of the used device. The situations are worse because most people have more than one device. Sometimes the devices are changed on a regular base, sometimes two different devices are used at the same time. In this case for each device an own enrolment has to be done which is not user friendly.

Our study is to provide information about the error rates depending on multiple mobile devices. Furthermore, we show how an enrolment model can be used on multiple devices for authentication. For this, we present the error rates for different feature groups on different devices. Moreover, we define an algorithm to convert the enrolment model of one device to different device.

2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Biometrical authentication depends on the process of enrolment and verification. Both processes consist of different steps including data acquisition, pre-processing and feature extraction. The last step during enrolment is to generate and store a person record in a database. The last step is to classify and compare the user input with the extract features during the verification stage (Vielhauer, 2006).

On devices supplied with a physical keyboard we can easily extract keystrokes. The duration which represents the time between pressing and releasing a key or the n-graphs (time between pressing one key and the n-th key of a sequence) is a simple dynamic feature to be used for authentication (Choraś and Mroczkowski, 2007). With a capacitive display it is also possible to extract the exact time of pressing keys and the time interval of different keystrokes. Moreover, additional values could be exported, like pressure on the device during typing (Luca et al., 2012), the size of the fingertip or the exact X- and Y-coordinates. These values are all used in this paper as a feature group because for example we could extract for each pressed key the one pressure value. In a pre-test we analysed devices with different sensors. We found out that there are big differences, especially, for the features pressure and size. Some devices have more than ten times more values for the pressure compared to the amount of size values. For other devices it is the other way around. The last group is where only one value exists for the feature pressure which cannot be used for authentication.

After classification (normally for keystroke dynamics a statistical classifier or neuronal network (Banerjee and Woodard, 2012)) the authentication system has to decide whether accepting or rejecting a user. For a system depending on the threshold, different errors occur. The first type of error is the false acceptance rate (FAR) which represents how many intruders get access to the system. The second type of error shows the amount of rejections for a person who is in the system which is described as false rejection rate (FRR). Both error rates are relying on the special threshold. The point where both error rates are equal to each other is called equal error rate (EER). All the three error rates are used in our paper to compare the results of different studies.

Currently in the research for smartphones with a capacitive display by Trojahn (Trojahn and Ortmeier, 2012) a FAR of 9.53 % and a FRR of 5.88 % was achieved. In comparison to authentication on a keyboard of a computer or on a mobile device with 12 hardware keys, these error rates are high. The error rates are mainly associated with the length of password (Buchoux and Clarke, 2008) and the amount of subjects. With less than 20 subjects the error rates EER could be smaller than 2 % (Obaidat and Sadoun, 1997; Trojahn and Ortmeier, 2013). With more than 20 human subjects the EER raises up to 10 % (Clarke and Furnell, 2006; Campisi et al., 2009). There are some big differences between authentication on touchscreen displays and hardware keyboards (12-mobile phones or computer). On touchscreen displays

there is no physical feedback whether one key was pressed correctly or whether two keys were pressed at the same time. Without looking at the device this information could not be tracked. In addition, the standard keyboard layout for writing text (e.g. email or SMS) is a full featured QWERTY-layout where the keys are smaller than the keys in a 12 key layout. In this situation, the chance to type a wrong letter is higher (Trojahn and Ortmeier, 2012).

Miluzzo et al. (Miluzzo et al., 2012) showed an interesting attack on the password entry. By using an app to record the gyroscope data while entering the password. They were able to reach an accuracy of over 60 % to distinguish which key was pressed. This means for authentication with keystroke dynamics the gyroscope is comparable to a biometrical characteristic. In addition, during entering the password it should disallow other apps to extract the gyroscope data. In addition to the gyroscope, the accelerometer could be used which gives information about the general position of the device during typing.

3 EXPERIMENTAL SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURE

In our study 66 subjects were employed to answer the questions and enter the keywords. Figure 1 shows the distribution of the person related to their age.

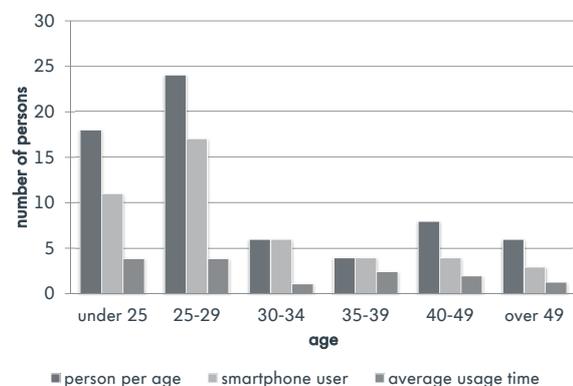


Figure 1: Person per age group.

