
DEVELOPMENT OF ADVERSARIAL ROBUST DEEP LEARNING FRAMEWORK FOR FACE MORPHING ATTACK DETECTION IN BIOMETRIC SYSTEMS

Okon Gabriel Ota*, Agu Joy Amarachi, Onyemachi George Olisamaka

Computer Science Department, Enugu State University of Science and Technology.

Article Received: 9 May 2026

*Corresponding Author: Okon Gabriel Ota

Article Revised: 29 May 2026

Computer Science Department, Enugu State University of Science and Technology.

Published on: 19 June 2026

DOI: <https://doi-org/101555/ijrpa.2737>

ABSTRACT

Face recognition systems have become integral to modern biometric security applications, including border control, banking, and national identity management. However, the increasing sophistication of face morphing attacks poses significant threats to their reliability. This study presents an adversarially robust deep learning framework for detecting face morphing attacks generated using advanced techniques such as MIPGAN, MorDiff, Greedy-DIM, and Morph-PIPE. These techniques produce highly realistic morphed images capable of deceiving both human observers and automated systems. The proposed framework leverages convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and adversarial learning strategies to enhance detection performance across both known and unseen morphing attacks. Using the SYN-MAD 2022 dataset and evaluating against state-of-the-art face recognition systems (ArcFace, AdaFace, and ElasticFace), the study demonstrates the effectiveness of the proposed approach. Experimental results reveal that advanced morphing methods, particularly Greedy-DIM and Morph-PIPE, achieve extremely high attack success rates, highlighting the urgent need for robust detection mechanisms. The findings contribute to strengthening biometric security systems and mitigating identity fraud risks in real-world applications.

KEYWORDS: Face Morphing Attacks; Biometric Security; Face Recognition Systems; Morphing Attack Detection (MAD); Deep Learning; Adversarial Learning.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Biometric systems particularly face recognition systems; have become widely adopted in

security-critical applications such as border control, banking authentication, and national identity systems. However, these systems are increasingly vulnerable to face morphing attacks, where images of two or more individuals are digitally combined to create a synthetic identity capable of bypassing authentication systems.

Biometrics has been commonly utilized in various areas of security. Biometrics, which refers to the measurement of human features, is a prominent area of research in computer science. They have applications in security of data, access control, and identity systems (Ambikapathy, *et al*, 2024). Personal identification numbers or passwords were once the primary means of identification for each individual, but this led to numerous problems. As a result of how easy it is for someone to pretend to be someone else simply by knowing their password or phone number, biometric identifiers which are regarded as more reliable are being used more frequently. Since biometrics can provide unique and powerful information that can precisely identify a person, such as skin color, fingerprint, iris, face, hand geometry, retina, DNA, and palm veins, identification is the most widely used application of biometrics (Hernandez-de-Menende, *et al*, 2021). Since every person's face is different and packed with information (Keshavarz, *et al*, 2020), facial recognition systems are widely used in security and service departments of mobile phones, businesses, international airports, and social media companies on the internet, among other domains (Scherhag, *et al*, 2019).

According to Ghareb, Hamid, Sabr, and Tofiq (2022), in an effort to develop systems that can recognize faces accurately even though people are remarkably similar, researchers are currently very interested in facial recognition systems. Face morphing can be a serious security risk when these altered photos are used for passports or identification because it allows multiple people (subjects) to use the information to verify their identities (Robertson, *et al*, 2017; Seibold, *et al*. 2020). Multiple subjects' improper connection to the document may lead to a number of illicit activities, including financial transactions, illegal immigration, and human trafficking. The targeted offender would modify his face photo with one of the impersonating partners in a real-world face-morphing attack scenario. If the partner requests an e-passport with an altered face photo, they will receive an authentic e-passport with matching document security features. It is possible to authenticate the accomplice and the partner using the morphed image found in the e-passport. This suggests that by using the e-passport that was given to the accomplice, the criminal can avoid the automated border control gates or perhaps even the human inspections at the gate. For this reason, it is imperative that this face-morphing attack be identified automatically (Hamza, Tehsin, Karamti and Alghamdi, 2022).

Figure 1 depicts a border control example scenario where a malicious person's face is altered to resemble that of an accomplice.

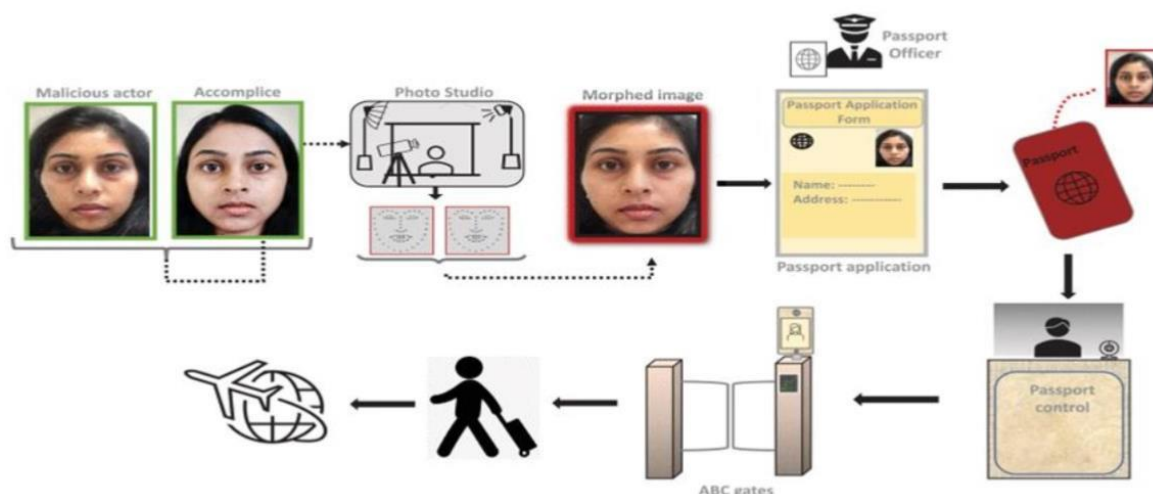


Figure1: Example of border control FRS vulner ability to morphedimage.

Face morphing attacks pose a serious threat to the reliability of automatic face recognition systems (FRSs), particularly in applications such as electronic identity issuance and border control. These attacks blend the facial features of two or more individuals to create hybrid images capable of impersonating multiple identities. The proliferation of open-source morphing tools and recent advances in generative models have made it increasingly easy to generate high-quality, realistic morphs (Damer, *et al*, 2023; Zhang, *et al*, 2024). This has heightened the need for reliable morphing attack detection (MAD) methods to counter threats such as identity theft, document fraud, and social engineering.

