

## HIGH-VALUE FRUIT BIOMETRIC IDENTIFICATION VIA TRIPLET-LOSS TECHNIQUE

**BY** 

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## ABSTRACT

This thesis proposes a novel method for biometric authentication of fruits based on their distinctive rind patterns, similar to fingerprint identification. Luxury fruits, highly valued in Japan, currently rely on serial numbers, QR codes, and RFID tags for authentication, which can be forged or replicated. By implementing biometric authentication using rind patterns, the trust and value of these fruits can be significantly enhanced, while also preventing fraud and counterfeiting in the agricultural industry. The study introduces a melon identification system that utilizes a convolutional neural network (CNN) with a triplet loss function, enabling accurate identification even with variations in lighting, shadows, and angle. The proposed method overcomes the limitations of previous approaches by capturing important features through CNN's automatic feature identification. This research contributes to the field of agricultural product authentication, providing a secure and reliable method that can be extended to other products, increasing customer trust and market value.

Keywords: Agriculture, Authentication, Fruits, Melon, Rind Pattern, Identification, Verification, Computer Vision, Machine learning

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## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

With the increasing attention on artificial intelligence (AI) and its successful implementation in various domains, including culinary, transportation, e-commerce, and security, Biswal (2022) the potential for implementing AI-based technologies in product authentication is immense. The use of machine learning to improve the reliability of digital image authentication has sparked the development of biometric authentication methods, such as fingerprint scanner for personal electronics devices security Stanley et al. (2009) and facial recognition used for online banking Yogalakshmi et al. (2020).

In this thesis, our focus lies on the application of biometric authentication in the agricultural industry, particularly in authenticating fruits based on their unique rind patterns. While biometric identification methods have gained significant attention in various sectors, their utilization in the authentication of luxury fruits remains largely unexplored. In countries like Japan, luxury fruits such as melons, watermelons, grapes, apples, and white strawberries hold immense cultural value and are commonly exchanged as prestigious gifts. Among them, the Yūbari king melon is the most valuable and popular, retail and auctioned prices ranging from \$30 to \$30,000 Kim (2022). The value of these luxury fruits largely stems from the limited supply as they are specifically cultivated with specific process, environment and nutrients. Especially the Yūbari king melon has to be grown in Yūbari city, Hokkaido province, the traceability of the product is highly essential for the consumer confidence and its market value. Although currently, the authentication practices for these luxury fruits heavily rely on a combination of serial numbers, QR codes, and RFID tags Kumar et al. (2009). However, these conventional methods are prone to vulnerabilities, as they can be easily forged or replicated, thus jeopardizing the security and integrity of these valuable products.

To address these limitations and enhance customer trust, we propose a novel approach: biometric authentication of fruits using their rind patterns. The concept draws inspiration from the success of fingerprint identification in human biometrics. By utilizing the uniqueness and intricacy of each fruit's rind pattern, similar to a person's fingerprint, we aim to develop a secure and reliable authentication method that can significantly increase the value and trustworthiness of luxury fruits while deterring fraudulent practices in the agricultural industry.

Previous research on melon identification by Ishiyama et al. (2012) has incorporated minutiae feature extraction, a technique commonly used in fingerprint matching. While these studies have achieved promising results in controlled image acquisition environments, minutiae features are used to identify human fingerprint and may not account for the distinct characteristics of melon rind patterns Jain et al. (2006), which often contain features beyond simple bifurcations. In our research, we aim to overcome this limitation by utilizing a convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture with a triplet loss function. This approach enables the network to automatically identify relevant features in the training process, capturing not only bifurcations but also trifurcations and other unidentified features that contribute to accurate melon pattern matching.



## CHAPTER 2 BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE

The research community has given limited attention of the topic of agricultural product authentication. However, a notable study conducted by Ishiyama Rui in 2012 Ishiyama et al. (2012) which not only proved the viability of minutiae features recognition on melon rind pattern but this study also implemented the pose-normalization technique. As the image data of each melon was acquired using a handheld camera, each melon stem may not be centered in the middle of the image. These variations of melon angles can reduce the matching accuracy, though it can be negated using the pose-normalization technique.

Minutiae extraction techniques typically focus on specific features prominent in fingerprints, such as terminations, ridges, and bifurcations Ali et al. (2016) and Jain et al. (2006). Ishiyama's study demonstrated the effectiveness of using minutiae extraction for melon identification. However, the unique characteristics of melon rind patterns and fingerprints indicate that relying solely on minutiae features might overlook crucial elements required for accurate melon pattern matching. This observation was supported by the dataset analyzed in this study which revealed the presence of not only bifurcations but also trifurcations in melon rind patterns as visually depicted in Fig. 2.1. To address this limitation, this thesis proposes a novel method that utilizes a triplet loss function integrated with a convolutional neural network (CNN) architecture to identify similarities among inputted melon images. CNNs have demonstrated their ability to automatically capture relevant features during the training process Alzubaidi et al. (2021). By leveraging the power of CNNs, the proposed method aims to capture trifurcations and other critical features that might have been overlooked by relying solely on minutiae features.

The triplet loss function, a supervised learning technique, plays a pivotal role in the proposed method. It minimizes the distance between positive pairs of melon images while pushing negative pairs further apart, thus optimizing the margin in the embedding space. This technique has shown exceptional efficacy in tasks like face recognition Schroff et al. (2015b), which shares similarities with melon rind recognition, where the model needs to identify individual melons accurately.

By combining the unique characteristics of melon rind patterns, the power of CNNs in feature extraction, and the effectiveness of the triplet loss function, this thesis aims to establish a robust and accurate authentication system for luxury fruits. The proposed method



Figure 2.1 Fingerprint minutiae-like pattern on melon rind.

has the potential to revolutionize agricultural product authentication, enhance customer trust, and mitigate fraud and counterfeiting in the industry.

#### 2.1 Minutiae Feature

In the field of fingerprint recognition, minutiae features refer to the unique and distinctive local characteristics or patterns found within fingerprint images. These distinct features are widely used in fingerprint matching and identification Hollingum (1992). Fingerprints, much like the patterns on a melon rind, are highly individualistic and exhibit intricate ridge structures. These ridge structures form unique patterns that are present on the surface of the fingertip. Minutiae features are specific points where the ridge structures exhibit changes or distinct properties, just as the irregularities, bumps, and patterns on a melon rind form its distinct features. There are two primary types of minutiae features: Ridge Endings: Ridge endings occur when a ridge segment terminates abruptly, forming a point or a small loop. They represent the points where the end of the ridge, indicating the termination of a particular ridge structure. Ridge Bifurcations: Ridge bifurcations occur when a ridge splits into two separate branches, forming a Y-shaped structure. They represent the points where the fingerprint ridges diverge in multiple directions. Other types of minutiae features may include dots, short ridges, or ridge crossings, but ridge endings and ridge bifurcations are the most commonly utilized and reliable minutiae features in fingerprint recognition systems Hong et al. (1998). These types of patterns can also be found on the melon pattern as shown in Fig. 2.1. The process of extracting minutiae features involves several steps. First, a fingerprint image is acquired using a sensor such as an optical or capacitive scanner. The image is then pre-processed to enhance its quality, remove noise, and improve contrast. Next, the ridges in the fingerprint image are thinned to obtain a skeletonized representation, where only the central ridge lines remain Jain et al. (1997). Thinning simplifies the image and separates the ridge structures for further analysis. Once the ridge thinning is complete, minutiae points are detected by examining the ridge structure. Various algorithms, such as crossing number, ridge tracing, or ridge orientation-based methods, are employed to identify and extract the minutiae features. The location, orientation, and other relevant attributes of each minutia point are recorded, forming a set of minutiae descriptors Zaeri (2011). During the matching process, the minutiae features extracted from a captured fingerprint are compared with the minutiae features stored in a database of reference fingerprints. The matching algorithms assess the spatial relationships, distances, and orientations between the minutiae points to determine the similarity or dissimilarity between the two fingerprints. Multiple matching algorithms can be used to match fingerprint image Jain et al. (1997) which is chosen according to the type of feature used in that task. Though this study mainly uses accidental coincidence probability (ACP) to match detected minutiae features, to compare the proposed method with the method incorporated by Ishiyama et al. (2012). If a sufficient number of matching minutiae features are found within defined thresholds, a positive identification or verification is established.

