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Classification of underwater photogrammetry data for temperate benthic rocky reef mapping

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Authors agreement to the submission

All authors declare being agree to the submission

Other specifications

Colour should be used for Fig. 1, 2, 4 and 6, and is recommended for Fig. 3, 5 and 8 and table 2 and 3.

Abstract

The fine characterization of the substrate is a baseline to thoroughly investigate the relations between organisms and their biotopes. Cutting edge spatial technologies now provide access to accurate information on biotopes and biocenoses both in terrestrial and in marine environments. Photogrammetry is one of them and has recently been applied in submarine environments especially in shallow clear water. In this study, we investigated the potential of photogrammetry to characterize benthic habitats in turbid environments. Although more challenging, turbid environments are more frequent in temperate marine coastal areas. We selected two rocky sites in the bay of Saint-Malo (Brittany, France), differentiated by their level of turbidity, one being a marine site exposed to natural tides (Buharats), while the other (Bizeux) is subjected to both natural tides and artificial currents created by the functioning of a hydroelectric dam. The different substrates observed were classified into eight classes at a centimetre resolution using photogrammetry-based spatial and multispectral predictors. The spatial benthic terrain predictors were derived from a digital surface model (DSM) at various spatial scales, and the multispectral predictors were retrieved from the red-green-blue (RGB, natural colours) orthomosaic imagery. An overall classification was computed for Buharats and Bizeux, with accuracies of 84.76 % and 79.54 % respectively, revealing a good quality of the substrate classification. The combination of RGB, DSM, and several spatial benthic terrain variables, with a pixel resolution of 5 and 10 mm, and a kernel size of 30, 60 and 90 pixels leads to the best benthic substrate classification (highest overall accuracy). At the class scale, producer's (PA) and user's (UA) accuracy showed that big boulders and field material were correctly distinguished. Small boulders and cobbles, having similar sizes, showed the lowest classification performances. This classification methodology provides new perspectives for

mesoscale (100 m² to 1 km²) semi-automatic mapping of the fine resolution (1 cm) relationship between benthic organisms and their substrate.

Key words

Photogrammetry; Temperate rocky reefs; Turbid water; Classification; Terrain variables; Substrate mapping

Author contributions

Quentin Ternon, Éric Feunteun, Frédéric Ysnel, Pierre Thiriet and Antoine Collin developed the study approach.

Quentin Ternon and Valentin Danet collected the data.

Quentin Ternon and Antoine Collin conducted the data analysis.

Quentin Ternon wrote the paper.

All authors participated to the manuscript revision.

Antoine Collin supervised the research.

1. Introduction

Substrate characteristics are known to control marine benthic communities specific composition and abundance. Reviews have recently highlighted a range of geomorphometric variables that could influence at various scales the descriptive parameters of sub-tidal rocky habitat communities (algae, invertebrates and fishes) both in tropical and temperate sub-tidal environments (Pygas et al., 2020 ; Borland et al., 2021). More particularly, the terrain complexity (e.g. rugosity, bathymetric variance and slope of the slope), its morphology (curvature and aspect), the substrate type (nature, features and engineer species) and other information (bathymetry and slope) have an influence on the presence, abundance, cover and diversity of algae and sessile invertebrates both in tropical (Duckworth, 2016), subtropical (Holmes et al., 2008; Zavalas et al., 2014, Bravo et al., 2020) and temperate environments (Castric-Fey et al., 1973, Castric-Fey and Chasse, 1991; Guinan et al., 2009; Elvenes et al., 2014). Studies have demonstrated that the terrain complexity is one of the key-factor strongly structuring the fish communities on tropical (Kuffner et al., 2007; Pittman et al., 2007; Pittman et al., 2009; Knudby et al., 2010; Pittman and Brown, 2011; Sekund and Pittman, 2017), subtropical (Moore et al., 2009; Monk et al., 2010; Moore et al., 2010; Monk et al., 2011; Coleman et al., 2016; Rees et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2019), and temperate reefs (Cameron et al., 2014). Therefore, the accurate characterisation of the substrate has the potential to provide a precise understanding of the relationship between sessile organisms and their substrate. For instance, this substrate-based information can be used to predict benthic community compositions (Rattray et al., 2009; Collin et al., 2011).

The development of novel mapping technologies such as satellite, LiDAR and acoustic tools now allow to fine-tune at various scales the characterisation of benthic

and demersal habitats in relation with community composition (Fig. 1). Although, these technologies are currently able to define the substrate at macroscale ($>1 \text{ km}^2$), with high spatial resolution ($\sim 10 \text{ cm}$ through acoustic, $\sim 1 \text{ m}$ through LiDAR and Satellite), LIDAR and satellite technologies are limited to the first 50 m of depth in clear water

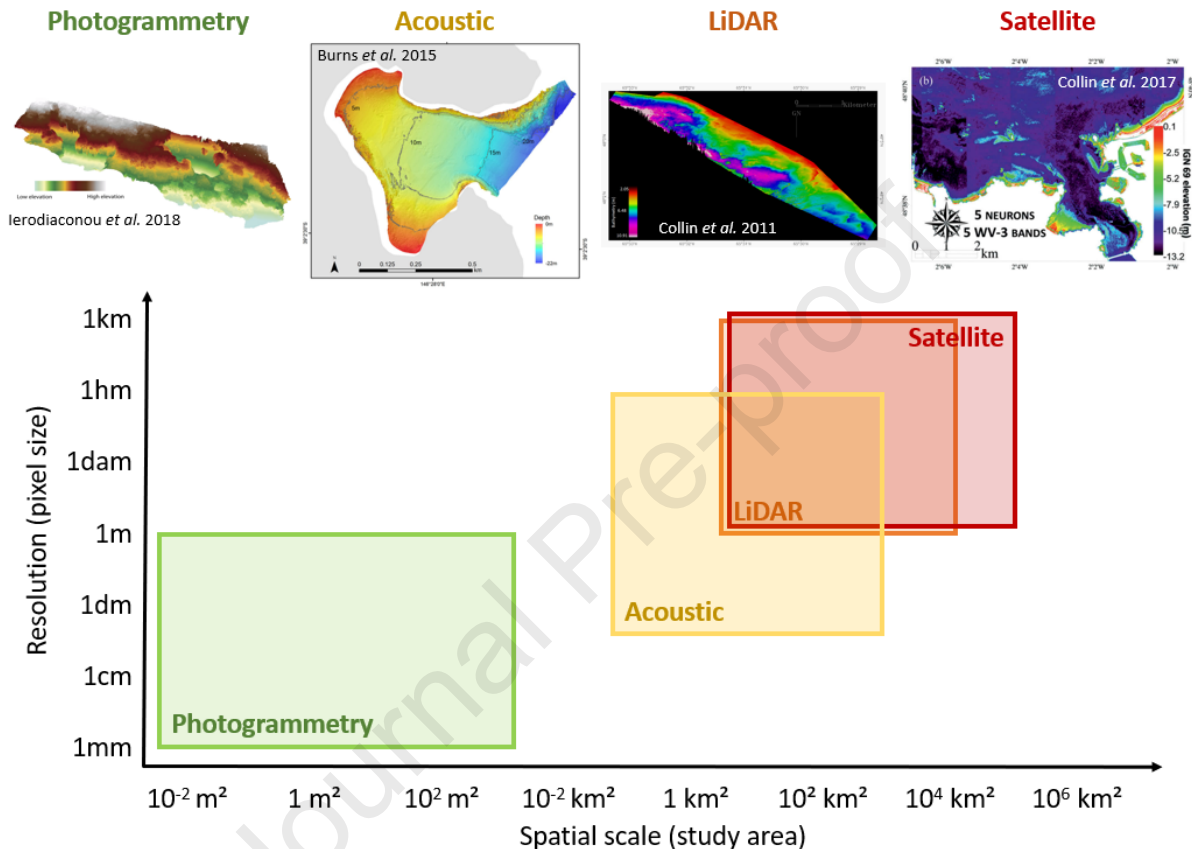


Fig. 1. The different techniques for benthic substrate imagery, their scope and performances. For each methodology, the limits of the rectangle indicate the range of spatial scale (horizontal) and resolution (vertical), and illustrations of benthic substrate imageries are given at the top of the diagram (data Irish and Lillycrop, 1999; Diaz et al., 2004; Bock et al., 2005; Collin et al., 2011; Knudby et al., 2011; Galparsoro, 2012; Collin et al., 2013; Dierssen and Theberge, 2014; Zavalas et al., 2014; Burns et al., 2015; Calvert et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2015; Wahidin et al., 2015; Ierodiaconou et al., 2018; Madricardo et al., 2019; Marre et al., 2019; Jackson et al., 2020; Marre et al., 2020a; Marre et al., 2020b).

