

Visual Recognition of Paper Analytical Device Images for Detection of Falsified Pharmaceuticals

Sandipan Banerjee, James Sweet, Christopher Sweet and Marya Lieberman
University of Notre Dame

The Problem

Counterfeit medicine: has sub-therapeutic levels of an active ingredient or none at all. Some times it may contain harmful elements as well.

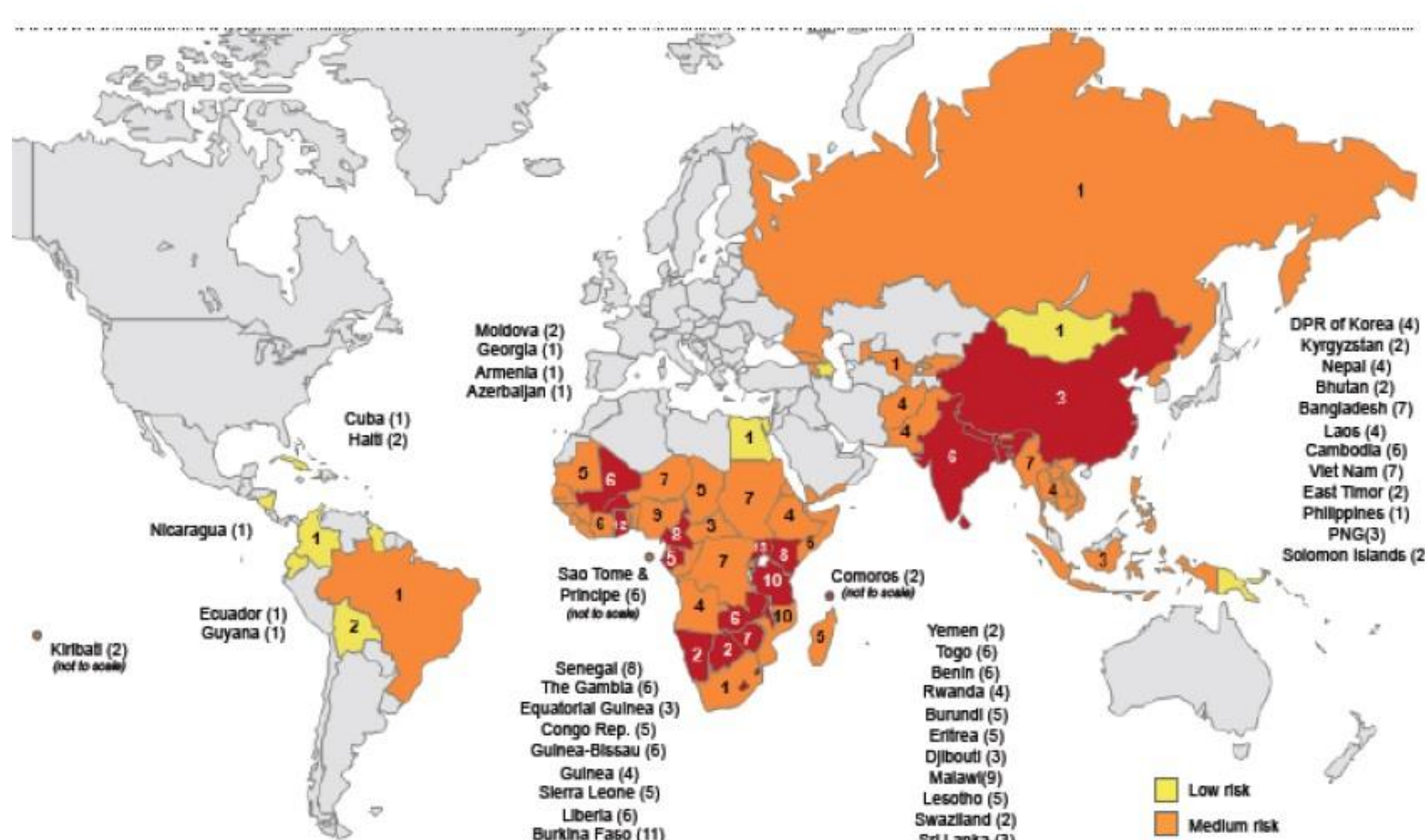
One of these medicines is fake.

