

# Antispoofing in face biometrics: a comprehensive study on software-based techniques

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## ABSTRACT

The vulnerability of the face recognition system to spoofing attacks has piqued the biometric community's interest, motivating them to develop anti-spoofing techniques to secure it. Photo, video, or mask attacks can compromise face biometric systems (types of presentation attacks). Spoofing attacks are detected using liveness detection techniques, which determine whether the facial image presented at a biometric system is a live face or a fake version of it. We discuss the classification of face anti-spoofing techniques in this paper. Anti-spoofing techniques are divided into two categories: hardware and software methods. Hardware-based techniques are summarized briefly. A comprehensive study on software-based countermeasures for presentation attacks is discussed, which are further divided into static and dynamic methods. We cited a few publicly available presentation attack datasets and calculated a few metrics to demonstrate the value of anti-spoofing techniques.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Biometric recognition systems for identifying people have grown tremendously in large scale for population census, controlling workspace access, applying access control to sensitive information, in forensics to identify criminals, while performing online transactions, law enforcement applications, and so on, for either user identification or verification. Biometric recognition is an automated process to authenticate and/or identify any individual using his or her physiological or behavioral traits. Examples of physiological characteristics are fingerprints, palmprints, iris, face, and deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), and a few examples of behavioral characteristics are gait, voice, handwritten signatures, and key strokes. Biometric identification has various merits compared to the traditional identification system, which uses a smart card and password, as biometrics is a person's key that can never be lost or forgotten. Biometrics is always attached to the user, and it is not easy to share or forge [1].

As we know now, biometrics utilize a user's unique biological trait for identity verification. This type of authentication falls under possession-based authentication, which relies on a secret that only you have. The other type relies on a secret that only you know, called knowledge-based authentication. Such a biometric authentication system is vulnerable to spoofing attacks, where a fraudster makes an effort to compromise it. The type of spoofing attacks will change based on the different types of biometric modality, whether the biometric technique uses an iris, a fingerprint, a face, a keystroke, or a voice. Few traits cannot

be easily compared to others. And hence, there is a requirement for specifically designed algorithms to identify the spoofs.

Each biometric has its own merits and flaws. For example, a fingerprint is most commonly used for commercial purposes to provide evidence of his or her presence; however, providing the fingerprint impression requires strong user cooperation. Iris is extremely precise, but it is dependent on image quality and requires users to actively participate in the scanning process. Face recognition is favorable in terms of availability and reliability. In this biometric system, a biometric user's face can be captured without their knowledge or consent, meaning they need not cooperate and recognition can be done from longer distances [2].

Fraudsters take advantage of the vulnerabilities of a secure biometric system. In a spoofing attack, an individual attempts to masquerade as another person to get through a secured biometric recognition system. So, there is a significant requirement for anti-spoofing techniques to secure the biometric recognition systems. We need preventive measures to defend against unauthorized replicas of biometric traits.

Amongst all the biometric systems that are put up for commercial purposes, face biometrics play a pivotal role since they are widely used in national border control, physical or logical access control, forensics, e-commerce, surveillance, and e-governance domains. In a science fiction film, a young man disguised himself as an elderly person to board a plane to Canada, using a silicon mask on his face to fool border control agents [3]. since facial images can be captured in a non-intrusive manner using low-cost sensors [4]. Hence, spoofing as an authorized individual using their information is the biggest threat to biometric systems. Ramachandra and Busch [4] reports a black hat test that reveals the spoofing process in face recognition in laptops from various vendors. These cases demonstrate the loopholes of a real-time face recognition system. The attackers are highly motivated, as they can easily deceive the system by cost-effectively creating the face artifacts. Various video tutorials are now available on the web that provide information on how to create face artifacts [5]. And hence spoofing (including anti-spoofing) is the most urgent problem for researchers to address in the face recognition domain.

## 2. VULNERABILITIES OF FACE BIOMETRIC SYSTEM

Face recognition in the biometric system consists of two stages: enrollment and authentication. During enrollment, an unknown user's biometric information is recorded and saved as a template in the database of the recognition system. Generally, a biometric recognition system can be utilized for either verification or identification purposes. A biometric verification system does a one-to-one comparison to verify the user's identity. A biometric identification system identifies a user by comparing his biometric template with that of all the other users stored in a database. So biometric identification does a one-to-many comparison to identify a user from among many users who have enrolled their templates [6].

The basic architecture of the face recognition system consists of a sensor module that captures the face image, a feature extraction module that extracts facial features, and a matcher module that matches the input face with already stored templates for authentication. Ramachandra and Busch [4], Ratha *et al.* [7] have identified eight loopholes in a generic biometric system, which are depicted in Figure 1.