Face Recognition (FR) systems have been deployed in a wide range of settings from unlocking phones to border control (Spreeuwes, Hendrikse, and Gerritse, 2012), and the performance of such systems keeps improving. Due to its wide adoption, FR systems have been the target to various types of attacks (Ngan *et al*, 2020). Most recently, it has been shown that these systems are vulnerable to the face morphing attacks (Ferrara, *et al.*, 2016; Blasingame, *et al.*, 2021), an emerging type of attack that aims to blend the biometric identifiers of multiple faces into a single image that would trigger a false acceptance with any of the identities used to make the morph. Application scenarios where the system allows users to submit self-generated images to obtain a valid passport or visa creates a significant attack vector for a malicious agent to enroll morphed images (Venkatesh, *et al*, 2021). The potency of these attacks have led to face morphing becoming a focal point in recent research on FR systems (Ferrara, *et al.*, 2014; Venkatesh, *et al*, 2020), in an effort to secure the identity control process.

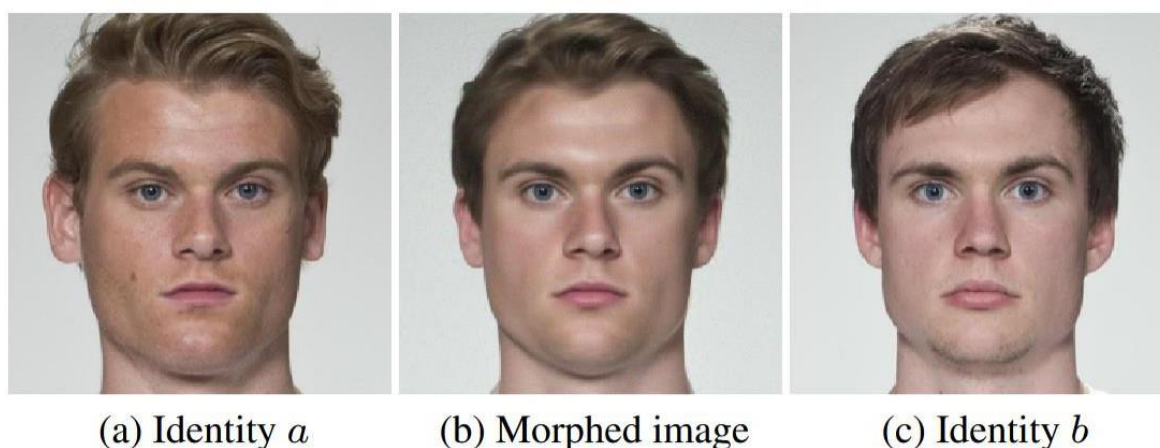


Figure2: Example of amorph create during Greedy-DiM.

Face morphing attacks exploit weaknesses in facial recognition algorithms by embedding identity features of multiple individuals into a single image. These attacks can deceive systems during enrolment and verification stages, thereby posing serious security risks. Recent advancements in deep learning have led to the development of highly sophisticated morphing techniques such as MIPGAN, MorDiff, Greedy-DiM, and Morph-PIPE, which produce highly realistic morphs that are difficult to detect using traditional methods. The present research aims to develop an adversarial robust deep learning framework for face morphing attack detection in biometric systems. The system will utilize state-of-the-art deep learning algorithms, such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and generative adversarial networks (GANs), to improve the accuracy of morphed face image detection.

Research Problem Statement

Despite the progress in biometric technologies, existing face recognition systems lack robustness against advanced morphing attacks. Traditional morph detection techniques rely on handcrafted features or supervised learning approaches, which often fail to generalize across unseen attack types. Therefore, there is a need for a robust and advanced deep learning morphing frameworks such as MIPGAN, MorDiff, Greedy-DiM, and Morph-PIPE for morphing attacks.

Aim and Objectives

Aim: To develop an adversarially robust deep learning framework for detecting face morphing attacks in biometric systems.

The objectives of the study are to analyze advanced morphing techniques such as MIPGAN, MorDiff, Greedy-DiM, and Morph-PIPE, to design a deep learning-based morph detection

model with adversarial robustness and to evaluate the performance of the proposed framework using benchmark datasets.

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the advancement of biometric security by addressing vulnerabilities in face recognition systems. It will provide a robust detection mechanism against advanced morphing attacks, improved security for identity verification systems and provide a framework adaptable to evolving attack strategies. The findings will be relevant for governments, security agencies, and organizations relying on biometric authentication.

Scope and Limitation

Scope: the study focus on face morphing attack detection using deep learning, evaluation of state-of-the-art morphing techniques (MIPGAN, MorDiff, Greedy-DIM, Morph-PIPE) and application to biometric systems.

Limitations: the study is limited to dependence on available high-quality datasets, computational complexity of deep learning models and the potential difficulty in real-time deployment.

2. Literature Review

Overview

A Face Recognition System (FRS) performs identity verification by comparing two photos and deciding whether or not the identities match. It was first shown in (Ferrara, Franco and Maltoni, 2014) that existing Face Recognition Systems (FRS) were vulnerable to morphing attacks. A morph is an image that contains facial features of two different people. In a border-crossing scenario a criminal could enlist the help of an accomplice to create a morphed photo. The accomplice could then use this photo to apply for a passport, which the criminal in turn could use to cross borders undetected. According to Scherhag, *et al.*, (2019); Makrushin, *et al.*, (2018) and Robertson, *et al.*, (2017), the most-used method to create morphs is to mark certain facial features, called landmarks, warp both images to a common geometry and then blend the pixel values. It has been shown that both FRSs and humans will often accept a morph made with this method as a match with both contributing identities.

Recently, a platform was launched with which the performance of different morphing detection algorithms can be benchmarked (Raja *et al.*, 2020). This benchmark and other research indicate that existing algorithms do not perform well when tested across different datasets (Spreeuwens, *et al.*, 2018; Scherhag, *et al.*, 2018). Since researchers have so far had

to create their own training datasets, their detection methods may have been overfitted to specific characteristics of their training set. Furthermore, some detection methods require large datasets for training, which means that a large number of morphs need to be made. Since this is usually done automatically such morphs will probably be of lower quality than hand-crafted morphs. A detection method created by training with such data can detect low-quality but not high-quality morphs.

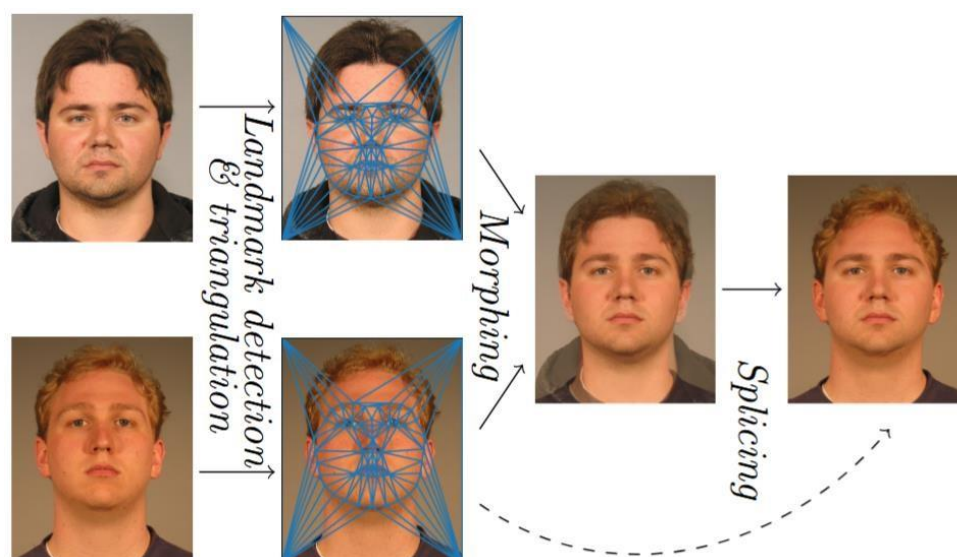


Figure3: Morphing Process.

