

Institutionen för systemteknik

Department of Electrical Engineering

Examensarbete

Sensor Device Fingerprinting

Mobile Device Sensor Fingerprinting With Authentication
Purposes

Examensarbete utfört i säkra system
vid Tekniska högskolan vid Linköpings universitet
av

Anna Karlsson

LiTH-ISY-EX--YY/NNNN--SE

Linköping 2015



Linköpings universitet
TEKNISKA HÖGSKOLAN

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*Linköping, June 2015
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Notation

NOTATION

Notation	Meaning
G	G-force
ϵ	Bias
F_C	Coriolis force
T	Tesla (SI-unit of magnetic flux density)

ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Meaning
FAR	False Accept Rate
FRR	False Reject Rate
FTE	Fail To Enrollment
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IoT	Internet of Things
MEMS	Micro-electromechanical System
M2M	Machine-to-machine
NIC	Network Interface Card
PRNU	Photo-Response Non-Uniformity noise
RFF	Radio Frequency Fingerprinting
RFID	Radio-Frequency Identification
FPN	Fixed Pattern Noise
CFA	Color-Filter Array
PCB	Printed Circuit Board
RMS	Root Mean Square
SVM	Support Vector Machine
OS	Operating System
RMS	Root Mean Square

1

INTRODUCTION

This paper is the report for my master thesis in Computer Science and the last part of my education for become an engineer in information-technology in the field of secure systems. The thesis was performed on Cybercom AB in Linköping. This introduction chapter will give an overview of the work together with background and aims and objectives that is used as the basis for the work presented in this thesis.

1.1 Background

Cars, locks, birds, stoves, refrigerator, coffee maker, watches, cat feeder, sewing machines..., the world of connected devices is growing rapidly. This world is known under the term 'Internet of Things'. For making this things connect to each other we need secure authentication methods for knowing that they are connecting to the device they are suppose to and not anything or anyone else.

For us humans it has become an everyday thing to using two factor authentication when accessing buildings, part of networks, our bank and so on. When talking about two factor authentication we usually use a combination of either three things; something you *know* like passwords, something you *have* like tag, passport, card or phone or something you *are* like iris or fingerprint. (More about those in chapter 2.) Something you know or have is things that can be copied, stolen or modified fairly easy and without know all that much about the person or thing you try to authenticate as. This compared to something you are as iris, fingerprint and DNA requires much more effort and time since you can only focus on one person at a time. Machines or devices don't have those attributes as us human, they are build on hardware parts.

The background for this thesis is to explore the possibility for a machine to have a

fingerprint that can be used to more securely identify them. This can be applied in several areas for example in the new smart homes where fridges, stoves, coffee makers and doors should communicate with each other. Another example could be when you only want to limit the access to your bank account to your phone only to avoid that an malicious user accessing your account.

1.2 ToUpdate! Aims & Objectives

Today most of the solutions for M2M authentication involves a certificate, token, UUID etc., from my opinion is this something the machine know or have. The area of fingerprinting a machine has been more investigated in line with the world of connected devices that is called IoT (Internet of Things) has grown. The aim of this thesis is to look in to if the fingerprinting methods found today, can be used as something the machine *are* for two factor authentication between them. The problems I'll work to solve with this thesis is:

Can you create a device fingerprint by using the unique hardware characteristics in a mobile device?

Is this fingerprint suitable for using as a second factor for authentication between devices?

The problems above state a mobile device and not a general machine, which is one of my limitations in the thesis. When stating a mobile device leaves also leads to wireless network environment. The focus is also set to an authentication process where you are able to collect a set of data from the device in a database in a test environment. This means that new devices in the network has to go trough some kind of phase were collecting the unique hardware characteristics data, just like the police has to collect fingerprint from the suspect to compare with the fingerprints from the crime scene. As the title of the thesis implies, authentication is the focus not identification. As said in the background is a device building stone its hardware and something the devices *has* that is the point of view of the thesis.

The objectives of this work and can be summed up to:

Explore different unique hardware characteristics of a mobile device

Mobile devices today are equipped with a lot of sensors and since they like other hardware has some noise that may be unique enough to differ from a device of the same model. Measurements from the microphone-, speaker-, gyroscope-, accelerometer- and camera-sensor will be collected and valuated from the view as fingerprints. RFF (Radio Frequency Fingerprinting) is another perspective that also will be measured from the noise of the mobile devices in a wireless environment and compared together with the sensors.

Combining M2M, two factor and biometric authentication

Biometric authentication has ways of measure and compare fingerprints, this measurements and methods will be used to make the two factor authentication between the devices.

1.3 ToUpdate! Thesis Outline

This introduction chapter including background, aims and objectives will give a quick view of what the thesis is about. The chapters that follow is divided in different parts that maps to the different objectives listed above.

- Ch.1: This will give an introduction to the work done in the thesis and motivation for doing it.
- Ch.2: How authentication is made today between machines, two factor and in biometric.
- Ch.3: The different unique hardware characteristics of a mobile device that has been found today and how they are collected.
- Ch.4: Result of the collected unique hardware characteristics of a mobile device together with comparison and evaluation on if they can be used as mobile fingerprints or not. This chapter also presents the demo the made from the test result.
- Ch.5: Conclusion will except conclusions also include ethical aspects and further work.

2

COMMUNICATION & AUTHENTICATION

Because just about all devices that are connected to a network are one way or another connected to the Internet you can bet that they find themselves in an un-tenanted or malicious environment. Everything connected to the Internet is very likely to be hacked. Thus, authentication is needed for remote sensing devices to communicate. [22]

In this chapter will show ways of authentication (two factor, M2M and biometric) that is in the area of this thesis. The biometric part is in the area because it has good ways of measure strength in a biometric trait (especially fingerprint) that will be used when comparing strength of my tests of characteristic noise in the mobile device.

2.1 Two factor authentication

There are more ways to authenticate a user than password, however it is the most common. There are three different types of authentication;

- Something the authenticator *have* like a key, card, passport and so on
- Something the authenticator *knows* for example password
- Something the authenticator *are*, known as biometrics such as fingerprint or iris pattern

[1, p. 31]

Authentication in two factor means a combination of two of the three types of authentication above. An example can be use of a credit card (you have) in combination with a PIN-code (you know) to collect the money from an ATM. Something the authenticator have and knows is the most common combination. The

third one, cost is the biggest reason form that biometrics isn't that common yet. [1, p. 47]

2.2 Challenge-Response authentication

The challenge-response protocol is build upon the idea that the user to a system first must complete a challenge decided by the system in order to access the system. An example is modern car keys when trying to start the engine, the engine controller give the key an challenge consisting of a random n -bit number. The key encrypt the challenge and response.

The problem challenge-response protocols facing is often to achieve good randomness, thus is the challenge not random enough there is a risk for malicious user to calculate the n -bit number.

There are other applications than looks, like the HTTP Digest Authentication. It uses the authentication process which a web server challenges a client or a proxy with the common secret of a password. The server sends nonce to the client or proxy, whom hash the nonce with the password and the requested URI. This authentication mechanism is not vulnerable to password snooping and is used in cases like; client-server-authentication in SIP or the protocol for Voice-Over-IP telephony. This protocol however is vulnerable to man-in-the-middle.

Ross states however that a much more visible use of challenge response is in *two-factor authentication* (section 2.1). An example of use is if you have and bank card reader when accessing your bank on the Internet. When you want to log in there are an random challenge of n numbers. You put these numbers together with a PIN into your bank card reader. The reader encrypts these numbers (pin + n numbers) using a secret key shard with the sever of the bank. The fist n numbers of the encryption is displayed on the card reader and you enter this in the login screen as a password.

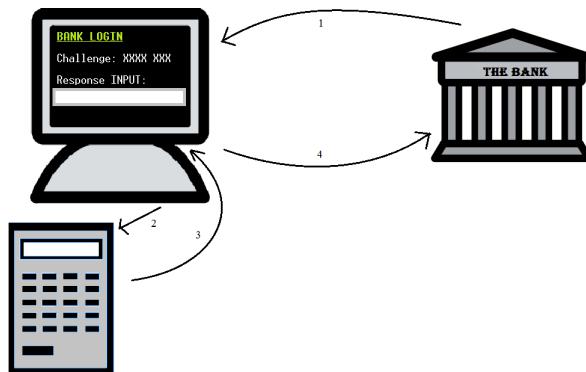


Figure 2.1: Challenge-response authentication with bank card reader

Describing of figure 2.1:

1. Bank sending Challenge XXXX XXX to the requesting address.
2. User enter PIN and XXX XXX in the bank card reader.
3. The reader encrypts the PIN and number with a secret key shared with the bank. The first numbers of the encryption is displayed o the reader. ($YYYYYYYY = XXXXXXXX, PIN_k$)
4. The user enter the encrypted numbers YYYY YYY on the log in screen and sends it as a password to the bank.

[1, ch.3]

2.3 M2M (Machine-to-machine)

Information that is exchanged via a communication network between machines has to establish conditions for doing so, that is where M2M is used. M2M is often a short synonym for M2M communication, meaning the communication conditions between devices. M2M communication is only the communication made between machines without any human behind it. A mobile device interacting with a call center application is not M2M, cause there is a human behind the mobile device calling. The reason for that using mobile devices in this thesis is that they have many hardware parts that can be used for no human communication with other devices (see chapter 3). These hardware parts can be found in other simpler devices such as accelerometer sensor probe that also can be applied on the result.

Often is M2M involving similar devices in the same M2M area network, interacting with an application. This makes it possible for devices to access public networks as well, via a gateway or router. An example is the heating system in smart homes. Devices are not a new thing, but when we have a growing world of IoT devices with very specific characteristics is growing. Thus makes the area of M2M more important to make these devices talk without a human behind. This affecting the requirements on the application and networks dealing with the devices. Characteristics of this devices is listed blow;

Multitude, they say that connected devices not directly interacting with humans, the big part of IoT is soon to be significant more than the ones which interact directly with humans. This will put more pressure on application and networks dealing with all devices.

Variety of connected devices with requirements like data exchange rate, form factor, computing, or communication capabilities. M2M applications have to be built, in order to define and develop common enabling capabilities.

Invisibility meaning that the device has virtually zero human control. The more invisibly the less likely for error caused by humans.

Criticality devices that can harm humans like voltage. Therefor reliability is an important factor.

Intrusiveness many of the increasing connected devices raise the privacy question like refrigerators, stoves, doors, etc.

