
Towards Person Authentication by Fusing Visual and Thermal Face Biometrics

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Abstract

The objective of this work is to recognize faces using sets of images in visual and thermal spectra. This is challenging because the former is greatly affected by illumination changes, while the latter frequently contains occlusions due to eye-wear and is inherently less discriminative. Our method is based on the fusion of the two modalities. Specifically: we examine (i) the effects of preprocessing of data in each domain, (ii) the fusion of holistic and local facial appearance, and (iii) propose an algorithm for combining the similarity scores in visual and thermal spectra in the presence of prescription glasses and significant pose variations, using a small number of training images (5-7). Our system achieved a high correct identification rate of 97% on a freely available test set of 29 individuals and extreme illumination changes.

1 Introduction

In this chapter we focus on face appearance-based biometrics. The cheap and readily available hardware used to acquire data, their non-invasiveness and the ease of employing them from a distance and without the awareness of the user, are just some of the reasons why these continue to be of great practical interest.

However, a number of research challenges remain. Specifically, face biometrics have traditionally focused on images acquired in the visible light spectrum and these are greatly affected by such extrinsic factors such as the illumination, camera angle (or, equivalently, head pose) and occlusion. In practice, the effects of changing pose are usually least problematic and can oftentimes be overcome by acquiring data over a time period e.g. by tracking a face in a surveillance video. Consequently, image sequence or image set matching has recently gained a lot of attention in the literature [2] [13] [35] and is the paradigm adopted in this chapter as well. In other words, we assume that the training image set for each individual contains some variability in pose, but is not obtained in scripted conditions or in controlled illumination.

In contrast, illumination is much more difficult to deal with: the illumination setup is in most cases not practical to control and its physics is difficult to accurately model. *Thermal spectrum* imagery is useful in this regard as it is virtually insensitive to illumination changes, as illustrated in Fig. 1. On the other hand, it lacks much of the individual, discriminating facial detail contained in visual images. In this sense, the two modalities can be seen as complementing each other. The key idea behind the system presented in this chapter is that robustness to extreme illumination changes can be achieved by *fusing* the two. This paradigm will further prove useful when we consider the difficulty of recognition in the presence of occlusion caused by prescription glasses.



Fig. 1. Sensitivity to lighting conditions: Illumination changes have a dramatic effect on images acquired in the visible light spectrum (top row). In contrast, thermal imagery (bottom row) shows remarkable invariance.

1.1 Mono-sensor based techniques

Optical sensors.

Among the most used sensors in face biometric systems is the optical imager. This is driven by its availability and low-cost. An optical imager captures the light reflectance of the face surface in the visible spectrum. The visible spectrum provides features that depend only on surface reflectance. Thus, it is obvious that the face appearance changes according to the ambient light. In order to overcome the lighting, pose and facial expression changes, a flurry of face recognition algorithms, from the two well-known broad categories, appearance-based and feature-based methods, has been proposed [31]. Appearance-based methods find the global properties of the face pattern and recognize the face as a whole. In contrast, feature-based methods [30] [25] [14] explore the statistical and geometrical properties of facial features like eyes and mouth. The

face recognition performance depends on the accuracy of facial feature detection. Moreover, local and global lighting changes cause existing face recognition techniques for the visible imagery to perform poorly.

Infrared sensors.

Recent studies have proved that face recognition in the thermal spectrum offers a few distinct advantages over the visible spectrum, including invariance to ambient illumination changes [44] [38] [32] [37]. This is due to the fact that a thermal infrared sensor measures the heat energy radiation emitted by the face rather than the light reflectance. A thermal sensor generates imaging features that uncover thermal characteristics of the face pattern. Indeed, thermal face recognition algorithms attempt to take advantage of such anatomical information of the human face as unique signatures.

Appearance-based face recognition algorithms applied to thermal IR imaging consistently performed better than when applied to visible imagery, under various lighting conditions and facial expressions [27] [36] [38] [34]. Further performance improvements were achieved using decision-based fusion [38]. In contrast to other techniques, Srivastana *et al.* [39], performed face recognition in the space of Bessel function parameters. First, they decompose each infrared face image using Gabor filters. Then, they represent the face by a few parameters by modelling the marginal density of the Gabor filter coefficients using Bessel functions. This approach has been improved by Buddharaju *et al.* [10]. Recently, Friedrich *et al.* [18] shown that IR-based recognition is less sensitive to changes in 3D head pose and facial expression.

1.2 Multi-sensor based techniques

As the surface of the face and its temperature have nothing in common, one would state that the extracted cues from both sensors are not redundant and yet complementary. Several attempts have been made in face recognition based on the fusion of different types of data from multiple sensors. Face recognition algorithms based on the fusion of visible and thermal IR images demonstrated higher performance than individual image types [9] [33] [12] [20]. Biometric systems that integrate face and speech signals [6], the face and fingerprint information [22], and the face and the ear images [11] improved the accuracy in personal identification.