In addition, the figure shows how much people use a smartphone with a touchscreen and their daily use of various phones. Nearly 70 % of the subjects have used at least a smartphone prior to this test. We can easily observe the fact that the people under 30 years are using it more than older people.

To extract data for the biometrical authentication a keyboard layout was developed. This layout is a key-logger which stores all input data information from the capacitive display for each user. We disabled

caps lock and restricted the usage only for the portrait alignment. A screen shot of the keyboard layout is in Figure 2.



Figure 2: Implemented soft keyboard layout (German) for Android OS.

Altogether, the key-logger and an application which was designed to retrieve basic information about the user and to perform the authentication process were developed for Android OS.

During the tests each subject was asked to enter some descriptive data. As descriptive data we tracked age, sex and experience with touchscreens of the subjects. Then a demo was shown where the user was exposed to the keyboard layout and could train the passwords to reduce the effects of learning. We selected three different keywords (in German language: “*treter*”, “*module*” and “*sommer*”). These three passwords were chosen to see whether it is important how complex a password is. For example, the word *treter* uses only three different letters which are next to each other. On the other hand the word *module* is spread over the whole keyboard. The last word *sommer* has a double letter. After the demo the actual experiment started where the subject had to enter all three passwords during different scenarios. Each keyword must be entered in correctly for 20 times. If the user made a mistake the attempt was not counted. Because during deleting a letter the writing flow is disturbed. And to analyze the time characters, we wanted to have 20 attempts with the same flow.

We used three pre-selected devices (Galaxy Nexus, Samsung S2 and Samsung S3) which represent each of the defined group described in Section 2. All of them used the Android API level 15.

After each device the user was asked to select the used hand (left hand, right hand or both hands). All the samples were stored on the device and later they were transferred to a computer to do the classification and comparison.

4 EVALUATION PROCEDURE

For analysing the different test cases of the subjects we will address the used features and the classification algorithm we used to retrieve results in the next section. In the second part of this section we address an approach to compare different devices.

4.1 Feature Extraction and Classification Algorithm

As features we extracted the basic feature groups (duration, digraph and trigraph) and the features embedded on smartphones (like pressure and size).

In addition, we used the X/Y-coordinates which represent the concrete point of the touch event. With this information we could extract the geometrical information of keystroke. Furthermore, the three different gyroscope values (X, Y and Z) and two from the accelerometer (pitch and roll) were used.

For classification we used a statistical classifier. The verification was based on the K-Nearest-Neighbour classifier. For generating the model of one person and for verification we had 20 test cases per person and word. The first step was to delete the test cases one to five. Then we selected from the rest 1/3 for training and 2/3 for evaluation.

4.2 Approach to Compare Different Devices

This subsection is based on pre-test where we extracted the different features for the three devices.

All time based feature groups showed constant changes between the devices. Di- and trigraph had in most cases bigger time differences. This could be explained by the different size of the keyboard. More concretely, the dimensions of keyboard layout of the Galaxy Nexus 6 x 5.4 cm, for the S2 5.6 x 3.5 cm and the S3 had the following dimensions 5.8 x 3.2 cm. If the screen is bigger, more time is needed to reach the next letter. In contrast to this, the duration time was in average the same over the different devices. This means that it is not significantly affected by different devices.

The X/Y-coordinates depend on the solution and the dimension of the device. They could be calculated for another device using both values.

The first experiment showed that the feature groups pressure and size are not normalised between zero and one for every devices. Figure 3 shows the values for the size while one person is typing on the three different devices.

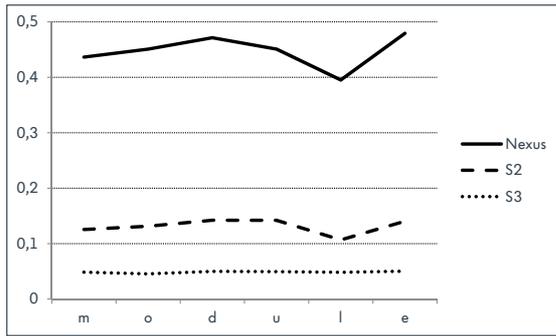


Figure 3: Different size values for the three devices.

