

# Convolutional neural network application on a new middle Eocene radiolarian dataset

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## 10 Abstract

A new radiolarian image database was used to train a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)
for automatic image classification. The focus was on 39 commonly occurring nassellarian
species, which are important for biostratigraphy.

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The database consisted of tropical radiolarian assemblages from 129 middle Eocene samples retrieved from ODP Holes 1258A, 1259A, and 1260A (Demerara Rise). A total of 116 taxonomic classes were established, with 96 classes used for training a ResNet50 CNN. To represent the diverse radiolarian assemblage, some classes were formed by grouping forms based on external morphological criteria. This approach resulted in an 86.6% training accuracy.

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A test set of 800 images from new samples obtained from Hole 1260A was used to validate
the CNN, achieving a 75.69% accuracy. The focus then shifted to 39 well-known nassellarian

species, using a total of 15 932 images from the new samples. The goal was to determine if
the targeted species were correctly classified and explore potential real-world applications of
the trained CNN.

27

Different prediction threshold values were experimented with. In most cases, a lower threshold value was preferred to ensure that all species were captured in the correct groups, even if it resulted in lower accuracies within the classes.

31 Keywords: middle Eocene, radiolaria, convolutional neural network, image database,
32 automated identification, image recognition

#### 33 **1 Introduction**

Polycystine radiolaria are microscopic unicellular protists living currently in all modern 34 35 oceans; they are characterized by an aesthetically pleasing siliceous skeleton known in the 36 fossil record since the Cambrian (Pouille et al., 2011; Aitchison et al., 2017). Their fossil 37 record is thus of much interest for evolutionary studies (i.e., Danelian and Johnson, 2001; 38 Renaudie and Lazarus, 2013; Tetard et al., 2017; Trubovitz et al., 2020). They are usually the 39 only fossils capable of dating siliceous sedimentary sequences (i.e., Danelian et al., 2012; 40 Vrielynck et al., 2003) and are commonly used in paleoceanography (Matsuzaki et al., 2018; 41 Itaki et al., 2020). Due to the small number of experts, radiolarian taxonomy is less well-42 elaborated than the one of other microfossil groups, such as foraminifera and nannofossils.

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Today, most of the studies involving identification and counting of microfossils, such as radiolarians, are conducted manually and require substantial taxonomic expertise. This process is known to be time-consuming, particularly when microfossils are used for paleoceanography. Moreover, consistency in species classification may be difficult to achieve

between different taxonomic experts. Therefore, artificial intelligence (AI) has been 48 49 introduced to this field to simplify or automate the work done by micropaleontologists, as for 50 example through automatic image recognition and counting. Several applications of CNNs for 51 automatic image recognition were developed over the last 20 years, since the introduction of 52 SYRACO by Dollfus and Beaufort (1999). Nowadays, CNNs are used on various microfossil 53 groups, such as foraminifera (ex. Mitra et al., 2019, Hsiang et al., 2019; Marchant et al., 2020), coccoliths (ex. Dollfus and Beaufort, 1999; Beaufort and Dollfus, 2004), pollen (ex. 54 55 Bourel et al., 2020), or even radiolarians (Itaki et al., 2020; Renaudie et al., 2018; Tetard et 56 al., 2020).

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Sediments recovered from the Demerara Rise (tropical Atlantic Ocean) during the Leg 207 are rich in middle Eocene radiolarians, preserved in a continuous and expanded carbonate sequence. The encountered radiolarian diversity is immense and based on our estimates it accounts for ca. 500 species, many of which are not described yet. Indeed, although Eocene radiolarians have been studied for about 150 years (since Ehrenberg, 1874) and more in depth for the last 50 years (Riedel and Sanfilippo, 1970, 1978), past research was mainly focused on their biostratigraphic applications (see Meunier and Danelian, 2022 and references therein).

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Taking advantage of today's technological achievements, our objective was to design a reliable approach to automatically classify middle Eocene tropical radiolarians from Demerara Rise. The main question addressed in this study is whether a CNN can accurately classify 39 commonly observed nassellarian radiolarian species, most of which have an established biostratigraphic significance. We thus trained a CNN on a newly established image database of middle Eocene radiolarians with a focus on some common nassellarian species. To do this we classified every single object appearing on prepared radiolarian slides.

We were inspired by a recent similar study, conducted by Tetard et al. (2020), who studied middle Miocene to Quaternary radiolarians from the West Pacific Warm Pool. We also included additional *Podocyrtis* species prepared for an earlier dataset (Carlsson, 2022). Finally, a new set of a small number of samples was imaged to test the consistency of our trained CNN, which was double checked with manual identifications made by a taxonomist.

78

#### 79 2 Materials and methods

## 80 **2.1 Core setting and sample preparation**

81 The middle Eocene samples used in this study were collected during ODP Leg 207 from 82 Demerara Rise, situated off the coast of Suriname (Erbacher et al., 2004, Danelian et al. 83 2005). This dataset includes samples from several cores recovered from sites 1258, 1259 and 84 1260. It is noteworthy that the middle Eocene sequence at site 1260 is thick and contains 85 radiolarians of an excellent state of preservation (Danelian et al., 2007). The full sample list 86 used in this study may be found in Supplements 1, Table S1. The sediment samples consist 87 primarily of nannofossil and foraminifera chalk, but also contain abundant and well-preserved 88 siliceous microfossils, composed essentially of radiolarians (Danelian et al. 2007, Meunier 89 and Danelian, 2022), as well as diatoms (Danelian et al. 2007, Renaudie et al. 2010).

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Sediment samples from ODP holes 1258A, 1259A, and 1260A were first processed to disaggregate organic matter and dissolve carbonates and were then sieved through a 45 µm mesh to remove smaller particles. Thereafter, the samples were prepared using a recent random settling protocol described in Tetard et al. (2020). About 1/3 to <sup>1</sup>/<sub>4</sub> of a microspoon spatula was used from the dried residues, corresponding to approximately 0.2-1.0 g for each sample. Samples were uniformly settled onto 12 mm x 12 mm cover slides using a 3D-printed decanter, as in Tetard et al. (2020), preventing contact between radiolarians and other 98 remaining objects on the slide. The cover slides were allowed to dry overnight before being 99 mounted with NOA81 optical glue. A total of eight different cover slips, all from the same 100 samples, were placed onto one 76 mm x 26 mm glass slide, forming one sample.

