

¹ MORPHOMETRIC-BASED NON-INVASIVE SEX
² IDENTIFICATION OF BLOOD COCKLES *TEGILLARCA*
³ *GRANOSA* (LINNAEUS, 1758)

⁴ A Special Problem Proposal
⁵ Presented to
⁶ the Faculty of the Division of Physical Sciences and Mathematics
⁷ College of Arts and Sciences
⁸ University of the Philippines Visayas
⁹ Miag-ao, Iloilo

¹⁰ In Partial Fulfillment
¹¹ of the Requirements for the Degree of
¹² Bachelor of Science in Computer Science by

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²⁰ April 23, 2025

Abstract

22 *Tegillarca granosa* (Linnaeus, 1758), commonly known as blood cockles, is one
23 of the most well-known marine bivalve for its nutritional benefits and economic
24 significance. Determining their sex is essential for maintaining a balanced male-
25 to-female ratio, which is crucial for preventing overexploitation of this shellfish
26 resource. The sex-determining mechanism in the shell morphology of bivalves is
27 challenging macroscopically due to the limited literature regarding this expertise.
28 In addition, no current technologies are employed to classify the sex based on shell
29 morphology. This study proposes a machine learning approach for classifying the
30 sex of blood cockles using various linear measurements (length, width, height,
31 distance between the hinge line, distance between umbos, and rib count) and
32 angles (dorsal, ventral, anterior, posterior, left lateral, and right lateral) collected
33 from male and female specimens. Available machine learning models in MATLAB
34 were trained to discern sexual dimorphism. Among the models, Linear SVM
35 performed best, achieving an accuracy of 69.80%, precision of 69.82%, recall of
36 69.80%, and an F1-score of 69.73%. Feature importance analysis indicated that
37 the distance between the umbos and height were the most significant features.

Keywords: deep learning, supervised machine learning , convolutional
neural network, blood cockle, sex identification, *Tegillarca*
granosa

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¹¹⁷ **Chapter 1**

¹¹⁸ **Introduction**

¹¹⁹ **1.1 Overview**

¹²⁰ The Philippines is a global center of marine biodiversity and has established aqua-
¹²¹ culture as a significant contributor to total fishery production (Aypa & Baconguis,
¹²² 2000; BFAR, 2019). The country produces over 4 million tonnes of seafood annu-
¹²³ ally and is the 11th largest seafood producer in the world. Aquaculture is deeply
¹²⁴ integrated into Filipinos' livelihoods, encompassing fish cultivation and the pro-
¹²⁵ duction of various aquatic species, including bivalves. Among these, blood cockles
¹²⁶ (*Tegillarca granosa*) hold considerable economic and environmental significance,
¹²⁷ making it essential to ensure sustainable production and population balance.

¹²⁸ Maintaining a balanced male-to-female ratio of blood cockles is crucial to pre-
¹²⁹ vent overharvesting and ensure sustainability. An imbalanced ratio can lead to
¹³⁰ overexploitation and negatively impact the population's viability. However, there
¹³¹ is limited literature on *T. granosa* that provides a thorough understanding of its
¹³² sex-determining mechanisms, particularly regarding sexual dimorphism based on
¹³³ morphological and morphometric characteristics (Breton, Capt, Guerra, & Stew-
¹³⁴ art, 2017).

¹³⁵ Currently, sex determination methods for blood cockles are invasive, including
¹³⁶ dissection and histological examinations, which often result in the death of the
¹³⁷ species. While there is growing literature on sex identification in aquaculture
¹³⁸ commodities using machine learning and deep learning, there is a notable scarcity
¹³⁹ of research specifically addressing *T. granosa* (Miranda & Ferriols, 2023).

¹⁴⁰ This study, titled "Morphometric-Based Non-Invasive Sex Identification of

¹⁴¹ Blood Cockles *Tegillarca granosa* (Linnaeus, 1758)," aims to provide a detailed
¹⁴² baseline analysis of blood cockles by leveraging their morphological and morpho-
¹⁴³ metric characteristics. Sexual dimorphism in bivalves is often subtle and chal-
¹⁴⁴ lenging to establish mascropically (Karapunar, Werner, Fürsich, & Nützel, 2021).
¹⁴⁵ However, by integrating machine learning and deep learning, the study seeks to
¹⁴⁶ identify distinct features that may indicate sexual dimorphism between male and
¹⁴⁷ female blood cockles.

¹⁴⁸ 1.2 Problem Statement

¹⁴⁹ Identifying the sex of *T. granosa* is important for promoting sustainable aquacul-
¹⁵⁰ ture and biodiversity by maintaining a balanced male-to-female ratio. A balanced
¹⁵¹ ratio helps prevent overharvesting. Although sex identification is crucial for blood
¹⁵² cockle population management and sustainable aquaculture, there is a notable
¹⁵³ lack of research on creating non-invasive methods for determining the sex of *T.*
¹⁵⁴ *granosa*. Many recent studies and approaches rely on invasive methods like dis-
¹⁵⁵ section or histological analysis, which are impractical for large-scale aquaculture
¹⁵⁶ operations focused on conservation.

¹⁵⁷ Current methods for determining the sex of *T. granosa* are invasive and in-
¹⁵⁸ volve dissection, which requires cutting open the shell to visually inspect the
¹⁵⁹ gonads (Erica, 2018). This procedure can cause harm to the specimens and fre-
¹⁶⁰ quently leads to their death. Another method is histological examination, where
¹⁶¹ tissue samples are analyzed under a microscope (May, Maung, Phy, & Tun,
¹⁶² 2021). Both approaches are labor-intensive and time-consuming, and can pose
¹⁶³ risks to population management, particularly when maintaining a balanced sex
¹⁶⁴ ratio for breeding programs is essential. Moreover, these invasive methods require
¹⁶⁵ specialized technical skills for accurate execution. Resource-limited aquaculture
¹⁶⁶ operations face significant challenges in accessing the necessary laboratory equip-
¹⁶⁷ ment, such as microscopes and staining tools, complicating the process.

¹⁶⁸ A less invasive approach employed by aquaculturists involves monitor spawning
¹⁶⁹ behavior, where individuals are separated and stimulated to reproduce in order
¹⁷⁰ to determine their sex through the release of gametes (Miranda & Ferriols, 2023).
¹⁷¹ Although this method is indeed less invasive than dissection, it still induces stress
¹⁷² in blood cockles and may not be completely effective for fast identification in large
¹⁷³ populations.

¹⁷⁴ Given the limitations of both invasive and less invasive methods, there is a
¹⁷⁵ clear need for a more advanced approach. An alternative, non-invasive method

¹⁷⁶ involving machine and deep learning technologies could address these issues by
¹⁷⁷ providing a fast, accurate, and effective solution without harming or stressing the
¹⁷⁸ blood cockles.

¹⁷⁹ 1.3 Research Objectives

¹⁸⁰ 1.3.1 General Objective

¹⁸¹ The general objective of this study is to develop a non-invasive method for iden-
¹⁸² tifying the sex of *Tegillarca granosa* using machine and deep learning integrated
¹⁸³ with computer vision technologies. This method aims to provide accurate and
¹⁸⁴ streamlined sex identification without causing harm to the specimens, thus sup-
¹⁸⁵ porting sustainable aquaculture practices.

¹⁸⁶ 1.3.2 Specific Objectives

¹⁸⁷ To achieve the overall general objective of developing a non-invasive sex identifi-
¹⁸⁸ cation of *T. granosa* using machine learning, deep learning, and computer vision
¹⁸⁹ technologies, the following specific objectives have been established:

- ¹⁹⁰ 1. To collect and organize a comprehensive dataset of *T. granosa* which will
¹⁹¹ include high-quality images and relevant morphological measurements that
¹⁹² will serve as the basis for the machine-learning model.
- ¹⁹³ 2. To develop and implement machine learning models that can classify the
¹⁹⁴ sex of *T. granosa* based on the collected linear measurements and images of
¹⁹⁵ different angles of the sample.
- ¹⁹⁶ 3. To evaluate the performance of the models used using performance metrics
¹⁹⁷ such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score.
- ¹⁹⁸ 4. To develop a system that can identify the sex of *T. granosa* based on its
¹⁹⁹ morphological characteristics.

200 1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Research

201 This study is conducted alongside the ongoing research by the UPV DOST-
202 PCAARRD, titled "Establishment of the Center for Mollusc Research and De-
203 velopment: Development of Spawning and Hatchery Techniques for the Blood
204 Cockle (*Anadara granosa*) for Sustainable Aquaculture." The ongoing research pri-
205 marily involves the rearing of *T. granosa* from spat to larvae, as well as feeding
206 experiments, stocking density evaluations, substrate selection, and settlement rate
207 assessments.

208 In contrast, this study mainly focuses on developing a non-invasive method for
209 identifying the sex of *Tegillarca granosa* using machine learning, deep learning,
210 and computer vision technologies. The goal is to provide an accurate and efficient
211 means of sex identification without causing harm to the samples, contributing to
212 sustainable aquaculture practices.

213 The researchers work with 500 already sex-identified blood cockles taken from
214 Panay Island, specifically from Zarraga Iloilo and Ivisan Capiz. These samples,
215 equally divided between 250 males and 250 females, were obtained through in-
216 duced spawning via temperature shock and dissection. Samples subjected to data
217 collection of *T. granosa* are only limited to the spawned stage among the five go-
218 nadal stages - immature, developing, mature, spawning, and spent stages. The
219 other stages are not preferable due to indistinguishable gonads and their inabil-
220 ity to perform induced spawning (May et al., 2021). Thus, the researchers only
221 focused on the samples undergoing the spawned stage.

222 In collecting the data, the researchers will personally gather linear measure-
223 ments, including length, width, height, rib count, length of the hinge line, and
224 distance between the umbos through the vernier caliper. Images of the speci-
225 mens, captured from various angles, will also be gathered under the supervision
226 of University Research Associates from the Institute of Aquaculture, College of
227 Fisheries and Ocean Sciences. Collection of the images of the sample is non-
228 invasive due to the blood cockle-built ability to survive in low oxygen areas and
229 having the intertidal mudflats as their natural habitat (Zhan & Bao, 2022).

230 The method developed in this study is specific to *Tegillarca granosa* and may
231 not be applicable to other bivalve species. The model will be trained exclusively
232 for *Tegillarca granosa* and morphological features including length, width, height,
233 rib count, length of the hinge line, and distance between the umbos may not be
234 consistent across other shellfish species.

235 1.5 Significance of the Research

236 This study will give us a significant advancement in non-invasive sex identifica-
237 tion methods in *T. granosa* providing innovative solutions that could solve the
238 challenges in identifying sex and reshape sustainable approaches to aquaculture.
239 The significance of this study extends to the following:

240 *Research Institution.* The result of this study focusing on the sex-identification
241 mechanism of bivalves, specifically *Tegillarca granosa*, will provide valuable in-
242 sights into universities and research centers that focus on fisheries and coastal
243 management, such as the UPV Institute of Aquaculture, that aim to develop
244 sustainable development and suitable culture techniques.

245 *Fishermen.* By developing a non-invasive method in sex identification, this
246 study can help long-term harvest efficiency and maintain the ratio of the harvest
247 which can help prevent overexploitation of the *T. granosa*.

248 *Coastal Communities.* The result of this study would be beneficial for the
249 coastal communities that are reliant on their source of income with aquaculture
250 commodities like blood cockles. Maintaining the diversity and aspect ratio of
251 male and female may increase the market value of blood cockle production since
252 cockle aquaculture faces significant obstacles worldwide due to the fluctuating
253 seed supplies and scarcity of broodstock from the wild.

254 *Future Researchers.* The result of this study would serve as the basis for studies
255 that involve sex identification in bivalves such as *T. granosa*. Some technologies
256 are yet to be explored in machine learning, deep learning, and computer vision
257 technologies that can lead to higher accuracy and distinguish the presence of
258 sexual dimorphism in the *T. granosa*.

²⁵⁹ **Chapter 2**

²⁶⁰ **Review of Related Literature**

²⁶¹ Aquaculture is the fastest-growing industry in animal food production and has
²⁶² great potential as a sustainable solution to global food security, nutrition, and
²⁶³ development (*FAO 2024 Report: Sustainable Aquatic Food Systems Important*
²⁶⁴ *for Global Food Security – European Fishmeal*, 2024). Aquaculture is deeply in-
²⁶⁵ tegrated into the livelihoods of Filipinos, not only through fish cultivation but
²⁶⁶ also through the production of other aquatic species, including mollusks, oysters,
²⁶⁷ clams, scallops, and mussels (Breton et al., 2017). Mollusks, particularly blood
²⁶⁸ clams *Tegillarca granosa*, have economic and environmental significance. It has
²⁶⁹ been a collective effort to maintain an ideal male-to-female ratio to avoid overhar-
²⁷⁰ vesting and maintain the optimal ratio to preserve the population and production
²⁷¹ of the blood cockles.

