

1 **Who's better at spotting? A comparison between aerial photography and observer-**  
2 **based methods to monitor floating marine litter and marine mega-fauna.**

3 Odei Garcia-Garin<sup>1,\*</sup>, Alex Aguilar<sup>1</sup>, Asunción Borrell<sup>1</sup>, Patricia Gozalbes<sup>2</sup>, Agustín Lobo<sup>3</sup>,  
4 Jaime Penadés-Suay<sup>2</sup>, Juan A. Raga<sup>2</sup>, Ohiana Revuelta<sup>2</sup>, Maria Serrano<sup>1</sup> and Morgana  
5 Vighi<sup>1</sup>

6 <sup>1</sup>Department of Evolutionary Biology, Ecology and Environmental Sciences, and Institute  
7 of Biodiversity Research (IRBio). Faculty of Biology. University of Barcelona. 08028  
8 Barcelona. Spain. \*odei.garcia@ub.edu

9 <sup>2</sup>Cavanilles Institute of Biodiversity and Evolutionary Biology, Science Park, University  
10 of Valencia, PO Box 22085, 46071 Valencia, Spain.

11 <sup>3</sup>Instituto de Ciencias de la Tierra “Jaume Almera” (CSIC), Lluís Solé Sabarís s/n, 08028  
12 Barcelona, Spain.

13

14 **Abstract**

15 Pollution by marine litter is raising major concerns due to its potential impact on marine  
16 biodiversity and, above all, on endangered mega-fauna species, such as cetaceans and sea  
17 turtles. The density and distribution of marine litter and mega-fauna have been traditionally  
18 monitored through observer-based methods, yet the advent of new technologies has  
19 introduced aerial photography as an alternative monitoring method. However, to integrate  
20 results produced by different monitoring techniques and consider the photographic method  
21 a viable alternative, this ‘new’ methodology must be validated. This study aims to compare  
22 observations obtained from the concurrent application of observer-based and photographic  
23 methods during aerial surveys. To do so, a Partenavia P-68 aircraft equipped with an RGB  
24 sensor was used to monitor the waters off the Spanish Mediterranean coast along 12  
25 transects (941 km). Over 10000 images were collected and checked manually by a photo-

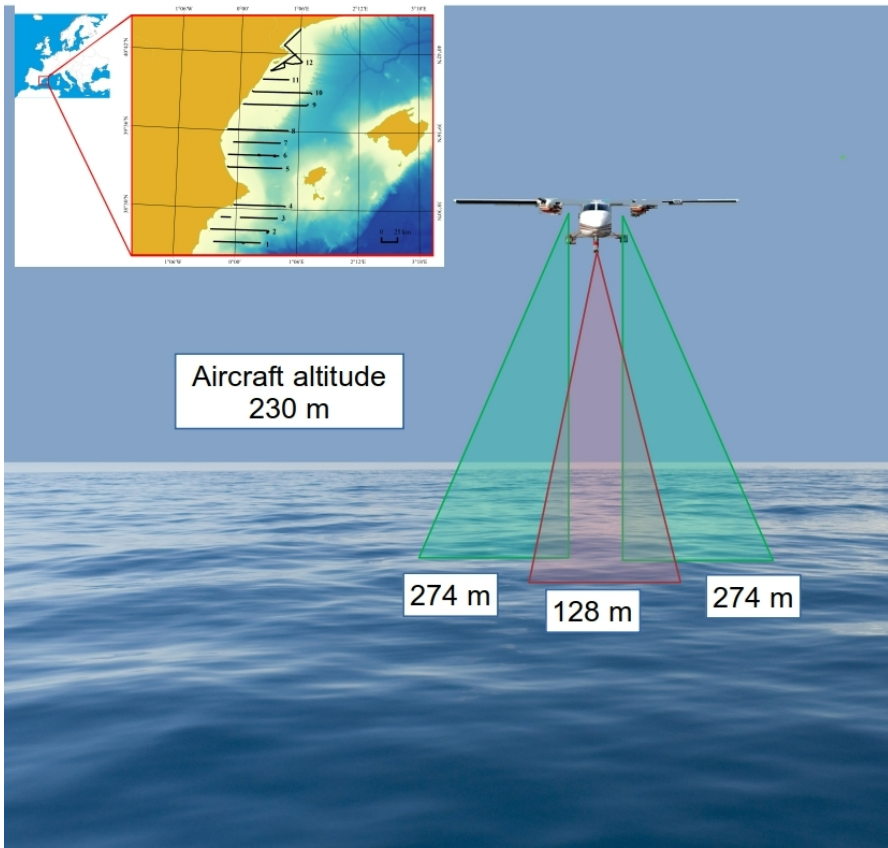
26 interpreter to detect potential targets, which were classified as floating marine macro-litter,  
27 mega-fauna and seabirds. The two methods allowed the detection of items from the three  
28 categories and proved equally effective for the detection of cetaceans, sea turtles and large  
29 fish on the sea surface. However, the photographic method was more effective for floating  
30 litter detection and the observer-based method was more effective for seabird detection.  
31 These results provide the first validation of the use of aerial photography to monitor  
32 floating litter and mega-fauna over the marine surface.

33

34 Keywords: remote sensing, aerial surveys, marine pollution, marine vertebrates, seabirds,  
35 Mediterranean Sea.

## **Highlights**

1. We compared results from concurrent visual and photographic aerial surveys.
2. The two methods are equally effective to detect cetaceans, sea turtles and large fish.
3. The photographic method proved more effective to detect floating marine macro-litter.
4. The visual method proved more effective to detect low densities of seabirds.
5. Results encourage using photographic methods to monitor marine litter and mega-fauna.



## Visual method



Items/Km<sup>2</sup>



0.40 ± 0.84\*



0.15 ± 0.33



0.40 ± 0.70\*

## Photographic method



Items/Km<sup>2</sup>



0.90 ± 1.77\*



0.26 ± 0.78



0.09 ± 0.31\*

\* Significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ , Wilcoxon's signed rank test)

## 36 **1. Introduction**

37 Floating marine macro-litter (FMML, *i.e.*, items larger than 2.5 cm in length, Galgani et  
38 al., 2013) can cause severe injuries to marine organisms; entanglement and/or accidental  
39 ingestion has been reported in various species of marine birds (*e.g.*, Van Franeker et al.,  
40 2011), cetaceans (*e.g.*, De Stephanis et al., 2013; Di-Méglio and Campana, 2017), turtles  
41 (*e.g.*, Camedda et al., 2014; Domènech et al., 2019) and fish (Boerger et al., 2010). Due to  
42 the ever-increasing pressure from marine litter, a number of regional, national, and  
43 international legislative regulations recommend an increase in monitoring efforts and the  
44 development of efficient and standardized methods to monitor FMML and its impacts on  
45 marine organisms. The systematic collection of data on the abundance, distribution and  
46 trends of FMML and mega-fauna would contribute to the identification of potential risk  
47 areas/seasons and to a better assessment of the magnitude of this threat.

48 FMML and marine fauna have been traditionally monitored through observer-based  
49 methods, either applied from marine platforms such as ferries and other kinds of vessels  
50 (*e.g.*, Arcangeli et al., 2017; Di-Méglio and Campana, 2017; Fortuna et al., 2007; Suaria  
51 and Aliani, 2014) or from manned aircraft. Observer-based aerial surveys have been  
52 extensively used in terrestrial environments and are widely used to monitor the abundance  
53 and distribution of FMML and mega-fauna in the sea (*e.g.*, Brooke et al., 2015; Gómez de  
54 Segura et al., 2007; Hodgson et al., 2013; Lecke-Mitchell and Mullin, 1997; Unger et al.,  
55 2014). However, the accuracy of the data obtained through observer-based methods may  
56 present some biases, mainly related to the experience and training of the observers (Colefax  
57 et al., 2017; McEvoy et al., 2016),

58 During the last decade, manned aircraft and unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) equipped  
59 with different types of cameras have been widely employed to monitor marine fauna  
60 worldwide, including seabirds (Büttger et al., 2015), sea turtles (Gordon et al., 2013),

61 harbour seals (Hoeschle et al., 2015), harbour porpoises (Williamson et al., 2016), dugongs  
62 (Hodgson et al., 2010), and several other cetacean species (Gibbs et al., 2019). In addition,  
63 infrared cameras, RGB video cameras and LIDAR installed in manned aircraft have  
64 allowed the detection and monitoring of, among other things, derelict nets in the Gulf of  
65 Alaska (Pichel et al., 2012), FMML within the “Great Pacific Garbage Patch” (Garaba et  
66 al., 2018; Gibbs et al., 2019; Lebreton et al., 2018), macro-litter on beaches (Nakashima et  
67 al., 2011) and oil spills (e.g., Bradford and Sanchez-Reyes, 2011; Leifer et al., 2012). In  
68 addition, satellite imagery will also represent a useful tool for monitoring the sea surface  
69 in the near future (Cubaynes et al., 2018; Topouzelis et al., 2019).