Can you tell which?



Where: South east Asia and Africa are high risk zones.

Geographic distribution of product launches, assessed by relative risk (2012-2015)



Prior Approaches

Previous work focuses on the appearance of the drug - the color and the shape of the pill.

- e.g. [Hartl et al. 2011, Chen et al. 2012]

Other approaches use imprint information on the drug for identification purposes.

- e.g. [Lee et al. 2011, Chen et al. 2013, Yu et al. 2015]

These approaches work well in identifying pills but they fail to distinguish the fake medicine from its actual counterpart.

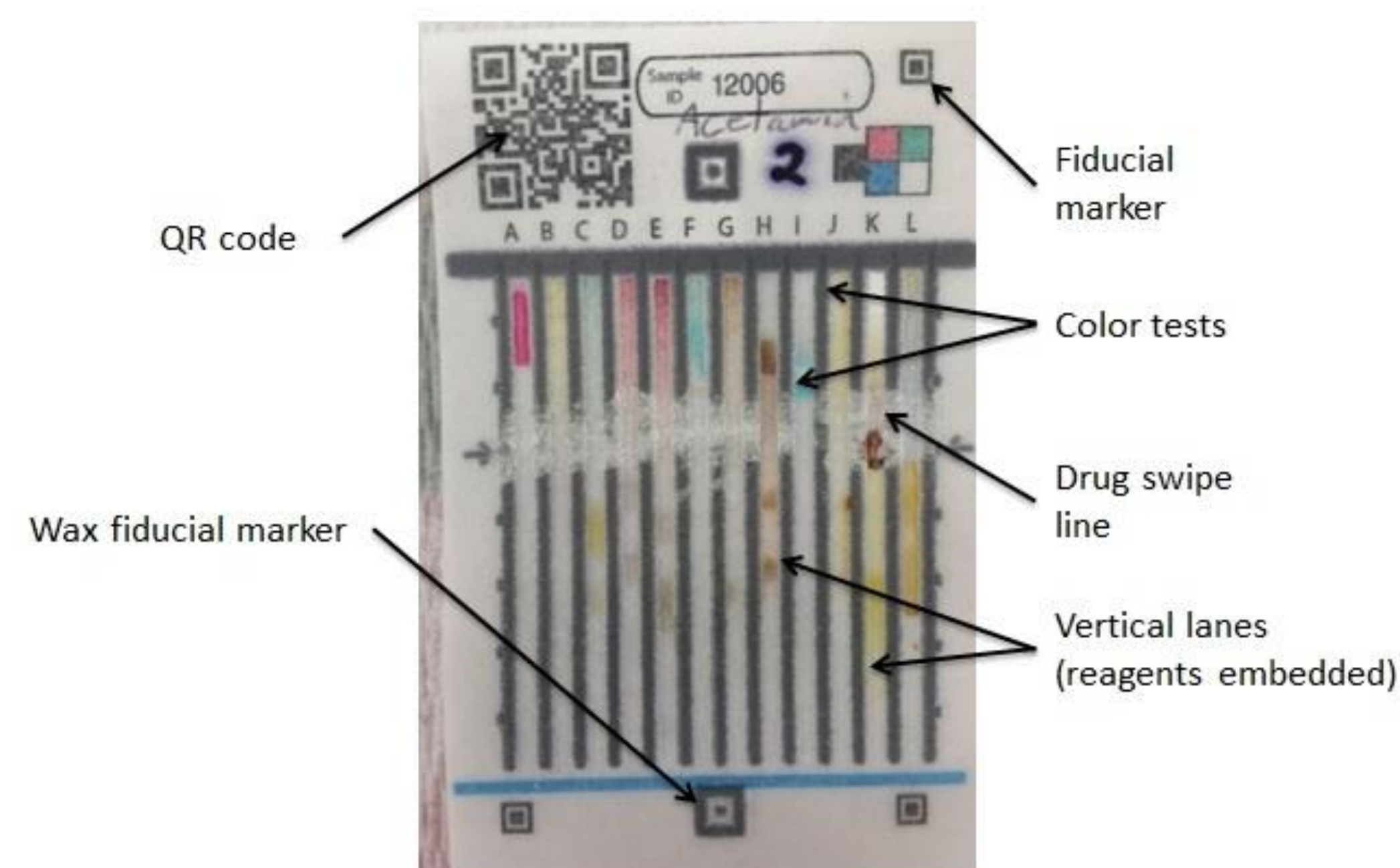
This Viagra pill costs \$15.
To get it, you
have to go to a
doctor and talk about
your erectile issues.