²⁷² The members of the Arcidae Family, including *T. granosa* are important
²⁷³ sources of food and livelihood. Cockle aquaculture meets rising demands, however,
²⁷⁴ it faces significant challenges due to fluctuating seed supplies (Miranda & Ferriols,
²⁷⁵ 2023). To solve the problem, researchers exert a considerable amount of effort,
²⁷⁶ developing a broader understanding of bivalves, including their sex-determining
²⁷⁷ mechanism, due to their notable importance in terms of diversity, environmental
²⁷⁸ benefits, and economic and market importance (Breton et al., 2017). Despite the
²⁷⁹ promising idea of identifying sex, there is limited research reported in terms of
²⁸⁰ sexual dimorphism, making it harder to distinguish through its morphological and
²⁸¹ morphometric characteristics.

²⁸² By addressing the challenges in the sex identification of *T. granosa*, it would be
²⁸³ able to address one problem at a time. Currently, there are no recent documented
²⁸⁴ publications that integrate machine learning and computer vision in characterizing
²⁸⁵ sexual dimorphism, reducing complexity, variability in sex determination, and

²⁸⁶ differentiation mechanisms in bivalves, including *T. granosa* specifically.

²⁸⁷ **2.1 Background on *Tegillarca granosa* and Their ²⁸⁸ Importance**

²⁸⁹ *Tegillarca granosa* (Linnaeus, 1758) is also known as blood cockles or blood clam.
²⁹⁰ In the Philippines, it is commonly known as a Litob, a marine bivalve species from
²⁹¹ the family Arcidae. Litob is widely distributed in the world including Southeast
²⁹² Asia. They can be found in the intertidal mudflats adjacent to the mangrove forest
²⁹³ (Srisunont, Nobpakhun, Yamalee, & Srisunont, 2020). With the intertidal mudflat
²⁹⁴ as *T. granosa*'s habitat, they experience severe hypoxia or low oxygen levels in the
²⁹⁵ blood tissues during the tidal cycle. The blood clams exhibit a unique red-blood
²⁹⁶ phenotype where it serves two purposes the hemocyte carries oxygen around the
²⁹⁷ body and strengthens immune defenses. In addition, it possesses a unique ability
²⁹⁸ to absorb oxygen at similar rates in water and air (Zhan & Bao, 2022).

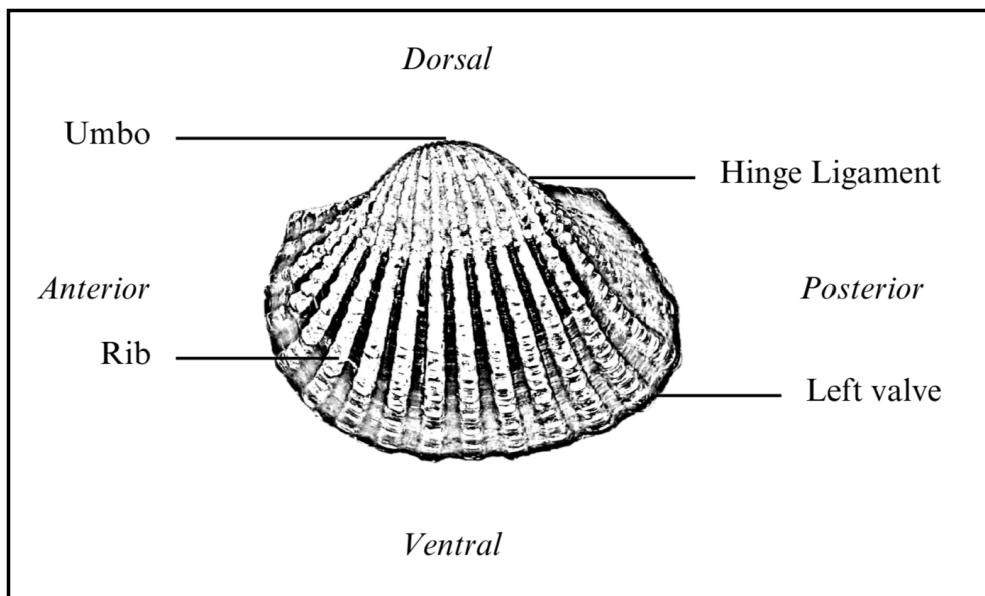


Figure 2.1: Diagram of *Tegillarca granosa* Anatomy

²⁹⁹ *T. granosa* shell is medium-sized, fairly thick, ovate, and convex, with both
³⁰⁰ valves being equal in size but asymmetrical from the hinge. The top edge of
³⁰¹ the dorsal margin is straight, while the front is rounded and slopes downward,
³⁰² with its back being obliquely rounded with a concave bottom edge. It has a
³⁰³ narrow diamond-shaped ligament near the hinge with 3-4 dark chevron markings,
³⁰⁴ although some may be incomplete. The shell's outer layer, or the periostracum, is

smooth and brown with a straight hinge line and 40-68 fine short teeth arranged in a straight line. The beak, or prosogyrate, curves forward, with the shell having 18–21 raised ribs with blunt nodules and spaces between them. The inner shell is white with crenulations along the valves' ventral, anterior, and posterior margins. The posterior adductor scar is elongated and squarish, while the anterior adductor scar is similar but smaller in size. The mantle covering the bulk of *T. granosa*'s visceral mass is thin but the edges are thick and muscular. It bears the impression of the crenulated shell edges. Their foot is large with a ventral groove with no byssus or thread-like attachment. The *T. granosa*'s soft body is blood red (Narasimham, 1988).

T. granosa is one of the most well-known marine bivalves given that they are a protein-rich food, known for their rich flavor, substantial nutritional benefits, a good source of vitamins, low in fat, and contain a considerable amount of iron, important in combating anemia (Zha et al., 2022). Blood cockles were collected by locals inhabiting the brackish mudflats during the low tides for consumption and sold in the market as a source of livelihood (Miranda & Ferriols, 2023). *T. granosa* is not only valuable for its market and food purposes but also facilitates an important role in marine ecosystems as a food source for various organisms like wading birds, intertidal-feeding fish, and crustaceans such as shore crabs and shrimp (Burdon, Callaway, Elliott, Smith, & Wither, 2014). Blood cockles can act as sentinel species and a bioindicator of marine pollutants such as heavy metals (Ishak, Mohamad, Soo, & Hamid, 2016) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (Sany et al., 2014). Additionally, cockle shells can be utilized to create a cost-effective catalyst for biodiesel production by providing calcium oxide (Boey, Maniam, Hamid, & Ali, 2011).

Determining the sex of bivalves is important for three reasons: diversity, environmental benefits, and economic significance (Breton et al., 2010). Firstly, with the estimated 25, 000 living species under class Bivalvia, it would be a suitable resource to develop a broader understanding of their evolution of the sex and sex determination mechanism (Breton et al., 2010). Second, studying sex determination is important since bivalves are utilized as bioindicators of environmental health. This would pave the way for understanding bivalves' life cycle and population dynamics in determining different factors that affect them (Campos, Tedesco, Vasconcelos, & Cristobal, 2012). Thirdly, the immediate and practical reason to unveil the sex determination mechanism is the economic and nutritional importance of bivalves as a large population of people relies on fish and shellfish as sources of food and nutrition (Naylor et al., 2000). Additionally, male and female aquaculture commodities have different growth and economic values. Male Nile tilapia, for example, grow faster and have lower feed conversion rates than females, female Kuruma prawns (*Penaeus japonicus*) are generally larger than

³⁴⁵ males at the time of harvest (Budd, Banh, Domingos, & Jerry, 2015).

³⁴⁶ Clearly, much more work is required to understand the mechanisms under-
³⁴⁷ lying sexual dimorphism in bivalves, specifically *T. granosa*. Just like the other
³⁴⁸ aquaculture commodities, sex affects not just reproduction but it can affect mar-
³⁴⁹ ket preference and underlying economic value, making the determination of sex
³⁵⁰ important for meeting consumer demands. These are the increasing significance
³⁵¹ of the *T. granosa* despite the lack of reviewed articles in the Philippines.

³⁵² **2.2 Current Methods of Sex Identification in *Tegillarca granosa***

³⁵³

³⁵⁴ The current sex identification methods in *Tegillarca granosa* range from invasive
³⁵⁵ histological techniques to less invasive methodologies like temperature-induced
³⁵⁶ spawning. Each approach comes with its pros and cons regarding accuracy, feasi-
³⁵⁷ bility, and impact on natural populations.

³⁵⁸ Induced spawning and larval rearing are considered the less invasive techniques
³⁵⁹ used to study *Tegillarca granosa*. In the Philippines, limited research has been
³⁶⁰ done on the *Tegillarca granosa* (Linnaeus, 1758), and this study, titled Initial At-
³⁶¹ tempts on Spawning and Larval Rearing of the Blood Cockle, *Tegillarca granosa*
³⁶² in the Philippines, is conducted by Denise Vergara Miranda and Victor Marco
³⁶³ Emmanuel Nuestro Ferriols (2023). The researchers conducted experiments on
³⁶⁴ induced spawning and larval rearing, discovering that the eggs of female *T. gra-*
³⁶⁵ *nosa* were salmon pink, while the sperm released by males looked milky. After
³⁶⁶ spawning, the researchers successfully generated 6, 531, 000 fertilized eggs.

³⁶⁷ They highlighted the importance of *T. granosa* and other anadarinids as a
³⁶⁸ food source that was established worldwide, especially in Malaysia and Korea.
³⁶⁹ However, in the Philippines, the bivalve aquaculture of the clam species is still
³⁷⁰ limited. The experiment which focuses on the culture and rearing of *T. granosa*
³⁷¹ was attempted by subjecting the wild broodstocks to a series of temperature fluc-
³⁷² tuations to induce the spawning of gametes. This is currently the most natural
³⁷³ and least invasive method for bivalves (Aji, 2011). The study of Miranda and
³⁷⁴ Ferriols aimed to pave the way to the sustainable production of *T. granosa* seeds
³⁷⁵ for aquaculture production and stock enhancement despite the scarcity of docu-
³⁷⁶ mented hatchery culture of *T. granosa* from larvae to adults that is available in
³⁷⁷ the Philippines.

³⁷⁸ In the study entitled "The earliest example of sexual dimorphism in bivalves —

379 evidence from the astartid *Nicanella* (Lower Jurassic, southern Germany)," the
380 researchers utilized Principal Component Analysis and Fourier Analysis as a non-
381 invasive method that investigates sexual expression in the *Nicanella rakoveci*. In
382 the study, researchers discovered that the bivalves with crenulations were found to
383 have a different shell shape, which made them more inflated than those without
384 crenulations. This suggests that when they became females, they adapted to
385 hold more eggs rather than for protection from predators as previously thought.
386 The formation of crenulations is likely part of the genetic process that controls
387 both the sex change and the changes in shell structure (Karapunar et al., 2021).
388 Overall, the findings demonstrate that the genetic mechanisms for sex change and
389 shell morphology in bivalves existed as early as the Early Jurassic, contributing
390 to our understanding of bivalve diversity and evolution. Thus, the researchers
391 concluded that crenulations serve as a morphological marker for identifying the
392 sex and reproductive stage of these bivalves (Karapunar et al., 2021).

393 On the other hand, invasive techniques such as histological analysis offer a
394 more thorough but harmful method for determining the sex of *T. granosa*. A
395 study on the Spawning Period of Blood Cockle *Tegillarca granosa* (Linnaeus,
396 1758) in Myeik Coastal. 240 blood cockle samples were examined for sex and
397 gonad maturity stages using histological examination, with shell lengths ranging
398 from 26-35mm and shell weights from 8.1-33g. For histological analysis, the whole
399 soft tissues were removed from the shell and the flesh containing most parts of
400 the gonads was fixed in formalin, dehydrated in an upgraded series of ethanol,
401 and cleared in xylene. This invasive method allows for precise identification of
402 the gonadal maturation stages based on the cellular and structural changes in the
403 gonads.

