

FORCINN: First-order reversal curve inversion of magnetite using neural networks

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Key Points:

- We have developed a neural network model for analyzing FORC data, which converges quickly to a high accuracy during the training.
- The trained FORCINN model can accurately invert the grain-size and aspect ratio distributions of simulated non-interacting magnetite FORCs.
- The trained FORCINN model performs well on inverting natural samples with a good estimate of grain-size distributions.

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Abstract

First-order reversal curve (FORC) diagrams are a standard rock magnetic tool for analyzing bulk magnetic hysteresis behaviors, which are used to estimate the magnetic mineralogies and magnetic domain states of grains within natural materials. However, the interpretation of FORC distributions is challenging due to complex domain-state responses, which introduce well-documented uncertainties and subjectivity. Here, we propose a neural network algorithm (FORCINN) to invert the size and aspect ratio distribution from measured FORC data. We trained and tested the FORCINN model using a dataset of synthetic numerical FORCs for single magnetite grains with various grain-sizes (45-400 nm) and aspect ratios (oblate and prolate grains). In addition to successfully testing FORCINN against synthetic datasets, we also tested FORCINN against FORC data measured on natural samples with accurately determined grain-size and aspect ratio distributions. FORCINN was found to provide good estimates of the grain-size distributions for basalt samples and marine sediments.

Plain Language Summary

Magnetic minerals found in paleomagnetic and environmental samples are typically sub-micron or micron in size, rendering direct observation challenging. Therefore, to determine the grain-size properties, it has been standard practice for many decades to magnetically measure bulk samples, and to interpret their response in terms of the grain-size magnetic characteristics. One of the most sophisticated methods is the first-order reversal curve (FORC) diagram, which measures the change in net magnetization in a varying external field. However, FORC diagrams can be complex for natural samples and interpretation remains largely qualitative. This study proposes a machine-learning approach (FORCINN) to determine the size and aspect ratio of magnetite grains from FORC distributions. A large numerical dataset of FORC diagrams is simulated for magnetite grains of differing sizes and aspect ratios and is used to train the FORCINN model. We show that this model effectively estimates the size distribution of magnetite grains in natural specimens. As datasets encompassing diverse magnetic minerals are developed, this machine learning-based FORC inversion technique is anticipated to advance the macroscopic interpretations of magnetic mineral assemblages.

1 Introduction

First-order reversal curve (FORC) diagrams are a standard magnetic tool used to characterize the magnetic grains within samples, providing insights into their magnetic domain state and grain-size, their magnetic anisotropy and mineral composition, plus the degree of magnetostatic interactions within a rock (Roberts et al., 2000, 2022). FORC diagrams are constructed from partial magnetic-hysteresis loop data, by taking the mixed second derivative of the magnetization (Pike et al., 1999; Roberts et al., 2014). FORC data have been used in many geological and environmental studies to quantify paleo-environmental

57 changes (e.g., Chang et al., 2018; Channell et al., 2016) and mineral-alteration processes
58 (e.g., Chang, Pei, et al., 2023; Roberts et al., 2018). FORC data have also been used
59 to determine paleomagnetic recording fidelity by determining the size and morphology
60 of the constituent magnetic grains (Carvallo et al., 2006; Paterson et al., 2010). How-
61 ever, the interpretation of FORC data still remains problematic due to our incomplete
62 understanding of how individual domain-state FORC signals combine and contribute to
63 the total FORC distribution. The current approach of interpreting FORC observations
64 involves qualitative comparisons with published analytical (e.g., Newell, 2005), exper-
65 imental (e.g., Krása et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2017) and numerical FORC distributions
66 (e.g., Amor et al., 2022; Carvallo et al., 2003; Harrison & Lascu, 2014) for various mag-
67 netic domain structures. More complex analysis methods have been employed, e.g., prin-
68 cipal component analysis (PCA) (Harrison et al., 2018; Lascu et al., 2015); however, these
69 methods help to identify differences within datasets without explaining the underlying
70 mechanisms.

71 A quantitative method is required to invert FORC data of natural samples to de-
72 termine the magnetic grain size and morphology distribution. To achieve this we need
73 detailed knowledge of the FORC response of grains as a function of grain-size and shape.
74 Due to the difficulties in experimentally isolating the magnetic response of individual grain-
75 sizes, forward micromagnetic modeling is key to solving this problem. There has been
76 a long history of using forward micromagnetic simulations to study the FORC response
77 of individual grains (e.g., Carvallo et al., 2003; Valdez-Grijalva et al., 2018) and inter-
78 acting clusters (e.g. Bai et al., 2021; Harrison & Lascu, 2014; Muxworthy et al., 2004;
79 Valdez-Grijalva et al., 2020); however, most of these forward models are limited in scope.
80 In this work, we use the Synth-FORC dataset (Nagy et al., 2024), which comprises over
81 a thousand numerically calculated magnetite FORCs, with each simulated grain having
82 a different size and aspect ratio. These simulations, calculated using the MERRILL (Ó Conbhuí
83 et al., 2018) micromagnetic software package, are combined with a machine learning ap-
84 proach that can directly estimate the size and morphology distribution of non-interacting
85 magnetite grains from experimentally measured FORC distributions. This new tool is
86 called FORCINN (FORC Inversion using Neural Networks).

