

Examining the relationship between morphological variation and modeled broadband scattering responses of reef-associated fishes from the Southeast United States

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## 18    **Abstract**

19    Non-lethal methods are sought to provide indices or measure of absolute abundance to fit fishery  
20    stock assessment models, including those computed for reef fishes. Calibrated scientific  
21    echosounders provide the foundation for stock assessments in low-diversity ecosystems but are  
22    hampered by complicated target strength responses in high diversity systems like coral and rocky  
23    reefs. Newly available broadband echosounders present advantages over narrowband  
24    predecessors including increased spatial resolution, increased signal to noise and spectral  
25    resolution; however, a better understanding of the sound scattering properties is necessary for  
26    operational use in surveys of diverse reef fish assemblages. To gain insight into the feasibility of  
27    implementing broadband techniques, we first model the frequency dependent backscatter of  
28    ecologically and commercially important species; results will aid our understanding of the  
29    backscattering as well as provide a supporting dataset to develop algorithms for classification of  
30    species/functional groups. Computed-tomography (CT) scans were performed on 149 individuals  
31    across reef fish species from the northeastern Gulf of Mexico to generate three-dimensional  
32    swim bladder models for estimation of morphometrics to input into numerical scattering models.  
33    Principal component analysis of the swim bladder morphology indicated significant variation  
34    among species; however, closely related species (confamilials) were not different. We employed  
35    boundary element method modeling to examine the frequency-dependent backscatter responses  
36    across a range of fish orientations ( $\pm 45^\circ$ ). Comparisons of frequency-dependent backscatter  
37    revealed strongest similarities between closely related species and greatest differences between  
38    more distantly related species or species groups. Patterns in the spectra have the potential to be  
39    used to classify targets toward species (or species group) for estimates of density from marine  
40    ecosystem acoustic surveys. Given that broadband echosounders are not yet commonplace, and

many surveys in the region utilize narrowband echosounders, we also developed narrowband target strength – length relationships for six of the reef fish species with model fits ranging widely ( $r^2 = 0.05$  to  $0.93$ ). The potential utility of broadband echosounders to enhance ecosystem studies, or to develop fisheries-independent indices of abundance for use in stock assessment is discussed.

**Keywords:** Boundary Element Method, broadband acoustics, reef fish, target strength, swim bladder.

## Introduction

Reef fishes are ecologically significant members of rocky and coral reef ecosystems and support economically important fisheries in US waters of the Gulf of Mexico (GOM), Atlantic Ocean, and Caribbean Sea. Despite their ecological and economic importance, many reef fishes in the southeastern US (SEUS) are estimated to be fully exploited or overfished and regional management is contentious given the diversity of commercial and recreational user groups that participate in SEUS reef fisheries (Die et al. 1988; Johnston et al. 2010; Cowan et al. 2011). In the northern GOM (nGOM), large-scale events such as red tides, the Deepwater Horizon oil spill (DWH), or the proliferation of invasive red lionfish (*Pterois volitans/miles* complex), also have complicated assessments and management of SEUS reef fish stocks by depletion or causing shifts in community structure.

Stock assessments for exploited reef fishes in the SEUS typically have relied on fishery-dependent data (derived from commercial fisheries harvest data) not only to estimate the catch-at-age of fishery landings, but also to compute population indices and trends over time. Fishery-dependent data may be biased by fishery selectivity, shifting fishery regulations over time, or hyperstability of reef fish catch rates. Therefore, fishery-dependent data are complimented in

most assessments with fishery-independent (derived from research surveys at sea) time series to track abundance of particular life stages across time (Hilborn and Walters 2013). These data often prove to be invaluable given survey designs are stratified, randomized and follow standardized methodologies, thus accounting for gear selectivity and providing unbiased parameter estimates of target species. Furthermore, fishery-independent methods can be employed to examine ecological questions and to develop habitat or region-specific baselines in the event of large-scale anthropogenic stressors.

The physical structure of reefs, whether they are natural or artificial, precludes the usage of many extractive gear types, such as trawls or gillnets, to conduct fishery-independent sampling. Other catch-based methods, such as handline or bottom longline sampling, can be deployed for fishery-independent sampling, but extractive gears are counterproductive for imperiled or overfished stocks. In such cases, non-extractive gears, such as video-based sampling provide less invasive methods (Bacheler *et al.* 2013; Campbell *et al.* 2015). Acoustic surveys are a primary assessment method in several ecosystems, best exemplified by low diversity or high abundance of aggregating or schooling species (e.g., Celtic Sea, Atlantic herring; Barents Sea, demersal fish; Northwest Pacific Ocean, Pacific hake; Cook Strait, hoki). Challenges arise when attempting to employ acoustic methods in reef ecosystems with diverse fish assemblages since species may have backscatter responses that are similar in their frequency-dependent patterns, thus inhibiting the potential for using backscatter as a discriminating attribute. Moreover, proximity to reef structure can also affect the ability to detect fish biomass with acoustics (Gledhill *et al.* 1996; Rudershausen *et al.* 2010).

New commercially available broadband echosounders are showing promise in the ability to enhance the data collected across continuous acoustic spectra (i.e., 30- 200kHz). There are

several advantages that broadband techniques offer over traditional narrowband echosounders with limited bandwidth (~1-5 kHz); namely an increase in range resolution permitting better separation among targets and between targets and the seafloor, characterization of the acoustic backscatter of targets across a frequency spectrum and an increase in signal to noise (Chu and Stanton, 1998; Ehrenberg and Torkelson, 2000; Demer et al. 2017; Lavery et al. 2017; Bassett et al. 2017). Among these advantages, the potential exists to interpret species-specific signatures of target backscatter due to variation in the morphology of gas-filled swim bladders among species.

Broadband echosounders transmit and receive acoustic signals along a continuous frequency spectrum. Previous work using low- (1.7-6 kHz) to mid-frequency (6-17 kHz) echosounders was mostly focused on the discriminating power of using the resonating frequency to separate taxa of marine organisms (Stanton et al. 2010, 2012; Benoit-Bird and Lawson 2016). Less work has been devoted to understanding the variation in frequency-dependent backscatter for diverse assemblages of reef fishes at the higher frequency ranges (>18 kHz), and in particular for species common to the SEUS, GOM and Caribbean regions (Johnston et al. 2006). Results of work by Au and Benoit-Bird (2003) demonstrate the potential for discriminating among similar reef species using broadband echosounders by exploiting the variation in morphology and orientation of gas-filled swimbladders which contribute to variation in the waveform of frequency-dependent backscatter.

Theoretical models of acoustic backscatter are commonly used to examine the predicted backscatter of dominant species that have economic or ecological importance (reviewed by Jech et al. 2016). Generally, these models compute the theoretical acoustic backscatter attributable to the swim bladders, accounting for variation in the physical dimensions, shape and orientation of, the swimbladder (e.g. Jech et al., 2015 and Macaulay et al., 2013). We implemented a numerical

method (Boundary Element Method; BEM) so as not to be limited to prolate spheroids or other simplified shapes, and to be able to calculate for any angle of incidence and frequency or the product of acoustic wavenumber and dimensions of the swim bladder model. The steep slope of the swim bladder of many specimens relative to the body is an additional complication, favoring the use of general numerical approaches over methods employing Kirchhoff approximation (Foote and Francis 2002; Macaulay *et al.*, 2013).

We examined the species-specific scattering spectra of predominant reef fishes found on GOM reefs to determine the theoretical feasibility of using broadband approaches for species or species group discrimination. An analysis of the morphometry of the swim bladders and output from theoretical models of acoustic backscatter were compared among species to quantify frequency and angle dependencies in scattering properties of selected species. Lastly, we investigate the potential of exploiting target strength frequency responses as signatures to discriminate among species and provide species- or guild-specific estimates of fish density using echosounder surveys of reef systems.

## **Methods**

### *Fish collection*

Fish were collected with baited hook and line over coastal reefs during daylight hours (<30 m depth) south of Orange Beach, Alabama, USA aboard a for-hire recreational fishing vessel during August-September 2017. Captured fish were slowly retrieved and placed in an aerated holding tank on board the fishing vessel. Once back at the dock, fish were transported to the University of South Alabama Health University Hospital imaging facility in aerated tanks. Prior

to imaging, fish were anesthetized in an ice slurry and then placed on the imaging platform.