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102 Finally, a new set of four samples (see Supplements 1, Table S1) was prepared for manually 103 testing the actual accuracy of the trained CNN. An improved cleaning technique was used, 104 which kept only siliceous particles that are larger than 63 µm, and completely removed all 105 clay, calcite and smaller or broken radiolarians (Sanfilippo et al., 1985, Tetard et al., 2020). In 106 fact, most radiolarians are larger, so using a 63 µm sieve will probably just remove smaller 107 broken pieces or radiolarians rather than the radiolarians themselves. At first, about 2-3 cm of 108 raw sediment sample was placed in a plastic beaker. Thereafter 30 ml of 30 % hydrochloric 109 acid was added and left for two hours and until there was no more reaction. Furthermore, 200 110 ml of distilled water was added to the beaker, which was stirred gently and left to settle for 111 two additional hours. The supernatant was removed and exchanged with 30 ml of 10 % 112 hydrogen peroxide and was left to rest for another two hours. The residue was thereafter 113 washed with a 63 µm sieve into a 100 ml beaker. To remove remaining clay particles, the 114 samples were processed in ultrasonic bath for ten minutes; they were later sieved again with a 115 63 µm mesh and collected afterwards in a filter. Next, the residues were dried in an oven at 50 116 °C and transferred into a glass vial.

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#### 119 **2.2 Image collection and processing**

All samples were photographed using a Nikon Eclipse Ni automatic microscope equipped with a Nikon DS-Ri2 microscope camera and Nikon NIS Element software, using a 20 x objective, allowing a 200 x magnification and 0.36  $\mu$ m/pixel resolution. The lowest and

123 highest focal points on the Z-axis were manually determined for each sample since the depth 124 varied depending on the thickness of the glass, coverslip, optical glue, and individual 125 radiolarian specimens. For each field of view (FOV), an image was taken at different focal depths, every 10 µm, depending on the minimum and maximum focal points determined for 126 127 each sample. The microscope then automatically stacked all images, taken at different focal 128 points for each FOV, in order to create a composite image. The microscope was programmed 129 to capture small images in 20 x 20 (400) FOV, covering about 10 x 10 mm out of the 12 x 12 130 mm available surface for each individual sample. The individual FOV images were 131 subsequently merged into one large mosaic image (see Fig. 1), which has as a result to lose 132 less images of specimens located on the edges of FOVs.

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Figure 1. 1) For each sample,  $20 \times 20$  images are automatically photographed in a convolving way and merged into one large "mosaic composed" image, which enables preserving more complete specimens which are not cut in half. 2) The mosaic

137 composed image thereafter went through grayscale conversion. 3) Segmentation of each unique particle into vignettes and138 image conversion into 8-bit black and white with black background.

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The composite mosaic pattern images received from the automatic microscope were first converted from RGB to 8-bit grayscale using Adobe Photoshop to decrease its size. The images were then segmented into ImageJ using the ImageJ BioVoxxel plugin (Brocher, 2022), and a modified script of the Autoradio\_Segmenter plugin (Tetard et al., 2020), which enabled each individual particle to become its own individual image, or vignette. For more details, the reader is referred to Tetard et al. (2020).

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148 Finally, we also included additional *Podocyrtis* species images prepared for an earlier dataset149 (Carlsson, 2022).

150

## 151 **2.3 Taxa selection and dataset**

For this study we decided to focus on 39 species (Plates 1 and 2), which are the most common
in the Middle Eocene interval of Demerara Rise and most of which are used in biostratigraphy
(Riedel and Sanfilippo, 1970, 1978; Sanfilippo and Nigrini, 1998; Meunier and Danelian
2022).

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157 Plate 1. Nassellarian radiolarian species commonly occurring in Middle Eocene sediments of Demerara Rise; species names 158 are followed by the ODP site and hole, core, section and sampled level from which it comes from. A) Dendrospyris 159 stylophora (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1259A-20R-4 W, 53-55 cm, B) Elaphospyris didiceros (Ehrenberg, 1874) group from 160 1258A-2R-4 W, 55-57 cm, C) Liriospyris clathrata (Ehrenberg, 1874) group from 1259A-20R-4 W, 53-55 cm, 161 D) Rhabdolithis pipa Ehrenberg 1854 from 1260A-15R-1 W, 55-57 cm, E) Lophophaena radians (Ehrenberg, 1874) group 162 from 1259A-16R-2 W, 55-57 cm, F) Dictyoprora mongolfieri (Ehrenberg, 1854) from 1260A-6R-2 W, 55-57 cm, 163 G) Dictyoprora amphora (Haeckel, 1887) 1258A-2R-4 W, 55–57 cm, group from

- 164 H) Rhopalosyringium? auriculaleporis (Clark and Campbell, 1942) from 1260A-14R-6 W, 55–57 cm,
- 165 I) Rhopalosyringium? biauritum (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1260A-12R-3 W, 55–57 cm, J) Dictyomitra parva (Kim, 1992)
- 166 from 1258A-2R-4 W, 55–57 cm, K) Lithochytris vespertilio Ehrenberg, 1874 from 1260A-10R-5 W, 55–57 cm,
- 167 L) Sethochytris triconiscus (Haeckel 1887) from 1259A-20R-4 W, 53–55 cm, M) Lychnocanium babylonis (Clark and
- 168 Campbell 1942) group from 1258A-3R-3 W, 56–58 cm, N) Lychnocanoma bajunensis (Renz, 1984) from 1258A-2R-4 W,
- 169 55–57 cm, O) Stichopterygium microporum (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1260A-8R-4 W, 54–56 cm, P) Carpocanopsis
- 170 ornata (Ehrenberg, 1874) group from 1260A-6R-5 W, 55–57 cm, Q) Cycladophora spatiosa (Ehrenberg, 1874) group from
- 171 1259A-20R-1 W, 55–57 cm, R) Anthocyrtis mespilus (Ehrenberg, 1847) group from 1259A-16R-2 W, 55–57 cm,
- 172 S) Zealithapium mitra (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1258A-2R-3 W, 55–57 cm.



