Design and deployment of an affordable and long-lasting deep-water subsurface fish

aggregation device

Running Title: Design of a long-term subsurface FAD

Eric VC Schneider[1,2*], Edward J Brooks[1], Michael P Cortina[1], David M Bailey[2], Shaun S

Killen[2], Travis E Van Leeuwen[1,3]

[1] Cape Eleuthera Institute, Rock Sound, Eleuthera, The Bahamas. PO BOX EL-26029.

ericvcschneider@gmail.com; eddbrooks@ceibahamas.org

[2] Institute of Biodiversity, Animal Health and Comparative Medicine, Graham Kerr Building,

University of Glasgow, Glasgow G12 8QQ, United Kingdom. david.bailey@glasgow.ac.uk;

shaun.killen@glasgow.ac.uk

[3] Fisheries and Oceans Canada, Salmonid Section, 80 East White Hills Road, PO Box 5667, St.

John's, Newfoundland, Canada A1C 5X1. travisvanleeuwen@ceibahamas.org

Corresponding author:

*Eric VC Schneider, Cape Eleuthera Institute, Rock Sound, Eleuthera, The Bahamas. PO BOX

EL- 26029. Email: <ericvcschneider@gmail.com>

22   **Acknowledgments**

This is contribution #1 of the Exuma Sound Ecosystem Research Project. We would like

to thank The Moore Charitable Foundation / Moore Bahamas Foundation for generously funding

this work. S.S. Killen was supported by a NERC Standard Grant NE/T008334/1. We extend

many thanks to the staff, interns, students, and visiting researchers of the Cape Eleuthera

Institute and The Island School for their extensive assistance including M. Israel, D. Huber, P.

Osborn, C. Hsia, D. Orrell, E. Good, G. Sayles, D. Grady, and W. Barnes, in addition to the

students of The Island School FAD research classes. We thank L. Madden for assistance in

creation of all graphics included in the figures. The authors have no competing interests.

Key-words: FAD, fisheries, pelagic ecosystem, open-ocean, fisheries-independent data

Data Sharing: The data that support the findings of this study are available from the

corresponding author upon request.

37   **Abstract**

Fish aggregation devices (FADs) are used worldwide to enhance the efficiency of various

fisheries. Devices consist of a floating or subsurface component designed to exploit natural fish

behavior, using species' attraction to structure (e.g., *Sargassum* spp.) to aggregate fish and

increase capture success in open ocean environments. Concerns have arisen regarding the scale

and management of FAD-associated fisheries, however, the efficiency of FADs to aggregate fish

also introduces the possibility for FADs to be used as conservation tools to study pelagic species

ecology. Building on two successful and several failed deployments of anchored deep-water

(>500 m) subsurface (10 m) FADs over three years in The Bahamas, and observations from the

subsequent FAD monitoring program, the objectives of the paper are to: 1) provide details and

considerations for the design, construction, and deployment of an affordable and durable deep-

water subsurface FAD that can be deployed using small boats; and 2) highlight the potential for a

long-lasting moored FAD to be used as a sustainable and reliable scientific platform for pelagic

species research and conservation, lending specifically to several research applications. This

information will be useful for assessing the impacts that FADs and other anthropogenic marine

infrastructure have on wild marine species, and their efficacy for conserving pelagic fish through

increased encounters for study.

55   **Introduction**

The pelagic ocean is the largest habitat on earth by both surface area and volume,

however, it is largely understudied compared to coastal or terrestrial ecosystems (Webb et al.

2010). The pelagic zone of the ocean provides important ecosystem services such as food and

oxygen production, carbon cycling, and climate stabilization (Robison 2009), and is known to

harbor considerable biodiversity (Angel 1993). With offshore habitats under intense fishing

pressures (Dulvy et al. 2008, Verity et al. 2002) and many fish stocks reaching either fully

exploited or over-exploited levels (FAO 2018, Pons et al. 2017), the need for better science,

management, and enforcement of the pelagic zone and its fisheries is evident and increasing.

One aspect of fish behavior, particularly seen in pelagic species, that has substantially

contributed to their harvest is their propensity to aggregate around floating structure (Castro et al.

2002, Girard et al. 2004). Over the past several decades, intentionally constructed fish

aggregation devices (FADs) have become a ubiquitous tool in pelagic purse seine fisheries

(Moreno et al. 2016) with more than half of all tuna landed globally caught using FADs (Miyake

et al. 2010). A wide range of epi-pelagic fishes have been documented aggregating to floating

structures (Castro et al. 2002) including many high-level predators such as scombrids (e.g.,

tunas), billfish, and pelagic sharks which are groups of fishes most at risk of over-exploitation

(Baum et al. 2003; Baum and Myers 2004). It is estimated that 81,000 to 121,000 new FADs are

deployed into the world's oceans annually, with many lost within the first year after deployment

(Gershman et al. 2015). The scale of FAD use poses numerous challenges to ocean conservation

and fisheries management, and such a rapid increase in fishing technology (i.e., FADs

instrumented with GPS trackers and 'fish-finder' echosounders) have outpaced management

developments (Baske et al. 2012). When working to manage an industry that utilizes such

powerful fishing tools as FADs, extra attention must be applied to promote the sustainability of

targeted stocks and bycatch.