#### 2.2 Triplet Loss

Triplet-loss is widely known as a great loss function to train a Siamese network. A Siamese network is a neural network with two or more identical subnetworks used to generate embedding vectors for each input and compare them. A predecessor Siamese network uses a contrasive loss function to compare the embedding result of two input images. It operates on pairs of face images, categorizing them as either positive (same identity) or negative (different identity). The goal is to learn an embedding space where the distance between positive pairs is minimized while the distance between negative pairs is maximized Tanveer et al. (2021). Although a famous study put forward by Schroff et al. (2015a) introduces the use of triplet loss function on a three-input Siamese network, which ultimately avoids the drawback of contrastive loss at the cost of increased computation resource Kertész (2021). As opposed to contrastive loss, which considers the predefined margin only when dealing with the negative pair, triplet loss keeps track of the margin between the anchor and positive



Figure 2.2 Triplet-loss training process diagram.

and the anchor and negative. The triplet loss function operates on sets of triplets, each consisting of an anchor face image, a positive face image (same identity as the anchor), and a negative face image (different identity from the anchor). The objective is to learn an embedding space where the distance between the anchor and the positive image is minimized while the distance between the anchor and the negative image is maximized. The loss function can be formulated as follows:

$$
Loss = max(d(a, p) - d(a, n) + margin, 0)
$$
\n(2.1)

where  $d(a, p)$  represents the distance metric between the anchor  $(a)$  and positive  $(p)$ embeddings, and  $d(a, n)$  represents the distance between the anchor (a) and negative (n) embeddings, the margin is a hyperparameter that determines the desired separation between positive and negative pairs. The loss function encourages the positive pairs to have smaller distances than the negative pairs by at least the margin value.

An illustration of the training process is shown in Fig. 2.2. The face recognition system learns the optimal parameters by iteratively sampling triplets from the training dataset and optimizing the triplet loss function. The network updates the feature embeddings such that the distance between the anchor and positive pairs decreases while increasing the distance between the anchor and negative pairs. Various techniques can be employed to enhance the effectiveness of the triplet loss function, such as online triplet mining, which dynamically selects informative triplets during training, and batch hard mining, which focuses on the most challenging triplets within a mini-batch to optimize the loss function efficiently Shrivastava et al. (2016).

Triplet loss-based methods have demonstrated significant success in face recognition tasks, achieving high accuracy and robustness. They have been widely adopted in both commercial and research face recognition systems. By learning discriminative face embeddings through the triplet loss function, these systems can effectively handle challenging scenarios, such as variations in pose, illumination, and facial expressions, and provide reliable identification and verification capabilities in real-world applications Haider et al. (2023). The triplet loss-base Siamese network can be adapted to the melon rind pattern recognition scenario in a similar way as it is employed for face recognition. Just like human faces, melon also has a unique rind pattern that is intricate enough to be used as identification means.



## CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

The objective of this study is to improve upon the melon identification process described in the work of Ishiyama et al. Ishiyama et al. (2012). Our approach builds upon their study by automating the process and eliminating the need for manual intervention, making it more convenient and potentially attractive for use in the agricultural industry. Our workflow consists of four main steps: semantic segmentation, image preprocessing, training, and identity matching, as depicted in Fig. 3.1. Throughout the process, we will highlight similarities and differences with the approach described in Ishiyama et al.

#### 3.1 Image Acquisition

Four images with slightly different angles were acquired from 56 individual melons using four smartphones. Each phone took a single photo of the melon with the stem approximately centered in the middle of the image. These images were taken free-handed, without using any platform or background, and under varying lighting conditions. As shown in Figure 3.2, the resulting images often contain shadows, non-uniform backgrounds, and misaligned stem placements. The uniformity of the image acquired differs from the approach used in the previous study of Ishiyama et al. Ishiyama et al. (2012), in which melons were placed on a flat table and photographed under controlled lighting conditions as shown in (Ishiyama et al. (2012), Fig. 5). A total of 496 images of 124 melons from varying angles and backgrounds were captured.

### 3.2 Semantic Segmentation

In the previous study by Ishiyama et al. Ishiyama et al. (2012), the background was manually cropped out of the images to retain only the pixels containing the melon. Semantic segmentation can eliminate this manual process. First, the ground truth mask image is created by labeling regions of the acquired images with two classes: the melon and stem. The semantic segmentation model is trained using the U-Net architecture with a VGG-16-based encoder on labeled ground truth images. Further details about the semantic segmentation model and configuration can be found in divamgupta (2021). The trained semantic segmentation model is then used to generate a mask image of the detected melon and stems. The background can be automatically cropped out using the mask image, resulting in images that



Figure 3.1 Workflow diagram



Figure 3.2 Original image from image acquisition.



Figure 3.3 Semantic segmentation mask and cropped image.



Figure 3.4 Pose normalization visualization.

contain only the melon, as shown in Fig. 3.3. This process eliminated the need for manual cropping, making the identification process more efficient.

### 3.3 Image Preprocessing

After obtaining a background-less image from the semantic segmentation process, the image is passed through four main preprocessing steps. Preprocessing is done to remove redundant information keeping only the relevant melon rind pattern to be trained in the triplet loss model.

### 3.3.1 Pose Normalization

Having the stem even slightly off-centered can result in lower matching accuracy. As the images used in this study were taken free-handed with no platform, the images contain a significant deviation from the center in most images. The pose normalization technique can be applied to center the images by translating the pixels in the image so that a desired point (e.g., the stem) is brought to the center while minimizing distortion. In the previous study by Ishiyama et al. Ishiyama et al. (2012), the stem was manually located in the image and used to guide the pose normalization process. In contrast, the semantic segmentation process already detected both the melon and stem in the image, allowing us to retrieve the stem location from the detected mask and perform pose normalization without needing manual selection. An example of the pose normalization process and its result is shown in Fig. 3.4. The result of pose normalization helps to improve the accuracy of image matching by reducing variations in the placement of the stem.

### Original Image



Adaptive Mean Thresholding



Global Thresholding ( $v = 127$ )



Adaptive Gaussian Thresholding



Figure 3.5 Comparison of thresholding methods.

### 3.3.2 Binarize

After pose normalization, we processed the images using a thresholding function to reduce the dimensionality of the data and transform the RGB images into binary images. As shown in Fig. 3.5 compared to the other thresholding methods, adaptive Gaussian thresholding can accurately transform and emphasize the relevant rind pattern. Adaptive Gaussian thresholding is used to binarize the images to simplify the training image and remove redundant information, significantly reducing the model's training resource to identify and match the melons.

#### 3.3.3 Region of Interest

The drawback of using semantic segmentation to crop the images is that the outer perimeter of each melon image may not be uniform, which could negatively impact the accuracy of our matching model. The binary image is cropped, retaining only each image's central 60% circular area. Removal of the irregular perimeter helped to ensure that the images were more consistent in terms of their size and shape, improving the performance of our model.



Figure 3.6 ROI cropped binary image.



Figure 3.7 Triplet loss training visualization.

#### 3.3.4 Morphological transform

One issue that can arise during the thresholding process is the introduction of salt and pepper noise, which can negatively impact the model's performance. The morphological opening followed by closing can be used to eliminate these noises. These operations are known to smooth out sharp edges on the contours of the shapes, fill in any gaps or holes, and remove stray pixels, resulting in a clearer and sharper image.

#### 3.4 Triplet Loss

Triplet loss was first put forward by Schroff, Florian in 2015 Schroff et al. (2015b) as a method for face recognition. As opposed to regular classification models, triplet loss excels in recognizing a large number of classes. Triplet loss does not directly classify each input image as each designated class. It determines the similarity of each image by the distance between each image after encoding them into the embedding space.



Figure 3.8 VGG-16 layers configuration.

### 3.4.1 Model Configuration

The triplet-loss model is based on the VGG-16 model, a well-known model pretrained on the ImageNet dataset, by removing the classification layer and using the feature learning layer to recognize melon rind patterns. This approach, known as transfer learning, allowed the model to achieve better performance in a shorter training time. The modified VGG-16 model is shown in Fig. 3.8.

