

# Drug-resistant Staphylococcus Aureus Bacteria Detection with the Combination of Surface-enhanced Raman Spectroscopy and Deep Learning Techniques

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## Research Article

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1 **Drug-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteria detection with the combination of**  
2 **surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy and deep learning techniques**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Over the past year, the world's attention has focused on combating COVID-19 disease, but the  
24 other threat waiting at the door - antimicrobial resistance should not be forgotten. Although  
25 making the diagnosis rapidly and accurately is crucial in preventing antibiotic resistance  
26 development, bacterial identification techniques include some challenging processes. To  
27 address this challenge, we proposed a deep neural network (DNN) that can discriminate  
28 antibiotic-resistant bacteria using surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS). Stacked  
29 autoencoder (SAE)-based DNN was used for the rapid identification of methicillin-resistant  
30 *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* (MSSA) bacteria using a  
31 label-free SERS technique. The performance of the DNN was compared with other traditional  
32 classifiers. Since the SERS technique provides high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) data, some  
33 subtle differences were found between MRSA and MSSA in relative band intensities. SAE-  
34 based DNN can learn features from raw data and classify them with an accuracy of 97.66%.  
35 Moreover, the model discriminates bacteria with an area under curve (AUC) of 0.99. Compared  
36 with other traditional classifiers, SAE-based DNN was found superior in accuracy and AUC  
37 values. The obtained results are also supported by statistical analysis. These results demonstrate  
38 that deep learning has great potential to characterize and detect antibiotic-resistant bacteria by  
39 using SERS spectral data. The proposed method is a label-free, easy implemented, and reliable  
40 technique with high sensitivity for clinical use.

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## 47 **Introduction**

48 Antimicrobial resistance is a growing problem globally, and 700,000 people die because of  
49 resistant infections annually. By 2050, it will threaten 10 million lives a year<sup>1</sup>. Inappropriate  
50 prescribing increases unnecessary antibiotic consumption, which triggers antimicrobial  
51 resistance with a short period<sup>2</sup>. Antibiotic resistance can be prevented by prescribing the proper  
52 antibiotics and raising public awareness. As another solution, new antibiotics can be discovered  
53 to compensate for antibiotic resistance. However, the number of discovered and approved  
54 antibiotics has declined between 1980 and 2014<sup>3</sup>. Hence, rapid, and correct diagnosis of  
55 bacterial infections is required to prescribe the right antibiotic, and this is so crucial to curb  
56 antibiotic resistance.

57 Antimicrobial susceptibility test (AST), categorized as phenotypic and genotypic, is  
58 utilized to determine bacteria's antibiotic resistance. Phenotypic AST is reliable; however, it  
59 contains a time-consuming culturing step. On the other hand, genotypic AST provides fast  
60 results since it eliminates the need for culturing. Although it is highly sensitive, the existence  
61 of resistance genes does not mean expressed resistance. Further, genotypic AST requires trained  
62 personnel with advance knowledge<sup>4</sup>. Therefore, alternative diagnostic tools are needed for fast  
63 and reliable detection of antibiotic resistance.

64 Surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS) is a promising biomedical diagnostic  
65 tool and span broad applications in the biomedical field<sup>5-9</sup>. Within the last two decades, it has  
66 been successfully applied to discriminate bacteria as well<sup>10-12</sup>. Therefore, the SERS technique  
67 also has a significant potential to detect bacteria's antibiotic resistance<sup>13,14</sup>. Although SERS  
68 provides unique molecular information, SERS spectra of antibiotic-resistant and susceptible  
69 bacteria show subtle spectral differences. Therefore, the SERS technique requires advanced  
70 data processing algorithms to capture these minor differences. A vast majority of publications

71 have reported that machine learning techniques can be employed to discriminate antibiotic-  
72 resistant and susceptible bacteria by using data obtained from SERS<sup>15-18</sup>.

73 There are three main steps, including preprocessing, feature extraction, and  
74 classification, to determine bacteria from the SERS data by using machine learning techniques.  
75 Therefore, obtaining a classification model is very tedious and time-consuming due to the rigid  
76 interdependency of the steps. Although some traditional machine learning techniques give  
77 reasonable accuracy results to detect the type of bacteria, they have several disadvantages,  
78 including overfitting, underfitting, requiring many user-supplied parameters, needing advanced  
79 nonlinear optimization techniques, etc. Fortunately, these challenges can be overcome using  
80 deep learning models whose achievement originates from large data volumes and sophisticated  
81 computational abilities. Deep learning models can learn significant raw data patterns without  
82 using advanced preprocessing and feature extraction techniques<sup>19</sup>. Thus, these algorithms  
83 seriously reduce the need for feature engineering<sup>20</sup>.

84 In recent years, deep learning algorithms have been applied to analyze spectroscopic  
85 signals<sup>19</sup>. However, the number of studies in spectral analysis with deep learning is limited<sup>21-23</sup>.  
86 A few studies have been reported to discriminate antibiotic-resistant and susceptible bacteria  
87 with deep learning algorithms using Raman spectroscopy and SERS<sup>24,25</sup>. Ho *et al.* have utilized  
88 a convolutional neural network (CNN) to classify 30 common bacterial pathogens data obtained  
89 from Raman spectroscopy<sup>24</sup>. They have also shown that CNN distinguished Methicillin-  
90 resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and methicillin-susceptible *S. aureus* (MSSA)  
91 bacteria with 89±0.1% accuracy using Raman spectral data. Raman spectroscopy has low  
92 signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) due to the low scattering efficiency. This low SNR may be masked  
93 easily by background noise. Since noisy Raman spectra make it difficult to detect subtle  
94 differences between spectra, the performance of the classifier may be decreased. Thrift *et al.*

95 reported that variational autoencoders discriminate *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas*  
96 *aeruginosa* bacteria's metabolite profiles based on their SERS data<sup>25</sup>.

97         Among deep learning algorithms, autoencoders have been increasingly used in medical  
98 applications in recent years<sup>26,27</sup>. An autoencoder trained in an unsupervised manner is a three-  
99 layer feedforward neural network. It consists of an encoder and a decoder<sup>19</sup>. The autoencoder  
100 attempts to learn its own input. Thus, it can automatically learn new features from the unlabeled  
101 data. The learned features obtained from the autoencoder's hidden layer output are sent to  
102 another autoencoder input. This process can be repeated as many times as desired to construct  
103 a stacked autoencoder (SAE). A deep neural network (DNN) is formed by combining obtained  
104 SAE and a softmax classifier<sup>28</sup>.

105         Herein, we use an SAE-based DNN to classify MRSA and MSSA bacteria's SERS  
106 spectra. MRSA has been shown as serious threat according to the 2019 report on antibiotic  
107 resistance threats in the United States<sup>29</sup>. These bacteria are resistant to  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics  
108 including penicillin, cephalosporin, and carbapenem<sup>30</sup>. Undoubtedly, rapid and accurate  
109 detection of antibiotic resistance profiles of *S. aureus* bacteria will both reduce morbidity and  
110 mortality and slow down the development of antibiotic resistance.

111         We hypothesized that the cell wall structure of MRSA and MSSA might show some  
112 differences due to the resistance mechanism. SERS able to reflect these differences at the  
113 collected spectra. The discrimination of subtle spectral differences originates from the cell wall  
114 structure of MRSA and MSSA is a challenging problem. This study addresses this challenge  
115 by using a SAE-based DNN to discriminate between antibiotic-resistant and susceptible  
116 bacteria.

