



Marine life Image Recognition using Deep Learning

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to investigate the automatic recognition and analysis of Jeju marine-life images using artificial intelligence (AI) technology. The dataset of marine-life images was prepared using tools such as Python, TensorFlow, and Google Colab (Google Colaboratory). We also developed models by training deep learning AI in image recognition to automatically recognize the species found in these images and extract their associated information, such as taxonomy, characteristics, and distribution. This study is innovative in that it uses deep learning technology combined with image-recognition technology for marine biodiversity research. In addition, these results will lead to the development of the marine-life industry in Jeju by supporting marine environment monitoring and marine resource conservation. Furthermore, this study is anticipated to contribute to academic advancement, specifically in the study of marine species diversity.

Index Terms: Jeju, Marine Life Image Analysis, Generative AI Technology, Species Identification, Geographical Distribution

I. INTRODUCTION

Deep learning, a field of artificial intelligence (AI) research, is a subset of machine learning that mimics the behavior of the human brain to perform data clustering and enables predictive analysis through the learning process [1]. This technology has garnered significant attention in the computing domain owing to its robust learning capabilities, and has been widely applied in various fields, such as healthcare, visual recognition, text analysis, and cybersecurity [2]. Additionally, the accessibility of open-source sharing allows for rapid improvement and optimization, thereby accelerating overall development [3].

Recognition technology, a fundamental aspect of AI, generally refers to the technology designed to identify objects through images [4]. The global AI market is expected to reach \$36.8 billion by 2025, with the image recognition and tagging

segment anticipated to reach approximately \$8.1 billion [5].

With the advent of the bioeconomic era, which seeks to solve future human problems, the convergence of technologies that utilize AI is becoming increasingly important in the development of marine biotechnology [6,7].

Against the backdrop of these developments, Jeju Island announced its “Jeju Bio-Industry Development Strategy” in June 2023, expressing its intention to strengthen the competitiveness of the marine bio-industry, through which it seeks to create new added value and strengthen the marine bio-industry [8]. Jeju Island, which occupies approximately 25% of the Republic of Korea’s waters, possesses diverse and abundant marine biological resources that offer significant potential for the bio-industry [9]. However, the growth of the bio-industry lags behind that of other regions because of a lack of technology and skilled manpower [10].

This paper presents a plan to develop an automatic recogni-

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tion and analysis platform for domestic marine biological resources using Python and TensorFlow. This platform integrates image-recognition technology and AI learning by extracting data on ten species of fish and ten species of seaweed inhabiting Jeju from the National Marine Biological Resources Center [11]. This initiative is expected to promote the revitalization of Jeju’s marine bio-industry. Additionally, this research is anticipated to contribute to the management of marine resources and conservation of living organisms and ecosystems by supporting marine environmental monitoring.

II. RELATED WORKS

Among existing studies, examples of image-recognition technology using deep learning include the classification of red-tide organism images using open-source deep learning and the classification of rock images using a TensorFlow-based convolutional neural network (CNN) [12,13].

The classification of red-tide organism images was implemented using the TensorFlow framework and Google’s image classification model. In this study, 782 images of 13 species of red-tide organisms found along the coast of the Republic of Korea were selected and classified. The previous CNN model was retrained using TensorFlow to classify the images [12].

Subsequently, rock image classification was conducted using TensorFlow and a CNN inception model. This study followed a similar approach to red-tide organism image classification. In this study, images of 16 rock types from a high school curriculum were generated, a dataset of 734 instances was created, and a fine-tuned learning method was applied. The image files were then converted to the TFRecord format for use as a training dataset in TensorFlow.

Consequently, a rock classification system was developed by adapting a trained model for mobile use using fine-tuning methods and TensorFlow Android [13]. Open-source deep learning and image-recognition technologies are used in various industries. Nevertheless, the analysis of marine life using existing image-recognition technologies exhibits low accuracy owing to uncontrollable factors, such as season, weather, water depth, and complex marine environments [14].

Furthermore, the image classification performance is expected to be further improved by removing image noise and applying additional training datasets that are suitable for the model.

Therefore, in this study, Python was used to perform image preprocessing and a deep learning model was built and trained using TensorFlow. We propose an image-recognition technol-

ogy that overcomes the limitations of existing research and maintains high accuracy, even in more complex environments.