174 Plate 2. Nassellarian radiolarian species commonly occurring in Middle Eocene sediments of Demerara Rise; species names 175 are followed by the ODP site and hole, core, section and sampled level from which it comes from. A) Lophocyrtis 176 alauda (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1260A-15R-1 W, 55-57 cm, B) Aphetocyrtis zamenhofi Meunier and Danelian, 2023 from 177 1259A-26R-5 W, 54-56 cm, C) Theocyrtis scolopax (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1260A-15R-3 W, 55-57 cm, D) Phormocyrtis 178 embolum (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1258A-2R-4 W, 55-57 cm, E) Phormocyrtis lazari Meunier and Danelian, 2023 from 179 1260A-8R-6 W, 54-56 cm, F) Podocyrtis (Lampterium) goetheana (Haeckel, 1887) from 1259A-18R-1 W, 53-55 cm, 180 G) Podocyrtis (Lampterium) chalara Riedel and Sanfilippo, 1970 from 1260A-6R-CC, 63-177 cm, H) Podocyrtis 181 (Lampterium) mitra Ehrenberg group, 1854 from 1260A-9R-1 W, 55-57 cm, I) Podocyrtis (Lampterium) sinuosa Ehrenberg, 182 1874 from 1259A-15R-1 W, 55-57 cm, J) Podocyrtis papalis Ehrenberg, 1847 from 1258A-2R-4 W, 55-57 cm, 183 K) Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) ampla Ehrenberg, 1874 from 1260A-10R-5 W, 55-57 cm, L) Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) 184 phyxis Sanfilippo and Riedel, 1973 from 1259A-16R-1 W, 55-57 cm, M) Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) diamesa Riedel and 185 Sanfilippo, 1970 from 1259A-26R-3 W, N) Podocvrtis (Lampterium) puellasinensis Ehrenberg, 1874 from 1259A-20R-4 W, 186 53-55 cm, O) Calocyclas hispida (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1260A-6R-4 W, 55-57 cm, P) Thyrsocyrtis (Thyrsocyrtis) 187 rhizodon Ehrenberg, 1874 from 1260A-6R-CC, 63-177 cm, Q) Thyrsocyrtis (Pentalocorys) triacantha (Ehrenberg, 1874) 188 from 1260A-8R-6 W, 54–56 cm, R) Eusyringium lagena (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1259A-25R-2 W, 55–57 cm, 189 S) Eusyringium fistuligerum (Ehrenberg, 1874) group from 1259 to 18R-1 W, 53-55 cm, T) Rhopalocanium 190 ornatum (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1259A-22R-1 W, 55-57 cm.



Synonymy lists are given in the supplementary catalogue (Supplements 3), thus allowing the reader to understand the species concept followed in this study. Taxonomic information for all the other radiolarian classes used in the analysis is also presented in there; most of the other radiolarians were grouped in supraspecific taxa, with taxonomic information and some typical forms given in the catalogue (Supplements 3).

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200 The ParticleTrieur software version 2.4.10, developed by Marchant et al. (2020), was used to 201 label our dataset. It includes a built-in k-nearest neighbor (KNN) algorithm, which is a 202 machine learning algorithm that can be used for supervising the classification tasks. It 203 identifies the k-nearest training data points or neighbors for a new data point and predicts a 204 label for the new data based on already labeled data. In the context of image classification, the 205 data points correspond to the pixels in the image. Therefore, ParticleTrieur can recognize 206 patterns in the images for individual classes and suggest classification for new or unclassified images, after some classes have already been added in a semi-supervised way but have of 207 208 course been validated by a human expert.

209

210 We managed to build a dataset consisting of 12,217 images out of a total of ca. 50 000 211 images, distributed in 116 classes, including the 39 important key-classes of well-known 212 nassellarian species (Plates 1 and 2). Some of the classes consisted of as few as one specimen 213 per class, while others contained up to nearly a thousand images (i.e. the largest class). 214 Classes with fewer than ten specimens were excluded from the CNN training, resulting in 215 only 96 classes to be trained by the model. The taxonomic framework is in many cases 216 classified based on Meunier and Danelian (2022 and 2023) at the species level, and higher 217 taxonomic ranks are classified, mainly based on Suzuki et al. (2021).

## 219 **2.4 CNN training**

220 Earlier studies that attempted to compare the accuracy of several CNNs on microfossil 221 assemblages found that Resnet50 usually performed very well for this purpose (Marchant et 222 al., 2020; Tetard et al., 2020; Mitra et al., 2018); we therefore chose to apply this model for 223 this particular study, instead of MobileNet v1 (Howard et al., 2017), which was we used 224 previously (Carlsson et al. 2022) in study focusing on eight closely related species of the 225 Eocene genus Podocyrtis. ResNet50 is a deep Convolutional Neural Network architecture 226 (He et al., 2016), and is one of the variations of the ResNet (short for "Residual Network") 227 family of models. The idea behind the formation of ResNet50 is to use residual learning to 228 avoid disappearing gradients in very deep neural networks. Because when the networks get 229 deeper, it becomes more difficult to update the weights of the earlier layers through 230 backpropagation and by using residual learning; the network can thus propagate the gradient 231 signal more easily, which improves the training of deeper networks. The weights of ResNet50 232 have also been pre-trained on a large dataset, for instance ImageNet, which includes millions 233 of labelled images of about 1,000 classes (He et al., 2016). Our training set consisted of 80 % 234 randomized images, chosen for each individual class present in the database, while the 235 remaining 20 % was used for validation.

236

#### 237 **2.5 Performance metrics**

The CNN training calculates automatically the classification accuracy and recall values based on the labeled dataset; both of them represent different ways of displaying the CNN performance (Fig. 2). For instance, if the aim is to detect all specimens belonging to a specific species (high recall value), sacrificing accuracy by including other objects not belonging to that species might be acceptable. This allows for easier tracking of the true abundance of that specific species, and misclassified objects may be identified and ignored. However, if misclassified objects, which may belong to another important species, end up in another species class, this would lower their recall value. Therefore, it is important to have a high accuracy overall, but when examining individual classes separately, recall value holds a significant importance. Both indices are of great interest for different applications, more focused on biostratigraphy or paleoceanography for example.





Figure 2. A theoretical example showing the importance of a high accuracy and a high recall value for individual classes.

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#### 253 **2.6. Test set to validate the CNN**

To validate the consistency of the CNN training and testing from our dataset, we once again estimated how accurately the trained CNN performed and we compared it with a human operator. The neural network training produced a prediction model that was inserted into ParticleTrieur version 3.0.0. A threshold value can be set directly in ParticleTrieur before classifying new images. The threshold value constrains the degree of accuracy desired for an image needed to be classified into a given class. If the probability for an image/specimen to be classified to a specific class is too low, this image will be left unclassified.

