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A current synthesis on the effects of electric and magnetic fields emitted by submarine power cables on invertebrates

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Abstract

The goal of clean renewable energy production has promoted the large-scale deployment of marine renewable energy devices, and their associated submarine cable network. Power cables produce both electric and magnetic fields that raise environmental concerns as many marine organisms have magneto and electroreception abilities used for vital purposes. Magnetic and electric fields' intensity decreases with distance away from the cable and thus the benthic compartment and the sediment around are particularly exposed. Although marine invertebrate species are the major fauna of these potentially exposed areas, they have so far received little attention. We provide extensive background knowledge on natural and anthropogenic marine sources of magnetic and electric fields. We then compile evidence for magneto- and electro-sensitivity in marine invertebrates and further highlight what is currently known about their interactions with artificial sources of magnetic and electric fields. Finally we discuss the main gaps and future challenges that require further investigation.

Keywords marine renewable energy; submarine power cables; magnetic fields; electric fields, marine invertebrates; environmental impact; behaviour.

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Highlights

- Submarine power cables produce both magnetic and electric fields
- Marine invertebrate species inhabit the benthic or sediment compartment where cables emissions would be the strongest.
- Studies are scarce and invertebrate sensitivity to both natural and artificial sources of magnetic and electric fields is poorly documented.
- Marine invertebrates should prioritised in future research studies according to their proximity to the cable and the duration of their exposure.

1 Introduction

2 Magnetic and electric fields are naturally occurring forces in the environment. Many
3 living organisms, such as bacteria, birds, amphibians, insects, reptiles, mammals, and fish, are
4 electroreceptive or magneto-sensitive species that can detect these fields (Wiltchko, 1995;
5 Wiltchko and Wiltchko, 2005). The Earth's magnetic field (or geomagnetic field, GMF)
6 constitutes a primary natural magnetic source that is ubiquitous and continuous, both on land
7 and at sea. Essential functions, such as orientation, homing, and navigation over long
8 migrations and short-range movements, imply the existence of a GMF detection sense, as
9 reviewed by Walker et al. (2003) and Wiltchko (1995). Such magneto-sensitivity occurs in
10 most marine phyla undergoing large-scale migrations, like cetaceans (e.g., Kremers et al.,
11 2014), elasmobranchs (Kalmijn, 1978), teleost fishes (Quinn, 1980; Quinn and Brannon, 1982;
12 Walker, 1984), sea turtles (Lohmann, 1991), decapod crustaceans, or species performing local-
13 scale movements, such as isopod and amphipod crustaceans (e.g., Arendse and Kruyswijk,
14 1981; Lohmann et al., 1995; Ugolini and Pezzani, 1995). Some work has confirmed that the
15 GMF partly guides the long-distance migrations of eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) (Baltazar-Soares and
16 Eizaguirre, 2017; Naisbett-Jones et al., 2017), spiny lobster (*Panulirus argus*) (Lohmann et al.,
17 1995), steelhead trout (*Ochorhyncus mykiss*) (Putman et al., 2014a), and loggerhead turtle
18 (*Caretta caretta*) (Lohmann et al., 2001). Additionally, some species, particularly among
19 elasmobranchs have specialised electroreceptive organs that can detect the bioelectric fields
20 produced by prey, predators, and conspecifics (e.g., Ball et al., 2016; reviewed in Tricas and
21 Sisneros, 2004).

22 However, this 'natural' sensory landscape may be altered by the anthropogenic
23 magnetic and electric fields emitted by electrical conductors (Otremba et al., 2019). While
24 such artificial sources are abundant on land, they remained until now scarce in the oceans.
25 However, they beginning to proliferate in coastal areas due to marine renewable energy
26 devices (MREDs) that convert renewable sources of energy (i.e., wind, waves, tides, and water
27 currents) into electricity (Gill et al., 2014). Furthermore, projects to electrically interconnect
28 countries are already being planned (Rte, 2019). The greatest concerns from operating mode
29 MREDs relate to both magnetic and electric emissions into the marine environment, mainly
30 resulting from submarine power cables (SPCs) supporting the electricity transfer (Taormina et
31 al., 2018). Among 8000 km of high-voltage direct current cables (HVDC) covering the seabed,

1 70 % are located in European seas. In the near future, we can anticipate a gigantic cable
2 network on the seafloor in the vicinity of developed countries, particularly in small oceanic
3 basins (e.g., the Baltic Sea, Northern Sea, and Mediterranean Sea) (Ardelean and Minnebo,
4 2015).

5 Submarine power cables produce both magnetic and electric fields that may either
6 interact with the geomagnetic field or coexist independently (Otremba et al., 2019). Such
7 artificial sources may mask or alter natural magnetic and electric cues, thereby impacting the
8 ecological processes in sensitive species, such as spawning or feeding migrations, homing,
9 predation, and detection of sexual mates (Klimley et al., 2016; Tricas and Gill, 2011; Öhman et
10 al., 2007). Recently, concerns have been raised regarding the emissions of SPCs and their
11 potential to cause attraction or repulsion, barriers to local movements or long-distance
12 migrations, disorientation, or behavioural and physiological changes (reviewed in Fischer and
13 Slater, 2010). Experimental studies addressing such issues have focused on short-term
14 behavioural and physiological responses as well as effects on development. Organisms'
15 survival is unaffected by SPCs' magnetic emissions (Bochert and Zettler, 2004). When
16 considering behavioural responses, field studies mainly conducted on teleost fish species
17 revealed no evidence that magnetic fields act as permanent barriers to long-range migrations
18 of either Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*), green sturgeon (*Acipenser*
19 *medirostris*), or European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) (Klimley et al., 2016; Öhman et al., 2007;
20 Westerberg and Lagenfelt, 2008; Wyman et al., 2018). Testing the attraction-repulsion
21 towards magnetic fields has been a goal for other studies, and these produced contrasting
22 results between members of taxonomic groups (i.e., crustaceans, molluscs, fish,
23 elasmobranchs, polychaetes) and different species (e.g., Bevelhimer et al., 2015, 2013; Cada
24 et al., 2011; Gill et al., 2009; Hutchison et al., 2018; Jakubowska et al., 2019; Scott et al., 2018).
25 Focusing on embryos and larval stages of teleost fishes, no magnetic field effects were found
26 on embryonic or larval mortality, growth, and hatching success of Atlantic halibut
27 (*Hippoglossus hippoglossus*), California flounder (*Paralichthys californicus*), Northern pike (*Esox*
28 *lucius*), and rainbow trout (*Onchorhynchus mykiss*) (Fey et al., 2019ab; Woodruff et al., 2012).
29 In contrast, magnetic fields caused a shortening in the hatching time in Northern pike embryos
30 (*Esox lucius*) and an enhanced yolk-sac absorption rate, also observed in rainbow trout
31 (*Onchorhynchus mykiss*) (Fey et al., 2019ab). Also, magnetic fields delayed embryo growth and

1 increased developmental abnormalities in invertebrate sea urchins *Lytechinus pictus* and
2 *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* (Levin and Ernst, 1997; Zimmerman et al., 1990).

3 Although the field of research concerning the effects of artificial magnetic fields on
4 marine fauna is gradually growing, it appears to be restricted to specific taxa. To date,
5 invertebrate species (i.e., mollusc, worms, crustaceans and echinoderms) have been poorly
6 studied. Specifically, fundamental data about the magneto-sensitivity of some invertebrate
7 groups are lacking, creating a knowledge void regarding the impact assessment of magnetic
8 field exposure (Emma, 2016; Isaacman and Lee, 2009; Tricas and Gill, 2011). In addition,
9 invertebrate burrowing and epibenthic species, such as bivalves, decapods, and worms,
10 should more frequently encounter cable-generated fields, since they live on or near the
11 seafloor where exposure is highest. In particular, invertebrates include a high proportion of
12 low-motility and sessile organisms that are likely to experience long-term exposure if located
13 close to SPCs (Michel et al., 2007). Marine benthic invertebrates play crucial roles in coastal
14 ecosystem functioning; for example, they regulate nutrient fluxes at the water-sediment
15 interface (e.g., detrital food decomposition and nutrient redistribution through consumption,
16 egestion, and sediment reworking) (Prather et al., 2013). They also ensure oxygen and water
17 penetration into sediments by their bioturbation activities (burrowing and bio-irrigation) and
18 contribute to carbon and nitrogen cycles through their excretion (Snelgrove, 1997).
19 Accordingly, in light of the current spatial expansion of the SPC network, there is a crucial need
20 to assess the effects of SPC magnetic fields on marine invertebrates.

21 This review intends to cover the available literature on the interactions of artificial and
22 natural sources of electric and magnetic fields with marine invertebrates. With the context of
23 current energy challenges, this review aims to synthesise the effects of magnetic and electric
24 fields emitted by submarine power cables. In the first section, we provide extensive
25 background knowledge on natural and anthropogenic sources of magnetic and electric fields
26 in the marine environment. We then detail mechanisms underlying magneto- and electro-
27 sensitivity and review some key studies demonstrating that marine invertebrates detect
28 natural magnetic and electrical signals. We further highlight what is currently known about
29 the interactions of marine invertebrates with magnetic and electric fields generated by SPCs.
30 Finally, we discuss the main gaps and future challenges that require further investigation.