70 However, the areas covered by photographic surveys are generally smaller than those that  
71 could be covered by observer-based surveys performed using distance sampling methods  
72 (Buckland et al., 2001, Buckland et al., 2015), which have no limitations related to the  
73 storage space or battery charge duration of the recording systems. Moreover, despite the  
74 wide use of aerial photography for monitoring purposes and the great efforts to develop  
75 suitable algorithms for the analysis of the very large number of images obtained (Goddijn-  
76 Murphy et al., 2018; Kylili et al., 2019), the currently available algorithms for the  
77 automated detection and identification of FMML in aerial images are still far from perfect,  
78 and the analyses are still often performed manually.

79 However, despite the disadvantages presented above, the use of aerial photography  
80 provides major benefits over traditional observer-based surveys, including 1) an increase  
81 in accuracy, as the survey area can be precisely designated *a priori* or determined *a*  
82 *posteriori* from the images, and the exact size of the targets can be calculated when the  
83 image ground sampling distance (GSD) is known; 2) a reduction in human error, as the  
84 images provide a permanent record, which allows subsequent re-analysis by multiple  
85 photo-interpreters to check doubtful targets and to answer further scientific questions; and

86 3) a reduction in human safety risks and costs, because during photographic surveys, only  
87 the pilot and possibly a camera operator have to board the aircraft; the trained personnel  
88 time is reduced, and the processing time could be further reduced by applying automated  
89 algorithms (Thaxter and Burton, 2009).

90 For these reasons, aerial photography methods are likely to detect higher densities of  
91 FMML and mega-fauna and are increasingly used for monitoring programmes. However,  
92 as most of the available data and information included in the baseline studies have been  
93 collected through observer-based surveys; to allow the integration of data obtained through  
94 photographic methods into existing observer-based databases, it is essential to test whether  
95 the results obtained from these two methodologies are comparable.

96 The aim of this study was to compare the FMML and marine mega-fauna observations  
97 produced by concurrent observer-based and photographic aerial surveys to validate the use  
98 of aerial photography to monitor the marine surface. The results of such a validation would  
99 allow a step forward in the assessment of the long-term trends of the FMML distribution  
100 and its potential impacts on marine biodiversity.

## 101 **2. Materials and methods**

### 102 *2.1. Flight planning*

103 The concurrent observer-based and RGB photographic aerial surveys were performed from  
104 a high-wing aircraft (Partenavia P-68) equipped with bubble windows over the waters off  
105 the Mediterranean coast of Spain. The surveys took place in an area located between the  
106 Ebro River Delta and the province of Alicante, with depths ranging from 10 to 1300 m  
107 (Fig. 1). The flights were performed at a constant groundspeed of 90 knots (166 km h<sup>-1</sup>)  
108 and a constant altitude of 230 m (750 ft), which is the minimum flight altitude based on  
109 local legislation and allows the detection of objects larger than 30 cm (Gómez de Segura

110 et al., 2006; MEDSEALITTER consortium, 2019). A large number of seabird species (*e.g.*,  
111 the Balearic shearwater and the European storm petrel), when floating on the sea surface,  
112 are smaller than 30 cm, which is the smallest detectable size for the two methods in this  
113 study and could lead to an underestimation of relatively small birds. The surveys were  
114 conducted over 4 days in March 2018 along 12 transects. Three groups of transects (1:4,  
115 5:8, and 9:11), established during three full working days, were equidistant and  
116 perpendicular to the coast, while transect 12 was partially parallel to the coast to guarantee  
117 suitable monitoring of the Ebro River Delta and its possible effects on FMML  
118 accumulation (Fig. 1, Table S2). The FMML, mega-fauna and seabirds were surveyed  
119 throughout all the transects, except for transect 12, on which seabirds were not considered.

## 120 2.2. *Observer-based survey*

121 The standard team for the observer-based survey included two experienced observers, one at  
122 each side of the aircraft, and a person in charge of recording the information collected by the  
123 observers. The FMML was monitored within two fixed strips of 274 m, one for each side of  
124 the aircraft. Only those objects within the strips were recorded, and the observations from the  
125 two strips were merged together for analysis (MEDSEALITTER consortium, 2019) (Table 1).  
126 The strip width was estimated using a hand-held inclinometer by considering the area between  
127 90° and 40° (the observable area within 274 m from the transect line at an altitude of 230 m).  
128 Coloured tape marks were placed on the windows to delimit the area of observation. For the  
129 mega-fauna observations, the distance sampling method (Buckland et al., 2001) was used: the  
130 angle between the horizon and the observed individual was determined using a hand-held  
131 clinometer to estimate its perpendicular distance. However, only the mega-fauna sightings  
132 recorded within 90° and 40° on the two sides of the aircraft were included in the analyses to  
133 obtain comparable density results.



134 When the observers reported a sighting, the data recorder took note of the time, the position  
135 (obtained with a GPS), and either the category and number of FMML items or, in the case of  
136 marine mega-fauna sightings, the species, number of individuals and the angle of observation.  
137 The environmental conditions, including the Beaufort sea state, amount of sun glare  
138 (categorized as 0 (0-25 %), 1 (25-50 %), 2 (50-75 %) and 3 (75-100 %)), and cloud cover were  
139 also updated at the beginning of each transect and whenever any change occurred.

### 140 2.3. Photographic survey

141 The camera used for the photographic survey was a Canon EOS REBEL SL1, placed under  
142 the aircraft in the nadir position. The camera, connected to the GPS signal of the aircraft, was  
143 set to take a picture every two seconds, with fixed settings: 5.6 focal length, 800 ISO and  
144 1/2000 seconds shutter speed. The image footprint (1A and 1B) and GSD (2) were calculated  
145 as follows:

$$146 \text{ (1A) Across - track footprint} = \frac{\text{Flying height(mm)}}{\text{Focal length(mm)}} * (\text{Sensor width (pixels)} * \text{Pixel size (mm)})$$

$$147 \text{ (1B) Along - track footprint} = \frac{\text{Flying height(mm)}}{\text{Focal length(mm)}} * (\text{Sensor height (pixels)} * \text{Pixel size (mm)})$$

$$148 \text{ (2) GSD} = \frac{\text{Sensor width (mm)} * \text{Flying height (m)} * 100}{\text{Focal length (mm)} * \text{Sensor width (pixels)}}$$

149 Onboard the aircraft, a person was in charge of operating the camera from a tablet through the  
150 Waldo Flight Control System software. As images were taken every two seconds at a speed  
151 of 90 knots and an altitude of 230 m, there was a gap of 7.6 m between consecutive images.  
152 Consequently, the area covered by the photographic transects was smaller than that covered  
153 by the visual transects, which was accounted for in the density calculations (Table 1).

154 To reduce error, it is recommended that at least three researchers inspect images separately,  
155 and if the three detection estimates differ by less than 10 %, the final estimate is calculated as  
156 the arithmetic mean of the three values. However, given the high number of images obtained

157 in the present study, only one experienced photo-interpreter manually reviewed the images to  
158 detect and identify the targets. Doubtful target identifications were checked by a second  
159 researcher to confirm potential detections. The average time dedicated to the visual analysis  
160 of each image was 20 seconds, leading to an overall effort of approximately 56 hours for the  
161 inspection of all the images.

#### 162 *2.4. Classification of the detected targets*

163 The targets detected through both methods were classified into three main categories: FMML,  
164 mega-fauna (*i.e.*, cetaceans, marine turtles and sunfish) and seabirds. The seabirds were not  
165 identified to species and were analysed separately due to their different behaviour relative to  
166 other mega-fauna. Floating liquids (*e.g.*, oil and foams), organic matter and unidentified items  
167 were not included in the analysis of the FMML.

168 The FMML was classified by category and composition according to the master list for  
169 floating objects proposed by the Technical Subgroup on Marine Litter within the Marine  
170 Strategy Framework Directive (Galvani et al., 2013), which was modified according to the  
171 guidelines provided by the Interreg MED MEDSEALITTER project (MEDSEALITTER  
172 consortium, 2019; see Table S1).

#### 173 *2.5. Statistical analysis*

174 The sampling units were created by grouping 9.3 linear km along each transect, a length  
175 encompassing 100 images. However, if the total length of the transect was not an exact  
176 multiple of 9.3 km, the excess area was grouped together with the adjacent sampling unit, and  
177 a larger sampling unit was created. Each image/observation was associated with a given  
178 sampling unit on the basis of its respective GPS coordinates. The densities of the targets  
179 detected within each sampling unit were calculated as items/km<sup>2</sup> (Table 1).

