

Multimodal Image and Spectral Feature Learning for Efficient Analysis of Water-Suspended Particles

TOMOKO TAKAHASHI,^{1,2,3,*} ZONGHUA LIU,^{2,4} THANGAVEL THEVAR,⁵ NICHOLAS BURNS,⁵ DHUGAL LINDSAY,⁶ JOHN WATSON,⁵ SUMEET MAHAJAN,³ SATORU YUKIOKA,⁷ SHUHEI TANAKA,⁷ YUKIKO NAGAI,⁶ AND BLAIR THORNTON^{2,8}

¹Research Institute for Global Change (RIGC), Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, 2-15 Natsushima-cho, Yokosuka, Kanagawa, 2370061, Japan

²Institute of Industrial Science, The University of Tokyo, 4-6-1, Komaba, Meguro, Tokyo, 1538505, Japan

³Department of Chemistry and the Institute for Life Sciences, University of Southampton, Southampton SO17 1BJ, UK

⁴Ocean BioGeosciences group, National Oceanography Centre, European Way, Southampton SO14 3ZH, UK

⁵School of Engineering, University of Aberdeen, AB24 3UE, Scotland

⁶Institute for Extra-cutting-edge Science and Technology Avant-garde Research (X-star), Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, 2-15 Natsushima-cho, Yokosuka, Kanagawa, 2370061, Japan

⁷Graduate School of Global Environmental Studies, Kyoto University, Yoshida, Sakyo-Ku, Kyoto, 6068501, Japan

⁸Centre for In situ and Remote Intelligent Sensing, Faculty of Engineering and Physical Science, University of Southampton, Burgess Road, Southampton SO16 7QF, UK

*takahas@jamstec.go.jp

Abstract: We have developed a method to combine morphological and chemical information for the accurate identification of different particle types using optical measurement techniques that require no sample preparation. A combined holographic imaging and Raman spectroscopy setup is used to gather data from six different types of marine particles suspended in a large volume of seawater. Unsupervised feature learning is performed on the images and the spectral data using convolutional and single layer autoencoders. The learned features are combined, where we demonstrate that non-linear dimensional reduction of the combined multimodal features can achieve a high clustering macro F1 score of 0.88, compared to a maximum of 0.61 when only image or spectral features are used. The method can be applied to long-term monitoring of particles in the ocean without the need for sample collection. In addition, it can be applied to data from different types of sensor measurements without significant modifications.

© 2022 Optica Publishing Group under the terms of the [Optica Publishing Group Publishing Agreement](#)

1. Introduction

In situ analysis of liquid-suspended particles has applications in environmental monitoring, healthcare and water quality control [1–3]. Particularly, monitoring of suspended particulate matters in the ocean requires the relative abundance of different particle types to be understood [4, 5]. Often these particles have sparse distributions (10 to several hundred particles/L) [6]. Non-destructive methods such as digital holography can image suspended particles in large volumes (~12 mL/s) of water with a high spatial resolution (~20 μm) without the need for any sample preparation [7–10]. Digital holographic cameras have been extensively used in marine monitoring to obtain information about particle size and shape [11–13], using machine learning techniques [14–16] to automatically identify different particle types. However, for particles like microplastics, morphological information alone is not sufficient to distinguish the different

46 materials [17]. Knowledge of their chemical composition is important to understand the origin,
47 route and consequences of environmental pollution [18]. Recently, the authors demonstrated
48 holographic imaging and Raman spectroscopy for non-destructive analysis of water-suspended
49 microplastic particle composition [19]. While the Raman spectroscopic analyzers previously
50 used for *in situ* surveys observed back scattered lights from a target [20, 21], our setup observes
51 forward scattered light and shows that both holographic imaging and Raman spectroscopic signals
52 can be obtained from water-suspended particles using a single, compact optical setup. While the
53 optical setup to perform combined imaging and spectroscopic measurements of particles has
54 been demonstrated, it is also necessary to develop analytical methods that can efficiently process
55 multimodal data in order to take full advantage of such a setup. For multimodal data fusion
56 analysis, the audio-visual emotion challenge to develop machine learning methods for automatic
57 audio, visual and audiovisual emotion analysis is a well-known topic [22]. Similar to how human
58 beings naturally process multimodal information [23], a number of publications have reported
59 improvement of the recognition accuracy of emotions by multimodal fusion analysis of speech
60 data (*e.g.* vocal effect) and visual data (*e.g.* face expression) from unimodal analysis [24–26].
61 In addition, novel multimodal deep-learning based methods have been demonstrated to further
62 increase the accuracy [27, 28]. Data fusion applications have been expanded to a wide range
63 of multi-sensory data analysis [29], such as biomedical diagnostics [30, 31], pharmacy [32, 33],
64 automatic robot navigation [34], and remote sensing [35]. However, the previous methods have
65 not been applied for the identification of marine particle types/materials due to the limitation of
66 multiple sensory applications to analyze particles.

67 In this paper, we demonstrate the automatic clustering and classification of different types of
68 marine particles by applying a simple data fusion technique to morphological (*i.e.* holographic
69 images) and chemical (*i.e.* Raman spectra) data. We propose a multimodal learning method using
70 autoencoders and further t-SNE dimensionality reduction, and compare the classification accuracy
71 between uni and multimodal data with and without t-SNE. We investigate how unsupervised
72 feature learning methods can be used to automatically extract and further combine multimodal
73 features from different types of sensor measurements, and use these to efficiently identify different
74 particle types.

75 **2. Experiments**

76 *2.1. Samples*

77 Experiments were performed on plankton, foraminifera, minerals and microplastic particles, where
78 these were chosen based on their relevance to climate change and pollution monitoring [1, 36].
79 These were measured in artificial seawater, which is often used for method validation for marine
80 sensing applications [37–39], to minimize the effect of water quality fluctuation on images and
81 spectra. Plankton absorbs around 50 billion tons of carbon each year, accounting for 40 % of
82 atmospheric CO₂ removal [40, 41]. Removed carbon is either stored as organic carbon as in the
83 case of the copepods used in our experiments, which are one of the most abundant zooplankton
84 species in the ocean, or as inorganic carbon as in the case of foraminifera, a single-cell organism
85 with an external shell made of calcium carbonate. Our experiments also study sphalerite rock
86 fragments, which are a common sulfide mineral in ores. The ability to monitor sulfide particle
87 distributions is important for studying the potential impacts of sub-sea mining [42]. Finally, we
88 investigate polypropylene (PP) and polyethylene (PE) microplastic pre-production plastic pellets
89 (nurdles). PP and PE are selected since these are the most common types of microplastics found
90 in aquatic environments [43]. We also investigate PE fragments that were collected from the
91 ocean. The particle types and sample numbers for each type are summarized in Table 1.

