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1	A data-driven approach to predict the attachment density of biofouling
2	organisms
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# A data-driven approach to predict the attachment density of biofouling organisms

27

# 28 Abstract

29 The attachment efficiency of biofouling organisms on a solid surface depends on a variety of factors including species of the fouler, nutrition abundance, salinity, temperature, flow 30 31 rate, surface morphology and mechanical properties of the solid to be attached and so on. 32 So far, extensive research has been carried out to investigate the effects of these factors 33 on the attachment behavior for various fouling species. However, the obtained results are normally species-dependent and seemly scattering. There is no universal rule that can be 34 applied to predict the attachment efficiency under given conditions. To solve this problem, 35 in this paper we carry out a meta-analysis on the effects of 10 selected factors on the 36 attachment efficiency, resulting in a universal quantitative correlation between the 37 attachment density and the selected factors. This obtained correlation is experimentally 38 validated by an attachment test of tubeworms (Hydroides elegans) on PDMS surfaces 39 with controllable stiffness. Our results provide a practical approach to quantitatively 40 predict the attachment efficiency of fouling organisms and should be of great value to the 41 42 design of anti-biofouling materials and structures.

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Keywords: marine biofouling, meta-analysis, dimensional analysis, regression, anti-biofouling,surface topography

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## 47 Introduction

Marine biofouling refers to the undesirable attachment and accumulation of marine organisms on solid structures submerged in the ocean. The attachment of biofouling organisms on solid surfaces is a complex biochemical process affected not only by environmental variables such as temperature, salinity, pH value, flow rate, nutrition abundance but also by the structural and physical features of the solid to be attached such as its surface morphology and stiffness. Understanding the dependence of biofouling attachment on these influencing factors will be of great value to the effective control of

biofouling. So far, extensive studies have been carried out to investigate the attachment 55 56 behavior of diverse biofouling species under different controlled conditions. Qian et al. (2000) found that water flow rate directly affects the attachment of biofoulers. Moreover, 57 such influence exhibits species dependence. For example, at flow rates higher than 50 cm 58  $s^{-1}$  the cryptic *Bugula neritina* is still able to attach to the studied surface, while *Hydroides* 59 elegans cannot. High flow rate not only reduces the engaging time of a larva for 60 61 settlement on a surface but also increases the resultant drag force and affect the growth 62 of biofilms. Thorson (1964) studied the effect of irradiance level on the attachment density on 141 fouler species and showed that 94% are phototactic. Nevertheless, it was 63 shown that fouling organisms tend to avoid direct contact with sunlight, resulting in a 64 non-linear distribution through the seawater depth. Howes et al. (2007) confirmed that 65 the larvae attachment density of the ascidian Ciona intestinalis is higher at depths between 66 67 4.5m to 8.5m. Further, Lehaitre (2008) indicated that the upsurge of foulers around decks and anchored boats can be attributed to the sufficient provision of nutrients around coastal 68 69 areas as a result of organic matter decomposition (micro-organisms or detritus). In 70 laboratory experiments conditions, nutrition abundance relies on the amount of feeding, 71 the population of foulers, and the volume of the water tank.

In addition to the environmental factors, the attachment density of organisms is 72 73 influenced by the larvae and surface attributes. Scardino et al. (2008) studied multiples species attachment response to surfaces microfeatures and concluded that the 74 75 characteristic size of larvae is essential to their attachment location choice. Similar results were found by Callow et al. (2002) and Schumacher, Carman, et al. (2007). Recently, Fu 76 et al. (2018) developed a theory which explained the attachment of foulers through 77 78 contact mechanics, validating the significance of larvae and surface's features dimensions. 79 The latter also implied that not only the surface morphology but also its elastic properties 80 are important. Indeed, Ahmed et al. (2011) analyzed the settlement of the barnacle Balanus amphitrite on PDMS surfaces with different elastic properties and found lower 81 82 attachment densities on surfaces with reduced elastic moduli. Moreover, Gabilondo et al. (2013) studied tubeworm Ficus enigmaticus and showed a quasi-linear increase of the 83 attachment density of larvae with the testing time ranging from 24 h to 96 h. 84

Despite these findings and achievements, it is still extremely challenging to draw
a general conclusion of how different influencing factors affect the attachment efficiency
of fouling organisms, because the results obtained are species-dependent and scattering.