We randomly let the ParticleTrieur software pick 200 images selected from four new samples 261 262 (800 in total), which were unlabeled and contained all particles segmented from composed 263 images, from ODP site 1260, coming from different intervals within those used initially to 264 train the CNN, which were 1260A-6R-3W, 18-20 cm; 1260A-8R-5W, 70-72 cm; 1260A-13R-265 5W, 66-68 cm; and 1260A-15R-4W, 69-71 cm. In ParticleTrieur we let the trained CNN 266 identify all of them, using a threshold value of 0.5. We selected this low threshold value since 267 it is better having more images classified, even if that will give a somewhat lower accuracy, 268 recall, precision to classify more images rather than that they unclassified. We then examined 269 afterwards what was correctly or incorrectly classified.

270

## 271 **2.7 Application on 39 species**

With the same four samples, we then this time entered all segmented particles from the entire mosaic composed images covering most parts of the coverslips, resulting in a total of 15 932 images, which were automatically classified with the CNN. Here we focused on the targeted 39 classes representing the selected well-known species. We applied different threshold (1-0.5) values for the pre-trained network and checked how the CNN could recognize these 39 most common nassellarian species. The aim of this test was to try future potential applications.

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#### 281 **3 Results**

## 282 **3.1 Training of the initial dataset**

Our trained CNN obtained 86.6 % in overall accuracy, with 75.6 % in precision/accuracy
(Fig. 2); the latter measures the ability to avoid false positives and corresponds to the number

of specimens classified as a class and also belonging to that class, divided by all specimens classified to that class. Our CNN obtained 78 % of recall, which calculates the ability to detect all correct classifications, as it corresponds to the number of specimens in a class that were correctly classified divided by the total number of specimens in that class. The training and validation iterations are given in Supplements 2 figure S1, which confirms that the data is neither overfit, nor underfit.

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292

## PREDICTED LABELS

Figure 3. Simplified confusion matrix, showing the classification between different classes, with a focus on nassellarian super families. The x-axis on the left shows the true classes while the right axis shows recall values; the y-axis at the bottom shows the predicted classes while the top shows the precision value.

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Some of the classes that are visible in the confusion matrix (Fig. 2 or Fig. S2 in Supplements 2 for a more detailed confusion matrix) show a low individual score (diagonal numbers), mainly due to the low number of available specimens (see number next to the label name), or to a high degree of resemblance between closely related or similar looking species. Most of the 39 important species of nassellarians we focused on were classified with a high accuracy (Fig. S2 in Supplements 2).

305 Table 1. Precision, recall and F1 score for the 39 most important nassellarian species focused in this study.

Species	Training (#)	<b>Test</b> (#)	Precision	Recall	F1 score
Dendrospyris stylophora	35	7	0.71	0.71	0.71
Elaphospyris didiceros group	295	59	0.85	0.90	0.88
Liriospyris clathrata group	77	15	0.78	0.93	0.85
Dictyomitra parva	229	46	0.98	0.98	0.98
Dictyoprora amphora group	124	25	0.75	0.72	0.73
Dictyoprora mongolfieri	271	54	0.89	0.94	0.92
Rhopalosyringium auriculaleporis	104	21	0.84	0.76	0.80
Rhopalosyringium biaurata	24	5	0.83	1.00	0.91
Carpocanopsis ornata group	21	4	0.33	0.50	0.40
Stichopterygium microporum	64	13	0.93	1.00	0.96
Sethochytris triconiscus	22	4	1.00	1.00	1.00
Lithochytris vespertilio	20	4	1.00	1.00	1.00

Species	Training (#)	<b>Test</b> (#)	Precision	Recall	F1 score
Lychnocanoma bajunensis	103	21	1.00	1.00	1.00
Lychnocanium babylonis group	56	11	0.75	0.82	0.78
Lophophaena radians group	48	10	0.70	0.70	0.70
Rhabdolithis pipa	28	6	0.75	1.00	0.86
Aphetocyrtis zamenhofi	40	8	0.60	0.75	0.67
Lophocyrtis alauda	17	3	0.75	1.00	0.86
Theocyrtis scolopax	22	4	0.00	0.00	0.00
Phormocyrtis embolum	130	26	0.71	0.92	0.80
Phormocyrtis lazari	68	14	0.77	0.71	0.74
Calocyclas hispida	29	6	0.57	0.67	
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) chalara	207	41	0.98	1.00	0.99
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) goetheana	115	23	1.00	1.00	1.00
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) mitra	184	37	0.97	1.00	0.99
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) sinuosa	93	19	1.00	0.79	0.88
Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) ampla	42	8	1.00	0.88	0.93
Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) diamesa	62	12	0.58	0.92	0.71
Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) phyxis	44	9	0.89	0.89	0.89
Podocyrtis (Podocyrtis) papalis	302	60	0.95	0.83	0.83
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) puellasinensis	24	5	0.80	0.80	0.80
Pentalocorys triacantha	100	20	0.78	0.90	0.84
Thyrsocyrtis rhizodon	43	9	1.00	0.67	0.80

Species	Training (#)	<b>Test</b> (#)	Precision	Recall	F1 score
Eusyringium fistuligerum group	38	8	0.86	0.75	0.80
Eusyringium lagena	16	3	0.50	0.67	0.57
Rhopalocanium ornatum group	21	4	0.67	0.67	0.57
Zealithapium mitra	33	7	0.54	1.00	0.70
Anthocyrtis mespilus group	53	11	0.78	0.64	0.70
Cycladophora spatiosa group	53	11	1.00	0.91	0.95

315

## **307 3.2 Performance validation from the test set**

By using a threshold value of 0.5 the CNN classification resulted in that 769 images, out of a total of 800, were correctly classified. All classes were individually examined and the precision and recall values were calculated for each detected class (see Supplements 4). The CNN could classify these images into 76 different classes, while the human classifier considered that these groups belonged to 63 classes, excluding rare species which could not be classified into a proper class and were therefore referred to the class "others". Finally, an overall accuracy, recall, precision and F1 score were calculated (see Fig. 4).





Figure 4. CNN performance metrics based on a test set consisting of a total of 800 images, which were validated by a humanexpert.

## 318 **3.3 Application on new samples**

319 The manual validation of the classification made by a CNN on the four new samples using a threshold value of 1, always provided a correct interpretation without having any 320 321 misclassified species, although it was far from detecting all classes and all true specimens for 322 each class. Interestingly, with a threshold value of 0.9, we could in some sense detect almost 323 all classes present in the dataset with a 69-73 % accuracy (see Supplements 5) and get some 324 estimates for the number of taxa present in the samples. Some possible misclassifications can 325 be easily reviewed at a later stage. Lowering the threshold values increased indeed the number 326 of truly correct specimens in the right species, but it also increased the number of false 327 classifications (see Supplements 5). Regarding the average score of predicted key-species 328 using several threshold values (Table 2), the CNN was usually able to correctly identify 329 between 24 to 34 out of the 39 targeted species and also not falsely detect species which do 330 not exist (see Supplements 5).