87 2 Methods

88 The FORC distribution, represented as a two-dimensional matrix similar to an im-
89 age (Berndt & Chang, 2019), has prompted us to explore the application of classical ma-
90 chine learning-based computer vision algorithms for FORC inversion. Convolutional neu-
91 ral networks (CNNs) are a classic algorithm for image processing, capable of effectively
92 capturing fundamental features of images with rapid convergence and easy generaliza-
93 tion (LeCun et al., 1998). ResNet improves upon CNNs by allowing deeper networks to
94 extract more complex features (He et al., 2016). Hence, we constructed the FORCINN
95 framework, utilizing two neural network-based machine learning algorithms, CNN and

96 ResNet, to invert FORC data and determine the distribution of grain-sizes and shapes
 97 (aspect ratio) of the magnetite assemblages in a sample (Figure 1). These models were
 98 trained using an extended Synth-FORC dataset described below, and tested against both
 99 synthetic and natural FORC data.

100 2.1 Training and testing dataset

101 The extended Synth-FORC dataset comprises micromagnetically generated FORCs
 102 for randomly-oriented magnetite grains with sizes varying between 45 and 195 nm equiv-
 103 alent spherical volume diameter (ESVD), and aspect ratios between 0.125 and 6.0 (Nagy
 104 et al., 2024). These grains have prolate (aspect ratio > 1) and oblate (aspect ratio < 1)
 105 shapes. Additional grain-sizes of 240 nm, 280 nm, 320 nm, and 400 nm (ESVD) were
 106 included, with the same aspect ratios as reported in Nagy et al. (2024). We utilized both
 107 lognormal and random distributions to sample size and shape distributions. Specifically,
 108 we generated a lognormal distribution by selecting various shape and scale parameters,
 109 and a random distribution by choosing different interval boundaries. These distributions
 110 were subsequently employed to synthesize the corresponding FORC samples. These dis-
 111 tributions were subsequently used to synthesize the corresponding FORC samples. Our
 112 training data consisted of 400,000 FORCs; our testing set consisted of 100,000 FORCs.
 113 Both datasets were derived from Synth-FORC and sampled in the same way. All FORC
 114 data used in this study are normalized raw FORC magnetization M/M_s , along with ad-
 115 ditional finite difference approximations of $\partial(M/M_s)/\partial B_r$, $\partial(M/M_s)/\partial B$ and $\partial^2(M/M_s)/\partial B_r\partial B$,
 116 where M is magnetization at field B with reversal field B_r , normalized by the satura-
 117 tion magnetization M_s . We also include a white noise signal-component accounting for
 118 5%, 10%, and 20% of magnetization to evaluate the robustness of our models.

119 In addition to testing the model against the synthetic test data, FORCINN was
 120 evaluated against five experimental FORC datasets where the grain morphology distri-
 121 butions were independently measured. These datasets consist of two basalt samples pre-
 122 viously studied (Michalk et al., 2008; Muxworthy, 2010; Muxworthy et al., 2011): one
 123 from the 1991 C.E. Hekla (Iceland) eruption (sample code HB91CY), and the other from
 124 the 1944 C.E. Vesuvius (Italy) eruption (VM1AX), with grain geometries recently de-
 125 termined using focused-ion beam nanotomography (FIB-nt) (Gergov et al., 2024). Two
 126 marine sediment samples (MD2361-125 and MD2361-315) from the core MD00-2361 from
 127 offshore North West Cape (Western Australia) were included, with dimension data de-
 128 termined through transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Chang, Hoogakker, et al.,
 129 2023). Finally, a synthetic Wright magnetite powder sample (W(0.3 μm)) with grain di-
 130 mension data obtained via scanning electron microscopy (Muxworthy & Dunlop, 2002),
 131 was also used to test FORCINN.