It is still unclear if there is a universal rule governing the attachment efficiency of 88 biofouling organisms. In view of these problems, here we propose a data-driven method 89 in an attempt to correlate the attachment density, a quantity characterizing the efficiency 90 of attachment, and multiple influencing factors. Meta-analysis is carried out based on the 91 published results of multiple studies on different species irrespective of their specific 92 93 attachment mechanisms (Qian et al. 2000; Callow et al. 2002; Scardino et al. 2006; 94 Schumacher, Aldred, et al. 2007; Schumacher, Carman, et al. 2007; Scardino et al. 2008; 95 Ahmed et al. 2011; Gabilondo et al. 2013; Brzozowska et al. 2014; Vucko et al. 2014; Mincheva et al. 2016; Fu et al. 2018). It is our goal to find a general quantitative 96 description of the attachment density as a function of multiple influencing factors. 97

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# 99 Buckingham $\pi$ theorem

In engineering, applied mathematics, physics, and biology, Buckingham  $\pi$  theorem 100 (Buckingham 1914) is a widely-applied theorem for dimensional analysis. The theorem 101 102 states that if there is a physically meaningful equation involving a certain number n of 103 physical variables, then the original equation can be rewritten in terms of a set of p = n - 1*m* dimensionless variables (or parameters)  $\Pi_i$  (*i* =1, ..., *p*), which are referred to as " $\Pi$ 104 105 groups" and can be constructed from the original variables (Buckingham 1914). Here, m 106 is the number of physical dimensions of the problem involved (e.g., length, mass, time). 107 The selection of the dimensionless parameters  $\Pi_i$  (*i* =1,..., *p*) is not unique. Buckingham  $\pi$  theorem provides a method to construct these dimensionless parameters from the given 108 109 variables, even though the form of the original equation remains unknown. This feature makes the theorem quite applicable to the biofouling problem whose determinants and 110 the physics involved has not been fully understood yet. 111

112 To identify the parameters affecting the attachment of fouling organisms, let us 113 make a review of the settlement test that is commonly adopted to characterize the 114 attachment efficiency of a biofouling species. Figure 1 shows a typical experimental 115 setup for the settlement test, in which a testing plate is mounted on the bottom of a tank 116 full of filtered seawater simulating the marine environment. A given number of larvae of a specific fouling species are placed into the tank and nurtured with necessary food 117 feeding and lighting. Sometimes, circulating seawater is introduced into the tank to 118 simulate the effect of flow rate in the real marine environment. After a given period of 119 time, the testing plate is taken out from the tank and the number of attached fouling 120

organisms is counted. The attachment density (a), which is defined as the number of 121 122 attached organisms per unit area, is used to characterize the attachment efficiency. 123 Reducing attachment density is the common objective of most anti-biofouling endeavors. 124 In this simplified experimental model, the conceivable parameters that affect the attachment density include the concentration of available larvae ( $\rho$ ), experiment time (t), 125 126 flow rate (Q), irradiance level of lighting (W), nutrition abundance in the seawater which is related to the tank volume (V). Recent studies indicated that the elastic modulus (E)127 and surface morphology of the material being attached also play an important role in 128 129 determining the attachment efficiency (Ahmed et al. 2011; Fu et al. 2018). For a solid surface with regular morphology, wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) and asperity depth (h) are two important 130 131 characteristic length scales that should be considered especially in a relative sense to the 132 characteristic size of the organism (D). Additionally, there are other parameters that may 133 also affect the attachment efficiency such as pH value, salinity and temperature. However, 134 these factors are not considered in this study because they varied little in the biofouling 135 tests done under laboratory conditions.

Above description of the determining factors in a typical biofouling test in laboratory allows us to proceed further with the Buckingham theorem. In our case, we have 10 variables and 3 dimensions, and according to the theorem, 7 dimensionless groups are established as follows:

140 
$$\Pi_1 = a \cdot D^2, \Pi_2 = \frac{E \cdot D}{W \cdot t}, \Pi_3 = \frac{h}{D}, \Pi_4 = \rho \cdot D^3, \Pi_5 = \frac{\lambda}{D}, \Pi_6 = \frac{Q \cdot t}{D^2}, \Pi_7 = \frac{V}{D^3}$$

141 The values of many  $\Pi$  groups above are distributed in a wide range from zero to 142  $10^6$  (see **Table 1**), hence taking the natural logarithm of all terms is appropriate. 143 Additionally, to avoid the possible mathematical undefinition, a constant of unity is added 144 to the terms that may take zero. Therefore, a new set of dimensionless groups are defined 145 as follows:

