# On the intra-subject similarity of hand vein patterns in biometric recognition

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#### Abstract

In these years, biometric recognition based on hand vein patterns is receiving an always increasing attention from both industry and academia, thanks to the advantages it offers with respect to conventional approaches, such as those relying on fingerprint, iris, or face. Nevertheless, there are still several properties of vein traits that need to be investigated and well understood. In this paper, we here analyze the level of similarity, evaluated in terms of recognition rate of a biometric system, of vein patterns in the fingers, palms, and dorsa of a person's left and right hands. In other words, we analyse whether a subject, enrolled using vein patterns, either finger-vein, palm-vein, dorsal-vein, from one hand, can be recognized using the homologous patterns from the other hand. Our investigation is conducted using deep-learning-based feature extraction approaches, three different vein modalities, and four different databases. The obtained experimental results show that corresponding fingers, palms, and dorsal regions from different hands of the same subject show more resemblance with respect to the traits from the same hand of different persons. Furthermore, our findings point out that similarities among vein patterns in corresponding fingers could be used for recognition purposes, while this still cannot be applied to palm and dorsum vein patterns.

Keywords: Biometric Recognition, Vein Patterns, Deep Learning

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## 1. Introduction

The demand for applying biometric recognition technologies in real-life applications, ranging from consumer devices to border control, from surveillance to access control and financial services, to give few examples, is growing at an increasing pace. Face, fingerprint, iris, and voice are the most mature biometric traits currently exploited to automatically recognize people. Among the emerging modalities, both industry and academia are showing an always growing interest towards the exploitation of hand vein patterns, due to the several advantages such characteristics guarantee with respect to more established biometric modalities. In fact, vein patterns such as those present in the fingers, the palms, and the dorsa of our hands are more robust to presentation attacks than other biometric identifiers, being not publicly exposed. In addition, their acquisition can be made using a contactless approach, thus increasing user convenience.

Even though several systems, employed in real-life applications, already employ hand vein patterns for automatic biometric recognition, there are still several properties of these traits which have to be properly analyzed. Specifically, in this paper, within a biometric recognition framework, we investigate the existence of similar characteristics in the vein patterns of the right and left hands of the same subject. In more detail, the present study stems from our previous analysis (Piciucco et al., 2019), and provides the following additional insights:

- in this contribution, we perform a deeper analysis with respect to the one carried out in (Piciucco et al., 2019), where we have preliminary evaluated the existence of similar characteristics in the vein patterns of the corresponding fingers, belonging to the right and left hands of an individual. More specifically, in this paper we check the level of similarity among vein patterns of the right and left hand palms, of the right and left hand dorsa, and of the corresponding fingers in the right and the left hands;
- four distinct databases, to evaluate the existence of similar patterns in the veins of left and right hands, are here exploited, thus providing a more

statistical significant analysis of the one in (Piciucco et al., 2019), where a single dataset has been considered;

hand-crafted characteristics have been mostly considered in (Piciucco et al., 2019) to speculate about the similarity of left and right finger-vein patterns. On the other hand, we here resort to deep learning approaches to automatically process the considered traits. Specifically, we use a recently-introduced loss function (Deng et al., 2019) to improve the discriminability of the extracted features, even when performing an open-set training procedure. Furthermore, two distinct learning strategies are employed to derive the discriminative characteristics upon which our analyses are carried out. One of them has been specifically designed to look for similarities between the vein patterns of the right and left hands of a subject. As it will be shown in the following, the employed approach is able to locate similar characteristics between corresponding pairs of vein patterns, differently from the approaches presented in (Piciucco et al., 2019).

It is worth remarking that, to the best of our knowledge, no anatomical study has specifically investigated the existence of similarities between vein patterns in the left and right hands of a person. The present study, within the biometric framework, sheds a light on the topic using deep learning strategies, specifically designed to find such similarities.

The paper is structured as follows: in Section 2 we report a review of the state of the art about the evaluation of possible similarities between left and right instances of different biometric traits. Section 3 deals specifically with hand vein patterns, presenting the physiological background of the acquisition process, and the state-of-the-art papers. The frameworks employed in our analysis to process the considered hand vein patterns are detailed in Section 4, while the performed experimental tests, together with a discussion about the obtained results, are outlined in Section 5. Eventually, some conclusions are drawn in Section 6.

## 2. Similarities in Left and Right Biometric Traits of a Person

Potential similarities between biometric traits belonging to the right and left sides of the human body have been already investigated in the past within the biometric scenarios. The potential interchangeability of the enrolled biometric traits could lead to some benefits in real-world systems, such as avoiding re-enrollment in case one trait becomes no more usable, temporarily or permanently, thus increasing user convenience and flexibility.

Moreover, a clear understanding about the existence of such similarities could be beneficial to optimize the design of experimental protocols, deciding whether to exclude, from the samples used to estimate the distributions of the impostors' recognition scores, the traits belonging to a body side other than the one considered for the enrolment of a genuine subject. As a matter of fact, as a precaution, recommendations in the ISO/IEC 19795 standard (Information technology – Biometric performance testing and reporting) suggest to avoid the usage, as impostor attempts, of comparisons between left and right instances of the same biometric trait of a subject, since intra-individual differences are likely lower than inter-individual ones (International Organization for Standardization, 2006, paragraph 7.6.1.3).