Recently, Heo *et al.* [21] proposed two types of visible and thermal fusion technique, the first fuses low-level data while the second fuses matching outputs. Data fusion was implemented by applying pixel-based weighted averaging of co-registered visual and thermal images. Decision fusion was implemented by combining the matching scores of individual recognition modules. To deal with occlusions caused by eyeglasses in thermal imagery, they used a simple ellipse fitting technique to detect the circle-like eyeglass regions in the IR image and replaced them with an average eye template. Using a commercial face recognition system, FaceIt [24], they demonstrated improvements in recognition accuracy.

2 Method Details

In the sections that follow we explain our system in detail, the main components of which are conceptually depicted in Fig. 2.

2.1 Matching image sets

In this chapter we deal with face recognition from *sets* of images, both in the visual and thermal spectrum. We will show how to achieve illumination invariance using a combination of simple data preprocessing (§2.2),

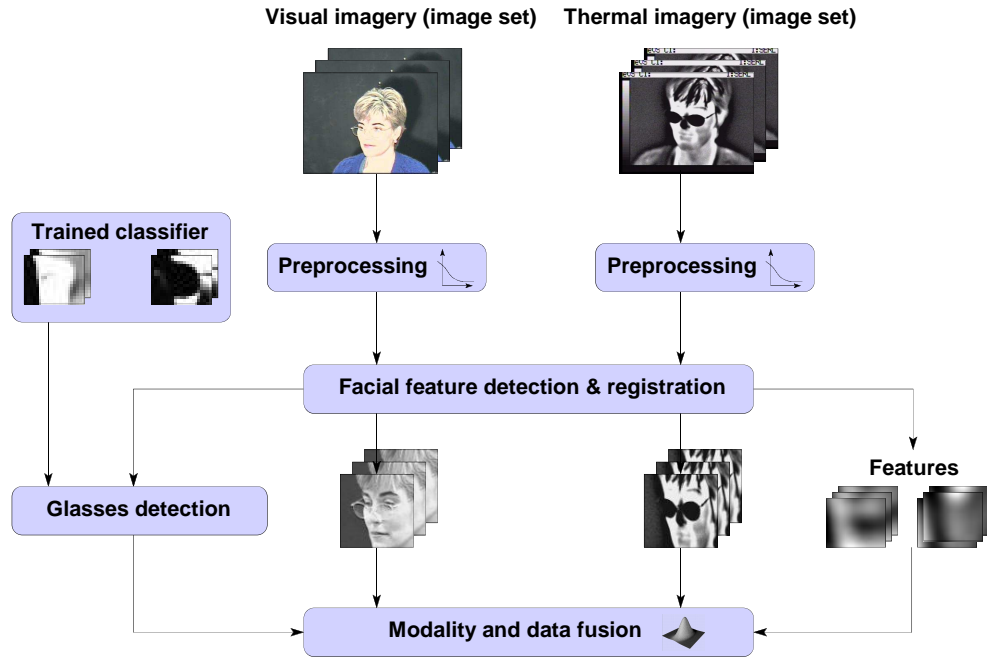


Fig. 2. System overview: Our system consists of three main modules performing (i) data preprocessing and registration, (ii) glasses detection and (iii) fusion of holistic and local face representations using visual and thermal modalities.

local features (§2.3) and modality fusion (see §2.4). Hence, the requirements for our basic set-matching algorithm are those of (i) some pose generalization and (ii) robustness to noise. We compare two image sets by modelling the variations within a set using a linear subspace and comparing two subspaces by finding the most similar modes of variation within them.

The modelling step is a simple application of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) without mean subtraction. In other words, given a data matrix \mathbf{d} (each column representing a rasterized image), the subspace is spanned by the eigenvectors of the matrix $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{d}\mathbf{d}^T$ corresponding to the largest eigenvalues; we used 5D subspaces, as sufficiently expressive to on average explain over 90% of data variation within intrinsically low-dimensional face appearance changes in a set.

The similarity of two subspaces U_1 and U_2 is quantified by the cosine of the smallest angle between two vectors confined to them:

$$\rho = \cos \theta = \max_{\mathbf{u} \in U_1} \max_{\mathbf{v} \in U_2} \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}. \quad (1)$$

The quantity ρ is also known as the first canonical correlation [23]. It is this implicit “search” over entire subspaces that achieves linear pose interpolation and extrapolation, by finding the most similar appearances described by the two sets [26]. The robustness of canonical correlations to noise is well detailed in [8] (also see [29]).