because of water absorption (Irish and Lillycrop, 1999; Diaz et al., 2004; Bock et al., 2005; Collin et al., 2011; Knudby et al., 2011; Galparsoro, 2012; Collin et al. 2013; Dierssen and Theberge, 2014; Zavalas et al., 2014; Calvert et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2015; Wahidin et al., 2015; Ierodiaconou et al., 2018; Madricardo et al., 2019). LiDAR and sonar surveys can provide relevant information on the terrain characteristics, essential to describe and map benthic habitats (biotopes and biocenoses) (Pickrill and Todd, 2003; Collin et al., 2008; Pittman et al., 2009; Brown et al., 2011; Collin et al., 2011; Walbridge et al., 2018). Hence, this mapping constitutes an effective baseline to both target habitats of interest and evaluate the sampling effort required. More recently the photogrammetry technique has been developed and is now widely deployed in sub-tidal environments. This technique allows a 3D reconstruction with a more detailed characterisation of benthic rocky substrates and at larger scale of their associated landscapes (Hatcher et al., 2020). Based on multi-view optical information (either photographic or videographic), the photogrammetry has been mainly used in clear water environments to describe coral reefs structure at various biological levels from individuals to reefs (Burns et al., 2015; Figueira et al., 2015; Leon et al., 2015; Burns et al., 2016; Ferrari et al., 2016; Anelli et al., 2017; Carlot et al., 2020; Fukunaga et al., 2020). To date, this approach has been used to describe, up to a scale of 120 m² (mesoscale), the morphology of the substrate below a centimetre resolution (Fig. 1; Burns et al., 2015; Jackson et al., 2020; Marre et al., 2019; Marre, et al., 2020b). However, the substrate typology (i.e. bed rock, boulders, pebbles, gravel, sand), determinant for the structure and organisation of biological communities, has not been derived from photogrammetry in these studies. There is currently a clear need to produce fine resolution (< 1 m) characterisations (geomorphology and typology) and maps of temperate rocky reefs, to better understand and monitor processes involved in habitat

dynamics as a response to environmental changes (Keith et al., 2020; see also European Commission and European Environment Agency). Additionally, testing the potential of photogrammetry applications in turbid water systems is lacking.

In this study, we propose an innovative method to produce a mesoscale (120 m²) fine resolution (1 cm) classification of benthic substrates in turbid waters combining photogrammetry and supervised classification models. We selected two rocky temperate reefs, located in the bay of Saint Malo, France, with similar topographic features but characterised by different turbidity and hydrodynamic conditions. We analysed the ability of the supervised classification to detect and quantify the relative surface of eight substrate classes commonly used in the literature. A visual description of the transect landscape (distribution patterns of the substrate types) has been conducted to rapidly evaluate if differentiation of landscape patterns could be made. The contribution of the spatial (terrain) and multispectral (red-green-blue, RGB) predictors was investigated, and the best combination of predictors was statistically examined. This research aims to develop a classification method to spatially quantify the main biotope components of benthic rocky reef habitats.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Study area

The sampling area is located in the English Channel in the St Malo Bay (Brittany, France). Two distinct rocky reef sites have been sampled by scuba-diving. The islet of Bizeux (48°37'40.95" N, 2°01'34.96" W; WGS84) is under the influence of natural tides, but also of functioning of the hydroelectric dam of the Rance, which create strong bidirectional currents and turbid episodes (Gallon et al., 2013). The second site, the

150 reef of Buharats ($48^{\circ}40'24.08''$ N, $2^{\circ}07'12.88''$ W; WGS84) located 3 km offshore, is
 151 more subject to marine influence but less turbid than Bizeux (Fig. 2).

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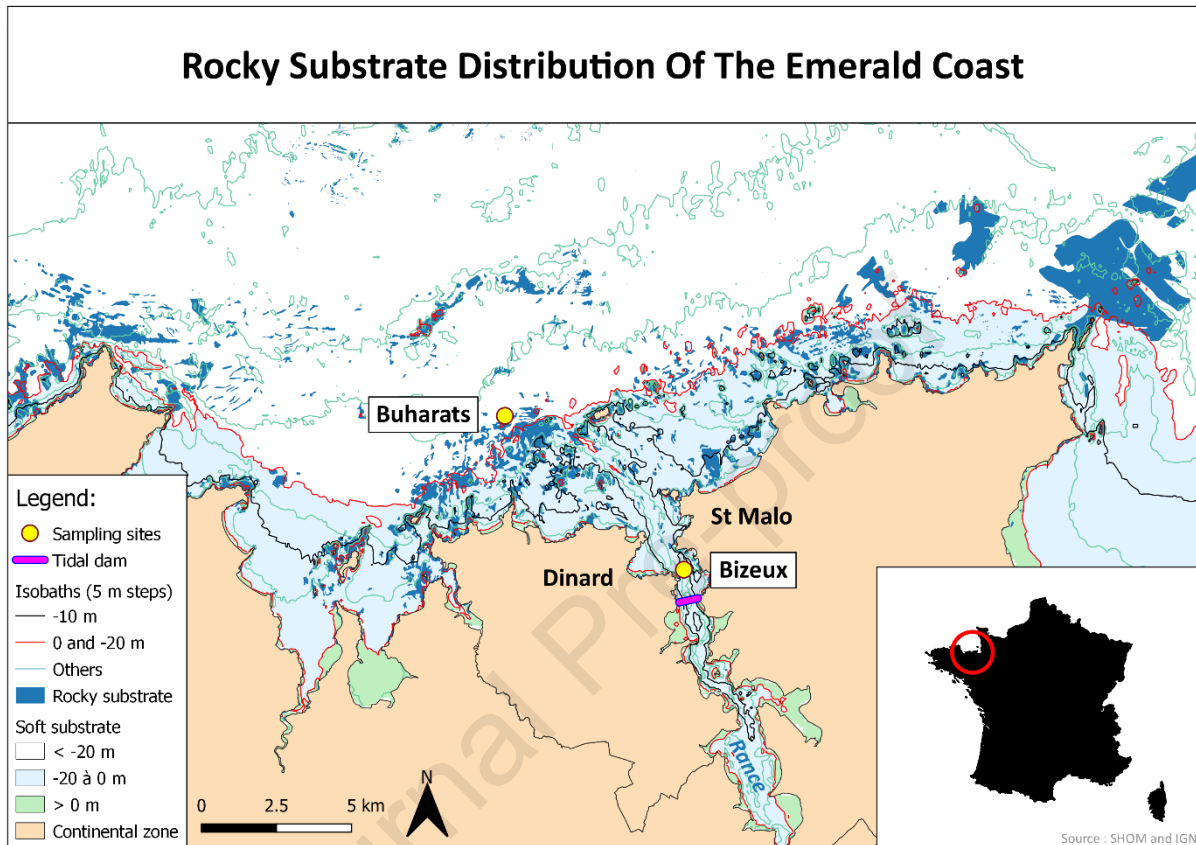


Fig. 2. Locations of the two sampling sites (Buharats and Bizeux) inside the rocky substrate distribution of the Emerald Coast. The different isobaths are displayed with a 5 m step.