146 
$$\widetilde{\Pi}_1 = \ln(a \cdot D^2), \widetilde{\Pi}_2 = \ln\left(\frac{E \cdot D}{(1+W) \cdot t}\right), \widetilde{\Pi}_3 = \ln\left(\frac{1+h}{D}\right), \widetilde{\Pi}_4 = \ln(\rho \cdot D^3)$$

147 
$$\widetilde{\Pi}_5 = \ln\left(\frac{1+\lambda}{D}\right), \widetilde{\Pi}_6 = \ln\left(\frac{(1+Q)\cdot t}{D^2}\right), \widetilde{\Pi}_7 = \ln\left(\frac{V}{D^3}\right)$$

148 In these groups,  $\tilde{\Pi}_1$ , which is correlated to the attachment density, is regarded as 149 a function of the other six groups or variables, namely,

$$\widetilde{\Pi}_1 = f(\widetilde{\Pi}_2, \widetilde{\Pi}_3, \widetilde{\Pi}_4, \widetilde{\Pi}_5, \widetilde{\Pi}_6, \widetilde{\Pi}_7) \tag{1}$$

151 In the following, the form of function *f* will be determined by regression analysis 152 based on the 215 datasets from 12 published papers as summarized in **Appendix A**.

153

## 154 **Regression analysis**

Regression analysis is a technique used to seek the relationship between one or more independent variables and a dependent variable. In our case, we assume that the effect of each independent variable is additive. The predicted value of the dependent variable,  $\widehat{\Pi}_1$ , thus can be approximated as a quadratic polynomial function of the independent variables  $\widetilde{\Pi}_i$  (*i*=2, ..., 7)

160 
$$\widehat{\Pi}_{1} = k_{1} + \sum_{i=2}^{7} k_{i} \cdot \widetilde{\Pi}_{i} + \sum_{i=2}^{7} \sum_{j=i}^{7} k_{ij} \cdot \widetilde{\Pi}_{i} \cdot \widetilde{\Pi}_{j}$$
(2)

where coefficients  $k_i$  (*i* = 1, ...,7) and  $k_{ij}$  (*i*, *j* = 2, ...,7) are to be determined via regression. 161 162 Eq. (2) can be deemed as the second-order approximation of the function f in Eq. (1). The widely applied method to determine the coefficients in an assumed expression is ordinary 163 least square (OLS), which tends to be sensitive to the data peculiarities such as outliers, 164 165 multicollinearity and heteroscedasticity. For examples, in the OLS method all inputs are equally weighted and thus uniformly important. In our case, outliers are naturally present. 166 Moreover, due to the inclusion of some variables, such as diameter D, in multiple 167  $\Pi$  groups, multicollinearity also exists. The existence of outliers and multicollinearity 168 169 would generate abnormal data distribution. Under such circumstance, robust regression 170 methods should be applied as they require less restrictive assumptions to calculate the 171 regression coefficients (Bagheri and Midi 2009; Lambert-Lacroix and Zwald 2011).

172 Consider a summation of 
$$\sum_{m=1}^{N} \delta\left(\frac{e_m}{s}\right)$$
, where  $e_m$  stands for the residual given by

173 
$$e_m = \tilde{\Pi}_{1,m} - \hat{\tilde{\Pi}}_{1,m} = \tilde{\Pi}_{1,m} - \left(k_1 + \sum_{i=2}^7 k_i \cdot \tilde{\Pi}_{i,m} + \sum_{i=2,j=2}^{7,7} k_{ij} \cdot \tilde{\Pi}_{i,m} \cdot \tilde{\Pi}_{j,m}\right)$$

and  $s = \frac{\text{median}|e_m - \text{median}|e_m||}{0.6745}$ . Here, function  $\delta(\cdot)$  stands for the likelihood function of the distribution of the residuals. Following Huber's method (Huber 1964), we take

176 
$$\delta(z) = \begin{cases} z^2, \ |z| < c \\ |2z|c - c^2, \ |z| \ge c \end{cases} \text{ with } c = 1.345$$

177 By minimizing the summation  $\sum_{m=1}^{N} \delta\left(\frac{e_m}{s}\right)$ , the coefficients  $k_i$   $(i = 1, \dots, 7)$  and 178  $k_{ij}$   $(i = 2, \dots, 7; j = i, \dots, 7)$  can be determined by solving the following derivative 179 equations