Further appeal of comparing two subspaces in this manner is contained in its computational efficiency. If \mathbf{B}_1 and \mathbf{B}_2 are the corresponding orthonormal basis matrices, the computation of ρ can be rapidly performed by finding the largest singular value of the 5×5 matrix $\mathbf{B}_1^T \mathbf{B}_2$ [8].

2.2 Data preprocessing & feature extraction

The first stage of our system involves coarse normalization of pose and brightness. We register all faces, both in the visual and thermal domain, to have the salient facial features aligned. Specifically, we align the eyes and the mouth due to the ease of detection of these features (e.g. see [5] [7] [15] [16] and [41]). The 3 point correspondences, between the detected and the canonical features' locations, uniquely define an affine transformation which is applied to the original image. Faces are then cropped to 80×80 pixels, as shown in Fig. 3.



Fig. 3. Registration: Shown is the original image in the visual spectrum with detected facial features marked by yellow circles (left), the result of affine warping the image to the canonical frame (centre) and the final registered and cropped facial image.

Coarse brightness normalization is performed by band-pass filtering the images [5] [17]. The aim is to reduce the amount of high-frequency noise as well as extrinsic appearance variations confined to a low-frequency band containing little discriminating information. Most obviously, in visual imagery, the latter are caused by illumination changes, owing to the smoothness of the surface and albedo of faces [1].

We consider the following type of a band-pass filter:

$$\mathbf{I}_F = \mathbf{I} * \mathbf{G}_{\sigma=W_1} - \mathbf{I} * \mathbf{G}_{\sigma=W_2}, \quad (2)$$

which has two parameters - the widths W_1 and W_2 of isotropic Gaussian kernels. These are estimated from a small training corpus of individuals in different illuminations. Fig. 4 shows the recognition rate across the corpus as the values of the two parameters are varied. The optimal values were found to be 2.3 and 6.2 for visual data; the optimal filter for thermal data was found to be a *low-pass* filter with $W_2 = 2.8$ (i.e. W_1 was found to be very large). Examples are shown in Fig. 5. It is important to note from Fig. 4 that the recognition rate varied smoothly with changes in kernel widths, showing that the method is not very sensitive to their exact values, which is suggestive of good generalization to unseen data.

The result of filtering visual data is further scaled by a smooth version of the original image:

$$\hat{\mathbf{I}}_F(x, y) = \mathbf{I}_F(x, y) ./ (\mathbf{I} * \mathbf{G}_{\sigma=W_2}), \quad (3)$$

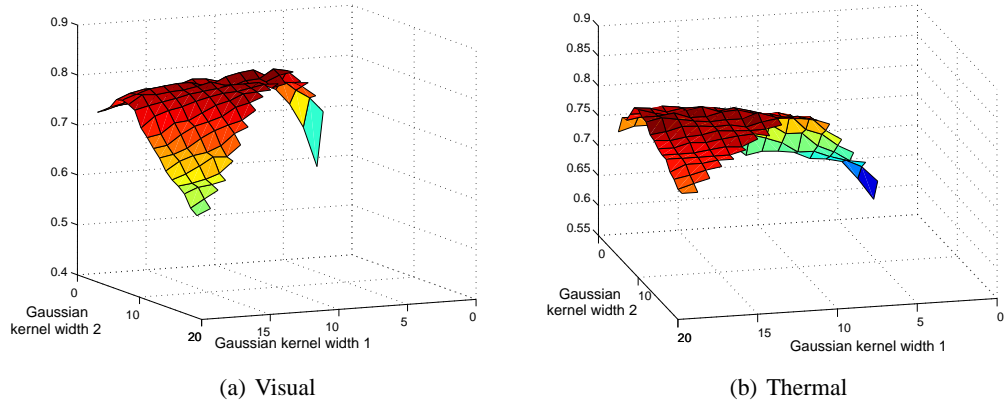


Fig. 4. Band-pass filter: The optimal combination of the lower and upper band-pass filter thresholds is estimated from a small training corpus. The plots show the recognition rate using a single modality, (a) visual and (b) thermal, as a function of the widths W_1 and W_2 of the two Gaussian kernels in (2). It is interesting to note that the optimal band-pass filter for the visual spectrum passes a rather narrow, mid-frequency band, whereas the optimal filter for the thermal spectrum is in fact a low-pass filter.

where $./$ represents element-wise division. The purpose of local scaling is to equalize edge strengths in dark (weak edges) and bright (strong edges) regions of the face; this is similar to the Self Quotient Image of Wang *et al.* [43]. This step further improves the robustness of the representation to illumination changes, see §3.