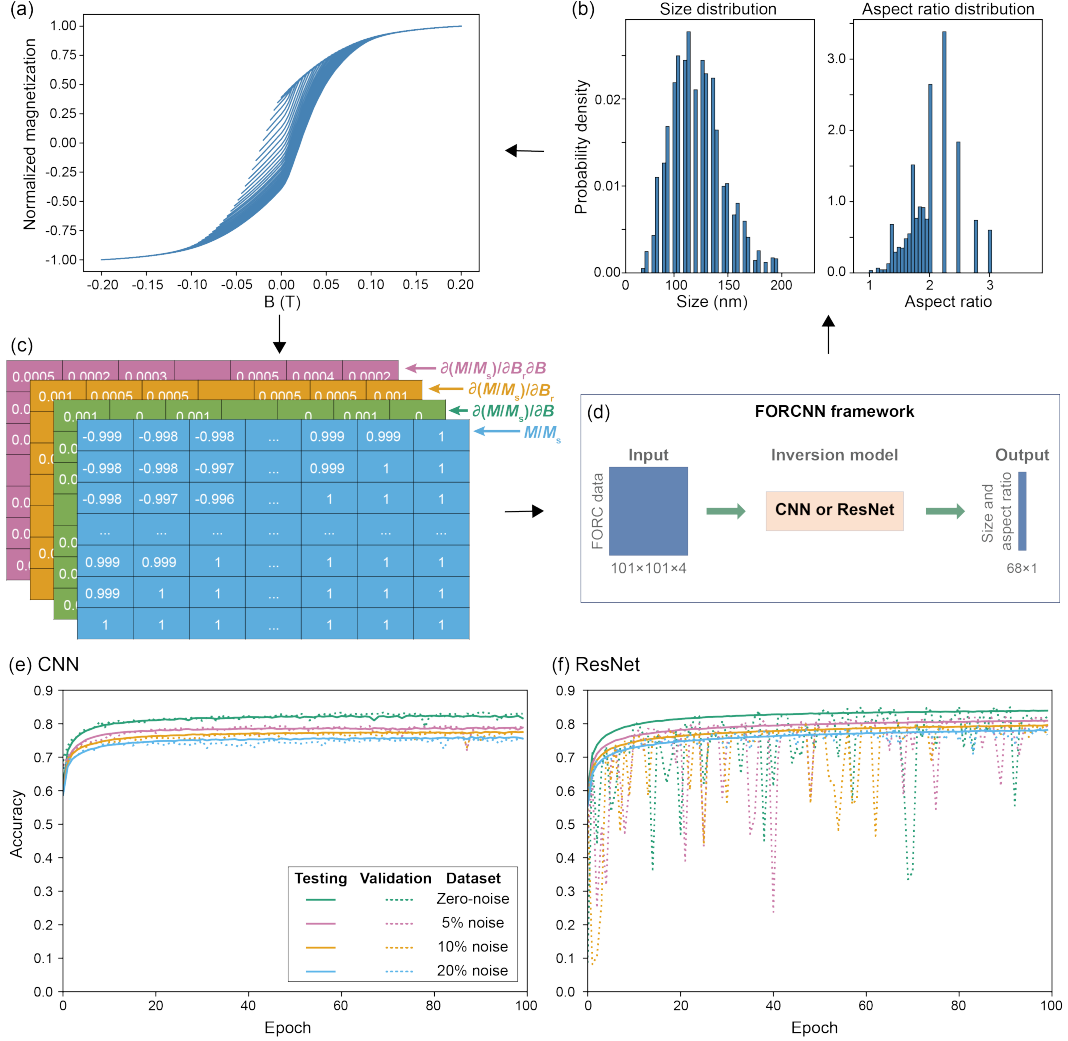


Figure 1. Framework for FORC inversion based on neural networks (FORCINN) and training accuracy. (a) The original FORC data. (b) The corresponding size and aspect ratio distribution used to determine (a). (c) The input for the FORCINN model, including the original normalized FORC magnetization M/M_s , and its first-order derivatives ($\partial(M/M_s)/\partial B_r$ and $\partial(M/M_s)/\partial B$) and second-order derivatives ($\partial^2(M/M_s)/\partial B_r \partial B$). (d) The inversion framework of the FORCINN using CNN and ResNet models. Training results of CNN (e) and ResNet models (f) trained with zero-noise, 5% noise, 10% noise, and 20% noise, including the accuracy of the training set (solid lines) and the validation set (dashed lines).

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2.2 Model construction

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FORC inversion is a multi-regression problem where the input variable is the set of major and minor hysteresis loops that make up a FORC-diagram (Figure 1a), and the output variables are the size and aspect ratio distributions. To ensure efficient model convergence, we simplify the output variable to a histogram that represents the corresponding size and shape distribution (Figure 1b): the size range of the output histogram (from 45 nm to 400 nm) is split into 35 bins, and the aspect ratio range (from 0.166667 to 6.0) is split into 33 bins. In other words, we simplified the FORC inversion from a multi-regression problem to a multi-class classification problem. Hence, the model output layer is a Soft-Max activation function (Bridle, 1989) consisting of a 1×68 vector, representing the fractional contributions of size (35 bins) and aspect ratio (33 bins).