The first exploration regarding possible similarities between left and right biometric traits of a subject has been reported in (Bowyer et al., 2010), where the left iris of each user is compared against the right ones of all considered subjects, relying on the binary iris template representation proposed by (Daugman, 2004). The obtained distance distributions, referred to comparisons between data from the same subjects and from different subjects, are basically overlapped, confirming that the left and right irises of the same person do not match any more closely than do the irises of different persons. Nonetheless, tests relying on human observers, which have been asked to judge whether a pair of left and right eye images have been taken from the same person, have been also reported in (Bowyer et al., 2010). Interestingly, the involved observers, without any specific knowledge on iris anatomy, correctly classified over 86% of the presented image pairs, a percentage slightly lowered to 83% in case either only the iris region, or only the periocular region, have been shown. Such results support the hypothesis that similar patterns between left and right irises actually exist, yet the employed automated iris biometric technology is not able to recognize them as effectively as humans can, suggesting that people interpret iris texture in a quite different way than iris biometric systems. As a side note, analogous results have been also reported in (Hollingsworth et al., 2011), where it has been shown that humans are also able to correctly match the irises of identical twins, while these latter are as different as those of unrelated people for a standard iris biometric recognition algorithm.

An investigation about the similarity of left and right ears of the same subjects has been conducted in (Claes et al., 2015). Tests relying on features extracted from 3D samples, and performed by comparing left ears against right ones, with instances from the same subject generating genuine scores and samples from different subjects resulting in impostor attempts, have shown that it is possible to achieve an equal error rate (EER) of 11%. This result, obtained by manually selecting specific substructures of the ear out of the available feature space, shows that differences among individuals are larger that those between left and right instances of the same subject.

A biometric recognition framework has been also exploited in (Xu et al., 2015) to infer about the similarity of left and right palmprints. Also in this case, each left palmprint, in the considered database, has been compared against every right palmprint of each subject, with the computed scores considered as genuine if originated from samples of the same person, and impostor otherwise. EERs at 24.22% and 35.82% have been obtained on two distinct dataset, showing that also the left and right palmprints of the same person generally have higher similarity than those from different subjects. In (Kumar et al., 2016), experiments similar to the ones in (Xu et al., 2015) have been carried out, yet exploiting deep learning strategies, in addition to state-of-the-art methods relying on hand-crafted features, to derive the palmprint representations employed in the performed tests. Training a network by assigning the same label to left

and right palmprints of the same user, an EER equal to 9.25% has been obtained comparing samples of different hands of the same individual, and samples from different persons. The achieved result has shown the superiority of deep learning strategies, over hand-crafted approaches, in finding similarities between left and right biometric instances of the same subject. It has yet to be remarked that a closed-set testing procedure, where tests are carried out over the same subjects employed for network training, has been adopted in (Kumar et al., 2016) to evaluate the effectiveness of the employed convolutional neural network (CNN) as feature extractor, therefore affecting the reliability and generalizability of the obtained results.

Tests on retinas have been recently conducted in (Biswas et al., 2019). A CNN trained only for dimensionality reduction has been there employed as feature extraction, and the scores generated by comparing templates associated to the two retinas of the same person have been compared against those obtained when comparing samples from different users. The observed behavior testifies that also the left and right retinas of a person have more similarity than the retinas from two distinct persons. As in (Bowyer et al., 2010), subjective tests relying on the judgement of human volunteers about the similarity of two retinas have been also performed. Also in this case, humans seem to possess an higher capability than currently available algorithms to detect similarities between left and right traits of the same person.

As mentioned in Section 1, the similarity of left and right finger-vein patterns has been preliminarily investigated in our previous work (Piciucco et al., 2019), where we have observed that, although corresponding fingers from different hands of the same subject show more resemblance than those from different persons, the similarities found through hand-crafted features are not significant enough to be exploited in a biometric recognition systems. In fact, EERs higher than 30% have been estimated in (Piciucco et al., 2019) using left and right finger-vein patterns as genuine comparisons.

Therefore, the literature suggests that hand-crafted features, despite allowing to perform standard biometric recognition, may not be suited for capturing



Figure 1: Light absorption (left) and therapeutic (right) windows

the similarities between left and right traits of the same individual, even if these similarities actually exist and are evident to a human observer. Conversely, leveraging on deep learning strategies could instead be beneficial to emulate human learning and discriminating capabilities, specifically looking for the desired similarities, as already shown for palmprints in (Kumar et al., 2016).

Within this framework, in this paper, we expand our previous research (Piciucco et al., 2019) not only by considering palm- and dorsal-vein patterns, in addition to finger-veins, but also employing a CNN-based approach to look for similarities between the vein patterns of the right and left hands of a subject, instead of resorting to hand-crafted features, in order to better mimic the human evaluation capability. The following sections give more details regarding the considered biometric traits and the exploited processing strategies.

## 3. Hand Vein Biometric Recognition

In the late 80s, vascular patterns have been introduced as a potential biometric identifier (Rice, 1987), exploiting the properties of near-infrared (NIR) light to pass through human skin, and to be absorbed by blood haemoglobin in vein vessels. These characteristics are described by the *light absorption window* and the *therapeutic window* depicted in Figure 1:

• *light absorption window*: the wavelengths interval [700, 900] *nm* where the oxygenated and the deoxygeneted haemoglobin reaches its light absorption

peak between (DeoxyHb: 760nm; OxyHb: 900nm);

• therapeutic window: the wavelengths interval, [650, 1350] nm, where the light has its maximum depth of penetration in the human tissue.

