

Fingerprint Spoof Detection: Temporal Analysis of Image Sequence

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Abstract

We utilize the dynamics involved in the imaging of a fingerprint on a touch-based fingerprint reader, such as perspiration, changes in skin color (blanching), and skin distortion, to differentiate real fingers from spoof (fake) fingers. Specifically, we utilize a deep learning-based architecture (CNN-LSTM) trained end-to-end using sequences of minutiae-centered local patches extracted from ten color frames captured on a COTS fingerprint reader. A time-distributed CNN (MobileNet-v1) extracts spatial features from each local patch, while a bi-directional LSTM layer learns the temporal relationship between the patches in the sequence. Experimental results on a database of 26,650 live frames from 685 subjects (1,333 unique fingers), and 32,910 spoof frames of 7 spoof materials (with 14 variants) shows the superiority of the proposed approach in both known-material and cross-material (generalization) scenarios. For instance, the proposed approach improves the state-of-the-art cross-material performance from TDR of 81.65% to 86.20% @ FDR = 0.2%.

1. Introduction

Fingerprint recognition technology is now widely adopted across the globe for a plethora of applications, including international border crossing¹, forensics², unlocking smartphones³, and national ID⁴ programs. However, one of the most critical premise for this wide acceptance is that users have trust in the security of a fingerprint recognition system, namely protection of enrolled fingerprints (templates) and detection of fingerprint spoofs [17]. In this paper, we focus on fingerprint spoof detection.

Fingerprint spoof attacks⁵ refer to finger-like artifacts

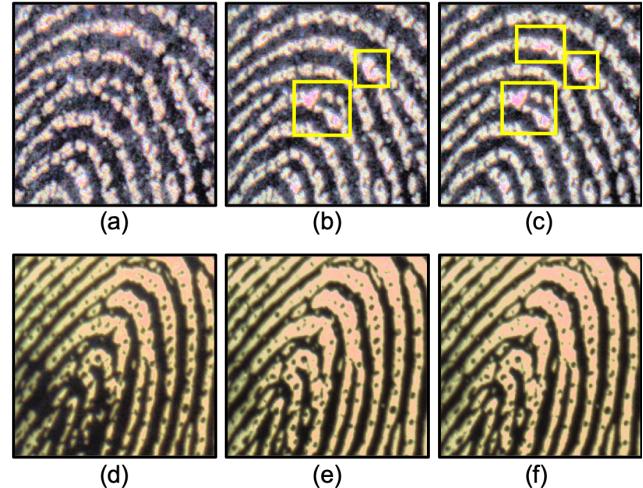


Figure 1. A sequence of ten color frames are captured by a SilkID SLK20R fingerprint reader in quick succession (8 fps). The first, fifth, and tenth frames from a live (a) - (c), and spoof (tan pigmented third degree) (d) - (f) finger are shown here. Unlike spoofs, in the case of live fingers, appearance of sweat near pores (highlighted in yellow boxes) and changes in skin color (pinkish red to pale yellow) along the frames can be observed.

with an accurate imitation of one's fingerprint fabricated for the purpose of stealing their identity. Techniques ranging from simple molding and casting to sophisticated 3D printing have been utilized to create spoofs with high fidelity [18, 3, 8]. Various readily available and inexpensive materials (e.g. gelatin, wood glue, play doh) can be used to create spoofs that are capable of circumventing a fingerprint recognition system. For instance, in March 2018, a gang in Rajasthan (India) bypassed the biometric attendance systems, using wood glue spoofs casted in wax molds, to provide proxies for police academy entrance exams⁶.

¹<https://www.dhs.gov/obim>

²<https://www.fbi.gov/services/cjis>

³<https://support.apple.com/en-us/HT201371>

⁴<https://uidai.gov.in/>

⁵Fingerprint spoofs are one of the most common forms of presentation attacks (PA). The ISO standard IEC 30107-1:2016(E) defines presentation

attacks as the “presentation to the biometric data capture subsystem with the goal of interfering with the operation of the biometric system”. Other forms of PAs include use of altered fingers and cadavers.

