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Corresponding Author	FamilyName	<b>Otoni</b>
	Particle	
	Given Name	<b>Felipe Polivanov</b>
	Suffix	
	Division	Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e Biotecnologia da Amazônia Legal – Rede BIONORTE
	Organization	Universidade Federal do Maranhão
	Address	São Luís, MA, 65085-580, Brazil
	Division	Laboratório de Sistemática E Ecologia de Organismos Aquáticos, Centro de Ciências de Chapadinha
	Organization	Universidade Federal do Maranhão
	Address	Chapadinha, MA, 65500-000, Brazil
	Division	Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e Conservação
	Organization	Universidade Federal do Maranhão
	Address	São Luís, MA, 65085-580, Brazil
	Division	Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Ambientais
	Organization	Universidade Federal do Maranhão
	Address	BR 222, km4, Boa Vista, Chapadinha, MA, 65500-000, Brazil
	Phone	
	Fax	
	Email	fpottoni@gmail.com
	URL	
	ORCID	<a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9390-0918">http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9390-0918</a>
Author	FamilyName	<b>Campos</b>
	Particle	
	Given Name	<b>Diego Sousa</b>
	Suffix	
	Division	Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e Biotecnologia da Amazônia Legal – Rede BIONORTE
	Organization	Universidade Federal do Maranhão
	Address	São Luís, MA, 65085-580, Brazil
	Division	Laboratório de Sistemática E Ecologia de Organismos Aquáticos, Centro de Ciências de Chapadinha
	Organization	Universidade Federal do Maranhão
	Address	Chapadinha, MA, 65500-000, Brazil
	Phone	
	Fax	
	Email	camposds1@yahoo.com.br
	URL	
	ORCID	<a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8262-413X">http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8262-413X</a>
Author	FamilyName	<b>Oliveira</b>
	Particle	de
	Given Name	<b>Rafael Ferreira</b>
	Suffix	
	Division	Laboratório de Sistemática E Ecologia de Organismos Aquáticos, Centro de Ciências de Chapadinha
	Organization	Universidade Federal do Maranhão
	Address	Chapadinha, MA, 65500-000, Brazil
	Division	Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e Conservação
	Organization	Universidade Federal do Maranhão
	Address	São Luís, MA, 65085-580, Brazil
	Phone	
	Fax	
	Email	raphaelmais12@gmail.com
	URL	
	ORCID	<a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1659-2923">http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1659-2923</a>

Author	FamilyName Particle Given Name Suffix Division Organization Address Division Organization Address Phone Fax Email URL ORCID	<b>Oliveira Vieira</b> de <b>Lucas</b>  Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e Biotecnologia da Amazônia Legal – Rede BIONORTE Universidade Federal do Maranhão São Luís, MA, 65085-580, Brazil Laboratório de Sistemática E Ecologia de Organismos Aquáticos, Centro de Ciências de Chapadinha Universidade Federal do Maranhão Chapadinha, MA, 65500-000, Brazil  lucasolivier070@gmail.com  <a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1448-0645">http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1448-0645</a>
Author	FamilyName Particle Given Name Suffix Division Organization Address Division Organization Address Phone Fax Email URL ORCID	<b>Bragança</b> de <b>Pedro Henrique Negreiros</b>  Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e Conservação Universidade Federal do Maranhão São Luís, MA, 65085-580, Brazil Freshwater Taxonomy Group South African Institute for Aquatic Biodiversity Makhanda, 6140, Eastern Cape, South Africa  pedrobra88@gmail.com  <a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8357-7010">http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8357-7010</a>
Author	FamilyName Particle Given Name Suffix Division Organization Address Phone Fax Email URL ORCID	<b>Guimarães</b>  <b>Erick Cristofore</b>  Programa de Pós-Graduação em Sociedade, Natureza e Desenvolvimento, Instituto de Ciências da Educação, Universidade Federal do Oeste Do Pará Santarém, PA, 68040-070, Brazil  erick.ictio@yahoo.com.br  <a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0003-4480-5452">http://orcid.org/0000-0003-4480-5452</a>
Author	FamilyName Particle Given Name Suffix Division Organization Address Phone Fax Email URL ORCID	<b>Katz</b>  <b>Axel Makay</b>  Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e Biologia Evolutiva, Instituto de Biologia Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro Rio de Janeiro, RJ, 21941-617, Brazil  axelmk@gmail.com  <a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2933-7163">http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2933-7163</a>

Author	FamilyName Particle Given Name Suffix Division Organization Address Phone Fax Email URL ORCID	<b>Henschel</b>  <b>Elisabeth</b>  Programa de Pós-Graduação em Genética, Instituto de Biologia Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro Rio de Janeiro, RJ, 21941-617, Brazil  elisabeth.henschel@hotmail.com  <a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5507-7396">http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5507-7396</a>
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Author	FamilyName Particle Given Name Suffix Division Organization Address Phone Fax Email URL ORCID	<b>Brito</b> de <b>Pâmella Silva</b>  Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Ambientais Universidade Federal do Maranhão BR 222, km4, Boa Vista, Chapadinha, MA, 65500-000, Brazil  pamellabrito@hotmail.com  <a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3945-4512">http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3945-4512</a>
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Author	FamilyName Particle Given Name Suffix Division Organization Address Phone Fax Email URL ORCID	<b>South</b>  <b>Josie</b>  School of Biology, Faculty of Biological Sciences University of Leeds Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK  josiesouth93@gmail.com  <a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6339-4225">http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6339-4225</a>
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**Abstract** The identification of fish species by non-specialists is a constant challenge for biodiversity management. In this regard, Robillard et al. developed a machine learning computer vision model to identify Amazonian fish at the genus level, with an accuracy of 97.9%. Their model aimed to make it easier for non-specialists to identify fish, allowing them to contribute to the collection and sharing of data for biodiversity management. However, when tested with a different set of fish pictures, the Classifier was unable to accurately identify fish photographs, resulting in 82% misidentification, and did not outperform what would be expected by chance, indicating that it is not suitable for the accurate identification of taxa in its current form. The results underscore the need for a balanced approach, combining automated tools with expert taxonomic input for accurate conservation decisions, emphasizing caution in relying solely on Artificial Intelligence methods. While acknowledging the potential of the model, we recommend restricting its application primarily to larger fish of commercial interest or scenarios where conservation decisions are less directly affected by the model's identifications.