Recently, there has been a concerted effort to utilize instrumented FADs and to work

cooperatively with fishing industries to increase the capacity for pelagic species research in this

often difficult to access and vast habitat (Brehmer et al. 2019, Davies et al. 2014). However,

these initiatives typically use FADs that are actively fished and free-floating which may bias

ecological research towards geographical areas that are chosen by fishing fleets and potentially

mask ecological phenomena due to the nature of this extractive process. Additionally, most

drifting FADs are not accessible by small boats with shorter ranges and have a relatively short

functional life of less than one year before degrading or washing out of range and / or ashore,

limiting the feasibility of long-term biological studies or oceanographic monitoring (Lopez et al.

2017). Therefore, to address these concerns, it is important to invest in the collection of

fisheries-independent data utilizing long-lasting anchored FADs to better understand the status

and trends of commercially important fish stocks (Moreno et al. 2016). Depending on location,

anchored FADs may allow greater accessibility to undertake monitoring work, can facilitate a

wide array of instrumentation both above and below the surface of the ocean, and will allow for

longer studies to occur if designed properly. Few resources exist on the design, construction, and

deployment of anchored FADs for study, despite their widespread use in the fishing industry.

Existing studies and manuals typically describe FADs deployed from large boats or using

materials that are either expensive or difficult to purchase and ship to remote locations (see

examples in Table 1).

Here we detail the design, construction, deployment, and utility of an anchored deep-

water, subsurface FAD that is durable and long-lasting, easily reproducible, and specifically

intended to facilitate fish ecology and marine conservation research. The durability and moored

nature of the design makes the FAD less prone to loss or damage, and the low cost of the FAD

allows for the possibility of several to be deployed using small boats and facilitate much needed

replication and manipulation in experimental designs, a component often lacking in this area of

study. While the subsurface aspect of these FADs was designed to reduce surface-associated

damage and tampering, and to facilitate specific research objectives, any potential trade-offs

between constructing a subsurface FAD and fish attraction / aggregation are also a point of

interest and are detailed below.

110   **Methods**

FAD Design

The main design objectives were to create a long-lasting subsurface anchored FAD

without any surface markers, deep enough to avoid surge-associated damage or navigational

hazards, while still shallow enough to be accessible to divers and avoid pressure-related damage

to the steel buoys. Additionally, the FAD needed to easily facilitate equipment mounting to act

as a stable platform for various fish ecology and marine conservation investigations.

The FADs used in our study consisted of a concrete anchor block (122 cm L x 122 cm W

x 84 cm H = 1.25 m^3; ~2900 kg weight on land, ~1620 kg weight in water), a vertical mooring

line (600 m of 5,817 kg minimum tensile strength one inch polypropylene) and two tethered

subsurface steel buoys (surplus naval buoys, 71 cm diameter, 54 kg weight / 181 kg buoyancy

each; Fig. 1). A depth of 10-15 m subsurface was decided to be an acceptable target range for

the floats, although subsurface FADs are not commonly deployed at bottom depths > 600 m

(study site depth) which is novel here (Chapman et al. 2005). At the time of writing, two of

these FADs have remained in place for over 3 years (December 2017 – May 2021) and have

withstood wind and surge from multiple passing hurricanes (<100 kph winds). The FADs were

visited weekly for the first 2.5 years, and then monthly thereafter.

Existing designs found in scientific papers and technical reports did not conform to all

our objectives, therefore a new and unique design was utilized here. For example, Weng et al.

(2013) used a subsurface FAD at a bottom depth of 415 m, however, the buoy depth of 50 m was

inaccessible to divers. Further, details of an array of subsurface FADs around Okinawa, Japan

indicate subsurface FADs at bottom depths up to 2000 m. However, the materials and

deployment were costly, and structure depth ranged from 20 m to 100 m subsurface which

minimizes survey time available for divers or renders it inaccessible (Sokimi 2006). The closest

example to those used here is a subsurface FAD array in Hawaii described by Higashi (1994)

with a bottom depth range of 366 m to 549 m and a buoy depth of 18 m to 21 m, but little detail

describing the construction and deployment are available. From the limited information

available, it suggests a large naval vessel was used for deployment and that the FAD construction

used galvanized steel cable, suggesting neither a simple nor cheap construction and deployment

process.