⁶<https://www.medianama.com/2018/03/223-cloned-thumb-prints-used-to-spoof-biometrics-and-allow-proxies-to-answer-online-rajasthan-police-exam/>

Table 1. Studies primarily focused on fingerprint spoof detection using temporal analysis.

Study	Approach	Database	Performance
Parthasaradhi et al. [22]	Temporal analysis of perspiration pattern along friction ridges	1, 840 live from 33 subjects and 1800 spoof from 2 materials, and 700 cadaver from 14 fingers	Avg. Classification Accuracy = 90%
Kolberg et al. [14]	Blood flow detection using a sequence of 40 Laser Speckle Contrast Images	1, 635 live from 163 subjects and 675 spoof images of 8 spoof materials (32 variants)	TDR = 90.99% @ FDR = 0.05%
Plesh et al. [23]	Fusion of static (LBP and CNN) and dynamic (changes in color ratio) features using a sequence of 2 color frames	14, 892 live and 21, 700 spoof images of 10 materials	TDR = 96.45% (known-material) @ FDR = 0.2%
Proposed Approach	Temporal analysis of minutiae-based local patch sequences from 10 color frames using CNN + LSTM model	26, 650 live from 685 subjects and 32, 910 spoof images of 7 materials (14 variants)	TDR = 99.15% (known-material) and TDR = 86.20% (cross-material) @ FDR = 0.2%

With the goal to detect such spoof attacks, various hardware and software-based spoof detection approaches have been proposed in literature [17]. The hardware-based approaches typically utilize specialized sensors to detect the signs of vitality (blood flow, heartbeat, etc.) and/or sensing technologies for sub-dermal imaging [14, 29, 7, 19]. On the other hand, software-based approaches extract salient cues, related to anatomical (pores) [25] and texture-based features [30], from the captured fingerprint image(s). Chugh et al. [6] utilized minutiae-based local patches to train deep neural networks that achieves state-of-the-art spoof detection performance. Gonzalez-Soler et al. [10] proposed fusion of feature encodings of dense-SIFT features for robust spoof detection.

Software-based approaches can be further classified into static and dynamic approaches based on the input. A static approach extracts discriminative spatial features from a single fingerprint image, while a dynamic approach utilizes an image sequence to extract spatial and/or temporal features for spoof detection. For a comprehensive review on the existing static approaches, readers are referred to [17, 9].

In the case of dynamic approaches, published studies utilize temporal analysis to capture the physiological features, such as perspiration [22, 16], blood flow [31, 14], skin distortion [1], and color change [31, 23]. Table 1 summarizes the dynamic approaches for fingerprint spoof detection reported in the literature. Some of the limitations of these studies include long capture time (2-5 seconds), expensive hardware, and/or small number of frames in the sequence. Moreover, it is likely that some live fingers may not exhibit any of these dynamic phenomena to separate them from spoofs. For instance, some dry fingers may not exhibit signs of perspiration during the finger presentation or a spoof may produce similar distortion characteristics as that of some live fingers.

We posit that automatic learning, as opposed to hand-engineering, of the dynamic features involved in the presentation of a finger can provide more robust and highly discriminating cues to distinguish live from spoofs. In this

study, we propose to use a CNN-LSTM architecture to learn the spatio-temporal features across different frames in a sequence. We utilize a sequence of minutiae-centered local patches extracted from ten colored frames captured by a COTS fingerprint reader, SilkID SLK20R⁷, at 8 fps to train the network in an end-to-end manner. The use of minutiae-based local patches has been shown to achieve state-of-the-art spoof detection performance compared to randomly selected local patches in static images [5]. Additionally, using minutiae-based local patches provides a large amount of training data, 71, 530 minutiae-based patch sequences, compared to 5, 956 whole-frame sequences.