Keywords (separated by '-')

Amazon River basin - Automated classification - Convolutional neural networks - Neotropical ichthyology - Taxonomy

Footnote Information



## 2 Well-intentioned initiatives hinder understanding 3 biodiversity conservation: an essay on a recent 4 deep-learning image classifier for Amazonian fishes

5 Diego Sousa Campos<sup>1</sup> · Rafael Ferreira de Oliveira<sup>1</sup> · Lucas de Oliveira Vieira<sup>1</sup> ·  
6 Pedro Henrique Negreiros de Bragança<sup>1</sup> · Erick Cristofore Guimarães<sup>1</sup> · Axel Makay Katz<sup>1</sup> ·  
7 Elisabeth Henschel<sup>1</sup> · Pâmella Silva de Brito<sup>1</sup> · Josie South<sup>1</sup> · Felipe Polivanov Ottoni<sup>1</sup>

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A1 D. S. Campos · L. de Oliveira Vieira · F. P. Ottoni (✉)  
A2 Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e  
A3 Biotecnologia da Amazônia Legal – Rede BIONORTE,  
A4 Universidade Federal do Maranhão, São Luís,  
A5 MA 65085-580, Brazil  
A6 e-mail: fpottoni@gmail.com

P. H. N. de Bragança A23  
Freshwater Taxonomy Group, South African Institute A24  
for Aquatic Biodiversity, Makhanda 6140, Eastern Cape, A25  
South Africa A26

E. C. Guimarães A27

A8 D. S. Campos  
e-mail: camposds1@yahoo.com.br

Programa de Pós-Graduação em Sociedade, Natureza e A28  
Desenvolvimento, Instituto de Ciências da Educação, A29  
Universidade Federal do Oeste Do Pará, Santarém, A30  
e-mail: erick.ictio@yahoo.com.br A32

A9 L. de Oliveira Vieira  
A10 e-mail: lucasoliviero70@gmail.com

A11 D. S. Campos · R. F. de Oliveira · L. de Oliveira Vieira ·  
A12 F. P. Ottoni  
A13 Laboratório de Sistemática E Ecologia de Organismos  
A14 Aquáticos, Centro de Ciências de Chapadinha,  
A15 Universidade Federal do Maranhão, Chapadinha,  
A16 MA 65500-000, Brazil  
A17 e-mail: raphaelmais12@gmail.com

A. M. Katz A33  
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e Biologia A34  
Evolutiva, Instituto de Biologia, Universidade Federal A35  
do Rio de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro, RJ 21941-617, Brazil A36  
e-mail: axelmk@gmail.com A37

A18 R. F. de Oliveira · P. H. N. de Bragança · F. P. Ottoni  
A19 Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biodiversidade e  
A20 Conservação, Universidade Federal do Maranhão,  
A21 São Luís, MA 65085-580, Brazil  
A22 e-mail: pedrobra88@gmail.com

E. Henschel A38  
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Genética, Instituto A39  
de Biologia, Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, A40  
Rio de Janeiro, RJ 21941-617, Brazil A41  
e-mail: elisabeth.henschel@hotmail.com A42

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28 Artificial Intelligence methods. While acknowledging  
 29 the potential of the model, we recommend restricting  
 30 its application primarily to larger fish of commercial  
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 AQ 1 less directly affected by the model's identifications.

33 **Keywords** Amazon River basin · Automated  
 34 classification · Convolutional neural networks ·  
 35 Neotropical ichthyology · Taxonomy

## 36 Introduction

37 Performing accurate taxonomical assessments of  
 38 freshwater fish biodiversity is a persistent challenge  
 39 for conservation scientists and practitioners alike,  
 40 especially in megadiverse regions such as the Ama-  
 41 zon Basin (Olden et al. 2010; Silvano et al. 2022).  
 42 Identification relies on traditional methods of col-  
 43 lecting and identifying freshwater fish (i.e., regional  
 44 inventories), which tend to be time-consuming and  
 45 expensive and require high levels of training (Robil-  
 46 lard et al. 2023). Molecular methods, such as DNA-  
 47 barcoding and eDNA, have increased knowledge  
 48 and allowed rapid species inventories, however, both  
 49 methods rely on the availability of voucher-based ref-  
 50 erence libraries including accurately identified spe-  
 51 cies (Zainal-Abidin et al. 2022). Additionally, these  
 52 methods require technology and sample processing  
 53 infrastructure, which are deficient in many institu-  
 54 tions in the global south, especially in many Amazo-  
 55 nian institutions (Robillard et al. 2023). Further, but  
 56 not less important, is the little participation of non-  
 57 specialists, such as fishermen, the general population,  
 58 and citizen scientists in the role of documenting bio-  
 59 diversity. Enabling these agents to participate in col-  
 60 lecting and sharing data would increase the likelihood  
 61 of creating policies and managing decision-making

(e.g., conservation measures) that better represent the  
 stakeholders (Robillard et al. 2023).

In a recent publication, Robillard et al. (2023)  
 present computer vision models designed for Ama-  
 zonian fish identification based solely on photo-  
 graphs. These machine learning models, utilizing  
 U-Net for image segmentation and a convolutional  
 neural network (CNN) for classification at the genus  
 level, offer a practical and reliable alternative for  
 simplifying fish identification. The authors advocate  
 for a cost-effective and efficient approach to species  
 assessments, eliminating the need for specialist vali-  
 dation or expensive molecular barcode techniques.  
 The models aim to seamlessly integrate data from  
 non-specialists, addressing current barriers in fish  
 identification. In their methodology, the authors uti-  
 lized a database of 3068 photographs representing 33  
 fish genera from 18 families and 4 orders, collected  
 in Loreto, Peru, between 2018 and 2019. Impres-  
 sively, the study achieved a genus-level identification  
 accuracy of 97.9%. Notably, misidentifications were  
 predominantly linked to small tetras (Characiformes:  
 Characidae), key components of the Amazonian ich-  
 thyofauna (Oliveira et al. 2009; Van Der Sleen and  
 Albert 2018).

The authors assert that their openly accessible  
 online application, the Fish Masker and Classi-  
 fier (available at [https://amazonian-fish-classifier.  
 streamlit.app](https://amazonian-fish-classifier.streamlit.app)-permalink: <https://archive.ph/OYq5a>),  
 serves as a valuable tool for non-specialists in achiev-  
 ing genus-level identification. The application allows  
 users to upload pictures of live or preserved speci-  
 mens under various conditions. According to the  
 authors, the application recognizes fish pixels in the  
 image, masks non-fish elements, and provides a taxo-  
 nomic identification at the order, family, and genus  
 levels based on their trained model. However, it is  
 crucial to note that the performance of this machine-  
 learning method for genus-level identification has not

undergone further validation through additional tests. AQ 2

The focus on real-world applicability and the  
 potential implications of this type of approach con-  
 tribute to the ongoing discourse on the application  
 of artificial intelligence in biodiversity research,  
 emphasizing the crucial intersection of technologi-  
 cal innovation and traditional taxonomic expertise in  
 conservation decision-making (Campos et al. 2023).  
 Therefore, this study aims to assess and validate the  
 performance of the method proposed by Robillard