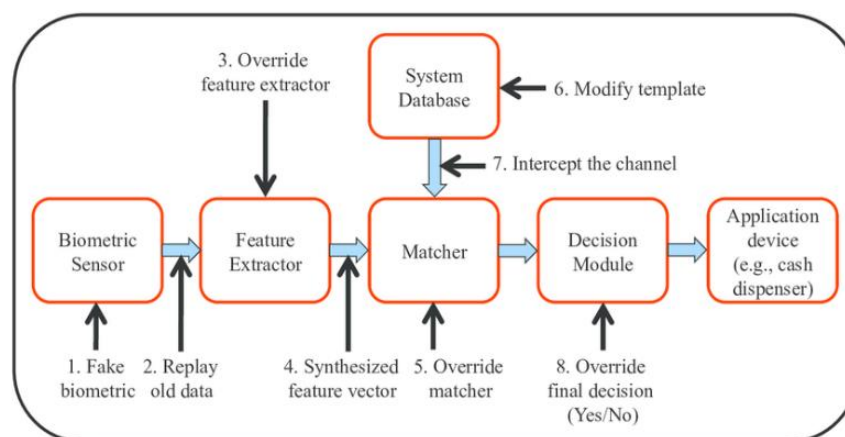


Figure 1. Vulnerabilities of biometric recognition systems

These vulnerabilities are categorized into four groups according to Jain *et al.* [8]:

- a. User interface attack: while the sensor is capturing the biometric information attacker presents fake properties such as photos, videos, and masks.
- b. Channel attack: the channels between the modules are intruded by replaying the old data, artificially synthesizing a feature vector, intercepting the channels or overriding the final decision.
- c. Module attacks: modules are attacked by overriding the feature extractor and the matcher modules, their behavior can be modified.
- d. Template database attacks: fraudster modifies a valid user's template in the database by replacing it with his biometrics.

### 3. FACE SPOOFING METHOD

Spoofing is an attempt to intrude into the normal workings of the biometric system by introducing artificial replicas of biometric traits in an unauthorized manner. A fraudster performs spoofing attacks to mimic a valid individual to bring down an entire biometric recognition system. To deceive a facial biometric system, they use the following spoofing methods: i) **Images and masks**: a fake user produces an authorized user's photograph or wears a mask created using prosthetics to imitate an individual; ii) **Identity manipulation**: the facial image stored by the biometric system is manipulated to match the facial characteristics of an unauthorized user using face morphing software, also biometric technological systems can be tricked either by changing the stored image or by using special makeup; and iii) **Identical twins**: Identical twins can act as spoofs for each other. The methods are used to attack the face recognition system by a fraudster. The face spoof attacks can be classified as given Figure 2 [9].

- a. **Printed flat photo attack**: the commonest attack is the usage of flat printed photos against the recognition system without the permission of the original user (Refer to Figure 2(b)).
- b. **Cut photo attack**: eyes in the printed copy of the photo is cut off to display blink behavior to get over with the challenge-response antispoofing technique (IDLIVE Face) (Refer to Figure 2(c)).
- c. **Warped photo attack**: printed photo is bent in a certain way to simulate the facial movements (Refer to Figure 2(d)).
- d. **Video replay attack**: a video is played before the sensor device of a face recognition system using a laptop or a mobile device. In this type of attack, some of the movements like the blinking of eyes, facial expressions, head movements can be performed using phones, tablets or laptops (Refer to Figure 2(e)).
- e. **Mask attack**: two types of masks are used by any impostor, they are wearable masks and paper cut masks. It is the most difficult type of attack. Mask manufacturing is expensive and it requires three-dimensional (3D) scanning and printing devices too (Refer to Figures 2(f) and (g)).

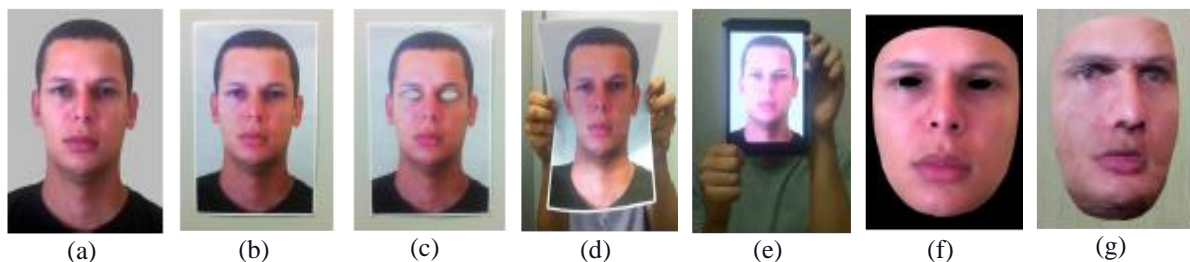


Figure 2. Types of presentation attacks (a) valid user, (b) printed flat photo, (c) eye cut photo, (d) warped photo, (e) video playback, (f) synthetic mask, and (g) paper cut mask [9]

### 4. FACE SPOOF DETECTION

Face spoof detection, liveness detection of a face, countermeasures against facial spoof attacks and face anti-spoofing are used interchangeably to refer to the methods to identify a fraudster trying to gain access into facial recognition systems by posing him/herself as a genuine user. Liveness detection in a spoofing problem marks the contrast between fake and real faces and hence it is a face recognition problem. The difference is that the face recognition techniques try to look for a face that increases interpersonal variations (differences between two persons) but anti-spoofing techniques strive for a face representation that reduces interpersonal variations thereby increasing intrapersonal variations due to changes in illumination and poses [10].

**Liveness detection** can be defined as the ability of the biometric system to recognize a living, authorized individual. Here biometric authentication involves verifying that the user who has initially enrolled, is the same person who is appearing for authentication, not a 2D photograph, or digital version of the face [11]. This can be achieved through algorithms that examine the input data collected from biometric sensors.

