



Can't You Tell I am a Human? A Comparison of Common Text and Image CAPTCHAs Using a Low-Fidelity Methodology

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ABSTRACT

Many websites employ CAPTCHAs to limit web robot traffic. Although CAPTCHA challenges may improve security they come at the cost of reduced usability and accessibility. This study set out to explore users' performance with two common types of CAPTCHAs that rely on image and text challenges. The results show that participants resolved image challenges faster than text challenges. Image challenges were also preferred over text challenges. Overall, each challenge took approximately 10 seconds to solve, and preferences scores were moderate. The error rates were high, but no significant difference was observed. We therefore argue for new methods capable of separating humans from robots that do not rely on user intervention.

CCS CONCEPTS

• Human-centered computing; • Accessibility; • Accessibility technologies;

KEYWORDS

CAPTCHA, Challenge, Security, Usability, Accessibility

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1 INTRODUCTION

Many websites employ CAPTCHA (Completely Automated Public Turing tests to tell Computers and Humans Apart) challenges to prevent automated scripts, web-crawlers, and web robots' access to

websites. The general principle behind a CAPTCHA is to provide users with challenges that are easy for humans to solve, while being hard for machines to unravel [43] using pattern matching and image and video processing techniques [21]. The term CAPTCHA is a playful variation on "Caught ya!". CAPTCHAs have become recognizable iconic symbols that signal to users what is expected similar to how the iconic nature of QR-codes communicates the availability of information through camera scanning [20].

According to Kaur et al. [24] the first CAPTCHA appeared in 1996 on the Alta-Vista web server just two years after the birth of the web. It was attributed to Moni Naor. Since then, numerous schemes and challenge types have been proposed, yet only a few of these are commonly used on popular websites. These include the text challenge that typically displays a distorted image of a word, which the user must recognize and enter in a text field. Image challenges comprise the other, where the user typically must select a subset of images in a grid which contains a certain object.

Such challenges attempt to counteract a common security problem, namely, the unintentional access to websites. Most of the research literature seems to focus on these security aspects. However, such challenges also affect usability and accessibility, usually in a negative manner. The problems associated with these challenges are even addressed by the World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) in the Web Content Accessibility Guidelines (WCAG2.1, section 1.1.1 non-text content). Although there are some studies that have addressed CAPTCHA usability and accessibility, they seem fewer in numbers, and much focus has been on audio challenges. In this study we wanted to explicitly compare the most used challenges and therefore focused on those relying on text and images. We distinguish between text challenges and image challenges, although strictly speaking the typical text challenges are in fact images of distorted text. However, much of the literature makes similar distinctions [18, 24, 40]. Hasan et al. [18] refer to such text CAPTCHAs as gimpy CAPTCHAs.

This paper is organized as follows: The next section presents related work, followed by a description of the methodology. Then, the results and discussion are presented. Finally the paper is closed by concluding remarks.



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2 RELATED WORK

There has been a vast interest in CAPTCHAs since they first appeared in the late 90s [9, 18, 30]. A range of different types of challenges have been proposed including those based on text, images (pix CAPTCHAs), audio, video, and puzzles [40], or more specific challenges such as baffle texts [18] and Bongo challenges [24].

The research into CAPTCHAs can be divided into three areas, namely proposals of new tests [8, 12], revealing test security weaknesses [7, 26, 46] and tests from the users' perspectives. Examples of novel CAPTCHA proposals include challenges involving determining the orientation of images [17] and improved video-based tests [29]. Researchers have demonstrated weakness of common challenges such as simple visual CAPTCHAs [16, 28, 44], the reCAPTCHA [5] and the use of deep learning to break challenges [41]. The proposal of new tests and strategies for breaking these bear similarities to an arms race [45].

Studies addressing the user perspectives of CAPTCHAs have primarily addressed usability or accessibility issues. Nonvisual and audio challenges have been proposed as an alternative to the common visually intensive tests that are not accessible for low-vision users [1, 39]. Non-visual alternatives will render such web-sites unusable to such cohorts of users. Although several audio schemes exist, Kuzma et al. [25] found that out of 150 online forums, very few provided accessible alternative challenges. Also, audio CAPTCHAs have been criticized for being hard to use [31, 39]. Several improvements have therefore been proposed such as combining visual and audio cues [2, 31] and personalized tests based on accessibility information available at social media sites [22]. In addition to challenges resulting from low vision [10, 33, 38], there are users with reduced cognitive function [36] or reduced reading skills [11]. There is still little work on the use of other modalities such as touch [27] for CAPTCHAs.