### 3.4.2 Training

The Triplet loss model is trained by simultaneously using three inputs: anchor, positive and negative image. In the training process, the loss of the model is calculated using the equation:

$$
L = max(d(a, p) - d(a, n) + m, 0)
$$
\n(3.1)

where:



Figure 3.9 Query image identification on embedding space.

- $a =$  anchor, focal sample.
- $p =$  positive, sample in the same class as the anchor.
- $n =$  negative, sample in different class of the anchor.
- $d =$  euclidean distance function to measure the distance between the samples in embedding space.
- $m =$  margin, the distance between the negative and positive sample.

During training, the model is fed with multiple batches of triplets consisting of an anchor, a positive, and a negative sample. After transforming the input images into embedding vectors, the loss for each triplet is calculated. The model's weights are then adjusted to increase the distance between the negative and anchor samples while decreasing the distance between the anchor and positive samples. In each epoch, we use two types of triplet batches: a random batch, which consists of triplets selected randomly, and a hard batch, which consists of triplets with high loss values. While training, the model will modify its weights until the negative sample is farther away from the anchor and the positive sample closer. The distance between the negative and positive samples is also optimized to minimize the model's cost and prevent overfitting.

#### 3.4.3 Identity Matching

After training, the model is able to transform binary melon images into matrices of embedding values. These values can be used to identify the melon in each image, as the dataset includes four images for each unique melon. One image of each melon is transformed into an embedding matrix and kept as a database of known melons, while the remaining images are used as query images. To identify a query image, it is first converted into an embedding matrix, and the Euclidean distance between it and the other images in the database is calculated. The image with the minimum distance is identified as the matching image and, therefore, the identity of the query image. This identity matching process is illustrated in Fig. 3.9. In the example shown, the image in the database with the minimum distance is identified as melon number 15.



## CHAPTER 4 RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The model and training configurations were verified using a 10-fold cross-validation method. The melon image dataset was divided into ten parts, with nine parts used for training and the remaining part used as test images for each fold of validation. Out of the total 124 melon identities, 12 melons were selected as test images, rotating them until all parts of the dataset were used as test images. The matching process involved the following steps: (1) One image per melon from the test set served as the identity database, while the remaining three images per melon were treated as query images. (2) Each query image was compared with all identities in the database using a distance metric. (3) The identity with the embedding vector having the least Euclidean distance to the query image's embedding vector was identified as the matched identity. The matching process resulted in a total of 432 instances checked per validation fold. As the embedding vector of both the query and database image has large dimensions, dimensionality reduction technique is used to visualize relationship between each embedding matrix and visualize the model's ability to characterize and group the images of the same melon identity. Principal component analysis (PCA) a well-known dimensionality reduction technique was first applied, although the model's matching performance is high the visualized embedding space shows overlapping of multiple melon identity in the same space. As PCA is a linear technique that captures the maximum variance of the data, PCA is not effective in preserving relationships between individual data points. The visualized cluster does not correctly visualize the embedding space of triplet loss model which pushes the negative samples away while the positive samples should be positioned close together. Instead by using t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (TSNE) to visualize the embedding space, TSNE is a non-linear method that prioritizes preserving the local structure of the data which results in much better visualization for this study. The TSNE representation of the embedding space for each fold is depicted in Figure [4.1-4.10]. In each fold, the model successfully clustered the embeddings of the same melon identity, although some query images were positioned far from their corresponding identity cluster. Errors in identity matching arose when images were captured with the melon stem significantly off-centered, and even with pose normalization, some nuances in the rind texture were not accurately captured in the image. The model's performance is presented in Figure 4.11. To evaluate the matching performance, metrics such as false acceptance rate (FAR), false



Figure 4.2 Second Fold



Figure 4.4 Forth Fold



Figure 4.6 Sixth Fold



Figure 4.8 Eighth Fold



Figure 4.10 Tenth Fold





rejection rate (FRR), and Top Rank ID Error were utilized, which are commonly employed for evaluating the performance of biometric systems Natarajan and Shanthi (2018).

$$
FAR = \frac{FalseAcceptance}{TotalCheck}
$$
 (4.1)

$$
FRR = \frac{FalseRejection}{TotalCheck}
$$
\n
$$
(4.2)
$$

$$
TopIDErr = \frac{NegativePair}{TotalCheck}
$$
\n
$$
(4.3)
$$

Each melon image is queried in the evaluation process, and its embedding is used to calculate the Euclidean distance with all identities in the database. Suppose the minimum distance exceeds the specified threshold. In that case, the queried melon is considered a counterfeit melon. It is counted towards false rejections, contributing to the false rejection rate (FRR) calculation since all melons used are present in the database. On the other hand, false acceptances, which contribute to the false acceptance rate (FAR), occur when the minimum distance falls below the threshold, but the matched identity is incorrect. The top-rank ID error (TopIDErr) is determined by instances where the minimum distance pair has a mis-





(c) Ridge thinning to obtain skeletonized structure of melon rind pattern.



(a) Cropped and pose-normalized (b) Binarization and ROI cropping.



(d) Detected Minutiae feature on the texture of melon.

Figure 4.12 Minutiae feature extraction method.







(a) Melon #9 taken with phone A. (b) Detected minutiae feature of melon #9A.



(c) Melon #9 taken with phone B. (d) Detected minutiae feature of melon #9B.

Figure 4.13 Example of inconsistent detected melon pattern of the same melon identity.

matched identity, regardless of whether the distance value surpasses the threshold.

The performance of the proposed method is satisfactory. However, it falls short when compared to the results of the study by Ishiyama et al. Ishiyama et al. (2012), which achieved a top-rank ID error of only 0.06%. It is important to note that the previous study utilized a larger dataset of 1,776 melons, resulting in 3,154,200 matching instances. As shown in Equations  $(4.1)$  -  $(4)$ , a larger sample population can lead to a reduction in both FAR and FRR. The significant difference in the number of total checking instances highlights the need for a much larger dataset to compare performance with the previous study comprehensively.

In contrast to the method used in the Ishiyama study, the identical technique was applied to the same dataset in this study. The process is illustrated in Figure 4.12, starting with background removal and pose normalization to center the melon stem. The image is then binarized and ridge thinning to obtain the ridge skeleton. Finally, minutiae-like features of the melon rind pattern are extracted to identify each melon identity.

However, attempting to apply the same procedure to the dataset used in this study resulted in inconsistent results. The dataset exhibited significant dissimilarity among the four images of the same melon, primarily due to significant camera angle variations and inconsistent lighting conditions for each sample. Although minutiae features were successfully detected using the accidental coincidence probability (ACP) approach on the same image, achieving a 100% match as expected, the results were disappointing when matching different images of the same melon identity, with a match rate of less than 1%. The match rate remained unacceptably low even when considering the pair of images with the least angle variation and lighting conditions. An example of the inconsistency in detected minutiae features is shown in Figure 4.13. Therefore, employing minutiae feature extraction and ACP on this dataset is not viable.

On the other hand, the triplet loss method proves to be much more reliable, even when faced with high variations in image quality. In practical use cases where queries are made from the customer's side, it is inevitable that some query images will have poor lighting and variations in angle with respect to the center of the melon.

Furthermore, additional studies could be conducted to compare the proposed method with other minutiae-based techniques, including directional minutiae combined with matching algorithms other than ACP. These experiments allow for a comparison of the trade-offs between accuracy and efficiency. It is worth noting that the proposed triplet loss method requires significantly higher computational resources compared to other traditional techniques used for fingerprint recognition tasks.