Construction

Steel reinforcing lattice (#4 rebar) was laid as the concrete was being placed, and a

stainless-steel round stock bail (Fig. 2) was incorporated beneath the last layer of lattice so that

the top of the bail protruded from the center of the block to aid in mooring line attachment. A

shackle (7/8" bolt through) was used to attach 4 meters of 3/4" long-link chain to the bail anchor

point between the block and mooring line. The chain was used to prevent chaffing of the anchor

line against the anchor block in the event of converting the structure to a surface FAD.

However, this was determined to be unnecessary for subsurface orientation because the tension

in the mooring line, by default, prevents the anchor line from contacting the anchor block. This

was followed by a 7/8" bolt through shackle, a 7/8" eye by eye swivel, another 7/8" shackle and

finally a size 4 rope connector (Samson Nylite, Ferndale, Washington, USA; Fig. 3).

Eight-strand 1" polypropylene line (5,817 kg minimum tensile strength) was used as the

mooring line and attached to rope connectors via an eye-splice. The rope connector prevented

the eye splice from chaffing against the metal rigging. End-to-end splices were used any time

the line needed to be extended. The same series of hardware was repeated at the end of the line

(rope connector, swivel, and shackle). However, this series was then followed by a 7/8" master

link (Fig. 3).

The floating portion of the FAD structure was comprised of two round 71 cm diameter

steel buoys (54 kg weight, 181 kg buoyancy each) tethered to the master link using 2 meters of

1/2" three-strand polypropylene line that was eye-spliced through a rope thimble. This is similar

in size and surface area to the flotation component of drifting FADs used in some commercial

tuna fisheries (personal observation). However, FADs used in commercial fisheries often

incorporate subsurface netting, palm fronds, synthetic streamers, or other structure below the

surface. These additions were not included in this design to avoid animal entanglement

(Filmalter et al. 2013) and to maintain clearance along the mooring line for equipment

deployment (hydrophones, acoustic receivers and oceanographic monitoring equipment) and

retrieval during future stages of the research program.

Deployment

171   Several location parameters were taken into consideration when selecting locations for

the subsurface FADs, and the Exuma Sound (near the Cape Eleuthera Institute and base of

research operations) was ideally suited for this. First, a deep-water drop off was located near-

shore and accessible from the research station. Second, the area is a known migration route for

pelagic fishes. Although the bathymetry had not been accurately described, several known depth

points from previous deep-water research were used to select suitable locations and to

predetermine mooring line lengths.

178   Following the construction of the individual components on land, the anchor was

transported into shallow water at a nearby marina using a crane truck. Although in this case a

crane truck was used, the block could be constructed on a platform at the edge of the water and

deployed using rollers or a winch for simplicity. Once the anchor was submerged, three lift bags

(SP2000, Subsalve, North Kingstown, Rhode Island, USA) were attached to the anchor bail

using a release under load mechanism (Sea Catch TR7, MacMillan Design, Gig Harbor,

Washington, USA). A safety line was attached between the block and lift bag to prevent

premature deployment. Lift bags were inflated with compressed air and the anchor raised off the

bottom for towing behind a small boat. The tow line was attached above the release mechanism

so that if the anchor block dropped unexpectedly the weight of the anchor would not damage the

boat. Once at the deployment location, a second small vessel slowly released the mooring line

overboard and onto the surface of the water down current and away from the anchor attachment

point. A polyethylene ball float was attached to the free end of the mooring line to aid in

visualization of the rope during and after deployment. Following the deployment of the mooring

line from the vessel, snorkelers attached the anchor chain to the bail using a shackle, removed the

safety line between the block and the lift bags, and released the load-bearing mechanism using a

nylon rip cord thus dropping the block (Fig. 4). The location of the drop was positioned to be

1/3 of the depth up-current of the targeted FAD location to account for drag on the line pulling

the block in the down-current direction.

Following the anchor drop, the excess mooring line on the surface was recovered. The

mooring line was then elongated using lift bags attached at depth to simulate the ultimate tension

on the line from the FAD buoys. To do so, divers on SCUBA attached a lift bag to the mooring

line using a Prusik hitch at 25 m depth and filled the lift bag with compressed air (Fig. 5).

Following the lift bag's ascent to the surface, this process was continued until the line was under

approximately 600 kg of tension, evidenced by the 900 kg lift bag filled to approximately 66% of

total volume, and positioned at a static depth of 10 m without further elongation. At least 24

hours were allowed for a complete tidal cycle, and to allow the mooring line to undergo phase

one creep (stretching) to its ultimate length under load. If this time period resulted in reduced

tension, or if the lift bags reached the surface, the mooring line elongation process was repeated.