In addition, the amount of different values is depending of the device. The S3 has only one value for pressure. In this situation no information could be extracted. In the other cases the values for pressure and size have to be normalised. With a higher amount of different values for one feature the quality of the feature is rising up. That means converting problems exist if a device is used for enrolment with a lower quality to one with a higher quality for one feature.

The gyroscope data showed no specific similarities which could be calculated.

5 RESULTS

In this section, we will present at first the error rates which can be received if one device is used for enrolment and verification. Then, we show the results if the information of an enrolment of one result is used for another result.

5.1 Error Rates for Single Devices

From our study we extracted for each feature group the error rates. These can be seen in Table 1.

Basically, it can be seen that the error rates of single feature groups are depending on the special device which is used for authentication. In these devices different sensors are used which are one reason for the differences. Table 2 is showing there are big distinctions between the number of different values.

The results are extracted from all test cases of the different subjects. It shows that the S3 has only one value for the pressure feature. This explains the high EER of the device using pressure. With one value no decision can be made so this feature group should not be used for verification of a person if someone uses the S3. Others devices like the Galaxy Nexus have over 159 values. For the feature group size the S2 has the most values in this experiment. It can be seen that

Table 1: Different ERRs (in %) for single feature groups in relation to the used device and written word.

		Nexus	S2	S3
duration	treter	20.91	18.81	20.04
	module	19.64	19.16	19.05
	sommer	18.21	19.46	18.57
digraph	treter	23.02	21.73	18.17
	module	17.77	17.02	14.47
	sommer	14.59	15.83	14.67
trigraph	treter	24.32	22.95	21.18
	module	20.43	19.44	16.27
	sommer	16.1	18.28	15.67
pressure	treter	18.84	39.65	50
	module	17.76	30.85	50
	sommer	15.52	26.86	50
size	treter	29.34	17.44	24.75
	module	28.62	16.06	24.31
	sommer	26.26	15.97	22.44
XY	treter	25.77	24.94	23.2
	module	27.22	26.95	22.86
	sommer	20.89	20.67	22.41
gyroscope	treter	36.27	37.39	37.1
	module	38.85	39.76	35.17
	sommer	36.94	41.02	37.46
accelerometer	treter	31.49	19.77	22.56
	module	32.91	19.93	25.53
	sommer	36.28	18.89	21.38

Table 2: Amount of different values for feature groups.

	pressure	size	X/Y-coordinates
Nexus	159	12	574 / 397
S2	10	93	384 / 296
S3	1	50	542 / 381

each device has in one category the most values and in these special categories they have the best error rate compared to the other devices which can be extracted from Table 1.

Furthermore, differences between the feature groups can be easily categorized. The basic features (like duration, digraph and trigraph) have the best recognition rate. In addition, some touchscreen related features (size and X/Y-coordinates) have a good recognition rate, too. Only the feature groups pressure and gyroscope values produce fair but not great results. But, especially, the pressure depends on the selection of the device. If the S3 is not considered the feature group pressure has also some good error rates. The quality of the features pressure and size are device dependable. This will have an impact on the device-independent authentication.

The error rates are not only depending on the selected feature group. In addition, the choice of keyword has an impact on the result. For the features digraph, trigraph and pressure the error rates are sig-

nificant higher for the word *treter*. For the duration and size the differences are smaller but still the keyword *module* has the better results. Only the X/Y-coordinates and the gyroscope show a better recognition rate for the password *treter*. But compared with other feature groups the recognition rate for X/Y-coordinates and the gyroscope are insufficient.

The different recognition rates can be used to weight the feature groups to receive better results. Table 3 shows the error rates where all feature groups are used for the authentication.

Table 3: Total error rates (in %) for the test according to the passwords and devices. Bold values are more suitable than the other.