CAPTCHAs are not only difficult to use for individuals with reduced functioning. Fidas et al. [13] conducted a survey involving 210 participants. Their results confirmed that such tests were perceived as being difficult. They proposed that language could pose a particular challenge and that native language CAPTCHAs should be used when this could be determined from the browser. Bamday and Shah [4] explicitly addressed English versus local languages on Indian website CAPTCHAs. Gafni and Nagar [14, 15] conducted a questionnaire study of users' perceptions of challenges involving 212 participants. In their study they compared five challenge types. Their results showed that the participants were most familiar with text challenges but also disliked these. Image and quiz challenges were perceived as the most fun. About half of the participants were unable to complete tests based on arithmetic tasks. Gafni and Nagar also found age to be a factor where young participants were more tolerant to the challenges, faster and more accurate, while older participants generally found the tests annoying. Bursztein et al. [6] conducted a large-scale study of 13 image and audio challenge categories and 318,000 different challenges using Amazon Mechanical Turk workers. They found that only 1% of the participants chose audio challenges. They also found many non-native English speakers were slower when using English-language challenges. Older participants were slower, yet more accurate than younger participants. PhD holders were found to be the most accurate in solving audio

challenges. The authors used agreement rate for their assessments and found that different challenge types varied in agreement rate. For image challenges the agreement rate was 71%, while for audio challenges the agreement rate was 31%.

3 METHOD

3.1 Experimental design

A within-group experimental design was chosen with CAPTCHA type as independent variable and response time, error rate, and preference as dependent variables. The independent variable had two levels, namely image and text.

3.2 Participants

A total of 24 participants were recruited for the experiment of which 10 were female and 14 were male. The age of the participant ranged from 20 to 30 years. All the participants were physically recruited among the students at Oslo Metropolitan University campus. All indicated that they were familiar with Google reCAPTCHA. The experiment was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic which limited data collection. All the participants had undergone a minimum of infection prevention training.

3.3 Equipment

A low-fidelity approach [35] was adopted to simulate the real CAPTCHA experience while ensuring replicability. Actual CAPTCHAs would have presented random challenges which would make it more difficult to fairly compare the results of different participants. Participants entered text CAPTCHAs using Microsoft Word, while the image CAPTCHAs were realized using the drawing function in Word. All the experiments were conducted using a Mac laptop computer with an external mouse. A smartphone stopwatch was used for measuring response times. Infection prevention was ensured by providing participants disposable gloves and anti-bac.

3.4 Materials

Two types of image CAPTCHAs were used. One of the image types showed a grid of six images and the users were asked to indicate which image contained a particular object such as chairs. An example of the second image type showed images of a road split into 20 boxes and the users were asked to select all boxes with cars. The text CAPTCHAs contained various graphical representations of text. Unfortunately, we do not have the permissions to reproduce the images used. In total 20 challenges were prepared, of which 10 were image challenges and 10 text challenges.

3.5 Procedure

Each participant was presented with each of the 10 text challenges and 10 image challenges. To respond to the text challenges the participant wrote the word they could see. Participants were asked to respond to the image challenges by marking each valid box. The presentation order for the set of text challenges and image challenges were randomized. Participants were asked to proceed at a comfortable tempo. After the experiments, the participants were

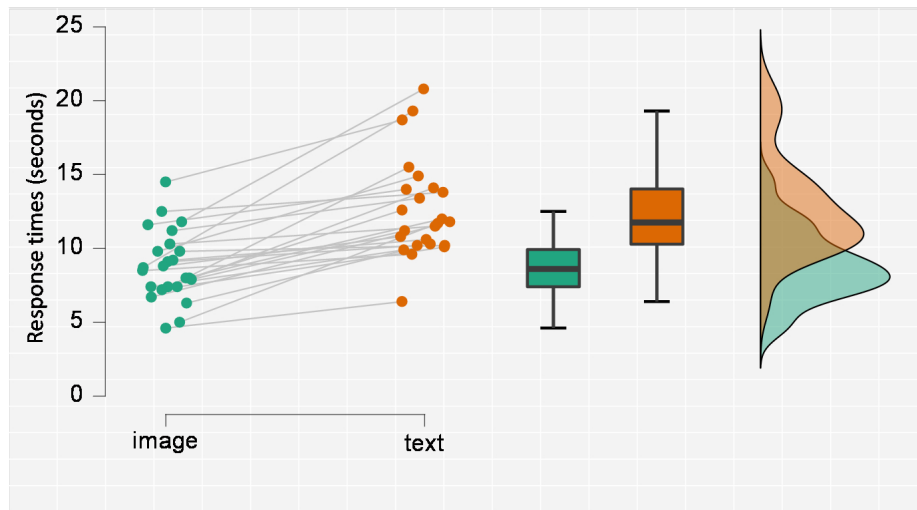


Figure 1: Raincloud plot showing the distribution of response times (seconds) for image and text challenges.

asked to respond to two simple 5-item Likert questions regarding their preferences for text and image challenges, respectively.

The experiments were conducted in a secluded meeting room on campus with two of the authors present to administer the experiment. Participants were invited on an individual basis. Each session lasted between 5-7 minutes including briefing.

The experiment was conducted during a single session. There was therefore no need to link participants across sessions [34] and the experiment could therefore be conducted anonymously.