Liveness detection can be categorized as active and passive: **Active method** asks the person to perform an action that cannot be easily reproduced. That is, asking the user to blink his/her eyes, and raise the eyebrows. These are also called as challenge-response techniques [12]. BioID offers a challenge-response technique to identify a spoof attempt. Here the BioID system challenges the user by giving some random commands, and the response is validated. **The passive method** applies techniques to detect a non-live image without user interference. For this purpose, the biometric data captured during the enrollment stage is used. IDLive [12] a passive facial liveness detection, happens at the backend, which recognizes the spoof attempt without requiring user interaction.

## 5. CLASSIFICATION OF FACE ANTI-SPOOFING METHODS

Antispoofing methods [13] are categorized into two main groups. They are designated as hardware and software based techniques [2]. These are the most deployed methods of anti-spoofing which are further grouped into various other methods as shown in Figure 3.

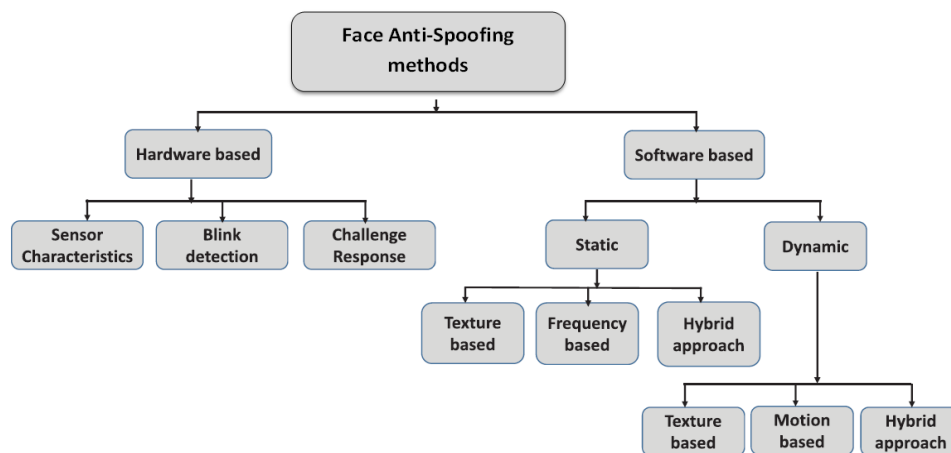


Figure 3. Classification of face anti-spoofing methods

## 6. HARDWARE-BASED TECHNIQUES

Hardware-based anti-spoofing techniques incorporate special hardware devices in the biometric system to detect fake access. In the literature, authors have used different types of hardware devices in their face biometric set up. These devices utilize different types of imaging technologies such as near-infrared (NIR) images [14], [15], 3D depth images [16], or complementary infrared (CIR). These are captured by comparing the reflectance information of real authenticated faces and the spoof equipments, using light emitting diode (LEDs) and photodiodes set-up at various wavelengths. Thermal imaging has been explored, by acquiring large datasets of thermal images of face using infrared cameras, for real as well as for the spoof attempts in liveness detection [17]. Erdogmus and Marcel [18] used depth information of 2D photographs to discover a 2D attack. Whereas Wang *et al.* [16] recovers a 3D facial information to determine the spoofing attacks using specialized depth cameras. Ng and Chia [19] made use of facial expressions that randomly changed the temporal information thereby verifying the liveness of users. [15] used a near-infrared band for disguise detection.

Subsidiary sophisticated hardware increases the overall cost of the system and also most of the mobile phone cameras and webcams available today are not compatible with it. So, this has motivated the anti-spoofing research fraternity to shift to software-based anti-spoofing techniques which are cheaper and they can be easily installed to the existing face biometric systems. Table 1 gives a brief insight into the hardware-based methods utilized by the researches for spoof detection through the years.

Table 1. Hardware based anti-spoofing techniques

| Contributors                | Method/Equipment                               |
|-----------------------------|--|
| Pavlidis and Symosek (2000) | Near infrared bands                            |
| Ng and Chia [19]            | Random temporal cues                           |
| Dhamecha <i>et al.</i> [17] | Thermal imaging using infrared cameras         |
| Ergdogmus and Marcel [18]   | 2D depth information                           |
| Wang <i>et al.</i> [16]     | 3Dfacial depth information using depth cameras |
| Z. Zhang <i>et al.</i> [14] | Multispectral reflectance distributions        |
| Albakri and Alghowinem [20] | 3D depth cameras                               |

## 7. SOFTWARE-BASED TECHNIQUES

Software-based anti-spoofing techniques make use of an algorithm that detects and categorizes the captured face into either a spoofed face, as a result of any spoofing attacks or a genuine face. These sorts of techniques incur lesser cost, easy to incorporate a piece of code running inside the face recognition system and exhibit higher accuracy. Major advantage is it does not require specialized and higher cost hardware equipment as in hardware-based anti-spoofing techniques and also doesn't user need not co-operate, it can work without the knowledge of the user accessing the face recognition system.

Software-based methods are further categorized into **static** and **dynamic** approaches. **Static approaches** execute on only spatial information without requiring temporal data. Here a single image is considered. If a video is presented and static approach is used then each frame of a video sequence is considered for further processing. A static approach incurs less cost but yields good performance. **Dynamic approaches** utilize spatio-temporal information of the video played before the face recognition system for access control. This approach tends to find the relative motion of the video frames that are run against the face sensor and hence it requires more time and effort compared to static approaches. **State-of-the-art static approaches** are grouped into 3 different groups based on the nature of the algorithms used. They are **texture based**, **frequency-based** and **hybrid approaches** (Refer to Table 2).

