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Localised anthropogenic wake generates a predictable foraging hotspot for top predators

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1 Localised anthropogenic wake generates a predictable foraging hotspot
2 for top predators

3

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 With rapid expansion of offshore renewables, a broader perspective on their ecological implications
15 is timely to predict marine predator responses to environmental change. Strong currents interacting
16 with man-made structures can generate complex three-dimensional wakes that can make prey more
17 accessible. Whether localised wakes from man-made structures can generate predictable foraging
18 hotspots for top predators is unknown. Here we address this question by quantifying the relative use
19 of an anthropogenically-generated wake by surface foraging seabirds, verified using drone transects
20 and hydroacoustics. We show that the wake of a tidal energy structure promotes a localised and
21 persistent foraging hotspot, with seabird numbers greatly exceeding those at adjacent natural wake
22 features. The wake mixes material throughout the water column, potentially acting like a prey
23 conveyer belt. Our findings highlight the importance of identifying the physical scales and
24 mechanisms underlying predator hotspot formation when assessing the ecological consequences of
25 installing or removing anthropogenic structures.

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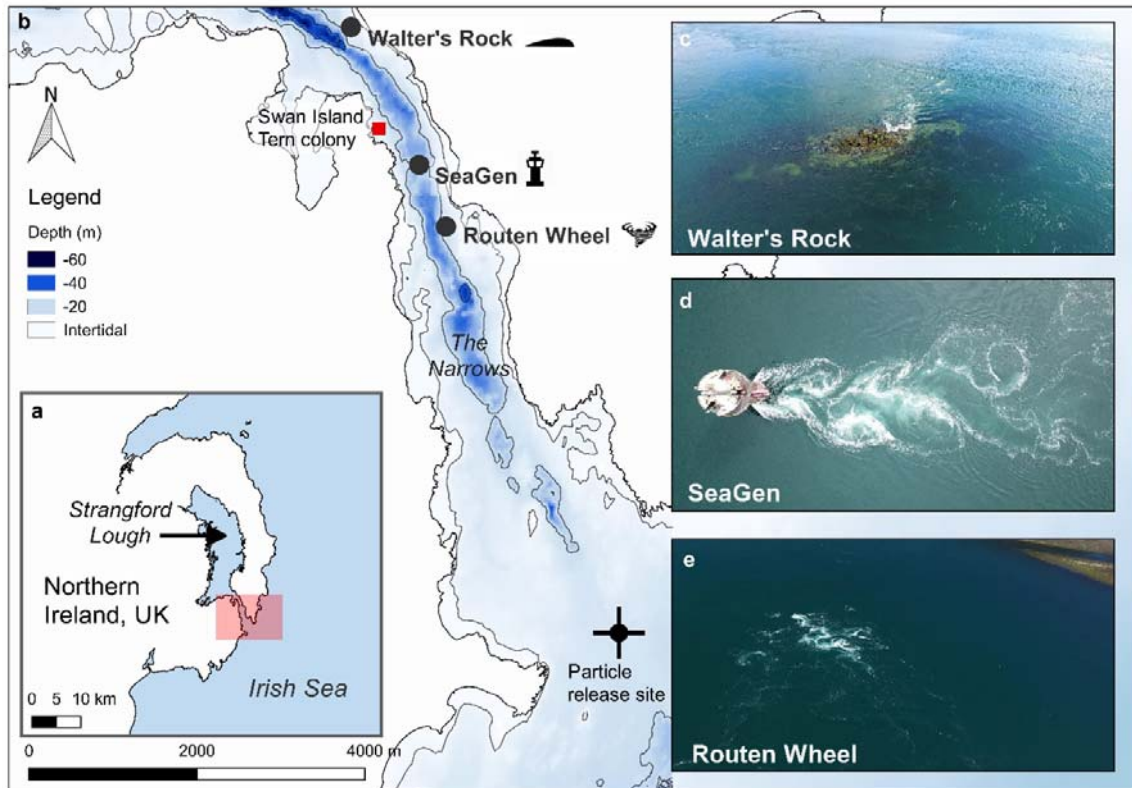
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30 In an era of intense marine urbanisation¹, understanding scale-dependent physical forcing can help
31 predict how marine predators may respond to environmental change. Predators rely on a multitude
32 of physical processes which dynamically influence foraging behaviour^{2,3} and success⁴. In the open
33 ocean, predator foraging has been associated with mesoscale (10 – 100 km) physical features, such
34 as fronts and eddies^{5,6,7}. However, even fine- (<1 km, e.g. internal waves³) or local- (10 –100 m, e.g.
35 island wakes⁸) scale physical features may create small-scale predator hotspots^{9,10}. The importance
36 of these fine and local-scale physical processes is heightened in seabirds restricted to shallow plunge
37 diving techniques, such as gulls and terns, where prey availability near the sea surface governs
38 foraging site selection^{11,12,13}. Consequently, tern species (*Sternidae*) tend to focus their foraging
39 activity in areas of bathymetry-generated turbulence or shallow upwellings that consistently make
40 prey available near the surface^{11, 12,14,15}. Such physically-enhanced prey availability and its
41 predictability seem to determine seabird foraging habitat rather than prey density alone^{12,16,17, 18,19,20}.
42 Therefore, the identification of local flow processes interacting with bathymetric features (natural or
43 man-made) can improve our understanding of the physical mechanisms promoting foraging hotspot
44 formation and persistence in dynamic coastal systems²¹.

45 The periodic emergence of tidally-driven bathymetry-induced turbulence, shallow
46 upwellings or more ephemeral turbulent structures such as boils - circular regions of local
47 upwelling²² - are characteristic of strongly tidal seas. The introduction of anthropogenic structures
48 into such dynamic environments adds further complexity to local flow processes, potentially
49 triggering ecological implications²³. Man-made structures modify local hydrodynamics²⁴, including
50 flow velocities²⁵ and wake effects^{26,27,28}. Further, a von Kármán vortex street²⁹, characterised by
51 distinct and repeatable eddy trajectories, may occur in the wake of embedded structures when
52 placed in strong, near-laminar flows³⁰. While fish may exploit the lee of a structure as a flow refuge³¹
53 or use small-scale vortices (e.g. <1:1 ratio of vortex to fish size) to Kármán gait³², an extreme
54 downstream wake with eddy vortices of sufficient size and vorticity³³ can vertically displace or

55 overturn fish in fast, unsteady flows^{31,34,35, 36}, potentially making them accessible to surface-foraging
56 predators.

57 We hypothesised that a vortex street attributable to a man-made structure could present an
58 as yet unexplored mechanism for localised predator hotspot formation. Here, we investigate
59 whether an anthropogenically-generated wake can present a reliable foraging location for surface-
60 feeding seabirds (*Sternidae*), comparable to those at adjacent natural wake features. SeaGen, the
61 world's first grid-connected tidal energy turbine, currently being decommissioned, produces a wake
62 with vortex shedding approaching a von Kármán vortex street³⁰. The device consisted of a monopile
63 structure (3 m diameter) attached to a quadropod foundation fixed on the seabed (water depth
64 about 25 m) with a 27 m long crossbeam supporting the original rotors on either side of the tower
65 15 m above the seabed. During this study, the rotors had already been removed, however the
66 monopile itself contributes considerably to the vortex shedding in the downstream wake as shown
67 through large eddy simulations³⁰. SeaGen is situated in a dynamic tidal channel ('the Narrows') in
68 Strangford Lough, Northern Ireland, in proximity to colonies of summer-breeding tern species
69 (*Sterna hirundo*, *S. sandvicensis*, *S. paradisaea*). The channel also provides diverse foraging
70 opportunities with natural wake features commonly used by terns, therefore presenting a suitable
71 study system. Two neighbouring extreme natural wake features, an island (Walter's Rock) and a
72 whirlpool structure (Routen Wheel), within the channel were selected to compare the terns' use of
73 the natural wakes with the man-made wake (Fig. 1). Our findings show that among all three wake
74 features investigated, the flood wake associated with the man-made structure promotes the most
75 persistent and intense foraging aggregations of terns. We further provide evidence that foraging
76 over the wake is highly localised, highlighting the importance and ecological implications of localised
77 physical forcing around man-made structures.



78

79 **Fig. 1: Location of wake features in the Narrows tidal channel situated in Strangford Lough, Northern**
 80 **Ireland, UK. a**, Overview map showing the study area within the Narrows, highlighted by a red box. **b**, Location
 81 of wake features in the Narrows. **c-e**, Insets showing the turbulent structures associated with each wake
 82 feature. Note: particle release site indicates the release of passive particles (as a proxy for prey organisms)
 83 from the Irish Sea during flood tide within a hydrodynamic model.