For each reef, a 120 m² transect (30 m long and 4 m wide ; Fig. 3) was investigated in circa-littoral habitats, under the kelp belts, at depths of 13 +/- 1 m (0 m corresponding to the lowest astronomical tide level).

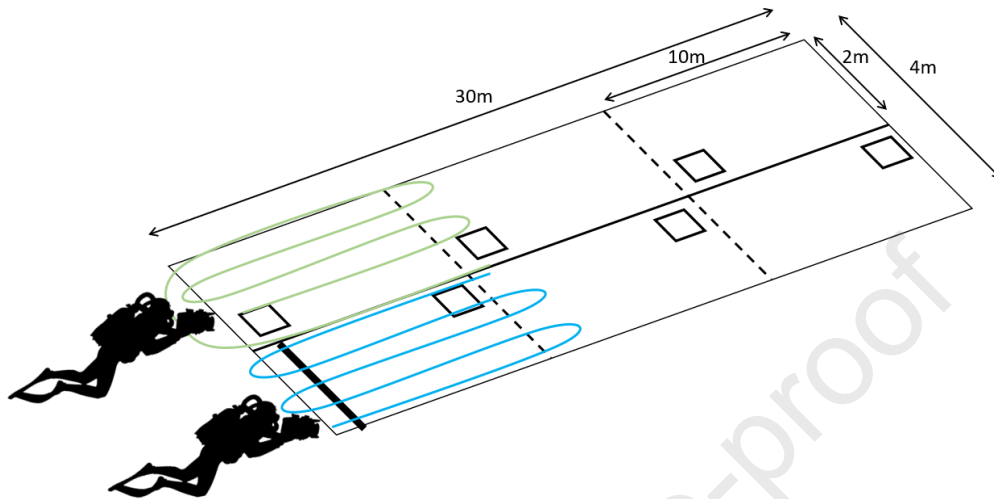


Fig. 3. Scheme of the 120 m² transect (30 m long and 4 m large) shooting. The dotted lines separate each 10 m sections. The curved lines symbolize the trajectory of divers in their respected lane during the sampling. The six squares indicate the position of quadrats (50 x 50 cm). The thick line indicates the 2 m rule.

2.2. Imagery acquisition

A total of 1831 and 1995 pictures were taken for Bizeux and Buharats, respectively (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 step 1). The transect was set-out with a 30 m tape. Six quadrats (0.25 m²) were distributed along the transect and a 2 m rule was placed for an *a posteriori* calibration. Special photogrammetric markers were fixed on quadrats (8 markers) and rules (6 markers) for the 3D model construction. The depth was controlled with a dive computer (Suunto Vyper©, 10 cm precision). Each quadrat was georeferenced (in latitude and longitude) under water using a submarine geolocation system (i.e.

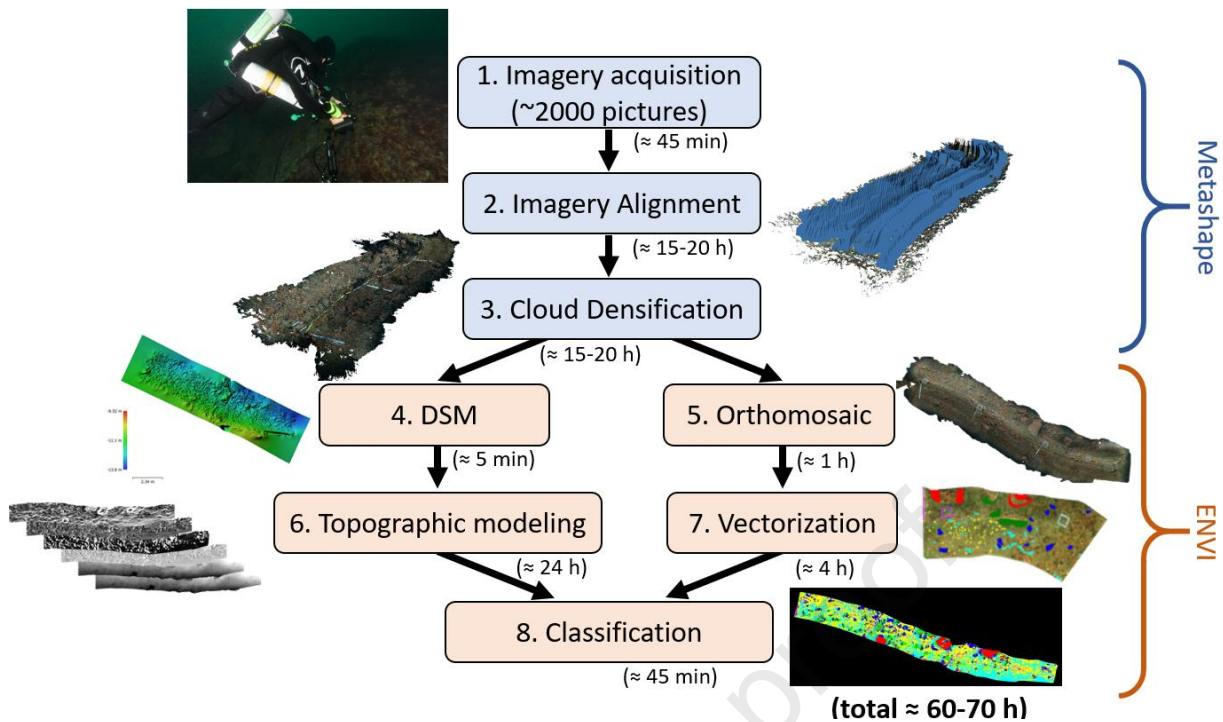


Fig. 4. Workflow of the photogrammetry to describe a 120 m² transect of benthic temperate rocky substrates from photograph acquisition to classification. The time indications represent the rough duration of each process. Software used to perform each process are indicated on the right. DSM: Digital surface model.

UWIS© system; 1m precision). The transect was divided in 2 lanes of 2 meters wide (one for each diver) and 3 consecutive sections of 10 m long (to secure data collection; Fig. 3). Digital single-lens reflex D7500-NIKON (set to 20.1 MegaPixel, F13, 1/250 s, ISO 400-800) with a 10-24 mm NIKON lens (set to 10 mm), placed in an ISOTA underwater housing, has been used for the multispectral imagery acquisition. Two PRO160-Subtronic strobes (set to 1/4 - 1/8 of the total power) were also used. Divers swam 1 m above the substrate and took pictures modulating their swimming speed and frequency of picture acquisition to ensure an approximately 60 % overlay between each photograph. Divers also maintained the camera roughly orthogonal to the substrate fitting as well as possible the shape of the substrate. An extra crossing was also carried on, with an oblique view, to improve the quality of the final model.

2.3. Photogrammetric model construction

All the process was performed using the Agisoft Metashape Software (version 1.6.1; see Table S1 for parametrization details), as frequently used in photogrammetry investigation (Burns et al., 2015; Leon et al., 2015; Bayley et al., 2019; Marre et al., 2019; Bayley and Mogg, 2020). Each lane was separated in 3 transversal segments in which a georeferenced quadrat was placed. In each segment, the markers were automatically detected and photographs were aligned. Chunks were then assembled based on markers having a new chunk with the assembled pictures of the whole transect (Fig. 4 step 2). A dense cloud process was then applied on the latter (Fig. 4 step 3). The coordinates (latitude, longitude, and depth) of each quadrat and the known distance of the 2 m rule were manually annotated (see Table S2 for details on error estimation of the 3D model). A digital surface model (hereafter DSM, free resolution) followed by an orthomosaic (fixed at a 1 mm resolution) process were then performed (Fig. 4 step 4 and 5).