117         Fig. 1 illustrates the general workflow of this study. We first collected SERS spectra of  
118 MRSA and MSSA using silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) as SERS substrate. The raw spectral  
119 dataset of antibiotic-resistant and susceptible *S. aureus* bacteria was classified using SAE-based

120 DNN. Further, some traditional machine learning algorithms such as support vector machine  
121 (SVM), linear discriminant analysis (LDA), k-nearest neighbors (KNN), decision tree (DT),  
122 and a neural network (NN) were used to compare the performances of the DNN and traditional  
123 classifiers. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report for discrimination of MRSA and  
124 MSSA SERS data by using SAE-based DNN. This work shows that SERS together SAE-based  
125 DNN can successfully discriminate MRSA and MSSA bacteria.

## 126 **Materials and methods**

127 **AgNPs synthesis.** AgNPs were synthesized according to the method reported by Lee and  
128 Meisel<sup>31</sup>. Briefly, 90 mg silver nitrate (AgNO<sub>3</sub>, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) was dissolved in  
129 500 mL distilled water. This solution was heated until boiling. Then, 10 mL aliquot of 1%  
130 sodium citrate (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) was added drop by drop into the solution. The  
131 solution was kept boiling for about 1 hour. Synthesized AgNPs were centrifuged at 5500 rpm  
132 for 1 hour and discard a portion of the supernatant to form 4x concentrated AgNPs. To  
133 characterize AgNPs, the absorption spectrum was measured in the range of 300-700 nm using  
134 Thermo Scientific Evolution 201 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Waltham, USA). The  
135 morphology of the nanoparticles was determined using Scanning Transmission Electron  
136 Microscope (STEM) imaging (Zeiss GeminiSEM) that is performed with an acceleration  
137 voltage of 25 kV.

138 **Bacterial sample preparation.** *Staphylococcus aureus* strains (MRSA and MSSA) were used  
139 in this study. 19 MRSA and 1 MSSA bacteria were obtained from our microorganism collection  
140 (Gaziantep University, Biology Department) with the ethical permission of Gaziantep  
141 University clinical research ethics committee (09.06.2014/195). In addition, *S. aureus* type  
142 strains ATCC 6538 and ATCC 25923 were purchased from The American Type Culture  
143 Collection. The antibiotic resistance of MRSA and MSSA was confirmed the presence or  
144 absence of *mec A* gene using the Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) technique. Furthermore,

145 the disc diffusion method was also used for the antibiotic resistance confirmation and details  
146 can be found in our previous study<sup>15</sup>. According to PCR and disc diffusion method results  
147 methicillin resistance was found in all MRSA bacteria.

148 The bacteria were grown at 37 °C on Mueller Hinton agar (Merck, Darmstadt,  
149 Germany). The samples were gathered with sterile inoculating loops after the 24 hours  
150 cultivation. The collected bacteria were added into 1mL ultrapure water, quickly vortexed, and  
151 centrifuged for 5 min at 7500 rpm. The supernatant was discarded, and this procedure was  
152 repeated 3 times. A 5 µL aliquot of each washed bacterial sample was added into 100 µL 4x  
153 concentrated AgNPs colloidal suspension. Then, samples were shortly vortexed to form  
154 homogenous mixtures. A 5 µL of each mixture was immediately dropped on CaF<sub>2</sub> slide and  
155 dried at room temperature for SERS measurements.

156 **SERS measurements.** SERS measurements were performed using Renishaw inVia Reflex  
157 Raman Microscopy System (Renishaw plc., Wotton -under-Edge, UK) using 50x (0.75 NA)  
158 microscope objective with 1s exposure from 785 nm excitation under the ~3 mW laser power.  
159 The laser spot size was calculated as 1.3 µm ( $1.22 \times \lambda / NA$ ). The spectra were collected with a  
160 5 µm step size to prevent overlapping. Two datasets were acquired on different days and a total  
161 of 1500-1550 spectra were collected from each isolate. Hence, the total dataset consisted of  
162 33,975 spectra. 1200 lines/mm<sup>-1</sup> grating was used providing a spectral range from 550 to 1700  
163 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

164 **Outlier detection.** To detect outliers, the isolation forest algorithm proposed by Liu et al. was  
165 utilized<sup>32</sup>. This algorithm was applied in R programming language v.3.6.343<sup>33</sup> using  
166 `isolationForest()` function in the `solitude` package<sup>34</sup>. In this technique, a score value was found  
167 for every spectrum. The score values close to 1 indicate that those points are definitely  
168 anomalies, while less than 0.5 indicates that they are not anomalies. Further, if all the score  
169 values are around 0.5 indicates that the whole data do not have any anomaly<sup>32</sup>. In this study,

170 spectra with score values greater than 0.7 were accepted anomaly and discarded from the  
 171 dataset.

172 **SAE-based DNN.** SAE-based DNN presented here consists of the encoder layers of  
 173 autoencoders and a softmax classifier.

174 A single autoencoder consists of encoder and decoder parts. The encoder part takes the  
 175 input vector  $x$  ( $x \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times 1}$ ) and maps this vector into hidden representation  $c$  known as code<sup>35</sup>.  
 176 This process is as follows:

$$c_i = f(b_{i1} + W_{i1}x) \quad (1)$$

177  
 178 where  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times 1}$  is the code,  $f$  is the encoding function,  $b_{i1} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times 1}$  is the bias vector, and  $W_{i1} \in$   
 179  $\mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$  is the weight matrix of the encoder. Encoder part of an autoencoder is trained using  
 180 unsupervised fashion to dig significant feature information.

181 The decoder part reconstructs the input vector as  $\hat{x}$ . Thus, an autoencoder tries to  
 182 generate its input at the output layer by minimizing the error as much as possible between input  
 183  $x$  and output  $\hat{x}$ . Decoding of  $c_i$  is expressed as follows:

$$\hat{x} = g(b_{i2} + W_{i2}c_i) \quad (2)$$

184  
 185 where  $g$  is the encoding function,  $b_{i2} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 1}$  is the bias vector, and  $W_{i2} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}$  is the weight  
 186 matrix of the decoder.

187 The objective function minimizing the error between the input and output is expressed:

$$J(W_i, b_i, x_i) = \frac{1}{2} \|h_{W_i, b_i}(x_i) - x_i\|^2 \quad (3)$$

188  
 189 Two regularization term are added to equation (3) as seen in equation (4).  $\lambda$  is a  
 190 regularization term and used to prevent overfitting.  $\beta$  is the weight of the sparsity penalty term

191 and used to allow the autoencoder discovering hidden features related to raw data. The term  $\rho$   
 192 is the constant sparsity parameter and  $\hat{\rho}_j$  is the mean activation value of the  $j^{th}$  neuron in the  
 193 hidden layer.

$$J = \frac{1}{2} \|h_{W_i, b_i}(x_i) - x_i\|^2 + \lambda (\|W_i\|_2^2) + \beta \sum_{j=1}^M KL(\rho \|\hat{\rho}_j) \quad (4)$$

194

195  $KL(\rho \|\hat{\rho}_j)$  term expresses the Kullback-Leibler divergence:

196

$$KL(\rho \|\hat{\rho}_j) = \rho \log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_j} + (1 - \hat{\rho}_j) \log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}_j} \quad (5)$$

197

198 The number of neurons at the hidden layer is generally chosen lower than the input layer  
 199 size. Therefore, the autoencoder is forced to extract new features with an unsupervised  
 200 approach.