84 **Results**

85 **Tern foraging patterns vary among wake features** The number of terns foraging at each wake

86 feature was assessed using vantage point surveys (Jul-Aug 2018) with observations covering

87 different tidal states (ebb versus flood, spring versus neap), recording variations in tern abundance

88 across hydrodynamic conditions. The occurrence of conspicuous topographic and anthropogenic

89 landmarks allowed the construction of plots with approximately the same area, with calculations

90 based on bearings and distances from the vantage point. For SeaGen, observations were spatially

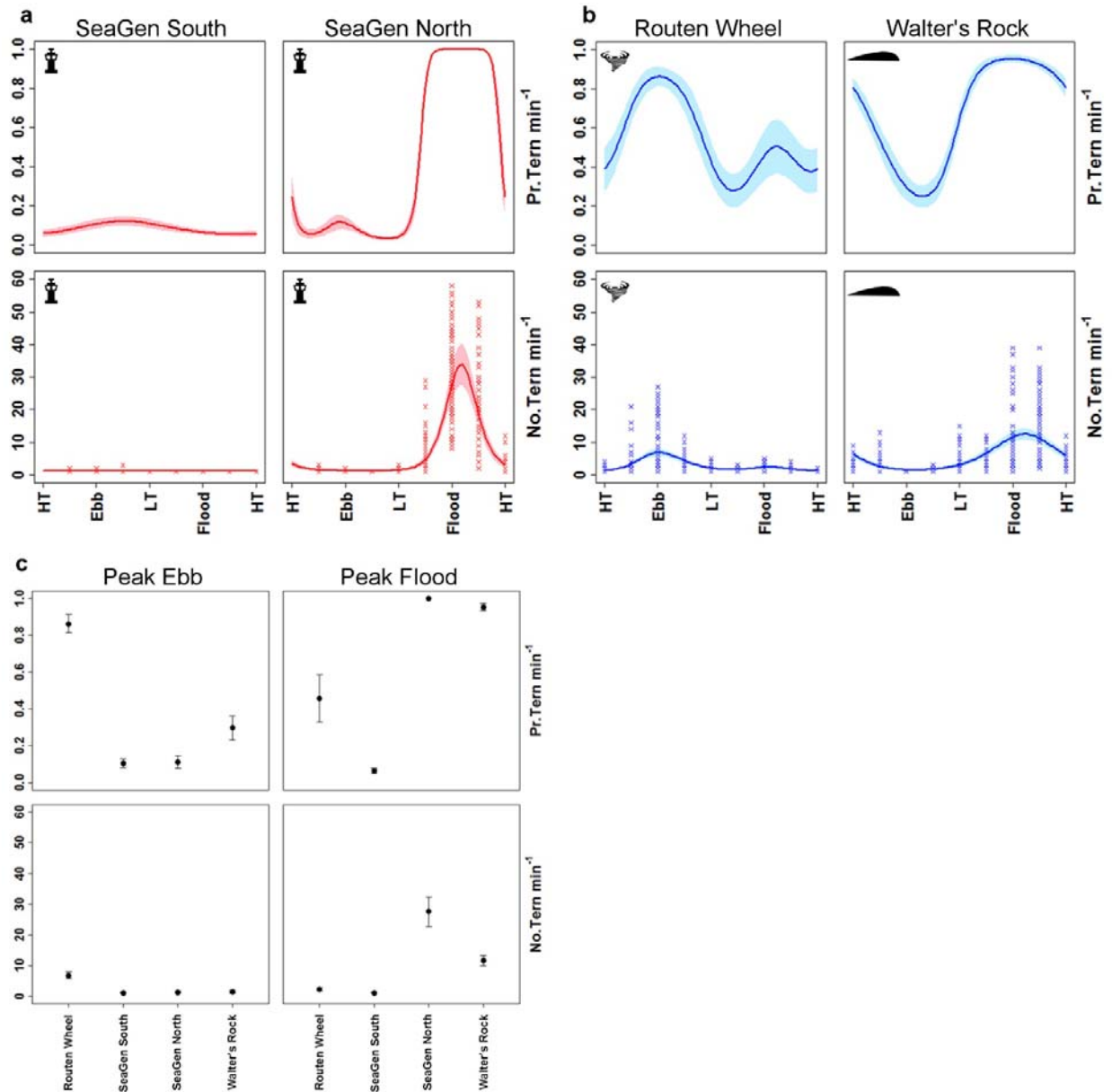
91 divided into North (area of flood tide wake) and South (area of ebb tide wake) of the foundation,

92 respectively. While the physical structure of SeaGen's wake does not differ between the flood and

93 ebb tide, the spatial separation was needed to ensure equal spatial extent per site. Further, it helped

94 to assess whether terns were solely attracted to the environmental cue of turbulence ('ecological
95 trap'³⁷) or if aggregations were coupled to the ebb-flood tidal cycle.

96 Tidal coupling was evident with the highest probability of encountering terns at SeaGen
97 North and Walter's Rock during flood tides, and Routen Wheel during ebb tides (Fig. 2a & b). The
98 largest flocks of terns were encountered at SeaGen North during peak flood tides (Fig. 2c), with
99 aggregations frequently exceeding 50 birds (Fig. 2a). On average, tern numbers observed foraging at
100 the SeaGen North site during peak flood were three times as many as those foraging at either of the
101 two natural wake sites (Fig. 2c). Because of high overdispersion and zero-inflation in the datasets, a
102 hurdle-model was used to divide statistical analysis into presence-absence and count components³⁸.
103 In summary, the mean probability of encountering terns and number of terns if encountered per
104 minute differed significantly among the wake features (Table 1). There were significant variations in
105 probabilities of encountering terns and numbers of terns if encountered (Fig. 2 a &b) across tidal
106 states at most locations (an exception to this was SeaGen South).

