
Renewable energy homes for marine life: Habitat potential of a tidal energy project for benthic megafauna

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Abstract :

An increasing number of offshore structures are being deployed worldwide to meet the growing demand for renewable energy. Besides energy production, these structures can also provide new artificial habitats to a diversity of fish and crustacean species. This study characterises how concrete mattresses that stabilise the submarine power cable of a tidal energy test site can increase habitat capacity for benthic megafauna. A five-year monitoring, which relied on both visual counts and video-based surveys by divers, revealed that these mattresses provide a suitable habitat for 5 taxa of large crustaceans and fish. In particular, two commercially valuable species, i.e. the edible crab *Cancer pagurus* and the European lobster *Homarus gammarus*, showed a constant occupancy of these artificial habitats throughout the course of the project. The shape and the number of shelters available below individual mattresses largely determine potential for colonisation by mobile megafauna. Local physical characteristics of the implantation site (e.g. substratum type, topography, exposition to current etc.) significantly impact amount and type of shelters provided by the concrete mattresses. Thus, to characterise habitat potential of artificial structures, it is not only essential to consider (i) the design of the structures, but also to (ii) account for their interactions with local environmental conditions when deployed on the seafloor.

Highlights

► The colonisation of artificial structures by benthic megafauna was surveyed during 5 years. ► Target taxa showed a constant occupancy of the artificial structures. ► Shape and number of shelters largely determine potential for colonisation. ► Local physical characteristics significantly impact amount and type of shelters. ► It is essential to consider both design of structures and interactions with environment.

Keywords : Artificial habitats, Marine renewable energy, Crustacean, Fish, Habitat

39 **Abbreviations**

40 MRE, Marine Renewable Energy; GLMM, generalised linear mixed models; LMM, linear mixed

41 models; PCA, principal component analysis; RDA, redundancy analysis

42

1. INTRODUCTION

Artificial reefs are man-made structures placed on the sea bed in aquatic habitats for different purposes, for instance to mimic characteristics of natural reefs such as substrate and/or shelter provision to associated organisms (Bohnsack et al., 1991; Jensen et al., 2000a; Thierry, 1988). Development of artificial reefs may locally increase both hard substratum availability and habitat heterogeneity (especially when deployed on soft-sediment bottoms), which can consequently lead to higher densities and biomass of fish and decapods (Bohnsack et al., 1994; Bombace et al., 1994; Langhamer and Wilhelmsson, 2009).

Enhancement of associated benthic diversity by artificial reefs depends both on reef properties and on local environmental characteristics. Colonisation success depends on artificial reef shape and size, constitutive material, orientation and degree of complexity, that directly determine habitat, and refuge availability (Charbonnel et al., 2002; Ferreira and Coutinho, 2001; Hackradt et al., 2011; Sherman et al., 2002). A range of local environmental factors (*e.g.* neighbouring habitat type, hydrological features, amplitude of seasonal variation) can significantly influence the amount and the diversity of colonising organisms (Bohnsack et al., 1991; Bombace et al., 1994; Godoy et al., 2002; Noh et al., 2017). A long-standing scientific debate persists between two dominant theories regarding the role of artificial reefs for mobile fauna: (i) the “attraction hypothesis” and (ii) the “production hypothesis” (Lima et al., 2019). The first assumes that artificial reefs only attract specimens from nearby ecological communities, without increasing overall biomass production (Bohnsack, 1989) while the latter advocates that artificial reefs increase abundance and biomass of associated species by enhancing habitat and food availability (Pickering and Whitmarsh, 1997; Polovina and Sakai, 1989). Literature shows that the two processes exist, the productive potential of artificial reef is indeed reef-dependant and varies according to an important number of factors (*e.g.* number and design of reef units, distance to natural reef, association with protected area *etc.* ; Pickering and Whitmarsh, 1997). Nevertheless, Lima et al. (2019) highlight that, despite several decades of scientific observations and experiments on the subject, separating the reef effect and the effects of changing environmental and socioeconomic conditions remains complex, impacting the assessment of artificial reefs performance.

70 Artificial reefs can be divided into two types: *i*) structures designed and installed specifically
71 for their reef properties (for a variety of reasons *e.g.* ecosystems conservation/restoration, fish stocks
72 enhancement, fisheries management *etc.*; Jensen, 2002) and *ii*) structures deployed for other purposes,
73 such as oil platforms, breakwaters, or marine renewable energy (MRE) facilities (Langhamer, 2012;
74 Lima et al., 2019; Wilson and Elliott, 2009). MRE facilities and associated structures (*e.g.* protection
75 structures, submarine power cables, foundations, turbines *etc.*) are not only colonised by a variety of
76 benthic organisms including algae, sessile epifauna and mobile macrofauna but also mobile
77 megafauna (*i.e.* fish and decapods). A diversity of fish and large crustaceans can settle on artificial
78 reefs deployed as part of MRE facilities (see Wilhelmsson and Langhamer, 2014 for a review). For
79 example, commercially valuable crustacean species such as the European lobster (*Homarus*
80 *gammarus*) or the edible crab (*Cancer pagurus*) can shelter around the foundations of offshore wind
81 (Hooper and Austen, 2014; Krone et al., 2017) or wave farms (Langhamer and Wilhelmsson, 2009).
82 Thus, such reef effects can represent an ecological benefit of MRE, since artificial structures generally
83 host higher diversity, densities and biomass of benthic organisms than the surrounding soft bottoms
84 (Broadhurst and Orme, 2014; Dannheim et al., 2020; Langhamer and Wilhelmsson, 2009). Wilson and
85 Elliott (2009) estimated that in the long term, a wind-turbine facility provides 2.5 times the amount of
86 habitat relative to the initial loss during the installation process, even though this new habitat may be
87 of a different character to the initial one. When their deployment requires the implementation of new
88 exclusion areas for fishing, MRE may thus act as a refuge for commercially-exploited populations,
89 with potential spill-over benefits for adjacent stocks and fisheries (Lindeboom et al., 2015, 2011).
90 However, the long-term reef effect associated with MRE facilities remains poorly characterised
91 (Copping et al., 2016; Langhamer and Wilhelmsson, 2009; Lindeboom et al., 2015), especially within
92 high hydrodynamic energy areas (as tidal energy sites; Copping et al., 2016).

93 The purpose of this study is to assess the role of habitat associated with MRE facilities using a
94 French tidal energy test site as a case study. We specifically examined the habitat capacity of concrete
95 mattresses that stabilise an unburied submarine power cable that connects the test site to the mainland.
96 Based on a 4-year monitoring of fish and crustacean abundance on these mattresses, we (1)
97 characterise the reef effect associated with MRE structures, and more specifically (2) how interactions

98 between artificial reefs and natural seafloor characteristics can determine diversity and abundance of
99 associated megafauna.

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100 2. METHODS

101 2.1 Study site

102 The study area consists of a 15 km-long submarine power cable (8 MVA - 10 kVDC) laid in
 103 2012 by Electricité de France (EDF) to connect the tidal test site of Paimpol-Bréhat to the mainland
 104 (Brittany, France; Figure 1). Due to several setbacks in the project development, no electric current
 105 transited through the cable during the course of this study. An 11 km cable portion is unburied due to
 106 local seafloor characteristics (dominance of pebbles and presence of boulders; Figure 2.A) and
 107 stabilised by 120 concrete mattresses to prevent any cable displacement due to high hydrodynamic
 108 conditions. These mattresses are installed at depths ranging from 15 to 33 m and for the majority
 109 approximately 50 m apart (with some 200 m apart). The 6 m-long, 3 m-wide and 0.3 m-thick
 110 mattresses are made up of 73 concrete blocks linked together by an array of polypropylene rope, and a

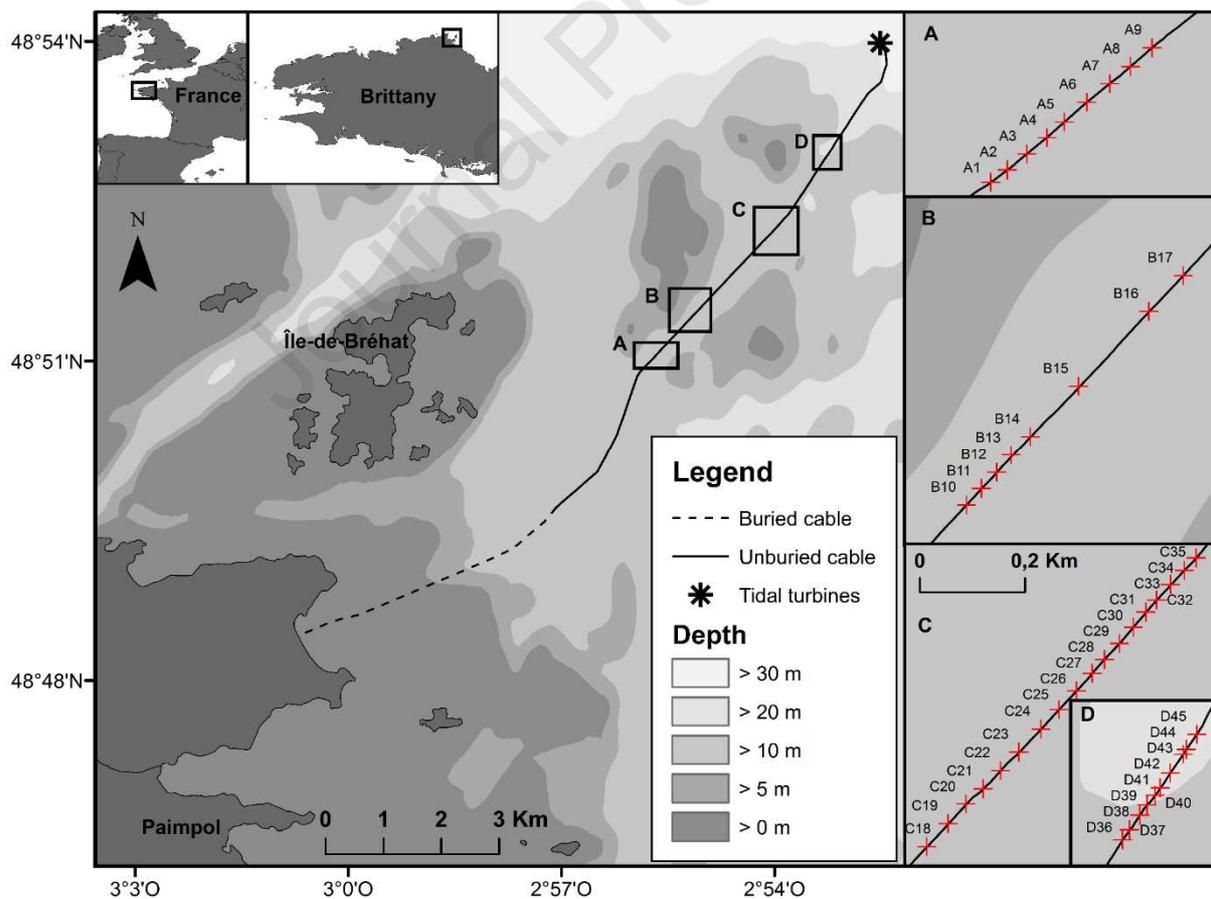


Figure 1: Map of the study area off the north coast of Brittany in Western France (top-left and top-centre panels). The thick black line represents the power cable that connects the Paimpol-Bréhat tidal test site to the mainland. Zones A, B, C and D (right) correspond to the four sites where concrete mattresses were surveyed.