All this devices with no human control is like told above very different, but many of them is similar in some ways, such that the functionality is limited, low-powered, embedded and have long life cycles. The fact that they often are embedded makes it hard to separate between M2M communication and machine-to-human or human-to-human communication. [7, p. 2-4]

2.3.1 Difference between M2M and IoT

Internet-of-Things, meaning to making everything connected to everything in the Internet. IoT is now in its starting pits and ready to start the race. Machine-to-machine communication is a part of that, but it also covers other areas and IoT some that M2M doesn't. The common denominator is according to Polsonetti *remote device access*, where the embedded hardware modules in a machine that communicate wireless or not is M2M applications. Remote device access for IoT has a much more wider perspective that not only including same device communication but also passive and other low-power sensors that not can be motivated as a M2M hardware module. [21]

In this thesis is M2M a subset of IoT, since it always one mobile device that wants to authenticate then it can communicate with other deceives.

2.3.2 M2M authentication

There are no standardized way of authenticate in M2M, but effort is done in the area. An example is [13] where he based authentication on a machines fingerprint. But this fingerprint isn't of the same character as the one this thesis is focusing on. In his article the fingerprint consist of hardware message of computers, such serial number of CPU, MAC address of network card, Machine ID etc. These things have through the years been proven to bee pretty easy to spoof. There are hundreds of guides of how to do that in many platforms like mobile devices (iPhone [?] and Android [?]) that is the thesis area.

Like [22] that states in their article that "...traditional methods such as "what you know and who you are" may not be applied". But the aim in section 1.2 is to do precisely that and with the advantage that using "regular" authentication that is more tried and tested. Thus the next section will be about biometric systems and how they authentication which is used for who you are.

2.4 The biometric process

"A biometric system measures one or more behavioral characteristics...information of an individual to determine or verify his identity." [14, p. 3]

2.4.1 Recognition

As said before is biometric something you *are* and the person who wants to be recognized to the system. By showing his or her biometric identifier (fingerprint, iris, DNA, etc.) to the biometric system, thus seen as a *user* of the system. The strength in biometrics is also the fact that it knows if a user is known to the system even if the user denies it. [14, ch. 1]

2.4.2 Biometric systems

There are some blocks for building a biometric systems, which can measure characteristics of a user. In biometric these characteristics is called *traits, indicators, identifiers, or modalities*, but for the aim of this thesis will it still be called characteristics. For designing, implementation and evaluation when building a biometric system there are some steps that has to be done;

The first step is to collect biometric data and store it in a database with the users identity. The recognition is then done by again collect biometric data from the user and compared to the database. This is the so called *enrollment and recognition phase*. The raw biometric data is often destroyed after enrollment and the recognition is all about pattern matching. This matching is done in four steps;

1. *Sensor* - to collect the raw biometric samples, that can be a image, amplitude signal, online signature, odor or chemical-based.
2. *Feature extractor* - first has to make the raw biometric samples comparable, mostly done in three pre-process operations;
 - Quality assessment, is the sample good enough?
 - Segmentation, remove background noise from sample
 - Enhancement, by using an algorithm to improve the sample
3. *Database* - that has the data from the enrollment phase together with some identity data (like name or ID). This database should have a access control mechanism for security reasons.
4. *Matcher* - where the sample from the enrollment is compared with the sample in recognition, to see if it's a match or not. This is done by having a match score to decide how close the enrolled and recognition sample is. The score is counted in different way depending on the characteristics that is used in the system.

[14, ch. 1]

2.4.3 Biometric authentication

Biometrics authentication, is sometimes also called verification that answers the question "Are you the one you say you are?". There is also biometric identification that answers "Are you someone known to the system?" but that is not what

this thesis aim to answer. The practical difference between authentication and identification is that the user has to give the system some kind of information (username, passport, email etc.) on who they claim to be. But in identification the user just give the sample to the system, which then looks if the user is known to the system or not. The identification look-up takes longer time since you look for all samples in the database and compare them, in authentication you only look for the claimed identity. [14, ch. 1]

2.4.4 Measurements

Biometric measurements is a bit more tricky than in a password-based system where the answer just is ‘match’ or ‘no match’. The accuracy of the biometric system must be consider when you choose characteristics. This is measured by two rates (False Reject Rate) that is the probability that two samples from the same user is not a match and (False Accept Rate) is the probability that two samples from different users is a match. A match is decided authentic between two samples from the same user is high enough and as a *impostor* is there is similarity between two samples from different users.

There are a threshold η that is used to decide the FRR and FAR. The proportion of authentic scores (ω_1) that are less than η is defined as FRR and the impostor score (ω_0) that are greater than or equal to η is FAR. Which can be described mathematical as;

$$FAR(\eta) = p(s \geq \eta | \omega_0) = \int_{\eta}^{\infty} p(s | \omega_0) ds,$$

$$FRR(\eta) = p(s \geq \eta | \omega_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\eta} p(s | \omega_1) ds,$$

where $p(s \geq \eta | \omega_x)$ us the probability density function of the authentic respective impostor score. [14, p. 18]

2.4.5 Design a biometric system

When designing a biometric system it is done in a five activity cycle. Depending on the outcome of one activity, the next step could be forward or redoing earlier activity. The design cycle is represented as a flow-chart below (from page 27 in [14]), followed by a description of the five activities.

Understand nature of application - is about deciding functionality type and classified based on how well the system fits this six different behaviors; cooperative, overt, habituated users, attended, unattended operation, controlled operation and open system. The first is if the user will be *cooperative* or not, like if the user wants to access something it is likely to cooperate. *Overt* is if the user knows that it is object for biometric recognition. If the user interacts with the system a lot it is likely that the user will be *habituated*. The enrollment and recognition operations can either be *attended* by a human or not. The environment of the operations may have to be *controlled* in terms of temperature, pressure, etc. in order

to work. Last there are also the question if the system will be closed or *open*, such if the database of biometric data will be shared between applications or be in one closed application.)

Choose biometric characteristics - is also classified, based on seven different factors. The thing with biometrics is that it will never be completely solid, thus all the factors can't be perfect. Counted to this is that the factors will have different value for different systems.

1. *Universality*, the fail-to-enrollment (FTE) rate should be low.
2. If the *uniqueness* of the characteristics is high will the rate of FAR be low.
3. The characteristic should be high in terms of *permanence* and not be changing significantly over time.
4. *Measurability* from the user perspective in terms of collecting characteristics, should convenient.
5. The time of the authentication is measured in *performance*.
6. User should have a high *acceptability* in present their characteristics to the system.
7. *Circumvention*, in terms of how easy it is to malicious fake the characteristics.

Collect biometric data - is apart from the collecting also includes factors of time, cost and size of the equipment.

Choose features and matching algorithm - is a critical step since this is the heart of the system and has to bee done with a great deal of knowledge if the selected characteristics and the data extracted from it.

Evaluate the biometric system - by asking different questions. There are no framework for doing this and it has to account different perspective as require experts of different field such psychology, business, computer science and statistics. There exists no framework for these types of evaluation but [14] propose doing it in three evaluation-stages technology, scenario and operational.

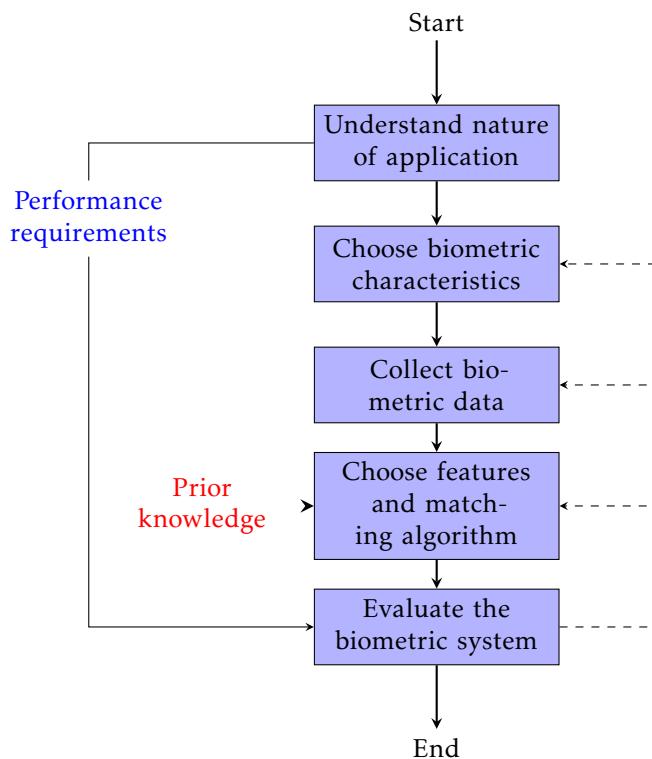


Figure 2.2: The design cycle of a biometric system

3

HARDWARE CHARACTERISTICS OF A MOBILE DEVICE

In the hardware of a device there are some features that can be used to distinguish devices from each other. In most cases it is not called features rather error sources. In the aim of this thesis it is feature characteristics that can be seen as an uniqueness of an mobile device. *Device fingerprint(ing)* is the term used for this feature characteristics and the pyramid seen in figure 3.1 from [9] shows the different types of sources of device fingerprint. This thesis will focus on the top of quarter of that pyramid, that is the sensors. All error sources of sensors comes in form of bias and the bias from each sensor covered by the thesis is further explained in this chapter. There is also an explanation on how the sensors is measured from Android respective JavaScript depending on the preformed tests that is described in chapter 4.

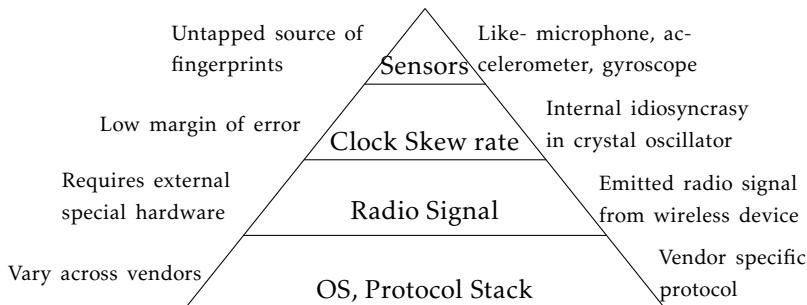


Figure 3.1: The pyramid of features in a mobile device that can be used for fingerprinting.[9]

As seen above in figure 3.1 are sensors an untapped source of fingerprints in mobile devices and example of sensors are microphone, accelerometer, barome-

ter, speakers and gyroscope. The sensors investigated in this work is the accelerometer-, gyroscope-, magnetometer- and camera- sensors. All of them are common sensors in most of the mobile devices used today.