As a consequence, the NIR light absorption capability of haemoglobin makes the blood vessels appearing darker while the remaining parts of the body reflect the light in specific NIR wavelength windows. Thus, vascular patterns can be acquired using a NIR camera, equipped with a NIR illuminator working either in the transmission or the reflection modality.

A brief overview about the state of the art on biometric recognition systems exploiting finger, hand, and dorsal vein patterns, is reported in the following, and a summary of the main features of the systems operating in the verification modality is given in Table 1. A deeper evaluation of the state of the art on vein biometric recognition has been recently provided in (Uhl et al., 2020).

#### 3.1. Traditional Approaches

The methods employed to process vein patterns in biometric recognition systems are typically distinguished into profile-based and feature-based approaches. The former category is focused on the extraction of the cross-sectional contour of the veins in an image. For instance, the maximum curvature approach (Miura et al., 2007) leads to robust performance on different finger-vein databases. Instead, feature-based approaches rely on the assumption that the vein regions areas are darker compared to remaining parts of the hand, and line-like shapes are interpreted as vein patterns in the contour of vein images. For example, methods extracting minutiae features on the line patterns, and using the Hausdorff distance in spatial domain, e.g. (Wang et al., 2008), to measure their similarities, belong to the latter category.

In more detail, early attempts to use palm vein biometrics relied on featurebased approaches on a dataset, namely the PolyU-P palm vein database, composed by RGB images in both the visible and NIR sub-bands (Zhang et al., 2009). Both palm print features from the RGB sub-bands, and palm vein features from the NIR sub-band, have been extracted using texture-based coding

	Vein Database Proposed System E					EER	
Reference	Pattern	Name	# Users	Comment	Feature Extraction	Matching	(in %)
	Dorsal	OWN	200				0.015
(11)	Finger	FV-USM	123	Data from distinct sessions are separately used for	Multi-weighted	Large Margin	0.307
(Wang et al., 2020)	Palm	PUT	50	training and testing, yet the same subjects are	Co-occurence	Distribution	0.615
	Palm	PolyU-P	200	considered in the two phases (closed-set scenario).	Descriptor Encoding	Machine	0.017
	Finger	SDUMLA	636				0.02
	Finger	PolvU-F	312	Data from distinct sessions are separately used for			1.87
(Kuzu et al., 2020a)	Palm	PolyU-P	500	training and testing, with different subjects	Modified Densenet-161	Channel-wise	0.00
( , ,	Palm	CASIA	200	considered in the two phases (open-set scenario)	with AAMP	Euclidian Distance	1.12
	Dorsal	Bosphorus	100	commenced in the test primes (open set comment).			2.58
		PolyU-P	250				1.98
		PUT	50	Template generation performed using 4 samples	ROI Enhancement	Normalized	0.00
(Ahmad et al., 2019)	Palm	VERA	110	from each genuine subject, exploiting cancelable	Followed by Wave	Hamming Distance	3.05
		OWN	50	transformation to ensure preserving the privacy.	Atom Transform	manning Distance	1.49
		CASIA	100	It is not specified whether data taken during the	Haar-Wavelet Decomposition		0.029
(Wu et al., 2019)	Palm	OWN	250	same session are used for training and testing	and Partial Loast Square	Euclidian Distance	0.405
		0111	200	Data from distingt sessions are constately used for	und Furthi Leuse Oquine		0.400
(Oin et al. 2019)	Palm	PolyU-P	250	training and testing, yet the same subjects are	Iterative Deep	Hamming Distance	0.01
(qm et m., 2010)		CASIA	100	considered in the two phases (closed set seemeric)	Belief Network	manning Distance	0.33
		THU EVEDT2	610	THU EVEDT2 splitted into disjoint sets for training	Concretive Adversarial Networks	Cross Correlation on	1.19
(Yang et al., 2019)	Finger	SDUMLA	106	validation and test SDUMIA used for perification	for Finger Voin (FV CAN)	Ringerized Templetec	0.04
		PolyU P	250	validation, and test. SDCMEA used for vermication.	for Finger Veni (FV-GAIN)	billarized Templates	0.54
(There are at al. 2010)	Delm	CASIA	100	Data divided in two sets having the same size,	U-Net like Decoder-Encoder	Siamese Matching	2.71
(1napar et al., 2019)	raim	UTI	100	the first half for training and the other for testing.	CNN Architecture	Network	0.02
		1111	185	Data divided in two acts busines the same size			0.95
(Compost of 20010)	Diaman and	SDUMLA	106	Data divided in two sets having the same size.	Densenet-161 on	Shift Matching and	2.35
(Song et al., 2019)	ringer	PolyU-F	156	lests on PolyC-P conducted using same-session	Composite Finger Images	Minimum Rule	0.33
	Deles	D-laU D	950	These densed using determined and new of			0.01
(71 1 0010)	raim D	FOIYU-F	230	Three dorsal vein dataset is combined and named	Deep Hashing Network	SVM	0.01
(Zhong et al., 2019)	Dorsai Multi	Deinste	420	as NGA (NCU1 + GFDS + AJ10). Multi-veli	Biometric Graph Matching	Hamming Distance	0.00
	Dales	Private D-laU D	37	dataset is composed of paint and dorsal vent		-	0.00
	Palm	FOIYU-F	230	The series to detably a series of a 2 series	NGC 16 combined with		0.04
(Pan et al., 2019)	Palm	Pul	30	The private database is acquired as 2 sessions,	I MD DED and DCA	SVM	1.74
	Damal	Private	224	each includes 5 images.	LMF-FSF and FCA		1.74
	Dorsai	Private	224		0		1.28
(Wang et al., 2018)	raim D	FOIYU-F	230	it is not specified whether data taken during the	Spatial Fyramid Fooling	SVM Classifier	0.07
	Dorsai	OWN	200	same session are used for training and testing.	on pre-trained VGG16	0001.00	0.06
(Fang et al., 2018)	Finger	MMCBNU	100	Data from the same subjects are considered	2-Channel Network, 2-Stream	SVM Classifier	0.10
	~	SDUMLA	100	for testing and training (closed-set scenario).	Network, and Selective Network	with Linear Kernel	0.47
(17 1 2010)	***	SDUMLA	106	lests conducted in same- and different-session	Anatomy Structure Analysis	T1 (1.14)	1.39
(Yang et al., 2018)	Finger	PolvU-F	105	conditions for training and testing (results	based Vein Extraction (ASAVE)	Elastic Matching	2.91
				from the latter scenario here reported).	. ,		
(* *** * *** * ****		SDUMLA	106	Tests conducted dividing each dataset into		Cross Correlation on	2.63
(Jalilian & Uhl, 2018)	Finger	UTFVP	60	two disjoint subsets. Cross-database	U-Net, RefineNet, SegNet	Binarized Templates	0.64
				conditions also considered.			
(Xie & Kumar 2017)	Finger	PolvU-F	156	Training and testing conducted on distinct users.	Modified VGG-16 with	Hamming Distance	9.77
(				-	Supervised Discrete Hashing		0.111
(Kauba et al. 2016)	Finger	UTEVP	60	Parameter tuning performed using 10% of available	Feature Level Fusion	Cross Correlation on	0.19
(				data, the rest employed to estimate EER.		Binarized Templates	
(Das.et.al. 2014)	Wrist	PUT	50	Data from the same sessions and the same subjects	Discrete Meyer Wavelet	SVM Classifier	0.79
(=== == == =)				used for training and testing (closed-set scenario).	and Local Binary Patterns		
(Kabaciński & Kowalski 2011)	Wrist	PUT	50	Training and testing on data from different sessions	Discrete Fourer Transform	Cross Correlation on	2.19
(Itabacinski & Itowaiski, 2011)		101		framing and cosing on data non-different seconds.	and Gradient-based Segmentation	Binarized Templates	2.10
(Yuksel et al. 2011)	Doreal	Bosphorus	100	Different environmental scenarios considered in tests	Eusion of LEM_NME and ICA	Hausdorff Distance,	2.25
(1000010000., 2011)	Doisai	Doophorus	1.50	Different environmental scenarios considered in tests.	reach of hear, whit and tex	Cosine Distance	2.20
(Kumar & Zhou 2011)	Finger	PolyU-F	156	Tests conducted in same- and different-session	Radon Transform and	XOR-based	A: 2.45
(	- m8c1	10090-1	100	conditions for training and testing.	Gabor Filters	Similarity Score	B: 0.08
(Zhou & Kumar 2011)	Palm	PolyU-P	250	Training and testing on data from different sessions	Neighborhood Matching	Hamming Distance	0.21
(znou & Rumar, 2011)	1 allii	CASIA	100	rranning and testing on data from different sessions.	Radon Transform	manning Distance	1.37
(Zhang et al. 2009)	Palm	PolyII-P	250	Training and testing on data from same costions	Texture based Coding	Hamming Distance	0.01
(zmmg ce m., 2009)	1.0000	10190-1	2.50	rianning and vesting on data from same sessions.	and Gabor Filters	manning Distance	0.01