180 The normality and heteroscedasticity of the distribution of the densities detected through the  
181 two methods were tested across sampling units for each category (FMML, mega-fauna and  
182 seabirds) using Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests, respectively. The densities of the three  
183 categories did not follow a normal distribution ( $p < 0.0001$ , Shapiro-Wilk test). The density  
184 variances were homogeneous for the FMML ( $p = 0.1$ , Levene test) and mega-fauna ( $p = 0.5$ ,  
185 Levene test) but not for the seabirds ( $p = 0.0001$ , Levene test). Thus, the densities of the  
186 FMML, mega-fauna and seabirds observed by the two methods were compared across the  
187 sampling units using a paired-sample Wilcoxon signed-rank test. The densities of the different  
188 categories of FMML detected using the two methods were also compared through a non-  
189 parametric paired-sample Wilcoxon's signed-rank test. Finally, Spearman's correlation test  
190 was used to assess the correlation between FMML density and the distance from the coast and  
191 to test whether the two methods could detect such correlations similarly. A  $p < 0.05$   
192 significance level was used for all the statistical analyses. The calculations were carried out  
193 within the R programming environment (R Core Team, 2014).

### 194 **3. Results**

195 The environmental parameters and densities of the FMML, mega-fauna and seabirds were  
196 variable across the transects, as summarized in Table 2. According to the MEDSEALITTER  
197 protocol for FMML aerial monitoring, surveys should be performed with a Beaufort state less  
198 than or equal to 3 (MEDSEALITTER consortium, 2019). This condition was satisfied in most  
199 transects except for transects 10 and 11, and the sun glare intensity was generally low except  
200 for transects 10, 11 and 12. Although the transects established with a Beaufort force  $> 3$  and  
201 strong sun glare should not be used to determine the FMML distribution and abundance, we  
202 included these results in the comparison between the two methods, assuming that they would  
203 be affected in a similar way.

#### 204 *3.1. Observer-based survey*

205 A total of 458 targets were detected in the 515 km<sup>2</sup> survey area (Fig. 2 A). The targets mainly  
206 consisted of plastic litter items (45.41 %, including unidentified items, buoys, boxes,  
207 aggregated plastics, bags, buckets and fish boxes), followed by seabirds (38.65 %), and mega-  
208 fauna (15.94 %, represented by sunfish (*Mola mola*), sea turtles (*Caretta caretta*), striped and  
209 bottlenose dolphins (*Stenella coeruleoalba* and *Tursiops truncatus*, respectively), Risso's  
210 dolphins (*Grampus griseus*), and Cuvier's beaked whales (*Ziphius cavirostris*)).

### 211 3.2. Photographic survey

212 The images spanned 5184 x 3456 pixels each, and their footprint and GSD were 128.2 m x  
213 86.46 m and 2.5 cm/pixels, respectively. A total of 135 targets were detected in the 10119  
214 images acquired (Fig. 2 B), 71.9 % of which were plastic litter items (most of which were  
215 unidentified items and aggregated patches and buoys followed by bags and boxes), 20.7 % of  
216 which were mega-fauna (including sunfish, sea turtles, Risso's dolphins and Cuvier's beaked  
217 whale), and 7.4 % of which were seabirds. Examples of the vertical images of FMML, mega-  
218 fauna and seabirds are shown in Fig. S1.

### 219 3.3. Method comparison

220 The FMML, mega-fauna and seabird densities were compared via a paired-sample  
221 Wilcoxon's signed-rank test. The median of the differences between the photographic and  
222 observer-based methods across the sampling units was not significantly different from zero  
223 for the mega-fauna ( $p = 0.75$ ; Fig. 3 C & D). However, a statistically significant difference  
224 was observed for the FMML, which had a higher density when using the photographic method  
225 ( $p = 0.01$ ; Fig. 3 A & B), and seabirds, which were better detected by the observer-based  
226 method ( $p = 0.0001$ ; Fig. 3 E & F) (Table 2).

227 The densities of unidentified plastics, aggregated patches and bags detected through the  
228 photographic method were significantly higher than those detected through the observer-based

229 method ( $p = 0.01$ ,  $p = 0.02$ , and  $p = 0.04$ , respectively, paired-sample Wilcoxon's signed-rank  
230 test) (Table 3). However, the densities of buoys, boxes, buckets and fishing boxes detected  
231 through the two methods did not statistically differ ( $p = 0.36$ ,  $p = 0.13$ ,  $p = 0.06$ , and  $p = 0.37$ ,  
232 respectively, paired-sample Wilcoxon's signed-rank test) (Table 3).

233 The FMML density detected through the observer-based method was inversely correlated with  
234 the distance from the coast ( $\rho = -0.36$ ,  $p = 0.0003$ , Spearman's correlation test), but the same  
235 correlation was not statistically significant for the FMML density obtained through the  
236 photographic method ( $\rho = -0.19$ ,  $p = 0.056$ , Spearman's correlation test).

#### 237 **4. Discussion**

238 The comparison between the observations obtained through the photographic and the  
239 observer-based surveys produced three main results: 1) the photographic method is more  
240 effective than the observer-based method for detecting FMML on the sea surface; 2) both  
241 methods are equally effective for detecting cetaceans, marine turtles and sunfish; and 3) the  
242 observer-based method is more effective than the photographic method for detecting seabirds.

##### 243 *4.1. Floating litter*

244 Aerial monitoring of FMML can be significantly affected by factors such as time of day, sun  
245 glare, cloud covering, sea state and wind speed, which may have significant effects on the  
246 possibility of detecting floating targets (Colefax et al., 2017). Automatic detection of FMML  
247 is also made difficult by its irregular shape and the effect of changing weather conditions on  
248 the images (Maire et al., 2013), even though some researchers have recently presented new  
249 algorithms that may solve these issues (e.g., Goddijn-Murphy et al. 2018, Kylili et al., 2019).

250 The majority of our surveys happened with a positive sea state and sun glare conditions,  
251 allowing the detection and identification of several categories of FMML through both methods.  
252 However, the litter densities detected through aerial photography across the sampling units

253 were on average 2.25 times higher than those detected visually, highlighting a better efficiency  
254 of the photographic method.

255 The observer-based method allowed the identification of more FMML categories than the  
256 photographic method, but overall, the densities of unidentified and aggregated items detected  
257 by the photographic method were higher. This result may be interpreted as a consequence of  
258 the fact that, depending on the conditions in which the photos are taken, floating targets may  
259 be better identified by the human eye in real-time than from photographic images. However,  
260 as the photographic method allows checking the images several times by multiple photo-  
261 interpreters, a higher number of items was detected overall compared to that of the observer-  
262 based method, including patches and aggregated items and items that could not be identified  
263 at the category level. Instead, the densities of buoys and boxes, which have a positive  
264 buoyancy and are more easily detected and identified, were the same for the two methods.

265 The results obtained from the observer-based survey indicated relatively high FMML  
266 densities in sampling sites closer to the coast, consistently with studies highlighting higher  
267 FMML densities near the coast than those in the oceanic waters (Ryan et al. 2014). Indeed,  
268 with the exception of the areas located within or near the five ocean gyres (*e.g.*, Lebreton et  
269 al., 2018), the highest concentrations of litter are often found in proximity to densely populated  
270 urban centres, touristic areas and shipping routes (Suaria et al., 2014). However, this  
271 correlation was weaker with the results obtained from the photographic method, probably as  
272 a consequence of the smaller area surveyed.

273 Overall, our results further support the importance of airborne sensors for monitoring the sea  
274 surface and detecting floating litter, as already stressed by various authors (Mace, 2012; Pichel  
275 et al., 2012; Veenstra and Churnside, 2012). Even if aerial photography is already being used  
276 for this purpose at a large scale, including for the monitoring of the “Great Pacific Garbage  
277 Patch” (Garaba et al., 2018; Gibbs et al., 2019), the abundances and densities of FMML

278 obtained with photographic methods cannot be included in the databases obtained from  
279 observer-based surveys without a previous validation of the methods. Thus, the results of the  
280 present study are highly relevant to the comparison of the results obtained from photographic  
281 surveys with those obtained from conventional observer-based monitoring of floating litter.

282 In addition, airborne platforms may be a promising source of evidence-based information for  
283 the calibration and validation of future satellite missions aimed at detecting, tracking,  
284 identifying, and quantifying ocean plastics (Mace, 2012): photographic surveys for  
285 monitoring FMML can be considered a technological intermediary between the satellite- and  
286 observer-based methods (Garaba et al., 2018).

#### 287 *4.2. Mega-fauna*

288 Our results show that the observer-based and photographic methods are equally effective for  
289 detecting cetaceans, marine turtles and sunfish, providing further validation of photographic  
290 surveys as a viable alternative to traditional observer-based surveys for monitoring marine  
291 mega-fauna on the sea surface. This result is consistent with similar studies, showing that  
292 relevant marine mammal species can be detected and classified to the species level in  
293 photographic images (Gibbs et al., 2019; Thaxter & Burton, 2009). Taylor et al. (2014) also  
294 found that the mean densities of blue shark, loggerhead turtle and ocean sunfish estimated  
295 from photographic methods were significantly higher than those estimated from observer-  
296 based methods. Such a difference was not highlighted in our study, probably due to the low  
297 number of marine mega-fauna observations. As the overall surface of the area that was  
298 monitored visually was larger than the area monitored photographically, two dolphin species  
299 could be detected only through the observer-based method. It is likely that a larger sample  
300 size would reveal significant differences between the ability of two methods to detect the  
301 densities of cetaceans, sea turtles and large fish.