A43 P. S. de Brito · F. P. Ottoni  
 A44 Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Ambientais,  
 A45 Universidade Federal do Maranhão, BR 222, km 4, Boa  
 A46 Vista, Chapadinha, MA 65500-000, Brazil  
 A47 e-mail: pamellabrito@hotmail.com

A48 J. South  
 A49 School of Biology, Faculty of Biological Sciences,  
 A50 University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK  
 A51 e-mail: josiesouth93@gmail.com

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111 et al. (2023) as an example of an innovative tool for  
 112 fish identification. By employing a comprehensive  
 113 approach, we seek to make a substantial contribu-  
 114 tion to the field, addressing the inherent challenges  
 115 of fish identification, particularly concerning biodi-  
 116 versity management in tropical ecosystems. We aim  
 117 to provide novel insights and discuss critical aspects  
 118 of the taxonomic accuracy of the model. This study  
 119 is positioned to offer valuable perspectives for both  
 120 scientists and practitioners engaged in environmental  
 121 conservation, emphasizing the relevance of accurate  
 122 fish identification in the context of megadiverse tropi-  
 123 cal ecosystems, such as the Amazon region.

## 124 Methods

125 Evaluating the training dataset for the ‘Amazonian  
 126 Fish Masker and Classifier’

127 To assess the quality of the “Images used to train  
 128 Amazonian fish classification model” (Dikow 2023)  
 129 used in Robillard et al. (2023), we analyzed the origi-  
 130 nal masked images provided. We created a custom  
 131 macro function within ImageJ software (Schneider  
 132 et al. 2012) for precise pixel counting. The masked  
 133 images were converted to 8-bit format, to standardize  
 134 the pixel values to a range between 0 and 255, where  
 135 0=black color. A threshold was applied, and any pixel  
 136 with a value = zero was filtered, leaving only pixels  
 137 with color information. Finally, we performed a parti-  
 138 cle analysis, counting the number of pixel aggregates  
 139 in the images (code is available in Supplementary file  
 140 S1). Following the pixel counting, ImageJ generated  
 141 two distinct sheets as a result: one presenting values  
 142 in a row for each particle – available in Supplemen-  
 143 tary file S2.1, and a second sheet with condensed val-  
 144 ues summarized by each analyzed picture (n = 3068  
 Q 3 images) - in Supplementary file S2.2.

146 Testing the ‘Fish Masker and Classifier’ tool

147 To test the model provided by Robillard et al. (2023),  
 148 we used 100 photographs representing 21 genera,  
 149 which were also included in their model training,  
 150 with specimens from river basins under Amazonian  
 151 influence (Guamá, Gurupi, Turiapu, Mearim, Munim,  
 152 Preguiças, and Parnaíba river basins), as well as from  
 153 the Beni and Mamoré river drainages, in the Amazon

River basin. The photographed specimens and their  
 corresponding vouchers are deposited in the following  
 ichthyological collections: CICCAA (Coleção Icti-  
 ológica do Centro de Ciências Agrárias e Ambientais  
 - Universidade Federal do Maranhão, Chapadinha,  
 Brazil) and UMSS (Museo d’Orbigny - Universidad  
 Mayor de San Simón, Cochabamba, Bolivia). The  
 photographic database includes photographs taken  
 under different conditions, such as color-in-life pic-  
 tures taken in a photo tank and outside a tank (e.g., in  
 the hand), pictures of preserved fish over a manually  
 masked black background, and a white background.  
 (Table 1 in Supplementary file S3). Photographs of  
*Bujurquina* spp. from the Mamoré and Beni rivers  
 were obtained from Careaga et al. (2023), permitted  
 by the authors.

The images were submitted to the web application  
 ‘Fish Masker and Classifier’, a product developed by  
 Robillard et al. (2023) (Fish Masker and Classifier-  
 available at [https://amazonian-fish-classifier.strea-  
 mlit.app](https://amazonian-fish-classifier.streamlit.app)). After uploading, the application utilizes the  
 masker model to determine the percentage of pixels  
 classified as *fish* and to mask out the remaining pix-  
 els, rendered in black. Subsequently, we gathered this  
 value (henceforth referred to as ‘fish\_pixels’ in the  
 text) and preserved both the masked image and the  
 classifier model-generated prediction bar graph.

Since the graph lacks printed values for individual  
 bars, we utilized the Plot Digitizer tool (accessible at  
<https://plotdigitizer.com/app>) to digitize the charts.  
 The scale was set from 0 to 100 probability, and  
 points on the periphery of the bars in the graph were  
 digitized.

The resulting graph presents four possible genera,  
 each representing the probable genus of the photo-  
 graphed specimen, along with the corresponding  
 probability of matching the classifier-based iden-  
 tification-in simpler terms, it provides a list of gen-  
 era that the picture is most likely to represent. These  
 probabilities are organized in descending order, with  
 the top-ranked option referred to as the ‘first option’  
 and denoted as ‘Class\_1’ in our dataset, and so forth  
 for the subsequent options. While the sum of the four  
 probabilities may not necessarily equal 100; however,  
 it will never exceed this value. Therefore, the proba-  
 bilities of the four identifications are considered vari-  
 ables with some degree of interdependence.

The dataset with the results of the simulation con-  
 sisted of the labels of our pictures uploaded to the

**Table 1** Results of the simulation with fish pictures in the Fish Masker and Classifier application

Genera suggestion	Count of suggestions	%	Cumulative %	Accuracy
<i>Gymnotus</i>	43	11,14	11,14	100%
<i>Ancistrus</i>	36	9,33	20,47	75%
<i>Bunocephalus</i>	28	7,25	27,72	–
<i>Rineloricaria</i>	27	6,99	34,72	–
<i>Moenkhausia</i>	24	6,22	40,93	40%
<i>Otocinclus</i>	23	5,96	46,89	–
<i>Tetragonopterus</i>	17	4,40	51,30	–
<i>Bryconops</i>	16	4,15	55,44	14%
<i>Prochilodus</i>	16	4,15	59,59	40%
<i>Hyphessobrycon</i>	14	3,63	63,21	40%
<i>Corydoras</i>	13	3,37	66,58	–
<i>Erythrinus</i>	13	3,37	69,95	–
<i>Tatia</i>	13	3,37	73,32	–
<i>Astyanax</i>	10	2,59	75,91	–
<i>Phenacogaster</i>	10	2,59	78,50	–
<i>Bujurquina</i>	9	2,33	80,83	–
<i>Doras</i>	9	2,33	83,16	–
<i>Pygocentrus</i>	9	2,33	85,49	–
<i>Characidium</i>	8	2,07	87,56	38%
<i>Copella</i>	8	2,07	89,64	–
<i>Hemigrammus</i>	6	1,55	91,19	25%
<i>Oxyropsis</i>	5	1,30	92,49	–
<i>Pimelodella</i>	5	1,30	93,78	–
<i>Sorubim</i>	5	1,30	95,08	–
<i>Bario</i>	4	1,04	96,11	–
<i>Pyrrhulina</i>	4	1,04	97,15	–
<i>Charax</i>	3	0,78	97,93	–
<i>Apistogramma</i>	2	0,52	98,45	–
<i>Curimata</i>	2	0,52	98,96	–
<i>Gasteropelecus</i>	2	0,52	99,48	–
<i>Knodus</i>	1	0,26	99,74	–
<i>Tytocharax</i>	1	0,26	100,00	–