92 Copepods were collected from the surface seawater during the KM20-11 cruise of the research
93 vessel (R/V) Kaimei in December 2020 and kept in a freezer to preserve their morphological
94 characteristics. The samples were defrosted using lukewarm water before the measurement.

Table 1. **Samples used in experiments**

Particle Type	Description	Number of samples
Organic carbon	Copepod	3
Inorganic carbon	Foraminifera	3
Mineral	Sphalerite	3
Microplastics	PP (nurdle)	3
Microplastics	PE (nurdle)	3
Microplastics	PE (marine)	3

95 Dried foraminifera samples (*Calcarina gaudichaudii*) were collected from Okinawa, Japan. The
 96 sphalerite rock fragments were collected from Daikoku Ore in Saitama, Japan. PP and PE nurdles
 97 were provided by Daikei Chemical, Inc. PE fragments were recovered from the surface seawater
 98 in Osaka Bay, Japan in September, 2018. These samples were separated from other particles by
 99 first dissolving biotic organic matter and performing Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy
 100 on the dried residue to identify the PE fragments. All particles used in our experiments had a
 101 dimension between 1 and 5 μm , and 3 different samples of each particle type were measured to
 102 assess the performance of our method.

103 2.2. Setup

104 The integrated in-line holographic imaging and Raman spectroscopy setup used in our experiments
 105 is shown in Fig. 1 and has previously been described in Ref. [19]. A quartz glass cell of length 20 cm
 106 and diameter 20 mm (Sterna cell, 34-Q-200) was filled with artificial seawater and illuminated
 107 by a collimated laser of 10 mm beam diameter. A single longitudinal mode continuous wave
 108 (CW) laser (Oxxius, LCX-532S-300) beam with a wavelength of 532 nm was delivered via a
 109 single-mode fiber. The exiting beam from the fiber was collimated and passed through a bandpass
 110 filter (Semrock, LL01-532-25) before entering the measurement cell. The laser power was set at
 111 160 mW at the output of the bandpass filter. After passing through the measurement cell, the
 112 beam was split using a 532 nm dichroic beam splitter (Semrock, Di03-R532-t1-25x36). The
 113 reflected beam was used for holographic imaging. It passed through an attenuation filter (Sigma
 114 Koki, MFND-25-0.1) before a hologram was recorded by a two-dimensional complementary
 115 metal-oxide semiconductor (CMOS) 2464×2056 pixel array (JAI, GO-5100-USB). Images
 116 were taken continuously with a 50 μs exposure time. The lights with wavelengths longer than
 117 532 nm were transmitted through the beam splitter and collected for Raman spectroscopy via
 118 a set of lenses (Thorlabs, F810SMA-543) that was mounted to a multi-mode fiber (Thorlabs,
 119 M29L01). A 532 nm longpass filter (Semrock, BLP01-532R-25) was placed before the fiber to
 120 ensure blocking of the 532 nm beam. A spectrometer with a wavenumber range from 200 to
 121 3100 cm^{-1} and a resolution of 10 cm^{-1} (Wasatch Photonics, WP-532-A-S-ER-10) was used. The
 122 acquisition period was set at 5 s to maximize signal to noise ratio while avoiding saturation.

123 2.3. Data acquisition

124 The holographic imaging detector records the interference patterns generated from the interaction
 125 between the unscattered laser beam (reference beam) and the scattered light by the particles
 126 (object beam). To recover information on particle morphology, the interference patterns are
 127 reconstructed as described previously by the authors [10, 44, 45], using the angular spectrum
 128 method [46, 47]. Copepods, foraminifera, and mineral particles immediately sank to the bottom

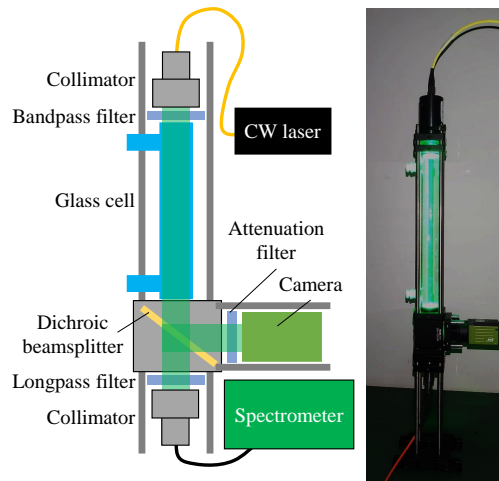


Fig. 1. Experimental setup. A 532 nm single longitudinal mode laser is used to illuminate samples suspended in bulk artificial seawater. A beam splitter is used to take holographic images and Raman spectra using the same setup with different exposure times.

129 of the measurement cell while the plastics floated due to their buoyancy. Therefore, the relative
 130 distances between the samples, laser and detector were consistent for each particle type. Fig.
 131 2 (a) shows examples of bright field microscopic images of the samples. Fig. 2 (b) shows the
 132 corresponding reconstructed holographic images of the seawater-immersed particles that were
 133 measured using the experiment setup. Morphological characteristics unique to copepods (*i.e.*
 134 antennae and legs) and foraminiferas (*i.e.* spines) are clearly seen in the holographic images,
 135 whereas other particles are not obviously distinguished. 100 holographic images of each sample
 136 were taken, where the measurement cell was shaken and rotated between images so that the
 137 samples were imaged from different angles and directions. The width of the images was trimmed
 138 to 2056 pixels so as to cut off the unilluminated region, and it was manually confirmed that
 139 the whole sample was visible in all images. The images were normalized so that each image's
 140 maximum and minimum pixel intensities were 1 and 0, respectively.