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Each input value in our dataset is encoded as an array of four two-dimensional 'slabs' ($101 \times 101 \times 4$; Figure 1c). The horizontal index of each slab corresponds to the B_r field ranging from -0.2 T to 0.2 T in steps of 0.004 T plus additional one-padding values – resulting in 101 sample points; this is the same for the vertical index of each slab that corresponds to the B field. We include one-padding values due to the triangular array structure that FORCs are measured (see Figure 1 in Nagy et al. (2024) for reference), where only the row corresponding to the major hysteresis loop is fully populated. Each slab (indexed from 0 to 3) is derived from raw FORC magnetization: the first slab is the magnetization normalized by the saturation value M_s ; slabs 1-3 are finite difference approximations of the two first and mixed second partial derivatives of the normalized magnetization.

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Neural network algorithms contain a number of hidden layers that non-linearly connect (map) the input and output (Rumelhart et al., 1986). The hidden layers of CNN model mainly consist of convolutional layers and max-pooling layers (Figure S1 and Table S1), which extract features from images through local connections and weight sharing (LeCun et al., 2015). ResNet introduces residual blocks based on CNN, which add shortcut connections to address the vanishing gradient problem in deep networks (Figure S2 and Tables S2 and S3), making it possible to train deeper networks (He et al., 2016). The detailed descriptions of the hidden layers in CNN and ResNet can be found in Supporting Information Text S1.

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2.3 Training and Testing Process

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We adopted 75% of the training set for training and 25% for validation. The training dataset is divided into batches of size 32 during training, with each batch used to train the model in one iteration (Chollet, 2021). An epoch is a complete pass of the learning algorithm over the entire training dataset (Chollet, 2021). The model was trained for a total of 100 epochs. To evaluate the model convergence performance, we recorded the training accuracy, defined as the proportion of samples for which the model correctly

170 predicted the highest probability class (Chollet, 2021). Finally, the trained model was
 171 then tested on the testing set to evaluate its generalization ability.

172 **3 Training and Testing on Simulation Datasets**

173 Figures 1e and 1f show the accuracies of the CNN and ResNet algorithms on zero-
 174 noise, 5% noise, 10% noise, and 20% noise datasets after 100 epochs of training. The ac-
 175 curacies for the testing data set converged to approximately the same level, i.e., 82%,
 176 79%, 77%, and 76%, respectively for the CNN model; and 84%, 81%, 79%, and 78%,
 177 respectively for the ResNet model. The accuracy of the CNN model on the validation
 178 set is similar to that on the training set, whereas the validation accuracy of the ResNet
 179 model shows significant fluctuations, which may be due to the higher complexity of ResNet.
 180 For both networks, training accuracy slightly decreases with increasing noise.

181 When applied to the simulation testing set, CNN models trained with zero-noise,
 182 5% noise, 10% noise, and 20% noise datasets consistently deliver precise predictions of
 183 the average size and aspect ratio, as indicated by $R^2 > 0.98$ (Figures 2a-2h). The pre-
 184 dictive performance of the ResNet models trained with the high noise dataset is poorer,
 185 but still achieves $R^2 > 0.79$ for size and >0.94 for the aspect ratio. Figure 3 shows a
 186 clear correlation between the ground truth and predicted distributions of size and as-
 187 pect ratio for the CNN model trained with the zero-noise dataset, with $R^2 > 0.85$. These
 188 results on synthetic FORCs indicate that well-trained CNN and ResNet models have the
 189 potential to generalize to the size and aspect ratio inversion from the FORC distribu-
 190 tion observations on non-interacting magnetite.

191 **4 Testing on the Experiment Data**

192 **4.1 Testing results**

193 The well-trained FORCINN model was used to invert the experimental FORC data
 194 of four natural samples and one synthetic powder sample (Figure 4). The FORC inver-
 195 sion results of the basalt samples from Helka and Vesuvius exhibit similar size distribu-
 196 tions as those determined from FIB-nt with p-values >0.05 of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
 197 (Dodge, 2008) (Figures 4a and 4c). The experimentally determined mean/median for
 198 the Hekla sample was $\sim 88/71$ μm versus a prediction of $\sim 111/100$ μm , and for Vesuvius
 199 an experimental estimate of $\sim 174/136$ μm versus a prediction of $\sim 147/120$ μm . In both
 200 cases the predicted size distribution underestimates the grain content in the <80 nm range.
 201 This is likely due to relatively small variations in the hysteresis responses for grains in
 202 the single domain (SD) range, i.e., 45-85 nm for equant grains (Williams & Dunlop, 1989;
 203 Nagy et al., 2024). The predicted aspect-ratio distributions are relatively narrower com-
 204 pared to the experimental data (Figures 4b and 4d), in particular the number of oblate
 205 particles is underestimated.