111 weight of ~10 t.

112 **2.2 Target species**

113 A set of 5 benthic megafauna taxa easily recognisable by scuba-diving were surveyed: the
114 crustaceans *Homarus gammarus* (European lobster) and *Cancer pagurus* (edible crab) and the benthic
115 or demersal fish, *Conger conger* (European conger), *Labrus bergylta* (Ballan wrasse), and two species
116 of the genus *Trisopterus*: *T. luscus* (whiting pout) and *T. minutus* (poor cod). These two latter species
117 were hereafter gathered as a single taxon (*Trisopterus* spp.) since we cannot exclude that confusions of
118 identification may have occurred.

119 **2.3 Sampling strategy**

120 Between June 2015 and September 2019, 45 different concrete mattresses in the 16-20 m
121 depth range were surveyed by divers within four different zones along the cable (Zones A, B, C and D;
122 Figure 1). These selected zones are located within a channel surrounded by several rocky shelves. A
123 total of 45 mattresses were surveyed in June 2015, 30 in September 2015 (zone A, D and part of the
124 zone C), 37 in June 2016 and 2017 (zone A, C and D); and only 20 in September 2019 (zone A and C
125 Table 1). All surveys were performed at slack tides of neap tides and during daytime hours, *i.e.*
126 between 8 am and 8 pm. During each survey, two divers inspected each mattress: the first diver moved
127 slowly along the entire perimeter of the mattress while examining all the cavities and counting all
128 conspicuous individuals of the 5 target species. Simultaneously, the second diver followed the first one
129 around the mattress and recorded a video using a GoPro Hero 4[®] camera to provide some additional
130 observations of the mobile fauna and the environment (substratum bottom type, frequency and forms
131 of cavities *etc.*). Hereafter, a “sample” refers to all these pieces of information recorded for a given
132 mattress, during a given campaign.

| Campaign | Number of Mattresses | Zone |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|
| June 2015 | 45 | A-B-C-D |
| September 2015 | 30 | A-C(only C25 to C35)-D |
| June 2016 | 37 | A-C-D |
| June 2017 | 37 | A-C-D |
| September 2019 | 20 | A-C(only C25 to C35) |

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Table 1: Summary of the concrete mattresses and zones surveyed during each campaign.

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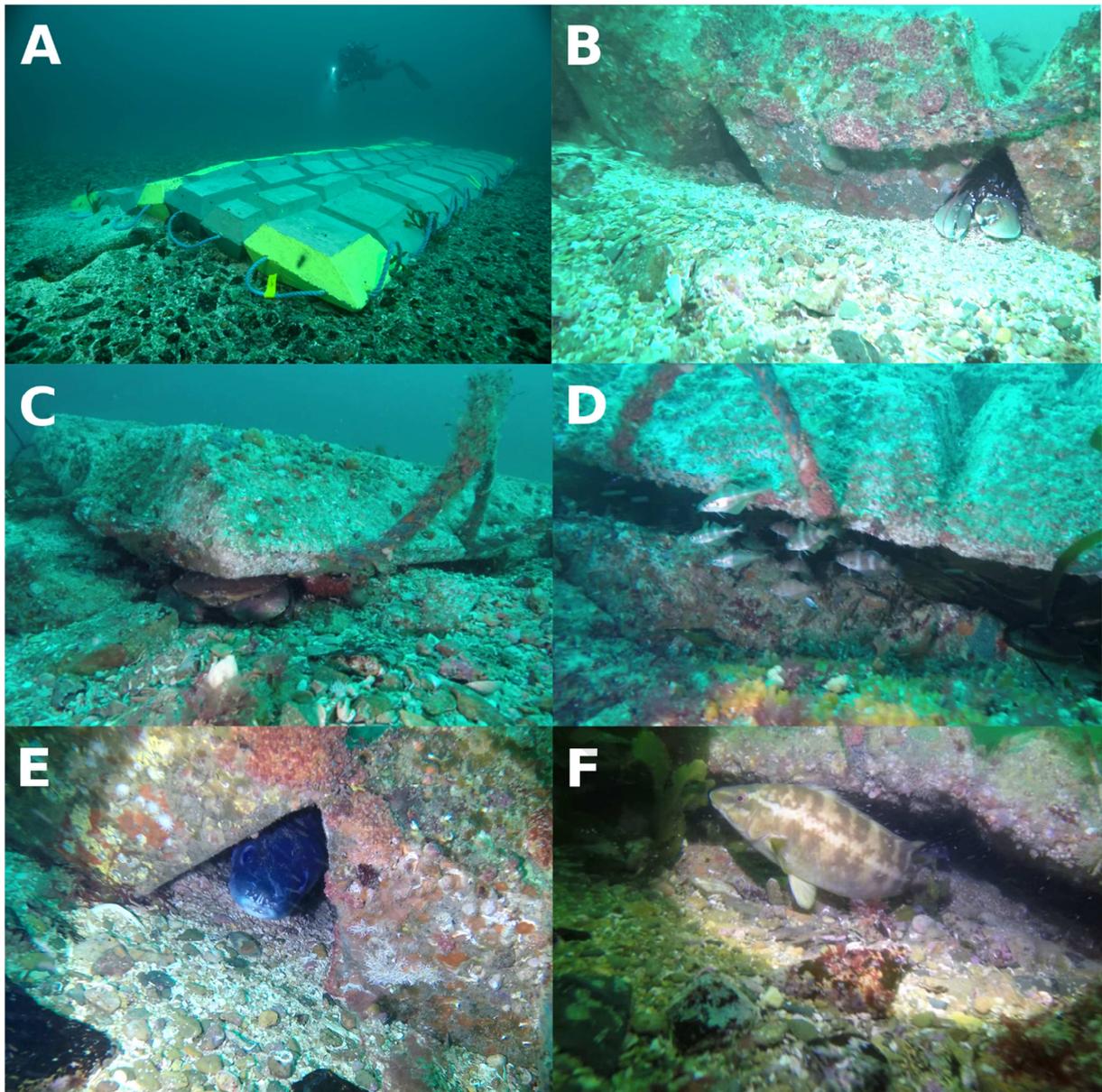


Figure 2: (A) Overall view of a concrete mattress (constituted of 73 concrete blocks) a few weeks after its installation on the power cable of the Paimpol-Bréhat tidal test site; (B) *Homarus gammarus* within a “hole”, i.e. a small ~20 cm-wide triangular cavity between two concrete blocks; (C) *Cancer pagurus* within a “cave”, i.e. a >10 cm high cavity formed below the mattress; (D) school of *Trisopterus* spp. close to a mattress “cave” ; (E) *Conger conger* within a “hole” ; (F) *Labrus bergylta* close to a mattress “cave”.

136 2.4 Environmental variables

137 Substratum as well as types and number of cavities associated with each mattress were estimated
 138 from the video footage: each concrete block along the mattress edges (see Figure 2A) was assigned to
 139 one of three substratum categories: sand, pebbles or boulders. For each mattress, substratum properties

140 were estimated as a proportion of these three categories across all peripheral concrete blocks (Table 2).
141 Two different types of cavity that can provide habitats to mobile fauna underneath the mattresses were
142 identified: “holes”, which correspond to small ~20 cm-wide triangular cavities between two concrete
143 blocks along the mattress width (Figure 2.B & E; Table 2); and “caves”, which correspond to larger
144 cavities formed below the mattress when it overhangs at least 10 cm above the seafloor (Figure 2.C, D
145 & F; Table 2).

146 In addition, the following environmental variables were extracted for each mattress (Table 2): (1)
147 bottom residual current velocity (computed from a 2010-2015 climatology extracted from the
148 MANGA500-MARS3D hydrodynamic model); (2) seafloor facet exposure to residual current
149 (computed using seafloor aspect and residual current direction and ranging from 0°, when the seafloor
150 is sheltered, to 180°, when it is fully exposed to dominant current) and (3) linear distances from each
151 mattress to the closest 5 m and 10 m depth isobaths. This final shortlist of environmental variables was
152 defined by removing correlated variables (> 0.7) from an original selection that only included well-
153 resolved biologically-relevant parameters.

154

155 **2.5 Biological data**

156 In addition to *in situ* abundance counts performed by divers, video counts of all visible individuals
157 were performed for the same 5 target species (Table 2). To avoid multiple counts of single individuals
158 of *Trisopterus* spp. given their high mobility, the maximum number of individuals occurring in a
159 single snapshot of the full video was recorded. In order to investigate species-specific sheltering
160 preferences, the positions of each counted individual with respect to the mattress was noted as either *i*)
161 inside a “hole”, *ii*) inside a “cave”, or *iii*) free-moving outside any cavities.

162 For *H. gammarus*, *C. pagurus* and *C. conger*, we used *in situ* counts performed by divers for
163 multivariate analyses (Table 2), since video counts underestimated the abundance of these three
164 species (SI 1) due to their cryptic behaviours. For the 2 other target taxa *L. bergylta* and *Trisopterus*
165 spp., we used video counts for multivariate analyses (Table 2) since *in situ* counts were less accurate
166 due to the high mobility of these species and the tendency to form dense schools of *Trisopterus* spp.

167 (SI 1). All video analyses were performed using the Ifremer ADELIE[®] Software V2.0 according to the
 168 methodology developed and tested by Dufournaud (2018).

| | Variable | Unit | Origin | Mean | Min | Max |
|--------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Biological data | <i>Homarus gammarus</i> | count | <i>in situ</i> | 1.1 | 0 | 5 |
| | <i>Cancer pagurus</i> | count | <i>in situ</i> | 1.5 | 0 | 5 |
| | <i>Conger conger</i> | count | <i>in situ</i> | 1.4 | 0 | 4 |
| | <i>Trisopterus</i> spp. | count | video | 3.5 | 0 | 68 |
| | <i>Labrus bergylta</i> | count | video | 1.1 | 0 | 6 |
| Environmental data | Sand proportion | % | video | 67% | 0% | 100% |
| | Pebble proportion | % | video | 27% | 0% | 100% |
| | Boulder proportion | % | video | 6% | 0% | 89% |
| | Number of holes | count | video | 10.2 | 3 | 12 |
| | Number of caves | count | video | 9.2 | 0 | 28 |
| | Bottom-current velocity | m s ⁻¹ | GIS | 0.71 | 0.65 | 0.99 |
| | Exposure | ° | GIS | 93.8 | 12.7 | 163.8 |
| | Distance to 5 m isobath | m | GIS | 500.2 | 149.7 | 791.2 |
| | Distance to 10 m isobath | m | GIS | 245.1 | 62 | 403.5 |

169
 170 *Table 2: Summary of all biological and environmental variables considered in this study, either*
 171 *measured in situ or from video footage, or derived from bathymetric map or from the MARS3D*
 172 *hydrodynamic model.*

173
 174 Due to poor footage quality, only 129 out of the 169 videos could be fully analysed and were used
 175 to perform multivariate analyses. To investigate specific habitat preferences, we also reported the type
 176 of cavity (either inside a “hole”, inside a “cave”, or free-moving out of any cavities) where each
 177 specimen was detected on the 129 videos.

178 2.6 Data analysis

179 Three main types of statistical analyses were performed, namely: *i*) generalised linear mixed
 180 models (GLMM) and linear mixed models (LMM) to explore temporal variations in megafauna
 181 abundance and diversity, *ii*) a principal component analysis (PCA) to study patterns in megafauna
 182 assemblage compositions, and *iii*) a redundancy analysis (RDA) to examine how variability in
 183 megafauna community relates to environmental conditions.

184 Using count data available for each mattress surveyed during the five campaigns, (i) GLMMs
185 were applied to study temporal variations in the abundance per mattress of each target species and the
186 total community abundance across all species (with and without *Trisopterus* spp.) per mattress; and
187 (ii) a LMM was apply to study temporal variation in species richness per mattress. As count estimates
188 correspond to repeated measures through time, mattress identity was treated as a random effect and
189 campaign date was the only categorical explanatory variable included in all models to assess temporal
190 variation. Each GLMM was fitted assuming either a Poisson distribution (for abundances of *H.*
191 *gammarus* and *C. conger*), or a negative-binomial distribution when residuals with the former were
192 overdispersed (for abundances of *C. pagurus*, *L. bergylta*, *Trisopterus* spp. and total community
193 abundance with and without *Trisopterus* spp.). For each model, significance of the factor “campaign”
194 was then assessed with Chi-Squared tests for GLMMs and F-test for LMM. When appropriate, a post-
195 hoc test using Tukey correction was performed to study pairwise differences between campaigns. We
196 then characterised variability in megafauna composition between samples using a PCA. Finally, to
197 relate community variability to changes in environmental variables (Table 2), we performed a
198 Redundancy Analysis (RDA; (Legendre and Legendre, 1998)). Using a Monte-Carlo permutation test
199 (999 permutations), a forward selection process was performed to identify environmental variables
200 that best correlate to observed variability in community composition. In order to reduce the weight of
201 abundant school-forming species such as *Trisopterus* spp., a logarithmic transformation was applied to
202 the abundance data set before all multivariate analyses. Environmental variables were normalised prior
203 to RDA analysis. Data analysis was performed with Rstudio (RStudio Team, 2015) using the *vegan*
204 (Oksanen et al., 2018) and *ggplot2* (Wickham, 2016) packages.

205

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3. RESULTS

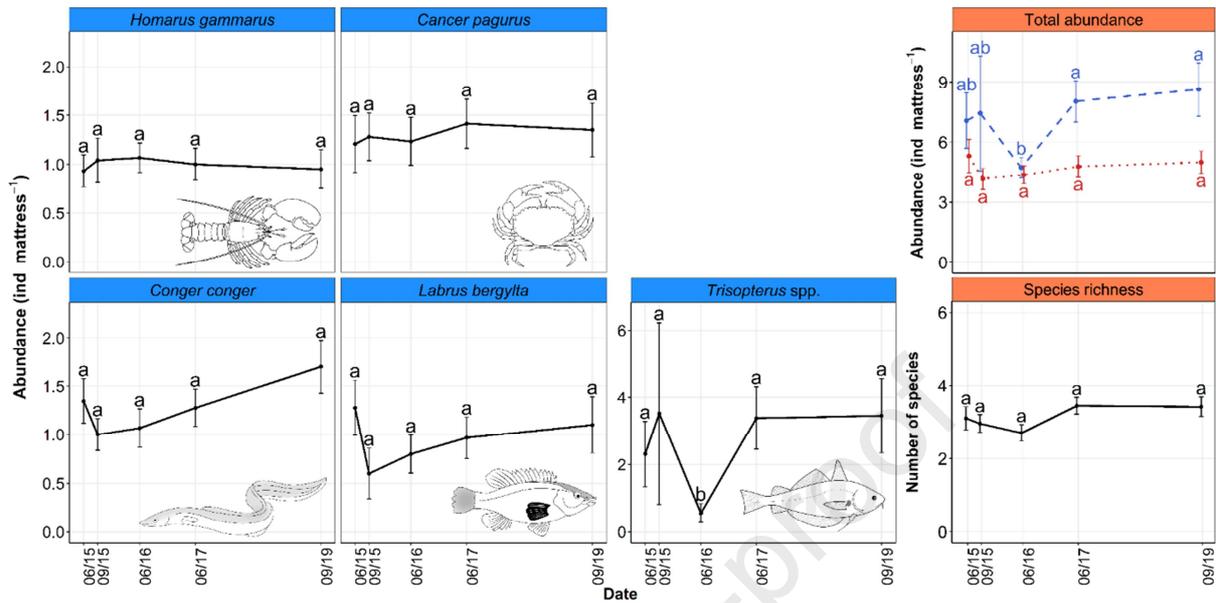


Figure 2 : Changes in mean specific abundances of the 5 target taxa (average number of individuals per mattress \pm standard errors), in mean community abundance per mattress (blue dashed line when considering all species; red dotted line when excluding highly abundant *Trisopterus* spp.) and in mean species richness per mattress. Points labelled with different letters indicate significant differences. Only the mattresses surveyed at every campaign were considered.

207

3.1 Temporal variation

208

Although occupancy of individual mattresses varied slightly during the different campaigns

209

(SI 2), mean abundance estimates across all mattresses did not significantly change for *H. gammarus*

210

($\chi^2 = 0.44$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.98$), *C. pagurus* ($\chi^2 = 0.6$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.96$), *C. conger* ($\chi^2 = 5.42$, $df = 4$, $p =$

211

0.25) and *L. bergylta* ($\chi^2 = 5.46$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.24$), Figure 3). Only *Trisopterus* spp. displayed

212

significant abundance changes between campaigns ($\chi^2 = 26.42$, $df = 4$, $p < 0.001$; Figure 3) due to

213

significantly lower abundances in June 2016 relative to other campaigns. Total community abundance

214

(across all five taxa) per mattress significantly changed between campaigns ($\chi^2 = 14.49$, $df = 4$, $p <$

215

0.001; Figure 3) as total abundance in June 2016 was significantly lower than in June 2017 and

216

September 2019. This is most likely due to the previously described decline in *Trisopterus* spp.

217

abundance in June 2016. Indeed, when excluding this taxon, there was no significant temporal change

218 in total megafauna abundance ($\chi^2 = 1.91$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.75$; Figure 3). Species richness per mattress did
 219 not significantly change overtime either ($F = 1.78$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.14$; Figure 3).

220 We sometimes observed co-occurrence within the same cavity of several individuals, either
 221 conspecific or from different species (Table 3). We did not quantify these co-occurrences, but
 222 observed *i*) that co-occurrence is more frequent within caves than within holes, *ii*) that mobile fish
 223 species (*i.e.* *L. bergylta* and *Trisopterus* spp.) frequently co-occurred with conspecifics and as well as
 224 other species, and *iii*) that individuals from sedentary species (*i.e.* *H. gammarus*, *C. pagurus* and *C.*
 225 *conger*) rarely co-occurred (Table 3).

226

227 *Table 3: Observed co-occurrence within a single cavity of individuals from the different target taxa.*
 228 *Based on video footages, the matrix reports on whether several individuals from the same or different*
 229 *species co-occurred at least one time within a hole (H), or a cave (C) cavity.*

| | <i>Homarus gammarus</i> | | <i>Cancer pagurus</i> | | <i>Conger conger</i> | | <i>Trisopterus</i> spp. | | <i>Labrus bergylta</i> | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|---|-----------------------|---|----------------------|---|-------------------------|---|------------------------|---|
| <i>Homarus gammarus</i> | - | - | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Cancer pagurus</i> | - | - | - | C | | | | | | |
| <i>Conger conger</i> | - | C | H | - | - | - | | | | |
| <i>Trisopterus</i> spp. | - | C | - | C | - | C | H | C | | |
| <i>Labrus bergylta</i> | - | - | - | - | - | - | H | C | H | C |

230

231 Although we did not quantify their abundance (as they only marginally occurred), other
 232 species of benthic megafauna (including fish from the Blenniidae or Gobiidae families and other
 233 wrasses species such as *Labrus mixtus* and *Ctenolabrus rupestris*, and crustaceans like *Galathea* sp.
 234 and *Necora puber*) were also regularly observed.