3.1 Accelerometer

The accelerometer is the sensor that detect movement on a mobile device, like when you changing orientation on your device. Acceleration is measured by sensing how much pressure the device has in terms of force. The type of accelerometer sensor found in a mobile device is a micro-electromechanical systems known as MEMS sensor. [23]

3.1.1 Fingerprinting feature / Bias

Measure the characteristics from the accelerometer is done by taking the long term average of the output when the accelerometer is in rest. That is the biggest error source in the accelerometer and it grows quadratically over time, but when the accelerometer is in rest the error ϵ can be calculated as a function of time t ;

$$s(t) = \epsilon * \frac{t^2}{2} \quad (3.1)$$

[24][23]

3.2 Gyroscope

The gyroscope is sensing how the device is moving in terms of angles, for maintaining or measure the orientation. This is originally a mechanical system based on the principle of conservation of angular momentum. The most popular Gyroscope for devices today is a MEMS that is using silicon micro-mechanical techniques. Coriolis effect is measured with vibrating elements in the MEMS gyroscope. Coriolis effect is a change of moving objects direction when looking at it from a rotating reference system. The difference from the accelerometer is that the gyroscope measures relative to the device body rather than relative to earth. The equations of Coriolis force;

$$\mathbf{F}_C = -2 m (\boldsymbol{\omega} * \mathbf{v})$$

Where m is the mass of the particle, $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ the angular velocity and \mathbf{v} the velocity of the particle in the rotating system. [24]

3.2.1 Fingerprinting feature / Bias

The gyroscope has some error characteristics like constant bias, white noise, bias instability, calibration error and temperature effects. One of these error characteristics that can be tested by reading the output from a gyroscope in rest is the

constant bias. That is bias of the gyroscope output when not having any rotation on it. This constant error ϵ of the bias over time t leads to an angular error that grows linear;

$$\theta(t) = \epsilon * t \quad (3.2)$$

If take the long term average output from the gyro in rest, the constant error of a rate gyro can be estimated.[23]

3.3 Magnetometer

The magnetometer measures the magnetic field and was originally used for navigation and tracking. When it is used as a compass the Earth's magnetic field is measured. The type of sensor found in mobile devices is like accelerometer and gyroscope a MEMS sensor. They are known as e-compasses gaussmeters that is measuring of magnetic fields larger than 1 nT. [25]

3.3.1 Fingerprinting feature / Bias

*Note that normally bias in a magnetometer is called **offset** but for uniformity reason of this report it will be referenced to **bias**.*

When try to measure the magnetic field of Earth with a magnetometer it also gets affected by other magnetic fields. The two main error sources from measurements of magnetometer are magnetic contamination in the sensor, called Soft and Hard-Iron distortion.

The hard iron distortion is caused by metals and magnets around the magnetometer. This field is constant even if the device moves, thus it is additive to the earths magnetic field. This distortion can be caused of e.g. the device speaker mounted near the magnetometer.

If there are magnetic fields in the surrounding environment of the device they will cause soft iron disorder. This error is smaller than the hard iron distortion. Any metal around the device can cause this error, such a car passing by. There are also a third bias that can effect the magnetometer and is as the hard iron distortion additive. This bias is the errors in the magnetometer itself such that all hardware has. But the result of this bias is similar to the soft iron distortion.

The good thing with magnetometer bias is that it is constant over time, thus once it is calculated it stays the same.

If the device is rotated one turn (360°)around its own z-axes (see figure 4.1) and plot x with respect to y there will be a circle. In a world without bias this circle will look like:

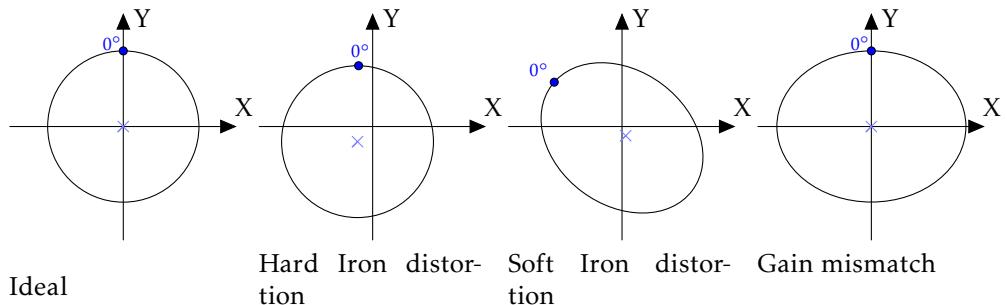


Figure 3.2: Example of different magnetometer readings when affected by bias.

[18]

3.3.2 Magnetometer calibration

To do a magnetometer calibration the device is turned 360° around the z-axis (figure 4.1), with the device on a flat surface. This makes x and y-axis the surface and z-axis pointing (UP/DOWN?). To calculate the offset $O_{x,y,z}$ the average of min and max-value from each axis is calculated (the center of the circle) from the magnetic field $B_{x,y,z}$, like:

$$O_x = \frac{\max(B_x) + \min(B_x)}{2} \quad (3.3a)$$

$$O_y = \frac{\max(B_y) + \min(B_y)}{2} \quad (3.3b)$$

$$O_z = \frac{\max(B_z) + \min(B_z)}{2} \quad (3.3c)$$

And the hard iron compensated result $m_{x,y,z}^h$:

$$m_x^h = B_x - O_x \quad (3.3d)$$

$$m_y^h = B_y - O_y \quad (3.3e)$$

$$m_z^h = B_z - O_z \quad (3.3f)$$

The soft iron is sometimes compensated for in the equations above and sometimes additional compensation has to be done. Since soft iron offset is place specific it will not be considered in the thesis since a fingerprint of a device is not convenient if you have to be at the exact same spot every time the device tries to authenticate. [18]

3.4 Camera

Note that normally bias in a camera sensor is called **noise** but for uniformity reason of this report it will be referenced to **bias**.

The digital camera of a mobile device also includes sensors and other hardware that can be used as fingerprinting characteristics. The basic is that light travels through a lens and hits a imaging sensor which contains pixels that has a filter array in front. The filter is for gives each pixel a detected color. The pixels are then put together again to a resulting signal which is send to some final post processing (color correction, white balance, etc.) steps before the image is written to the memory card. In this process there are different kind of bias that effects the image;

Shot noise - the amount of photons hitting the sensor and each pixel varies a random amount

Fixed pattern noise - there is a small electric current that leaks from photodiodes in each pixel, caused by dark current

Photo-response non-uniformity noise (PRNU) - is a bias that is not affected by temperature or humidity. When manufacturing sensors the silicon gets imperfection which causes that pixels aren't equally sensitive to light. This is the main source of pattern bias and makes it really unlikely for two cameras to have the same pattern.

The three types of bias can be described as a mathematical model for getting the output of the sensor y_{ij} :

$$y_{ij} = f_{ij}(x_{ij} + \eta_{ij}) + c_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}$$

where f_{ij} is a multiple factor close to one that captures PRNU, x_{ij} is the number of photons hitting the sensor, η_{ij} the shot noise, c_{ij} the dark current and ϵ_{ij} the additive random bias. The key for a unique fingerprint of the camera (in the mobile device) is to finding f . [15]

3.5 Previous work of device sensor fingerprinting

Accelerometer fingerprinting is a recent field of studies compared to the camera fingerprint that had been around for a longer time. The camera has for a long time been an object of identification in forensic purposes and therefore many research has been made and are applied today. Most of them uses advanced algorithm to extract the fingerprint and time of extracting hasn't been a concern. However in the aim of authentication the process can't be to time-consuming. In the table 3.1 and table 3.2 previous studies is presented in brief, followed by a longer presentation. Studies of gyroscope fingerprinting haven't been found. The majority of recent studies regarding the gyroscope have been about speech recognition. [19]

Accelerometer

Year	Devices	Purpose	Fingerprint	Ref.
2014	107	Identification	Statistics	[10]
2014	3583	Tracking	Bias offset	[5]
This	100	Authentication	Statistics	This thesis

Table 3.1: Comparing previous studies of accelerometer fingerprinting

[10]: AccelPrint: Imperfections of Accelerometers Make Smartphones Trackable

This research shows that the accelerometer can be used in identification and tracking purposes of the device. It is performed on android devices with an android application and on stand alone accelerometer chips. Their fingerprint consists of statistics values of the recordings such mean, standard deviation, skewness, min and max-values in both time and frequency domain. The research makes recordings with and without vibrations and in different circumstances; in car, running, walking, standing still. Their test environment uses machine learning that uses the statistics to build a fingerprint.

The result is an accuracy on 98% when having alien devices among the already known devices which. Alien devices means that they are not previous known for the system, e.g. separate new users from already register users.

The research also states that the time needed for identifying a device is 30 seconds and that CPU-load less than 40% is not affecting the result. Another important thing to notice is that since the also used stand alone accelerometer in different OS it rule out the possibility of that an OS can affect the output from the accelerometer. [10]

[5]: Mobile Device Identification via Sensor Fingerprinting

This research shows a much larger scale experiments of 3583 devices. Experiments are preformed using JavaScript in a web-page. The fingerprint consists of calculating the bias offset on the accelerometer data. The result however isn't as good as the previous with successful identification on 15.1%. To improve the result UserAgent-data were added and success rate rises to 58.7% but that is software-based identification that more easily can be modified at the client side. [5]

Since the research is in such different sizes they are difficult to compare it may be the case that *AccelPrint* gets similar success rate if scaling it up and vice versa.

Camera

Year	Devices	Purpose	Fingerprint	Ref.
2008	16	Identification	Probabilistic SVM classifier	[8]
2009	150	Identification	PRNU correlation	[15]
2014	20	Authentication	PRNU correlation	This thesis

Table 3.2: Comparing previous studies of camera fingerprinting

[8]: Blind Identification of Source Cell-Phone Model

Using a probabilistic SVM classifier based on different features they manage to get good result (success rate on 95.1%) even on images that are manipulated such cropped, resized or rotated. This however is a small scale experiment with more advanced techniques that not can be applied in authentication purposes rather in forensics. The thing to notice here is that the experiment is preformed on cell-phones from 2008 when the pictures had less quality than todays smart-phones. [8]

[15]: Digital Camera Identification

One of the experiments performed in this research included 150 devices with images that had random motives, zoom and other post-processing. The fingerprint consisted of the PRNU correlation and resulted in a false reject rate on 2,4% and a false acceptance rate on 0.043%. [15]

This research performed on digital cameras and can be relative fairly with tests performed on smart-phone cameras used today. Since the digital cameras of 2009 had around 11 mega-pixels, images size of 4000x3000 pixels, and digital zoom of 4 times and had HD video recording width 30 fps. Which is about the average smart-phones camera today. [6]

4

METHOD OF MEASUREMENTS

In this chapter the methods used for testing the mobile devices for different characteristics is described in chapter 3. Different test where performed to get sensor data to analyze for bias and characteristics.

Overview of the tests performed:

Measurement I - Motion: Collected accelerometer and gyroscope data by using a JavaScript web-page. The purpose to find out which of acceleration and acceleration is better in purpose of extract unique device characteristics.