302 Although our results show that the two methods produce comparable results, the advantages  
303 of the photographic method also include logistic and economic factors. Observer-based aerial  
304 surveys generally require the participation of a number of volunteers or dedicated and trained  
305 observers and can sometimes be performed under unsafe conditions (Buckland et al., 2012),  
306 and the observations produced cannot be validated afterwards to assess the reliability of the  
307 counts and the species identity. An increasing number of national and international regulations  
308 (e.g., the Marine Strategy Framework Directive, MSFD 2008/56/EC) require concurrent  
309 monitoring of marine mega-fauna and its stressors, including marine litter. These monitoring  
310 actions would involve a large number of observers and a massive amount of working hours if  
311 performed through observer-based surveys. Photographic surveys, instead, guarantee  
312 concurrent monitoring for the presence of marine fauna and marine litter within the same  
313 flights and involve only the pilot and a camera operator. In addition, the analysis of images  
314 performed *a posteriori* by trained photo-interpreters allows a better determination of the  
315 number of targets and the identification of species and/or items with better precision.

316 The automatic detection and recognition of targets in the imagery obtained through remote  
317 sensing is a key issue of this monitoring technique and may provide further support in locating  
318 and identifying marine mega-fauna in the images (Buckland et al., 2012; Bryson & Williams,  
319 2015). Although there are large difficulties in building effective algorithms, some researchers  
320 have reached relevant results, developing methods to automatically detect marine animals,  
321 birds, rocks and the sea surface (Maussang et al., 2015). Therefore, automated vertical images  
322 from aerial platforms open a new horizon of monitoring, and improving technology ensures  
323 ever-increasing reliability and quality assurance.

#### 324 4.3. Seabirds

325 According to our results, the observer-based method is more effective than the photographic  
326 method for detecting seabirds. The apparent contradiction between this result and those



327 obtained for the FMML and mega-fauna may be explained by three main factors. 1) While  
328 cetaceans, fish and sea turtles can be observed only on the sea surface and in the few  
329 centimetres below it, seabirds can be observed not only floating at sea but also flying in the  
330 three-dimensional aerial space between the aircraft and the sea surface. Being equal the  
331 ground surface, the observer-based monitoring methods cover larger volumes of space than  
332 the photographic methods. 2) The photographic surveys did not generate sufficient seabird  
333 observations to perform a proper density comparison between the methods. 3) Flying birds  
334 remain within the field of view of the camera for short periods of time, whereas observers are  
335 able to follow moving targets for longer periods of time.

336 Hence, a possible solution to overcome at least one of these biases may be to cover larger  
337 areas to obtain comparable observations. Other studies comparing the two methods indicated  
338 that seabird surveys conducted using aerial photography can be more accurate than those  
339 conducted with observers (Chabot and Francis, 2016). For instance, Žydelis et al. (2019)  
340 recorded more bird sightings, identified more species and detected higher densities of nearly  
341 all species through digital video surveys than with concurrent observer-based surveys. In  
342 addition, the results from Kulemeyer et al. (2011) suggested that the frequencies of three sea  
343 duck species were underestimated by an observer-based method, being lower than those  
344 determined through an aerial photographic method. According to these authors, aerial  
345 photography may prove to be the tool of choice to identify seabird species and to precisely  
346 count individuals in large groups, whereas the human eye may allow only a rough estimate  
347 (Žydelis et al., 2019). However, in the present study, birds were not identified at the species  
348 level with either of the two methods, and no large groups of seabirds were encountered. Thus,  
349 our results suggest that in areas of scarce bird density, three-dimensional visual observations  
350 may record more individuals than bi-dimensional aerial photography.

351 To overcome the limitations of aerial photography described above, UAVs are frequently used  
352 for seabird monitoring (*e.g.*, Brisson-Curadeau et al., 2017; Weimerskirch et al., 2018).  
353 Drones may provide an effective alternative to aircraft for the following reasons: 1) they can  
354 fly at lower altitudes, leading to an increase in image resolution; 2) they can be programmed  
355 to take several pictures per second, which allows a continuous overlap between photographs;  
356 3) image processing programs (*e.g.*, Agisoft PhotoScan) can produce georeferenced  
357 orthomosaics from the overlapped photographs, providing a single high resolution image of  
358 the surveyed areas; 4) the weight, cost and environmental footprint of drones are reduced  
359 compared to those of aircraft; and 5) the risks for the pilot and researchers are null (Bryson &  
360 Williams, 2015). On the other hand, the average endurance of UAVs is generally limited  
361 compared to that of manned aerial vehicles, which are able to cover larger areas.

#### 362 *4.4 Time effort*

363 To properly compare the observer-based and photographic methods, it is necessary to  
364 calculate the overall time effort needed for data collection and processing within the two  
365 methods. The observer-based method needs a standard team of two to three observers (if one  
366 is dedicated exclusively to marine litter) and a person in charge of recording data and  
367 organizing the database afterwards, leading, for an 8-hour survey, to an overall time  
368 requirement ranging between 26 and 34 hours (8 hours per person per survey plus 2 hours for  
369 data management).

370 On the other hand, the photographic method needs a camera operator and one or two photo-  
371 interpreters, leading, for an 8-hour survey in which approximately 2500 images are taken, to  
372 an overall effort of approximately 24 hours (8 hours for the camera operator plus 14 hours for  
373 photo interpretation and 2 hours for the inspection of doubtful targets).

374 Although the time required for the two methods is of the same order of magnitude, the effort  
375 is slightly reduced for photographic surveys, which is another reason to consider the

376 photographic method a viable alternative to observer-based methods. Moreover, the  
377 development of new, efficient algorithms to automatically detect targets will further reduce  
378 the effort dedicated to manually inspecting the images (Bryson & Williams, 2015).

## 379 **5. Conclusions**

380 The results of this paper provide a first validation of the photographic method for FMML  
381 monitoring, enabling the comparison of data obtained through this method with those obtained  
382 from observer-based methods and thus the determination of temporal trends in marine mega-  
383 fauna and FMML density and distribution. The increasing application of photographic  
384 methods for monitoring the marine surface is supported by a number of factors, including the  
385 constant improvement of technology, ensuring the reliability and quality of data, and the  
386 development of automated algorithms that will allow the analysis of thousands of images per  
387 hour.

388 Our results indicate that for FMML and mega-fauna (with the exception of seabird)  
389 monitoring, the photographic method is equally as efficient as or more efficient than the  
390 observer-based method. The use of manned aerial vehicles is recommended for the purpose  
391 of monitoring large spatial scales, while the use of UAVs is recommended for relatively small-  
392 scale monitoring and/or when more accurate data are needed. However, further research is  
393 needed to select the best devices for identifying floating litter, to cope with the issue of sun  
394 glare reflection, and to improve the currently available algorithms.

## 395 **Acknowledgements**

396 The authors are grateful to the company ‘Grup Airmed’, which provided the Partenavia P-68  
397 aircraft, the pilot and the infrastructure to perform the experiment, and the company  
398 ‘Geosphere’, which provided the photographic camera and the support to operate it. The  
399 authors are also thankful to the visual observation team: Fransesc Domènech and Natalia

400 Fraija. The Valencian community aerial surveys were co-financed by the European Maritime  
401 and Fisheries Fund (EMFF); the authors thank the Conselleria d'Agricultura, Medi Ambient,  
402 Canvi Climàtic i Desenvolupament Rural (Generalitat Valenciana): Direcció General  
403 d'Agricultura, Ramaderia i Pesca (Servicio de Conservación de los Recursos Pesqueros) and  
404 Direcció General de Medi Natural i d'Avaluació Ambiental (Servicio de Vida Silvestre). This  
405 study was supported by the project MEDSEALITTER (1MED15\_3.2\_M12\_334; European  
406 Union-European Regional Development Fund- Interreg MED). OGG's Ph.D. was funded  
407 through an FPU scholarship granted by the Spanish Government. Constructive feedback from  
408 three anonymous reviewers substantially improved the manuscript.