1. Electric and magnetic fields in the marine environment

1.1 Natural and artificial sources

Whereas electric fields (expressed in mV/m) originate from voltage differences, magnetic fields (expressed in μT) are created from the flow of an electric current and thus coexist with the associated electric field. Electric and magnetic fields naturally occur in the marine environment and are characterised by their frequency, expressed in hertz (Hz), which is the number of times per second the field changes direction.

Natural sources of magnetic fields, specifically the geomagnetic field (GMF), are direct current (DC) fields and thus have a constant direction (i.e., null frequency). The major source, accounting for 95 % of the magnetic strength at the Earth's surface, is caused by the convective movement of molten iron inside the Earth's core (Heilig et al., 2018). This so-called core field varies with latitude between 20–30 μT at the equator and 60–70 μT at the poles (50 μT at mid-latitudes) (Wiltchko, 1995). Another much smaller source (on average 20 nT) originates from the scattered distribution of magnetised materials inside the crustal; thus, it is called the crustal field. The core and crustal fields together form the internal field and vary on timescales of years to millennium. The external field includes several sources arising from solar-terrestrial interactions (e.g., electrical currents in the ionosphere and magnetosphere) and from ocean water currents that may form electrical currents and their associated magnetic fields (1 to 100 nT) (see details in Gill et al., 2014; Olsen et al., 2010; Tyler et al., 2003). Therefore, the GMF varies on timescales of seconds to days with a magnitude of pT to 100 nT and can reach thousands of nT (e.g., during geomagnetic storms) (Heilig et al., 2018).

The dominant source of marine electric fields results from the law of electromagnetic induction: any movement through the GMF, by an organism or an ocean current that are electrical conductors, induces a weak DC electric field (about 0.075 mV/m in the case of an ocean current moving through the GMF) (CSA Ocean Sciences Inc. and Exponent, 2019). Additionally, marine organisms are surrounded by alternating current (i.e. with non-null frequency, AC) and DC electric fields up to 500 $\mu\text{V}/\text{m}$, called bioelectric fields, that occur at frequencies less than 10 Hz and are strongly attenuated within 10 or 20 cm from the animal source (Bedore and Kajiura, 2013).

1 In the last few decades, artificial electric and magnetic fields have been introduced to
2 the marine environment by the immersion of electric conductors in the ocean. Whereas
3 artificial static magnetic fields are partly induced by bridges or electrical equipment aboard
4 vessels and are therefore particularly strong in busy shipping lanes, their dominant sources
5 originate from both communication and submarine power cables (SPCs) (Ardelean and
6 Minnebo, 2015; Kavet et al., 2016). Their total length on the seabed reaches 10^6 km, mainly
7 composed of communication cables. Although telecommunication (i.e., fibre optical) cables
8 cover a large area of the seabed, their electric and magnetic emissions are substantially
9 smaller than those of SPCs (Carter et al., 2009; Meißner et al., 2006; Tricas and Gill, 2011). The
10 total voltage required for a typical 7500 km transatlantic telecommunication cable, equipped
11 with 100 repeaters (used to maintain the optical signal), is around 10 kV (no magnetic field
12 measurements found) (Meißner et al., 2006).

13 **1.2 Submarine power cables (SPCs)**

14 **1.2.1 General features**

15 SPCs have various purposes, such as supplying power to islands or oil platforms,
16 transferring electricity from marine renewable energy devices (MREDs), and providing
17 electrical interconnections between countries (autonomous grid connexion); the latter two
18 carry the strongest electrical currents (Taormina et al., 2018; Worzyk, 2009). With rare
19 exceptions, SPCs do not exceed 300 km in length and are located in coastal areas up to the
20 beginning of bathyal areas (< 500 m depth) (Ardelean and Minnebo, 2015). When operational,
21 SPCs generate both electric and magnetic fields. Electric fields are confined to the internal part
22 of the cable through the use of highly conductive sheathes and armour, such as steel plates,
23 wire, or tape. In contrast, existing insulation technology is only partially effective in shielding
24 magnetic emissions and is currently not taken into account in the design of cables. In
25 terrestrial structures magnetic emissions may be tempered by absorption or deflexion tools
26 (CSA Ocean Sciences Inc. and Exponent, 2019) that are inoperable in the marine environment
27 because of sea water corrosion (data communicated by the French transmission system
28 operator Rte). With the absorption procedure, materials of high electrical conductivity are
29 used as cable armour or sheaths to reduce the magnetic field by the 'skin effect' principle:
30 eddy currents created in the conductive material produce locally opposing magnetic fields that
31 partially cancel the cable's field (Ardelean and Minnebo, 2015; CMACS, 2003; Exponent Inc.,

1 2013; CSA Ocean Sciences Inc. and Exponent, 2019) . Silva et al. (2006) (in Exponent Inc., 2013)
2 predicted that magnetic emissions of a 138 kV AC submarine cable would be cut in half
3 through this procedure. With the deflexion procedure, high permeability ferromagnetic
4 materials are used to trap magnetic fluxes, creating a magnetic circuit that reduces magnetic
5 transfers outside the armour.

6 **1.2.2 The intensity of magnetic and electric fields**

7 The intensity of artificial electric (expressed in mV/m) and magnetic fields (also called
8 magnetic induction, expressed in μT), depends on several factor and have similar variations,
9 with the characteristics of the power transmission line being of major importance. Next
10 paragraphs focus on the magnetic field, as it radiates outside the cable. In the literature, the
11 magnetic induction is determined either from calculations or from *in situ* measurements
12 **(Table 1)**.

13 First, SPCs operate with two power supply systems, either AC or DC (Worzyk, 2009).
14 For AC cables, the magnetic field varies at low frequencies (50 Hz in Europe and 60 Hz in North
15 America) and, since it is not shielded, induces a weak alternating electric field in the
16 surrounding ocean (i.e., '*induced electric field*') (Ardelean and Minnebo, 2015; Copping et al.,
17 2016). DC cables produce a static magnetic field that interacts with the ambient GMF, and the
18 resulting magnetic field increases or decreases in relation with its geographic alignment (see
19 details in Otremba et al., 2019).

20 Second, the magnetic induction increases linearly with the intensity of the current flow
21 in the cable, dependent on its power and voltage. This means that the increase (or decrease)
22 in the current flow results in an increase (or decrease) of both DC and AC magnetic fields and,
23 if so, of the induced electric field. As a consequence, systems with the highest capacities for
24 current transfer are likely to generate strong field emissions (Meißner et al., 2006). Thanks to
25 improved insulation technology, high-voltage SPCs require less current to supply power than
26 a cable of lower voltage, resulting in a reduction in their magnetic emissions. Long-distance
27 and high-voltage electricity transmissions are commonly made with DC cables to reduce
28 energy losses that increase with length in AC transmission (CSA Ocean Sciences Inc. and
29 Exponent, 2019). For example, most power lines connecting power grids of different countries
30 are '*high-voltage direct current*' (HVDC) lines.

1 Third, the magnetic induction decreases with distance from the cable (**Table 1**).
2 Whenever possible, cables are buried under a sediment layer (0.3 to 2 m) to minimise risks of
3 damage due to anchors of trawling ships. The deeper the cable is buried, the weaker the
4 magnetic field and induced electric field encountered by the benthic and pelagic fauna. In
5 turn, buried cables increase the magnetic exposure of burrowing species. In the case of hard
6 substrata or deep water (> 600 m), cables simply lay on the seabed and are covered by
7 dumped rocks, steel plates, concrete slab mattresses, cast-iron shells, or cable anchoring (15
8 to 30 cm thick) (Meißner et al., 2006; Taormina et al., 2018) that provide suitable substrata
9 for biological colonisation of sessile or vagile organisms (Isaacman and Lee, 2009).

10 Finally, the number of conductors (also expressed as phases) inside a cable can affect
11 the magnetic induction. In multi-conductor cables (i.e., three-phase AC or bipolar DC cables),
12 anti-directional magnetic fields (i.e., current flowing in opposite direction) can largely cancel
13 each other out if located as close as possible and parallel to each other. The magnetic field of
14 the conductors is almost nullified at the surface of the cable, since the sum of both voltages
15 and currents of the phases is zero at any one time. For example, when a pair of HVDC cables
16 carries 1000 A and are separated by 0.1 m, the magnetic field is far below 1 μT at 11 m above
17 the cable. But when the distance between the cables is 10 m, the magnetic field is 10 μT at 11
18 m above the cable (Worzyk, 2009). In single-phase AC or monopolar DC cables, the magnetic
19 cancellation effect does not occur as cables are commonly spaced 10 to 100 m, for technical
20 reasons (i.e. avoiding heating points between the two cables and ensuring that one of the two
21 cables is in operation in case the other would be damaged) (Johansson et al., 2005).
22 Additionally, helically twisting of the conductors also helps to temper overall magnetic
23 emissions (e.g., by a factor of 10 compared to an untwisted cable) (CSA Ocean Sciences Inc.
24 and Exponent, 2019).

25 **1.2.3 Case of offshore wind farms**

26 Globally, offshore wind facilities present a leading renewable technology and thus
27 require the greatest number of SPCs (Sun et al., 2012). Generally, they comprise one power
28 generation system and one power transmission system (Wei et al., 2017) (**Figure 1**).