Measurement II - Motion: Collected accelerometer and gyroscope data by using a JavaScript web-page. The purpose to find unique device characteristics from the sensors.

Measurement II - Camera: Collect one video from each device and extract pictures frames from the video. Calculate and compare the PRNU of the extracted pictures. (The videos where collected in the same process as test II above).

Measurement III - Camera: Collected ten pictures instead of video from the device.

4.1 Measurements of sensors on mobile devices

Measurements of sensors from mobile devices can be gather in different ways. In the work of this thesis two approaches is used, a browser application and an Android application. The camera is an exception where pictures provides the sensor characteristics.

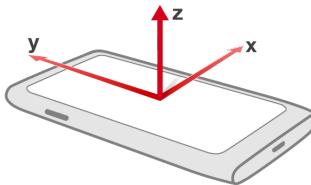


Figure 4.1: The coordinate system used for both Android and JavaScript[11]

4.1.1 Android

===== OBS: Är detta mer relevant att ha i demo-delen?

Android sensor framework provides raw data with high precision from sensor that are built in the device such as different motions sensors (including accelerometer and gyroscope), environmental sensors and position sensors (e.g. magnetometer). [2] Android sensor framework classes that is used for gather sensor data is;

SensorManager, a manager used to access the sensor of the device.

Sensor, representing a sensor

SensorEvent, an event from a Sensor such data from the sensor, time-stamp or accuracy

SensorEventListener, gets a SensorEvent when a sensor or accuracy has changed

In Android you can't just read from the sensor whenever you need, instead the SensorEventListener has a function that is triggered every time the sensor is changed. You can however set how fast the delay from the sensor should be. The function provides the output of the sensor with a time-stamp of when (in nanoseconds) the change occurred. The template code for this function:

```

SensorManager sensorManager = (SensorManager)
    getSystemService(Context.SENSOR_SERVICE);
Sensor sensor; //the sensor such accelerometer, gyroscope...

if (sensorManager.getDefaultSensor(Sensor.TYPE_OF_SENSOR) != null) {
    // TYPE_OF_SENSOR such TYPE_ACCELEROMETER
    sensor =
        sensorManager.getDefaultSensor(Sensor.TYPE_OF_SENSOR);
    sensorManager.registerListener(this, sensor,
        SensorManager.SENSOR_DELAY_XXX);
}

public void onSensorChanged(SensorEvent event) {
    // The time in nanoseconds of when the event occurred
}

```

```

float timestamp = event.timestamp;

// The measurements values from the sensor that changed
float a = event.values[0];
float b = event.values[1];
float c = event.values[2];
// and there may be more depending on which
// sensor that caused the sensor change.
}

```

Listing 4.1: Java code for Android sensor

[3]

Accelerometer in Android

TYPE_ACCELEROMETER is the hardware measurements that measures the force of acceleration including the force of gravity with the SI unit m/s^2 . Android also provide TYPE_LINEAR_ACCELERATION that is without gravity but that is a combined hardware and software sensor, thus this tests uses TYPE_ACCELEROMETER that provides almost raw data. There have been some bias removal from the sensor such bias from different temperature.

To get the acceleration applied to the device (a_d) the measurements of the force (F_s) applied the sensor is calculated from Newtons second law using the mass (m) of the device :

$$a_d = - \sum F_s/m$$

These measurements from the SensorEvent is in the x-,y- and z-axes like in figure 4.1 and collected from event like x=a, y=b and z=c in listing 4.1. [3]

Gyroscope in Android

The data from the gyroscope sensor is collected from the TYPE_GYROSCOPE that measures the rotation in rad/s around the x-, y- and z-axis of figure 4.1. The direction of the rotation is positive counter-clockwise if looking from a positive location of the axes. The values from the measurements when the gyroscope is changed is given like rotation in x=a, y=b and z=c in listing 4.1. Additional output is values[3], values[4] and values[5] that is the estimated drift around the axis in also in rad/s.

Android also provide a TYPE_GYROSCOPE_UNCALIBRATED that is the same as TYPE_GYROSCOPE except that no drift has been compensated for. There is still factory calibration and temperature compensation applied. [3] This makes it possible to calculate the linear sensor bias (equation 3.2) without Androids own bias compensation that is not known what it is.

Magnetometer in Android

Measures the magnetic field in x-, y- and z-axis in micro-Tesla (μT), as for the other sensors is that output for values[0], values[1] and values[2] (list-

ing 4.1). Android also provides a uncalibrated version that not has any calibration for the hard iron calibration. The uncalibrated type in Android is TYPE_MAGNETIC_FIELD and as for the gyroscope it also comes with an bias estimation in x, y and z-axis for event-values values[3], values[4] and values[5].

Fingerprinting: Sensor fusion in Android

<http://www.codeproject.com/Articles/729759/Android-Sensor-Fusion-Tutor>

4.1.2 JavaScript

JavaScript has since the use of mobile devices adapted a lot of new features, which makes it possible to access a lot of hardware features in the devices. No permission is needed to access the gyroscope and accelerometer-data, thus the user do not have to know that the sensors are measured.

Accelerometer in JavaScript

To get measurements from the accelerometer an event listener called devicemotion is added. The output from measurements is the acceleration force in m/s^2 according to x-, y- and z-axes as in figure 4.1.

In JavaScript there are two types of acceleration, accelerationIncludingGravity and acceleration. The accelerationIncludingGravity is acceleration made by the device. In context to acceleration not depending on influence of gravity only by the acceleration made on the device. What this actually means is that if a device lies still with the screen facing upwards the acceleration output will be zero in x, y and z-axes but the accelerationIncludingGravity will be zero along x and y-axes, the z-axis will be equal to G. If you put the device in free fall with the screen facing upwards the acceleration is zero with accelerationIncludingGravity and x=0,y=0 and z=-G for the acceleration. [4]

The rotation rate of the device is also available from the devicemotion, that is the acceleration (m/s^2) around the axes as seen in figure 4.2.

The JavaScript for measurements of the accelerometer:

```
if(window.DeviceMotionEvent) {
  window.addEventListener('devicemotion', function(event) {
    x = event.acceleration.x;
    y = event.acceleration.y;
    z = event.acceleration.z;
    r = event.acceleration.rotationRate;
  });
}
```

Gyroscope in JavaScript

A listener is implemented in the same way as for the accelerometer, this listener is called `deviceorientation`. The output from this listener is made in degrees of rotation angle. JavaScript has named this rotations as the figure 4.2 below.

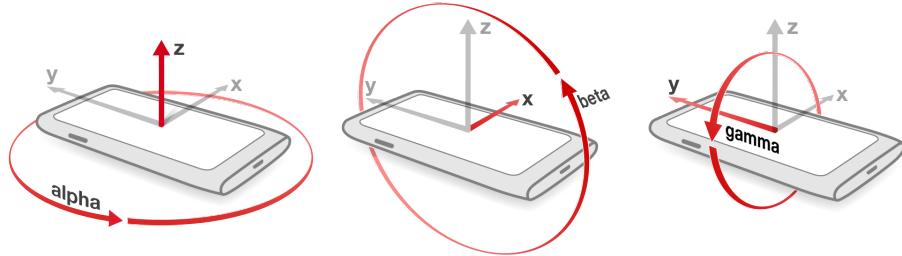


Figure 4.2: The device rotation axes for the JavaScript `DeviceOrientation`

Alpha is measured in the range of 0° to 360° around the z-axis, beta in the range of -180° to 180° around x-axis and gamma in the range of -90° to 90° around y-axis.

The JavaScript for measurements of the gyroscope:

```
if(window.DeviceOrientationEvent) {
    window.addEventListener('deviceorientation', function(event) {
        alpha = event.alpha;
        beta = event.beta;
        gamma = event.gamma;
    }, false);
}
```

[11]

4.2 Measurement I - Motion

The first measurement had the purpose to test the accelerometer with and without the impact of gravity. This with the purpose to see if any of them where a better choice in terms of characteristics uniqueness in the devices.

The data were collected by developing a JavaScript web-page that used the listeners described in section 4.1.2. The test where completely diverse in sense of device platform and only required a browser installed and Internet connection. This only require that the measured device has Internet connection and a browser installed, no additional installations and completely cross-platform.

The measurements required that the device where still on a flat surface, then

started by pressed a button. It gathered 1000 samples of accelerometer data that where saved as a CSV-file for further analyzing. It also collected gyroscope data as well for possible future analyzing purposes. The screen-shots below shows the web-page while measuring and the right one when finished and ready to send.

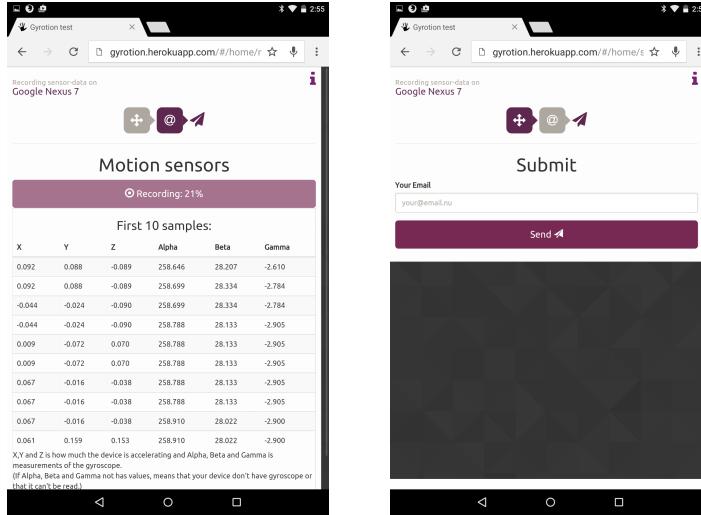


Figure 4.3: Screen-shots of web-page during accelerometer measurements in test I

4.3 Measurement II - Motion

The second measurements where also performed from a web-page using JavaScript to collect gyroscope and accelerometer data and a file-upload to collect measurements from the camera of the device. As of the result in last test there where a few changes made to improve the accuracy of the measurements and to collect sensor samples from the gyroscope and camera:

1. Adding time-stamp to every recording sample to know exactly recording frequency to enable further analyzing.
2. Time based recording on 30 seconds instead of taking 1000 samples as in the first test (section 4.2).
3. It's also sampling at a lower rate of at least 10 ms instead of as fast as it could before to reduce the effect of other processes that may are in use on the device.
4. Accelerometer listener used is only `accelerationIncludingGravity`, due to results described in section 5.2.
5. Added a listener for the gyroscope, section 4.1.2.