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# APPENDIX

### APPENDIX A

### PYTHON CODES

```
from wfmread import wfmread
2 \int from IPython.display import clear_output
  import numpy as np
4 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
  from IPython.display import clear_output
  import os
7 from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
8 from scipy.stats import gaussian_kde
9 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
10 from matplotlib import cm
11 from matplotlib.colors import ListedColormap, LinearSegmentedColormap
12 from PIL import Image
13 import PIL. ImageOps
14 import random
15 import math
_{16} ch1_dict = {
17 '1': 'wfm/InternalNew3_N5_300mV_200M_1us_200_Ch1.wfm',
18 '2':'wfm/Surface_N5_500mV_200M_1us_200_Ch1.wfm',
19 '3':'wfm/Positive2_N5_10mV_5G_2us_10000sa_Ch1.wfm',
20 '4':'wfm/FreeMoving1_N5_50mV_200M_1us_200_Ch1.wfm',
21 '5':'wfm/FloatingParticle_N5_2V_1G_1us_1000_Ch1.wfm',
22 '6':'wfm/1-Internal_45mm33_Ch1.wfm',
23 '7':'wfm/6kV_internal_oil_89pF_surface_69pF_N6_L43_HV_plates_Ch1.wfm'
24 \mid \}_{25} ch2_dict = {
26 '1':'wfm/InternalNew3_N5_300mV_200M_1us_200_Ch2.wfm',
27 '2':'wfm/Surface_N5_500mV_200M_1us_200_Ch2.wfm',
28 '3':'wfm/Positive2_N5_10mV_5G_2us_10000sa_Ch2.wfm',
29 '4':'wfm/FreeMoving1_N5_50mV_200M_1us_200_Ch2.wfm',
30 '5':'wfm/FloatingParticle_N5_2V_1G_1us_1000_Ch2.wfm',
31 '6':W/m/1-Internal_45mm33_Ch2.wfm',
32 '7':'wfm/6kV_internal_oil_89pF_surface_69pF_N6_L43_HV_plates_Ch2.wfm'
```

```
33 \mid \}34
35 # print("Creating dataset with classes: 1.Internal 2.Surface 3.Corona 4.
      Freemoving 5.Floating")
36
37 import numpy as np
38 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
39 from matplotlib import cm
40 from matplotlib.colors import Normalize
41 from scipy.interpolate import interpn
42
43 def density_scatter( x , y, ax = None, sort = True, bins = 20, ** kwargs ) :
\frac{1}{44} """"
45 Scatter plot colored by 2d histogram
\frac{46}{ } """
47 if ax is None :
48 fig, ax = plt.subplots()49 fig.set_figheight(6)
_{50}  fig.set_figwidth(6)
51 data , x_e, y_e = np.histogram2d( x, y, bins = bins, density = True )
52 z = interpn( ( 0.5*(x_e[1:] + x_e[:-1]) , 0.5*(y_e[1:] + y_e[:-1]) ), data
           , np.vstack([x,y]). T, method = "splitef2d", bounds_error = False)
53
54 #To be sure to plot all data
55 z[np.where(np.isnan(z))] = 0.056
57 # Sort the points by density, so that the densest points are plotted last
58 if sort :
59 idx = z.argsort()
60 \vert x, y, z = x[idx], y[idx], z[idx]
61
\sigma ax.scatter( x, y, c=z, **kwargs )
63
64 | internal = {}
65 | internal2 = {}
66 surface = {}
67 corona = {}
```

```
68 \vert insur = {}
69 | insur2 = \{ \}70
\pi |internal['ch1'] = wfmread(ch1_dict['1']).wflist
\tau_2 |internal['ch2'] = wfmread(ch2_dict['1']).wflist
_{73} |internal2['ch1'] = wfmread(ch1 dict['6']).wflist
74 \intinternal2['ch2'] = wfmread(ch2_dict['6']).wflist
75 \text{ surface}['ch1'] = \text{ wfmread}(\text{ch1_dict}['2']) \text{ .} \text{ wflist}76 surface['ch2'] = wfmread(ch2_dict['2']).wflist
77 \text{ [corona['ch1'] = wfmread(ch1_dict['3']) \text{.} wflist78 \text{ corona}['ch2'] = wfmread(ch2_dict['3']).wflist
\gamma_{\gamma} insur['ch1'] = np.concatenate((internal['ch1'],surface['ch1']),axis = 0)
80 \vertinsur['ch2'] = np.concatenate((internal['ch2'],surface['ch2']),axis = 0)
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} insur2['ch1'] = wfmread(ch1_dict['7']).wflist
\{82 \mid \text{insur2} \mid \text{'ch2'}\} = \text{wfmread}(\text{ch2_dict} \mid \text{'7'}\}). wflist
83 \vert for i in range(len(insur2['ch2'])):
\text{S4} insur2['ch2'][i] = insur2['ch2'][i]*(-1)
85 data_list = [internal,internal2,surface,corona,insur,insur2]
86 dat_name = ['Internal','Internal','Surface','Corona','InternalSurface','
       InternalSurface']
87 for i in range(len(data_list)):
88 ch1 = data_list[i]['ch1']
89 ch2 = data list[i]['ch2']
90 Nframes = len(ch1)91 data_name = dat_name[i]
\Omega93 print('Generating '+data_name+' | '+ str(Nframes)+' pulses')
94
95 rand_idx = np.random.choice(int(Nframesrames),int(Nframes), replace=False
           ).tolist()
96
97
98 # p_per_img = int(math.floor(Nframes/max_img_amnt))
QQ_{100} p_per_img = [20,100,500]
101 | n_level = ['mild', 'moderate', 'severe']
102 for p_in in p_per_img:
```

```
103
104 level = n_level[p_per_img.index(p_in)]
_{105} data_name = dat_name[i]+"_"+level
106 print(f'Generating {level}')
107 rand_idx = np.random.choice(int(Nframes), int(Nframes), replace=False)
            .tolist()
108 # max_img_amnt = int(math.floor(Nframes/p))
\frac{1}{109} # print(str(max_img_amnt)+ ' images |' +str(p)+' points')
110 n = 0;
111 while len(rand_idx) > p_in*1.3:
\text{1112} # print(str(n+1),end = ', ')
113 phase_lst = \lceil \rceilpeak_lst = \begin{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}115 dif = random.uniform(0.7, 1.4)
p = math.float(p_in*diff)117 for in range(p):
118 s = rand_idx.pop()
119 curr_ch1 = ch1[s]
120 curr_ch2 = ch2[s]
121 peak_Idx = np.argmax(abs(curr_ch2))
122 peak_V = curr_ch2[peak_Idx]
123 peak_Phase = curr_ch1[peak_Idx]
124 peak lst.append(peak V)
125 phase_lst.append((360/4.54)*peak_Phase)
126 x = np.array(phase_lst)
127 y = np.array(peak_lst)
128 if len(x) <5:
129 break
130
131
_{132} \vert fig = plt.figure(frameon=False)
133 fig.set_size_inches(2.56,2.56)
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}\n\hline\n & \text{ax = plt}.\text{Exes}(\text{fig}, [0., 0., 1., 1.])\n\hline\n\end{array}\begin{array}{c|c}\n & \text{ax.set\_axis_off}\n\end{array}136 abs_peak = list(map(abs, peak_lst))
\gamma_{137} yrange = (round(max(abs_peak)*100)/100)138 fig.add_axes(ax)
```

```
\mathbf{x} = np.array(phase\_lst)_{140} y = np.array(peak_lst)
141 try:
_{142} posP = max(y[x<180])143 posP = np.format_float_scientific(posP, precision = 2,
                  exp_digits=1)
144 except:
145 posP = '0'146 try:
\text{negP} = \text{max}(y[x>=180])148 negP = np.format_float_scientific(negP, precision = 2,
                  exp_digits=1)
149 except:
150 negP = '0'151 ax.hist2d(x, y, (60,100), cmap=plt.cm.binary)
152 ax.set_xlim([0,360])
153 ax.set_ylim([-yrange*1.5,yrange*1.5])
154 # fname = data_name+"("+str(per*100)+")[p"+posP+"][n"+negP+"]_"+
               str(int(np.random.randn(1)*10**8))+'.png';\text{uID} = \text{str}(\text{int(np.random.randn}(1)*10**8))156 # fname = str(p)+_+data_name+"[p"+posP+"][n"+negP+"]_"+ str(int(np
               .random.rand(1)*10**8) +'.pnq';
157 fname = (f''\{str(p)\} \{data\_name\} [p\{nosP\}][nfneqP\}] \{uID\}.png")
158
159
160
161
162
163 # if n >= datasetAmount[data_name]:
\begin{array}{ccc} \n\frac{1}{64} & \text{#} & \text{path} = \text{ '2ddata/.unused/'}\n\end{array}165 \sharp if not os.path.exists(path+data_name):
166 | # os.makedirs(path+data_name)
+ else:
168 # path = '2ddata/.dataset/'
169 # if not os.path.exists(path+data_name):
170 # os.makedirs(path+data_name)
171 path = '2ddata/.dataset/'
```

```
\frac{172}{172} # if not os.path.exists(path+data_name):
