

Received September 22, 2019, accepted October 9, 2019, date of publication October 15, 2019, date of current version October 31, 2019. Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/ACCESS.2019.2947609

RF Sensor-Based Liveness Detection Scheme With Loop Stability Compensation Circuit for a Capacitive Fingerprint System

WOOJUNG KIM¹, WOOJIN HONG¹, TAEKMOO KIM², DONGWOON KIM², AND MYUNGHEE LEE^{D1}, (Member, IEEE) ¹School of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology (UNIST), Ulsan 44919, South Korea

¹School of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology (UNIST), Ulsan 44919, South Korea
²Canvasbio Company Ltd., Pankyo 13486, South Korea

Corresponding author: Myunghee Lee (myunghee.lee@unist.ac.kr)

This work was supported in part by the HRD Program for Intelligent Semiconductor Industry of Korea Institute for Advancement of Technology (KIAT) through the Korea Government under Grant N0001883, and in part by the Technology Development Program of Ministry of SMEs and Startups (MSS) under Grant S2479721.

ABSTRACT A capacitive fingerprint system is the most widely used biometric identification method for smartphones. In this paper, we propose a RF sensor-based liveness detection scheme. This method solves the problem of spoofing attacks, which is a primary disadvantage to capacitive fingerprint sensors. The proposed scheme measures the inherent impedance characteristic difference of the target fingerprint caused by the eddy-current effect with an auto-balancing bridge method. The magnetic field is generated by a small form-factor inductor coil of $\phi = 1.5$ mm. This detection scheme can be easily integrated with an existing capacitive fingerprint sensor by using the same CMOS process. The measured results demonstrate the liveness detection capability of the Si-graphite (silicone-graphite) and polyvinyl fake fingerprints that cannot be distinguished by conventional capacitive fingerprint sensors.

INDEX TERMS Anti-spoofing, auto-balancing bridge, capacitive fingerprint sensor, Eddy-current, loop stability compensation, RF (Radio frequency) sensor-based liveness detection, Si-graphite (silicone-graphite) & polyvinyl fake fingerprints.

I. INTRODUCTION

Fingerprint sensing technology has become the most popular biometric identification method for the latest mobile devices [1], [2]. There are several methods for fingerprint sensing, including capacitive [3], [4], optical [5], ultra-sonic [6], [7], and others [8].

Capacitive fingerprint sensing technology identifies the ridges and valleys of the fingerprint with hundreds of thousands of capacitive sensor cells, which read the capacitance between the metal plate of the sensor and the finger [3], [4]. Despite its compact size and low cost, this technology has some performance limitations due to noise, humidity or contamination, which make poor image quality. On the other hand, the optical sensor relies on the reflected light from the valleys and ridges of the fingerprint. Therefore, it can render a high-quality image despite those limitations. However, it is difficult to miniaturize due to the complexity of its

The associate editor coordinating the review of this manuscript and approving it for publication was Zahid Akhtar.

sensor module, which includes a light source, an optical lens, and a CMOS image sensor. Furthermore, its 2-dimensional image information is easily spoofed [5]. Although it is more expensive than other methods, the ultrasonic fingerprint sensor, which uses MEMS (Micro Electro Mechanical Systems) technology to generate an ultrasound [6], [7], can sense fingerprint images as well as those of the internal skin tissues, and can detect fingerprints even under harsh conditions, such as contamination and humidity.

Compared to conventional ID & password authorization, biometric identification is very convenient with a low risk of loss and fast response speed. However, one of the main drawbacks for adopting these methods is their susceptibility to spoofing attacks [9]. Supreme among the fingerprint biometric identification solutions described above is capacitive fingerprint sensing technology due to its simple structure [10]. However, since fingerprint information can be easily obtained from unauthorized manners it is vulnerable to spoofing [11]. Capacitive sensors cannot distinguish a sophisticated fake fingerprint, commonly produced with Si-graphite or polyvinyl, exhibiting similar electrical properties to human skin. Fingerprint sensors - both capacitive and ultrasonic - in all smartphones on the market, are easily spoofed by fake fingerprints.