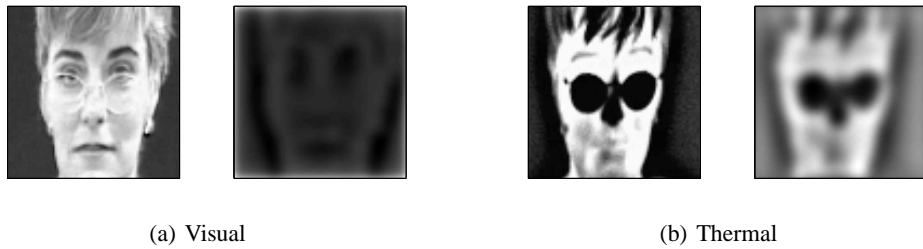


Fig. 5. Preprocessing: The effects of the optimal band-pass filters on registered and cropped faces in (a) visual and (b) thermal spectra.

2.3 Single modality-based recognition

We compute the similarity of two individuals using only a single modality (visual or thermal) by combining the holistic face representation described in §2.2 and a representation based on local image patches. These have been shown to benefit recognition in the presence of large pose changes [35].

As before, we use the eyes and the mouth as the most discriminative regions, by extracting rectangular patches centred at the detections, see Fig. 6. The overall similarity score is obtained by weighted summation:

$$\rho_{v/t} = \omega_h \cdot \rho_h + \omega_m \cdot \rho_m + (1 - \omega_h - \omega_m) \cdot \rho_e, \quad (4)$$

where ρ_m , ρ_e and ρ_h are the scores of separately matching, respectively, the mouth, the eyes and the entire face regions, and ω_h and ω_m the weighting constants.

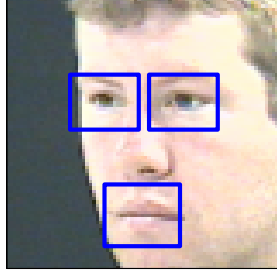


Fig. 6. Features: In both the visual and the thermal spectrum our algorithm combines the similarities obtained by matching the holistic face appearance and the appearance of three salient local features - the eyes and the mouth.

The optimal values of the weights were estimated from the offline training corpus. For the visual spectrum we obtained $\omega_e = 0.3$, while the mouth region was found not to improve recognition (i.e. $\omega_m = 0.0$). The relative magnitudes of the weights were found to be different in the thermal spectrum, both the eye and the mouth region contributing equally to the overall score: $\omega_m = 0.1$, $\omega_h = 0.8$.

2.4 Fusing modalities

Until now we have focused on deriving a similarity score between two individuals given sets of images in either thermal or visual spectrum. A combination of holistic and local features was employed in the computation of both. However, the greatest power of our system comes from the fusion of the two modalities.

Given ρ_v and ρ_t , the similarity scores corresponding to visual and thermal data, we compute the joint similarity as:

$$\rho_f = \omega_v(\rho_v) \cdot \rho_v + (1 - \omega_v(\rho_v)) \cdot \rho_t. \quad (5)$$

Notice that the weighting factors are no longer constants, but *functions*. The key idea is that if the visual spectrum match is very good (i.e. ρ_v is close to 1.0), we can be confident that illumination difference between the two images sets compared is mild and well compensated for by the visual spectrum preprocessing of §2.2. In this case, visual spectrum should be given relatively more weight than when the match is bad and the illumination change is likely more drastic.

The function $\omega_v \equiv \omega_v(\rho_v)$ is estimated in three stages: first (i) we estimate $\hat{p}(\omega_v, \rho_v)$, the probability that ω_v is the optimal weighting given the estimated similarity ρ_v , then (ii) compute $\omega(\rho_v)$ in the maximum a posteriori sense and finally (iii) make an analytic fit to the obtained marginal distribution. Step (i) is challenging and we describe it next.

Input: visual data $d_v(\text{person}, \text{illumination})$,
thermal data $d_t(\text{person}, \text{illumination})$.
Output: density estimate $\hat{p}(\omega, \rho_v)$.

1: Init

$$\hat{p}(\omega, \rho_v) = 0,$$

2: Iteration

for all illuminations i, j and persons p

3: Iteration

for all $k = 0, \dots, 1/\Delta\omega$, $\omega = k\Delta\omega$

5: Separation given ω

$$\delta(k\Delta\omega) = \min_{q \neq p} [\omega \rho_v^{p,p} + (1 - \omega) \rho_t^{p,p} - \omega \rho_v^{p,q} + (1 - \omega) \rho_t^{p,q}]$$

6: Update density estimate

$$\hat{p}(k\Delta\omega, \rho_v^{p,p}) = \hat{p}(k\Delta\omega, \rho_v^{p,p}) + \text{sig}(C \cdot \delta(k\Delta\omega))$$

7: Smooth the output

$$\hat{p}(\omega, \mu) = \hat{p}(\omega, \mu) * \mathbf{G}_{\sigma=0.05}$$

8: Normalize to unit integral

$$\hat{p}(\omega, \rho) = \hat{p}(\omega, \rho) / \int_{\omega} \int_{\rho} \hat{p}(\omega, \rho) d\rho d\omega$$

Fig. 7. Offline: Optimal fusion training algorithm.