	Nexus		S2		S3	
	FAR	FRR	FAR	FRR	FAR	FRR
treter	5.72	5.81	6.09	5.43	6.76	10.19
module	4.09	3.12	4.9	5.19	5.60	8.87
sommer	3.27	4.97	5.87	4.65	7.69	5.42

The results are similar to the results in Table 1. In general, the word *module* has a higher accuracy for all three devices. But the differences are insignificant. The word *sommer* produces better results than *treter* but in comparison to *module* the error rates are marginally higher. Furthermore, it can be recognized that it is important which device is used. The error rates are depending on the device. The Nexus Galaxy shows the best error rates for all words in comparison to the other two. The worst error rates could be seen if the S3 was used. One reason is that the feature group pressure cannot be used.

5.2 Error Rates for Different Devices

If the same model which was generated by an enrolment of one device is used for verification, on other devices the error rates are increasing. The EER is between 27 % and 36 %. This could not be used to authenticate a person in a reliable manner.

For this reason, we proposed in Section 4.2 a calculation for the different feature groups. If these approaches are used, better results can be reached (see Table 4). Here, we used 100 % of the data of one device for the enrolment and the same amount of the information of the second device for verification.

In general, the error rates are increasing if another device is used. Furthermore, converting from or to the S2 shows the highest error rates. In average the error rates are bigger than 10 %. But it is shown that in each case the pre-processing has improved the results. Also with different devices the error rates depend on the used password. The words *module* and *sommer* are having almost every time better results

than the word *treter*. The S3 and the Nexus Galaxy have nearly the same display size and the same dpi values (308 and 315). The user has the same feeling using both devices.

6 DISCUSSION

Different keywords on several devices have been analysed. It turned out that neither of the presented features fulfills a single authentication for one device. But they are depending on the keyword and device. If a weighted fusion is used the weights for the different feature groups should depend on the device. This improves the error rates for an authentication on one device. Even if the single feature group is for them self-insufficient. At the same time not only the length of password is important (see (Buchoux and Clarke, 2008)). We presented that passwords should be chosen carefully. The experiment showed that the password should be spread around the keyboard. Especially, the n-graphs are showing better results if the letters are not near to each other. The problem is that the design of the QWERTY-layout is placing the most common letters at two points to allow writing faster with ten fingers.

Furthermore, the different quality of the sensors in the devices does not support a device independent keystroke authentication completely. The device must be known previously to know which weight combination is the best and should be used for this device. Otherwise, the error rates are not sufficient. And even in this situation some device are producing an EER of over 8 % which neither satisfy the security or the usability (see the S3 in Table 3).

Moreover, an authentication where the enrolment is done on one device and the verification on another is without transformation not possible. But even if the approach of this paper is used, the error rates are not sufficient completely.

As mentioned in Section 2 the error rates are increasing with a higher amount of people in the study. Overall, we used more subjects and get the same or better results for authentication in comparison to other studies where a statistical classifier was used. One reason is the growing number of different features which can be extracted during typing.

7 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we first identified the problem of keystroke authentication on different devices. Some

Table 4: Error rates (in %) if different devices are used for enrolment and verification.

enrolment verification	Nexus				S2				S3			
	S2		S3		Nexus		S3		Nexus		S2	
	FAR	FRR	FAR	FRR	FAR	FRR	FAR	FRR	FAR	FRR	FAR	FRR
treter	12.2	18.2	10.4	8.6	12.7	12.4	13.6	13.7	7.8	5.4	12.9	10.7
module	12.8	11.8	7.6	6.1	12.8	9.6	13.2	10.7	6.0	5.9	13.3	10.2
sommer	13.4	12.2	7.6	6.2	12.6	9.1	13.3	9.6	7.9	3.7	14.1	8.0

feature groups are more robust for using them on different devices than other. Mostly, it depends on the used of sensor. To observe the impact of different sensors, we first presented the experimental procedure which we designed. Furthermore, we explained which feature, classifier and the algorithm to compare different devices we used for authentication. Based on these, we presented the error rates for a single device. Especially, the comparison of the different feature groups showed how features depend on the different device. In addition, we showed how good the proposed algorithm works if an enrolment is done on one device and authenticate on another.

Overall, the proposed algorithm showed an improvement for the error rates. With an EER of smaller than 10 % for several devices and keywords. It is important to select a widespread password and to choose a device with sensors which are suitable for extracting keystroke dynamics (in our study Nexus Galaxy or S2).

However, further work is planned in designing a keystroke authentication system that supports one enrolment for different devices. Furthermore, we plan to analyse whether this framework can be adapted to tablets. Moreover, we want to analyse how the length of the password affects the error rates.

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