**Texture based approaches** analyze the microtextures of the facial image representation. This is the most popular approach in determining display and photo attacks because this delineates amongst the formation of pigments (formed while printing), specular reflection (due to quality variation) and a shade (arising due to display attack). Määttä *et al.* [21] first came up with a widely used texture-based approach based on local binary patterns (LBPs) and detected photo print attack. Edmunds [10] propose software-based protection methods based on the LBP descriptor to evaluate texture-based anti-spoofing techniques, by focusing on differences between natural and unnatural characteristics present in the face region. Here LBP operator embeds color and contrast information in texture characterization and they combine the images with HSI color model to form a HSI-LBP color texture descriptor which improves texture-based anti-spoofing techniques on Replay Attack for CASIA and MSU databases. Chingovska *et al.* [22] also used the same LBP descriptors to solve the replay video attack on the face recognition system. LBP captures the pigment information on the image which is formed out of printers and also LBP captures the change in reflectance due to the quality variation of the attack equipment.

**Frequency-based approaches** analyze and quantify the frequency component. Initial work was based on the fourier spectrum analysis to successfully detect a photo attack for face biometric carried out by Li *et al.* [23]. Liu *et al.* [24] also used fourier spectra to detect video replay attacks. There are different works carried out by researchers like [24] those used discrete cosine transforms, Zhang *et al.* [14] made use of difference of Gaussian (DoG) filters, and Peng and Chan [25] used components which are of high frequency.

**Hybrid approaches** combine more than one property or attribute associated with the spoofed image. Many researchers have tried out their hands in combining various attributes to achieve better recognition between fake and real faces, for example, Raghavendra and Busch [26] combined texture attribute with time-frequency information, Määttä *et al.* [21] fused texture and shape, Komulainen *et al.* [27] incorporated all the context information. Hasan *et al.* [28] fused modified DoG filtering and binary pattern variance to identify photo spoofing, by analyzing both texture LBP and contrast (variance) characteristics. Support vector machine (SVM) was used on the extracted feature vectors and they also prove that LBP-variants (LBPV) with SVM classifier method gives better results compared to SVM and LBP in presentation attack detection. Benlamoudi *et al.* [29] used the Viola-Jones face detection algorithm [30] and pictorial structure model [31] to detect the face and then localize the eye positions; then, the coordinates of the eyes are used to make right the posing of the face. In the multi block (MB) technique [32], face is divided into square blocks and a texture descriptor is applied on each block. Three popular texture descriptors, binarized statistical image features (BSIF), LBP, and local phase quantization (LPQ) are used in multiple levels, forming a multi-level feature descriptors (FD-ML) for feature extraction. ML representation is formed by combining multiple MBs [32]. Finally, Lib-SVM [33] was used to classify the feature vectors as valid or



invalid. Table 2 consolidates on software-based static countermeasures by quoting their methods adopted, types of attacks, datasets and performance metrics used.

Table 2. Software based static anti-spoofing methods

| Contributors                  | Types of static method   | method   | Attack type   | Database   | EER (%)             | HTER (%)                         |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|--|---|--|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| Edmunds [10]                  | Texture                  | HSI-LBP color texture descriptor   | Print, mobile and ipad                                  | Replay-Attack<br>Casia<br>MSU android<br>MSU laptop  | -<br>30<br>30<br>40 | 44.1<br>-<br>-<br>-              |
| Määttä <i>et al.</i> [21]     | Texture                  | LBP  | Photo attack  | NUAA<br>Photograph<br>Imposter<br>database   | 2.8                 | -                                |
| Chingovska <i>et al.</i> [22] | Texture                  | LBP  | Replay video attack                                     | Replay-attack  | -                   | 15                               |
| Li <i>et al.</i> [23]         | Frequency                | Fourier spectrum analysis  | Photo attack  | NUAA<br>Photograph<br>Imposter<br>database   | 4.71                | 1.5                              |
| Zhang <i>et al.</i> [14]      | Frequency                | DoG filters  | -   | -  | -                   | -                                |
| Liu <i>et al.</i> [24]        | Frequency                | Fourier spectrum analysis  | Replay video attack                                     | Replay-Attack  | -                   | -                                |
| Raghavendra and Busch [26]    | Texture                  | Local features-eye (periocular) and nose region, Global features - BSIF and SVM-classification         | 3D mask attacks   | 3DMAD  | -                   | 0.03                             |
| Hasan <i>et al.</i> [28]      | Texture                  | LBPV pattern representation and SVM  | Photo attack  | NUAA<br>Photograph<br>Imposter<br>database   | -                   | 0.39                             |
| Benlamoudi <i>et al.</i> [29] | Representation + texture | LBP, LPQ, BSIF-descriptors<br>Fisher core - sort the features in ascending order<br>SVM-classification | Warped photo attack<br>cut photo attack<br>Video attack | CASIA-FAS<br>MSU-MFS<br>Replay-Attack<br>database  | 17.46<br>14.9<br>-  | -<br>-<br>12.25                  |
| Li <i>et al.</i> [34]         | Spatio temporal          | 3D convolutional neural network (CNN)  |   | CASIA<br>MSU   | 1.4<br>0            | -<br>-                           |
| George and Marcel [35]        | Hybrid                   | Fully connected neural network-CNN   | Replay attack   | Replay mobile dataset  | -                   | 0                                |
| Sharifi [36]                  | Texture                  | Fuses CNN and OVLBP  | Print attacks<br>Video attacks                          | <u>OVLBP</u><br>Print Attack<br>Replay Attack<br><u>OVLBP+CNN</u><br>Print Attack<br>Replay Attack | -<br>-<br>-<br>-    | 14.35<br>15.75<br>10.40<br>11.00 |
| Chen <i>et al.</i> [37]       | Texture                  | Retinex based LBP and region based CNN ROI pooling   | Replay attacks  | Replay Attack  | 0.093               | 0.206                            |
| Pujol (2020) [32]             | Texture                  | Entropy based HOG-EBHOG  | Presentation attacks                                    | CASIA FASD<br>MIFS   | 9.5                 | -                                |