The genera in the first column are those suggested by the model for all options ('Class\_1', 'Class\_2', 'Class\_3', and 'Class\_4'). The percentage is calculated by counting against the total of genera (32). Accuracy is the percentage of correct classifications for each genus. Empty cells in the accuracy column are zeros

also the classification status, where we verified if the identification was correct and, in the case of error,

three different categories ('Order', 'Family', and 'Genus') were assigned to indicate at which taxonomical level the error was identified (Supplementary file

S4).

### 2.2.1 The black-screen test

The amount of information available to the Classifier model in the learning phase is expected to influence the outcome of the classification. Therefore, to evaluate the response of the Classifier under controlled conditions, we performed the 'black-screen test', which consisted of uploading the image of an all-black color (RGB = 0,0,0) rectangle to the web

application and running the fish masker and classifier, collecting the outputs.

### Data analysis

To determine whether the Classifier was able to correctly identify the genus (that is, 'Class\_1\_prob'), we used a beta regression, via the 'betareg' R package (Cribari-Neto and Zeileis 2010), whereupon 'Class\_1\_prob' was the independent variable and 'fish\_pixels' as the predictor variable. This allows us to assess how variations in pixel composition relate to the probability of correct genus identification. We created a concordance matrix that compares the genus of the specimen depicted in each photo (previously identified by specialists) with the genus suggested by the Classifier as the primary possibility, referred to as 'Class\_1'. To evaluate the agreement in identifying fish genera using the classification model from the Robillard et al. (2023) web application, we calculated Fleiss' Kappa (Fleiss 1971). The analysis

was carried out in R, using version 0.84.1. of the 'irr' package (Gamer et al. 2019).

The datasets for the quality assessment of the training images (Supplementary file S2) and from the classification simulation (Supplementary file S4) were analyzed in Tableau Desktop Professional 2023.2 (under Freemium Student License), to calculate the descriptive statistics and generate the plots for the masked area (%) and distribution of classification



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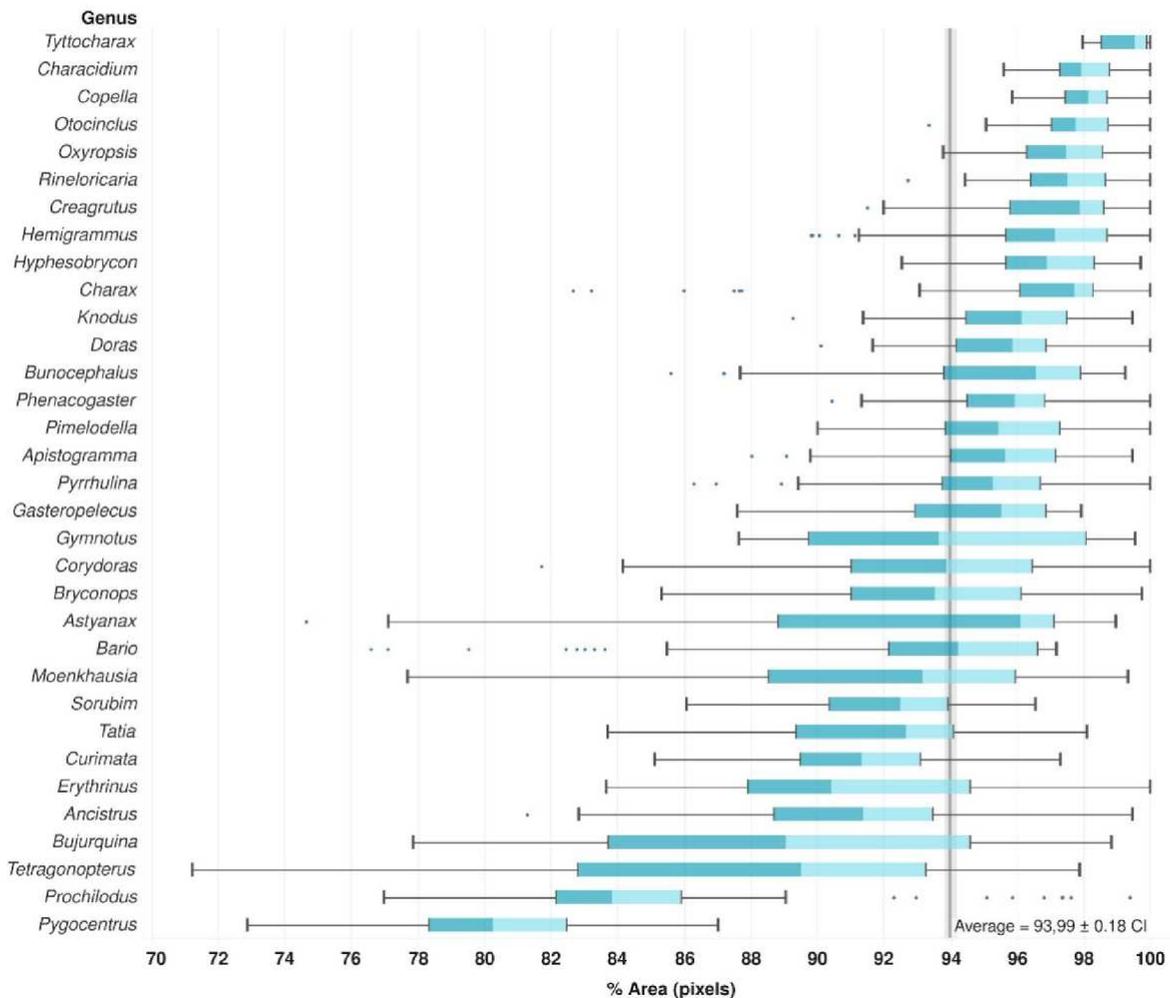
**Results**

Quality of training dataset

The distribution of masked area percentage values in the input images of the training dataset displayed a large amount of variation concerning image quality (Dikow 2023). We believe that this discrepancy may have directly influenced the outcome in identifications by their model. The overall average of the masked area for all pictures in the “Images used

to train Amazonian fish classification model” dataset (Dikow 2023) was 93.99% (Fig. 1). For certain genera (22 of 33), specific averages surpassed the overall average, which can be interpreted as a signal that the majority of the training was done with a relatively low amount of information (Fig. 1). In particular, *Tytocharax* Fowler 1913, was the genus with the most masked area average, reaching 99.7% which means that almost the entire pictures for this genus in the training for the Classifier were composed of black pixels (non-fish).

