

Scientific Reports Title to see here

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ABSTRACT

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Please note: Abbreviations should be introduced at the first mention in the main text – no abbreviations lists. Suggested structure of main text (not enforced) is provided below.

Introduction

Our planet is drowning in plastic litter that can sneakily enter our body over time. An estimation showed that in 2010 at least 4.8 million tons of plastic litter has entered our ocean which will increase without waste management^{1,2}. Once in the wild, it can persist for decades as most plastic types are resistant to natural degradation processes³. Environmental influences, however, can cause it to disintegrate into micron-sized particles commonly known as microplastics⁴⁻⁸. Almost invisible to the eye, they have now been detected on nearly every corner of our planet⁸⁻¹³, in animals¹⁴⁻¹⁶ and even in our food^{17,18}. Since 2021, we also have the first evidence that microplastics are present in humans, when Ragusa et al. detected microplastics in the human placenta¹⁹.

Plastic litter is highly diverse due to environmental influences and the sheer endless possibilities to produce plastic with desired material properties. Therefore, to evaluate their detrimental effects on animals and humans, we need a deeper insight on the samples origins²⁰⁻²². Here, tools to detect and classify plastic litter at different stages play an indispensable role. Studies on plastic pollution commonly use Raman and Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy solutions to analyse plastic samples²³⁻²⁶. Both techniques, however, come with physical limitations^{24,27,28} and hence, we only cover a subset of plastic waste types out there.

Most recently, Ornik et al.²⁹ used photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy for plastic identification. By comparing the intensity ratios in the PL spectrum of different samples, they successfully distinguished plastic samples from non-plastic samples in the riverine and marine environment. Such an identification method, however, may not be reproducible since a measurement can change with different experimental factors such as hardware alignments, sample sites or even scientific experiences. On the other hand, it is impractical to capture and quantify these influences since it is impossible to account for all possible factors. Nevertheless, it raises the question if there are subsets in the spectra that can be used for the identification while being robust against experimental variations. One possible solution is to capture a part of these variations and integrate them in a spectral library. Once implemented, algorithms and mathematical models help unraveling the origins of the plastic sample.

For predictions that account for data variations, machine learning (ML) models are suitable candidates. To generate a plastic waste prediction model, we apply a selected learning method on the labeled spectral dataset. The model's performance partially depends on the number of input variables in a dataset, which, in our case, is the intensity for each channel of our spectrometer. To improve the performance, it is common practice to reduce the number of variables while retaining the essential data information^{30,31}. A careful choice of the transformation technique allows a physical interpretation of the results and thus, a better understanding of the dataset. For such an application, a recently published technique termed as signal dissection by correlation maximization (SDCM) stands out which successfully discovered new signatures in a gene expression dataset³². This is particularly attractive for PL-based plastic litter detection as it can identify type specific subspectra that not only allow a physical interpretation but are also robust against experimental variations.

In this report, we demonstrate that SDCM is suitable to generate robust PL-based plastic litter identification models. To demonstrate this, we look at two sets of ML models that are either based on a SDCM-transformed PL dataset or an untransformed

dataset. By comparing model's accuracies, i.e. the probability that a model based prediction is correct, we find consistently higher values for SDCM-based ML models than their counterparts. This underlines the robustness of SDCM-transformed PL datasets against experimental variations.

Results

Up to three levels of **subheading** are permitted. Subheadings should not be numbered.

Subsection

Example text under a subsection. Bulleted lists may be used where appropriate, e.g.

- First item
- Second item

Third-level section

Topical subheadings are allowed.

Discussion

The Discussion should be succinct and must not contain subheadings.