201 Softmax classifier, which generalizes logistic regression, is the supervised layer of the  
 202 deep learning model<sup>35</sup>. It is based on the softmax function and used to classify the learned  
 203 features by the autoencoder. The softmax classifier's cost function attempts to decrease the  
 204 difference between the actual label value and model output by tuning the model parameters.

205 To form a SAE-based DNN, desired number of the encoder part of the trained  
 206 autoencoders and softmax classifier are joined together. The performance of the SAE-based  
 207 DNN can be increased by performing backpropagation on the model. This procedure is known  
 208 as fine tuning and significantly improved the results of the SAE. Fig. 2 shows frameworks of  
 209 the SAE-based DNN used in this study. The training procedure of the DNN is as follows:

210 **i.** The first autoencoder is trained by feeding a 1024-dimensional input vector to a hidden layer  
 211 with 30 neurons as illustrated in Fig. 2a.

212 **ii.** The second autoencoder is trained to feed the first autoencoder's hidden layer to the second  
213 autoencoder's hidden layer with 15 neurons as depicted in Fig. 2b.

214 **iii.** The encoder parts of the trained autoencoders and softmax layer are consecutively connected  
215 to construct a SAE based deep learning model as seen in Fig. 2c.

216 **iv.** Finally, to achieve fine-tuning the backpropagation algorithm is performed and weights are  
217 updated with labeled training data.

218 The hyperparameter selection was done by random search. The specific parameters used  
219 to construct SAE-based DNN are given in Supplemental Table S1. 10-fold cross validation was  
220 performed to prevent overfitting. SAE based deep learning model was constructed with  
221 MATLAB software (The MathWorks, Natick, USA).

222 To compare the performance of SAE-based DNN with the state-of-the-art classifiers  
223 SVM, LDA, KNN, DT, and NN were used. These classifiers were performed using MATLAB  
224 software. The whole data were standardized before applying to SAE-based DNN and traditional  
225 classifiers.

226 **Statistical analysis.** The Mann Whitney U test was utilized for statistical analysis. This  
227 analysis was performed using MATLAB software and >95% confidence level was selected (P  
228 < 0.05 means there is a significant difference between the groups).

## 229 **Results and discussion**

230 **SERS spectra of MRSA and MSSA.** The citrate reduced AgNPs were used due to their high  
231 SERS activity and providing reproducible spectra. The UV-Vis spectrum and STEM image of  
232 the synthesized AgNPs are showed in Supplemental Fig. S1. The maximum absorption of  
233 AgNPs was found at 420 nm and they were mostly spherical in the range of 50–60 nm as seen  
234 in the inserted image in Supplemental Fig. S1.

235 To collect a large dataset 33,975 spectra were acquired from 19 MRSA and 3 MSSA  
236 bacterial isolates for 2 measurement times. The isolation forest algorithm was used to determine  
237 whether there is an outlier in the data. The results of this algorithm are shown in Fig. 3a. The  
238 score values that show whether the spectrum is outlier or not are in the range of [0.572 0.875].  
239 The mean  $\pm$  standard deviation of them was found to be  $0.574 \pm 0.009$ . Further, the 95th  
240 percentile of the score values was found as 0.577 in other words 95% of the score values are  
241 lower than 0.577. A vast amount of score values are distributed around 0.5 as seen in Fig. 3a  
242 indicates that these spectra do not really anomaly. Only 24 score values were determined greater  
243 than 0.7 and the spectra to which these values belong were accepted as anomalies and removed  
244 from the dataset.

245 SERS spectra are acquired by illuminating the whole bacterium which interacts with the  
246 colloidal AgNPs. Thus, the collected spectra are generated by the outermost of the bacterial cell  
247 wall because of the distance dependence of SERS enhancement<sup>36,37</sup>. Since the SERS spectra  
248 collected from bacteria reflect composition of the cell wall in close proximity with the SERS  
249 substrate. Peptidoglycan layer, teichoic acids, surface proteins, capsular polysaccharides, and  
250 phospholipids are the primary components of the bacterial cell wall<sup>38</sup>. The peptidoglycan layer  
251 in the bacterial cell wall is a protective envelope found on the outside of the cytoplasmic  
252 membrane where composes of glycan strands crosslinked with short peptides<sup>39</sup>. *Staphylococcus*  
253 *aureus* which is a gram-positive bacterium has a thick peptidoglycan layer at the outermost of  
254 the cell wall. Peptidoglycan biosynthesis is an excellent target for most of the antibiotics  
255 including  $\beta$ -lactams<sup>38</sup>. Correspondingly, some structural differences are anticipated between  
256 MRSA which is resistant to  $\beta$ -lactams and MSSA cell wall that SERS could reveal these  
257 differences.

258 The normalized mean SERS spectra  $\pm$  standard deviation of MRSA and MSSA are  
259 depicted in Fig. 3b in the range of 550 - 1700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . The shade area shows the variations of

260 measured spectral intensities. SERS spectra of MRSA and MSSA bacteria depict a lot of similar  
261 peak positions except for some differences in relative band intensities. The primary SERS  
262 spectra of MRSA and MSSA are characterized by strong bands at 658  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $\text{COO}^-$  deformation  
263 of guanine)<sup>40</sup>, 732  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (flavin adenine dinucleotide derivatives, glycosidic ring mode of the N-  
264 acetyl D-glucosamine and N-acetylmuramic)<sup>41-43</sup>, 958  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (CN deformation of saturated  
265 lipids)<sup>44</sup>, 1333  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (C-N stretching mode of Adenine)<sup>45</sup>, 1450  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  ( $\text{CH}_2$  deformation of  
266 saturated lipids)<sup>46</sup>, and 1576  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (CN stretching of amide II)<sup>47</sup>. It is clearly illustrated in Fig.  
267 3b that the spectral profile of MRSA and MSSA bacteria is quite similar. However, notable  
268 difference between MRSA and MSSA is the intensity of 732  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  peak position. Interestingly,  
269 this sharp peak is drastically increased in MRSA. The source of this band is explicitly assigned  
270 by some groups to flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) derivatives and glycosidic ring mode of  
271 the N-acetyl D-glucosamine (NAG) and N-acetylmuramic (NAM) which are building blocks  
272 of the peptidoglycan layer<sup>41-43</sup>. Kahraman et al. reported that both band assignments are correct,  
273 and it is possible for bands originating from both NAG and FAD to overlap<sup>48</sup>.

274         The prominent increase in the 732  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  band in MRSA may indicate differentiation in  
275 the peptidoglycan layer of MRSA. Since  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics work by targeting Penicillin  
276 Binding Proteins (PBPs) in the peptidoglycan layer. It is possible to observe some differences  
277 for peak intensities or positions originating peptidoglycan layer. Genotypic changes that cause  
278 antibiotic resistance are usually represented in the induced phenotype that inhibits the action of  
279 an antibiotic. Garcia et al. measured the cell wall and septum thickness of MRSA and MSSA<sup>49</sup>.  
280 They reported that the cell wall and septum thickness of MRSA and MSSA have found  
281 statistically different. Besides, they correlated the cell wall thickness of MRSA with the  
282 resistance mechanism. There are also some minor differences the intensity of 658, 958, and  
283 1333  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  peaks. These peaks are more intense for MRSA than MSSA. The changes between  
284 MRSA and MSSA SERS spectra indicate that there is a variation in the amount of some

285 biomolecules in the cell wall. Thus, SERS has the potential to reveal the variations between  
286 MRSA and MSSA.