The main contributions of this study are:

- Utilized sequences of minutiae-based local patches to train a CNN-LSTM architecture with the goal of learning discriminative spatio-temporal features for fingerprint spoof detection. The local patches are extracted from a sequence of ten colored frames captured in quick succession (8 fps) using a COTS fingerprint reader, SilkID SLK20R.
- Experimental results on a dataset of 26, 650 live captures from 685 subjects (1333 unique fingers) and 32, 930 spoof frames from 7 spoof materials (with 14 variants) shows that the proposed approach is able to improve the state-of-the-art cross-material performance from TDR of 81.65% to 86.20% @ FDR = 0.2%.

2. Proposed Approach

The proposed approach consists of: (a) detecting minutiae from each of the frames and selecting the frame with the highest number of minutiae as the reference frame, (b) preprocessing the sequence of frames to convert them from

⁷https://www.zkteco.com/en/product_detail/SLK20R.html

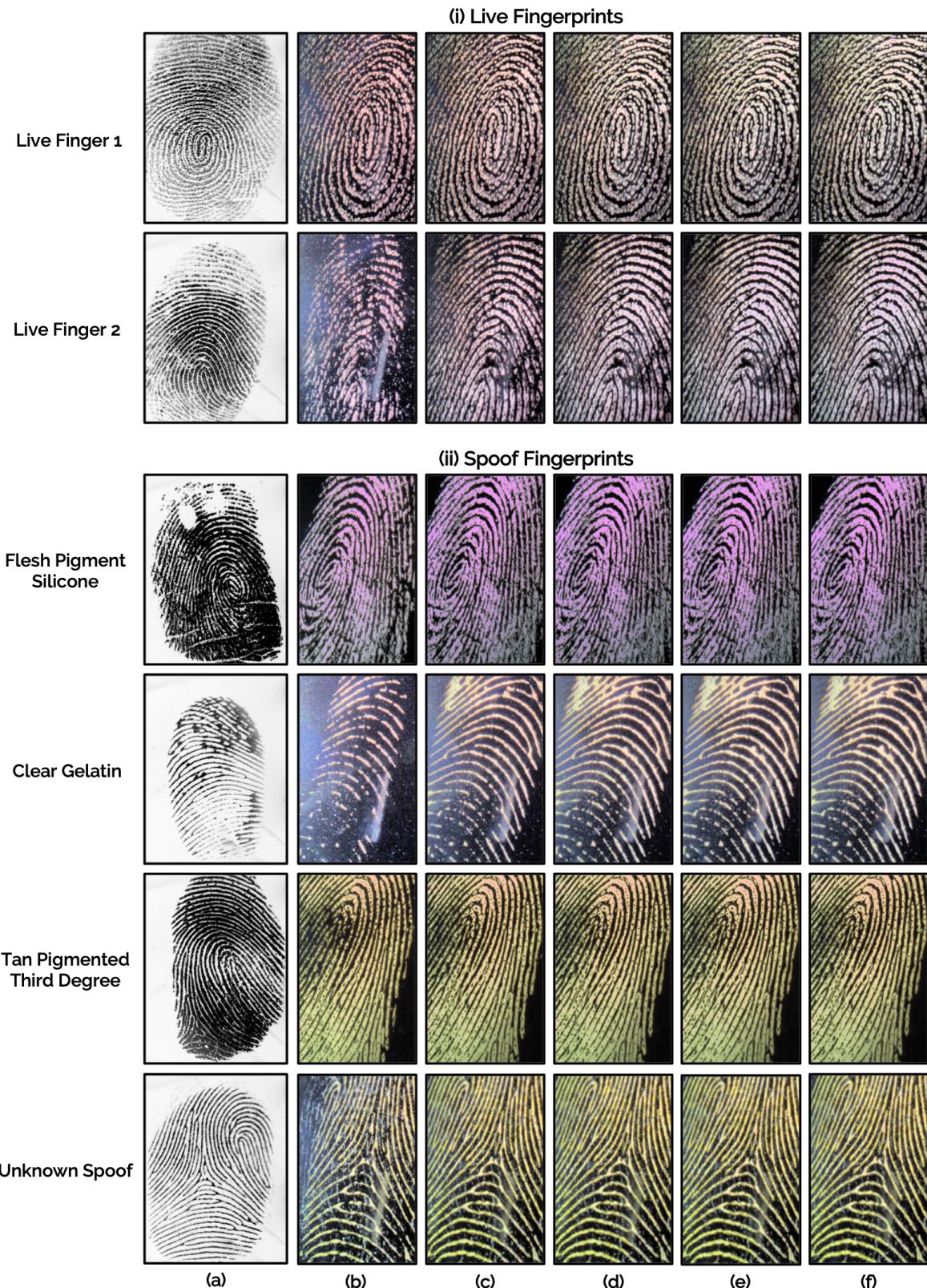


Figure 2. Examples of (i) live and (ii) spoof fingerprint images. (a) Grayscale 1000 ppi image, and (c)-(g) the first five (colored) frames captured by SilkID SLK20R Fast Frame Rate reader. Live frames exhibit the phenomenon of blanching of the skin, *i.e.* displacement of blood when a live finger is pressed on the glass platen changing the finger color from red/pink to pale white.

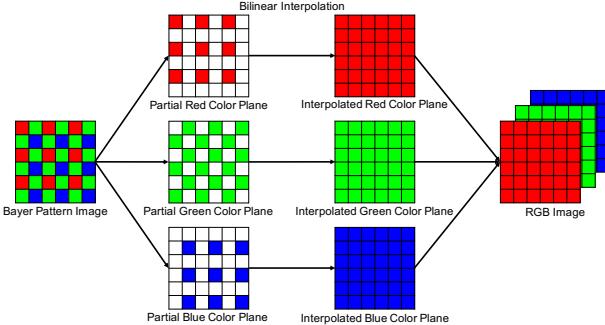


Figure 3. A Bayer color filter array consists of alternating rows of red-green and green-blue filters. Bilinear interpolation of each channel is utilized to construct the RGB image.

