

An image analysis method to study the relationship between seagrasses and their epiphytes

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2 Declaration of interests

3 ☒The authors declare that they have no known competing financial
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11 An image analysis method to study the relationship
12 between seagrasses and their epiphytes

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33 **Abstract:**

34 **Seagrasses are globally threatened due to increasing**
35 **environmental stressors in coastal ecosystems. Excessive**
36 **accumulation of algal epiphytes is suggested to be harmful to**
37 **seagrasses, but an understanding of the quantitative**
38 **relationship between epiphyte accumulation and effects on**
39 **seagrass is still incomplete. The biomass, pigment and**
40 **morphological measures widely used in understanding**
41 **seagrass-epiphyte relationships provide limited spatiotemporal**
42 **resolution of the dynamics of epiphyte colonization relative to**
43 **host leaf growth and senescence. In this study, color scanning**
44 **and image analysis methods were developed and validated to**
45 **characterize epiphyte accumulation relative to seagrass host**
46 **morphology. *Thalassia testudinum* collected monthly or**
47 **bimonthly from July 2019 to April 2020 in Redfish Bay, Texas,**
48 **was analyzed through traditional and image-based measures.**
49 **Spectral Angle Mapper (SAM) algorithms within the ENVI**
50 **Program distinguished the pixels of many epiphytes**
51 **collectively from epiphyte-free leaf areas based on RGB color**
52 **bands. Misclassified pixels were < 10% in 94% of the analyzed**
53 **images. Classification accuracy was also evaluated by**
54 **correlation of traditional biomass and morphology metrics vs.**
55 **image-based metrics for more than 2,000 seagrass and**

56 epiphyte images collected across different seasons and
57 environmental conditions. Image-derived seagrass metrics
58 strongly correlated with traditional metrics, but linear
59 regressions of epiphyte biomass vs. epiphyte area (pixels) and
60 biomass ratio of epiphyte to seagrass vs. epiphyte coverage
61 (epiphyte pixels/leaf pixels) were weaker. This was likely due to
62 seasonal and environmental influences on both the epiphyte
63 community composition and the seagrass-epiphyte
64 relationship, since image analysis does not capture the depth of
65 epiphyte growth on the leaf. The image analysis method
66 provides insight into the spatiotemporal accumulation of
67 epiphytes on the seagrass host and has the potential to be
68 adapted to detect environmentally-induced changes in the
69 community composition of epibiota.

70

71 **Key word: Epiphyte, Image analysis, Seagrass, Seagrass-**
72 **epiphyte relationship; Algae; Biofilm; Environmental**
73 **conditions, Biomass ratio; Leaf coverage; Community**
74 **composition**

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79 **1. Introduction**

80

81 Seagrasses are important marine plants that provide multiple
82 ecological services to coastal ecosystems (Hemminga and Duarte,
83 2000). Seagrass beds enhance biodiversity and provide habitat for
84 marine organisms in different life stages, including commercially
85 important species (Duffy, 2006; Heck et al, 2003). As major
86 primary producers, seagrasses supply organic carbon and food
87 resources for marine organisms inhabiting tropical and temperate
88 areas (Heck et al., 1997; Orth et al., 2006; Van Katwijk et al.,
89 2016). Seagrass systems also play significant roles in filtering
90 nutrients flowing into coastal ecosystems and stabilizing sediments
91 to store blue carbon derived from leaves and rhizomes (Greiner et
92 al., 2013). As major components in seagrass ecosystems, epiphytes
93 contribute high productivity, sometimes exceeding the biomass of
94 the seagrass host (Orth and Van Montfrans, 1984). Observation of
95 invertebrate feeding behavior and isotope tracking indicated that
96 epiphytic algae can be the primary food resource in seagrass
97 meadows (Kitting et al., 1984; Nielsen and Lethbridge, 1989).
98 Primary production in Mississippi Sound included seagrass,
99 epiphytic algae, sand microflora and phytoplankton, with the
100 dominant producer being epiphyte algae (Moncreiff et al. 1992).
101 However, excessive accumulation of epiphytes can be detrimental

102 to seagrass, or even the whole coastal ecosystem (Bulthuis and
103 Woelkerling, 1983). It has been suggested that seagrass plant
104 morphology is affected as a response to competition with epiphytes
105 for light and nutrients (Frankovich and Fourqurean, 1997; Ralph et
106 al., 2007; Ow et al., 2020). Light attenuation is the major limiting
107 determinant of seagrass presence by decreasing its photosynthesis
108 (Dennison and Alberte, 1985, 1986; Ralph et al., 2007; Nelson,
109 2017a). Due to eutrophication, fast-growing epiphytes may reduce
110 the light penetration to the leaf by intercepting the light to reduce
111 productivity. Conditions of eutrophication-induced phytoplankton
112 blooms, turbidity from sediment disturbance, and/or overgrowth of
113 epiphytes reduce light availability. Light below a variable
114 threshold of 4-36% surface irradiance limited seagrass
115 photosynthesis (Dennison et al., 1993). Ammonia uptake by
116 seagrass leaves was also reduced with increasing epiphyte
117 coverage (Cornelisen and Thomas, 2004) and there may be effects
118 on carbon uptake and oxygen supply (Sand-Jensen, 1977;
119 Brodersen et al., 2015). These mechanisms may explain in part
120 why excessive epiphyte growth is considered one of the factors
121 contributing to seagrass decline. Thus, Nelson (2017b) developed a
122 quantitative method to establish a threshold of epiphyte load as an
123 indicator of eutrophication in coastal ecosystems. Epiphyte
124 loading, controlled by both bottom-up and top-down processes

125 (Heck and Valentine, 2006, 2007; Peterson et al., 2007; Whalen et
126 al., 2013), is thus an integrated indicator of environmental
127 influences.

128

129 Because of the ecological importance of seagrass, scientists have
130 monitored epiphyte accumulation on seagrass blades to evaluate
131 impacts on seagrass health (Borowitzka et al., 2007; Burkholder et
132 al., 2007; Whalen et al., 2013). The seagrasses are not just simple
133 substrata for epiphytes, rather, the epiphytes may select suitable
134 seagrass leaves because of positive or negative interactions
135 (Pinckney and Micheli, 1998). Recent works about diverse
136 microbe-seagrass mutualism and the defense systems of the
137 seagrass against the epiphytic microorganisms indicated complex
138 biochemical interactions between epiphytes and their seagrass
139 hosts (Crump et al., 2018; Papazian et al., 2019). The interaction
140 between seagrass hosts and their associated epiphytic algae
141 communities could change dramatically due to variable
142 environmental factors, including light, water temperature, nutrient
143 levels, and grazing effects (Nelson and Waaland, 1997; Armitage
144 et al., 2006; Heck and Valentine, 2006; Whalen et al., 2013;
145 Mabrouk et al. 2014). Hence, understanding the patterns of
146 epiphyte accumulation on seagrass blades could provide important

147 insight into changes in the epiphyte-seagrass dynamics and
148 associated environmental conditions.
149
150 Understanding seagrass responses to environmental change
151 requires consideration of physiological, morphological, and
152 community consequences. This requires accurate assessment of
153 morphological changes as an immediate temporal response
154 (McMahon et al., 2013). Biomass, leaf length and width, and
155 seagrass bed distribution and areal coverage are common
156 indicators used for seagrass condition assessments in large scale
157 monitoring projects (Neckles et al., 2012; McMahon et al., 2013;
158 Congdon and Dunton, 2016; Hobson and Whisenant, 2018).
159 Epiphyte accumulation is also an indicator of environmental
160 conditions (McMahon et al., 2013; Nelson, 2017b) and the
161 dominant methods focus on biomass, including dry weight biomass
162 and ash-free dry weight biomass (Dry organic weight) (Heijs,
163 1984; Peterson et al., 2007). Alternative measures utilizing
164 pigment quantification or visual microscopic examination also
165 identified patterns of epiphyte accumulation on seagrass (Armitage
166 et al., 2006; Corlett and Jones, 2007; Ow et al., 2020). The
167 epiphyte composition was distinguished by relative concentrations
168 of photopigments including chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b*,
169 fucoxanthin, and zeaxanthin (Pinckney and Micheli, 1998;