404 The classification of the gonad stages used was by Yurimoto et al. (2014).
405 There are five maturation stages of gonadal development: immature (Stage I),
406 developing (Stage II), mature (Stage III), spawning (Stage IV), and spent (Stage
407 V) stages. The sex of the *T. granosa* was confirmed by the color of the gonad and
408 by conducting a histological examination of the gonads. During the immature
409 stage, sex determination was indistinguishable due to the difficulties of observing
410 the germ cells. In the developing stage, the spermatocytes and a few spermatids
411 can be seen for males, and immature oocytes are attached to the tube wall for
412 the female. In the mature stage, the follicles are full of spermatozoa with their
413 tails pointing towards the center of the tube for the male, and the female is full
414 of mature oocytes that are irregular or polygonal in shape with the oval nucleus.
415 Upon reaching spawning, some spermatozoa are released, causing the empty space
416 in the follicle wall for males and females. There is a decrease in the number of
417 mature oocytes and it exhibits nuclear disappearance due to the breakdown of
418 the germinal vesicle. Lastly, the spent stage is where the genital tube is deformed

419 and devoid of spermatocytes which have completely spawned. In the female, the
420 genital tube is deformed and degenerated, making it empty. The morphology
421 of the cockle gonad shows that the area of the gonad increases according to the
422 increased levels of gonad maturity. The coloration of the gonad tissue layer in the
423 blood cockle varies from orange-red to pale orange in females and from white to
424 grayish-white in males for different maturity stages (May et al., 2021).

425 Although the histological examination is the most reliable method for obtain-
426 ing accurate information on the reproductive biology and sex determination of
427 *T. granosa*, it has limitations. Given its invasive nature, this approach requires
428 the dissection and destruction of specimens, making it unsuitable for continuous
429 monitoring and conservation efforts. Moreover, the current understanding of sex
430 determination in bivalves and mollusks is poor, and no chromosomes that can
431 be differentiated based on their morphology have been discovered (Afiati, 2007).
432 There exists a study that can provide insight into the sex-determining factor in
433 bivalves but *N. schoberi* is more difficult to analyze concerning potential sexual
434 dimorphism. Thickening the edges of the shell increases its inflation, which means
435 the shell can hold more space inside. This extra space helps protandrous females
436 accommodate more eggs.

437 **2.3 Machine Learning and Deep Learning in Bi- 438 ological Studies**

439 Machine learning has the potential to improve the quality of life of human beings
440 and has a wide range of applications in terms of research and development. The
441 term machine learning refers to the invention and algorithm evaluation that en-
442 ables pattern recognition, classification, and prediction based on models generated
443 from available data (Tarcă, Carey, Chen, Romero, & Drăghici, 2007). The study
444 of machine learning methods has advanced in the last several years, including bio-
445 logical studies. In biological studies, machine learning has been used for discovery
446 and prediction. This section will explore existing machine learning studies that
447 are applied in biological sciences, highlighting the identification of sex in shells,
448 bivalves, and mollusks.

449 **2.3.1 Deep Learning for Phenotype Classification in Ark
450 Shells**

451 In the study, the researchers utilized three (3) convolutional neural network (CNN)
452 models: the Visual Geometry Group Network (VGGnet), the Inception Residual
453 Network (ResNet), and the SqueezeNet (E. Kim, Yang, Cha, Jung, & Kim, 2024).
454 These deep learning models are utilized for the ark shells, namely *Anadara kagoshimensis*,
455 *Tegillarca granosa*, and *Anadara broughtonii*, to identify the phenotype
456 classification.

457 The researchers classified the ark shells based on radial rib count where they
458 investigated the difference in the number of radial ribs between three species and
459 were counted. Their CNN-based model that classifies images of three ark shells
460 can provide a theoretical basis for bivalve classification and enable the tracking of
461 the entire production process of ark shells from catching to selling with the support
462 of big data, which is useful for improving food safety, production efficiency, and
463 economic benefits (E. Kim et al., 2024).

464 **2.3.2 Geometric Morphometrics and Machine Learning for
465 Species Delimitation**

466 In *Geometric morphometrics and machine learning challenge currently accepted*
467 *species limits of the land snail Placostylus (Pulmonata: Bothriembryontidae)* on
468 *the Isle of Pines, New Caledonia*, the shell size was quantified using centroid size
469 from the Procrustes analysis, and both the shape and size information were used in
470 training the machine learning model. Their study concluded that the researchers
471 support utilizing both methods: supervised and unsupervised machine learning,
472 rather than choosing either of them individually. In general, their research con-
473 tributes to the growing number of studies that have combined geometric mor-
474 phometrics with the aid of machine learning, which is helpful in biological innovation
475 and breakthrough (Quenu, Trewick, Brescia, & Morgan-Richards, 2020).

476 **2.3.3 Contour Analysis in Mollusc Shells Using Machine
477 Learning**

478 Tuset et al. (2020), in their study, *Recognising mollusc shell contours with enlarged*
479 *spines: Wavelet vs Elliptic Fourier analyses*, mentioned that gastropod shells have
480 large spines and sharp shapes that differ based on environmental, taxonomic, and

481 evolutionary influences. The researchers stated that classic morphometric meth-
482 ods may not accurately depict morphological features of the shell, especially when
483 using the angular decomposition of the contour. The current research examined
484 and compared the robustness of the contour analysis using wavelet transformed
485 and Elliptic Fourier descriptors for gastropod shells with enlarged spines. For
486 that, the researchers analyzed two geographically and ecologically separated pop-
487 ulations of *Bolinus brandaris* from the NW Mediterranean Sea. Results showed
488 that contour analysis of gastropod shells with enlarged spines can be analyzed
489 using both methodologies, but the wavelet analysis provided better local discrim-
490 ination. From an ecological perspective, shells with various sizes of spines in both
491 areas indicate the broad adaptability of the species.

492 2.3.4 Machine Learning for Shape Analysis of Marine Or- 493 ganisms

494 In the study of Lishchenko and Jones (2021), titled *Application of Shape Analyses*
495 to *Recording Structures of Marine Organisms for Stock Discrimination and Taxo-*
496 *nomic Purposes*, they utilized geometric morphometrics (GM) as an approach to
497 the traditional method of collecting linear measurements with the application of
498 multivariate statistical methods and outline analysis in recording the structures
499 of marine organisms. The main taxonomic categories (mollusks, teleost fish, and
500 elasmobranchs) with their hard bodies have been used as an indication of age and
501 a determinable time-scale and structure continue to go through life (Arkhipkin,
502 2005; Kerr & Campana, 2014). This study has explored variations in the mor-
503 phometry of recording structures in stock discrimination and systematics. The
504 researchers utilized the principal component analysis rather than the traditional
505 approach, which helps simplify the data without losing important information.
506 They utilized landmark-based geometric morphometrics, which has three differ-
507 ent types, namely: discrete juxtaposition of tissue, maxima or curvature, or other
508 morphogenetic processes, and lastly, the extremal points are constructed land-
509 marks.

510 Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA) is a common superimposition tech-
511 nique in landmark-based geometric morphometrics that aligns landmarks via
512 translation, scaling, and rotation to eliminate non-shape deviations (Zelditch,
513 Swiderski, & Sheets, 2004). However, there is a limit to the amount of smooth
514 areas that may be captured, and it is possible to overlook significant shape details.
515 Utilization of the semi-landmarks enhanced the shape description (Adams, Rohlf,
516 & Slice, 2004). The researchers observed that using an outline-based approach
517 would be more effective than using a landmark-based approach.

518 Another approach is the Fourier analysis which is a curve-fitting approach
519 commonly used due to its well-known mathematical background and how general
520 functions can be decomposed into trigonometric or exponential functions with
521 definite frequencies. It has two main approaches, namely: Polar Transform (PT)
522 in which it expresses the outline using equally spaced radii, and Elliptical Fourier
523 Analysis (EFA) which separately analyzes the x and y coordinates of the shape.
524 The PT works for simple rounded outlines and has the tendency to miss details
525 in more complex shapes, unlike the EFA which can handle complex, convoluted
526 outlines (Zahn & Roskies, 1972; Doering & Ludwig, 1990; Ponton, 2006). Many
527 researchers view EFA as the most effective Fourier method for providing a compre-
528 hensive and detailed description of recording structures (Mérigot, Letourneau, &
529 Lecomte-Finiger, 2007; Ferguson, Ward, & Gillanders, 2011; Leguá, Plaza, Pérez,
530 & Arkhipkin, 2013; Mahé et al., 2016).

531 Landmark-based methods used in the study showed that there are detectable
532 differences between male and female octopuses. However, the accuracy of deter-
533 mining sex based on these differences was low, similar to the results obtained
534 with traditional morphometric techniques. The study involved a relatively small
535 sample size of 160 individuals, and the structure being analyzed (the stylet, or
536 internalized shell) varies significantly between individuals. Although the results
537 aligned with findings from other studies that attempted to identify gender differ-
538 ences in cephalopods, the researchers concluded that the approach might not be
539 accurate enough for reliable sex determination.

540 **2.3.5 Deep Learning for Landmark-Free Morphological Fea- 541 ture Extraction**

542 In another study, *a deep learning approach for morphological feature extraction*
543 *based on variational auto-encoder: an application to mandible shape*, the Morpho-
544 VAE machine learning approach was used to conduct a landmark-free shape ana-
545 lysis. Morpho-Vae reduces dimensions by concentrating on morphological features
546 that distinguish data with different labels using an image-based deep learning
547 framework that combines unsupervised and supervised machine learning. After
548 utilizing the method in primate mandible images, the morphological features re-
549 veal the characteristics to which family they belonged. Based on the result, the
550 method applied provides a versatile and promising tool for evaluating a wide range
551 of image data of biological shapes including those missing segments.

552 2.3.6 Machine Learning for Sex Differentiation in Abalone

553 In the study, *Towards Abalone Differentiation Through Machine Learning*, re-
554 searchers identified a problem in abalone farming which is having to identify the
555 sex of abalone to apply measures for its growth or preservation. The researchers
556 classified abalone sex using machine learning. Researchers trained the machine
557 to classify different types of classes which are male, female, and immature. The
558 results demonstrated the effectiveness of utilizing linear classifiers for this task.

559 Similarly, in the study, *Data scaling performance on various machine learning*
560 *algorithms to identify abalone sex*, the researchers of the University of India (2022)
561 focused on the data scaling performance of various machine learning algorithms to
562 identify the abalone sex, specifically using min-max normalization and zero-mean
563 standardization. The different machine learning algorithms are the Supervised
564 Vector Machine (SVM), Random Forest, Naive Bayesian, and Decision Tree. Their
565 study aims to utilize machine learning in terms of identifying the trends and
566 distribution patterns in the abalone dataset. Eight features of the abalone dataset
567 (length, diameter, height, whole weight, shucked weight, viscera weight, shell
568 weight, ring) were used to determine the three sexes of Abalone. Their data has
569 been grouped based on sex which are Female, Male, and Infant. They utilized
570 the Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique (SMOTE) in data balancing for
571 the preprocessing of the data. Followed by data scaling or normalization where
572 it converts numeric values in a data set to a general scale without distorting
573 differences in the range of values. Then they classified by splitting the data into
574 training and testing sets (Arifin, Ariawan, Rosalia, Lukman, & Tufailah, 2021).

575 The study found that Naive Bayes consistently performed better than other al-
576 gorithms. However, when applied to both min-max and zero-mean normalization,
577 the average accuracies of the algorithms were as follows: Random Forest (62.37%),
578 SVM with RBF kernel (59.49%), Decision Tree (57.20%), SVM with linear ker-
579 nel (56.59%), and Naive Bayes (53.39%). Despite the performance decrease with
580 normalization, Random Forest achieved the highest overall metrics, including an
581 average balanced accuracy of 74.87%, sensitivity of 66.43%, and specificity of
582 83.31%. Liu et al. concluded that Random Forest is highly accurate because it
583 can handle large, complex datasets, run processes in parallel using multiple trees,
584 and select the most relevant features to enhance model performance (Arifin et al.,
585 2021).

586 **2.3.7 Machine Learning for Geographical Traceability in**
587 **Bivalves**

588 In the study, *BivalveNet: A hybrid deep neural network for common cockle (Cerastoderma edule) geographical traceability based on shell image analysis*, the re-
589 searchers incorporated computer vision and machine learning technologies for an
590 efficient determination of blood cockle harvesting origin based on the shell geomet-
591 ric and morphometric analysis. It aims to improve the traceability methodologies
592 in these organisms and its potential as a reliable traceability tool. Thirty *Cerasto-*
593 *derma edule* samples were collected along the five locations on the Atlantic West
594 and South Portuguese coast with individual images processed using lazy snapping
595 segmentation, spectro-textural-morphological phenotype extraction, and feature
596 selection through hybrid Principal Component Analysis and Neighborhood Com-
597 ponent Analysis (Concepcion, Guillermo, Tanner, Fonseca, & Duarte, 2023).