180 
$$\frac{\partial \left[\sum_{m=1}^{N} \delta\left(\frac{e_{m}}{s}\right)\right]}{\partial k_{i}} = 0, (i = 1, \dots, 7)$$

181 
$$\frac{\partial \left[\sum_{m=1}^{N} \delta\left(\frac{e_m}{s}\right)\right]}{\partial k_{ij}} = 0, (i = 2, \dots, 7; j = i, \dots, 7)$$

Above algorithm has been incorporated into the NCSS (2019) statistical software, by which we carried out the regression based on the published data in the literature mentioned above.

185

# 186 **Results and discussions**

187 The values of all coefficients obtained from the above-mentioned robust regression are shown in Table 2 together with their corresponding p-values which indicate whether the 188 correlation between the dependent variable  $\tilde{\Pi}_1$  and the corresponding independent 189 190 variable is significant or not. Normally, 0.05 is adopted as the threshold for significance. 191 If *p*-value is less than 0.05, the correlation between them is deemed significant. For example, the p-values corresponding to k2, k4, k7, k22, k44, and k77 are close to zero, 192 193 implying that the substrate stiffness, larvae concentration ( $\rho$ ) and the container volume 194 (V) significantly determine the attachment density (a).

Figure 2a shows the values of  $\widetilde{\Pi}_1$  predicted by the regression expression in 195 comparison with the experimental observations. It can be seen that most of the data points 196 are distributed around the line of y = x irrespective of the fouling species, implying the 197 strong and universal prediction competence of the regression expression of Eq. (2). To 198 199 further investigate the quality of the regression results, **Figure 2b** shows the distribution of the residuals between the predicted data and their experimental counterparts. The 200 201 highest frequency peak in the vicinity of zero indicates that most of the residuals are zero 202 and the regression expression agrees well with the experimental results. The curve shows 203 a Gaussian-like distribution. As stated before, our data possess outliers, which are evident here. By using a robust regression, we reduced the count of non-zero residuals and 204

therefore reduced their impact. The distribution of the residuals in the spaces of each independent variable,  $\tilde{\Pi}_i (i = 2, \dots, 7)$ , and their products,  $\tilde{\Pi}_i \cdot \tilde{\Pi}_j (i, j = 2, \dots, 7)$ , are plotted in Figure S1.

To further evaluate the quality of regression, we calculated the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), and the predicted residual error sum of squares (PRESS)  $R^2$  (see Error! Reference source not found.). Both  $R^2$  and PRESS  $R^2$  are close to 1.0, implying the high quality of our regression.

After predicting  $\tilde{\Pi}_1$ , the attachment density can be easily calculated through

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213 
$$a = \exp{(\tilde{H}_1)/D^2}$$

The regression results obtained above allows us to predict the dependence of attachment 214 215 density on different determining factors quantitively for different species with distinct characteristic sizes and contrasting attachment mechanisms. For instance, take the 216 217 characteristic sizes of four foulers: barnacle B. neritina, tubeworm H. elegans, algae C. 218 clavulatum and U. linza as 321 µm, 200 µm, 37 µm and 5 µm, respectively. Figure 3a shows the dependence of attachment density on the stiffness of the substrate (E). Here, 219 we assume that the substrate is flat with  $h = \lambda = 0$  under laboratory light irradiance (W = 220 7.95 W/m<sup>2</sup>), steady seawater conditions (Q = 0) in a container of 10 ml with an initial 221 222 larvae concentration of 5 per ml. The total time for attachment was set as t = 48 h. Results 223 in Figure 3a indicate the consentaneous effect of low substrate stiffness in reducing the 224 attachment density of all organisms. Therefore, in marine industry, applying soft paint on ship hulls is expected to reduce the attachment of fouling organisms. Figure 3b shows 225 226 the effect of flow rate on the attachment density of different species on a given substrate with stiffness E = 2 MPa and surface topography characterized by  $h = \lambda = 10 \mu m$ . It is 227 assumed that 1000 fouling organisms are added in a container of 100 ml. It is clear to see 228 229 that flow rates higher than 4 cm/s will drastically reduce the attachment density and 230 essentially eradicate it when above 8 cm/s, irrespective for all fouling species, implying that marine ships tend to be fouled when they are anchored or voyaging at low speed. 231