\frac{173}{173} \frac{1}{4} os.makedirs(path+data_name)
_{174} if not os.path.exists(f'{path}{data_name}'):
175 os.makedirs(f'{path}{data_name}')
176 fig.savefig('%s%s/%s' %(path,data_name,fname), bbox_inches='tight'
                , pad inches = 0)
177 image = Image.open('%s%s/%s' %(path,data_name,fname))
178 image = PIL.ImageOps.grayscale(image)
179 image = PIL.ImageOps.invert(image)
180
181 image.save('%s%s/%s' %(path,data_name,fname))
182 #
183
184 plt.close('all')
185 plt.clf()
186 plt.cla()
187 n+=1
188 print(f'{n} images generated')
_{189} print('file generation completed')
190 from tensorflow.python.client import device_lib
191 print(device_lib.list_local_devices())
192 import os
193 import numpy as np
194 np.random.seed(0)
195 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
196 %matplotlib inline
197 from pylab import *
198 from keras.models import Sequential
199 from tensorflow.keras.optimizers import Adam
200 from keras.layers import Conv2D, ZeroPadding2D, Activation, Input,
      concatenate
201 from keras.layers import GlobalAveragePooling2D,Dropout
_{202} from keras.models import Model
203 \frac{1}{203} from keras.datasets import mnist
204
205 from tensorflow.keras.layers import BatchNormalization
206 from keras.layers.pooling import MaxPooling2D
```

```
207 from tensorflow.keras.layers import concatenate
208 from keras.layers.core import Lambda, Flatten, Dense
209 from keras.initializers import glorot_uniform, he_uniform
210
211 from tensorflow.keras.layers import Layer
_{212} from keras.regularizers import 12
_{213} from keras import backend as K
_{214} from tensorflow.keras.utils import normalize
215 from keras.utils.vis_utils import plot_model
216 import keras
217
218 from sklearn.metrics import roc_curve, roc_auc_score
210220 from keras.applications.vgg16 import VGG16
_{221} os.environ["CUDA_DEVICE_ORDER"] = "PCI_BUS_ID"
222 os.environ["CUDA_VISIBLE_DEVICES"] = "0"
223
224 """ unitity functions """
225 import cv2 as cv
226 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
227 import numpy as np
228 import os
229
230 def read_image(path):
231 We calce 1231 """ function to read single image at the given path
232 note: the loaded image is in B G R format
\frac{233}{ } """"
234 return cv.imread(path)
235
236
_{237} def BGR2RGB(image):
238 """ function to transform image from BGR into RBG format """
239 return cv.cvtColor(image, cv.COLOR_BGR2RGB)
240
241
_{242} def BGR2Gray(image):
<sup>243</sup> | """ function to transofrm image from BGR into Gray format """
```

```
244 return cv.cvtColor(image, cv.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
245
246
_{247} def show_image(image, img_format='RGB', figsize=(8, 6)):
_{248} \parallel """ function to show image """
_{249} if img_format == 'RGB' or img_format == 'Gray':
250 pass
_{251} elif img_format == 'BGR':
252 image = BGR2RGB(image)
253 else:
254 raise ValueError('format should be "RGB", "BGR" or "Gray"')
255
256 fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=figsize)
257 if format == 'Gray':
258 ax.imshow(image, format='gray')
259 else:
260 ax.imshow(image)
261 return fig
262
263
264 def detect_finger(image, face):
265 """ function to denote location of finger on image """
266 img = image.copy()
267 for (x, y, w, h) in face:
268 cv.rectangle(img, (x, y), (x + w, y + h), (255, 0, 0), 2)
269270 return img
271
272
273 def crop_finger(image, face, scale_factor=1.0, target_size=(128, 128)):
274 \parallel """ crop finger at the given positons and resize to target size """
275 rows, columns, channels = image.shape
276 x, y, w, h = face[0]
277 mid_x = x + w // 2
278 mid_y = y + h // 2
279
280 # calculate the new vertices
```

```
281 \vert x_new = mid_x - int(w // 2 * scale_factor)
282 y_new = mid_y - int(h // 2 * scale_factor)
|_{283}| w_new = int(w * scale_factor)
284 h_new = int(h * scale_factor)285286 # validate the new vertices
287 left_x = max(0, x_new)288 left_y = max(0, y_new)289 right_x = min(column S, x_new + w_new)_{290} right_y = min(rows, y_new + h_new)291
292 # crop and resize the facial area
293 cropped = image[left_y:right_y, left_x:right_x, :]
294 resized = cv.resize(cropped, dsize=target_size, interpolation=cv.
          INTER_LINEAR)
295
296 return resized
297
298 def load_images_from_folder(folder):
299 images = []
300 for filename in os.listdir(folder):
\lim_{301} img = cv.imread(os.path.join(folder,filename))
302 if img is not None:
303 images.append(img)
304 images = np.array(images)
305 return images
306
307 def img_to_encoding(image_path, model):
308 img1 = cv.imread(image_path, 1)
309 img1 = cv.resize(img1, (600,600))
310 img = img1[...,::-1]
\frac{311}{100} img = np.around(img/255.0, decimals=12)
_{312} #img = np.around(img/255.0)
313 x_train = np.array([img])
314 embedding = model.predict_on_batch(x_train)
315 return embedding
316
```

```
317 def get_data(path):
318 data = {}
319 for files in os. listdir(path):
320 keys, = files.split('_')
321 if keys in data:
322 data[keys].append(files)
323 else:
324 data[keys] = [files]
325 return data
326
327 def train_test_split(data, ratio = 0.2):
328 train = {}
329 test = {}
330 for key in data.keys():
331 vals = data[key]
_{332} split = int(len(vals)*ratio)333 train[key] = vals[split:]
334 test[key] = vals[:split]
335 return train, test
336
337 def get_data_label(path,ratio = 0.2):
\frac{338}{ } """"
339 Given path returns tran and test images and label associated with it
340 """
_{341} _data = get_data(path)
342 _train, _test = train_test_split(_data, ratio = ratio)
343
344 train_image = []
345 train_labels = []
346 test_image = \begin{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}347 test_labels = []
348 for keys, vals in _train.items():
\frac{349}{349} train_image += [np.asarray([cv.imread(os.path.join(path,files))/255.
             \setminus350 for files in vals])]
351 train_labels += [keys]
352
```

```
353 for keys, vals in _test.items():
354 test_image += [np.asarray([cv.imread(os.path.join(path,files))/255.
\frac{355}{100} for files in valsl)
356 test_labels += [keys]
357 return np.asarray(train_image), np.asarray(train_labels), \
358 np.asarray(test_image), np.asarray(np.asarray(test_labels)),_test
359
360 def DrawPics(tensor,nb=0,template='{}',classnumber=None):
361 if (nb==0):
362 N = tensor.shape[0]
363 else:
_{364} N = min(nb, tensor.shape[0])_{365} fig=plt.figure(figsize=(16,2))
366 nbligne = floor(N/20)+1367 for m in range(N):
368 subplot = fig.add_subplot(nbligne,min(N, 20),m+1)369 axis("off")
370 plt.imshow(tensor[m,:,:,0],vmin=0, vmax=1,cmap='Greys')
\frac{1}{371} if (classnumber!=None):
372 subplot.title.set_text((template.format(classnumber)))
373
374 excluded_list = fold[10]
375 # excluded list = []376 import itertools
377 | imgNames = []
378 imgList = {}
379 nb_{\text{}\text{-}\text{classes}} = 124380 for p in ["a", "b", "c", "d"]:
381 for i in range(1,nb_classes+1):
382 if i in excluded list:
383 continue
384 name = f''{i}{}_{2}^{p}385 imgNames.append(name)
386 imgList[name] = cv.imread(f"img_digitize/{name}.png",cv.IMREAD_GRAYSCALE)