Table 1: Vein based recognition systems: State-of-the-art

algorithm, and six Gabor filters along with different directions. An Equal Error Rate (EER) at 0.012% has been obtained after fusing the scores obtained from each channel.

In (Zhou & Kumar, 2011) the templates have been generated using a neighbourhood Radon transform, and a modified Hamming distance has been used for comparison. Tests performed on the PolyU-P dataset have resulted in EERs at 0.004% and 0.21% when respectively using either six or one enrollment samples per user. EERs at 1.37% and 0.51% have been obtained when using either one or three enrollment samples per user, respectively on images from the CASIA dataset (Hao et al., 2008). Experiments conducted on the PolyU-F finger vein dataset (Zhang et al., 2009) have provided an EER equal to 0.08% by fusing index and middle finger features (Kumar & Zhou, 2011). It is also there remarked

that a bias in the estimated performance can be introduced when comparing vein samples taken during the same session, with the consequent need, whenever possible, to compare vein samples captured in different occasions.

Tests on the SDUMLA (Yin et al., 2011) and PolyU-F have produced EERs at 1.39% and 0.38%, respectively, by using anatomy-structure analysis-based vein extraction (ASAVE) and elastic matching (Yang et al., 2018). On the UTFVP finger-vein database, an EER at 0.19% has been also obtained resorting to feature level fusion (Ton & Veldhuis, 2013).

Dorsal hand veins have been analyzed using a score level fusion approach relying on features extracted by line-edge map, non-negative matrix factorization, and independent component analysis (Yuksel et al., 2011). The reported EERs, on the Bosphorus dataset, for the naive tests implementing one-sample enrollment, and for tests implementing the enrollment stage with eight samples, are 8.18% and 2.25% respectively. It is worth remarking that, in the aforementioned studies, real-life conditions have been implemented in order to infer about the potential performance degradation.