### *Computed Tomographic Imaging*

Morphological characteristics of reef fish were investigated through the quantitative use of computed tomography (CT) scans on 149 individuals among nine nGOM reef fish species, including three grunt species (Family Haemulidae): blue striped grunt (BSG), *Haemulon sciurus*, white grunt (WG), *Haemulon plumieri*, and tomtate (Tom), *Haemulon aurolineatum*; two snapper species (Family Lutjanidae): red snapper (RS), *Lutjanus campechanus*, and vermilion snapper (VS), *Rhomboplites aurorubens*; and, four additional species: bank sea bass (BSB), *Centropristis striata*; gray triggerfish (GT), *Balistes capriscus*; hogfish (Hog), *Lachnolaimus maximus*; red band parrotfish (RBP), *Sparisoma aurofrenatum* (Table 1). The fish species examined are numerically abundant and ecologically significant in this region of the northeastern Gulf of Mexico, with most also targeted in recreational or commercial fisheries. Blue striped grunt, hogfish, and red band parrotfish are predominant members of the reef fish community in south Florida waters, while gray triggerfish, red snapper, tomtate, vermilion snapper, and white grunt have tropical to subtropical distributions in US Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico waters. The size ranges of fishes sampled and scanned for swim bladder morphology are typical of adult size ranges encountered in this region of the Gulf of Mexico.

Conducting CT scans is an efficient means of acquiring high-resolution three-dimensional models of fish, including the internal musculature, skeletal components and swim bladder. This method is superior to traditional bi-planar x-ray imagery as the curvature and fine-scale structure of the bladder can be discerned and modeled. Fish were scanned along the longitudinal axis and resulted in a series of cross-sectional slices through the body yielding detailed images of the



internal structure of each individual that could be quantified through image processing. Images were collected with a Philips Brilliance 16P machine set to collect images at 1 mm thickness, 0.5 mm interslice spacing, 120 kVp, data collection diameter of 500 mm, reconstruction diameter of 250 mm, exposure time of 381 ms and filter type B. Three dimensional models of bladders were derived for each individual, permitting examination of species-specific morphological variation (Fig. 1) and parameterizing target strength models for each individual.

Images were imported into AMIRA (v6.2.0) to facilitate the bladder measurement procedure. Bladder shapes were extracted by thresholding and classifying each voxel through the segmentation interface using a masking range in AMIRA from -1024 to -100; the wide range was a function of variation across species. The processing of each bladder within AMIRA yielded outputs of morphological metrics for each fish (Table 1). For each individual the following were measured: total length (mm); fish height (mm) was measured as the greatest vertical distance along the transverse plane; fish thickness (mm) was measured as the greatest lateral distance across the transverse plane; bladder length (mm) and bladder height (mm) were both measured similarly to fish length and height; bladder angle (the angle that the bladder sits within the body) of the fish, normal to the dorsal plane, was measured as the distance between a coordinate at the posterior and anterior points of the bladder (Fig. 2). For each individual, a three-dimensional stereolithography (STL) file was created and imported into Autodesk Fusion 360 (v2.0.30330) for further processing. Mesh face counts were reduced to smooth the models and remove deformities (e.g., anomalies generated during image segmentation and processing). Models of each bladder were then adjusted for proper orientation using Autodesk Netfabb Basic (v2017.2) such that the dorsal side of the bladder was oriented towards the -X plane and the point of contact between the bladder and vertebral column oriented towards the -Y plane. Bladders

were rescaled in Blender (v2.78). Models were imported into Netgen (v5.3) to generate a final wire mesh model for acoustic backscatter simulations using the BEM, described below. Lastly, each wire mesh was imported into GMSH (version 2.7.0) and converted from STL format into the msh format required for BEM code.

### *Morphometric Analysis*

A principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted on swim bladder morphometrics to reduce dimensionality of the data and address collinearity among variables while allowing for comparisons of the shape and orientation among species. The metrics were manually measured from each CT scan (Table 1), in addition to two derived morphological indices, were included in the PCA: the ratios of the swim bladder length (mm) to fish length (mm) and swim bladder height (mm) to fish height (mm). The first two components (explaining greater than 98% of the total variance) were retained and further used to describe the variation in swim bladder morphology among the species sampled.

### *Backscatter modeling and analysis*

Frequency-dependent wire-meshes were generated (Netgen v5.3) for the swim bladder models at the following resolution 30-50 kHz (0.0015 mm), 52-100 kHz (0.00075 mm), 102-150 kHz (0.0005 mm), and 152-200 kHz (0.000375 mm), always exceeding 10 nodes per wavelength across the frequency band. Variable mesh resolution was required to reduce the computational resources needed at the higher frequencies where high-density meshes exceeded the computational capabilities of the High-Performance Computing Cluster at Florida International University (30 Cores, high-memory nodes).

The backscattered target strength ( $TS = 10 \log_{10} (\sigma_{bs})$ ) [dB re 1 m<sup>2</sup>], where ( $\sigma_{bs}$ , [m<sup>2</sup>])

represents the cross-sectional backscatter from an individual (MacLennan 1990), was calculated from each three-dimensional CT-model. *TS* was computed from 30-200 kHz at 2 kHz intervals and over a range of tilt angles from -45 to +45 degrees in 2 degree increments, where 0 degrees represents the dorsal orientation. This range in orientation was included to examine the *TS* variation relative to how a fish might be distributed within the water column (Gastauer et al. 2016).

An open-source library for the solution of boundary integral equations for Laplace, Helmholtz and Maxwell problems in three dimensions (BEM++ v 2.0.3; Śmigaj et al., 2015) was used to calculate acoustic backscattering from the digitized swimbladders. A combined direct formulation was utilized (Chandler-Wilde, 2012) with pressure release boundary conditions. Fast solution of the boundary-element problems was achieved through the implementation of the adaptive cross approximation (ACA) algorithm.

The implementation was verified by calculating backscattering from spheroids and comparison with analytic methods. Convergence tests were performed with varying mesh densities prior to the simulations. BEM has previously been used successfully to model backscatter by swimbladders and swim bladder like shapes (e.g. Francis and Foote, 2003; Okumura et al., 2003).

#### *Target strength and fish length relationships*

Relationships between target strength and total fish length (*TL*, cm) were examined for each species at the nominal narrowband center frequencies commonly applied in fisheries surveys (38, 70, 120, 200 kHz) with the nlme package (R, v3.5). Regression analyses were developed for each species where there were four or greater number of individuals. Target strength to fish length

relationships were modelled with the equation  $TS = m \log_{10} TL + b$ . Two models were fit to the data. In the first model, the slope ( $m$ ) and y-intercept ( $b_0$ ) parameters were estimated with standard regression techniques (following Nakken and Olsen, 1977). In the second model, the standard form in which the slope parameter ( $m$ ) was fixed at 20 and the intercept ( $b_{20}$ ) was estimated, given that  $\sigma_{bs}$  is proportional to the square of fish length (Love 1977; Foote 1979), as discussed below.

### *Spectral scattering responses*

Length normalized target strength was computed for each swim bladder across the range of angles and frequencies with the equation  $nTS = 10\log_{10}(\sigma_{bs}/L^2)$  [dB re 1 m<sup>2</sup>], where  $\sigma_{bs}$  is measured at any given angle and frequency, and  $L$  [cm] is bladder length (Love 1977, Macaulay et al. 2013). The resulting matrix was used to derive angle averaged (+/-10 degree) backscatter responses representative of each species. Global kernel density distributions of target strength were computed from all individuals within each species using an individual's averaged response between +/- 10 degrees from normal (dorsal) incidence using the *ksdensity* function (Matlab v9.5, Mathworks, Inc.) to avoid forcing assumptions about underlying  $TS$  distributions for each species.