29 The power generation system consists of inter-turbine cables (15.5 to 16.5 cm in
30 diameter) that collect the power from all wind turbine generators. In the United Kingdom, the

1 Walney extension wind farm features 87 wind turbines. Their output is normally less than
2 1000 V (e.g., 690 or 900V) (Natural power, 2015). The collection cables bring the electricity of
3 all turbines into a step-up transformer chain, where the power is stepped up to medium-
4 voltage (33–36 kV) and then high-voltage levels. The in-field cables (inter-turbine and
5 collecting cables) are usually AC three-phase medium voltage cables (10–36 kV) (Ardelean and
6 Minnebo, 2015; Worzyk, 2009). Finally, the power reaches the offshore collection point. If
7 needed, this is where the high-voltage AC (HVAC) level might be converted into a high-voltage
8 DC (HVDC) level by an AC/DC power converter station. However, offshore substations are very
9 costly and are dedicated to high-production wind farms (Wei et al., 2017). As much as possible,
10 in-field cables are buried in the sediment (0.9 to 1.8 m) and are protected by J-tubes at the
11 substation and turbine foundations (CMACS, 2003; CSA Ocean Sciences Inc. and Exponent,
12 2019; Natural power, 2015). For example, the world’s largest operational windfarm, the
13 Walney extension in the Irish Sea, covers an area of 145 km².

14 The power transmission system is composed of export cables (20 to 30 cm in diameter)
15 that link the offshore collection point to the shore, and they are usually 138–230 kV (CSA
16 Ocean Sciences Inc. and Exponent, 2019). When this distance is less than 50 km, HVAC cables
17 are the most economic and convenient option (Wei et al., 2017). However, DC transmission is
18 preferred for distances greater than 50 km but is more costly and requires HVDC converter
19 stations. While the diameter and voltage of inter-array cables are smaller than for export
20 cables, the current flows and thus the magnetic emissions are quite similar.

21 **2. Interactions of marine invertebrates with electric and magnetic** 22 **fields**

23 The marine environment offers a diversity of cues (chemical, physical, biological and
24 acoustical) that marine species use to locate or remain in a suitable habitat. Among these, the
25 GMF provides spatial information of potential relevance for the marine fauna, particularly
26 when other orientation cues are lacking, such as in the open ocean. Two main bases support
27 this assumption: (1) unlike other cues, the GMF remains regular over ecological time
28 regardless of the season, weather, depth, or light and (2) local and regional variations in
29 lithology and topography features (e.g., coastline, islands, and seamounts) induce singular
30 magnetic signatures of potential value for the orientation and navigation of organisms

1 (Lohmann and Ernst, 2014). Migrating marine species could thus navigate using geomagnetic
2 cues through magnetoreception. At a single location, GMF is characterised by its (1) horizontal
3 and vertical field intensities, (2) total field intensity (i.e., sum of the two previous vectors), and
4 (3) inclination angle between the total field intensity vector and the Earth's surface (see
5 Lohmann et al., 2007). The so-called '*magnetic compass species*' extract directional or
6 compass cues to maintain headings relative to the magnetic poles (i.e., either South or North)
7 (Lohmann et al., 2007; Wiltschko and Wiltschko, 2005). Some marine turtles use an '*inclination*
8 *compass*' based on the inclination angle (e.g., Light et al., 1993; Lohmann and Lohmann, 1994),
9 while fishes and crustaceans use a '*polarity compass*' based on the horizontal field intensity
10 (e.g., Lohmann et al., 1995; Quinn and Brannon, 1982). In contrast, '*magnetic map species*',
11 such as turtles and salmonids, have the ability to derive positional information and to adjust
12 their swimming direction towards their goal (Avens and Lohmann, 2004; Lohmann et al., 2012;
13 Putman et al., 2014b). Such a cue is provided by the predictable variation in the magnetic field
14 intensity and inclination angle as a function of latitude and longitude (Putman et al., 2011).

15 The marine environment is one of the rare habitats allowing the propagation of electric
16 fields, mainly detected by vertebrate species (e.g., elasmobranchs, chondrosteans, agnathans,
17 sarcopterygians, some teleost fishes, and one cetacean species) through passive
18 electroreception, ensured by electroreceptive organs (ampullae of Lorenzini) (reviewed in
19 Collin, 2019; Czech-Damal and Dehnhardt, 2013). Electroreception is usually a short-range
20 sense (from a few to tens of centimetres) and is effective for detecting the bioelectric fields
21 of predators, preys, and conspecifics (Bullock et al., 2005). This sense is also assumed to play
22 a role in navigation and orientation behaviours through the electromagnetic induction
23 mechanism (detailed in Section 2.1) (Kalmijn, 1982). Here, we give a brief overview of the
24 mechanisms underlying magneto- and electroreception in marine invertebrates.

25 **2.1 Mechanisms of magneto and electroreception**

26 Mechanisms behind magnetoreception have not been clearly established in any
27 marine invertebrate, but in recent years, magnetite reception, chemical magnetoreception,
28 and electromagnetic induction hypotheses have been discussed (Johnsen and Lohmann, 2008;
29 Nordmann et al., 2017; Vacha, 2017).

1 The first hypothesis is based on the detection of magnetite particles (i.e., Fe₃O₄, both
2 ferromagnetic materials and electrical conductors) in animal tissues (Lowenstam, 1962),
3 leading to theoretical models. Briefly, as they align under the action of mechanical forces
4 induced by the GMF, either magnetite crystals push on secondary mechano- or hair cells
5 receptors, or else their rotation in cells opens ion channels (e.g., Cadiou and McNaughton,
6 2010; Eder et al., 2012; reviewed in Shaw et al., 2015; Winklhofer and Kirschvink, 2010). In
7 favour of this mechanism, Ernst and Lohmann (2016) observed orientation changes in
8 Caribbean spiny lobster (*Panulirus argus*) in response to magnetic pulses that cause
9 magnetite rotation. Natan and Vortman (2017) also proposed that symbiotic magneto-tactic
10 bacteria (containing magnetite particles), capable of detecting the GMF *in*clination angle
11 (angle between geographic and geomagnetic norths), could be the source of magneto-sensing
12 in animals.

13 One other potential mechanism implies that there is a radical-pair photoreceptor
14 involving chemical reactions within the visual system (Ritz et al., 2000; Schulten et al., 1978),
15 with details found in several works (reviewed in Hore and Mouritsen, 2016; Ritz et al., 2010).
16 Simply put, a light stimulus on a cryptochrome, a photoreceptive molecule, induces the
17 formation of a transient radical pair (i.e., pair of molecules with unpaired electrons) that is
18 sensitive to external magnetic fields. This mechanism is well studied in birds (reviewed in
19 Wiltschko and Wiltschko, 2019) and has been recently considered as the leading hypothesis,
20 since it is supported by chemical, physical, and biological facts (see details in Worster et al.,
21 2017).

22 The third hypothesis relies on Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction (Faraday,
23 1832) and proposes that any movement of an animal in a constant magnetic field will induce
24 a constant voltage inside an electrically conductive part of its body. Hence, a magnetic signal
25 would be converted into an electric stimulus detectable by voltage-sensing cells, such as the
26 electroreceptors of elasmobranch fishes (i.e., ampullae of Lorenzini) (e.g., Kalmijn, 1982;
27 Meyer et al., 2005). This mechanism has not been investigated in invertebrate species, since
28 they have no identified electroreceptors. However, electromagnetic induction has been
29 studied in elasmobranchs and was recently proposed to underlie the navigation of pigeons
30 (Malkemper et al., 2019; Nimpf et al., 2019).

1 **2.2 Evidence for magneto and electroreception in crustaceans and molluscs**

2 Much work to date has been conducted on the Caribbean spiny lobster (*Panulirus*
3 *argus*), which displays autumnal mass migrations from shallow areas to open waters. Multiple
4 guideposts (i.e., visual, hydrodynamic, acoustical cues, bottom slope) are used by spiny
5 lobsters to maintain directionality through variable conditions (i.e., darkness, topography
6 variations, turbid water, and absence of surge) (Herrnking and McLean, 1971; Nevitt et al.,
7 1995; Walton and Herrnking, 1977). Lohmann et al. (1995) also found evidence of a polarity
8 compass sense (see Section 2), as lobsters were shown to be receptive (i.e., they deviated
9 from their initial course) to a reversal of the horizontal component of the GMF (magnetic north
10 becoming magnetic south). Shortly after, in a series of field experiments, Boles and Lohmann
11 (2003) also demonstrated that spiny lobsters are a magnetic map species. Indeed, after a
12 transfer to distant geographic areas (with visual and vibratory or magnetic cues deprivation),
13 adults of *P. argus* were able to orient with an angle consistent with their original location.
14 Results were similar when individuals were transferred and tested in fields replicating those
15 existing either 400 km north or south of the test site.

16 A magnetic compass (i.e., polarity) was also found in isopods and amphipods (reviewed
17 in Lohmann and Ernst, 2014; Ugolini and Pezzani, 1995). Amphipods migrate up and down the
18 beach with the tide along an axis perpendicular to the shoreline. This migration involves a
19 variety of cues (e.g., visual landmarks, sun and moon compass, beach slope, hydrostatic
20 pressure) whose use depends upon the environmental conditions (i.e., relative humidity, level
21 of light, animal condition, whether feeding or jumping) (Herrnking and McLean, 1971). Several
22 laboratory experiments showed that, under natural magnetic conditions (in complete
23 darkness), sand-hoppers (*Talitrus spp*) oriented in directions that coincided with the land-sea
24 axis of their home beach (Arendse and Kruyswijk, 1981). Additionally, when the ambient field
25 was rotated (Helmholtz coils), individuals shifted their orientation accordingly, and they
26 oriented randomly when it was cancelled (Arendse and Kruyswijk, 1981; Ugolini and Pardi,
27 1992). Sand-hoppers (*Talorchestia martensii*) were also observed to scan the horizontal
28 component of the magnetic field by oscillating their body axis, displaying 'body scanning'
29 (Ugolini, 2006). Subsequent experiments demonstrated that, when solar cues are lacking,
30 amphipods used the GMF as the dominant orientation cue (Ugolini, 2002). Similar findings

1 were reported in the amphipod *Orchestia cavimana* and the marine isopod *Idotea baltica*
2 *basteri* (Arendse and Barendregt, 1981; Ugolini and Pezzani, 1995).