Anti-spoofing solutions are generally classified as either hardware- or software-based. The software-based method detects liveness using data processing or algorithms [11], [12], [13]. This method can be implemented with existing capacitive fingerprint sensors without extra hardware. However, once the fake fingerprint is authenticated, the softwarebased method is spoofed by having learned the additional features of the fake fingerprint image. The hardware-based method depends on biometric information, such as epidermic temperature [14], optical properties [15], pulse oximetry [16] and others [17]. This offers more accurate liveness detection at the increased cost of additional hardware [18].

This paper introduces a RF sensor-based liveness detection scheme. With a small form-factor inductor coil, the scheme can be implemented without a significant increase in cost or size compared to other hardware-based methods. This scheme can be easily integrated with existing capacitive fingerprint sensors by using the same CMOS process. It senses the impedance characteristic difference of fingerprints using the Eddy-current effect. The detection technique is described in Section II. Section III discusses the proposed RF sensorbased liveness detection sensor circuit design. Sections IV and V show the measurement results and conclusion.

II. PROPOSED RF SENSOR-BASED LIVENESS DETECTION TECHNIQUE

The proposed scheme uses the principle of ECPS (Eddy-Current Position Sensor) to detect the impedance characteristic difference of the target object. The ECPS accurately measures the position of a metallic target using the principle of the Eddy-current effect [19], [20]. A typical ECPS senses the distance of a target with the same conductivity. However, the proposed scheme senses the conductivity difference of multiple targets with the same distance. Fig. 1 shows the principle of the proposed RF sensor using a small formfactor inductor coil. The Eddy-current, characterized by its high frequency, is formed primarily within the skin from the surface of the conductor due to the skin effect [19]. The conductivity difference between a live and a fake fingerprint



FIGURE 1. Principle of RF sensor-based liveness detection scheme using Eddy-current with live and fake fingerprint.



FIGURE 2. Proposed liveness detection inductive sensor (a) Series resistance and (b) Parallel resistance equivalent circuits model.

induces a different amount of Eddy-current: the inductance decreases, while the resistance increases.

The equivalent circuit of the proposed inductive sensor consists of a lossy inductance (Series *R*-*L* circuit) with a parallel parasitic capacitance, C_p , as shown in Fig. 2(a). The series resistance model is equivalent to the parallel resistance model near the resonant frequency [21]. The resonance frequency, ω_0 , of each model is equal to $(L_{coil}C_p)^{-1/2}$.

In Fig. 2(b), the maximum impedance of the inductive sensor, $|Z(s)|_{\text{max}}$, at the resonance frequency is represented by the parallel resistance, $R_{\text{p}} = L_{\text{coil}}/(R_{\text{s}}C)$. The impedance Z(s) of the proposed RF sensor is

$$Z(s) = \left(\frac{1}{Rp} + sC_p + \frac{1}{sL_{coil}}\right)^{-1}$$
(1)

The scheme senses the impedance characteristics of a fingerprint, which has an inherent resonance frequency, ω_0 , and the maximum impedance value $|Z(s)|_{max} = R_p$. The higher conductivity by a live fingerprint causes a higher resistance, R_p , than that of a fake one made from such materials as silicon-graphite and polyvinyl material due primarily to a higher Eddy-current. The impedance measurement results are shown in Fig. 3. Live fingerprints have a higher maximum impedance value than that of fakes. The maximum impedance values of each target sample show the conductivity with the order of $|Z(f)|_{max_air} < |Z(f)|_{max_fake} < |Z(f)|_{max_live}$.



FIGURE 3. Impedance measurement result.

Any object between the highest maximum impedance value of air and the lowest maximum impedance value of the live fingerprints is identified as a fake fingerprint.