III. SYSTEM MODEL AND METHOD

A. Research Tools and System Structure

Fig. 1 shows the structure of MobileNetV2 used in this study. MobileNetV2 is a CNN-based model that extracts image features by combining convolutional and pooling layers [15]. TensorFlow, an open-source library developed by Google, is an effective research tool for building artificial neural networks, including CNNs and deep learning models [16]. In our study, we used TensorFlow to build a machine learning system based on artificial neural networks.

The proposed marine-life recognition system consists of dataset construction, model learning, image classification analysis, and output steps, as shown in Fig. 2. In the dataset construction stage, marine-life image data were collected and preprocessed, and the size of the learning dataset was increased through data augmentation. In the model training phase, TensorFlow was used to retrain the pretrained image classification model, monitor cross-entropy and accuracy, and evaluate the model’s performance. In the final image classification analysis and output step, the top three classes of prediction results were analyzed, and the results were output using a dictionary in which the corresponding biological information was defined.

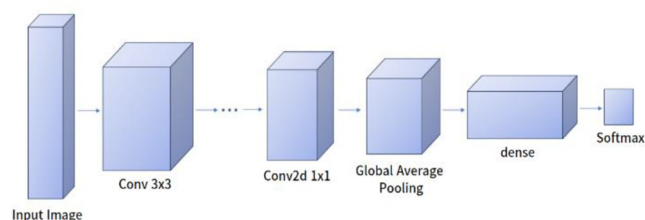


Fig. 1. Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) model structure.

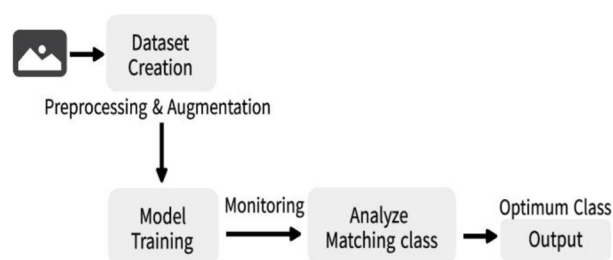


Fig. 2. System structure flowchart.

B. Dataset Creation

1) Data Collection

The scope of the study’s dataset was limited to Jeju Island waters, and the top 10 fish and seaweed species were selected based on the occurrence scores of marine life provided by the National Marine Biological Resources Institute. Consequently, images of 20 marine-life species were collected, and 930 datasets were constructed. Table 1 summarizes the 20 marine-life image datasets used in this study.

2) Data Preprocessing

To input the collected data into the image classification model, image files were loaded from the saved locations, and preprocessing was performed on the loaded images. For preprocessing, images of various sizes and resolutions were converted to 224 pixels horizontally and vertically, and adjusted to have RGB color channels.

3) Data Augmentation

In this study, we applied data augmentation techniques to increase the size of the dataset to 3,200. The data augmentation techniques included random rotation up to 40°, image enlargement and reduction up to 0.7-1.3 times, random translation up to 20% each in the vertical direction, shear deformation up to 20°, horizontal inversion, and vertical inversion. The data augmentation method utilizes ImageDataGenerator

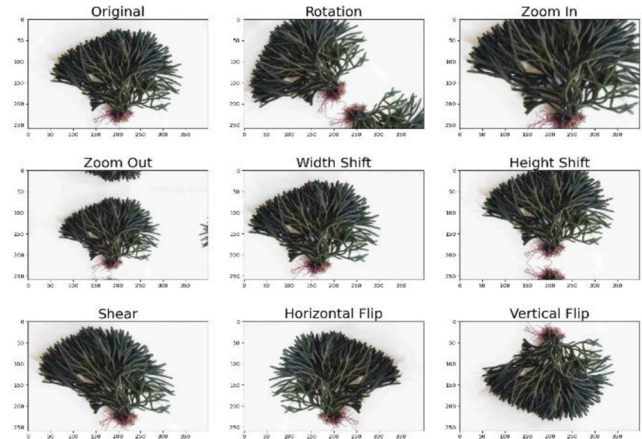


Fig. 3. Marine-life images using data augmentation

to augment images in real time and provide them to the model by location [17]. These augmented data were included in both the training and validation datasets and used to train the model. Fig. 3 shows a visualization of the image using each data augmentation technique applied through ImageDataGenerator.

C. Model Training

In the model-learning stage, the preprocessed image data were applied to the pretrained image classification model to retrain it for marine-life image recognition. We aimed to prevent information loss from image data and increase feature extraction and learning efficiency using a CNN model instead of the existing Deep Neural Network model, which can cause spatial information loss [18].

