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# BenthicNet: A global compilation of seafloor images for deep learning applications

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## Abstract

Advances in underwater imaging enable collection of extensive seafloor image datasets necessary for monitoring important benthic ecosystems. The ability to collect seafloor imagery has outpaced our capacity to analyze it, hindering mobilization of this crucial environmental information. Machine learning approaches provide opportunities to increase the efficiency with which seafloor imagery is analyzed, yet large and consistent datasets to support development of such approaches are scarce. Here we present BenthicNet: a global compilation of seafloor imagery designed to support the training and evaluation of large-scale image recognition models. An initial set of over 11.4 million images was collected and curated to represent a diversity of seafloor environments using a representative subset of 1.3 million images. These are accompanied by 3.1 million annotations translated to the CATAMI scheme, which span 190 000 of the images. A large deep learning model was trained on this compilation and preliminary results suggest it has utility for automating large and small-scale image analysis tasks.

## 1 Introduction

Underwater imagery, including both still photographs and video, is among the most common forms of data used to inform *benthic habitat mapping*. Benthic habitat maps describe both biotic and abiotic elements of the seafloor [8, 47], useful for marine management goals such as monitoring species and habitats of interest, informing policy decisions, and guiding sustainable ocean resource use [27, 3]. Seabed imagery has great utility for characterizing benthic environments for several reasons: it is non-invasive and minimally destructive, it may be collected remotely, it may be analyzed for multiple purposes (e.g. biology, geology), and it is more efficient to collect and store than physical samples (e.g. grabs, cores, preserved specimen).

Benthic imagery is increasingly collected using automated and remote underwater vehicles (AUVs, ROVs), which have the potential to generate larger volumes of data than previous methods—faster even than it can be analyzed [74, 24, 66]. The manual classification, annotation, and labelling of seabed imagery therefore acts as a bottleneck in the habitat mapping workflow [6] — a challenge which automation with machine learning (ML) could address.

Successfully training large-scale deep learning models from scratch requires large volumes of data. However, a deep neural network that has previously been trained on one task can be repurposed for a new task through transfer learning, provided the new task uses similar input stimuli to that used when training the original network. For vision models, transfer learning is typically performed by reusing models pretrained on the ImageNet dataset [64], comprised of photographs of terrestrial and anthropocentric objects. However, since this data does not represent subaqueous environments, the shift in domain may limit the capacity for transfer learning to benthic habitats [57, 42]. This motivates the need for a large-scale dataset of global seabed imagery.

Cumulatively, adequate volumes of benthic image data currently exist to support the development of large ML models, but they are spread globally among various research groups, government data portals, and open data repositories. Hence there is a need to compile and curate datasets for the development of large-scale image recognition models. Moreover, unlike terrestrial and anthropocentric images, there is no objective label for many seabed habitats, biological communities, substrate types, or organisms. Numerous different classification schemes are used to label benthic features [1, 50, 44], with small studies often coming up with their own bespoke classification scheme. Because no single vocabulary is universally applied to describe these features, we currently lack large sets of consistently labelled images that are necessary for training deep learning models for benthic environments. We note an outstanding need to develop standardized protocols for the translation of common marine image labelling schemes.

For benthic data, as is the case for most domains, unlabelled data is much easier to obtain at scale than annotated data. Fortunately, self-supervised learning (SSL) techniques have been developed which can harness unlabelled data for the initial pretraining stage of the neural network. In SSL, a pretext task is constructed automatically from the input data itself [4, 13, 28, 14, 26, 15, 17, 11, 29], enabling training of large-scale models on unlabelled imagery which can be more easily collected at scale. After pretraining with SSL, models have already learnt to see and understand stimuli and can be fine-tuned for specific downstream tasks without needing large volumes of annotated data.

The whole-image labels that typify benthic habitat image datasets may differ from other forms of marine image labelling that focus on locating specific objects, semantic labelling, bounding boxes, and masking. These forms of labelling are well suited to applications focusing on single taxa, pelagic biota, and object detection or tracking, and efforts to establish extensive image datasets for those applications are also underway. FathomNet [7, 36], contains over 100 000 images and over 200 000 localization labels with bounding boxes focused generally on marine biota, while Orenstein et al. [53] present a dataset of 3.4 million plankton images that have been labelled and used to train deep learning models. Hong et al. [30] have established the TrashCan dataset, containing over 7 000 images of marine debris with corresponding bounding box and segmentation masks. Other comparable image datasets include WildFish for classifying fish species [83], the OUC-vision large-scale underwater image database for underwater salient object detection [34], and the Brackish dataset [56] for detecting fish, crabs and starfish in brackish waters. Multiple datasets have been established to support the automated annotation of coral imagery including Moorea Labeled Corals [5], the Gulf of Eilat dataset [60], and notably, CoralNet [6, 12]. In addition to serving as a data repository where users can upload and share underwater image data and point labels, CoralNet provides a web interface to facilitate labelling and development of image recognition models. Several other comparable data portals and software packages enable the labelling and centralization of marine image data in this way (e.g. FathomNet, 36; SQUIDLE+, BIIGLE, 39; VIAME).

Here we describe BenthicNet: a global compilation of seafloor images that is designed to support development of automated image processing tools for benthic habitat data. With this compilation, we strive to obtain thematic diversity by (i) compiling benthic habitat images from locations around the world, and (ii) representing habitats from a broad range of marine environments. The compiled dataset is assessed for these qualities. Additionally, we aim to achieve diversity of non-thematic image characteristics (e.g. image quality, lighting, perspective) by obtaining data from a range of acquisition platforms and camera configurations. Diversity in the data is important for ensuring as much benthic imagery as possible is within the domain of our dataset. The dataset is presented in three parts: a diverse collection of over 11 million seafloor images from around the world, provided without labels (BenthicNet-11M); a rarefied subset of 1.3 million images, selected to maintain diversity in the imagery while reducing redundancy and volume (BenthicNet-1M); and a collection of 188 688 labelled images bearing 3.1 million annotations (BenthicNet-Labelled). We provide a large SSL model pretrained on BenthicNet-1M, and demonstrate its application using examples from BenthicNet-Labelled. The compilation and SSL model are made openly available to foster further development and assessment of benthic image automation tools.

## 2 Data curation

In order to achieve a diverse collection of benthic habitat images for training deep learning models, data spanning a range of environments and geographies was obtained from a variety of sources. These initially included project partners and research contacts, which were leveraged to establish additional

**Table 1: Summary of BenthicNet data sources** including the number of images in BenthicNet-11M (Full collection), BenthicNet-1M (Subsampled), and BenthicNet-L (Labelled). Further details on the individual datasets are provided within the BenthicNet metadata.

Source	Region	# Datasets	# Sites	# Samples		
				Full collection	Subsampled	Labelled
<i>Online Repository/Collection</i>						
AADC	Antarctic	2	86	2 056	2 024	203
Catlin Seaview	Global	22	861	1 082 452	283 674	11 346
FathomNet	W. USA	8	3 381	68 908	58 196	0
MGDS	Global	6	32	15 023	6 154	0
NOAA (via OneStop)	USA	18	526	73 019	40 714	4 543
NRCan	Canada	78	1 804	23 855	18 851	3 595
PANGAEA	Global	1 191	1 196	764 924	236 968	40 204
SQUIDLE+	Global	691	14 187	9 166 472	608 576	85 387
USAP-DC	Antarctic	5	27	4 144	2 886	0
USGS	USA	5	38	104 155	7 035	0
<i>Individual Contributions</i>						
4D Oceans	E. Canada	2	274	3 008	2 715	3 000
DFO (BIO)	E. Canada	6	381	7 773	5 981	7 762
DFO (IOS)	W. Canada	7	9	16 247	1 993	10 106
EAC	E. Canada	1	7	1 220	1 015	886
Hakai Institute	W. Canada	2	45	4 735	3 609	1 697
HAL	Jamaica	1	1	505	505	0
LaboGeo/UFES	E. Brazil	1	359	359	287	359
MUN	Arctic	4	135	10 691	6 403	10 687
NGU	Norway	4	580	50 290	50 275	0
NOAA (NEFSC)	N.E. USA	1	2	2 240	2 065	2 240
SEAM	E. Canada	3	284	6 811	5 170	6 673
Total	Global	2 058	24 215	11 408 887	1 345 096	188 688

data partnerships with individuals, academic and not-for-profit research groups, and government organizations. The largest data volumes were obtained from several academic, government, and third-party public data repositories. The acquisition of labelled data was prioritized in all cases, but extensive high quality unlabelled data collections were also included where feasible.

## 2.1 Data compilation and quality control

The formats and varieties of data were diverse, including collections of images with spreadsheet metadata, images with metadata contained in file names, GIS files containing images from which metadata was extracted, lists of URL image links, and raw video with text file annotations. Datasets not formatted as a single folder of images or list of URL links with CSV metadata were re-formatted. Metadata contained in image file names was parsed and used to construct a metadata CSV file where necessary. Image data within GIS files was extracted using ArcGIS Pro and the ArcPy Python package, along with other metadata contained within the files. Geographic coordinates were converted to decimal degrees using the WGS 84 datum. Video files were subsampled by extracting still frames according to their metadata using FFmpeg. After formatting, all datasets were subjected to quality control checks for missing entries, duplicates, label consistency, image quality, and matches between images and metadata. Quality control of image labels was performed by sampling the metadata and comparing labels to corresponding images for each dataset. Datasets where notable label inconsistencies were detected were rejected. Data columns were renamed to match a standardized format for the BenthicNet dataset. Acquisition methodology for each source is described in detail in [Appx. A](#). Statistics for the various data sources are summarized in [Tab. 1](#).

## 2.2 Data management

In total, 11 408 887 images were collected from the sources described above (see [§2.1](#)). Of all the images acquired, 188 688 included labels corresponding to visible benthic elements. Labels enable training and validation for supervised modelling tasks, such as localized species or substrate

**Table 2: Examples of original image labels translated to hierarchical labels** according to CATAMI v1.4 and WoRMS. Some original labels indicated both substrate and biota, while others indicated only one of these. For biota, some original labels provided more morphological detail and others more taxonomic; as much detail was retained as possible in both the CATAMI Biota and WoRMS taxonomic translations, respectively.