#### 3.2. Deep Learning-based Approaches

Recent progresses in deep learning are positively affecting the biometric field, among the others. The approach in (Radzi et al., 2016) is one the pioneering methods performing finger-vein recognition resorting to Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs). Specifically, the employed architecture is a 4-layer CNN followed by a subsampling layer, while tests have been conducted on data recorded from 50 subjects. After this initial effort, there has been a flourishing of contributions applying deep learning to vein-based recognition systems.

Lightweight CNNs have also been exploited to extract templates from fingervein samples taken from the MMCBNU (Lu et al., 2013) and the SDUMLA datasets (Fang et al., 2018). A selective network able to automatically choose one of them, depending on the features intra-class variations, has been built, with a support vector machine (SVM) having linear kernel employed for matching. Although promising results have been there reported, with EERs at 0.10% on MMCBNU and 0.47% on SDUMLA, these results are biased, being obtained considering the same subjects during both training and testing, besides achieving these rates computing scores as averages over 5 comparisons.

Tests on PolyU and SDUMLA finger-vein datasets have been conducted also using the Densenet-161 architecture (Song et al., 2019). The authors have initially built composite samples from vein images by shifting each of them into various directions, and extracted features by using Densenet-161 thereafter. Experiments have been performed dividing the available data into two disjoint sets, with EERs obtained using a 2-fold cross-validation equal to 0.33% and 2.35% on PolyU-F and SDUMLA datasets, respectively. It has yet to be remarked that tests have been done considering only the first session of PolyU-F, therefore providing results which should be considered biased.

Different deep image segmentation algorithms, relying on U-Net, RefineNet, and SegNet frameworks, have been investigated in (Jalilian & Uhl, 2018), using human-annotated pixel-labels as ground-truth to create binary templates. EERs at 2.63% and 0.64% have been respectively reported on the SDUMLA and UTFVP finger-vein datasets. Features co-occurrence among different convolutional filters has been considered in (Wang et al., 2020). To test the robustness of their method, the authors have considered different vein modalities, namely dorsal-, palm-, and finger-vein. An innovative approach to perform on-the-fly finger vein acquisition, along with a novel deep learning architecture using both long short-term memory networks and convolutional neural networks, has been recently proposed (Kuzu et al., 2020b).

Also generative adversarial networks (GANs) have been used to analyze finger-vein patterns (Yang et al., 2019). Although GANs originally represent generative models for data synthesis, they have been employed to generate discriminative templates from vein patterns (Yang et al., 2019). The THU-FVFDT2 (Yang et al., 2009) and SDUMLA datasets, containing multiple sessions of finger-vein data from 610 and 106 unique subjects respectively, have been used for testing purposes. Specifically, the former dataset has been divided into distinct subsets for training, validation, and testing purposes, while the latter has been used only to re-validate the proposed system. Recognition rates with EERs at 1.12% and 0.94% have been respectively reached on the two datasets.

## 4. Employed CNN-based Recognition System

In this Section, the network topology employed for our analysis is described, along with the network initialization and optimization.

## 4.1. Network Topology

In this study we exploit a modified Densenet-161 architecture (Huang et al., 2017), where the last layer is replaced with a Custom Embedder, as detailed in Table 2. To elaborate on the architecture,  $224 \times 224 \times N_c$  input images are fed into the model, being  $N_c$  the number of available channels. The first convolution layer comprises 96 convolutional filters having size  $7 \times 7$  and stride 2. A  $3 \times 3$  maximum pooling with stride 2 is then used. Dense blocks and transition layers follow each other one by one prior to the Custom Embedder. Here, a dense block is composed of a sub-block of batch normalization (BN) -ReLU -  $1 \times 1$  convolution, which is called as bottleneck layer, and a sub-block of BN - ReLU -  $3 \times 3$  convolution with zero paddings on each side of input by one pixel. On the other hand, a transition layer connects two consecutive dense blocks by BN - ReLU -  $1 \times 1$  Convolution and  $2 \times 2$  average pooling having stride 2. The output of last dense block is fed into the Feature Embedder which is composed of following units: i) batch-normalization of input (vein) features followed by a 50% dropout regularisation employed to reduce overfitting, ii) one fully-connected (FC) layer comprising batch-normalization, consisting of d = 1024 neurons, being d the feature embedding size. The last FC layer of the network in Table 2 produces as output a vector with size U, depending on the total number of unique identities available in the considered training dataset.

In order to generate discriminative templates, following the latest achievements in CNN-based biometric recognition, the Additive Angular Margin Penalty

	Layers	Input	Output
Convolution	$7 \times 7 \text{ conv (str.2)}$	$224 \times 224 \times 1$	$112\times112\times96$
Pooling	$3 \times 3 \max \text{ pool (str.2)}$	$112\times112\times96$	$56\times56\times96$
Dense Block 1	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1 \operatorname{conv} \\ 3 \times 3 \operatorname{conv} \end{bmatrix} \times 6$	$56\times56\times96$	$56\times 56\times 384$
Transition 1	$\frac{1 \times 1 \text{ conv}}{2 \times 2 \text{ avg pool (str.2)}}$	$56\times56\times384$	$28\times28\times192$
Dense Block 2	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1 \text{ conv} \\ 3 \times 3 \text{ conv} \end{bmatrix} \times 12$	$28\times28\times192$	$28\times28\times768$
Transition 2	$\frac{1 \times 1 \text{ conv}}{2 \times 2 \text{ avg pool (str.2)}}$	$28\times28\times768$	$14\times14\times384$
Dense Block 3	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1 \text{ conv} \\ 3 \times 3 \text{ conv} \end{bmatrix} \times 36$	$14\times14\times384$	$14\times14\times2112$
Transition 3	$\frac{1 \times 1 \text{ conv}}{2 \times 2 \text{ avg pool (str.2)}}$	$14\times14\times2112$	$7\times7\times1056$
Dense Block 4	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 1 \text{ conv} \\ 3 \times 3 \text{ conv} \end{bmatrix} \times 24$	$7\times7\times1056$	$7\times7\times2208$
Custom	$\begin{array}{c} 7\times7 \text{ avg pool}\\ \text{BN}\\ 50\% \text{ dropout} \end{array}$	$7 \times 7 \times 2208$	$1 \times 2208$
Embedder	FC layer BN	$1 \times 2208$	$1 \times 1024$
Classifier	output layer	$1 \times 1024$	$1 \times U$