599 The researchers developed a non-invasive image-based traceability technique,
600 an alternative to the chemical and biochemical analysis of the bivalves. It was
601 able to incorporate machine learning methods to promote lesser human interven-
602 tion. The researchers discovered that BivalveNet emerged as the superior model
603 for bivalves with 96.91% accuracy which is comparable to the accuracy of the
604 destructive methods with 97% and 97.2% accuracy rates. The result of the study
605 aided the researchers in concluding that there is a possibility of on-site evalua-
606 tion of the bivalve through the implementation of a mobile app that would allow
607 the public and official entities to obtain information regarding the provenance of
608 seafood products' traceability because of its non-invasive and image-based aspects
609 (Concepcion et al., 2023).

610 *Tegillarca granosa* is known for having no sexual dimorphism. However, through
611 several related studies, the researchers can apply how family shells of *Tegillarca*
612 *granosa* have been identified based on its morphological and morphometric char-
613 acteristics and the methods used in machine learning in identifying its sex.

614 **2.4 Limitations on Sex Identification in *Tegillarca***
615 ***granosa***

616 To date, no distinction has been made between the male and female *T. granosa*
617 in sexing methodology. In cockle aquaculture without clearly apparent sexual
618 dimorphism, sexing can be performed using invasive methods such as chemical
619 stimulation, dissection, and gonad-stripping. Induced spawning, specifically tem-

620 perature shock, is the most natural and least invasive method for bivalves (Aji,
621 2011). However, the method (Wong & Lim, 2018) of immersing cockles in water
622 from hot to cold with a specific temperature requires deliberate and careful ma-
623 nipulation of the temperature over a specific period and would require constant
624 management and monitoring.

625 Recent studies involved non-invasive methods, with a specific emphasis on
626 morphological characteristics as indicators of sex differentiation. However, Tat-
627 suya Yurimoto et al. (2014) stated that the existing methods for determining
628 the sex of bivalves and mollusks in general are somewhat limited (Afiati, 2007).
629 At present, there is no recorded evidence of sexual dimorphism in *Tegillarca gra-*
630 *nosa*. Gonochoristic is the classification given to *Tegillarca granosa* (Lee, 1997).
631 However, Lee et al. (2012) reported that the sex ratio varied with shell length,
632 suggesting that sex might alter.

633 Hermaphrodites can exhibit either sequential (asynchronous) or simultaneous
634 (synchronous or functional) characteristics. Sequential hermaphrodites switch
635 genders after being male or female for one or multiple yearly cycles. (Heller,
636 1993; Gosling, 2004; Collin, 2013). Sex change and consecutive hermaphroditism
637 have been observed in different bivalve species, including Ostreidae, Pectinidae,
638 Veneridae, and Patellidae. However, macroscopically differentiating bivalve sex is
639 challenging. The only way it may be identified is through histological analysis of
640 gonad remains but to do so there is an act of killing the organism (Coe, 1943;
641 Gosling, 2004). Verification of sex change in bivalves to classify whether male or
642 female while they are alive is challenging since they need to be re-confirmed and
643 re-evaluated to be the same individual after a year.

644 Lee et al. (2012) found out that *T. granosa*, a species in Arcidae, has been
645 discovered to be a sequential hermaphrodite, with the sex ratio changing with an
646 increase in the shell size. In bivalves, sex changes usually happen when the gonad
647 is not differentiated between spawning seasons (Thompson, Newell, Kennedy, &
648 Mann, 1996). But in *T. granosa*, after the spawning season, sex changes during
649 its inactive phase. Results showed a 15.1% sex change ratio, with males having
650 a higher sex change ratio (21.2%) than females (6.2%). The 1+ year class had a
651 higher ratio (17.8%) than the 2+ year class (12.1%). Thus, this study indicates
652 that *T. granosa* is a sequential hermaphrodite. The results of the study demon-
653 strated that the bivalve's age affects the sex ratio and degree of sex change, but
654 additional in-depth investigation is required to determine the role that genetic
655 and environmental factors play in these changes.

656 No literature in the study of mollusks specifically addresses the machine learn-
657 ing algorithm used to determine the sex of *T. granosa* bivalves in various mod-
658 els. Nevertheless, various techniques such as shape analysis, morphometric ana-

659 lysis, Wavelet, and Fourier analysis, as well as different deep learning models like
660 VGNet, ResNet, and SqueezeNet in CNN networks, are utilized for phenotype
661 classification, while different machine learning algorithms could serve as the foun-
662 dation for this research project.

663 **2.5 Synthesis of the Study**

664 This section of the paper summarizes the technologies used in the different studies
665 related to the pursuit of the study entitled, Morphometric-Based Non-Invasive Sex
666 Identification of Blood Cockles *Tegillarca granosa* (Linnaeus, 1758).

Author	Technology / Method Used	Description of Problem	Pros	Cons
D. V. Miranda and V. M. E. N. Ferriols	Temperature shock	No recent studies are available on the production and rearing of <i>T. granosa</i> in the Philippines.	Employed less invasive techniques which minimize the stress in <i>T. granosa</i> and can lead to better survival rates.	Time-consuming as the entire process from fertilization to the spat stage took 120 days.
Karapunar, Baran and Werner, W. and Fürsich, F. T. and Nützel, A.	Morphometric analysis, microscope imaging, principal component analysis (PCA), and Fourier shape analysis	To address the observed shell dimorphism in the Early Jurassic bivalve <i>Nicanella rakoveci</i> , namely the presence or lack of crenulations on the ventral shell margin, and whether these variations represent sexual dimorphism and sequential hermaphroditism.	The methods used reveal significant morphological differences with regard to sexual dimorphism.	There could be misinterpretation of the shape differences of bivalves due to the constraints and resolution of technologies used.
K. May and C. Maung and E. Phyu and N. Tun	Histological examination	The need to understand the reproductive period of <i>T. granosa</i> in Myeik to ensure sustainable aquaculture and to prevent overexploitation.	Method used allows for accurate sex identification based on the histological characteristics and color of the gonads.	Invasive technique used to determine the sex of <i>T. granosa</i> through gonad histological analysis.
E. Kim and S.-M. Yang and J.-E. Cha and D.-H. Jung and H.-Y. Kim	Convolutional neural network (CNN) models, VGGNet, Inception-ResNet, SqueezeNet	Traditional methods of recognizing and classifying ark shell species based on shell traits are time-consuming and inaccurate.	Automated classification of the three ark shells using a deep learning model obtained an accuracy of 92.4%.	Challenges may arise with certain ark shells that share similar morphology.
Mathieu Quennec and S. A. Trewick and F. Brescia and M. Morgan-Richards	Neural network analysis (supervised learning) and Gaussian mixture models (unsupervised learning)	To determine whether the shape and size of the snail's shells can distinguish between two <i>Placostylus</i> species, particularly in groups that appear to be hybrids.	Combining geometric morphometrics and machine learning effectively answers biological issues, providing insights into species classification and possible hybridization.	Difficulty classifying intermediate phenotypes, with potential for overfitting and misclassification in both learning methods.
V. M. Tuset and E. Galimany and A. Farrés and E. Marco-Herrero and J. L. Otero-Ferret and A. Lombarte and M. Ramón	Wavelet functions and Elliptic Fourier descriptors	Addresses the difficulty of accurately defining phenotypic diversity in gastropod shells.	Advanced contour analysis methods allow accurate differentiation of gastropod shell forms.	Cannot clarify the causes of phenotypic variation in the two populations studied.
Fedor Lishchenko and Jones, J. B.	Landmark- and outline-based Geometric Morphometric methods	To address difficulties in differentiating between stocks of marine organisms to prevent misidentification that could affect conservation and management.	Shape analysis improves taxonomic classification precision and offers close distinction between related species or organisms.	Landmark-based methods can be sensitive to landmark placement.
M. Tsutsumi and N. Saito and D. Koyabu and C. Furusawa	Morphological regulated variational AutoEncoder (Morpho-VAE)	The need for reliable, landmark-free methods, such as a modified variational autoencoder, to extract and decipher complex shapes from image data.	Employs dimension reduction and feature extraction, making it a user-friendly tool for biology non-experts.	Limited sample size in certain families presented challenges.
Barrera-Hernandez, R. and Barrera-Soto, V. and Martinez-Rodriguez, J. L. and Ríos-Alvarado, A. B. and Ortiz-Rodríguez, F.	Machine learning algorithms	Identifying the sex of abalones is challenging for producers applying specific growth or preservation strategies.	Machine learning algorithms accurately classify abalone sex into three categories: male, female, and immature.	Selected features may not fully capture the complexity of abalone morphology.
Concepcion, R. and Guillermo, M. and Tanner, S. E. and Fonseca, V. and Duarte, B.	EfficientNet-Bo, ResNet101, MobileNetV2, InceptionV3	Addresses the difficulty of accurately tracing bivalve harvesting origins using computer vision and machine learning algorithms to enhance seafood traceability and combat food fraud.	Non-invasive, image-based tools for bivalve traceability provide faster, cheaper, and equally accurate alternatives to traditional chemical analysis methods.	Small sample size (only 30 cockles) limits model reliability.

Table 2.1: Comparison of the Methods Used in Bivalves Studies

667 Recent developments and breakthroughs in machine learning offer hopeful
668 solutions for biological issues. Research findings indicate that various machine
669 learning techniques such as CNNs, geometric morphometrics, and deep learning
670 models. They are deemed effective for identifying phenotypes and determining
671 the gender of various aquaculture commodities, such as mollusks and abalones.
672 These techniques provide a starting point for creating new, non-invasive ways to
673 differentiate male and female *T. granosa*, potentially addressing the drawbacks of
674 manual and invasive methods. Thus, machine learning to examine morphological
675 and morphometric features may streamline the process of sex identification.

676 Nevertheless, the use of machine learning to determine the sex of *T. granosa*
677 has not been fully explored. It lacks up-to-date and significant related literature
678 on using machine learning to identify sex in *T. granosa*, particularly given the
679 species' possible sequential hermaphroditism and lack of obvious external sexual
680 distinctions.

⁶⁸¹ Chapter 3

⁶⁸² Research Methodology

⁶⁸³ This chapter discussed the materials and methods employed in the study, focusing
⁶⁸⁴ on the development requirements, as well as the software and programming
⁶⁸⁵ languages utilized. It also detailed the overall workflow in conducting the study,
⁶⁸⁶ Morphometric-Based Non-Invasive Sex Identification of Blood Cockles *Tegillarca*
⁶⁸⁷ *granosa* (Linnaeus), 1758) using machine learning and deep learning technologies.

⁶⁸⁸ Dr. Victor Emmanuel Ferriols, the director of the Institute of Aquaculture,
⁶⁸⁹ oversaw the overall workflow and conduct of the experiment. The researchers were
⁶⁹⁰ also guided by research associates LC Mae Gasit and Allena Esther Artera. Con-
⁶⁹¹ sequently, the entire dataset collection process was conducted at the University of
⁶⁹² the Philippines Visayas hatchery facility.

⁶⁹³ The methodology consisted of eight parts: (1) Sample Collection, (2) Ethical
⁶⁹⁴ Considerations, (3) Creating *T.granosa* Dataset, (4) Morphological Characteris-
⁶⁹⁵ tics Collection (5) Image Acquisition and Pre-processing, (6) Hardware and Soft-
⁶⁹⁶ ware Configuration,(7) Morphometric Characteristics Evaluation Using Machine
⁶⁹⁷ Learning, and (8) Morphological Characteristics Evaluation Using Deep Learning

⁶⁹⁸ 3.1 Sample Collection

⁶⁹⁹ The collection of *T. granosa* samples used in this study was part of an ongoing
⁷⁰⁰ research project by UPV DOST-PCAARRD titled "Establishment of the Center
⁷⁰¹ for Mollusc Research and Development: Development of Spawning and Hatchery
⁷⁰² Techniques for the Blood Cockle (*Anadara granosa*) for Sustainable Aquaculture."
⁷⁰³ A total of 271 samples were provided for this study to classify the sex of *T. granosa*.

704 The samples, ranging in size from 34 to 61 mm, were sourced from the coastal area
705 of Zaraga, Iloilo, and fish markets in Ivisan, Capiz, Philippines (see Figure 3.1).