## **Results**

### *Species specific variability in swim bladder morphology*

Significant variation among the morphological variables was observed, indicating that the dimensions of both the fish and swim bladder were important in yielding separation among species within the principal component space (Table 1). In addition to size, the angle of the bladder (relative to the horizontal orientation) was significant in separating among species (Fig.

3). The PCA describing the morphological characteristics of fish and swim bladders indicated high covariance among the selected variables. Variables with a loading greater than 0.50 were considered to contribute to a PC. The first PC accounted for the majority of the variation explained among variables (65.1%), with PC2 accounting for approximately 34% of the variance across the modeled individuals. Strong allometry existed overall between fish length and fish swim bladder length, indicating a positive linear relationship (Fig. 4; Table 2). Among the species modeled, regression models were significant, but the fits were variable ( $p < 0.05$ ; Table 2), ranging from a relatively poor fit for gray triggerfish ( $R^2 = 0.38$ ) to blue stripe grunt with a relatively strong fit ( $R^2 = 0.95$ ).

#### *Species TS response across frequencies and angles*

The target strength-frequency spectra derived from the BEM models illustrate wide variation across species, though some generalities were observed (Fig. 5). For example, the three grunt species (Family Haemulidae) displayed consistently similar responses across frequencies and orientation, while the lutjanids, red snapper and vermillion snapper, were conspicuously dissimilar. Peaks in the scattering responses were observed among most examples where the incident angles were approximately between -10 to -30 degrees, representing angles where the cross-sectional area of the bladder tended to be oriented horizontally, and orthogonal to the transmitted pulse. In species with more uniform shapes (e.g., bank sea bass and gray triggerfish), the TS response was much more variable across the same orientation ranges. (Fig. 5). Qualitative examination of the angle-averaged (-10: +10 degree) normalized  $\sigma_{bs}$  frequency response indicated wide variation among species in the magnitude of backscatter, with profiles among species being divergent across the nominal center frequencies of common echosounders (38, 70, 120, 200 kHz) (Fig. 6). The bladder length-normalized frequency spectra for nearly half the

species lacked obvious spectral features (blue striped grunt, red band parrotfish, vermillion snapper, tomtate, white grunt) (Fig. 6). In contrast, the bank sea bass, gray triggerfish, hogfish, and red snapper all showed more complex frequency-dependent backscatter across the modeled frequencies (Fig. 6). When considering the nominal frequencies sampled, gray triggerfish had the greatest length-normalized backscatter ( $\sigma_{bs}$ ) (0.0702 m<sup>2</sup> at 154 kHz), while vermillion snapper (0.0101 m<sup>2</sup> at 74 kHz) and red band parrotfish (0.0043 m<sup>2</sup> at 123 kHz) were the lowest (Fig. 6).

Linear relationships between  $TS$  and  $\log_{10} TL$  were computed for six of the nine modeled species (Table 3) across the four discrete frequencies (38, 70, 120, and 200 kHz). In general, adopting the standard  $b_{20}$   $TS$ - $TL$  form resulted in poorer fits across the modeled species in comparison to model-fitted slopes (Table 3). Across most frequencies red snapper had the greatest  $b_{20}$  of modeled species (-64.5 dB) and occurred at 70 kHz; while vermillion snapper had consistently lower intercepts ( $b_0$  and  $b_{20}$ ) than others by greater than 3 dB and was the only species for which the intercepts declined with increasing frequency (Fig. 7).

Examination of the kernel density distributions of target strength indicate wide variability among the species examined (Fig. 8). The overall kernel density distribution of vermillion snapper  $TS$  was the lowest of all modeled species with slight overlap in the upper end of the distribution with the haemulids. Within the Haemulidae, the tomtate exhibited a very narrow and characteristic  $TS$  distribution relative to other haemulids and other species. The gray triggerfish and red snapper were characterized by greater  $TS$  which generally did not overlap with the other species (Fig. 8).

## Discussion

The CT scans revealed wide variation in the swim bladder and body morphology in addition

to the orientation of the bladder within the body, which was largely reflected in the variation in backscatter among taxa. While the three species in the family haemulidae (blue striped grunt, tomtate, and white grunt) displayed similarities in both morphology and predicted backscatter, the two lutjanid species (red snapper and vermillion snapper) were quite different in both morphological characteristics and backscatter responses. Others have demonstrated variation in shape parameters among closely related species, and among lutjanids in particular; however, as reported by Benoit-Bird et al. (2003), the acoustic properties did not vary significantly among closely related species.

Understanding the acoustic backscattering response (*TS*) from fish is vital for absolute abundance estimation and acoustic species discrimination. *TS* is usually examined through a great number of measurements from a combination of *ex situ* (immobilized or caged fish) and *in situ* free-swimming measurements. Each method has its own challenges: fish might not exhibit natural behavior during *ex situ* experiments, whereas obtaining sufficient measurements, confirming species identification and physically sampling fish *in situ* can be difficult. Due to these limitations, modelling plays a key role to increase the number of samples, interpret experimental data, and understand the underlying physical processes. As previous studies have demonstrated, despite the absence of complementary *in situ* backscatter data, models derived from simulated backscatter provide valuable opportunities to investigate species-specific patterns. Importantly, the *TS-L* relationships provided in this paper are the first for the species in the Gulf of Mexico region and can be used by researchers to begin to investigate the use of multiple frequencies or broadband approaches for discrimination among the species complex during fishery independent surveys. It is largely understood that for fishes with swim bladders, the bladder is the major contributor (~90-95%) to observed acoustic backscattering (Foote

1980a; Ona 1990). However, the received amplitudes of backscatter can be mediated by fish size (Love 1977; Simmonds and MacLennan 2005), orientation (Nakken and Olsen 1977; Foote 1980b; Benoit-Bird et al. 2003; Hazen and Horne 2003), physiology (Horne 2003) and material properties (Scoulding et al. 2015; Reeder et al. 2004). With respect to the species examined, considerable variation was observed in the morphological properties, and is likely the main contributor to the variation observed in the modeled backscatter. In some cases, this variation resulted in species-specific backscatter responses which may help to distinguish predominant reef fishes on nGOM reefs. For example, gray triggerfish which have a distinctly rounded swim bladder with a steeper bladder angle relative to the more horizontally elongated bladders of other species resulted in a distinctive *TS*-frequency response across incidence angles when compared to other species.

While acoustic models do not exist that describe these species specifically, others have performed similar analyses, both via modeling and *in situ* observation, on related species (Au and Benoit-Bird 2003; Benoit-Bird et al., 2003; Gastauer et al., 2016; 2017a, b). The snapper species that were examined by both Au and Benoit-Bird (2003) and Benoit-Bird et al. (2003) displayed considerable variance in both swimbladder morphology and the modeled broadband frequency response across angles. Gastauer et al. (2016) examined the *TS* response for a related *Balistidae* species and developed a *TS-L* relationship, although from a considerably smaller fish (~26 cm), with a difference in *TS* of approximately 10 dB in comparison to the *TS-L* relationship we presented in Table 3. At present, the Gastauer et al. (2016, 2017a, b) models are the closest in comparison to the models we present, for Families Lutjanidae and Balistidae, but in both cases the  $b_{20}$  intercepts derived in our angle-averaged models were substantially greater, than the range of 5.1 to 8.5 dB for goldband snapper *Pristipomoides multidens* (Gastauer et al., 2017) and red



emperor *Lutjanus sebae* (Gastauer *et al.*, 2016), respectively. Similarly, the model derived for gray triggerfish at 38 kHz had a  $b_{20}$  intercept approximately 10 dB greater than the balistids modeled by Gastauer *et al.*, (2017a). While the differences are likely explained, by variation in the range of modeled fish lengths and, perhaps, species-specific morphology, they may also be due in part to the different modeling strategies. Specifically, the models employed by Benoit-Bird *et al.*, (2003) were based on a prolate spheroid (Furusawa 1988); whereas, Gastauer *et al.*, (2016, 2017a,b) models were based on the Kirchhoff-ray mode model (Clay and Horne 1994). In contrast, we developed models using the BEM approach. It should be noted that at present, an important limitation of implementing numerical methods such as BEM is that they are computationally demanding, particularly at high acoustic frequencies. This is because in order to represent an acoustic wave on a discrete grid (the mesh), the mesh elements must be smaller than the wavelength in order to resolve the wave. This of course is expected to become less of an impediment with improvements in processing capacity and efficiency.