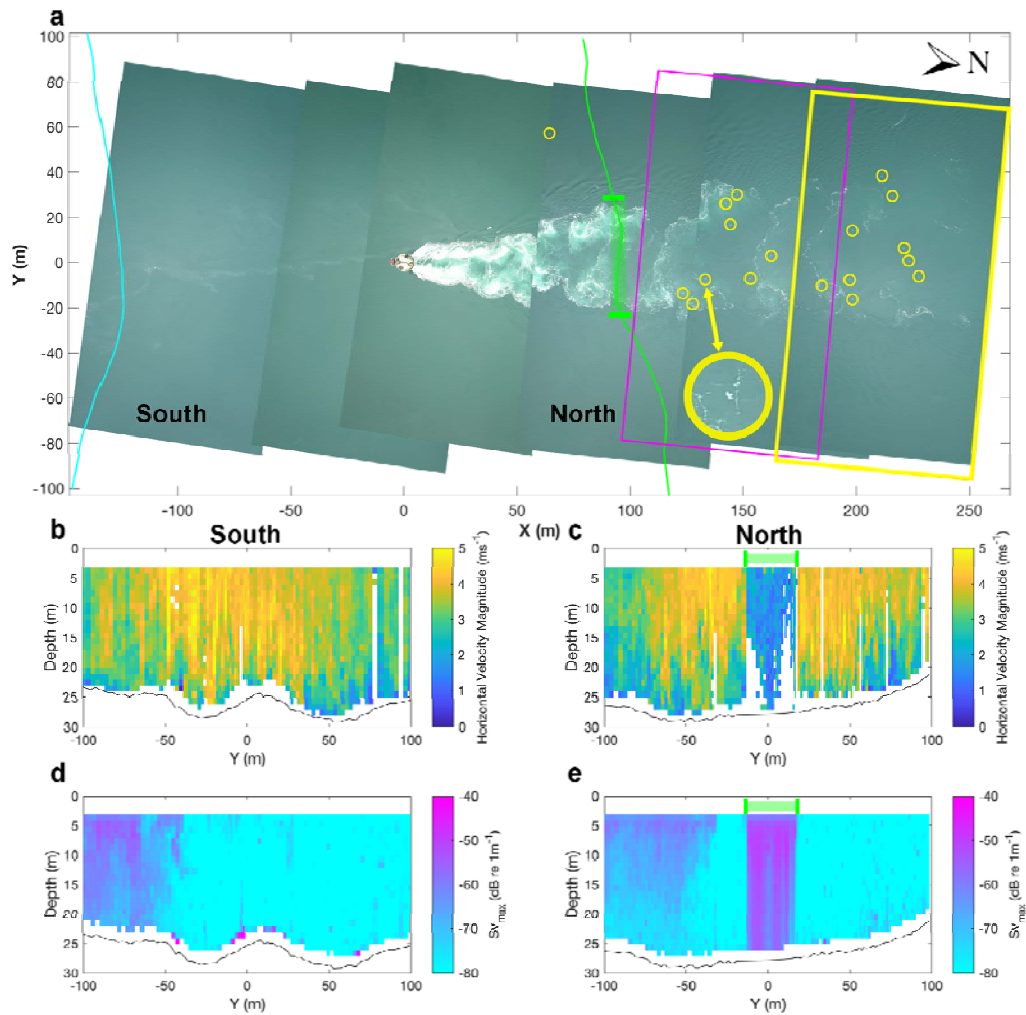


107 **Fig. 2: Tern counts over tidal state at each wake feature.** **a & b,** Mean \pm SE variations in the predicted
 108 probability of encountering terns and the number of terns if encountered per minute across tidal states
 109 around SeaGen North and South (**a**), the Routen Wheel and Walter's Rock (**b**) wake features, respectively.
 110 Crosses indicate the recorded number of terns if encountered binned into periods representing eight different
 111 states (1hr 20min) of the ebb-flood cycle. HT= High tide, LT=Low tide. **c,** Mean \pm SE variations in the predicted
 112 probability of encountering terns and the number of terns if encountered per minute across tidal states and
 113 locations. Tidal states represent peak current speeds in ebb and flood directions. All predictions (**a-c**) were
 114 made using model parameters from a general-additive mixed effect model (GAMM) with significance in both
 115 probabilities and numbers across tidal states shown in Table 1.

116

117 **Tern foraging in relation to man-made wake** Overall, the probability and size of tern aggregations
 118 was highest at the man-made structure (SeaGen North), triggering a fine-scale investigation of its
 119 wake dynamics. Unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) transects above SeaGen over several tidal cycles
 120 visualised the dynamic vortex shedding of the wake and the exact spatial extent of tern foraging,

121 thereby overcoming the oblique angle of the vantage point observer. Consistent with the vantage
 122 point surveys, these transects recorded that terns focused their foraging activity almost exclusively
 123 over the flood wake (SeaGen North; Fig. 3a). The lee wake vortices showed the distinct and
 124 predictable pattern consistent with a von Kármán vortex street, with a surface-tracked eddy
 125 shedding frequency of 10 - 14 min⁻¹.



126

127 **Fig. 3: Tern distribution during peak flood tide in relation to SeaGen's wake structure.** a, Georeferenced
 128 composite panoramic image from UAV transect survey with terns identified (yellow circles – one enlarged for
 129 clarity). The orientation of the x-axis is 349 degrees. Magenta and yellow boxes indicate tracking regions
 130 shown in Figure 4. b-c, Horizontal velocity magnitude (ms⁻¹) profile from the southern (cyan) and northern
 131 (green) ADCP transect, respectively. d-e, Maximum acoustic backscatter (dB re 1m⁻¹) profile from the southern
 132 and northern ADCP transect, respectively. The North transects show a clear water column velocity deficit (c)
 133 and backscatter (an indicator for macro-turbulence) signature (e) in the area of the flood wake (Y=-20-20m).

134 To assess vertical wake effects throughout the water column, vessel-mounted acoustic
135 Doppler current profiler (ADCP) transects were run either side of the SeaGen foundation throughout
136 a flood-ebb tidal cycle. The upstream near-laminar flow exceeding 5 ms^{-1} experiences a clear velocity
137 deficit downstream in the midline of the structure throughout the water column with a cross-stream
138 extent of 45 m at approximately 100 m downstream of SeaGen (Fig. 3b, c). The corresponding
139 signature of elevated acoustic backscatter, an indicator for macro-turbulence³⁹, visible in the
140 downstream wake (Fig. 3e) is most likely dominated by entrained bubbles⁴⁰, and to a lesser extent,
141 sediment re-suspension⁴¹ and perhaps fish^{42,43}. Bounded by the sea surface and seafloor, the
142 backscatter signature from the wake of the structure is distinct from adjacent water. This provides
143 evidence that the turbulent eddies within the flow are powerful enough to up-and down-well
144 submerged material throughout the entire water column. While extreme water column scattering
145 from bubbles and sediment precludes the acoustic extraction of fish targets from turbulence, the
146 wake likely has the potential to act as a prey “conveyor belt” for surface foragers.

147 Applying machine learning algorithms to distinguish terns from other moving targets (e.g.
148 foam), flight trajectories recorded over the wake region (Fig. 4a) showed a high degree of in-flight
149 sinuosity, typical for area-restricted search behaviour in response to increased prey intake
150 rate/profitability (characterised by decreased flight speeds and frequent turning², Fig. 4b). The terns
151 forage almost exclusively over the vortex street with mostly transit flights to and from the colony
152 outside of this central region.

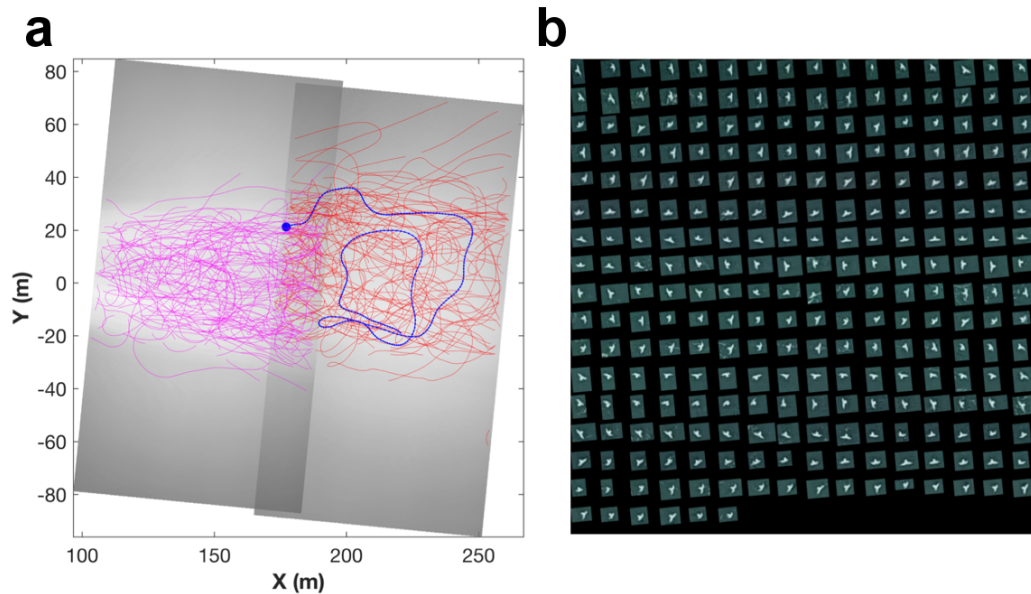
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159 **Fig. 4: Tern flight trajectories recorded during peak flood tide in relation to SeaGen's wake structure.** **a,**
 160 Georeferenced trajectories overlaid on time-average video images showing brighter region of foam/suspended
 161 material in wake. All trajectories of over 2 s duration are shown from recording periods of 140 s (red, 136 in
 162 total) and 125 s (magenta, 196 in total). **b,** Sequence of images of an individual tern as it follows the trajectory
 163 indicated in blue in **a** (dot indicates start). Only every fourth image (0.16s time interval) is shown for clarity in
 164 row-wise order starting at the top-left of the panel.

165

166 **Particle flux corresponds with tern foraging patterns** Finally, the persistent use of the SeaGen
 167 (North) wake by the terns limited to the flood tidal cycle was explored using a hydrodynamic model
 168 coupled to an ecological module. Passive particles as a proxy for small prey organisms were released
 169 from the Irish Sea, outside the entrance of the Lough at the beginning of a flood tide (Fig. 1b). The
 170 flux of incoming potential prey items to SeaGen's flood wake originates 70 min upstream from
 171 outside the Lough, corresponding with the rise in tern sightings ~60 min post low water slack.