FIGURE 4. (a) (Rp + L) and (b) auto-balancing bridge method.



FIGURE 5. Block diagram of the proposed RF sensor-based liveness detection scheme.

 $(R_{p} + L)$ measurement [21] and the auto-balancing bridge method [22], [23] are typical impedance measurement methods. In Fig. 4(a), the $(R_p + L)$ measurement method senses the R_p by monitoring the value of negative resistance $-R_p$ to keep the oscillation amplitude level constant. This method can operate at a wide range of the frequencies, from 500 kHz to 10 MHz. However, it is only available for inductors with a high Q-factor of at least Q > 10 [21]. The auto-balancing bridge method is mainly used for modern impedance measurement equipment, such as impedance analyzers and LCR meters [24]. Through the feedback loop in Fig. 4(b), the current I_X in DUT and the current I_r in the reference resistor R_r are equally balanced. The value of $Z_{\text{DUT}} = R_{\text{r}} V_{\text{X}} / V_{\text{r}}$ can be obtained from the measured V_r and V_X . The auto-balancing bridge method is used for the impedance measurement over a wide frequency range up to 120 MHz, and it has high signalto-noise ratio [25]. In this case, the auto-balancing bridge method is adopted since the Q- factor value is roughly 5 due to the size limitation of the inductor with a small diameter, $\phi = 1.5$ mm.

III. CIRCUIT DESIGN

Fig. 5 shows the block diagram of the proposed liveness detection circuit. It includes an OTA-C (Operational Transconductance Amplifier-Capacitor) sinusoidal pulse generator, an auto-balancing bridge with a de-sensitive resistor and a passive peak holder. The inductor, Z(s) is connected between the *DUT_IN* and *DUT_OUT*. The OTA-C sinusoidal pulse generator is implemented as variable frequency AC voltage source for the auto-balancing bridge. The autobalancing bridge outputs the impedance value corresponding to the impedance measurement range. A de-sensitive resistor is added to compensate for the loop stability of the autobalancing bridge. The passive peak holder circuit holds a maximum impedance value within the measurement range.



FIGURE 6. Timing diagram of the proposed RF sensor-based liveness detection scheme.

Fig. 6 shows the timing diagram of the detection scheme. The liveness detection process starts by the *FST* signal. For every clock period *T*, the frequency sweeps from $f_{\rm HIGH}$ to $f_{\rm Low}$. The frequency sweep range is divided into 23 steps (= 23 × Clock period). During the frequency sweep, the corresponding impedance value, |Z(f)|, appears at the $V_{\rm OUT}$ node. The peak holder circuit holds the maximum impedance value $|Z(f)|_{\rm max}$ at the resonance frequency as $V_{\rm PEAK}$.

A. OTA-C SINUSOIDAL PULSE GENERATOR

The RF sensor requires a frequency generator within the 10-30 MHz band. An OTA-C with a 100 MHz bandwidth is used to control the output frequency by tuning g_m and C_L values [26], [27]. In Fig. 7, the oscillation condition is

$$\frac{g_{m3}}{C_L} = (\frac{g_{m1}}{C_L} + \frac{g_{m2}}{C_L})$$
(2)

and an assumption can be made that $g_m = g_{m1} = g_{m2} = g_{m3}/2$. The oscillation frequency ω_n and the sinusoidal pulse output voltage V_{OSC} can be written as

$$\omega_n = \frac{g_m}{C_L} (g_m = g_{m1} = g_{m2})$$
(3)

$$V_{OSC}(t) = \frac{I_{SS}}{g_m} \sin(\omega_n t) = \frac{I_{SS}}{g_m} \sin\left(\frac{g_m}{2\pi C_L}t\right) \quad (4)$$

The values of I_{SS} and g_m depend on the required amplitude of the sinusoidal signal V_A . The load capacitor value C_L is set by the frequency range. Generally, a linear frequency control is performed by changing the g_m of the OTA [26], [27]. In this



FIGURE 7. OTA-C (gm-C) sinusoidal pulse generator circuit and capacitor bank.

design, only the load capacitors $C_{\rm L}$ vary to generate a constant output amplitude $V_{\rm A} = I_{\rm SS}/g_{\rm m}$ from (4).