**Percentage of masked area - Training dataset of Robillard et al. (2023)**



**Fig. 1** Percentage of masked area values for 33 fish genera used as training dataset for the ‘Amazon fish masker and classifier’ model developed in Robillard et al. (2023). Genera names are sorted by average in ascending order. CI = Confidence interval 95%

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## 269 Simulated identification

270 Using fish photographs from our dataset (n = 100)  
 271 with representatives of 21 genera, we tested the  
 272 accuracy of the Classifier. Considering all four sug-  
 273 gested genus identifications ('Class\_1', 'Class\_2',  
 274 'Class\_3', and 'Class\_4'), The assigned probability  
 275 values are higher for the first option, but this pattern  
 276 does not differ when we look at whether the model  
 277 got the identification right or wrong. Thus, there was  
 278 no difference in the deviations that would justify stat-  
 279 ing that the Classifier was more convinced in each of  
 280 these situations (Table 2 in Supplementary file S3).

281 The Classifier suggested a total of 32 different gen-  
 282 era for our images. This is a 60% increase in estima-  
 283 tion, compared to the actual number of genera (n =  
 284 21) present in our database. When considering all the  
 285 outputs given in the four possible genera suggested  
 286 by the Classifier, *Gymnotus* Linnaeus 1758, *Ancis-*  
 287 *trus* Kner 1854, *Bunocephalus* Kner 1855, *Rinelori-*  
 288 *caria* Bleeker 1862, *Moenkhausia* Eigenmann 1903,  
 289 *Otocinclus* Cope 1871, and *Tetragonopterus* Cuvier,  
 290 1816, were the most frequently mentioned, totaling  
 291 198 occurrences, which accumulated 51,30% of all  
 292 identifications in our sample (Table 1).

293 For the 'black screen test' the classifier reported  
 294 that 0.0% of the pixels were 'fish', as expected. How-  
 295 ever, the application still provided classifications,  
 296 despite reporting that there was no fish in the image,  
 297 assigning probabilities to several genera: *Tytocharax*  
 298 (39.36%), *Characidium* Reinhardt 1867 (13.74%),  
 299 *Otocinclus* (9.10%), and *Hemigrammus* Gill 1858  
 300 (7.28%).

301 To assess the correctness of the identifications by  
 302 the Classifier, we only considered the genera sug-  
 303 gested in 'Class\_1'. The Classifier was able to cor-  
 304 rectly identify the fishes in our pictures at the genus  
 305 level in only 18 of 100 photographs throughout our  
 306 dataset (Supplementary file S4). For our sample of  
 307 photos submitted to the Classifier, only eight out of  
 308 21 genera were correctly identified. The highest accu-  
 309 racy was observed for the genera *Gymnotus* (100%, n  
 310 = 4) and *Ancistrus* (75%, n = 3) (Table 1).

311 Taking into account only the incorrect identifi-  
 312 cations (n = 82), we segmented the errors by type,  
 313 order, family, or genus, always the most extensive.  
 314 There was an inaccuracy of 65.85% (n = 54) at the  
 315 order level (Fig. 2a). In 19.51% (n = 16) of the

316 cases, the order was correctly classified, but there  
 317 was an error at family-level identification (Fig 2.b).  
 318 The model was unable to correctly classify at the  
 319 genus level, although it correctly determined the  
 320 order and family of the photographed specimens in  
 321 14.63% (n = 12) of the cases (Fig. 2c).

322 The beta regression of the relation between the  
 323 'Class\_1\_prob' variable using the 'fish\_pixels' as  
 324 predictor showed an estimated intercept is approxi-  
 325 mately 0.791, with a standard error of 0.161. The  
 326 coefficient for 'fish\_pixels' = - 0.1897 was not sta-  
 327 tistically significant (p = 0.897), and the pseudo-  
 328 r<sup>2</sup> = 1,517\*10<sup>-4</sup> indicates that the model has a very  
 329 low power to explain much of the variance in the  
 330 response variable 'Class\_1\_prob'. Also, the calcu-  
 331 lated Fleiss' Kappa coefficient was 0.0126 (20  
 332 subjects, 20 raters), indicating a very weak level  
 333 of agreement among the raters. With an associated  
 334 z-value of 1.03 and the corresponding p-value of  
 335 0.304, the agreement was not significantly different  
 336 from what would be expected by chance.