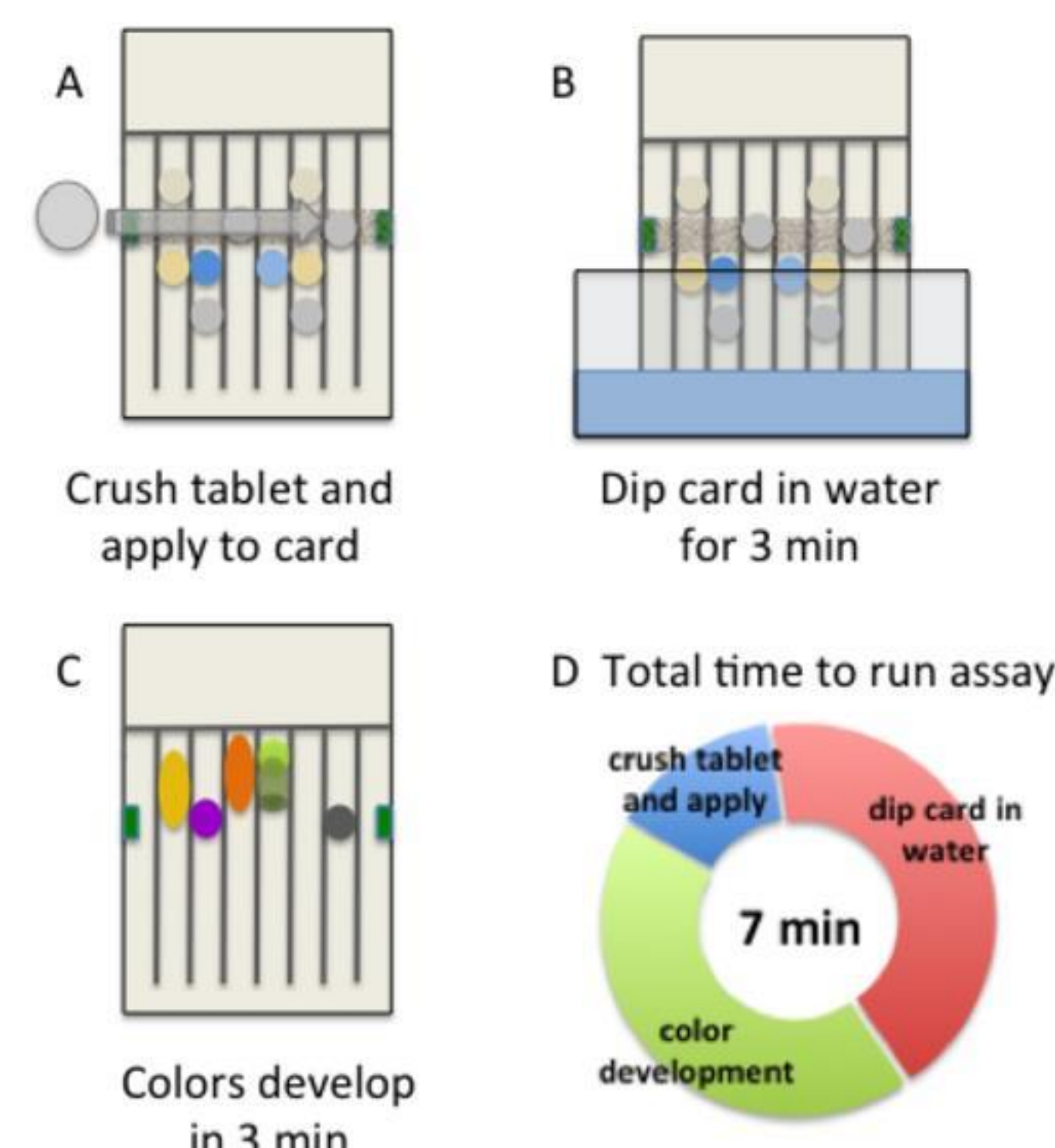
This knockoff costs \$1.
You can order it over the Internet
without a prescription or
potential embarrassment.
It might work.
It might also contain
brick dust—or worse.