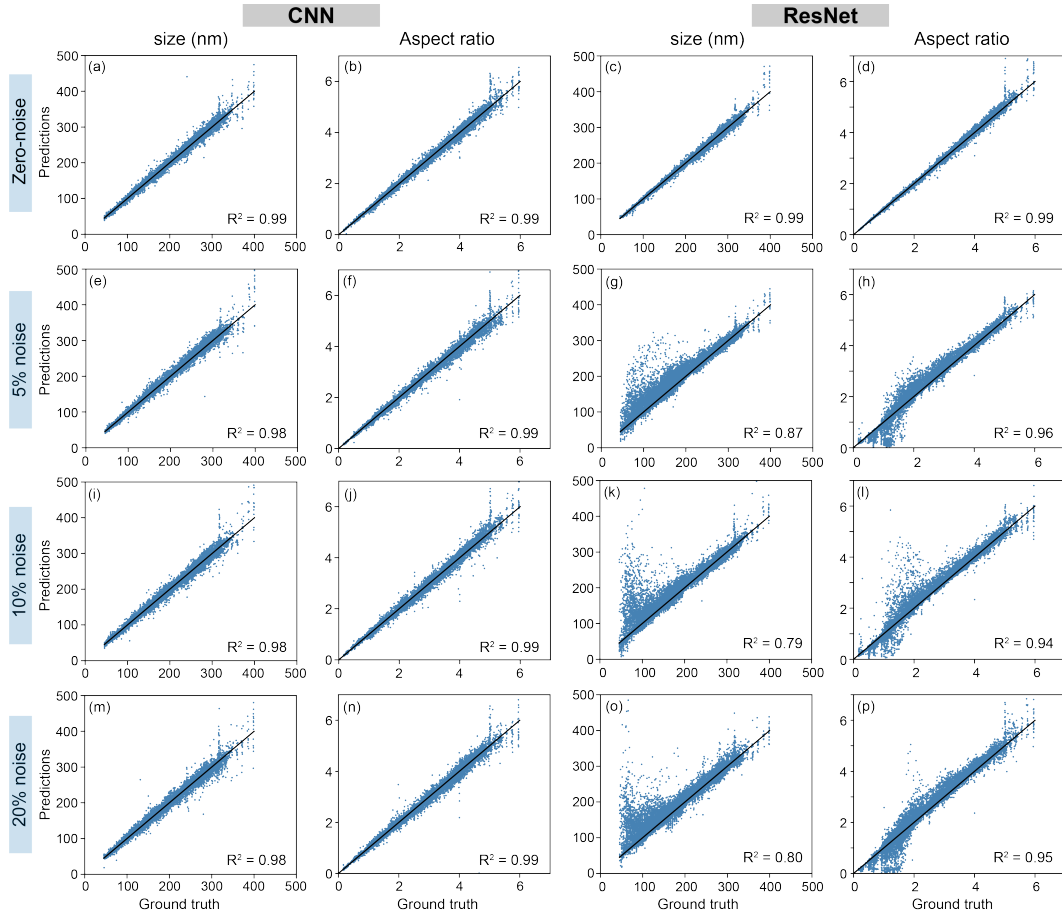


Figure 2. FORCINN predicted versus ground truth for the simulation dataset of CNN (a, b, e, f, i, j, m, n) and ResNet (c, d, g, h, k, l, o, p) models trained with zero-noise, 5% noise, 10% noise, and 20% noise datasets, including ground truth and predicted average of sizes (a, c, e, g, i, k, m, o) and aspect ratio (b, d, f, h, j, l, n, p) distributions. The black line represents where the ground truth and predictions are equal. Coefficient of determination R^2 represents the goodness of fit of the model (Draper, 1998).