287 **SAE-based DNN and traditional classifiers for the classification of MRSA and MSSA**  
288 **SERS spectra.** The spectral features of MRSA and MSSA are highly similar as clearly seen  
289 in Figure 4b. There are only some subtle differences in the relative intensities of the SERS  
290 peaks of MRSA and MSSA. This situation necessitates using of a robust algorithm for data  
291 analysis. To correctly classify SERS spectral data of MRSA and MSSA bacteria, an SAE-based  
292 DNN was utilized.

293 The total dataset consists of 33,951 SERS spectra of MRSA and MSSA. The 29,452 of  
294 them belong to 19 MRSA isolates and the remaining belongs to 3 MSSA isolates. The entire  
295 data were used without preprocessing and feature extraction steps. In spectral data analysis,  
296 preprocessing and feature extraction are two important steps that show a major impact on the  
297 classifier performance. However, misuse of these methods can seriously distort the original data  
298 and adversely affect classifier performance<sup>50</sup>.

299 In this study, preprocessing steps such as noise elimination were not required since  
300 SERS can provide high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) data. Moreover, feature extraction which is  
301 a challenging process was not used due to the ability of SAE-based DNN about revealing  
302 critical features from the raw data. This deep learning model can extract relevant features thanks  
303 to the multiple autoencoders. Thus, the dimension of the input data passing through the hidden  
304 layers of each autoencoder is significantly reduced. The raw input data were just standardized  
305 before applying SAE-based DNN and traditional classifiers. The whole raw data were shuffled  
306 randomly before implementing into classifiers. 10-fold cross validation technique was used to  
307 measure the performance of the model and this procedure was repeated for 30 runs for each  
308 classifier. The mean accuracies of SAE-based DNN and traditional classifiers for 30 runs are  
309 depicted in Fig. 4a. It is clearly seen that SAE based deep learning model shows better

310 classification performance than traditional classifiers. This model provides the best mean  
311 accuracy with  $97.66 \pm 0.26\%$ , among others. Traditional classifiers have close classification  
312 performance and SVM gives slightly better result with  $95.87 \pm 0.01\%$ , among them. The mean,  
313 maximum, minimum, and standard deviation of each classifier accuracies acquired from 30  
314 runs are given in Table 1.

315 A classifier performance can be measured different metrics and accuracy is one of them.  
316 However, accuracy is not enough to measure the performance of a classifier. Especially in data  
317 sets where the amount of data in classes is unbalanced, measuring the classifier performance  
318 with the only accuracy parameter does not give reliable results. The receiver operating  
319 characteristic (ROC) curve shows a classifier performance for all classification threshold  
320 values. This curve is plotted with the true positive rate (y axis) against the false positive rate (x  
321 axis). The area under a ROC curve abbreviated as AUC is frequently used to measure  
322 classification performance and one of the most important classifier performance evaluation  
323 techniques. The value of AUC is in the range of [0 -1] and when the AUC value is getting closer  
324 to 1 classification error decreases. Fig. 4b illustrates the AUC values of SAE-based DNN and  
325 traditional classifiers for 30 runs. As seen in Fig. 4b, SAE based deep neural network has the  
326 best AUC values through 30 runs. The mean AUC value of it was found  $0.993 \pm 0.002$  which  
327 means the deep learning model can distinguish MRSA and MSSA with a high performance as  
328 depicted in Fig. 5a. KNN gives the worst AUC values for each run while LDA, SVM, NN, and  
329 DT have the better results between traditional classifiers. In addition, the mean, maximum,  
330 minimum, and standard deviation of each classifier AUC values obtained from 30 runs are  
331 provided in Table 2. The confusion matrix of SAE-based DNN is demonstrated in Fig. 5b. The  
332 accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, and precision of the deep learning model were calculated as  
333 97.7%, 99.2%, 87.6%, and 98.2%, respectively. Misdiagnosing MRSA as MSSA causes more

334 serious results than the reverse situation. Only 236 SERS spectra of MRSA were misdiagnosed  
335 as MSSA as seen in Fig. 5b.

336 The above results show that SAE-based DNN has better classification performance than  
337 traditional classifiers. However, these findings should be supported with statistical analysis.  
338 Statistical analysis was used to compare the AUC values obtained from SAE-based DNN  
339 against state-of-the-art classification techniques such as SVM, NN, DT, LDA, and KNN for 30  
340 runs. The Mann Whitney U test with significance level of 0.05 was used for this purpose and  
341 results are presented in Table 3. The statistical results were interpreted according to the *p*-  
342 values. The lower *p*-values mean that there is a large difference between the classifiers. It is  
343 clearly seen that SAE-based DNN is found better than traditional classifiers in terms of the  
344 statistical analysis results for the discrimination of MRSA and MSSA spectral data.

345 The SAE-based DNN more accurately classified SERS spectral data of MRSA and  
346 MSSA bacteria. Our model, applied here for rapid and reliable identification of antibiotic-  
347 resistant and susceptible bacteria requires minimum sample preparation procedure, does not  
348 require special labels, and eliminates long incubation times required for phenotypic AST.  
349 Although raw data were used in our study, high classification accuracy and AUC were found  
350 thanks to the SERS technique with high SNR using SAE-based DNN which successfully  
351 extracts features from the data. Our group previously has applied traditional classifiers such as  
352 KNN, SVM, DT and naïve Bayes (NB) for the discrimination of MRSA, MSSA, and *Legionella*  
353 *pneumophila* bacteria<sup>15</sup>. KNN classifier has provided best accuracy with 97.8% among other  
354 techniques. However, as the size of the data set grows, the success of traditional classifiers falls  
355 behind the deep learning algorithms. Therefore, SAE-based DNN can provide more successful  
356 results for SERS spectral data of antibiotic-resistant bacteria with high accuracy and sensitivity.

357 In this study, SERS spectral data of MRSA and MSSA bacteria have been successfully  
358 characterized and identified by SAE-based DNN. The results show that the proposed technique

359 has a potential application for the detection of antibiotic-resistant bacteria in clinical utilization.  
360 Compared with the phenotypic or genotypic AST techniques frequently used, proposed method  
361 has advantageous in terms of easy use and fast detection.

## 362 **Conclusions**

363 Rapid bacterial diagnosis is essential to combat antibiotic resistance. Label-free SERS provides  
364 fingerprint spectrum of the sample with high SNR. Therefore, it is an attractive technique for  
365 bacterial identification studies. However, interpreting of SERS spectra is a difficult process due  
366 to the high molecular similarities of bacterial species. Detection of spectral differences between  
367 antibiotic-resistant and susceptible bacteria becomes even more difficult. Advanced data  
368 analysis techniques are indispensable at this step. Deep learning algorithms perform  
369 outstanding success by using SERS data for discrimination of antibiotic-resistant bacteria.

370 Here we illustrate that SAE-based DNN can be used for the SERS-based label-free  
371 identification of antibiotic-resistant and susceptible strains of *S. aureus* bacteria. SERS  
372 technique providing high SNR reveals the subtle spectral differences between MRSA and  
373 MSSA. SAE-based DNN automatically extracts features needed for classification from the raw  
374 spectral data. Therefore, complex preprocessing and feature extraction steps are eliminated.  
375 Compared with the traditional classifiers, SAE-based DNN shows a more accurate diagnostic  
376 model with an accuracy and AUC of 97.66%, 0.99, respectively. The proposed method provides  
377 label free, rapid, and reliable technique with a high sensitivity.