2.4. Topographic modelling

The whole process was deployed under the ENVI Classic software (version 5.3). The DSM built from the photogrammetric model was first imported and resized to 5 and 10 mm pixel resolutions (r). A topographic modelling process was applied on the DSM band selecting 6 different benthic terrain variables : the slope, as the rate of change in elevation over horizontal distance between pixels in degree; the aspect, as the horizontal direction of the slope in degree; the profile and plan convexity, respectively as the vertical and horizontal components of the curvature without unit; the maximum curvature, as the largest local curvature in any direction without unit; the

212 root mean square error (RMSE), as the rate of change of the bathymetry in meters
 213 (Fig. 4 step 6 and Fig. 5).

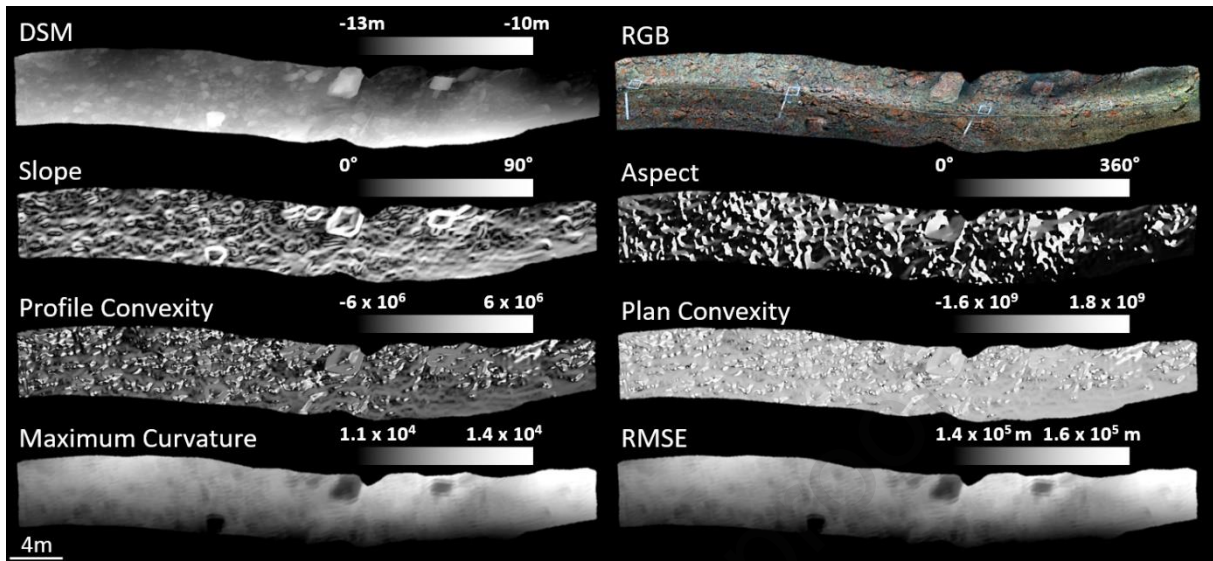


Fig.5. Pictures of the digital surface model (DSM), using average bathymetry in meters, for Bizeux (calculation window: $k = 30$ and $r = 5$ mm), orthomosaic combining red, green and blue (RGB) multispectral bands in digital numbers and the different terrain variables: the slope, aspect, profile convexity, plan convexity, maximum curvature, root mean square error (RMSE) (See details in 2.4 section).

214 These six variables were grouped under the term Terrain. Different combinations of
 215 resolution (r) and kernel size (k) were used to obtain various size of calculation
 216 windows for a multiscale approach (Table 1; Wilson et al., 2007; Porskamp et al.,
 217 2018):

218 Table 1: The different combinations of resolution (r) and kernel size (k) to obtain the different calculation windows

Calculation window (in cm)	Kernel size (k , in pixel)	Resolution (r , in mm)
1.5	30	5
3	30	10
6	60	10
9	90	10

219

220

2.5. Model classification

A supervised classification is commonly used for typological mapping. Machine learners have been developed and widely used for benthic biotope classification (Collin et al., 2011; Hasan et al., 2014). However, some of them can suffer from a low transferability to people without specific machine learning skills. Moreover, these are not well suited for high frequency monitoring because of their complexity and also as they are computationally time consuming. Among various algorithms gleaned from the literature, the maximum likelihood classifier, based on the probabilistic membership, is described as a fast and highly transferable one (Pal and Mather, 2003; Collin et al., 2019; James et al., 2020a; James et al., 2020b). This algorithm is a pixel-wise method based on a Gaussian distribution of classes of interest. Pal and Mather (2003) defined it as the association of a pixel to a specific class if the probability of belonging to this class is higher than those of the other classes.

The orthomosaic based on multispectral information (RGB) was built from the photogrammetric model, and then imported and staked with the DSM and Terrain variables (all calculation windows). From the orthomosaic, different typological classes of the substrate (bed rock, big/medium/small boulder, cobble, pebble, sand and field material; Fig. 6) were visually identified (visual size estimation) and manually vectorized (Fig. 4 step 7). A threshold of a minimum of 1 000 000 pixels was reached for each class (500 000 for the field material class). Vectorized pixels were randomly subsampled in two sets of 500 000 pixels (250 000 for field material) respectively for the calibration and validation of the classification. A supervised classification process was applied using the maximum likelihood algorithm and the calibration pixel set (Fig. 4 step 8 and 6).

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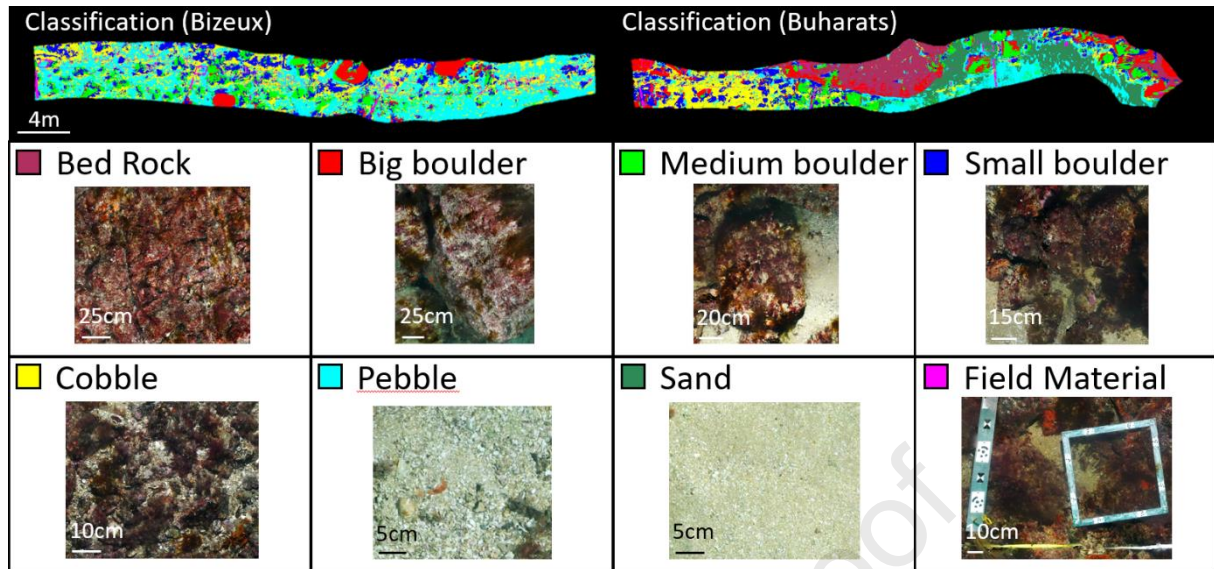


Fig.6. Classified models of transects at Bizeux and Buharats, based on multispectral (RGB), bathymetry (DSM) and all Terrain variables computed with various calculation windows. An example of each typology is given with the corresponding colour in the classification. Bed rock (homogeneous cover of rock), big ($x > 1$ m), medium ($1 \text{ m} > x > 50$ cm) and small ($50 \text{ cm} > x > 25$ cm) boulder, cobble ($25 \text{ cm} > x > 6$ cm), pebble ($6 \text{ cm} > x > 4$ mm), sand ($4 \text{ mm} > x$) and field material (2 m rule, 0.25 m^2 quadrats and transect tape) based on Blair and McPherson (1999).