To sweep the frequency, the load capacitor $C_{\rm L}$ consists of a capacitor bank which is comprised of one reference capacitor, $C_{\rm ref}$, and 23 unit capacitors, $C_{\rm unit}$. The capacitor bank is connected to the output of each OTA stage and is used to determine the value of $C_{\rm L}$. During the frequency sweep, the value of $C_{\rm L}$ increases by $C_{\rm unit}$ per every clock period T with the switch control signal SW[22:0]. The value of $C_{\rm L}$ varies from $C_{\rm ref}$ to $C_{\rm ref} + 23C_{\rm unit}$ over 23 clock periods. The $C_{\rm ref}$ and $C_{\rm unit}$ values are determined according to the measurement frequency range $f_{\rm LOW} = g_{\rm m}/\{2\pi (C_{\rm ref}+23C_{\rm unit})\}$ to $f_{\rm HIGH} = g_{\rm m}/(2\pi C_{\rm ref})$. In this design, the target output frequency range is 10-30 MHz and the output amplitude $V_{\rm A}$ is 0.5 V.



B. AUTO-BALANCING BRIDGE CIRCUIT

The conventional structure of the auto-balancing bridge is the type-I structure in Fig. 8 [22]–[25]. The gain of the type-I structure is $|A_{v,type I}(s)| = R_{REF}/|Z(s)|$. In this case, the output voltage is inversely proportional to the DUT impedance. The type-I structure outputs a minimum voltage $v_{OUT,MIN}$ for maximum impedance, $|Z(s)|_{max}$. In the type-II structure shown in Fig. 9, the location of the DUT |Z(s)|and reference resistor R_{REF} are switched. The output voltage is linearly proportional to the impedance of DUT, which is $|A_{v,type II}(s)| = |Z(s)|/R_{REF}$. In this design, the maximum impedance $|Z(s)|_{max}$ of each fingerprint is compared. The output of the type-II structure can be compared directly.



FIGURE 9. Proposed type-II auto-balancing bridge structure.

C. LOOP STABILITY COMPENSATION

Fig. 10(a) shows the parasitic capacitance at the conjunction point. In the conventional auto-balancing bridge circuit, the negative input of the op-amp v_i^- is placed near the ground reference to avoid the parasitic capacitance effect [23]. Then C_{P1} can be ignored as both are connected to the ground reference, and C_{P2} appears as the output load capacitor. To keep



FIGURE 10. (a) Proposed type-II auto-balancing bridge with parasitic capacitances, (b) loop gain A(s)f(s).

 v_i^- to the ground, a bi-voltage (+V to -V) sources are needed, but it makes the IC design complicated. In this paper, the v_i^- voltage is placed at *VDD*/2 rather than the ground. This parasitic capacitance in the auto-balancing bridge circuit causes performance degradation.

Fig. 10(b) shows the loop gain A(s)f(s) bode plot including the parasitic capacitances. In a small signal analysis, the parasitic capacitance, C_{P1} , is parallel to R_{REF} so that $Z_{in}(s) = R_{REF}/(1 + sC_{P1}R_{REF})$. The open loop gain A(s) is the transfer function of the op-amp, and the feedback factor of the autobalancing bridge feedback loop is

$$f(s) = \frac{V_i'}{V_0} = \frac{Z_{in}(s)}{Z_{in}(s) + Z(s)}$$
(5)

The feedback factor f(s) in (5) has a -30 dB magnitude decrease and a -156 deg phase shift near the resonance frequency of Z(s). When the f_{-3dB} of the op-amp is lower than the resonance frequency $\omega_{-3dB} \ge \omega_0$, a negative phase margin (PM) would cause the feedback loop to be unstable.