387
388 | c = 0389
```

```
390 img_width=600
391
392 for phone in ["a", "b", "c", "d"]:
393 for i in range(1, nb_classes+1):
394
395 if i in excluded list: continue
396 name = f''\{\frac{i}{2}\} [p}"
_{397} im = imgList[name]
398 # try:
\lim_{399} im = cv.resize(im, (img_width,img_width), interpolation = cv.INTER_AREA)
400 cv.imwrite(f"DB1_A/{i}_{phone}.png", im)
401 c += 1
402 # except: excluded_list.append(i)
403 |nb_classes - len(excluded_list)
404 imgList = {}
_{405} print ("total img data: ", c)
406
407 datapath = './DB1_A/'
408 |x_train,y_train,x_test,y_test,testfiles = get_data_label(datapath,ratio =
      0.0)
409 \times \text{train} = np.asarray(x_train)410 type(x_train[0])
411
412 class TripletLossLayer(Layer):
413 def __init__(self, alpha, **kwargs):
414 self.alpha = alpha
415 super(TripletLossLayer, self).__init__(**kwargs)
416
417 def triplet_loss(self, inputs):
418 anchor, positive, negative = inputs
_{419} p_dist = K.sum(K.square(anchor-positive), axis=-1)
420 n_dist = K.sum(K.square(anchor-negative), axis=-1)
421 return K.sum(K.maximum(p_dist - n_dist + self.alpha, 0), axis=0)
422
423 def call(self, inputs):
_{424} loss = self.triplet_loss(inputs)
425 self.add_loss(loss)
```

```
426 return loss
427
428 def build_model(input_shape, network, margin=0.2):
429 \longrightarrow430 Define the Keras Model for training
431 Input :
432 input_shape : shape of input images
433 network : Neural network to train outputing embeddings
434 margin : minimal distance between Anchor-Positive and Anchor-
                Negative for the lossfunction (alpha)
435
436 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}437 # Define the tensors for the three input images
438 anchor_input = Input(input_shape, name="anchor_input")
439 positive_input = Input(input_shape, name="positive_input")
440 negative_input = Input(input_shape, name="negative_input")
441
442 # Generate the encodings (feature vectors) for the three images
443 encoded_a = network(anchor_input)
444 encoded_p = network(positive_input)
445 encoded_n = network(negative_input)
446
447 #TripletLoss Laver
448 loss_layer = TripletLossLayer(alpha=margin,name='triplet_loss_layer')([
          encoded_a,encoded_p,encoded_n])
449
450 # Connect the inputs with the outputs
451 network_train = Model(inputs=[anchor_input,positive_input,negative_input
          ],outputs=loss_layer)
452453 # return the model
454 return network_train
455
456
457 def fingerRecoModel(input_shape,embeddingsize):
458 X_input = Input(input_shape)
459 # base = keras.applications.inception_resnet_v2.InceptionResNetV2(weights
```

```
='imagenet', input_tensor = X_input,input_shape = input_shape,
          include_top=False)
460 # base=keras.applications.mobilenet_v2.MobileNetV2(weights='imagenet',
          input\_tensor = X_input, input\_shape = input\_shape, include\_top=False)461 base=VGG16(weights='imagenet', input_tensor = X_input,input_shape =
          input_shape,include_top=False)
462 #imports the VGG16 model and discards the last 1000 neuron layer.
463 X=base.output
464 X=GlobalAveragePooling2D()(X)
465 # X=Dense(1024,activation='relu')(X) #we add dense layers so that the
          model can learn more complex functions and classify for better
          results.
466 X=Dense(512, activation='relu')(X) #dense layer 2
467 | X=Dense(256, activation='relu')(X) #dense layer 3
\frac{1}{468} X=Dense(embeddingsize, name = 'dense_layer')(X)
469
470 # L2 normalization
471 X = Lambda(lambda x: K.12_normalize(x,axis=1))(X)
472
473 # Create model instance
474 model = Model(inputs = X_input, outputs = X, name='FingerRecoModel')
475
476 return model
477
478 input_shape=(img_width, img_width, 3)
479 FRmodel = fingerRecoModel(input_shape=(img_width, img_width, 3),
       embeddingsize =128)
480 network_train = build_model(input_shape, FRmodel)
481 # optimizer = Adam(\text{lr} = 0.00006, beta_1=0.9, beta_2=0.999, epsilon=1e-08,
       decay=0.0)
482 optimizer = Adam(learning_rate = 0.00006, beta_1=0.9, beta_2=0.999, epsilon
       =1e-08483 | network_train.compile(loss=None,optimizer=optimizer)
484 network_train.summary()
485 plot_model(network_train,show_shapes=True, show_layer_names=True, to_file='
      02 model.png')
   print(network_train.metrics_names)
```

```
487 n_iteration=0
488
489 def get_batch_random(batch_size,s="train"):
490 """
491 | Create batch of APN triplets with a complete random strategy
492
493 Arguments:
494 batch_size -- integer
495
496 Returns:
497 triplets -- list containing 3 tensors A, P, N of shape (batch_size, w, h, c)
498 """
499 if s == 'train':
500 X = x_{\text{train}}501 else:
502 X = x_test503
504 \, m, w, h,c = X[0].shape
505
506
507 # initialize result
508 triplets=[np.zeros((batch_size,h, w,c)) for i in range(3)]
509
510 for i in range(batch_size):
511 #Pick one random class for anchor
512 anchor_class = np.random.randint(0, nb_classes)
\sup<sub>513</sub> nb_sample_available_for_class_AP = X[anchor_class].shape[0]
514
515 #Pick two different random pics for this class \Rightarrow A and P
516 [idx_A,idx_P] = np.random.choice(nb_sample_available_for_class_AP,
             size=2,replace=False)
517
518 #Pick another class for N, different from anchor_class
519 negative_class = (anchor_class + np.random.randint(1,nb_classes)) %
             nb_classes
\sup is a nb_sample_available_for_class_N = X[negative_class].shape[0]
521
```

```
522 #Pick a random pic for this negative class => N
\frac{1}{523} idx_N = np.random.randint(0, nb_sample_available_for_class_N)
524
\begin{array}{c} \text{525} \\ \text{525} \end{array} triplets[0][i,:,:,:] = X[anchor_class][idx_A,:,:,:]
\begin{bmatrix} 526 \end{bmatrix} triplets[1][i,:,:,:] = X[anchor_class][idx_P,:,:,:]
\sup_{527} triplets[2][i,:,:,:] = X[negative_class][idx_N,:,:,:]
528
529 return triplets
530
_{531} def drawTriplets(tripletbatch, nbmax=None):
532 We """display the three images for each triplets in the batch
\frac{533}{ } """"
534 labels = ["Anchor", "Positive", "Negative"]
535
536 if (nbmax==None):
537 nbrows = tripletbatch[0].shape[0]
538 else:
539 nbrows = min(nbmax, tripletbatch[0].shape[0])540
541 for row in range(nbrows):
_{542} fig=plt.figure(figsize=(16,2))
543
544 for i in range(3):
545 subplot = fig.add_subplot(1,3,i+1)
546 axis("off")
547 plt.imshow(tripletbatch[i][row,:,:,0],vmin=0, vmax=1,cmap='Greys')
548 subplot.title.set_text(labels[i])
_{549} def compute_dist(a,b):
550 return np.sum(np.square(a-b))
551
552 def get_batch_hard(draw_batch_size,hard_batchs_size,norm_batchs_size,network
       ,s="train"):
\frac{1}{553} """"
554 Create batch of APN "hard" triplets
555
556 Arguments:
557 draw_batch_size -- integer : number of initial randomly taken samples
```

```
558 hard_batchs_size -- interger : select the number of hardest samples to
          keep
559 norm_batchs_size -- interger : number of random samples to add
560
561 Returns:
562 triplets -- list containing 3 tensors A,P,N of shape (hard_batchs_size+