6. Collecting camera sensor by a five seconds black video, section 4.4.

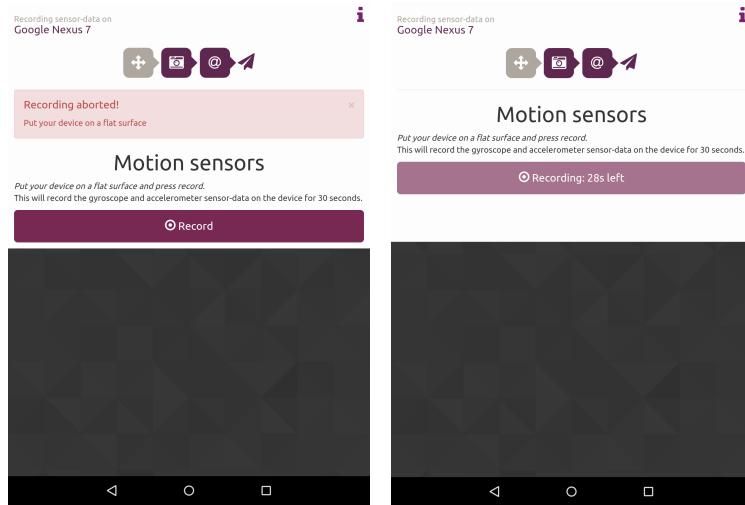


Figure 4.4: Motion sensor measurements II on a Google Nexus 7

4.4 Camera measurements

As most of the camera fingerprinting articles (REFERENSER!!) has mostly been in forensic purposes and not focusing on the measurability or integrity of the pictures. That is why some limitations has been made in these measurements. The black motive is used due to integrity, thus no information that could reveal the environment surrounding the camera is sent. Because of measurability (section 2.4.5)) limited number of pictures that can be taken in a enrollment phase of a device fingerprinting authentication system.

To measure the camera two measurements where gathered in both cases where the device on a flat surface which makes the camera result black. Both of this measurements is analyzed by the PRNU-method used by [15] described in section 5.4.

1. **Black video:** The recommended number of pictures for camera fingerprinting is 50 [15]. But that is not a convenient gathering purposes, thus to ask someone to take 50 black photos and send will not make many answers. Thats why the first test asked for recording a 5 seconds video-recording with the camera towards a flat surface. This video is then shuttered into picture frames, 5 seconds generate 100-200 pictures depending on the recording rate of fps (frames per second).
2. **10 black photos:** Simple as taking 10 photos, also with the camera pointing down on a flat surface. Since [15] where using pictures of diverse motive

this aims to investigate if there may be enough with 10 pictures when the motive is the same.

Screen-shots from the camera-page of the second measurements:

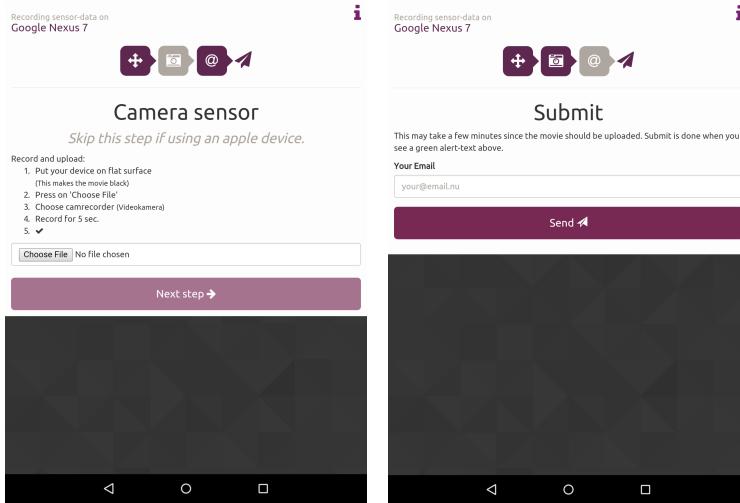


Figure 4.5: Sensor measurements on a Google Nexus 7

5

RESULT OF MEASUREMENTS

This chapter covers the results of the measurements described in chapter 4. The first two sections cover the measurements made on the accelerometer and gyroscope sensor. Third section cover the result of the two camera measurements.

5.1 Pre-measurements

To get a hint if accelerometer were a possible fingerprinting candidate some pre-measurements were preformed. This were in the early state of the development of the web-page used in measurements I and II. The measurement preformed on six different iPhones showed in figure 5.1 indicates that the accelerometer is a sensor that may be good in fingerprinting purposes.

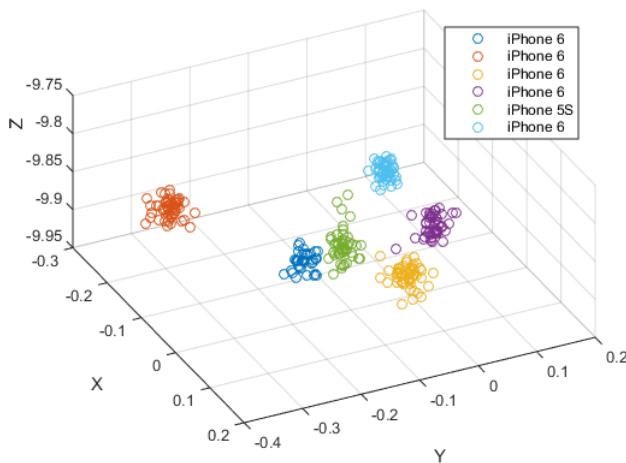


Figure 5.1: Scatter-plot on accelerometer recordings of 6 Apple devices

5.2 Result of measurements I - Motion

The data were gathered as described in section 4.2 from the web-page in figure 4.3 by spreading the the page. This resulted in over a hundred recordings, which had diversity in platforms, brands and models. Since the web-page where spread mostly to company employees the amount of devices with the same model is high as seen in figure 5.3. The purpose of this measurement where to identify if there where differences in terms of bias characteristics between the JavaScript's accelerationIncludingGravity and acceleration. The result of the measurements can be showed by making scatter-plots of the output acceleration of the devices. As shown in the figure 5.3 the *Sony Xperia* devices represents more than a fifth of the total devices in the measurement.

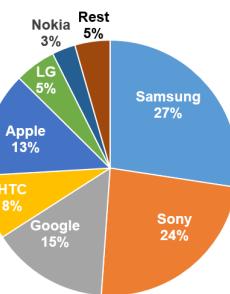


Figure 5.2: Diversity of device brand sampled in measurements I

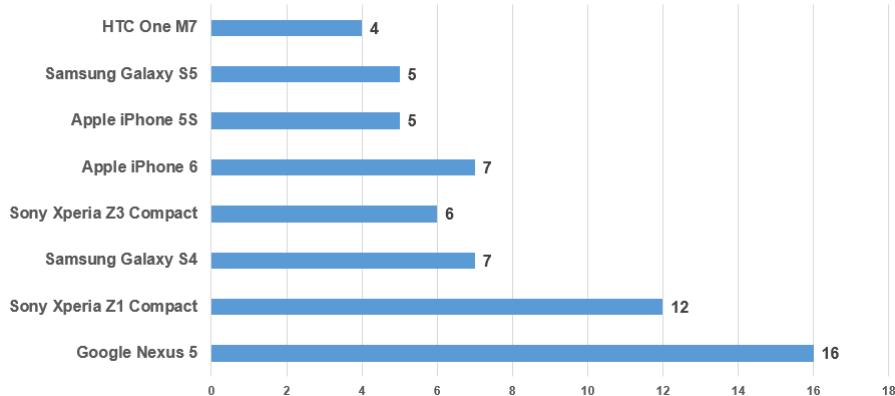


Figure 5.3: Most common devices models in measurements I

The result of scatter-plots of measurements of 12 Sony Xperia devices with and without gravity in accelerometer readings is shown in figure 5.4 and figure 5.5.

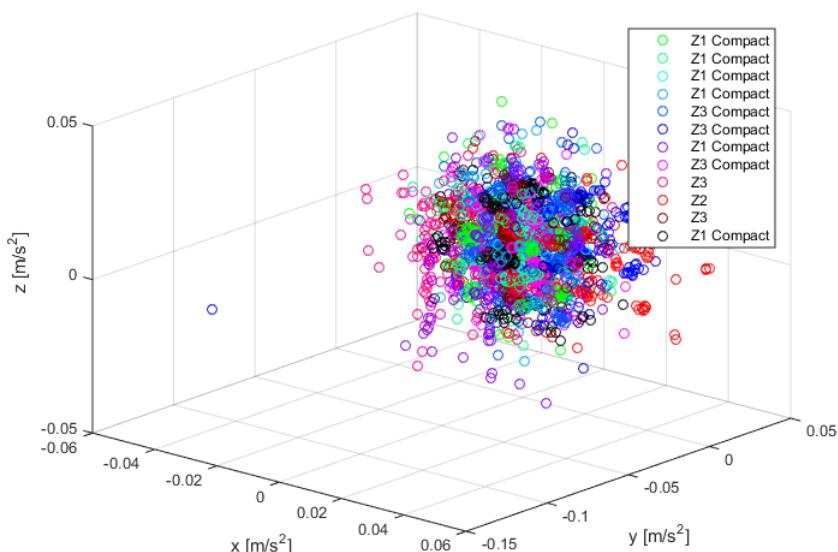


Figure 5.4: Bias from twelve Sony Xperia deives measured with JavaScripts's acceleration

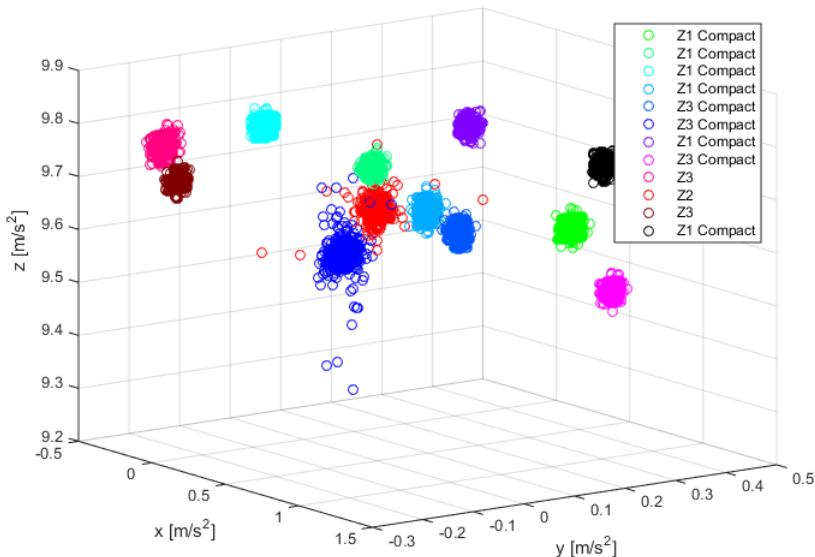


Figure 5.5: Bias from twelve Sony Xperia devices measured with JavaScript's accelerationIncludingGravity

As stated in [16] the sources of bias in an accelerometer has to be compensated for. The manufacturer of the mobile devices makes some of this compensation before JavaScript gets the data. The results of the figures above indicates that JavaScript also makes compensating to the output of the event acceleration, probably to ease the development of software using the accelerometer, e.g. games. This however is not anything that is public in any specifications such [4] or [20]. The Android developer page about sensor event [3] state that they make factory calibration and temperature compensation even on their uncalibrated sensor events of (only magnetometer and gyroscope) that is relatively new feature added in Android 4.3 Jelly Bean (API level 18 [17]) from 2013 but the original once used since Android 1.5 Cupcake (API level 3 [12]) from 2009 makes some more noise compensation and calibration. What kind of compensation and calibration done is not public.