**State-of-the-art dynamic approaches** are of three kinds: **motion-based**, **texture based** and **hybrid schemes** (Refer to Table 3). **Motion-based approaches** employ a structure from facial movements, which in turn yield depth information for features of face. Kollreider *et al.* [38] has proposed a novel liveness awareness framework by estimating face motion for face authentication which utilizes lightweight optical flow and gives a liveness score. A generalized dynamic approach for spoof detection was proposed by Li *et al.* [39] by utilizing pulses extracted from videos, referring to the fact that only a live face can have pulses (motion) in it but not the printed photos or mask. Edmunds and Caplier [40] exploit conditional local neural fields track face's motions and bag-of-words feature extraction method extracts rigid and non-rigid motion features using the fisher vector.

**Texture based approaches** exploit the characteristic of face representations that discriminate a live face from fake ones. Research community started with relying on LBP patterns and its variants only to fuse different characteristics to form **hybrid schemes** which prove to be more efficient comparatively. Pereira *et al.* [41] extended regular LBP operator to VLB (volume local binary pattern) operator, the so-called spatiotemporal characteristics (dynamic texture), to detect the dynamics of face micro-textures. Liu *et al.* [42] has developed an remote photoplethysmography (rPPG) correlation model which extracts local heartbeat signal patterns that discriminate against a mask and a live face. A confidence map was drawn using signal strength that exploits the characteristics of rPPG distribution on real faces. Buolkenafet *et al.* [43] has considered facial appearance to detect the liveness. They extract features from color spaces and the fisher vector encoding method is applied to these features for liveness detection. They have tested on the following benchmark databases: Casia, Replay-attack, MSU-MFSD and claim that their method outperforms the best methods available.

Table 3. Software based dynamic anti-spoofing methods

| Contributor                             | Types of dynamic method | method   | Attack type                     | Database                                   | EER (%) | HTER (%) |
|---|-------------------------|--|---------------------------------|--|---------|----------|
| Kollreider <i>et al.</i> [38]           | Motion                  | Optical flow   | Playback attack                 | Replay Attack database and proprietary     | 0.5     | -        |
| T. de Freitas <i>et al.</i> [41]        | Motion                  | Spatio-temporal extension of LBP   | Print attacks and Video attacks | CASIA                                      | 10      | -        |
| Litong Feng <i>et al.</i> [44]          | Texture and motion      | Dense optical flow hierarchical neural network                             | Print attacks                   | Replay-Attack                              | 0       | 7.60     |
| Siqi Liu <i>et al.</i> [42]             | Heart beat signal       | Analyses heart beat signal through rPPG                                    | Video attacks                   | Replay Attack and 3D MAD                   | 5.83    | -        |
| Xiaobai Li <i>et al.</i> [39]           | motion                  | Pulse detection and color texture analysis                                 | Mask attack                     | CASIA FASD                                 | -       | -        |
| Z Boulkenafet <i>et al.</i> [43]        | Color spaces            | Fisher vector encoding on the extracted features of different color spaces | 3D mask attack                  | Public and self-contained datasets         | -       | -        |
| Junying Gan <i>et al.</i> [45]          | Video frames            | Pulse detection and color texture analysis                                 | Print attacks                   | 3DMAD and REALF masks                      | -       | -        |
| Yaojie Liu <i>et al.</i> [46]           | Depth and signals       | Fisher vector encoding on the extracted features of different color spaces | Video attacks                   | CASIA, Replay Attack, MSU-MFSD             | -       | -        |
| Taiamiti Edmunds and Alice Caplier [40] | Motion                  | 3D CNN   | Video attacks                   | Replay Attack                              | -       | 0.04     |
| Lei Li <i>et al.</i> [47]               | Texture                 | CNN-RNN model for face depth estimation and rPPG signals estimation        | Presentation attacks            | CASIA                                      | -       | 10.65    |
| Emna Fourati <i>et al.</i> [48]         | Motion                  | Conditional local neural fields face tracking                              | Presentation attacks            | Proprietary database                       | -       | -        |
| H. Chen <i>et al.</i> [37]              | Motion                  | Deep LBP   | print attacks and video attacks | CASIA FASD, Replay-Attack, MSU-MFSD, 3DMAD | -       | -        |
| Xin Cheng <i>et al.</i> [49]            | Texture and motion      | Image quality assessment   | Presentation attacks            | Replay-Attack                              | -       | 0.024    |
|   |                         | R-CNN and Improved retinex LBP   | Video attacks                   | Replay-Attack                              | 0.093   | 0.26     |
|   |                         | Dynamic and texture fusion attention network                               | Replay and video attacks        | CASIA-MFSD                                 | 6.9     | -        |
|   |                         |  |                                 | Replay Attack                              | -       | 2.2      |