Table 2: The applied custom Densenet-161-based architecture

(AAMP) (Deng et al., 2019) is adopted as loss function in the training phase of the employed network. It has been in fact shown that such approach guarantees an increase in the Euclidian separation of the produced features, thus reducing intra-class variances while increasing inter-class distances (Deng et al., 2019). The AAMP loss function is therefore recommended to train networks to be employed as feature extractors in biometric systems working in the verification modality, and evaluated according to open-set procedures, in which the subjects exploited for testing purposes and different from those considered during training.

As illustrated in Figure 2, vein features of the enrollment and the query inputs, created by the CNN Feature Embedder, are compared during the testing phase by using Euclidian Distance, after their  $L_2$  normalization<sup>2</sup>.

 $<sup>^2 \</sup>rm The \ source \ code \ of \ the \ employed \ architectures \ is \ available \ at \ https://github.com/ridva nsalihkuzu/vein-biometrics$ 



Figure 2: Visual explanation of the training, validation, and testing procedures in the performed tests.

#### 4.2. Network Initialization and Optimization

The adopted CNN is trained for classification purposes, with the features produced by the proposed Custom Embedder taken as generated templates. The loss function adopted for training is the cross-entropy (CE), while backpropagation is performed resorting to stochastic gradient descent (SGD), and using i) 32 samples in each batch, ii) 0.01 as initial learning rate, reduced tenfold after every 30 epochs, iii) a 0.9 momentum, iv) 120 training epochs at most, with training stopped in case of minimization of the validation loss.

While searching the best hyper-parameters of AAMP, the penalty margin is selected within the range  $m \in [0.3, 0.7]$ , while the scale parameter determined within the interval  $s \in [16, 96]$ .

For the initialization of the Densenet-161 framework, the weights of the Imagenet pre-trained model are used. Moreover, the custom layers defined in the modified Densenet-161 (seen in Table 2) are initialized with i) unit weight initialization for BN layers, ii) Glorot uniform initialization for FC layers.

#### 5. Experimental analysis and discussion

Our analysis aims at verifying whether vein patterns of one hand of a subject have a greater amount of similarity with the analogous traits of the other hand



Figure 3: From left to right for one single subject: left hand - first instance, left hand - second instance, right hand.

of the same subject, rather than with the analogous traits of the same hand of a different person. To this aim, several kinds of vein patterns, namely finger, palm, and dorsal hand veins, have been considered in the performed tests. Specifically, as summarized in Table 3, we have estimated different score distributions according to the following scenarios, with some examples graphically depicted in Figure 3:

- *genuine* scores are computed comparing vein patterns extracted from the same finger of the same hand of the same subject. As an example, given a certain subject, comparisons between distinct instances of patterns belonging to the same right index finger are performed. For palm and dorsal vein recognition, genuine scores are computed comparing vein patterns from the same hand of the same individual;
- *impostor* scores are computed, for finger vein recognition, by comparing

Scenario	Subjects	Hands	Fingers	Scores
1	same	same	same	genuine
2	different	same	same	impostor
3	same	different	same	genuine CH
4	different	different	same	impostor CH

Table 3: Conditions considered to compute the score distributions.

vein patterns extracted from the same finger of the same hand of different subjects. As an example, veins from the right index of a person are compared against those of a different person's right index. For palm and dorsal vein recognition, impostor scores are computed comparing veins from the same hand of different individuals;

- genuine cross-hand (CH) scores are computed, for finger vein recognition and given a certain subject, comparing patterns from corresponding finger from different hands. As an example, veins in the right index are compared against those in the left index of the same person. For palm and dorsal vein recognition, genuine CH scores are computed comparing patterns from different hands of the same subject;
- *impostor CH* scores are computed, for finger vein recognition, by comparing vein patterns extracted from the same finger of different hands of different subjects. As an example, veins in the right index of a person are compared against those of a different person's left index. For palm and dorsal vein recognition, impostor CH scores are computed comparing veins from different hands of different individuals.

The databases employed to estimate the aforementioned score distributions are detailed in Section 5.1. The adopted experimental protocols are then presented in Section 5.2. Vein patterns cross-hand similarity is finally discussed in Section 5.3.