Figure 3c displays the effect of surface asperity height (*h*) of the substrate on the attachment density. Here, we assume that V = 10 ml,  $\rho = 10$  ml<sup>-1</sup> and surface wavelength  $\lambda = 10 \mu m$ . It can be seen that the attachment density of barnacles *B. neritina* (D = 321 $\mu m$ ) is insensitive to the asperity height at all. However, for tubeworms *H. elegans* (D = 236  $200 \,\mu\text{m}$ ), the attachment density increases as the asperity height increases and saturates when  $h = 21 \,\mu\text{m}$ . In contrast, the attachment density of algae C. clavulatum ( $D = 37 \,\mu\text{m}$ ) 237 exhibits the maximum value when the asperity height is approximately 50  $\mu$ m, while the 238 attachment density of U. linza ( $D = 5 \mu m$ ) drops drastically with the increase of asperity 239 height. In addition, Figure 3d presents the impact of surface wavelength while setting 240 asperity height  $h = 10 \,\mu\text{m}$ . Except for tubeworms *H. elegans* ( $D = 200 \,\mu\text{m}$ ) that has a peak 241 of attachment density when wavelength  $\lambda = 8 \mu m$ , the prevailing behavior is to reduce 242 243 attachment density when increasing surface wavelength.

To verify the capability of the above model in predicting the attachment density of fouling species, an attachment test was carried out by using tubeworms (see Methods for the details). **Figure 4** shows the experimental measurement of the attached density of the tubeworms on PDMS substrates with different stiffnesses in comparison to the prediction given by the above regression model. The small difference between them implies the applicability of our model in predicting the effect of substrate stiffness on the attachment efficiency of tubeworms.

251

## 252 **Conclusions**

In this paper, we successfully developed an empirical method to reveal the 253 254 quantitative dependence of attachment density of biofouling species on a series of determining factors. Buckingham  $\pi$  theorem and robust regression were applied to 255 256 determine the regression expression from the existing published datasets in literature. The 257 obtained empirical expression from such meta-analysis shows a versatile competence in 258 predicting the attachment density of biofoulers irrespective of the fouling species, laboratory conditions and substrate stiffness. Our model not only provides an approach 259 260 to predict the attachment efficiency of a variety of fouling species on different kinds of substrates but also indicates the directions of antifouling efforts in naval industry. 261

262 Methods

### 263 **Tubeworms attachment test**

Tubeworms (*Hydroides elegans*) were collected from a fisherman's farm from Kei Ling Ha Lo Wai in Hong Kong (22°25'27.5"N, 114°16'39.5"E). The calcareous tubes were manually broken, and each worm was placed into 100  $\mu$ l filtered seawater (0.22  $\mu$ m mesh

size) for eggs or sperms release. To promote fecundation, eggs and sperms were 267 268 transferred to a single container with filtered seawater. Fertilized eggs were kept at 20°C in a 12L:12D cycle of lighting and daily fed with Isocrysis albana. After 6 days, the 269 270 tubeworm larvae were ready for the attachment test. Testing PDMS specimens were placed in Petri dishes containing 10 ml seawater and 50 tubeworm larvae. Artificial 271 272 stimuli were applied (CsCl, 5mmol/l) to induce settlement. Irradiance was calculated as  $7.96 \text{ W/m}^2$ . After 48h, the specimens were rinsed by seawater and the attached 273 274 tubeworms were counted with the aid of an optical microscope.

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#### 276 Fabrication of PDMS specimens and nanoindentation tests

Four PDMS/hardener ratios were adopted: 1:20, 1:15, 1:10 and 1:5 to fabricate PDMS 277 278 specimens of different stiffnesses. Nanoindentation tests (Hysitron TI900) were performed to measure the modulus of the fabricated PDMS specimens. Berkovich tip and 279 280 a maximum load of 30  $\mu$ N were applied. The results are displayed in Table 4.

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#### 282 Data availability statement

283 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in Mendeley Data at 284 http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/f5rbkd4482.2, DOI: 10.17632/f5rbkd4482.2.