170 Armitage et al., 2006) which represented the biomass of different
171 microalgal groups.
172
173 Epiphytes on seagrass are typically collected by scraping gently
174 from host plants. Some studies removed epiphytes from rooted
175 macrophytes by shaking in bottles with low pH MES buffer
176 (Zimba and Hopson, 1997), or preprocessing with dilute acid for
177 removing calcareous epiphytes (Bulthuis and Woelkerling, 1983;
178 Alcoverro et al., 1997). Other mechanical methods used water flow
179 (Hickman, 1971), or scraping after lyophilizing on dry ice
180 (Penhale, 1977). The traditional epiphyte removal and biomass
181 measures are simple and inexpensive to perform, but they are
182 somewhat tedious and may fail to account for community species
183 composition or morphology changes at the seagrass leaf level, and
184 thus provide limited and incomplete spatiotemporal information
185 regarding response to a changing environment. Other alternative
186 evaluations, such as photopigment quantification demonstrate the
187 variability of epiphyte coverage and community assemblages, but
188 they do not easily reveal the spatial and temporal patterns of
189 epiphyte accumulation on seagrass leaves that could be important
190 for understanding how the seagrass-epiphyte dynamic relationship
191 changes in response to environmental factors. It would be helpful
192 to develop other easily accessible technologies to obtain greater

193 spatiotemporal resolution in assessment of epiphyte coverage,
194 accumulation, and epiphyte community composition changes.
195

196 The objective of this study was to develop a robust image analysis
197 technique for monitoring the spatiotemporal epiphyte accumulation
198 on *Thalassia testudinum* leaves, and to provide some validation of
199 the method and its utility. *T. testudinum*, the subject of this study,
200 is a climax species and one of the three most prevalent seagrass
201 species in the Gulf of Mexico (with *Syringodium filiforme* and
202 *Halodule wrightii*) (Dunton et al., 2010; Congdon and Dunton,
203 2016). The relatively long-lived *T. testudinum* leaves provide
204 surfaces to which microorganisms, algae, and invertebrates readily
205 attach and grow (Corlett and Jones, 2007; Michael et al., 2008).

206 With the development of advanced digital photography and
207 computer science, the widespread application of image-analysis in
208 many plant studies makes these methodologies particularly
209 attractive for seagrass and epiphyte analyses (Boese et al., 2008;
210 Shamir et al., 2010; Goltzarian et al., 2011; Campbell and
211 Fourqurean, 2014; Canonico et al., 2019). For example, Boese et
212 al. (2008) used ERDAS ER Mapper software, which is widely
213 applied in geospatial image analysis, to analyze injury on seagrass
214 leaves. More recently, image analysis was used to surveil for
215 eelgrass wasting disease on scanned leaves (Aoki et al., 2022), and

216 for assessment of epiphyte coverage on scanned leaves
217 (Mehrubeoglu et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2023).

218

219 In this work, a color scanning and image analysis-based method
220 was developed to process scanned RGB color images of seagrass
221 blades to distinguish epiphyte-colonized vs. uncolonized leaf areas
222 of *T. testudinum*. High-resolution pixel classification was derived
223 from the spectral information and validated to accurately quantify
224 the seagrass leaf area morphology, as well as the pixel areas
225 corresponding to diverse epiphytes collectively vs uncolonized
226 seagrass. The image-derived proportion of leaf area colonized by
227 epiphytes (Leaf Coverage) is inferred to represent the growth rates
228 of seagrass leaves and colonizing epiphytes relative to each other,
229 providing unique insight into the epiphyte-seagrass relationship
230 that is compared to the epiphyte/seagrass biomass ratio (epiphyte
231 load). This work presents the development and validation of the
232 image analysis method using the same experimental samples that
233 were previously analyzed in relation to seasonal and environmental
234 nutrient variation (Huang et al. 2023).

235

236 **2. Method**

237

238 **2.1 Seagrass collection and processing**

239 Shoots of *Thalassia testudinum* were collected from persistent
240 turtle grass beds (27°52'55"N; 97°08'55"W) adjacent to the
241 Intracoastal Waterway (ICWW) and near Redfish Bay located on
242 the northwestern Gulf of Mexico (Figure 1A). Two study areas
243 (Figure 1B) on the north and south sides of a man-made peninsula
244 with an RV Park were chosen because of their proximity, different
245 exposure to anthropogenic nutrients and visual distinctions
246 between epiphytic communities. The north area is near a
247 wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) effluent discharge site, and
248 the south area (Control) is farther away from a second wastewater
249 treatment plant effluent release site that also includes mitigating
250 nutrient filtration through a wetland system. Within the Control
251 and WWTP areas, there were 3 sampling sites that differed by
252 depth (Table 1), labeled Shallow (S), Medium (M) and Deep (D).
253 The Control M site was replaced by a special site (CI) in the south
254 area that was close to the ICWW and adjacent to a shallow oyster
255 reef. CI had the highest dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) and the
256 highest epiphyte loading compared to Control and WWTP areas
257 (Huang et al. 2023). From July 2019 to April 2020, *Thalassia*.
258 *testudinum* was collected monthly or bi-monthly. The volume and
259 time requirements of sample processing work necessitated
260 staggered visits to the south and north sampling areas at
261 approximately three-week intervals.

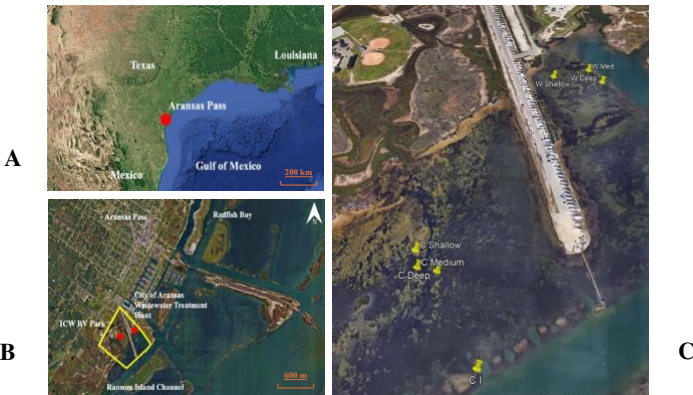


Figure 1. (A) Map of the Texas Coastal Bend and (B) the Aransas Pass-Redfish Bay sampling area (Yellow boundary area). The maps are from Google Earth. Red dots represent two permitted WWTP discharge sites. (C) Enlargement of the yellow boundary area in A. Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) imagery of study area courtesy of Dr. Hua Zhang at TX A&M University-Corpus Christi. The “Control” site is south of the RV park, comprising shallow (CS) and deep sites (CD). The “WWTP” area is north of the RV park, comprising shallow (WS), medium (WM) and deep (WD) sites. The Control ICWW (CI) site showing the highest epiphyte loading is also located.

Table 1. Depth and GPS coordinates for 6 sampling sites in Aransas-Redfish Bay Study area, Texas

Sampling Location	Mean Depth (cm)	Standard Deviation	Minimum Depth (cm)	Maximum Depth (cm)	GPS Coordinates
Control Shallow (CS)	58.0	13.0	45.0	88.0	W 027.88053 N 097.15044
Control Deep (CD)	83.3	13.4	65	107	W 027.88021 N 097.15002
Control ICWW (CI)	47.2	11.9	35	73	W 027.88053 N 097.15044
WWTP Shallow (WS)	67.2	17.8	29	95	W 027.88485 N 097.14861
WWTP Medium (WM)	79.3	16.6	46	110	W 027.88467 N 097.14790

WWTP	93.2	16.5	62	125	W
Deep					027.88435
(WD)					N
					097.14761

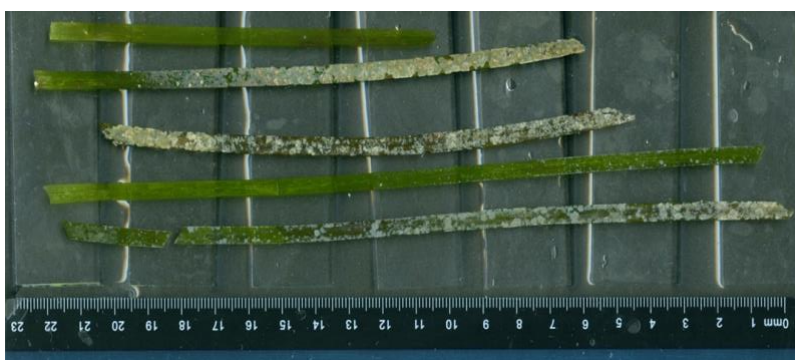
274

275 For each sampling, all seagrass shoots were harvested within three
 276 haphazardly placed “rings” at each site for triplicate replication.
 277 Rings consisted of a thin slice of a 7.6 cm inner diameter PVC
 278 pipe, encompassing an area of $4.53 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2$. Seagrass shoots and
 279 leaves angled by the current were gently re-positioned so that
 280 every leaf, of every shoot that was located within the ring, was
 281 contained entirely within the ring. Leaves of shoots anchored
 282 outside the ring were excluded from the ring. Then all seagrass
 283 shoots anchored inside the ring were harvested by reaching down
 284 into the sediment and plucking, keeping all leaves still attached to
 285 their shoot. Representation of young shoots was obtained in this
 286 manner. This sampling strategy is important for capturing variation
 287 in the different states (ages) of seagrass growth and epiphyte
 288 accumulation. Seagrass samples were collected in plastic bottles,
 289 placed on top of ice for transport, and stored at 4-10 °C in the
 290 laboratory.