          norm_batchs_size,w,h,c)
\frac{563}{ } """"
564 if s == 'train':
S65 X = x_{\text{train}}566 else:
567 X = x_test568
569 m, w, h,c = X[0]. shape
570
571
572 #Step 1 : pick a random batch to study
573 studybatch = get_batch_random(draw_batch_size,s)
574
575 #Step 2 : compute the loss with current network : d(A, P) - d(A, N). The
          alpha parameter here is omited here since we want only to order them
576 studybatchloss = np.zeros((draw_batch_size))
577
578 #Compute embeddings for anchors, positive and negatives
579 A = network.predict(studybatch[0])
580 P = network.predict(studybatch[1])
581 N = network.predict(studybatch[2])
582
583 #Compute d(A, P) - d(A, N)\sup_{s=1} studybatchloss = np.sum(np.square(A-P),axis=1) - np.sum(np.square(A-N),
          axis=1)
585
586 #Sort by distance (high distance first) and take the
587 selection = np.argsort(studybatchloss)[::-1][:hard_batchs_size]
588
589 #Draw other random samples from the batch
590 selection2 = np.random.choice(np.delete(np.arange(draw_batch_size),
```

```
selection),norm_batchs_size,replace=False)
591
592 selection = np.append(selection, selection2)
593
\mathcal{L}_{594} triplets = [studybatch[0][selection,:,:,:], studybatch[1][selection
           ,:,:,:], studybatch[2][selection,:,:,:]]
595
596 return triplets
597
598 def compute_probs(network, X, Y):
599 \overline{\phantom{0}} \overline{\phantom{0}}600 Input
601 network : current NN to compute embeddings
\begin{array}{c} \text{602} \\ \text{603} \end{array} X : tensor of shape (m, w, h, 3) containing pics to evaluate
603 Y : tensor of shape (m,) containing true class
604
605 Returns
606 probs : array of shape (m,m) containing distances
607
608 '''
609 m = X.shape[0]
610 nbevaluation = int(m*(m-1)/2)
_{611} probs = np.zeros((nbevaluation))
612 y = np.zeros((nbevaluation))
613
614 #Compute all embeddings for all pics with current network
615 embeddings = network.predict(X)
616
617 size_embedding = embeddings.shape[1]
618
619 #For each pics of our dataset
620 k = 0
f(x) for i in range(m):
622 #Against all other images
f(x) for j in range(i+1,m):
\frac{624}{624} #compute the probability of being the right decision : it
                     should be 1 for right class, 0 for all other classes
```

```
\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} probs[k] = -compute_dist(embeddings[i,:],embeddings[j,:])
626 if (Y[i] == Y[j]):
\sigma_{627} y[k] = 1
628 \{0\} \{0\} vs \{1\} : \{2\}\tSAME".format(i,j,probs[k],k))
629 else:
\sigma_{630} \sigma \Gamma \Gamma = 0
\frac{63}{1} \frac{13}{0} vs {1} : \t\t\t{2}\tDIFF".format(i,j,probs[
                       k\vert,k))
k \neq 1633 return probs, y
634 #probs,yprobs = compute_probs(network,x_test_origin[:10,:,:,:],y_test_origin
      [:10]635
636 def compute_metrics(probs,yprobs):
637 '''
638 Returns
\epsilon_{639} fpr : Increasing false positive rates such that element i is the
             false positive rate of predictions with score >= thresholds[i]
640 tpr : Increasing true positive rates such that element i is the true
             positive rate of predictions with score >= thresholds[i].
641 thresholds : Decreasing thresholds on the decision function used to
             compute fpr and tpr. thresholds[0] represents no instances being
             predicted and is arbitrarily set to max(y score) + 1
642 auc : Area Under the ROC Curve metric
643 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}644 # calculate AUC
645 auc = roc_auc_score(yprobs, probs)
646 # calculate roc curve
647 fpr, tpr, thresholds = roc_curve(yprobs, probs)
648
649 return fpr, tpr, thresholds, auc
650
651 def compute_interdist(network):
652 '''
653 Computes sum of distances between all classes embeddings on our reference
          test image:
d(0,1) + d(0,2) + ... + d(0,9) + d(1,2) + d(1,3) + ... d(8,9)
```

```
655 A good model should have a large distance between all theses
              embeddings
656
657 Returns:
658 array of shape (nb_classes,nb_classes)
659 '''
660 res = np.zeros((nb_classes,nb_classes))
661
\begin{bmatrix} 662 \end{bmatrix} ref_images = np.zeros((nb_classes,img_rows,img_cols,1))
663
664 #generates embeddings for reference images
665 for i in range(nb_classes):
f_{666} ref_images[i,:,:,:] = dataset_test[i][0,:,:,:]
667 ref_embeddings = network.predict(ref_images)
668
669 for i in range(nb_classes):
670 for j in range(nb_classes):
\delta<sup>71</sup> res[i,j] = dist(ref_embeddings[i],ref_embeddings[j])
672 return res
673
674 def draw_interdist(network, n_iteration):
675 interdist = compute_interdist(network)
676
677 data = []
678 for i in range(nb_classes):
\begin{bmatrix} 679 \end{bmatrix} data.append(np.delete(interdist[i,:],[i]))
680
681 fig, ax = plt.subplots()
682 ax.set_title('Evaluating embeddings distance from each other after {0}
          iterations'.format(n_iteration))
\begin{bmatrix} 683 \end{bmatrix} ax.set_ylim([0,3])
684 plt.xlabel('Classes')
685 plt.ylabel('Distance')
686 ax.boxplot(data,showfliers=False,showbox=True)
687 locs, labels = plt.xticks()
688 plt.xticks(locs,np.arange(nb_classes))
689
```

```
690 plt.show()
691
\frac{692}{ } def find_nearest(array,value):
\frac{693}{100} idx = np.searchsorted(array, value, side="left")
\begin{bmatrix} 694 \end{bmatrix} if idx > 0 and (idx == len(array) or math.fabs(value - array[idx-1]) <
          math.fabs(value - array[idx])):
695 return array[idx-1],idx-1
696 else:
697 return array[idx], idx
698
699 \det draw_roc(fpr, tpr, thresholds):
700 #find threshold
701 targetfpr=1e-3
702 \blacksquare, idx = find_nearest(fpr, targetfpr)
703 threshold = thresholds[idx]
704 recall = tpr[idx]
705
706
707 # plot no skill
708 plt.plot([0, 1], [0, 1], linestyle='--')
709 # plot the roc curve for the model
710 plt.plot(fpr, tpr, marker='.')
711 plt.title('AUC: {0:.3f}\nSensitivity : {2:.1%} @FPR={1:.0e}\nThreshold
          ={3})'.format(auc,targetfpr,recall,abs(threshold) ))
712 # show the plot
713 plt.show()
714
715 def DrawTestImage(network, images, refidx=0):
716 '''
717 | Evaluate some pictures vs some samples in the test set
718 image must be of shape(1,w,h,c)
719
720 Returns
721 | scores: resultat des scores de similarites avec les images de base => N
722
723 \frac{1}{2}724 N=4
```

```
725 _, w, h, c = x_test[0]. shape
726 nbimages=images.shape[0]
727
728 #generates embedings for given images
729 image_embedings = network.predict(images)
730
731 #generates embedings for reference images
r_{32} ref_images = np.zeros((nb_classes,w,h,c))
733 for i in range(nb_classes):
r = \text{ref}\left[\text{images}[i, :, :, :] = \text{x} \text{test}[i][\text{refidx}, :, :, :] \right]735 ref_embedings = network.predict(ref_images)
736
737 for i in range(nbimages):
738 #Prepare the figure
f_{19} fig=plt.figure(figsize=(16,2))
740 subplot = fig.add_subplot(1,nb_classes+1,1)
741 axis("off")
742 plotidx = 2
743
744 #Draw this imagep1t.imshow(images[i,:,:,0], vmin=0, vmax=1, cmap='Greys')746 subplot.title.set_text("Test image")
747
748 for ref in range(nb_classes):