When the line was determined to have undergone all elongation, an eye-splice was used to attach

a rope protector to the mooring line just above the lift bag. A shackle, master link, and a 15 m

safety line with a fully inflated SP2000 lift bag were attached to the trailing end of the mooring

line at the surface to further ensure the mooring line did not retract. Two individually rigged

steel buoys were spliced onto the master link. After the attachment was complete, the lift bag

under tension was released allowing the recoil of the mooring line to submerge the buoys to a

depth of 10 to 15 m, at which point the inflated surface lift bag prevented any possible further

descent. A small polyethylene buoy was finally attached to the master link and filled with

compressed air as needed to fine tune buoyancy to the targeted 10 m depth resting point. Lastly,

a safety line (3/8" Spectra 12-strand braided line, 6,305 kg minimum tensile strength) was tied to

the master link, run through each eye-attachment point on the two buoys and tied back to the

master link. In the case of eye-ring failure or a buoy tether being severed, this line provides a

cut-resistant back-up to avoid the loss of a buoy or the entire FAD.

Removal Potential

While the durability and moored nature of the FAD design presented here results in a

robust and maintainable platform for longer time scales, these FADs are removable using the

same equipment and process needed for deployment and users can therefore avoid contributing

marine debris to the ocean following the conclusion of research activities. Although this would

involve some effort, divers repeatedly deploying lift bags down the mooring line will slowly

raise the anchor block which can then be towed to shallow water and allow for retrieval of the

entire FAD.

230   **Results and Discussion**

Design Considerations

Materials and operations were all considered and selected to not only meet the project

objectives, but to be accessible by a wide array of potential users including those at remote field

stations or research groups with limited funding and resources. It has been shown that price is

often a limiting factor during FAD creation and installation in remote island locations, and

although this is typically documented in the scope of bolstering fishing communities (Bell et al.

2015), financial restraints will similarly apply to research groups. During the development and

expansion of the Pacific FAD fishery, 2000 to 3000 USD was targeted for a reasonable total cost

for a deep-water FAD intended to last approximately 2 years (Chapman et al. 2005), so the 5000

USD total cost per FAD in this project was deemed appropriate when designing for a durable

longer-lasting structure. Longevity is also a high concern for surface FADs, with wave/weather

damage or vandalism frequently leading to loss of the FAD in less than two years (Chapman et

al. 2005, Tilley et al. 2019). Inspections in June 2019 (one and a half years after deployment),

using deep sea submersible surveys in the area, revealed that all parts of the FAD design

inaccessible to divers remain in good condition. The concrete anchor block, steel connections

(shackles, chain, swivels, etc.), polypropylene mooring line and steel buoys were all considered

to be affordable and possible to source and ship to a remote location and are standard options for

offshore FADs (Chapman et al. 2005). Recently, there has been considerable effort to construct

FADs from biodegradable materials to decrease marine debris and the potential negative impacts

on wildlife such as entanglement (Moreno et al. 2018). Increasing longevity through careful

design and robust synthetic materials was pursued during this project, although this could easily

be adapted for a shorter-lived but biodegradable version. Additionally, the FADs were deployed

using only SCUBA divers, a crane truck (or equivalent for pushing the anchor into the water), lift

bags, and two 8 m long inboard panga vessels. One possible price reduction was tested by using

three A-6 sized polyethylene buoys (Polyform A-6) instead of steel buoys, however this was

quickly proven to not work. Flexible buoys expand or contract with minimal changes in water

depth associated with the mooring line stretching or contracting, which in turn changes the

buoyancy and prevents a stable target depth. Additionally, several flexible buoys showed marks

consistent with teeth punctures by predatory fishes. Therefore, steel buoys soon replaced the

flexible buoys after deployment of the first FAD and are highly recommended. Alternative

mooring line materials were also considered, and materials such as Spectra or Dyneema are cut-

resistant and would dramatically reduce phase 1 creep (stretching), making buoy placement at a

target depth easier, however, these options are considerably more expensive and were avoided

for this reason.

The subsurface aspect of the FAD design was chosen for several reasons related to the

objectives of the project. First, 10 m depth was found to greatly minimize movement of the

structure by surge or during windy weather, and would prevent any potential boat strikes, adding

to the longevity of the infrastructure. Additionally, 10 m is an easily accessible and safe depth

for both SCUBA and freedivers to work or deploy/retrieve equipment and does not pose any

serious pressure-related stress to the buoys or equipment (at 2 atmospheres).

Research Applications and Conclusions

The subsurface anchored design of the FADs used in this study has proven to be a stable

and diverse scientific platform for more than three years. Many of the epipelagic fish species

that occur in the region have been documented at the FADs, ranging in trophic level and size

(Table 2). These anchored FADs allow the fish community to be continually monitored over

long temporal scales and can facilitate short and long-term experimental studies through

increased accessibility that would not be possible when using conventional offshore drifting

FADs. It is possible that these long-term stationary fish censuses could be representative of

actual population trends, and these data would therefore be useful to fisheries managers.

