Sediment Profile Imagery: apparatus and data analysis

SEDIMENT PROFILE IMAGERY: APPARATUS AND DATA ANALYSIS

APPARATUS AND DEPLOYMENT

A remotely operated sediment profile camera is used to obtain *in situ* profile images of up to 20 cm of the top layers of sediment on the seafloor. It differs from other underwater cameras in that it vertically slices through the sediment-water interface and images the sediment section in profile. Functioning like an inverted periscope, it consists of a wedge-shaped prism with a plexiglass face plate. Light is provided internally by a flash strobe and the back of the prism has a mirror mounted at a 45° angle. This reflects the image of the sediment-water interface at the face plate up to the camera, which is housed on top of the prism. The camera - prism assembly is supported by an inner frameor cradle which can move relative to an outer supporting frame under control of a 'passive' hydraulic piston (Figure 1).

The camera prism assembly cradle can be moved up and down by producing tension or slack on the winch wire. As the camera is lowered to the seafloor,tension on the winch wire keeps the prism in the up position. The supporting frame lands on the bottom first, leaving the area directly under the prism undisturbed. As the winch wire is slackened, the prism cradle descends toward the bottom at a controlled rate of fall (Figure 2). The wedge-shaped prism enters the bottom and is driven into the sediment by its weight. The piston ensures that the prism enters the bottom slowly and does not disturb the sediment - water interface. Additional lead weights can be attached to the prism cradle to assist prism penetration if required.

On impact with the bottom, a trigger activates a time delay on the camera shutter release and a photograph is taken when the prism comes to rest. Because the sediment is photographed directly against the face plate, turbidity of the ambient seawater does not affect image quality. After the photograph or image is taken, tension on the winch wire raises the prism cradle to the up position, a wiper blade cleans off the face plate, the film is advanced by motor drive, the strobe is recharged and the can be lowered for another image. In this manner the SPI assembly can be rapidly 'hopped' over the seabed and a series of images obtained at any one sampling location. After the camera is taken back on board a rubber ring records the depth the camera had penetrated and a counter records the number of successful image shots taken. Specific measurement techniques and interpretive considerations for the analysis of a range of parameters from the SPI images are presented below.

A compact, equally effective diver operated sediment profile camera apparatus (Figure 3) has been developed for operation in shallow waters and shallow areas generally inaccessible by the larger remotely operated machine. As with the remotely operated SPI camera, the camera prism is mounted on a supporting stabiliser frame which can be moved up and down in an action controlled by a hydraulic system. Once the camera's frame touches the bottom, the scientific diver exerts pressure on the prism housing causing it to penetrate the sediment fabric under control of the hydraulic piston. This allows the optical prism to enter the bottom at approximately 6 cm sec^{-1}. The slow fall rate ensures that the descending prism does not impact the bottom at a high rate and therefore minimises disturbance of the sediment-water interface. The prism is driven several centimeters into the seafloor and the camera trigger is tripped so that a photograph is taken. The diver ensures that the SPI frame is not moved or disturbed in any way while the camera is taking a picture so that any physical disturbance of the sediment detected in a SPI image is not an artifact caused by the instrument itself.

DATA ANALYSIS.

Once the film has been exposed it can either be developed immediately if rapid real time images are required or it can be taken back to the laboratory for processing and computer image analysis. The images are developed as diapositives or negatives, which are analysed as black and white images using a computer based digitiser. Negatives or diapositives are used for analysis instead of positive prints in order to avoid changes in image density that can accompany the printing of a positive image.

The image analysis system can discriminate a wide range of different grey scales, so subtle features can accurately be digitised and measured.
Customised software in conjunction with an image analysis system is used for the analysis of a series of 21 physical, chemical and biological parameters on each image. Before all measurements from each SPI image are stored on disk, a summary display is made on the screen so the operator can verify if the values stored in memory for each variable are within expected range; if anomalous values are detected, software options allow re-measurement before storage on disk. All data stored on disks are printed out on data sheets for editing by the principal investigator and as a hard-copy backup of the data stored on disk; a separate data sheet is generated for each SPI image. Disk storage of all SPI parameters allows any variable of interest to be compiled, sorted, graphed, or compared statistically.