Original	CATAMI		WoRMS	
	Substrate	Biota	AphiaID	Taxonomy
Mud and tube worms	Substrate ↳ Unconsolidated (soft) ↳ Sand / mud (<1mm) ↳ Mud / silt (<64um)	Worms ↳ Polychaetes ↳ Tube worms	883	Annelida ↳ Polychaeta
Hard Coral: Non hermatypic: Free living (Fungia etc)	–	Cnidaria ↳ Corals ↳ Stony corals ↳ Solitary ↳ Free living	1363	Cnidaria ↳ Hexacorallia ↳ Scleractinia
<i>Pocillopora</i> sp.	–	Cnidaria ↳ Corals ↳ Stony corals	206938	Cnidaria ↳ Hexacorallia ↳ Scleractinia ↳ Pocilloporidae ↳ <i>Pocillopora</i>

identifications [33, 58], or bottom type classification [18]. There are several ways though that unlabelled data may still be utilized using unsupervised [77], semi-supervised [2, 54, 73, 78], and self-supervised [31, 4, 13, 28, 82, 26, 29] approaches. To facilitate a range of potential applications, we consider the dataset in two ways hereafter: the full set of images without their labels (BenthicNet-11M) and the set of labelled images (BenthicNet-Labelled).

### 2.2.1 Labelled data

**Label translation.** In order to increase the utility of the compiled data, and to facilitate validation of models trained on it, image labels from all datasets were translated to the CATAMI classification scheme (v1.4) [1], which spans both substrate and biota categories. Biota labels were additionally mapped to the World Registry of Marine Species (WoRMS) taxonomy [76].

Images were originally labelled according to a range of different established and bespoke schemes, but a large number of these (e.g. from SQUIDLE+) were readily available as CATAMI labels. CATAMI is a flexible framework that offers several advantages to accommodate translation and integration of a broad range of other labelled data. First, CATAMI supports labels for multiple classes of benthic features, including “branches” for both biota and physical elements such as substrate, bedforms, and relief. This enables the translation of a range of labelled datasets that were initially collected for a variety of different purposes. Second, labels within these branches are hierarchical. This means that objects may be labelled at different or even multiple levels of detail depending on the quality of the data, the confidence of the analyst, or the requirements of a particular application. This is critical for the translation of the multi-source data compiled here, which were initially analyzed at a range of thematic (e.g. taxonomic) resolutions for different purposes. Finally, CATAMI implements labels that are designed to be visually recognizable from image data. At a coarse level, these may distinguish broad groups or phyla of biota, but at finer levels, where identifying individual genera or species may become difficult using image data alone, morphological labels may be applied. These describe the size, shape, colour, and growth form of an organism, which may be recognizable even though the taxonomy is ambiguous.

We translated all image labels to the CATAMI (e.g. Tab. 2). All unique labels were extracted for each labelled image dataset in turn. Each unique label was translated to its closest CATAMI equivalent(s), maintaining the hierarchical level of the original data as closely as possible. In some cases, additional information within the metadata such as comments or auxiliary labels were used to complete the translation. Some annotations were provided in schemes that extend versions of CATAMI, such as the Australian Morphospecies Catalogue, which provides more precise morphological detail for the shape of sponges. Where this was done systematically and with more than 10 samples, we extended our scheme to match this increased level of morphological detail. Some annotations included man-made



objects, such as trash or cables, which fell outside the scope of the CATAMI scheme, but may have value toward monitoring the anthropogenic impact on benthic habitats. Thus we also added an additional Anthropogenic branch to the hierarchy to cater to these annotations. We also include fields for CATAMI modifiers that indicate additional information such as whether organisms are bleached or dead, or their colours.

Some datasets provided taxonomic labels of biota at a high level of detail (genus or species level). To retain this information, taxonomic biota labels were additionally assigned an AphiaID from the World Registry of Marine Species (WoRMS). Where detailed taxonomic labels could not be determined, remaining biota annotations (e.g. morphological descriptions from CATAMI) were also mapped onto the WoRMS taxonomy at the highest level of specificity possible (typically phylum, class, or order).

In total, there were 188 688 labelled images, 3 091 158 individual CATAMI labels, and 1 131 391 WoRMS taxonomic labels for the BenthicNet-Labelled compilation.

**Partitioning.** To enable consistent validation and benchmarking between models using the BenthicNet dataset compilation, we provide train and test partitions of the labelled data. Test data were selected according to a partially spatial and class-label stratified procedure in order to ensure representation of a broad range of labels, and to reduce the degree of similarity between test and training partitions caused by spatial autocorrelation [37, 48]. The challenge in partitioning the dataset stems from the multi-label nature and imbalanced proportions of labels in BenthicNet. Firstly, imbalance necessitates careful assignment of rarer labels in the dataset. Additionally, a single image may have any combination of labels across multiple branches of the CATAMI hierarchy. If an image is assigned to test or training partitions due to a particular label, we must consider how the assignment affects other labels on the same image, some of which may be rarer.

Our partitioning process was as follows. We selected the target number of annotations per label to place in the test set as the smaller of 15% of the number of samples for the most frequently occurring label and 35% of the samples for the median label. We added images to train or test partitions one at a time, selecting the next label to add based on the following factors, in order of priority.

1. Ensure at least two samples for each label can be placed in the train partition.
2. Ensure at least 50% of the samples for each label can be placed in the train partition without using samples within 50 m of a test sample.
3. Ensure at least 15% of the samples for each label can be placed in the test partition without using samples within 50 m of a train sample.
4. Ensure no more than 35% of the samples for each label would be placed in the test partition.
5. Prioritize the CATAMI label with the fewest remaining unallocated images.

After determining the next label to add to a partition, we selected an image bearing that annotation to add to the partition as follows:

1. Of unallocated images bearing the label, if any are within 50 m of an image already in the target partition, randomly select an image from the closest 10% of those images.
2. Otherwise, randomly select an image bearing the label which is not within 50 m of an image already allocated to the other partition. Images violating this were used if needed to satisfy minimum populations described above (50% in train, 15% in test).

In practice, our partitions grow spatially outwards from initial seed locations, with new locations seeded to represent new label classes. Any remaining samples were allocated to the test partition if within 50 m of an image already in test, and to train otherwise. Effectively, test data was selected to prioritize representation of CATAMI labels, and then to minimize spatial overlap with the training data, as much as possible. This algorithm was run in parallel on 37 subsets of the data, each corresponding to a different ecological marine unit [65] (EMU; see Appx. C). 142 767 images (75.66%) were assigned to the training partition and 45 921 (24.34%) to test. The code for obtaining training and test partitions of the labelled data is provided at the BenthicNet code repository.

## 2.2.2 Unlabelled data

All images in BenthicNet may be used for applications which do not require labels, thus for the “unlabelled” slice of the data we considered all 11 408 887 images. We refer to the full collection as BenthicNet-11M. These images were not distributed uniformly in space; some datasets had a low sampling intensity, e.g. a few images per recording site taken by divers; while others were densely

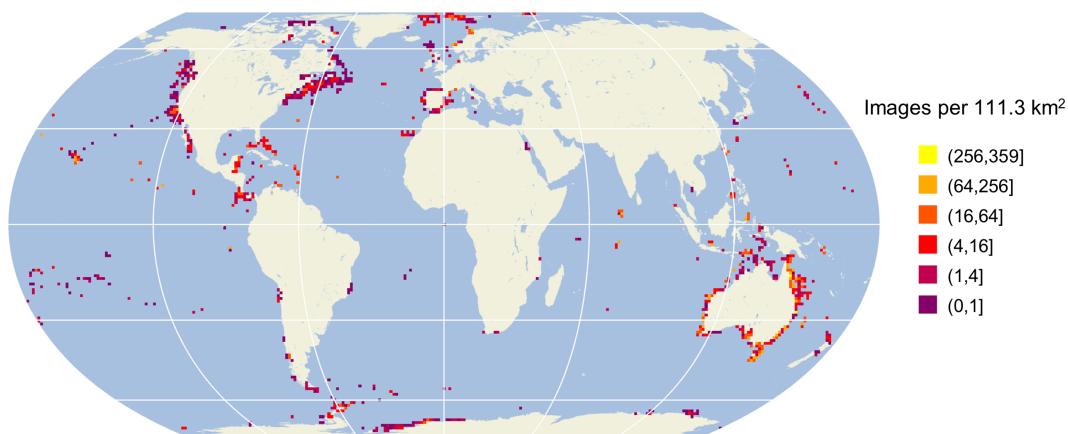


Figure 1: Distribution of BenthicNet-1M images projected to Equal Earth.

sampled, e.g. AUV video. To reduce the redundancy of the densely sampled data (thereby also reducing data volume and imbalance) the data was subsampled spatially, as described in Appx. B. We refer to the subsampled dataset as BenthicNet-1M.

### 3 Data Records

All BenthicNet data, metadata, and models described here are available from [REDACTED]. These include (i) a CSV file with an entry for each image in the subsampled compilation, BenthicNet-1M, conforming to the convention presented in Tab. 5; (ii) a single CSV file with an entry for each label of each image of the labelled compilation, BenthicNet-Labelled, conforming to the format presented in Tab. 3; (iii) a tarred directory containing each image in BenthicNet-1M and BenthicNet-Labelled, resized and compressed to JPEG format; (iv) a version of the entire image compilation tarred at the individual subdataset level; and (v) the ResNet-50 model weights resulting from SSL pretraining on BenthicNet-1M as described in §4. We additionally include CSV files listing the counts of each individual CATAMI label present, and a list of WoRMS taxonomical labels present. The metadata and models are available for use without restriction under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License (CC-BY-4.0). Most images are available under CC-BY-4.0, except where the original licenses of subdatasets indicate limitations to derivative or commercial uses. Individual licenses for all subdatasets are retained and available along with the metadata within the repository.

#### 3.1 Data formats

All unlabelled image metadata were standardized to a common format (Tab. 5). The datetime field was completed to the highest level of precision possible. Times were converted to UTC where timezones were indicated, and assumed to be UTC otherwise; it is not possible to guarantee all times are in UTC. Missing datetime and coordinate information was imputed where reasonably possible, e.g., by assigning the geographic mean centre of the acquisition site where coordinates were missing for some images. Labelled images were additionally assigned metadata describing the original and translated CATAMI labels, and WoRMS AphiaIDs (Tab. 3). Metadata indicating the pixel location of image labels were retained where provided.