## 337 Discussion

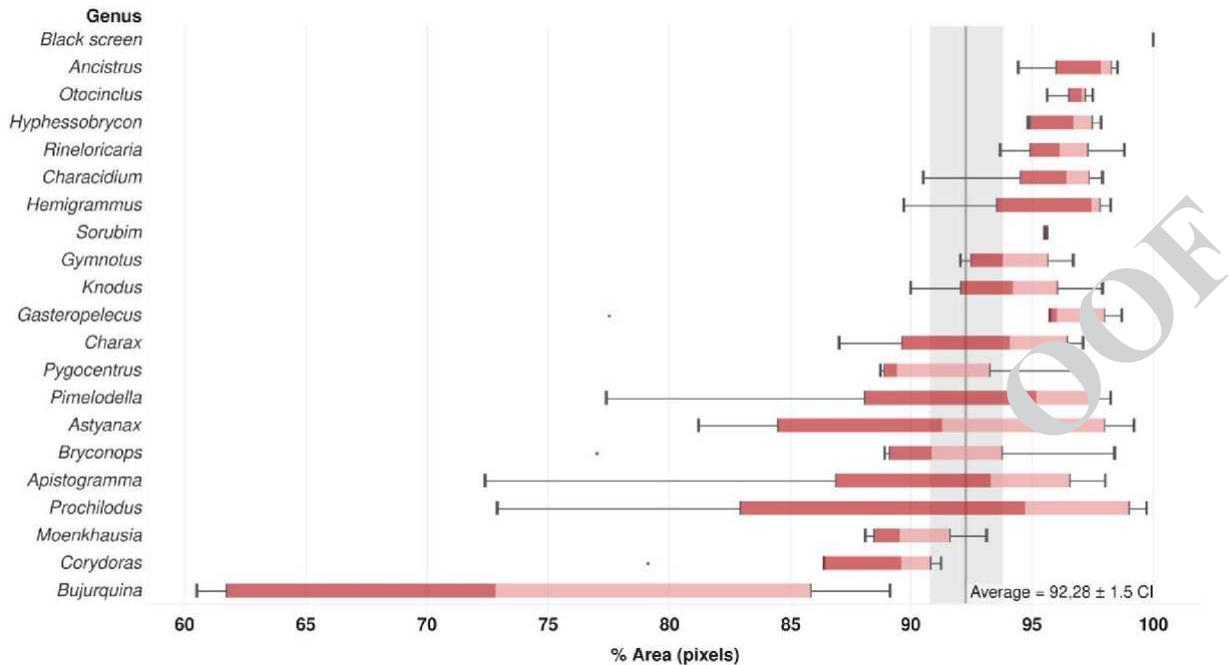
### 338 Quality of training dataset

339 The quality of the images used to train the Classi-  
 340 fier model in Robillard et al. (2023) differs notice-  
 341 ably among the genera. The masker model, which  
 342 extracts pixels related to the body area of the fish  
 343 from the uploaded images, yields highly disparate  
 344 results for the different genera of fish analyzed. This  
 345 variation can be associated with factors such as the  
 346 size of the fish in the photograph, light, and color  
 347 intensity. In some cases, the model even completely  
 348 removes most of the fish body, thus reducing the  
 349 available 'fish\_pixels'.

350 The amount of information used by the Classi-  
 351 fier during the learning phase was little expressive  
 352 in proportion since it learned from pictures with an  
 353 average of only 6,01% of 'fish pixels', and for some  
 354 genera, this value was even lower, less than 5%  
 355 (values in Table 3, Supplementary file S2.3). This  
 356 potentially hindered the model's ability to identify  
 357 photographs of these genera with few pixels used to  
 358 train the classification database.

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## Percentage of masked - Simulation dataset



**Fig. 2** Percentage of masked area values for 21 fish genera used in simulation in this essay to test the ‘Amazon fish masker and classifier’ model developed in Robillard et al. (2023). Gen-

era names are sorted by average in ascending order. CI = Confidence interval 95%

### 359 Classifier limitations

360 Although Robillard et al. (2023) recognized that  
 361 applying the model to images from geographic areas  
 362 outside the northwest Amazon has not yet been  
 363 explored, their model was trained and validated with  
 364 photos of live specimens with varying color patterns  
 365 and pictures of preserved material from verified col-  
 366 lections. Thus, there was some degree of pheno-  
 367 typic variation incorporated into the development of  
 368 machine learning from inception. Therefore, it would  
 369 be expected that the Classifier would perform well for  
 370 the same genera used to train the model, given that  
 371 the training database was composed of genera widely  
 372 distributed throughout the Amazon and adjacent  
 373 basins (Van Der Sleen and Albert 2018).

374 During our tests, we found cases where the masker  
 375 removed most of the fish body, leaving only part of  
 376 structures such as the pectoral, pelvic, and caudal  
 377 fins, as in the case of the suckermouth catfish genus  
 378 *Ancistrus*, where most of the structures were removed  
 379 (Table 1 in Supplementary file S3). We emphasize

that although the model does not consider the presence/absence of the structures that are used to identify taxa in morphological studies, such as odontodes or fleshy tentacles, the model was still able to properly identify some genera. On the other hand, there were also instances where the masker left the fish nearly intact, but misidentifications occurred, as seen in the cases of *Apistogramma* Regan 1913, *Astyanax* Baird and Girard 1854, and *Moenkhausia* (Table 1 in Supplementary file S3).

Indeed, for greater certainty in the identification provided by the model, it is necessary to correctly identify the elements that most directly affect the performance of the Classifier. Our hypothesis that only the number of pixels classified as fish could be a good predictor of the probability assigned by the Classifier overall is unsupported. However, the weak inverse relationship between the predictor variable ‘fish\_pixels’ and the response ‘*Class\_1\_prob*’ suggests that the Classifier performs better with images that contain less information (*i.e.* less confusion for the model to deal with).

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402 It would be expected that the application would  
 403 reject the image when it does not depict a fish  
 404 (0.0% fish pixels). However, the black screen test  
 405 revealed that the application, even in the absence  
 406 of pixels related to fish, still assigned a fish genus  
 407 identification.

#### 408 Accuracy

409 When considering misidentified individuals at the  
 410 genus level, most of the errors concern specimens of  
 411 the family Characidae, with the genus *Moenkhausia*  
 412 being the most often suggested as the likely identi-  
 413 fication (Fig. 2c). The elevated number of mentions  
 414 to *Moenkhausia* may be attributable to the nature of  
 415 the model training, since the Classifier developed  
 416 by Robillard et al. (2023) was trained on a substan-  
 417 tial *Moenkhausia* dataset, encompassing 398 pho-  
 418 tos including various morphotypes, characterized by  
 419 variations in morphological traits, such as scale size  
 420 and color patterns, among others (“Images used to  
 421 train Amazonian fish classification model” in Dikow  
 422 (2023)). This morphological plasticity within the  
 423 *Moenkhausia* genus may have broadened the toler-  
 424 ance of the model for classifying this genus, thus  
 425 affecting its predictive accuracy. Moreover, this genus  
 426 presents a challenging and unsettled taxonomy (non-  
 427 monophyletic) due to species exhibiting variable  
 428 morphology. The calculated Fleiss’ Kappa concord-  
 429 ance index reinforces the conclusion that the model’s  
 430 predictive capacity did not surpass what could be  
 431 anticipated by chance. These findings highlight the  
 432 difficulties associated with achieving a high level of  
 433 agreement in accurately identifying fish genera using  
 434 the current state of the proposed classification model.

435 Our findings notably contrast with those of Robil-  
 436 lard et al. (2023), as they reported only 12 misclas-  
 437 sifications out of 596 tested images, consisting of two  
 438 at the order level and seven at the family level. The  
 439 authors proposed enhancing accuracy by capturing  
 440 a series of photos until a suitable masker outcome  
 441 is achieved. However, the masker model frequently  
 442 omits crucial structures for genera discrimination,  
 443 especially in Characidae family, where training data-  
 444 set images often lack visible caudal, dorsal, pelvic, or  
 445 anal fins (Table 1 in Supplementary file S3). Despite  
 446 this, our simulation and the inherent nature of the  
 447 Classifier reveal its insensitivity to specific anatomical  
 448 structures.