The dorsal-aspect backscattering response we report across a wide range of incident angles was intended to represent natural tilt distributions of fish swimming near reefs. While the *in situ* orientation of fish is likely variable, the mean and magnitude of tilt angles *in situ* is unknown and has not been extensively studied in these GOM species. Our initial normal tilt distributions assumed orientations between +/- 30 degrees, although this may not include active swimming or other behaviors related to schooling behaviors, feeding, predator evasion, courtship, etc. (Benoit-Bird *et al.*, 2003; Lundgren and Nielsen 2008). When examining the frequency-dependent *TS* responses it appears that across most species, perhaps except for gray triggerfish, the peak *TS* amplitude is associated with a -15 to -25 degree tilt, where the swim bladder would be perpendicular to the incident angle of the sound source (i.e., head down),

357 resulting in an increase in the cross-sectional scattering area of the swim bladder from the dorsal  
358 perspective. Interestingly, the three haemulids and vermillion snapper were characterized with a  
359 consistent frequency response at those angles, while other species displayed much more  
360 complexity, likely attributed to finer structural differences in the swim bladder. Additional effort  
361 will be required to better understand the true range of tilt angles under natural conditions, and  
362 advances in broadband split-beam processing may help acquire empirical data to infer *in situ* tilt  
363 distributions.

364         The interest in broadband techniques to aid in the classification and identification of  
365 taxonomic groups in aquatic ecosystems has increased recently and will likely continue as  
366 advances are developed. Given that the acoustic backscatter is a function of the physical  
367 attributes of an ensonified target, the variation we observed suggests that some potential may  
368 exist for exploiting increased bandwidth to distinguish among taxa. Not only did we observe  
369 variation in the frequency- dependent *TS* responses among species, but the mean *TS* distributions  
370 indicate that among the species we examined, some may have characteristic *TS* distributions  
371 (Fig. 8). For example, the three haemulids were characteristically clustered with overlapping *TS*  
372 distributions from -41 to -46 dB. No other species significantly overlapped with those three.  
373 Moreover, vermillion snapper and red snapper, which differ in overall body shape and are  
374 relatively distantly related among snapper species (Gold *et al.*, 2011; Da Silva *et al.*, 2018), were  
375 well separated from one another suggesting that in cases where the dominance among these  
376 species vary significantly, we may be capable of isolating taxonomic groups. Through an  
377 extensive analysis of the frequency-dependent *TS* responses from the species examined here Roa  
378 *et al.* (in review) determined that the following frequencies 36, 70, 90, 140, and 190 kHz, carry  
379 the most discrimination information for these species examined in this study.

While this study was focused on deriving the acoustic scattering characteristics of the swim bladder, it is important to consider other sources of uncertainty where model predictions may deviate from empirical measures. For example, we did not consider the contributions of backscatter attributable to the body components other than the swim bladder, which may be important, particularly at greater frequencies (Gastauer *et al.*, 2017b; Reeder *et al.*, 2004; Nesse *et al.*, 2009; Forland *et al.*, 2014a,b). Additionally, given that these fish can be distributed across a range of depths, further study is needed to understand the effects of depth on swimbladder shape and morphology and future models should account for pressure effects in *TS* modeling. While the fish we examined were from moderate depths where barotrauma was not a factor, these species are commonly found in waters greater than 60 m and additional effort will be needed to update these models to compensate for the effects of water depth. Pressure may exert a non-homogeneous change in swim bladder morphology for each species, an observation that will be challenging to document, but critical for understanding *in situ* variation in broadband *TS* responses (Francis and Foote 2003).

## Conclusions

*In situ* measures are preferred over modeling output alone for examining the acoustic backscatter properties of fishes and the ability to utilize frequency spectra to distinguish species associated with reefs. However, when planning for surveys and in the absence of empirical measures, the modeling responses can be very useful to describe expected frequency-dependent backscatter based on species-specific morphology (Horne *et al.*, 2000; Fässler *et al.* 2013; Scoulding *et al.*, 2015; Gastauer *et al.*, 2016) to inform survey plans and selection of the proper

frequencies for use within a given ecosystem. Broadband methods for discriminating and classifying among taxa have been the focus of many studies (Holliday, 1977; Stanton *et al.*, 1998, 2012; Ross *et al.*, 2013; Jech *et al.*, 2017, Zakharia *et al.* 1996, Reeder *et al.* 2004) as well as offering high resolution insight into the anatomy of fish targets and examining the relative contributions of the scattering features (e.g., separating bladder from head and tail, etc.). While these results offer important insight into the potential differences among species, future effort should be focused on deriving *in situ* measures of *TS* and evaluate the agreement with modeled output (Pena and Foote 2008; Gastauer et al. 2016).

The ability to implement these model results presented herein, and ultimately incorporate them into a quantitative assessment effort will still require extensive groundtruthing using visual or direct capture methods. Here we have examined the physical attributes of several dominant reef fish species found in the GOM and SEUS. Further, the results provided may help guide proper selection of acoustic frequencies for use within this species complex, in particular when resources may be limiting and only one or two frequencies available for implementation in a field study.

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## Figure and Table Captions

Figure 1. Morphological variations of swim bladders of reef associated species: A) blue striped grunt; B) gray triggerfish; C) hogfish; D) red band parrotfish; E) red snapper; F) tomtate; G) vermillion snapper; and H) white grunt.

Figure 2. Example CT scan of a red snapper illustrating the morphological metrics derived from each individual: total length (a), fish width (b), fish thickness (c), bladder angle (d), bladder length (e), bladder height (f).

Figure 3. Principal components analysis of fish and bladder metrics by species (colored symbols). Error bars represent standard error of PC1 and PC2 for each species. Component loadings are displayed as rays to each modeled variable. See Table S1 for abbreviated common names of species; scientific names appear in the text.

Figure. 4. Significant positive log-linear relationship ( $y = -0.52 + 0.74\log_{10}(\text{Fish\_Length})$ ;  $F_{1,137}=398.2$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $R^2=0.80$ ) between measured fish length (total length cm) and measured bladder length (cm) for each individual CT scan. Species are identified by colored symbols. Summary statistics of morphological variables for each species and species abbreviations can be found in Table S1.

Figure 5. Target strength ([dB re 1m<sup>2</sup>] colormap) responses of individual reef fish species. A) bank sea bass; B) blue striped grunt; C) gray triggerfish; D) hogfish; E) red band parrotfish; F) red snapper; G) tomtate; H) vermillion snapper; and I) white grunt.

652

653 Figure 6. Species specific averaged  $\sigma_{bs}$  response ( $m^2$ ) with 95% confidence intervals (broken  
654 lines) around the mean (solid line). Vertical reference lines represent nominal operating  
655 frequencies in fisheries acoustics (38, 70, 120, and 200 kHz).

656

657 Figure 7. The model derived intercepts ( $b_0$  and  $b_{20}$ ) for the target strength-length regression for  
658 all species with greater than four individuals.

659

660 Figure 8. Kernel density distribution of target strength (TS [dB re  $1m^2$ ]) for each species with  
661 greater than 4 individuals, representing response from +/-10 degrees from normal orientation  
662 across all frequencies (30-200 kHz).

663

664 Table 1. Summary statistics of bladder metrics manually measured from individual CT images.  
665 Means (+/- standard errors) are provided. Fish Length/Bladder Length and Fish Height/Bladder  
666 Height are ratios derived from manual measurements.