### 4 Technical Validation

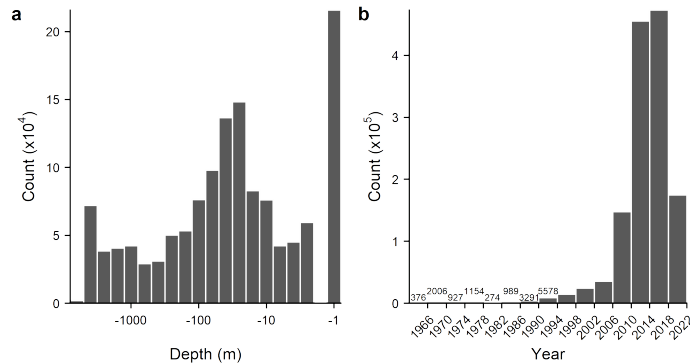
The subsampled BenthicNet dataset contains images from locations around the world (Fig. 1). Several regions are densely sampled: the Australian coast, Iberian Peninsula, Norwegian and Greenland Seas, North-Eastern and Western Canadian and U.S. continental shelves, and some Antarctic coast. Others are under-sampled, such as the Indian Ocean and the South Atlantic including the eastern coast of South America and west coast of Africa. Images collected in the open oceans are more dispersed than those at the continental shelves.

**Table 3: Format for compiled BenthicNet-Labelled image metadata.** Coverage is the fraction of images that have at least one such metadata entry.

Column	Contents	Data-type	Units	Coverage
url	URL address for this image	String		100.00%
source	Data provider/repository	String		100.00%
dataset	Name of dataset	String		100.00%
site	Image location name	String		100.00%
image	Image filename	String		100.00%
latitude	Latitude (WGS 84)	Float	Decimal degree	100.00%
longitude	Longitude (WGS 84)	Float	Decimal degree	100.00%
datetime	Acquisition date and time (UTC)	String	YYYY-MM-DD HH:mm:ss	100.00%
partition	Train/test split allocation	String		100.00%
annotation_column	Relative x location of labelled pixel	Float	Fraction of image width	53.11%
annotation_row	Relative y location of labelled pixel	Float	Fraction of image height	53.11%
original_label	Original image label	String		82.10%
catami_biota	CATAMI biota label	String		75.59%
catami_substrate	CATAMI substrate label	String		70.30%
catami_bedforms	CATAMI bedform label	String		6.87%
catami_relief	CATAMI relief label	String		2.46%
catami_qualifiers	CATAMI label qualifier	String		10.82%
colour_qualifier	Label colour qualifier	String		6.52%
bleached	Whether biota is bleached	Float	Values 0 or 1	13.44%
dead	Whether biota is deceased	Float	Values 0 or 1	25.76%
aphia_id	WoRMS taxon AphiaID label	Integer		60.73%
gebco_bathymetry	Depth interpolated from GEBCO2022	Float	Metres	100.00%
emu	Nearest ecological marine unit	Integer		99.98%

## 4.1 Environmental heterogeneity

Images in the compiled datasets were acquired between 1965–2021 from depths ranging from < 1 m to over 5 500 m (Fig. 2). We analyzed the representativeness of image samples across the broader global oceans by comparing the sampled frequency to the area of each ocean basin (Fig. 3), demonstrating a similar distribution. We extended this analysis in more detail by considering the distribution of ecological marine units (EMUs) captured by the dataset (see Appx. C). The nearest EMU to each image is provided as a metadata field for both the BenthicNet-1M and BenthicNet-Labelled datasets; depths from the GEBCO2022 grid are also provided for each image (assigned using bilinear interpolation; Tables 3 and 5).



**Figure 2: Distribution of BenthicNet-1M images** according to (a) log-scale **depth** data retrieved from the GEBCO2022 grid [23] and (b) **year of acquisition**.

## 4.2 Model training

We ran experiments to explore the utility of pretraining with SSL on the unlabelled BenthicNet-1M dataset for automating downstream benthic image labelling tasks. We identified two labelling tasks from within our data. **BenthicNet-Substrate-d2**. We considered all images in BenthicNet-Labelled with a whole-frame CATAMI substrate label to at least depth 2. We used the depth-2 labels,

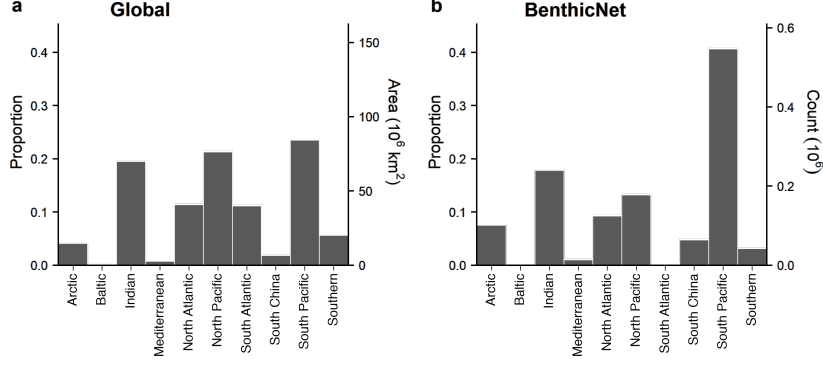


Figure 3: Distribution of BenthicNet-1M images according to global ocean/sea basins [65]. (a) Proportion and area of ocean basins. (b) Proportion of BenthicNet image samples from each ocean basin.

comprised of 5 classes “Sand/mud”, “Pebble/gravel”, “Cobbles”, “Boulders”, and “Rock”. This subset, “BenthicNet-Substrate-d2”, comprised of 43 430 training and 13 719 test images. This size was made possible by our large scale data collation and label mapping pipeline, but we anticipate that a pretrained model may be used on small datasets using a bespoke labelling scheme for the area. We thus also considered a classification task using the original labels of an input dataset: **German Bank 2010**, provided by DFO [9], which had whole-image “benthoscape” that describe recognizable combinations of substrate, bedforms, and biology visible in 3 181 images, collected off the southwest coast of Nova Scotia, Canada. The labels are (1) “reef”, where boulders or bedrock with frequent epifauna comprise more than 50% of images; (2) “glacial till”, consisting of mixed sediments (cobble, gravel, sand); (3) “silt/mud” with frequent evidence of infaunal bioturbation; (4) “silt with bedforms”; and (5) “sand with bedforms”, which commonly included sand dollars (*Echinarachnius parma*). 2 681 images were used for training and 500 for testing. Both tasks have one-hot targets, which simplifies model training and evaluation.

We initially considered four recent instance-learning SSL methods: SimSiam [15], Bootstrap Your Own Latent (BYOL) [26], Momentum Contrast (MoCo-v2) [16], and Barlow Twins (BT) [82]. Using a ResNet-50 trained on BenthicNet-1M with these methods, we found they performed similarly, with BT performing consistently well at downstream classification tasks. Our analyses here thus show BT as a representative SSL method. Using BT, we trained a ResNet-50 model on the BenthicNet-1M dataset for 100, 200, and 400 epochs with the LARS optimizer [79]. The hyperparameters were as for Zbontar et al. [82], except the learning rate which was set to  $2 \times 10^{-3}$  and annealed using one-cycle with 10 epochs of warm-up [68]. Models were trained using four Nvidia A100 GPUs, with total batch size 512. We compare against transfer learning from a publicly available ResNet-50 model<sup>1</sup> pretrained with cross-entropy on ImageNet-1k (600 epochs), provided by torchvision [55].

Using one of the pretrained ResNet-50 backbone encoders, we performed a linear probe by training a linear classifier head while keeping the encoder frozen. We trained the classifier head for 100 epochs with one-cycle LR schedule, maximum LR  $3 \times 10^{-5}$ , 10 ep. warm-up epochs. We performed full fine-tuning with an unfrozen encoder and classifier head initialized from the linear probe. We trained the network end-to-end with one tenth the learning rate used for the linear probe for 300 epochs. The transfer-learning models were compared to models trained from scratch for 100 or 400 epochs, using the one-cycle schedule with peak learning rate  $3 \times 10^{-5}$ .

As shown in Tab. 4, pretraining with BT on BenthicNet-1M consistently outperformed training from scratch on the labelled data—the FT model outperformed training from scratch by +4.3% on BenthicNet-Substrate-d2 and +22.9% on German Bank 2010, and the linear probe outperformed training from scratch 100 ep. The BenthicNet-1M pretrained model outperformed the ImageNet-1k model across the linear probes, indicating its superior alignment to the downstream tasks of benthic habitat mapping. The smaller dataset, German Bank 2010, was much more challenging, with lower performance from all models and very poor linear probe performance from the ImageNet-1k model (37.6%). With fine-tuning, the ImageNet-1k pretrained model was able to perform well on the larger BenthicNet-Substrate-d2 evaluation task, demonstrating the utility of the scale of the labelled dataset.

<sup>1</sup>`torchvision.models.ResNet50_Weights.IMAGENET1K_V2` [recipe]

Table 4: **Micro-accuracy and macro F1-score (%)** on two downstream test datasets when training from scratch (No pretraining), or using a pretrained encoder either with linear probe (frozen weights; ❄) or full fine-tuning (🔥). Mean ( $\pm$  std. err.) over 3 random seeds (same pretrained backbones over seeds). Bold: **best** performance.

Pretraining			Epochs	BenthicNet-Substrate-d2		German Bank 2010	
Dataset	Loss	FT		Accuracy $\uparrow$	F1-score $\uparrow$	Accuracy $\uparrow$	F1-score $\uparrow$
No pretraining		🔥	100	81.0 $\pm$ 0.6	55.3 $\pm$ 1.5	53.4 $\pm$ 2.4	43.0 $\pm$ 3.8
ImageNet-1k	Cross-entropy	❄	100	81.8 $\pm$ 0.1	56.6 $\pm$ 0.3	37.6 $\pm$ 5.2	30.0 $\pm$ 2.9
BenthicNet-1M	Barlow Twins	❄	100	<b>83.6</b> $\pm$ 0.1	<b>57.7</b> $\pm$ 0.3	<b>55.9</b> $\pm$ 2.4	<b>43.2</b> $\pm$ 6.0
No pretraining		🔥	400	83.8 $\pm$ 0.1	61.8 $\pm$ 0.3	54.1 $\pm$ 3.2	46.7 $\pm$ 3.2
ImageNet-1k	Cross-entropy	🔥	100+300	<b>88.3</b> $\pm$ 0.1	<b>69.5</b> $\pm$ 0.3	65.9 $\pm$ 4.0	59.2 $\pm$ 4.2
BenthicNet-1M	Barlow Twins	🔥	100+300	88.1 $\pm$ 0.1	68.5 $\pm$ 0.2	<b>77.0</b> $\pm$ 0.7	<b>72.3</b> $\pm$ 0.8

The ImageNet-1k model was even able to outperform our BenthicNet-1M pretrained model by a small margin (0.2% acc.) on this task. However, on the smaller and more challenging German Bank 2010, the BenthicNet-1M pretraining was greatly superior (+21.1%), demonstrating the utility of a task-aligned pretrained model for transferring to small data regimes.