3 To our knowledge, magneto-sensitivity has only been investigated in a single
4 nudibranch mollusc species, the sea slug (*Tritonia tetraquetra*, formerly *Tritonia diomedea*).
5 In a laboratory experiment, Lohmann and Willows (1987) observed the sea slug's orientation
6 inside a Y-maze with arms oriented either southward or eastward under an ambient magnetic
7 field. Results revealed that, in 80 % of the cases, nudibranchs aligned their bodies towards the
8 east. However, when the ambient field was rotated by 180° (i.e., the GMF east became west
9 and the south became north), nudibranchs lost their turning preference. Moreover, Popescu
10 and Willows (1999) suggested that, after being moved away from their feeding area due to
11 currents or predators, sea slugs could orient shoreward using geomagnetic cues. In addition,
12 *Tritonia tetraquetra* offered the first opportunity to study the neural circuitry underlying
13 magnetic orientation behaviour. Intracellular electrophysiological recordings indicated that
14 some of its neuron pairs altered their electrical activity after geomagnetic rotations (Cain et
15 al., 2006; Lohmann and Willows, 1991; Popescu and Willows, 1999; Wang et al., 2004, 2003).

16 In invertebrates, electric sensing of DC and AC low-frequency electric fields has only
17 been reported in freshwater crayfish, with the behaviour of *Cherax destructor* and
18 *Procambarus clarkii* (i.e., active behaviour with claws down, movements of the claws and
19 antennae) significantly modified in response to DC electric fields of 3 to 7 mV/m and AC fields
20 (i.e., 4, 10, and 100 Hz) and DC fields of 20 mV/cm, respectively. Unfortunately, the authors
21 failed to identify the specialised electroreceptors or the biological functions of the crayfish
22 electric sense, as individuals responded to very high fields compared to the typical fields of
23 biological relevance, from preys, predators, and conspecifics (Patullo and Macmillan, 2007;
24 Steullet et al., 2007). Patullo and Macmillan (2010) also reported electro-sensitivity (0.30 to
25 0.45 mV/cm, 3 to 20 Hz), defined by a significant reduction in body motion in *C. destructor* and
26 *C. quadricarinatus* and proposed that crayfish might use electric signals to monitor the
27 presence of a biological item of interest (e.g., food) and subsequently use other sensory
28 modalities to allow better information processing.

3. Responses of marine invertebrates to artificial magnetic fields

Whereas perception of the Earth's magnetic field by marine invertebrates is poorly documented, far fewer studies focus on their responses to artificial magnetic fields (e.g., produced by SPCs during their operation phase) (Taormina et al., 2018). As far as we know, no study has ever isolated the effects of anthropogenic electric fields from those of magnetic fields in marine invertebrate species. As such research is still in its infancy, studies assessing the effects of artificial magnetic fields have only been conducted at the individual scale. Hence, according to Boehlert and Gill (2010), these effects cannot be reported as impacts, since there is no evidence that such magnetic fields induce changes at the population or community level or in ecological processes. Below, we review field and laboratory studies investigating the effects of artificial magnetic fields on marine and freshwater invertebrates. We decided to classify studies according to species location relative to SPCs and the physiological and behavioural processes under investigation, rather than follow a phylogenetic classification, as the studies are largely unevenly distributed. Assumptions about the expected effects of magnetic fields on behaviour have been formulated by Isaacman and Daborn (2011) through a Pathways of Effect (PoE) model: these fields may lead to repulsion or attraction reactions, induce changes in movement patterns, and alter navigation and orientation in mobile species. Physiological studies are scarcer and focus on stress-related parameters, cellular and nuclear processes, and reproduction. We stress that most protocols involved the high-intensity fields that are expected in close vicinity to the cable (unlikely at the water sediment interface for buried cables) that were produced by a Helmholtz coil system (i.e., two magnetic coils that produce a region of a nearly uniform magnetic field at their centre).

Based on Bochert and Zettler (2004), the effects of magnetic fields on the survival rates of invertebrates are not of high concern and accordingly are not the subject of a detailed section. Indeed, no changes in the survival rates of North Sea prawn (*Crangon crangon*), two isopod species (*Saduria entomon* and *Sphaeroma hookeri*), round crab (*Rhithropanopeus harrisi*), or blue mussel (*Mytilus edulis*) were reported after long-term exposure to 3.7 mT static fields. Stankevičiūtė et al. (2019) obtained similar results with ragworm (*Hediste diversicolor*) and Baltic clam (*Limecola balthica*) after 12 days under an alternating field (i.e., 50 Hz, from 0.85 to 1.05 mT).

1 **3.1 Behavioural responses of the epifauna to artificial magnetic fields**

2 **3.1.1 Assessing attraction or repulsion towards artificial magnetic fields**

3 Several laboratory and field studies investigated the spatial distribution of
4 invertebrates in response to magnetic fields (produced by a Helmholtz coil system or real
5 SPCs) associated either with potential shelters (magnets) or with one area of a tank or cage.
6 Behavioural responses were only observed in four crustacean species. Indeed, larger
7 individuals of spiny lobster (*Panulirus argus*) selected control versus magnet-equipped dens
8 (703.1 mT DC for 15 min), potentially displaying signs of repulsion (Ernst and Lohmann, 2018).
9 However, attraction for magnet-equipped shelters was observed in two separate
10 experimental studies in the edible crab (*Cancer pagurus*) and the spiny cheek crayfish
11 (*Orconectes limosus*, freshwater species) (2.8 mT DC for 7 h or 800 μ T DC for 24 h, respectively)
12 (Scott et al., 2018; Tanski et al., 2005). The side selection behaviour displayed by *C. pagurus*
13 under control conditions disappeared when one side of the tank was exposed to a magnetic
14 field (3 electromagnets, 2.8 mT DC for 24 h). The authors suggested that the magnetic field
15 could stimulate shelter-seeking behaviour, thus preventing the crabs from settling in a specific
16 side. Similarly, Corte Rosaria and Martin (2010) observed a maximal aggregation of
17 *Barytelphusa canicularis* freshwater crabs close to a power supply source (50 Hz, other values
18 unavailable), from 60 to 90 min after its activation, which then decreased (until 150 min) as
19 the crabs slowly scattered and behaved as control individuals.

20 The following studies did not report any attraction or repulsion behaviour towards an
21 artificial magnetic field in eight crustacean species (distinct from those mentioned above), one
22 echinoderm species, and two mollusc species. In a field experiment off the coast of Southern
23 California, the spatial distribution in a cage of either red (*Cancer productus*) or yellow rock
24 crab (*Metacarcinus anthonyi*) was not altered when located above an energised cable (46.2
25 μ T to 80 μ T at 60 Hz AC, for 1 h, cable features missing) versus an almost non-energised cable
26 (0.2 μ T) (Love et al., 2015). Similarly, the catchability of *C. productus* and the Dungeness crab
27 (*Metacarcinus magister*) was unaffected by the presence of an operating cable at the entrance
28 of a baited pot (cable 1: 35 kV, 13.8 to 116.8 μ T at 60 Hz AC; cable 2: 69 kV, 24.6 to 42.8 kV at
29 60 Hz AC) (Love et al., 2017). Supporting these results, Bochert and Zettler (2006) found no
30 changes in the spatial distribution of the North Sea prawn (*Crangon crangon*), the isopod
31 (*Saduria entomon*), the round crab (*Rhithropanopeus harrisi*), and the common starfish

1 (*Asturia rubens*) in response to the unilateral magnetic field exposure of their tank (2.8 mT DC
2 for 1.5 h). Likewise, neither the Dungeness crab (*M. magister*) nor the American lobster
3 (*Homarus americanus*) modified their use of space after exposure to a magnetic field gradient
4 (single Helmholtz coil located centrally and producing a maximal DC magnetic field of 1.01 mT,
5 decaying to 0.05 mT at both ends of the tank, over 24 h) (Woodruff et al., 2013, 2012). In a
6 similar design (i.e AC and DC magnetic field gradients with a maximal intensity of 200 μ T
7 decaying to GMF values), juvenile European lobsters (*Homarus gammarus*) did not alter
8 neither their exploratory behaviour (defined by mean velocity, total distance travelled and
9 activity ratio) nor their shelter seeking behaviour (i.e time to find shelter, time spent in
10 exposed vs control shelter) compared to control individuals (Taormina et al., 2020). The
11 authors reached the same conclusions when testing (same procedure) the lobsters after one
12 week of exposure to a homogeneous magnetic field of $225 \pm 5\mu$ T, either AC or DC. Finally,
13 Cada et al. (2011) introduced individuals of the clam *Corbicula fluminea* and the snail *Elimia*
14 *clavaeformis* (freshwater epigean fauna) into a tank with two contrasting areas, one
15 exposed to 36 mT DC magnetic field generated by magnets and one control. They did not
16 observe any magnetic field influence on the spatial distribution of these two freshwater
17 molluscs over a 48 h period.