5.3 Doing! Result of measurements II - Motion

The result here is an analyses of the gyroscope and accelerometer data collected from 60 devices by an improved version of the JavaScript web-page used in measurements I. The changes that were made is described in section 4.3 to improve that analyze data.

The diversity of the devices brands in the measurement is shown in the figure 5.6 below.

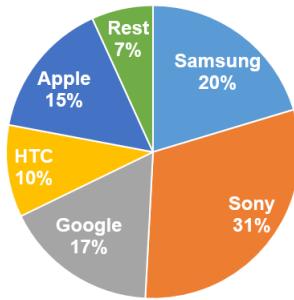


Figure 5.6: Diversity of device brand sampled in measurements II

5.3.1 Permanence of accelerometer

When choosing biometric trait one of the factors is permanence described in section 2.4.5, that is the trait not changing significantly over time. To test this measurement II were performed on a *Sony Xperia Z1 Compact* over a period of 50 days. The choice of device was based on that *Sony Xperia* devices is 30% of the devices that data is collected from. The same test were also made on a *Google Nexus 7* tablet. The graphs below shows the difference of accelerometer readings over time.

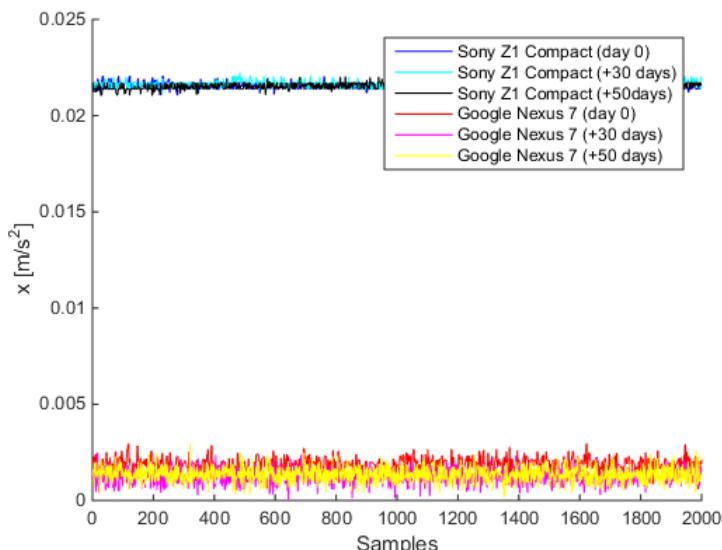


Figure 5.7: Accelerometer readings of x-axes on a *Sony Xperia Z1 Compact* and a *Google Nexus 7* over 50 days

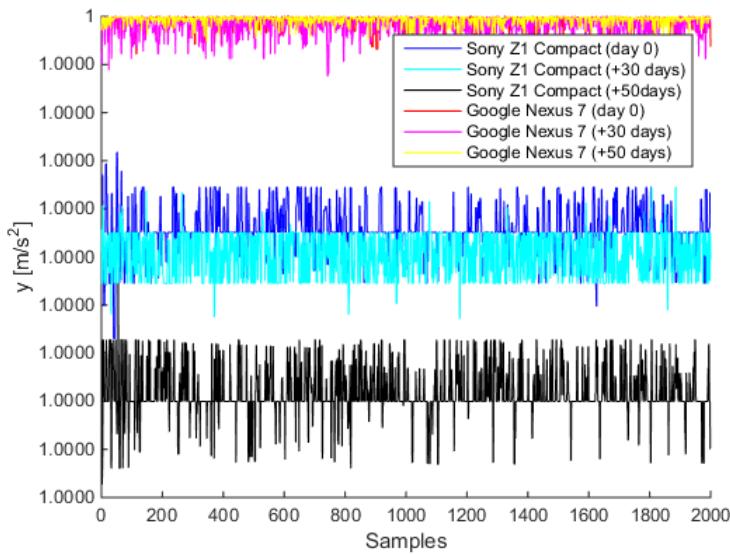


Figure 5.8: Accelerometer readings of y-axes on a Sony Xperia Z1 Compact and a Google Nexus 7 over 50 days

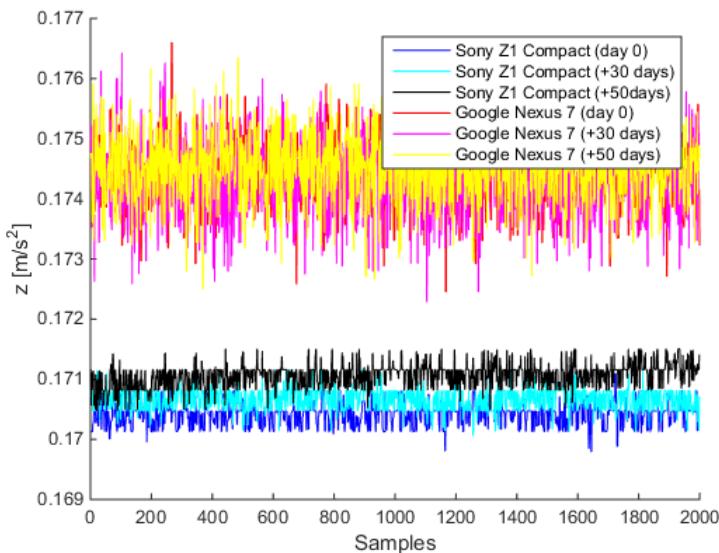


Figure 5.9: Accelerometer readings of z-axes on a Sony Xperia Z1 Compact and a Google Nexus 7 over 50 days

As seen in the figures the Google Nexus 7 hasn't changed much over the 50

days compared to the *Sony Xperia Z1 Compact* that especially has changed in the y-axis. The reason for the difference of accelerometer change over time may be due to the *Google Nexus 7* has only been in the same place during those 50 days and only used when the tests performed. Unlike Mobile used daily, may be dropped at some time. An additional fact about the measurements is that both devices has changed its OS between measurements 2 and 3. The *Google Nexus 7* from Android KitKat 4.4.4 to Lollipop 5.1.1 and the *Sony Xperia Z1 Compact* from Android KitKat 4.4.4 to CyanogenMod 12.1 (Android version 5.1.1).

To get an perspective on this measurements among more devices the scatter-plot in figure 5.10 that include the same measurements from *Sony Xperia Z1 Compact* as in figure 5.7, figure 5.8 and figure 5.9.

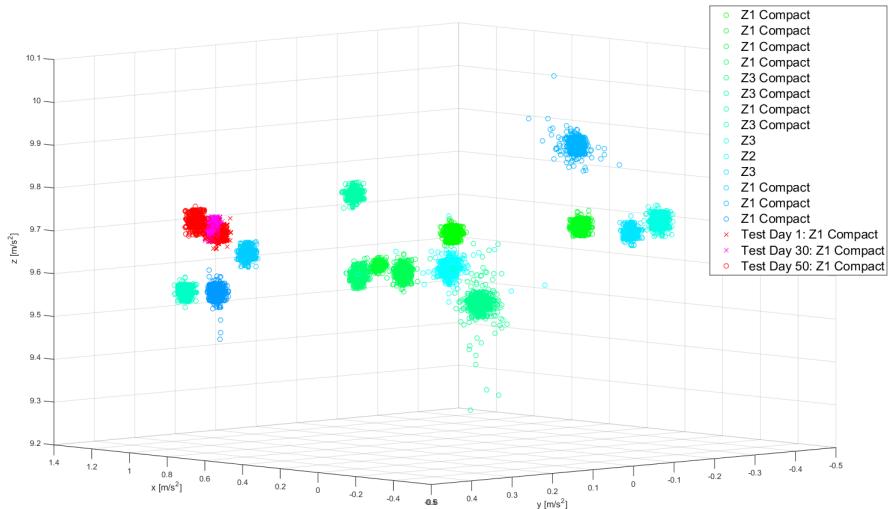


Figure 5.10: Scatter-plot of accelerometer readings *Sony Xperia*-device, one of them with measurements performed on the same device with 50 days apart.

5.3.2 Features of accelerometer data

As in [10] I used statistical features calculated by the time domain. The features used and calculated as followed:

Feature Name	Description
Mean	$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x(i)$
Std-Dev	$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x(i) - \bar{x})^2}$
Average Deviation	$D_{\bar{x}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x(i) - \bar{x} $
Skewness	$\gamma = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{(x(i) - \bar{x})}{\sigma} \right)^3$
Kurtosis	$\beta = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{(x(i) - \bar{x})}{\sigma} \right)^4 - 3$
RMS Amplitude	$A = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (x(i))^2}$
Lowest Value	$L = (\text{Min}(x(i)) _{i=1 \text{ to } N})$
Highest Value	$H = (\text{Max}(x(i)) _{i=1 \text{ to } N})$

Figure 5.11: Calculations of statistical accelerometer features.
From [10, p.6]

To compare these features and get a picture of if any of them are good for fingerprinting plots of devices were made. These can be found in appendix A. The chosen devices for the plots is the twelve *Sony Xperia Z*-devices including the *Sony Xperia Z1 Compact* that have measurements over 50 days. It becomes clear in the plots that almost all av the features is not changing over time. The only values that changing is the RMS and that the value would change was known even before because as seen in figure 5.10 samples is changing over time, which is directly linked to the RMS.

Feature	Day 0	Day 30	Day 50	Median dist.
Mean	0			%
Std. dev.	0	30	50	%
Avg. dev	0	30	50	%
Skewness	0	30	50	%
Kurtosis	0	30	50	%
RMS	0	30	50	%
Min	0	30	50	%
Max	0	30	50	%

Table 5.1: Values of features of *Sony Xperia Z1 Compact* over 50 days together with the median distance between points of all measured devices.