Each combination of variables (hereafter called processing) using the association of RGB and DSM as a reference and adding Terrain for the different calculation windows (1.5, 3, 6 and 9 cm) has been calculated and compared. For each classified transect, a confusion matrix was generated to compare the resulting classes to the validation pixel set. The matrix provided information on the accuracy of both, the producer (PA; eq. 1) and the user (UA; eq. 2). The PA reflects the probability that a pixel in a given class was correctly classified, while the UA expresses the probability that a pixel predicted in a given class is really in that class (Congalton, 1991). Consequently, the PA and UA provides information about the omission error (false negative), and the commission error (false positive) respectively.

$$PA = \text{Class}_{i(\text{Val}_i)} / \text{Val}_i \times 100 \quad (1)$$

With PA (in percent), $\text{Class}_{i(\text{Val}_i)}$ the number of classified pixels for the class (i) among the pixel of the validation set for the class (i), and Val_i the number of pixels of the validation set for the class (i).

$$UA = \text{Val}_{i(\text{Class}_i)} / \text{Class}_i \times 100 \quad (2)$$

With UA (in percent), $\text{Val}_{i(\text{Class}_i)}$ the number of pixels of the validation set for the class (i) among the classified pixel of the class (i), and Class_i the number of pixels classified for the class (i). The overall accuracy (OA), reflecting the mean quality of the classification, can then be calculated (eq. 3).

$$OA = \sum_{i=1}^n PA_i / n \quad (3)$$

With OA (in percent), n the total number of class and PA_i the producer's accuracy of the class (i).

2.6. Statistical analysis

The PA and UA of each processing were compared to the reference (i.e. the processing combining RGB and DSM). All statistical processes were performed using the RStudio software (version 1.4.1103; R version 4.0.4). Significance was set at a 0.05 threshold using a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test. A Dunn test (non-parametric pairwise comparison) was applied to detect significant variables responsible for the difference. In an exploratory way, a redundancy analysis (RDA) was conducted separately on PA and UA to show the contribution of the different variables, resolutions and kernel sizes used for the classification. A total of 27 combinations of variables was used for each site. In order to obtain these combinations, the DSM and RGB information was used as a baseline, progressively incremented with the different

Terrain variables, obtained with the different calculation windows. For each combination, the use of the different variables and calculation windows was indicated (0: not used, 1: used) as well as the accuracy (PA and UA) of each class. The significant predicted classes were selected progressively with the *ordiR2step* function of the package 'vegan'. The RDA was conducted conserving angles between variables and classes, and the significance of both the RDA and the different axes was verified using the *anova.cca* function of the package 'vegan'.

3. Results

3.1. Overview and visual description

Two DSMs were successfully produced to map the biotope on surfaces of 120 m² at a fine spatial resolution of 1 cm. The topological metrics, calculated on these areas, all indicated a high heterogeneity of the biotope in terms of morphology and substrate typology. Geomorphologically, big boulders at Bizeux (Fig. 5) are visually accompanied by high slopes, reduced maximum curvature and RMSE, and a smooth convexity. Contrastingly, small boulders, cobbles, and pebbles at Bizeux are associated with noisy slopes and convexity. The final classification, mapping the different substrate typologies, showed that the whole surface sampled area at Bizeux is covered by a mixture of boulders (big, medium and small), cobble and pebble (Fig. 6). The final classification at Buharats showed that this site can be visually divided into 4 distinct zones, with cobbles and small boulders on the left, followed by a bed rock section, then by a pebble and sand basin, and with medium and big boulders to the right (Fig. 6).

3.2. Performances of the whole classification

307 The OA of the classification increased respectively for Bizeux and Buharats from
 308 43.05 and 59.04 % when RGB and DSM are combined, to 79.54 and 84.76 % when
 309 all Terrain variables (calculated with all calculation windows) are added to the
 310 combination (Fig. 7).

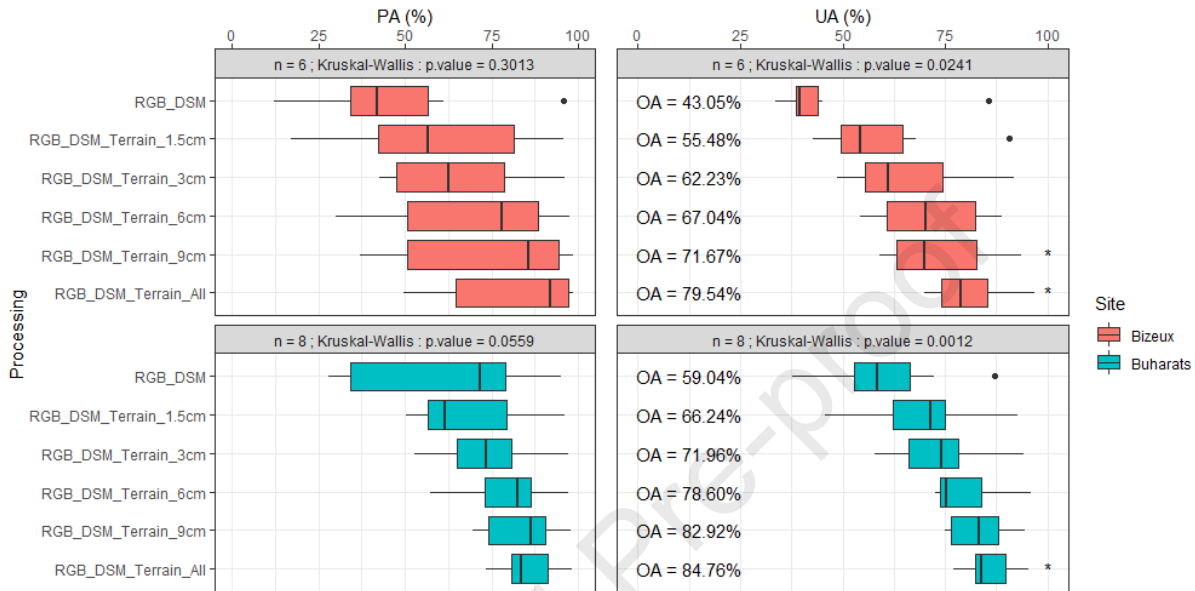


Fig.7. Boxplots (median, 25 and 75% quartiles, and outliers (dot)) showing the evolution of the accuracy of the producer (PA, left) and user (UA, right) through different processing at the sites of Bizeux (top, red) and Buharats (bottom, green). On top of each graph, the number of class used in the comparison and the p.value of the Kruskal-Wallis test are indicated. The overall accuracy (OA) is indicated for each processing. Asterisks indicate a significant difference (Dunn test, p.value < 0.05) between processing and the reference (i.e. Combination of RGB and DSM).