FIGURE 11. (a) Compensated auto-balancing bridge using de-sensitive R, (b) loop gain A(s)f(s).

To maintain loop stability, using a higher f_{-3dB} op-amp can be an option. A desired specification (e.g., DC gain and f_{-3dB}) can be calculated from the loop gain transfer function. This approach can be limited by a fixed GBW (Gain Bandwidth Product) of the op-amp, which depends on the CMOS process technology. In this paper, the loop stability compensation technique is proposed by adding a de-sensitive resistor R_d to the feedback loop with under 10 mW in additional power consumption. When $|A(s)f(s)| \gg 1$, the closed loop gain is

$$A_{CL}(s)| = \frac{Z(s)}{R_{REF}} \cdot \frac{A(s)f(s)}{1 + A(s)f(s)} \approx \frac{Z(s)}{R_{REF}}$$
(6)

The closed loop gain is hardly changed by any f(s) variation in (6). The stability of the feedback loop can be compensated by changing f(s) while maintaining closed loop gain.





In Fig. 11(a), R_d is added at the op-amp negative input. The input impedance is changed to $Z_{in}'(s) = (R_{REF} ||R_d)/(1 + sC_{P1} (R_{REF} ||R_d))$, and the feedback factor f'(s) is

$$f'(s) = \frac{V_i}{V_o} = \frac{Z'_{in}(s)}{Z'_{in}(s) + Z(s)}$$
(7)

The stability and phase margin improve when the de-sensitive R value decreases, as shown in Fig. 11(b).

IV. MEASUREMENT RESULTS

Fig. 12 shows a die photograph of the proposed liveness detection circuit on the capacitive fingerprint sensor IC. This work is fabricated in 0.18- μ m mixed-signal CMOS process technology. The entire chip area is 43.8 mm², the fingerprint sensing area is 26.9 mm², and the area of the proposed liveness detection circuit is 0.3 mm².

The assembled capacitive fingerprint sensor module is shown in Fig. 13. A small inductor sensor is combined with the capacitive sensor package, and the terminals on both sides of the coil are used as DUT_IN and DUT_OUT. The remaining pins are connected to the FPGA controller. Fig. 14 shows the Si-graphite and polyvinyl fake fingerprints used in the measurements, and two samples (#1,2) were measured for each.

Fig. 15 shows the measurement results of the OTA-C sinusoidal pulse generator frequency sweep from f_{HIGH} to f_{LOW} . In Fig. 15(a), the oscillation frequency of OTA-C sinusoidal pulse generator is 22.6 MHz at the start of the frequency sweep. The frequency is 6.3 MHz at the end of frequency



FIGURE 13. Two types of fake fingerprints (Si-graphite, Polyvinyl).



FIGURE 14. The assembled capacitive fingerprint sensor module (a) front and (b) back (yellow: Liveness detection part, green: Capacitive fingerprint sensor part).

 TABLE 1. Performance summary of the liveness detection sensing scheme.

Parameter	Specification
Technology	0.18-µm mixed-signal
Supply power	3.3 V
Power dissipation	20.4 mW^{-1}
Die area	0.3 mm ²
Input clock	28 kHz

¹ Excluding output buffer

sweep, which is shown in Fig. 15(b). Fig. 16 shows the transient output measurement of the proposed design according to the fingerprint type: no fingerprint (air), fake fingerprint (Si-graphite, polyvinyl) and live fingerprint. At the beginning of the frequency sweep, the output is reset during one clock period. Then, at the end of the frequency sweep, the maximum impedance within 6.3 - 22.6 MHz band is held at the output. The fake fingerprints output values are located between air and live fingerprints. It is same result as the impedance analyzer in section II.