141 120 Raman spectra were taken for each sample. To reduce noise, 50 spectra were randomly
 142 selected and averaged, where this process was repeated using the boot-strapping method [48]
 143 to produce 100 unique spectra [37]. The background spectrum was taken using the same setup
 144 without any target particles and the signal was averaged in the same way. Each averaged spectrum
 145 was normalized by setting the S-O stretching peak at 981 cm^{-1} to have unitary intensity. This
 146 peak was chosen as it is always present in seawater due to dissolved SO_4^{2-} [49]. The background
 147 spectrum was subtracted from the averaged spectrum for each particle sample to remove the
 148 contributions of the optical setup and seawater. The spectral range from 300 to 1711 cm^{-1}
 149 (309 pixels) was used for analysis since the wavenumbers out of this range do not have many
 150 Raman peaks. Fluorescence signals were modeled in the range and subtracted using an eighth
 151 or ninth-order polynomial asymmetric truncated quadratic function depending on the samples.
 152 The most suitable order was experimentally determined, using the MATLABTM "backcor"
 153 function [50], which estimates background signals by minimizing a non-quadratic cost function.
 154 Fig. 2 (c) shows examples of processed Raman spectra for each sample type. Strong Raman
 155 peaks of PP and PE (PP: $809, 841, 1152, 1167, 1330,$ and 1458 cm^{-1} , PE: $1062, 1130, 1170,$
 156 $1295, 1418, 1440, 1461\text{ cm}^{-1}$ [51]) are observed in the spectra of nurdles as these samples are
 157 semi-transparent, enabling high efficiency collection of forward Raman scattering, while for

158 other particles the Raman peaks are generally less distinct, due to high opacity of the targets.
 159 Peaks at 1062, 1295, and 1440 cm^{-1} are observed in the spectra of PE fragments, although
 160 peaks are not as strong as the ones seen in PE nurdles spectra due to the interference from green
 161 pigments. An intense band from carotenoid is seen at 1521 cm^{-1} [52] in copepod spectra. A
 162 peak assigned to the symmetric stretching vibration of the CO_3^{2-} ion is seen at 1090 cm^{-1} [53] in
 163 the foraminifera spectra, while other unidentified peaks are also observed. The overall intensities
 164 of mineral spectra are weaker than other spectra with no strong peaks observed.

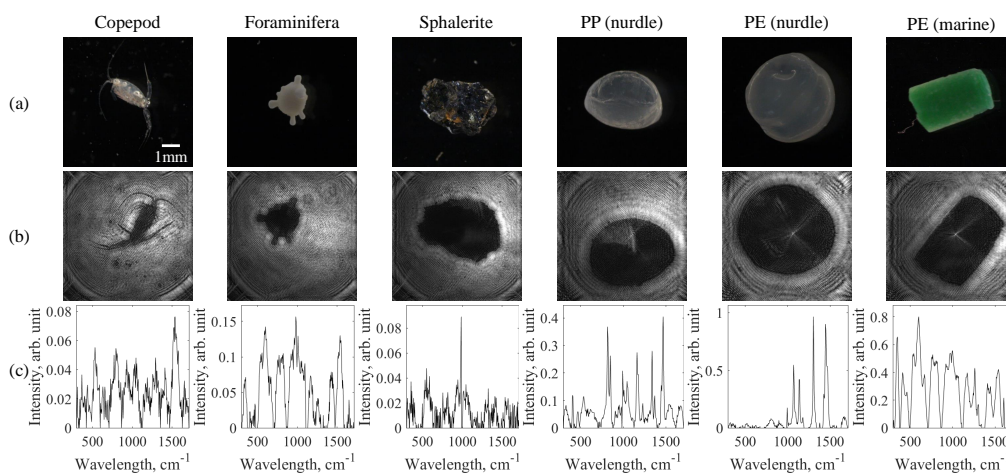


Fig. 2. Examples of (a) bright field microscopic images, (b) reconstructed holographic images and (c) processed Raman spectra for each particle type.

165 2.4. Unsupervised feature learning

166 We investigated autoencoder-based unsupervised feature learning approaches to group the different
 167 particle types. The advantage of unsupervised methods is that they do not rely on human-labeled
 168 data for training, which do not always exist and are often time consuming to generate [54].
 169 Autoencoders are a generic type of unsupervised feature learner that has been well established for
 170 the analysis of imagery, including holographic images [55]. They consist of an encoder network,
 171 which reduces the input data down to smaller latent representations, and a decoder network that
 172 attempts to reconstruct the original data from the compressed latent representation. The latent
 173 representations through optimization of both networks to minimize the difference between the
 174 original inputs and their reconstructions can be used as features for clustering and classification
 175 tasks [56]. Classification based on features extracted using autoencoders can outperform the use
 176 of features that have traceable physical meaning such as principal component analysis [57, 58].
 177 A key advantage is that they are unsupervised, and can flexibly manage different sizes and
 178 dimensionality of data inputs as well as the size of the latent feature space representations they
 179 output, without significant modification of their underlying form, which is suitable for multimodal
 180 data [29]. Fig. 3 illustrates the proposed multimodal holographic image and Raman spectrum
 181 feature learning. A convolutional autoencoder is used to extract features from the holographic
 182 image reconstructions. Deep-learning convolutional autoencoders based on Alexnet have been
 183 successfully developed for sub-sea image classification [59, 60]. When applied to holographic
 184 images, improvement of clustering performance was found when a modified AlexNet where the
 185 fully-connected layers were replaced by two convolution layers was used [45]. Here we use the
 186 same modified AlexNet-based deep learning autoencoder described in Ref. [45], which was well
 187 tuned for in-line holographic images. The entire dataset (1800 images) was used to train the

188 network after reducing each image to 227×227 pixels to fit the input layer. When only images
 189 were used in the subsequent analysis, 16 latent features were extracted based on recommendations
 190 of prior work [59]. This was reduced to 8 when features were combined with those extracted
 191 from spectra so that the total number of extracted features was maintained. Information about the
 192 particle type was only used for performance validation, and was not used in training. The Raman
 193 spectra obtained with our setup are one-dimensional (309×1) and have a significantly smaller
 194 data size than the holographic images. A single-layer autoencoder was used to learn features
 195 where the latent representation size was set to 16 when only spectral information was used, and
 196 to 8 when features were combined with those extracted from holographic images.

197 Once features are extracted from the encoders, k -means clustering is used to group particles.
 198 This method was chosen as it is unsupervised and so does not require any human-labeled training
 199 data. We note that while different unsupervised clustering approaches such as random forest and
 200 self-organized maps, or supervised methods such as support vector machines, neural network
 201 classifiers or Gaussian processes may improve overall scores, the focus of this paper is on
 202 improving the quality of the features used for subsequent analysis, and such optimization of
 203 clustering or classification methods is beyond our scope.