311 The same was observed for PA (omission error, false negative) and UA (commission
 312 error, false positive). The highest PA ($\text{mean}(\text{PA}_{\text{Bizeux}}) = 81.1\%$, $\text{mean}(\text{PA}_{\text{Buharats}}) = 85.6$
 313 $\%$) and UA ($\text{mean}(\text{UA}_{\text{Bizeux}}) = 80.8\%$, $\text{mean}(\text{UA}_{\text{Buharats}}) = 85.8\%$) are observed when
 314 all variables are combined (RGB, DSM, and Terrain calculated with all calculation
 315 windows). Although the increase observed in UA is significant ($\text{p.value}_{\text{Bizeux}} = 0.024$;

p.value_{Buharats} = 0.001), this is not the case for PA (p.value_{Bizeux} = 0.301; p.value_{Buharats} = 0.056).

3.3. Model performance to detect substrate classes

3.3.1. Producer's accuracy (PA)

The diagonal of the confusion matrix produced highlights the concordance of the classified pixel to the ground truth class. The PA showed the highest values along the diagonal of the matrix for both sites when all variables are combined (RGB, DSM, and Terrain calculated with all calculation windows) (Table 2). At Bizeux, most of the error (wrong classified pixels) was retrieved in small boulder and cobble classes (49.64 and 56.34 % of well classified pixels respectively), which are both confounded with medium boulder, cobble, and pebble, plus field material for cobble (grey percentages; > 5.0 %) (Table 2). At Buharats, most of the error was retrieved in small boulder and pebble classes (76.49 and 73.56 % of well classified pixels respectively), which are confounded with medium boulder, cobble for small boulder, and cobble and sand for pebble (Table 2).

3.3.2. User's accuracy (UA)

The UA also showed the highest values along the diagonal of the matrix for both sites when all variables are combined (RGB, DSM, and Terrain calculated with all calculation windows; Table 3). At Bizeux, most of the error was retrieved for pebble, medium boulder and cobble (70.09, 73.65 and 75.02 % of well classified pixels respectively), which are confounded with small boulder and cobble (Table 3). At Buharats, most of the error was observed for big boulder (76.93 % of well classified pixels), which are confounded with bed rock and medium boulder (Table 3).

Table 2. Producer's accuracy (PA) for the different classes when all variables are combined (RGB, DSM, and Terrain calculated with all calculation windows) at Bizeux (top) and Buharats (down) sites. Green and red cases highlight respectively the highest (>80 %) and lowest (<80 %) percentages observed in the diagonal (classified class over ground truth class). Grey cases indicate values over 5.0 % (out of the diagonal).

Classified class	Ground truth class							
Site of Bizeux	Bed Rock	Big boulder	Medium boulder	Small boulder	Cobble	Pebble	Sand	field Material
Big boulder	/	98.13	0.45	2.4	0	0.35	/	0
Medium boulder	/	1.56	89.5	23.84	5.77	0.83	/	0.05
Small boulder	/	0.17	4.58	49.64	5	0.56	/	0.02
Cobble	/	0	1.49	13.66	56.34	3.26	/	0.7
Pebble	/	0.14	3.79	8.48	27.69	94.51	/	0.47
field Material	/	0	0.19	1.97	5.21	0.49	/	98.76
Site of Buharats	Bed Rock	Big boulder	Medium boulder	Small boulder	Cobble	Pebble	Sand	field Material
Bed Rock	82.97	0.32	0.09	0.28	0.77	1.8	0.89	0.03
Big boulder	15.04	98.22	7.76	1.57	2	1.26	1.74	0.16
Medium boulder	0.69	0.7	89.16	10.11	2.5	1.52	2.99	0.21
Small boulder	0.31	0.41	0.9	76.49	6.78	1.39	0.07	0.25
Cobble	0.44	0.06	0.52	8.13	82.2	6.29	2.07	0.22
Pebble	0.34	0.05	1.02	3.03	4.88	73.56	6.07	1.15
Sand	0.16	0	0.14	0.07	0.82	13.64	84.35	0.39
field Material	0.07	0.25	0.41	0.32	0.05	0.54	1.82	97.59

Table 3. User's accuracy (UA) for the different classes when all variables are combined (RGB, DSM, and Terrain calculated with all calculation windows) at Bizeux (top) and Buharats (down) sites. Green and red cases highlight respectively the highest (>80 %) and lowest (<80 %) percentages observed in the diagonal (classified class over ground truth class). Grey cases indicate values over 5.0 % (out of the diagonal).

Classified class	Ground truth class							
Site of Bizeux	Bed Rock	Big boulder	Medium boulder	Small boulder	Cobble	Pebble	Sand	field Material
Big boulder	/	96.84	0.44	2.37	0	0.35	/	0
Medium boulder	/	1.28	73.65	19.62	4.75	0.68	/	0.02
Small boulder	/	0.28	7.64	82.79	8.34	0.93	/	0.02
Cobble	/	0	1.98	18.19	75.02	4.34	/	0.47
Pebble	/	0.1	2.81	6.29	20.53	70.09	/	0.17
field Material	/	0	0.33	3.44	9.1	0.86	/	86.27
Site of Buharats	Bed Rock	Big boulder	Medium boulder	Small boulder	Cobble	Pebble	Sand	field Material
Bed Rock	95.22	0.37	0.1	0.32	0.88	2.07	1.02	0.02
Big boulder	11.78	76.93	6.08	1.23	1.57	0.99	1.36	0.06
Medium boulder	0.64	0.65	82.73	9.38	2.32	1.41	2.77	0.1
Small boulder	0.36	0.47	1.04	88.45	7.84	1.61	0.08	0.14
Cobble	0.44	0.06	0.52	8.14	82.35	6.3	2.07	0.11
Pebble	0.38	0.06	1.14	3.38	5.45	82.17	6.78	0.64
Sand	0.16	0	0.14	0.07	0.83	13.73	84.88	0.2
field Material	0.13	0.48	0.78	0.61	0.1	1.03	3.48	93.38

3.4. Selecting relevant variables to build relevant classifications

For both producer's (Fig. 8.1) and user's (Fig. 8.2) accuracy values, the relationship between predictors (the different Terrain variables and calculation windows) and the resulting typology was analysed by redundancy analyses (RDA).

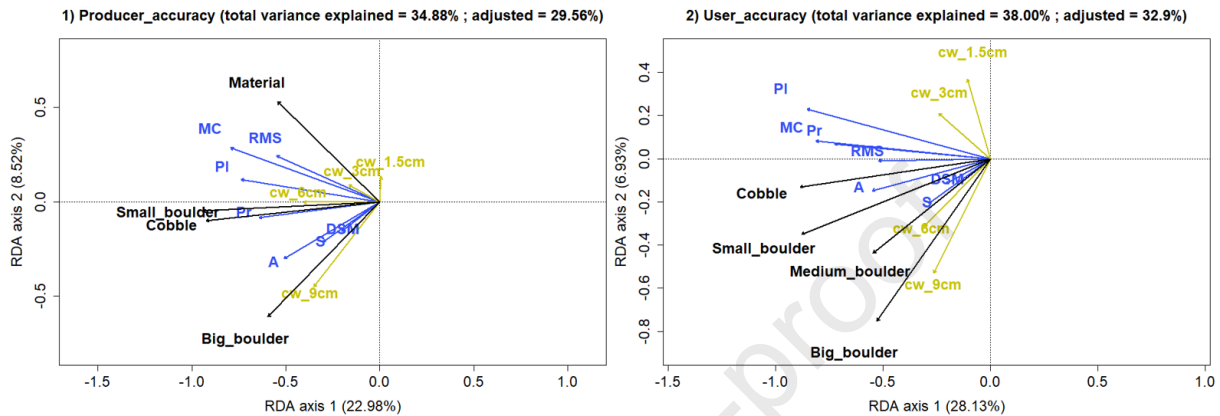


Fig. 8. Redundancy analysis (RDA) of the accuracy values of the producer (PA, graph 1) and user (UA, graph 2), showing the relationship between relevant classes (i.e. predicted typology, progressive selection; black arrows) and predictors. Predictors encompass the Terrain variables (blue) (DSM, slope (S), aspect (A), profile convexity (Pr), plan convexity (PI), maximum curvature (MC), root mean square error (RMS)) and the used calculation windows (dark yellow) (1.5 (cw_1.5cm), 3 (cw_3cm), 6 (cw_6cm), and 9 cm (cw_9cm)). Similar direction of the arrows indicates positive correlation. The total variance explained by the two significant axes (ANOVA, $p > 0.001$) is detailed in brackets for each axe. The total and adjusted variances of the RDA are indicated in brackets at the upper part of each graph.