Table 2. Average prediction results of the 39 key-species and its accuracy for different threshold values along with the totalnumber of images.

Threshold value	Predicted key- species	Correctly predicted species	key	Accuracy key- species	Predicted images	Total amount of images
1.00	77	77		1.00	1664	15,932
0.90	1144	784		0.69	11,074	15,932
0.80	1336	865		0.65	12,438	15,932
0.70	1501	943		0.63	13,462	15,932
0.60	1653	998		0.60	14,370	15,932

Threshold value	Predicted key- species	Correctly predicted species	key	Accuracy key- species	Predicted images	Total amount of images
0.50	1799	1043		0.58	15,232	15,932

335 4 Discussion

### **4.1 Classification**

337 Due to the high radiolarian diversity preserved in the studied samples obtained from the 338 equatorial Atlantic, the correct assignment of every single image to a class may be 339 challenging. One of the particularities of the studied radiolarian fauna is that it contains a lot 340 of rare and undescribed species. In addition, the current state of the art does not allow 341 confident taxonomic divisions in higher classes, as there are often unclear taxonomic 342 boundaries. A lot of taxa are also morphologically similar to each other, and a lot of 343 similarities sometimes exist between different families, giving us often hard time to find for 344 them a proper affinity and even acceptable taxonomic names. As an example, we may state 345 the confusion of *Carpocanopsis ornata* group with juvenile/broken Nassellaria group B and 346 Pterocorythoid group (see the catalogue in Supplements 3 and the confusion matrix in Fig. S2, 347 Supplements 2).

348

There have been challenges in determining the most commonly occurring nassellarian species. We aimed to ensure taxonomic clarity within these groups and only included taxa for which we are very confident for their assignment to that specific class. Consequently, numerous similar-looking species have been excluded from the classified dataset. This is because they did not fit into other groups or we judged that they would be confused with the taxon they most resemble with. However, this may be challenging as we strive to represent as much as possible from these samples, while also collecting new samples for automatic

classification. As is the case of an example mentioned above, we encountered many 356 357 specimens that resemble Carpocanopsis ornata group, but which do not always display the 358 discriminatory characters of the species. Those specimens would also always be misidentified 359 as C. ornata group and were therefore removed from the dataset. It is possible that these 360 forms may be misidentified as C. ornata group in future samples, but they have to be looked 361 upon individually afterwards. The important point is to obtain a dataset that consists of clean 362 C. ornata group specimens identified with high confidence, so that there can be a clear 363 reference of what a C. ornata group looks like (see the catalogue in Supplements 3 and the 364 confusion matrix in Fig. S2, Supplements 2).

365

In addition, difficulties have also been met when we attempted to consistently classify a high
number of images. Also, differences in individual specimen orientation and bubble inclusions
played a big role in getting the CNN to work and to find the proper classes.

369

Since all objects appearing on a slide are trained and given a class, some of the included classes may be artificially defined and therefore correspond to taxonomically "bin" classes. We focused mainly on nassellarian radiolarians, trying to include as many classes as possible neatly defined at the species level. Although, for some nassellarian classes presented at higher taxonomic levels, we were obliged to accept a very large taxonomic concept. Regarding spumellarians, as the recognition of their inner structures is important, but difficult to detect with computer vision, identifications are even more challenging.

377

## 378 **4.2 CNN training and new test set score**

379 It is not a shock that the test accuracy, which randomly selected 800 images from four new380 samples, performed less than the test of the 20 % of the labeled dataset, from which 80 %

were used to train the CNN. The accuracy of the test is 75.69 %, whereas the training 381 382 accuracy is 85.6 %. From our labeled dataset, we have purposely removed a lot of "trash" 383 particles, that will say particles which are broken fragments of radiolarians, blurry 384 background particles etc. because if we kept these images, the CNN would rather be 385 overtrained by the thousands of trash images and perform less. Besides that, rare species 386 which consisted of too few species were left untrained by the neural network and therefore the 20 % of test did not include that many "trash" images or any rare species, in contrast to the 387 388 new test set, which were completely randomly selected among any kind of particle that had 389 been segmented. This last test was just to confirm how well the CNN was generally trained. For our last application we tried to just focus on the 39 well known radiolarian species, since 390 391 it is the radiolarians that are of interest.

392

393 **4.3 Feedback on individual species** 

By examining the 39 targeted species individually in every single sample, we observed that some species were easily identified correctly, while others performed poorly during the CNN training iteration and ended up in different classes. Table 3 presents the examined species and samples, along with their training performance. This arrangement facilitates a better understanding of the high or low number of correctly predicted species based on the training performance of the CNN.

400

401 Table 3. Training accuracy, recall and number of correctly identified specimens for each one of the 39 targeted species in this 402 study and sample using a threshold value of 0.5, which is the lowest value we used in the test to identify all species which 403 have an identification correctness equal or higher than 0.5. Hyphens "-" correspond to species not found in the samples 404 (Meunier and Danelian, 2022; Meunier and Danelian, 2023).

Species	Accuracy	Recall	1260A 6R-3 W, 18-20 cm	1260A 8R-5 W, 70-72 cm	1260A 13R- 5 W, 66- 68 cm	1260A 15R- 4 W, 69- 71 cm
Dendrospyris stylophora	0.71	0.71	1	4	1	0
Elaphospyris didiceros group	0.85	0.90	16	27	10	48
Liriospyris clathrata group	0.78	0.93	12	2	7	10
Dictyomitra parva	0.98	0.98	_	_	_	108
Dictyoprora mongolfieri	0.89	0.94	36	9	38	14
Dictyoprora amphora group	0.75	0.72	1	2	8	68
Rhopalosyringium? auriculaleporis	0.84	0.76	_	2	3	3
Rhopalosyringium? biaurata	0.83	1.00	_	0	1	0
Carpocanopsis ornata group	0.33	0.50	12	0	1	_
Stichopterygium microporum	0.93	1.00	2	3	6	3
Sethochytris triconiscus	1.00	1.00	0	10	_	_
Lithochytris vespertilio	1.00	1.00	_	3	3	6
Lychnocanoma bajunensis	1.00	1.00	46	25	23	10
Lychnocanium babylonis group	0.75	0.82	_	5	14	8
Lophophaena radians group	0.70	0.70	2	0	2	_
Rhabdolithis pipa	0.75	1.00	2	6	1	3
Lophocyrtis alauda	0.75	1.00	_	_	8	9
Aphetocyrtis zamenhofi	0.60	0.75	_	_	0	20
Theocyrtis scolopax	0.00	0.00	_	_	2	1
Calocyclas hispida	0.57	0.67	4	12	0	0