## 5.1. Employed Databases

In order to provide a comprehensive analysis regarding cross-hand vein pattern similarity, tests have been performed on finger, palm, and dorsal characteristics. To this aim, we have exploited finger vein samples taken from the SDUMLA dataset (Yin et al., 2011), palm vein data from the PolyU-P multispectral dataset (Zhang et al., 2009), dorsal hand vein images from the Bosphorus dataset (Yuksel et al., 2011), and the multi-exposure finger vein dataset captured at Roma Tre University, namely R3VEIN (Kuzu et al., 2020b). For

Benchmark Database	Vein Modality	Database Statistics		Capturing Conditions	Capturing Parts
	Finger	# of Subjects	106	-	3 fingers from left and right hands
		# of Classes	636	grayscale single channel	
SDUMLA (Yin et al., 2011)		# of Sessions	1		
		Samples per Session	6		
		Total Samples	3.816		
		# of Subjects	250	4 different spectral channels	
	Palm	# of Classes	500		left and right hand palms
PolyU-P (Zhang et al., 2009)		# of Sessions	2		
		Samples per Session	6		
		Total Samples	24.000		
	Dorsal	# of Subjects	100	4 different environmental conditions	left and right dorsal-hand
		# of Classes	200		
Bosphorus (Yuksel et al., 2011)		# of Sessions	1		
		Samples per Session	3		
		Total Samples	1.500		
	Finger	# of Subjects	200	4 different	4-finger images (except thumb) from left and right hand
		# of Classes	400	channel for	
R3VEIN (Kuzu et al., 2020b)		# of Sessions	10	varving	
		Samples per Session	9	exposure rates	
		Total Samples	144.000	caposure rates	

Table 4: Overview of vein databases applied in this study

PolyU-P dataset, only NIR channel images are considered. Similarly, when using the R3VEIN dataset in our experiments, tone-mapped high dynamic range (HDR) samples are generated from 4 images taken at different exposure rates (Kuzu et al., 2020b). The main properties of the considered datasets are summarized in Table 4. All the images of the considered datasets are re-sized into a  $224 \times 224$  format, and normalized in order to possess zero mean and unitary variance, before using them as input for the considered networks.

#### 5.2. Experimental Framework

Two different CNN training strategies are employed on the considered datasets:

- *Training Strategy-1:* All different hand and fingers are treated as separate classes during training and validation;
- Training Strategy-2: different hands of the same user, as well as corresponding fingers from different hands of the same user, are considered as belonging to the same classes during network training and validation. This training strategy is carried out to explicitly trying to extract discriminative features shared by the vein structures in distinct hands of the same individual.

Once the employed network has been trained according to one of the aforementioned strategies, similarity scores belonging to the categories mentioned in Table 3 have been computed over samples considered during the test phases. Once such distributions have been generated, the false rejection rate (FRR) and the false acceptance rate (FAR) associated to the following scenarios have been estimated:

- *Standard comparisons*: as commonly done in biometric recognition testing, each finger or each hand of a subject is considered as a class. FRR and FAR are therefore computed from the *genuine* and *impostor* scores previously defined;
- Cross-comparisons: the possibility of interchangeably employing different hands to be recognized, on the basis of the extracted vein patterns, is analyzed by computing the FRR and FAR depending on genuine CH and impostor scores, or considering genuine CH and impostor CH scores.

While conducting the experiments, the considered datasets have been divided into two subsets having the same size, and separately uses for training and testing, with 20% of the data selected for training reserved for validation purposes. An open-set scenario has been considered in all the performed tests, taking half of the available classes for training, and leaving the remaining half for testing. When considering databases with multiple sessions, data from distinct sessions have been used for enrollment and verification, with the aim of avoiding any bias effect.

Experiments have been conducted using a dual-processor system equipped with 128Gb RAM, four NVIDIA<sup>TM</sup> Tesla V100 graphic cards, running under Ubuntu 18.04 LTE OS and using PyTorch 1.4.0.

#### 5.3. Similarity of Cross-Hand Templates

The computed score distributions are shown in Figure 4. Considering the values obtained when employing *Training Strategy-1*, it can be observed that *genuine CH* scores are typically lower than those of *impostor* and *impostor CH* 



Figure 4: Genuine, Genuine-CH, Impostor, and Impostor CH score distributions for experiments on the considered databases, using *Training Strategy-1* and *Training Strategy-2*.

Databases	Training S	Strategy-1	Training Strategy-2		
Databases	Standard	Cross	Standard	Cross	
	Comparison	Comparison	Comparison	Comparison	
SDUMLA	0.02%	22.1%	0.23%	10.9%	
PolyU-P	0.22%	38.5%	0.86%	25.3%	
Bosphorus	2.33%	30.8%	2.79%	23.9%	
R3VEIN	0.57%	17.6%	1.19%	4.46%	

Table 5: EERs (in %) for the performed tests based on different training strategies

distributions. This finding already corroborates the hypothesis that left and right hand vein patterns of the same persons are more similar than those of unrelated persons. This aspect is particularly evident for finger-vein patterns, as shown by the results on SDUMLA and R3VEIN databases.

Furthermore, the scores obtained using *Training Strategy-2* are characterized by a far larger separation between *genuine CH* and *impostor* scores, testifying the effectiveness of the employed training procedure in finding common characteristics in left and right hand vein patterns, while preserving their inter-subject discriminability.

It can also be noticed that *impostor* and *impostor* CH distributions are almost overlapped, for all the considered databases and for both the employed training strategies. Minimal differences can be seen only for PolyU-P and Bosphorus databases, when *Training-Strategy-1* is employed. Using *Training-Strategy-2*, specifically designed to look for similarities in left and right hands, even such slight differences disappear. This behavior means that vein patterns of different persons are so different that it does not matter which hand is used by an attacker for an impostor attempt (given that the system compares mirrored images, in case left and right hands are compared).