The confusion matrices (Appx. D) show the FT models have similar biases on BenthicNet-Substrate-d2, confusing the same classes as each other (Fig. 8; Cobbles→Boulders; Pebble/gravel→Sand/mud; etc.). On German Bank 2010 (Fig. 9), the BenthicNet-1M pretrained model was able to greatly increase the recall of silt/mud, silt with bedforms, and glacial till, almost entirely removing ImageNet-1k’s most confused class pair, glacial till  $\leftrightarrow$  sand with bedforms.

## 5 Usage Notes

Labels translated to the CATAMI scheme were sourced from a wide variety of scientific studies with the express intent of supporting the training and validation of large image recognition models. Jointly, these labels should be analyzed with care, particularly if utilized for other purposes. Some datasets included whole image labels indicating the presence of a single benthic feature (e.g. organism, substrate), while others supplied single labels indicating multiple features, or multiple labels for different features within an image. One result of such diversity is variation in the completeness of labels from different datasets—some, for example, focus on a the presence of single species, or only focus on the most conspicuous or abundant substrate types. For some datasets, it is thus reasonable to expect a larger proportion of false negative labels if the data is treated in a presence/absence manner. In other words, many benthic features are likely visible in the images, which have not been labelled. We operate under the assumption, though, that labels within a dataset were assigned consistently. If performing analyses at the dataset level using the compilation presented here, it is important to investigate the specifics of the dataset(s) in question.

Similarly, the diversity of labelling methodologies has resulted in a number of different schema by which original labels were translated to CATAMI equivalents. For example, some labels indicating the percent cover of organisms or substrate types in an image were converted to binary presence/absence. Additionally, auxiliary information such as annotator notes were used in some cases to obtain a CATAMI label. Efforts were made to indicate the original data label as closely as possible, but it was not always possible to include all information used to translate an original label to CATAMI. Therefore, original labels provided in our metadata may not contain all available information for each image, and the source datasets should be referenced as the authoritative source in all cases.

The examples provided here focus on the physical environment, but there are abundant opportunities to explore use of the biological labels. Through use of the SSL pretrained encoder, we anticipate training and deployment of hierarchical morphological and biological identification models is possible. A challenging component of this task is the imbalance of biota labels. Methods such as over-sampling, weighting, and data augmentation may be necessary to achieve effective large-scale supervised models in the biota hierarchy, both to address the label imbalance and distributional shift from the labelled subset to the full range of ocean imagery. These applications will be explored in coming work.



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666 **Appendices**

667	<b>A Data collation—additional details</b>	<b>18</b>
668	A.1 Individual contributions . . . . .	18
669	A.2 DFO . . . . .	19
670	A.3 NRCan . . . . .	20
671	A.4 NGU . . . . .	20
672	A.5 MGDS . . . . .	20
673	A.6 NOAA . . . . .	21
674	A.7 USGS . . . . .	21
675	A.8 USAP-DC . . . . .	21
676	A.9 AADC . . . . .	22
677	A.10 SQUIDLE+ . . . . .	22
678	A.11 FathomNet . . . . .	22
679	A.12 PANGAEA . . . . .	23
680	A.13 XL Catlin Seaview Survey . . . . .	23
681	<b>B Spatial subsampling</b>	<b>24</b>
682	<b>C Ecological Marine Units</b>	<b>25</b>
683	C.1 Unlabelled data exploratory analysis . . . . .	25
684	C.2 Labelled data exploratory analysis . . . . .	26
685	<b>D Confusion matrices</b>	<b>27</b>
686	<b>E PANGAEA Search</b>	<b>28</b>
687	<b>F FathomNet Python API Code</b>	<b>29</b>

## A Data collation—additional details

As described in the main text (§2.1), we collated imagery from a variety of sources and converted them to a standardized format (Tab. 5). In this section, we describe our protocol for each source. The distribution of sources around the world is indicated in Fig. 4.

Table 5: Format for compiled BenthicNet-1M unlabelled image metadata.

Column	Contents	Data-type	Units	Coverage
url	URL address for this image	String		100.00%
source	Data provider/repository	String		100.00%
dataset	Name of dataset	String		100.00%
site	Image location name	String		100.00%
image	Image filename	String		100.00%
latitude	Latitude (WGS 84)	Float	Decimal degree	99.63%
longitude	Longitude (WGS 84)	Float	Decimal degree	99.63%
datetime	Acquisition date and time (UTC)	String	YYYY-MM-DD HH:mm:ss	99.85%
gebco_bathymetry	Depth interpolated from GEBCO2022	Float	Metres	99.63%
emu	Nearest ecological marine unit	Integer		99.63%

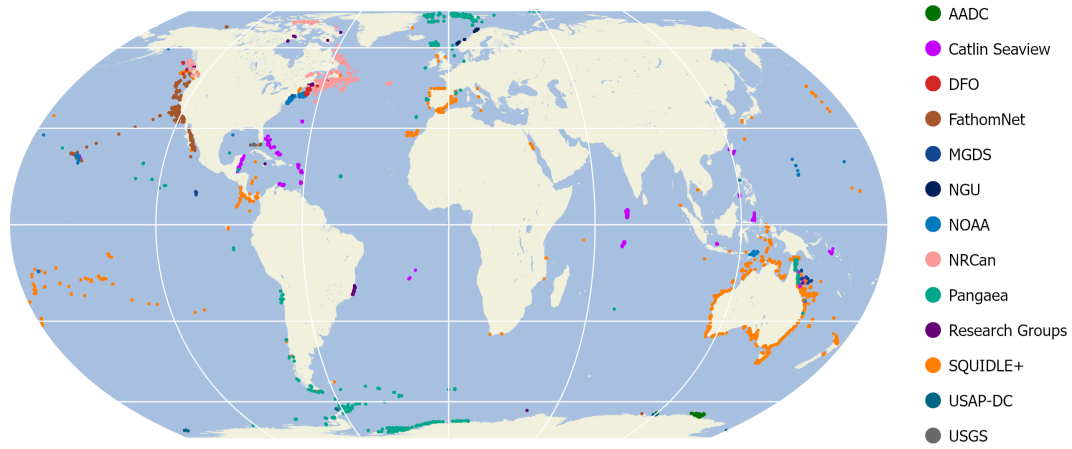


Figure 4: Distribution of images projected to Equal Earth, according to data source.

### A.1 Individual contributions

A number of datasets were contributed by individual project partners; several of these were from eastern Canada. The Seascape Ecology and Mapping (SEAM) Lab at Dalhousie University provided three datasets for the BenthicNet compilation from this region. Still images were provided ( $n = 2281$ ) that were extracted from passive drop down video drifts conducted in the Bay of Fundy at 281 sites between 2017–2019 using a 4k camera system [75]. Whole-image labels were supplied according to site-specific “benthoscapes” interpreted by the image analyst, which are recognizable combinations of dominant substrate type and biological characteristics [8, 47]. All megafauna were additionally identified to the highest possible taxonomic resolution for each image. A dataset of high definition benthic photographs ( $n = 4064$ ) was also provided from surveys conducted between 2009–2014 at the St Anns Bank marine protected area [38], which included whole-image benthoscape labels defined for the site. Finally, the SEAM lab contributed photographs of the seabed ( $n = 62$ ) used for the 2017 R2Sonic Multispectral Challenge in the Bedford Basin, Nova Scotia [10], which included broad whole-image substrate descriptions and, occasionally, biological observations. The 4D Oceans lab at the Fisheries and Marine Institute of Memorial University of Newfoundland provided still images ( $n = 3000$ ) extracted from underwater video, as part of the project “Coastal Habitat Mapping of Placentia Bay” conducted off the coast of Newfoundland, which included whole-image substrate-derived bottom class labels [43, 51]. The Ecology Action Centre (EAC) provided 1 220 images collected by citizen scientists via Go Pro-mounted kayak between 2019–2021 at shallow eelgrass sites in Nova Scotia. These included whole-image labels for the presence or absence of eelgrass (*Zostera marina*).

Several datasets collected by researchers at Memorial University of Newfoundland (MUN) were also contributed from northern Canada. These included 895 images collected for a benthic mapping project in Frobisher Bay, Nunavut, between 2015–2016 [49]; 1059 images from Wager Bay, Nunavut, collected in collaboration with Parks Canada as part of the Ukkusiksalik National Park Marine Baseline Data Collection Project; 541 images from Chesterfield Inlet, Nunavut, collected for a local benthic habitat mapping project conducted in coordination with the Government of Nunavut, and University of Manitoba; and 8 443 images from the area around Qikiqtarjuaq, Nunavut, which were obtained as part of a mapping campaign to monitor a locally harvested soft-shell clam population [48]. These datasets were each accompanied by site-specific whole-image labels describing the dominant substrate types visible in each image.

Several image datasets were provided by the Hakai Institute from western Canada. A total of 8 787 images were obtained from nearshore benthic surveys conducted between 2017–2020 from sites on the central coast of British Columbia and sites within Pacific Rim National Park Reserve (PRNPR). This data was comprised of still images from ROV deployments and GIS-annotated drop camera videos collected primarily for the purposes of mapping eelgrass meadows (*Zostera marina*). Still images were extracted from videos using the methods described above (i.e. using FFmpeg). Whole-image labels were provided corresponding to the dominant visible substrate and vegetation type present in each image.

Individual datasets were also acquired from outside Canada. The Marine Geosciences Lab (LaboGeo) at Universidade Federal do Espírito Santo (UFES) provided quadrat sample images acquired by drop camera during rhodolith surveys off the east coast of Brazil between 2015–2020 [45, 46]. These were cropped to remove the quadrat frame, and 360 images were included in the BenthicNet compilation. Whole-image labels were provided that identify the presence of rhodoliths and select biogenic substrate types. A dataset of 505 images was provided by the Hierarchical Anticipatory Learning (HAL) lab at Dalhousie University, which was collected from Ocho Rios, Jamaica, in shallow water by snorkeler in 2022. Images were unlabelled, and comprised coral reef and a range of substrate types.