Species	Accuracy	Recall	1260A 6R-3 W, 18-20 cm	1260A 8R-5 W, 70-72 cm	1260A 13R- 5 W, 66- 68 cm	1260A 15R- 4 W, 69- 71 cm
Phormocyrtis embolum	0.71	0.92	_	_	16	3
Phormocyrtis lazari	0.77	0.71	9	4	_	_
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) chalara	0.98	1.00	7	20	_	_
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) goetheana	1.00	1.00	2	_	_	_
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) mitra	0.97	1.00	_	2	1	_
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) sinuosa	1.00	0.79	_	_	1	2
Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) ampla	1.00	0.88	_	_	4	0
Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) phyxis	0.89	0.89	_	_	_	0
Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) diamesa	0.58	0.92	_	_	_	0
Podocyrtis (Podocyrtis) papalis	0.94	0.83	8	6	1	6
Podocyrtis (Lampterium) puellasinensis	0.80	0.80	0	0	-	-
Thyrsocyrtis rhizodon	1.00	0.67	15	2	4	11
Pentalocorys triacantha	0.78	0.90	12	43	7	4
Eusyringium lagena	0.50	0.67	_	_	3	7
Eusyringium fistuligerum group	0.86	0.75	9	5	2	0
Rhopalocanium ornatum group	0.67	0.67	3	0	6	1
Cycladophora spatiosa group	1.00	0.91	31	20	2	1
Anthocyrtis mespilus group	0.78	0.64	14	3	10	3
Zealithapium mitra	0.54	1.00	7	7	7	1

In general, the classes with good performance are *Elaphospyris didiceros* group (Plate 1.B), *Dictyomitra parva* (Plate 1.J), *Sethochytris triconiscus* (Plate 1.L), *Lithochytris vespertilio* (Plate 1.K), *Lychnocanoma bajunensis* (Plate 1.N), *Lychnocanium babylonis* group (Plate 1.M) and *Thyrsocyrts (Pentalocorys) triacantha* (Plate 1.Q). They are well-classified with few misclassified objects in their respective classes and they rarely appear in other classes.

411

The CNN was able to detect some of the true specimens of *Dendrospyris stylophora* (Plate 1.A). However, in many cases some trissocyclids/cephalospyrids with long feet were also misclassified as *D. stylophora*. Since this class is quite rare, it is difficult to make any accurate estimate about the application accuracy. For the training iteration the CNN obtained an accuracy of about 70 %.

417

*Liriospyris clathrata* group is a simple single-segmented nassellarian with large pores on its cephalis (Plate 1.C). Occasionally, some specimens may be misclassified into higher-ranked taxonomic classes, but overall, it performs well. It has about 80 % accuracy in the CNN training.

422

423 Overall, the CNN was able to correctly identify all forms of *Dictyoprora amphora* (Plate 1.G) 424 group, but many other broken and unusual radiolarian forms, including some *Dictyoprora* 425 spp. and *Dictyoprora mongolfieri* (Plate 1.F), were confused with this species group. 426 Although the majority *of D. mongolfieri*) were identified in their true class, a smaller number 427 of radiolarians or objects in the class were misclassified, indicating that these particular 428 classes have been well-trained with a 90 % accuracy.

430 Although some *Rhopalosyringium* ? *auriculaleporis* specimens (Plate 1.H) were identified 431 correctly, there are still several other objects that are misclassified as this species. The same 432 goes for *R*. ? *biauratum* (Plate 1.I), but since not many have been observed in our test 433 samples, it is difficult to make any fair estimates for this particular species.

434

435 *Carpocanopsis ornata* group (Plate 1.P) is poorly trained and is largely misclassified in the
436 training process, with a training accuracy of only ca. 30 %. This is likely due to its very
437 simple, smooth outline that is similar to many other taxa.

438

439 *Stichopterigyum microporum* (Plate 1.O) is classified well, despite having many similarities 440 with *Euctyrtidium levisaltarix*, a species that was not individualized in this study, but was 441 included in the *Eucyrtidium* genus class. Occasionally, some of these species may be mixed 442 up if there are no morphologically distinct morphotypes. However, in those cases where there 443 are distinct morphotypes, they are classified correctly.

444

445 The training accuracy of *Lophophaena radians* group (Plate 1.E) was ca. 70%, although there446 are not many estimates on how well this species is classified in the new samples obtained.

447

*Rhabdolithis pipa* (Plate 1.D) was detected frequently in our samples. However, a lot of other
particles also ended up being included in this class, alike some types of spumellarians, since *R. pipa* has only one simple segment and it does not display any radial symmetry and bears
two very long spines.

452

453 *Lophocyrtis alauda* (Plate 2.A) is well detected in samples coming from 1260A-13R-5W, 66454 68 cm and 1260A-15R-4W, 69-71 cm. The somewhat similar looking species, *Aphetocyrtis*

*zamenhofi* (Meunier and Danelian 2023) was only found present in 1260A-15R-4W, 69-71
cm but other objects or specimens were also mistakenly classified as *A. zamenhofi*, even at
samples in which they do not exist. The training accuracies are 60 % for *A. zamenhofi* and 75
% for *L. alauda*.

459

460 Not many specimens of *Calocyclas hispida* (Plate 2.O) have been trained by the CNN, and it 461 is only in sample 1260A-8R-5W, 70-72 cm that they appeared more often; they were 462 classified well, without having a lot of misidentified radiolaria or other objects appearing in 463 that class.

464

We did not encounter many typical specimens of *Podocyrtis goetheana* (Plate 2.F), but mainly early/transitional forms that do not display the elongated abdomen with the typical long straight bars on the median row of pores. In any case, most transitional forms were classified as *Podocyrtis chalara* (Plate 2.G) and exceptionally as *P. goetheana*. Otherwise, *P. goetheana* has a unique morphology compared to the rest of radiolarians present in our samples and it was therefore trained very well with a perfect F1 score; both accuracy and precision were 100 %.