Then a naive approach to create a face morph is to simply take a pixel-wise average of the original images. Due to its simplicity, this approach can result in many noticeable artifacts. An extension on this would be to align the landmarks of the face, warping the pixels to fit this new representation, and then averaging the pixels. The blending value is usually set to 0.5 so that both of the original images could contribute equally to the morphed image. Later work (Zhang, *et al.*, 2021; Zhang, *et al.*, 2023) questions if this assumption is valid. Further improvements can be made to these landmark-based morphs by additional post-processing to remove the artifacts from the morphing process (Ferrara, *et al.*, 2019).

MIPGAN

Morphing through Identity Prior driven GAN (MIPGAN) and in particular MIPGAN-II improves upon the original GAN-based morphs and StyleGAN2-based morphs (Sarkar, *et al.*, 2022) by using optimization methods to search for a latent representation that fools the FR system maximally (Zhang, *et al.*, 2021). The MIPGAN algorithm works by taking the two bona fide images x_a , x_b , and encoding them into latent representations, z_a , z_b . An initial morphed latent $z_{ab} = 1/2(z_a + z_b)$ is then constructed. The initial latent is optimized such that the generated morph $x_{ab} = G(z_{ab})$ minimizes an identity loss based on the ArcFace FR system (Deng, *et al.*, 2019) along with a perceptual loss term. This optimization procedure produces a more potent morphing attack than simply using the morphed latent z_{ab} .

DiM

Blasingame *et al.* (2024) proposed to use diffusion-based methods to construct high-quality face morphs. This family of morphing attacks is known as Diffusion Morphs (DiM). Diffusion models function by modeling the diffusion process wherein noise is progressively added to the data until the resulting distribution reassembles a Gaussian distribution. To sample the data distribution, a random sample is drawn from the Gaussian distribution and then the diffusion process is run in reverse to iteratively remove noise until a clean sample from data distribution is produced. Given the data distribution $P_{data}(x)$ on the data space $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, the diffusion process is given by the Itô stochastic differential equation (SDE).

$$dx_t = f(t)x_t dt + g(t)dw_t \quad (1)$$

where $t \in [0, T]$ is the time with fixed constant $T > 0$, $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$ are the drift and diffusion coefficients and w denotes standard Brownian motion. This paper employed the variance preserving (VP) formulation of diffusion models which uses the following drift and diffusion coefficients

$$f(t) = \frac{d \log \alpha}{dt} \quad (2)$$

$$g(t) = \sqrt{1 - \alpha(t)} \quad (3)$$

where α_t forms the noise schedule of the diffusion models such that

$$q(x_t|x_0) = \mathcal{N}(x_t | \alpha_t x_0, \sigma_t^2 I) \quad (4)$$

with signal-to-noise-ratio (SNR) α_t / σ_t^2 which is strictly decreasing with respect to t .

The distribution of x_t is denoted as $p_t(x_t)$, therefore $p_0(x_0) = p_{data}(x)$. Song *et al.* (2021) showed the existence of an ordinary differential equation (ODE) dubbed the Probability Flow ODE (PF-ODE) whose marginal distributions p_t follow the same trajectories as the diffusion SDE. The PF-ODE is given as

$$\frac{dx_t}{dt} = f(t)x_t - 1/2 g^2(t) \nabla_{x_t} \log P_t(x_t) \quad (5)$$

where $\nabla_{x_t} \log P_t(x_t)$ denotes the score of $P_t(x_t)$. The score function can be learned by a neural network $\hat{\epsilon}_\theta(x_t, t) \approx -\sigma_t \nabla_{x_t} \log P_t(x_t)$. To sample the model, an initial noise sample $x_T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ is drawn. Then a numerical ODE solver is employed to solve the ODE from time T to time 0.

where $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log P_t(\mathbf{x}_t)$ denotes the score of $P_t(\mathbf{x}_t)$. The score function can be learned by a neural network $\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, t) \approx -\sigma_t \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log P_t(\mathbf{x}_t)$. To sample the model, an initial noise sample $\mathbf{x}_T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ is drawn. Then a numerical ODE solver is employed to solve the ODE from time T to time 0.

DiM models employ score predictor model conditioned on a latent representation of the target image, i.e., $\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{z}, t)$ with an encoding network $\mathbf{z} = E(\mathbf{x}_0)$. Previous DiM approaches (Blasingame, *et al.*, 2024, and Zhang, *et al.*, 2023) use a Diffusion Autoencoder model (Preechakul, Chatthee, Wizadwongsa and Suwa-janakorn, 2022) as the backbone for the score prediction model. As per the Diffusion Autoencoder technique, the ODE solver Φ_0 is reversed now solving from $t = 0$ to $t = T$, resulting in a deterministic forward pass to an approximation of $p_T(\mathbf{x}_T)$. This forward ODE solver was denoted, so called as it is evaluated as time runs forwards from 0 to T , as Φ^+ . The noisy bona fide images are morphed using spherical linear interpolation, i.e., $\mathbf{x}^{(ab)T} = \text{slerp}(\mathbf{x}^{(a)}, \mathbf{x}^{(b)}; 0.5)$. The conditionals are averaged and this morphed information is used as the input to the diffusion model.

Morph-PIPE

Zhang et al. [22] proposed Morph-PIPE, a simple extension on the DiM method by using an identity-based loss to select between a range of blend values. They use an identity loss defined as the sum of two sub-losses:

$$L_{ID} = d(\mathbf{v}_{ab}, \mathbf{v}_a) + d(\mathbf{v}_{ab}, \mathbf{v}_b) \quad (6)$$

$$L_{diff} = |d(\mathbf{v}_{ab}, \mathbf{v}_a) - d(\mathbf{v}_{ab}, \mathbf{v}_b)| \quad (7)$$

$$L^*_{ID} = L_{ID} + L_{diff} \quad (8)$$

where $\mathbf{v}_a = F(\mathbf{x}^{(a)}_0)$, $\mathbf{v}_b = F(\mathbf{x}^{(b)}_0)$, $\mathbf{v}_{ab} = F(\mathbf{x}^{(ab)}_0)$, and $F : X \rightarrow V$ is an FR system which embeds images into a vector space V which is equipped with a measure of distance, d . To create the morph B , different morphs are generated with different blend coefficients $\{w_n\}_{n=1}^B \subseteq [0, 1]$. They then choose the w_n which minimizes L^*_{ID} . By leveraging a powerful FR system like ArcFace, the selected morphs are more potent than the original DiM implementation with a fixed blend parameter $w = 0.5$.