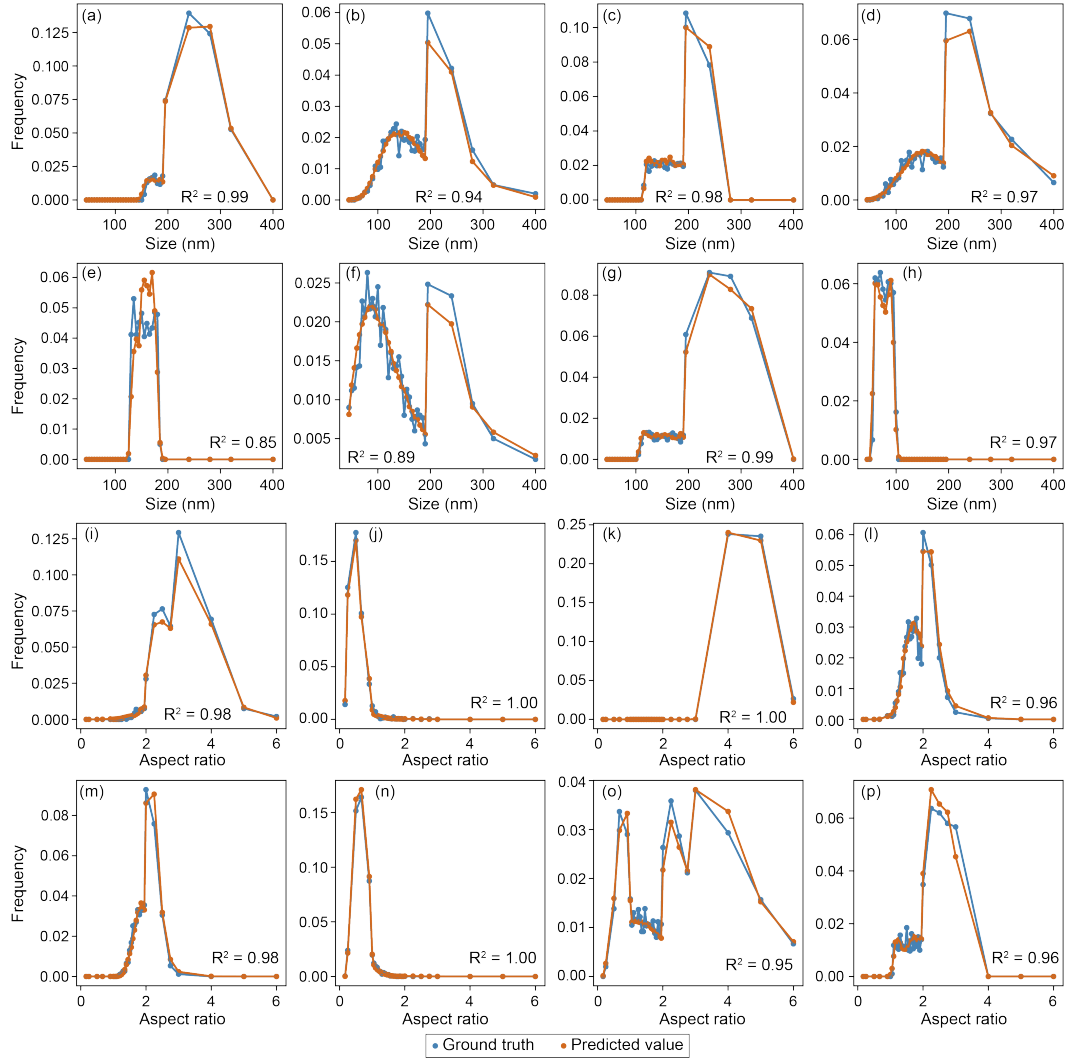


Figure 3. Frequency versus grain-size (a-h) or aspect ratio (i-p) for the input distribution for the synthetic ground truth FORC data (blue lines and dots) and the FORCINN predicted distribution (orange lines and dots). The prediction results are for the CNN model trained with the zero-noise dataset. Coefficient of determination R^2 represents the goodness of fit of the model (Draper, 1998).