Robillard et al. (2023) noted that their model had  
 prominent misidentifications particularly in tetras  
 (Characidae), a key family in the Amazonian ichthyofauna  
 (Oliveira et al. 2009; Van Der Sleen and Albert 2018).  
 This highlights that their approach struggles with one of  
 the most significant Amazonian fish groups. In contrast,  
 errors at order and family levels are rare in traditional  
 morphology-based ichthyofaunal inventories that may  
 eventually lead to misidentifications at species, subgenus,  
 and genus levels, especially for small and medium-sized  
 species like tetras (Characidae), catfishes (Siluriformes),  
 and cyprinodontiforms as these groups often exhibit  
 uncertain taxonomy or rely on diagnostic characters not  
 observable in field photographs or images of entire fixed  
 specimens. Hence, the proposed model falls short of  
 surpassing the efficiency of traditional taxonomy. Addi-  
 tionally, for optimal functionality, the model requires  
 an extensive dataset encompassing varied positions,  
 lighting, developmental stages, and colorations, live  
 or preserved, from the majority of species in a given  
 region.

#### Recommendations

Contrary to the expectation that a higher quantity  
 of information available in the pictures could lead to  
 increased Classifier accuracy, the disagreement between  
 the identifications by specialists and the classification  
 provided was insufficient, and the beta regression  
 results did not demonstrate a significant relationship  
 between the variable ‘fish\_pixels’ and the probability  
 associated with the genus suggested by the Classifier.  
 These findings write down the necessity for further  
 investigation and consideration of other variables  
 that may influence the classification outcomes.

The current application lacks a criterion for rejecting  
 images, assigning genus-level identifications regard-  
 less of whether the image depicts a fish. Implementing  
 a simple adjustment to address this limitation is  
 crucial for the effectiveness of approaches like the  
 ‘Amazonian Fish Classifier’ for accurate fish identifi-  
 cation. Caution is warranted when considering the  
 use of Robillard et al. (2023) and similar automated  
 AI image identification applications, particularly given  
 the limitations within the highly diverse South  
 American region. Many freshwater fish groups in  
 South America,

especially in the Amazon, have incomplete taxonomy, with numerous undescribed species and genera (Reis et al. 2016; Birindelli and Sidlauskas 2018; Van Der Sleen and Albert 2018).

Molecular studies expose cryptic or undescribed species, taxonomic uncertainties, novel arrangements, and proposals for genera, highlighting the unresolved nature of freshwater fish taxonomy (e.g., Benzaquem et al. 2015; Melo et al. 2016a; Melo et al. 2016b; Carvalho et al. 2018; Jacobina et al. 2018; García-Melo et al. 2019; Terán et al. 2020; Pires et al. 2021; Brito et al. 2021; Aguiar et al. 2022; Crispim-Rodrigues et al. 2023; Řičan and Řičanová, 2023). The application by Robillard et al. (2023) is ill-equipped to handle such scenarios, potentially causing confusion within the scientific community and among stakeholders due to its tendency to provide identifications for all images, including those of problematic or undescribed taxa.

It is important to emphasize that recent studies, in addition to the classic morphological examination of specimens, have increasingly incorporated molecular approaches in taxonomic descriptions—specifically, Integrative Taxonomy. This approach aims to validate diagnostic characters or reinforce hypotheses related to the existence of new taxa, especially in groups where morphological differences are not readily apparent or where diagnostic structures are small or variable (e.g., Guimarães et al. 2018; Brito et al. 2019; Guimarães et al. 2019, 2020; Santana et al. 2019; Mattox et al. 2020, 2023; Faria et al. 2021; Reia et al. 2021; Aguiar et al. 2022; Crispim-Rodrigues et al. 2023; Řičan and Řičanová, 2023; Souza et al. 2023).

In these cases, molecular data and methods serve as crucial tools for identifying species and genera, especially when taxonomy is challenging, difficult, or involves cryptic species. The identification model proposed by Robillard et al. (2023) may not accurately classify in such instances. Therefore, despite the considerable cost, discouraging the use of molecular tools for taxonomic identification is unwarranted.

As several fish genera possess diagnostic characteristics, such as delicate structures, internal features, intricate color patterns, osteological structures, gonopodial structures, tooth morphology, and subtle color patterns, some cases require additional molecular tools to resolve their taxonomy. The model by Robillard et al. (2023), relying solely on

pixel patterns, does not consider these characters, diminishing its effectiveness in taxa identification.

#### Conservation concerns

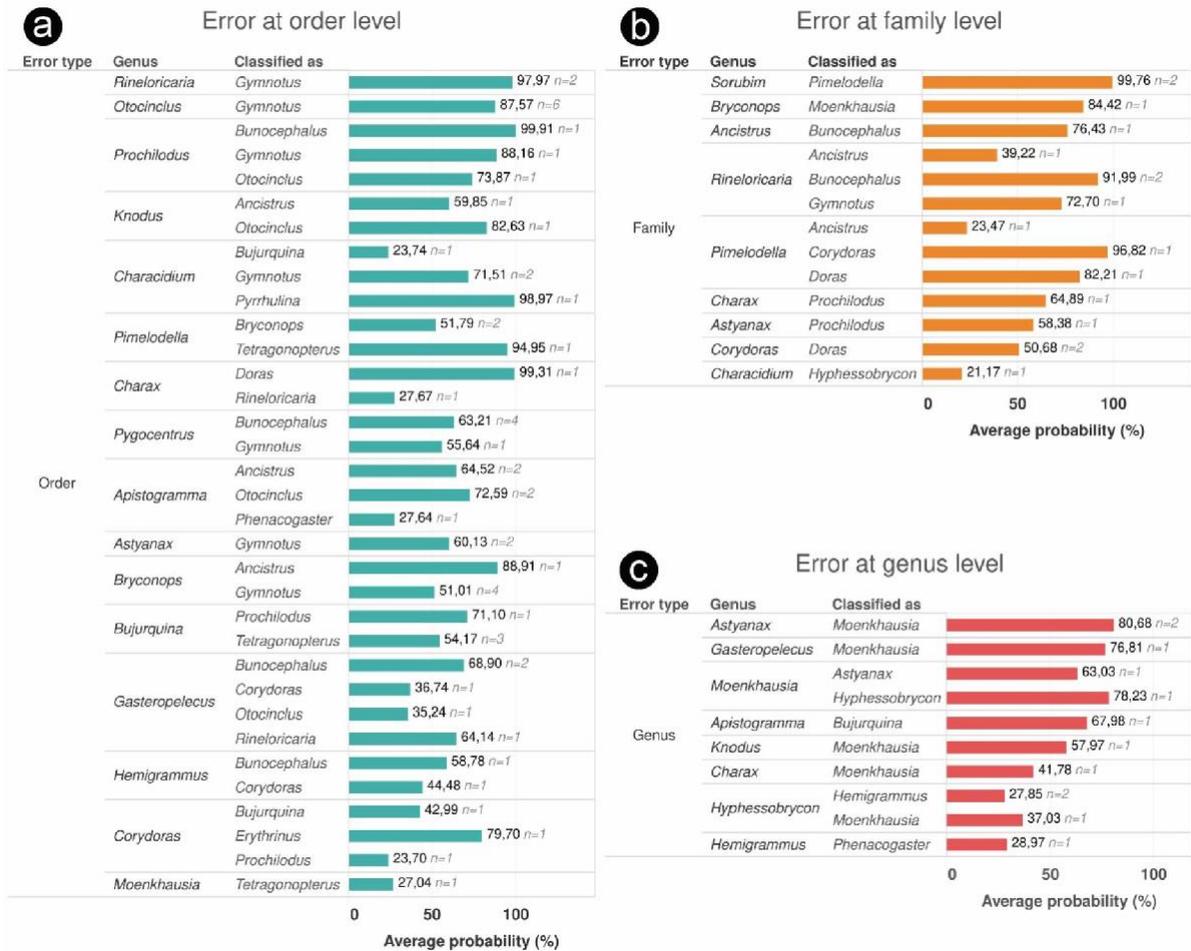
Our primary concern with this approach is focused on the assertion that any citizen can contribute information on species identification and distribution for conservation policies and measures through this application. The scientific community should exercise caution regarding the potential misuse of such applications by non-scientists and stakeholders. For instance, it is reasonable to speculate that the photographs used to train identification models, as tested in this essay, were initially identified by specialists (taxonomists) in institutions A or B. Common sense suggests that the resulting identifications may be perceived as having the same accuracy and value as those provided by traditional taxonomy.