In this study, we selected a transfer-learning method and used three models: MobileNetV2, InceptionV3, and Xception. Typically, the lower layers of the model learn the universal features of the image, and the upper layers learn the abstract features [19]. Considering these characteristics, we fixed the weights of the lower layers of each model and fine-tuned them by adding a dense layer to the upper layers [20]. Using transfer learning and fine-tuning, the trained model was adjusted to include 20 classification layers. In other words, the existing model loaded through transfer learning was fine-tuned to the marine-life image classification task to minimize loss during learning and increase data efficiency.

To select the optimal model specialized for marine-life recognition, each model was trained ten times, and the accuracies were compared. The model with the best performance was selected for further training.

While monitoring the learning process, we calculated the categorical cross-entropy and accuracy by comparing the predicted and actual values and applied them to the valida-

Table 1. Jeju marine species dataset

| Marine Species | Marine Organisms | Quantity |
|----------------|----------------------------------|----------|
| Fish | Odontamblyopus lacepedii | 53 |
| | Dictyosoma burgeri | 45 |
| | Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae | 48 |
| | Branchiostegus japonicus | 45 |
| | Cleisthenes pinetorum | 46 |
| | Ostorhinchus semilineatus | 45 |
| | Scomber japonicus | 45 |
| | Pleuronichthys cornutus | 45 |
| | Setipinna tenuifilis | 45 |
| | Takifugu niphobles | 45 |
| Seaweed | Cladophora wrightiana var. minor | 45 |
| | Ulva australis | 46 |
| | Padina arborescens | 45 |
| | Undaria pinnatifida | 46 |
| | Gelidium elegans | 47 |
| | Sargassum thunbergii | 53 |
| | Codium fragile | 50 |
| | Sargassum fusiforme | 45 |
| | Ishige okamurae | 46 |
| | Colpomenia sinuosa | 45 |
| Total Quantity | | 930 |

Table 2. Number of images of learning data, verification data, and test data

| Category | Training Data (81%) | Validation Data (9%) | Testing Data (10%) |
|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| Original image | 754 | 83 | 93 |
| Augmented data image | 2880 | 320 | 93 |

Table 3. Test data quantity by marine organism

| Marine Life | Quantity | Marine Life | Quantity |
|------------------------------|----------|----------------------------------|----------|
| Ulva australis | 5 | Undaria pinnatifida | 5 |
| Codium fragile | 5 | Sargassum thunbergii | 5 |
| Ishige okamurae | 5 | Setipinna tenuifilis | 5 |
| Odontamblyopus lacepedii | 5 | Dictyosoma burgeri | 4 |
| Branchiostegus japonicus | 5 | Sargassum fusiforme | 4 |
| Gelidium elegans | 5 | Ostorhinchus semilineatus | 4 |
| Pleuronichthys cornutus | 5 | Scomber japonicus | 4 |
| Colpomenia sinuosa | 5 | Padina arborescens | 4 |
| Cleisthenes pinetorum | 5 | Cladophora wrightiana var. minor | 4 |
| Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae | 5 | Takifugu niphobles | 4 |

tion data. Based on cross-entropy and accuracy, the trained model was evaluated using validation data to estimate the generalization ability of the model and to detect and adjust for overfitting. After completing model tuning, we performed a final evaluation of the model by comparing its accuracy with the training and testing data.

To evaluate the model performance, the marine-life image dataset was structured as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 shows the quantities of training, validation, and test data. The training data for retraining the image classification model comprised 81% of the dataset. The validation data used to estimate the generalization ability of the model consisted of 9% of the dataset. Finally, the test data used to evaluate the performance of the image classification model consisted of 10% images for each marine species through hierarchical sampling. At this time, data augmentation was not applied to the test data; therefore, testing was performed with 93 original images, corresponding to 10% of the total dataset. The number of images for each marine species included in the test data is presented in Table 3.

D. Image Classification Analysis and Output

The final image classification analysis and output step used a dictionary containing mapping information between the images and data based on accuracy. The system is designed to verify the characteristics and distribution information of organisms by combining them with a dictionary when the results are output.

IV. RESULTS

Fig. 4 shows the results of repeatedly training the marine life dataset using MobileNetV2, InceptionV3, and Xception, ten times each.

According to the graph, MobileNetV2 (60%), Xception (54%), and InceptionV3 (34%) exhibited improved performance. Among them, MobileNetV2 showed the highest accuracy of 60%, and the difference in accuracy between the models can be attributed to the structural characteristics of each model [21,22,23].