Fast-DiM is a concurrent work which proposes an improvement on DiM with the goal of reducing the number of Network Function Evaluations (NFE) needed to produce high-quality face morphs using DiM. This reduction in NFE is primarily accomplished by using alternative ODE solvers used in solving the Probability Flow ODE and replacing the “stochastic encoder” with an ODE solver for the Probability Flow ODE as time runs forward from 0 to T .

Greedy-DiM

Greedy-

DiM is a novel family of face morphing attacks that greedily chooses the optimal solution at each timestep in solving the PF-ODE.

GreedySearch

The experiment begins by applying a greedy search during the sampling process of diffusion models. The information from the identity losses of Equations (7) and (8) provides a powerful heuristic function for guiding the creation of face morphs. While Zhang *et al.* (2023) only uses this information to select from a pre-selected set of morphed image candidates, the experiment used this heuristic during the sampling process. Now, the identity losses require a morphed image as input; however, at time $t > 0$, the image x_t is not fully denoised. To remedy this, the experiment used the estimate of x_0 at each timestep t as input to the identity losses. This can be found from the noise prediction network via

$$\hat{x}_0(x_t, z_t; t) = \frac{x_t - \sigma_t \epsilon_\theta(x_t, z_t; t)}{\alpha_t} \quad (9)$$

In the greedy strategy, it was found that the optimal blend parameter w at each step between two trajectories of the PF-ODE, the first trajectory being the model conditioned on z_a and the second being conditioned on z_b . This strategy is detailed in Equation (10) where H is the heuristic function which measures how “optimal” the morph is relative to the bona fide images.

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon^{(w)}_t &= \text{slerp}(\epsilon_\theta(x^{(ab)}_t, z_a, t), \epsilon_\theta(x^{(ab)}_t, z_b, t); w) \\ w^*_t &= \underset{w \in \{w_n\}_{n=1}^B}{\text{argmin}} H\left(\frac{1}{\alpha_t} (1 - \sigma_t \epsilon^{(w)}_t) \hat{x}_0(x^{(a)}_0, x^{(b)}_0)\right) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

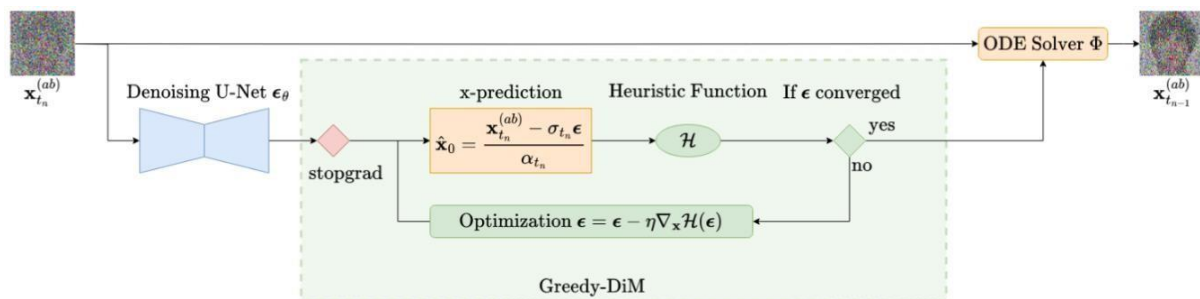


Figure 4: Overview of a single step of the Greedy-DiM algorithm. The highlighted part in green represents the changes.

This is the result in a sequence of blend parameters w_t for each step in the PF-ODE solver. So, the $e^{(w_t)}$ for each timestep t is used as the noise prediction when solving the PF-ODE. This model is referred to as Greedy-DiM-S as it is the search variant of the Greedy-DiM family.

MorDIFF

This approach is based on the work of Konpat *et al.* (2022) and is described in the following with the necessary background information. Other morphing generation process used the GAN architecture (Naser *et al.*, 2019; Naser, *et al.*, 2018; Sushma, *et al.*, 2020) and generated good morph attacks. Despite the fact that GAN can learn meaningful representations in the latent spaces, the reconstruction fidelity is limited due to the latent size depending on the number of training samples. In contrast to GAN, diffusion probabilistic model (DPM) (Jonathan, *et al.*, 2020; Jascha, *et al.*, 2015) has achieved higher visual fidelity in image generation. However, the latent code of DPM lacks semantic meaning, which makes it harder for diverse representation learning in comparison with GAN-based models. To address such issues, diffusion autoencoder (Konpat *et al.* 2022) was proposed to separately infer both semantic and stochastic information from the inputs. Therefore, we use the diffusion autoencoder (Konpat *et al.* 2022) to generate high fidelity and smooth face morphing between two input face images x^1_I and x^2_I .

The diffusion autoencoder contains two encoders. One is a semantic encoder mapping x^1_I and x^2_I to semantic latent representations z^1_s and z^2_s . The other one is a stochastic encoder to obtain the latent code x^1_t and x^2_t from inputs. Therefore, two subcodes are encoded from x^1_I and x^2_I to (z^1_s, x^1_t) and (z^2_s, x^2_t) . Then, a linear interpolation Lerp and a spherical linear interpolation SLerp as recommended in (Ken, 1985 and Jiaming, *et al.*, 2021) are used to obtain a representative latent code $z(\lambda)$ with $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ from the obtained subcodes. The interpolation can be formulated as following:

$$\text{Lerp}(z^1_s, z^2_s; \lambda) = \lambda z^1_s + (1 - \lambda) z^2_s \quad (11)$$

$$\text{SLerp}(x^1_t, x^2_t; \lambda) = \sin \theta \lambda x^1_t + \sin \theta (1 - \lambda) x^2_t \quad (12) \quad \sin \theta$$

where

$$\theta = \arccos \left(\frac{x^1_t \cdot x^2_t}{\|x^1_t\| \|x^2_t\|} \right)$$

Therefore, the latent code $z(\lambda)$ can be formulated as $z(\lambda) = (\text{Lerp}(z_{1s}, z_{2s}; \lambda), \text{SLerp}(x_{1t}, x_{2t}; \lambda))$. Finally, a conditional DPM is used as decoder to produce the morphing attack, denoted as MorDIFF in our case. The used diffusion autoencoder training details are provided and the pre-trained autoencoder available publicly was used.

Related Studies

The study of Naser, Meiling, Patrick, Jan, Marco and Fadi (2023) titled MorDIFF: Recognition Vulnerability and Attack Detectability of Face Morphing Attacks Created by Diffusion Autoencoders, investigated new methods of creating face morphing attacks which is essential to foresee novel attacks and help mitigate them.

According to the researchers, creating morphing attacks is commonly either performed on the image-level or on the representation-level. The representation-level morphing has been performed so far based on generative adversarial networks (GAN) where the encoded images are interpolated in the latent space to produce a morphed image based on the interpolated vector. Such a process was constrained by the limited reconstruction fidelity of GAN architectures. Recent advances in the diffusion autoencoder models have overcome the GAN limitations, leading to high reconstruction fidelity. This according to the researchers theoretically makes them a perfect candidate to perform representation-level face morphing. The work investigated using diffusion autoencoders to create face morphing attacks by comparing them to a wide range of image-level and representation-level morphs. The researchers' vulnerability analyses on four state-of-the-art face recognition models showed that such models are highly vulnerable to the created attacks, the MorDIFF, especially when compared to existing representation-level morphs. The researchers also detailed detectability analyses performed on the MorDIFF, which showed that they are difficult to detect as other morphing attacks created on the image- or representation-level.