## A.2 DFO

Fisheries and Oceans Canada (DFO) is a federal institution responsible for managing many of Canada’s marine resources. DFO provided three separate contributions to the BenthicNet compilation. The Population Ecology Division at the Bedford Institute of Oceanography (BIO) contributed 645 annotated images from George’s Bank, which separates the Gulf of Maine from the Northwest Atlantic. These images were collected by the Geological Survey of Canada (GSC) Atlantic for programs under Natural Resources Canada (NRCan) using the Campod digital camera system deployed from the CCGS *Hudson* in 2000 [69] and 2002 [70]. Annotations included whole-image benthoscape labels describing the primary substrate and presence of characteristic biota. Benthic images were also contributed from a GSC survey on German Bank off the southwest coast of Nova Scotia in 2003 [71] using Campod ( $n = 641$ ), and from DFO Ecosystems and Ocean Science Sector surveys in 2006 [72] ( $n = 2044$ ), and 2010 [9] ( $n = 3181$ ) using the Towcam underwater imaging platform. These images included whole-image labels describing the dominant visible substrate type, some of which additionally included detailed comments describing the proportion of cover for multiple substrate types. A separate contribution from the Habitat Ecology Section at BIO comprised 1 262 images from coastal eelgrass and macroalgae surveys along the Eastern Shore of Nova Scotia between 2019 and 2020 [52]. These images were extracted from video footage captured by a GoPro HERO7 (1080p or 2.7k resolution) deployed from a drop-down platform for passive drifts at 269 sites. Substrate labels were provided at the whole-image level according to the Coastal and Marine Ecological Classification Standard (CMECS) [44], as were labels for particular biota, including macroalgae and seagrasses. Finally, the DFO Deep-sea Ecology Program at the Institute of Ocean Sciences (IOS), British Columbia, contributed data collected during the 2018 Northeast Pacific Seamount Expedition using the ROV Hercules. Northeast Pacific Seamount Expedition Partners and Ocean Exploration Trust collected imagery at SGaan Kinghlas-Bowie, Explorer, and Dellwood Seamounts off the west coast of Canada in 2018. Video frames were extracted every 10 seconds for analysis, and 16 247 were included here. Labels were provided for some images describing the primary substrate type and also the “biotope” observed, which broadly describes the benthic community and/or habitat context (e.g. coral garden, vertical wall, sponge ground). Some images

overlapped and were thus not originally labelled; in such cases, neighbouring image labels were interpolated where not initially assigned due to overlap with other images.

### A.3 NRCan

Natural Resources Canada (NRCan) is a federal organization responsible for managing and researching a range of natural resources at the national scale. NRCan makes data freely available via the Canada Open Government Portal. The NRCan/GSC Seabed Photo Collection was acquired for this project, which includes 20 260 images recorded from 1 804 camera stations across 78 expeditions distributed throughout the waters surrounding Canada. These photographs were collected between 1965 and 2015 using a range of equipment; photographs taken before 1978 were in greyscale, and after 1978 in colour. Photographs before 2000 were collected using film and after 2004 were digital, with both used in the interim. 3 767 of the photographs were annotated with verbose descriptions of either geological features, biological contents, or both. These descriptions were parsed in order to apply whole-image substrate and biota labels (see §2.2). The full list of expeditions associated with this dataset was obtained along with URLs of corresponding metadata CSV files in GeoDataBase format from the NRCan FTP server. The GeoDataBase file was processed with *geopandas*, and CSV files were downloaded for each expedition location (URLs were manually corrected for expedition 82F0G0-ISLE, for which the CSV files were available at URLs containing the string 82F0G0\_ISLE instead). These CSV files, containing URLs for individual images from the expeditions, were merged together. The year of acquisition was inferred from the expedition name, and columns were renamed to match the standardized dataset format. Sample images were inspected from each expedition to verify their appropriateness. All images from expedition 71014 consisted of collages formed of 2–6 individual photographs, and were excluded.

### A.4 NGU

The Geological Survey of Norway (NGU) is responsible for national geological mapping and research, including marine applications. NGU contributed 50 290 images to this project, which were extracted from 581 underwater video transects acquired during six cruises. These were carried out between 2010 and 2017 in coastal areas and fjords of Norway (Astafjorden, Frohavet, Søre Sunnmøre, Sogn og Fjordane, Ofoten, Tysfjorden, and Tjeldsundet), as part of several “Marine Base Maps” projects. The videos were acquired using a camera rig towed near the seafloor (0 m to 200 m depth) from the NGU research vessel *Seisma*. The 2010 cruises (codes 1002 and 1007) used a 720x480 digital video camera, while all the other cruises (codes 1408, 1508, 1511, and 1706) used a higher-resolution GoPro HERO3+. The images were obtained by extracting one video frame every 10 seconds of video footage.

### A.5 MGDS

The Marine Geoscience Data System (MGDS) is a data repository that offers public access to a curated collection of marine geophysical data products and complementary data related to understanding the formation and evolution of the seafloor and sub-seafloor. MGDS provides tools and services for the discovery and download of data collected throughout the global oceans produced primarily by researchers funded by the U.S. National Science Foundation. Six datasets were obtained from MGDS, in collaboration with the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory at Columbia University. Four of these were collected from the Long Island Sound Estuary in 2012 and 2013 using the United States Geological Survey (USGS) Seabed Observation and Sampling System (SEABOSS), Integrated Seafloor Imagery System camera sled, and the Kraken2 ROV [80]. One dataset was obtained from the East Pacific Rise Spreading Center during the 2011 Atlantis expedition, using an Insite Scorpio Digital Camera mounted on the ROV Jason II. The final dataset was acquired by the Schmidt Ocean Institute (SOI) during the 2020 R/V *Falkor* expedition FK200429 off the northeast coast of Australia. Here, the ROV SuBastian was mobilized and images were obtained using a Subsea Systems and Inc. Z70 Digital Camera. All datasets from MGDS were manually reviewed and filtered to remove surface images (e.g. on the research vessel) and duplicates.

## 817 A.6 NOAA

818 The U.S. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) is a federal science institution  
819 that conducts extensive marine research. NOAA hosts diverse collections of environmental data that  
820 are made available to the public. Benthic images were sourced from the NOAA data repository for  
821 addition to the BenthicNet dataset. Candidate data were identified using the NOAA [OneStop portal](#),  
822 using the search strings “benthic”, “habitat”, “image”, “camera”, and “photograph”. Datasets returned  
823 not containing image files were rejected. The remainder were reviewed manually, and datasets were  
824 additionally rejected that did not meet quality or content standards. Reasons for rejection included  
825 substantial proportions of non-benthic images (e.g. above-water, pelagic, individual animals, air  
826 photos), partial or full scene obstruction by non-benthic objects (e.g. equipment, ROV/AUV parts),  
827 highly inconsistent image content or quality, and incoherent dataset or metadata formatting (e.g.  
828 unorganized collections of various types of data, metadata not readable via script). Datasets were  
829 also excluded that did not meet the metadata requirements of this project—namely, those lacking  
830 metadata entirely, or lacking geographic locations for images. Where the latter occurred, efforts were  
831 made to estimate image locations using available information; for example, by assigning general  
832 study site coordinates to images, or by assigning the mean geographic centre of other images at the  
833 study site. Datasets that were otherwise suitable for inclusion were generally not rejected due to  
834 poor image quality or low resolution alone. All datasets were subjected to the quality control checks  
835 listed previously before downloading for inclusion in the BenthicNet collection, and columns were  
836 renamed to match the standardized dataset format. Several datasets included labels associated with  
837 the National Coral Reef Monitoring Program (NCRMP) describing the benthic cover, which primarily  
838 comprised coral taxa and substrate labels applied to both whole-images and points. These labels were  
839 retained.

840 Additional data was contributed by the NOAA Northeast Fisheries Science Center ([NEFSC](#)). These  
841 included benthic images from Georges Bank, the Mid-Atlantic Bight, and off the coast of Cape Cod  
842 ( $n = 2240$ ). Image surveys were conducted in 2015 using the NOAA HabCam benthic imaging  
843 platform. Whole-image labels were provided indicating the primary and secondary substrate types,  
844 and also the presence of certain taxa (mussels, *Didemnum* tunicates, bryozoans).

## 845 A.7 USGS

846 The United States Geological Survey (USGS) is a federal organization that conducts earth science  
847 research and provides public geoscience information and data. A series of unlabelled benthic image  
848 datasets were retrieved from the USGS [Science Data Catalogue](#). Several of these were initially  
849 discovered from review of the scientific literature [40, 81], and the remainder were discovered  
850 by querying the repository using the search strings “benthic”, “habitat”, “image”, “camera”, and  
851 “photograph”. Candidate datasets were screened using the same methodology as outlined above  
852 for data retrieved from the NOAA repository. Datasets were rejected that did not contain images,  
853 contained non-benthic images, were largely obstructed by non-benthic objects, or were formatted  
854 incoherently. Where precise image locations were not provided, estimates were obtained using the  
855 mean centre of the study site bounding box coordinates. All candidate datasets were subjected to the  
856 quality control checks listed previously and columns were renamed to match the standardized dataset  
857 format.

## 858 A.8 USAP-DC

859 The U.S. Antarctic Program Data Center ([USAP-DC](#)) is funded by the U.S. National Science  
860 Foundation and is a domain repository for U.S. Antarctic Research data from all disciplines. Five  
861 unlabelled datasets were obtained from USAP-DC. These were discovered from the USAP-DC  
862 website using the search strings “benthic”, “habitat”, “image”, “camera”, and “photograph”. Datasets  
863 were screened using the methodology described for the NOAA and USGS repositories. Additionally,  
864 some images that did not depict the seabed (e.g. pictures on the boat deck) were manually omitted.  
865 The mean centre of the study site bounding boxes were used to estimate image locations where precise  
866 positioning was not provided. These were checked for quality using the methodology described  
867 previously and columns were renamed to match the standardized dataset format.