A great deal of information about benthic processes is available from sediment profile images. Measurable parameters, many of which are calculated directly by image analysis, include physical / chemical parameters (i.e. sediment type measured as grain size major mode, prism penetration depth providing a relative indication of sediment shear strength, sediment surface relief, condition of mud clasts, redox potential discontinuity depth and degree of contrast, sediment gas voids) and biological parameters (i.e. infaunal successional stage of a well documented successional paradigm for soft marine sediments (see Pearson and Rosenberg, 1978), degree of sediment reworking, dominant faunal type, epifauna and infauna, apparent species richness, depth of faunal activity, presence of microbial aggregations).

A multi- parameter organism-sediment index (OSI) is calculated on the basis of the measured physical and biological parameters. This index characterises habitat quality and has been found to be an excellent parameter for mapping disturbance gradients and the health status of the seabed. Specific analytical and interpretative aspects of the parameters measured from the SPI images are outlined below.

SEDIMENT TYPE DETERMINATION

The sediment grain-size major mode and range are visually estimated from the photographs by overlaying a grain-size comparator, which is at the same scale. This comparator was prepared by using the SPI camera to photograph a series of pre-prepared sediments which were graded according to the Udden-Wentworth size classification scheme. The classes of sediment used ranged from mud to granule. There are seven grain-size classes are on the comparator, i.e. < 0.063mm (≥ 4ø) (i.e. silt clay), 0.063 - 0.125mm (4-3ø) (i.e. very fine sand), 0.0125 - 0.25mm (3-2ø) (i.e. fine sand), 0.025-0.5mm) (2-1 ø) (i.e. medium sand), 0.5 - 1.0mm (1-0ø) (i.e. coarse sand), 1.0 -2.0mm (0 to –(-)1ø) (i.e. very coarse sand), > 2.0mm (< -1ø) (i.e. gravel). Seven grain-size classes are on this comparator: ≥ 4ø, 4-3ø, 3-2ø, 2-1ø, 1-0ø, 0-(-)1ø, < -1ø. The lower limit of optical resolution of the photographic system is about 0.062mm, allowing recognition of grain sizes equal to or greater than coarse silt. The accuracy of the method has been documented by comparing the SPI estimates with grain-size statistics determined from laboratory sieve analyses.

PRISM PENETRATION DEPTH

The SPI prism penetration depth is determined by measuring both the largest and smallest linear distance between the sediment-water interface and the bottom of the film frame. The SPI analysis software automatically averages these maximum and minimum values to determine the average penetration depth. All three values, (maximum, minimum, and average penetration depth) are included on the data sheets. Prism penetration is potentially a noteworthy parameter; if the number of weights used in the camera is held constant throughout a survey, the camera functions as a static-load penetrometer. Comparative penetration values from sites of similar grain-size give an indication of the relative sediment bearing capacity or shear strength.

SEDIMENT BOUNDARY ROUGHNESS

Sediment boundary roughness is determined by measuring the vertical distance (parallel to the film border) between the highest and lowest points of the sediment-water interface. In addition, the likely origin (e.g. physical or biogenic) of this small-scale topographic relief is indicated when it is evident. In sandy sediments, boundary roughness can be a measure of sand wave height. On silt-clay bottoms, boundary roughness values often reflect biogenic features such as faecal mounds or surface burrows.