Gan *et al.* [45] have exploited spatio-temporal features of video frames using 3D CNN which have scored half total error rate (HTER) (refer to **metrics for face anti-spoofing system evaluation** section) values of 0.04% and 10.65% for Replay Attack and CASIA databases respectively. Feng *et al.* [44] proposed a hierarchical neural network model for antispoofing by integrating image quality and motion cues and achieving 0% HTER and equal error rate (EER) for both Replay Attack and 3DMAD datasets. In the case of CASIA FASD, the framework has achieved an EER 5.83%. Other than these, Pan *et al.* [50] utilizes conditional random fields (CRF) that will be generated whenever an eye blink occurs in the face for liveness detection. CRF works on context-based phenomena of temporal data.

The earlier works carried out in the literature using static or dynamic approaches make use of handcrafted features like LBP, and scale invariant feature transform (SIFT), to discriminate between the real and fake faces. CNN started gaining popularity, during which it was first used by Yang *et al.* [51] for face anti-spoofing. The following are a few instances where CNN marked its presence assertively.

Nikitin *et al.* [52] fused two deep classifiers, first being used in identifying the presence of spoofing medium and the second classifier is used to analyze the blinking of eyes and checks eyes openness classification per frame. Muhammad *et al.* [53] incorporated a novel, sample learning-based recurrent neural network (SLRNN) anti-spoofing architecture which makes use of the following 3 models: CNN, sparse filtering and long short-term memory (LSTM). Sparse filtering was applied for augmenting the features using residual networks (ResNet). The augmented features formed a sequence and were fed into a LSTM network to construct the final representation. A 3D CNN framework was proposed by Li *et al.* [34] which takes both spatial and temporal information, using the data augmentation method and employs a generalization regularization thereby improving generalization performance. George and Marcel [35] proposes a dense fully connected neural network architecture, trained with pixel-wise binary supervision. Here a single CNN model which uses frame level information without requiring temporal data for detecting the presentation attack with deep pixel-wise supervision. It has achieved HTER of 0% in the Replay Mobile dataset and an ACER of 0.42% in Protocol-1 of OULU dataset. A CNN-RNN (recurrent neural network) combination model was employed by Liu *et al.* [46] for face depth estimation and rPPG signals estimation using pixel-wise and sequence-wise supervision respectively. And depth information and rPPG signals are fused. Li and Feng [47] used SVM to classify between real and fake by extracting handcrafted deep partial features from the convolutional responses. Two sets of feature information extracted out of the CNN model and OVLBP (overlapped histograms of local binary patterns) are fused by Sharifi [36] to form a score vector. A majority voting of CNN, OVLBP, and fused score helps in fake detection. Table 3 summarizes the Software based dynamic anti-spoofing techniques contributed by various researchers.

## 8. METRICS FOR FACE ANTI-SPOOFING SYSTEM EVALUATION

A spoof detection system can incur two types of errors [9]: i) number of false acceptance (NFA) -it gives the count of fraudsters accepted as authorized users (i.e.), and the probability of its occurrence is known as false acceptance rate (FAR); ii) number of false rejection (NFR) - this is the count of authorized users, who can be considered as fraudsters, and its probability of occurrence is called a false rejection rate (FRR) (Refer to Table 4 for the metrics). FAR and FRR are inversely proportional to each other. A receiver operating characteristics (ROC) curve is drawn by computing all possible pairs of FAR and FRR values, as illustrated in Figure 4.

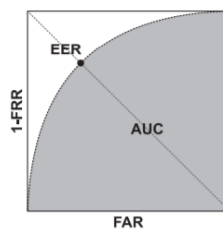


Figure 4. Relationship amongst the metrics on the ROC curve

The area under curve (AUC) metric is obtained by the integral of a ROC, the grey area in Figure 4. EER is the point of interference when FAR equals FRR on the ROC curve, and HTER is the point on the ROC curve where the average of FAR and FRR is minimum. Finally, for overall accuracy (ACC) both authorized users and fraudsters are considered. A variant of ROC called DET (decision error tradeoff) is also used in some cases for showing verification performances. The only difference between ROC and DET is that the primary difference is that the y-axis takes a false rejection rate instead of a true acceptance rate in the DET curve.

For the biometric authentication in Android smartphone, Google recognizes two types of attacks: “impostor” attacks and “spoof” attacks. A fraudster pretends to be an authorized user by disguising his or her features in an impostor attack, but in a spoof attack, a non-live representation of the authorized user such as a photograph or video is used to gain entry. Google sets a threshold of 7% accept rate or less for strong security during attack detection that is the percentage of times an attack is not detected [11]. This is analogous to a biometric “false accept rate”, which represents the likelihood that a person is incorrectly identified as a biometric match. Figure 5 shows the plot of error metrics plotted for different static methods. The X-axis is



plotted with the static method (one of texture, frequency, and hybrid) along with the type of attack to which this method is applied and Y-axis measures the EER and HTER values for each method if available.