204 The number of clusters was set to 6, which equals the number of particle types used in this
 205 study. We investigated two grouping methods. The first method is feature-level fusion, and
 206 directly uses the latent representations. The second method is model-level fusion and uses
 207 non-linear dimensional reduction to further compress the latent representations prior to clustering.
 208 For the direct approach, k -means clustering is carried out directly on the features extracted from
 209 holographic images (condition D1), Raman spectral data (condition D2), and on the combined
 210 features (condition D3), respectively. The latent space was set so that the final number of features
 211 used for clustering was the same, at 16 features, across all experimental conditions to allow
 212 for a fair comparison. For the reduced approach, a further reduction from 16 to 2 dimensions
 213 is achieved using the non-linear t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) [57, 61].
 214 Clustering is performed on the reduced two-dimensional features extracted from holographic
 215 images (condition R1), Raman spectral data (condition R2), and on the combined features
 216 (condition R3), respectively. Clustering performance is assessed using confusion matrices and
 217 F1-average score (*i.e.* macro F1 score [62]), where cluster to particle type correspondence is
 218 achieved by determining the largest number of particles of a given type falling within each cluster.
 219 The different experimental conditions investigated in this work are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. **Experimental conditions analyzed in this work.**

	D1	D2	D3	R1	R2	R3
Images features	16	0	8	16	0	8
Spectral features	0	16	8	0	16	8
Dimension reduction				✓	✓	✓
Total features	16	16	16	2	2	2
Clusters k	6	6	6	6	6	6

220 3. Results and discussion

221 Fig. 4 shows the t-SNE plots of the latent representations extracted from (a) holographic images,
 222 (b) Raman spectroscopy, and (c) their combination. The color of data points indicates particle
 223 type (black: copepod, red: foraminifera, blue: mineral, pink: PP nurdle, purple: PE nurdle,

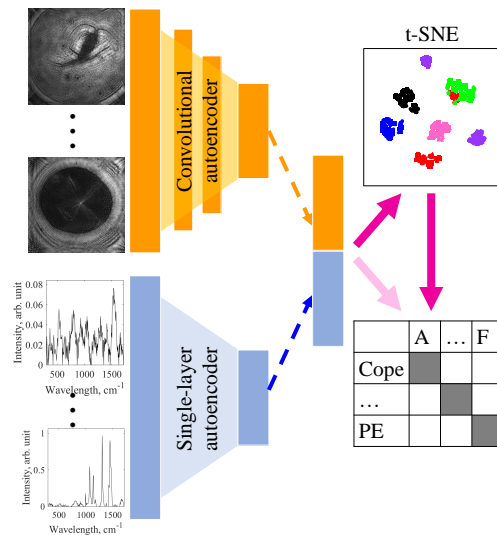


Fig. 3. Diagram of processes for combining features extracted from holographic image and Raman spectra, which are used for clustering either directly or after applying t-SNE dimensional reduction.

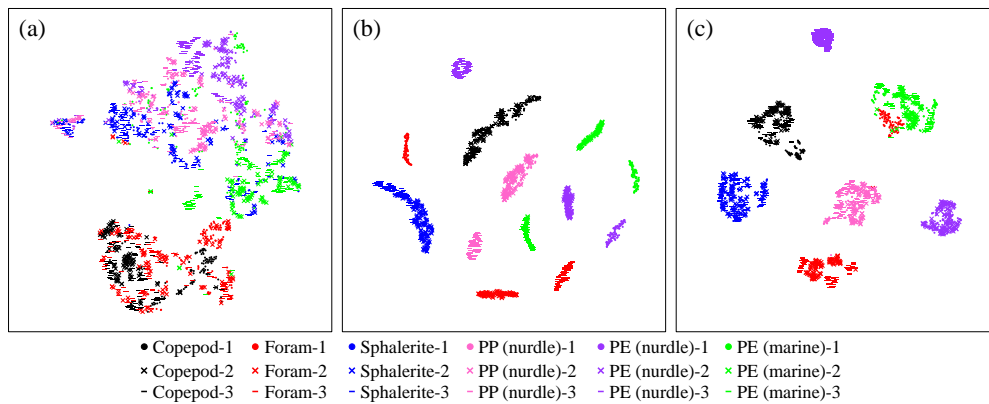


Fig. 4. t-SNE visualization of latent representations extracted from (a) holographic images, (b) Raman spectra, and (c) combined. The shape in the legend indicates three different samples among the same type of particles (circle, cross, bar).

224 green: PE fragment). Table 3 shows the confusion matrix result of *k*-means clustering applied
 225 directly to the extracted features, and Table 4 shows the result of clustering applied to the
 226 extracted features that have been further reduced using t-SNE. The clustering groups A-F were
 227 automatically allocated to six clusters with the combination which gives the best F1-average
 228 score. Table 5 shows the F1-scores for each particle type and processing condition.

229 Using features extracted from holographic images alone (D1, R1), it can be seen that copepods
 230 and foraminiferas form one mixed cluster. The remaining four particle types form the second
 231 cluster. This can be understood by looking at the examples in Fig. 2, where copepods and
 232 foraminifera have complex shapes, while the remaining particle types have a simpler form. PE
 233 fragments have an angular shape that distinguishes them from the round shape of the mineral
 234 PE, PP nurdles, where this pattern can be seen by the increased separation between it and the

235 other particle types. Clustering with $k = 6$ results in groupings with mixed particle types, where
236 an overall trend that two clusters dominate is reflected in the confusion matrices for D1 (Table 3
237 (a)) and R1 (Table 4 (a)). The F1-score averages are higher for clustering after using t-SNE for
238 dimensional reduction rather than direct use of the latent representations.