MUD CLASTS

When fine-grained, cohesive sediments are disturbed, either by physical bottom scour or faunal activity (e.g. decapod foraging), intact clumps of sediment are often scattered about the seafloor. These mud clasts can be seen at the sediment-water interface in SPI images. During analysis, the number of clasts is counted, the diameter of a typical clast is measured, and their oxidation state is assessed. Depending on their place of origin and the depth of disturbance of the sediment column, mud clasts can be reduced or oxidised (in SPI images, the oxidation state is apparent from their reflectance value; see 'Apparent redox potential discontinuity depth' section below). Also, once at the sediment-water interface, these sediment clumps are subject to bottom-water oxygen levels and bottom currents. Based on laboratory microcosm observations of reduced sediments placed within an aerobic environment, oxidation of reduced surface layers by diffusion alone is quite rapid, occurring within 6-12 hours. Consequently, the detection of reduced mud clasts in an obviously aerobic setting suggests a recent origin. The size and shape of mud clasts, e.g. angular versus rounded, is also considered. Mud clasts may be moved about and broken up by bottom currents and/or animals (macro- or meiofauna) (Germano, 1983). Over time, large angular clasts become small and rounded. Overall, the abundance, distribution, oxidation state, and appearance of mud clasts are used to make inferences about the recent pattern of seafloor disturbance in an area.

APPARENT REDOX POTENTIAL DISCONTINUITY (ARDP) DEPTH

In fine-grained coastal areas, when there is oxygen in the overlying water column, the near surface sediment will have a higher reflectance value relative to hypoxic or anoxic sediment underlying it. This is because the oxidised surface sediment contains particles coated with ferric hydroxide (an olive colour when associated with particles), while the suphidic sediments below this oxygenated layer are grey to black. The boundary between the coloured ferric hydroxide surface sediment and underlying grey to black sediment is defined here as the apparent redox potential discontinuity (abbreviated as the RPD). This 'apparent' depth may, or may not, be equivalent to the actual RPD depth, which is defined as the depth at which the Eh = 0 as measured by microelectrodes. As explained below, in most cases, the depth of Eh = 0 potential in the sediment differs from the 'apparent' RPD as imaged by SPI.

The difference between the depth of the true RPD (Eh = 0) and the imaged apparent RPD can be explained as follows. As dissolved oxygen diffuses into sediment pore water, it is consumed by a variety of biological and geo-chemical reactions. One of these reactions involves the oxidation of iron, which is precipitated onto mineral grains located at, or near, the sediment surface. Once oxidised, these ferric hydroxide-coated particles are bioturbated downward into pore-waters, which lack free molecular oxygen (negative Eh). However, the ferric hydroxide coatings are meta-stable, and reduction of the iron is a slow process relative to the rate of bioturbation. This explains the presence of oxidised grain coatings (high optical reflectance sediment) in reducing pore waters. In the presence of bioturbating infauna, the thickness of the RPD directly reflects the particle bioturbation depth.

The areal extent of the RPD is determined by digitising its unique reflectance value. This oxidised, high-reflectance area is digitised, measured to scale, and divided by the prism window width to obtain a mean depth for the RPD (or particle bioturbation depth). The RPD depth is given special attention in these analyses, because it is a sensitive indicator of the biological mixing depth, infaunal successional status, and within-station sediment patchiness. In the absence of bioturbating infauna, the RPD will achieve a maximum depth of up to 5 mm solely by diffusion depending on the concentration gradient of dissolved oxygen, reducing substrates within the sediment, water temperature (reaction rates), and sediment permeability.

The configuration of the RPD boundary is also of significance. In sandy sediments, physical forces dominate surface relief and RPD depth, which tends to be constant or uniform and does not necessarily follow the surface contours provided by bed-forms. In muddy sediments, the RPD is more complex and convoluted. Here, the RPD layers tend to be broadly uniform and more or less follow the contours of surface sediments. However, smaller scale convolutions are superimposed on this pattern in response to biogenic reworking by a resident infauna. Biogenic structures are regions of enhanced biological and geo-chemical activity where the activities of infaunal organisms can increase flux across the oxic-anoxic sediment interface (Diaz and Schaffner, 1988). Consequently, the RPD boundary is a complicated surface much greater in actual area than a simple aerial measurement would estimate and with a greater effect on sediment-water interface flux rates than is initially apparent (Diaz and Schaffner, 1988).