291

292 Initial sample processing in the laboratory was completed within
 293 72 hours of harvest. Seagrass samples were gently soaked for 2-3
 294 minutes in deionized water to remove salt and loose non-
 295 specifically associated material (e.g., sand). The green portion of

296 leaves were removed from a single whole shoot at the junction
 297 with the leaf sheath, measured for morphometrics (leaf length and
 298 width), and then arranged on a fluid mount scanning tray for the
 299 Epson Perfection V-750 Pro color flatbed scanner (Epson, Carson,
 300 CA). Leaf images were obtained using 24-bit color scanning at
 301 1200 dpi resolution and then saved as .tiff files (Figure 2). After
 302 scanning leaves, epiphytes were removed from seagrass blades by
 303 scraping with a microscope slide into a small volume (<10 mL) of
 304 deionized water. Subsequently, the epiphytes and the epiphyte-free
 305 leaves were dried to constant weight at 60°C for biomass
 306 measurement. The leaves were not re-scanned after epiphyte
 307 removal in this study because sometimes there is damage to the
 308 leaves that compromises a second image analysis. However,
 309 preliminary studies (data not shown) showed epiphyte removal
 310 efficiency to typically be >90%.



311
 312 **Figure 2. Scanning picture of one *Thalassia.testudinum* shoot from “Control” area**
 313 **(Lightened by 15%).**

314

315 **2.2 Image analysis**

316
317 Scanned images were analyzed in the ENVI 5.0 program (L3
318 Harris Technologies, Ohio). This geospatial analytics software is
319 widely used for earth science, construction, and vegetation
320 research, including several seagrass mapping studies (Lyons et al.,
321 2011; Canty, 2014). Here, it was applied on a micro-level to
322 analyze epiphyte accumulation on the leaf surfaces. The area of
323 each seagrass leaf and associated epiphytes were recorded by
324 counting the pixels of the uncovered and covered areas of the leaf,
325 respectively. The proportional coverage of the seagrass leaf by
326 epiphyte was considered to be an indicator of epiphyte recruitment
327 and growth relative to seagrass growth.
328
329 The pixels of background and other non-analyzed contents were
330 edited to appear as mask pixels by manually creating an outline
331 around each seagrass blade. The edited leaf images were then
332 analyzed by Spectral Angle Mapper (SAM) classification to
333 distinguish the uncolonized seagrass leaf and areas covered by
334 epiphytes. As a leading classification method in various studies,
335 the SAM algorithm is implemented in ENVI to compare image
336 spectra directly (Yuhas et al., 1992; Kruse et al., 1993). In a true-
337 color image, the standard creation of different colors in each pixel
338 is produced by combining three values that represent the

339 reflectance from the red, green, and blue (RGB) bands. Each of
340 these bands is digitally numbered from 0 (no reflectance) to 255
341 (maximum reflectance). The three bands are treated as three
342 spectra by ENVI. By considering each pixel with three spectra as a
343 vector, spectral information of each pixel can be transformed into a
344 vector in a three-dimensional cartesian coordinate system (R, G,
345 B). The SAM algorithm quantifies the similarity (difference)
346 between the pixel spectrum and the reference spectrum by the
347 magnitude of a spectral angle (Kruse et al., 1993).

348

349 Classifications of seagrass leaf vs epiphytic coverage were
350 estimated by evaluating the degrees of the spectral angles between
351 the pre-established reference spectra and the test spectra. The
352 reference spectra were selected by the minimum, mean ($\pm$ SD), and
353 maximum of spectra in multiple manually captured areas
354 (1000~5000 pixels), which were visually classified as seagrass or
355 epiphytes, from approximately 200 scanned images. The seagrass
356 leaf images for building seagrass and epiphyte reference spectra
357 were from the samples harvested in the “Control” and “WWTP”
358 areas in August 2019. A random seagrass blade image was pre-
359 analyzed to further select the applicable reference spectra. Through
360 visual inspection, reference spectra that misidentified seagrass and
361 epiphyte pixels were eliminated from the spectral reference

libraries. Remaining spectra were combined, respectively, to produce a seagrass spectral library and an epiphyte spectral library. The seagrass spectral library contained 482 reference spectra, which included the uncolonized area of seagrass blades which had somewhat different colors due to variable age, growth and health status, and possibly due to undetected presence of microbiota. The epiphyte spectral library contained 843 reference spectra from a mixed group of diverse epiphytic components. 2,061 edited leaf images (background removed) were analyzed using both the seagrass and epiphyte spectral libraries. The threshold of spectral angle identification was set on 0.04 angle radians ($\approx 2.3^\circ$) based on visual estimation from pre-analysis. The pixels were identified as seagrass, epiphytes, or unclassified content by calculating their spectra's similarity (or lack thereof) to the corresponding reference spectra through the ENVI program.

377

378 **2.3 Output Validation**

After classifying the images, two types of validation methods, referred to as “Intrinsic Validation” and “Extrinsic Validation”, were used to calculate the accuracy of identified seagrass and epiphyte pixels. Pixels identified from seagrass and epiphyte spectral libraries were compared with each other and to ground-truth pixels as “Intrinsic Validation” of the proportion of correctly

385 identified pixels. From another approach, the process of “Extrinsic
 386 Validation” compared the imaging-derived metrics with traditional
 387 biomass metrics to observe the correlation between the two types
 388 of indicators. The image-based measurement is considered to be
 389 valid if the error from “Intrinsic Validation” is sufficiently small
 390 (<10%), and if there is a goodness of fit between the image
 391 classification outputs and biomass measurements in “Extrinsic
 392 Validation”.

393

394 2.3.1 “Intrinsic Validation”

395 Ideally, all pixels should be uniquely classified by one of the two
 396 spectral libraries as bare seagrass leaf or epiphyte. The percent
 397 cover of epiphytes on each leaf was calculated from the seagrass
 398 (*SG*)- and epiphyte (*Epi*)-classified images (Figures 3B and 3C)
 399 and compared. This validation procedure quantified the
 400 discrepancy (the difference between epiphyte coverage estimated
 401 from the seagrass and epiphyte spectral libraries). The discrepancy
 402 corresponded to the percent of the area in the classified images that
 403 was incorrectly classified. The percent cover by epiphyte in *SG*-
 404 and *Epi*-classified images was calculated as follows:

405

406 Percent Cover of Epiphyte (*SG*) =

407 $(\text{pixels of unclassified area}) / (\text{pixels of total leaf area}) \times 100\%$

408 (Eq. 1)

409

410 Percent Cover of Epiphyte (*Epi*) =

411 (pixels of identified epiphytes) / (pixels of total leaf area) × 100%

412 (Eq. 2)

413

414 where, the pixels which could not be identified as seagrass by the
415 seagrass spectral library, listed as “pixels of unclassified area” in
416 Eq. 1, were ideally counted as epiphytes.

417

418 The number of unclassified pixels, identified epiphyte pixels, and
419 total leaf area pixels were tallied by the ENVI program. The
420 identification of epiphytes and seagrass was considered to be valid
421 if the absolute difference in percent cover of epiphytes between
422 *SG*- and *Epi*- images had a small value (<10%), which suggested
423 that the unclassified area in *SG*-classified images matched the
424 epiphyte area identified in the *Epi*-classified images.

425

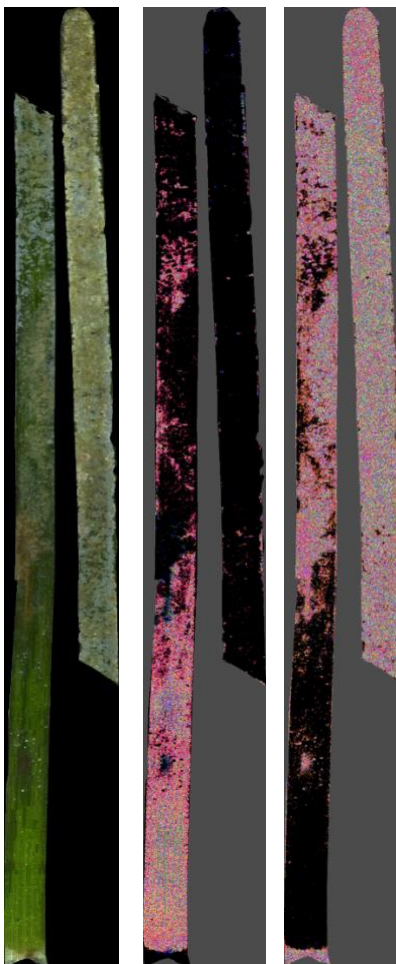
426

427

428

429

430



A B C

Figure 3. An example of seagrass blade color scans (A) and ENVI classification of seagrass and epiphyte (B and C respectively) collected from Control area on July 31, 2019. The black areas are the unclassified pixels using a particular spectral library (NOT seagrass in (B), and NOT epiphyte in (C)). (A) original scanned blade; (B) seagrass classified Image (ENVI); (C) epiphyte classified image (ENVI). Images lightened by 15%.