172

173 **Discussion**

174 To our knowledge, this is the first study to link indirect physical interactions (a downstream wake) of
 175 a renewable energy structure with top predators, highlighting the hitherto overlooked ecological
 176 implications of localised physical forcing around man-made structures. While top predator use of
 177 anthropogenic structures has been observed elsewhere^{44,45}, distinct mechanisms may be in place to
 178 explain such associations. Namely, 1) natural reefing can increase fish biomass⁴⁶, 2) fish can seek

179 flow refuge in the immediate lee of a structure⁴⁷ and 3) downstream wake effects can make
180 incoming prey available near the surface through displacement^{35,48}. The latter mechanism is
181 currently the least explored in a natural setting despite its importance in high-flow environments,
182 highlighting the relevance of our findings. While natural bathymetric features and associated
183 patterns of shear lines and wake effects have been shown to attract top predators⁸, the man-made
184 wake in this study promoted the most persistent and intense foraging aggregations of terns among
185 all wake features investigated. While we did not assess prey vertical distribution, turbulent vertical
186 velocity fluctuations within the wake were greater than 0.5 ms^{-1} (Supplementary Fig. 1), exceeding
187 swimming performance of typical piscivorous tern prey items¹³ (e.g. sandeel⁴⁹ in the order of 0.2 ms^{-1}
188 or sprat/herring⁵⁰ in the order of 0.4 ms^{-1}) and may have the potential to displace prey. Therefore,
189 our future studies will focus on assessing prey distribution and availability within both the inflows
190 and wakes under different tidal states.

191 With the intensification of man-made structures in coastal seas, new synergies between
192 these and marine predators are likely. Our findings demonstrate that wake features, predictable in
193 time and space, persistently attract top predators at highly localised scales. We also provide the first
194 empirical evidence that localised hydrodynamic forcing attributable to an anthropogenic structure
195 can present a mechanism to promote a foraging hotspot, where predator aggregations exceed those
196 at adjacent natural wake features. A broader perspective on the ecological implications of offshore
197 installations is critical²³ and requires the identification of such localised physical processes
198 underlying top predator hotspot formation. For seabirds, there is concern that the introduction of
199 renewable energy devices could lead to avoidance, thereby negatively impacting on energy
200 expenditure⁵¹. Likewise, it has been suggested that hydrodynamic forces around hard structures
201 could modify prey availability, thereby increasing a seabird's rate of energy acquisition⁵². While our
202 findings suggest that terns exploit the flood wake of a device, an overall ecological (population-level)
203 benefit through increased individual energy acquisition can only be determined when accounting for
204 parameters relating to e.g. foraging success, prey profitability and breeding performance^{52,53}.

205 In the expanding renewable energy sector (e.g. >4000 offshore wind turbines in Europe⁵⁴), monopile
206 foundations similar to the SeaGen design present the most common substructure (66%⁵⁴) and lead
207 to comparable wake vortices^{25,27,55}. However, even submerged tidal turbines, and more so arrays,
208 placed in unsteady flows will change the local hydrodynamic regime including wake effects^{26,56} and
209 more empirical data are required to predict changes in hydrodynamics and foraging habitat.

210 With SeaGen being decommissioned, its removal will undoubtedly change the foraging
211 aggregations observed here. The decommissioning process, often requiring the complete removal of
212 an aging structure⁵⁷, is currently being re-considered globally by evidence of potential ecological
213 benefits through artificial reef effects⁵⁸ and increased fish biomass^{59,46} if parts remain in the sea.
214 However, there is equal concern about the possible ecological impacts of artificial structures on
215 marine vertebrates⁶⁰ and in terms of their benthic footprint^{61,62}. Renewable energy installations
216 show some ecological synergies to oil-and gas platforms^{61,63,44} and could become an important
217 contributor to the foreseen 'decommissioning crisis'⁶⁴ if not addressed in a timely manner.
218 Therefore, when designing the decommissioning removal scope of devices, a case-by-case
219 determination of the ecological benefits or disadvantages of seemingly obsolete installations is
220 required⁶⁵.

221

222 **Methods**

223 **Study site** All wake features investigated are situated in the Narrows, a tidal channel linking
224 Strangford Lough, Northern Ireland, UK, with the Irish Sea (Fig. 1). The three sites investigated were
225 1) Walter's Rock (54° 22.992'N, 5° 33.504'W), an island located on the periphery of the main
226 channel, generating local upwelling and shear lines extending both into the channel and the near-
227 shore shallows; 2) SeaGen (54° 22.122'N, 5° 32.766'W), located in the mid-channel and experiences
228 the highest current magnitudes³⁹ and 3) the Routen Wheel (54° 21.698'N, 5° 32.476'W), turbulent
229 whirlpool structures that are generated from a shallow pinnacle (5 m depth) surrounded by 20 m
230 deep waters. Here, the asymmetrical bathymetry of the channel promotes a more intense
231 turbulence field at the surface during the ebb tide. While all three wake features differ in

232 composition, they all predictably create local zones of extreme turbulent flow structures and tern
233 feeding flocks had been observed at all three features prior to the study. With various tern (*Sterna*
234 *sandvicensis*, *S. hirundo*, *S. paradisaea*) colonies located across Strangford Lough, Swan island
235 presents the nearest colony to any of these wake features (Fig. 1). Sandwich terns are most
236 abundant with 776 AONs (Apparently Occupied Nests which equates to the number of breeding
237 pairs), followed by common (340 AONs) and Artic (193 AONs) terns, respectively (pers. comm. Hugh
238 Thurgate, National Trust, Strangford Lough head ranger).

239 **Data collection and analysis** A vantage point study was designed to collect count data of terns over
240 the wake features between 18th July 2018 and 12th August 2018. Vantage points were located on the
241 shore with a 200m-1km distance from each feature and covered an area of ~0.05km² for each site to
242 assess bird numbers associating with each localised wake feature. Observations covered all tidal
243 states over a spring and neap tidal cycle. Using binoculars (Opticron Verano BGA HD and Nikon
244 Monarch 10x42), counts of hovering or diving birds deemed foraging were completed every 2nd/3rd
245 minute for 15min with a 5min rest period to avoid observer fatigue (mean survey period across
246 sites=129min, SD=41min). Number of surveys varied minimally per site, with Walter's Rock (n=9),
247 SeaGen (n=13) and Routen Wheel (n=11) with a total observation time of 23.38 hrs, 25.26 hrs and
248 22.14 hrs, respectively. A general-additive mixed effect model (GAMM) was performed to quantify
249 variances in the probability of encountering terns and the number of terns if encountered among
250 tidal states and locations. A binomial model was used for the probability of encountering terns, and
251 a negative binomial was used for the number of terns if encountered. Location was used as a
252 categorical explanatory variable. Tidal state (hours after high water) was used as a continuous and
253 non-linear explanatory variable. The number of knots was constrained to six to avoid over-fitting.
254 Tidal state was also modelled as an interaction with location to account for differences in patterns
255 among locations. An AR1 structure was used to account for temporal autocorrelation in model
256 residuals within locations. Model parameters were used to predict variations in the probability of
257 encountering terns and the number of terns if encountered across different locations and tidal

258 states. Differences in probabilities and numbers across locations and tidal states were tested for
259 significance ($p < 0.05$) using F-tests. Models were performed in the mgcv packages in R Statistics⁶⁶.

260 **Unmanned Aerial Vehicle (UAV) surveys** To record fine-scale foraging behaviour in relation to the
261 wakes, UAV surveys were performed from the nearest accessible shore location to each feature
262 using a DJI Mavic Pro quadcopter recording 4 K video at 25 fps. The UAV was flown manually using
263 the DJI Go v4.0 application. In order to comply with best practices⁶⁷ and minimise potential
264 disturbance, the vertical ascent of the UAV was made at 200 m distance from the foraging
265 aggregations and sampling was performed at a height of 120 m above-surface level, as measured by
266 the on-board altimeter. Missions included transects across SeaGen as well as hovering (holding
267 station with a vertically downward-facing camera) over the flood wake of SeaGen to capture seabird
268 flight tracks over time. Surveys reported here were conducted on 11 July 2018 during a flood tidal
269 cycle (07:30 hrs – 08:30 hrs GMT) with a total flight time of 41 minutes. All missions were completed
270 in accordance with local regulations and flown by the same qualified (UK Civil Aviation Authority)
271 pilot. The UAV camera was calibrated in the lab and video sequences post-processed using MATLAB
272 (R2017b; Mathworks). Georeferenced composite panoramic images captured the distribution of
273 terns up-and downstream of SeaGen. Machine learning approaches were used to identify, count and
274 track terns over SeaGen's flood wake. Briefly, moving objects were detected using frame-to-frame
275 differencing, segmentation and then filtered by size to remove sun-glint speckles and large foam
276 patches. Images of potential targets were then passed through a trained "Bag of Features" classifier
277 before using Kalman filters to compile tracks of those targets identified as terns only. The classifier
278 was trained using 806 manually-identified images each of foam and terns, with an average accuracy
279 of 93% when applied to a validation set of 3764 images.