Iterative density estimate.

The principal difficulty of estimating $\hat{p}(\omega_v, \rho_v)$ is of practical nature: in order to obtain an accurate estimate (i.e. a well-sampled distribution), a prohibitively large training database is needed. Instead, we employ a heuristic alternative. Much like before, the estimation is performed using the offline training corpus.

Our algorithm is based on an iterative incremental update of the density, initialized as uniform over the domain $\omega, \rho \in [0, 1]$. We iteratively simulate matching of an unknown person against a set gallery individuals. In each iteration of the algorithm, these are randomly drawn from the offline training database. Since the ground truth identities of all persons in the offline database is known, for each $\omega = k\Delta\omega$ we can compute the separation i.e. the difference between the similarities of the test set and the set corresponding to it in identity, and that between the test set and the most similar set that does *not* correspond to it in identity. Density $\hat{p}(\omega, \rho)$ is then incremented at each $(k\Delta\omega, \rho^{p,p})$ proportionally to $\delta(k\Delta\omega)$ after being passed through the sigmoid function. This is similar to the algorithm proposed in [4].

Fig. 7 summarizes the proposed offline learning algorithm. An analytic fit to $\hat{p}(\omega_v)$ in the form $(1 + \exp(a))/(1 + \exp(a/\rho_v))$ is shown in Fig. 8.

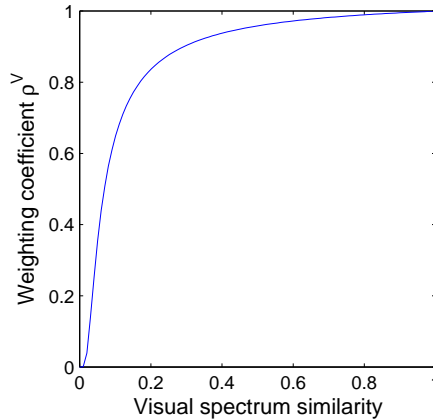


Fig. 8. Modality fusion: The contribution of visual matching, as a function of the similarity of visual imagery. A low similarity score between image sets in the visual domain is indicative of large illumination changes and consequently our algorithm leans that more weight should be placed on the illumination-invariant thermal spectrum.

2.5 Dealing with glasses

The appeal of using the thermal spectrum for face recognition stems mainly from its invariance to illumination changes, in sharp contrast to visual spectrum data. The exact opposite is true in the case of prescription glasses, which appear as dark patches in thermal imagery, see Fig. 5. The practical importance of this can be seen by noting that in the US in 2000 roughly 96 million people, or 34% of the total population, wore prescription glasses [42].

In our system, the otherwise undesired, gross appearance distortion that glasses cause in thermal imagery is used to help recognition by detecting their presence. If the subject is not wearing glasses, then both holistic and all local patches-based face representations can be used in recognition; otherwise the eye regions in thermal images are ignored.

Glasses detection

We detect the presence of glasses by building representations for the left eye region (due to the symmetry of faces, a detector for only one side is needed) with and without glasses, in the thermal spectrum. The foundations of our classifier are laid in §2.1. Appearance variations of the eye region with out without glasses are represented by two 6D linear subspaces, see Fig. 9 for example training data. Patches extracted from a set of thermal imagery of a novel person is then compared with each subspace. The presence of glasses is deduced when the corresponding subspace results in a higher similarity score. We obtain close to flawless performance on our data set (also see §3 for description), as shown in Fig. 10.

The presence of glasses severely limits what can be achieved with thermal imagery, the occlusion heavily affecting both the holistic face appearance as well as that of the eye regions. This is the point at which our method heavily relies on decision fusion with visual data, limiting the contribution of the thermal spectrum to matching using mouth appearance only i.e. setting $\omega_h = \omega_e = 0.0$ in (4).

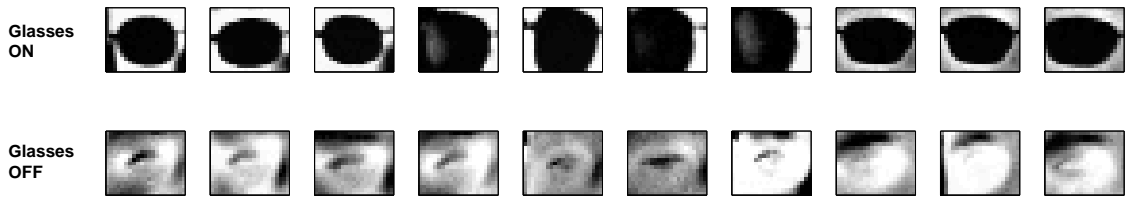


Fig. 9. Appearance models: Shown are examples of glasses-on (top) and glasses-off (bottom) thermal data used to construct the corresponding appearance models for our glasses detector.