Fig. 5 shows the structural diagrams of MobileNetV2, InceptionV3, and Xception. First, Fig. 5(a) shows the structure of the MobileNetV2 model. MobileNetV2 uses an inverse residual technique to improve the accuracy by combining layer information. The use of depthwise separable convolutions and techniques to reduce the number of parameters to be optimized has proven to be effective in terms of efficiency by reducing the number of parameters and number of computations required [21]. Fig. 5(b) shows the structure of InceptionV3. InceptionV3 uses an inception block layer. The layer

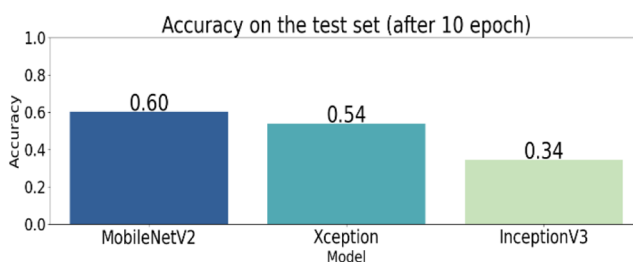


Fig. 4. Model comparison.

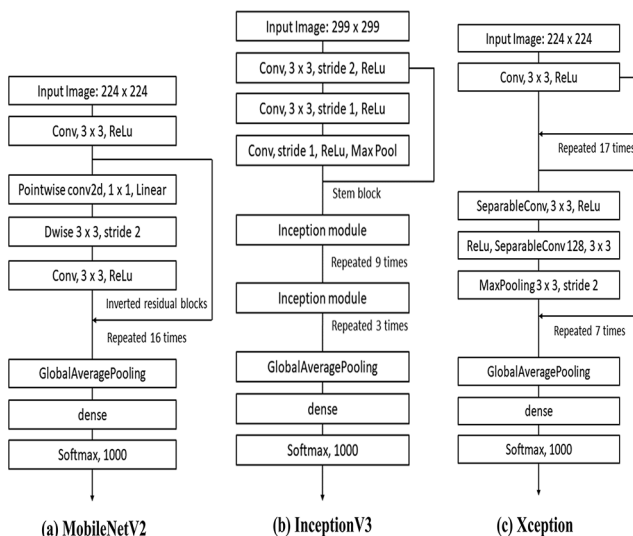


Fig. 5. Structural diagram of each model. (a) MobileNetV2, (b) InceptionV3, and (c) Xception.

consists of parallel convolutional branches with filters of different sizes, and additional processing occurs in the connected branch stages, resulting in more parameters and greater computational complexity than MobileNetV2 [22]. Finally, Fig. 5(c) shows the structure of Xception. Xception uses layers of depthwise separable convolutions and point-wise convolutions, and a data normalization technique that changes based on the input scale. Because an additional depth-specific convolution is used after the depth-separable convolution layer, the model's representation power and computational cost increase compared to those of MobileNetV2 [23].

In other words, MobileNetV2 is designed for efficient computation, and among the three models presented above, it is efficient in many aspects, including parameters, computational efficiency, and number of parameters. However, the Xception and InceptionV3 models use deeper and more complex architectures and additional layers, resulting in many more parameters, longer computation times, and lower efficiency. Therefore, we conducted additional training using MobileNetV2, which exhibited the highest accuracy.

To determine the appropriate learning number for the selected MobileNetV2 model, an iterative learning process was performed 10-200 times, and the accuracy was the highest when performed 100 times. Because there was no significant difference in the number of training repetitions and accuracy, we conducted a study on a model that was trained 100 times.

As a result of monitoring the learning process of the model, the cross-entropy and accuracy graphs are shown in Fig. 6(a).

