

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

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**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.

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## 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  $\mu\text{m}$ ) 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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  $\mu\text{m}$ , 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)  $2464 \times 2056$  pixel array (JAI, GO-5100-USB). Images  
 116 were taken continuously with a 50  $\mu\text{s}$  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  $3100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and a resolution of  $10 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (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

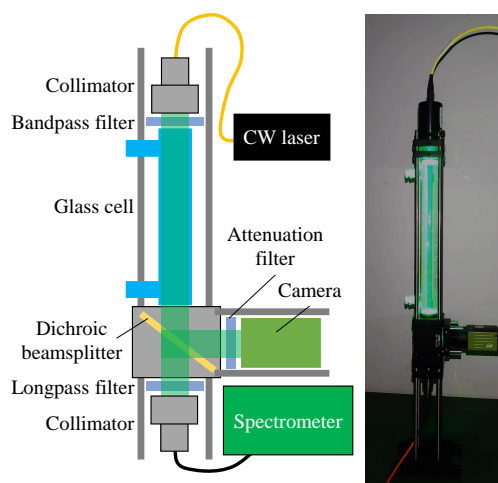


Fig. 1. Experimental setup. A 532 nm single longitudinal mode laser is used to illuminate samples suspended in bulk artificial seawater. A beam splitter is used to take holographic images and Raman spectra using the same setup with different exposure times.

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  $981\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to have unitary intensity. This  
 146 peak was chosen as it is always present in seawater due to dissolved  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  [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  $1711\text{ cm}^{-1}$   
 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 MATLAB<sup>TM</sup> "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  $1458\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , 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  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  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  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  [52] in copepod spectra. A  
 162 peak assigned to the symmetric stretching vibration of the  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  ion is seen at 1090  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  [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.

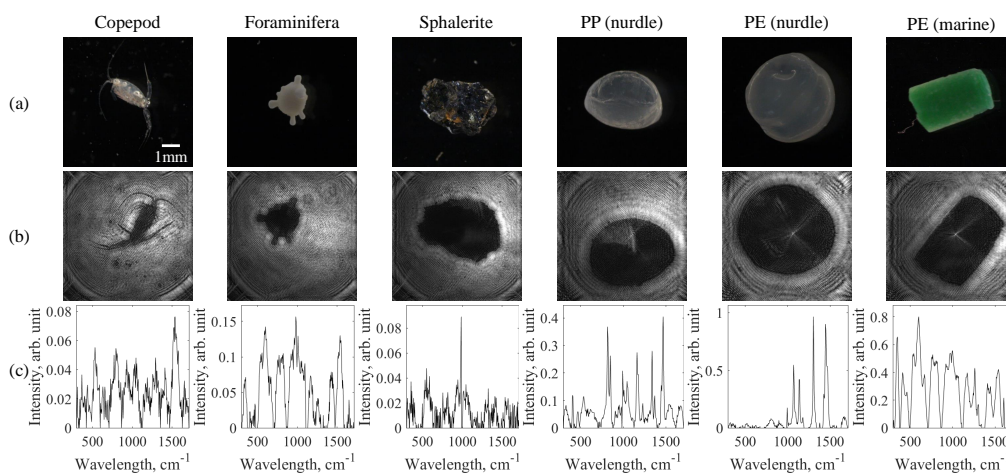


Fig. 2. Examples of (a) bright field microscopic images, (b) reconstructed holographic images and (c) processed Raman spectra for each particle type.

#### 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  
 186 the 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  $227 \times 227$  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 ( $309 \times 1$ ) 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,

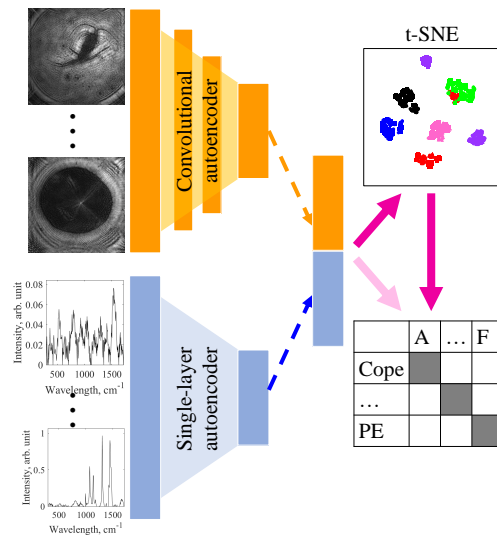


Fig. 3. Diagram of processes for combining features extracted from holographic image and Raman spectra, which are used for clustering either directly or after applying t-SNE dimensional reduction.

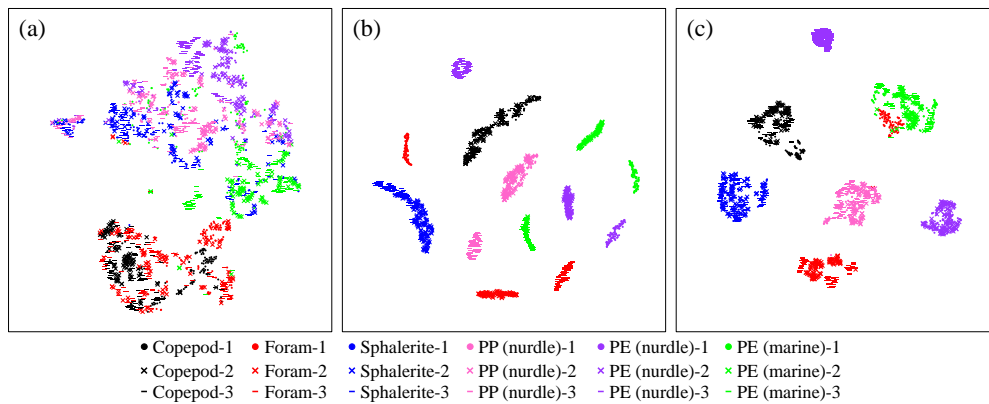


Fig. 4. t-SNE visualization of latent representations extracted from (a) holographic images, (b) Raman spectra, and (c) combined. The shape in the legend indicates three different samples among the same type of particles (circle, cross, bar).

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  $\geq 0.27$  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	<b>0.86</b>	<b>0.86</b>
Foram	0.52	0.5	0.03	0.53	0.74	<b>0.79</b>
Sphalerite	0.40	0	0.69	0.54	0.52	<b>1</b>
PP (nurdle)	0.36	0.86	0.73	0.40	0.36	<b>0.99</b>
PE (nurdle)	0.51	0.8	<b>0.83</b>	0.55	0.30	0.8
PE (marine)	0.30	0.85	0.74	0.6	0.66	<b>0.86</b>
Average	0.45	0.61	0.63	0.55	0.57	<b>0.88</b>

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.

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