3 Empirical Evaluation

We evaluated the described system on the “Dataset 02: IRIS Thermal/Visible Face Database” subset of the *Object Tracking and Classification Beyond the Visible Spectrum (OTCBVS)* database³, freely available for download at <http://www.cse.ohio-state.edu/OTCBVS-BENCH/>. Briefly, this database contains 29 individuals, 11 roughly matching poses in visual and thermal spectra and large illumination variations (some of these are exemplified in Fig. 11).

Our algorithm was trained using all images in a single illumination in which all 3 salient facial features could be detected. This typically resulted in 7-8 images in the visual and 6-7 in the thermal spectrum, see Fig. 12, and roughly $\pm 45^\circ$ yaw range, as measured from the frontal face orientation.

The performance of the algorithm was evaluated both in 1-to-N and 1-to-1 matching scenarios. In the former case, we assumed that test data corresponded to one of people in the training set and recognition was performed by associating it with the closest match. Verification (or 1-to-1 matching, “is this the same person?”) performance was quantified by looking at the true positive admittance rate for a threshold that corresponds to 1 admitted intruder in 100.

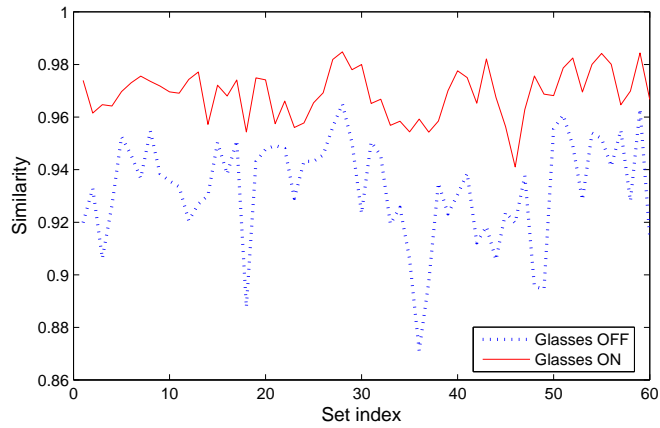
3.1 Results

A summary of 1-to-N matching results is shown in Tab. 1.

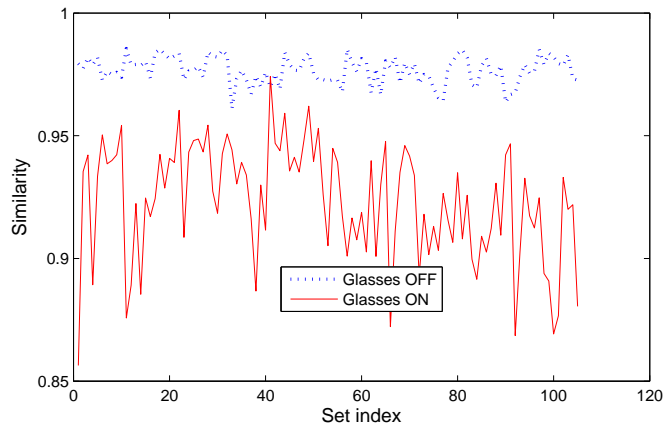
Firstly, note the poor performance achieved using both raw visual as well as raw thermal data. The former is suggestive of challenging illumination changes present in the OTCBVS data set. This is further confirmed by significant improvements gained with both band-pass filtering and the Self-Quotient Image which increased the average recognition rate for, respectively, 35% and 47%. The same is corroborated by the Receiver-Operator Characteristic curves in Fig. 13 and 1-to-1 matching results in Tab. 2.

On the other hand, the reason for low recognition rate of raw thermal imagery is twofold: it was previously argued that the two main limitations of this modality are the inherently lower discriminative power and occlusions caused by prescription glasses. The addition of the glasses detection module is of little help at this point - some benefit is gained by steering away from misleadingly good matches between any two people wearing glasses, but it is limited in extent as a very discriminative region of the face is lost. Furthermore, the improvement achieved by optimal band-pass filtering in thermal imagery is much more modest

³ IEEE OTCBVS WS Series Bench; DOE University Research Program in Robotics under grant DOE-DE-FG02-86NE37968; DOD/TACOM/NAC/ARC Program under grant R01-1344-18; FAA/NSSA grant R01-1344-48/49; Office of Naval Research under grant #N000143010022.