Table 4. Metrics commonly applied on face spoofing evaluation

| Metric | Stand for             | Equation   | Type  |
|--------|-----------------------|--|-------|
| FAR    | False Acceptance Rate | $FAR = \frac{NFA}{\#Impostor}$   | Error |
| FRR    | False Rejection Rate  | $FRR = \frac{NFR}{\#Genuine}$  | Error |
| EER    | Equal Error Rate      | $EER = (FAR = FRR)$  | Error |
| HTER   | Half Total Error Rate | $HTER = \frac{FAR + FRR}{2}$   | Error |
| ACC    | Accuracy              | $100 \times \left( 1 - \frac{FAR \times \#Impostor + FRR \times \#Genuine}{\#Impostor + \#Impostor} \right)$ | Hit   |
| AUC    | Area Under Curve      | $Area = \int_a^b f(x) dx, \text{ where } f : [a, b] \rightarrow R$   | Hit   |

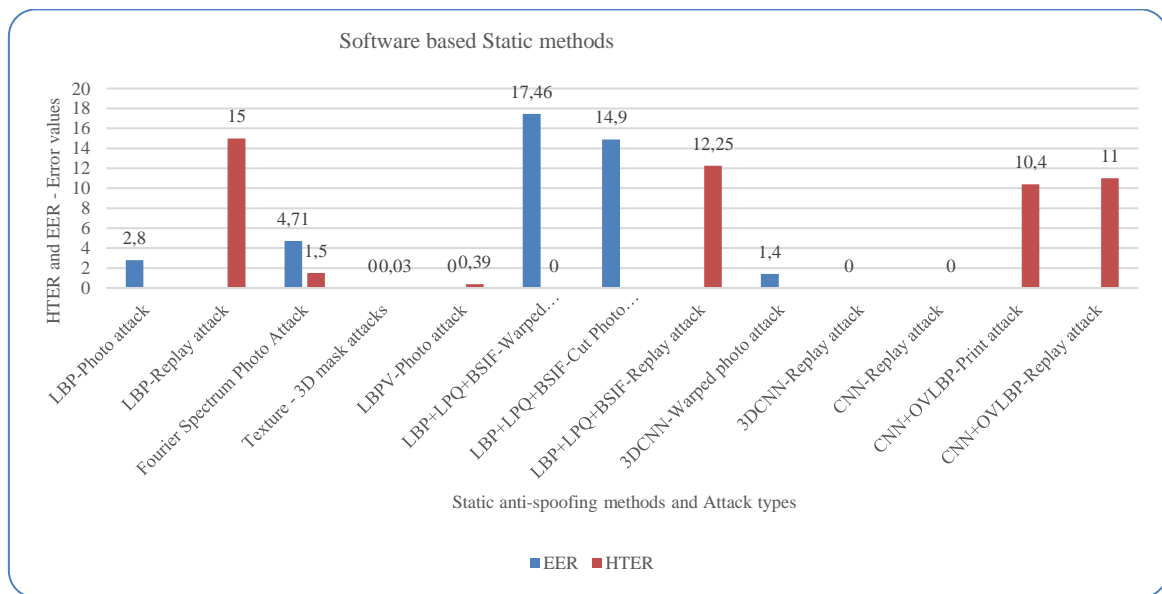


Figure 5. EER-HTER error evaluation for software based static methods

Based on the statistics in the graph it seems that out of all the texture components LBPV offers better spoof recognition with the least error of 0.039 for the photo attacks. For the video attacks, the hybrid approach of 3D CNN has the highest recognition rate of 100% that is 0 error. Raghavendra and Busch [26] has applied texture descriptors for 3D mask attacks. Until now it is known to have the lowest error recorded using texture descriptors. But it is also proved that the same video replay attacks have 0 HTER when CNN are used for recognition. It is observed that hybrid approaches have higher HTER and EER values i.e. when multiple descriptors are applied. So, there is a scope of research in this domain in which two descriptors from texture and frequency-based methods will yield better spoof recognition and lesser error rates.

The error metrics for dynamic methods are plotted in Figure 6 where X-axis depicting one of the three dynamic descriptors (motion, texture, and hybrid) with the attack type. Y-axis carries the HTER and ERR values. Dense optical flow is best suited for identifying the print attacks as it is proven that its HTER and EER values are 0. But if we use spatio-temporal descriptor (hybrid) or a 3D CNN for print attacks, for video frames the captured error rate is 0.04, it incurs error with HTER of around 10, which is not acceptable

in anti-spoofing algorithms. 3D CNNs find their use here, that is when they are used. Hence in the literature, the application of texture descriptors over the face image has proven to be a good approach in static methods and dense optical flow works very well for both print and video attacks in dynamic methods. But deep learning is manifesting the face recognition domain too and CNNs, deep neural networks are being extensively used in discriminating amongst the original, valid faces and the spoofed faces.