## 868 A.9 AADC

869 The Australian Antarctic Data Centre ([AADC](#)) is a long-term repository for Australia’s Antarctic data.  
870 This data is freely and openly available for scientific use. Two datasets were obtained for this project  
871 from the AADC data portal. Seafloor images ( $n = 203$ ) from the Sabrina slope, East Antarctica,  
872 were collected in 2017 over four transects during survey “IN2017\_V01” using the Australian CSIRO  
873 Marine National Facility’s Deep Tow Camera [59], and were downloaded along with associated  
874 metadata from AADC. These included whole-image labels indicating the substrate type coverage  
875 and the presence of biota; the former were retained here. Additionally, Geoscience Australia and  
876 the Australian Antarctic Division collected underwater photographs in 2011 at 97 sites in the Mertz  
877 Glacier region of Antarctica [67], and 1 853 images were acquired for this project. Images and  
878 metadata from both datasets were checked for quality and formatted for standardization with the  
879 BenthicNet compilation.

## 880 A.10 SQUIDLE+

881 [SQUIDLE+](#) is an online tool for managing, exploring, and annotating images and video of the  
882 seafloor. It also serves as a global repository, containing standardized records for images collected by  
883 different groups around the world. SQUIDLE+ is a living product that is updated continuously with  
884 new images and labels. A snapshot of the images available on SQUIDLE+ was acquired on April 13,  
885 2023. The SQUIDLE+ [web API](#) was used to download the records for every image on SQUIDLE+,  
886 totalling 9 166 472 at that time. The paginated download was joined together and merged into a single  
887 CSV file, and columns were renamed to match our standardized format for the compilation.

888 Several of the large individual SQUIDLE+ datasets in this collection additionally included publicly  
889 accessible image annotations. These included Australia’s Integrated Marine Observing System  
890 ([IMOS](#)), which distributes oceanographic data from a consortium of Australian institutions that  
891 is freely and openly available to the scientific community. This data included a large number of  
892 images collected by the IMOS AUV Facility, notably, using Sirius and Nimbus AUVs. IMOS images  
893 available from SQUIDLE+ were cross-referenced with data entries from the Australian Ocean Data  
894 Network ([AODN](#)) portal for this project. Labelled images were also provided by the Reef Life  
895 Survey ([RLS](#)) [19, 20], which is a global citizen science program that trains SCUBA divers to conduct  
896 underwater visual surveys of shallow reef biodiversity in temperate and tropical reef habitats, typically  
897 between 2 m – 20 m depth. Divers capture approximately 20 images per survey using an underwater  
898 camera positioned approximately 50 cm from the substrate, and images vary in resolution and quality  
899 due to camera configuration and environmental conditions. The Schmidt Ocean Institute ([SOI](#))  
900 is a non-profit foundation established to advance global oceanographic research that hosts a large  
901 labelled image collection on SQUIDLE+. Deployed from the SOI R/V *Falkor*, the ROV *SuBastian*  
902 has collected high resolution images from waters around the world, including the deep ocean. All  
903 oceanographic data collected by the SOI are made openly available for research purposes. The  
904 National Environmental Science Program ([NESP](#)) Marine Biodiversity Hub [35] has also provided  
905 a large labelled image dataset. This project aims to provide foundational science for conservation  
906 in Australian and provides data openly in support of marine research. Each of the above datasets  
907 included sub-image point labels identifying underlying physical or biological elements according  
908 to the CATAMI scheme [1]. Finally, the image dataset presented by Yamada et al. [77] collected  
909 via AUV from the Southern Hydrate Ridge was downloaded from a separate SQUIDLE domain,  
910 [SOI SQUIDLE+](#), along with point annotations describing substrate or biotic elements according to a  
911 site-specific scheme.

## 912 A.11 FathomNet

913 [FathomNet](#) [36] is an open-source underwater image database with global scope operated by the  
914 Monterey Bay Aquarium Research Institute ([MBARI](#)). FathomNet is soliciting contributions from  
915 around the world to develop a large open-source database of images that may be used to develop  
916 artificial intelligence algorithms, with a focus on identifying marine species. Like SQUIDLE+,  
917 FathomNet is a living product that is updated continuously. We used the [FathomNet Python API](#) to  
918 download a snapshot of the images available on FathomNet as of April 6, 2023. The code for this API  
919 call is provided in [Appx. F](#). At the time of downloading, these images were primarily acquired from  
920 Pacific Waters around California, Western USA. Records were partitioned into “sites” based on the  
921 directory structure in the URL. Where not available in the record itself, timestamps were extracted



from image names, where possible. Columns were renamed to match our standardized format. Many of the images were annotated with bounding boxes around animals and other concepts appearing in the images. However, annotations were available only under a No Derivatives license (CC BY-ND 4.0), which prohibited conversion to other schemes and formats. All FathomNet annotations were thus discarded.

## A.12 PANGAEA

PANGAEA is an open access repository aimed at archiving, publishing and distributing georeferenced data from earth system research, hosting 678 projects and 408 811 datasets from various fields at the time of writing. We searched and retrieved benthic image datasets from PANGAEA with a combination of API calls and web-scraping, then pruned the resulting datasets and reformatted them. The `pangaeapy` Python package [32] was used to interface with the PANGAEA library. Using the PanQuery API, PANGAEA was searched for 20 queries with various combinations of benthic environment related keywords to find photographs of the seafloor (see Appx. E for complete list). The PanDataSet API was used to retrieve the metadata for the dataset IDs identified in these searches. Some IDs corresponded to dataset series, which list multiple child datasets. In these cases, all child datasets were retrieved. Some datasets were available in tabular format, and were downloaded directly. Other datasets were paginated, with images hosted on webpages on PANGAEA; these could not be downloaded with the API and were scraped with a custom webscraper using the BeautifulSoup4 and request libraries.

All datasets returned by this search as of January 1, 2024 were downloaded and results were filtered as follows. (1) Datasets that did not possess a column containing the word “url” or “image” that was populated by hyperlinks to files in an image format (TIFF, JPEG, PNG, BMP, CR2) were removed to enable automation of the data acquisition process. It was not possible to verify any ZIP file would contain images without downloading it, and was impractical to automatically associate metadata with the images within a ZIP file of unknown structure. Datasets with images only available to download as a ZIP file were thus discarded. (2) False positives from the search (datasets comprising imagery not of the seafloor) were filtered out by removing datasets with titles containing undesired keywords appearing in a manually curated blacklist (e.g. “aquarium”, “meteorological observations”, “sea ice conditions”, “do not use”). (3) URLs for images consisting of maps, other dataset summary figures, and inappropriate photo subjects were filtered out by removing data hosted on PANGAEA subdomains dedicated to subjects such as maps, projects, publications, sea ice, and satellite imagery. (4) Images were removed where the URL contained text indicating the subject matter was otherwise inappropriate (e.g. “dredgephotos”, “grabsample”, “core”, “aquarium”, “divemap”). Finally, the columns in the CSV files were renamed to our standardized format.

Several of the datasets obtained from PANGAEA included thematic labels corresponding to benthic images. Many of these were labels of specific biota identified to the highest possible taxonomic resolution, some of which included estimates of percentage cover of each organism in the image. Several of the latter datasets comprised experimental growth plates harbouring the labelled biota. Some datasets additionally included labels for trash and anthropogenic debris. All labels were dropped where datasets indicated usage of machine-assisted annotation instead of manual annotation. Finally, additional point labels were obtained for datasets from the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park, eastern Australia, collected for habitat mapping purposes by the University of Queensland Remote Sensing Research Centre. These datasets comprised quadrat images collected via snorkel and diving from over 100 reefs throughout the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park [62, 61, 63]. Points were labelled according to a custom scheme used for these projects at the Great Barrier Reef that describe biotic and abiotic elements found within the reef. Additional labels were also provided indicating the biotic functional group, and a simplified classification scheme applicable to a global context.

## A.13 XL Catlin Seaview Survey

The XL Catlin Seaview Survey was a large-scale project undertaken between 2012–2018 to document and study the status of coral reefs globally using underwater imagery. Surveys focused on shallow reefs typically around 10 m depth and comprised linear transects ranging between 1.6 km to 2 km in length. Downward-facing seabed images of approximately 1 m<sup>2</sup> were acquired using Canon 5D MII cameras mounted on a self-propelled diver-operated platform called the “SVII” [24, 25]. Data from the project is made openly available for further scientific research. For this project, 1 082 452

images from 860 surveys organized into 22 regional datasets were downloaded from the University of Queensland [data repository](#). Tabular data providing image metadata was also acquired in CSV format, including image point labels identifying biotic and abiotic elements using the global scheme applied above for the Great Barrier Reef mapping projects. The metadata were renamed and formatted to match the standardized BenthicNet compilation.

## B Spatial subsampling

The aim of the subsampling procedure was to obtain a manageable unlabelled data volume without reducing the breadth of benthic environments represented. Many datasets indicated which images were collected at the same recording station, or the same camera deployment/transect. We collectively refer to this location annotation as a “site”. To maximize spatial and thematic diversity of images, subsampling was performed separately for each unique site in the unlabelled dataset.

In order to subsample the data spatially, we first determined a desirable number of images that should be drawn from a given site based on the data density. The base target number of images sought at each site was set to 250, meaning that the subsampling procedure would not reduce the number of images below this number. Not all component datasets indicated whether images were collected at the same site, despite containing images from multiple distinct locations that would meet our “site” criteria. To address this, we automatically detected the number of “pseudo-sites” within an annotated site, or within a dataset originally lacking any site labels. Pseudo-sites were determined as clusters of samples at least 1 000 m from each other. The target number of samples was scaled up by the number of pseudo-sites within a labelled site. Some (pseudo-)sites additionally had gaps between them of several hundred metres, which we refer to as “subsites”. The target number of samples for a site was increased by 50 for each subsite within it separated by at least 100 m.

After determining the target number of images to draw from each site in the unlabelled dataset, the data was subsampled spatially. Sites with fewer than 40 samples per pseudo-site were not subsampled. At sites with more than 40 images, images were subsampled with a target separation distance of  $\Delta = 1.25$  m according to the following procedure.

1. Add the first image in the dataset.
2. Continue through the list of images in the dataset (sorted in collection order; i.e. chronologically) until finding the first image at least  $\Delta = 1.25$  m from the last image added to the dataset.
3. Add either this image or the previous image in the list, whichever is closest to being a distance  $\Delta = 1.25$  m from the last image added to the dataset.
4. From the list of remaining images to consider, remove all images collected within  $\Delta/2 = 0.625$  m of this image.
5. Return to Step 2; repeat until reaching the end of the dataset.
6. Add the last image in the dataset if it was at least  $\Delta/2 = 0.625$  m from all other images.