3.6 Analysis

The mean response time for each CAPTCHA type was computed for each participant. Shapiro Wilk tests revealed that the response times deviated from normal distribution and were therefore analyzed using a Wilcoxon signed rank test. The error rate distribution did not deviate from normal distribution and observations were therefore analyzed using a paired t-test. The Likert responses are ordinal and were therefore analyzed using a non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test. The statistical tests were conducted using JASP version 0.16.0.0 [23].

4 RESULTS

The time to respond to image challenges ($M = 8.8$, $SD = 2.4$) was shorter than the time to respond to text challenges ($M = 12.6$, $SD = 3.4$) and the difference was significantly different ($W = 0.0$, $p < .001$). The response times are plotted in Figure 1.

The error rate associated with image challenges ($M = 17.9\%$, $SD = 11.8\%$) was somewhat lower than the error rate for text challenges ($M = 21.2\%$, $SD = 16.0\%$), but this difference was not statistically significant ($t(23) = 0.915$, $p = .370$). The error rates are plotted in Figure 2.

The preference score for image challenges ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 0.8$) was higher than the preference scores for text challenges ($M = 2.9$, $SD = 1.3$) and the difference was significantly different ($W = 141.0$, $p = .015$). The preference scores are plotted in Figure 3.

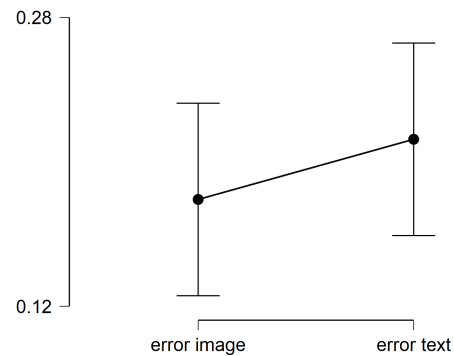


Figure 2: Mean error rates (range between 0 and 1). Error bars show 95% confidence intervals.

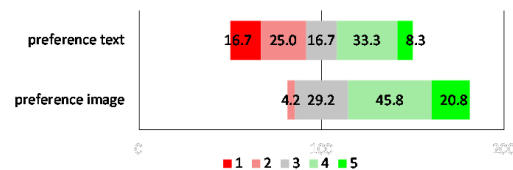


Figure 3: Diverging stacked bar graph showing the percentage distribution of preferences (Likert scale from 1 to 5).

5 DISCUSSION

The mean response-time difference between the two challenge types was relatively large as text challenges took nearly 50% longer than image challenges. One reason why the participants performed tasks faster and preferred image challenges over text challenges may be that making direct selections [42] by clicking on an image is a simpler task than the text-copy task which requires both effort, concentration, and skill [3, 32, 37]. Observations of response times

and preferences agree with the results of Bursztein et al. [6] who also ranked image challenges higher than text challenges. The absolute duration needed to resolve challenges, that is, around 10 seconds, was perceivable to users. The question is whether the donation of 10 seconds to help the website solve its problems is tolerable, as CAPTCHAs do not benefit users directly.

Although the participants preferred image challenges, it must be noted that the mean response to text challenges were close to neutral. Moreover, the mean preference score for images was closer to neutral than top score, suggesting that participants were not fully satisfied with either of the methods. Although there was no significant difference in error rates between the two challenge types it is evident that the error rate is high (around 20%). Clearly, interactions that are resulting in an error with every fifth trial is likely to cause frustration and dissatisfaction with users.

The challenge types explored herein were chosen due to their perceived prevalence on commonly used websites. We do not know the reason why these types of challenges are common. Although one reason could be that these represent the most successful challenges, more likely it is related to the technology market where promoted technology also gains market share. Given the high error rates and moderate preference scores one may question the CAPTCHA paradigm altogether. Why should users be burdened with resolving issues that should be solved technically out of the users' sight? In general, one should strive to simplify online forms and reduce input errors [19].

5.1 Limitations

One weakness of this study was the small sample size comprising just 24 participants from a limited cohort of computer literate students. Thus, our sample size makes up only a tenth of similar studies (see for example [13, 14]).

Factors that may have affected the results is that the participants may have felt being watched by the experimenters during the session, thereby somewhat inhibiting their performance. Moreover, a Mac keyboard was used. Although it has the conventional Qwerty layout it may have been experienced as somewhat unfamiliar to participants that regularly use Windows keyboards. However, this is considered a negligible source of bias.

6 CONCLUSIONS

A comparison of the common CAPTCHA mechanism widely used on websites was conducted. The results show that participants both performed the challenges faster and preferred image CAPTCHAs over text CAPTCHAs. However, the image challenges are not accessible to individuals without vision. In general, such challenges were commonly viewed as a nuisance and website designers should look for other mechanisms than CAPTCHAs to separate genuine human visitors from web robots. Preferably, users should not be burdened by such mechanisms thereby preventing compromising usability and accessibility for security.

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