The classification outputs were also evaluated by “overlap analysis”, which quantified misclassified pixels by “overlapping” the *Epi* images entirely over the corresponding *SG* images. The

443 output of overlap validation created three kinds of pixels, including
444 correctly paired pixels, “overlapping” pixels, and “unaccounted”
445 pixels. The paired pixels were those that were uniquely identified
446 by either the seagrass or the epiphyte spectral libraries. If the pixels
447 were identified as both seagrass and epiphytes by the two spectral
448 libraries simultaneously, they were regarded as “overlapping”
449 pixels. Pixels that could not be identified by either seagrass or
450 epiphyte libraries were regarded as “unaccounted” pixels. This
451 overlap analysis thus reveals the proportion of indeterminate
452 pixels, those not uniquely identified, and is important in the
453 validation of the method.

454

455 To decrease bias from variance between sites and seasons, images
456 of three seagrass shoots from each sampling time at each site were
457 selected randomly for overlap analysis. Four hundred and seventy-
458 nine *SG*-classified leaf images were compared with corresponding
459 *Epi*-classified images by overlapping with each other. The selected
460 images were converted to grayscale in MATLAB 2019b
461 (Mathworks, Inc) as a weighted sum of R, G, B spectral values.
462 Pixels were represented as grayscale with a single value spanning
463 from 0 to 255. Afterwards, the classified pixels were set to a mid-
464 gray value (120). The manually determined background value was
465 converted to 255 (white) and then excluded from the analyses. The

466 values of ENVI-based non-classified pixels in both *SG*- and *Epi*-
467 classified images were kept at 0 (black) as original, and the ENVI-
468 based identified pixels, which either identified as seagrass or as
469 epiphytes, were all converted to a single middle value “A” between
470 0 and 255 (Figure 4). This single value “A” was selected arbitrarily
471 to be less than 127 in each image for overlap analysis. The
472 overlapping and unaccounted pixels were located by adding the
473 converted *SG*- and *Epi*-classified images. The grey value of paired
474 pixels would stay at the value “A”. However, the overlapping and
475 unaccounted pixels would produce a double “A” value and zero
476 value, respectively (Figure 5). The number of overlapping pixels,
477 unaccounted pixels, and total leaf area pixels were tallied using
478 MATLAB 2019b. The number of indeterminate pixels was
479 calculated as the sum of overlapping seagrass or epiphyte pixels
480 and overall unaccounted pixels (pixels that were unaccounted both
481 from seagrass spectral library and epiphyte spectral library results’
482 analysis).



A B

Figure 4. “A” value converted images from Figures 3B and 3C. (A) epiphyte segmentation (black), background (white), and epiphyte-free seagrass blade area (single gray); (B) epiphyte-free seagrass blade area (black), background (white), and epiphyte segmentation (single gray). Images lightened by 15%



Figure 5. Overlapped image from Figure 4A and 4B. (A) The epiphyte segmentation (black) from Figure 4A and the epiphyte-free seagrass blade area (black) from Figure 4B are complementary in the overlapped image. (B) Enlargement of the red box in A. The background (dark red), unique pixels (blue), and overlapping pixels (cyan) are shown. Color is adjusted to enhance distinction.

2.3.2 “Extrinsic Validation”

In the “Extrinsic Validation” of seagrass metrics, total seagrass leaf pixels were correlated to dry weight leaf biomass and morphometrics measures (e.g., leaf length or leaf area). For

506 “Extrinsic Validation” of epiphyte imaging metrics, epiphyte-
 507 classified pixels of each leaf were correlated to epiphyte dry
 508 weight biomass of each leaf, and for relative comparisons, the
 509 percent leaf coverage ((epiphyte pixels/total leaf pixels) x 100) was
 510 correlated to biomass-based epiphyte loads (Epiphyte biomass/leaf
 511 biomass) (Fong and Harwell, 1994). Scatter plots of traditional
 512 biomass and morphology metrics vs. image-based metrics for
 513 seagrass (n = 2052) and epiphyte (n = 1822) measures were created
 514 to evaluate their correlations.

515

516 **2.4 Statistical Analysis**

517 The outcomes from the “Intrinsic Validation” in the “Control”
 518 area, “WWTP” area, and CI site across six sampling times were
 519 evaluated to investigate spatiotemporal effects of epiphyte
 520 colonization on the image analysis. The different sampling times in
 521 the “WWTP” area, “Control” area, and CI site precluded a
 522 simultaneous location-comparison of “Intrinsic Validation”
 523 outcomes. Therefore, data were reallocated to four seasons based
 524 on the sampling date and average water temperature (Huang et al.
 525 2023) to facilitate comparisons by location. A one-way analysis of
 526 variance (ANOVA) was performed to evaluate the significant
 527 differences ($P < 0.05$) for the absolute difference in epiphyte
 528 coverage between *SG*- and *Epi*-classified outputs via *R* program.

529
530 Linear regression analyses were used to evaluate the “Extrinsic
531 Validation” of the seagrass and the epiphyte imaging metrics.
532 Manually measured leaf length and area, and epiphyte-free leaf
533 biomass were tested for linear correlation with image-derived
534 seagrass leaf area (i.e., total leaf pixels). The linear regression
535 between epiphyte biomass per seagrass leaf and image-derived
536 epiphyte covered area (i.e., identified epiphyte pixels) was also
537 analyzed. The epiphyte load (epiphyte biomass/seagrass biomass)
538 (Fong and Harwell, 1994) and the image-derived percent cover of
539 leaf by epiphytes (epiphyte coverage; see Eq.2) were analyzed by
540 linear regression to quantitatively assess accuracy of imaging
541 metrics. The linear regression analyses used R Studio and were
542 assessed by R^2 values.

543

544 **3. Results**

545

546 **3.1 Example Seagrass Leaf Scans**

547 A true color image of a segment of epiphyte-covered *T.*
548 *testudinum* leaf and the classification outputs of seagrass and
549 epiphytes obtained from the image classification procedure are
550 shown in Figure 3. A seagrass-classified image (Figure 3B)
551 presents variable uncovered seagrass leaf details, such as growing

552 areas (appearing as different green levels) and damaged or
553 senescing areas (appearing as different yellow or brown levels),
554 with 482 uncovered leaf classes. The black area on the seagrass-
555 classified example is the unclassified area, ideally representing the
556 epiphyte covered area. Epiphyte covered regions classified by
557 epiphyte spectral reference libraries (Figure 3C) presented 843
558 classes, with the black areas representing uncovered seagrass leaf
559 distinguished by the ENVI program. Multiple image classes may
560 represent the same feature (e.g., uncovered leaf or an epiphyte
561 species) if there were visual differences on different leaves or areas
562 on the same leaf.

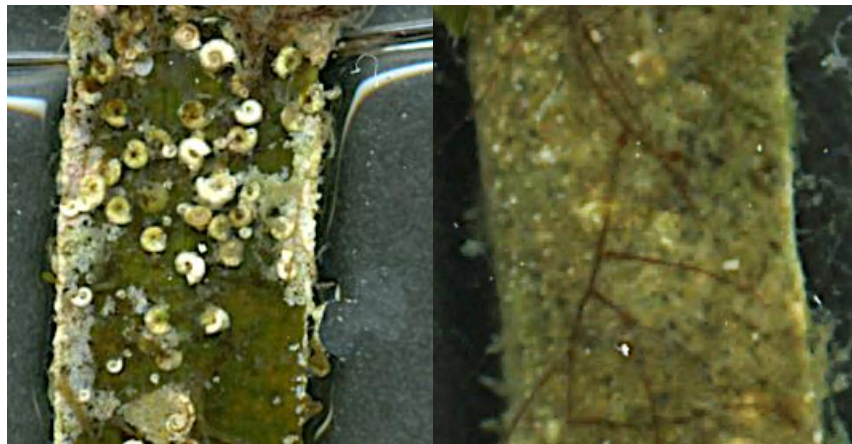
563

564 Within the 843 epiphyte reference spectra, four dominant color
565 groups were usually observed on the images of *T. testudinum*
566 leaves in the study area, including a reddish-white group, a red
567 group, a yellowish-brown group, and a green group. The reddish-
568 white group comprises white and pink pixels, which primarily
569 contains small *Serpulid* worms, coralline red algae, and several
570 unidentified species (Figure 6A). The red group combines pixels of
571 several filamentous red algae or bryozoans (Figures 6B and 6C).
572 The yellowish-brown group includes pixels which can be
573 recognized as yellowish or brownish filamentous *Chlorophyta*
574 groups, as well as the yellowish tint of old chlorotic seagrass

575 leaves (Figure 6D). A small number of unidentified species are
576 recognized in this group as well. Lastly, the green group contains
577 RGB features of multiple green levels, which may identify as
578 young uncolonized seagrass blades or epiphytic green algae
579 (Figure 6E).