#### 409 **References**

- 410 Arcangeli, A., Campana, I., Angeletti, D., Atzori, F., Azzolin, M., Carosso, L., Di Miccoli,  
411 V., Giacoletti, A., Gregoriotti, M., Luperini, C., Paraboschi, M., Pellegrino, G., Ramazio,  
412 M., Sarà, G., Crosti, R., 2017. Amount, composition, and spatial distribution of floating  
413 macro litter along fixed trans-border transects in the Mediterranean basin. *Mar. Pollut.*  
414 *Bull.* 129, 545–554. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.02.026>
- 415 Boerger, C.M., Lattin, G.L., Moore, S.L., Moore, C.J., 2010. Plastic ingestion by  
416 planktivorous fishes in the North Pacific Central Gyre. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 60, 2275–2278.  
417 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2010.08.007>
- 418 Bradford, B.N., Sanchez-Reyes, P.J., 2011. Automated Oil Spill Detection with Multispectral  
419 Imagery, in: SPIE Defense, Security, and Sensing. <https://doi.org/10.1117/12.883393>
- 420 Brisson-Curadeau, É., Bird, D., Burke, C., Fifield, D.A., Pace, P., Sherley, R.B., Elliott, K.H.,  
421 2017. Seabird species vary in behavioural response to drone census. *Sci. Rep.* 7, 1–10.  
422 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-18202-3>

- 423 Brooke, S., Graham, D., Jacobs, T., Littnan, C., Manuel, M., O’Conner, R., 2015. Testing  
424 marine conservation applications of unmanned aerial systems (UAS) in a remote marine  
425 protected area. *J. Unmanned Veh. Syst.* 3, 237–251. <https://doi.org/10.1139/juvs-2015->  
426 0011
- 427 Bryson, M., Williams, S., 2015. Review of Unmanned Aerial Systems (UAS ) for Marine  
428 Surveys. Australian center for Field Robotics, University of Sidney.
- 429 Buckland, S.T., Anderson, D.R., Burnham, K.P., Laake, J.L., Borchers, D.L., Thomas, L.,  
430 2001. *Introduction to Distance Sampling*, Oxford University Press. Oxford.
- 431 Buckland, S.T., Burt, M.L., Rexstad, E.A., Mellor, M., Williams, A.E., Woodward, R., 2012.  
432 Aerial surveys of seabirds: The advent of digital methods. *J. Appl. Ecol.* 49, 960–967.  
433 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2664.2012.02150.x>
- 434 Buckland, S.T., Rexstad, E.A., Marques, T.A. & Oedekoven, C.S., 2015. *Distance Sampling:*  
435 *Methods and Applications*. Springer, Cham.
- 436 Büttger, H., Weiß, F., Dorsch, M., Diederichs, A., Brandt, M., Baer, J., Nehls, G., 2015.  
437 Monitoring seabirds and marine mammals with high definition aerial surveying and  
438 image analysis – first results of digital versus visual surveys.  
439 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-7692.2012.00597.x6>.
- 440 Camedda, A., Marra, S., Matiddi, M., Massaro, G., Coppa, S., Perilli, A., Ruiu, A., Briguglio,  
441 P., de Lucia, G.A., 2014. Interaction between loggerhead sea turtles (*Caretta caretta*)  
442 and marine litter in Sardinia (Western Mediterranean Sea). *Mar. Environ. Res.* 100, 25–  
443 32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marenvres.2013.12.004>

444 Chabot, D., Francis, C.M., 2016. Computer-automated bird detection and counts in high-  
445 resolution aerial images: a review. *J. F. Ornithol.* 87, 343–359.  
446 <https://doi.org/10.1111/jofo.12171>

447 Colefax, A.P., Butcher, P.A., Kelaher, B.P., 2017. The potential for unmanned aerial vehicles  
448 (UAVs) to conduct marine fauna surveys in place of manned aircraft. *ICES J. Mar. Sci.*  
449 <https://doi.org/10.1093/icesjms/fsx100>

450 Cubaynes, H.C., Fretwell, P.T., Bamford, C., Gerrish, L., Jackson, J.A., 2018. Whales from  
451 space: Four mysticete species described using new VHR satellite imagery. *Mar. Mammal*  
452 *Sci.* 00, 1–26. <https://doi.org/10.1111/mms.12544>

453 De Stephanis, R., Giménez, J., Carpinelli, E., Gutierrez-Exposito, C., Cañadas, A., 2013. As  
454 main meal for sperm whales: Plastics debris. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 69, 206–214.  
455 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2013.01.033>

456 Di-Méglio, N., Campana, I., 2017. Floating macro-litter along the Mediterranean French  
457 coast: Composition, density, distribution and overlap with cetacean range. *Mar. Pollut.*  
458 *Bull.* 118, 155–166. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.02.026>

459 Domènech, F., Aznar, F.J., Raga, J.A., Tomás, J., 2019. Two decades of monitoring in marine  
460 debris ingestion in loggerhead sea turtle, *Caretta caretta*, from the western  
461 Mediterranean. *Environ. Pollut.* 244, 367–378.  
462 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2018.10.047>

463 Fortuna, C.M., Canese, S., Giusti, M., Revelli, E., Consoli, P., Florio, G., Greco, S., Romeo,  
464 T., Andaloro, F., Fossi, M.C., & Lauriano, G. (2007). An insight into the status of striped  
465 dolphins (*Stenella coeruleoalba*) of the southern Tyrrhenian Sea. *J. Mar. Biol. Assoc. U.*  
466 *K* 87: 1321-1326

467 Galgani, F., Hanke, G., Werner, S., De Vrees, L., 2013. Marine litter within the European  
468 Marine Strategy Framework Directive. *ICES J. Mar. Sci.* 70, 1055–1064.  
469 <https://doi.org/10.1093/icesjms/fst176>

470 Garaba, S.P., Aitken, J., Slat, B., Dierssen, H.M., Lebreton, L., Zielinski, O., Reisser, J., 2018.  
471 Sensing Ocean Plastics with an Airborne Hyperspectral Shortwave Infrared Imager.  
472 *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 52, 11699–11707. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.8b02855>

473 Gibbs, S.E., Salgado Kent, C.P., Slat, B., Morales, D., Fouda, L., Reisser, J., 2019. Cetacean  
474 sightings within the Great Pacific Garbage Patch. *Mar. Biodivers.*  
475 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12526-019-00952-0>

476 Goddijn-Murphy, L., Peters, S., van Sebille, E., James, N.A., Gibb, S., 2018. Concept for a  
477 hyperspectral remote sensing algorithm for floating marine macro plastics. *Mar. Pollut.*  
478 *Bull.* 126, 255–262. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.11.011>

479 Gómez de Segura, A., Hammond, P.S., Cañadas, A., Raga, J.A., 2007. Comparing cetacean  
480 abundance estimates derived from spatial models and design-based line transect  
481 methods. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 329, 289–299. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps08659>

482 Gómez de Segura, A., Tomás, J., Pedraza, S.N., Crespo, E.A., Raga, J.A., 2006. Abundance  
483 and distribution of the endangered loggerhead turtle in Spanish Mediterranean waters  
484 and the conservation implications. *Anim. Conserv.* 9, 199–206.  
485 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-1795.2005.00014.x>

486 Gordon, C., Kujawa, M., Luttrell, J., MacArthur, D., Robinson-Willmott, J., Thaxter, C.,  
487 2013. High-resolution Aerial Imaging Surveys of Marine Birds, Mammals, and Turtles  
488 on the US Atlantic Outer Continental Shelf—Utility Assessment, Methodology  
489 Recommendations, and Implementation Tools.

490 Hodgson, A., Kelly, N., Peel, D., 2013. Unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) for surveying  
491 Marine Fauna: A dugong case study. PLoS One 8, 1–15.  
492 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0079556>

493 Hodgson, A., Noad, M., Marsh, H., Lanyon, J., Kniest, E., 2010. Using unmanned aerial  
494 vehicles for surveys of marine mammals in Australia: test of concept, Report to  
495 Australian Marine Mammal Centre.

496 Hoeschle, C., Diederichs, A., Nehls, G., 2015. Aerial high definition video surveys – an  
497 advanced method to monitor marine mammals, in: 21st Biennial Conference of the  
498 Society for Marine Mammalogy. San Francisco

499 Kulemeyer, C., Schulz, A., Weidauer, A., Röhrbein, V., Schleicher, K., Foy, T., Grenzdörffer,  
500 G., Coppack, T., 2011. Georeferenzierte Digitalfotografie zur objektiven und  
501 reproduzierbaren Quantifizierung von Rastvögeln auf See. Vogelwarte, 49, 105-110.

502 Kylili, K., Kyriakides, I., Artusi, A., Hadjistassou, C., 2019. Identifying floating plastic  
503 marine debris using a deep learning approach. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 26, 17091–  
504 17099. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-019-05148-4>

505 Lebreton, L., Slat, B., Ferrari, F., Sainte-Rose, B., Aitken, J., Marthouse, R., Hajbane, S.,  
506 Cunsolo, S., Schwarz, A., Levivier, A., Noble, K., Debeljak, P., Maral, H., Schoeneich-  
507 Argent, R., Brambini, R., Reisser, J., 2018. Evidence that the Great Pacific Garbage  
508 Patch is rapidly accumulating plastic. Sci. Rep. 8, 4666. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-22939-w)  
509 018-22939-w

510 Lecke-Mitchell, K.M., Mullin, K., 1997. Floating marine debris in the US Gulf of Mexico.  
511 Mar. Pollut. Bull. 34, 702–705. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X\(97\)00027-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X(97)00027-1)



512 Leifer, I., Lehr, W.J., Simecek-Beatty, D., Bradley, E., Clark, R., Dennison, P., Hu, Y.,  
513 Matheson, S., Jones, C.E., Holt, B., Reif, M., Roberts, D.A., Svejksky, J., Swayze, G.,  
514 Wozencraft, J., 2012. State of the art satellite and airborne marine oil spill remote  
515 sensing: Application to the BP Deepwater Horizon oil spill. *Remote Sens. Environ.* 124,  
516 185–209. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2012.03.024>

517 Mace, T.H., 2012. At-sea detection of marine debris: Overview of technologies, processes,  
518 issues, and options. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 65, 23–27.  
519 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2011.08.042>

520 Maire, F., Mejiasa, L., Hodgson, A., Duclosd, G., 2013. Detection of Dugongs from  
521 Unmanned Aerial Vehicles, in: *IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots  
522 and Systems*. Tokyo, p. 8.