Sites lacking precise coordinate information for each image could not be subsampled spatially. In these cases, sites were subsampled by keeping every  $n$ -th image (ordered chronologically) at the site to achieve the desired number.

Many sites still had more images than their target number of samples after this initial spatial subsampling, so this process was repeated with larger separation distances until the target subsample size was achieved at each site, or a maximum downsampling separation distance of 20 m was reached. Separation distances were scaled up by factors of 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, or 16 compared to the base subsampling of 1.25 m target separation to achieve the desired subsample size (i.e.  $\Delta = 2.5$  m, 3.75 m, ..., 20 m). The subsampling distance selected (and hence subsampled set of images at that site) was the largest distance that did not reduce the total number of images below the target for the site (250+), determined as described above. The subsampling procedure selected 1 345 096 images (11.8% of the total) to be included in the subsampled BenthicNet dataset ([Fig. 1](#)), which we refer to as BenthicNet-1M.

## 1025 C Ecological Marine Units

1026 Sayre et al. [65] introduced a three-dimensional partitioning of the global oceans into statistical  
 1027 clusters based on a 57-year climatology of physiochemical oceanographic measurements [41, 84, 21,  
 1028 22]. These 37 “ecological marine units” (EMUs) represent a concise and objective summary of global  
 1029 marine environments at 0.25° horizontal resolution. The bottom-layer EMUs were extracted to assess  
 1030 the distribution of BenthicNet image samples across global benthic environmental regions. Each  
 1031 image was assigned the nearest bottom-layer (i.e. seafloor) EMU in space to compare the sampled  
 1032 frequency of each environment to the proportion of area covered by each EMU (Figs. 5 and 6).

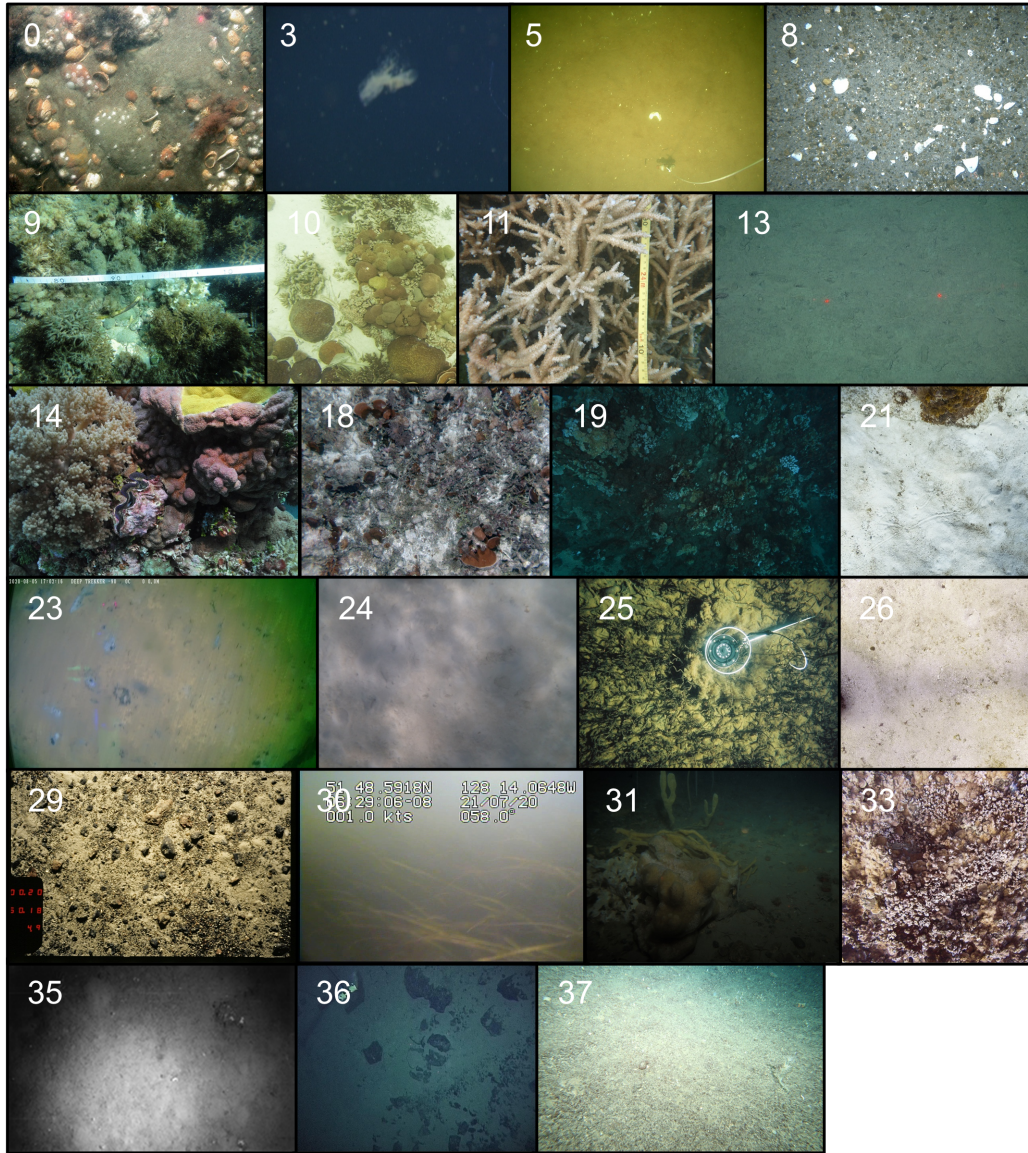
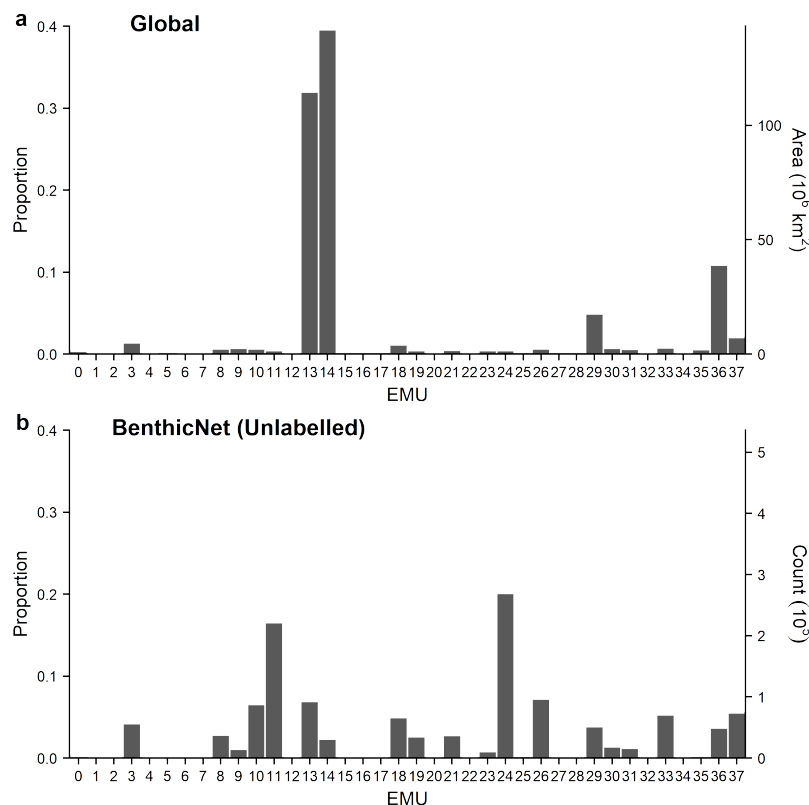


Figure 5: **Examples of BenthicNet images** from each sampled ecological marine unit (EMU), indicated by a number in white overlaid in the top-left of each image. See Sayre et al. [65] for a full description of the EMU classes.

### 1033 C.1 Unlabelled data exploratory analysis

1034 Generally, images were distributed more evenly across the bottom-layer EMUs than would be  
 1035 expected from a random sample, while the distribution across the major ocean basins more closely





**Figure 6: Distribution of BenthicNet-1M images according to bottom layer ecological marine units (EMUs).** (a) Proportion and area of global oceans classified into each EMU. (b) Proportion of BenthicNet image samples from each EMU. See Sayre et al. [65] for a full description of the EMU classes.

1036 matched expectation. The majority of the global seafloor (82.4%) is classified into EMUs 14 (deep,  
 1037 very cold, normal salinity, moderate oxygen, high nitrate, low phosphate, high silicate), 13 (deep, very  
 1038 cold, normal salinity, low oxygen, high nitrate, medium phosphate, high silicate), and 36 (deep, very  
 1039 cold, normal salinity, moderate oxygen, medium nitrate, low phosphate, low silicate) [65], comprising  
 1040 most of the Pacific, Indian, and polar oceans. These environments are not over-represented in  
 1041 the BenthicNet dataset, with no single EMU accounting for  $> 20.6\%$ . The three most common  
 1042 EMUs sampled (47.6%) were 24 (shallow, warm, normal salinity, moderate oxygen, low nitrate,  
 1043 low phosphate, low silicate), 11 (shallow, cool, normal salinity, moderate oxygen, low nitrate, low  
 1044 phosphate, low silicate), and 13 (deep, very cold, normal salinity, low oxygen, high nitrate, medium  
 1045 phosphate, high silicate), representing continental shelves in the equatorial regions, the shallow  
 1046 sub-tropics, and the deep Pacific and Indian oceans. The distribution of images across ocean basins  
 1047 was generally proportionate to the expectation given the area of each ocean, but notable exceptions  
 1048 include an apparent under-representation of the South Atlantic, and over-representation of the South  
 1049 Pacific.

## 1050 C.2 Labelled data exploratory analysis

1051 The BenthicNet-Labelled data spans an environmental extent similar to that of the BenthicNet-1M  
 1052 data. Two of the EMUs that were abundantly sampled with unlabelled imagery were also prominently  
 1053 represented in the labelled dataset; EMUs 11 (shallow, cool, normal salinity, moderate oxygen, low  
 1054 nitrate, low phosphate, low silicate) and 24 (shallow, warm, normal salinity, moderate oxygen, low  
 1055 nitrate, low phosphate, low silicate) comprised a near-majority (49.82%) of the labelled dataset  
 1056 (Fig. 7). These two environments are broadly distributed in space [65], and here primarily represent  
 1057 datasets from Australia, Tasmania, and Central America.