(a) Glasses ON



(b) Glasses OFF

Fig. 10. Glasses detection results: Inter- and intra- class similarities across our data set.

than with visual data, increasing performance respectively by 35% and 8%. Similar increase was obtained in true admittance rate (42% vs. 8%), see Tab. 13.

Neither the eyes or the mouth regions, in either the visual or thermal spectrum, proved very discriminative when used in isolation, see Fig. 14. Only 10-12% true positive admittance was achieved, as shown in Tab. 3. However, the proposed fusion of holistic and local appearance offered a consistent and statistically significant improvement. In 1-to-1 matching the true positive admittance rate increased for 4-6%, while the average correct 1-to-N matching improved for roughly 2-3%.

The greatest power of the method becomes apparent when the two modalities, visual and thermal, are fused. In this case the role of the glasses detection module is much more prominent, drastically decreasing



(a) Visual



(b) Thermal

Fig. 11. Example training sets: Each row corresponds to a single training (or test) set of images used for our algorithm in (a) the visual and (b) the thermal spectrum. Note the extreme changes in illumination, as well as that in some sets the user is wearing glasses and in some not.

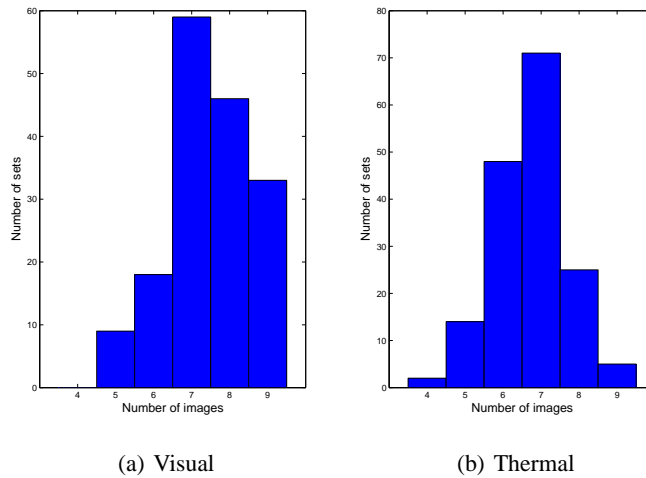


Fig. 12. Training sets: Shown are histograms of the number of images per person used to train our algorithm. Depending on the exact head poses assumed by the user we typically obtained 7-8 visual spectrum images and typically a slightly lower number for the thermal spectrum. The range of yaw angles covered is roughly $\pm 45^\circ$ measured from the frontal face orientation.

the average error rate from 10% down to 3%, see Tab. 1. Similarly, the true admission rate increases to 74% when data is fused without special handling of glasses, and to 80% when glasses are taken into account.

4 Conclusion

In this chapter we described a system for personal identification based on a face biometric that uses cues from visual and thermal imagery. The two modalities are shown to complement each other, their fusion providing good illumination invariance and discriminative power between individuals. Prescription glasses, a major difficulty in the thermal spectrum, are reliably detected by our method, restricting the matching to non-affected face regions. Finally, we examined how different preprocessing methods affect recognition in the two spectra, as well as holistic and local feature-based face representations. The proposed method was shown to achieve a high recognition rate (97%) using only a small number of training images (5-7) in the presence of large illumination changes.

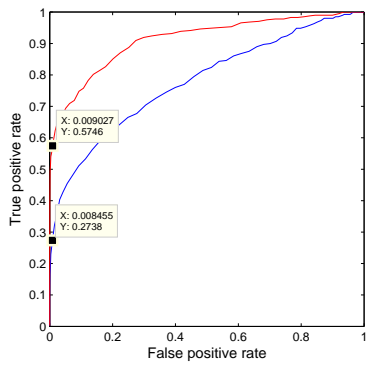
Our results suggest several possible avenues for improvement. We intend to make further use of the thermal spectrum, by not only detecting the glasses, but also by segmenting them out. This is challenging across large pose variations, such as those contained in our test set. Another research direction we would like to pursue is that of synthetically enriching the training corpus to achieve increased robustness to pose differences between image sets (c.f. [28] [40]). Additionally, more advanced set matching methods can be used for better discriminative performance, e.g. [3] [13] [19]. Finally, we note that a research challenge that remains, and which has not been addressed in this chapter, is that of changing facial expression.

Table 1. 1-to-N matching (recognition) results: Shown is the average rank-1 recognition rate using different representations across all combinations of illuminations. Note the performance increase with each of the main features of our system: image filtering, combination of holistic and local features, modality fusion and prescription glasses detection.