Bayer pattern grayscale images to RGB images, (c) extracting local patches (192×192) from all ten frames based on the location of detected minutiae in the reference frame, and (c) end-to-end training of a CNN-LSTM architecture using the sequences of minutiae-centered patches extracted from the ten frames. While a time-distributed CNN network (MobileNet-v1) with shared weights extracts deep features from the local patches, a bidirectional LSTM layer is utilized to learn the temporal relationship between the features extracted from the sequence. An overview of the proposed approach is presented in Figure 4.

2.1. Minutia Detection

When a finger (or spoof) is presented to the SilkID SLK20R fingerprint reader, it captures a sequence of ten color frames, $F = \{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_{10}\}$, at 8 frames per second⁸ (fps) and a resolution of 1000 ppi. While the complete sensing region ($h \times w$) in a SilkID fingerprint reader is 800×600 pixels, each of the ten colored frames are captured from a smaller central region of 630×390 pixels to ensure the fast frame rate of 8 fps. The starting and ending frames in the sequence may have little or no friction ridge details if the finger is not yet completely placed or quickly removed from the reader, respectively. Therefore, we extract minutiae information from all of the ten frames using the algorithm proposed by Cao et al. [4]. Since the minutiae detector proposed in [4] is optimized for 500 ppi fingerprint images, all frames are resized before extracting the minutiae. The frame with the maximum number of detected minutiae is selected as the reference frame (f^{ref}) and the corresponding minutiae set as the reference minutiae set (M^{ref}).