472

473 Podocyrtis chalara (Plate 2.G) is well classified and recognized by the CNN and is easy to 474 detect in our test samples. However, when it comes to Podocyrtis mitra (Plate 2.H), our 475 samples contained transitional forms between Podocyrtis sinuosa (Plate 2.I) and P. mitra or 476 P. mitra and P. chalara. In the latter case, most specimens we captured were actually closer to 477 P. chalara than P. mitra and were therefore classified as P. chalara rather than P. mitra. In 478 the studied material there were too few typical specimens of P. sinuosa and P. mitra to make 479 up a clear mind, but most of them were transitional forms and the CNN had two specimens classified as *P. sinuosa* and one as *P. mitra*. Individually, *P. sinuosa* from other samples are
rather well-detected, even though it happened to have samples with a lower abundance of *P. sinuosa*.

483

484 The CNN can detect well Podocyrtis papalis (Plate 2.J). However, some forms that do not 485 belong to P. papalis were incorrectly classified, quite often as Podocyrtis ampla (Plate 2.K) or 486 Podocyrtis diamesa (Plate 2.M). Theocyrtis scolopax was also found classified as P. papalis. 487 There were not many specimens of P. diamesa in these samples; therefore, none was 488 classified as P. diamesa, and the few specimens of P. diamesa were actually classified as P. 489 papalis, which is logical since they are very similar (see also Carlsson et al., 2022). Finally, P. 490 ampla was always confused with P. papalis, as regrettably the CNN could not correctly detect 491 any single *P. ampla*.

492

493 Podocyrtis physis (Plate 2.L), an important biostratigraphic index species occurring only 494 within a short interval, was trained in the CNN with an 89 % accuracy and a recall value of 88 495 %; however, it was never classified correctly into its own class in the new test set of four 496 samples. Instead, it was frequently misidentified as Thyrsocyrtis rhizodon (Plate 2.P), which 497 is understandable, given that both species have an equal number of segments and consist of a 498 horn and feet (although they differ in size and shape) and are more or less barrel shaped. 499 Unfortunately, the CNN cannot detect size differences because all images are resized to the 500 same dimensions.

501

In conclusion, the *Podocyrtoges* lineage, which includes *P. ampla*, *P. phyxis*, and *P. diamesa*,
cannot be reliably detected in the new set of test samples using our currently trained CNN.
The different morphospecies of this lineage are difficult to be identified correctly due to the

frequent occurrence of transitional forms that look very similar to other taxa in our dataset.
Although we have a sufficient dataset of these species, more data and adjustments to similarlooking classes may be necessary to allow the CNN to more clearly distinguish them with a
high degree of accuracy, as humans are able to do.

509

510 We did not encounter any *Podocyrtis puellasinensis* (Plate 2.N) species but it was originally 511 trained with an accuracy and precision of 80 %.

512

513 Eusyringium lagena (Plate 2.R) can be easily detected by the CNN, and Eusyringium 514 fistuligerum group (Plate 2.S) is occasionally misclassified as *L. vespertilio* (Plate. 1.K) or *S.* 515 triconiscus (Plate 1.L). This is understandable since their proximal parts (thorax, cephalis, and 516 thick conical horn) look almost identical.

517

Not many specimens of *Rhopalocanium ornatum* group (Plate 2.T) were detected. This species was trained on a small number of specimens and therefore only obtained a training accuracy of about 70 %. Some specimens of the *R. ornatum* group were found in its true class but were also appearing in other species and higher taxonomic leveled classes, which implies a lower recall number.

523

524 Both *Cycladophora spatiosa* group (Plate 1.Q) and *Anthocyrtis mespilus* group (Plate 1.R) 525 could be detected well with a high accuracy in the samples in which they existed. In other 526 samples, they had a lower prediction accuracy with more specimens incorrectly classified as 527 either *A. spatiosa* group or *A. mespilus* group.

528

529 The classification of *Zealithapium mitra* (Plate 1.S) is not reliable due to its insufficient 530 training dataset, which comprises only a small number of images. As a result, many broken 531 radiolarians with large pores are frequently misidentified as *Z. mitra*, despite the fact that this 532 species is characterized by large pores with a more conical shape.

533

534 The results we obtained suggest that many of the classes we distinguished may be confidently 535 used in future applications (biostratigraphic or paleoceanographic). Well distinct species that 536 the CNN can easily detect in whole assemblage analyses have a low recall value and appear 537 rarely in wrong classes. As in many cases, the presence/absence of an index species is 538 sufficient for biostratigraphy, the automated classification of targeted species in whole 539 assemblage studies described in this paper, enables us to quickly confirm the correct 540 classification of species and thus opens new perspectives for the application of Artificial 541 Intelligence to radiolarian biostratigraphic studies. Apart from the 39 targeted species, many 542 of the other classes had a worse performance; indeed, many half-complete or blurry 543 specimens were classified as other objects. This makes it difficult for the moment to fully 544 trust the CNN classification for counting all radiolarian species in order to get information 545 about their relative abundances.

#### 546 **5 Conclusions**

547 The newly established dataset of middle Eocene tropical radiolarians is well adjusted to fit a548 CNN. We obtained a high training accuracy of 86.6 % for its training in a CNN.

549

We evaluated the performance of our trained Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) on new tests and compared it to human performance, and obtained a testing accuracy of about 75.69 %. We thereafter specifically focused on 39 different species which the CNN demonstrated notable success in accurately identifying those species that had been well-trained. 555 In order to obtain an acceptable accuracy of the CNN for further studies, the labeling of 556 classes was also revised to groups or separate taxa and reached the best compromise between 557 CNN accuracy and consistent taxonomy. For example, when two morphologically close 558 species or subspecies where often confused by the CNN, we found it better to fuse them 559 together in an acceptable taxonomic framework, unless they were individually of 560 biostratigraphic importance, instead of artificially biasing the CNN accuracy by often 561 mistaking these two taxa with each other, in the same way as they may be confused by an 562 operator.

563

This has proved to be an efficient way, both in speed and easiness, to quickly see what kind of radiolarian species exist and how many of them. However, since we focused only on a few classes, we cannot compare the relative abundance with certain taxa in relation to all radiolarians yet, but with improved methods and building a stronger dataset, it will be possible to get a closer estimate of the relative abundance of many taxa. This also highlights the importance of building good taxonomic datasets.

570 Overall, applying automatic image classification to the studied samples is time-saving, 571 particularly for detecting the presence of the selected nassellarian species. This approach 572 eliminates the need to manually count and track by an operator the targeted taxa present in a 573 sample and avoids the risk of identification bias between different operators.