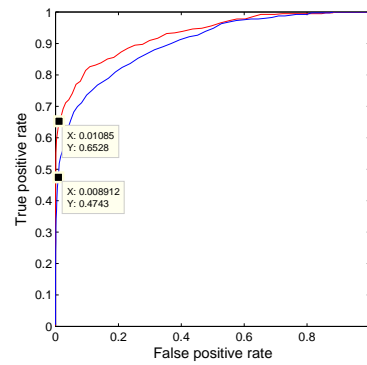
Representation		Recognition
Visual	Holistic raw data	0.58
	Holistic, band-pass	0.78
	Holistic, SQI filtered	0.85
	Mouth+eyes+holistic	0.87
	data fusion, SQI filtered	0.87
Thermal	Holistic raw data	0.74
	Holistic raw w/ glasses detection	0.77
	Holistic, low-pass filtered	0.80
	Mouth+eyes+holistic	0.82
	data fusion, low-pass filtered	0.82
Proposed thermal + visual fusion	w/o glasses detection	0.90
	w/ glasses detection	0.97

Table 2. Holistic, 1-to-1 matching (verification): A summary of the comparison of different image processing filters for 1 in 100 intruder acceptance rate. Both the simple band-pass filter, and even further its locally-scaled variant, greatly improve performance. This is most significant in the visual spectrum, in which image intensity in the low spatial frequency is most affected by illumination changes.

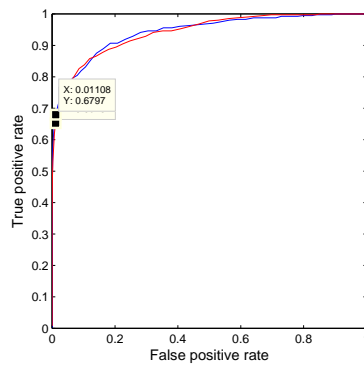
Representation	Visual	Thermal
1% intruder acceptance		
Unprocessed/raw	0.2850	0.5803
Band-pass filtered (BP)	0.4933	0.6287
Self-quotient image (SQI)	0.6410	0.6301



(a) Unprocessed



(b) Band-pass filtered



(c) Self-Quotient Image filtered

Fig. 13. Holistic representations Receiver-Operator Characteristics (ROC): Visual (blue) and thermal (red) spectra.

Table 3. Isolated local features, 1-to-1 matching (verification): A summary of the results for 1 in 100 intruder acceptance rate. Local features in isolation perform very poorly.

Representation	Visual (SQI)	Thermal (BP)
1% intruder acceptance		
Eyes	0.1016	0.2984
Mouth	0.1223	0.3037

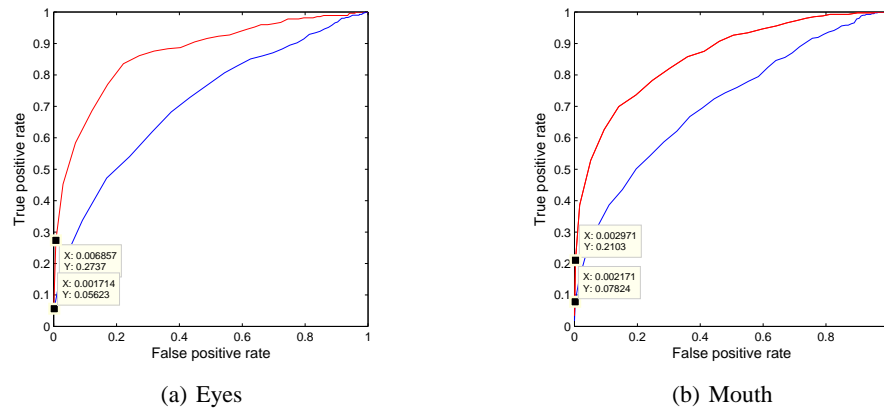


Fig. 14. Isolated local features Receiver-Operator Characteristics (ROC): Visual (blue) and thermal (red) spectra.

Table 4. Holistic & local features, 1-to-1 matching (verification): A summary of the results.

Representation	Visual (SQI)	Thermal (BP)
1% intruder acceptance		
Holistic + Eyes	0.6782	0.6499
Holistic + Mouth	0.6410	0.6501
Holistic + Eyes + Mouth	0.6782	0.6558

Table 5. Feature and modality fusion, 1-to-1 matching (verification): A summary of the results.

Representation	True admission rate
1% intruder acceptance	
Without glasses detection	0.7435
With glasses detection	0.8014

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 - glasses, *see* glasses
- set
 - matching, *see* image set matching
- spectrum
 - infrared, *see* thermal spectrum
 - thermal, 1, 3, 10, 12–16
 - visual, 1, 2, 10, 12–16
- verification, 10, 14–16

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