5.3.3 Gyroscope

Lägg till ngn plot och visa hr ostabilt gyroskopet är mellan

5.3.4 Simulate authentication of motion sensors in MATLAB

To test that the features above is way of fingerprinting devices a simulation were performed in MATLAB. The concept is that a fingerprint of all devices is calculated. It contains all the features described in section 5.3.2. When a new measurement is sent in to the simulation, features are calculated and compared to the once already known devices. The comparing is done by an algorithm that calculates the minimum distance between the features of the input device and the one already known. The distance is then used to decide if there is a match or not. As in biometric system there is a reashhold that decides how far from the values an input can be and sill be a match. This treashold creates a rate of match error in the system called FRR and FAR (see section 2.4.4).

5.4 ToUpdate! Result Camera-measurements

===== OBS!! =====

Flyttad text som måste skrivas om.

For the test of the camera sensor the PRNU value is calculated as an approximation of the algorithm described in section 3.4 and also used by [15]. That is the average of multiple pictures used and substantially an approximation of f . The first step is to remove the pictures-content which leaves the noise, which is done using a denoising filter. For the test the MATLAB medfilt2 is used, which is an 2-D median filtering that outputs the median value of each pixel by its 3-by-3 neighbors.

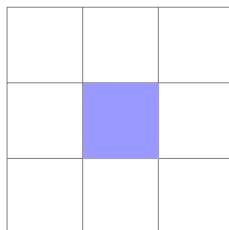


Figure 5.12: the MATLAB `medfilt2` outputs the median of each pixel by it's 3-by-3 neighbors

From the `medfilt2` we gain a picture without noise which is then subtracted from the original to get the noise. This technique works best if there are no features on the pictures such auto-fix, black and white etc. The more images used for the average value the better noise is, thus the amount random noise is less and the fixed noise is more. [15] recommend a minimum of 50 images. This is then seen as the reference pattern used for correlating the noise from another pictures. This correlation is calculated like:

$$\text{corr}(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{r}) = \frac{(\mathbf{n} - \bar{\mathbf{n}})(\mathbf{r} - \bar{\mathbf{r}})}{\|\mathbf{n} - \bar{\mathbf{n}}\| \|\mathbf{r} - \bar{\mathbf{r}}\|}$$

A threshold for acceptance on correlation is found by experimental on images taken with or without the camera. Then there is a balance between FAR and FRR. In section 4.4 i described two test preformed on the camera sensor of mobile devices.

5.4.1 ToDo! Result of camera measurement I

Since the purpose of this thesis compared to earlier work REFERENSER!! has the purpose of authentication and not forensics, is convenience for the collecting and measurability a factor to take in account. That is why the fist experiment is asked the users to record a 5 seconds video-clip with the device camera facing down on a flat object, like a table. Instead of making the user take 50 pictures or more which takes a lot of more time. This also makes it easier to get better noise since the same scene is used every time.

The video is then shuttled into images (100-200 from a 5 seconds video depending on fps on recording camera) that is used for calculating the PRNU. The MATLAB code for this is:

```
% Make images from video frames
shuttleVideo = VideoReader(filename);
i = 1;
while hasFrame(shuttleVideo)
    img = readFrame(shuttleVideo);
    fn = [sprintf([filename '_%03d'],i) '.jpg'];
    imwrite(img,fn); % Write to a JPEG file
    i = i+1;
end

% Calculate PRNU from images
imagefiles = dir([filename '*.jpg']);
for ii=1:nbr_of_images
    currentfilename = imagefiles(ii).name;
    currentimage = imread(currentfilename);
    img = im2double(currentimage);
    filtImg = medfilt2(img);
    noise = noise + ( img - filtImg ); % add noise from current
    image
end

prnu = noise / nbr_of_images; % get average noise

% width and heigt is saved for comparing correlation with images
% of different size
save(filename, 'prnu');
```

To compare an pictures between all collected PRNU the same calculation to get the noise is done. Then the noise from the reference pictures is compared to all collected PRNU and correlation is calculated like the formula above in MATLAB:

```
load(prnu_mat);
% Make it a flat vector instead than a matrix
prnu_vector = reshape( prnu, 1, numel( prnu ) );
% Calculate the mean PRNU value
p = prnu_vector - mean( prnu_vector );

ref_img = im2double( imread (imgname) );
noise = ref_img - medfilt2( ref_img ); % get noise by remove
denosied image scene
img_vector = reshape( noise, 1, numel( ref_img ) ); % reshaping to
get same length as prnu
i = img_vector - mean(img_vector);

% calculate correlation between PRNU and reference image
correlation = ( i * ( p' ) ) / ( sqrt( i * i' ) * sqrt( p * p' ) )
);
```

5.4.2 ToDo! Result of camera measurement II

Since the earlier test leaved out some of the PRNU noise when recorded a video instead of taking a picture the new test consist of 10 images from every device. The recommendation from [15] to use at least 50 images is here compensated by again using black images (picture taking with device camera facing down). Since the scene is always the same the noise removal will be better in fewer images. The same code is used as above with the different that the video to image step is removed. The sizes of the images in this case is better since the camera on the mobile devices by default uses higher resolution when taking a picture then when recording.

6

TODO! IMPLEMENTATION

Om det blir ngn demo ska den in här.

6.1 User Manual

6.2 Choices

Lite om vilka sensorer jag valde hur jag valzzde dom och varför.

6.3 Authentication

Vad jag valde för protokol o lite sånt

6.4 Implementation

Visa själva demon.

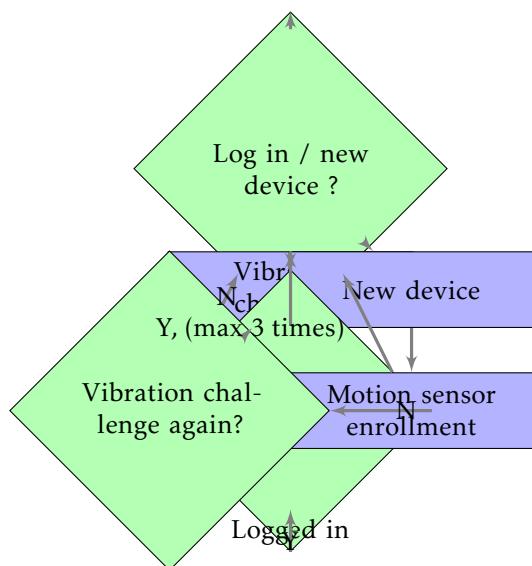


Figure 6.1: The design cycle of a biometric system

7

ToDo! CONCLUSIONS

Finns det något i resultaten som står ut och behöver analyseras och kommenteras? Hur förhåller sig resultaten till det material som togs upp i teorigenomgången? Vad säger teorin om vad resultaten egentligen betyder? Vad innebär det till exempel att man vid en användbarhetsmätning av ett nytt system fått ett visst värde; hur bra eller dåligt är det? Finns det något i resultaten som är oväntat baserat på teorigenomgången, eller stämmer det bra överens med vad man teoretiskt kunde förvänta sig?

7.1 Ethical aspects

TODO!

7.2 Conclusions of measurements method

Här ska den använda metoden diskuteras och kritiseras. Att ha ett kritiskt förhållningssätt till använd metod är en viktig del av vetenskaplighet. En studie är sällan perfekt. Det finns nästan alltid saker man skulle vilja gjort annorlunda om man kunnat göra om studien eller haft extra resurser. Gå igenom de viktigaste bristerna du ser med din metod och diskutera tänkbara konsekvenser för resultaten. Koppla tillbaka till den metodteori som togs upp i teorikapitlet. Referera explicit till relevanta källor. Diskussionen ska också visa en medvetenhet om metodologiska begrepp såsom replikerbarhet, reliabilitet och validitet. Replikerbarhet har redan tagits upp i stycket om metod. Reliabilitet är ett begrepp för huruvida man kan förvänta sig att få samma resultat om man gör om en studie med samma metod. En studie med hög reliabilitet har en hög sannolikhet av att kunna upprepas med samma resultat. Validitet handlar lite förenklat om huru-

vida man i en mätning mätt det man tror sig mäta. En studie med hög validitet har alltså en hög grad av trovärdighet. Dessa termer måste mappas över till det aktuella sammanhanget och diskuteras. Metoddiskussionen ska också innehålla ett stycke om källkritik. Här diskutas författarnas förhållningssätt till källor och vilka avvägningar som gjorts.

I vissa sammanhang kan det vara så att den mest relevanta informationen för studien inte finns i vetenskaplig litteratur utan hos enskilda programutvecklare och i open-sourceprojekt. Det måste då tydliggöras att ansträngningar gjorts för att ta del av denna information, till exempel via direktkontakter med utvecklare och diskussioner på forum, osv. Likaså måste ansträngningar ha gjorts för att faktiskt visa avsnittet av relevant vetenskaplig litteratur. Exakt hur dessa ansträngningar gjorts redovisas lämpligen i ett metodstygke. Källkritikstygket i diskussionskapitlet ska kritiskt granska denna metod.

7.2.1 Motion sensors

Scalability.

Influence of the version of Operating Systems

7.2.2 Camera sensor

7.3 Conclusions of result

I detta kapitel ska en återkoppling till syfte och frågeställningar ske. Har syftet uppnåtts och vad blev svaret på frågeställningarna? Här ska också arbetets konsekvenser för berörd målgrupp och eventuellt för forskare och praktiker beskrivas. Man bör också ha ett stycke om framtida arbete där man beskriver vad man skulle vilja göra om man hade mer tid eller som rekommendationer för framtida studier eller exjobb. Under arbetets gång har du säkert fått flera egna idéer om förbättringar. Det är viktigt att du tar fram sådana synpunkter. Om man har ett sådant stycke är det dock viktigt att det är konkreta och väl genomtänkta förslag som presenteras, snarare än vaga idéer.

7.3.1 Accelerometer

As you also can see in the figure 5.1 is that the iOS has an inverse z-axis compared to the Android devices in figure 5.5. This makes this is a good feature in authentication purposes since ...

Time/permanence koppla med [10] om att OS inte påverkar.

7.3.2 Gyroscope**7.3.3 Camera****7.3.4 Implementation****7.4 Further work**

Det ska ingå ett stycke med en diskussion om etiska och samhälleliga aspekter relaterade till arbetet. Detta är viktigt för att påvisa professionell mognad samt för att utbildningsmålen ska kunna uppnås. Om arbetet av någon anledning helt saknar koppling till etiska eller samhälleliga aspekter ska detta explicit anges i stycket Avgränsningar i inledningskapitlet. I diskussionskapitlet ska man explicit referera till källor som är relevanta för diskussionen.

Appendix

A

Motion measurements II: Feature plots

In the result of motion measurements II (section 5.3, plots were scattered to analyze which features that are most suitable for device fingerprinting. This appendix includes these plots that are used in section 5.3 and discussed in section 7.3.1.