580

581



582

583

A

B

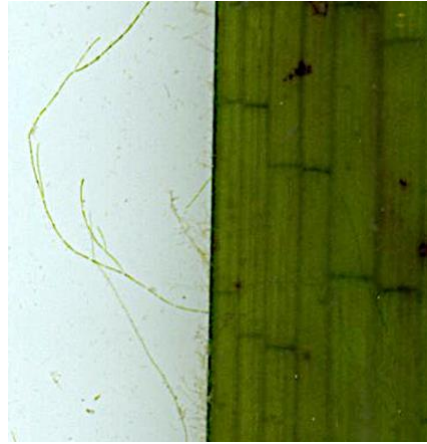


584

585

C

D



E

Figure 6. Four major color groups are distinguished by seagrass leaf image analysis: (A) *Serpulid* worms (center) vs. coralline red algae (edge, pink is living algae, and the white is dead) present on a seagrass blade (enhanced by 100% sharpness). (B) Filamentous red algae present on a coralline algae layer (enhanced by 50% sharpness and 30% brightness). (C) Epiphytic bryozoan can be mis-identified as filamentous algae (enhanced by 100% sharpness). (D) Clumps of yellowish green algae over dead coralline algae on a senescent brownish-green seagrass blade (enhanced by 100% sharpness and 40% brightness). (E) Filamentous green algae present on the edge of a bright green seagrass blade (enhanced by 100% sharpness and 40% brightness).

3.2 “Intrinsic Validation”: Comparison of Percent Epiphyte Cover of Leaves

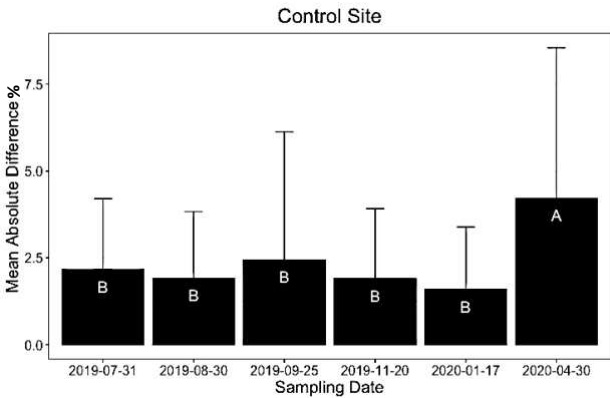
“Intrinsic Validation” assessed how effectively all of the pixels of the leaf images were classified. Epiphyte coverage of the seagrass leaf was evaluated by counting pixels identified as seagrass leaf or epiphyte through the respective spectral libraries. Areas identified as epiphytes on the *Epi*-classified images should correspond to

605 areas not characterized as seagrass leaf on the *SG*-classified
 606 images. Analysis of 2,001 scanned images of seagrass blades
 607 found that the absolute value of the difference in epiphyte coverage
 608 between *SG*- and *Epi*- classified images (see Eq. 1 and Eq. 2,
 609 Methods) was $< 10\%$ in 94.45% of the classified output. 83.01% of
 610 the outputs showed $< 5\%$ absolute difference.

611

612 The absolute difference in epiphyte coverage showed a seasonal
 613 pattern. Data for the “WWTP” area, “Control” area, and CI site
 614 were reallocated to four seasons based on the sampling date and
 615 average temperature (Huang et al. 2023) to facilitate the seasonal
 616 comparisons among locations. The average absolute difference was
 617 relatively low and consistent in summer and autumn months, but
 618 increased during late winter, and peaked during spring months.
 619 There was no significance ($P > 0.05$) to the absolute differences
 620 that appeared among the three locations from July 31 (“Control”
 621 area & CI Sites) to October 9 (“WWTP” area), which ranged from
 622 1.91% ($\pm 1.92\%$) to 3.05% ($\pm 3.07\%$). However, the absolute
 623 difference increased strikingly and significantly from December
 624 through April in the “WWTP” area ($df = 5$, $F = 58.27$, $P < 0.05$),
 625 while the “Control” area ($df = 5$, $F = 10.59$, $P < 0.05$) and CI site
 626 ($df = 5$, $F = 24.62$, $P < 0.05$) only showed significantly higher
 627 absolute differences in April compared to other months (Figure 7).

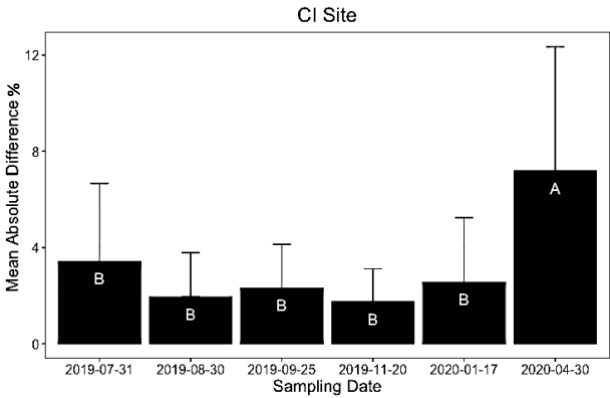
628



629

630

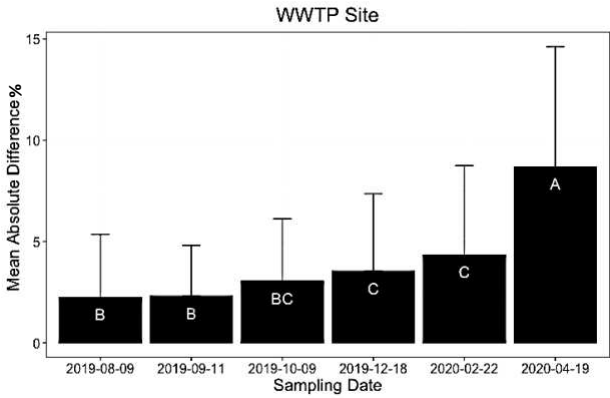
A



631

632

B



633

634

C

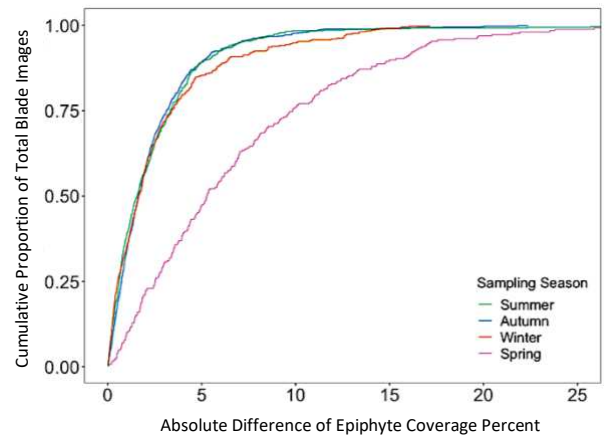
635 **Figure 7. Comparison of means of absolute difference in percent epiphyte coverage**
636 **(discrepancy) between *SG*-classified images (unclassified areas) and *Epi*-classified**

637 images (classified epiphyte areas) for sampling locations of (A) “Control” area, (B)
638 CI site, and (C) “WWTP” area, respectively. Error bars represent standard
639 deviation, and different letters denote significant differences among 6 sampling
640 months ($P < 0.05$).

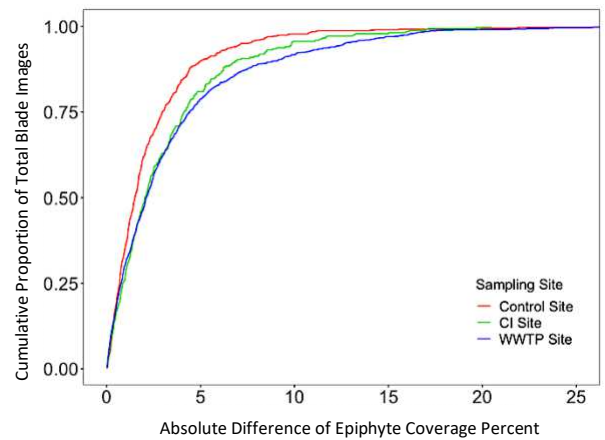
641

642 Despite a range of discrepancy (approaching as much as 15%),
643 between epiphyte and seagrass classifications for individual
644 images across seasons, these absolute difference values showed a
645 similar seasonal pattern among three sampling areas. More than
646 50% of analyzed images from three sampling locations in the
647 spring had $> 5\%$ absolute difference in epiphyte coverage, whereas
648 only 12.5% of the classified images from the other three sampling
649 seasons had $> 5\%$ absolute difference (Figure 8A). Across the 6
650 sampling times, about 87.19% of blade images produced $< 5\%$
651 discrepancy in the “Control” area, compared to only 76.06% and
652 78.48% of images for the “WWTP” area and the CI site,
653 respectively (Figure 8B).