239 For Raman spectral data (D2, R2), 13 distinct groupings can be seen, where for most particle
240 types the individual samples are separated. While copepods and minerals form their own groups
241 for all samples, other particle types form two or three separate clusters for each type, which are
242 not necessarily close together in the latent representation space. This reflects the sensitivity
243 of Raman spectroscopy-based features to differences in the individual samples regardless of
244 particle type. The over discrimination is seen in the confusion matrices for D2 and R2 in Tables 3
245 (b) and 4 (b), respectively. The individual samples fall in or out of the six clusters in a binary
246 manner, where the precision and recall rates for direct use of extracted features vary from 0 to
247 100 %. Although this trend is improved after t-SNE, the overall accuracy according to F1 scores
248 is reduced, where dimensional reduction results in poorer accuracy for the plastic particles in
249 particular. The results show that it is not possible to reliably cluster features from Raman spectra
250 to map onto the 6 particle types. The average F1 scores for holographic images (D1) and Raman
251 spectra (D2) have similar values of around 0.5 and 0.6, respectively, where further dimensional
252 reduction improves the score for holographic images (R1), but not for Raman spectra (R2).

253 Combining the features from holographic images and Raman spectra improves the F1 scores
254 for both the direct (D3) and the reduced t-SNE based (R3) clustering. In particular, dimensional
255 reduction results in significant performance gains where both data types are combined. This is
256 seen with foraminifera, where direct use of the latent representations has poor precision and
257 recall, but dimensional reduction improves these from 3 % to 97 % and 2 % to 66 %, respectively.
258 D3 and R3 confusion matrices are shown in Table 3 (c) and Table 4 (c), respectively.

259 Table 5 shows that combining features gives the highest F1 score for all particle types
260 investigated in this work. The highest average F1 score of 0.88, is obtained for condition R3,
261 where combined features after non-linear dimensional reduction using t-SNE are used. This
262 score is 0.25 higher than for the directly combined case, and ≥ 0.27 higher than when holographic
263 images or Raman spectra based features are used in isolation. Condition D3 gives the second
264 best results. For condition R3, all particle types have F1 values over 0.79, demonstrating reliable
265 mapping of the clusters onto the particle types of interest. The large performance gain when
266 non-linear dimensional reduction is applied to the combined features can make effective use of
267 the favorable characteristics of each measurement type. The t-SNE plot in Fig. 4 (c) shows that
268 copepods, minerals, and PP nurdles form groups with well separated boundaries. One sample of
269 PE nurdles forms a group that is independent of others and one sample of foraminifera merges
270 with a cluster of PE fragments. In both cases, it could be assumed to be mainly due to the features
271 of Raman spectra as these trends are also seen in the t-SNE visualization of Raman spectral
272 latent representations (Fig. 4 (b)). This could be mitigated by using fewer features of Raman
273 spectra. In future works aiming at real-sea applications, fine tuning of models including selecting
274 the best combination of the number of features among different data types will be performed to
275 improve clustering and classification performances.

276 The results show that features extracted using an appropriately designed autoencoder and
277 further use of t-SNE for non-linear dimensional reduction significantly improves the quality
278 of the features available to describe different particle types, and this improvement enhances
279 classification accuracy. For application to *in situ* monitoring of marine particles, the method
280 needs to be verified on larger numbers and types of particles to be more representative of the
281 variety of morphological and compositional combinations that exist in nature. However, the
282 study has demonstrated a novel approach to combine features learned from multiple different
283 sensing modes, which improves clustering performance for a diverse range of marine particle
284 types. Since the proposed method of combining and blending features can be applied to any

Table 3. Confusion matrix between particle type and the clustering result created using k -means for (a) holographic images D1, (b) Raman spectra D2, and (c) combined D3 latent representations. A-F indicate clustering groups.

(a) D1							
	A	B	C	D	E	F	Recall
Copepod	225	75	0	0	0	0	75 %
Foram	133	163	0	0	0	4	54 %
Sphalerite	53	25	126	30	17	49	42 %
PP (nurdle)	1	4	108	93	39	55	31 %
PE (nurdle)	0	1	84	25	140	50	47 %
PE (marine)	8	63	17	71	59	82	27 %
Precision	54 %	49 %	38 %	42 %	55 %	34 %	

(b) D2							
	A	B	C	D	E	F	Recall
Copepod	300	0	0	0	0	0	100 %
Foram	0	100	0	100	0	100	33 %
Sphalerite	300	0	0	0	0	0	0 %
PP (nurdle)	0	0	0	300	0	0	100 %
PE (nurdle)	0	0	100	0	200	0	67 %
PE (marine)	0	0	0	0	0	300	100 %
Precision	50 %	100 %	0 %	75 %	100 %	75 %	

(c) D3							
	A	B	C	D	E	F	Recall
Copepod	296	1	0	0	0	3	99 %
Foram	176	7	0	1	0	116	2 %
Sphalerite	4	76	192	6	21	1	64 %
PP (nurdle)	0	54	40	199	4	3	66 %
PE (nurdle)	0	49	18	4	229	0	76 %
PE (marine)	2	16	3	32	0	247	82 %
Precision	62 %	3 %	76 %	82 %	90 %	67 %	

285 input data type using encoded latent representation spaces, the method forms a versatile approach
 286 to combine measurements taken from multiple sensors with different data types and sizes, and
 287 makes efficient use of the favorable characteristics of each measurement type.

288 4. Conclusion

289 We have proposed a novel method to combine features extracted from images and spectra of
 290 seawater-suspended particles. Features were first extracted from data taken of the same target

Table 4. Confusion matrix between particle type and the clustering result created using k -means after t-SNE dimensional reduction for (a) holographic images R1, (b) Raman spectra R2, and (c) combined R3 latent representations. A-F indicate clustering groups.

(a) R1							
	A	B	C	D	E	F	Recall
Copepod	220	80	0	0	0	0	73 %
Foram	146	147	6	0	0	1	49 %
Sphalerite	1	0	184	26	22	67	61 %
PP (nurdle)	0	0	121	120	58	1	40 %
PE (nurdle)	0	0	38	102	158	2	53 %
PE (marine)	0	29	27	50	35	159	53 %
Precision	60 %	57 %	49 %	40 %	58 %	69 %	
(b) R2							
	A	B	C	D	E	F	Recall
Copepod	300	0	0	0	0	0	100 %
Foram	0	200	100	0	0	0	67 %
Sphalerite	0	0	142	158	0	0	47 %
PP (nurdle)	0	0	0	100	200	0	33 %
PE (nurdle)	100	0	0	0	100	100	33 %
PE (marine)	0	42	0	0	61	197	66 %
Precision	75 %	83 %	59 %	39 %	28 %	66 %	
(c) R3							
	A	B	C	D	E	F	Recall
Copepod	300	0	0	0	0	0	100 %
Foram	0	199	0	1	0	100	66 %
Sphalerite	0	0	300	0	0	0	100 %
PP (nurdle)	0	7	0	293	0	0	98 %
PE (nurdle)	100	0	0	0	200	0	67 %
PE (marine)	0	0	0	0	0	300	100 %
Precision	75 %	97 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	75 %	

291 using an integrated setup for holographic imaging and Raman spectroscopy. Convolutional and
 292 single-layer autoencoders were used for holographic images and Raman spectra, respectively.
 293 While combining latent representations (feature-level fusion) slightly enhanced the macro F1
 294 average score, the performance is further significantly improved by performing non-linear
 295 dimensional reduction (model-level fusion) using t-SNE on the combined latent representations.
 296 This increases the calculated accuracy from 0.63 to 0.88 using t-SNE, and the use of combined

Table 5. Comparison of F1 scores, where the highest scores for each particle type are in bold.