2.2. Pre-processing

A digital sensor, containing a large array of photo-sensitive sites (pixels), is typically used in conjunction with a color filter array to permit only particular colors of light

⁸It takes an average of 1.25 seconds to capture a sequence of ten frames.

at each pixel. SilkID fingerprint reader employs one of the most common filter arrays, called as *Bayer filter array*, consisting of alternating rows of red-green (RG) and green-blue (GB) filters. *Bayer demosaicing* [15] (debayering) is the process of converting a bayer pattern image to an image with complete RGB color information at each pixel. It utilizes bilinear interpolation technique [28] to estimate the missing pixels in the three color planes as shown in Figure 3. The original sequence of grayscale Bayer pattern frames ($10 \times 630 \times 390$) is converted to RGB colorspace using an OpenCV [2] function, `cv2.cvtColor()`, with the parameter `flag = cv2.COLOR_BAYER_BG2RGB`. After debayering, the frames have high pixel intensity values in the green channel (see Figure 4) as SilkID readers are calibrated with strong gains on green pixels for generating high quality FTIR images. We utilize these raw images for our experiments. For visualization purposes, we reduce the green channel intensity values by a factor of 0.58 and perform histogram equalization on intensity value in the HSV colorspace⁹ (see Figures 1 and 2).

2.3. Local Patch Extraction

For each of the detected minutiae from the reference frame, $m_i \in M^{ref}$, we extract a sequence of ten local patches, $P_i = \{p_i^1, p_i^2, \dots, p_i^{10}\}$, of size 192×192 , from the ten frames (F), centered at the minutiae location¹⁰, i.e. $m_i = \{x_i, y_i\}$. This results in a total of k patch sequences, where k is equal to the number of detected minutiae in the reference frame. Chugh et al. [5] reported that for 500 ppi fingerprint images, the minutiae-based patches of size 96×96 pixels achieved the best performance compared to patch sizes of 64×64 pixels and 128×128 pixels. Therefore, for 1000 ppi images in our case, we selected the patch size of 192×192 pixels to ensure similar amount of friction ridge area in each patch, as contained in 96×96 pixels patch size for 500 ppi fingerprint images.. Each local patch from the reference frame is centered around the minutiae. However, this might not hold true for non-reference frames where the minutiae may shift due to non-linear distortion of human skin and non-rigid spoof materials. We hypothesize that the proposed approach can utilize the differences in the non-linear shift along the sequences of local patches as a salient cue to distinguish between live and spoof presentations.

2.4. Network Architecture

Several deep Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) architectures, such as VGG [26], Inception-v3 [27],

⁹Reducing gain in green channel and histogram equalization achieved similar or lower performance compared to using raw color images. Therefore, raw images were used for all experiments.

¹⁰Minutiae coordinates extracted from the resized 500 ppi frames are doubled to correspond to minutiae coordinates in the original 1000 ppi frames.