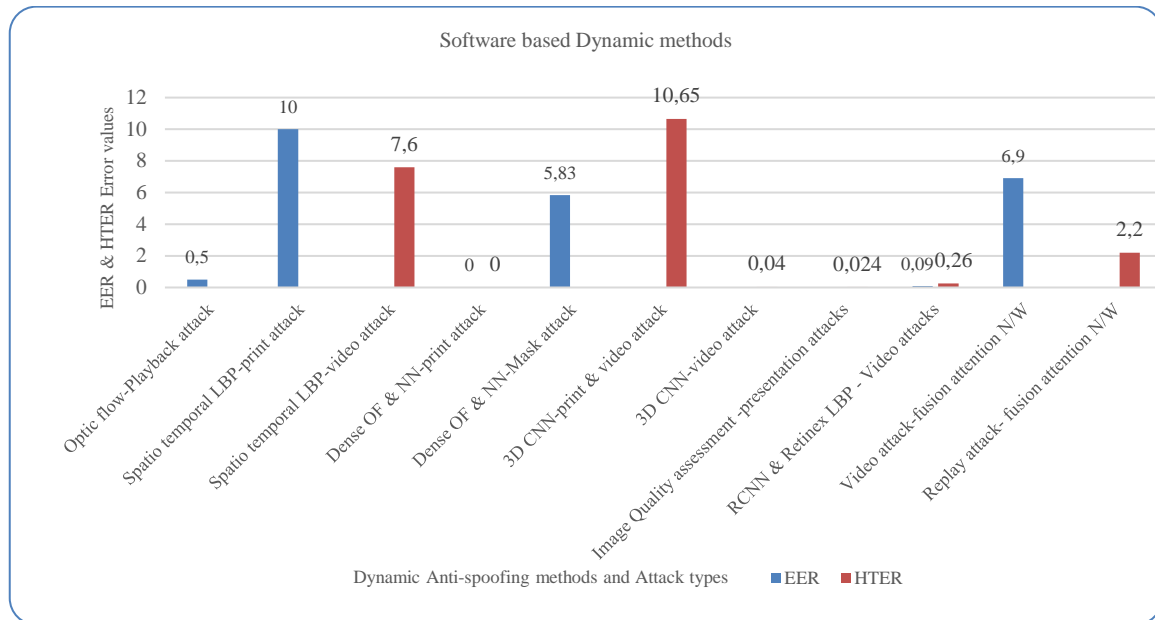


Figure 6. EER- HTER error evaluation for software based dynamic methods

## 9. FACE ANTI-SPOOFING DATASETS

Face spoof attack databases that are available, play a pivotal role in computing new and better face anti-spoofing techniques. Here few face publicly available databases are discussed. Researchers around the world use extensively, the seven publicly available benchmark data sets to evaluate their anti-spoofing algorithms. NUAA Photograph Imposter [55], replay-attack [22], print-attack [55], CASIA face anti-spoofing[56], MSU-MFSD [57] are the well-known datasets concerned with 2D attacks. For mask attacks, the 3D mask attack dataset [18], [58] dataset are used.

The first and foremost public dataset that was made available for face anti-spoofing was the NUAA Photograph Imposter dataset [55]. Images here were captured by regular webcams in different environments under varied illumination conditions, in three sessions, between each of which with an interval of two weeks were taken. Printed flat and warped attacks are evaluated.

The Print-Attack dataset [55] was the standard dataset used in the first competition for spoof detection. The images were captured by presenting a flat printed photo of an authorized person to the system by hand-held method (*i.e.*, the fraudster holds the photo in the hands) or using a fixed support (*i.e.*, photos are stuck on a fixed stand or wall). Print-Attack dataset was extended to the Replay-Attack dataset [22] for evaluating video and photo attacks. It comprises of 1,300 video clips of video and photo attacks. Here trio attacks modes were considered: i) printed photo and video playbacks, ii) using a low-resolution mobile phone and iii) an iPod screen. CASIA face anti-spoofing data set [56] has seven situations with different image qualities and various attack types. This data set presents warped photo attacks, video playback attacks, and eye-cut photo attacks.

The first public database for mask attacks is 3D mask-attack dataset (3DMAD) [18] and it comprises an RGB-D camera recorded video sequences. ThatsMyFace13 manufactured the masks using the frontal and profile images of an individual. MSU mobile face spoofing dataset (MSU MFSD) [57] has 280 video clips of video and print photo attacks. A color printer printed all the photos of 35 participants used for attacks on a large-sized paper. Each participant's video playback was taken to perform an attack. MORPHO Company created [58] dataset, which is a paid-mask dataset, using a 3D scanner. To obtain authorized images of face shape and texture, it uses a structured light technology. Then Sculpteo 3D Printing technology manufactures the masks, and are recaptured by the same sensor to get the fraudster images. Face spoof attack

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## 10. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The biometric system particularly the Face recognition system faces many threats and challenges from the fraudsters due to its vulnerabilities. These challenges were effectively addressed by the researchers from the past by applying different types of Anti-spoofing techniques. These techniques make use of either hardware or software-based solutions. In our review process, we gave an overview of the state-of-the-art of both static and dynamic methods followed in Software-based anti-spoofing techniques. Few performance metrics like FAR, FRR, ROC, HTER, EER, ACC which are used in evaluating face anti-spoofing techniques are discussed as well. We tried to consolidate on few publicly available benchmark databases for 2D presentation attacks, that are available upon which anti-spoofing technique can be applied. A lot of research work has been carried out on the databases where they knew the type of presentation attack and countermeasures for known attacks are devised. But in the real world, we cannot integrate anti-spoofing algorithm for a single particular known type of attack. Fraudsters can attack the same system in different ways either using a mask or by presenting a printed photo or he can run a video replay instead of an authorized user's face, here type of attacks is not known. Though there are few works on unknown attacks in which partial paper cuts and transparent masks are used, much more focus is required in this area. Potential face recognition systems for unknown attacks should be designed to detect the type of attack (also called zero-shot face anti-spoofing) and mitigate it.

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