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| 9 | Understanding and Quantifying Bias in Visual Fisheries Surveys Using Advanced Technology |
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| 12 | Sarah E. Grasty AFS Fisheries Information and Technology Section Outreach & Communications |
| 13 | Coordinator University of South Florida, College of Marine Science, St. Petersburg, FL 33701. Email: |
| 14 | grastys@mail.usf.edu. |
| 15 | Matthew D. Campbell NOAA National Marine Fisheries Service, Southeast Fisheries Science Center, |
| 16 | Pascagoula, MS |
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| 18 | Considering the myriad of ways in which advanced technology is being used in fisheries research, |
| 19 | keeping atop of the newest developments is a challenge. The transfer of such specialized knowledge, even |
| 20 | within the fisheries community, can be difficult, thereby hindering more widespread use of advanced |
| 21 | technology in fisheries research. This predicament can be further compounded when information |
| 22 | exchanges between the freshwater and marine fisheries communities are limited. In a constantly shifting |
| 23 | technological landscape, affecting stronger information transfer about technology within the fisheries |
| 24 | community will lead to greater innovation, broader application, and more efficient and accurate science. |
| 25 | This is the goal of the AFS Fisheries Information and Technology Section (FITS). |
| 26 | Over the next year, FITS will be coordinating regular columns in <i>Fisheries</i> to highlight some of |
| 27 | the ways in which the latest advanced technologies are being used in marine and freshwater fisheries |
| 28 | research. To learn more, visit: https://units.fisheries.org/fits/, find us on Facebook (@AFSFITS), and |
| 29 | attend the Section's symposium at the 2019 Annual Meeting in Reno, Nevada. |
| 30 | In the past several years, it has become common for stock assessments and fisheries research |
| 31 | projects to incorporate data from visual surveys. These surveys are not new in their own right, as |
| 32 | researchers have been deploying cameras underwater for decades to observe various fish communities |
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33 and habitats. However, the growing accessibility of relatively cheap, small form, high-definition action 34 cameras (e.g., GoPros) has facilitated the rapid development of highly advanced underwater camera 35 systems. Researchers have accordingly begun to rely less on traditional means of collecting fisheries data, 36 namely extractive gears that often destroy benthic habitats. This has resulted in the research and 37 development of numerous manned submersibles, remotely operated vehicles, autonomous underwater 38 vehicles, stationary camera arrays, and towed camera platforms. As with any type of sampling approach, 39 visual fisheries surveys are not exempt from experiencing some level of bias. However, by using different 40 types of advanced technology, researchers are beginning to address this issue by attempting to quantify 41 the bias in visual surveys and thereby improve data quality.

42 One of the most common methods of deploying optic and acoustic sensors (e.g. an HD camera or 43 an imaging sonar, respectively) is aboard stationary landers; these systems are used around the world and 44 vary in their respective designs and capabilities, but all typically have small deployment footprints 45 resulting in sparse areal coverage over the sampling domain. The positive trade-off is that they can 46 generate data over long time periods within the sampled volume (application dependent). One of the most 47 notable sources of bias associated with these ground-tending systems (Textbox 1) is that they are often 48 baited. This makes estimating densities difficult due to unknown attraction distances (i.e. functional 49 sampling areas are larger than calculated sampling areas). Additionally, cameras tend to have restricted 50 fields-of-view (~70°) necessitating specialized count methods such as MaxN (Textbox 1; Campbell et al. 51 2018; Ellis and Demartini 1995) to avoid double-counting individuals.

52 Recently, the convergence of high-speed computing and advanced digital optics has resulted in 53 the creation of full-spherical cameras. This has offered the unprecedented opportunity to view the world 54 with "eyes in the back of your head," and it has also presented a unique, in-situ approach for investigating 55 the aforementioned biases associated with stationary landers. Through a National Marine Fisheries 56 Service Office of Science and Technology grant, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's 57 Mississippi Laboratories received funding to evaluate existing full-spherical camera technology, then 58 design and fabricate their own system. The result is known as the SphereCam system (Figure 1), which 59 produces full-spherical stereo imagery and is capable of sampling marine photic and mesophotic reefs 60 down to 300 m depths using ambient light. The SphereCam allows for precise evaluation and 61 measurement of the habitat surrounding the point sample, as well as precise tracking and measurement of 62 fish throughout their environment. These camera arrays are mounted on a stationary lander known as a 63 Reef Immersion Observation Tower (Figure 2), which is also equipped with a CTD sonde (Textbox 1) 64 and positioning beacon. This allows for precise deployment location on high-precision habitat maps 65 produced from multibeam echosounder (Textbox 1) surveys, such as those available from Simrad or 66 BioSonics. The application of full-spherical camera technology in marine environments has begun in

67 earnest and is showing promise in resolving issues of repeat counts as well as biases in detection

68 probability, relationships with true abundance, and relationships between fish and their environments

69 (Campbell et al. 2018; Kilfoil et al. 2017).