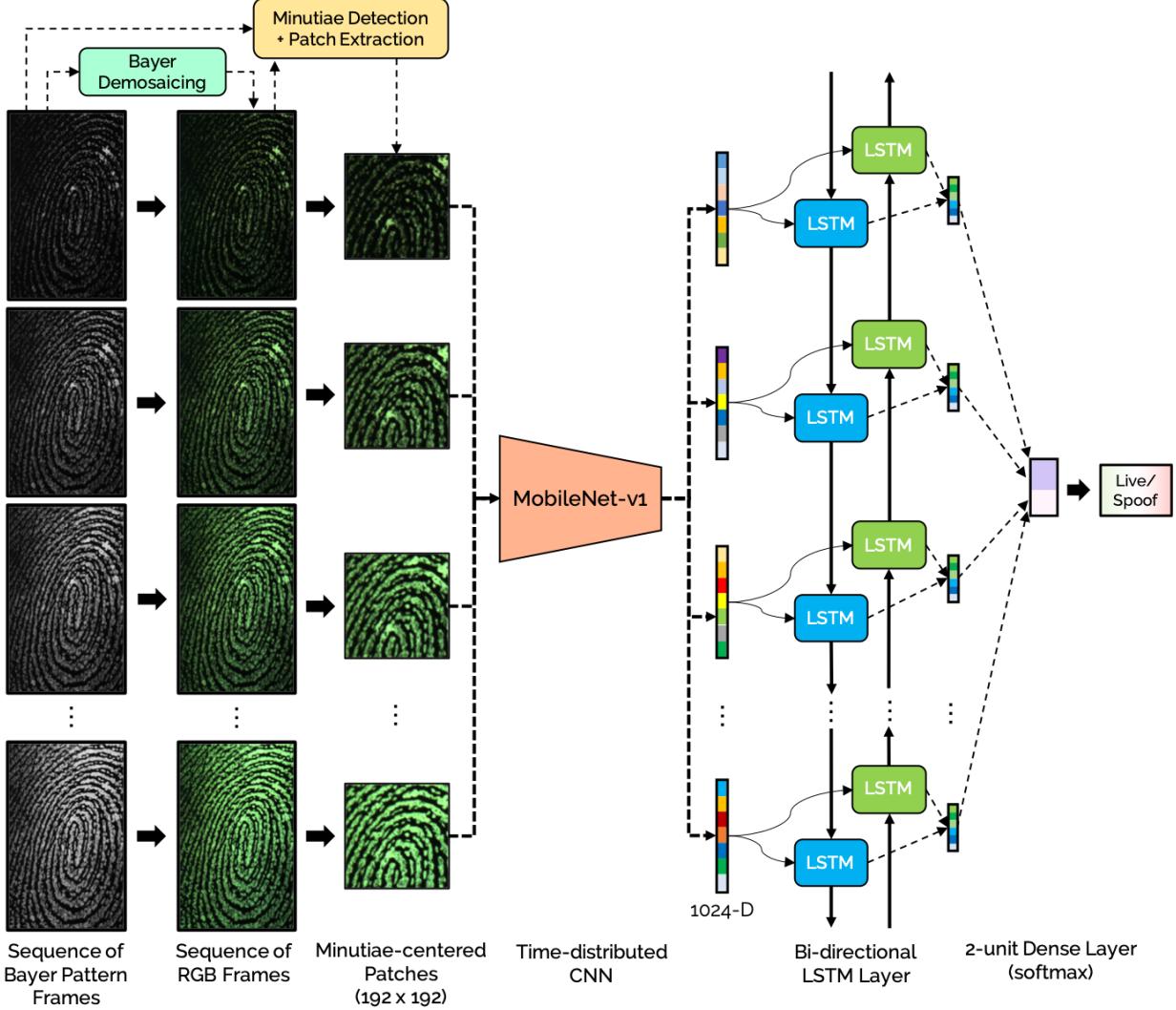


Figure 4. An overview of the proposed approach utilizing a CNN-LSTM model trained end-to-end on sequences of minutiae-centered local patches for fingerprint spoof detection.

MobileNet-v1 [12] etc., have been shown to achieve state-of-the-art performance for many vision-based tasks, including fingerprint spoof detection [20, 5]. Unlike traditional approaches where spatial filters are hand-engineered, CNNs can automatically learn salient features from the given image databases. However, as CNNs are feed-forward networks, they are not well-suited to capture the temporal dynamics involved in a sequence of images. On the other hand, a Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) architecture with feedback connections can process a sequence of data to learn the temporal features.

With the goal of learning highly discriminative and generalizable spatio-temporal features for fingerprint spoof detection, we utilize a joint CNN-RNN architecture that can extract deep spatial features from each frame, and learn the temporal relationship across the sequence. One of the

most popular RNN architectures is Long Short-Term Memory [11] that can learn long range dependencies from the input sequences. The proposed network architecture utilizes a time-distributed MobileNet-v1 CNN architecture followed by a Bi-directional LSTM layer¹¹ and a 2-unit softmax layer for the binary classification problem *i.e.* live vs. spoof. See Figure 4.

MobileNet-v1 is a low-latency network with only 4.24M trainable parameters compared to other networks, such as Inception-v3 (23.2M) and VGG (138M), which achieve comparable performance in large-scale vision tasks [24]. In low resource requirements such as smartphones and embedded devices, MobileNet-v1 is well-suited for real-time spoof detection. Most importantly, it has been shown to

¹¹Experiments with uni-directional LSTM layer achieved lower or similar performance compared to when using bi-directional layer.

Table 2. Summary of the fingerprint database utilized in this study.