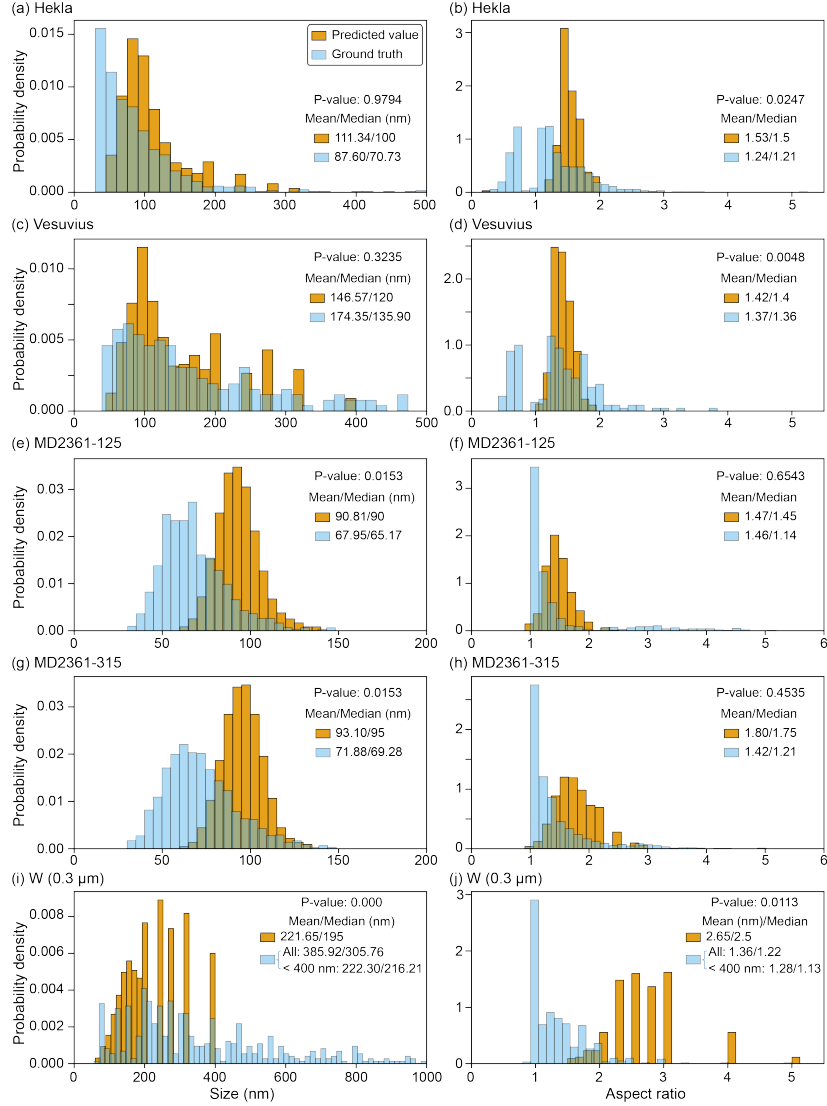


Figure 4. Probability density versus grain-size (a, c, e, g, i) or aspect ratio (b, d, f, h, j) for the FORCINN predicted (orange) and the experimental ground truth data (blue). The experimental data are for (a, b) Hekla, (c, d) Vesuvius, (e, f) MD2361-125, (g, h) MD2361-315, and (i, j) Wright powder sample W(0.3 μm). For the Hekla and Vesuvius samples the distributions were determined via FIB-nT (Gergov et al., 2024), whereas for MD2361-125, MD2361-315 and W(0.3 μm), the grain-size distributions are determined from 2D images (Chang, Hoogakker, et al., 2023; Muxworthy & Dunlop, 2002). P-values were calculated by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Williams & Dunlop, 1989; Nagy et al., 2024), which can indicate that the null hypothesis that the two data distributions are indistinguishable cannot be rejected if greater than 0.05. The prediction results of all models are presented in Tables S4-S8. This figure shows the results of the model with the best overall predictive performance, characterized by a large p-value and mean/median values close to the experimental data, specifically the ResNet model trained with 20% noise dataset (a-h) and the CNN model trained with zero-noise dataset (i and j). The mean and median are marked in the figure.

206 In general, there are a number of other reasons why the predicted distributions do
 207 not match the experimental data: (1) the experimental FORC data were acquired on bulk
 208 samples ($\sim 1 \text{ cm}^3$), which likely include wider grain-size distributions than the experi-
 209 mentally determined grain-size distributions, which are from much smaller volumes of
 210 sample, i.e., $\sim 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3$. (2) There maybe magnetostatic interactions in the experimen-
 211 tal data; however, for the basalt samples they are thought to be minimal (Gergov et al.,
 212 2024). (3) The FORC training data only extends to 400 nm in size. (4) The morpholo-
 213 gies of the real magnetic grains are more complex than the numerical models. The train-
 214 ing dataset only considers grains with equal intermediate and minor axes, while the re-
 215 constructed data has three different main axes. Despite some limitations in the dataset
 216 and predictions, the current testing results have sufficiently demonstrated the potential
 217 of FORCINN in inverting FORC data of basalt samples. These inverted morphological
 218 data can be utilized to evaluate the reliability of basalt paleointensity data (e.g., Car-
 219 vallo et al., 2006; Nagy et al., 2022).