523 Maussang, F., Guelton, L., Garello, R., Chevallier, A., 2015. Marine life observation using  
524 classification algorithms on ocean surface photographs, in: *OCEANS 2015*. pp. 1–4.  
525 <https://doi.org/10.1109/OCEANS-Genova.2015.7271678>

526 McEvoy, J.F., Hall, G.P., McDonald, P.G., 2016. Evaluation of unmanned aerial vehicle  
527 shape, flight path and camera type for waterfowl surveys: disturbance effects and species  
528 recognition. *PeerJ* 4, 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.1831>

529 MEDSEALITTER consortium (2019). Common monitoring protocol for marine litter.  
530 Deliverable 4.6.1. [https://medsealitter.interreg-med.eu/what-we-achieve/deliverable-](https://medsealitter.interreg-med.eu/what-we-achieve/deliverable-database/)  
531 [database/](https://medsealitter.interreg-med.eu/what-we-achieve/deliverable-database/)

532 Nakashima, E., Isobe, A., Magome, S., Kako, S., Deki, N., 2011. Using aerial photography  
533 and in situ measurements to estimate the quantity of macro-litter on beaches. *Mar. Pollut.  
534 Bull.* 62, 762–769. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2011.01.006>

535 Pichel, W.G., Veenstra, T.S., Churnside, J.H., Arabini, E., Friedman, K.S., Foley, D.G.,  
536 Brainard, R.E., Kiefer, D., Ogle, S., Clemente-Colón, P., Li, X., 2012. GhostNet marine  
537 debris survey in the Gulf of Alaska - Satellite guidance and aircraft observations. *Mar.*  
538 *Pollut. Bull.* 65, 28–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2011.10.009>

539 R Core Team. 2014. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation  
540 for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. <https://www.R-project.org/>

541 Ryan, P.G., 2014. Litter survey detects the South Atlantic “garbage patch”. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.*  
542 79, 220–224. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2013.12.010>

543 Suaria, G., Aliani, S., 2014. Floating debris in the Mediterranean Sea. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 86,  
544 494–504. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2014.06.025>

545 Taylor, J.K.D., Kenney, R.D., LeRoi, D.J., Kraus, S.D., 2014. Automated Vertical  
546 Photography for Detecting Pelagic Species in Multitaxon Aerial Surveys. *Mar. Technol.*  
547 *Soc. J.* 48, 36–48. <https://doi.org/10.4031/MTSJ.48.1.9>

548 Thaxter, C.B., Burton, N.H.K., 2009. High Definition Imagery for Surveying Seabirds and  
549 Marine Mammals: A Review of Recent Trials and Development of Protocols, Report  
550 commissioned by COWRIE Ltd.

551 Topouzelis, K., Papakonstantinou, A., Garaba, S.P., 2019. Detection of floating plastics from  
552 satellite and unmanned aerial systems (Plastic Litter Project 2018). *Int. J. Appl. Earth*  
553 *Obs. Geoinf.* 79, 175–183. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jag.2019.03.011>

554 Unger, B., Herr, H., Gilles, A., Siebert, U., 2014. Evaluation of spatio-temporal distribution  
555 patterns of marine debris, in: *European Cetacean Society*. Liège.

556 Van Franeker, J.A., Blaize, C., Danielsen, J., Fairclough, K., Gollan, J., Guse, N., Hansen,  
557 P.L., Heubeck, M., Jensen, J.K., Le Guillou, G., Olsen, B., Olsen, K.O., Pedersen, J.,  
558 Stienen, E.W.M., Turner, D.M., 2011. Monitoring plastic ingestion by the northern  
559 fulmar *Fulmarus glacialis* in the North Sea. *Environ. Pollut.* 159, 2609–2615.  
560 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2011.06.008>

561 Veenstra, T.S., Churnside, J.H., 2012. Airborne sensors for detecting large marine debris at  
562 sea. *Mar. Pollut. Bull.* 65, 63–68. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2010.11.018>

563 Weimerskirch, H., Prudor, A., Schull, Q., 2018. Flights of drones over sub-Antarctic seabirds  
564 show species- and status-specific behavioural and physiological responses. *Polar Biol.*  
565 41, 259–266. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00300-017-2187-z>

566 Williamson, L.D., Brookes, K.L., Scott, B.E., Graham, I.M., Bradbury, G., Hammond, P.S.,  
567 Thompson, P.M., 2016. Echolocation detections and digital video surveys provide  
568 reliable estimates of the relative density of harbour porpoises. *Methods Ecol. Evol.* 7,  
569 762–769. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12538>

570 Žydelis, R., Dorsch, M., Heinänen, S., Nehls, G., Weiss, F., 2019. Comparison of digital  
571 video surveys with visual aerial surveys for bird monitoring at sea. *J. Ornithol.* 160,  
572 567–580. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10336-018-1622-4>

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581 **Figures and Tables**

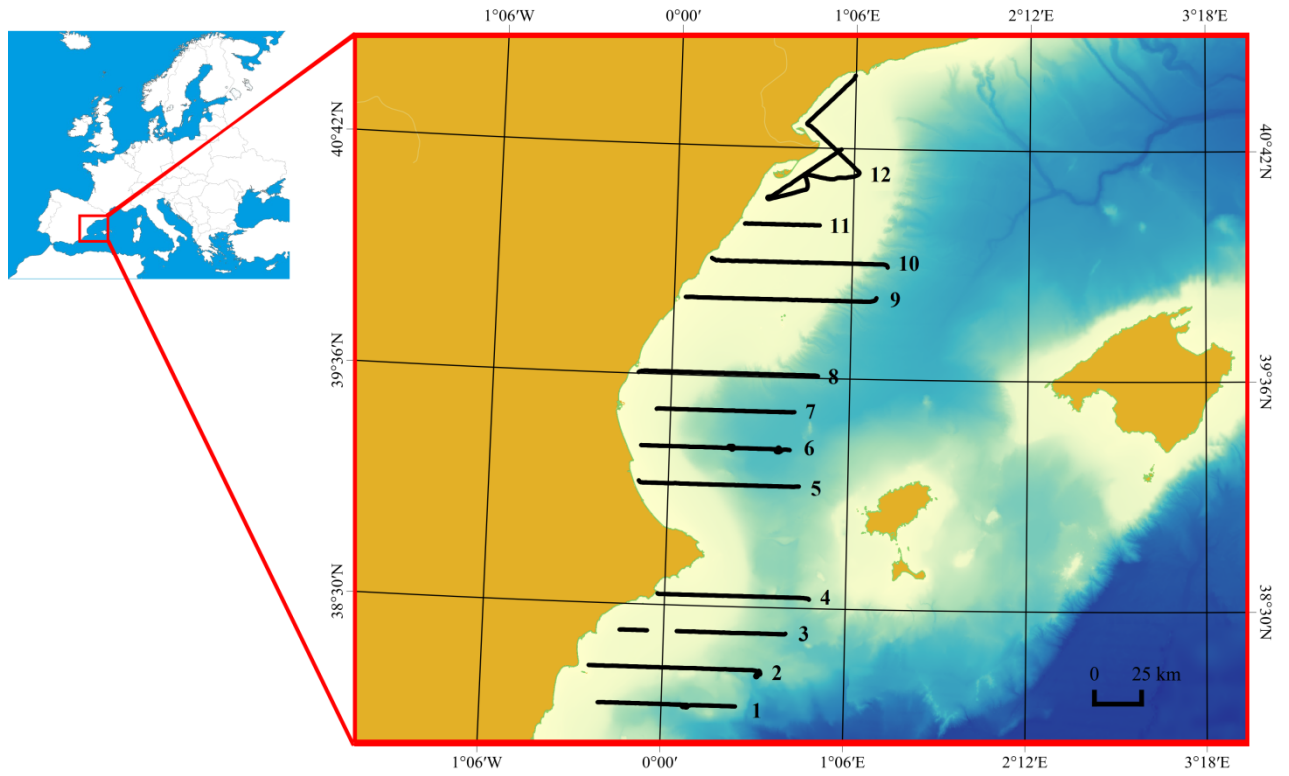


Figure 1 Study area and GPS tracks of the surveyed transects.