Another important characteristic of the RPD is the degree of contrast in reflectance values at this boundary. This contrast is related to the interactions among the amount of organic-loading and bioturbational activity in the sediment, and the levels of bottom water dissolved oxygen in an area. High inputs of labile organic material increase sediment oxygen demand, and subsequently sulphate reduction rates (and the abundance of sulphide end-products). This results in more highly reduced (lower-reflectance) sediments at depth and higher RPD contrasts. Although the SPI image analysis system quantifies the degree of contrast, this value can vary as a function of light intensity controls on the image analysis system, which are adjusted by the operator when a wide range of sediment types (e.g. silt-clay to coarse sand) is encountered. As a result, the quantified RPD contrast level may not be a meaningful parameter. However, a qualitative (visual) assessment of the RPD contrast (i.e. high versus low) is often considered in the interpretive process.

SEDIMENTARY METHANE

At extreme levels of organic-loading, pore-water sulphate is depleted, and methanogenesis occurs. The process of methanogenesis is detected by the appearance of methane bubbles in the sediment column. These gas-filled voids are readily discernible because of their irregular, generally circular aspect and glassy texture (due to the reflection of the strobe off the gas). If present, the number and total aerial coverage of all methane pockets is measured.

INFAUNAL SUCCESSIONAL STAGE

The mapping of successional stages is based on the theory that organism-sediment interactions follow a predictable sequence after a major seafloor perturbation. This theory states that primary succession results in the predictable appearance of macrobenthic invertebrates belonging to specific functional types following a benthic disturbance. These invertebrates interact with sediment in specific ways. Because functional types are the biological units of interest, this definition does not demand a sequential appearance of particular invertebrate species or genera. This theory is now well established in the scientific literature (see Pearson and Rosenberg, 1978; Rhoads and Boyer, 1982; Rhoads and Germano, 1986).

The term disturbance is used here to define natural processes, such as seafloor erosion, changes in seafloor chemistry, foraging disturbances which cause major reorganisation of the resident benthos, or anthropogenic impacts, such as dredged material or sewage sludge dumping, thermal effluents from power plants, pollution impacts from industrial discharge, etc. An important aspect of using this successional approach to interpret benthic monitoring results is relating organism-sediment relationships to the dynamical aspects of end-member seres. This involves deducing dynamics from structure, a technique pioneered by Johnson (1972) for marine soft-bottom habitats. The application of an inverse methods approach to benthic monitoring requires the *in situ* measurements of salient structural features of the organism-sediment relationships measured through SPI technology.

Pioneering (Stage 1) species are the first to colonise a new or newly disturbed bottom and reach high densities in a short time. Pioneering (Stage I) assemblages usually consist of dense aggregations of tubicolous or otherwise sedentary organisms that live near the sediment surface and feed at the surface or from the water column (Pearson and Rosenberg, 1978; Rhoads and Germano, 1986). *Capitella capitata, Malacoceros fuliginosus* and Spionidae species are typical forms. These functional types are usually restricted to the near surface of the bottom and their sedimentary effects include (i) the construction of dense tube aggregations which can influence sedimentation/erosion, (ii) deepening of the redox boundary by fluid bioturbation, and (iii) the occlusion of the sediment surface with faecal pellets. These associations are typically characterised by a shallow redox boundary and shallow bioturbation depths, particularly in the earliest stages of colonisation.

In the absence of further physical, chemical or biological disturbance, the pioneering assemblages are replaced by deposit feeders. This is progressive and can be arbitrarily divided into an intermediate and an equilibrium phase (Stages II and III, respectively). Typical Stage II species are shallow dwelling bivalves, tubicolous amphipods and some polychaete species.