18 **3.1.2 Assessing the effects on movement patterns and activity rhythm**

19 Both laboratory and field studies found some effects of magnetic fields on the
20 movement patterns and activity rhythm of one crustacean species. Hutchison et al. (2018)
21 described the movement patterns of the American lobster (*Homarus americanus*) inside a
22 wide enclosure located above an energised cable (HVDC buried at 2 m depth, maximum
23 values: 330 MW, 300 kV, 1175 A, for 12–24 h) generating magnetic fields ranging from
24 approximately 99.2 to 116.6 μ T. In this enclosure, lobsters spent more time in the centre and
25 displayed more directional changes than those in the control enclosure (GMF of 51.3 μ T).

26 In contrast, Woodruff et al., 2013 found no significant effect of magnetic exposure on
27 the activity rhythm (i.e., frequency of changes between stationary and active behaviours) of
28 the Dungeness crab (*M. magister*) after 72 h of exposure to a magnetic field gradient (1100
29 μ T DC decaying to approximately 330 μ T). Similarly, Scott et al. (2018) did not detect any
30 modification of the time spent in movement under a 3 mT exposure (7 h) for juveniles of the
31 edible crab (*C. pagurus*).

1 **3.1.3 Assessing the effects on migration process**

2 To our knowledge, only Tomanova and Vacha (2016) investigated the effect of
3 magnetic fields on short-range migrations in invertebrates. They observed that, after a 1-
4 minute exposure to very weak radiofrequency electromagnetic fields (2 and 20 nT at 1 MHz
5 AC), *Gondogenia antarctica* amphipods became unable to orient in the direction of their natal
6 beach in the manner of non-exposed individuals.

7 **3.2 Behavioural responses of the infauna**

8 **3.2.1 Assessing attraction or repulsion towards artificial magnetic fields**

9 Polychaetes, represented by the ragworm *Hediste diversicolor*, have been the only
10 group of infauna studied from a behavioural perspective. Bochert and Zettler (2006) studied
11 their spatial distribution with either exposed (2.8 mT DC produced by ring coils) or non-
12 exposed sides of a tank. No difference was detected between the spatial patterns of the two
13 treatments in the 22 h following the 1.5 h exposure duration. This result was also confirmed
14 by the experiment of Jakubowska et al. (2019) with different magnetic fields (up to 1 mT 50
15 Hz, AC) over 8 days.

16 **3.2.2 Assessing the effect on burrowing and emerging behaviour**

17 The burrowing behaviour in many invertebrate species, assessed through burial depth
18 and sediment reworking activity, is considered to be a very sensitive indicator of sediment
19 toxicity or water-borne toxicant (Boyd et al., 2002). In the lab, Jakubowska et al. (2019)
20 observed that larger amounts of tracer particles (i.e., fractionated dyed sand added to the
21 sediment surface at the start of the experiment) were found deeper (below 3 cm) after 8 days
22 in the sediment of cores exposed to an alternating magnetic field (1 mT at 50 Hz, Helmholtz
23 coil system) compared to control cores, both containing *H. diversicolor* adults. This
24 observation could not be explained by exposed individuals going deeper into the sediment,
25 since they reached a maximal depth similar to control ragworms. According to the authors,
26 one possible explanation could be an increase in the bioturbation activity of exposed
27 polychaetes, leading to a stronger mixing of particles (e.g., more time spent in deeper
28 sediment layers, more upward and downward migrations). This explanation is reinforced by
29 the fact that control ragworms colonised mostly the upper sediment layers, whereas the

1 magnetic field-exposed individuals were mostly found below such layers. Finally, the
2 magnetic treatment did not modify the emerging response of polychaetes.

3 **3.3 Physiological responses of the epifauna to artificial magnetic fields**

4 Until now, only the work of Scott et al. (2018) and Bochert and Zettler (2006) described
5 an integrative approach for assessing artificial magnetic field effects by coupling the
6 measurements of physiological and behavioural parameters, with an emphasis on stress-
7 related parameters, physiological mechanisms involved in circadian rhythms, cellular division,
8 reproduction, and development.

9 **3.3.1 Effects on stress-related parameters and circadian rhythm**

10 First, no changes have been reported in the oxygen consumption rate of adults of
11 North Sea (*Crangon crangon*) and Baltic prawns (*Palaemon squilla*) and juveniles of edible crab
12 (*Cancer pagurus*) during magnetic field treatments (prawns: 3.2 mT DC or 50 Hz AC over 3 h;
13 edible crab: 2.8 mT over 6 h) (Bochert and Zettler, 2006; Scott et al., 2018). However, for *C.*
14 *pagurus*, the normal night-time increases in D-Lactate and D-Glucose concentrations in
15 haemolymph were no longer observed in exposed juveniles (Scott et al., 2018). One possible
16 explanation proposed by the authors could be linked to a pause in the secretion of melatonin,
17 a neuropeptide involved in biological rhythms. They also investigated whether a high-strength
18 magnetic field might cause an increase in haemocyanin concentrations, as in hypoxic
19 conditions, and they found no significant effect.

20 **3.3.2 Effects on cellular division processes**

21 Cellular processes in Mediterranean mussel (*Mytilus galloprovincialis*) were disrupted
22 after a short-term (i.e., 15 to 30 min) magnetic field exposure (300–1000 μ T at 50 Hz AC)
23 (Malagoli et al., 2004, 2003; Ottaviani et al., 2002). Particularly, the authors reported that
24 magnetic fields ranging from 300 to 1000 μ T delay shape changes in immunocytes (i.e., a step
25 in a phagocytosis reaction), suggesting alterations in the immune system (Ottaviani et al.,
26 2002). However, subsequent experiments demonstrated the reversibility of the phenomenon
27 with the activation of a 'stress pathway' (i.e., heat shock protein synthesis), clearly evident
28 with a 400 μ T exposure but lacking with higher values (Malagoli et al., 2004, 2003).

29 **3.3.3 Effects on development and reproduction processes**

1 A high-strength magnetic field applied during sea urchins' (echinoderms group)
2 (*Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* and *Lytechinus pictus*) fertilisation (permanent magnets: 0.1
3 mT at 60 Hz AC for 23 h and 30 mT DC for 26 h, respectively) delayed cell division in embryos
4 (Levin and Ernst, 1997; Zimmerman et al., 1990). In addition, Levin and Ernst (1997)
5 emphasised an increase in developmental abnormalities, but only in *L. pictus* (30 mT DC and
6 0.39 mT at 60 Hz AC, for 48–94 h). However, a 93-day exposure (DC up to 3.7 mT) throughout
7 the reproductive period of the blue mussel (*Mytilus edulis*) did not affect either its condition
8 index or its gonad development index (Bochert and Zettler, 2004).

9 **3.4 Physiological responses of the infauna to artificial magnetic fields**

10 The recent laboratory study of Jakubowska et al. (2019) was conducted on marine
11 ragworm (*Hediste diversicolor*) exposed to a magnetic field over an 8-day period (up to 1 mT
12 at 50 Hz AC). Whereas food consumption and respiration rates did not significantly change,
13 the ammonia excretion rate significantly decreased for exposed worms compared to control
14 worms. The authors suggested that *H. diversicolor* is unable to perceive high-strength
15 magnetic fields as stressors, but they did not provide any explanatory hypothesis for this first
16 report of one alteration of the excretion function. Similarly, Stankevičiūtė et al. (2019) showed
17 an elevation in genotoxic effects in worm coelomocytes in response to an alternating field (up
18 to 1 mT at 50 Hz AC, for 12 days). They also observed an induction or increase in both
19 genotoxic and cytotoxic effects in gill cells of the Baltic clam (*L. balthica*).

20 **4. Discussion**

21 **4.1 Main findings**

22 Over the past decade, the scientific literature on artificial magnetic fields and marine
23 invertebrates' responses has improved markedly, although many uncertainties remain (see
24 **Table 2**). There is a real lack of data for assessing the influence of artificial electric fields on
25 invertebrates, which is partly attributable to the insufficient knowledge regarding their
26 electric-sensing abilities. Nevertheless, as electromagnetic induction theory, commonly
27 proposed for elasmobranch magneto-sensitivity, is newly discussed in other taxa (i.e.
28 pigeons), this could stimulate the search for electroreceptors in marine invertebrate species.

1 Whereas the multi-species study (e.g., seven species of decapod and isopod
2 crustaceans, bivalve molluscs) of Bochert and Zettler (2006) highlights that magnetic fields
3 have a minor impact on the survival of adult stages, 75 % of the studies reviewed here show
4 significant effects on short-term physiological and behavioural responses. When reviewing the
5 existing literature, we chose to make a clear distinction between the processes studied at the
6 physiological and behavioural levels, since they were generally not considered together. In
7 contrast to fish species (Formicki and Perkowski, 1998; Sedigh et al., 2019), in three distinct
8 publications, none of the physiological parameters (e.g., oxygen consumption, respiration
9 rate, food consumption) measured to detect stress responses were altered in the three
10 crustaceans and the single polychaetes species studied (see Bochert and Zettler, 2006;
11 Jakubowska et al., 2019; Scott et al., 2018). Then, Scott et al. (2018), working on *Cancer*
12 *pagurus* crab, also suggested that magnetic fields might impair the secretion of D-Lactate and
13 D-Glucose enzymes, which are under the control of melatonin, a well-known hormone implied
14 to act on biological rhythms of invertebrates (i.e., seasonal reproduction, moulting, and
15 activity rhythms). This hypothesis has been largely addressed in vertebrates, but research
16 findings were highly contradictory (details reviewed in Lewczuk et al., 2014). As yet,
17 observations suggest no effects of long-term exposure to magnetic fields on the reproductive
18 status of the blue mussel (*Mytilus edulis*) (Bochert and Zettler, 2006). Panagopoulos et al.
19 (2002) suggested that AC fields are more detrimental to biological elements than DC fields,
20 which is confirmed since cellular alterations and developmental delays are mainly observed
21 when adult and embryo stages of several taxa (echinoderms, bivalve molluscs) are submitted
22 to alternating fields (Levin and Ernst, 1997; Malagoli et al., 2004, 2003; Ottaviani et al., 2002;
23 Zimmerman et al., 1990).

24 With regard to behavioural responses, several laboratory and field experiments
25 reported various species-specific behavioural changes in the best-studied crustacean taxa,
26 (e.g., attraction, repulsion, effects on spatial distribution) (Corte Rosaria and Martin, 2010;
27 Ernst and Lohmann, 2018; Hutchison et al., 2018; Scott et al., 2018; Tanski et al., 2005). For
28 example, 50 % of the papers provided support for an attraction towards magnetic fields in
29 three crustacean species. Otherwise, 30 % of the papers found no effects of magnetic fields
30 while studying more taxonomic groups (i.e., crustaceans, echinoderms, molluscs, and

1 polychaetes). One paper found repulsive behaviour (i.e., spiny lobster, *P. argus*) and another
2 reported orientation disruption (i.e., *Gondogenia antarctica* amphipods).

3 Caution should be exercised in the interpretation of such findings, since they do not
4 necessarily reveal real biological impacts. To be considered impactful, a detected effect should
5 have consequences at the population or community level (Boehlert and Gill, 2010). Because
6 more than 75 % of the works reviewed here relate to controlled experiments made at the
7 individual level, it is therefore not possible to conclude if artificial magnetic fields effectively
8 impact marine invertebrates' populations.

9 **4.2 What do we need to improve?**

10 **4.2.1 Choice of model species**

11 Up to now, research efforts have been made on very heterogeneous invertebrate taxa.
12 Over the 24 species studied, 65 % are crustaceans, mainly decapods, and for other taxa, often
13 one single and redundant species is used among studies (e.g., *Hediste diversicolor*,
14 polychaetes). Based on current knowledge, magnetic fields induce species-specific responses.
15 Caution is thus needed when extrapolating the results obtained for a single species to an
16 entire group of taxa. Presently, the main objective of the scientific community is to provide
17 relevant study for ocean stakeholders. We thus suggest that species be classified and studied
18 according to the duration and intensity of their exposure to magnetic and electric fields from
19 cables. The first step in this approach should be to clearly categorise the exposure levels as a
20 function of SPC features (e.g., AC or DC, high or medium voltage, length, current intensity,
21 buried or laid on the sea bed) in order to define the spatial patterns of magnetic emissions
22 (surface impacted, depth). For example, artificial magnetic fields cover larger areas with wind
23 farm cabling (i.e., larger cable number) than with exportation or interconnection cables. In
24 this context, it is crucial to link those elements with abiotic and biotic criteria to eventually
25 define the associated fauna (**Figure 2**). Then, particular attention should be paid to the
26 burrowing and sessile species (e.g. worms, bivalves), the first being exposed to the strongest
27 emissions from buried cables, and the second being constrained to remain in the exposed
28 area. Shelter-seeking species (lobsters, crabs) should also be a priority since they might find
29 refuges in the cable protective structures. Other mobile species (e.g. cuttlefish, squids, sea
30 slugs) are less at risk since their exposure is expected to be very short and occasional.

1 Ubiquitous species should be preferentially selected for large-scale results extrapolation. So
2 far, species selection did not result from a standardised procedure, and most work has been
3 conducted on bio-indicator species commonly used to monitor marine environment pollution
4 (e.g., *Hediste diversicolor*, *Mytilus edulis*, *Crangon crangon*) or commercial species (i.e., *Cancer*
5 *pagurus*, *Homarus americanus*, *Panulirus argus*) (Bat et al., 2013; Garza Martinez, 2009;
6 Quintaneiro et al., 2006). Such choices have not always been judicious, as for brackish species
7 (*Hediste diversicolor* and *Crangon crangon*), since their main habitat (i.e., estuarine or mud
8 flat) is usually excluded from cable laying due to high maritime traffic or ecological reasons
9 (nursery). Another criterion for species selection should be the probability of sensing magnetic
10 cues whose functional role is assumed to be used for orientation, navigation, and homing.
11 Under such a hypothesis, magneto-sensitivity should be less developed in low-mobility species
12 or those unable to undertake oriented movements (i.e., bivalve molluscs).

13 **4.2.2 Integrating artificial magnetic fields with SPC operating cycles and organism life-cycle** 14 **stages**

15 One tricky aspect of laboratory experiments is setting the temporal patterns of
16 magnetic field treatment to be consistent with those encountered on the field, both in terms
17 of occurrence (single or multiple) and duration (occasional or chronic) (Gill et al., 2014; Orr,
18 2016). For example, with tidal energy, electricity production is cyclical and the main variations
19 are linked to neap and spring cycles. In contrast, with wind energy, electricity production is
20 highly variable, although predictions are possible. For example, based on the wind seasonal
21 cycle, there is higher energy production during winter and spring than during summer in
22 Europe (Jourdier, 2015). Because electricity flows with interconnection SPCs are quite
23 constant, exposed sedentary (infaunal bivalves), shelter-seeking (lobsters, crabs), or sessile
24 species (mussels, barnacles, etc.) should receive a chronic and long-term exposure to
25 magnetic fields. The potential associated effects are linked to the tolerance thresholds of
26 species. If magnetic fields act at the physiological scale, individual fitness might be affected.
27 In contrast, if tolerated, the magnetic signature of SPCs could also drive learning processes
28 and eventually habituation processes in migrating species (Rankin et al., 2009).

29 For unburied cables, protective structures (3D structure and crevices) could also
30 provide valuable habitats for egg-laying masses, whose embryonic development would be

1 potentially influenced by magnetic fields. As mentioned above, artificial magnetic fields could
2 induce life-stage specific responses (e.g., at the reproductive or embryonic stage). Still, studies
3 on early-life stages of invertebrate (larvae, post-larvae, or juveniles) are extremely scarce.
4 Most marine invertebrates (55 % to 85 %) display complex benthic-planktonic life cycles
5 involving a quite long planktonic larval phase (from weeks to months), followed by a benthic
6 phase as post-larval, juvenile and adult forms (Calado and Costa Leal, 2015). The sensitivity of
7 invertebrates to magnetic field exposures should thus not only relate to the probability of
8 being in proximity to SPCs and their current intensity but also to the developmental stage of
9 a given species.

10 **4.2.3 Measuring and selecting relevant magnetic and electric field values**

11 Currently, accessing magnetic field measurements is very challenging, especially with
12 real operating cables. As shown in **Table 1**, most data originate from theoretical calculations
13 based on values used for cable peak performance (i.e., maximal intensity, power, voltage),
14 which remain occasional under natural conditions. Consequently, most laboratory studies
15 have been conducted with very high magnetic field values (i.e., millitesla range, $1 \text{ mT} = 10^{-3}$
16 μT), only reached in peak production and in close vicinity of the cable surface. Hence, these
17 experimental designs do not reflect the conditions encountered by invertebrates within the
18 benthic boundary layer. Variations in the tested magnetic field values could thus explain the
19 often opposite results of laboratory versus field experiments. With the example of crustaceans
20 tested in the laboratory, the high values of 0.8 to 2.8 mT DC fields have induced attraction
21 behaviours, whereas repulsive responses were observed in one sole study with a magnetic
22 field of 703.1 mT, a largely irrelevant value for SPCs. Field studies did not show any significant
23 effects of magnetic fields associated with real SPCs (60 Hz AC fields; see **Table 2**).

24 Among the few studies comparing *in situ* measurements with model prediction data,
25 Hutchison et al. (2018) found both consistency between their average and extreme values as
26 well as attenuation of the magnetic field with distance. For example, a predicted $2 \mu\text{T}$ value
27 (deviation from the GMF), corresponding to a distance of about 2 m above an HVDC cable
28 operating at 345 A, was close to the measured values (i.e., 2.8 to $3.8 \mu\text{T}$). At the full power of
29 1175 A, the maximal difference between the measured and predicted values was around $66 \mu\text{T}$.
30 However, Otremba et al. (2019) reported values as high as 6 mT in the close vicinity of DC
31 transmission systems. In case of induced electric fields, Hutchison et al. (2018) reported values

1 ranging from 0.02 mV/m to 0.25 mV/m above the cable (AC three-phase transmission at full
2 power) (**Table 1**). To date, the magnetic and electric field intensity really experienced by
3 marine fauna constitutes a very controversial topic with little accessible data. In addition,
4 comparisons between the effects of static versus alternating fields are also lacking. For one 50
5 Hz AC cable, Hutchison et al. (2018) have detected AC field harmonics of higher frequencies
6 whose potential interaction with marine organisms is unknown. Most laboratory studies have
7 only assessed the effects of AC fields with 50 or 60 Hz frequencies, though the magneto- and
8 electro-sensitivity of marine organisms might be frequency dependent. As bioelectric fields
9 (produced by potential preys, predators and conspecifics) are usually less than 10 Hz (see
10 Bedore and Kajiura, 2013), we expect marine organisms to be sensitive to this range of values.
11 Testing one current intensity of 20 mV/cm, Steullet et al. (2007) indeed reported evidence for
12 electric sensing in crayfish (*Procambarus clarkii*) at 4 Hz, 10 Hz and 100 Hz frequencies,
13 behavioural reactions being stronger at 4 Hz. Moreover, Patullo and Macmillan (2010)
14 observed an effect of frequency in *Cherax destructor* and *Cherax quadricarinatus*, that
15 displayed behavioural changes at 3 Hz and 20 Hz frequencies but no at 40 Hz (0.3 to 0.45
16 mV/cm).