285

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289

#### **Declaration of interest statement** 290

The authors declare no conflict of interest. 291

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# 362 Appendix A

## 363 Database and assumptions

364 The datasets applied in this paper are from 12 published papers (Qian et al. 2000; Callow et al. 2002; Scardino et al. 2006; Schumacher, Aldred, et al. 2007; Schumacher, Carman, 365 et al. 2007; Scardino et al. 2008; Ahmed et al. 2011; Gabilondo et al. 2013; Brzozowska 366 et al. 2014; Vucko et al. 2014; Mincheva et al. 2016; Fu et al. 2018) and it is available 367 online (Vellwock 2019). However, the values of some influencing variables may have 368 369 not been explicitly indicated in some studies. Under such circumstance, inference should 370 be carried out to estimate the value of that variable. In our study, the following inferences 371 have been made:

(1) In Fu et al. (2018) the irradiance was not indicated. However, as it was a research
carried out in our lab, we estimated the irradiance on the surface by inquiring the lamp
potency and its distance to the experiment. As a representative laboratory condition,
such value of irradiance was also adopted for the studies of Ahmed et al. (2011);
Gabilondo et al. (2013); Brzozowska et al. (2014); Vucko et al. (2014).

377 (2) In Qian et al. (2000), the volume of tank was estimated as 4000 ml, equal to the "head
378 tank" described in the paper.

379 (3) The features' geometries in the studies by Schumacher, Aldred, et al. (2007);
380 Schumacher, Carman, et al. (2007) have distinct features along different axes.
381 Howbeit, we took the lateral period as λ.

382 Moreover, the stiffness of substrate in each attachment test was estimated, as shown

- in **Table A1** below.
- 384

Table A 1. Estimation of the material stiffness

Material	Elastic modulus [MPa]	Reference	Applied to data from
PDMS	2	Wang et al. (2015)	Callow et al. (2002); Schumacher, Aldred, et al. (2007); Schumacher, Carman, et al. (2007); Gabilondo et al. (2013); Vucko et al. (2014); Fu et al. (2018)

Glass	70000	Callister (2005)	Qian et al. (2000); Gabilondo et al. (2013); Brzozowska et al. (2014); Fu et al. (2018)
Polyimide	2700	Davidson (1992)	Scardino et al. (2006); Scardino et al. (2008)
Polycarbonate	2100	Baur et al. (2019)	Scardino et al. (2006); Scardino et al. (2008)
Polystyrene	3000	Callister (2005)	Ahmed et al. (2011); Gabilondo et al. (2013)
Polyvinyl chloride*	8	Wypych (2015)	Qian et al. (2000)
Polyethylene	200	Baur et al. (2019)	Qian et al. (2000)
Polyurethane	7	McKeen (2014)	Qian et al. (2000)
Polytetrafluoroet hylene	500	Callister (2005)	Qian et al. (2000)

\*All the PVCs stated in the paper were assumed to have the same elastic modulus.

Quantities Lower limit **Upper limit** Unit Available larvae  $3 \times 10^{6}$ 0.02 1/ml concentration  $(\rho)$ Organism size (D) μm 2 321 Surface wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) 0 800 μm Asperity height (*h*) 0 650 μm Surface elastic modulus (*E*) MPa 1 70000 Seawater flow rate (Q)cm/s 0 31.9

ml

hour

 $W/m^2$ 

0.1

1

0

4000

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17.4

Table 1. Practical ranges of the independent variables

Λ	n	2
4	υ	2

Seawater volume (V)

Time (*t*)

Light irradiance (W)

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Table 2. Results of robust regression	Table 2.	Results	of robust	regression
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Coofficient	Regression	n voluo	Coofficient	Regression	n voluo
Coefficient	value	p-value	Coefficient	value	p-value
$k_1$	-2.01913	0.1077	<i>k</i> <sub>34</sub>	-0.08266	0.0292
$k_2$	0.69742	0.0077	k35	0.14724	0.0761
$k_3$	-0.18372	0.6190	<i>k</i> <sub>36</sub>	0.00625	0.9658
$k_4$	4.17394	0.0000	k <sub>37</sub>	-0.16189	0.0202
<i>k</i> 5	-0.10871	0.7273	$k_{44}$	-0.20887	0.0000
$k_6$	0.04582	0.9220	$k_{45}$	-0.01309	0.6593
<i>k</i> <sub>7</sub>	3.91912	0.0000	$k_{46}$	-0.40882	0.0000
<i>k</i> <sub>22</sub>	-0.0329	0.0019	$k_{47}$	-0.11437	0.0001
<i>k</i> <sub>23</sub>	-0.03353	0.6946	<i>k</i> 55	-0.06935	0.1380
$k_{24}$	-0.0505	0.0141	$k_{56}$	-0.08815	0.3789
<i>k</i> <sub>25</sub>	0.02279	0.7418	<i>k</i> 57	0.01828	0.7248
$k_{26}$	-0.0986	0.0113	$k_{66}$	-0.33666	0.0000
k <sub>27</sub>	-0.0022	0.8964	$k_{67}$	-0.07759	0.1190
<i>k</i> <sub>33</sub>	-0.08884	0.1378	<i>k</i> 77	0.04203	0.0090