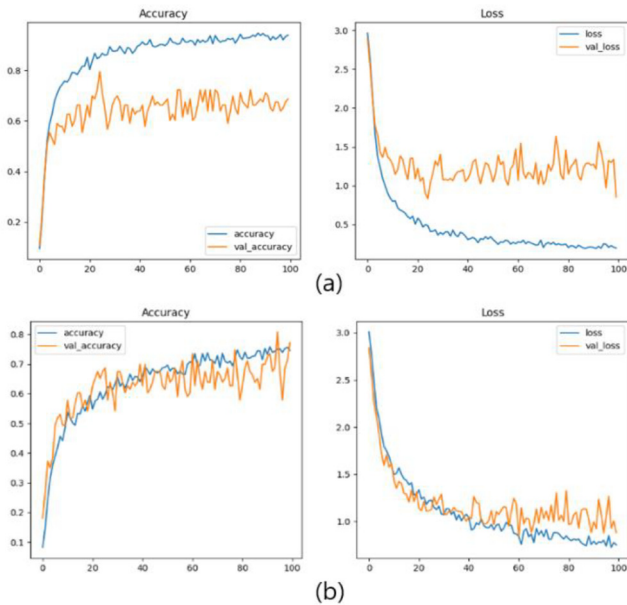


Fig. 6. Comparison of cross-entropy and accuracy graphs based on the presence or absence of dropout. (a) represents the state before the application of dropout, and (b) depicts the state after the incorporation of dropout.

Table 4. Trained image test results

| Marine Species | Marine Life | Accuracy(%) |
|--|----------------------------------|-------------|
| Fish | Odontamblyopus lacepedii | 89.0 |
| | Dictyosoma burgeri | 94.8 |
| | Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae | 89.2 |
| | Branchiostegus japonicus | 98.8 |
| | Cleisthenes pinetorum | 69.8 |
| | Ostorhinchus semilineatus | 88.0 |
| | Scomber japonicus | 100.0 |
| | Pleuronichthys cornutus | 85.2 |
| | Setipinna tenuifilis | 91.8 |
| | Takifugu niphobles | 100 |
| Mean Accuracy (Fish) | | 90.7 |
| Seaweed | Cladophora wrightiana var. minor | 72.5 |
| | Ulva australis | 80.0 |
| | Padina arborescens | 92.0 |
| | Undaria pinnatifida | 91.4 |
| | Gelidium elegans | 96.6 |
| | Sargassum thunbergii | 69.4 |
| | Codium fragile | 83.6 |
| | Sargassum fusiforme | 94.8 |
| | Ishige okamurae | 80.2 |
| Colpomenia sinuosa | 97.4 | |
| Mean Accuracy (Seaweed) | | 85.8 |
| Total Accuracy (Fish and Seaweed) | | 88.3 |

Table 5. Untrained image test results

| Marine Species | Marine Organisms | Accuracy(%) |
|--|----------------------------------|--------------|
| Fish | Odontamblyopus lacepedii | 49.4 |
| | Dictyosoma burgeri | 65.23 |
| | Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae | 65.6 |
| | Branchiostegus japonicus | 90.2 |
| | Cleisthenes pinetorum | 59.4 |
| | Ostorhinchus semilineatus | 63.0 |
| | Scomber japonicus | 99.5 |
| | Pleuronichthys cornutus | 30.2 |
| | Setipinna tenuifilis | 62.4 |
| | Takifugu niphobles | 97.75 |
| Mean Accuracy (Fish) | | 68.3% |
| Seaweed | Cladophora wrightiana var. minor | 44.0 |
| | Ulva australis | 73.4 |
| | Padina arborescens | 67.8 |
| | Undaria pinnatifida | 91.2 |
| | Gelidium elegans | 70.8 |
| | Sargassum thunbergii | 79.4 |
| | Codium fragile | 57.4 |
| | Sargassum fusiforme | 67.5 |
| | Ishige okamurae | 38.0 |
| Colpomenia sinuosa | 57.8 | |
| Mean Accuracy (Seaweed) | | 64.7 |
| Total Accuracy (Fish and Seaweed) | | 66.5 |

Table 6. Normalized confusion matrix (See Appendix 1)