654



A



B

Figure 8. A: Cumulative distribution of absolute difference of epiphyte coverage percent between *SG*-classified images (unclassified areas) and *Epi*-classified images (classified epiphyte areas) (discrepancy) from 2019 Summer (n = 509), Autumn (n = 828), Winter (n = 452), and 2020 Spring (n = 278). Due to the non-synchronous sampling times at the three sites, data were reallocated to four seasons based on the sampling date and average water temperature to compare the magnitudes of absolute differences of epiphyte coverage by season. B: Cumulative distribution of absolute difference of epiphyte coverage at “Control” site (n = 726), CI site (n = 330), and “WWTP” site (n = 1011).

669 **3.3 “Intrinsic Validation”: Overlap Analysis**

670 The overlap analysis was used to understand indeterminate pixels,
671 those which could not be classified uniquely, as a combination of
672 overlapping pixels plus unaccounted pixels. The analysis created
673 three kinds of pixels: correctly paired pixels (uniquely identified),
674 overlapping pixels (misclassified in *SG*- or the *Epi*-classified
675 images), and unaccounted pixels (not identified in either
676 classification).

677

678 The overlap analysis reported unique seagrass and epiphyte pixel
679 identification > 90 % in 94.57% of the analyzed images (Figure 9).
680 The percent of indeterminate pixels varied from 0.21% to 31.50%,
681 with a mean value of 4.47% (Table 3). About 90% of the images
682 had < 10% indeterminate pixels. Overlapping pixels accounted for
683 1.98% on average (Table 3; Figure 9). The amount of the
684 unaccounted pixels, which were not identified by either seagrass
685 libraries or epiphyte libraries, averaged 2.48% (Table 3).

686

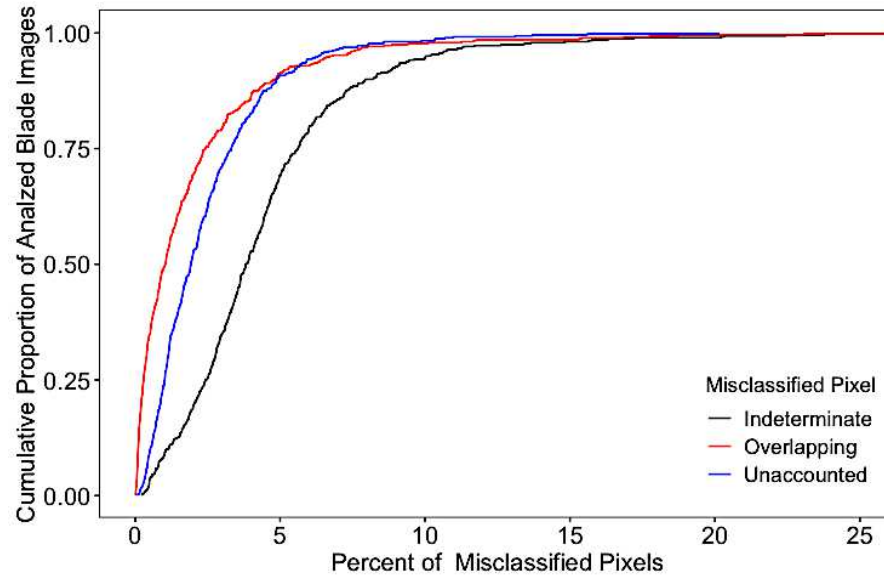


Figure 9. Cumulative distribution of indeterminate pixels (black), overlapping pixels (red), and unaccounted pixels (blue) of the 479 random images for overlap analysis.

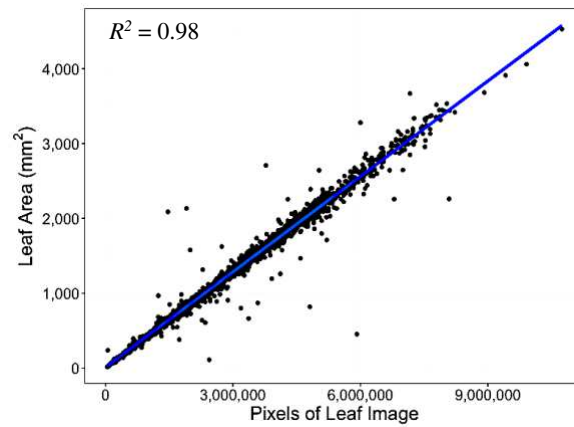
Table 3. Minimum, maximum, and average percent ($\pm$ SD) of the indeterminate, overlapping, and unaccounted pixels in the images for overlap analysis.

Pixel Types	Minimum Percent of Pixels	Maximum Percent of Pixels	Average Percent of Pixels
Indeterminate Pixel	0.21%	31.50%	4.47% ($\pm$ 3.41%)
Overlapping Pixel	0.01%	31.50%	1.98% ($\pm$ 3.04%)
Unaccounted Pixel	0.00%	20.12%	2.48% ($\pm$ 2.24%)

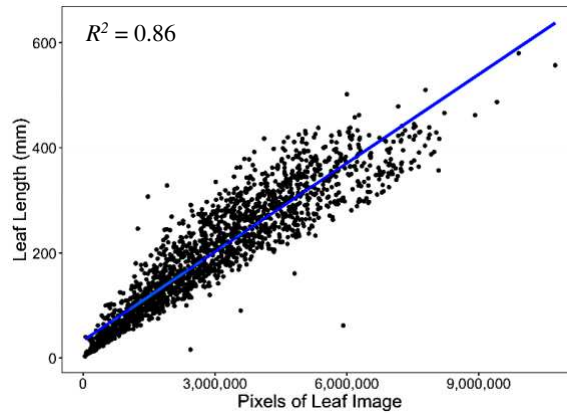
3.4 “Extrinsic Validation”: Comparative metrics for seagrass

The “Extrinsic Validation” evaluated the correlation between the imaging and the traditional biomass and morphometric assessments of seagrass and epiphytes. The comparisons for seagrass showed strong linear relationships between the manually measured seagrass leaf area and the imaged seagrass leaf area ($R^2 =$

0.98, $P < 0.0001$, $n = 2052$; Figure 10A) and between leaf length
and imaged leaf area ($R^2 = 0.86$, $P < 0.0001$, $n = 2053$; Figure
10B). The relationship between dried leaf biomass and imaged leaf
area was also strong ($R^2 = 0.88$, $P < 0.0001$, $n = 2048$; Figure 10C).
These strong correlations support utility of imaging for seagrass
monitoring.



A



B

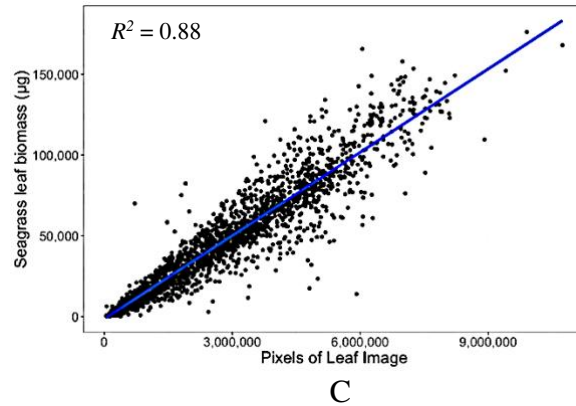


Figure 10. The relationships between manually measured seagrass leaf

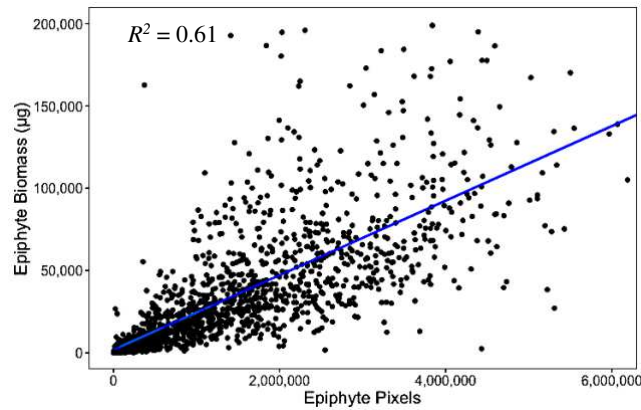
morphometrics and the number of leaf-image pixels: A) the manually measured leaf area and leaf-image pixels, the best fit regression: Manually measured leaf area = 0.42×10^{-3} Total number of image pixels + 11.8 ($R^2 = 0.98$, $P < 0.0001$, $n = 2052$); B) the manually measured length of seagrass leaf and leaf-image pixels, the best fit regression: Leaf length = 5.63×10^{-3} Total number of image pixels + 33.21 ($R^2 = 0.86$, $P < 0.0001$, $n = 2053$); and C) leaf biomass and leaf-image pixels, the best fit regression: Leaf biomass = 17.20×10^{-3} Total number of image pixels – 1449 ($R^2 = 0.88$, $P < 0.0001$, $n = 2048$).