	Quantities	Definition	Value
	Coefficient of determination $(R^2)$	$1 - \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{N} (f_m - \overline{\widetilde{\Pi}}_{1,m})^2}{\sum_{m=1}^{N} (\widetilde{\Pi}_{1,m} - \overline{\widetilde{\Pi}}_1)^2}$	0.9809
	PRESS (Predicted residual error	$\sum_{m=1}^{N} (\tilde{\Pi}_{1,m} - f_{m(m)})^2$	0.0406
	sum of squares) $R^2$	$\frac{1-\sum_{m=1}^{N}(\widetilde{\Pi}_{1,m}-\overline{\widetilde{\Pi}}_{1})^{2}}{\sum_{m=1}^{N}(\widetilde{\Pi}_{1,m}-\overline{\widetilde{\Pi}}_{1})^{2}}$	0.9486
432 433 434 435 436 437	Here, $f_m$ stands for the $m^{\text{th}}$ response val regression on the basis of all N datasets by the function f which is obtained by r one excluded individually.	ue given by the function $f$ which is; $f_{m(m)}$ stands for the $m^{\text{th}}$ response egression on the basis of datasets	s obtained by e value given with the <i>m</i> <sup>th</sup>
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Table 4. Variations on the surfaces' modulus due to different PDMS/hardener ratios

	<b>PDMS/Hardener ratio</b>	Modulus [MPa]
	1:20	4.335
	1:15	1.867
	1:10	1.712
	1:5	1.132
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513 Figure 1. Schematics showing the setup of a laboratory settlement experiment.

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Figure 2. (a) Theoretically predicted  $\tilde{\Pi}_1$  versus experimental ones. The lack of apparent pattern for different organisms (algae, barnacles, diatoms, oysters, and tubeworms) implies the species independence of our model. (b) Histogram of the residuals of  $e_m =$  $\tilde{\Pi}_{1,m} - \hat{\Pi}_{1,m}$  and the corresponding fitting curve of Gaussian distribution (mean  $\mu = 0.12$ , standard deviation  $\sigma = 1.02$ ).

Figure 3. Effects of different influencing factors on attachment density predicted by theoretical model: (a) surface stiffness, (b) seawater flow rate, (c) asperity height and (d) surface wavelength. Following parameters are taken constant in each case: (a)  $h = \lambda = 0$ ,  $W = 7.95 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , Q = 0, V = 10 ml,  $\rho = 5 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ , t = 48 h; (b) E = 2 MPa,  $h = \lambda = 10 \text{ µm}$ , W $= 7.95 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , V = 1000 ml,  $\rho = 10 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ , t = 48 h; (c) E = 2 MPa,  $\lambda = 10 \text{ µm}$ , W = 7.95 $Wm^{-2}$ , V = 10 ml,  $\rho = 10 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ , t = 48 h; (c) E = 2 MPa,  $\lambda = 10 \text{ µm}$ , W = 7.95 $Wm^{-2}$ , V = 10 ml,  $\rho = 10 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ , t = 48 h; (c) E = 2 MPa, h = 10 µm,  $W = 7.95 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , V = 10 ml,  $\rho = 10 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ , t = 48 h; (c) E = 2 MPa, h = 10 µm,  $W = 7.95 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , V = 10 ml,  $\rho = 10 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ , t = 48 h; (c) E = 2 MPa, h = 10 µm,  $W = 7.95 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , V = 10 ml,  $\rho = 10 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ , t = 48 h; (c) E = 2 MPa, h = 10 µm,  $W = 7.95 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , V = 10 ml,  $\rho = 10 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ , t = 48 h; (c) E = 2 MPa, h = 10 µm,  $W = 7.95 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , V = 10 ml,  $\rho = 10 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ , t = 48 h;

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528 Figure 4. Effect of substrate stiffness on the attachment density of tubeworms.

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