706 The research and experimentation were conducted at the University of the
707 Philippines Visayas hatchery facility in Miagao, Iloilo, where the samples were
708 maintained in 200 L fiberglass-reinforced plastic (FRP) tanks containing filtered
709 seawater with 35 ppt salinity (Miranda & Ferriols, 2023).

710 As part of the data collection process, the researchers utilized induced spawning
711 and dissection to classify the sex of the samples. Induced spawning through
712 temperature fluctuations was the most natural and least invasive method for bi-
713 valves compared to other approaches (Aji, 2011). However, since not all samples
714 exhibited gamete release, the researchers also performed dissections, assisted by
715 hatchery staff, to expedite data collection. The sex of the dissected samples was
716 identified based on the coloration of gonad tissue, which varies according to sex
717 and maturity stage. Females exhibited orange-red to pale orange gonads, while
718 males displayed white to grayish-white gonads (May et al., 2021).

719 The methods used for data collection were considered noninvasive, particularly
720 given that *T. granosa* are oxygen regulators well adapted to tidal exposure and
721 hypoxia (Davenport & Wong, 1986).

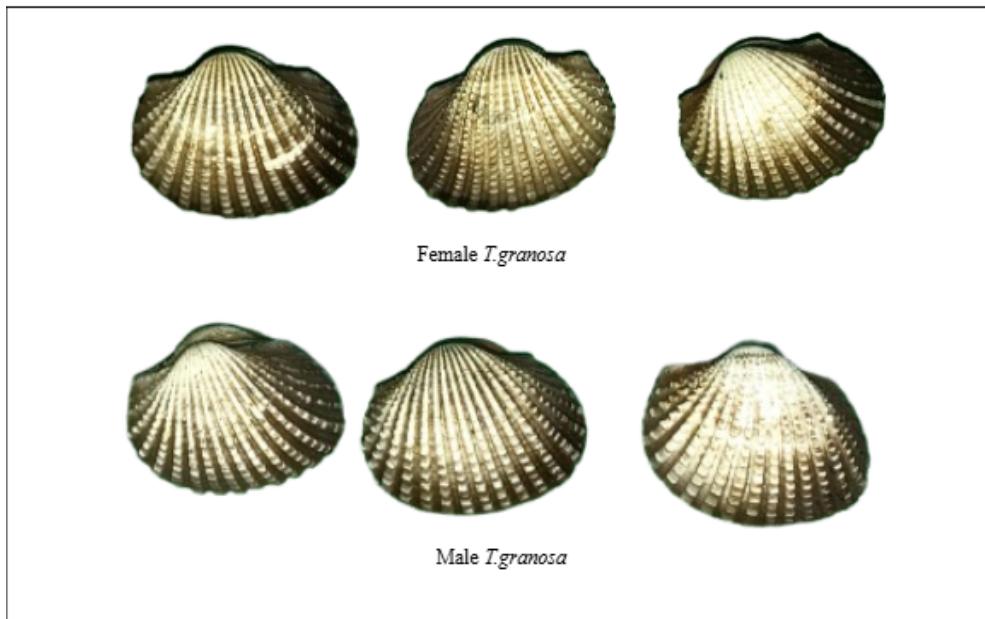


Figure 3.1: Male and Female *Tegillarca granosa* shells

722 3.2 Ethical Considerations

723 The ongoing research project titled "Establishment of the Center for Mollusc Re-
724 search and Development: Development of Spawning and Hatchery Techniques for
725 the Blood Cockle (*Anadara granosa*) for Sustainable Aquaculture"—from which
726 the samples used in this study were obtained—was reviewed and approved by the
727 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of the University of the
728 Philippines Visayas.

729 3.3 Creating *T. granosa* Dataset

730 The experiment began with the collection of preliminary observations from 100 *T.*
731 *granosa* samples. For the actual experimentation, the researchers collected the full
732 dataset in batches until a total sample size of 271 *T. granosa* was reached. Lin-
733 ear measurements—including width, height, length, rib count, hinge line length,
734 and the distance between the umbos—were recorded and organized into a CSV
735 file. This dataset served as the foundation for training and testing machine learn-
736 ing models, as well as for establishing a baseline for the Convolutional Neural
737 Networks.

738 Images of each sample were captured and saved in JPG format using a stan-
739 dardized file naming convention that included the sample's sex, the shell's ori-
740 entation or view, and its corresponding number out of the 271 total samples. File
741 names for female *T. granosa* samples began with "0", while those for male sam-
742 ples began with "1". Each file name also included one of the six captured views:
743 (1) dorsal, (2) ventral, (3) anterior, (4) posterior, (5) left lateral, and (6) right
744 lateral (refer to Figure 3.2), followed by a unique sample number. For exam-
745 ple, "010001" denoted the first female sample taken from the dorsal view, while
746 "110001" represented the first male sample from the same view. This naming
747 convention was implemented to prevent data leakage and ensure accurate labeling
748 of images according to their respective samples.

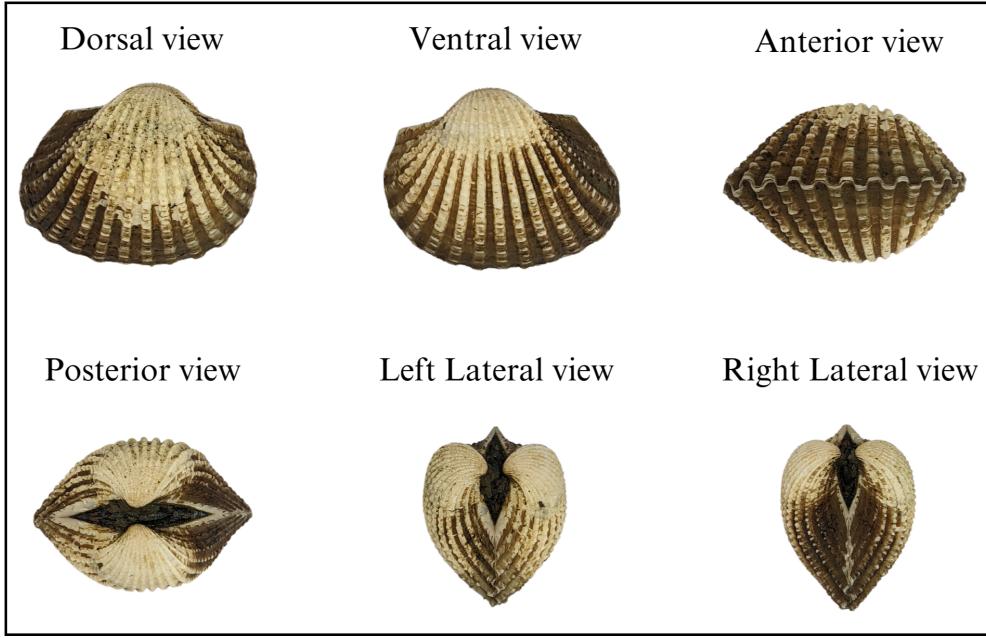


Figure 3.2: Different Views of the *T. granosa* Shell Captured

⁷⁴⁹ 3.4 Morphological and Morphometric Characteristics Collection

⁷⁵⁰ Morphology refers to biological form and is one of the most visually recognizable phenotypes across all organisms (Tsutsumi, Saito, Koyabu, & Furusawa, 2023). In this study, morphological characteristics describe the structural features of *T. granosa*, focusing on measurable attributes such as shape, size, and color. Morphometric characteristics, on the other hand, refer to specific quantifiable features of *T. granosa*, including length, width, height, hinge line length, distance between the umbos, and rib count. As stated by the researchers, quantifying and characterizing these traits is essential for understanding and visualizing variations in *T. granosa* morphology.

⁷⁶⁰ The researchers measured the height, width, and length of *T. granosa* using a Vernier caliper with a precision of up to 0.01 mm. Refer to Figure 3.3 for the corresponding measurement diagram. Length (A) refers to the distance from the anterior to the posterior of the shell. Width (B) is defined as the widest span across the shell from the left to the right valve. Height (C) measures the distance from the base to the apex of the shell. In addition, the hinge line length (D) near the hinge and the distance between the umbos (E) were recorded.

⁷⁶¹ Reament and Kennedy (1998) emphasized that including rib count as supple-

mentary information can enhance identification accuracy. Following this insight, the researchers also recorded the rib count for both male and female *T. granosa*, adjusting the values by calculating ratios to account for natural size variation among specimens.

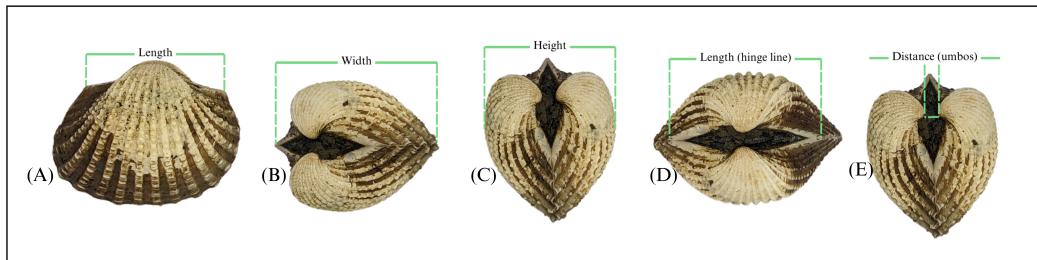


Figure 3.3: Linear Measurements of *Tegillarca granosa* shell.

3.5 Image Acquisition and Data Gathering

This study comprised 144 male and 127 female *T. granosa* samples, resulting in a total of 1,626 images captured from various angles. To ensure consistency during image acquisition, the researchers constructed a box-like structure with a white background to control the imaging environment. This setup allowed for uniform image captures by fixing the camera at a consistent angle directly above the *T. granosa*. A ring light was positioned in front of the box to enhance image quality, eliminate shadows, and ensure clarity of the samples throughout the image acquisition process.

The images were captured using a Google Pixel 3 XL smartphone, which features a resolution of 2960×1440 pixels and a 12.2 MP camera (4032×3024 pixels). Additional camera specifications include an f/1.8 aperture, 28mm wide lens, $\frac{1}{2.55}$ " sensor size, 1.4 μm pixel size, dual-pixel phase detection autofocus (PDAF), and optical image stabilization (OIS) (Concepcion et al., 2023).



Figure 3.4: Image Acquisition Setup for *T. granosa* Samples

786 3.6 Hardware and Software Configuration

787 This section of the paper discusses the software, programming languages, and tools
788 used for sex identification. Data collection, preprocessing, and model training
789 were conducted on a Windows 11 operating system using an ACER Aspire 3
790 general-purpose unit (GPU) equipped with an AMD Ryzen 3 7320U CPU with
791 Radeon Graphics (8 cores) @ 2.395 GHz and 8 GB of RAM. Google Colaboratory
792 was utilized for collaborative preprocessing, computer vision tasks, and model
793 training. Image preprocessing was performed using computer vision techniques in
794 Python, while machine learning and deep learning models were developed using
795 Python libraries, including Keras. The results of the gathered measurements were
796 stored and managed using spreadsheet software. GitHub was employed for version
797 control, documentation, and activity tracking throughout the study.

798 3.7 Morphometric Characteristics Evaluation Us- 799 ing Machine Learning

800 This section of the paper discusses the machine learning operations that served
801 as a baseline prior to implementing more complex deep learning methods for
802 image classification. The study utilized collected variables including linear mea-
803 surements—length, width, height, hinge line length, distance between the um-
804 bos, and rib count—along with derived features used as predictors. These in-
805 cluded the length-to-width ratio, length-to-height ratio, width-to-height ratio,
806 umbo distance-to-length ratio, hinge line length-to-length ratio, umbo distance-

807 to-height ratio, and rib density. The samples were classified by sex, with females
808 labeled as 0 and males as 1, which served as the response variable.

809 **3.7.1 Data Preprocessing**

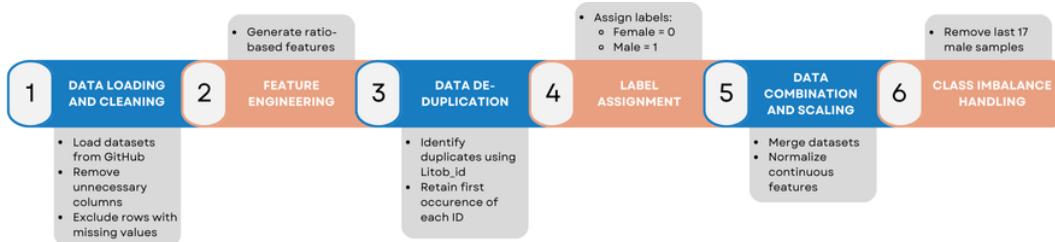


Figure 3.5: Data Preprocessing Pipeline

810 The preprocessing of the dataset involved several essential steps, carried out
811 using Python in Google Colaboratory, in preparation for machine learning analysis
812 (see Figure 3.5).