3.5 “Extrinsic validation”: Comparative metrics for epiphyte accumulation

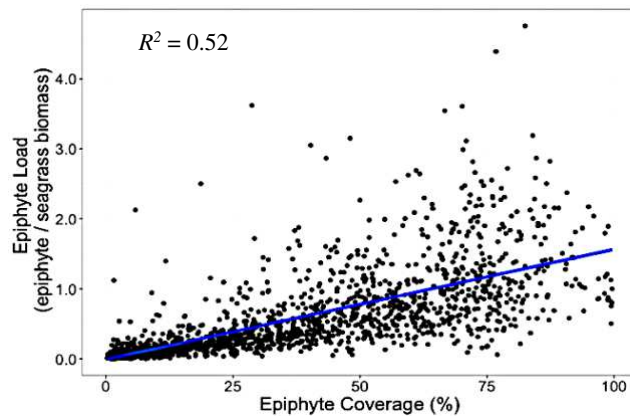
The linear correlation of epiphyte biomass to the total number of identified epiphyte pixels (Figure 11A) was moderate ($R^2 = 0.61$, $P < 0.0001$, $n = 1915$). Epiphyte accumulations on seagrass leaves are often considered from a relative perspective. Epiphyte metrics may be normalized to seagrass host metrics, such as leaf biomass or leaf area. Figure 11B compared normalized epiphyte accumulation metrics from imaging and biomass. Epiphyte load (epiphyte biomass/seagrass biomass) was linearly correlated

735 with % epiphyte coverage moderately but significantly ($R^2 = 0.52$,
 736 $P < 0.01$, $n = 1817$; Figure 11A). There two models both showed
 737 linearity, homoscedasticity, and normal distribution.

738



A



B

739

740 **Figure 11. A: The best fit linear regression between epiphyte biomass per leaf (μg)**
 741 **and the epiphyte covered area based on the number of identified epiphyte pixels for**
 742 **the three sampling areas over the six sampling times. The best regression equation:**

743 **Epiphyte biomass = 15.70×10^{-3} Epiphyte pixels + 1902 ($R^2 = 0.61$, $P < 0.05$, $n =$**

744 **1815). B: The relationship between epiphyte load (epiphyte dry weight/seagrass dry**
 745 **weight) and epiphyte coverage (%) classified by the epiphyte spectral library.**

746 **Epiphyte load is calculated by dividing the epiphyte dry biomass by seagrass leaf**
 747 **biomass. The best regression equation: Epiphyte load = 15.70×10^{-3} Epiphyte**

748 **coverage (%) – 0.07 ($R^2 = 0.52$, $P < 0.0001$, $n = 1817$).**

749

750 4. Discussion

751

752 This study developed an efficient and informative method to scan
753 seagrass leaves using accessible, inexpensive color scanning
754 technology. The image analysis performed here utilized a
755 commercially available program (ENVI, NV5 Geospatial Solution,
756 US) with a menu-driven mode, and many image-processing
757 algorithms, workflows and tutorials. It is both full-featured and
758 accessible to persons new to image analysis. Moreover, workflows
759 developed in ENVI can be readily adapted to open-source image
760 analysis platforms like ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012) or Fiji
761 (Schindelin et al., 2012). Compared with the traditional
762 measurements, the image-based approach offers some advantages,
763 including ease of use, flexibility in data analysis including
764 application of artificial intelligence (Mehruabeoglu et al., 2021;
765 Aoki et al., 2022), image archiving for subsequent analysis or re-
766 analysis in long-term comparisons, and ability to readily
767 characterize epiphyte accumulation along the age gradient of each
768 seagrass leaf.

769

770 Image analysis of scanned seagrass leaves could quantitatively
771 distinguish the uncovered leaf areas from those colonized by
772 diverse epiphyte taxa based on different RGB properties of

773 seagrass and epiphyte images. The utility of this method is that it
774 can generate proxy metrics for seagrass (leaf area, length, and
775 biomass), and for epiphyte accumulations (biomass). The image
776 analysis presented here effectively distinguished four major color
777 groups on a seagrass blade image. Several intrinsic and extrinsic
778 validation analyses indicate that image-based metrics for seagrass
779 growth and morphology were well-correlated with traditional
780 biomass or manual measures of seagrass shoot morphometrics.
781 However, evaluation of the image analysis method shows that
782 classification discrepancies exist. Apparent limitations of this
783 method include a less robust relationship between epiphyte pixels
784 and epiphyte biomass, compared to the relationship between
785 seagrass biomass and seagrass pixels. The robustness of the RGB
786 color-based spectral libraries used to distinguish and identify
787 image pixels as seagrass or epiphyte is an important determinant of
788 the quantification power of the method. A highly informative
789 image analysis routine, once fully developed and adapted to open-
790 source platforms, could be largely automated to make an efficient
791 additional tool for monitoring seagrasses and their epiphytes. In
792 future work, the image analysis should be improved with expanded
793 spectral libraries, automated segmentation of leaves from the
794 background, and capturing unrecognizable information through
795 artificial intelligence approaches (Mehrubeoglu et al., 2021; Aoki

et al., 2022). The AI approaches have potential to distinguish between different classes of epiphytic taxa (e.g., green, red, brown algae, bryozoans, gastropods, etc.) to extract structures of epiphytic communities and to detect their changes with environmental conditions.

801

802 **4.1 Epiphyte and seagrass classification**

803 The distinction between four dominant color groups of epiphytes
804 classified on the images of *T. testudinum* leaves in this study
805 suggests that the method may be useful in detecting community
806 composition shifts. In the reddish-white group, the serpulid worms
807 may be *Spirorbis* spp common on the basal growing *T. testudinum*
808 leaves found in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico (Dirnberger,
809 1990). As the two most common coralline red algae observed
810 along the Coast of Texas, *Melobesia* spp and *Hydrolithon* spp were
811 also possibly classified in this group (Minnery et al., 1985; Wynne,
812 2008). Both diatoms and coralline red algae were reported on the
813 tips and edges of young seagrass leaves as “pioneers” of epiphyte
814 accumulation, which then spread dominantly (Corlett and Jones,
815 2007). Although the diatom community was reported as the basal
816 epiphytic layer and entirely covered by the coralline red algae and
817 other epiphyte groups, the scanned images in our study did not
818 provide sufficient spatial resolution for the image analysis method

819 to distinguish the microalgae community. Scans could be made
 820 with greater pixel resolution, but image file sizes become very
 821 large. The red algae species in the red group resembled the
 822 *Colaconemataceae*, *Rhodomelaceae*, and *Stylonemataceae*
 823 families, which have been recorded growing epiphytically on *T.*
 824 *testudinum* in Florida and the southwestern Caribbean (Díaz-
 825 Pulido and Díaz-Ruíz, 2003; Albis-Salas and Gavio, 2011).
 826 Various bryozoan species, such as *Bugula neritina*, are commonly
 827 found along the central Texas coast and potentially mistaken for
 828 filamentous red algae on the scanning images (Ahrens and Grubbs,
 829 2012). The epiphytic green algae presenting in the green group are
 830 common on seagrass along the southern Texas coast (Morgan and
 831 Kitting, 1984). Due to similar RGB characteristics, greenish
 832 epiphytes and yellowish or brownish epiphytes may be
 833 misclassified as bright green seagrass and old seagrass leaves,
 834 respectively, in the image analysis (Figures 6D and 6E). Creation
 835 of spectral reference libraries that accurately identify and
 836 distinguish epiphytes from seagrass is critical to this method.

837

838 **4.2 “Intrinsic Validation” of image analysis**

839 “Intrinsic Validation” (epiphyte classification vs. seagrass
 840 classification) and “Extrinsic Validation” (imaging metrics vs.
 841 traditional metrics) were used to assess the classification outcomes

842 of this image analysis method. As one of the “Intrinsic Validation”
843 methods, discrepancy analysis revealed a low absolute difference
844 ($< 10\%$) in estimated epiphyte coverage between epiphyte
845 classification and seagrass classification in $> 94\%$ of the
846 classification output, suggesting that the ENVI program
847 successfully distinguished most of the pixels of uncolonized
848 seagrass and epiphytes through seagrass- and epiphyte-trained
849 spectral libraries, respectively. The biologically important metric
850 of epiphyte coverage is overestimated if leaf pixels are
851 misclassified as epiphytes by the epiphyte spectral library or if
852 seagrass pixels are not recognized by the seagrass spectral library.
853 Similarly, uncolonized seagrass is overestimated if epiphyte pixels
854 are misclassified as seagrass by the seagrass spectral library or if
855 epiphytes are not identified by the epiphyte spectral library.
856 Multiple image classes may represent different physiological states
857 of the same feature. The image analysis likely mis-identified some
858 greenish filamentous *Chlorophyta* groups as uncolonized seagrass
859 leaves. Seagrass growth declined with cooler winter temperatures
860 and the older senescing leaves presented more yellow color and
861 brown broken edges that may have been mis-identified as
862 yellowish green algae or brownish algae (Figures 6D and 6E). This
863 would explain the pronounced increase in discrepancy observed in
864 spring samples (Figure 7).