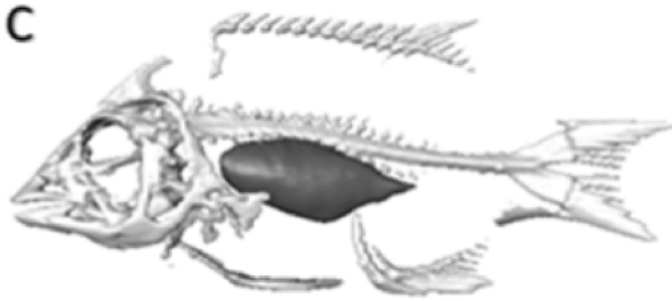
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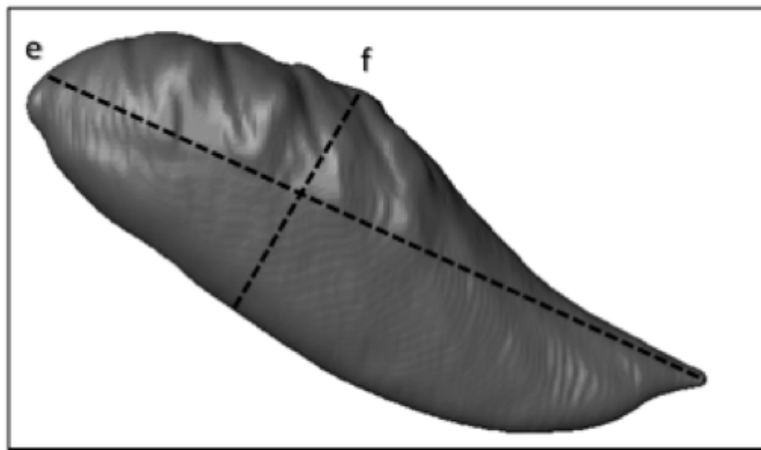
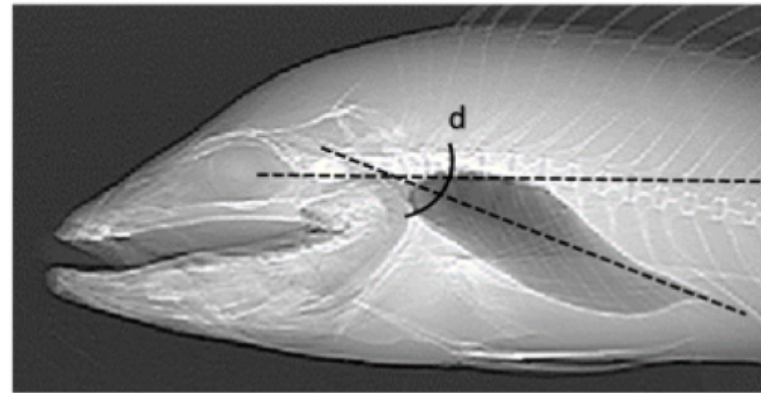
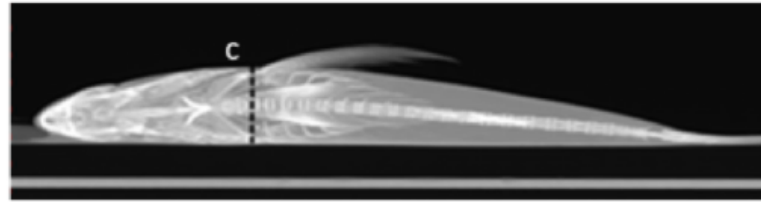
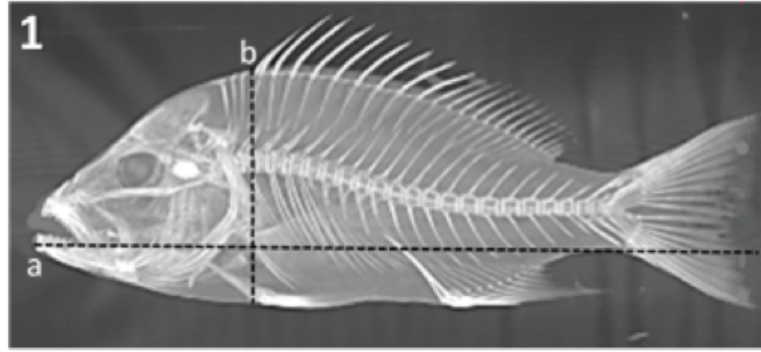
668 Table 2. Regression model fits for fish length (cm) and swimbladder length (cm) relationships  
669 among all species that had four or greater individuals.

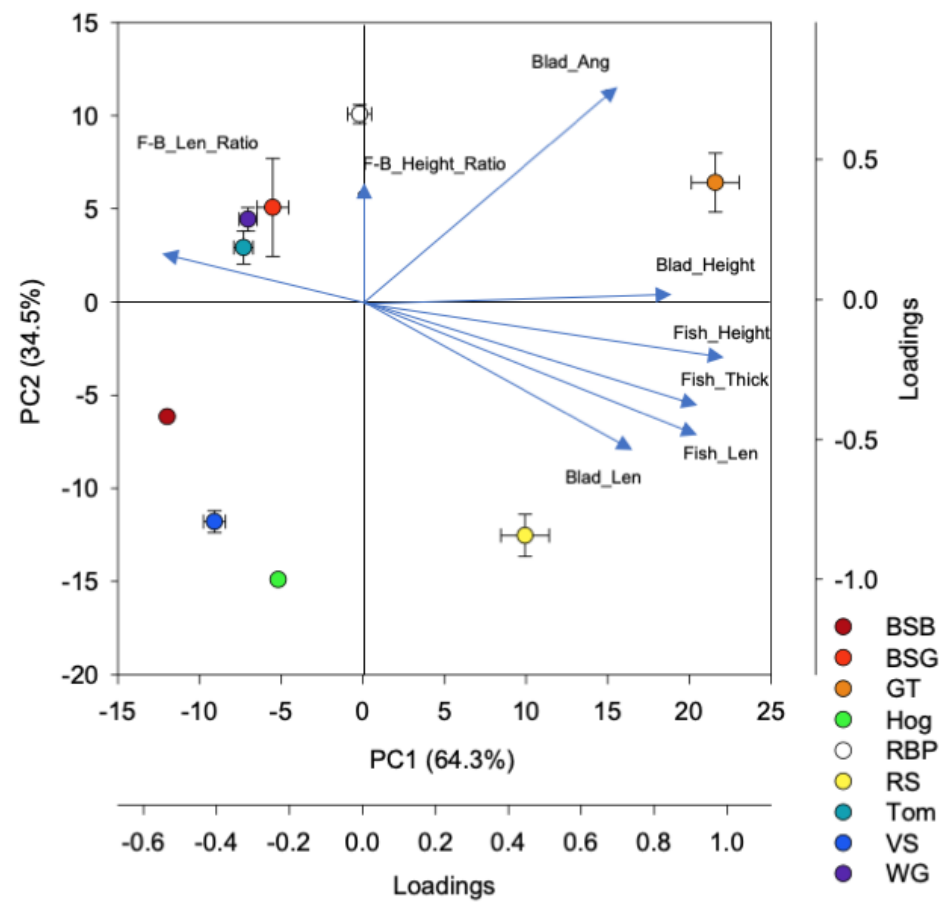