PAD

PAD cards: PADs are inexpensive (under \$1) cards that contain libraries of color tests to respond to the chemicals inside a pill.



PAD preparation:

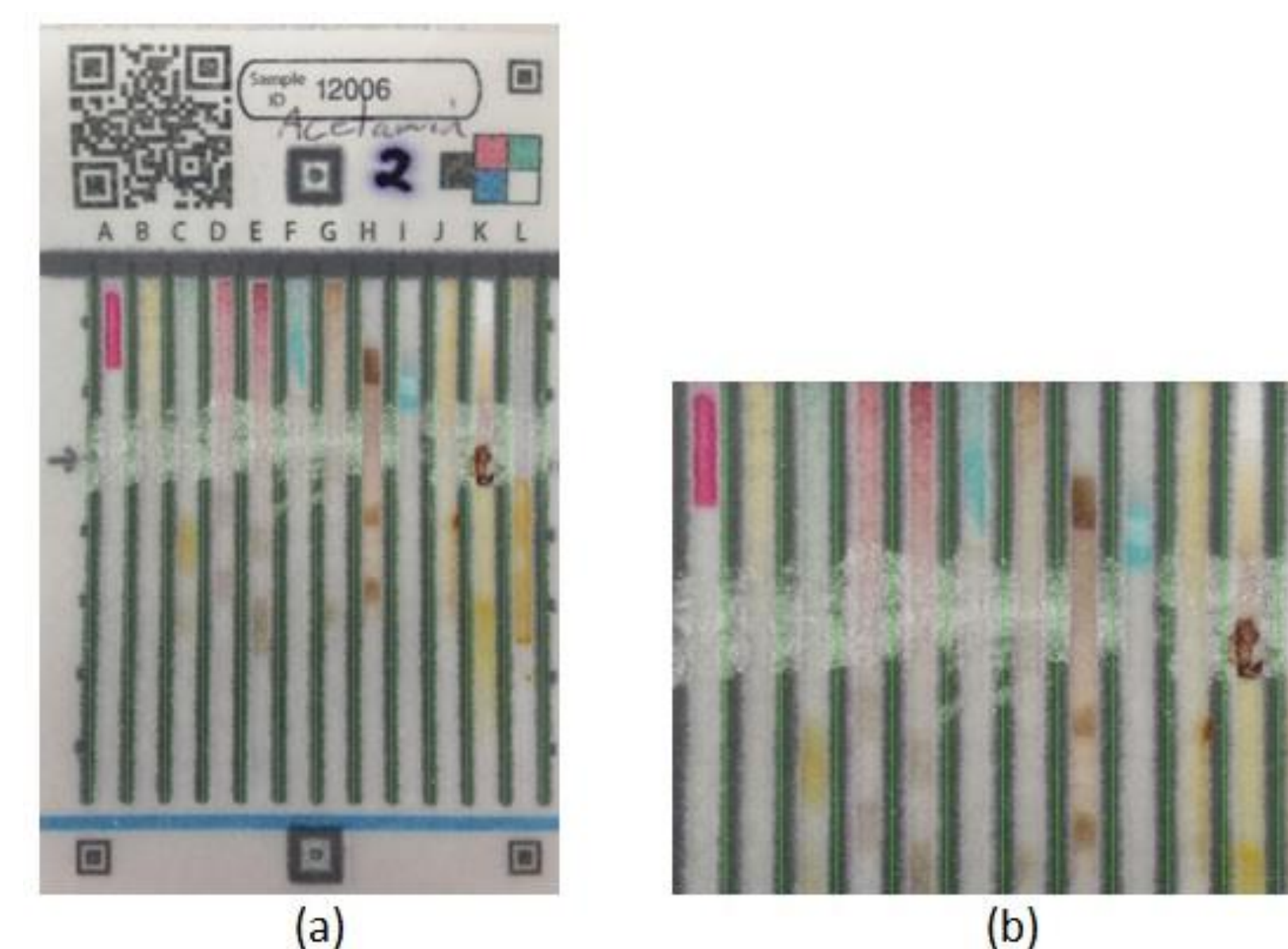


Chemical fingerprint: The chemical compounds present in the drug react with the reagents in the vertical lanes of the PAD. These reactions produce colors coming in contact with water and is unique for that drug.



PAD Rectification

- We align, reposition and resize the raw PAD image using its fiducial markers and the PAD artwork.
- We crop out the salient region from the rectified image.



Reagent Selection