	D1	D2	D3	R1	R2	R3
	w/o t-SNE			w/ t-SNE		
	Holo	Raman	Fusion	Holo	Raman	Fusion
Copepod	0.63	0.67	0.76	0.66	0.86	0.86
Foram	0.52	0.5	0.03	0.53	0.74	0.79
Sphalerite	0.40	0	0.69	0.54	0.52	1
PP (nurdle)	0.36	0.86	0.73	0.40	0.36	0.99
PE (nurdle)	0.51	0.8	0.83	0.55	0.30	0.8
PE (marine)	0.30	0.85	0.74	0.6	0.66	0.86
Average	0.45	0.61	0.63	0.55	0.57	0.88

297 features outperformed a single information source for all particle types studied in this work.

298 Although our experiments used holographic images and Raman spectroscopy, the proposed
 299 method can be adapted to other types of sensor measurements. The use of convolutional and
 300 conventional autoencoders can learn and extract features from any two- or one- dimensional data
 301 type (e.g. images, spectra) without the need for labeled training datasets, respectively. Since
 302 dimensional reduction is performed on the feature space, it can efficiently combine features
 303 derived from other sensing methods and be applied to other measurement targets with minimal
 304 modification.

305 **Funding.** Japan Science and Technology Agency SICORP and Natural Environment Research Council
 306 (JST-NERC SICORP Marine Sensor Proof of Concept Grant JPMJSC1705, NE/R01227X/1); JSPS
 307 KAKENHI Grant (18K13934 and 18H03810); Sumitomo Foundation: Grant for environmental Research
 308 Project (203122).

309 **Acknowledgments.** The authors thank Dr. T. Fukuba for the support for building the experimental setup.
 310 The authors also thank Dr. H. Sawada for providing samples for this work.

311 **Disclosures.** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

312 **Data availability.** Data underlying the results presented in this paper are not publicly available at this time
 313 but may be obtained from the authors upon reasonable request.

314 References

- 315 1. International Ocean Carbon Coordination Project, "Essential Ocean Variable (EOV): Particulate Matter," Retrieved
 316 June 20, 2022 (2017). <https://www.goosocean.org/eov>.
- 317 2. T. Sun and H. Morgan, "Single-cell microfluidic impedance cytometry: a review," *Microfluid. Nanofluidics* **8**,
 318 423–443 (2010).
- 319 3. V. Gauthier, B. Barbeau, R. Millette, J.-C. Block, and M. Prevost, "Suspended particles in the drinking water of two
 320 distribution systems," *Water Sci. Technol. Water Supply* **1**, 237–245 (2001).
- 321 4. E. Boss, L. Guidi, M. J. Richardson, L. Stemann, W. Gardner, J. K. Bishop, R. F. Anderson, and R. M. Sherrell,
 322 "Optical techniques for remote and in-situ characterization of particles pertinent to geotraces," *Prog. Oceanogr.* **133**,
 323 43–54 (2015).
- 324 5. A. M. McDonnell, P. J. Lam, C. H. Lamborg, K. O. Buesseler, R. Sanders, J. S. Riley, C. Marsay, H. E. Smith,
 325 E. C. Sargent, R. S. Lampitt *et al.*, "The oceanographic toolbox for the collection of sinking and suspended marine
 326 particles," *Prog. oceanography* **133**, 17–31 (2015).
- 327 6. D. J. Lindsay, A. Yamaguchi, M. M. Grossmann, J. Nishikawa, A. Sabates, V. Fuentes, M. Hall, K. Sunahara, and
 328 H. Yamamoto, "Vertical profiles of marine particulates: a step towards global scale comparisons using an autonomous
 329 visual plankton recorder," *Bull. Plankton Soc. Jpn.* **61**, 72–81 (2014).