| Marine Species | Marine Life | | | | |
|---------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------|------------------------------|----------|
| | Actual Class | Predicted Class | | | |
| | | Correctly classified | Accuracy | Misclassified | Accuracy |
| Fish | Branchiostegus japonicus | Branchiostegus japonicus | 1.0 | | |
| | Cleisthenes pinetorum | Cleisthenes pinetorum | 0.8 | Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae | 0.2 |
| | Dictyosoma burgeri | Dictyosoma burger | 0.75 | Odontamblyopus lacepedii | 0.25 |
| | Odontamblyopus lacepedii | Odontamblyopus lacepedii | 0.6 | Branchiostegus japonicus | 0.2 |
| | | | | Ishige okamurae | 0.2 |
| | Ostorhinchus semilineatus | Ostorhinchus semilineatus | 0.75 | Gelidium elegans | 0.25 |
| | Pleuronichthys cornutus | Pleuronichthys cornutus | 0.4 | Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae | 0.6 |
| | Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae | Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae | 0.8 | Cleisthenes pinetorum | 0.2 |
| | Scomber japonicus | Scomber japonicus | 1.0 | | |
| | Setipinna tenuifilis | Setipinna tenuifilis | 0.8 | Scomber japonicus | 0.2 |
| Takifugu niphobles | Takifugu niphobles | 1.0 | | | |
| Seaweed | Cladophora wrightiana var. minor | Cladophora wrightiana var. minor | 0.25 | Gelidium elegans | 0.5 |
| | | | | Sargassum thunbergia | 0.25 |
| | Codium fragile | Codium fragile | 0.8 | Undaria pinnatifida | 0.2 |
| | Colpomenia sinuosa | Colpomenia sinuosa | 0.6 | Padina arborescens | 0.2 |
| | | | | Sargassum thunbergia | 0.2 |
| | Gelidium elegans | Gelidium elegans | 0.8 | Ishige okamurae | 0.2 |
| | Ishige okamurae | Ishige okamurae | 0.6 | Gelidium elegans | 0.2 |
| | | | | Sargassum fusiforme | 0.2 |
| | Padina arborescens | Padina arborescens | 0.75 | Odontamblyopus lacepedii | 0.25 |
| | Sargassum fusiforme | Sargassum fusiforme | 0.75 | Ulva australis | 0.25 |
| | Sargassum thunbergii | Sargassum thunbergia | 0.8 | Undaria pinnatifida | 0.2 |
| | Ulva australis | Ulva australis | 0.8 | Colpomenia sinuosa | 0.2 |
| Undaria pinnatifida | Undaria pinnatifida | 1.0 | | | |

In the graph, the cross-entropy and accuracy of the validation data were not consistent with those of the training data. This revealed an overfitting problem in the model-learning process for marine-life images. To solve this overfitting problem, we used a dropout to disable some neurons. Consequently, Fig. 6(b) confirms that the cross-entropy and accuracy of the validation data followed the cross-entropy and accuracy of the training data, thereby mitigating overfitting.

Tables 4 and 5 show the image test results with and without training. The trained image tests were randomly selected and adjusted according to the number of test data points for each marine creature. Table 4 shows the average accuracy for the selected data. Additionally, Table 5 shows the untrained test results obtained from average accuracy of the pre-segmented test data.

The trained image tests had average accuracies of 90.7 and 85.8% for fish and seaweed, respectively. Mackerel and pufferfish had the highest accuracy among fish, with 100% accuracy. Among algae, round horses had the highest accuracy, with 97.4% accuracy.

The untrained image test achieved an average accuracy of

68.3% for fish and 64.7% for seaweed. Among the fish test data, mackerel had the highest accuracy of 99.5%, whereas among the seaweed test data, the highest accuracy was 91.2%. Comparing Tables 4 and 5, the accuracy of the test image set (66.5%) is lower than that of the trained image set (85.8%).

Table 6 presents the Normalized Confusion Matrix results in tabular form. Based on the relationship between the actual and predicted classes, we analyzed the classification patterns of marine organisms and evaluated the performance of the model by determining the type and frequency of misclassification of certain marine organisms as different species.

The analysis showed that among fish species, certain classes of Branchiostegus japonicus, Scomber japonicus, and Takifugu niphobles had a classification accuracy of 1.0. However, some classes, such as Cleisthenes pinetorum, Dictyosoma burger, and Odontamblyopus lacepedii, were misclassified. In particular, Cleisthenes pinetorum had an accuracy of 0.8, whereas the remaining 0.2% were incorrectly classified as Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae. Additionally, for Pleuronichthys cornutus, Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae was misclassified

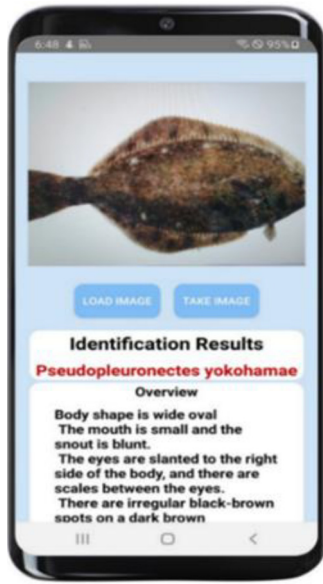


Fig. 7. Android application execution screen (See Appendix 2).

fied with an accuracy of 0.6, indicating a higher accuracy than the true class.