Drug selection: We select 26 drug samples from the WHO list of essential medicine for our experiments.

Reagent selection

- matrix M of mean RGB values.
- $M = USV^t$.
- optimal reagent index from sorting columns of V .
- 9 unique optimal reagent + 2 from chemistry.

Experiment

Dataset

- 520 salient regions for training (20 images/drug), 260 for testing (10 images/drug).
- 3-fold cross validation approach.

Feature extraction

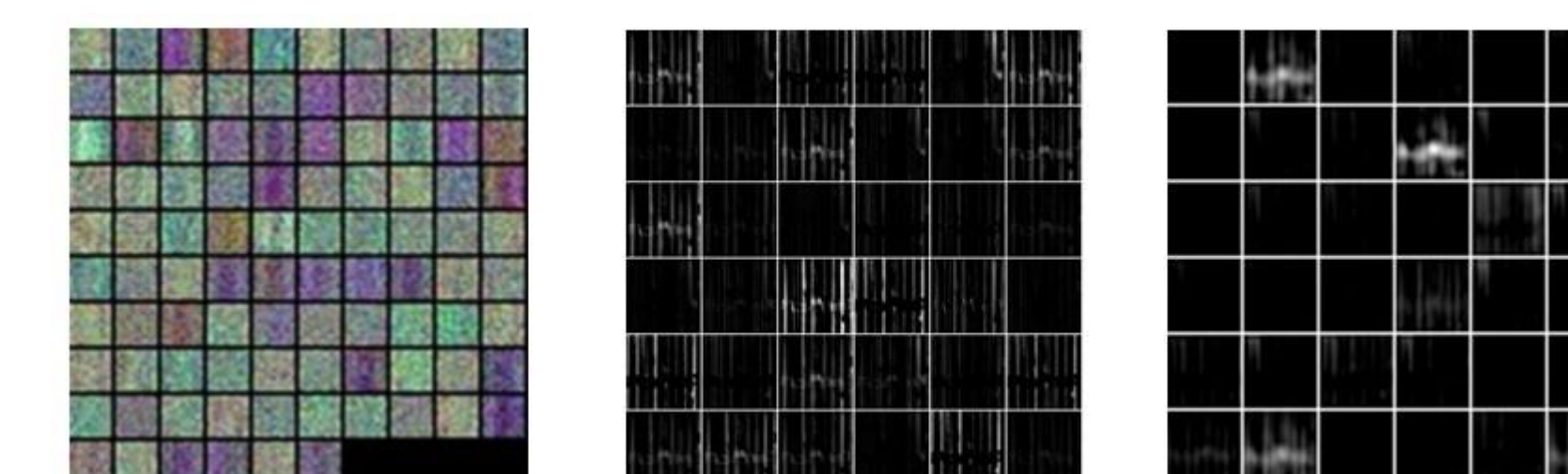
- low level and high level features, ranging from the basic color histograms to image memorability features [Khosla et al. 2012].
- deep CNN features from CaffeNet [Krizhevsky et al. 2012] and GoogLeNet [Szegedy et al. 2014].