The EERs achieved using the recognition strategy detailed in Section 4, for each of the test conditions, are reported in Table 5. The results obtained considering the *Training Strategy-1* scenario show that, when fingers, palm, and dorsal veins from left and right hands are considered as separate classes during training, the recognition performance are quite poor if a palm or a finger is used for enrollment, and the corresponding ones from the other hand are then used for recognition. This can be clearly seen by comparing the recognition

rates achieved in the *standard comparison* and *cross-comparison* test scenarios: considering for instance the SDUMLA dataset, while a low EER at 0.02% is achieved in the former case, a much higher EER at 22.1% is instead obtained when using vein patterns of different hands as genuine samples.

On the other hand, the results obtained exploiting the *Training Strategy-2* scenario show that, when training is performed considering finger, palm, and dorsal veins from left and right hands as belonging to the same class, the recognition performance achieved computing genuine scores from comparisons of vein patterns from different hands is significantly improved, with respect to the previous case. This means that, under *Training Strategy-2*, the employed CNN is actually able to find discriminative characteristics shared between the cross pairs of vein patterns. The receiver operating Characteristic (ROC) curves computed for the considered database, for both the employed training strategies, are depicted in Figure 5.

In more detail, the recognition rates obtained for standard comparisons when considering the Training Strategy-1 scenario are a bit better than the ones achieved when adopting the Training Strategy-2, although these latter are still good for recognition purposes. Nonetheless, the Training Strategy-2 scenario allows extracting characteristics which could allow to perform a successful matching between vein patters coming from different hands of the same person. It is worth remarking that such possibility can be considered admissible only for finger vein patterns taken from the SDUMLA and R3VEIN dataset, while it is much less practically feasible for vein patterns from the PolyU-P and Bosphorus databases, for which EERs greater than 20% have been achieved when using samples from different hands to compute genuine scores. In more detail, the largest extent of similarities is found when considering samples from the R3VEIN dataset, since the images there collected contain vein patters from four fingers, with therefore much more information with respect to the samples from the SDUMLA dataset. As seen also from the ROC curves in Fig. 5(d), and from the distributions in Fig. 4(h), the scores obtained when performing cross-hand comparisons are quite close to those obtained considering standard



Figure 5: ROC curves obtained on SDUMLA, PolyU-P, Bosphorus, and R3VEIN datasets, for both the employed training strategies.

genuine comparisons, under Training Strategy-2.

A further understanding of the underlying processes can be obtained by checking the activation patterns on vein images obtained when training the employed CNN according to the two adopted training strategies. To this aim, we have computed the gradient-weighted class activation mapping (grad-CAM) (Selvaraju et al., 2017) on the available vein samples, obtaining images such as those shown as examples in Figure 6. In more detail, the upper parts of Figures 6(a) and 6(b) show the results obtained when the vein patterns from different hands are considered as separate classes during training. In this case, the heatmap colour distributions contain more dark-red pixels for both left and right hand samples. This means that the regions including veins give strong



(a) Grad-CAM activation heatmaps on SDUMLA

(b) Grad-CAM activation heatmaps on R3VEIN

Figure 6: Grad-CAM activation heatmaps on SDUMLA and R3VEIN database samples: the left and right fingers of the same person are illustrated on the left and right sides of each dataset accordingly; the upper heatmaps for the Training Strategy-1, while the bottom ones for the Training Strategy-2.

contribution to the activation of CNN layers to be distinguished as separate classes. Nevertheless, in case of *Training Strategy-2*, these contributions to the activation of CNN layers fade, as shown in the lower parts of Figure 6(a) and 6(b). This means that taking cross- hand/finger samples as belonging to the same class slightly weakens the separability of classes based on vein patterns.

#### 6. Conclusions

In this study we have investigated, within a biometric recognition framework, the similarity of vein structures across different finger, palm, and dorsal regions. Leveraging on literature studies carrying out similar analysis on several biometric traits, we have resorted to deep learning strategies to better emulate human learning and discriminating capabilities. The results obtained when adopting a standard network training strategy, that is, considering vein patterns from each finger, palm, or dorsum as an independent class, indicate that significant similarities between corresponding vein patterns of different hands exist. Nonetheless, the performance achievable performing recognition using the trait belonging to a hand other than the one employed during enrollment is quite poor.

Conversely, a notable performance improvement has been obtained when the

adopted training strategy uses vein patterns from fingers, palms, and dorsa of left and right hands as belonging to the same class, and genuine scores are computed by comparing vein patterns from different hands. The obtained findings are similar to those given in (Claes et al., 2015) for ear and in (Kumar et al., 2016) for palmprint: in both papers the similarities found in left and right biometric traits allow to compute an EER in the order of 10%, analogous to the one we report for finger-vein data from SDUMLA. An even lower EER has been achieved in our tests over the R3VEIN dataset, which comprises images with four fingers altogether.

A lower amount of similarity has been achieved for palm-vein data from PolyU-P, and for dorsum-vein samples from Bosphorus, with EERs respectively at 25.3% and 23.9%. Therefore, further studies could be beneficial to evaluate whether different approaches would detect higher similarities, while maintaining inter-subject differences, for palm- and dorsal-vein patterns of left and right hands. For instance, the use of deep generative models such as generative adversarial networks (GAN) or autoencoders could be exploited to this aim. These latter could be in fact employed to evaluate whether the vein pattern representation of one hand could be retrieved from the features extracted from the other one, while preserving discriminative capabilities.

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