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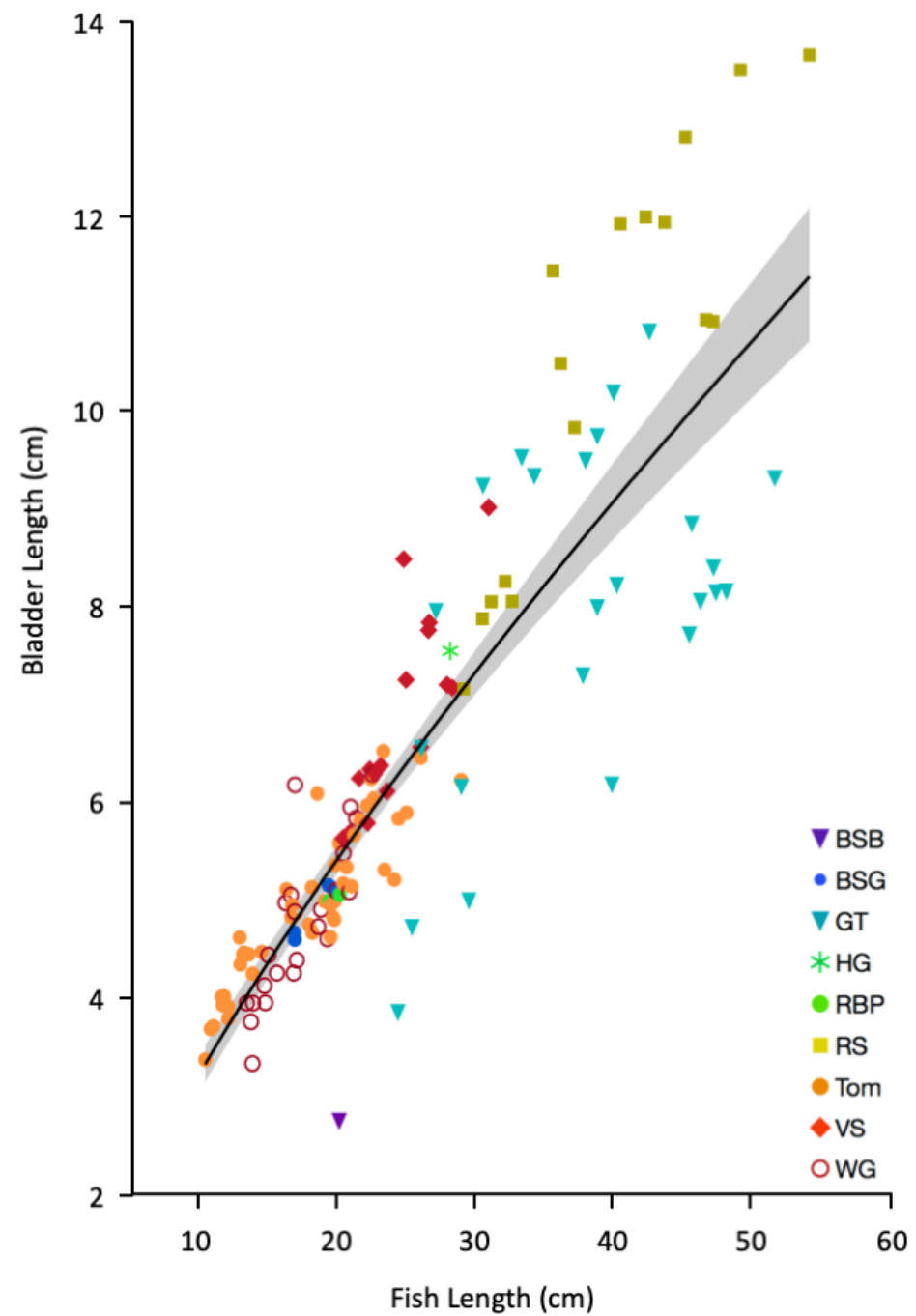
671 Table 3. Target Strength (dB re  $1m^2$ ) - Fish Length (cm) regression coefficients fitted to modeled  
672 species with at least four individuals (see Table S1). Model coefficients (slope,  $m$ ; intercept,  $b_0$ ;  
673 and  $b_{20}$  intercept) and coefficients of determination ( $r^2_{b0}$  and  $r^2_{b20}$ ) are provided. Regression  
674 models where the slope was fixed ( $m = 20$ ) have intercept values reported as ( $b_{20}$ ).