280 **Acoustic Doppler current profiler (ADCP) surveys** Vessel-mounted ADCP transects were performed
281 on 13 Aug 2018 using a pole-mounted (1.15 m depth) RDI Workhorse Monitor broadband ADCP (600
282 kHz) in bottom-tracking mode with a vertical bin size of 1 m. All data was acquired using VMDas
283 software (v. 1.46; RD Instruments, Inc.) and post-processed in WinADCP (v. 1.14; RD Instruments,

284 Inc.). True current velocities were computed by subtraction of the bottom-tracked boat velocity. To
285 quantify the acoustic scattering in the water column as a metric for macro-turbulence³⁹, volume-
286 backscattering strength (S_v in decibels, dB) was calculated across a maximum of 40 bins from the
287 ADCP's recorded raw echo intensity data using a working version of the sonar equation as originally
288 described in Deines⁶⁸ and updated by Mullison⁶⁹. The backscatter equation accounts for two-way
289 transmission loss, time-varying gain, water absorption, and uses an instrument- and beam-specific
290 RSSI scaling factor to convert counts to decibels. This makes it a more robust measure of scattering
291 compared to raw echo intensity which can be more readily extracted from the ADCP. S_v was
292 calculated for each bin along each of the four beams of the ADCP. For each range bin, the maximum
293 of the four beams ($S_{v_{max}}$) was taken to create depth profiles of the maximum level of scattering
294 across the water column. In high-flow environments, high values of acoustic scattering are
295 dominated by enhanced surface bubble entrainment and sediment re-suspension^{22,41,70}.

296 **Hydrodynamic modelling** The Strangford Lough hydrodynamic model developed using MIKE21
297 modelling software (DHI Water and Environment software package: www.dhisoftware.com)⁷¹ was
298 used to simulate particle movement in the Narrows. In short, the model uses a finite volume method
299 by solving a depth averaged shallow water approximation. Full details of the model setup can be
300 found in Kregting⁷¹. The Strangford Lough model was coupled to a particle tracking module that
301 incorporates advection and dispersion resolved using the Langevin equation. For horizontal
302 movement, in the absence of any dispersion (horizontal or vertical) information, the scaled eddy
303 viscosity was used with the software recommended constant value of 1.0. For the vertical
304 dispersion, a constant dispersion value of 0.01 m^2 per second was used. Changes in flow velocity
305 throughout the water column were calculated based on the bed friction velocity, a parameter
306 calculated directly in the hydrodynamic model. Passive particles as proxy for microscopic or small
307 organisms were released from the Irish Sea at a depth of 10 m, approximately half the water column
308 height (Fig. 1). A trickle release approach was adopted where 200 particles were released every 5

309 min timestep on the flood tide only and the time taken from release to the time taken to reach
310 SeaGen was noted.

311

312 **Data Availability.** The dataset used to generate the main result shown in Figure 2 is available online
313 at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.7732514.v1>. All other data generated and analysed during
314 the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

315

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477

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487

488 **Author contributions.** L.L. conceived the ideas and all authors designed aspects of the methodology.
489 L.K. managed the project. L.L. and J.J.W. collected the vantage point data; W.A.M.N.S. collected the
490 UAV data (CAA-approved pilot) and L.L. collected the ADCP data. All authors performed analysis and
491 interpreted the results. L.L. drafted the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts
492 and gave final approval for publication.

493

494 **Competing interests.** The authors declare no competing interests.

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499 **Figure Legends**

500

501 **Fig. 1:** Location of wake features in the Narrows tidal channel situated in Strangford Lough, Northern
502 Ireland, UK. **a**, Overview map showing the study area within the Narrows, highlighted by a red box.

503 **b**, Location of wake features in the Narrows. **c-e**, Insets showing the turbulent structures associated
504 with each wake feature. Note: particle release site indicates the release of passive particles (as a
505 proxy for prey organisms) from the Irish Sea during flood tide within a hydrodynamic model.

506

507 **Fig. 2:** Tern counts over tidal state at each wake feature. **a & b**, Mean \pm SE variations in the predicted
508 probability of encountering terns and the number of terns if encountered per minute across tidal
509 states around SeaGen North and South (**a**), the Routen Wheel and Walter’s Rock (**b**) wake features,
510 respectively. Crosses indicate the recorded number of terns if encountered binned into periods
511 representing eight different states (1hr 20min) of the ebb-flood cycle. HT= High tide, LT=Low tide. **c**,
512 Mean \pm SE variations in the predicted probability of encountering terns and the number of terns if
513 encountered per minute across tidal states and locations. Tidal states represent peak current speeds
514 in ebb and flood directions. All predictions (**a-c**) were made using model parameters from a general-
515 additive mixed effect model (GAMM) with significance in both probabilities and numbers across tidal
516 states shown in Table 1.

517

518 **Fig. 3:** Tern distribution during peak flood tide in relation to SeaGen’s wake structure. **a**,
 519 Georeferenced composite panoramic image from UAV transect survey with terns identified (yellow
 520 circles – one enlarged for clarity). The orientation of the x-axis is 349 degrees. Magenta and yellow
 521 boxes indicate tracking regions shown in Figure 4. **b-c**, Horizontal velocity magnitude (ms^{-1}) profile
 522 from the southern (cyan) and northern (green) ADCP transect, respectively. **d-e**, Maximum acoustic
 523 backscatter ($\text{dB re } 1\text{m}^{-1}$) profile from the southern and northern ADCP transect, respectively. The
 524 North transects show a clear water column velocity deficit (**c**) and backscatter (an indicator for
 525 macro-turbulence) signature (**e**) in the area of the flood wake ($Y=-20-20\text{m}$).

526
 527 **Fig. 4:** Tern flight trajectories recorded during peak flood tide in relation to SeaGen’s wake structure.
 528 **a**, Georeferenced trajectories overlaid on time-average video images showing brighter region of
 529 foam/suspended material in wake. All trajectories of over 2 s duration are shown from recording
 530 periods of 140 s (red, 136 in total) and 125 s (magenta, 196 in total). **b**, Sequence of images of an
 531 individual tern as it follows the trajectory indicated in blue in a (dot indicates start). Only every
 532 fourth image (0.16s time interval) is shown for clarity in row-wise order starting at the top-left of the
 533 panel.