813 ***Data Loading and Cleaning***

814 The process began by loading two separate datasets for male and female *T.
815 granosa* directly from GitHub using `pd.read_csv()`. Unnecessary columns were
816 removed, and rows containing missing values were excluded using the `dropna()`
817 function to ensure data completeness and reliability.

818 ***Feature Engineering***

819 Additional ratio-based features were generated to augment the existing mea-
820 surements. These included the length-to-width ratio, length-to-height ratio, width-
821 to-height ratio, hinge line length-to-length ratio, umbos distance-to-length ratio,
822 umbos distance-to-height ratio, and rib density. These derived features aimed to
823 emphasize shape characteristics independent of size, improving the models' ability
824 to distinguish morphological differences between sexes.

825 ***Data De-duplication***

826 To avoid redundancy and ensure each specimen was uniquely represented, the
827 last three digits of each `Litob_id` were used to identify duplicates. Only the first
828 occurrence of each unique ID was retained, reducing potential bias caused by
829 repeated entries.

830 ***Label Assignment***

831 A new column labeled `Label` was added to both datasets. Female specimens
832 were assigned a label of 0, and male specimens a label of 1. This column served
833 as the target variable for classification.

834 ***Data Combination and Scaling***

835 After cleaning and feature engineering, the male and female datasets were
836 merged into a single DataFrame. The `Litob_id` column was removed post de-
837 duplication. All continuous numeric features were normalized using `MinMaxScaler`
838 to scale values to the range [0, 1].

839 Rib count was excluded from normalization because it is a discrete feature with
840 biologically meaningful bounds. According to best practices in machine learning,
841 normalizing discrete or categorical features can distort their meaning and is often
842 unnecessary (Jaiswal, 2024). In this study, rib count was treated as a categorical
843 attribute due to its biological significance and finite, non-continuous nature.

844 ***Class Imbalance Handling***

845 After normalization, class imbalance was addressed by removing the last 17
846 samples from the male dataset. This ensured an equal number of male and female
847 samples (127 each), helping to prevent model bias and improving the reliability
848 of classification performance across both classes.

849 **3.7.2 Machine Learning Models Training**

850 ***Model Selection and Hyperparameter Tuning***

851 To establish a baseline for classification, various models were evaluated: Logis-
852 tic Regression, K-Nearest Neighbors, Support Vector Machine, Random Forest,
853 AdaBoost, Extra Trees, and Gradient Boosting. Hyperparameter tuning was con-
854 ducted using `GridSearchCV`, which systematically identified the optimal settings
855 for each model to enhance accuracy and performance.

856 ***Cross- Validation***

857 A five-fold cross-validation approach was implemented. The dataset was di-
858 vided into five subsets, with four used for training and one for testing. This
859 process was repeated five times, with each fold serving as the test set once. This
860 method ensured that model evaluation was robust and generalizable, minimizing

861 the bias that may result from a single train-test split. (GeeksforGeeks, 2024)

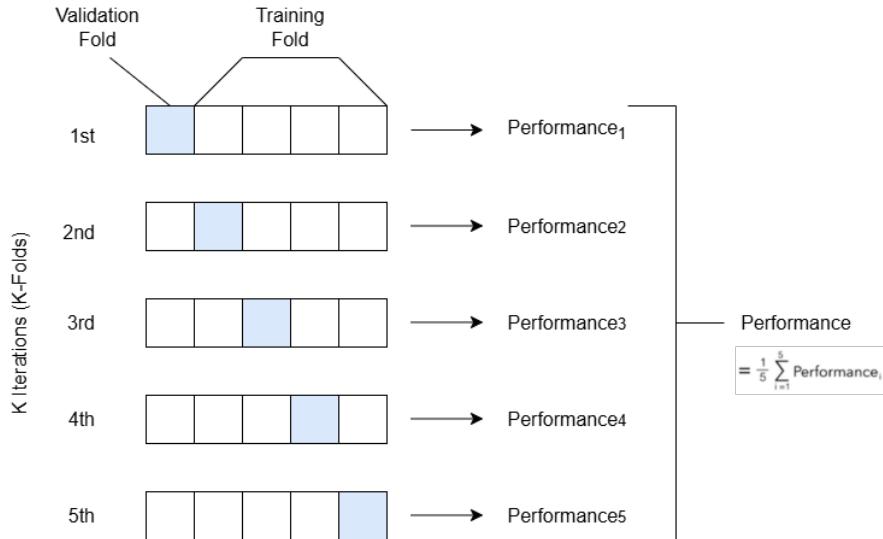


Figure 3.6: Diagram of k-fold cross-validation with $k = 5$

862 3.7.3 Evaluation Metrics for Machine Learning

863 Evaluating the performance of the binary classification model is important as well
864 as selecting the appropriate metrics that is based on the requirements of the user.
865 The performance of the supervised machine learning models will be measured
866 based on four metrics namely: accuracy, precision, recall, and F1 score.

867 Accuracy (ACC) is the ratio of the overall correctly predicted samples to the
868 total number of examples in the evaluation dataset (Cui, Pan, Chen, & Zou, 2020).
869 The overall correctness of the model in predicting male and female blood cockles.
870 This metric could help in understanding how well the model performs across all
871 classifications. The formula for the accuracy is:

$$ACC = \frac{\text{Correctly classified samples}}{\text{All samples}} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + TN + FN} \quad (3.1)$$

872 Precision (PREC) is the ratio between correctly predicted samples in all samples
873 that are assigned to the positive class (Cui et al., 2020). This metric promotes fair
874 representation and prevents the misidentification of blood cockles as it identifies
875 potential inaccuracies or biases. The formula for precision is:

$$\text{PREC} = \frac{\text{True positive samples}}{\text{Samples assigned to class}} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad (3.2)$$

876 Recall (REC) is known as the sensitivity or the true positive rate (TPR) which
 877 is the ratio of the correctly predicted cases from all the samples assigned to the
 878 actual positive cases (Cui et al., 2020). This metric is the ability of the model to
 879 correctly identify positive male and female samples. The formula for the recall is:

$$\text{REC} = \frac{\text{True positive samples}}{\text{Samples classified positive}} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (3.3)$$

880 F1 score is defined as the mean of the precision and recall in which it penalizes
 881 the extreme values of either of the two (Cui et al., 2020). The formula for the F1
 882 is:

$$\text{F1} = \frac{\text{precision} \times \text{recall}}{\text{precision} + \text{recall}} = \frac{2 \times TP}{2 \times TP + FP + FN} \quad (3.4)$$

⁸⁸³ **Chapter 4**

⁸⁸⁴ **Preliminary Results**

⁸⁸⁵ This chapter outlines the results of preprocessing, training of machine learning
⁸⁸⁶ models, and feature importance analysis. The dataset was preprocessed using
⁸⁸⁷ Python in Google Colab. After preprocessing, the dataset was imported to MAT-
⁸⁸⁸ LAB to train and evaluate the performance of various classifiers. It was followed
⁸⁸⁹ by assessing the performance of different classifiers and conducting feature impor-
⁸⁹⁰ tance analysis to identify the most significant predictors for sex identification in
⁸⁹¹ *T. granosa*.

⁸⁹² **4.1 Data Summary**

⁸⁹³ **4.1.1 Dataset Overview and Exploration**

⁸⁹⁴ The dataset contains the morphometric measurements collected from the 77 male
⁸⁹⁵ and 72 female *T. granosa* samples. Figure no. shows the proportion of male and
⁸⁹⁶ female samples, a total of 149 samples collected by the researchers and classified
⁸⁹⁷ through spawning and dissection.

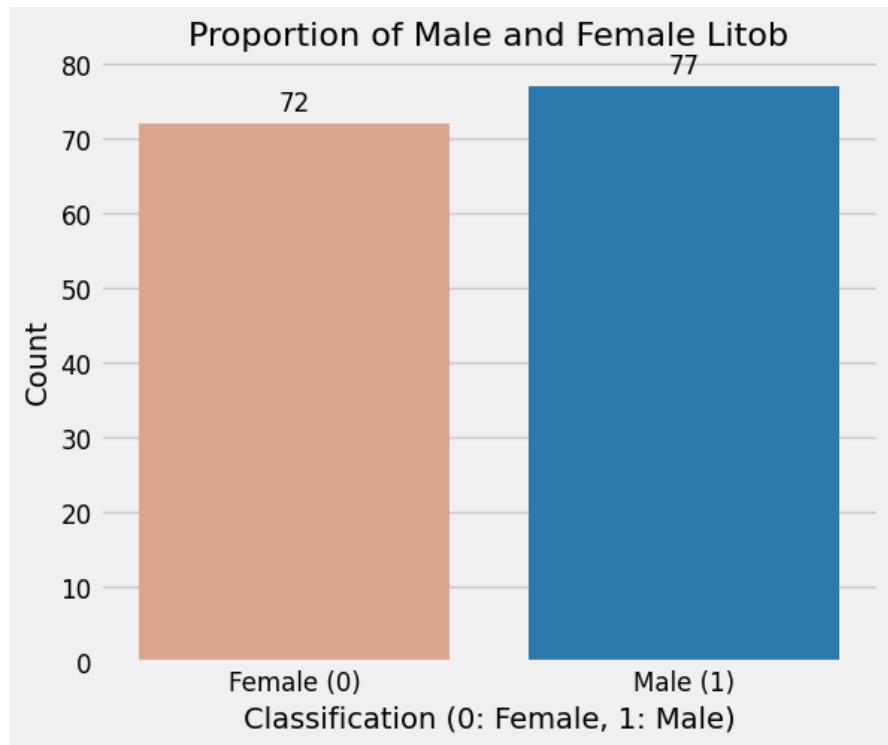


Figure 4.1: Proportion of Male and Female *T. granosa*

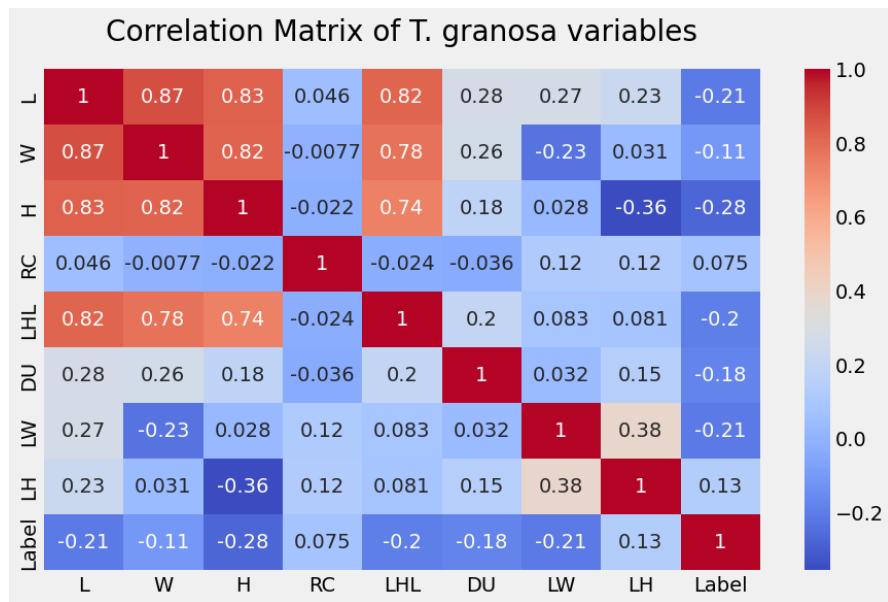


Figure 4.2: Correlation Matrix of Predictors and Target Variables

898 Figure 4.2 shows the correlation matrix between the variables and the corre-
899 lation with the target was identified and displayed in the heatmap. The positive
900 correlations observed in the matrix are the length (L) and Width (W) having (r
901 = 0.87) and height (H) (r = 0.83), width (W) and Height (H) with (r = 0.82),
902 and length (L) and hinge line length (LHL) with (r = 0.82). These features show
903 high multicollinearity since the correlation is greater than 0.8 (J. H. Kim, 2019).
904 This feature indicates that as the length of the shell increases, its width, height,
905 and hinge line length increases as well. In contrast, the rib count (RC) and dis-
906 tance of the umbos (DU) have a weak correlation from other features, with (r =
907 0.0046) and (r = 0.28) being the highest, respectively. This indicates that fea-
908 tures such as the rib count and distance of the umbos do not strongly depend on
909 the length, width, and height of the shell. The correlation analysis between the
910 predictors and the target (label, male or female) showed that most features had
911 a weak negative correlation with the label. Specifically, the highest negative cor-
912 relations were observed for the length (L) (r = -0.21), and height (H) (r = -0.28)
913 being the highest, indicating that these linear measurements only slightly differ
914 between males and females, making it challenging to distinguish morphometric
915 differences. Conversely, a weak positive correlation was found between the label
916 and the rib count (RC) and the length-to-height ratio (LH ratio), implying that
917 as these variables increase, the likelihood of classifying the sex improves.