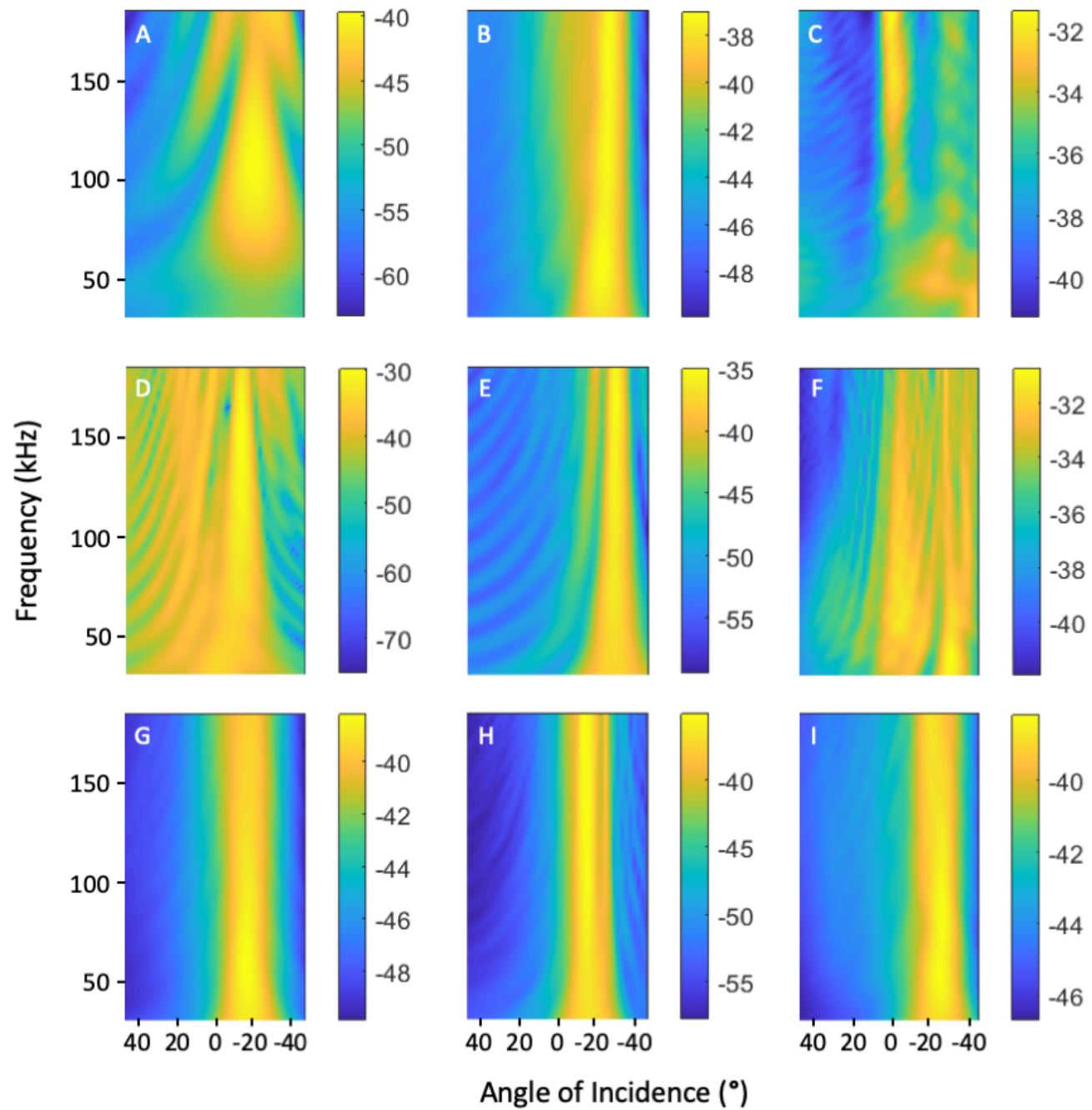


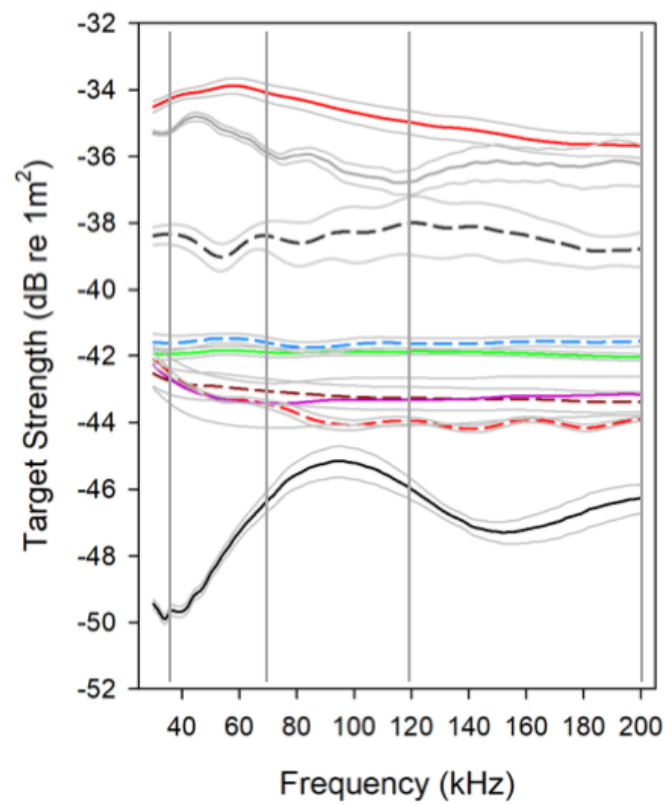
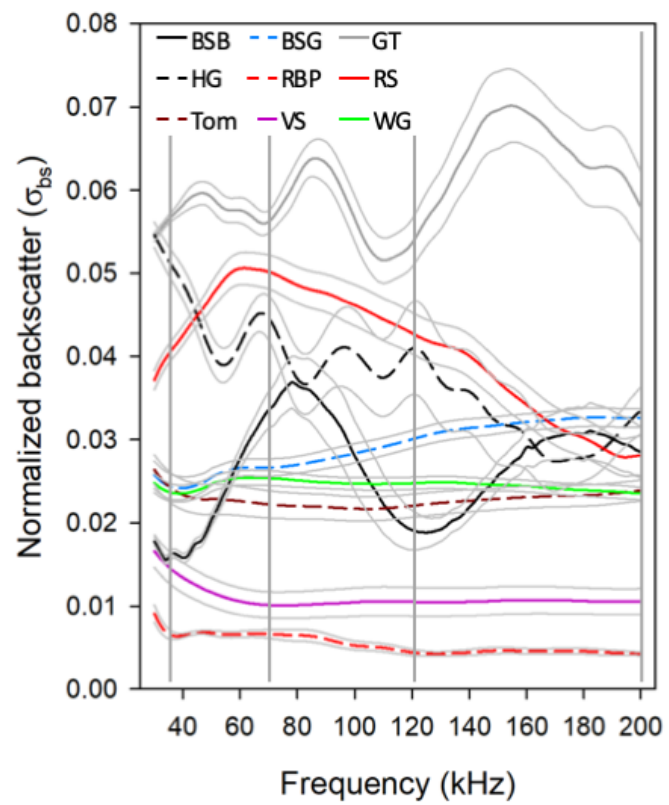
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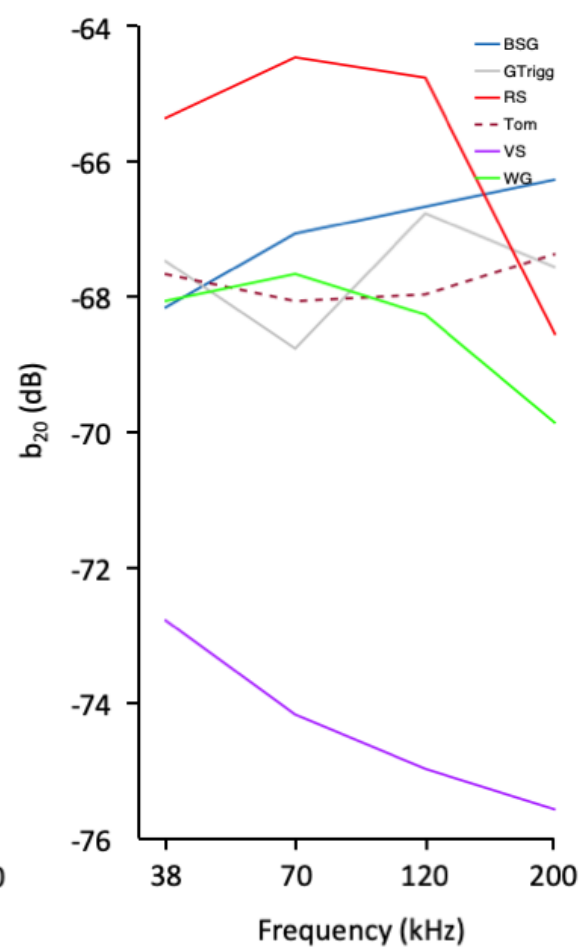
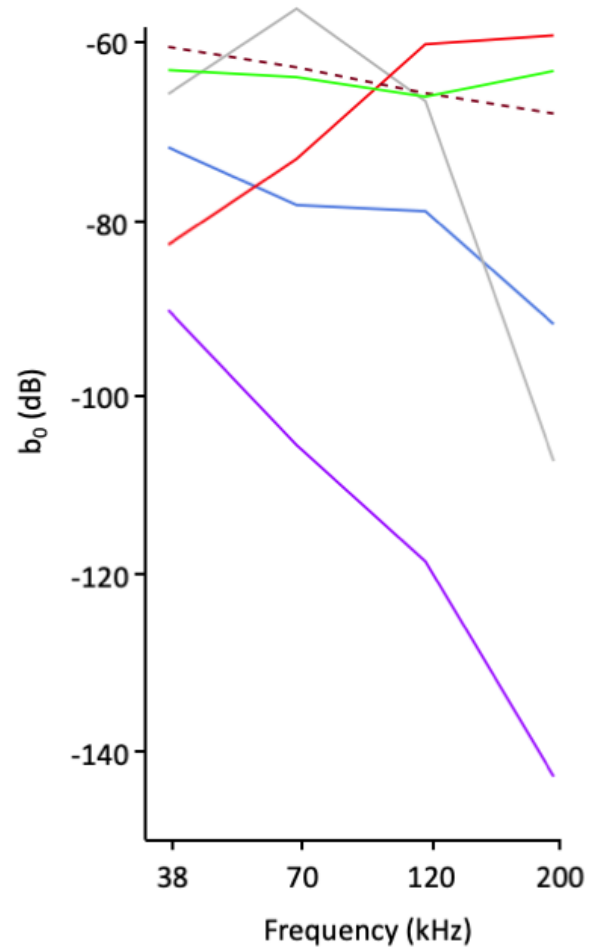