534
 535

536 **Table**

537

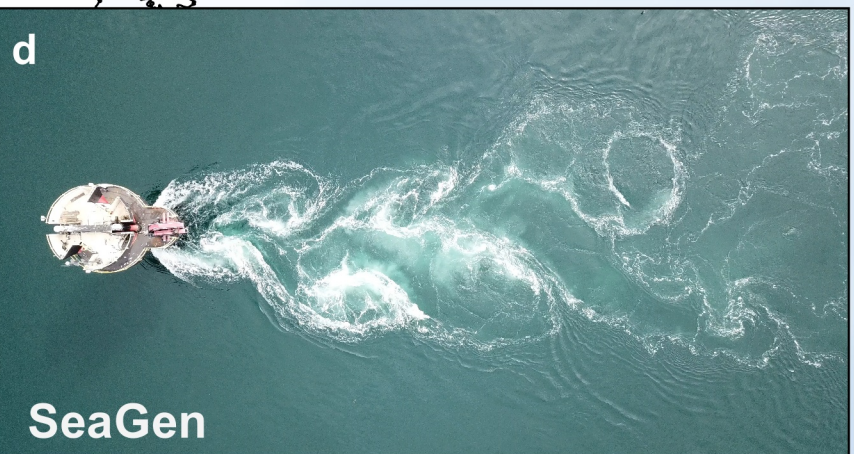
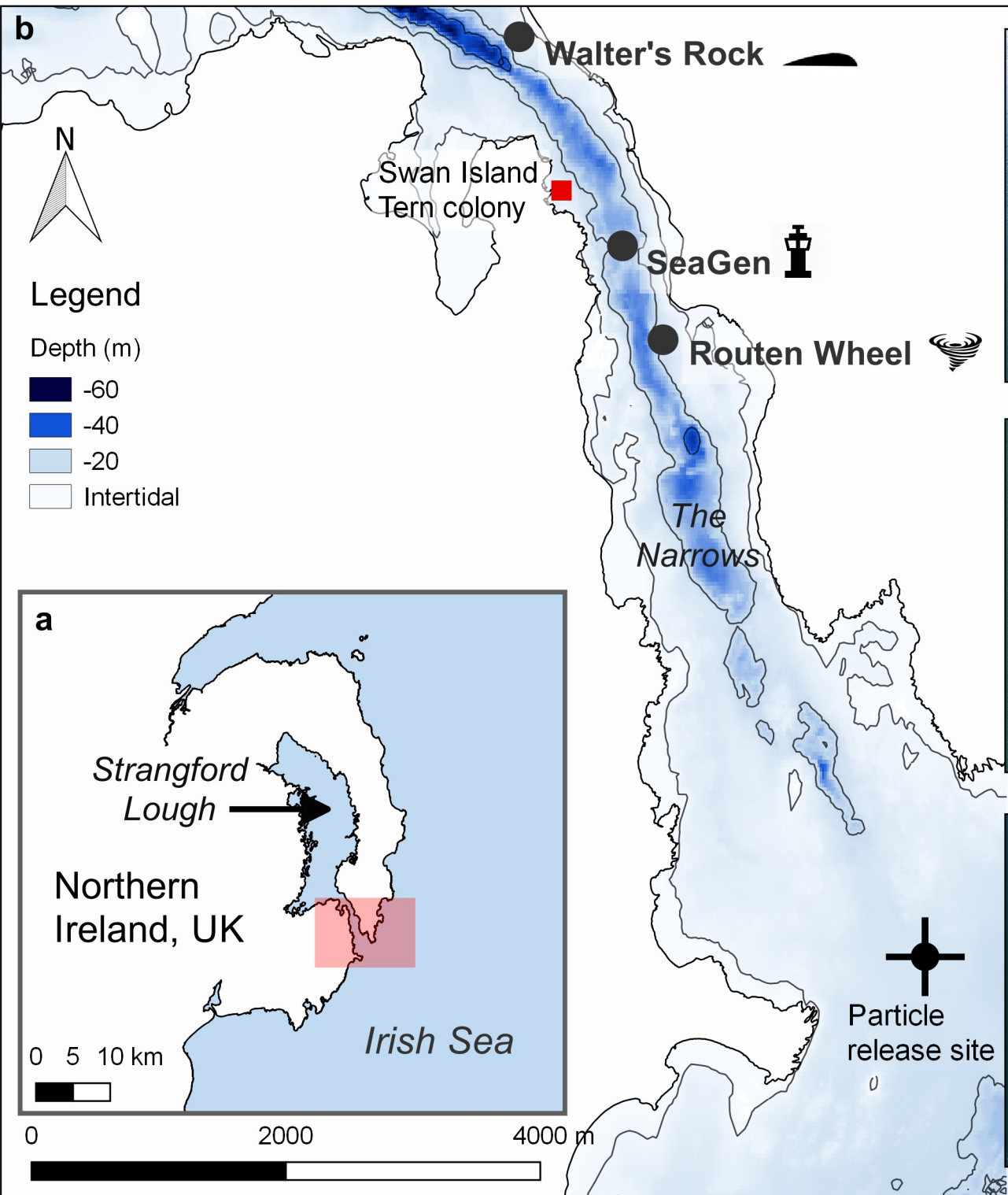
538 **Table 1:** General-additive mixed effect model (GAMM) outputs with significance in both probabilities
 539 and numbers of terns among sites and within sites across tides.