Fig. 17 shows the results for each fingerprint measurements using a 10-bit ADC (Analog to Digital Converter). In order to set the boundary level, the measurements for the air and live fingerprint were taken 10 times, while those for the fake fingerprints were taken 100 times for each case. The minimum gap between live and fake fingerprints was about 115 LSB. Liveness detection can be done by simply setting an arbitrary threshold level between the gaps with a sufficient margin. Based on a simple comparison of out-



FIGURE 15. Measured results before and after frequency sweep of the OTA-C sinusoidal pulse generator output (a) before frequency sweep (f_{low}) and (b) after frequency sweep (f_{high}).



FIGURE 16. Measured results of the proposed liveness detection scheme transient response.



FIGURE 17. Measured results of the proposed liveness detection scheme using 10-bit ADC.

put values without complex software algorithms, the results favour a hardware-based liveness detection methodology. The key specifications are summarized in Table 1. In order to minimize power dissipation, the RF sensor-based liveness detection circuits should only be activated when fingerprint recognition is in progress.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper introduced a RF sensor-based liveness detection scheme and its circuit implementation without using any software algorithms. This provides a solution to the antispoofing measures of existing capacitive fingerprint systems. The scheme can distinguish certain fake fingerprints from live ones through their differentiation on inherent impedance characteristics. This design can be applied to various kinds of impedance measurement sensors.

Furthermore, the proposed loop stability compensation technique can secure phase margins at a high frequency. This work can be easily combined with an existing capacitive fingerprint sensor with a small size of 0.3 mm² (accounting for only 0.7 % of the total area). The circuit is fabricated at 0.18- μ m mixed-signal process technology.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to thank the following members of Canvasbio for their contribution: Junyun Kim for sensor module assembly, Juncheol Ok, Dongho Kim and Dongmin Kim for IC design consultation, and Yeonjoong Yoon for layout guidance.

REFERENCES

- R. Ramotowski, Lee and Gaensslen's Advances in Fingerprint Technology, 3rd ed. Boca Raton, FL, USA: CRC Press, 2012.
- [2] A. K. Jain, A. Ross, and S. Prabhakar, "An introduction to biometric recognition," *IEEE Trans. Circuits Syst. Video Technol.*, vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 4–20, Jan. 2004.
- [3] R. Hashido, A. Suzuki, A. Iwata, T. Okamoto, Y. Satoh, and M. Inoue, "A capacitive fingerprint sensor chip using low-temperature poly-Si TFTs on a glass substrate and a novel and unique sensing method," *IEEE J. Solid-State Circuits*, vol. 38, no. 2, pp. 274–280, Feb. 2003.
- [4] J.-C. Liu, Y.-S. Hsiung, and M. S.-C. Lu, "A CMOS micromachined capacitive sensor array for fingerprint detection," *IEEE Sensors J.*, vol. 12, no. 5, pp. 1004–1010, May 2012.
- [5] Y.-H. Liao, C. Chang, C.-H. Lin, J.-Y. You, H.-L. Hsieh, J.-L. Chen, A.-T. Cho, Y.-R. Liu, Y.-H. Lai, J.-P. Tseng, M.-F. Chiang, and Y.-C. Lin, "Flat panel fingerprint optical sensor using TFT technology," in *Proc. IEEE SENSORS*, Busan, South Korea, Nov. 2015, pp. 1–4.
- [6] H.-Y. Tang, Y. Lu, X. Jiang, E. J. Ng, J. M. Tsai, D. A. Horsley, and B. E. Boser, "3-D ultrasonic fingerprint sensor-on-a-chip," *IEEE J. Solid-State Circuits*, vol. 51, no. 11, pp. 2522–2533, Nov. 2016.
- [7] R. M. Schmitt, W. G. Scott, R. D. Irving, J. Arnold, C. Bardons, D. Halpert, and L. Parker, "Ultrasonic imaging of fingerprints using acoustical impediography," in *Proc. IUS*, Montreal, QC, Canada, Aug. 2004, pp. 680–688.
- [8] L. Qiu, "Fingerprint sensor technology," in *Proc. ICIEA*, Hangzhou, China, Jun. 2014, pp. 1433–1436.