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

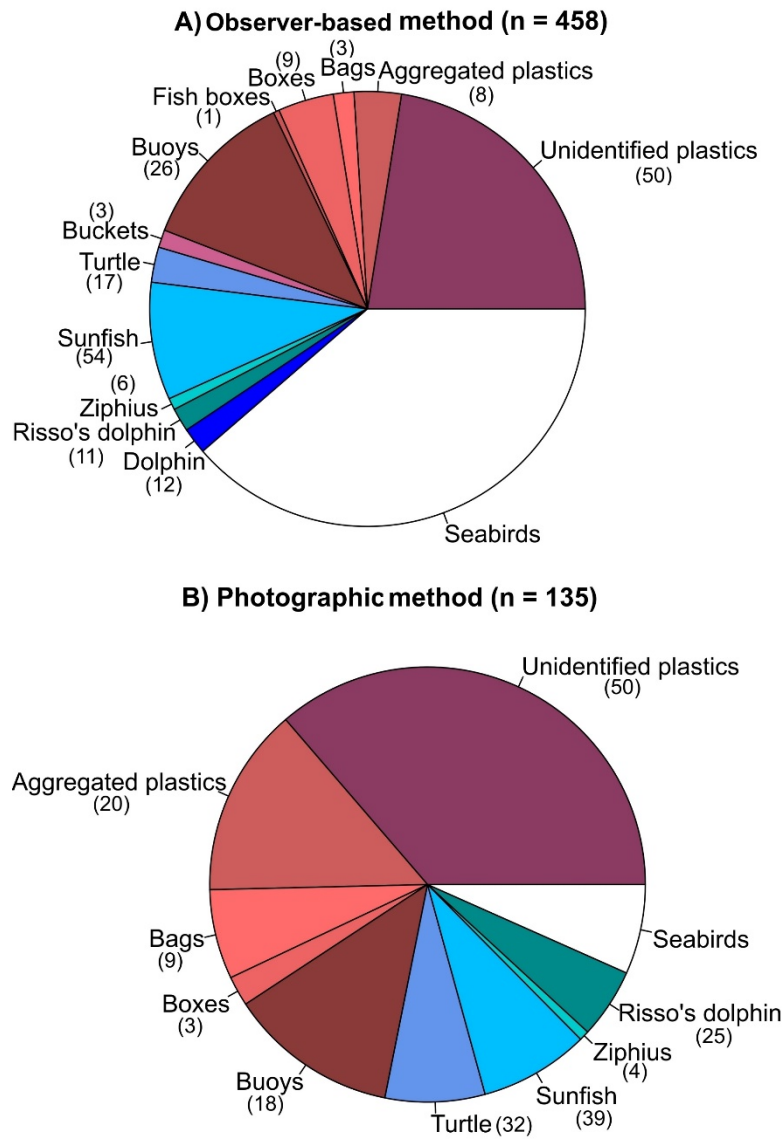


Fig. 2 Marine targets detected by the observer-based method (A) and the photographic method (B) (n = Total targets detected). Purple shades represent FMML categories, blue shades represent mega-fauna species; seabirds are represented in white. The percentage of each category of item/species within its respective category is represented in brackets.

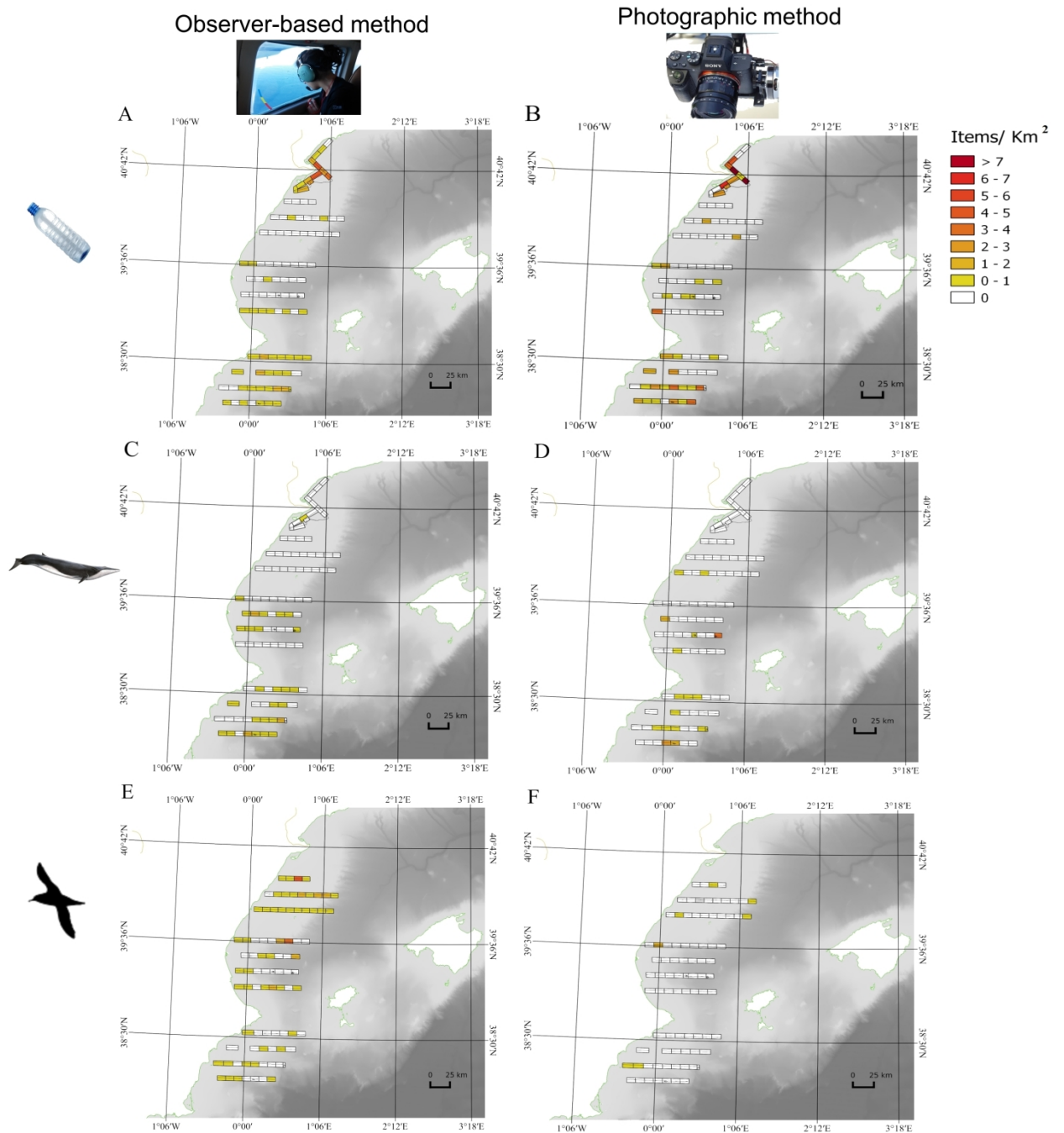


Figure 3. Density of floating litter (A, B), mega-fauna (C, D) and seabirds (E, F) detected through the observer-based (A, C, E) and photographic (B, D, F) surveys. Sampling units are depicted in each transect.

597

598 Table 1 Details of the photographic and observer-based aerial surveys.

	Photographic survey	Observer-based survey
Altitude (m)	230	230
Speed (knots)	90	90

Sampling unit length (equivalent to 100 images, km)	8.6	9.3
Distance between images (m)	7.6	-
Length of the surveyed area (km)	865.2	941.1
Transect width (m)	128.2	548
Survey area (km <sup>2</sup> )	110.9	515.7

599

600 Table 2. Number of sampling units (n), environmental conditions and densities of marine targets (mean ± SD)  
601 split by category and observation method for each transect.

Transect	n	Beaufort force	Sun glare	Clouds (%)	FMML* (items/km <sup>2</sup> ) (mean ± SD)		Mega-fauna (individuals/km <sup>2</sup> ) (mean ± SD)		Seabirds* (individuals/km <sup>2</sup> ) (mean ± SD)	
					Photographic	Observer- based	Photographic	Observer- based	Photographic	Observer- based
1	7	1 - 2	1	75	1.56 ± 1.63	0.20 ± 0.18	0.68 ± 1.06	0.37 ± 0.45	0.00 ± 0.00	0.25 ± 0.31
2	9	1 - 2.5	1	75	1.52 ± 1.44	0.43 ± 0.46	0.51 ± 0.48	0.33 ± 0.49	0.20 ± 0.40	0.15 ± 0.19
3	6	1 - 2.5	1	80	0.69 ± 1.15	0.40 ± 0.58	0.15 ± 0.37	0.16 ± 0.23	0.00 ± 0.00	0.13 ± 0.24
4	7	1 - 2.5	0 - 1	80	0.45 ± 0.58	0.62 ± 0.47	0.39 ± 0.49	0.25 ± 0.27	0.00 ± 0.00	0.17 ± 0.31
5	8	1 - 2.5	1	10	0.43 ± 1.21	0.07 ± 0.14	0.11 ± 0.32	0.02 ± 0.07	0.00 ± 0.00	0.76 ± 1.17
6	8	1 - 2.5	1	10	0.30 ± 0.46	0.02 ± 0.07	0.81 ± 2.11	0.39 ± 0.51	0.00 ± 0.00	0.28 ± 0.58
7	7	1 - 2.5	1	10	0.26 ± 0.45	0.00 ± 0.00	0.26 ± 0.69	0.32 ± 0.53	0.00 ± 0.00	0.09 ± 0.17
8	9	1 - 3	1	10 - 50	0.30 ± 0.65	0.19 ± 0.15	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.20 ± 0.61	0.47 ± 0.41
9	10	2 - 3	1	50	0.18 ± 0.58	0.00 ± 0.00	0.18 ± 0.39	0.00 ± 0.00	0.18 ± 0.39	1.57 ± 2.12
10	9	2.5 - 4	1 - 3	70	0.20 ± 0.61	0.04 ± 0.09	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.20 ± 0.40	0.65 ± 0.60
11	4	2 - 5	3	70	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.23 ± 0.46	0.47 ± 0.30
12	13	1 - 2	1 - 3	10 - 80	3.22 ± 3.41	1.01 ± 1.52	0.00 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.05	-	-
Total					0.90 ± 1.77	0.40 ± 0.84	0.26 ± 0.78	0.15 ± 0.33	0.09 ± 0.31	0.40 ± 0.70

602 \* Significant difference between the two methods ( $p < 0.05$ , paired-sample Wilcoxon's signed rank test).