For seaweed species, the specific class *Undaria pinnatifida* had a classification accuracy of 1.0. However, some classes, such as *Codium fragile*, *Padina arborescens*, and *Colpomenia sinuosa*, tended to be confused with other classes. Unlike fish species, which showed an overall high classification accuracy, seaweed species had a lower classification accuracy and were more often confused with classes other than those of fish species. *Cladophora wrightiana* var. For the minor class, the accuracy was 0.25, indicating the lowest classification accuracy among the seaweed classes. Of these, 0.5 were misclassified as *Gelidium elegans* and 0.25 as *Sargassum thunbergia*.

Fig. 7 shows the application prediction screen implemented using the final model. When a user uses an application camera to capture marine life, the images are fed into the model, and the best matching classes are analyzed in real time, providing the user with the species name, biological characteristics, and distribution information.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this study, we investigated a method for recognizing Jeju marine-life images using open-source deep learning. For this purpose, the learning dataset used in the study was collected from ten species of fish and seaweed and consisted of 930 images of Jeju marine life. Preprocessing was performed on the collected image data, and all images were converted to the same resolution and color channels. After the prepro-

cessing step, the existing CNN model was retrained using the TensorFlow framework to render it suitable for marine-life image recognition. The highest accuracy was achieved when the number of learning iterations was 100, which required approximately 43 min.

In this study, we compared the performances of three models –MobileNetV2, InceptionV3, and Xception– and selected a suitable model for marine-life classification. Additional training was performed based on the selected model to estimate its generalization ability and to adjust for overfitting. After tuning, the final model was evaluated by testing it on trained and untrained datasets. The average accuracies of the trained and untrained image datasets were 85.8 and 66.5%, respectively. Thus, we confirmed that the trained data showed a higher classification accuracy than the untrained data.

The difference in performance between the two datasets occurs because the model is over-optimized on the training data and does not generalize well to the test images. Dropout was applied to solve this overfitting problem; however, it only alleviated overfitting and did not achieve complete generalization. This is because the amount of learning data is insufficient owing to the nature of marine life, and the recognition rate decreases depending on the environment. In particular, the limited amount of training data makes it difficult for the model to sufficiently learn all possible scenarios. To address this limitation, it is essential to build a systematic class-selection system that incorporates additional training data based on generative adversarial networks (GANs) [24]. Additionally, an algorithm that can accurately distinguish marine life must be developed by analyzing the correlation between the classification within an image and the environmental context [25].

In conclusion, if a marine-life identification system is implemented through this process, it is expected that the limitations of Jeju Island's existing marine biotechnology will improve and that it will expand to various industrial fields on Jeju Island in the future [26].