Methods

Experimental setup

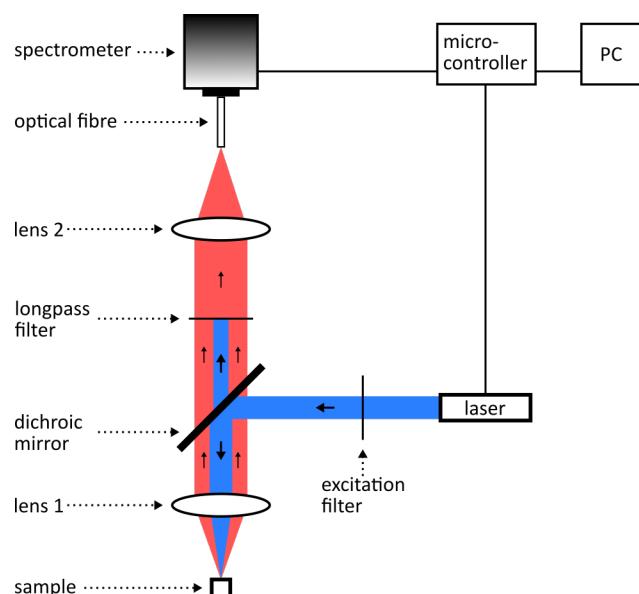


Figure 1. Illustration of the photoluminescence spectroscopy setup. The excitation light follows the path highlighted in blue to induce PL on the sample. The pathway of the PL signal is highlighted in red.

Figure 1 illustrates our experimental setup for PL spectroscopy measurements. The blue path highlights the incident beam that is used to excite the sample and induce photoluminescence. Our laser generates light with a central wavelength of 402 nm which passes through an excitation filter to select light with a wavelength of 405 nm. A dichroic mirror directs the light to lens 1 which focusses incident light on the sample's surface. The path that is taken by the emitted photoluminescence light is highlighted in red. Starting from the sample's surface, the light is collected and collimated by lens 1 and passes through the dichroic mirror. To ensure that the light from the laser is completely removed from the emission path, we use a longpass filter with a cut-on wavelength of 420 nm. Finally, lens 2 focusses the light onto an optical fibre which directs the light to our spectrometer (LR2, Lasertack GmbH).

Both the laser and the spectrometer are controlled with a microcontroller which, in turn, is connected to a pc. This arrangement makes it possible to control the laser power, exposure time and the time between sample excitation and signal acquisition. The latter is set to 500 ms.

Samples and measurement parameters

Sample Category	No. of Samples	Sample Type
Non-plastic	12	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sand • Wood • Posidonia Oceanica (Plant) • Sepia Officinalis (Bone) • Echinocardium Cordatum (Shell) • Hexaplex Eggs (Shell) • Monodonta Turbinata (Shell) • Neverita Josephina (Shell) • Lithophyllum Racemus
Plastic (manufacturer)	26	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Polyamide (PA) • Polycarbonate (PC) • Polyethylene (PE) • Low-density polyethylene (LDPE) • High-density polyethylene (HDPE) • Polyethylene terephthalate (PET) • Polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) • Polypropylene (PP) • Polystyrene (PS) • Polyvinyl chloride (PVC)
Plastic (retail)	8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • LDPE • HDPE • PET • PP

Table 1. Overview of samples used for this study.

Sample Category	Measurement 1		Measurement 2	
	P _{laser} [mW]	t _{ex} [ms]	P _{laser} [mW]	t _{ex} [ms]
Non-plastic	0.5–130	300	0.2–2.8	300
Plastic (manufacturer)	5–130	300	0.5–100	300
Plastic (retail)	0.5–130	300–1500	0.5–104	300

Table 2. Summary of samples and measurement parameters. For each sample, two measurements were taken where the laser power P_{laser}, the exposure time t_{ex} and alignments in the setup were changed.

Our PL spectra dataset is generated from 46 samples which consists of non-plastic materials from the riverine and marine environment and plastics from manufacturers and retail products. A summary of the amount of samples and the sample types is presented in Table 2.

For each sample, we take two different measurements where we change the laser power P_{laser}, the exposure time t_{ex} and alignments in the setup. A list of these measurement parameters is presented in Table 1.

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Acknowledgements (not compulsory)

Acknowledgements should be brief, and should not include thanks to anonymous referees and editors, or effusive comments. Grant or contribution numbers may be acknowledged.

Author contributions statement

Must include all authors, identified by initials, for example: A.A. conceived the experiment(s), A.A. and B.A. conducted the experiment(s), C.A. and D.A. analysed the results. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

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