Classifier

- a simple Euclidean distance based nearest neighbor approach (kNN, where $k = 1$).
- a support vector machine (SVM) with a radial basis kernel.
- for the CNN models, we use the softmax classifier in the pipeline

Filter Response

Caffenet features



Results

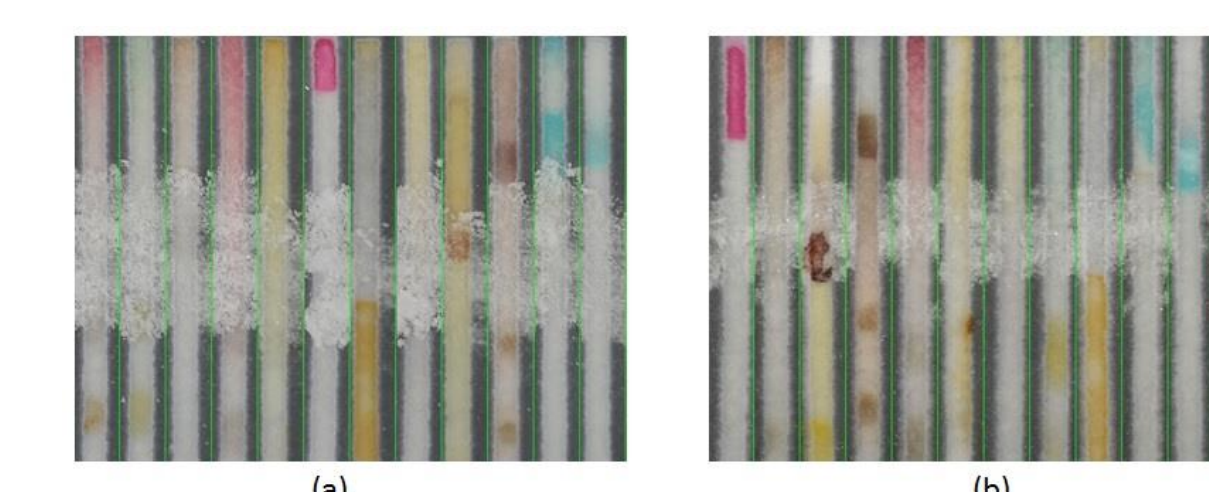
Results (experiment 1):

Method	Accuracy (%)
L*a*b* histogram with kNN	138/260 (53.07%)
L*a*b* histogram with SVM	172/260 (66.15%)
GIST with kNN	216/260 (83.07%)
GIST with SVM	230/260 (88.46%)
Color bank with kNN	235/260 (90.38%)
Color bank with SVM	231/260 (88.84%)
Dense SIFT with kNN	200/260 (76.92%)
Dense SIFT with SVM	233/260 (89.61%)
Color bank + dense SIFT with kNN	238/260 (91.53%)
Color bank + dense SIFT with SVM	240/260 (92.30%)
Caffenet	245/260 (94.23%)
GoogLeNet	243/260 (93.46%)

Clearly, high level features > low level features.

Additional experiments: We change the data in the following ways:

- use unrectified PAD images directly.
- perturb the vertical lane configuration randomly.



Results (experiment 2):

Method	Accuracy (%)
Unrectified images with CaffeNet	233/260 (89.61%)
Images with random lane order with CaffeNet	87/260 (33.46%)

Blob patterns definitely matter on top of the color information.