918 Overall, the results show that while linear measurements such as length (L),
919 width (W), height (H), and hinge line length (LHL) are interdependent, the rib
920 count (RC) and distance between umbos (DU) are mostly independent features.
921 Additionally, the weak correlations between the linear measurements and the label
922 suggest that distinguishing between male and female *T. granosa* based on these
923 traits alone is difficult. To enhance predictive power, a combination of features
924 should be considered. Feature selection could be employed to identify meaningful
925 combinations of features and evaluate their performance using machine learning
926 metrics. Identifying these patterns is crucial for understanding complex biological
927 processes, as traditional correlation coefficients that capture only linear relation-
928 ships may overlook nonlinear interactions (Pividori, 2024).

929 **4.1.2 Statistical Analysis of *T. granosa* Features by Sex**

930 Figure 4.3 illustrates the mean and standard deviation (SD) of features by sex
931 in *T. granosa*. The differences in the average values of several features between
932 males and females are apparent, though the degree of variability within each
933 group, as indicated by the error bars, suggests varying levels of confidence in
934 these differences.

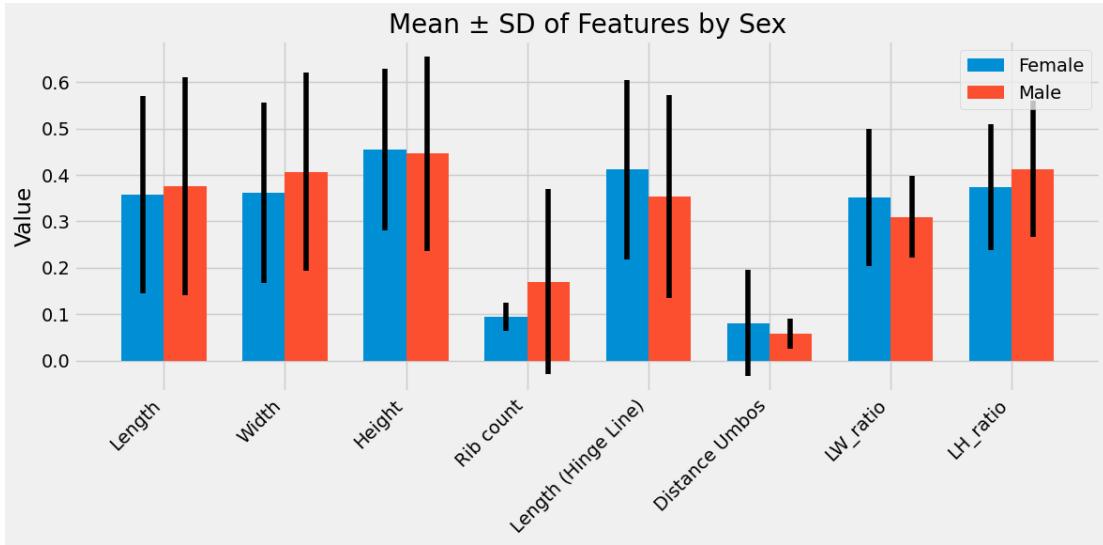


Figure 4.3: Sex-based Differences in Morphological Features of *T. granosa*

935 Males generally have larger average values for size-related features, including
 936 length, width, and height, compared to females. These differences are supported
 937 by relatively small error bars, suggesting greater confidence in the observed dis-
 938 tinctions.

939 While males show slightly higher average rib counts than females, the overlap
 940 in error bars indicates greater variability and less confidence in the difference for
 941 this feature.

942 The distance between umbos presents the most pronounced difference, with
 943 males having a significantly larger average value and minimal overlap in error
 944 bars. This strongly suggests a reliable distinction between sexes based on this
 945 feature. Similarly, hinge line length also exhibits a clear distinction, with males
 946 possessing longer average hinge lines and relatively small error bars.

947 The ratios of length to width (LW ratio) and length to height (LH ratio)
 948 show smaller differences between males and females, with overlapping error bars
 949 indicating that these features might be less reliable for sex differentiation, despite
 950 males tending to have slightly higher average values.

951 4.2 Comparison of Model Performance

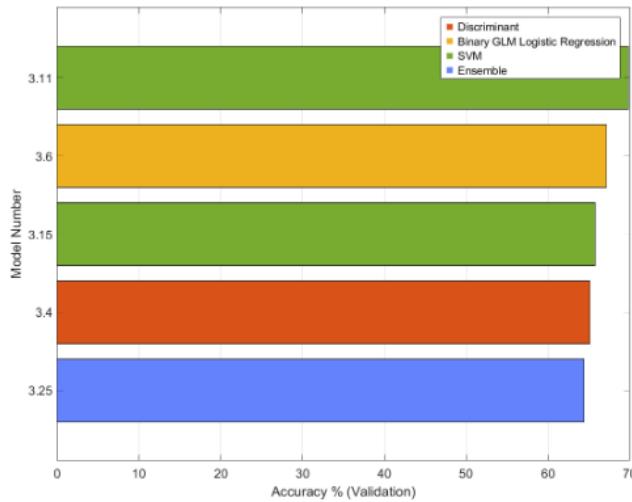


Figure 4.4: Comparison of Model Performance

952 Figure 4.4 shows the comparison of the accuracy in classifying the sex of
 953 T.granosa across different models including Discriminant, Binary GLM Logistic
 954 Regression, SVM, and Ensemble. Based on the figure above, the SVM achieved the
 955 highest accuracy percentage of 69.80%. This indicates that the SVM performed
 956 best among the models in the validation set, followed by the Binary GLM Logistic
 957 Regression and then the Discriminant. On the other hand, the Ensemble had the
 958 lowest accuracy making it the least effective model in the validation set.

959 4.2.1 Performance Evaluation

960 To evaluate the performance of the different models used, the effectiveness of each
 961 model in predicting the sex of *T. granosa* based on morphometric characteristics
 962 was assessed and compared. Performance metrics such as accuracy, precision,
 963 recall, and F1-score were utilized to evaluate the models. By analyzing these
 964 metrics, the researchers can identify the most effective model for classifying male
 965 and female *T. granosa*.

Model	Accuracy (Validation)	Weighted Precision	Weighted Recall	Weighted F1-score	Training Time (sec)
Linear SVM	69.80(%)	69.82(%)	69.80(%)	69.73(%)	2.354
Binary GLM Logistic Regression	67.11 (%)	67.16(%)	67.11(%)	66.99(%)	1.9415
Medium Gaussian SVM	65.77(%)	65.77(%)	65.77(%)	65.69 (%)	1.0323
Linear Discriminant	65.10(%)	65.22(%)	65.10(%)	64.86(%)	2.333
Subspace Discriminant	64.43(%)	64.50(%)	64.43(%)	64.23(%)	7.708

Table 4.1: Performance Metrics of Machine Learning Models for Sex Identification

966 Table 4.1 presents the comparison results of machine learning models on
967 the morphometric characteristics of the combined- male and female *T.granosa*
968 datasets. The results indicate that all models demonstrated moderate to high
969 performance in predicting males and females, with accuracies ranging between
970 64.43% to 69.80%.

971 The Linear SVM performs as the best model achieving the highest accuracy
972 (69.80%), precision (69.82%), recall (69.80%), and F1-score (69.73%), with a train-
973 ing time of 2.354s. This indicates that SVM is well-suited in identifying sex of
974 *T.granosa* based on its morphological features.

975 The Binary GLM Logistic Regression also performed well having an accuracy
976 of 67.11%, precision of 67.16%, recall of 67.11%, and F1-score of 66.99%, with a
977 training time of 1.9415s which is faster than Linear SVM.

978 The Medium Gaussian SVM, and Linear Discriminant closely followed each
979 other with accuracies of 65.77% and 65.10%, precisions of 65.77% and 65.22%,
980 recalls of 65.77% and 65.10%, and F1-scores of 65.69% and 64.86%, with a training
981 time of 1.0323s and 2.333s, respectively.

982 The Subspace discriminant, however, performed as the worst classifier with an
983 accuracy of 64.43%, precision (64.50%), recall(64.43%), and F1-score (64.23%),
984 having the longest training time of 7.708s.

985 Overall, the results seen in this comparison highlight that machine learning
986 models are effective in predicting sex identification of *T.granosa* based on their
987 morphometric characteristic with Linear SVM performing as the best model for
988 this dataset.

989 **4.2.2 Confusion Matrix Analysis**

990 Figure 4.5 displays the confusion matrix that provides a detailed breakdown of
991 classifier predictions, including true positives (correctly identified females), true
992 negatives (correctly identified males), false positives (males incorrectly classified
993 as females), and false negatives (females incorrectly classified as males).

994 The Linear SVM, being the best performing model, achieved 57 true positives
995 and 47 true negatives. However, it also had 25 false positives and 20 false nega-
996 tives. This indicates that the model did not accurately differentiate between male
997 and female, aligning with its accuracy of 69.80%. The large number of incorrectly
998 classified data points suggests while the Linear SVM is the best model compared
999 to others, it still struggles with the complexity of this dataset.

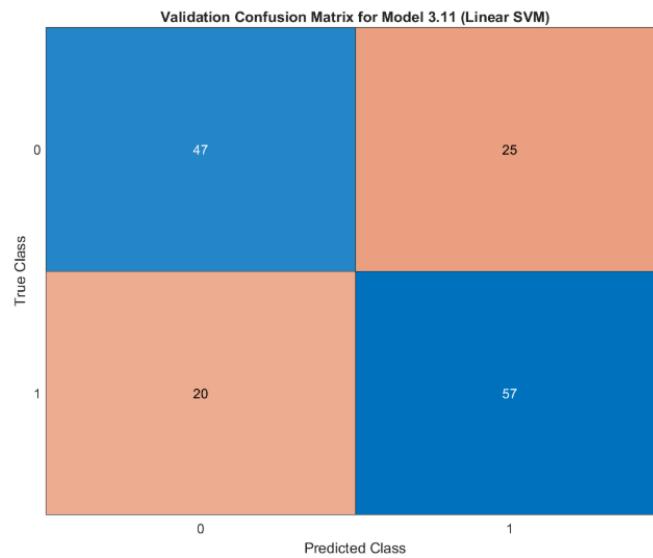


Figure 4.5: Confusion Matrix of Linear SVM

4.2.3 Feature Importance Analysis

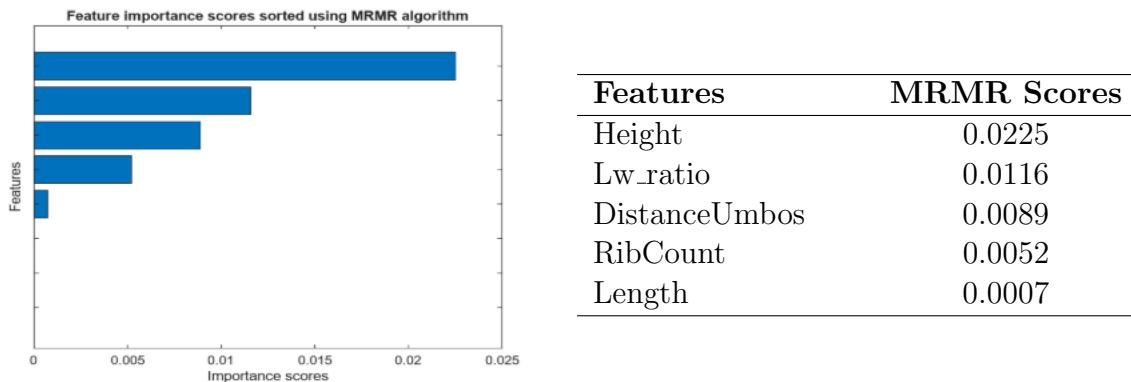


Figure 4.6: Feature Importance Scores Sorted Using the MRMR Algorithm.