The RDA models explained 29.56 and 32.90 % of the adjusted variance for PA and UA, respectively (Fig. 8). The progressive selection process of the PA and UA RDA models retained cobble, big and small boulder classes. The field material class was only conserved in the PA RDA model, while medium boulder was only retained in the

UA RDA model. Global model (integrating both axes), and the two first axes are significant for PA (ANOVA; Global model: $F = 6.56$, $p.value < 0.001$; Axis 1: $F = 17.29$, $p.value < 0.001$; Axis 2: $F = 6.41$, $p.value < 0.001$), and UA (ANOVA; Global model: $F = 7.51$, $p.value < 0.001$; Axis 1: $F = 22.23$, $p.value < 0.001$; Axis 2: $F = 5.47$, $p.value < 0.001$). The axis 1 highlights correlations between the Terrain variables (i.e. slope, aspect, profile convexity, plan convexity, maximum curvature, RMSE, and DSM) and substrate classes (i.e. big, medium, small boulder, cobble and field material) for PA and UA RDA models (Fig. 8). For both of them, the axis 2 highlights positive correlation between big and medium boulders for calculation windows of 6 and 9 cm, whereas negative correlation is observed for calculation windows of 1.5 and 3 cm (Fig. 8).

4. Discussion

In this study, we produced a fine resolution (1 cm) classification of benthic subtidal substrates over surfaces of 120 m² (mesoscale) of temperate reefs under hydrodynamic and turbid waters using photogrammetry-based methods.

4.1. Performance overview

Our results demonstrate that the photogrammetry approach can be used to describe the substrate characteristics at scales of 120 m² with a high spatial resolution of 1cm. The visual overview of the two mapping transects further highlights substrate landscape differences. The Terrain variables such as slope, aspect, convexity (plan and profile), maximum curvature and rugosity (RMSE) can be derived from DSM at various scales. The combination of these variables with the multispectral (RGB bands) information enabled a realistic and accurate ($OA > 79\%$) classification of the different substrate typologies for both sites. Interestingly in our models, high OA were coupled with high and balanced values of PA and UA, showing that substrate typological

classes are on average well identified (PA) and correctly predicted (UA) (Congalton, 1991). The highest PA and UA values were obtained when all variables were combined (RGB, DSM, and Terrain calculated with all calculation windows), comforting the importance of applying a multiscale approach to characterise typological classifications relevant for the description of sub-tidal habitats (Wilson et al., 2007; Lecours et al., 2015; Porskamp et al., 2018). In our study, variable redundancy can have added statistical noise as no cross-correlation of variables was carried on. Further research is thus needed to decipher the impacts of redundancy and turbidity on statistical noise.

Bizeux is probably one of the most turbid sites of the Emerald Coast, where natural tidal currents are exacerbated by strong currents generated by the functioning of the hydroelectric dam of the Rance (Gallon et al., 2013). Although, the potential high turbidity observed at Bizeux does not seem to alter the quality of the DSM and orthomosaic, a lower classification accuracy was obtained for Bizeux than for Buharats. Despite this result, the final classification, we obtained for both sites, is similar to the ones described in previous aerial imagery studies of habitat mapping of land cover (James et al., 2020b), biogenic reefs (Collin et al., 2019), seagrass meadows (James et al., 2020a), and macroalgae (Oppelt, 2012).

The multiscale approach described in this study is particularly cost/effective, as the whole process from field work to the production of a high-resolution benthic classification can be performed in 2 weeks. Most of the process is automatized, as the computer controls for the 3D model building, Terrain variable calculations and classifications, but for data acquisition and benthic classes vectorization. Computational time can be saved by simplifying the classification, through grouping different classes for example (e.g. big/medium/small boulder classes grouped in boulders class). Subsequently, the substrate classes need careful definition regarding

the final objectives of the research, because they have a strong implication on the duration of the analysis.

4.2. Model performance to detect substrate classes

The confusion matrices indicated that field material, big and medium boulder classes appeared as the most accurately classified typologies for the two sampling sites at least for PA values. However, the worst classified typologies (low PA values) were small boulders (confused with medium boulder and cobble classes at both sites), cobble (confused with pebble at Bizeux), and pebble (confused with sand at Buharats). The UA values above 70 % reveal the concordance of the classified pixel to the ground truth class. Low UA values were observed for pebble, medium boulder and cobble at Bizeux, underlining the confusion shown for PA. Most of the confusion between classes occurred between neighbouring granulometry, which is difficult to visually distinguish during the vectorization step of the supervised classification process. A way to circumvent this could be to group the neighbouring classes, while keeping ecological relevance in terms of habitat for organisms.

4.3. Relevant variables for classification

The RDA analyses showed that the total and adjusted variances explained are quite low and are thus discussed as exploratory results needing further research. All the Terrain variables seemed to contribute to the classification of the different substrate typologies, and the larger entities (i.e. big and medium boulders) were correlated with the larger calculation windows (i.e. 6 and 9 cm). This highlights the key role of the large-scale information for the detection of large objects. Nevertheless, this scale depends on high kernel size and low resolution, having the effect to crop the borders of the sampling area and in turn reduce the classified area.

4.4. Further calculation methodologies

In this study, the maximum likelihood classifier was investigated, as it is currently used for rapid and efficient habitat descriptions (Collin et al., 2019; James et al., 2020a; James et al., 2020b). However, other machine learner classifiers can be used for supervised classification, such as random forest, support vector machine, artificial neural network (including convolutional, Collin et al., 2011) (e.g. QUEST), as well as fuzzy or unsupervised classifiers (e.g. ISODATA and k-means) (Irvin et al., 1997; Pal and Mather, 2003; Schmidt and Hewitt, 2004; Rattray et al., 2009). Testing and comparing different classifiers could be a way to choose the most appropriate process for a given site/study, refine the classification and improve its accuracy. For instance, an object based classification approach could be a relevant option, particularly for marine habitats (Wahidin et al., 2015; Ierodiaconou et al., 2018).

4.5. Access to reliefs difficult to sample

One of the perspectives of this study would be to extend this approach to other habitats, like cliffs and caves, technically difficult to characterise using LiDAR and all acoustic tools operating vertically from the surface. Studying these habitats is highly relevant since they shelter specifically adapted species, such as poriferans, ascidians and cnidarians. This is thus not surprising that these habitats are entitled “particular habitat” in the EUNIS A3.71 and A4.71 typologies (Gayet et al., 2018). Species communities, found in cliff and cave walls, are similar to the ones found at deep depths, characterised by adaptations to sciaphilic and specific oceanographic conditions and nutrient supplies (Castric-Fey et al., 1973; Bibiloni and Gili, 1989; Barnes, 1999; Meroz-Fine et al, 2005; Goffredo and Dubinsky, 2014; Sitjá and Maldonado, 2014; Quattrini et al., 2015).

4.6. Toward the characterisation of benthic communities

The photogrammetry provides pictures, that can be analysed to identify sessile organisms by photoidentification and thus further describe the benthic community associated with the different substrate types. Photoidentification is less accurate than traditional techniques, such as *in situ* identification or sampling and determination at the laboratory but could nevertheless be useful for a fast and widespread characterisation of benthic communities. In addition, photoidentification offers the possibility to test *a posteriori* the responses of communities to habitat variability, and potentially detect disturbances and their origin (human or natural).