574

## 575 Data availability

576 Microscope slides from Leg 207, Hole 1258A, 1259A and 1260A, which were used for our 577 dataset and application to a trained CNN, are stored at the University of Lille, France. The

dataset (https://doi.org/10.57745/E9YXW6, Carlsson, 2023) is published in the University of
Lille repository at Recherche Data Gouv.

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#### 590 **Declaration of interest**

591 None.

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761	Figure 1. 1) For each sample, 20 x 20 images are automatically photographed in a convolving
762	way and merged into one large "mosaic composed" image, which enables preserving more
763	complete specimens which are not cut in half. 2) The mosaic composed image thereafter went
764	through grayscale conversion. 3) Segmentation of each unique particle into vignettes and
765	image conversion into 8-bit black and white with black background.
766	
767	Figure 2. A theoretical example showing the importance of a high accuracy and a high recall
768	value for individual classes.
769	
770	Figure 3. Simplified confusion matrix, showing the classification between different classes,
771	with a focus on nassellarian super families. The x-axis on the left shows the true classes while
772	the right axis shows recall values; the y-axis at the bottom shows the predicted classes while
773	the top shows the precision value.
774	
775	Figure 4. CNN performance metrics based on a test set consisting of a total of 800 images,
776	which were validated by a human expert.
777	
778	Plate 1. Nassellarian radiolarian species commonly occurring in Middle Eocene sediments of
779	Demerara Rise; species names are followed by the ODP site and hole, core, section and
780	sampled level from which it comes from. A) Dendrospyris stylophora (Ehrenberg 1874) from
781	1259A-20R-4W, 53-55 cm, B) Elaphospyris didiceros (Ehrenberg 1874) group from 1258A-

782 2R-4W, 55-57 cm, C) Liriospyris clathrata (Ehrenberg, 1854) group from 1259A-20R-4W,

783 53-55 cm, D) Rhabdolithis pipa Ehrenberg 1854 from 1260A-15R-1W, 55-57 cm, E)

784 Lophophaena radians (Ehrenberg, 1874) group from 1259A-16R-2W, 55-57 cm, F) 785 Dictyoprora mongolfieri (Ehrenberg 1854) from 1260A-6R-2W, 55-57 cm, G) Dictyoprora 786 amphora (Haeckel, 1887) group from 1258A-2R-4W, 55-57 cm, H) Rhopalosyringium ? 787 auriculaleporis (Clark and Campbell, 1942) from 1260A-14R-6W, 55-57 cm, I) Rhopalosyringium ? biauritum (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1260A-12R-3W, 55-57 cm, J) 788 789 Dictyomitra parva (Kim 1992) from 1258A-2R-4W, 55-57 cm, K) Lithochytris vespertilio 790 Ehrenberg 1874 from 1260A-10R-5W, 55-57 cm, L) Sethochytris triconiscus (Haeckel 1887) 791 from 1259A-20R-4W, 53-55 cm, M) Lychnocanium babylonis (Clark and Campbell 1942) 792 group from 1258A-3R-3W, 56-58 cm, N) Lychnocanoma bajunensis (Renz 1984) from 793 1258A-2R-4W, 55-57 cm, O) Stichopterygium microporum (Ehrenberg 1874) from 1260A-794 8R-4W, 54-56 cm, P) Carpocanopsis ornata (Ehrenberg, 1874) group from 1260A-6R-5W, 795 55-57 cm, **Q**) Cycladophora spatiosa (Ehrenberg 1874) group from 1259A-20R-1W, 55-57 796 cm, **R**) Anthocyrtis mespilus (Ehrenberg 1847) group from 1259A-16R-2W, 55-57 cm, **S**) 797 Zealithapium mitra (Ehrenberg 1874) from 1258A-2R-3W, 55-57 cm.

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799 Plate 2. Nassellarian radiolarian species commonly occurring in Middle Eocene sediments of 800 Demerara Rise; species names are followed by the ODP site and hole, core, section and 801 sampled level from which it comes from. A) Lophocyrtis alauda (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 802 1260A-15R-1W, 55-57 cm, B) Aphetocyrtis zamenhofi Meunier and Danelian, 2023 from 803 1259A-26R-5W, 54-56 cm, C) Theocyrtis scolopax (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1260A-15R-3W, 804 55-57 cm, **D**) *Phormocyrtis embolum* (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1258A-2R-4W, 55-57 cm, **E**) 805 Phormocyrtis lazari Meunier and Danelian, 2023 from 1260A-8R-6W, 54-56 cm, F) 806 Podocyrtis (Lampterium) goetheana (Haeckel, 1887) from 1259A-18R-1W, 53-55 cm, G) 807 Podocyrtis (Lampterium) chalara Riedel and Sanfilippo 1970 from 1260A-6R-CC, 63-177 cm, H) Podocyrtis (Lampterium) mitra Ehrenberg group, 1854 from 1260A-9R-1W, 55-57 808

809 cm, I) Podocyrtis (Lampterium) sinuosa Ehrenberg 1874 from 1259A-15R-1W, 55-57 cm, J) 810 Podocyrtis papalis Ehrenberg, 1847 from 1258A-2R-4W, 55-57 cm, K) Podocyrtis 811 (Podocyrtoges) ampla Ehrenberg 1874 from 1260A-10R-5W, 55-57 cm, L) Podocyrtis 812 (Podocyrtoges) physis Sanfilippo and Riedel, 1973 from 1259A-16R-1W, 55-57 cm, M) 813 Podocyrtis (Podocyrtoges) diamesa Riedel and Sanfilippo, 1970 from 1259A-26R-3W, N) 814 Podocyrtis (Lampterium) puellasinensis Ehrenberg 1874 from 1259A-20R-4W, 53-55 cm, **O**) 815 Calocyclas hispida (Ehrenberg, 1874) from 1260A-6R-4W, 55-57 cm, P) Thyrsocyrtis 816 (Thyrsocyrtis) rhizodon Ehrenberg 1874 from 1260A-6R-CC, 63-177 cm, Q) Thyrsocyrtis 817 (Pentalocorys) triacantha (Ehrenberg 1874) from 1260A-8R-6W, 54-56 cm, R) Eusyringium 818 lagena (Ehrenberg 1874) from 1259A-25R-2W, 55-57 cm, S) Eusyringium fistuligerum 819 (Ehrenberg 1874) group from 1259-18R-1W, 53-55 cm, T) Rhopalocanium ornatum 820 (Ehrenberg 1874) from 1259A-22R-1W, 55-57 cm.