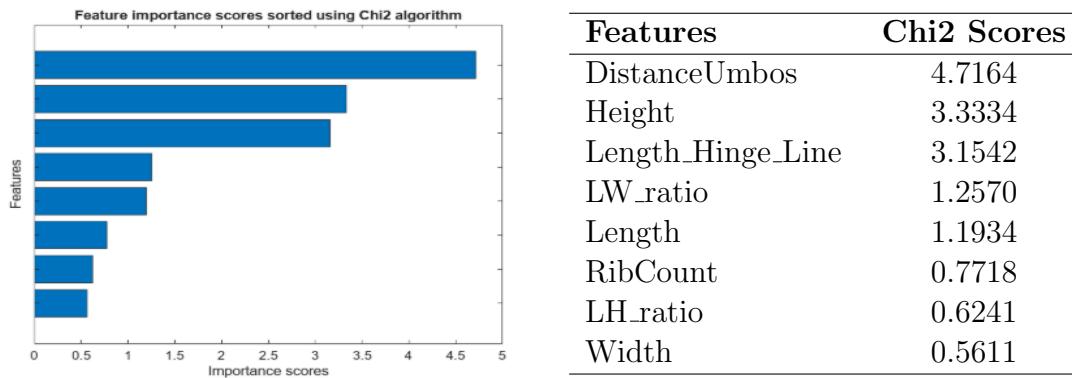


Figure 4.7: Feature Importance Scores Sorted Using the Chi2 Algorithm.

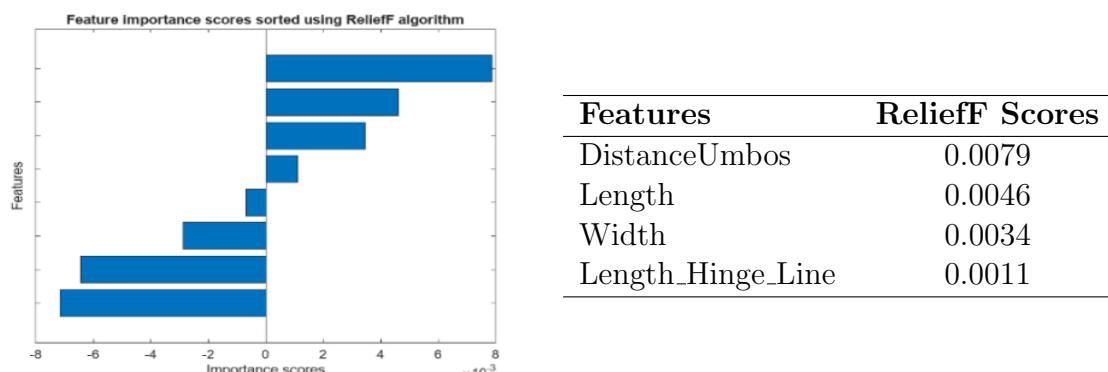


Figure 4.8: Feature Importance Scores Sorted Using the ReliefF Algorithm.

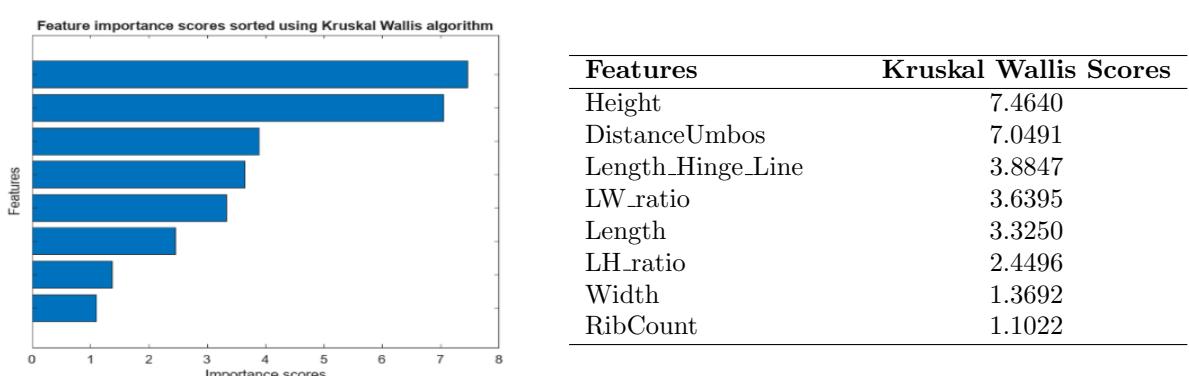


Figure 4.9: Feature Importance Scores Sorted Using the Kruskal Wallis Algorithm.

1001 After processing the dataset and splitting it into training and testing sets,
1002 the models are trained and their important features are computed. The features
1003 are further reduced in the table removing zeros and negative results that do not
1004 contribute to the scores. Feature Analysis helps in identifying which morphological
1005 features contribute most in classifying male and female *T.granosa*. The study
1006 employed models such as Minimum Redundancy Maximum Relevance (mRMR),
1007 Chi-square (Chi2), ReliefF, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and Kruskal Wallis
1008 feature selection algorithms.

1009 The Minimum Redundancy Maximum Relevance (mRMR) identified the best
1010 features as height, LW ratio, distance of the umbos, rib count, and length respec-
1011 tively, which contribute most to sex classification. The Chi-square (Chi2) analysis
1012 includes all eight features: however, the distance of the umbos is the most signifi-
1013 cant, followed by height, length of the hinge line, LW ratio, length, rib count, LH
1014 ratio, and width. In the ReliefF scores, the key features include the distance of
1015 the umbos, length, width, and length of the hinge line, while height, LW ratio,
1016 LH ratio, and rib count did not contribute to sex classification. Furthermore, in
1017 the Kruskal-Wallis analysis, height is the most significant feature, followed by the
1018 distance of the umbos, length of the hinge line, LW ratio, length, LH ratio, width,
1019 and rib count as the least significant.

1020 The results in figures 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9 indicate variations in feature im-
1021 portance among the four algorithm models. However, certain features, such as
1022 the distance between the umbos, are present in the best features of all algorithms,
1023 followed closely by height, which is identified as a key feature in three of the four
1024 models, except for ReliefF. Therefore, features such as the distance between the
1025 umbos and height consistently emerge as influential predictors. This analysis en-
1026 abled the researchers to identify the most predictive features, which can serve as a
1027 baseline for sex identification of *T. granosa* based on morphological characteristics.

1028 **Chapter 5**

1029 **Conclusion and**
1030 **Recommendations**

1031 **5.1 Conclusion**

1032 **5.2 Recommendations**

1033 This special problem entitled Morphometric-Based Non-invasive Sex Identification
1034 of *T. granosa* focuses on creating a baseline study that will serve as a foundation
1035 for further studies involving *Tegillarca granosa*, blood cockles using machine learn-
1036 ing, deep learning, and computer vision technologies in determining the sex of the
1037 samples is a salient need in aquaculture practices. Thus, the proceeding rec-
1038 ommendations are the future applications to improve and have detailed analysis
1039 such as focusing on shape analysis, exploring other state-of-the-art CNN such as
1040 ResNet, SqueezeNet, and InceptionNet, and comparing the analysis result. Fur-
1041 thermore, the main goal of conducting this is to have the ability to identify the
1042 sex of the samples by taking real-time angles by rotating from the dorsal, lateral,
1043 and ventral.

1044 Future studies could also invest in a much sturdier and more controlled envi-
1045 ronment by using a green background and positioning a webcam at a fixed angle.
1046 In addition, experiment with other image processing techniques such as scaling,
1047 rotating, and augmentation. The dataset can be utilized for further analysis us-
1048 ing deep learning and computer vision to make sense of the images gathered and
1049 discern sexual dimorphism for *T.granosa* or will serve as the basis for conducting
1050 similar studies to other bivalve species.

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₁₂₃₀ **Appendix A**

₁₂₃₁ **Data Gathering Documentation
and Supplementary Analysis**



Figure A.1: Sex Identification Through Spawning of *Tegillarca granosa*



Figure A.2: Separating Male and Female Samples After Spawning of *Tegillarca granosa*



Figure A.3: Sex Identified Female Through Dissecting of *Tegillarca granosa*



Figure A.4: Sex Identified Male Through Dissecting of *Tegillarca granosa*

Litob_Id	Length	Width	Height	Rib count	Length (Hinge Line)	Distance Umbos
10001	48.05	37.6	32.15	20	33.55	4.1
20001	48.05	37.6	32.15	20	33.55	4.1
30001	48.05	37.6	32.15	20	33.55	4.1
40001	48.05	37.6	32.15	20	33.55	4.1
50001	48.05	37.6	32.15	20	33.55	4.1
60001	48.05	37.6	32.15	20	33.55	4.1
10002	47.4	32.5	32.25	20	33.1	3.05
20002	47.4	32.5	32.25	20	33.1	3.05
30002	47.4	32.5	32.25	20	33.1	3.05
40002	47.4	32.5	32.25	20	33.1	3.05
50002	47.4	32.5	32.25	20	33.1	3.05
60002	47.4	32.5	32.25	20	33.1	3.05
10003	43.3	34.1	31.25	21	32.05	4.5
20003	43.3	34.1	31.25	21	32.05	4.5
30003	43.3	34.1	31.25	21	32.05	4.5
40003	43.3	34.1	31.25	21	32.05	4.5
50003	43.3	34.1	31.25	21	32.05	4.5
60003	43.3	34.1	31.25	21	32.05	4.5
10075	50.05	35.05	32.05	21	30.05	4.1
20075	50.05	35.05	32.05	21	30.05	4.1

Figure A.5: Linear Measurements of Female *Tegillarca granosa*

Litob_id	Length	Width	Height	Rib count	Length (Hinge Line)	Distance Umbos
110004	43.1	33.05	28.15	21	28.5	3.05
120004	43.1	33.05	28.15	21	28.5	3.05
130004	43.1	33.05	28.15	21	28.5	3.05
140004	43.1	33.05	28.15	21	28.5	3.05
150004	43.1	33.05	28.15	21	28.5	3.05
160004	43.1	33.05	28.15	21	28.5	3.05
110005	41.1	31.05	27.6	20	23.05	3.35
120005	41.1	31.05	27.6	20	23.05	3.35
130005	41.1	31.05	27.6	20	23.05	3.35
140005	41.1	31.05	27.6	20	23.05	3.35
150005	41.1	31.05	27.6	20	23.05	3.35
160005	41.1	31.05	27.6	20	23.05	3.35
110006	43.2	33.45	29.35	20	29.35	3.3
120006	43.2	33.45	29.35	20	29.35	3.3
130006	43.2	33.45	29.35	20	29.35	3.3
140006	43.2	33.45	29.35	20	29.35	3.3
150006	43.2	33.45	29.35	20	29.35	3.3
160006	43.2	33.45	29.35	20	29.35	3.3
110007	41.5	32.55	27.7	20	24.1	3.7
120007	41.5	32.55	27.7	20	24.1	3.7

Figure A.6: Linear Measurements of Male *Tegillarca granosa*

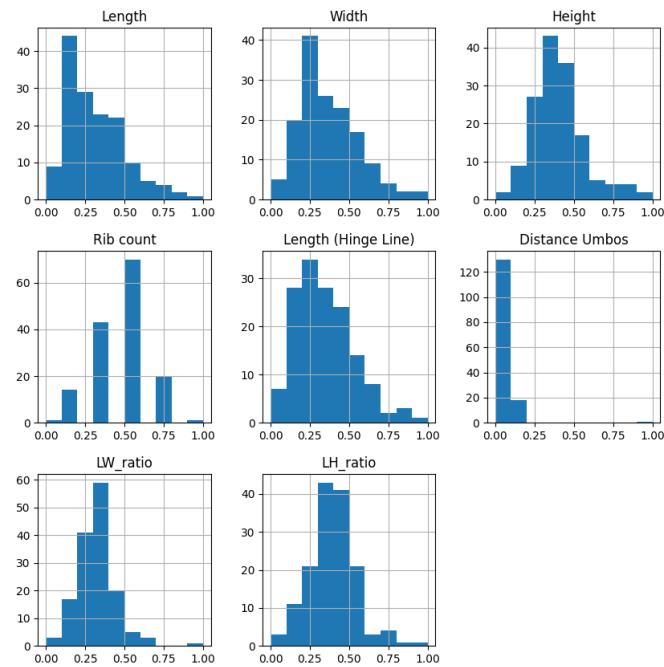


Figure A.7: Distribution of the Features of *Tegillarca granosa*