IEEEAccess

- [9] S. B. Nikam and S. Agarwal, "Fingerprint anti-spoofing using ridgelet transform," in *Proc. BTAS*, Arlington, VA, USA, Sep./Oct. 2008, pp. 1–6.
- [10] S.-L. Huang, S.-Y. Hung, and C.-P. Chen, "Frequency hopping and parallel driving with random delay especially suitable for the charger noise problem in mutual-capacitive touch applications," *IEEE Access*, vol. 7, pp. 3980–3993, 2019.
- [11] F. Pala and B. Bhanu, "On the accuracy and robustness of deep triplet embedding for fingerprint liveness detection," in *Proc. ICIP*, Beijing, China, Sep. 2017, pp. 116–120.
- [12] S. Nuraisha and G. F. Shidik, "Evaluation of normalization in fake fingerprint detection with heterogeneous sensor," in *Proc. Int. Seminar Appl. Technol. Inf. Commun.*, Smarang, Indonesian, Sep. 2018, pp. 83–86.
- [13] B. G. Warvante, M. R. Patil, and S. V. Kamble, "Liveness detection by using wavelet algorithm and preprocessing of fingerprint images," in *Proc. ICECDS*, Chennai, India, Aug. 2017, pp. 1961–1974.
- [14] T. Putte and J. Keuning, "Biometrical fingerprint recognition: Don't get your fingers burned," in *Smart Card Research and Advanced Applications*. Boston, MA, USA: Springer, 2000, pp. 289–303.
- [15] Y. Baek, "The fake fingerprint detection system using a novel color distribution," in *Proc. ICTC*, Jeju, South Korea, Oct. 2016, pp. 1111–1113.
- [16] P. V. Reddy, A. Kumar, S. M. K. Rahman, and T. S. Mundra, "A new antispoofing approach for biometric devices," *IEEE Trans. Biomed. Circuits Syst.*, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 328–337, Dec. 2008.
- [17] M. Sepasian, C. Mares, and W. Balachandran, "Liveness and spoofing in fingerprint identification: Issues and challenges," in *Proc. 4th WSEAS Int. Conf. Comput. Eng. Appl. (CEA)*, 2009, pp. 150–158.
- [18] S. S Kulkarni and H. Y. Patil, "Survey on fingerprint spoofing, detection techniques and databases," *Int. J. Comput. Appl.*, vol. 975, p. 8887, Dec. 2015.
- [19] M. R. Nabavi and S. N. Nihtianov, "Design strategies for eddy-current displacement sensor systems: Review and recommendations," *IEEE Sensors J.*, vol. 12, no. 12, pp. 3346–3355, Dec. 2012.
- [20] O. Sosnicki, G. Michaud, and F. Claeyssen, "Eddy current sensors on Printed Circuit board for compact mechatronic application," in *Proc. Sensoren Und Messsyst.*, Meylan, France, 2010, pp. 18–19.
- [21] High-Speed Inductance-to-Digital Converter, document LDC1101 datasheet, Texas Instruments, May 2015.
- [22] High Precision Impedance Converter, document AD5933 datasheet, Analog Devices, Sep. 2005.
- [23] P. Kanakaraju and M. P. Rao, "Design and Development of Portable Digital LCR Meter by Auto Balancing Bridge Method," *Int. J. Innov. Eng. Technol.*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 130–137, 2016.
- [24] Impedance Measurement Handbook, 6th ed. Santa Rosa, CA, USA: Keysight, 2016. [Online]. Available: https://literature.cdn. keysight.com/litweb/pdf/5950-3000.pdf
- [25] A. Arshad, S. Khan, A. Z. Alam, and R. Tasnim, "Automated person tracking using proximity capacitive sensors," in *Proc. ICSIMA*, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, Nov. 2014, pp. 1–4.
- [26] B. Linares-Barranco, T. Serrano-Gotarredona, J. Ramos-Martos, J. Ceballos-Caceres, J. M. Mora, and A. Linares-Barranco, "A precise 90° quadrature OTA-C oscillator tunable in the 50–130-MHz range," *IEEE Trans. Circuits Syst. I, Reg. Papers*, vol. 51, no. 4, pp. 649–663, Apr. 2004.
- [27] P. Prommee and K. Dejhan, "An integrable electronic-controlled quadrature sinusoidal oscillator using CMOS operational transconductance amplifier," *Int. J. Electron.*, vol. 89, no. 5, pp. 365–379, 2002.