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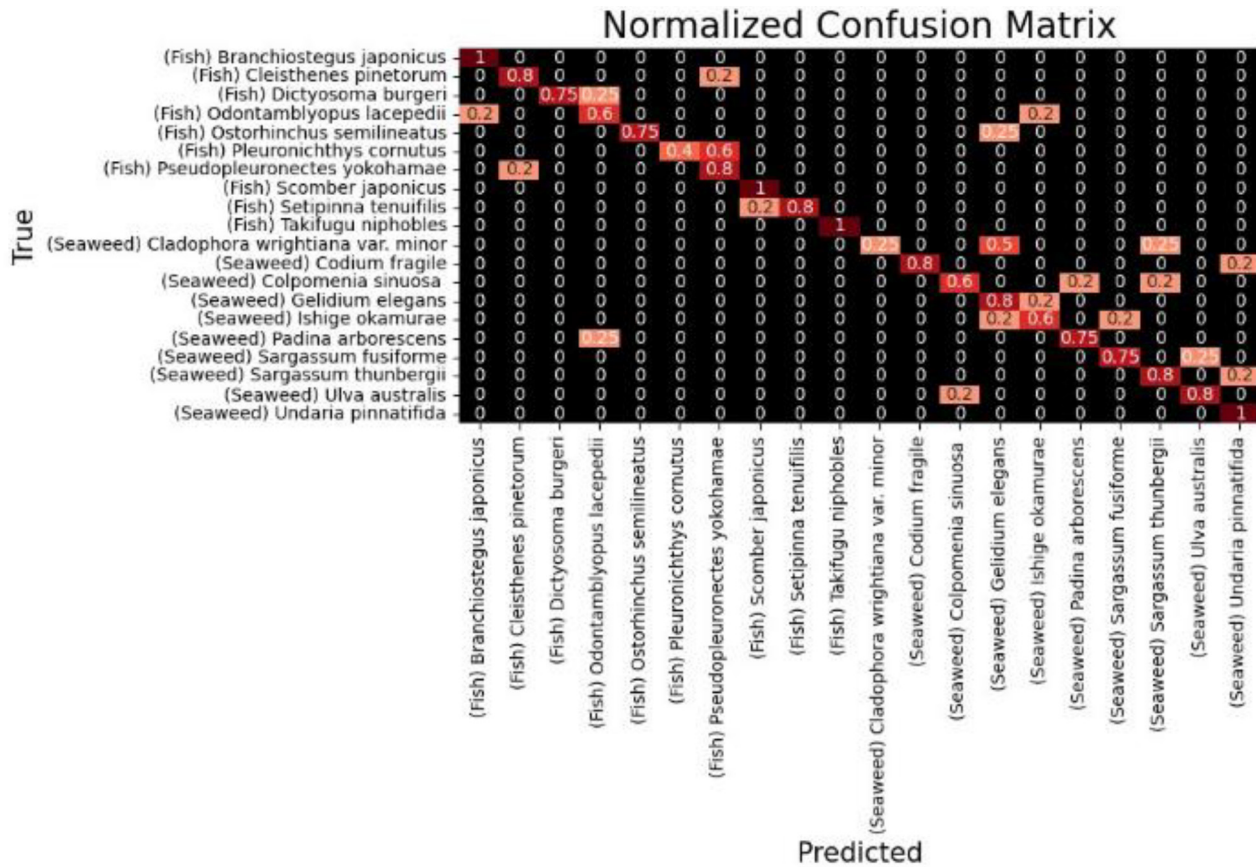
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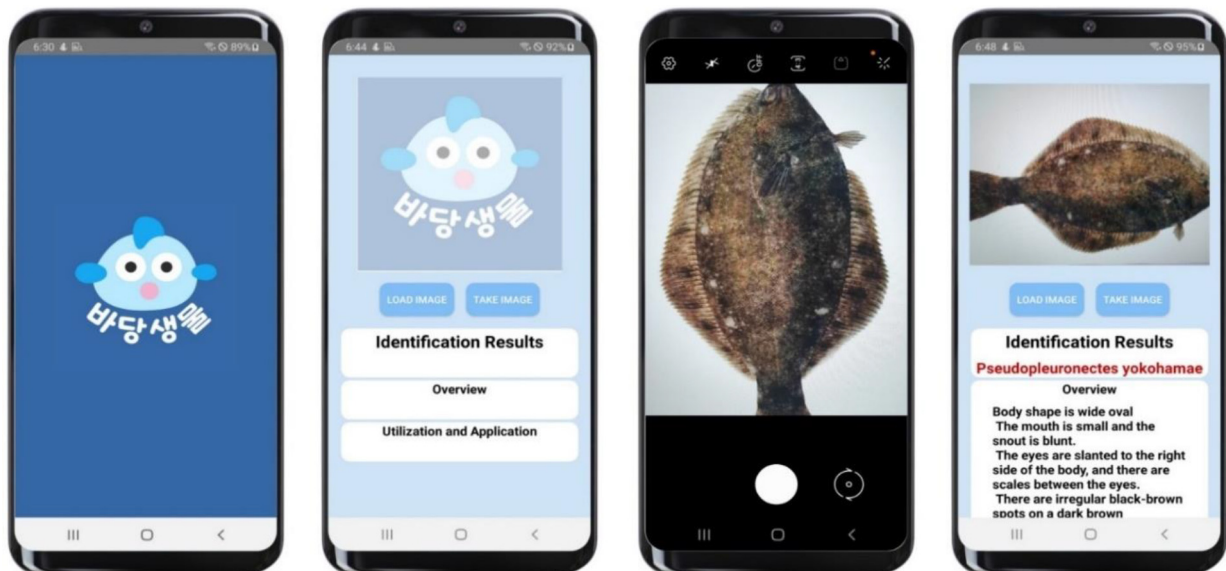
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APPENDIX 1. Normalized Confusion Matrix



APPENDIX 2. Android Application Screen





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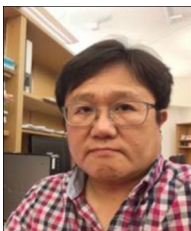
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