Stage III taxa, in turn, represent high-order successional stages typically found in low disturbance regimes. A Stage III or equilibrium assemblage is persistent and is dominated by a bioturbating infauna, which feed at depth within the sediment. Sedimentary effects are distinctive and include (i) the transfer of water and particles over vertical distances of 10 - 20 cm, (ii) the production of homogeneously mixed fabrics by intensive reworking, with faecal pellets at and below the sediment surface, (iii) the creation of void feeding spaces at depth within the bottom, (iv) the extension of the redox boundary to c. 20 cm, and (v) the production of a distinctive surface microtopography unless smoothed over by tidal resuspension. Such deep-dwelling species as the polychaetes, *Pectinaria* sp., Maldanidae sp., the echinoderm, *Trachythyone elongata, Amphiura sp*. and *Echinocardium sp*. and the crustaceans *Lysiosquilla* sp., *Nephrops* sp. and *Upogebia* sp. These invertebrates are infaunal, and many feed at depth in a head-down orientation. The localised feeding activity results in distinctive excavations called feeding voids. Diagnostic features of these feeding structures include: a generally semicircular shape with a flat bottom and arched roof, and a distinct granulometric change in the sediment particles overlying the floor of the structure. This relatively coarse-grained material represents particles rejected by the head-down deposit-feeder. These deep-dwelling infaunal taxa preferentially ingest the finer sediment particles. In the retrograde transition of Stage III to Stage I, it is sometimes possible to recognise the presence of relict (i.e. collapsed and inactive) feeding voids. (It should be added to the above generalisations that pioneering and higher successional species may coexist, if disturbance involves only the superficial sediment layers).

These end-member stages (Stages I and III) are easily recognised in SPI images by the presence of dense assemblages of near-surface polychaetes and/or the presence of subsurface feeding voids. Both types of assemblages may be present in the same image.

ADDITIONAL BIOLOGICAL PARAMETERS
Several additional biological parameters are measured from the negatives using the computer image analysis system. These include: the density per linear cm of polychaete and/or amphipod tubes at the sediment water interface; the minimum and maximum depth of faecal pellet layers and the minimum and maximum depth of feeding voids. Dominant faunal type (i.e. epifauna or infauna) and apparent species richness are also estimated.

SPI ORGANISM-SEDIMENT INDEX (OSI)
A multi-parameter SPI Organism-Sediment Index (OSI) has been constructed to characterise habitat quality and the method of its calculation is shown in Table 1.

The OSI is the sum of values allocated to the various physical/chemical and biological SPI parameters measured and it has a potential value range of -10 to +11. The Organism-Sediment Index is calculated automatically from the software after completion of all measurements from each negative. This index has been found to be an excellent parameter for mapping disturbance gradients in an area and documenting eco-system recovery after disturbance.

Habitat quality is defined relative to two end-member standards. The lowest value is given to those bottoms which have low or dissolved oxygen in the overlying bottom water, no apparent macrofaunal life, and methane gas present in the sediment. The SPI OSI value for such a condition is minus 10. At the other end of the scale, an aerobic bottom with a deeply depressed RPD, evidence of a mature macrofaunal assemblage, and no apparent methane gas bubbles at depth will have a SPI OSI value of plus 11.

Table 1. Method of calculating the Organism - Sediment Index (OSI) value.

Chemical parameters	Index value	Biological parameters	Index value
Mean apparent RPD depth (cm)		Successional stage (Primary succession)	
0	0		
>0 - 0.75	1	Azoic	-4
0.76 - 1.50	2	Stage 1	1
1.51 - 2.25	3	Stage 1-2	2
2.26 - 3.00	4	Stage 2	3
3.01 - 3.75	5	Stage 2-3	4
>3.75	6	Stage 3	5
Methane Present	-2	(Secondary succession)	
No / low oxygen	-4	Stage 1 on Stage 2	5
		Stage 2 on Stage 3	5

From experience with mapping this parameter, values of +7 to +11 are typical of undisturbed sediments while values ≤ 6 tend to be found at sites which have experienced recent physical disturbance (e.g. bottom erosion by currents or disturbance of the bottom by scavenging fish or crustaceans) or are chemically stressed, organically loaded, sulphidic or contaminated in some way. In dealing with areas which are subject to organic enrichment (which may have a variety of origins ranging from natural runoff to anthropogenic inputs), OSI values in the range +6 to +1 generally indicate an overload situation where inputs exceed the capacity of the system and organic matter accumulates on the bottom. Index values which fall in the range +1 to -10 identify varying degrees of habitat degradation associated with a continual accumulation of organic matter and an oxygen depletion on the bottom. At the upper end of the scale, it has been found that OSI values of the order of +11 may reflect a productivity enhancement stage of organic enrichment where natural plant and animal production is increase in response to the ready availability of particulate organic material.