Additionally, Dagorn et al. (2010) previously argued that anchored FADs are acceptable and

useful proxies for drifting FADs to address research questions such as the ecological trap

hypothesis, and that they pose accessibility advantages while maintaining contextual similarities

to their drifting counterparts. A variety of methods that have been recently performed on surface

FADs and would be well-suited to this FAD design, many of which were proposed by Moreno et

al. (2016) as research priorities, are detailed in Table 3.

The subsurface aspect of the FADs used in this study, combined with the buoyancy of the

buoys used (362 kg of lift total), resulted in a taut mooring line. Therefore, this design presents

several unique opportunities for research activities. First, equipment can be shuttled up and

down the mooring line with a simple rigging system, enabling fixed depth/location deployment

of various instruments. This would otherwise be difficult without a taut mooring line.

Additionally, keeping the structure underneath the surface and away from any surge or waves

results in a nearly silent structure, presenting opportunities for investigation into fish sensory

biology in the open ocean, and for better hydroacoustic data collection (e.g., hydrophone

deployment for cetacean surveys). Finally, this tension ensured that the FAD buoys remained at

the known GPS location and did not sway with tidal or current flow. Although this study area

does not experience significant currents, locations with strong tidal flow should consider the

impact of horizontal forces on the FAD and mooring line.

Strategically designed FADs that are not open access can act as useful research platforms

to develop new monitoring approaches while maintaining the integrity of the study population

and enhance our understanding of how anthropogenic activity is affecting marine biodiversity.

For example, many animals that utilize pelagic FADs are fish species known to undergo long

migrations (Hallier and Gaertner 2008) which can be difficult to study. Whether following

seasonal changes in food abundance, thermal windows, or breeding opportunities (Alerstam et al.

2003), this migratory behavior most likely exposes them to various fisheries pressures and

potential overexploitation. Knowledge of how migratory animals respond to variable conditions

experienced during migration is a central component to understanding long-distance movement

patterns and their management. If data are collected consistently, this information can help

estimate population size, increase understanding of demographic variables needed in the

development of population viability models, reveal how wild fish species are impacted by

anthropogenically altered habitats, and can potentially be used for novel conservation

applications. These include the construction of scientific platforms (such as deep-water

subsurface FADs) along known migration routes to aid in the study of elusive migratory animals,

or the ability to alter movements of migratory animals through protected seascapes by enhancing

habitat preferences in these areas to minimize harvest. By utilizing FAD-based equipment such

as video cameras or acoustic telemetry receivers, information on behavior during migration can

be collected and used in fisheries conservation.

Pelagic animals are inherently difficult to study due to the expanse of their habitat, life

history, and behavior, resulting in a comparatively weak understanding of pelagic species

ecology and biology (Block et al. 2003). Therefore, in response to the recent call for developing

methods to collect fisheries-independent data to be used in management and stock assessments

(Moreno et al. 2016), a network of economical, instrumented, research-oriented subsurface

FADs such as those proposed here could provide substantial ecological and fisheries data that is

desperately needed to effectively conserve pelagic ecosystems and their biodiversity.

Authors' Contributions

TV, ES conceptualized the manuscript; ES, TV, MC wrote the manuscript and all authors

contributed substantially to revisions and accept responsibility for this work.

Literature Cited

Alerstam, T., A. Hedenstrom, S. Akesson. 2003. Long-distance migration: evolution and

determinants. Oikos 103:247-260.

Angel M.V. 1993. Biodiversity of the pelagic ocean. Conservation Biology 7(4):760-772.

Baske A., J. Gibbon, J. Benn, A. Nickson. 2012. Estimating the use of drifting fish aggregation

devices (FADs) around the globe. Pew Environmental Group Discussion Paper.

Baum J.K., and R.A. Myers. 2004. Shifting baselines and the decline of pelagic sharks in the

Gulf of Mexico. Ecology Letters 7:135-145.

Baum J.K., R.A. Myers, D.G. Kelhler, B. Worm, S.J. Harley, P.A. Doherty. 2003. Collapse and

conservation of shark populations in the northwest Atlantic. Science 299:389-392.

Bell J.D., J. Albert, S. Andrefouet, N.L. Andrew, M. Blanc, P. Bright, D. Brogan, B. Campbell,

H. Govan, J. Hampton, Q. Hanich, S. Harley, A. Jorari, M. Lincoln Smith, S. Pontifex,

M.K. Sharp, W. Sokimi, A. Webb. 2015. Optimising the use of near shore fish

aggregating devices for food security in the Pacific Islands. Marine Policy 56:98-105.

Block B.A., D.P. Costa, G.W. Boehlert, R.E. Kochevar. 2003. Revealing pelagic habitat use: the

tagging of Pacific pelagics program. Oceanologica Acta 25:255-266.

Brehmer P., G. Sancho, V. Trygonis, D. Itano, J. Dalen, A. Fuchs, A. Faraj, M. Taquet. 2019.

Towards an autonomous pelagic observatory: experiences from monitoring fish

communities around drifting FADs. Thalassas 35:177-189.

Buckley T.W., and B.S. Miller. 1994. Feeding habits of yellowfin tuna associated with fish
aggregation devices in American Samoa. Bulletin of Marine Science 55(2-3):445-459.

Castro J.J., J.A. Santiago, V. Hernandez-Garcia. 1999. Fish associated with fish aggregation
devices off the Canary Islands (central-east Atlantic). Scientia Marina 63(3-4):191-198.

Castro J.J., J.A. Santiago, A.T. Santana-Ortega. 2002. A general theory on fish aggregation to
floating objects: an alternative to the meeting point hypothesis. Reviews in Fish Biology
and Fisheries 11:255-277.

Chapman L., B. Pasisi, I. Bertram, S. Beverly, W. Sokimi. 2005. Manual on fish aggregating
devices (FADs): lower-cost moorings and programme management. Secretariat of the
Pacific Community.

Dagorn L., D. Pincock, C. Girard, K. Holland, M. Taquet, G. Sancho, D. Itano, R. Aumeeruddy.
2007. Satellite-linked acoustic receivers to observe behavior of fish in remote areas.
Aquatic Living Resources 20:307-312.

Dagorn L., K.N. Holland, J. Filmalter. 2010. Are drifting FADs essential for testing the
ecological trap hypothesis? Fisheries Research 106:60-63.

Davies T.K., C.C. Mees, E.J. Milner-Gulland. 2014. The past, present and future use of drifting
fish aggregating devices (FADs) in the Indian Ocean. Marine Policy 45:163-70.

Doray M., E. Josse, P. Gervain, L. Reynal, J. Chantrel. 2007. Joint use of echosounding, fishing
and video techniques to assess the structure of fish aggregations around moored fish
aggregating devices in Martinique (Lesser Antilles). Aquatic Living Resources 20:357-
366.

Dulvy N.K., J.K. Baum, S. Clarke, L.J.V. Compagno, E. Cortés, A. Domingo, S. Fordham, S.
Fowler, M.P. Francis, C. Gibson, J. Martínez, J.A. Musick, A. Soldo, J.D. Stevens, S.
Valenti. 2008. You can swim but you can't hide: the global status and conservation of
oceanic pelagic sharks and rays. Aquatic Conservation: Marine and Freshwater
Ecosystems 18(5):459-482.

FAO 2018. The state of world fisheries and aquaculture 2018- meeting the sustainable
development goals, Rome. License: CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 IGO.

Filmalter J., P. Cowley, F. Forget, L. Dagorn. 2015. Fine-scale 3-dimensional movement
behaviour of silky sharks *Carcharhinus falciformis* associated with fish aggregating
devices (FADs). Marine Ecology Progress Series 539:207-223.

Filmalter J.D., M. Capello, J.-L. Deneubourg, P.D. Cowley, L. Dagorn. 2013. Looking behind

the curtain: quantifying massive shark mortality in fish aggregating devices. Frontiers in

Ecology and the Environment 11(6):291-296.

Gershman D., A. Nickson, M. O'Toole. 2015. Estimating the use of FADs around the world.

Pew Environmental Group.

Gervain P., L. Reynal, J. Defoe, M. Ishida, E. Mohammed. 2015. Manual of best practices in

fisheries that use moored fish aggregating devices: FAD design, construction and

deployment. CRFM Special Publication 6(1):1-55.

Girard C., S. Benhamou, L. Dagorn. 2004. FAD: fish aggregating device or fish attracting

device? A new analysis of yellowfin tuna movements around floating objects. Animal

Behavior 67:319-326.

Hallier J.-P., and D. Gaertner. 2008. Drifting fish aggregation devices could act as an ecological

trap for tropical tuna species. Marine Ecology Progress Series 353:255-264.

Higashi G.R. 1994. Ten years of fish aggregating device (FAD) design development in Hawaii.

Bulletin of Marine Science 55(2-3):651-666.

Itano D., S. Fukofuka, D. Brogan. 2004. The development, design and recent status of anchored

and drifting FADs in the WCPO. Working Paper INF –FTWG-3, Standing Committee on

Tuna and Billfish.

Lopez J., G. Moreno, C. Lennert-Cody, M. Maunder, I. Sancristobal, A. Caballero, L. Dagorn.