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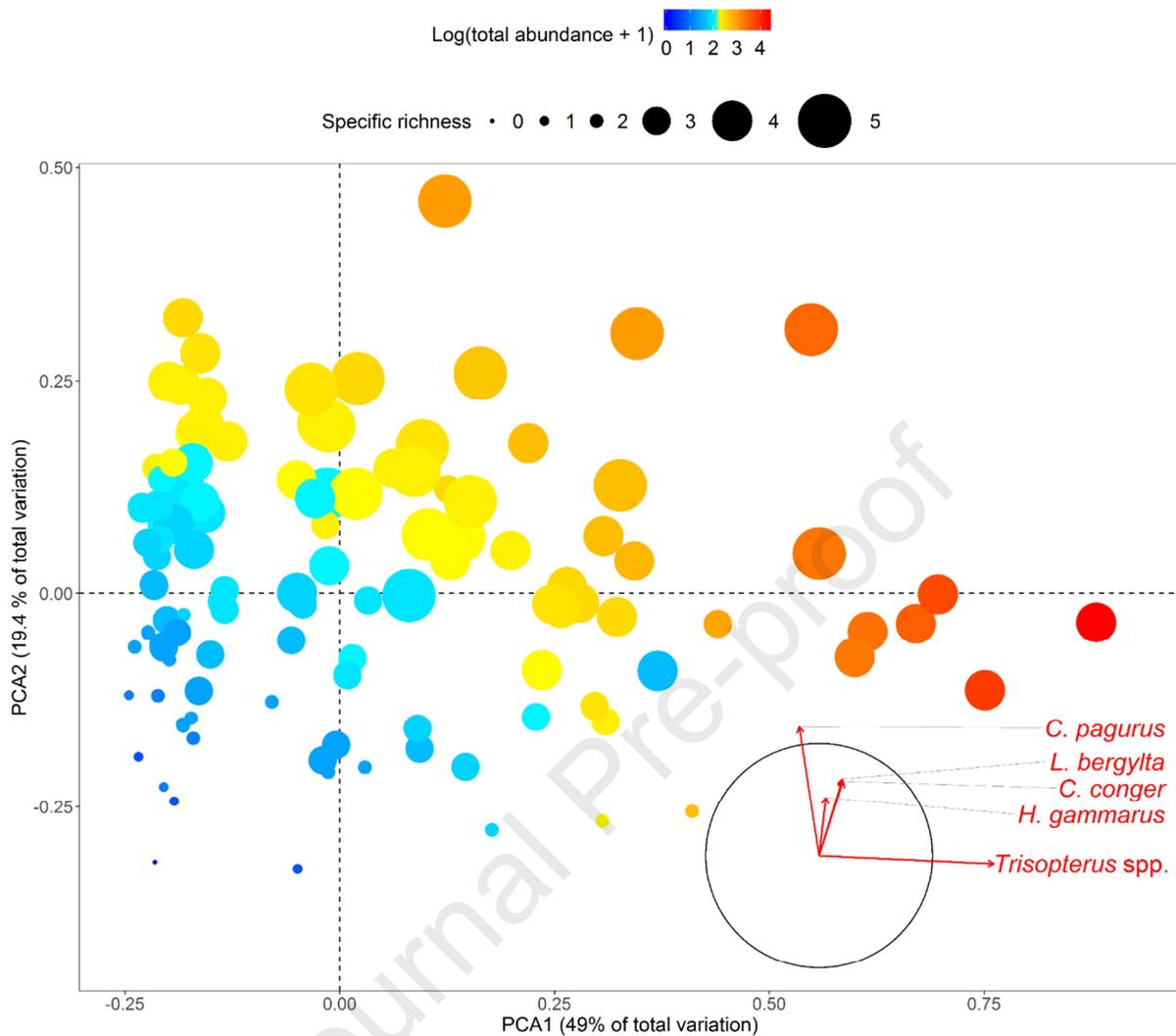


Figure 3: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of log-transformed abundance data for the 5 target species. Each point represents a sample (i.e. a concrete mattress during a given campaign). Point size is proportional to species richness and colour indicates total megafauna abundance. Vector overlays show how species abundance correlates with the two first principal components.

236 3.2 Patterns in community composition / assemblage composition

237 Out of the 129 analysed samples, only 3 do not shelter any individuals of the target species.
 238 *Trisopterus spp.* is the most abundant species (448 individuals counted in total), followed by *C.*
 239 *pagurus* (196 individuals), *C. conger* (183 individuals), *L. bergylta* (145 individuals) and finally *H.*
 240 *gammarus* (141 individuals).

241 The first two PCA axes capture 68.4% of the total variation (Figure 4). Axis PCA1 (49% of
 242 total variation) is positively correlated to *Trisopterus spp.* abundance while the abundance of 4 of the 5

243 taxa, mainly *C. pagurus* and then *L. bergylta* and *C. conger* positively correlates with axis PCA 2
 244 (19.4% of total variation; Figure 4). The colour and size codes used to visualise samples on the PCA
 245 also illustrates that both species richness and total abundance per mattress are positively correlated
 246 with the two first axes (Figure 4). PCA ordination highlights a large gradient of colonisation among
 247 samples, from low-abundance and low-richness samples (in the bottom left) to samples characterised
 248 by a high level of colonisation (in the top right of the plot).

| Environmental variable | F-value | p-value | Explained | | Correlation | |
|------------------------|---------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------|-------------|
| | | | λ | % | RDA1 | RDA2 |
| Cave | 11.01 | 0.001 | 0.14 | 14% | 0.77 | 0.33 |
| % Boulder | 8.185 | 0.001 | 0.1 | 10% | 0.76 | -0.35 |
| Exposure | 4.872 | 0.006 | 0.06 | 6% | 0.31 | -0.39 |
| Hole | 1.794 | 0.146 | 0.02 | 2% | 0.24 | 0.71 |
| % Pebble | 1.541 | 0.193 | 0.02 | 2% | 0.13 | 0.59 |
| Total | | | 0.34 | 34% | | |

249
 250 *Table 4: Environmental variables selected in the RDA as well correlated to the variability in the*
 251 *abundance of the 5 target taxa colonising concrete mattresses at the Paimpol-Bréhat tidal test site*
 252 *cable (Monte Carlo permutation test in RDA with 999 permutations; $p < 0.05$). High correlation ($r >$*
 253 *0.5) between environmental variables and the first two RDA axes are highlighted in bold.*

254
 255 In the RDA (Figure 5), the environmental variables that best correlate to variability in megafauna
 256 composition are, in order of importance, number of caves, percentage of boulders, exposure to current,
 257 number of holes and finally percentage of pebbles (Table 4). These 5 variables capture 34% of the
 258 total variability in megafauna composition (Table 4; axis 1 and axis 2 explains 21.74% and 2.63% of
 259 the total variation, respectively, Figure 5). Results of the RDA (Figure 5) are consistent with those of
 260 the PCA (Figure 4). Number of caves present below the mattresses and percentage of boulders
 261 correlate positively with RDA axis 1, while number of holes and percentage of pebbles mainly
 262 correlate positively with RDA axis 2 (Figure 5, Table 4).

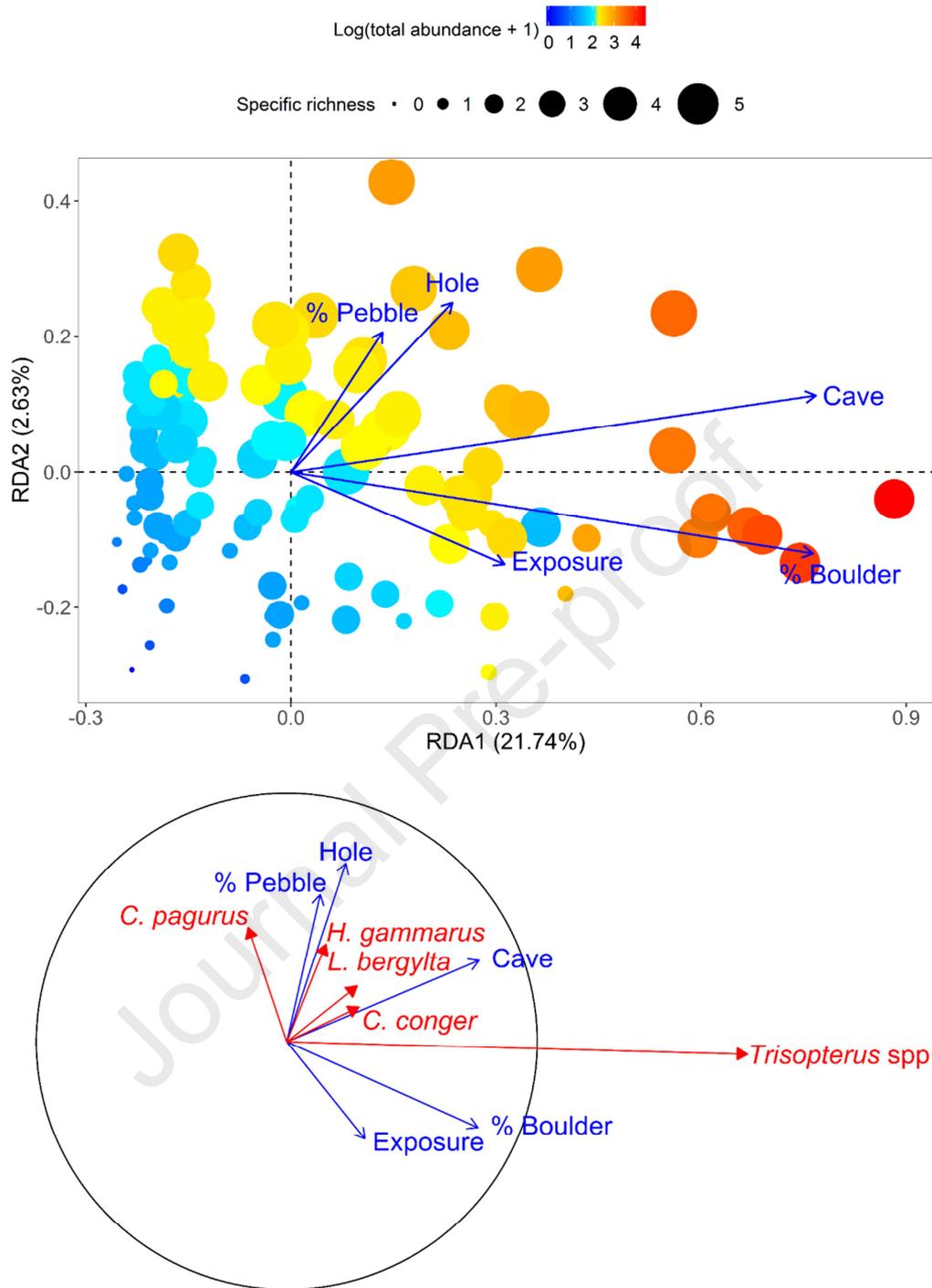


Figure 4: Redundancy analysis (RDA) ordination plots of axes 1 and 2 showing (A) samples (i.e. a concrete mattress during a given campaign, points) in relation to environmental variables (blue arrows); and (B) target megafauna species (red arrow) in relation to environmental variables (blue arrows). A different scaling was used for each panel, so environmental variables projection on the RDA should be used to reconcile both parts of the Figure. Axes 1 and 2 together explain 24.37% of the total taxonomic variation. Point size corresponds to associated species richness and point colour to associated total megafauna abundance.

264 Note that samples with high abundance of *Trisopterus* spp. (to the right of the RDA) are
 265 associated with relatively high numbers of caves and percentages of boulders (Figure 5). On the other
 266 hand, high abundances of *C. pagurus* and *H. gammarus* occur on mattresses with high numbers of
 267 holes and percentage of pebbles. *L. bergylta* and *C. conger* are correlated with high number of caves
 268 and holes (Figure 5). Finally, samples with low diversity and low total abundance exhibited relatively
 269 small numbers of both types of cavity (holes or caves) and low percentages of pebbles and boulders
 270 (Figure 5).

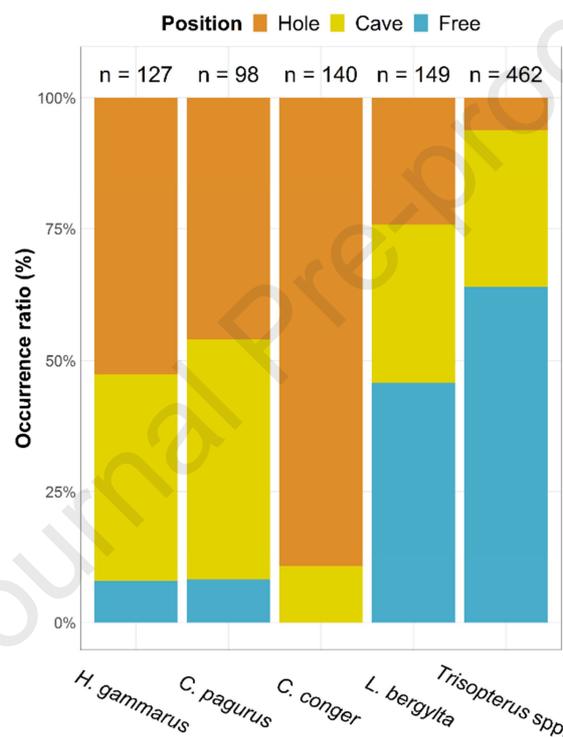


Figure 5 : Relative frequency of locations (either inside a “hole”, inside a “cave”, or free-moving out of any cavities) in which the 6 target species were detected, based on analyses of 169 video footages.

271 3.3 Habitat preferences

272 According to video footages, conger preferentially shelters within hole cavity (89,3% of
 273 sheltered individuals observed on videos are in holes), whereas the two species of *Trisopterus*
 274 commonly shelter within cave cavities (for sheltered individuals, 83% found in caves; Figure 6).
 275 Conversely, edible crab, European lobster and Ballan wrasse do not show any clear habitat preference
 276 as they appear to randomly shelter in either cavity types (specific proportions of individuals sheltering
 277 in caves are 50%, 42.7% and 55.6%, respectively; Figure 6).

4. DISCUSSION

By combining *in situ* visual census by divers and video analysis, our results help to characterise how MRE facilities can enhance benthic megafauna diversity by providing artificial reefs. Specifically, our findings help: (i) characterise the habitat potential of concrete mattresses deployed to anchor an unburied power cable; (ii) disentangle how interactions between artificial reef and natural substrate determine the effectiveness of the ‘reef effect’ and (iii) to a lesser extent identify fine-scale habitat preferences of the 5 target species.

4.1 Habitat potential of cable stabilizing structures

MRE structures create additional potential habitat for benthic megafauna, as shown by several studies on colonisation (Krone et al., 2017; Langhamer and Wilhelmsson, 2009; Reubens et al., 2011; Wilhelmsson and Langhamer, 2014). On the subsea power cable of Paimpol-Bréhat, concrete mattresses offer a suitable habitat for large crustaceans and fish, at least for the 5 taxa targeted during our five-year monitoring. This result corroborates with previous studies that showed that these target species are known to be attracted by a number of artificial hard substrates, either associated with MRE facilities (Krone et al., 2017; Langhamer and Wilhelmsson, 2009; Reubens et al., 2011) or with other types of man-made structures (Castège et al., 2016; Charbonnel et al., 2000; Fabi et al., 2004; Jensen et al., 2000b, 1994; Santos et al., 2005).

In our study, one mattress is on average inhabited by 1 to 2 individuals of *C. conger*, *H. gammarus* and *C. pagurus*, corresponding to species-specific density of around 0.1 individuals per m². By extrapolating these density estimates to all the 120 mattresses stabilising the power cable, the associated populations inhabiting these structures could be up to around 125 *H. gammarus*, 162 *C. conger*, 162 *C. pagurus*, 119 *L. bergylta* and 357 *Trisopterus* spp. These density estimates are smaller than others reported in the literature. Krone et al. (2017) showed that scour protections of a wind turbine foundation (1 m high and around 30 m diameters) in the German Bight (North Sea) were inhabited by several thousand of *C. pagurus* individuals, *i.e.* a density of ~7 ind m⁻². Note, however that these estimates by Krone et al. (2017) include all life stages (including juveniles, which we missed in our visual surveys). Similar scour protection devices were found to host dense schools of *T. luscus*

305 on a Belgian wind farm (Reubens et al., 2011). With an average density estimated at 14 ind m⁻², total
306 *T. luscus* population within the windfarm was estimated at about 22,000 individuals. Langhamer and
307 Wilhelmsson (2009) highlighted colonisation of fish and crustacean on wave energy foundations (1 m
308 high and 3 m diameters) in the North Sea, with a mean density of around 5 edible crabs per
309 foundation, being ~0.7 ind m⁻². Finally, Jensen et al. (1994) estimated that within the Poole Bay
310 artificial reef, each reef unit (1 m high by 4 m of diameter) made up of several blocks (40 x 20 x 20
311 cm) sheltered between 2 and 3 *H. gammarus* individuals (*i.e.* density up to 0.25 ind m⁻²). The fact that
312 density values found in our study are smaller than those reported in the literature may be mainly
313 explained by differences in surrounding natural habitats. In soft-sediment-dominated areas (*e.g.* the
314 North sea), the number of shelters provided by natural habitat surrounding artificial reef is very low.
315 Thus, mobile individuals are likely to find shelter in artificial reefs due to the low complexity of the
316 natural habitat. The attraction effect is therefore likely stronger on soft-sediment bottoms relative to
317 structurally-complex seafloor. In our case, natural hard substrate providing shelters are present in the
318 wider area giving other options for this species. Another point can come from the basic shape of
319 concrete mattresses, which are less complex than scour protections or wave-energy foundations.

320 It is noteworthy that target species abundance estimates were constant during our five-year
321 monitoring. This absence of temporal variation suggests that *i)* colonisation of mattresses by mobile
322 megafauna reached a plateau in less than 2 years after their deployment (first campaign was in June
323 2015 *i.e.* 2 years after the deployment of the mattresses) and *ii)* that target species may be permanent,
324 rather than temporary residents of the mattresses. Our results are consistent with earlier findings of
325 rapid colonisation of artificial reefs by megafauna: Jensen et al. (1994) showed that *H. gammarus*, *C.*
326 *pagurus*, *T. luscus* and different species of wrasses can colonise artificial reefs within 3 weeks of their
327 deployment. Moreover, biological traits related to mobility can to some extent support observed
328 patterns of species-specific positioning around the mattress. Concerning *H. gammarus*, two modes of
329 behaviour may exist: a mobile phase, with migration between different reefs, and a territorial phase
330 where lobster individuals stay in close proximity to a chosen site/shelter (Jensen et al., 1994). *H.*
331 *gammarus* can be highly loyal to its refuge, as showed by Jensen et al. (1994): 21% of lobsters caught
332 on a reef unit stayed on it for more than 100 days. *Labrus bergylta* and other *Labridae* are also

333 territorial species dwelling in the vicinity of an identified reef unit (Jensen et al., 1994; Villegas-Ríos
334 et al., 2013). Results from a mark-recapture programme suggest that a wide proportion of *Trisopterus*
335 *luscus* individuals are bound to the same artificial reef units, which serve as a “home reef” (Fowler et
336 al., 1999).

337 The degree of colonisation of individual mattresses appears highly dependent on the number
338 and type of available shelters. Both these features condition how an artificial reef artificially enhances
339 the carrying capacity of the local environment (Bohnsack, 1989; Eggleston et al., 1992; Pickering and
340 Whitmarsh, 1997). As each species exhibits specific habitat preferences, the variety of shelters also
341 largely explains the species composition of artificial reefs (Anderson et al., 1989; Beets and Hixon,
342 1994; Chandler et al., 1985; Pickering and Whitmarsh, 1997; Smith et al., 1979). Optimisation of
343 MRE facilities through basic designs (*e.g.* with creation of manufactured holes of different sizes) has
344 been shown to enhance their attractivity for benthic species (Langhamer and Wilhelmsson, 2009). The
345 concrete mattresses of Paimpol-Bréhat were not designed to effectively provide additional habitat for
346 marine fauna but to stabilise the submarine power cable and prevent fishing gear hooking. The two
347 types of shelters we identified, namely holes and caves, present different physical characteristics: holes
348 are narrow (around 20 cm-wide) while caves can be much wider (around 1 m-wide for the biggest
349 caves). Total space availability likely explains why several individuals were more frequently observed
350 to co-occur within caves than within holes. Note, also, that the two different types of cavities also host
351 distinct groups of species. While *L. bergylta* shelters in both type of cavities, *Trisopterus* spp. show a
352 clear habitat preference for caves. *Trisopterus* spp. are known to colonise rocky habitats with
353 numerous and wide cavities such as caves, crevices or wrecks for shelters against tidal current (Jensen
354 et al., 1994; Krone et al., 2013). Consequently, they shelter to a limited extent in holes and favour
355 wide caves that can fit a whole school. This schooling behaviour conditions the species preference for
356 larger caves, as highlighted by the high correlation between *Trisopterus* spp. abundance and the
357 number of caves available below concrete mattresses. Our results also highlight that holes constitute
358 the preferred habitat for *C. conger*. This solitary species is known to shelter in narrow cavities, the
359 holes of the mattress constitute narrow and linear shelters which fit perfectly the shape of the adults,
360 compared to the caves which are too wide. Adult European lobster individuals use physical shelters to

361 avoid predators and being swept by strong tidal currents (Addison and Lovewell, 1991). Given the
362 high tidal currents that can occur at the Paimpol-Bréhat tidal site (up to 3 m s^{-1}), mattresses thus
363 provide an adequate shelter to lobsters. Lobsters typically select dark shelters that fit their body size
364 closely (sometimes with physical contact; Wahle et al., 2013). Although *H. gammarus* shows a subtle
365 preference for mattresses with holes, this species is found in both cavities in equal proportions,
366 suggesting that narrow caves can also be appealing to lobsters. Less information is available
367 concerning sheltering behaviour and preferences of *C. pagurus* but the species has been reported to
368 compete with lobsters for shelter so it is likely to display similar habitat preferences (Richards and
369 Cobb, 1986). Contrastingly to the European lobster, *C. pagurus* individuals are known to escape
370 predators by rapidly burrowing themselves in sandy habitats (Hudon and Lamarche, 1989). This
371 burrowing behaviour may allow *C. pagurus* to colonise a wider variety of mattresses relative to
372 lobster, including those exhibiting high proportions of soft sediments.

373 Among our target species, three groups can be discerned based on their habitat use on artificial
374 reefs: (i) solitary and nocturnal species found in shelters during the day, such as *C. conger*, *H.*
375 *gammarus* and *C. pagurus*; (ii) solitary and diurnal species found in shelters during the night, such as
376 *L. bergylta*; and (iii) gregarious species that display a nocturnal activity, such as the two species of
377 *Trisopterus*. Because of these overlaps in their biological traits, the three solitary and nocturnal species
378 (i.e. *C. conger*, *H. gammarus* and *C. pagurus*) are likely to compete with each other for available
379 artificial shelters. Although we did not directly observed competition between them, the rare co-
380 occurrence within a single cavity of individuals from these three species could be the result of their
381 competition for similar shelters. The different diel behaviours of the target species suggest a possible
382 day/night shift in mattresses occupancy, as observed for other artificial (Santos et al., 2002) and
383 natural reefs (Mallet et al., 2016; Myers et al., 2016). This day/night shift may introduce a bias in our
384 counting procedure. Considering that all diving surveys occurred during the daytime, counts of diurnal
385 species can be underestimated due to their temporary absence in the vicinity of the mattresses during
386 the surveys. On the contrary, counts of nocturnal species are likely more accurate because individuals
387 were mostly found motionless within mattresses cavities during the day. Furthermore, *Trisopterus* spp.
388 proceeds to tidal migration in addition to day/night cycle, which may be another source of bias when

389 evaluating its occupancy rate. Schools of *T. luscus* are found to be more congregated and closer to
390 artificial reef units during high current speeds ($>0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$), and to be more dispersed and further from
391 the reef during low current speeds ($<0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$; Fowler et al., 1999). Considering that all diving surveys
392 occurred during slack tides (*i.e.* low speed currents), *Trisopterus* spp. abundance is possibly
393 underestimated. In order to study in greater detail these community changes at the mattress scale
394 resulting from the activity rhythms of the different megafauna species, the use of continuous video
395 recording over several tide and day/night cycles could be useful (Aguzzi et al., 2013; Mallet et al.,
396 2016; Weiss et al., 2009). Furthermore, the use of continuous video recording could help characterise
397 biological interactions between the different megafauna species, such as competition for shelter
398 associated with these artificial structures (Weiss et al., 2009).

399 **4.2 Interaction of artificial reef with local environment**

400 Differences in megafauna colonisation originate from the variability in local environmental
401 conditions around each mattress: interaction between mattress and heterogeneous natural bottom
402 directly influences the number and types of cavities available. Previous studies showed that
403 environmental variables, such as bottom types, depth, hydrodynamic conditions, sediment dynamics or
404 distance to natural reef, significantly impact the colonisation of artificial reefs (Ambrose and
405 Swarbrick, 1989; Bohnsack et al., 1991; Bombace et al., 1994; Foster et al., 1994; Godoy et al., 2002;
406 Noh et al., 2017).

407 Our results reveal that the higher the proportion of boulders, which is positively correlated
408 with high hydrodynamic conditions, the higher the number of caves. Indeed, the presence of boulders
409 creates an irregular seafloor topography and prevent the edges of mattress from fitting flush with it,
410 thus creating overhanging space under the mattresses *i.e.* caves. Alexander et al. (2013) showed that
411 seafloor complexity underneath a flat concrete block plays an important role as it directly impacts the
412 volume available for colonisation. On the other hand, the number of holes available increases with the
413 percentage of pebbles. However, in the presence of pebbles, caves do not form under the mattresses,
414 but holes remain as open cavities between the adjacent concrete blocks. Although less colonised than
415 mattress with caves, these holes provide shelters to *C. pagurus*, *H. Gammarus*, *C. conger* and *L.*
416 *bergylta*. Finally, when the seafloor is dominated by sand and shell debris, the number of cavities is

417 very low because, *i*) the flatness of the seafloor prevents the creation of caves, and *ii*) accretion of sand
418 and shell debris caused by the presence of the mattress often fills up existing holes. To summarise,
419 holes constitute a narrow and deep cavity inherent to the way mattress is manufactured, but its
420 availability can be impacted by the degree that it is filled by the sediment, which depends on local
421 sediment dynamics. Caves constitute more or less narrow cavities with large openings, which only
422 originate from the interaction between mattress and the local topography of the site. Here, we only
423 differentiated these two types of cavities, but a more precise description of their physical features (*e.g.*
424 through the use of quantitative criteria such as depth, size and shape of the entrance) would help better
425 quantify mattress reef properties (Alexander, 2011).

426 Colonising an artificial reef also depends on distance to closest natural reefs (Ambrose and
427 Swarbrick, 1989; Jessee et al., 1985). The closer to existing natural hard habitat, the higher the
428 probability for artificial reefs to attract transient species (Campos and Gamboa, 1989; Potts and
429 Hulbert, 1994). When deployed closely to existing natural reefs, artificial reefs essentially extend the
430 amount of hard habitat with direct benefits for hard-substrate species recruitment (Danner et al., 1994).
431 In our case, it is unlikely that distance to natural reefs influences mobile megafauna composition on
432 mattresses. Since mattresses are installed between large shallow rocky shelves, their distance to natural
433 rocky habitat are considered as low (less than 1km) and therefore relatively homogeneous. Computing
434 precise distances between each mattress and the nearest natural reef would be difficult due to the very
435 complex shape of the 10 m and 5 m isobaths in this area.

436 Finally, these structures associated with submarine power cables are not a classic artificial reef
437 in the sense that the current transiting through cables generates electromagnetic fields. A lack of
438 knowledge still exists concerning the impact of these anthropogenic electromagnetic fields on marine
439 fauna (Taormina et al., 2018). This can potentially impact species capable of electroreception and/or
440 magnetoreception through effects on predator/prey interactions, avoidance/attraction behaviour,
441 navigation/orientation capabilities or induce physiological and developmental effects (Copping et al.,
442 2016; Hutchison et al., 2020). Over the course of this study, no electric current transited through the
443 cable and the mattresses thus acted as a classic artificial reef, but further investigations should be
444 conducted once electrical current passes through.

445 5. Conclusion

446 Although the concrete mattresses deployed to anchor the submarine power cable were not
447 specifically designed to act as a refuge for marine fauna, a five-year monitoring study (*both in situ* and
448 using videos) shows that they offer a suitable and stable habitat for at least 5 benthic megafauna
449 species. Interactions between local seafloor and hydrodynamic characteristics (substratum type,
450 topography, exposition to current *etc.*) and artificial reef units directly condition the variety and the
451 availability of shelters. In our study, these two factors, *i.e.* shelters shape and availability, largely
452 determine the degree of colonisation by mobile megafauna. Consequently, in order to finely
453 characterise the habitat potential for megafauna of MRE structures, it is critical to both, optimise the
454 design of the artificial structures, and anticipate how they will interact with local environmental site
455 characteristics.

456

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- 643

| Environmental variable | F-value | p-value | Explained | | Residual | |
|------------------------|---------|--------------|-----------|-----|-------------|-------------|
| | | | λ | % | RDA1 | RDA2 |
| Cave | 11.01 | 0.001 | 0.14 | 14% | 0.77 | 0.33 |
| % Boulder | 8.185 | 0.001 | 0.1 | 10% | 0.76 | -0.35 |
| Exposure | 4.872 | 0.006 | 0.06 | 6% | 0.31 | -0.39 |
| Hole | 1.794 | 0.146 | 0.02 | 2% | 0.24 | 0.71 |
| % Pebble | 1.541 | 0.193 | 0.02 | 2% | 0.13 | 0.59 |
| Total | | | 0.34 | 34% | | |

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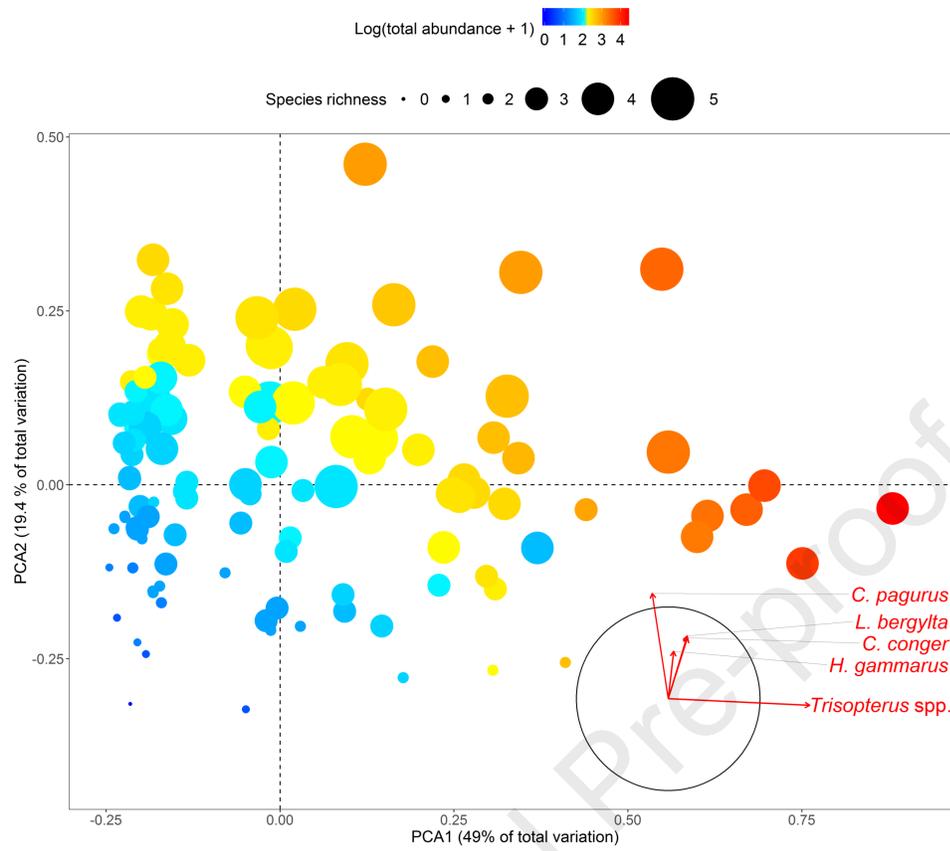
| | <i>Homarus gammarus</i> | | <i>Cancer pagurus</i> | | <i>Conger conger</i> | | <i>Trisopterus spp.</i> | | <i>Labrus bergylta</i> | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|---|-----------------------|---|----------------------|---|-------------------------|---|------------------------|---|
| <i>Homarus gammarus</i> | - | - | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Cancer pagurus</i> | - | - | - | C | | | | | | |
| <i>Conger conger</i> | - | C | H | - | - | - | | | | |
| <i>Trisopterus spp.</i> | - | C | - | C | - | C | H | C | | |
| <i>Labrus bergylta</i> | - | - | - | - | - | - | H | C | H | C |

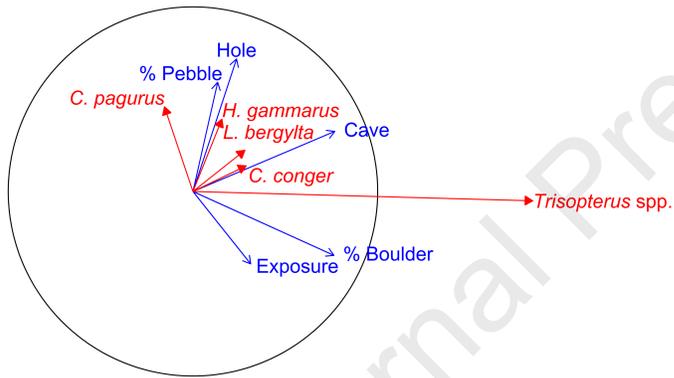
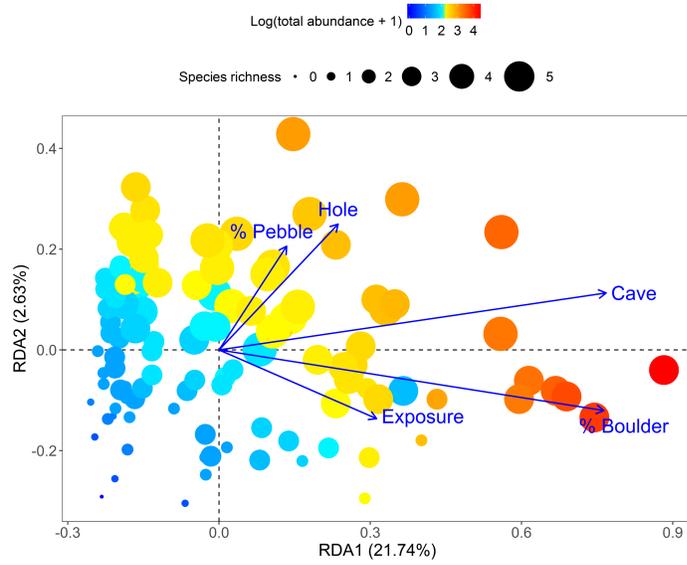
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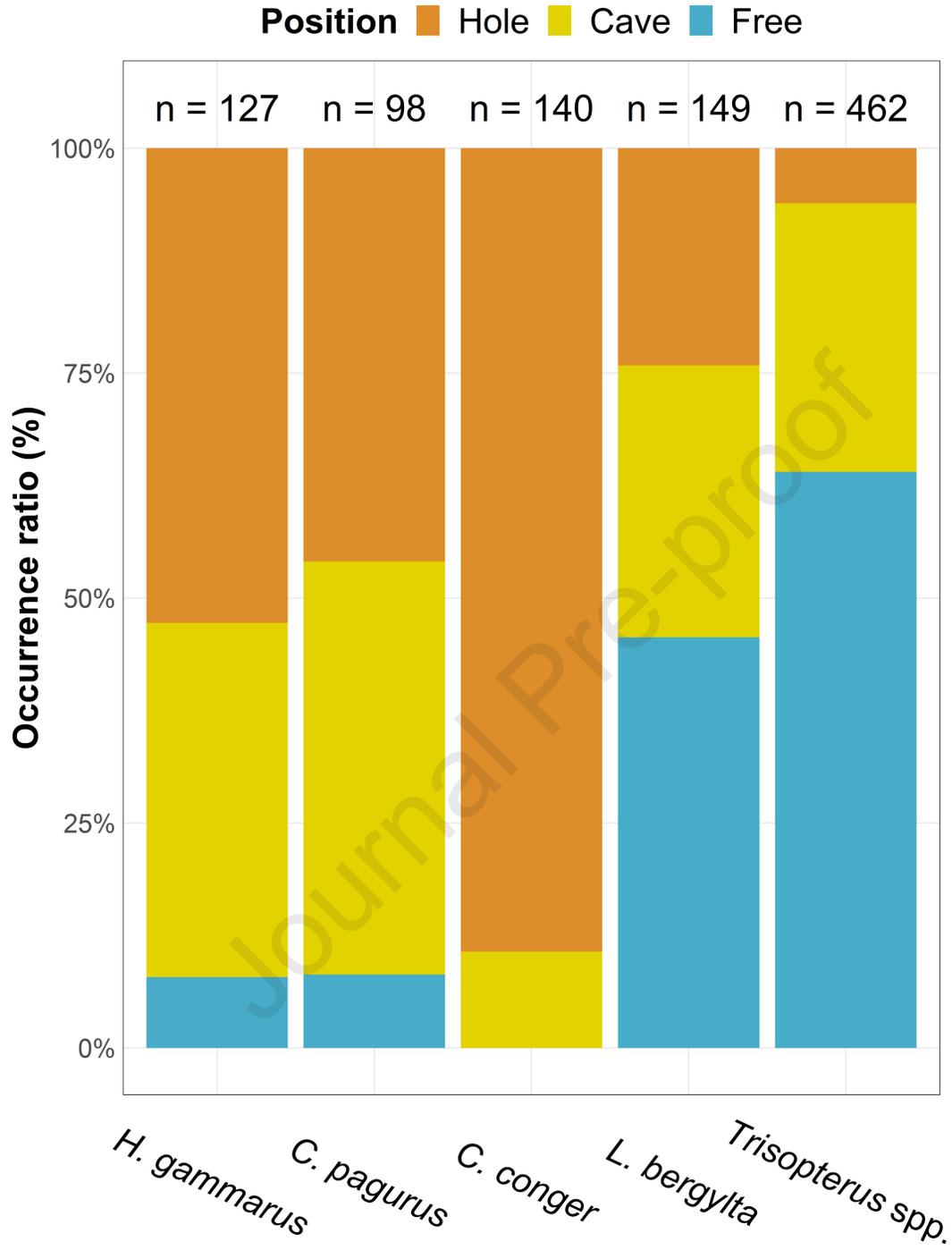
| Campaign | Number of Mattresses | Zone |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| June 2015 | 45 | A-B-C-D |
| September 2015 | 30 | A-C(only C25 to C35)-D |
| June 2016 | 37 | A-C-D |
| June 2017 | 37 | A-C-D |
| September 2019 | 20 | A-C(only C25 to C35) |