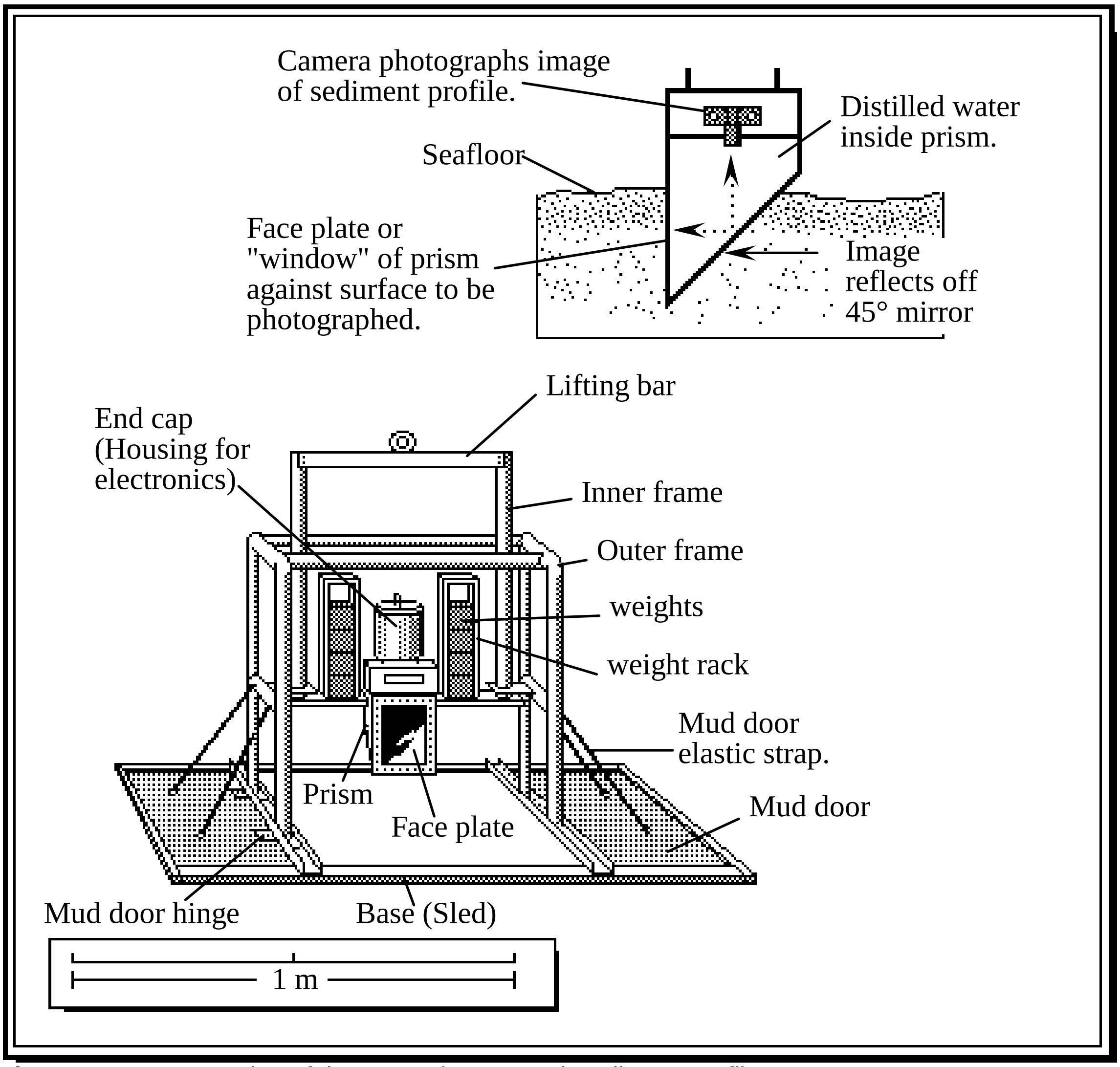

Figure 1. Representation of the remotely operated Sediment Profile Imagery camera.