17 In this context, there is a crucial need to define new standardised experimental designs
18 to assess specific responses as a function of magnetic field features (AC or DC, intensity,
19 frequency, etc.). These experiments should be conducted on a single species based on realistic
20 *in situ* situations, as is done for dose-response ecotoxicological research. Actually, some
21 studies do not accurately describe the details of the measurement operations (distance from
22 the cable, cable type, and intensity), making comparisons of laboratory behavioural responses
23 almost impossible and highly speculative.

24 **4.2.4 Improving experimental design to assess the effects of artificial magnetic fields**

25 As magnetoreception is assumed to be involved in orientation mechanisms, the
26 responses of species might not occur instantly; as with natural conditions, the magnetic field
27 sources are not expected to threaten the organism's survival. It is thus crucial to design
28 experimental protocols with the view of detecting potential subtle behavioural changes. We
29 thereafter detail the critical steps of an experimental design with an emphasis on some of the
30 common pitfalls met in both laboratory and field studies, proper to the study of artificial
31 magnetic fields. Tricky in controlled experiments, setting a suitable control treatment is even

1 more difficult to do in large-scale field studies. As an example, some field studies are based on
2 the comparison of one 'control' and one 'magnetic treatment'; these consist of one un-
3 energised versus one energised cable, respectively, located under similar habitat and depth
4 conditions. Because identical abiotic and biotic local conditions are quite impossible in the
5 field, most *in situ* studies should integrate replicates of the different treatments (e.g., 3 distinct
6 sites per control and also 3 per energised cable) as well as monitor the local environmental
7 parameters (e.g., hydrodynamism, temperature, currents). If not, an observed attraction or
8 repulsion (or a behavioural change) with exposure to an energised cable could in fact be a
9 response to confounding factors such as visual, olfactory, acoustic, or hydrodynamic cues and
10 may lead to wrong conclusions. Considering this perspective, we think that laboratory studies
11 should be favoured to provide reliable results and reproducible conditions, especially as data
12 on the potential magnetic sense of invertebrate species is lacking. However, the sensitivity
13 and robustness of experimental studies are strongly dependent on the replication of
14 treatments that integrate and limit the stochastic component (i.e., among-replicate variability,
15 random events) (Hulbert, 1984). In many works, the results are not valid as there was no
16 replication of treatments. Moreover, randomisation of treatment assignments must be
17 carefully applied. For instance, tank sides exposed to a magnetic field should vary and be
18 randomised through the experiment to guarantee a regular distribution of area-specific
19 responses among the treatments (Milinski, 1997). As most studies use an imposing Helmholtz
20 coil system, whether species might be influenced by the system itself should be monitored
21 and may require an acclimation period prior to the experiment (i.e., without a magnetic field).
22 Finally, because of the spatial constraints linked to the Helmholtz coil system, there is a
23 temptation for scientists to include multiple samples per experimental unit (i.e., per tank) and
24 subsequently treat them as independent samples. The main consequence of this is
25 pseudoreplication with subsequent biased results (Hulbert, 1984; Milinski, 1997). That was
26 not the case in Ernst and Lohmann (2018) or Jakubowska et al. (2019), who tested organisms
27 individually or used several independent containers.

28 **Conclusion**

29 To conclude, renewable energy developers, regulators, scientists, engineers, and
30 ocean stakeholders must work together to reach the common objective of clean renewable
31 energy. The scientific community clearly needs better communication of magnetic and electric

1 fields and *in situ* measurements in relation with the power production cycle, since such
2 uncertainties are a significant barrier to research progress. Operators and developers should
3 facilitate data collection to feed experiments that would be more relevant both at the
4 ecological and technical level. Also, as induced electric fields are inherent to SPC operations,
5 they should not be neglected but rather prioritised in future research projects. Future
6 research should target a restricted number of species with the highest probability of exposure,
7 both in term of duration (mobile versus sessile) and location (epifauna versus infauna). Further
8 work is thus required to assess the effects of magnetic and electric fields on basic ecological
9 functions, such as reproduction, feeding, or habitat selection, before any additional studies
10 are conducted at the population level (distribution, demography).

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Figure 1. Scheme of the electrical connection of an offshore wind park and associated voltages (V) (inspired by <https://rte-france.com>).

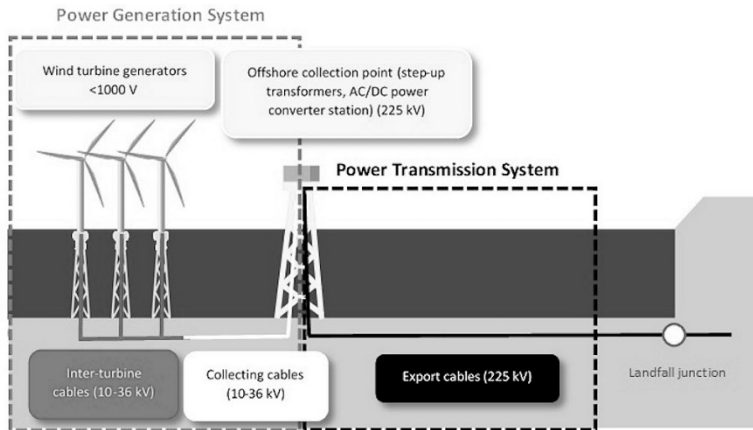


Figure 2. General distribution of some invertebrate species according to the theoretical values of magnetic fields emitted by 225 kV buried (1 m) and unbursed single-conductor cables, energized with an intensity of 1000 A (diameter: 27 cm). Magnetic field intensities were calculated with the following formula: $B = \frac{\mu \mu_0}{2\pi r} I$; B is the magnetic induction (T), μ is the relative magnetic permeability of the medium, μ_0 is the vacuum permeability ($4\pi \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ V s A}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$), I is the current intensity (A) and r is the distance from the centre of the wire (m) (formula from Otremba et al., 2019).

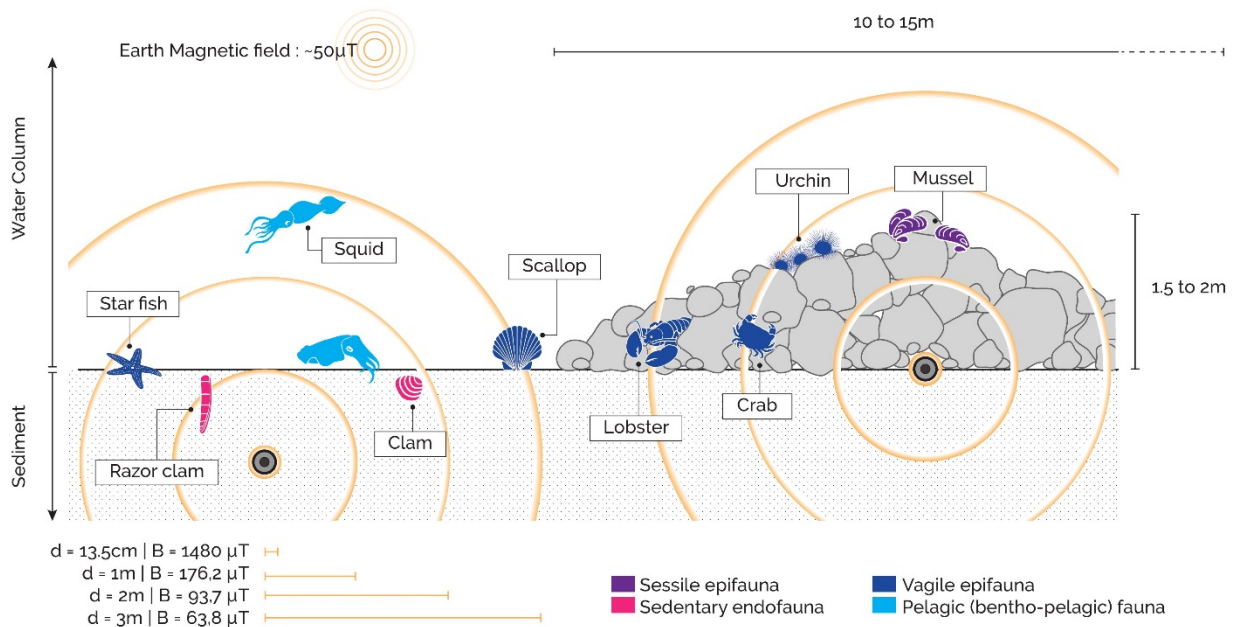


Table 1. Magnetic induction of various power transmission systems obtained both by calculation (in bold) and field measurements.