5. Conclusion

The photogrammetry is clearly a powerful tool for a fine resolution (1cm) of the substrate characterisation at mesoscale (100 m² to 1 km²). The semi-automatic classification process developed here allows now a complete description of the terrain characteristics. The georeferenced orthoprojection of the transect implemented in this study enabled to link mesoscale fine resolution information (obtained through the photogrammetric model) with a macroscale (> 1 km²) environmental context (obtained by acoustic, LiDAR and satellite surveys). Jackson et al. (2020) and Rossi et al. (2021) also emphasized the potential of multiscale approaches to study the responses of biodiversity to environmental factors from individual to ecosystem levels using a set of complementary tools (e.g. satellites, drones, LiDAR, Sonar, AUV, ROV, Camera). This represents an innovative method for studying the relation between biological communities and their micro/macrohabitat through scales. As demonstrated in this study, the photogrammetry can be efficient even in turbid temperate water system, and is thus expected to work in a large part of sub-tidal environments. A challenge could

501 be now to develop photogrammetry for benthic community description per classes
502 based on (ortho)images that are collected to build up the classification.

Journal Pre-proof

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Journal Pre-proof

Table 1: The different combinations of resolution (r) and kernel size (k) to obtain the different calculation windows

Calculation window (in cm)	Kernel size (k, in pixel)	Resolution (r, in mm)
1.5	30	5
3	30	10
6	60	10
9	90	10

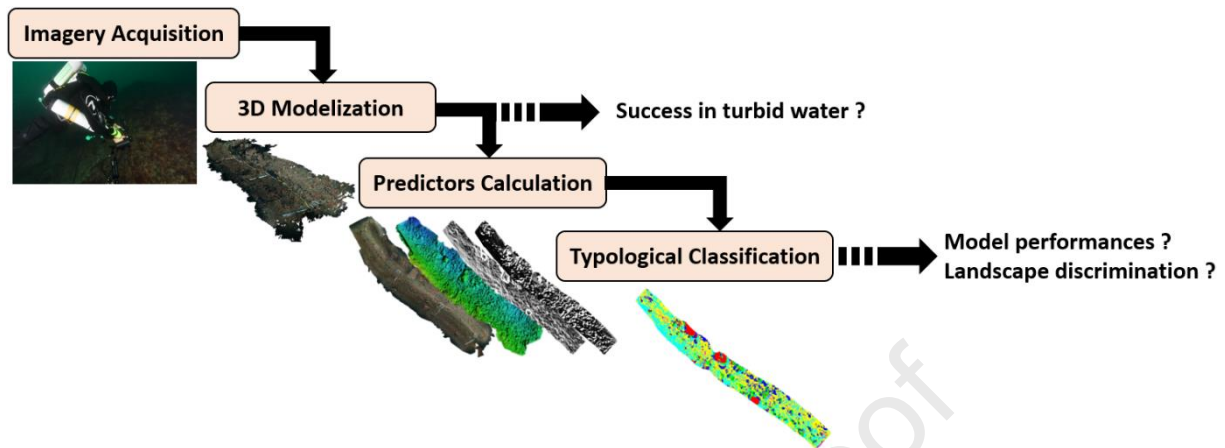
Table 2. Producer's accuracy (PA) for the different classes when all variables are combined (RGB, DSM, and Terrain calculated with all calculation windows) at Bizeux (top) and Buharats (down) sites. Green and red cases highlight respectively the highest (>80 %) and lowest (<80 %) percentages observed in the diagonal (classified class over ground truth class). Grey cases indicate values over 5.0 % (out of the diagonal).

Classified class	Ground truth class							
	Bed Rock	Big boulder	Medium boulder	Small boulder	Cobble	Pebble	Sand	field Material
Site of Bizeux								
Big boulder	/	98.13	0.45	2.4	0	0.35	/	0
Medium boulder	/	1.56	89.5	23.84	5.77	0.83	/	0.05
Small boulder	/	0.17	4.58	49.64	5	0.56	/	0.02
Cobble	/	0	1.49	13.66	56.34	3.26	/	0.7
Pebble	/	0.14	3.79	8.48	27.69	94.51	/	0.47
field Material	/	0	0.19	1.97	5.21	0.49	/	98.76
Site of Buharats								
Bed Rock	82.97	0.32	0.09	0.28	0.77	1.8	0.89	0.03
Big boulder	15.04	98.22	7.76	1.57	2	1.26	1.74	0.16
Medium boulder	0.69	0.7	89.16	10.11	2.5	1.52	2.99	0.21
Small boulder	0.31	0.41	0.9	76.49	6.78	1.39	0.07	0.25
Cobble	0.44	0.06	0.52	8.13	82.2	6.29	2.07	0.22
Pebble	0.34	0.05	1.02	3.03	4.88	73.56	6.07	1.15
Sand	0.16	0	0.14	0.07	0.82	13.64	84.35	0.39
field Material	0.07	0.25	0.41	0.32	0.05	0.54	1.82	97.59

Table 3. User's accuracy (UA) for the different classes when all variables are combined (RGB, DSM, and Terrain calculated with all calculation windows) at Bizeux (top) and Buharats (down) sites. Green and red cases highlight respectively the highest (>80 %) and lowest (<80 %) percentages observed in the diagonal (classified class over ground truth class). Grey cases indicate values over 5.0 % (out of the diagonal).

Classified class	Ground truth class							
	Bed Rock	Big boulder	Medium boulder	Small boulder	Cobble	Pebble	Sand	field Material
Site of Bizeux								
Big boulder	/	96.84	0.44	2.37	0	0.35	/	0
Medium boulder	/	1.28	73.65	19.62	4.75	0.68	/	0.02
Small boulder	/	0.28	7.64	82.79	8.34	0.93	/	0.02
Cobble	/	0	1.98	18.19	75.02	4.34	/	0.47
Pebble	/	0.1	2.81	6.29	20.53	70.09	/	0.17
field Material	/	0	0.33	3.44	9.1	0.86	/	86.27
Site of Buharats								
Bed Rock	95.22	0.37	0.1	0.32	0.88	2.07	1.02	0.02
Big boulder	11.78	76.93	6.08	1.23	1.57	0.99	1.36	0.06
Medium boulder	0.64	0.65	82.73	9.38	2.32	1.41	2.77	0.1
Small boulder	0.36	0.47	1.04	88.45	7.84	1.61	0.08	0.14
Cobble	0.44	0.06	0.52	8.14	82.35	6.3	2.07	0.11
Pebble	0.38	0.06	1.14	3.38	5.45	82.17	6.78	0.64
Sand	0.16	0	0.14	0.07	0.83	13.73	84.88	0.2
field Material	0.13	0.48	0.78	0.61	0.1	1.03	3.48	93.38

Graphical Abstract



Highlights

- Photogrammetric technique is applicable for high resolution ($\sim 1\text{cm}$) mesoscale ($\sim 100\text{m}^2$) benthic temperate reef characterization in turbid coastal waters.
- Supervised classification provides good performance for benthic substrate mapping at a centimetre resolution.
- Resulting maps enable detection of landscape variability within and between sites.

1 Authors agreement to the submission

2 All authors declare being agree to the submission

3 Author contributions

4 Quentin Ternon, Éric Feunteun, Frédéric Ysnel, Pierre Thiriet and Antoine Collin

5 developed the study approach.

6 Quentin Ternon and Valentin Danet collected the data.

7 Quentin Ternon and Antoine Collin conducted the data analysis.

8 Quentin Ternon wrote the paper.

9 All authors participated to the manuscript revision.

10 Antoine Collin supervised the research.

Declaration of interests

☒ The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

☐ The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: