

1 **Artificial reefs geographical location matters more than its shape, age and depth for sessile**

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2 **invertebrate colonization in the Gulf of Lion (NorthWestern Mediterranean Sea)**

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10 ABSTRACT

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11 Artificial reefs (ARs) have been used to support fishing activities. Sessile invertebrates are essential

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12 components of trophic networks within ARs, supporting fish productivity. However, colonization by

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13 sessile invertebrates is possible only after effective larval dispersal from source populations, usually in

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14 natural habitat. We tested While most studies focused on short term colonization by pioneer species,

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15 we propose to test the relevance of geographic location, shape, duration of immersion and depth on

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16 the ARs long term colonization processes by species found in natural stable communities in the Gulf of

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17 Lion. Five species We recorded the presence of five sessile invertebrates species, with contrasting life

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18 history traits and regional distribution in the natural rocky habitat, were inventoried on ARs with

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19 different shapes deployed during two immersion time periods (1985 and 2000–2009 the 2000s) and at

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20 different depths in two depth ranges (<20m and >20m). At the local level, (~5kms), neither shape,

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21 depth nor immersion duration differentiated ARs assemblages. At the regional scale, (>30kms),

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22 colonization patterns differed between species, resulting in diverse assemblages.

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23 This study highlights the primacy of geographical positioning over shape, immersion duration and

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24 depth in ARs colonization, suggesting it should be accounted for in maritime spatial planning.

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26 KEY WORDS: ARTIFICIAL REEF, BENTHIC INVERTEBRATES, SHAPE, DEPTH, IMMERSION DURATION,
27 GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION, LIFE TRAITS

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30 INTRODUCTION

31 The decline of fish stocks and natural marine habitat degradation resulting from human exploitation
32 have been documented worldwide for decades (Claudet and Fraschetti, 2010; Jackson, 2001; Pauly et
33 al., 2002).

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34 Artificial reefs (ARs) have been primarily implemented to reduce the pressure of fisheries in coastal
35 areas, complementing other management tools such as marine protected areas or regulatory
36 measures such as fishing licenses (Claudet and Pelletier, 2004; Seaman, 2007; Wilson, 2002).

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37 Moreover, ARs could provide economic benefits linked to recreational activities such as recreational
38 and traditional fishing and scuba diving (Chen et al., 2013). Beneficial effects such as increase in fish
39 biomass and capture efficiency increase near ARs have been reported (reviewed by Bohnsack and

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40 Sutherland, 1985; Tessier et al., 2014). However, but led to a debate on the effects of ARs fishery,
41 opposing attraction vs production (Grossman et al., 1997). The fish attraction argument is based on

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42 the quick colonization by fish and mobile invertebrates (Powers et al., 2003; Relini, 2002; Santos and
43 Monteiro, 2007) led to a debate opposing attraction vs production regarding the effects of ARs on

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44 fishery (Grossman et al., 1997). The fish production argument is based on the hypotheses of a better
45 protection against predators and an increase in available substrate area for larval establishment thanks

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46 to habitat complexification and an increase of available trophic resource (Bohnack, 1989). In natural
47 rocky habitats, benthic invertebrates play an essential role in fish trophic networks (Ardizzone et al.,
48 1996; Martens et al., 2006), and ARs trophic network showed similarity with natural rocky habitat one,

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49 with dominance of filter-feeders using phytoplanktonic primary production and fish predation on
50 crustacean colonizing the ARs (Cresson, 2013). Moreover, AR deployed in sandy areas are expected to
51 enhance fish productivity given that epifauna secondary production per ARs unit surface has been

52 estimated to be 30 times greater than that of natural sandy infauna (Steimle, 2002). However, those
53 estimates were made shortly after immersion and do not prove the long-term fish production in ARs
54 and supporting this argument would require extending, in the long term, data on colonization by
55 benthic invertebrates in the long-term (Svane and Petersen, 2001). Indeed, the age since deployment
56 has been described as a key factor to explain ARs coverage by benthic invertebrates (Svane and
57 Petersen, 2001). The assemblages of benthic communities are expected to change over time in a
58 succession between pioneer and specialist species (Connell and Slatyer, 1977). In contrast with pioneer
59 species, specialist ones have slower colonization dynamics, because of their lower fecundity (Fava et
60 al., 2016). However, after colonization, specialists are expected to outcompete pioneer species due to
61 their more efficient use of environmental resources (Connell and Slatyer, 1977). Among these, light
62 availability is an essential factor shaping marine benthic communities across the water depth gradient
63 (Odum, 1971). Several studies have shown a decrease in the density of benthic invertebrates with
64 depth on ARs (Lewbel et al., 1986.; Moura et al., 2007; Shinn and Wicklund, 1989; van der Stap et al.,
65 2016) explained by the decrease in light intensity (Relini et al., 1994). The structural complexity has
66 also been put forward as important characteristics linked to ARs efficiency in ecological restoration
67 (Strain et al., 2018). Structural complexity increases available surface for colonization and niches
68 diversity with various shelter and light exposure conditions, the latter being related to different benthic
69 assemblage compositions (Glasby, 2000; T. M. Glasby, 1999)(Glasby, 2000; Glasby, 1999) and higher
70 productivity (Vivier et al., 2021). The recent 3D printing techniques using concrete, allow the design of
71 ARs mimicking natural habitats (Ly et al., 2021). However, those studies concerned short-term
72 colonization (<3.5 years) (Wendt et al., 1989) hence based on pioneer species with high dispersal
73 capacities which colonization is likely mainly regulated by post-settlement processes such as
74 competition, predation and physical disturbance (Todd, 1998). In contrast to mobile species,
75 sessile benthic invertebrates can only colonize reefs after larval dispersal which is limited by
76 reproduction frequency (Thorson, 1950). Colonization implies thus an effective dispersal between
77 natural areas and ARs, which depends on source population spatial distribution, species fecundity,

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dispersive larval traits and ocean circulation. Nevertheless, until now dispersal drivers have been disregarded while colonization disparities among ARs may result from differences in both larval connectivity (which in turn depends on fecundity, dispersal capacities and adult distribution in the natural habitat) and post-recruitment processes.

82 The objective of the present study was to test the hypothesis that the geographical location of ARs
83 deployment with respect to the natural habitat can condition ARs colonization in the long term after
84 more than 10 years. To this aim we investigated the effects of local (shape, depth and immersion
85 duration) and regional (geographic area) factors on the presenceand abundance of five species of
86 sessile invertebrates with different life history traits, endemic to the Gulf of Lion (GDLGol)
87 (Northwestern Mediterranean Sea) and frequently found on natural hard substrates. Data were
88 collected on ARs immersed for more than 10 years in the GDL and assemblage composition analysis at
89 three nested spatial scales (~1kms; ~5kms; >30 kms) were combined.

91 MATERIALS AND METHODS

93 Study area and spatially stratified sampling design

94 The study area extended along 160 km of the GDLGoL coastline (Figure 1). The GDLGoL is a wide micro-
95 tidal continental shelf dominated by soft-bottom habitat with few small rocky habitat patches of less
96 than 20 km². The GDLGoL is a homogeneous and isolated hydrodynamic unit (Rossi et al., 2014),
97 delimited by the northern current (Millot, 1990).

98 Between 1985 and 2009, 763 ARs with different shapes or material and a total volume of 37 575 m³
99 (Tessier et al., 2015) have been deployed along the [GDLGoL](#) coastline over 66 km² of state concessions
100 (Cepralmar, 2015) between 10 and 35 m depth (Figure 1, [Blouet et al., 2021](#)). The ARs deployed in
101 [GDLGoL](#) represent 40% of the total AR volume in France (Tessier et al., 2015).

Deployment was performed during three major time periods: 1985–1999 and 2004–2009, but for the present study we examined only the oldest (1985 in the 80s) and the youngest (after 2000).

104 ones in the 2000s) ARs with the most common shapes (namely pipe, steel cage, Bonna, Comin,
105 pyramid, heap of telegraph poles, and concrete box, Figure 1). For the analysis of data, we followed
106 a stratified sampling design. To this aim, the GDLGol coastline was regularly divided into 6 geographical
107 sectors separated by a distance ranging from 12 to 117 km, with a median value of 49 km (AGM
108 referring to Aigues-Mortes, AGD to Agde, VLR to Valras, GRU to Gruissan, LEU to Leucate, CST to
109 Canet/Saint-Cyprien sectors, Figure 1). Each sector included ARs deployed during either the first (1985,
110 CST geographical sector), the last (2004-2009, AGM, VLR, GRU, LEU geographical sectors) or both
111 periods of immersion (AGD-), and of different shapes. In each geographical sector, two sites were
112 defined except in AGD (5 sites, AGD1, AGD2, AGD3, AGD4, AGD5) and GRU (3 sites, GRU1, GRU2,
113 GRU3). To test for location effect, sites were separated by a distance ranging from 2.1 to 11.7 km
114 (median value of 7.5 km) were defined, except in AGDGRU, where 5two of the three sites (GRU1 and
115 GRU2) were defined in the same location to account for different shapes. Hence, depending on the
116 geographical sector, sites may differ either by AR shape, immersion depth or timing of deployment
117 (Figure 1). Due to this set up, the effect of these three factors was only teste locally (see Statistical
118 analysis). In each site, (except in the geographical sector GRU), three sampling units separated by a
119 distance between 4m and 3.6 Km (median distance of 251 m) were set out by pooling neighboring ARs
120 reaching a minimum surface of 89 m² per sampling unit and totalling a minimum developed surface of
121 306 m² per site. (Supplementary Material Table 1). In the geographical sector GRU, GRU2 and GRU3
122 included only one sampling unit because the surface of a single AR in these sites already yielded 459
123 m² (heap of telegraph poles, Supplementary Material Table 1). Such large continuous sampling units
124 in each site aimed at limiting the effect of recruitment spatial variability over distances from 100s
125 meters to kilometers arising from the non-uniformity of the flow of larvae (Daigle et al., 2014; Glasby,
126 2000; Simpson et al., 2017; Smale, 2012). Such a spatial scale is consistent with the spatial scale of flow
127 homogeneity obtained in simulations over GDLGol soft-bottom habitat (Britton et al., 2018). This
128 inventory methodology enabled us to test for the existence of structuring factors at the local and
129 regional scale. In the geographical sector GRU, in one of the two sites, only two sampling units could

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130 be defined given the ARs shapes, yielding a total surface of 600 m² (Supplementary Material Table 1).

131 Developed reef surface was calculated on the basis of technical specifications data present in the state
132 concession documents taking into account only the colonizable surface (surfaces in contact with the
133 sediment were excluded).

134

135 Colonization assessment and species selection

136 Assessment of ARs colonization was carried out by autonomous scuba-diving in 2020 by direct visual
137 census counting the number of individuals of the five target species inon the 44 sampling units (entire
138 surface of ARs (7295 m²; Supplementary Material Table 1, totalling 80 ARs fully inventoried)). On the
139 ARs, all individuals older than one year (size > 2 cm) have been recorded. Among the species listed in
140 previous ARs inventories in the GDLGol, we selected five species that were present in most inventories,
141 easy to identify by scuba-divingdirect visual census and spanning different phyla with contrasting life-
142 history traits (Créocean, 2003 & 2004; Table 1). We selected two gorgonians *Eunicella singularis*
143 (Esper, 1791) and *Leptogorgia sarmentosa* (Esper, 1789), one bryozoan *Pentapora fascialis* (Pallas,
144 1766), one annelida *Sabellastallanzanii* (Gmelin, 1791) and one ascidian *Halocynthia papillosa*
145 (Linnaeus, 1797) (Figure 2). The five species have a similar wide natural repartition area along
146 European coasts ranging from 1m to 250m depth (Giangrande et al., 2005; Gori et al., 2011; Ponti et
147 al., 2019; Turon, 1990; Weinberg and Weinberg, 1979). In addition, *S. spallanzanii* has been recorded
148 along the coasts of Brazil, Australia and New Zealand where it is classified as an invasive non-
149 indigenous species (Currie et al., 2000).

150 The five species are present in the rocky habitat of the NW Mediterranean Sea (Laubier, 1966; True,
151 1970; Hong, 1980). However, in the GDLGol, where natural rocky habitat covers uneven surfaces
152 within the 6 geographical sectors (from 3,123 10⁷ m² for the AGM sector to 5 10⁵ m² for the LEU sector),
153 the five species display different spatial distributions (Dutrieux et al., 2005; Dalias et al., 2011;
154 PadronGuizien et al., 2018-2022; S. Blouet personal observation). *E. singularis* is frequently observed
155 and abundant throughout the GDLGol (from the AGM sector to the CST sector), while *L. sarmentosa*,

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156 less abundant, is present mainly in the center of the GDLGol (AGD, VLR, LEU, CST). *P. fascialis* is
157 abundant in the west of the GDLGol (AGD, LEU, CST, and south of CST). The distribution of *H. papillosa*
158 is not well known, however the species has been observed in all the rocky areas of the GDL-GOL.
159 *S. spallanzanii* is present but rare in natural rocky habitat. Nevertheless, *S. spallanzanii* is very abundant
160 in lagoons, ports and marinas of the GDLGol (S. Blouet personal observation) which have been
161 indicated as preferred habitat of the species (Currie et al., 2000).

162

163 The five species display different life-history traits. All five species reproduce once a year in different
164 seasons and with different strategies (Table 1).

165 *S. spallanzani* reproduces in January-February, when water temperature is the coldest. The species
166 displays multiple reproductive strategies: internal fertilization, with larvae brooded either inside or
167 outside the mineral tube secreted around the body, and external fertilization broadcast spawning
168 (Giangrande et al., 2000). In addition, asexual reproduction by fission has been reported (Read et al.,
169 2011). *S. spallanzani* releases lecithotrophic larvae with a planktonic larval duration (PLD) of about 4
170 weeks (Giangrande et al., 2000). Its life span can exceed 5 years, with sexual maturity after one year

171 (Giangrande and Petraroli 1994; Giangrande et al., 2000). Like most gorgonians, *E. singularis* releases
172 lecithotrophic larvae in early summer (June to August). Even though larval competency period can
173 reach up to 2 months (Guizien et al., 2020; Zelli et al., 2020), PLDs ranging from 7 to 14 days best
174 explain gene flow among *E. singularis* natural populations dwelling in the fragmented rocky habitat of
175 the GDLGol (Padron et al. 2018). *E. singularis* life span can reach 25-30 years with sexual maturity
176 before 6 years (Gori et al., 2007; Weinberg and Weinberg, 1979) (Weinberg and Weinberg 1979, Gori
177 et al. 2007).

178 The other gorgonian, *L. sarmentosa* also releases lecithotrophic larvae but in the late summer
179 (September to October) and the PLD is unknown (Rossi and Gili 2009). *L. sarmentosa* life span can
180 reach 20 years with female sexual maturity within 2-3 years after settlement (Rossi and Gili 2009).

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181 *H. papillosa* is a simultaneous hermaphrodite which releases larvae in late summer (September-
182 October; Becerro and Turon, 1992), presumably lecithotrophic. The PLD of *H. papillosa* larvae is
183 unknown but PLD shorter than 12 hours has been consistently reported for other solitary ascidian
184 species (Ayre et al., 1997). We did not find any data about the age at sexual maturity and the life span
185 of *H. papillosa*. However, the ascidians are considered as highly invasive, particularly because of their
186 rapid growth and early sexual maturity (Zhan et al., 2015), with some species such as *Ciona*
187 *intestinalis* complex and *Ciona savignyi*, reaching sexual maturity at the age of 2 months (Zhan et al.,
188 2015) and continuous spawning (Carver et al. 2003).

189 *P. fascialis* displays both sexual and asexual reproduction. During sexual reproduction, most bryozoans
190 release lecithotrophic larvae which settle after a few minutes or a few hours, rarely beyond several
191 days (Keough, 1983). *P. fascialis* larval release has been inferred to happen in June based on
192 recruitment observations (Cocito et al., 1998a). Asexual reproduction happens by colony
193 fragmentation or budding extension (Cocito et al., 1998b). Individual life span is estimated to be about
194 10 years with early sexual maturity after 2 years (Cocito et al., 1998b).

195

196 Statistical analysis

197 We examined to which extent ARs colonization is affected by the location and timing of deployment.
198 To do so, we tested the effect of 4 factors (geographical sector being the regional factor, site being the
199 local factor, depth and age) on measured by the presence/absence of the five species and on the
200 dissimilarity between their co-occurrence assemblages. In all analyses, site was a random factor,
201 nested either in year, age or is affected by the geographical sector factor. Due to AR shape, location
202 and timing of deployment (age). Due to the GoL AR deployment set up, the effect of some factors was
203 tested only locally. We first verified that shape was not affecting colonization, by testing the effect of
204 shape in one geographical sector where different shapes were deployed at same depth and time
205 (VLR1/VLR2, Supplementary Material Table 1). Second, the effect of factors age (2 levels: 1985–2002–
206 2009 and the 2000s) and depth (2 levels, >20 m, <20 m depth) was tested within the AGD geographical

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207 sector only. Factor age was tested in 3 sites at <20m ([AGD1/ AGD2 & AGD3](#)), and factor depth was
208 tested in 4 sites deployed in 2009. ([AGD2&AGD3 / AGD4&AGD5](#)). Third, factor location was tested
209 both at regional and local level (geographical sector being the regional factor, site being the local
210 factor). To avoid any confounding effect due to age or depth, the regional factor vs local factor were
211 tested on the 5 geographical sectors where AR were deployed during the [2002-2009-2000s](#) immersion
212 phase and at <20 m depth only (AGM, AGD, VLR, GRU, LEU: 5x2 levels). A Jaccard similarity matrix was
213 built on presence/absence data across all pairwise sampling units. [used in each test \(Table 2:
214 supplementary material\)](#). Two multivariate analyses were performed. Non-parametric multivariate
215 analysis of variance with permutation was applied to test for the effects of [shape](#), age, depth and
216 geographical sector on species assemblages (NP-manova: [Anderson, 2001; Zar, 1999](#)). [Site was
217 considered as a random factor, nested either in depth, age or the geographical sector.](#) Another
218 multivariate analysis was performed to cluster most similar species assemblages in the sector of AGD
219 ([SIMPROF : Clarke et al., 2008](#))[- \(Table 2 : supplementary material\)](#).

220 When significant differences between the five species co-occurrence assemblages were detected for
221 a factor, a non-parametric univariate analysis ([ANOVA](#), Kruskall-Wallis) was performed for each species
222 independently to detect the species driving the difference. [\(Table 2 : supplementary material\)](#). Fisher
223 post-hoc test was used to identify the site where the difference arose. A same p-value of 0.05 was
224 taken for detecting significant differences. Analyses were performed with Matlab software using the
225 Fathom package for multivariate analyses ([Jones, 2014](#)) and the Matlab statistics toolbox for univariate
226 analyses.

227
228 **RESULTS**

229 [Artificial reefs colonization by the five target species at regional scale](#)
230 Among the five target species, *S. spallanzanii* was the only one whose presence was recorded in all the
231 sampling units and geographical sectors (Figure 43). In only one out of [1516](#) sites, it was the only
232 species detected. *H. papillosa* [was detected in all geographic sectors but not in all the sampling units](#).

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233 and *L. sarmentosa* was detected in five of the six geographical sectors (not present in GRU and
234 AGM, respectively). *P. fascialis* was and *E. singularis* were detected in 3 of the 6 geographical
235 sectors (CST, LEU and AGD, for *P. fascialis* and AGM, AGD and LEU, for *E. singularis*). Finally, *E.*
236 *singularis* was the least frequently observed species, being detected in only three geographical sectors
237 (AGM, AGD and LEU) 5 out of the 16 sites. In all geographical sectors, at least three of the five target
238 species were detected, except GRU where only two of the five species were detected. Assemblages of
239 two species were found in only one site two sites out of 1516 (sector AGD and GRU), assemblages of
240 three species were found in 87 sites, assemblages of four species were found in 2 sites and
241 assemblages of five species were found in 3 sites.
242

243 Shape effect on five target species at local scale

244 No differences in species assemblages were found in VLR between pipe and steel cage (NP-MANOVA,
245 F=9.08 e-19, P>0.05; Table 2).
246 Similarly, in the geographical sector GRU, the same assemblages were detected on sites differing by
247 ARs shape (pipes and a heap of telegraphical poles) in the same location (GRU1 and GRU2). Conversely,
248 different assemblages were detected between two sites (GRU2 and GRU3) separated by 9 km although
249 ARs shape was the same (heaps of telegraphical poles). Due to the absence of replication in unit
250 samplings, it was not possible to perform a statistical test on the effect of shape in this geographical
251 sector.
252

253 Age and depth effects on five target species at local scale

254 Despite all five target species being detected on ARs in the AGD sector, assemblage composition
255 among sites differed (Figure 3). Clustering of sampling units within the 5 sites (A, B, C, D, EAGD1, AGD2,
256 AGD3, AGD4, AGD5) in AGD identified 2 clusters (SIMPROF: P <0.05; Figure 4). The two sites (BAGD2
257 and EAGD3) with same age (2009), depth range (less than 20 m) and reef shape (pipe) were attributed
258 to different clusters.

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In fact, one cluster grouped ARs of different age at a same depth (1985 in site **AAGD1** and 2009 in site **BAGD2**) while the other cluster grouped ARs of the same age but at different depths (less than 20 m in site **EAGD3** and more than 20 m in sites **DAGD4** and **EAGD5**). In both clusters, different AR shapes were found (steel cage and pipes in one cluster, pipes, Comin and Bonna in the other cluster-**L**) (Figure 4). The geographic distance between the two clusters (**A-BAGD4-AGD5**) and (**C-D-EAGD3-AGD4-AGD5**) was 7.5 km and the median value of the intra-cluster geographic distance was 3 km.

Multivariate analysis of variance confirmed that neither age (NP-MANOVA, $F=1.43$ $P<0.05$; Table 23) nor depth (NP-MANOVA, $F=1.37$ $P<0.05$; Table 34) explained site differences in the five species assemblages found on ARs in AGD ($P<0.05$; Tables 23 and 34). Differences among the five sites in AGD were due to different ARs colonization by three species (Kruskall-Wallis: *E. singularis*, *P. fascialis*, *H. papillosa*: all $P<0.05$; Table 45). Site **EAGD3** differed from **ether** sites **AGD5**, **AGD1** and **BAGD2** by the presence of *E. singularis*, **andthe** sites **DAGD4** and **EAGD5** differed from sites **AAGD1** and **BAGD2** due to the presence of *P. fascialis* and **the site AGD1 differed from sites AGD5, AGD3 and AGD4 to the presence of** *H. papillosa* (Post-hoc tests, Table 3: supplementary material).

274 Geographical effect on five target species at local and regional scales

The five species co-occurrence assemblages on ARs deployed in the same period and at same depth were significantly different at both regional and local scales (NP-MANOVA : geographical sector $F=3.195.09$ P<0.05; site (geographical sector) $F=3.642.78$ P<0.05; Table 56). These differences were due to different colonization of ARs by three of the five species, *E. singularis*, *L. sarmentosa* and *P. fascialis*. For the latter two species, regional differences (Kruskall-wallis: geographical sector P=0.0002) were more significant than local differences (Kruskall-wallis: site P=0.001 for *L. sarmentosa* and P=0.003005 for *P. fascialis*; Table 67). Both species were not detected in the north of the GDLGol (AGM). In contrast, for *E. singularis*, local differences (Kruskall-wallis: site P=0.01017) were more significant than regional ones (geographical sector P=0.036; Table 67), the species being detected in geographical sectors in the north, center and south of GDLGol.

286 **DISCUSSION**

287 The study of resilience of marine natural biodiversity, including benthic invertebrates, is essential to
 288 ensure the sustainability of ecosystem functions. Increasing habitat is key to support the natural
 289 biodiversity resilience, which in the case of rocky habitats can be achieved by effectively integrated

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290 ARs. The effective integration of ARs into the rocky habitat network through starts with their
 291 colonization by species building up their natural biodiversity is essential to assess their ecosystem
 292 functions, prior and after deployment from the natural habitat. In the present study, we showed that
 293 the five species selected from the natural rocky habitat of the GDL colonized differently the ARs spread
 294 along the GDL coastline had been colonized by five species found in the natural rocky habitat of
 295 the region ten years after their deployment. However, spatial colonization patterns differed among
 296 species, resulting in diverse assemblages in different geographical sectors of the GDL. Locally, neither

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297 age, immersion depth or reef shape of the ARs significantly affected colonization patterns.

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298 Colonization of ARs are expected to evolve toward a stable state comparable to that of the natural
 299 environment, through the succession of opportunistic species (wide dispersal, high fertility, low
 300 tolerance of reduced resource levels, short life-spans, minimal dietary specialisation) followed by
 301 specialized species (limited dispersal, slow growth to a large size at maturity, delayed and limited
 302 reproduction, optimization to reduced resources and long life-spans; (Platt and Connell, 2003; Faurie
 303 et al., 2003). Monitoring of ARs short-term colonization (<3 years) have indeed shown a dominance of
 304 pioneer species (hydroids, serpulids, barnacles and bivalves), most of them having life history traits
 305 typical of opportunistic species (Fariñas-Franco et al., 2013; T. Glasby, 1999; Moura et al., 2007;

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306 Pamintuan and Ali, 1994; Ponti, 2015; Relini et al., 1994; Spagnolo et al., 2014; Toledo et al., 2020).
 307 Long-term studies confirmed successions in ARs colonization (Burt et al., 2011; Nicoletti et al., 2007;
 308 Perkol-Finkel and Benayahu, 2005; Whomersley and Picken, 2003), but none have described saturation
 309 (Svane and Petersen, 2001). In the Tyrrhenian Sea, Nicolletti et al., (2007) described colonization in 5
 310 distinct phases: (i) A first recruitment by pioneer species (hydroids, serpulids, barnacles and bivalves)

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311 during the first months after immersion, followed by phases of (ii) cover dominance, (iii) regression
312 and (iv) absence of *Mytilus galloprovincialis* for more than 10 years. The installation of diverse bio-
313 builders bryozoans characteristic of the natural environment was recorded after 20 years only (v). Our
314 study shows that bio-builder engineering species such as bryozoans (*P. fascialis*) and gorgonians (*E.*
315 *singularis*, *L. sarmentosa*) colonized ARs as early as 10 years after their deployment, without significant
316 difference between 10 years and 35 years old ARs. However, the presence of *S. spallanzanii* described
317 as an opportunistic species (sexual precocity, various reproduction modes, rapid growth, short lived;
318 Giangrande et al., 2000) on all ARs independently of their age of deployment suggests that ARs did not
319 yet reach a stable state comparable to the natural environment. Thus, the presence of bio-builders is
320 not a sufficient indicator of the ARs naturalization to the local biodiversity.

321 The *GDL'sGol's* ARs being located in the sandy coastal zone are likely regularly disturbed by sediment
322 deposits due to river delivery or/and their resuspension by either trawling activities or the mechanical
323 action of the swell (Dufois et al., 2014; Durrieu de Madron et al., 2005; Ulles et al., 2008). Testing the
324 impact of swell and sediment deposit on ARs requires exploring the colonization of ARs along a
325 gradient of depth and distance from the coast (van der Stap et al., 2016). However, current ARs
326 deployment in the *GDLGol* ranged from 15 to 30 m depth and within 3 miles from the coast and did
327 not allow testing for differential effect of sediment disturbances as swell impact occurs every year in
328 this area (Guizien, 2009). Testing the impact of sediment disturbance on ARs colonization would
329 require exploring reefs deployed deeper than 50 m, such as the anchorages of the floating wind farm
330 that will be placed in the *GDLGol* in the next future (<https://info-eegl.fr/le-projet/le-parc/#>). Light is
331 also expected to be an important factor structuring benthic assemblages, along a depth gradient in
332 natural and artificial environments (T. Glasby, 1999a; T. M. Glasby, 1999b; Svane and Petersen, 2001).
333 Absence of depth effect in the present study, although in the *GDLGol* light intensity strongly
334 attenuates within the upper 30 m of the water column (Durrieu de Madron et al., 2011) was potentially
335 a bias due to the five species selected in the present study whose distributions are not strongly
336 structured by light intensity.

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337 Another factor which has been shown to drive the intensity of ARs colonization is structural complexity
338 (see Bohnsack and Sutherland, 1985 for a review). Nevertheless, there is no consensus about the
339 relationship between complexity and subtidal benthic invertebrates abundance, due to potential bias
340 in controlling the surface and scale in ARs of different complexity (Rouse et al., 2019; Strain et al.,
341 2018). The similarity in the 5 species co-occurrence between different reef shapes at the same depth
342 and of the same age found in the present study suggests structural complexity that shape is less
343 important than the geographical location in AR colonization by benthic invertebrates-when controlling
344 the colonized surface. However, shape is an imprecise measure of structural complexity. The latter is
345 rarely assessed quantitatively and can be described by different metrics which may be similar for
346 apparently different shapes (such as steel cages and pipes, (Riera, 2020)).

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347 Benthic invertebrate assemblages result from complex processes that operate at multiple spatial and
348 temporal scales (Smale, 2012). At the regional scale, larval availability can become a major factor
349 explaining colonization success. At the regional scale, larval availability can become a major factor
350 explaining colonization success (Padron et al., 2018). Change in the composition of assemblages during
351 the early colonization of artificial substrates by benthic invertebrates has been attributed to the
352 availability and abundance of larvae during the seasons rather than a sequence of distinct succession
353 (Bramanti et al., 2003; Turner and Todd, 1993). The larval behaviour (buoyancy and motility) and the
354 characteristics of the biological cycle of the species (spawning timing and PLD) can play a key role in
355 determining the dispersal distance (Todd, 1998), and consequently the possibility to reach habitat
356 suitable for settlement. Dispersion distance is generally correlated with PLD, thus, a species with a long
357 PLD is supposed to colonize habitats further away than species with a shorter PLD (Shanks, 2009). In
358 this study, the five species were chosen among different phyla known for their contrasting planktonic
359 durations, swimming abilities and larval dispersal periods, although these larval traits are only known
360 accurately for *E. singularis* (Guizien et al., 2020; Zelli et al., 2020). *P. fascialis* and *H. papillosa*, the two
361 species with short PLD (<24h and <48h, respectively) colonized ARs located close to the natural habitat
362 where they are present (< 4.8 km and <10 km, respectively). The coastal circulation of the Gol

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363 allows such dispersal distance over periods of a few days (Guizien et al., 2012). *S. spallanzanii*, which
364 has a PLD of 3 weeks, colonized all the inventoried ARs, in line with a dispersal distance of 40 km after
365 3 weeks (Guizien et al., 2012). In contrast, *E. singularis* did not colonize all ARs within geographical
366 sectors of 30 km width where the species is present in the natural habitat, although a 2-week PLD was
367 expected to enable such dispersal (Padron et al., 2018). The other gorgonian species, *L. sarmentosa*
368 colonized more ARs located within distances of less than 30 km from its natural habitat than *E.
369 singularis* while the PLD of the two species are presumably the same. This suggests that other factors
370 influence the colonization failure of *E. singularis*.

371 Reproductive traits are another key to the success in colonising new settings (Stearns, 2000). In this
372 regard, *E. singularis* colonization potential could be limited by its low fecundity (\sim 25-40 larvae.cm $^{-1}$ of
373 colony branch, Ribes et al., 2007; Theodor, 1967) compared to that of *L. sarmentosa* (\sim 75 larvae.cm $^{-1}$
374 of colony branch, (Rossi et al., 2011; Rossi and Gili, 2009). The wide colonization of ARs by *S.
375 spallanzanii* is in line with its reproductive traits typical of opportunistic species (early sexual maturity,
376 high fecundity with more than 50 000 eggs per female, Currie et al., 2000, a fertilization close to 100%,
377 Giangrande et al., 2000). Since arriving in the Pacific Ocean, *S. spallanzanii* has been declared one of
378 the ten priority pest species in the marine environment by the Australian authorities and classified as
379 an invasive species (Hayes et al., 2005). Similarly to *S. spallanzanii*, *H. papillosa* colonized nearly all ARs
380 located within its 10-km dispersal distance from the natural habitat. Within the ascidian class, a wide
381 disparity in species fecundity has been reported (Pandian, 2018). This suggests *H. papillosa*
382 reproductive traits would be close to those of invasive ascidians (Zhan et al., 2015).

383 Ultimately, understanding ARs colonization requires a precise mapping of source populations in the
384 natural environment. To this respect, the abundance of *S. spallanzani* on ARs is surprising, as the
385 species is not abundant in the natural rocky habitat of the [GDLGol](#). For this species, other sources of
386 larval supply than natural settings should be considered, such as the numerous ports and marinas along
387 the coast of the [GDLGol](#), as *S. spallanzanii* is very tolerant to environmental conditions (Currie et al.,
388 2000). In this case of intense colonization by an endemic benthic invertebrate species, ARs apparently

389 extended its metapopulation, acting as stepping stones for further larval dispersal beyond its natural
390 current colonization limits (Bishop et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2020). In the GDI Gol, the 14 500 m³ of ARs
391 deployed 30 years ago are now decommissioned and the relevance of their removal is currently
392 debated. Connectivity between natural populations has been shown to support species resilience after
393 disturbances in fragmented habitat, and could be extended to ARs (Fahrig, 2003). However, ARs may
394 also facilitate the spread of non-indigenous species introduced with maritime traffic in ports (Glasby
395 et al., 2007)-(Glasby et al., 2007).

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396 The present study advocates accounting for the geographical arrangement in planning ARs deployment
397 to enhance fish productivity while avoiding the spread of invasive species extend the habitat of hard
398 bottom benthic invertebrate natural populations.

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405 406 Authors contributions

407 SB and KG conceived the study, SB carried out sampling and statistical analysis. All contributed to
408 manuscript writing.

409

410 Conflict of interest disclosure

411 The authors of this preprint declare that they have no financial conflict of interest with the content of
412 this article.

413

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415 LITERATURE CITED

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761 **Figure captions:**

762 Figure 1: Map showing the layout of the 6 geographical sectors and 15(AGM, AGD, VLR, GRU, LEU,
763 CST) and the 16 sites where prospected (indicated in dark blue) for artificial reef sampling was carried
764 out. Areas indicated in light blue corresponded to artificial reef deployment areas. Areas indicated in
765 black corresponded to natural hard-substrate areas. Some of the AR shape illustrations were taken
766 from Tessier et al., 2014.

767
768 Figure 2: Photographs of the five species inventoried on AR a) *Sabellastallanzanii* b) *Eunicella*
769 *singularis* c) *Leptogorgia sarmentosa* d) *Halocynthia papillosa* e) *Pentapora fascialis*; all © Blouet
770 *sylvain*

771
772 Figure 3: Map showing the five species co-occurrence assemblages inventoried on ARs in the 1516
773 sites (AGM1, AGM2, AGD1, AGD2, AGD3, AGD4, AGD5, VLR1, VLR2, GRU1, GRU2, GRU3, LEU1, LEU2,
774 CST1, CST2) in the Gulf of Lion.
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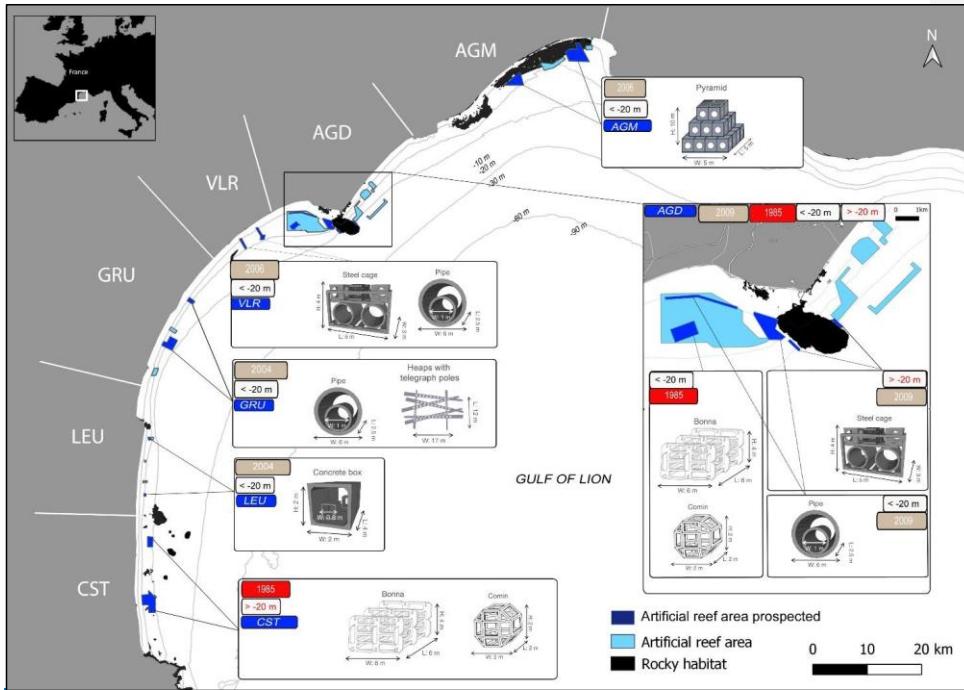
776 Figure 4: Composite showing in the upper Diversity and dissimilarity. Upper part the: diversity of
777 species assemblageassemblages in the sampling units of the five sites (A, B, C, D, EAGD1, AGD2,
778 AGD3, AGD4, AGD5) in AGD sector together with the type of AR, depth and years of deploymentand
779 in the lower. Lower part, the: dendrogram obtained by group average clustering based on the
780 Jaccard dissimilarity index using the presence /absence of species (P=0.04 at 62% of dissimilarity).

781 The red dotted line delineatesseparates the two clusters identified by the analysis.

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801 **Figures :**
802 **Figure 1 :**



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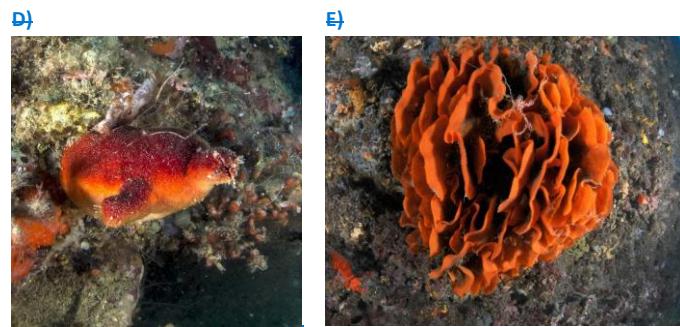
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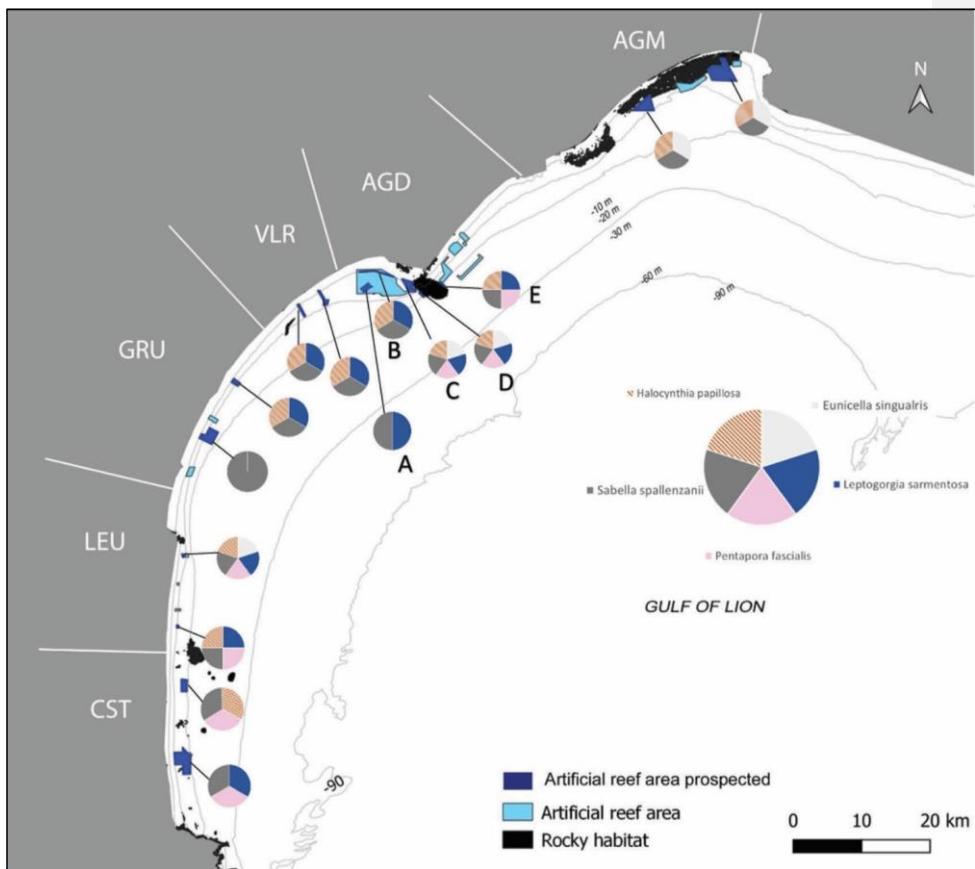
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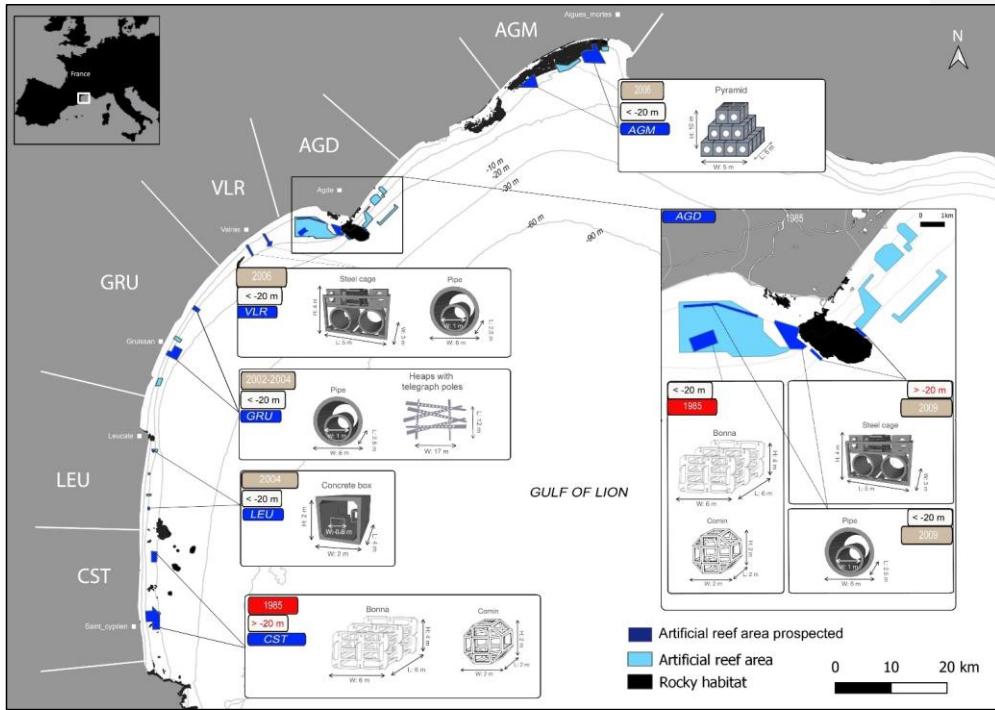
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830 **Figure 3-:**





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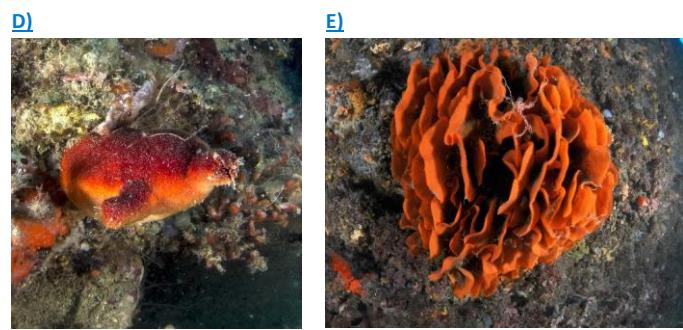
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845 **Figure 2 :****A)****B)****C)**

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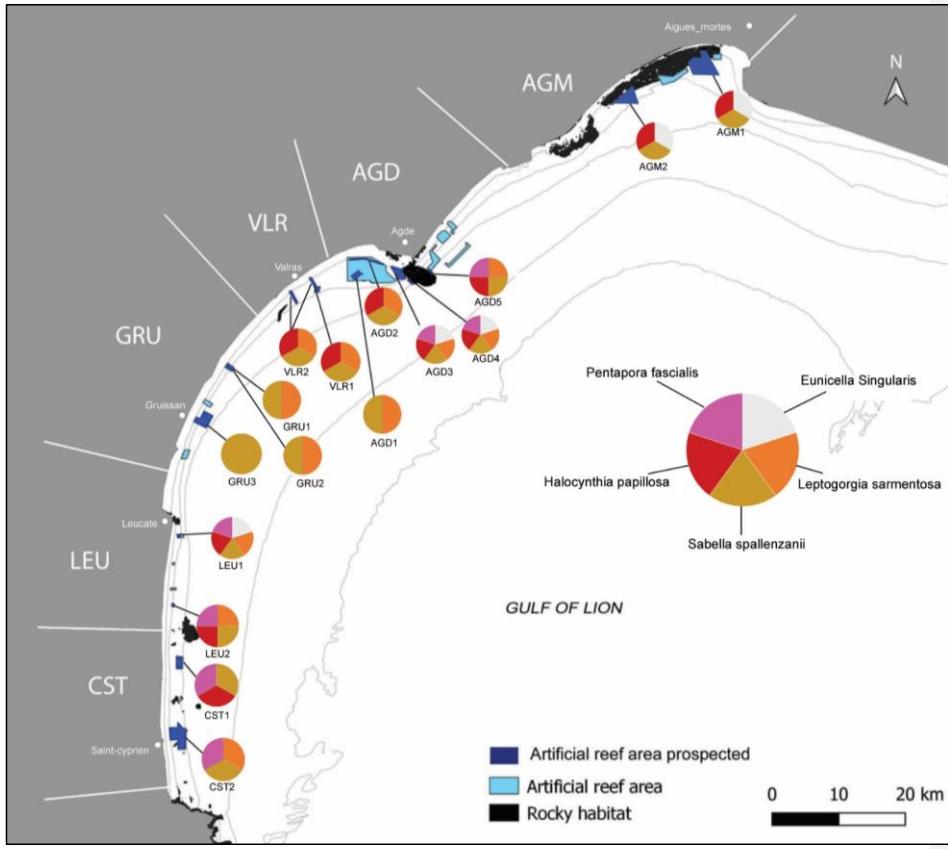
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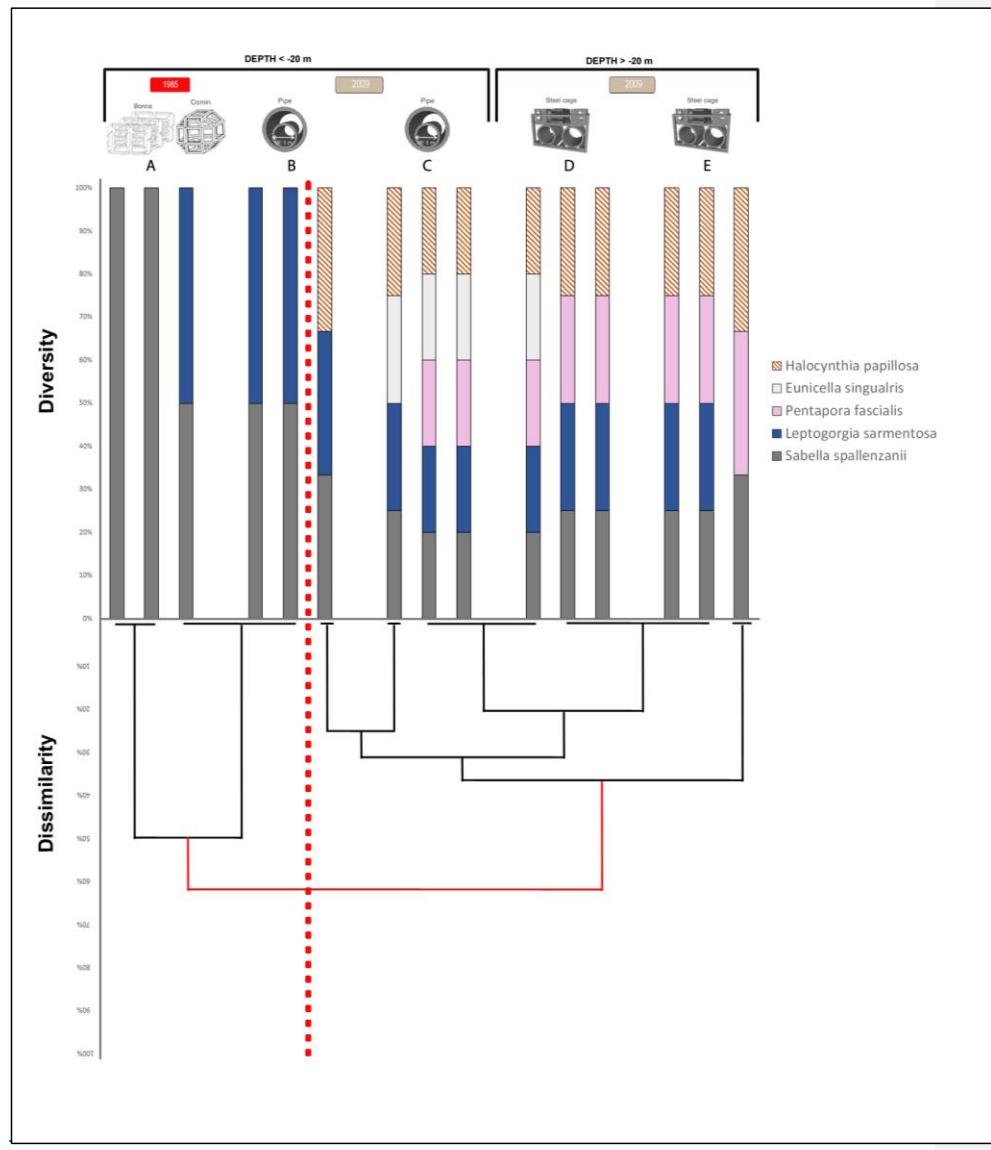
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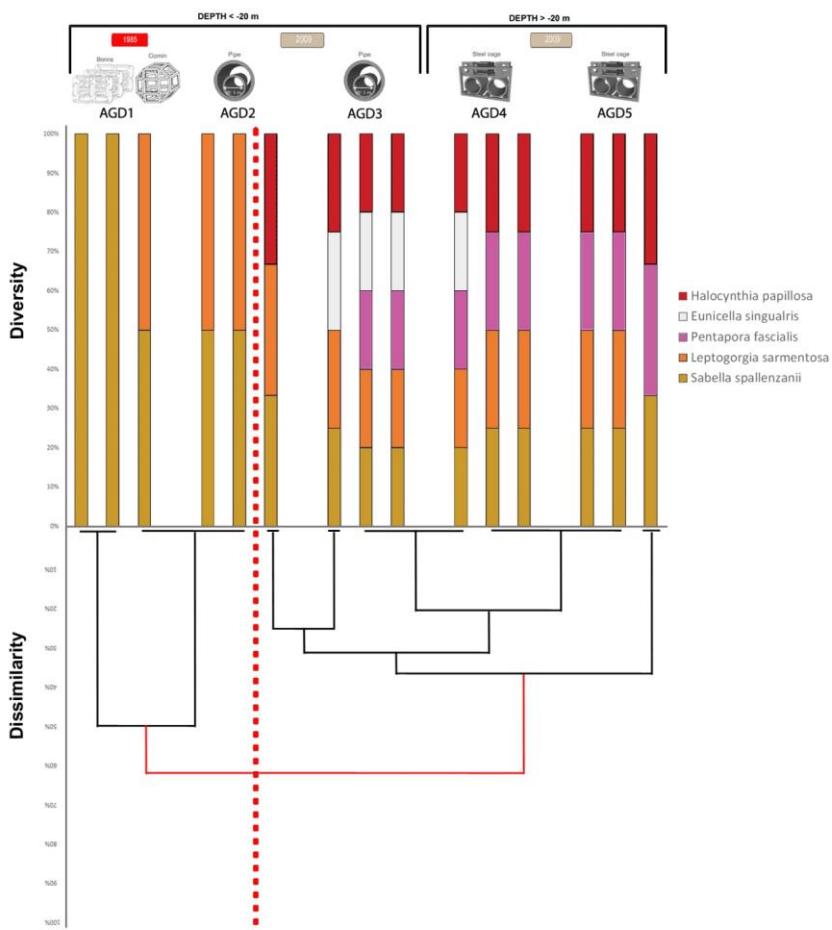
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859 [Figure 3 :](#)



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Figure 4:



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876 **Table captions**

877 Table 1: Larval life history traits (Planktonic spawning period, relative fecundity, life expectancy, age at sexual maturity, larval type, planktonic larval duration (PLD), reproduction period, and larval trophic regimerelative abundance in the GoL) for the five species inventoried on ARs.

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881 Table 2: Results of multivariate NP-Manova testing the interactive effect of the year (of deployment and site (nested in year))shape between steel cage and pipe on the presence/absence assemblage. Sites tested: VLR1 vs VLR2. Significant (P<0.05) values in bold.

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885 Table 3: Results of multivariate NP-Manova testing the interactive effects of the Age (of deployment) and site (nested in Age) on the presence/absence assemblage. Sites tested: AGD1 vs (AGD2 vs AGD3). Significant (P<0.05) values in bold.

888

889 Table 4: Results of multivariate NP-Manova testing the interactive effects of the depth (of deployment) and site (nested in depth) on the presence/absence assemblage. Sites tested: (AGD2 vs AGD3) vs (AGD4 vs AGD5). Significant (P<0.05) values in bold.

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893 Table 45: Results of univariate Kruskall_wallis testing the effect of year and depth location of deployment on the presence/absence by species. Sites tested: all sites in AGD. Significant (P<0.05) values in bold.

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897 Table 56: Results of multivariate NP-Manova testing the interactive effects of geographical sector and site (nested in geographical sector) on the presence/absence assemblage. Sites tested: (AGM1 vs AGM2) vs (AGD2 vs AGD3) vs (VLR1 vs VLR2) vs (GRU1 vs GRU2 vs GRU3) vs (LEU1 vs LEU2).

900 Significant (P<0.05) values in bold.

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902 Table 67: Results of univariate Kruskall_wallis testing the effects of geographical sector and site on
903 the presence/absence by species. Sites tested: AGM1 vs AGM2 vs AGD2 vs AGD3 vs VLR1 vs VLR2 vs
904 GRU1 vs GRU2 vs GRU3 vs LEU1 vs LEU2. Significant ($P < 0.05$) values in bold.

Tables:

Table 1:

Species	Spawning period	Fecundity	Life expectancy	Age at sexual maturity	Larval type	Larval planktonic larval duration (PLD)	Ref/Abundance in the Gol.
<i>Leptogorgia sarmentosa</i>	June - August	**	20 years	2-3 years	Lecithotrophic	? (supposed 1-4 weeks)	(Rossi and Gili-2009)**
<i>Eunicella singularis</i>	July - August	*	25-30 years	6 years	Lecithotrophic	1-4 weeks (in aquarium)	(Guizien et al.-2020)***
<i>Pentapora fascialis</i>	June	**	10 years	2 years	Lecithotrophic	? (supposed <1 days)	(Cecito et al. 1998)**
<i>Sabella spallanzani</i>	January - February	***	5 years	1 years	Lecithotrophic	21 days (in aquarium)	(Giangrande et al. 2000)*
<i>Halocynthia papillosa</i>	September - October	*** (estimated)	unknow	2 months (estimated)	? (supposed >2 days)<12 hours (estimated from other ascidians)	? (supposed >2 days)<12 hours (estimated from other ascidians)	(Becerro and Turon 1992)**
		from other ascidians)		from other ascidians)			

Symbol legend: * = low, **=medium ***=strong

Table 2:

Multivariate measures					
Source	Df	SS	Ms	F	Pvalue
Assemblage (Presence/Absence)					
<u>Year</u> <u>Shape</u>	1	<u>3.6408e-190.4925</u>	<u>3.6408e-190.4925</u>	<u>9.8301e-14.4220</u>	<u>0.33306090</u>
<u>Site</u> <u>(Year)</u>	1	<u>0.3367</u>	<u>0.3367</u>	<u>7.5554</u>	<u>0.0130</u>
Residual	64	0.26741481	0.04460370		
Total	85	1.086601481			

913
914 **Table 3:**
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Multivariate measures					
Source	Df	SS	Ms	F	Pvalue
Assemblage (Presence/Absence)-					
<u>Age</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.4825</u>	<u>0.4825</u>	<u>1.4330</u>	<u>0.3330</u>
<u>Site(Age)</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.3367</u>	<u>0.3367</u>	<u>7.5551</u>	<u>0.0130</u>
<u>Residual</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>0.2674</u>	<u>0.0446</u>		
<u>Total</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>1.0866</u>			

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917 **Table 4:**
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Multivariate measures					
Source	Df	SS	Ms	F	Pvalue
Assemblage (Presence/Absence).					
Depth	1	0.2491	0.2491	1.3715	0.3280
<u>Site(Depth)</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0.3633</u>	<u>0.1816</u>	<u>8.5969</u>	<u>0.001</u>
<u>Residual</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>0.1690</u>	<u>0.0211</u>		
<u>Total</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>0.7816</u>			

920
921 **Table 4:5:**
922

Univariate measures					
Presence/absence					
	Df	SS	Ms	Chi_sq	Pvalue
Eunicella singularis					
	4	127.5	31.875	10.82	0.0287
Leptogorgia sarmentosa					
	4	60	15	6.22	0.1832

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Pentapora fascialis				
	4	172.5	43.125	11.5
Sabella spallanzanii				
	4	0	0	nan
Halocynthia papillosa				
	4	150	37.5	11.2
				0.0244

Table 5-6:

Multivariate measures					
Source	Df	SS	Ms	F	Pvalue
Assemblage (Presence/Absence)					
Geographical sector	4	<u>1.99212.1671</u>	<u>0.49805418</u>	<u>3.19615.0994</u>	<u>0.0380005</u>
Site(Geographical sector)	<u>56</u>	<u>0.77916375</u>	<u>0.15581062</u>	<u>3.64342.7812</u>	<u>0.0010007</u>
Residual	<u>1918</u>	<u>0.81256876</u>	<u>0.04270382</u>		
Total	28	<u>3.59384921</u>			

Table 67:

Presence/absence					
Source	Df	SS	Ms	Chi_sq	Pvalue
<i>Eunicella singularis</i>					
Geographical sector	4	447.08	111.77	10.28	0.036
Site	9	937.66	104.1893.75	21.56	0.01040175
<i>Leptogorgia sarmentosa</i>					
Geographical sector	4	965.7	241.42	22.2	0.0002
Site	9	12181116.5	135.3311.65	28	0.0010018

<i>Pentapora fascialis</i>					
Geographical sector	4	937.66	234.41	21.56	0.0002
Site	9	1077.83	119.75	107.78	0.00320058
<i>Sabella spallanzanii</i>					
Geographical sector	4	0	0	nan	nan
Site	9	0	0	nan	nan
<i>Halocynthia papillosa</i>					
Geographical sector	4	323.59	80.89	6.01	0.1985
Site	9	561.87	581.5	62.43	68.15
				10.43	12.53
					0.31662509

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