In a research article by Essa *et al.*, (2024) titled Face Morphing Attacks Detection Approaches: A Review, the researchers aimed to provide a comprehensive overview of face morphing attacks and the developments happening in the field. The paper detailed the difficulties encountered, the methods for generating morphing images, and the pros and cons of these approaches. This was achieved along with the most important performance metrics that measure the efficiency of the algorithms used. The paper also covered the types of techniques used in deep learning and machine learning to detect and determine the

attack of mutant faces. It provided an overview of the most significant results from studies previously done in the area of face researchers. Haoyu *et al.*, (2015) presented a new approach for generating strong attacks extending their earlier framework for generating face morphs. The researchers presented a new approach using an Identity Prior Driven Generative Adversarial Network, which was referred to as MIPGAN (Morphing through Identity Prior driven GAN). The

proposed MIPGAN was derived from the StyleGAN with a newly formulated loss function exploiting perceptual quality and identity factor to generate a high quality morphed facial image with minimal artefacts and with high resolution. The researchers demonstrated the proposed approach's applicability to generate strong

morphing attacks by evaluating its vulnerability against both commercial and deep learning based Face Recognition System (FRS) and demonstrate the success rate of attacks. Extensive experiments are carried out to assess the FRS's vulnerability against the proposed morphed face generation technique on three types of data such as digital images, re-digitized (printed and scanned) images, and compressed images after re-digitization from newly generated MIPGAN Face Morph Dataset. The obtained results demonstrate that the proposed approach of morph generation poses a high threat to FRS.

Ramesh *et al.*, (2024) proposed a morphing attack detection approach based on convolutional neural networks in

their work titled Detection of Face Morphing Using Deep Learning. The researchers presented an automatic morphing pipeline to generate morphing attacks, train neural networks based on this data and analyze their accuracy. The accuracy of different well-known network architectures is compared and the advantage of using pretrained networks compared to networks learned from scratch is studied.

Zander and Chen (2024) carried out a research on Greedy-DiM: Greedy Algorithms for Unreasonably Effective Face Morphs. The researchers proposed a greedy strategy on the iterative sampling process of DiM models which searches for an optimal step guided by an identity-based heuristic function. The researchers also compared their proposed algorithm against ten other state-of-the-art morphing algorithms using the open-source SYN-MAD 2022 competition dataset. It was found that their proposed algorithm is unreasonably effective, fooling all of the tested FR systems with an MMPMR of 100%, outperforming all other morphing algorithms compared.

3. Research Gap

Despite significant advancements, the following gaps exist: lack of generalization across unseen morphing techniques and insufficient integration of multi-model morph detection strategies. Most existing systems fail when confronted with advanced morphing techniques like Greedy-DIM and MorDiff, highlighting the need for a more resilient framework.

4. METHODOLOGY

This study proposes MIPGAN, MorDiff, Greedy-DIM AND Morph-PIPE models for developing and evaluating a Face Morphing Attack Detection.

System Design

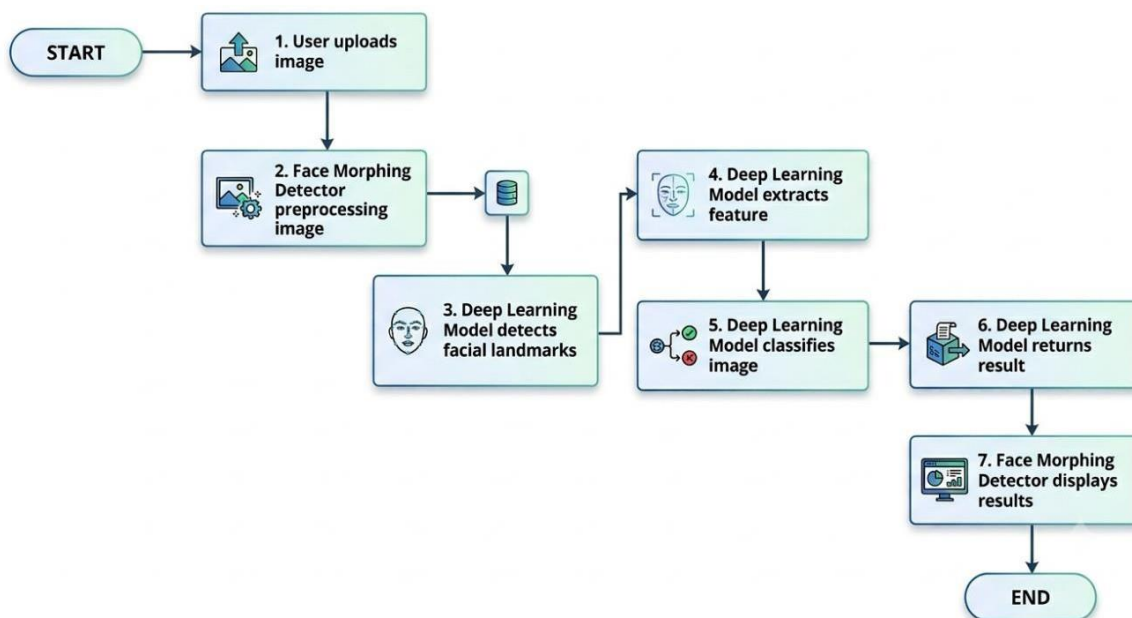


Figure5: System Diagram.

System Algorithm: Greedy-DiMAlgorithm

```

1: for  $n \leftarrow N, N - 1, \dots, 2$  do
2:    $\epsilon \leftarrow \text{stopgrad}(\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t_n}^{(ab)}, \mathbf{z}_{ab}, t_n))$ 
3:    $\epsilon^* \leftarrow \epsilon$ 
4:    $\mathcal{H}^* \leftarrow \mathcal{H}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{x}_0^{(a)}, \mathbf{x}_0^{(b)})$ 
5:   for  $i \leftarrow 1, 2, \dots, n_{opt}$  do
6:      $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0 \leftarrow \frac{1}{\alpha_{t_n}}(\mathbf{x}_{t_n}^{(ab)} - \sigma_{t_n} \epsilon)$ 
7:      $\mathcal{H}(\epsilon) \leftarrow \mathcal{H}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{x}_0^{(a)}, \mathbf{x}_0^{(b)})$ 
8:     if  $\mathcal{H}(\epsilon) < \mathcal{H}^*$  then
9:        $\mathcal{H}^* \leftarrow \mathcal{H}(\epsilon)$ 
10:       $\epsilon^* \leftarrow \epsilon$ 
11:    end if
12:     $\epsilon \leftarrow \epsilon - \eta \nabla_\epsilon \mathcal{H}(\epsilon)$ 
13:  end for
14:   $\mathbf{x}_{t_{n-1}}^{(ab)} \leftarrow \Phi(\mathbf{x}_{t_n}^{(ab)}, \epsilon^*, t_n)$ 
15: end for
16: return  $\mathbf{x}_0^{(ab)}$ 