603

604 Table 3. Categories of plastic items (total number and density, expressed as items/km<sup>2</sup> ± SD) detected during the  
605 photographic and observer-based surveys. In brackets, the number of sampling units considered.

Plastic item category		Photographic survey	Observer-based survey
Unidentified plastics	Total	49	103
	Density (Unidentified plastics/km <sup>2</sup> ± SD; n = 97)	0.45 ± 0.97*	0.20 ± 0.43*
Aggregated patches	Total	19	16
	Density (Aggregated patches/km <sup>2</sup> ± SD; n = 97)	0.18 ± 0.71*	0.029 ± 0.13*
Buoys	Total	17	55
	Density (Buoys/km <sup>2</sup> ± SD; n = 97)	0.15 ± 0.75	0.11 ± 0.54
Bags	Total	9	7
	Density (Bags/km <sup>2</sup> ± SD; n = 97)	0.08 ± 0.30*	0.01 ± 0.54*

Boxes	Total	3	19
	Density (Boxes/km <sup>2</sup> ± SD; n = 97)	0.03 ± 0.18	0.04 ± 0.10
Buckets	Total	0	6
	Density (Buckets/km <sup>2</sup> ± SD; n = 97)	0.00 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.54
Fishing boxes	Total	0	2
	Density (Fishing boxes/km <sup>2</sup> ± SD; n = 97)	0.00 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.05
Total floating plastic items detected		97	208

606

\* Significant difference between the two methods ( $p < 0.05$ , paired-sample Wilcoxon's signed rank test).



## Annex

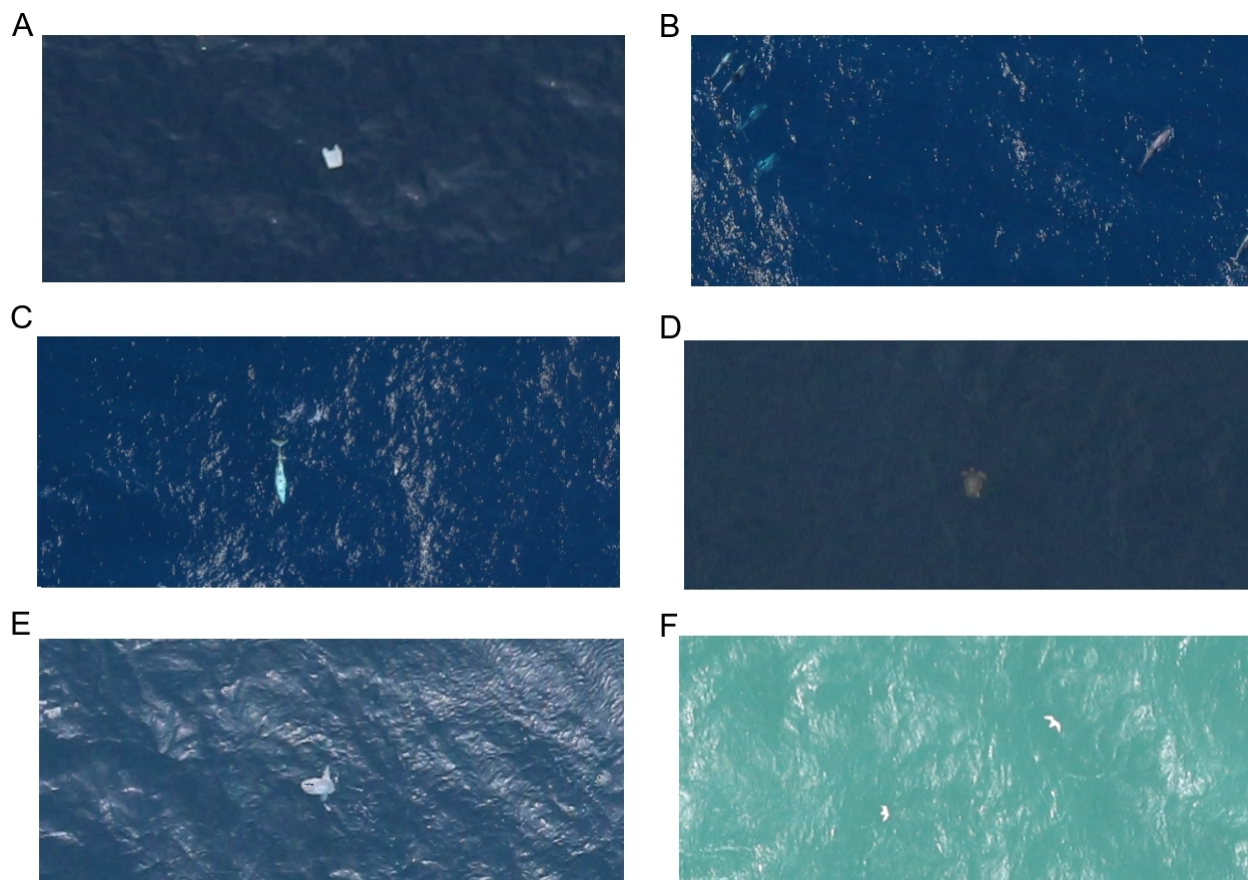


Figure S1 Aerial photographs of a A) FMML (a plastic bag), B) *Grampus griseus*, C) *Ziphius cavirostris*, D) *Caretta caretta*, E) *Mola mola* and F) seabirds. Images were cropped to improve the visibility of sightings.

Table S1 Modified MSFD master list (adapted for aerial surveys from MEDSEALITTER consortium, 2019) with the list of objects and Mediterranean mega-fauna that can be observed from aerial surveys.

Material/category	Description
Plastic, polystyrene, polyurethane	Bags, boxes, fish box, buoys, buckets, fishing nets
Processed wood	Pallets
Vegetable	Seaweed/marine plant, logs/plants parts
Liquids	Oil slick, isolated foam
Glass	Bottles
Textile	Clothing
Rubber	Balloons, tyres
Undefined material	Ropes, pieces
Animal	Animal carcasses
Mega-fauna (Mediterranean Sea)	<i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i> , <i>Tursiops truncatus</i> , <i>Delphinus delphis</i> , <i>Globicephala melas</i> , <i>Physeter macrocephalus</i> , <i>Grampus griseus</i> , <i>Balaenoptera physalus</i> , <i>Ziphius cavirostris</i> , <i>Caretta caretta</i> , <i>Mola mola</i> , seabirds...

Table S2 Date, position, direction and length of the transects conducted during the aerial surveys

---

Transect	Date	Start position (Lat, Lon)	End position (Lat, Lon)	Direction	Length of the photographic survey (km)	Length of the observer-based survey (km)
1	25/03/18	38.024, 0.447	38.023, -0.384	West	66.8	72.6
2	25/03/18	38.200, -0.446	38.180, 0.593	East	77.6	84.4
3	25/03/18	38.378, 0.740	38.373, -0.267	West	55.6	60.5
4	25/03/18	38.553, -0.044	38.542, 0.878	East	63.2	68.7
5	22/03/18	39.082, 0.801	39.089, -0.181	West	69.1	75.1
6	22/03/18	39.258, -0.175	39.254, 0.739	East	87.0	94.6
7	22/03/18	39.437, 0.762	39.433, -0.087	West	60.0	65.3
8	22/03/18	39.605, -0.206	39.610, 0.902	East	75.8	82.5
9	21/03/18	39.989, 1.254	39.971, 0.070	West	83.8	91.1
10	21/03/18	40.162, 0.225	40.136, 1.320	Est	76.5	83.2
11	21/03/18	40.331, 0.891	40.330, 0.424	West	34.1	37.1
12	14/03/18	41.049, 1.096	40.696, 1.017	SW, SE, SW, NE	115.7	125.8

---