70 Another common visual sampling approach involves mounting cameras aboard tow sleds. At the 71 University of South Florida, researchers at the College of Marine Science began testing such a vehicle in 72 2013 called the Camera-Based Assessment Survey System (C-BASS; Figure 3) for use in assessing Gulf 73 of Mexico reef fishes and their associated habitats up to 200 m depths (Lembke et al. 2017). The C-BASS 74 is towed at 3-4 knots near the seafloor and has been equipped with six video cameras that are rigidly 75 fixed to the front of the system; four cameras (two standard resolution and two high-definition cameras) 76 face forward at a slightly downward angle and the remaining two standard definition cameras are 77 mounted on the port and starboard sides of the tow body. When viewed together, the imagery from the six 78 cameras creates a total field-of-view that is near 180°. The system is also equipped with a suite of 79 scientific and performance sensors allowing for continuous measurements of turbidity, chlorophyll, 80 temperature, salinity, depth, altitude, and attitude (Textbox 1) during deployment. The altitude 81 measurements are especially important because they ensure that the C-BASS is kept between 2-4 m

82 above the bottom as it is being towed.

83 Similar to stationary landers, this approach is especially useful in untrawlable habitats (e.g. 84 marine reserves and/or reefs). However, the towed system differs in that it can be deployed for longer 85 durations and moves at relatively fast speeds (3.5 to 4.0 knots), which allows for large tracts of seafloor to 86 be sampled in a fairly short amount of time. Due to the downward camera orientation, estimating area 87 sampled is a fairly simple process and can be approximated by multiplying the field-of-view by the distance covered per unit time. This means raw fish counts can be converted into density estimates that 88 89 are scalable to the extents of mapped and characterized habitats. Because the C-BASS is towed near the 90 seafloor, a proportion of benthic reef fishes is not accurately sampled as it is typically found slightly 91 higher in the water column than where the system is towed. This is of particular concern for species that 92 tend to stack (Textbox 1), such as Red Snapper Lutjanus campechanus, as well as those that form large 93 schools which cannot be fully represented on C-BASS imagery.

94 There is also the issue of avoidance behavior by fishes, which may negatively react to the passage 95 of the C-BASS by swimming away before being recorded. This would therefore lead to underestimates of 96 these reef fish species. The C-BASS scientists are therefore trying to correct for missing proportions and 97 better understand the magnitude of reactive behavior by pairing video collection with another piece of 98 technology: a shipboard, calibrated, scientific echosounder (SIMRAD EK60; Figure 4). This sonar unit 99 emits sound pulses at 38 kHz to collect water column data, concurrent to the C-BASS recording seafloor 100 imagery during every deployment. These data are reflections of individual fish and fish schools from near

- 101 the seafloor up to approximately 10 meters below the sea surface, and can be analyzed to estimate the
- 102 densities of ensonified (Textbox 1) fishes using different echocounting and echointegration techniques.
- 103 The results are then paired with georeferenced C-BASS data to compare fish densities determined from
- 104 the echosounder data with those based on C-BASS video data. The goal for the C-BASS

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and echosounder data comparisons is to then determine how these two technologies complement one
another and can be used in tandem to better characterize reef fish abundance throughout the West Florida
Shelf and Gulf of Mexico.

108 Although both of the examples here were developed for use in offshore, marine environments, 109 the technology is absolutely applicable to shallower, coastal marine systems as well as freshwater lakes. 110 This has, in fact, already been done by researchers at the U.S. Geological Survey, who developed a towed 111 camera system called the Deep ATRIS (Along-Track Reef-Imaging System), which could be used in 112 water depths of up to 90 m (Zawada et al. 2008). In addition to applying these technologies to different 113 environments, there are also ways to make the systems scalable to different budgets. The SphereCam 114 already employs fairly low-cost technology with all of the cameras being GoPros, which produce high 115 quality imagery. However, the instrumentation used in the paired sonar and towed system (Figure 4) was 116 on the higher end of the cost spectrum; because the C-BASS was custom made and is fairly large and 117 robust, the total cost to build and outfit it with all of the current instrumentation was approximately 118 \$200,000 and the EK60 echosounder ranges into the hundreds of thousands of dollars to purchase and 119 install. A "ready-made" towed camera system does decrease costs (~\$100,000) and it can purchased 120 "plugin ready" from an underwater technology company. However, to decrease costs while retaining 121 functionality and the ability to customize, one could downscale a towed camera system like C-BASS to 122 make it more affordable. By the estimates of the C-BASS engineering team, a unit half the size of C-123 BASS with the same instrumentation but only two cameras could be built for approximately \$125,000. 124 Not only would overall cost decrease, but because the system would be physically smaller, it could be 125 deployed from a smaller research vessel which affords users a lower day rate (the C-BASS currently 126 weighs approximately 600 lbs in air and, as such, requires a large winch capable of deploying it). By 127 pairing a smaller towed camera system with a lower cost fisheries sonar aboard a modestly sized

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research vessel, the same type of work as presented here with the EK60 and C-BASS could be replicatedwith a similar scope, but at a greatly reduced cost.

Though fisheries surveys will likely never escape various degrees of bias due to gear selectivity, variable detection abilities, and reactive behavior by the fishes themselves, there are ways to reduce and quantify their effects as demonstrated by these systems. What is also noteworthy about the two cases presented here is that the first example did not rely on prohibitively expensive equipment (e.g. GoPros) and in the second, the technology being used was not exceptionally novel (i.e. pairing sonars and cameras), which makes them applicable to a wide fisheries audience.

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