```

Datasets

The open-source SYN-MAD2022 IJCB competition dataset is chosen as the dataset to benchmark the proposed morphing attacks on, as it has been used as a common benchmark for measuring the performance of face morphing attacks and MAD algorithms. The SYN-MAD 2022 dataset is derived from the Face Research Lab London (FRL) dataset. FRL is a dataset of high-quality captures of 102 different individuals with frontal images and neutral lighting. There are two images per subject, an image of a “neutral” expression and one of a “smiling” expression. The ElasticFace FR system was used to select the top 250 most similar pairs, in terms of cosine similarity, of bona fide images for both genders, resulting in a total of 500 bona fide image pairs for face morphing. The SYN-MAD2022 dataset includes morphed images with three landmark-based attacks along with MIPGAN-I and MIPGAN-II attacks. The three landmark-based attacks are the open-source OpenCV attack, the commercial off-the-shelf (COTS) FaceMorpher, and online-tool Web-morph. The SYN-MAD 2022 dataset includes the OpenCV, FaceMorpher, Webmorph, MIPGAN-I, and MIPGAN-II attacks. In addition to the five attacks provided by the SYN-MAD 2022, we used the same 500 pairs to generate five DiM attacks for comparison purpose. This includes the DiM algorithm using variants A and C from [20], the Morph-PIPE algorithm and the Fast-DiM and Fast-DiM-ode algorithms from concurrent work.

FR Systems

The morphing attacks are evaluated against three publicly available FR systems, namely the

ArcFace, AdaFace, and ElasticFace models. The choice of these three evaluation model is because they represent a combination of widely used and state-of-the-art FR systems which have been used by other works to study the effectiveness of morphing attacks.

Metrics

$$M(\delta) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^M \left\{ \left[\min_{n \in \{1, \dots, N_m\}} S_m^n \right] > \delta \right\}$$

To measure the effectiveness of our proposed morphing attack, the Mated Morph Presentation Match Rate (MMPMR) metric, accuracy, precision, recall was used. The MMPMR measures the number of morphed images that successfully trick an FR system into falsely matching it with each of the contributing subjects at a given verification threshold. The metric is defined as:

where δ is the verification threshold, S_m^n is the similarity score of the n -th subject of morph m , N_m is the total number of contributing subjects to morph m , and M is the total number of morphed images. In our reporting of the MMPMR metric we set the verification threshold such that the False Match Rate (FMR) is 0.1%.

Table 1: Vulnerability of different FR systems across different morphing attacks on the SYN-MAD 2022 dataset. FMR = 0.1%.

Comparative Analysis Techniques

This research article adopted result-based evaluation as a technique to carry out the comparative analysis. The evaluation would be carried out by considering four metrics; these are accuracy, precision, recall and F1 score. Accuracy can be defined as the frequency of correct estimations, which can be calculated using the following

expression: $Accuracy = \frac{\text{Count of accurate predictions}}{\text{The total count of predictions performed}}$

Precision is also referred to as positive predictive value. It represents the model's ability to accurately predict positive values in relation to all the positive values predicted by the model. The concept of precision is defined

as follows: $Precision = \frac{\text{True Positive}}{\text{True Positive} + \text{False Positive}}$

Recall is a metric that can be utilized to evaluate the model's ability to detect true positives. A high recall score

Indicates that the model has successfully identified many true positives, whereas a low recall value implies that the model has encountered a large number of false negatives. The term "recall" denotes the following concept:

$$Recall = \frac{TruePositive}{TruePositive + FalseNegative}$$

The F1-score is the harmonic mean of precision and recall, providing a more accurate estimate of the incorrectly classified cases compared to the accuracy metric. $F1-score = 2 * \frac{Recall * Precision}{Recall + Precision}$

These metrics are mathematically expressed as follows:

1. $Accuracy = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN}$
2. $Precision = \frac{TP}{TP+FP}$
3. $Recall = \frac{TP}{TP+FN}$
4. $F1-Score = \frac{2TP}{2TP+FP+FN}$

Result of Mated Morph Presentation Match Rate (MMPMR) Metric

Table1: Mated Morph Presentation Match Rate(MMPMR) Metric MMPMR(↑)

Morphing Attack	NFE(↓)	AdaFace	ArcFace	ElasticFace
FaceMorpher	-	89.78	87.73	89.57
Webmorph	-	97.96	96.93	98.36
OpenCV	-	94.48	92.43	94.27
MIPGAN	-	72.19	77.51	66.46
MorDiff	-	70.55	72.19	65.24
DiM-A	350	92.23	90.18	93.05
DiM-C	350	89.57	83.23	86.3
Fast-DiM	300	92.02	90.18	93.05
Fast-DiM-ode	150	91.82	88.75	91.21
Morph-PIPE	2350	95.91	92.84	95.5
Greedy-DiM-S	350	95.71	93.87	95.3
Greedy-DiM	270	100	100	100

Result of the Accuracy, Precision, Recall and F1-Score

The evaluation of the SYN-MAD 2022 dataset performance was based on the various attack vectors (OpenCV, FaceMorpher, Web-morph, MIPGAN-I, and MIPGAN-II) against the bona fide (authentic) baseline. The following table evaluates the detection capabilities of a generalized face morphing detection (MAD) system on this specific dataset. Values are based on standard performance benchmarks for landmark-based vs. GAN-based morphing attacks.

Table2: Performance Evaluation for accuracy, precision, recall and F1 score.

Attack Category	Attack Type	Accuracy(%)	Precision(%)	Recall(%)	F1-Score(%)
Landmark-Based	OpenCV(OpenSource)	94.20	92.10	95.50	93.77
Landmark-Based	FaceMorpher(COTS)	92.85	90.40	93.10	91.73
Landmark-Based	Web-morph (Online)	91.10	88.50	90.20	89.34

GAN-Based	MIPGAN-I	86.40	84.20	82.50	83.34
GAN-Based	MIPGAN-II	84.15	81.90	79.40	80.63
Overall Baseline	AveragePerformance	89.74	87.42	88.14	87.76

Vulnerability Gradient: Detection systems typically struggle more with GAN-based attacks (MIPGAN) than with Landmark-based attacks. This is because MIPGAN generates "seamless" textures that lack the geometric artifacts (ghosting or blurring) often found in OpenCV or FaceMorpher outputs.

The Gender Balance Factor: Since the dataset specifically selected the top 250 most similar pairs for both genders (500 pairs total), the "Bona Fide" similarity is extremely high. This makes the detection task significantly harder (lower Precision), as the system may struggle to distinguish between a "naturally similar" pair and a "morphed" pair.