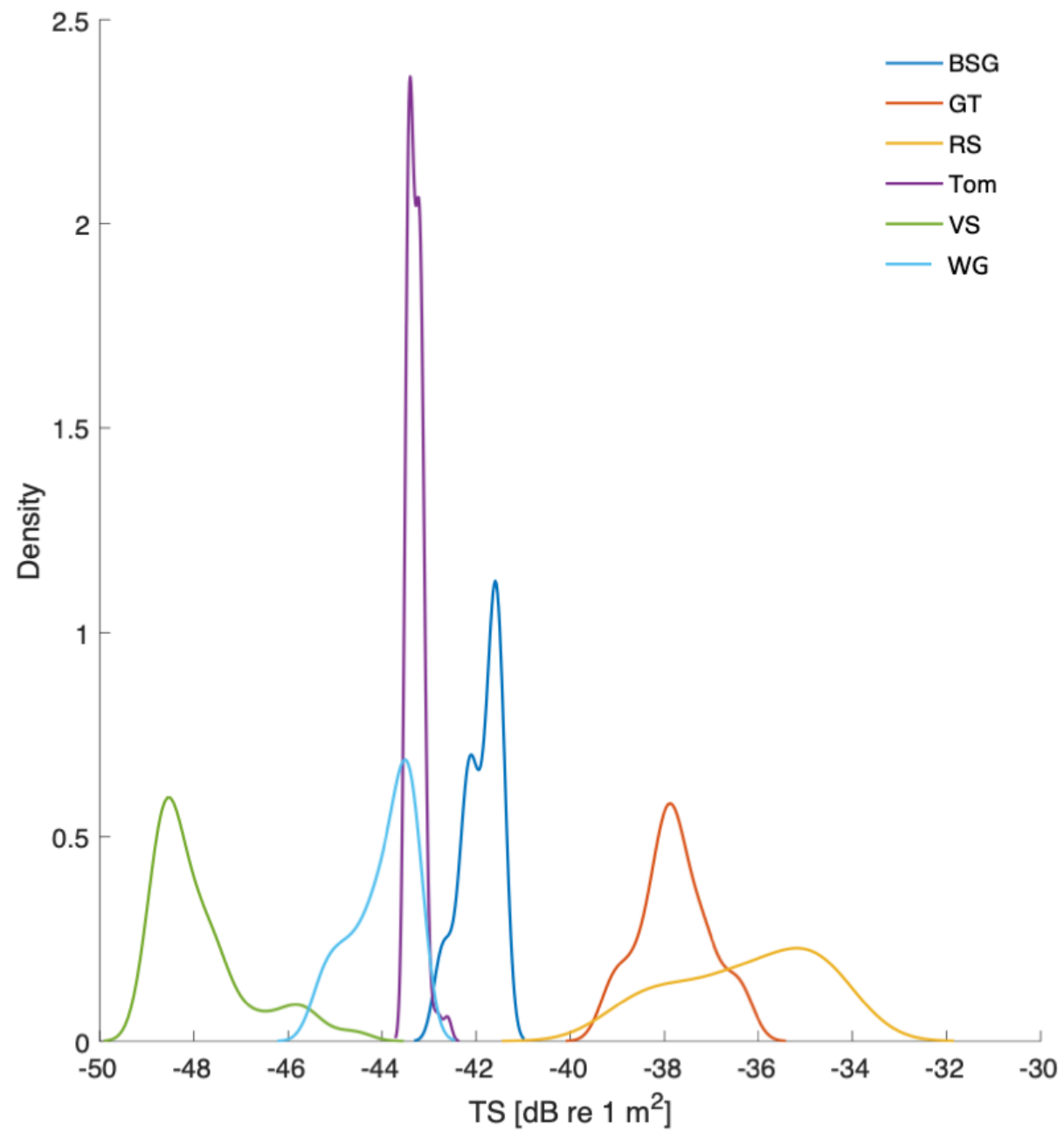




Table 1. Summary statistics of bladder metrics manually measured from individual CT images. Means (+/- standard errors) are provided. Fish Length/Bladder Length and Fish Height/Bladder Height are ratios derived from manual measurements.

Species	n	Bladder height (mm)	Bladder length (mm)	Bladder angle (deg)	Fish length (mm)	Fish height (mm)	Fish thickness (mm)	Ratio: bladder length/ fish length	Ratio: bladder height/ fish height
Bank sea bass (BSB)	1	0.77 (-)	2.75 (-)	19.98 (-)	20.0 (-)	4.36 (-)	3.12 (-)	0.14 (-)	0.18 (-)
Blue striped grunt (BSG)	4	1.58 (0.12)	4.87 (0.14)	32.8 (2.69)	18.12 (0.80)	6.13 (0.18)	2.44 (0.06)	0.27 (0.01)	0.26 (0.01)
Gray triggerfish (GT)	26	3.54 (0.29)	8.04 (0.36)	49.27 (1.31)	37.68 (1.59)	15.09 (0.55)	5.35 (0.21)	0.22 (0.01)	0.24 (0.02)
Hogfish (Hog)	1	2.72 (-)	7.54 (-)	16.1 (-)	28.04 (-)	10.74 (-)	3.96 (-)	0.27 (-)	0.25 (-)
Red band parrotfish (RBP)	2	1.77 (0.03)	5.02 (0.03)	39.95 (0.85)	19.66 (0.37)	6.81 (0.02)	2.34 (0.22)	0.26 (0.003)	0.26 (0.004)
Red Snapper (RS)	23	2.18 (0.27)	9.96 (0.62)	26.83 (0.49)	39.26 (1.69)	11.95 (0.45)	5.19 (0.20)	0.25 (0.01)	0.18 (0.02)
Tomtate (Tom)	50	1.29 (0.14)	5.03 (0.13)	30.18 (0.78)	18.19 (0.66)	5.27 (0.18)	2.21 (0.09)	0.29 (0.01)	0.25 (0.02)
Vermillion snapper (VS)	18	1.02 (0.09)	6.86 (0.25)	16.9 (0.40)	24.44 (0.75)	6.62 (0.22)	2.92 (0.12)	0.28 (0.01)	0.15 (0.01)
White grunt (WG)	24	1.53 (0.06)	4.76 (0.17)	31.40 (0.53)	17.19 (0.58)	6.15 (0.24)	2.22 (0.08)	0.28 (0.01)	0.25 (0.004)

Table 2. Regression model fits for fish length (cm) and swimbladder length (cm) relationships among all species that had four or greater individuals.

Species	Model	$R^2$	$P$
Blue striped grunt	$\text{Log}_{10}(\text{Bladder\_Length}) = -0.27 + 0.64 * \text{Log}_{10}(\text{Fish\_Length})$	0.95	0.027
Gray triggerfish	$\text{Log}_{10}(\text{Bladder\_Length}) = -0.48 + 0.70 * \text{Log}_{10}(\text{Fish\_Length})$	0.38	0.001
Red snapper	$\text{Log}_{10}(\text{Bladder\_Length}) = -1.27 + 0.99 * \text{Log}_{10}(\text{Fish\_Length})$	0.82	<0.001
Tomtate	$\text{Log}_{10}(\text{Bladder\_Length}) = -0.04 + 0.54 * \text{Log}_{10}(\text{Fish\_Length})$	0.84	<0.001
Vermilion snapper	$\text{Log}_{10}(\text{Bladder\_Length}) = -1.27 + 0.99 * \text{Log}_{10}(\text{Fish\_Length})$	0.71	<0.001
White grunt	$\text{Log}_{10}(\text{Bladder\_Length}) = -0.90 + 0.86 * \text{Log}_{10}(\text{Fish\_Length})$	0.70	<0.001

Table 3. Target Strength (dB re 1m<sup>2</sup>) - Fish Length (cm) regression coefficients fitted to modeled species with at least four individuals (see Table S1). Model coefficients (slope,  $m$ ; intercept,  $b_0$ ; and  $b_{20}$  intercept) and coefficients of determination ( $r^2_{b_0}$  and  $r^2_{b_{20}}$ ) are provided. Regression models where the slope was fixed ( $m = 20$ ) have intercept values reported as ( $b_{20}$ ).

Species	38 kHz				70 kHz				120 kHz				200 kHz			
	$m$	$b_0$	$b_{20}$	$r^2_{b_0}/r^2_{b_{20}}$	$m$	$b_0$	$b_{20}$	$r^2_{b_0}/r^2_{b_{20}}$	$m$	$b_0$	$b_{20}$	$r^2_{b_0}/r^2_{b_{20}}$	$m$	$b_0$	$b_{20}$	$r^2_{b_0}/r^2_{b_{20}}$
Blue striped grunt	22.9	-71.9	-68.2	0.39/0.38	28.9	-78.4	-67.1	0.69/0.62	29.8	-79.1	-66.7	0.70/0.62	40.3	-91.9	-66.3	0.53/0.39
Gray triggerfish	19.0	-65.9	-67.5	0.30/0.30	11.9	-56.3	-68.8	0.05/0.03	19.9	-66.7	-66.8	0.31/0.30	45.6	-107.3	-67.6	0.45/0.31
Red snapper	31.4	-82.9	-65.4	0.93/0.81	25.6	-73.2	-64.5	0.77/0.73	17.1	-60.3	-64.8	0.41/0.40	14.0	-59.3	-68.6	0.20/0.17
Tomtate	14.3	-60.6	-67.7	0.50/0.42	15.8	-62.9	-68.1	0.50/0.53	18.2	-65.8	-68.0	0.65/0.65	20.6	-68.1	-67.4	0.65/0.66
Vermillion snapper	32.7	-90.3	-72.8	0.16/0.13	42.7	-105.5	-74.2	0.30/0.22	51.7	-118.6	-75.0	0.28/0.17	68.9	-142.9	-75.6	0.29/0.14
White grunt	16.0	-63.2	-68.1	0.24/0.23	16.9	-64.0	-67.7	0.27/0.26	18.3	-66.2	-68.3	0.16/0.16	14.65	-63.3	-69.9	0.05/0.04