220 The predicted size distributions of two marine sediment samples containing mag-
 221 netofossils are larger than the size distribution obtained from the TEM image (Figures
 222 4e and 4g). The predicted aspect ratios are also higher (Figures 4f and 4h). These dif-
 223 ferences may be because only the morphological data of magnetofossils were counted from
 224 TEM images, excluding the larger detrital magnetite in the sample (Chang, Hoogakker,
 225 et al., 2023). Furthermore, some magnetofossils in sediments may also retain chain struc-
 226 tures (Amor et al., 2022), which exhibit strong interactions and result in an overestima-
 227 tion of inverted grain-size and aspect ratio. However, the inverted results correctly iden-
 228 tified that the size and high aspect ratio component of the glacial sediment sample (MD2361-
 229 315) are both larger than those of the interglacial sample (MD2361-125; Figures 4e-4h).
 230 These size and aspect ratio variations are thought to be indicative of past ocean oxygen
 231 changes (Chang, Hoogakker, et al., 2023).

232 For the Wright powder sample, the grain-size mean/median predicted by FORCINN
 233 ($\sim 222/195 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$) is smaller than the measured values of $\sim 386/306 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (Figure 4i). This
 234 difference is likely due to the training dataset only extending to 400 nm; whilst the sam-
 235 ple has many grains $>400 \text{ nm}$. Additionally, this powder sample was reported by Muxworthy
 236 and Dunlop (2002) to contain magnetostatically interacting grains with angular geome-
 237 tries, which would both contribute to the differences seen in Figure 4i. Mismatches be-
 238 tween the measured and predicted aspect ratios for the Wright powder sample are also
 239 seen (Figure 4j). As the micromagnetic data set of simulated FORCs expands to encom-
 240 pass larger grains with more diverse shapes, we expect this mismatch to greatly improve.

241 4.2 Implications for rock, environmental, and paleo- magnetism

242 The ability to accurately estimate the magnetic grain-size distributions like we have
 243 achieved on five experimental FORC data using FORCINN (Figure 4), has been a long-
 244 standing problem in the magnetism community. Previous methods have focused on de-

245 termining coercivity distributions (e.g., Kruiver et al., 2001; Maxbauer et al., 2016), un-
246 mixing to produce end-members, which themselves contain complex distributions (e.g.
247 Heslop & Dillon, 2007; Harrison et al., 2018), or have been based purely on single-domain
248 theory, which limits their usefulness (e.g, Dunlop, 1976; Shcherbakov & Fabian, 2005).
249 FORCINN is the first method capable of rapidly inverting rapidly measured magnetic
250 data for their grain-size distribution, for grains that are larger than single-domain. FORCINN
251 marks a major breakthrough in rock magnetic analysis with applications in areas of rock,
252 environmental, and paleo- magnetism. Clearly, the training dataset needs to be extended
253 to include larger grain-sizes plus different mineralogies for which micromagnetic mod-
254 els have already been made, e.g., greigite (Valdez-Grijalva et al., 2018). Ideally, magne-
255 tostatic interactions should also be included, but this is more challenging for magnetic
256 particles, which display non-uniform magnetic behavior due to computational limits (Valdez-
257 Grijalva et al., 2020), and it is thought that in many natural samples magnetostatic in-
258 teractions are not significant (Muxworthy, 2013).

259 5 Conclusions

260 We have developed a neural network-based FORC inversion model (FORCINN)
261 that accurately predicts the size and aspect ratio distribution of non-interacting mag-
262 netite from their measured FORC distributions. The trained FORCINN model achieves
263 precise predictions on a testing FORC dataset generated from micromagnetic simula-
264 tions of individual magnetite grains (Figures 2 and 3). FORCINN also shows promise
265 in inverting FORC data for their grain-size and aspect ratio distributions of five exper-
266 imental datasets, for which the grain morphology information had been previously de-
267 termined independently using electron microscopic methods (Figure 4).

268 FORCINN provides CNN and ResNet models trained at different noise levels for
269 comparison. For the micromagnetically generated non-interacting magnetite testing set,
270 CNN outperforms ResNet with higher goodness of fit. For natural basalt and marine sed-
271 iment samples, the ResNet model trained on the 20% noise dataset demonstrated the
272 best performance. Therefore, we recommend trying this model first for inverting natu-
273 ral samples.

274 The current training dataset only includes FORC data from single magnetite with
275 sizes ranging from 45 to 400 nm and aspect ratios from 0.166667 to 6, and lacks grains
276 that exhibit triaxial morphological differences. This limits the inversion capability on
277 FORC data of complex natural samples. In the future, it is important to expand the cur-
278 rent dataset to include larger grain-sizes, a broader range of minerals, and potentially
279 magnetostatic interactions.

Open Research

The data and code related to this study have been uploaded to the Zenodo repository (Pei et al., 2024), which includes the codes for building, training, and testing the FORCINN model, dataset processing codes, trained CNN and ResNet models, and the raw data for the testing and training sets.

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