Spoofer Material	Mold Type	# Presentations	# Frames
Ecoflex silicone			
• Ecoflex 00-35, flesh tone pigment	Dental	757	7,570
• Ecoflex 00-50, flesh tone pigment	3D Printed	138	1,380
• Ecoflex 00-50, tan pigment	3D Printed	130	1,300
Gelatin			
• Ballistic gelatin, flesh tone dye	3D Printed	50	500
• Knox gelatin, clear	3D Printed	84	840
Third degree silicone			
• Light flesh tone pigment	Dental	131	1,310
• Tan pigment	Dental	98	980
• Beige suede powder	Dental	43	430
• Medium flesh tone pigment	Dental	36	360
Crayola Model Magic			
• White color	Dental	910	9,100
• Red color	Dental	308	3,080
Pigmented Dragon Skin (flesh tone)			
Conductive Silicone			
Unknown Spoofer (JHU-APL)			
Total Spoofers		3,291	32,910
Total Lives (685 subjects)		2,665	26,650

Table 3. Performance comparison (TDR (%)) @ FDR = 0.2% between the proposed approach and the state-of-the-art [6] for known-material scenario, where the spoof materials used in testing are also known during training.

Approach	Architecture	TDR (%) (\pm s.d.) @ FDR = 0.2%
Still (Whole Image)	CNN	96.90 \pm 0.78
Still (Minutiae Patches) [6]	CNN	99.11 \pm 0.24
Sequence (Whole Frames)	CNN-LSTM	98.93 \pm 0.44
Sequence (Minutiae Patches)	CNN-LSTM	99.25 \pm 0.22

achieve state-of-the-art performance for fingerprint spoof detection [6] on publicly available datasets [9]. It takes an input image of size $224 \times 224 \times 3$, and outputs a 1024-dimensional feature vector (bottleneck layer). We resize the local patches from 192×192 to 224×224 as required by the MobileNet-v1 input. For the purposes of processing a sequence of images, we utilize a Keras’ TimeDistributed wrapper to utilize the MobileNet-v1 architecture as a feature extractor with shared parameters across different frames (time-steps) in the sequence.

2.5. Implementation Details

The network architecture is designed in the Keras framework¹² and trained from scratch on a Nvidia GTX 1080Ti GPU. We utilize the MobileNet-v1 architecture without its last layer wrapped in a Time-Distributed layer. The Bi-directional LSTM layer contains 256 units and has a dropout rate of 0.25. We utilize Adam [13] optimizer with a learning rate of 0.001 and a binary cross entropy loss func-

tion. The network is trained end-to-end with a batch size of 4. The network is trained for 80 epochs with early-stopping and *patience* = 20.

3. Experimental Results

3.1. Database

In this study, we utilize a large-scale fingerprint database of 26,650 live frames from 685 subjects, and 32,930 spoof frames of 7 materials (14 variants) collected on SilkID SLK20R fingerprint reader. This database is constructed by combining fingerprint images collected from two sources. First, as part of the IARPA ODIN program [21], a large-scale Government Controlled Test (GCT-3) was conducted at Johns Hopkins University Applied Physics Laboratory (JHUAPL) facility in Nov. 2019, where a total of 685 subjects with diverse demographics (in terms of age, profession, gender, and race) were recruited to present their real (live) as well as spoof biometric data (fingerprint, face, and iris). The spoof fingerprints were fabricated using 5 different spoof materials (11 variants) and a variety of fabrication techniques, including use of dental and 3D printed molds. For a balanced live and spoof data distribution, we utilize only right thumb and right index fingerprint images for the live data. Second, we collected spoof data in a lab setting¹³ using dental molds casted with three different materials, namely ecoflex (with flesh tone pigment), crayola model magic (red and white colors), and dragon skin (with

¹²<https://keras.io/>

¹³This database will be made accessible to the interested researchers after signing a license agreement.

Table 4. Performance comparison (TDR (%)) @ FDR = 0.2%) between the proposed approach and the state-of-the-art [6] for three cross-material scenarios, where the spoof materials used in testing are unknown during training.