Power transmission system	Capacity (A, kV, MW, Hz)	Distance from the cable (m)	Magnetic induction (μT)	Reference
Earth's magnetic field (GMF)			30-70 μT	Heilig, 2018
Monopolar DC	500 A	Surface (0 m) 5 m above 20 m above	2000 μT 20 μT 5 μT	ACRES, 2006 in Meißner <i>et al.</i> , 2006
	1200 A (312 MW at 260 kV; 370 MW at 280 kV)	Surface 5 m above	5000 μT 50 μT	
	1500 A	On the seabed 5 m above the seabed 200 m above the seabed (burial depth not found)	300 μT 50 μT 13 μT	Koops, 2000 in Meißner <i>et al.</i> , 2006
			Surface 20 m from the cable	>200 μT <20 μT
DC double case system (separated by 10 m)	1330A	Surface 5 m from one cable	>500 μT <50 μT	
AC three-phase		Surface 0.4 m	>250 0 μT (+ GMF)	

	132 kV, 350 A, 50 Hz	Surface	1.6 μT	CMACS, 2003
	11 kV, 60 A, 50 Hz	Surface 5 m from the cable	0.055 μ T 0.046 μ T	
	33 kV, 50 A, 50 Hz	Surface 5 m from the cable 400 m from the cable	0.050 μ T 0.012 μ T 0.00005 μ T (background levels)	
AC XLEP	33 kV, 641 A	Surface 2.5 m from the cable	1.7 μT 0.61 μT	
AC three-core PEX-composite cable	600 A, 132 kV	2 m above the cable	5 μT	HVIT, 2004 in Meißner <i>et al.</i> , 2006
AC cables (values obtained from a model based on the properties of 10 cables)		On the seabed (cable buried at 1 m depth)	7.85 μT	Normandeau <i>et al.</i> , 2011
DC cables (values obtained from a model based on the properties of 8 cables)		On the seabed (cable buried at 1 m depth)	78.27 μT	
AC three-phase (XLPE cable)	265 A, 33 kV	On the seabed (cable buried at 1.5 m depth)	1.5 μT	Gill <i>et al.</i> , 2005 and Gill <i>et al.</i> , 2010
	132.5 A, 33 kV	On the seabed (cable buried at 1.5 m depth)	0.9 μT	
	350 A, 132 kV	Surface	1.6 μT	COWRIE, 2003
HVDC (values obtained from field measurement)	345 A, 300 kV	On the seabed (cable buried at about 2 m depth)	3.8 μ T (average deviation from the GMF for several measurements along the cable), max = 18.7 μ T	Hutchison <i>et al.</i> , 2018

	1320 A, 500 kV	On the seabed (cable buried at about 1.2-1.8 m depth)	6.8 μ T (average deviation from the GMF for several measurements along the cable), max= 20.7 μ T	Hutchison <i>et al.</i> , 2018
AC Three-phase cables	502 A per conductor	On the seabed	0.005 to 3.1 μ T (average values)	

Table 2. Summary of studies investigating the effects of artificial magnetic fields.

Type of response considered	Group	Species	Life stage	Lifestyle	Characteristics of AMF exposure		Observed effects	Reference
					Duration	Magnetic induction (mT)		
Survival	Crustaceans	North Sea prawn (<i>Crangon crangon</i>)	Adult	Vagile epifauna	49 days	3.7 mT DC	None	Bochert and Zettler (2006)
		Isopod (<i>Saduria entomon</i>)			93 days			
		Isopod (<i>Sphaeroma hookeri</i>)			34 days			
		Round crab (<i>Rhithropanopeus harrisi</i>)			57 days			
	Molluscs	Blue mussel (<i>Mytilus edulis</i>)		Sessile epifauna	52 days			
		Baltic clam (<i>Limecola balthica</i>)						
Polychaetes	Ragworm (<i>Hediste diversicolor</i>)	Sedentary endofauna	12 days	12 days	0.85 to 1.05 mT 50 Hz AC	Jakubowska et al. (2019)		
Physiological	Crustaceans	North Sea prawn (<i>Crangon crangon</i>)	Vagile epifauna	3 hours	3.2 mT DC and 50 Hz AC	No effects on oxygen consumption rate	Bochert and Zettler (2006)	
		Baltic prawn (<i>Palaemon squilla</i>)						

Physiological	Crustaceans	Edible crab (<i>Cancer pagurus</i>)	Juvenile	Vagile epifauna	6 hours	2.8 mT DC	No effects either on oxygen consumption rate and haemocyanin concentrations Suppression of night rises in D-lactate and D-glucose concentrations	Scott <i>et al.</i> (2018)
	Molluscs	Mediterranean mussel (<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>)	Adult	Sessile epifauna	15-30 minutes	0.3-1 mT 50 Hz AC	Disruption of cellular processes	Ottaviani <i>et al.</i> (2002) Malagoli <i>et al.</i> (2003, 2004)
		Blue mussel (<i>Mytilus edulis</i>)			93 days	3.7 mT DC	No effects either on the condition index nor the gonad development index	Bochert and Zettler (2006)
		Baltic clam (<i>L. balthica</i>)		Sedentary endofauna	12 days	1 mT 50 Hz AC	Increase in genotoxic and cytotoxic effects	Stankevičiūtė <i>et al.</i> (2019)
	Echinoderms	Sea urchin (<i>Strongylocentrotus purpuratus</i>)	Embryo	Pelagic fauna	23 hours	0.1 mT 60 Hz AC (permanent magnets)	Delay in cell division	Zimmerman (1990)

	Echinoderms	Sea urchin (<i>Strongylocentrotus purpuratus</i>)	Embryo	Pelagic fauna	26 hours	30 mT DC (permanent magnets)	Delay in cell division	Levin and Ernst (1997)
		Sea urchin (<i>Lytechinus pictus</i>)			48 – 94 hours	30 mT DC (permanent magnets)	Delay in cell division Increase in development abnormalities	
						0.39 mT AC 60 Hz (permanent magnets)	Increase in development abnormalities	
	Polychaetes	Ragworm (<i>Hediste diversicolor</i>)	Adult	Sedentary endofauna	8 days	1 mT 50 Hz AC	No effects on food consumption and respiration rates but increase in ammonia excretion	Jakubowska <i>et al.</i> (2019)
					12 days		Increase in genotoxic and cytotoxic effects	Stankevičiūtė <i>et al.</i> (2019)
	Behavioural	Crustaceans	Edible crab (<i>Cancer pagurus</i>)	Juvenile	Vagile epifauna	7 hours	2.8 mT DC	Attraction behaviour
24 hours						Suppression of side selection behaviour		
Spiny cheek crayfish (<i>Oronectes limosus</i>)			Adult	24 hours		0.8 mT	Attraction behaviour	Tanski <i>et al.</i> (2005)
Spiny lobster (<i>Panulirus argus</i>)				15 minutes		703.1 mT	Repulsion behaviour	Ernst and Lohmann (2018)
Freshwater crab (<i>Barythelphusa canicularis</i>)				2h30 min		50 Hz AC	Attraction and aggregation behaviour	Rosaria and Martin (2010)
North Sea prawn (<i>Crangon crangon</i>)				1.5 hours		2.7 mT DC	No effects on spatial distribution	Bochert and Zettler (2006)
Isopod (<i>Saduria entomon</i>)								

Behavioural	Crustaceans	Round crab (<i>Rhithropanopeus harrisi</i>)	Adult	Vagile epifauna	1.5 hours	2.7 mT DC	No effects on spatial distribution	Bochert and Zettler (2006)
		American lobster (<i>Homarus americanus</i>)			12-24 hours	<i>In situ</i> Real cable: 0.01 to 0.1 mT	Behavioural changes	Hutchison <i>et al.</i> (2018)
		Dungeness crab (<i>Metacarcinus magister</i>)			24 hours	1.01 mT DC	No effects on spatial distribution	Woodruff <i>et al.</i> (2012,2013)
			3-4 days	1.01 mT DC	No effects on spatial distribution and no effect of the level of agitation			
			Adult	Vagile epifauna	Hatched	1.01 mT DC	No effect on catchability	Love <i>et al.</i> (2017)
		Red crab (<i>Cancer productus</i>)	Adult	Vagile epifauna				
			Adult	Vagile epifauna	1 hour	<i>In situ</i> Real cable: 0.042 to 0.08 mT 60 Hz AC	No effect on spatial distribution	Love <i>et al.</i> (2015)

	Crustaceans	Amphipod (<i>Gondogenia antartica</i>)	Adult	Vagile epifauna	1 minute	2.10 ⁻⁹ to 20.10 ⁻⁹ mT 1 MHz AC	Disruption of orientation abilities	Tomanova and Vacha (2017)
	Echinoderms	Common starfish (<i>Asturia rubens</i>)			1.5 hours	2.8 mT DC	No effect on spatial distribution	Bochert and Zettler (2006)
	Molluscs	Snail (<i>Elimia clavaeformis</i>)			48 hours	36 mT DC	No effect on spatial distribution	Cada <i>et al.</i> (2011)
		Clam (<i>Corbicula fluminea</i>)						
	Polychaetes	Ragworm (<i>Hediste diversicolor</i>)		Sendentary endofauna	1.5 h	2.8 mT	No effect on spatial distribution	Bochert and Zettler (2006)
					8 days	1 mT 50 Hz AC	No effect on spatial distribution but behavioural changes	Jakubowska <i>et al.</i> (2019)