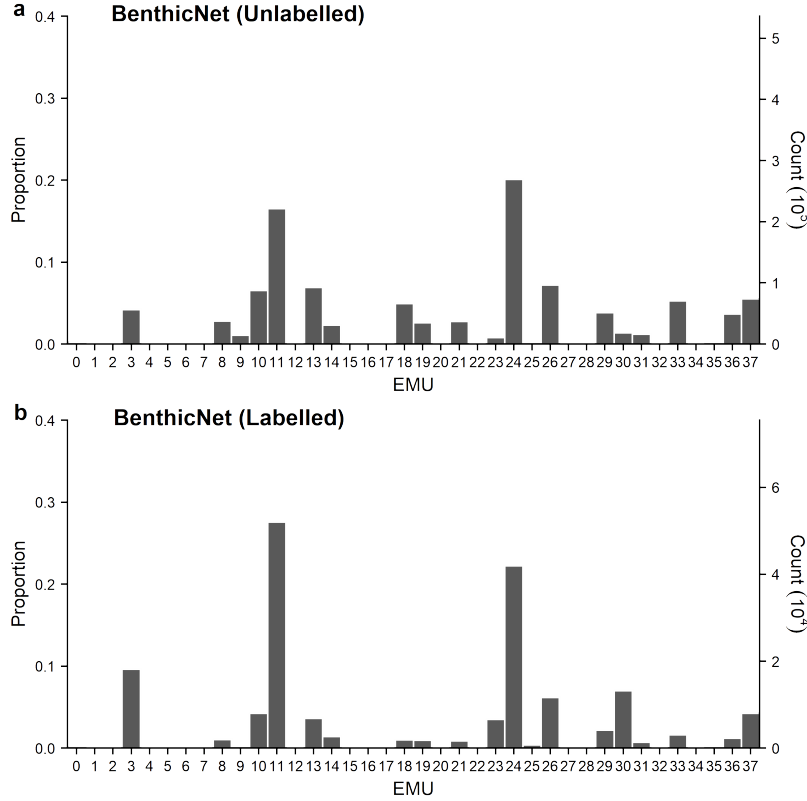


Figure 7: Distribution of BenthicNet images according to bottom layer ecological marine units (EMUs) for (a) unlabelled and (b) labelled datasets. See Sayre et al. [65] for a full description of the EMU classes.

## D Confusion matrices

In this section, we provide confusion matrices for the fine-tuned models described in §4.2.

An important observation is that for both supervised classification tasks, and both transfer models, the best-predicted classes tended to be those that are most distinct, while the intermediate classes were subject to confusion. For example, “cobble” was the most difficult label to predict in the BenthicNet-Substrate-d2 dataset, and indeed, it can be difficult even for a human to differentiate cobbles from pebbles or boulders in underwater imagery. These substrate class boundaries are defined arbitrarily at a particular length scale (2 mm and 64 mm) that may only be determined through accurate measurement or image scaling; there is substantial possibility of incorrect or subjective human labels for such data. Additionally, the imbalanced priors for the classes may also play a role in predictive success. Sand and mud labels dominate both data subsets—it is not surprising that the models have a tendency to predict sand for other classes, and to perform strongly on sand.

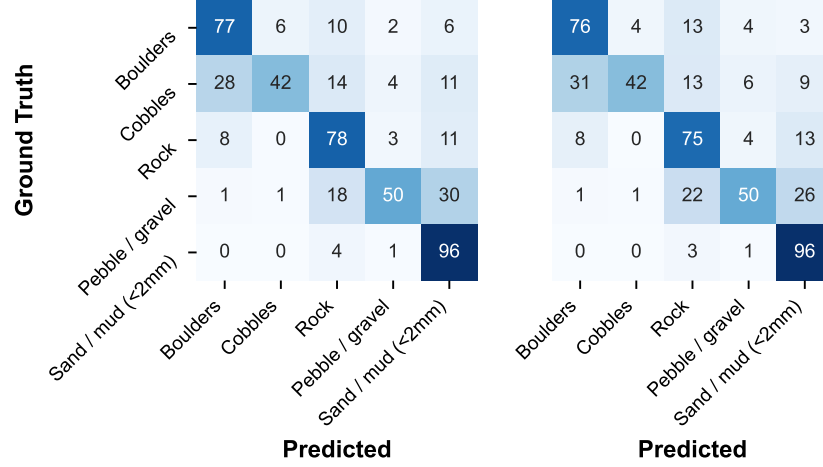


Figure 8: Confusion matrix (% of ground truth) for CATAMI Substrate predictions on BenthicNet-Substrate-d2 test data. (Left) Model pretrained with cross-entropy on ImageNet-1k, fine-tuned on BenthicNet-Substrate-d2. (Right) Model pretrained with Barlow Twins on BenthicNet-1M, fine-tuned on BenthicNet-Substrate-d2.

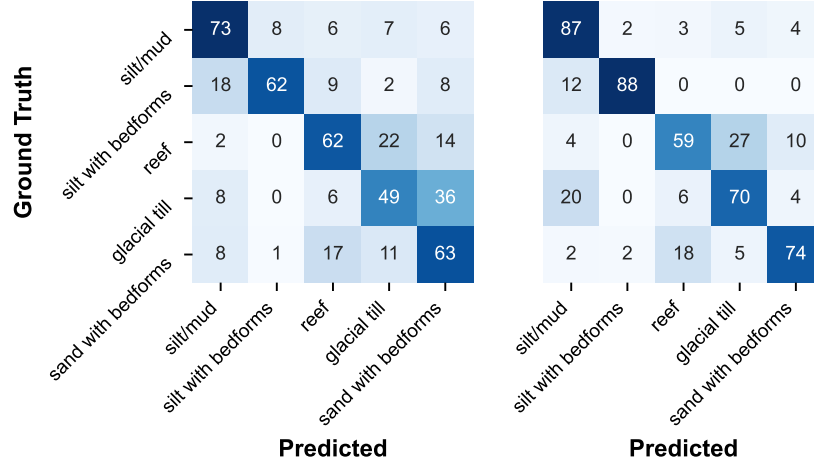


Figure 9: Confusion matrix (% of ground truth) for the German Bank 2010 test data. (Left) Model pretrained with cross-entropy on ImageNet-1k, fine-tuned on German Bank 2010. (Right) Model pretrained with Barlow Twins on BenthicNet-1M, fine-tuned on German Bank 2010.

## E PANGAEA Search

To thoroughly search PANGAEA for seafloor imagery, we used 20 search terms with a range of synonyms for the content of interest. The PANGAEA search API is comprehensive and allows terms be combined with AND or OR operators, and negative search terms to be used. However, we could not merge all our synonyms together into a single, large query because the number of results which can be returned by one query is limited to 500 records.

The search terms used were as follows:

```
(seabed OR "sea bed" OR "sea-bed") (image OR imagery OR photo OR photograph
OR "photo-transect" OR photoquad* OR photo-quad* OR jpg OR jpeg OR png OR tif
OR tiff)
(seafloor OR "sea floor" OR "sea-floor") (image OR imagery OR photo OR photograph
OR "photo-transect" OR photoquad* OR photo-quad* OR jpg OR jpeg OR png OR tif
OR tiff)
("ocean floor" OR "ocean-floor") (image OR imagery OR photo OR photograph
OR "photo-transect" OR photoquad* OR photo-quad* OR jpg OR jpeg OR png OR tif
```



```

1085     OR tiff)
1086 underwater (habitat* OR substrate OR sediment) (image OR imagery OR photo
1087     OR photograph OR "photo-transect" OR photoquad* OR photo-quad* OR jpg OR jpeg
1088     OR png OR tif OR tiff)
1089 benthic (image OR imagery OR photo OR photograph OR "photo-transect" OR photoquad*
1090     OR photo-quad* OR jpg OR jpeg OR png OR tif OR tiff)
1091 (benthos or benthos) (image OR imagery OR photo OR photograph OR "photo-transect"
1092     OR photoquad* OR photo-quad* OR jpg OR jpeg OR png OR tif OR tiff)
1093 (coral OR reef OR seagrass OR "sea grass") (image OR imagery OR photo OR photograph
1094     OR "photo-transect" OR photoquad* OR photo-quad* OR jpg OR jpeg OR png OR tif
1095     OR tiff)
1096 (auv OR rov OR uuv OR "underwater vehicle") (image OR imagery OR photo OR photograph
1097     OR "photo-transect" OR photoquad* OR photo-quad* OR jpg OR jpeg OR png OR tif
1098     OR tiff)
1099 benthoscape habitat* image
1100 benthoscape habitat* imagery
1101 benthoscape habitat* photo
1102 benthoscape habitat* photograph
1103 benthoscape habitat* ("photo-transect" OR photoquad* OR photo-quad*)
1104 benthoscape habitat* (jpg OR jpeg OR png OR tif OR tiff)
1105 benthoscape image
1106 benthoscape imagery
1107 benthoscape photo
1108 benthoscape photograph
1109 benthoscape ("photo-transect" OR photoquad* OR photo-quad*)
1110 benthoscape (jpg OR jpeg OR png OR tif OR tiff)

```

1111 Each search term was prefixed with a set of negative search terms to remove false positives, given as  
1112 follows

```

1113 -microscop? -"Meteorological observations" -topsoil -soil -sky
1114     -"wind vector" -"wind stress" -"vertical profile" -"vertical distribution"

```

1115 The full code for our PANGAEA search is publicly available at [REDACTED].

## 1116 **F FathomNet Python API Code**

1117 We retrieved the full set of images on FathomNet by using the FathomNet API from the [fathomnet-py](#)  
1118 Python package as follows.

---

```

1  import fathomnet.api.images
2  import pandas as pd
3
4  keys = ["url", "uuid", "timestamp", "latitude", "longitude"]
5
6  records = []
7  for submitter in fathomnet.api.images.find_distinct_submitter():
8      for image in fathomnet.api.images.find_by_contributors_email(submitter):
9          records.append({k: getattr(image, k) for k in keys})
10
11 df = pd.DataFrame.from_records(records)
12 df.drop_duplicates(subset="url", inplace=True)

```

---