865
866 Therefore, the dramatic decrease in classification accuracy in the
867 spring (Figure 8A) was likely due to seasonal variation in the
868 epiphyte community which was not well-represented in the
869 epiphyte spectral library. Note that the classifications were based
870 on a training image dataset obtained in the summer, so the
871 dramatic deviation in spring for all three sampling locations
872 suggests a potential change in the epiphyte community to one with
873 different spectral characteristics. This finding aligns with the
874 seasonally variable algal epiphyte communities previously
875 observed on seagrass blades (Kendrick and Burt, 1997; Reyes and
876 Sansón, 1997; Lavery and Vanderklift, 2002; Giovannetti et al.,
877 2010). Kendrick and Burt (1997) showed that epiphytic
878 *Chlorophyta* groups on leaves of *Posidonia sinuosa* only presented
879 in winter and spring in western Australia. Building spectral
880 libraries with representation from all seasons is expected to reduce
881 this source of image classification error.

882
883 The effectiveness of classification also differed among sampling
884 sites, with 87% of Control site images exhibiting < 5%
885 discrepancy, compared to 76% and 78% at the WWTP and CI
886 sites, respectively. Previous studies showed variation of epiphytic
887 components in response to environmental factors such as

888 hydrodynamics, light attenuation, water temperature, nutrient
889 enrichment, salinity, or grazing effects (Lavery and Vanderklift,
890 2002; Heck and Valentine, 2006; Frankovich et al., 2009; Aumack
891 et al., 2011). For instance, in a high light environment, leaf
892 reddening caused by anthocyanin in *T. testudinum* was suggested
893 to play a role of sunscreen (Novak and Short, 2011). The mature
894 blades of *Thalassia* spp. yellowed under low salinity (Thorhaug et
895 al., 2006), and the red : green spectral reflectance ratio of *T.*
896 *testudinum* was higher in a hypersaline environment than in a
897 hyposaline environment (Durako and Howarth, 2017). Such
898 changes would potentially lead to the misclassification of seagrass
899 and epiphyte pixels if using libraries not trained with these
900 representations. In this work, salinity varied from 26 to 37.
901 Although there was no significant difference in the mean salinity
902 among the sampling locations, salinity levels differed significantly
903 across seasons, being highest in the summer (Huang et al. 2023).
904 Moreover, our unpublished 18S rRNA sequencing observations
905 found differences in both algal epiphyte and invertebrate
906 communities from the “WWTP” and “Control” areas. It will be
907 important to include images from all sampling sites and
908 experimental conditions in the training dataset.
909

910 The overlap analysis method for “Intrinsic Validation” identified
911 indeterminate pixels as a combination of pixels being misclassified
912 or not identified at all. Overlapping pixels reflect that the SAM
913 algorithm did not distinguish epiphyte and seagrass pixels with
914 similar RGB arrays based on the current reference spectra and
915 threshold angle. Unaccounted pixels, not identified by either
916 reference library, may be largely attributed to incomplete removal
917 of the background, which was done manually in this study.
918 Underestimated epiphyte coverage can result from unaccounted
919 pixels as well. Indeterminate pixels generally represented < 10% of
920 image pixels for seagrass and epiphyte classification in 94% of the
921 analyzed images. Expansion and equal sample representation of
922 the reference spectral libraries will reduce both misclassification
923 and unidentified pixels. Additional work with other classification
924 techniques using feature shape, texture and edge detection may
925 improve identification accuracy. For example, the Canny edge
926 detector (Canny, 1986) has been applied for plant leaf
927 identification, description of leaf shape, and leaf disease pattern
928 (Bankar et al., 2014; Codizar and Solano, 2016; Salman et al.,
929 2017). Deep learning has been applied to seagrass image
930 segmentation, and has potential to decrease unaccounted pixels
931 resulting from manual segmentation (Mehrubeglu et al., 2021).
932

933 4.3 “Extrinsic Validation” of image analysis

934 Image analysis-based metrics for seagrass and epiphytes were
935 compared through linear correlations to common morphology and
936 biomass metrics to validate the application of image analysis for
937 seagrass investigation. Strong and significant linear relationships
938 were found between total seagrass leaf pixels and seagrass leaf
939 morphology (e.g., leaf area $R^2 = 0.98$, leaf length $R^2 = 0.86$) and
940 biomass metrics ($R^2 = 0.88$). This result indicates that the pixel
941 numbers of leaf derived from image analysis can substitute for
942 manual morphology measurements and be suitable for seagrass
943 leaf biomass estimation in future seagrass investigations.
944 Compared with the traditional manual measures, image analysis
945 based on the number of pixels may more easily evaluate the
946 morphological data of broken or damaged seagrass blades. It must
947 also be recognized however, that heavy filamentous algae
948 accumulations which grow beyond the boundaries of the seagrass
949 leaf could result in over-estimation of the leaf area.

950

951 Correlations of epiphyte imaging metrics with biomass measures
952 (epiphyte pixels vs. epiphyte biomass; $R^2 = 0.61$, $P < 0.05$, $n =$
953 1815) were weaker than for the seagrass metrics when all project
954 data were analyzed collectively. The moderate correlations in the
955 linear relationships between epiphytic imaging metrics and

956 biomass metrics may be due to seasonal and environmental
957 conditions that might lead to significant variations in the thickness
958 of the epiphyte biofilm. Changes in epiphyte biomass per epiphyte
959 area (pixel) could result from either change in the community
960 composition and/or the growth rate of the epiphytes. Several
961 studies have observed changes in epiphytic assemblages on
962 different host species (Fredriksen et al., 2005; Trautman and
963 Borowitzka, 1999; Michael et al., 2008; Mabrouk et al. 2014).
964 Likewise, when expressing epiphyte accumulation relative to the
965 seagrass host using normalized metrics (epiphyte biomass/seagrass
966 biomass vs epiphyte pixels/total leaf pixels), correlation was only
967 moderate. This suggested effects of environmental factors and non-
968 linear relationships between epiphytes and seagrass, as previously
969 observed (Borum, 1985; Bulthuis and Woelkerling, 1983; Heijs,
970 1984). Moreover, the image analysis method does not capture the
971 depth of epiphyte growth on the leaf. Epiphyte communities could
972 colonize seagrass blades in an orderly succession with several
973 stages (Corlett and Jones, 2007; Michael et al., 2008). The diverse
974 morphologies of epiphytic assemblages may impact both biomass
975 and imaging measures, and the epiphyte-seagrass dynamic
976 relationship itself. Further exploration of these relationships may
977 reveal new insights that improve the utility of the imaging methods
978 to detect responses to the environment. Another possible solution

979 could be, based on the observations reported in this paper, to create
980 seasonal spectral libraries and analyze the data based on
981 appropriate seasonal libraries.

982

983 **5. Conclusion**

984

985 The presented scanning and image analysis methodology can
986 extract some of the rich information of scanned seagrass images,
987 including metrics related to seagrass morphology, epiphyte
988 coverage pattern, and potential classification of epiphytic taxa.

989 This provides an informative and readily accessible tool to explore
990 and facilitate better understanding of the complex epiphyte-
991 seagrass relationships. In addition, the images can be archived and
992 shared for future analyses by the community of researchers.

993 Currently, the major challenge of image analysis is related to
994 misclassification and omission of green algal epiphyte groups that
995 resemble the seagrass leaf spectrally. Appropriate spectral profile
996 training to encompass more diverse epiphyte groups which may
997 present on a seasonal basis or under unique environmental
998 conditions may be necessary. Object recognition and
999 implementation of thresholds, texture and edge detection should
1000 also improve classification and detection of object boundaries as
1001 well as other spatially defining features of seagrass and epiphyte

1002 types within the images. More recent deep learning methods
1003 present themselves as additional tools to improve classification
1004 results (Mehrubeoglu et al., 2021) and image processing efficiency
1005 (Aoki et al., 2022) but require more data sets for successful
1006 training and classification.

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1037

1038 Data availability

1039 The authors confirm that the data supporting the findings of this
1040 study are available within the article. Raw data of this study are
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1043

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