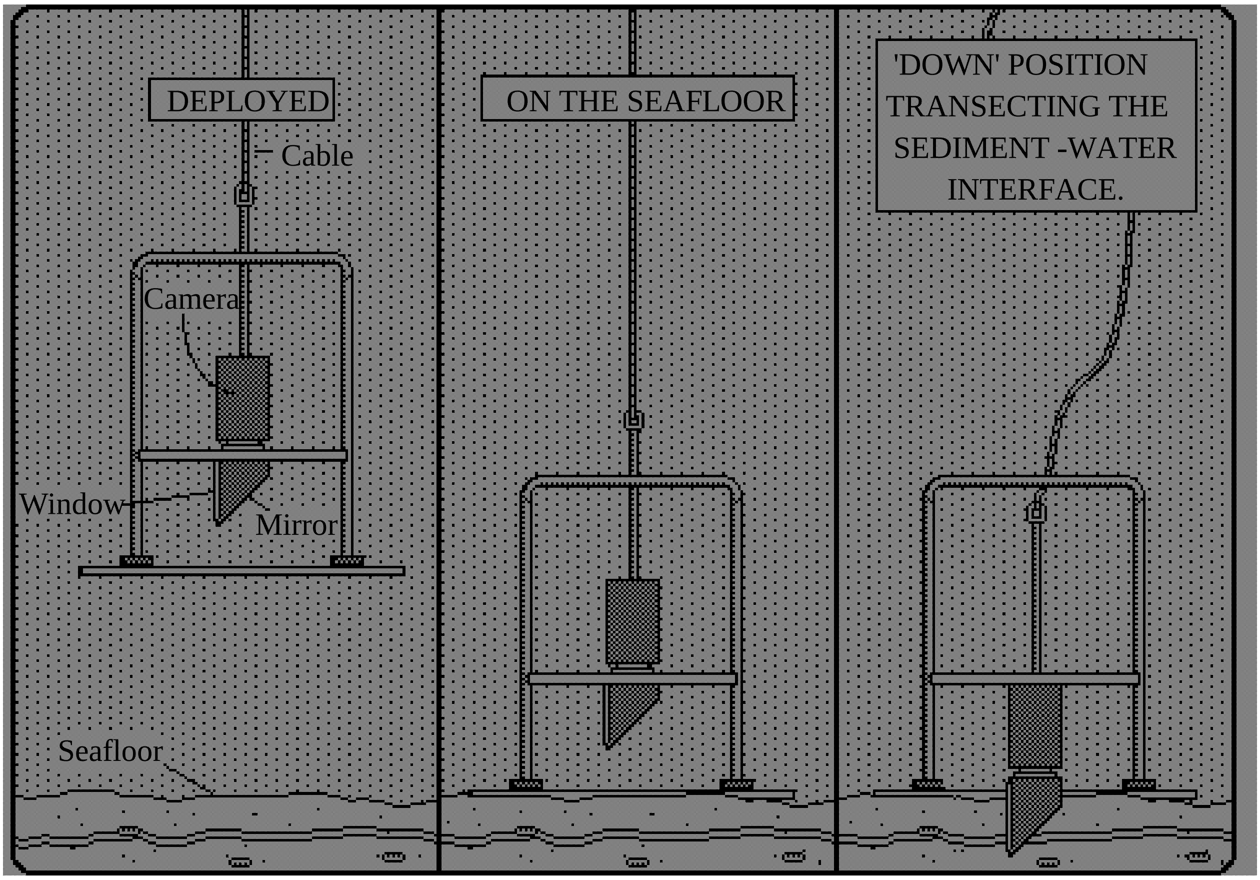

Figure 2. Sediment Profile Imagery (SPI): camera deployment on the seafloor.