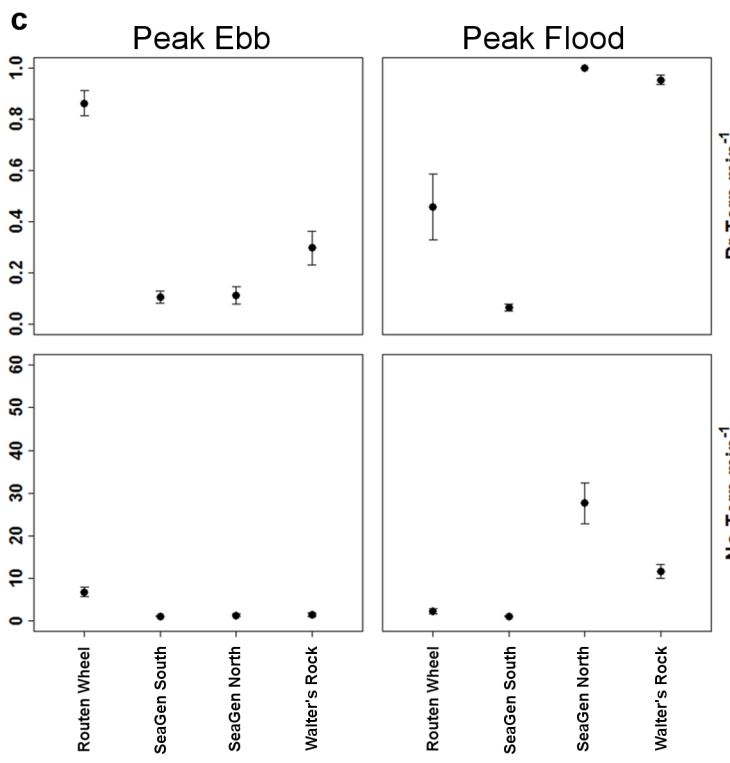
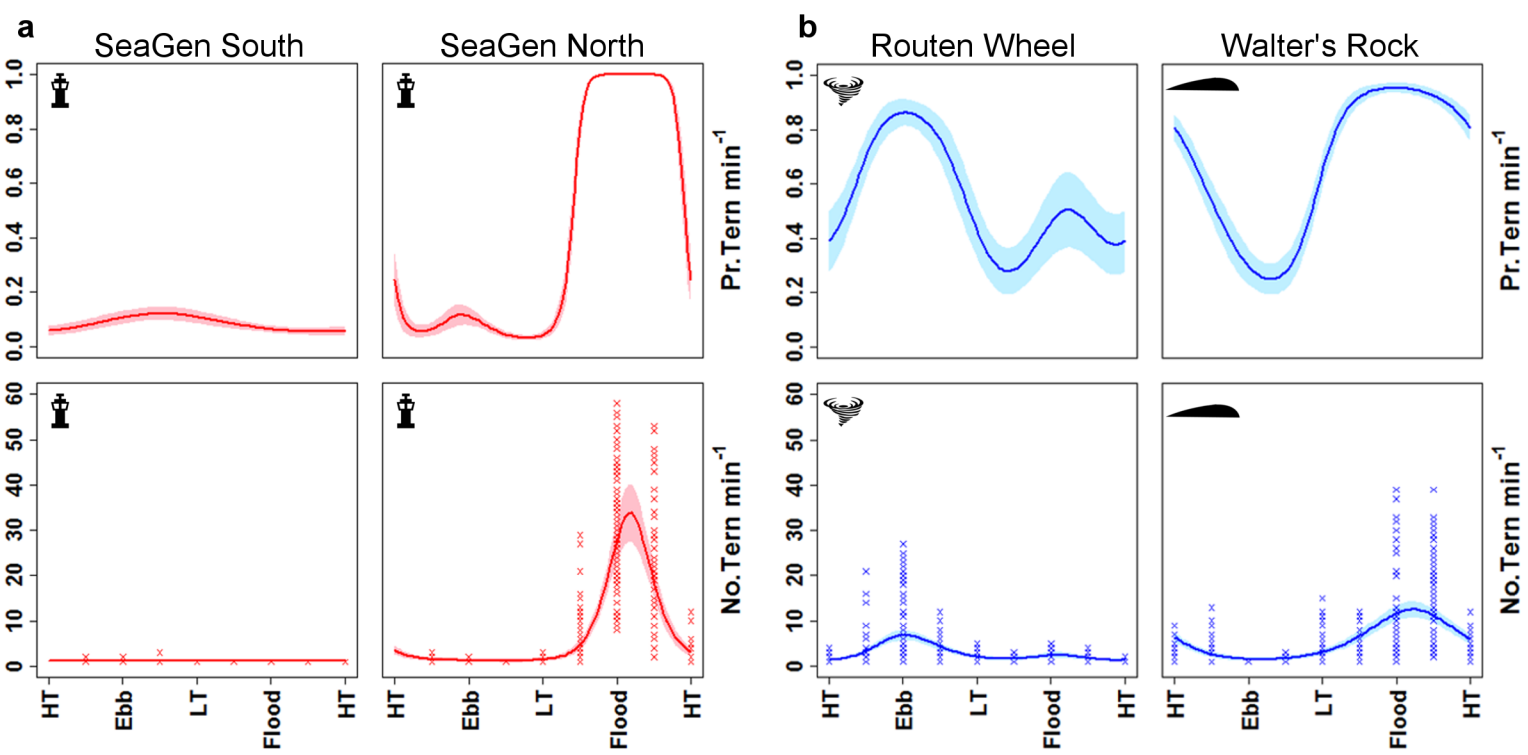
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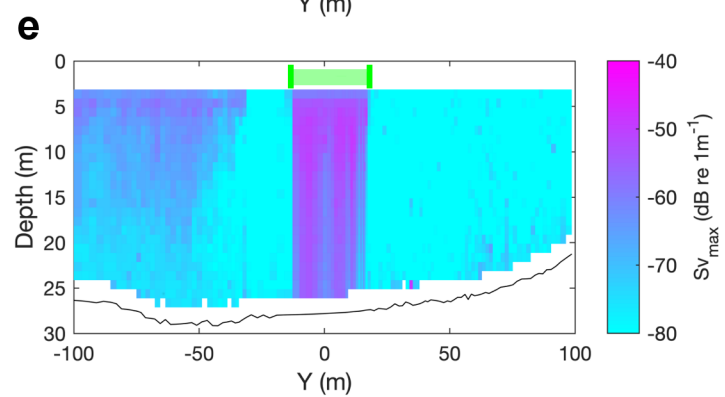
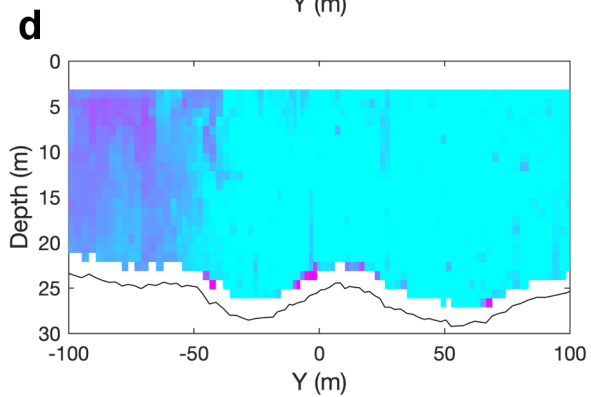
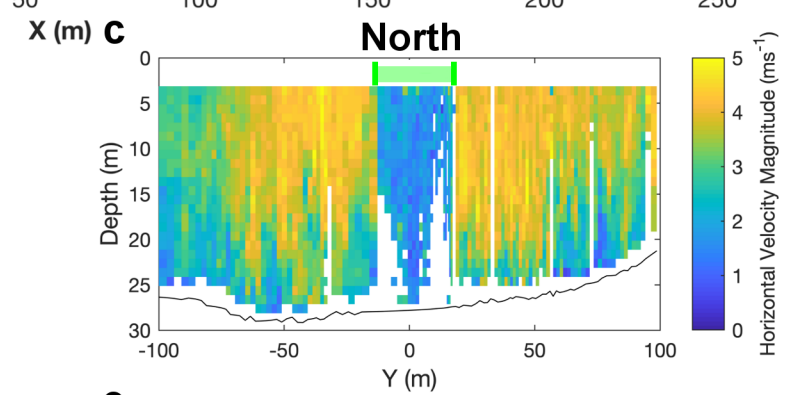
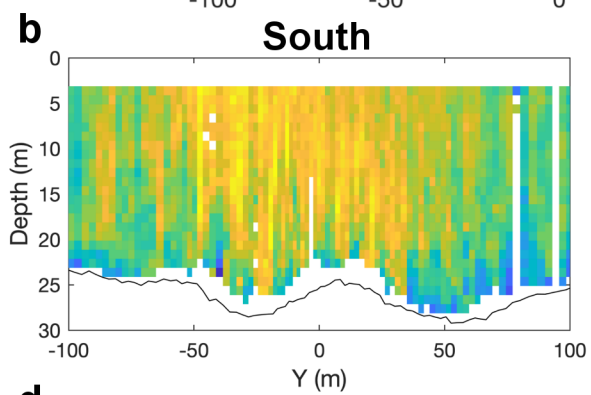
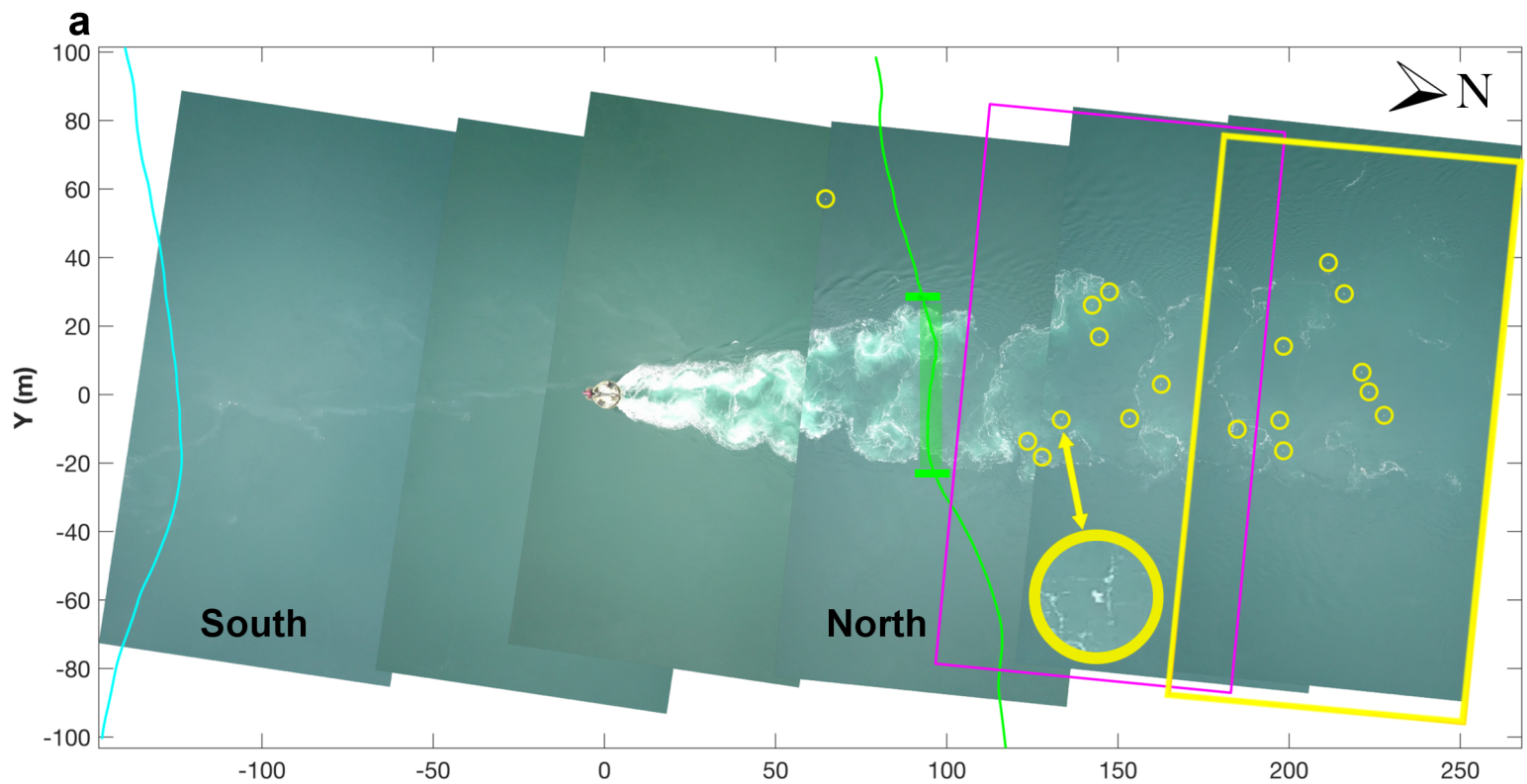
541

<i>Probability of encountering terns per minute</i>		
Among Sites	$F_{(3,1770)} = 109.8$	$p < 0.01$
Across tides in SeaGen North	$F_{(4,1769)} = 308.41$	$p < 0.01$
Across tides in SeaGen South	$F_{(4,1769)} = 1.60$	$p = 0.02$
Across tides in Routen Wheel	$F_{(4,1769)} = 5.64$	$p < 0.01$
Across tides in Walter’s Rock	$F_{(4,1769)} = 17.55$	$p < 0.01$
<i>Number of terns per minute if encountered</i>		
Among Sites	$F_{(3,789)} = 33.69$	$p < 0.01$
Across tides in SeaGen North	$F_{(4,788)} = 34.28$	$p < 0.01$
Across tides in SeaGen South	$F_{(4,788)} = 0.00$	$p = 0.88$
Across tides in Routen Wheel	$F_{(4,788)} = 10.28$	$p < 0.01$
Across tides in Walter’s Rock	$F_{(4,788)} = 13.51$	$p < 0.01$