378 In conclusion, the proposed method has a great potential for clinical use considering that  
379 rapid diagnostic methods have a great effect on combating antibiotic resistance. Further, this  
380 technique has a high application potential not only in the detection of antibiotic-resistant  
381 bacteria, but also for a lot of label-free SERS applications in the biomedical field.

382

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512 Turkey (Project Number: 120F097).

## 513 **Author Contributions**

514 F.U.C. and A.C. conceptualized and trained the algorithms and analyzed classification results.  
515 F.U.C. wrote the main manuscript text and prepared all figures. F.U.C., A.M.S., and I.H.K.  
516 prepared sample cultures. F.U.C. and A.M.S. collected the dataset. M.T., M.K., and O.A.  
517 designed the study protocol and supervised the project. All authors contributed to the editing of  
518 the manuscript.

## 519 **Competing interests**

520 The authors declare no competing interests.

521 **Data availability**

522 The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the  
523 corresponding author on reasonable request.

524 **Additional information**

525 Supplementary information is available for this paper.

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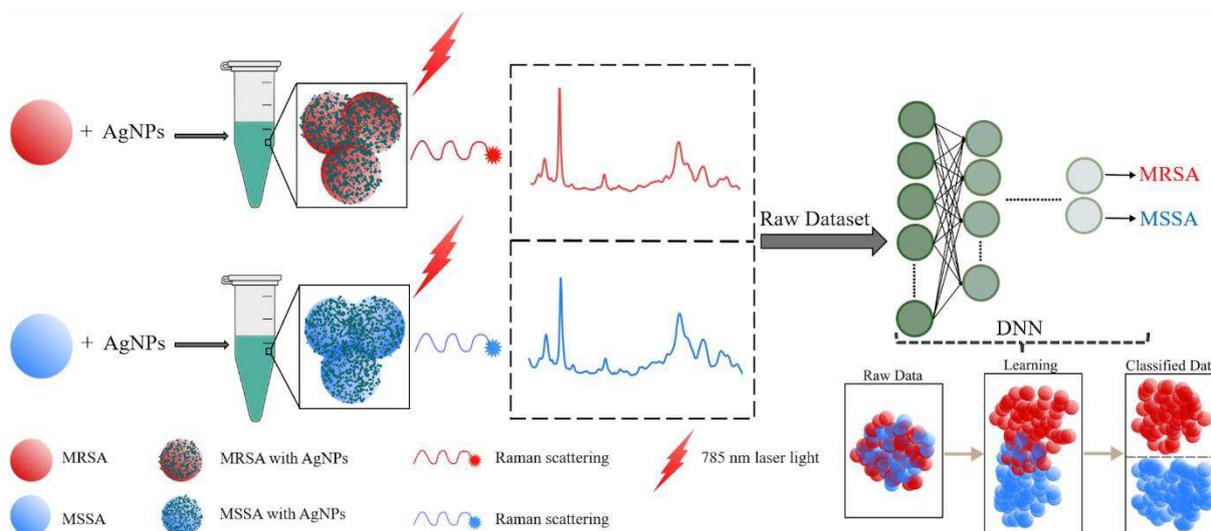
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550 **List of figures**

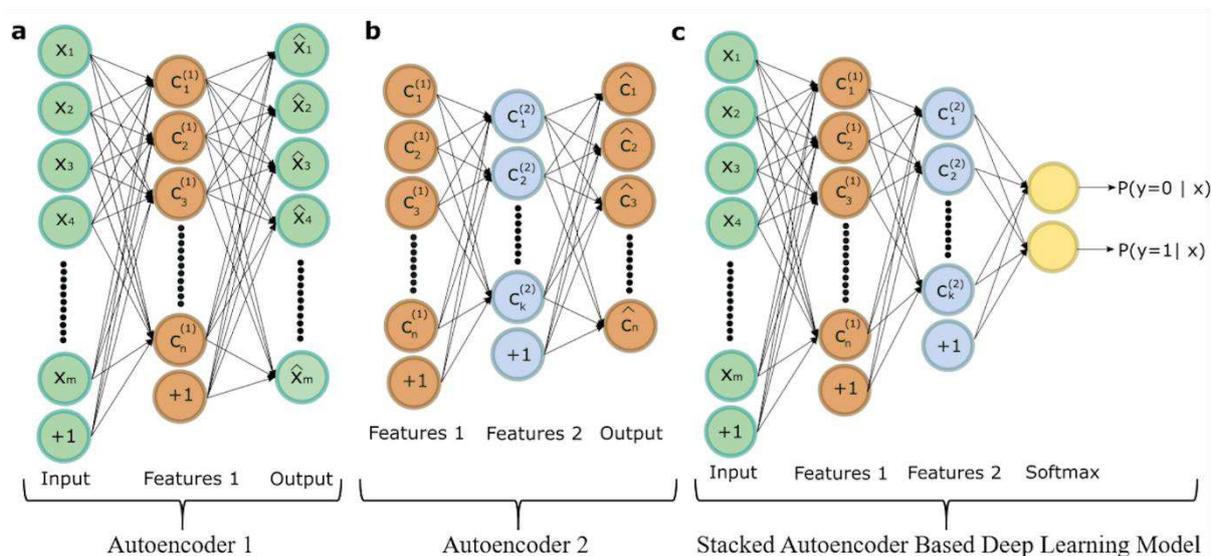


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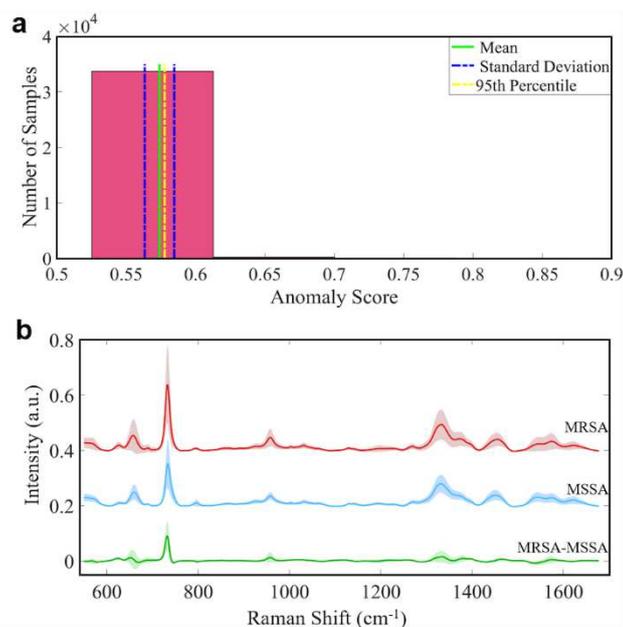
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 554 of antibiotic-resistant bacteria.