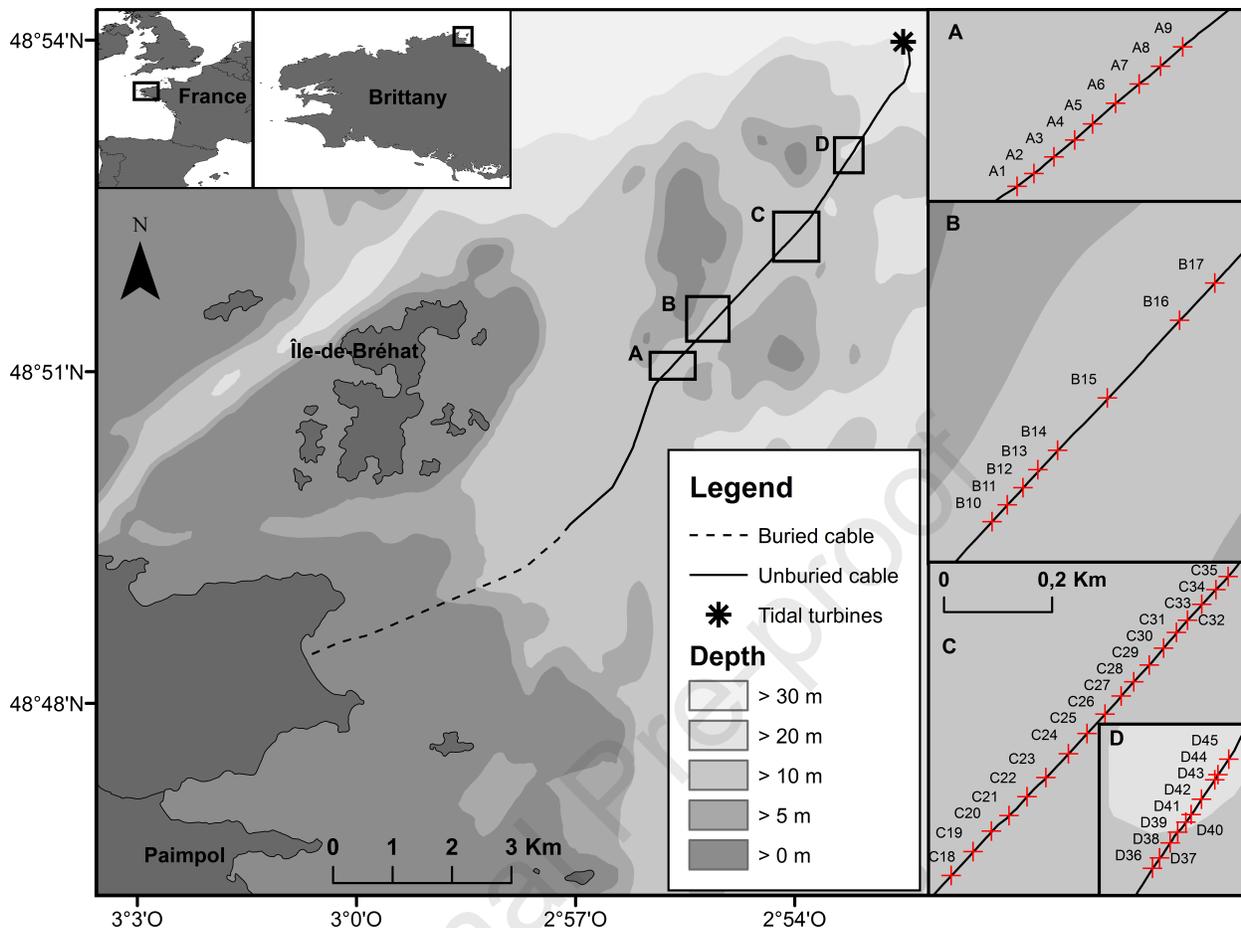
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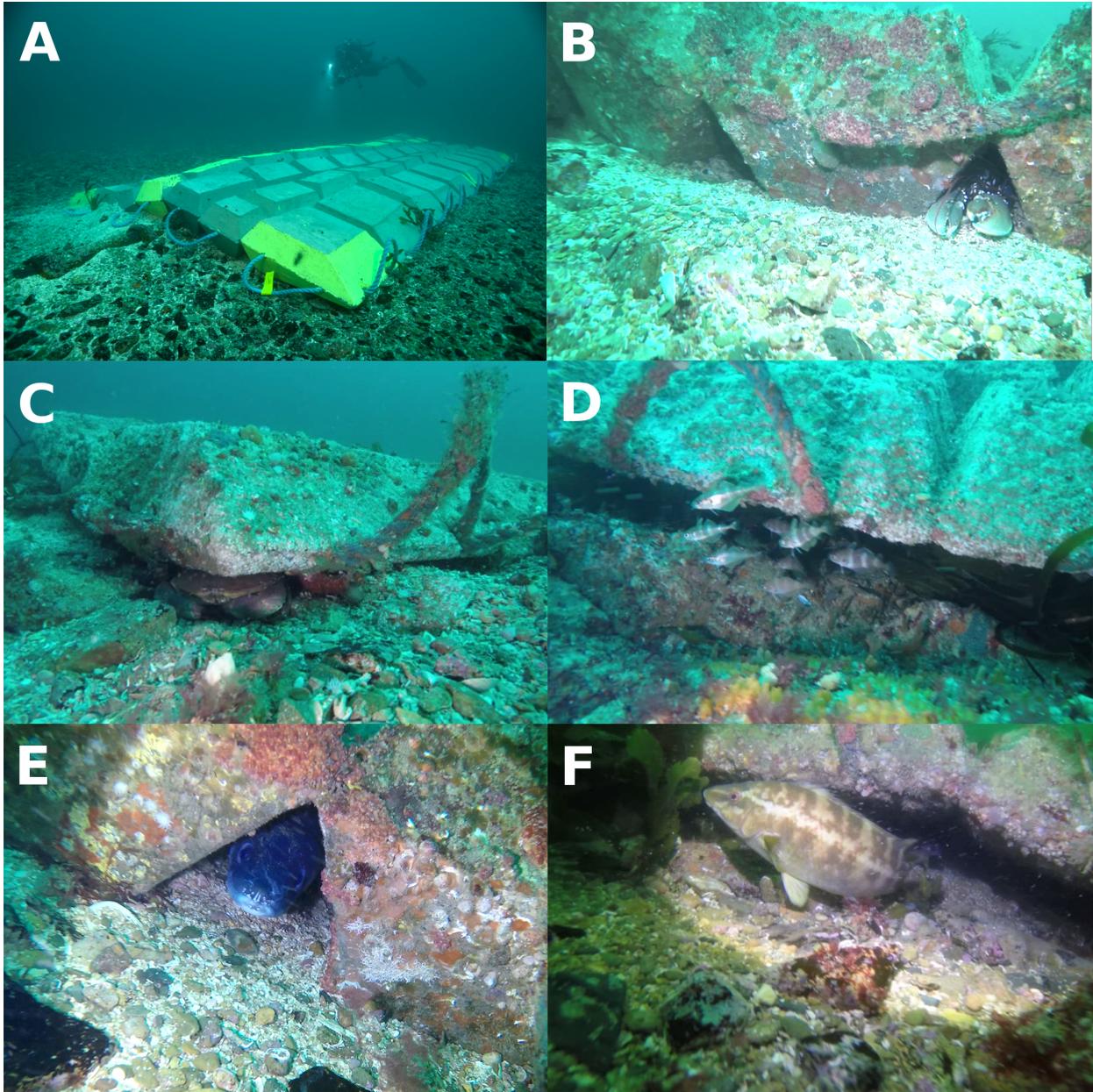
| | Variable | Unit | Origin | Mean | Min | Max |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Biological data | <i>Homarus gammarus</i> | count | <i>in situ</i> | 1.1 | 0 | 5 |
| | <i>Cancer pagurus</i> | count | <i>in situ</i> | 1.5 | 0 | 5 |
| | <i>Conger conger</i> | count | <i>in situ</i> | 1.4 | 0 | 4 |
| | <i>Trisopterus</i> spp. | count | video | 3.5 | 0 | 68 |
| | <i>Labrus bergylta</i> | count | video | 1.1 | 0 | 6 |
| Environmental data | Sand proportion | % | video | 67% | 0% | 100% |
| | Pebble proportion | % | video | 27% | 0% | 100% |
| | Boulder proportion | % | video | 6% | 0% | 89% |
| | Number of holes | count | video | 10.2 | 3 | 12 |
| | Number of caves | count | video | 9.2 | 0 | 28 |
| | Bottom-current velocity | m s ⁻¹ | GIS | 0.71 | 0.65 | 0.99 |
| | Exposure | ° | GIS | 93.8 | 12.7 | 163.8 |
| | Distance to 5 m isobath | m | GIS | 500.2 | 149.7 | 791.2 |
| Distance to 10 m isobath | m | GIS | 245.1 | 62 | 403.5 | |

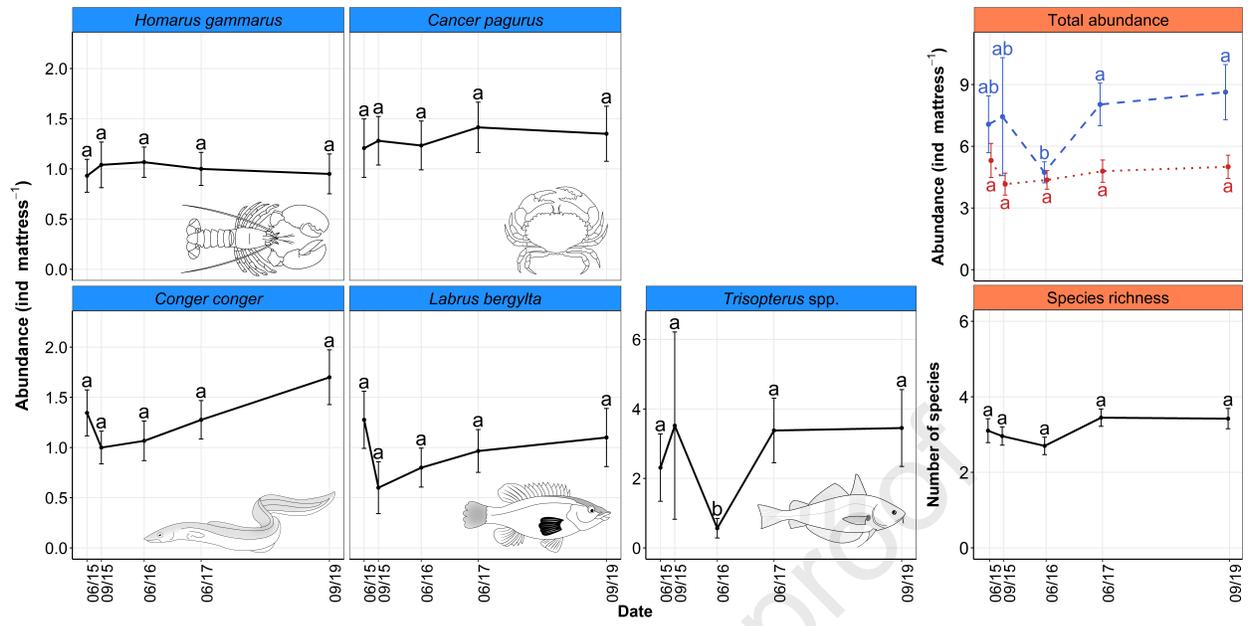












Highlights :

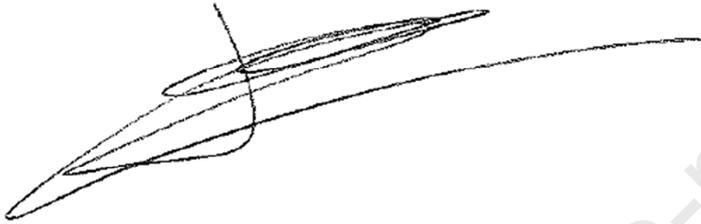
- The colonisation of artificial structures by benthic megafauna was surveyed during 5 years
- Target taxa showed a constant occupancy of the artificial structures
- Shape and number of shelters largely determine potential for colonisation
- Local physical characteristics significantly impact amount and type of shelters
- It is essential to consider both design of structures and interactions with environment

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

30/04/2020
Bastien Taormina

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'Bastien Taormina', written over a light grey watermark that reads 'Journal Pre-proof' diagonally across the page.