\#Compute distance between this images and references
\frac{750}{750} dist = compute_dist(image_embedings[i,:],ref_embedings[ref,:])
751 #Draw
752 subplot = fig.add_subplot(1,nb_classes+1,plotidx)
753 axis("off")
p1t.imshow(ref_images[ref,:,:,0],vmin=0, vmax=1,cmap='Greys')
\frac{755}{155} subplot.title.set_text(("Class {0}\n{1:.3e}".format(y_test[ref],
                dist)))
756 plotidx += 1757
758 # Hyper parameters
759 evaluate_every = 10 # interval for evaluating on one-shot tasks
760 batch_size = 24
```

```
761 hard_batch_size=10
762 rand_batch_size=2
763 n_iter = 800 # No. of training iterations prevous 300
764 \#n\_val = 250 # how many one-shot tasks to validate on
765
766 print ("Starting training process!")
767 print("-------------------------------------")
768 t_start = time.time()
769 for i in range(1, n_iter+1):
770 triplets = get_batch_hard(batch_size,hard_batch_size,rand_batch_size,
          FRmodel)
771 loss = network_train.train_on_batch(triplets, None)
772 n_iteration += 1
773 if i % evaluate_every == 0:
774 print ("\n ------------- \n")
\sigma print("[{3}] Time for {0} iterations: {1:.1f} mins, Train Loss: {2}".
              format(i, (time.time()-t_start)/60.0,loss,n_iteration))
776
777 network_train.save_weights("/content/drive/MyDrive/MINE_MELON/src/3Triplet/
       fold10_10.h5")
778
779 trained_weights =[]
780 import os
781 path = list(os.walk("/content/drive/MyDrive/MINE_MELON/src/3Triplet/"))[0]
782 for file in path[2]:
783 if ".h5" in file:
784 trained_weights.append(os.path.join(path[0],file))
785 trained_weights
786
787 from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
788
789 import random
790 from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
791 import matplotlib.cm as cm
792 import io
793
794 db = []
```

```
795 \vert S = 12
796 st = 57
797 target = []
798 randomSample = random.sample(excluded_list,len(excluded_list));
799 # randomSample = random.sample(range(st, st+s), s);
\begin{bmatrix} 800 \\ 50 \end{bmatrix} for p in ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']:
801 for i in randomSample:
802 try:
803 name = f''\{\frac{i}{\} = \{p\}''\lim_{804} im = cv.imread(f"img_digitize/{name}.png")
\sin im = cv.resize(im, (600,600),interpolation = cv.INTER_AREA)
806 db.append(im)
807 target.append(i)
808 except: continue
809
810 \vert dbe = FRmodel.predict(np.array(db))
811 #save projector.tensorflow
\sup |np.savetxt("vecs.tsv", dbe, delimiter='\t')
813 | out_m = io.open('meta.tsv', 'w', encoding='utf-8')
814 for i in target:
815 out_m.write(str(i) + "\n")
816 out_m.close()
817
818 pca = PCA(n\_components=2)819 xs = StandardScaler().fit_transform(dbe)
820 pc = pca.fit_transform(xs)
\mathbb{R}^{21} colors = cm.rainbow(np.linspace(0, 1, s))
822 fig = figure(figsize=(8, 6), dpi=80)
\begin{bmatrix} 823 \end{bmatrix} # ax = fig.add_subplot(projection='3d')
824 ax = fig.add_subplot()
825
826 for i in range(len(dbe)):
\begin{array}{c} \text{S27} \\ \text{array} \end{array} # ax.scatter(pc[i][0], pc[i][1], pc[i][2], color=colors[i % s])
828 | ax.\text{scatter}(pc[i][0], pc[i][1], color=colors[(i) % s])829 box = ax.get_position()
830 ax.set_position([box.x0, box.y0, box.width * 0.95, box.height])
831 ax.set_xlabel("1st pca", fontsize=14)
```

```
\frac{832}{2} ax.set_ylabel("2nd pca", fontsize=14)
_{833} \# ax.set_zlabel("3rd pca", fontsize=14)
834
835 # Put a legend to the right of the current axis
836 \neq 38. legend(range(st,st+s),loc='center left', bbox_to_anchor=(1, 0.5))
837 ax.legend(excluded list.loc='center left', bbox to anchor=(1, 0.5))
838
839 plt.show()
840
841
842 \frac{1}{2} from sklearn.manifold import TSNE
843 import random
844 tsne = TSNE(n_components=2, verbose=1, random_state=0,perplexity=5,n_iter
       =1000)
845 pc = tsne.fit_transform(dbe)
_{846} colors = list(cm.rainbow(np.linspace(0, 1, s)))
847 # random.shuffle(colors)
_{848} | fig = figure(figsize=(8, 6), dpi=80)
849 ax = fig.add_subplot()
850 \# ax = fig.add_subplot(projection='3d')
851 mean = np.mean(pc)
\text{ss}_2 standard_deviation = np.std(pc)
853
854 distance_from_mean = abs(pc - mean)855 | max_deviations = 2
856 for i in range(len(dbe)):
857 distance_from_mean = abs(pc[i] - mean)
858 # remove outlier
859 if np.any(distance_from_mean > max_deviations * standard_deviation):
860 continue
\begin{bmatrix} 861 \end{bmatrix} # ax.scatter(pc[i][0], pc[i][1], pc[i][2], color=colors[i % s])
862 ax.scatter(pc[i][0], pc[i][1], color=colors[i % s])#<<<<
\begin{array}{c|c} \n\text{863} & # ax.setter(pc[i][0], pc[i][1], color=colors[10])\n\end{array}864
865 \# ax.legend( range(st,st+s),loc='center left', bbox_to_anchor=(1, 0.5))
866 ax.legend(excluded_list,loc='center left', bbox_to_anchor=(1, 0.5))
867 ax.set_xlabel("1st TSNE", fontsize=14)
```

```
868 ax.set_ylabel("2nd TSNE", fontsize=14)
869 # ax.set_zlabel("3rd TSNE", fontsize=14)
870 plt.show()
871
872 # use excluded_list as database
873 database = {}
874 for i in excluded_list:
875 database[i] = img_to_encoding(f"img_digitize/{i}_b.png", FRmodel)
876
877 res = \{\}878 | c = 0879 FR = 0880 CA = 0881 FA = 0
882 IDE = 0
\begin{bmatrix} 883 \\ 50r \\ p \text{ in } [a', 'c', 'd'] \end{bmatrix}884 # for i in range(Start, Stop+1):
885 for i in excluded_list:
886 match = False
887 name = f''\{\mathbf{i}\} \qquad \{p\}''888 test_dir = f"img_digitize/{name}.png"
889 encoding = img_to_encoding(test_dir, FRmodel)
890 temp dist = 10
891 # for j in range(Start, Stop+1):
892 for j in excluded_list:
893 dist = np.linalg.norm(encoding-database[j])
894 c += 1
\begin{array}{c|c}\n\text{895} & \text{if } \text{dist} \leq \text{temp\_dist}:\n\end{array}896 temp_dist = dist
897 pre_iden = j
898 if temp_dist > 0.4:
899 FR + = 1900 if pre_iden != i:
_{901} IDE _{+1}902 else:
903 match = True
904 elif temp_dist <= 0.4 and pre_iden == i:
```

```
905 match = True
906 CA +=1907 elif temp_dist <= 0.4 and pre_iden != i:
908 IDE +=1P_{909} FA +=1910 # print(f''{i}{p}: {match}{, {pre\_iden}{, {temp\_dist}}")}911 res[f"{i}_{p}"] = [match,pre_iden,temp_dist]
912 print(c)
913
914 import pandas as pd
915 df=pd.DataFrame.from_dict(res).T
916 TP = len(df.loc[df[0] == True])_{917} \vert FP = len(df.loc[df[0]==False])
918 FN = FP
919 TN = c - (TP+FP+FN)
920 # print(f'FP: {FP}, FN: {FN}, TP: {TP}, TN: {TN}, Total: {c}')
921 \vert acc = (TP + TN)/(TP+FP+TN+FN)*100
_{922} | pre = TP/(TP+FP)*100
_{923} rec = TP/(TP+FN)*100924 # print(f'Accuracy: %.2f%% Precision: %.2f%% Recall: %.2f%% ' %(acc,pre,rec)
       \lambda925 FAR = (FP/(c))^*100_{926} FRR = (FN/(c))*100
927 \# print("FAR = %.3f%% FRR = %.3f%%" %(FAR, FRR))
928
929 CR = C - (FR + CA + FA)930 \text{print}(f''\text{Total checks} = \{(\text{CR}+\text{CA}+\text{FR}+\text{FA})\}'')931 \text{print}(f''\text{Correct} Acceptance = \{CA\} Correct Rejection = \{CR\}'')
932 print(f''False Acceptance = {FA} False Rejection = {FR}'')933 \text{print("FAR = %.2f\% FRR = %.2f\%" % ((FA/c)*100, (FR/c)*100))934 \text{print}(f''\text{Top-Rank} \text{ ID Error} = %2f\%'' % ((\text{IDE}/c)*100))
```
55