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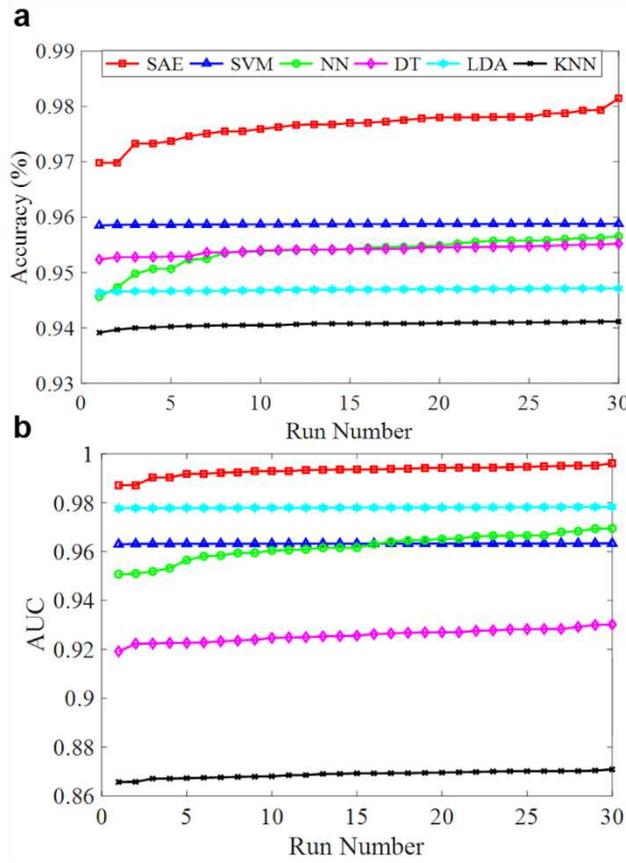
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 560 autoencoders and softmax classifier.



561

562 **Figure 3.** (a) Histogram plot of the anomaly score values obtained by the isolation forest  
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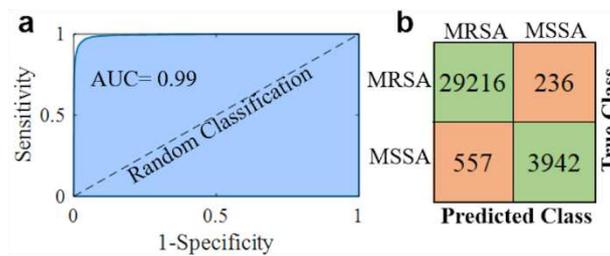
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567 **Figure 4.** Performance comparisons of SAE-based DNN and traditional classifiers. (a)  
 568 Accuracies of classifiers for 30 runs. (b) AUC values obtained from ROC curve of classifiers  
 569 for 30 runs.

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571

572 **Figure 5.** Binary classification results of MRSA and MSSA by the SAE based deep learning  
 573 model. (a) The ROC curve with an AUC of 0.99. (b) Confusion matrix showing the results of  
 574 10-fold cross validated bacterial identification.

575

576 **List of tables**

577 **Table 1.** Mean accuracies of the classifiers with maximum, minimum and standard deviation  
 578 for 30 runs

<b>Method</b>	<b>Mean (%)</b>	<b>Maximum (%)</b>	<b>Minimum (%)</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
<b>SAE</b>	<b>97.66</b>	<b>98.14</b>	<b>96.98</b>	0.26
<b>SVM</b>	95.87	95.88	95.85	0.01
<b>NN</b>	95.38	95.66	94.56	0.26
<b>DT</b>	95.41	95.52	95.23	0.08
<b>LDA</b>	94.69	94.71	94.64	0.02
<b>KNN</b>	94.06	94.12	93.91	0.05

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580

581 **Table 2.** Mean AUC values of the classifiers with maximum, minimum and standard deviation  
 582 for 30 runs

<b>Method</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
<b>SAE</b>	<b>0.9931</b>	<b>0.9961</b>	<b>0.9872</b>	0.0020
<b>SVM</b>	0.9632	0.9634	0.9630	0.0001
<b>NN</b>	0.962	0.9695	0.9507	0.0054
<b>DT</b>	0.9257	0.9302	0.9192	0.0026
<b>LDA</b>	0.9780	0.9783	0.9777	0.0002
<b>KNN</b>	0.8688	0.8709	0.8657	0.0014

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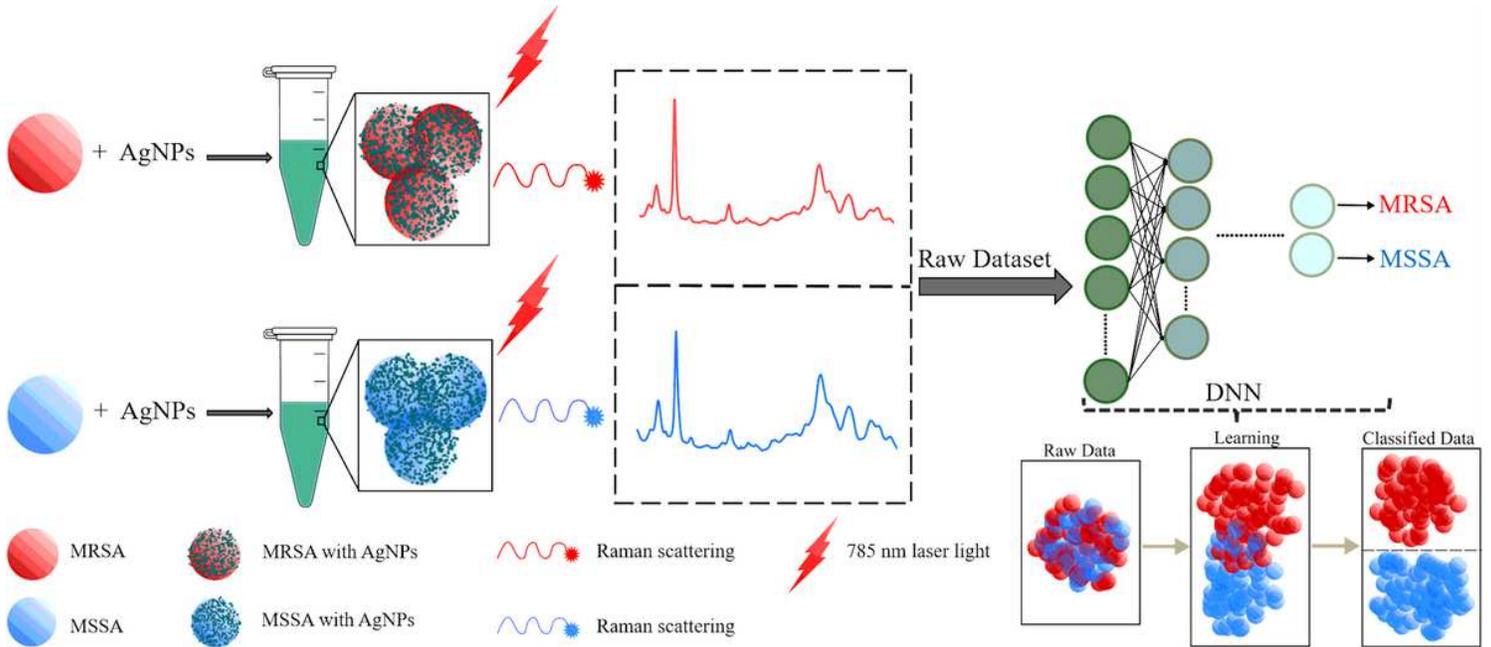
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588 **Table 3.** Statistical analysis results for comparing the SAE-based deep learning model against  
589 state-of-the-art machine learning techniques.