A.1 Scatter-plot of mean values

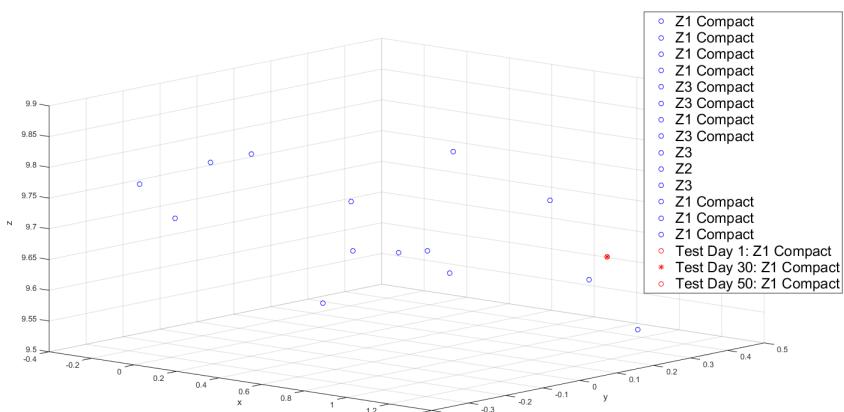


Figure A.1: Scatter-plot of mean values of 12 Sony Xperia Z-devices including one device with readings over a period of 50 days

A.2 Scatter-plot of standard deviation values

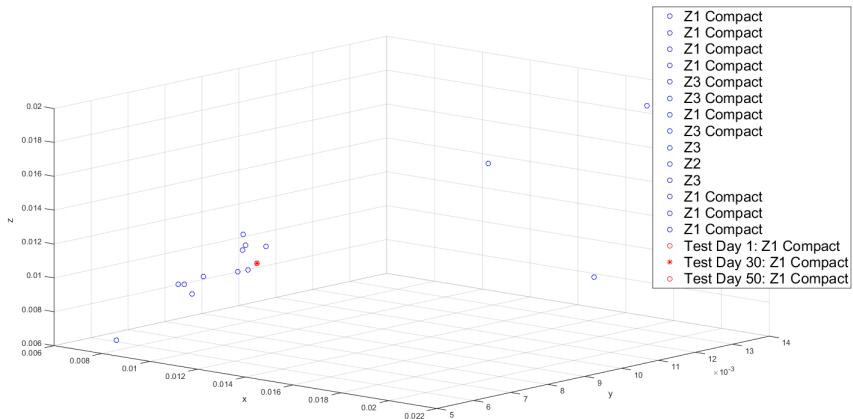


Figure A.2: Scatter-plot of standard deviation values of 12 Sony Xperia Z-devices including one device with readings over a period of 50 days

A.3 Scatter-plot of average deviation values

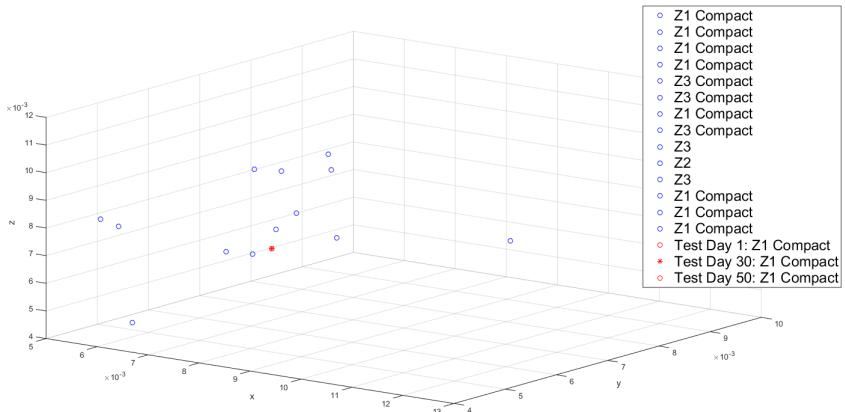


Figure A.3: Scatter-plot of average deviation values of 12 Sony Xperia Z-devices including one device with readings over a period of 50 days

A.4 Scatter-plot of skewness values

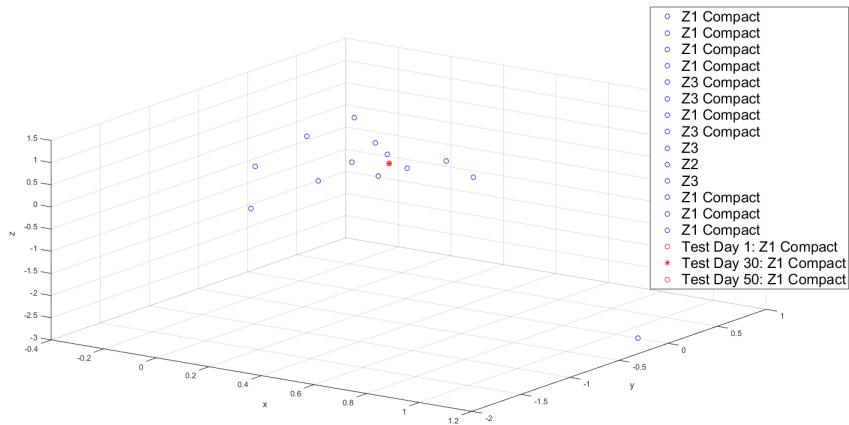


Figure A.4: Scatter-plot of skewness value of 12 Sony Xperia Z-devices including one device with readings over a period of 50 days

A.5 Scatter-plot of kurtosis values

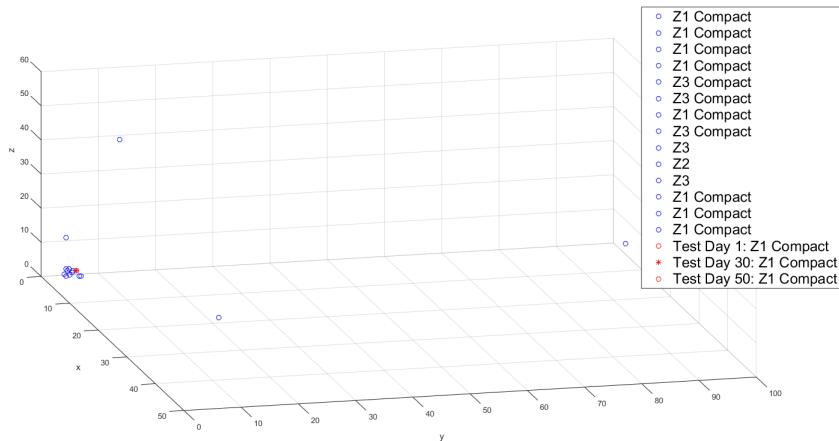


Figure A.5: Scatter-plot of kurtosis values of 12 Sony Xperia Z-devices including one device with readings over a period of 50 days

A.6 Scatter-plot of RMS values

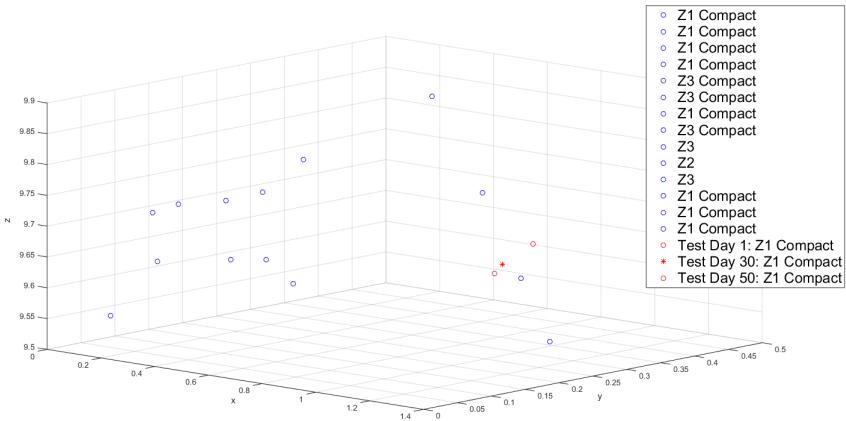


Figure A.6: Scatter-plot of RMS values of 12 Sony Xperia Z-devices including one device with readings over a period of 50 days

A.7 Scatter-plot of min values

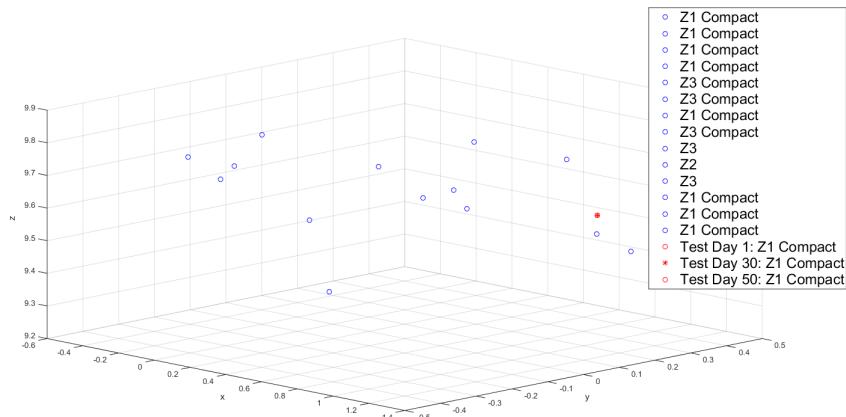


Figure A.7: Scatter-plot of min values of 12 Sony Xperia Z-devices including one device with readings over a period of 50 days

A.8 Scatter-plot of max values

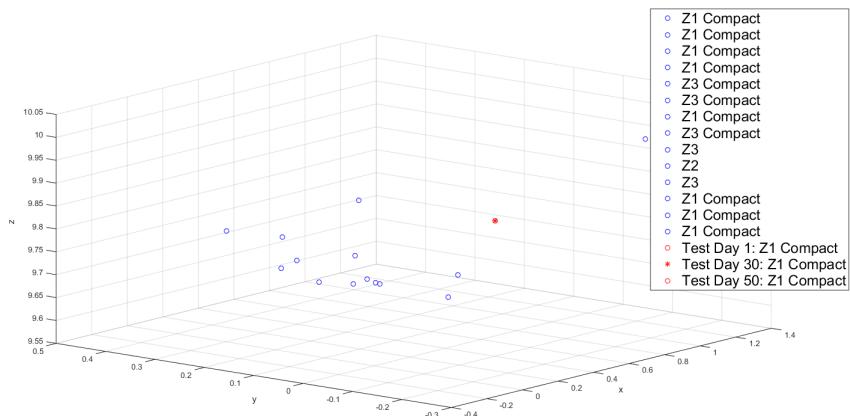


Figure A.8: Scatter-plot of max value of 12 Sony Xperia Z-devices including one device with readings over a period of 50 days

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