2017. Environmental preferences of tuna and non-tuna species associated with drifting

fish aggregating devices (DFADs) in the Atlantic Ocean, ascertained through fishers'

echo-sounder buoys. Deep-Sea Research II 140:127-138.

Lopez J., G. Moreno, G. Boyra, L. Dagorn. 2016. A model based on data from echosounder

buoys to estimate biomass of fish species associated with fish aggregating devices.

Fisheries Bulletin 114:166-178.

Merten W., R. Rivera, R. Appeldoorn, K. Serrano, O. Collazo, N. Jimenez. 2018. Use of video

monitoring to quantify spatial and temporal patterns in fishing activity across sectors at

moored fish aggregating devices off Puerto Rico. Scientia Marina 82(2).

Mills D., and A. Tilley. 2019. Exploring options to improve livelihoods and resource

management in Timor-Leste's coastal communities. Report for the Australian Centre

for International Agricultural Research FR2019-46.

Miyake M.P., P. Guillotreau, C.-H. Sun, G. Ishimura. 2010. Recent developments in the tuna
413   industry. FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Technical Paper 543.

414 Moreno G., L. Dagorn, M. Capello, J. Lopez, J. Filmalter, F. Forget, I. Sancristobal, K. Holland.
415   2016. Fish aggregating devices (FADs) as scientific platforms. Fisheries Research
416   178:122-129.

417 Moreno G., R. Jauhary, S.M. Adam, V. Restrepo. 2018. Moving away from synthetic materials
418   used at FADs: evaluating biodegradable ropes degradation. Collective Volume of
419   Scientific Papers 74(5):2192-2198.

420 Pons M., M.C. Melnychuk, R. Hilborn. 2018. Management effectiveness of large pelagic
421   fisheries in the high seas. Fish and Fisheries 19:260-270.

422 Robison B.H. 2009. Conservation of deep pelagic biodiversity. Conservation Biology 23:847-
423   858.

424 Sokimi W. 2006. Fish aggregating devices: the Okinawa/Pacific experience. Fish. News.- South
425   Pacific Commission, 119, 45.

426 Taquet M., M. Blanc, L. Dagorn, J.D. Filmalter, A. Fonteneau, F. Forget, J.C. Gaertner, R.
427   Galzin, P. Gervain, M. Goujon, P. Guillotreau, O. Guyader, M. Hall, K. Holland, D.
428   Itano, J.P. Monteagudo, B. Morales-Nin, L. Reynal, M. Sharp, W. Sokimi, M. Tanetoa, S.
429   Yen Kai Sun. 2011. Artisanal and industrial FADs: A question of scale. Tahiti conference
430   reviews current FAD use and technology. Fisheries Newsletter 136:35-45.

431 Tilley A., S.P. Wilkinson, J. Kolding, J. Lopez-Angarita, M. Pereira, D.J. Mills. 2019. Nearshore
432   fish aggregating devices show positive outcomes for sustainable fisheries development in
433   Timor-Leste. Frontiers in Marine Science 6:487.

434 Tolotti M.T., F. Forget, M. Capello, J.D. Filmalter, M. Hutchinson, D. Itano, K. Holland, L.
435   Dagorn. 2020. Association dynamics of tuna and purse seine bycatch species with
436   drifting fish aggregating devices (FADs) in the tropical eastern Atlantic Ocean. Fisheries
437   Research 226:105521.

438 Verity P.G., V. Smetacek, T.J. Smayda. 2002. Status, trends and the future of the marine pelagic
439   ecosystem. Environmental Conservation 29(2):207-237.

440 Webb T.J., E. Vanden Berghe, R O'Dor. 2010. Biodiversity's big wet secret: The global
441   distribution of marine biological records reveals chronic under-exploration of the deep
442   pelagic ocean. PLoS ONE 5(8):e10223.

443   Weng J.S., M.K. Hung, C.C. Lai, L.J. Wu, M.A. Lee, K.M. Liu. 2013. Fine-scale vertical and

444   horizontal movements of juvenile yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) associated with a

445   subsurface fish aggregating device (FAD) off southwestern Taiwan. Journal of Applied

446   Icthyology 29:990-1000.

461   **Tables**

462 Table 1. Selected examples from a search of studies using anchored FADs that include

463 information on materials or deployment, that are subsurface (or 'midwater'), or that were

464 deployed in depths ≥ 500 m and therefore comparable to our proposed design. 'Buoy Depth' of

465 0 represents a surface FAD. Substantial and replicable information must be included on

466 materials used or deployment processes to qualify as 'Yes'.