<b>Comparison</b>	<b>Z</b>	<b><i>p-value</i></b>	<b>Sig. (p&lt;0.05)</b>
<b>SAE vs. SVM</b>	6.6463	0.000	SAE
<b>SAE vs. NN</b>	6.6463	0.000	SAE
<b>SAE vs. DT</b>	6.6463	0.000	SAE
<b>SAE vs. LDA</b>	6.6463	0.000	SAE
<b>SAE vs. KNN</b>	6.6464	0.000	SAE

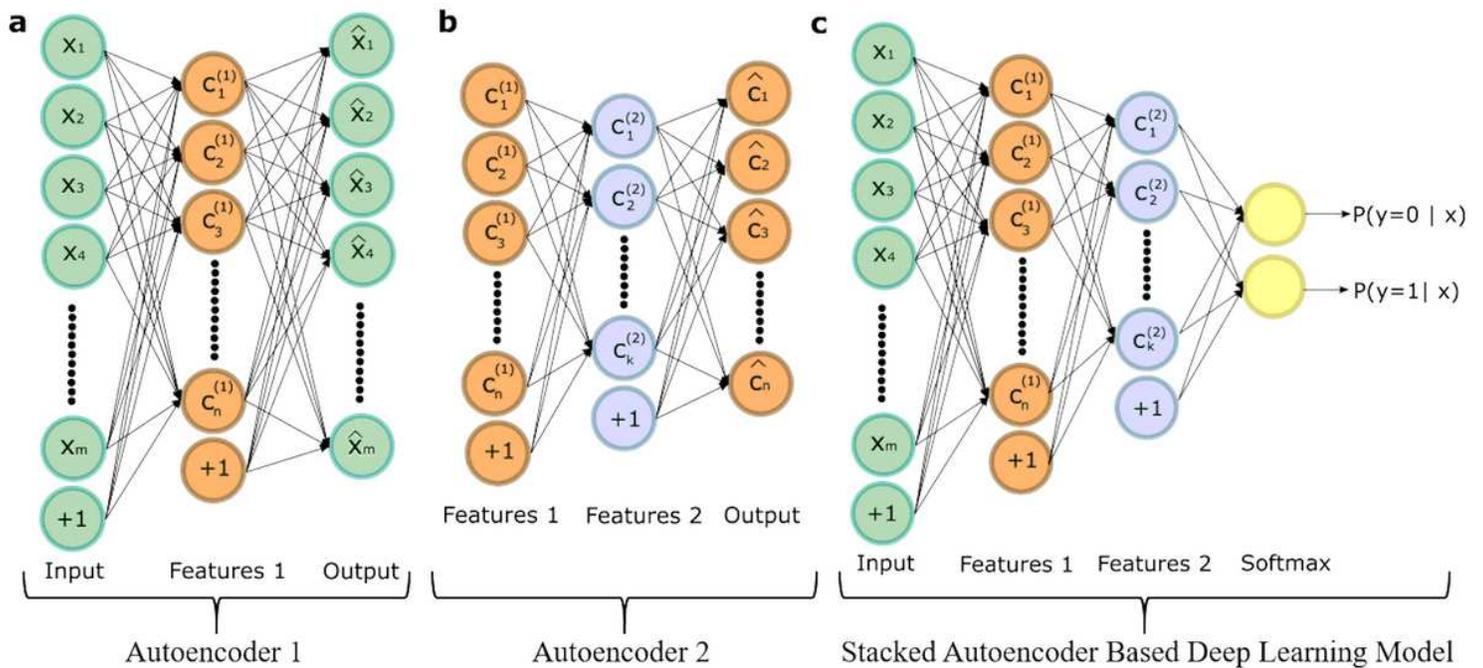
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# Figures



**Figure 1**

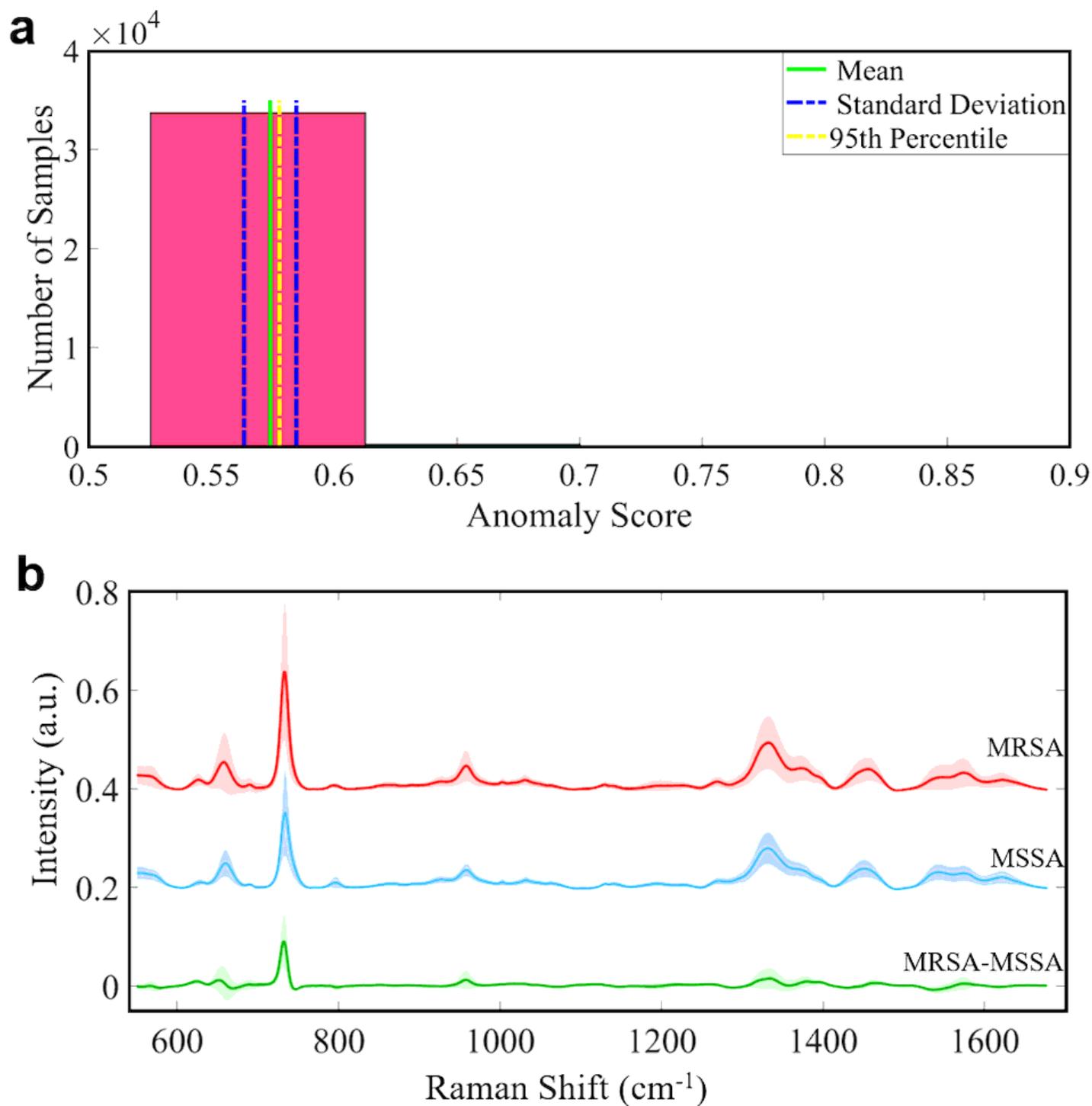
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**Figure 2**