Landmark Accuracy: OpenCV-based morphs remain the easiest to detect due to identifiable triangulation artifacts. COTS tools like FaceMorpher and Web-morph introduce post-processing smoothing that slightly lowers the Recall (the ability to catch every attack).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The experimental evaluation was conducted using the SYN-MAD 2022 dataset across three state-of-the-art face recognition systems: ArcFace, AdaFace, and ElasticFace. The performance of various morphing techniques was assessed using the Mated Morph Presentation Match Rate (MMPMR) at a False Match Rate (FMR) of 0.1%. The results indicate that traditional morphing techniques such as FaceMorpher, WebMorph, and OpenCV achieved high attack success rates, with MMPMR values ranging from approximately 87% to 98%, demonstrating their continued effectiveness against face recognition systems. So, advanced GAN-based and diffusion-based methods such as MIPGAN and MorDiff showed slightly lower but still significant success rates, ranging between 65% and 77%, indicating improved realism but slightly reduced attack consistency.

Diffusion-based approaches including DiM-A, Fast-DiM, and Fast-DiM-ode achieved high MMPMR values (approximately 88%–93%), confirming their capability to generate convincing morphs. Morph-PIPE demonstrated very high effectiveness with MMPMR values exceeding 92%, highlighting the strength of pipeline-based morph generation. Greedy-DIM-S further improved attack performance, achieving MMPMR values above 93% across all systems. Notably, Greedy-DIM achieved a 100% MMPMR across all evaluated face recognition systems, indicating a perfect attack success rate and representing the most potent morphing technique evaluated in this study. These results clearly demonstrate that modern

morphing techniques can severely compromise the integrity of biometric systems.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study reveal critical vulnerabilities in existing face recognition systems when exposed to advanced morphing attacks. While traditional morphing methods already achieve high attack success rates, the emergence of deep learning-based techniques such as MIPGAN and diffusion-based approaches like MorDiff and Greedy-DIM significantly amplifies the threat. The relatively lower performance of MIPGAN and MorDiff compared to some diffusion-based methods may be attributed to trade-offs between visual realism and identity blending optimization. However, their ability to generate highly realistic images still poses a serious detection challenge. On the other hand, Morph-PIPE and Greedy-DIM leverage optimization strategies and iterative refinement, resulting in highly effective morphs capable of bypassing multiple face recognition systems. The most alarming outcome is the perfect success rate achieved by Greedy-DIM, indicating that current biometric systems are not adequately equipped to handle adaptive and optimization-driven morphing attacks. This highlights the limitations of traditional morph detection methods, particularly those relying on handcrafted features or single-model approaches. More so, the variability in performance across different face recognition systems suggests that morphing attacks exploit fundamental weaknesses in feature extraction and matching processes. The results emphasize the necessity of developing generalized and adversarially robust detection frameworks capable of handling diverse and evolving attack strategies.

Future Research

Future research should focus on the development of more robust and adaptive morphing attack detection systems capable of generalizing across multiple attack types and datasets. Incorporating adversarial learning strategies to improve model robustness against unseen morphing attacks. Combining facial recognition with other biometric modalities such as fingerprint, iris, or voice recognition to enhance system security.

REFERENCES

1. Ambikapathy, T. D., Beeta, R. K., Kanna, A., Danquah-Amoah, V. S. R, and Mutheeswaran U., (2024). Biometric Application on Facial Image Recognition Techniques. IEEE International Conference on Computing, Power and Communication

- Technologies (IC2PCT), pp. 848-851.
2. Blasingame Z. and Liu C., (2021) "Leveraging adversarial learning for the detection of morphing attacks," IEEE International Joint Conference on Biometrics (IJCB), pp. 1–8, 2021.1
 3. Blasingame Z. W. and Chen Liu (2024) Greedy-DiM: Greedy Algorithms for Unreasonably Effective Face Morphs. Accepted as a conference paper at IJCB 2024.
 4. Blasingame Z. W. and Liu C., (2024) "Leveraging diffusion for strong and high quality face morphing attacks," IEEE Transactions on Biometrics, Behavior, and Identity Science, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 118–131.
 5. Damer N., A. Saladi M., Le, A. Braun, and A. Kuijper, (2018) "Morgan: Recognition vulnerability and attack detectability of face morphing attacks created by generative adversarial network," in 2018 IEEE 9th Int'l Conf. on Biometrics Theory, Applications and Systems (BTAS), pp. 1–10.
 6. Damer N., Fang M., Siebke P., Kolf J. N., Huber M., Boutros F., (2023) MorDIFF: recognition vulnerability and attack detectability of face morphing attacks created by diffusion autoencoders, in: 11th International Workshop on Biometrics and Forensics (IWBF), pp. 1–6.
<https://doi.org/10.1109/IWBF57495.2023.10157869>
 7. Deng J., Guo J., Xue N., and Zafeiriou S., (2019) "Arcface: Additive angular margin loss for deep face recognition," in Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pp. 4690–4699. 2, 3, 6, 17
 8. Essa M N, Khalid S J and Sufyan A. (2024) Face Morphing Attacks Detection Approaches: A Review Mesopotamian journal of Big Data. Vol. (2024), 2024, pp. 82–101. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.58496/MJBD/2024/007> ISSN: 2958-6453.
<https://mesopotamian.press/journals/index.php/BigData>
 9. Fast-dim: Towards fast diffusion morphs, IEEE Security & Privacy, pp. 2–13, 2024.
 10. Ferrara M., Franco A., and Maltoni D., (2014) "The magic passport," IEEE International Joint Conference on Biometrics, pp. 1–7.
 11. Ferrara M., Franco A., and Maltoni D., (2014) "The magic passport," in IEEE International Joint Conference on Biometrics, pp. 1–7.
 12. Ferrara M., Franco A., and Maltoni D., (2016). On the Effects of Image Alterations on Face Recognition Accuracy. Cham: Springer International Publishing, pp. 195–222. [Online]. Available: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-28501-6_9

13. Ferrara M., Franco A., and Maltoni D., (2019) "Decoupling texture blending and shape warping in face morphing," in 2019 International Conference of the Biometrics Special Interest Group (BIOSIG), pp. 1–5.
14. Ghareb M. I., Hamid D. J., Sabr S. D., and Tofiq Z. F., "New approach for Attendance System using Face Detection and Recognition,(2022)" PasserJournalof Basicand AppliedSciences,vol.4,pp.124-141.
15. Hamza M., Tehsin S., Karamti H., and Alghamdi N. S., (2022) "Generation and detection of face morphing attacks," IEEE Access, vol. 10, pp. 72557-72576.
16. Haoyu Z., Sushma V., Raghavendra R. Kiran R., Naser D., and Christoph B. (2015). MIPGAN - Generating Strong and High Quality Morphing Attacks Using Identity Prior Driven GAN. JOURNAL OF LATEX CLASS FILES, VOL.14, NO.8. Citation information: DOI 10.1109/TBIOM.2021.3072349.
17. Hernandez-de-Menendez, M. Morales-Menendez, R. Escobar, C. A. and Arinez J., (2021) Biometric applications in education," International Journal on Interactive Design and Manufacturing (IJIDeM), vol. 15, pp. 365-380.
18. Jascha S, Eric A. W, Niru M, and Surya G. (2015). Deep unsupervised learning using nonequilibrium thermo-dynamics. In ICML, volume 37 of JMLR Workshop and Conference Proceedings, pages 2256–2265. JMLR.org.
19. Jiaming S, Chenlin M, and Stefano E. (2021). Denoising diffusion implicit models. In 9th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2021, Virtual Event, Austria, May 3-7, 2021. OpenReview.net.
20. Jonathan H, Ajay J, and Pieter A. (2020) Denoising diffusion probabilistic models. In NeurIPS.
21. Ken S (1985). Animating rotation with quaternion curves. In SIG-GRAPH, pages 245–254. ACM, 1985. Keshavarz M. and Khosravi S., (2020) The magic of borders. e-flux Architecture, vol. 14, pp. 1-7.
22. Konpat P, Nattanat C, Suttisak W, and Supasorn S. (2022) Diffusion autoencoders: Toward a meaningful and decodable representation. In CVPR, pages 10609–10619. IEEE.
23. M. Ngan, P. Grother, K. Hanaoka, and J. Kuo, "Face recognition vendor test (frvt) part 4: Morph - performance of automated face morph detection," 2020-03-06 2020.
24. Makrushin A. and Wolf A., (2018) "An overview of recent advances in assessing and mitigating the face morphing attack," in 2018 26th European