This can open a difficult precedent where the much-needed activity of taxonomists in the field and their identifications can be questioned because the taxa in such area were already identified by the use of an identification model that was fed by other researchers/taxonomists. Following that, wrong and ill-intentioned decisions can become more common with devastating impacts on biodiversity and conservation.

Due to the current inefficiency of the method, if broadly used without the aforementioned biases considered, it could lead to incorrect conservation decisions and impact assessments. For environmental decisions, we should always seek the input of biologists, especially taxonomists in the field or laboratory, to properly support identifications from applications. Such an approach alone is not desirable, especially for freshwater fishes that are under severe pressure from stressors (Dudgeon et al. 2006; Darwall et al. 2018; Harrison et al. 2018; Reid et al. 2019; Tickner et al. 2020; Albert et al. 2020; Ottoni et al. 2023).

At its current development stage, the tool would require several adjustments to the model parameters, so we recommend that its potential use should be limited to larger fish of commercial interest or when conservation implications are not directly affected by decisions based on the application identifications.

Identification errors by type - Simulation



**Fig. 3** Distribution of Identification Errors in the ‘Amazon Fish Masker and Classifier’ Model Developed in Robillard et al. (2023). **a:** the model incorrectly classified at the Order level; **b:** The model correctly identified the order but erred in

Family and Genus; **c:** the model only misclassified the genus. Bars represent the probability values associated with the genus suggested by the classifier. The *n* value corresponds to the occurrence count

591 **Conclusion**

592 The application of automated models based on con-  
 593 volutional neural networks (CNN) or similar archi-  
 594 tectures for fish classification through photograph  
 595 analysis holds promise. However, the success of  
 596 these models is contingent upon overcoming vari-  
 597 ous constraints dictated by the intended final appli-  
 598 cation, and it is crucial to acknowledge their current  
 599 limitations and the need for further refinement.

600 Upon evaluation in this study, the Robillard et  
 601 al. application displayed an unsatisfactory per-  
 602 formance, with low accuracy and an inability to

surpass the null hypothesis of random identifica- 603  
 tions. The low accuracy on identifications is not 604  
 beneficial and can bring more confusion to the sci- 605  
 entific community, as well as conservation stake- 606  
 holders. In addition, the potential misuse of such 607  
 applications by non-scientists and stakeholders 608  
 raises concerns about the reliability and validity of 609  
 the data, particularly in comparison to traditional 610  
 taxonomy conducted by specialists and identifica- 611  
 tions based on molecular libraries. The argument 612  
 that automated classifications possess equal accu- 613  
 racy and value as those by taxonomists opens a Pan- 614  
 dora’s box, challenging the credibility of taxonomic 615

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616 work and potentially paving the way for erroneous  
617 and ill-intentioned decisions with detrimental con-  
618 sequences for biodiversity and conservation.

619 Transitioning to the broader implications, the inte-  
620 gration of citizen-contributed information for conser-  
621 vation policies is desirable, however, a note of caution  
622 is sounded when considering the adoption of methods  
623 reliant on Artificial Intelligence, particularly given  
624 the potential for misuse by non-scientists and stake-  
625 holders. As we navigate the evolving landscape of  
626 technological advancements in biodiversity research, a  
627 balanced approach that integrates the strengths of  
628 both automated tools and expert taxonomic input is  
629 essential to ensure the accuracy and integrity of con-  
630 servation decisions and impact assessments. Collabora-  
631 tion between technological innovations and tradi-  
632 tional expertise becomes paramount in addressing the  
633 challenges posed by the dynamic and complex field  
634 of biodiversity conservation.

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643 editing. Rafael F. Oliveira: Conceptualization; Methodol-  
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646 rial; Writing—original draft and Writing—review and edit-  
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655 ifically assigned by other authors); and Writing—original draft.  
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657 nal draft and Writing—review and editing. Pâmella S. Brito:  
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659 assigned by other authors) and Writing—original draft. Josie  
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Data availability In adherence to transparency and repro- 677  
ducibility standards, we provide detailed information on the 678  
availability of data associated with this study. Repository 679  
Information: Supplementary file S1: ImageJ script used for 680  
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Summarized results of particle count analysis on images in 687  
the training dataset of Robillard et al. (2023), with each line 688  
containing values from all particles in a single image. Avail- 689  
able at: <https://figshare.com/s/0ec926218ce08ec3c4f0>; Sup- 690  
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fish genera identification simulation using the classifier devel- 698  
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[com/s/1fca41538c799e584604](https://figshare.com/s/1fca41538c799e584604). Figures and Tables Construc- 700  
tion: Fig. 1 was constructed based on data from Supplemen- 701  
tary files S2.1, S2.2, and S2.3; Fig. 2, Fig. 3, and Table 1 were 702  
elaborated using values from Supplementary file S4. Methods 703  
and Scripts: The ImageJ script used for image preparation 704  
and particle count analysis is provided in Supplementary file 705  
S1; Results of particle count analysis, simulations, and related 706  
data used in figure and table construction are detailed in Sup- 707  
plementary files S2, S3, and S4. Repository Utilization: All 708  
supplementary files have been deposited on figshare to ensure 709  
accessibility and facilitate reproducibility. 710

## Declarations 711

**Conflict of interest** The authors have no competing interests 712  
to declare that are relevant to the content of this article. 713

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