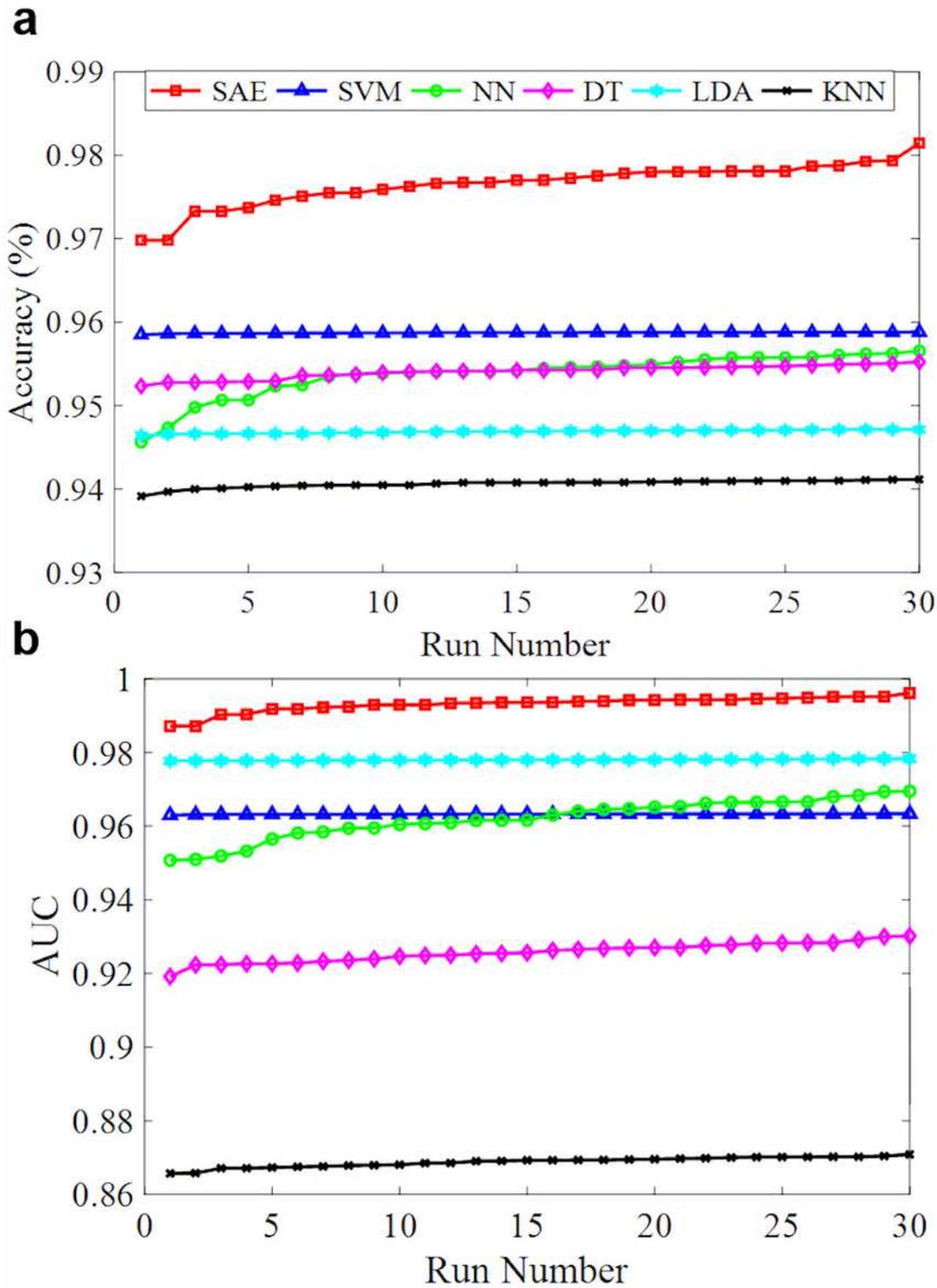
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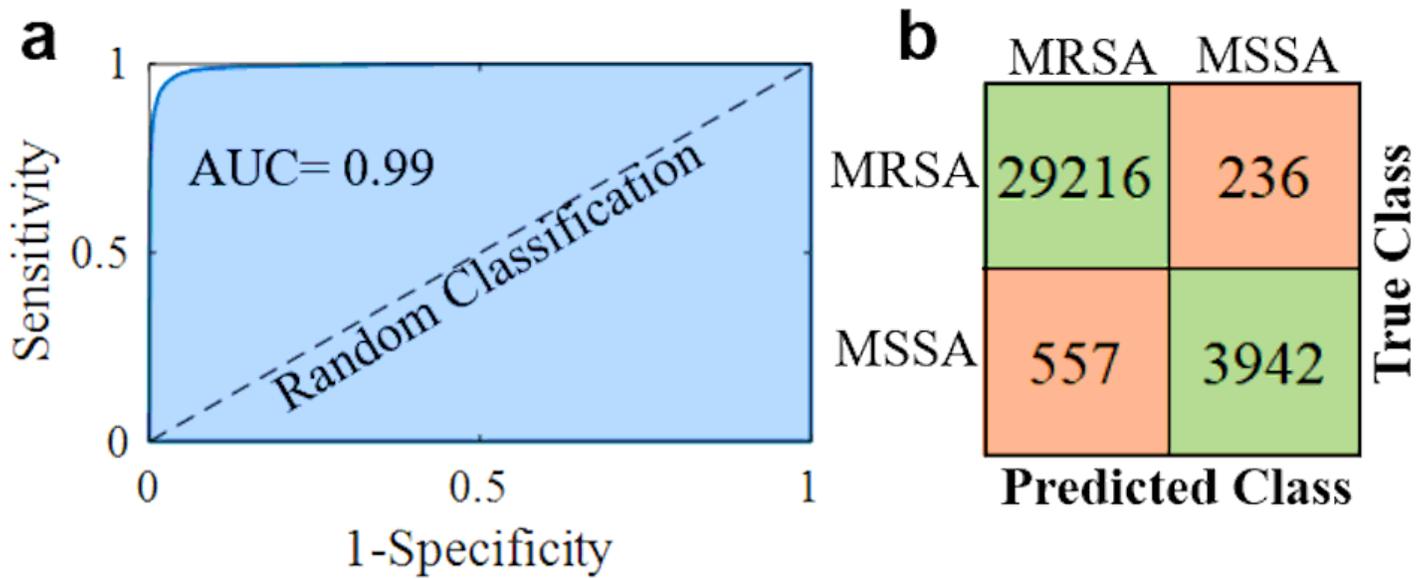
**Figure 3**

(a) Histogram plot of the anomaly score values obtained by the isolation forest algorithm. (b) Normalized average SERS spectra  $\pm$  standard deviation of MRSA, MSSA and the difference of MRSA-MSSA.



**Figure 4**

Performance comparisons of SAE-based DNN and traditional classifiers. (a) Accuracies of classifiers for 30 runs. (b) AUC values obtained from ROC curve of classifiers for 30 runs.



**Figure 5**

Binary classification results of MRSA and MSSA by the SAE based deep learning model. (a) The ROC curve with an AUC of 0.99. (b) Confusion matrix showing the results of 10-fold cross validated bacterial identification.

## Supplementary Files

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