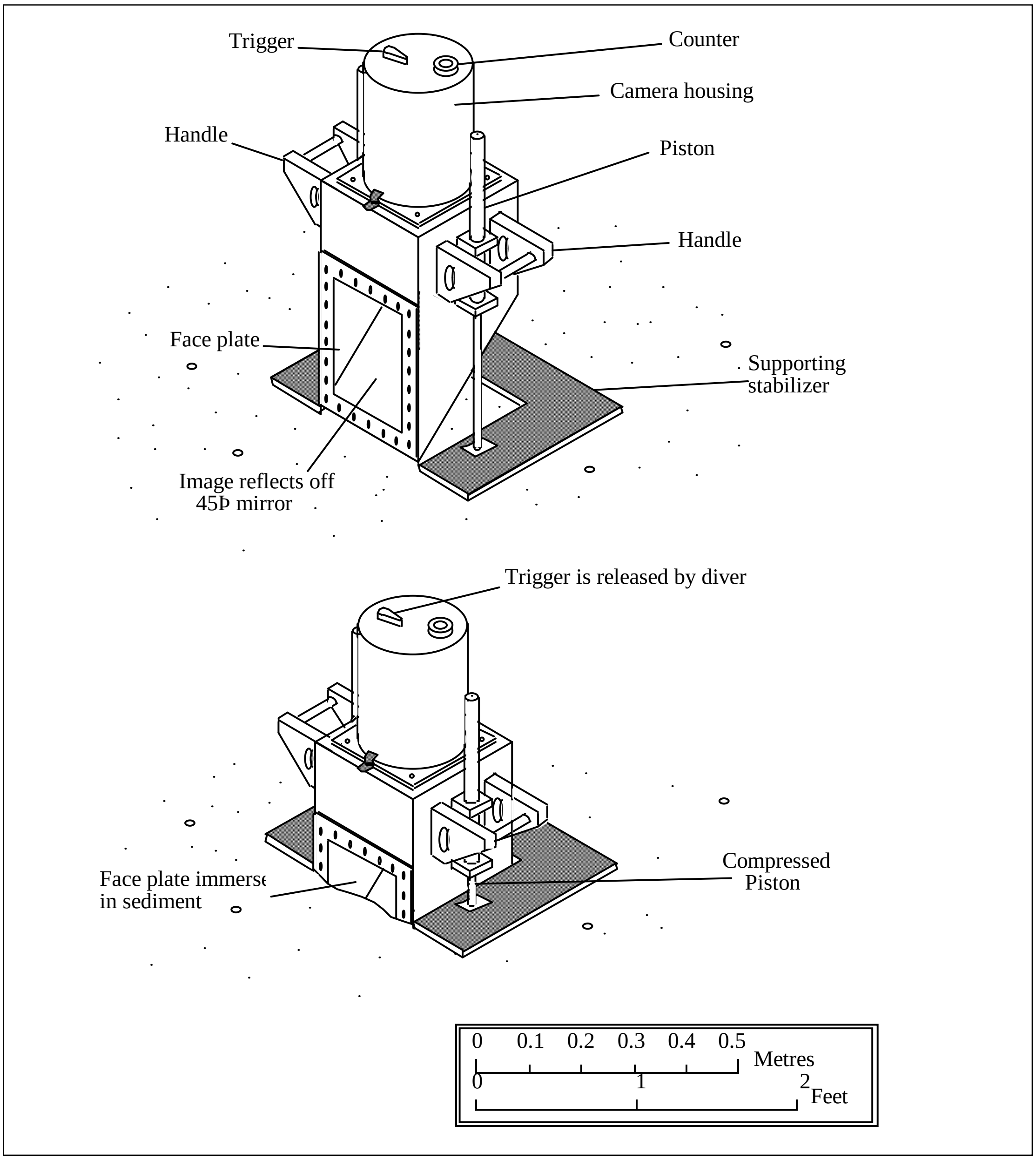

Figure 3. Details of the diver operated Sediment Profile Imagery (SPI) camera.