542







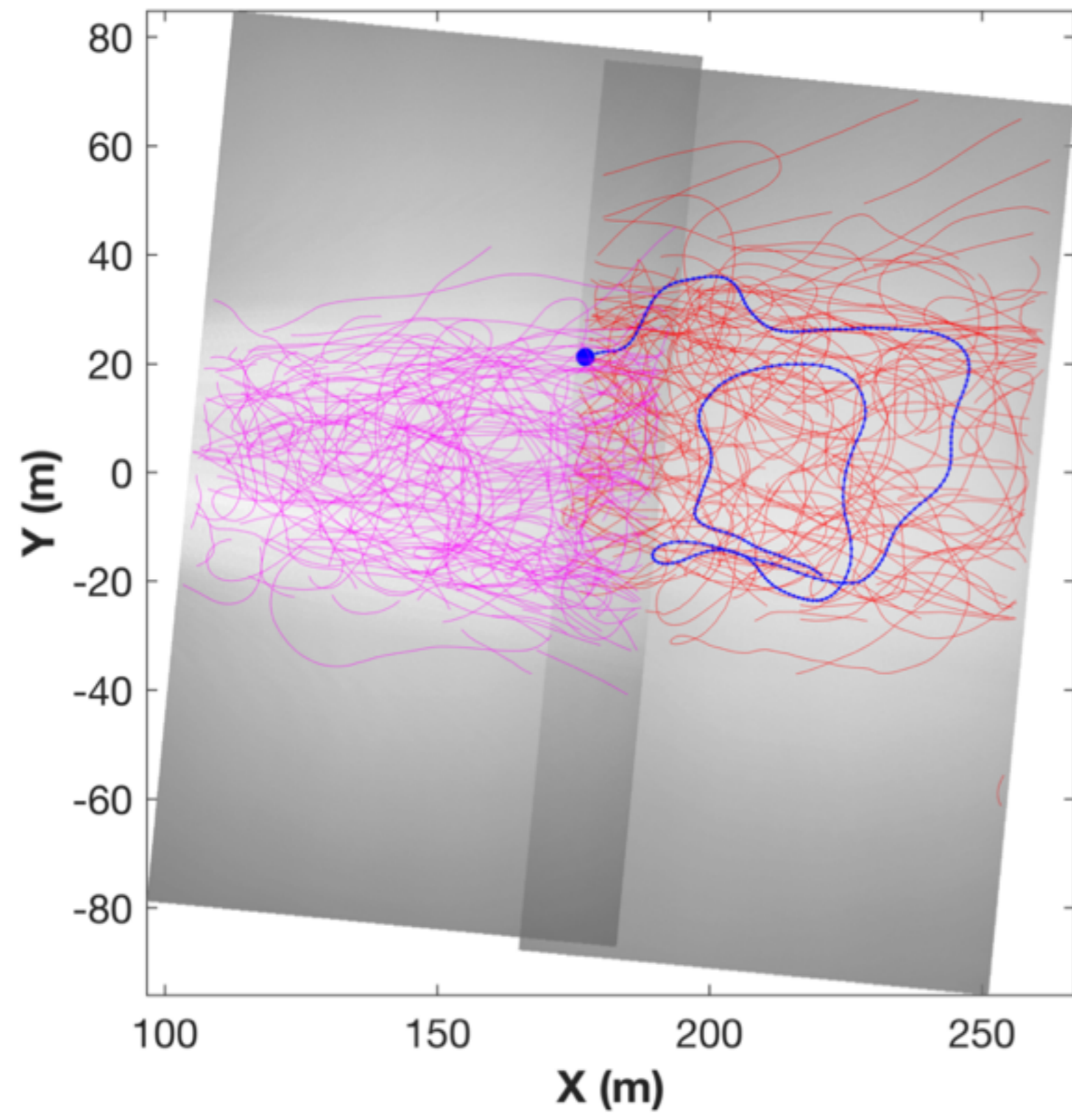
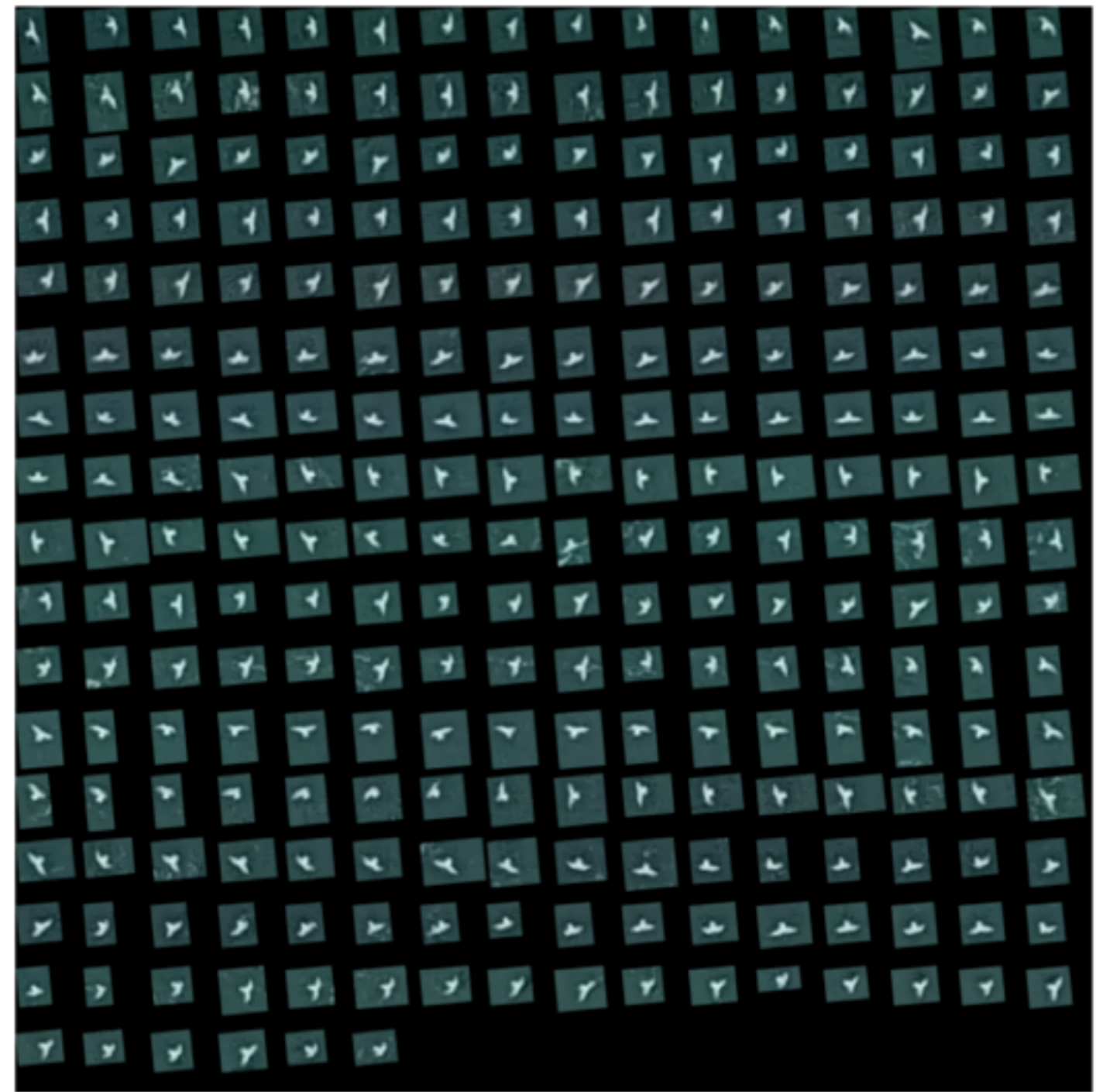
a**b**

Table 1: General-additive mixed effect model (GAMM) outputs with significance in both probabilities and numbers of terns among sites and within sites across tides.

<i>Probability of encountering terns per minute</i>		
Among Sites	$F_{(3,1770)} = \mathbf{109.8}$	p < 0.01
Across tides in SeaGen North	$F_{(4,1769)} = 308.41$	p < 0.01
Across tides in SeaGen South	$F_{(4,1769)} = 1.60$	p = 0.02
Across tides in Routen Wheel	$F_{(4,1769)} = 5.64$	p < 0.01
Across tides in Walter's Rock	$F_{(4,1769)} = 17.55$	p < 0.01
<i>Number of terns per minute if encountered</i>		
Among Sites	$F_{(3,789)} = \mathbf{33.69}$	p < 0.01
Across tides in SeaGen North	$F_{(4,788)} = 34.28$	p < 0.01
Across tides in SeaGen South	$F_{(4,788)} = 0.00$	p = 0.88
Across tides in Routen Wheel	$F_{(4,788)} = 10.28$	p < 0.01
Across tides in Walter's Rock	$F_{(4,788)} = 13.51$	p < 0.01