WOOJUNG KIM was born in Ulsan, South Korea, in 1993. He received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from the Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology (UNIST), South Korea, in 2017. He is currently pursuing the combined M.S./Ph.D. degrees. In 2017, he joined LG electronics, Incheon, South Korea, as a Research Engineer. His research interests include analog/ mixed-signal integrated circuits, sensor ROIC, and wireline high-speed serial interface.







WOOJIN HONG was born in Incheon, South Korea, in 1993. He received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from the Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology (UNIST), Ulsan, South Korea, in 2016, where he is currently pursuing the combined M.S./Ph.D. degrees. His research interests include analog/mixed-signal integrated circuits, linear/switching power management integrated circuits, and in-vehicle networks for automotive electronics.



WideChips, Bundang, developing VGA, Wide Video Graphics Array (WVGA) Display Driver ICs (DDI). Since 2010, he has been with Syncoam, Bundang, where he is also managing Passive-Matrix Organic Light-Emitting Diode (PMOLED) Driver IC and Touch-Driver IC Design Team. In 2015, he joined CanvasBio, Pankyo, as the Senior Managing Director and in charge of developing fingerprint sensor ICs.



DONGWOON KIM received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from Sogang University, Seoul, South Korea, in 1994, and the M.S. degree in 1996. From 1996 to 2003, he was with Samsung System-LSI Division, Kiheung, designing NAND-flash controllers. In 2005, he joined Mtek Semiconductor, Seoul, where he is involving in DSP design. Since 2008, he has been with IDT, Songnam, designing touch sensor driver ICs. In 2011, he joined Canvasbio, Pankyo, where he is involv-

ing in fingerprint sensor ICs.



MYUNGHEE LEE received the B.S. degree in electronic engineering from Hanyang University, Seoul, South Korea, in 1984, the M.S. degree in electrical engineering from Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ, USA, in 1990, and the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering from the Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA, USA, in 1996. He started his industry career as a Hardware Engineer at Doosan Computer Corporation, from 1984 to 1988. From 1990 to 1991, he was

with IBM T. J. Watson Lab, Hawthorne, NY, USA, as an Engineer before he resumes his Ph.D. course. In 1996, he joined Hewlett Packard (later Agilent Technology after the break-up of the company), San Jose, CA, USA, as a member of Technical Staff developing IrDA transceiver ICs and Giga-bit fiber-optic transceiver ICs, including 4-ch/12-ch parallel optical transceivers. Later, he got promoted to an Integrating Manager managing a world-wide Research and Development organization responsible for various high-speed IC product developments. In 2005, he joined Samsung System-LSI Division as a VP, Giheung, South Korea, where he is also managing the Display Driver IC (DDI) Development Team. He was responsible for developing various product families, such as mobile-DDI, panel-DDI, timing controller, and touch sensor controller. From 2012 to 2013, he was with Hyundai-Autron leading Automotive Semiconductor Development Center managing automotive Electronic Control Units (ECUs) and automotive IC development activities. Since 2013, he has been an Industry-University Collaboration Professor with the Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology (UNIST), Ulsan, South Korea. His research interests include automotive ECU architecture, innovative automotive IC architecture and implementations, various high-speed interface, and various other mixedsignal IC designs.