Unknown Material	Baselines		Proposed Approach	
	Whole Image (Grayscale)	Fingerprint Spoof Buster [6]	Sequence of Whole Images	Sequence of Minutiae-based Patches
Third Degree	43.83	79.20	80.44	84.50
Gelatin	50.74	76.52	73.88	82.81
Ecoflex	77.37	89.23	87.55	91.28
Mean ± s.d.	57.31 ± 17.71	81.65 ± 6.70	80.62 ± 6.84	86.20 ± 4.48

flesh tone pigment). The details of the combined database are summarized in Table 2.

3.2. Results

To demonstrate the robustness of our proposed approach, we evaluate it under two different settings, namely *Known-Material* and *Cross-Material* scenarios.

3.2.1 Known-Material Scenario

In this scenario, the same set of spoof materials are included in the train and test sets. To evaluate this, we utilize five-fold cross validation splitting the live and spoof datasets in 80/20 splits for training and testing with no subject overlap. In each of the five folds, there are 21,320 live and 26,400 spoof frames in training and rest in testing. Table 3 presents the results achieved by the proposed approach on known-materials compared to a state-of-the-art approach [6] that utilizes minutiae-based local patches from static grayscale images. The proposed approach improves the spoof detection performance from TDR of 99.11% to 99.25% @ FDR = 0.2%.

3.2.2 Cross-Material Scenario

In this scenario, the spoof materials used in the test set are unknown during training. We simulate this scenario by adopting a leave-one-out protocol, where one material (including all its variants) is removed from training, and it is used for evaluating the trained model. It is a more challenging and practical setting as it evaluates the generalizability of a spoof detector against spoofs that are never seen during training. For instance, in one of the cross-material experiments, we exclude all of the third degree spoofs (pigmented, tan, beige powder, and medium) from training, and use them for testing. The live data is randomly divided in a 80/20 split, with no subject overlap, for training and testing, respectively. The proposed approach improves the cross-material spoof detection performance from TDR of 81.65% to 86.20% @ FDR = 0.2%. Table 4 presents the spoof detection performance achieved by the proposed approach, on three cross-material experiments, compared to a state-of-the-art approach.

3.3. Processing Times

The proposed network architecture takes around 4 – 6 hours to converge when trained with sequences of whole frames, and 24–30 hours with sequences of minutiae-based local patches, using a Nvidia GTX 1080Ti GPU. An average of 11 (13) sequences of minutiae-based local patches are extracted from the live (spoof) frames. The average classification time for a single presentation, including preprocessing, minutiae-detection, patch extraction, and sequence generation and inference, on a Nvidia GTX 1080 Ti GPU is 58ms for full frame-based sequences, and 393ms for minutiae-based patch sequences.

4. Conclusions

A robust and generalizable spoof detector is pivotal in the security and privacy of fingerprint recognition systems against unknown spoof attacks. In this study, we utilized a sequence of local patches centered at detected minutiae from ten color frames captured at 8 fps as the finger is presented on the sensor. We posit that the dynamics involved in the presentation of a finger, such as skin blanching, distortion, and perspiration, provide discriminating cues to distinguish live from spoofs. We utilize a jointly learned CNN-LSTM model to learn the spatio-temporal dynamics across different frames in the sequence. The proposed approach improves the spoof detection performance from TDR of 99.11% to 99.25% @ FDR = 0.2% in known-material scenarios, and from TDR of 81.65% to 86.20% @ FDR = 0.2% in cross-material scenarios. In future, we will explore the use of live sequences to learn a one-class classifier for generalized fingerprint spoof detection.

5. Acknowledgement

This research is based upon work supported in part by the Office of the Director of National Intelligence (ODNI), Intelligence Advanced Research Projects Activity (IARPA), via IARPA R&D Contract No. 2017 - 17020200004. The views and conclusions contained herein are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as necessarily representing the official policies, either expressed or implied, of ODNI, IARPA, or the U.S. Government. The U.S. Gov-

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