- 330 7. J. Watson and P. W. Britton, "Preliminary results on underwater holography," *Opt. Laser Technol.* pp. 215–216
331 (1983).
- 332 8. K. L. Carder, "A holographic micro-velocimeter for use in studying ocean particle dynamics," in *SPIE 0160, Ocean*
333 *Optics V*, vol. 160 (1978), pp. 63–66.
- 334 9. K. L. Carder, R. G. Steward, and P. R. Betzer, "In situ holographic measurements of the sizes and settling rates of
335 oceanic particulates," *J. Geophys. Res.* **87**, 5681–5685 (1982).
- 336 10. Z. Liu, T. Takahashi, D. Lindsay, T. Thevar, M. Sangekar, H. K. Watanabe, N. Burns, J. Watson, and B. Thornton,
337 "Digital in-line holography for large-volume analysis of vertical motion of microscale marine plankton and other
338 particles," *IEEE J. Ocean. Eng.* **46**, 1248–1260 (2021).
- 339 11. J. Watson, S. Alexander, G. Craig, D. C. Hendry, P. R. Hobson, R. S. Lampitt, J. M. Marteau, H. Nareid, M. A.
340 Player, K. Saw, and K. Tipping, "Simultaneous in-line and off-axis subsea holographic recording of plankton and
341 other marine particles," *Meas. Sci. Technol.* **12** (2001).
- 342 12. J. Watson, S. Alexander, V. Chavidan, G. Craig, A. Diard, G. L. Foresti, S. Gentili, D. C. Hendry, P. R. Hobson,
343 R. S. Lampitt, H. Nareid, J. J. Nebrensky, A. Pescetto, G. G. Pieroni, M. A. Player, K. Saw, S. Serpico, K. Tipping,
344 and A. Trucco, "A holographic system for subsea recording and analysis of plankton and other marine particles
345 (HOLOMAR)," in *Oceans Conference (IEEE)*, (2003), pp. 830–837.
- 346 13. R. B. Owen and A. A. Zozulya, "In-line digital holographic sensor for monitoring and characterizing marine
347 particulates," *Opt. Eng.* **39**, 2187 (2000).
- 348 14. V. Bianco, P. Memmolo, P. Carcagni, F. Merola, M. Paturzo, C. Distanto, and P. Ferraro, "Microplastic identification
349 via holographic imaging and machine learning," *Adv. Intell. Syst.* **2**, 1900153 (2020).
- 350 15. Y. Zhu, C. H. Yeung, and E. Y. Lam, "Microplastic pollution monitoring with holographic classification and deep
351 learning," *J. Physics: Photonics* **3**, 024013 (2021).
- 352 16. L. MacNeil, S. Missan, J. Luo, T. Trappenberg, and J. LaRoche, "Plankton classification with high-throughput
353 submersible holographic microscopy and transfer learning," *BMC ecology evolution* **21**, 1–11 (2021).
- 354 17. V. Bianco, D. Pirone, P. Memmolo, F. Merola, and P. Ferraro, "Identification of microplastics based on the fractal
355 properties of their holographic fingerprint," *ACS Photonics* **8**, 2148–2157 (2021).
- 356 18. V. Hidalgo-Ruz, L. Gutow, R. C. Thompson, and M. Thiel, "Microplastics in the marine environment: A review of
357 the methods used for identification and quantification," *Environ. Sci. & Technol.* **46**, 3060–3075 (2012).
- 358 19. T. Takahashi, Z. Liu, T. Thevar, N. Burns, S. Mahajan, D. Lindsay, J. Watson, and B. Thornton, "Identification of
359 microplastics in a large water volume by integrated holography and raman spectroscopy," *Appl. Opt.* **59**, 5073–5078
360 (2020).
- 361 20. X. Zhang, W. J. Kirkwood, P. M. Walz, E. T. Peltzer, and P. G. Brewer, "A review of advances in deep-ocean Raman
362 spectroscopy," *Appl. Spectrosc.* **66**, 237–49 (2012).
- 363 21. J. A. Breier, C. R. German, and S. N. White, "Mineral phase analysis of deep-sea hydrothermal particulates by a
364 Raman spectroscopy expert algorithm: Toward autonomous in situ experimentation and exploration," *Geochem.*
365 *Geophys. Geosystems* **10**, 1–12 (2009).
- 366 22. B. Schuller, M. Valstar, F. Eyben, G. McKeown, R. Cowie, and M. Pantic, "Avec 2011—the first international
367 audio/visual emotion challenge," in *International Conference on Affective Computing and Intelligent Interaction*,
368 (Springer, 2011), pp. 415–424.
- 369 23. S. Shimojo and L. Shams, "Sensory modalities are not separate modalities: plasticity and interactions," *Curr. opinion*
370 *neurobiology* **11**, 505–509 (2001).
- 371 24. S. Poria, E. Cambria, R. Bajpai, and A. Hussain, "A review of affective computing: From unimodal analysis to
372 multimodal fusion," *Inf. Fusion* **37**, 98–125 (2017).
- 373 25. S. Zhang, S. Zhang, T. Huang, W. Gao, and Q. Tian, "Learning affective features with a hybrid deep model for
374 audio–visual emotion recognition," *IEEE Transactions on Circuits Syst. for Video Technol.* **28**, 3030–3043 (2017).
- 375 26. L. Schoneveld, A. Othmani, and H. Abdelkawy, "Leveraging recent advances in deep learning for audio-visual
376 emotion recognition," *Pattern Recognit. Lett.* **146**, 1–7 (2021).
- 377 27. J. Ngiam, A. Khosla, M. Kim, J. Nam, H. Lee, and A. Y. Ng, "Multimodal deep learning," in *ICML*, (2011).
- 378 28. J. Summaira, X. Li, A. M. Shoib, S. Li, and J. Abdul, "Recent advances and trends in multimodal deep learning: A
379 review," *arXiv preprint arXiv:2105.11087* (2021).
- 380 29. K. Bayouhdh, R. Knani, F. Hamdaoui, and A. Mtibaa, "A survey on deep multimodal learning for computer vision:
381 advances, trends, applications, and datasets," *The Vis. Comput.* pp. 1–32 (2021).
- 382 30. T. Doherty, S. McKeever, N. Al-Attar, T. Murphy, C. Aura, A. Rahman, A. O'Neill, S. P. Finn, E. Kay, W. M.
383 Gallagher *et al.*, "Feature fusion of raman chemical imaging and digital histopathology using machine learning for
384 prostate cancer detection," *Analyst* **146**, 4195–4211 (2021).
- 385 31. L. P. Rangaraju, G. Kunapuli, D. Every, O. D. Ayala, P. Ganapathy, and A. Mahadevan-Jansen, "Classification of
386 burn injury using raman spectroscopy and optical coherence tomography: An ex-vivo study on porcine skin," *Burns*
387 **45**, 659–670 (2019).
- 388 32. L. Zhou, R. Griffith, and B. Gaeta, "Combining spatial and chemical information for clustering pharmacophores,"
389 *BMC bioinformatics* **15**, 1–12 (2014).
- 390 33. A. Kumar and K. Y. Zhang, "Advances in the development of shape similarity methods and their application in drug
391 discovery," *Front. chemistry* **6**, 315 (2018).
- 392 34. S. Samaras, E. Diamantidou, D. Ataloglou, N. Sakellariou, A. Vafeiadis, V. Magoulinitis, A. Lalas, A. Dimou,