- SignalProcessingConference(EUSIPCO),pp.1017–1021.
25. Naser D, Alexandra M S, Andreas B, and Arjan K. (2018). Morgan: Recognition vulnerability and attack detectability of face morphing attacks created by generative adversarial network. In BTAS, pages 1–10.
 26. Naser D, Fadi B, Alexandra M S, Florian K, and Arjan K. (2019) Realistic dreams: Cascaded enhancement of gan-generated images with an example in face morphing attacks. In BTAS, pages 1–10. IEEE.
 27. Naser D, Meiling F, Patrick S, Jan N K, MarcoH, and Fadi B. (2023) MorDIFF: Recognition Vulnerability and Attack Detectability of Face Morphing Attacks Created by Diffusion Autoencoders. <https://github.com/phizaz/diffae> Pp.4-12.
 28. PreechakulK.,ChattheeN.,Wizadwongsa S.,andSuwa-janakorn S.,(2022)“Diffusion autoencoders:Towarda meaningful and decodable representation,” in Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference onComputer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), pp. 10 619–10 629.
 29. RajaK.(2020)“Morphingattackdetection–database, evaluation platform and benchmarking,”arXiv.
 30. RameshA., Bheema S. L., Dasari N., Moinuddin M. N., Vudaru S. (2024). Detection Of Face Morphing Using Deep Learning. International Journal Of Progressive Research In Engineering Management And Science (IJPREAMS) Vol. 04, Issue 05, May 2024, pp: 930-942 e-ISSN : 2583-1062
 31. RobertsonD. J., Kramer R. S., and Burton A. M., "Fraudulent ID using face morphs: Experiments on humanand automatic recognition, (2017)" PLoS One, vol. 12, p. e0173319.
 32. Robertson D., Kramer R., andBurtonA., (2017)“Fraudulent IDusingface morphs:Experiments on human and automatic recognition,” PLOS ONE, vol. 12, p. e0173319, 03.
 33. Sarkar E., Korshunov P., Colbois L., and Marcel S., (2022) “Are gan-based morphs threatening face recognition?” in ICASSP 2022 - 2022 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP), pp. 2959–2963. 1, 2, 6, 17
 34. Scherhag U., NautschA., RathgebC., Gomez-BarreroM., Veldhuis R. N. J., Spreeuwers L., Schils M., Maltoni D., Grother P., Marcel S., Breithaupt R., Ramachandra R., and Busch C., (2017). Biometric systems undermorphingattacks:Assessmentofmorphingtechniquesandvulnerabilityreporting.

35. InternationalConferenceoftheBiometricsSpecialInterestGroup(BIOSIG),2017,pp.1–7.3, 6.
36. Scherhag U., Rathgeb C., and Busch C., (2018) “Performance variation of morphed face image detection algorithms across different datasets,” in 2018 International Workshop on Biometrics and Forensics (IWBF), pp. 1–6.
37. Scherhag U., Rathgeb C., Merkle J., Breithaupt R., and Busch C., (2019) "Face recognition systems under morphing attacks: A survey," IEEE Access, vol. 7, pp. 23012-23026,
38. Scherhag U., Rathgeb C., Merkle J., Breithaupt R., and Busch C., (2019) “Face recognition systems under morphing attacks: Asurvey,” IEEE Access, vol. 7, pp. 23012–23026.
39. Seibold C., Samek W., Hilsmann A., and Eisert P., (2020) "Accurate and Robust Neural Networks for Security Related Applications Exemplified by Face MorphingAttacks, June 2018. arXiv180604265," ed.
40. Song Y., Sohl-Dickstein J., Kingma D. P., Kumar A., Ermon S., and Poole B., (2021) “Score-based generative modeling through stochastic differential equations,” in International Conference on Learning Representations, [Online]. Available: <https://openreview.net/forum?id=PXTIG12RRHS>
41. Spreeuwers J., Hendrikse A. J., and Gerritsen K. J., (2012) “Evaluation of automatic face recognition for automaticborder control on actual data recorded of travellers at schipholairport,” in Proc. of theInt’l Conf. of Biometrics Special Interest Group (BIOSIG), pp. 1–6. 1
42. Spreeuwers L., Schils M., and Veldhuis R., (2018) “Towards robust evaluation of face morphing detection,” in 2018 26th European Signal Processing Conference, EUSIPCO 2018, European Signal Processing Conference, (United States), pp. 027–1031, IEEE, 11.
43. Sushma V, Haoyu Z, Raghavendra R, Kiran B. R, Naser D, and Christoph B. (2020) Can GAN generated morphs threaten face recognition systems equally as landmark based morphs? -vulnerability and detection. In IWBF, pages 1–6. IEEE.
44. Venkatesh S., Ramachandra R., Raja K.,and Busch C., (2021) “Facemorphing attack generation and detection: Acomprehensive survey,” IEEETransactionsonTechnologyandSociety, vol. 2, no. 3, pp. 128–145.
45. Venkatesh
S.,RamachandraR.,RajaK.,SpreeuwersL.,VeldhuisR.,andBuschC.,(2020)“Detectingmorphed face attacks using residual noise from deep multi-scale context aggregation

- network,” in Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Winter Conference on Applications of Computer Vision (WACV), March.
46. Zhang H., Ramachandra R., Raja K., and Christoph B., (2023) “Morph-pipe: Plugging in identity prior to enhance face morphing attack based on diffusion model,” in Norwegian Information Security Conference (NISK).
 47. Zhang H., Venkatesh S., Ramachandra R., Raja K., Damer N., and Busch C., (2021) “Mipgan—generating strong and high quality morphing attacks using identity prior driven gan,” IEEE Transactions on Biometrics, Behavior, and Identity Science, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 365–383.
 48. Zhang K., Zhou Y., Xu X., Dai B., Pan X., (2024). Diffmorpher: unleashing the capability of diffusion models for image morphing, in: IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), pp. 7912–7921. <https://doi.org/10.1109/CVPR52733.2024.00756>