- 393 D. Zarpalas, K. Votis *et al.*, “Deep learning on multi sensor data for counter uav applications—a systematic review,”
394 *Sensors* **19**, 4837 (2019).
- 395 35. L. Gómez-Chova, D. Tuia, G. Moser, and G. Camps-Valls, “Multimodal classification of remote sensing images: A
396 review and future directions,” *Proc. IEEE* **103**, 1560–1584 (2015).
- 397 36. K. L. Law and R. C. Thompson, “Microplastics in the seas,” *Science* **345**, 144–145 (2014).
- 398 37. T. Takahashi, S. Yoshino, Y. Takaya, T. Nozaki, K. Ohki, T. Ohki, T. Sakka, and B. Thornton, “Quantitative in situ
399 mapping of elements in deep-sea hydrothermal vents using laser-induced breakdown spectroscopy and multivariate
400 analysis,” *Deep. Sea Res. Part I Ocean. Res. Pap.* p. 103232 (2020).
- 401 38. T. Fukuba, Y. Aoki, N. Fukuzawa, T. Yamamoto, M. Kyo, and T. Fujii, “A microfluidic in situ analyzer for ATP
402 quantification in ocean environments,” *Lab on a Chip* **11**, 3508–3515 (2011).
- 403 39. R. G. de Vega, S. Goyen, T. E. Lockwood, P. A. Doble, E. F. Camp, and D. Clases, “Characterisation of microplastics
404 and unicellular algae in seawater by targeting carbon via single particle and single cell icp-ms,” *Anal. Chimica Acta*
405 **1174**, 338737 (2021).
- 406 40. C. B. Field, M. J. Behrenfeld, J. T. Randerson, and P. Falkowski, “Primary production of the biosphere: integrating
407 terrestrial and oceanic components,” *science* **281**, 237–240 (1998).
- 408 41. P. G. Falkowski, “The role of phytoplankton photosynthesis in global biogeochemical cycles,” *Photosynth. research*
409 **39**, 235–258 (1994).
- 410 42. L. A. Levin, K. Mengerink, K. M. Gjerde, A. A. Rowden, C. L. Van Dover, M. R. Clark, E. Ramirez-Llodra, B. Currie,
411 C. R. Smith, K. N. Sato *et al.*, “Defining “serious harm” to the marine environment in the context of deep-seabed
412 mining,” *Mar. Policy* **74**, 245–259 (2016).
- 413 43. A. C. Vivekanand, S. Mohapatra, and V. K. Tyagi, “Microplastics in aquatic environment: Challenges and perspectives,”
414 *Chemosphere* **282**, 131151 (2021).
- 415 44. N. M. Burns and J. Watson, “Robust particle outline extraction and its application to digital in-line holograms of
416 marine organisms,” *Opt. Eng.* **53**, 112212 (2014).
- 417 45. Z. Liu, T. Thevar, T. Takahashi, N. Burns, T. Yamada, M. Sangekar, D. Lindsay, J. Watson, and B. Thornton,
418 “Unsupervised feature learning and clustering of particles imaged in raw holograms using an autoencoder,” *J. Opt.*
419 *Soc. Am. A* **38**, 1570–1580 (2021).
- 420 46. N. Akhter, G. Min, J. W. Kim, and B. H. Lee, “A comparative study of reconstruction algorithms in digital holography,”
421 *Optik* **124**, 2955–2958 (2013).
- 422 47. T. Lатыchevskaia and H.-W. Fink, “Practical algorithms for simulation and reconstruction of digital in-line holograms,”
423 *Appl. optics* **54**, 2424–2434 (2015).
- 424 48. B. Efron, “Bootstrap methods: another look at the jackknife,” in *Breakthroughs in statistics*, (Springer, 1992), pp.
425 569–593.
- 426 49. X. Zhang, Z. Du, R. Zheng, Z. Luan, F. Qi, K. Cheng, B. Wang, W. Ye, X. Liu, C. Lian, C. Chen, J. Guo, Y. Li, and
427 J. Yan, “Development of a new deep-sea hybrid Raman insertion probe and its application to the geochemistry of
428 hydrothermal vent and cold seep fluid,” *Deep. Res. Part I: Oceanogr. Res. Pap.* **123**, 1–12 (2017).
- 429 50. V. Mazet, “Background correction,” MATLAB Central File Exchange. Retrieved March 7, 2022 (2022).
430 <https://www.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/27429-background-correction>.
- 431 51. V. Nava, M. L. Frezzotti, and B. Leoni, “Raman spectroscopy for the analysis of microplastics in aquatic systems,”
432 *Appl. Spectrosc.* **75**, 1341–1357 (2021).
- 433 52. R. Withnall, B. Z. Chowdhry, J. Silver, H. G. Edwards, and L. F. de Oliveira, “Raman spectra of carotenoids in
434 natural products,” *Spectrochimica acta part a: molecular biomolecular spectroscopy* **59**, 2207–2212 (2003).
- 435 53. S. Roberts and J. Murray, “Characterization of cement mineralogy in agglutinated foraminifera (protista) by raman
436 spectroscopy,” *J. Geol. Soc.* **152**, 7–9 (1995).
- 437 54. G. Dong, G. Liao, H. Liu, and G. Kuang, “A review of the autoencoder and its variants: A comparative perspective
438 from target recognition in synthetic-aperture radar images,” *IEEE Geosci. Remote. Sens. Mag.* **6**, 44–68 (2018).
- 439 55. T. Zeng, Y. Zhu, and E. Y. Lam, “Deep learning for digital holography: a review,” *Opt. Express* **29**, 40572–40593
440 (2021).
- 441 56. D. Bank, N. Koenigstein, and R. Giryes, “Autoencoders,” arXiv preprint arXiv:2003.05991 (2020).
- 442 57. B. Melit Devassy, S. George, and P. Nussbaum, “Unsupervised clustering of hyperspectral paper data using t-sne,” *J.*
443 *Imaging* **6**, 29 (2020).
- 444 58. K. Adem, “Diagnosis of breast cancer with stacked autoencoder and subspace knn,” *Phys. A: Stat. Mech. its Appl.*
445 **551**, 124591 (2020).
- 446 59. T. Yamada, A. Prügel-Bennett, and B. Thornton, “Learning features from georeferenced seafloor imagery with
447 location guided autoencoders,” *J. Field Robotics* **38**, 52–67 (2021).
- 448 60. T. Yamada, M. Massot Campos, A. Prugel-Bennett, O. Pizarro, S. B. Williams, and B. Thornton, “Guiding labelling
449 effort for efficient learning with georeferenced images,” *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis Mach. Intell.* (2022).
- 450 61. Z. Wang and Y. Wang, “Extracting a biologically latent space of lung cancer epigenetics with variational autoencoders,”
451 *BMC bioinformatics* **20**, 1–7 (2019).
- 452 62. J. Opitz and S. Burst, “Macro F1 and macro F1,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1911.03347 (2019).