FAD Type	Bottom Depth (m)	Buoy Depth (m)	Materials Info	Deployment Info	Location	Reference
Surface and subsurface	300-2000	0-?	Yes	Yes	Pacific Islands	Chapman et al., 2005
Surface	<200	0	Yes	Yes	Timor-Leste	Mills & Tilley, 2019
Surface	100-3000	0	Yes	Yes	Caribbean	Gervain et al., 2015
Surface and subsurface	1000-2000	50-100	Yes	No	Japan	Sokimi, 2006
Surface and subsurface	146-2761	0-18	Yes	No	Hawaii	Higashi, 1994
Surface	<5000	0	Yes	No	Pacific Islands	Itano et al., 2004
Subsurface	415	50	No	No	Taiwan	Weng et al., 2013
Surface and subsurface	50-2500	?	No	No	Pacific Islands	Taquet et al., 2011
Surface and subsurface	300-700	0-?	No	No	Pacific Islands	Bell et al., 2015
Surface	260-600	0	No	No	Puerto Rico	Merten et al., 2018
Surface	50-500	0	No	No	Canary Islands	Castro et al., 1999
Surface	1000-2200	0	No	No	American Samoa	Buckley & Miller, 1994
Surface	2000-2500	0	No	No	Martinique	Doray et al., 2007

Table 2. Species documented on these subsurface FADs in the Exuma Sound during the course

of a 2.5 year camera survey (in preparation for publication elsewhere), separated into resident

intranatant versus ephemeral circumnatant species, compared to other epipelagic fishes

documented in the Exuma Sound (personal communication: Z. Zuckerman, Cape Eleuthera

Institute) but remain absent from our subsurface FAD surveys. An asterisk (*) denotes species

present within first 6 months after FAD deployment.

Present on subsurface FAD surveys		Absent from subsurface FAD surveys
Intranatant	**Circumnatant**	**Recorded in Exuma Sound**
Aluterus Monoceros*	*Acanthocybium solandri**	*Carcharhinus longimanus*
Balistes capriscus*	*Carcharhinus falciformis**	*Istiophorus albicans*
Cantherhines spp.*	*Carcharhinus obscurus*	*Kajikia albidus*
Canthidermis sufflamen*	*Cheilopogon melanurus*	*Makaira nigricans*
Carangidae spp.*	*Coryphaena hippurus**	*Scomberomorus cavalla*
Caranx latus*	*Elagatis bipinnulata**	
Caranx ruber*	*Galeocerdo cuvier**	
Decapterus spp.*	*Hemiramphus* spp.	
Decapterus macarellus*	*Sarda sarda*	
Peprilus triacanthus	*Sphyraena barracuda**	
Seriola rivoliana*	*Sphyrna mokorran*	
	Thunnus albacares	
	Thunnus spp.	

488   Table 3. Recently utilized methods for FAD-based research that lend well to a stable, subsurface

489   platform.

Examples of surface FAD-based methods				
Method	**Species**	**Data Collected**	**Potential Influence of Data**	**References**
Acoustic telemetry attachment	Fish	Residence (presence/absence), some behavioral patterns	Reduction in fisheries interactions and bycatch	Tolotti et al., 2020 Filmalter et al., 2015 Dagorn et al., 2007
Video survey	Humans, fish	Fishing activity, species presence/aggregation dynamics	Managing FAD use, understanding aggregation	Merten et al., 2018 Doray et al., 2007
Echosounder/ modelling	Any	Biomass	Understanding ecosystem effects of FADs	Lopez et al., 2016
Animal collection	Bivalve	Muscle tissue for stable isotope analysis, stomach contents	Characterize low levels of pelagic food web, ecosystem-based management, diet analysis	Unpublished data (B. Talwar, Cape Eleuthera Institute)

Figures

Figure 1. Schematic of the subsurface fish aggregation device (FAD) currently being used at The

Cape Eleuthera Institute, The Bahamas. FAD design consists of a concrete anchor block,

mooring line, and two steel buoys. Steel buoys are moored 10m below the sea surface to prevent

detection by fishers and to create tension and verticality in the mooring line for gear deployment.

Diagram not to scale.

Figure 2. Stainless steel round stock bail that was incorporated into the top of the concrete

anchor block to serve as the attachment point between the block and metal chain, which was the

beginning of the mooring line.

Figure 3. Top end of the mooring line showing an eye splice to a rope connector, swivel, bolt

through shackle, and 7/8" master link to which the buoys (and a safety line during deployment)

were attached.

Figure 4. Initial stage of the FAD deployment process. The concrete anchor block is suspended

by lift bags and attached to the mooring line that has been deployed overboard onto the sea

surface down-current from the anchor. The anchor is positioned 1/3 the length of the mooring

line up-current of the targeted resting location.

530   Figure 5. Schematic showing the process of removing slack from the mooring line following

531   deployment. A diver attaches a deflated lift bag to the slack mooring line using a Prusik hitch

532   and slowly inflates the bag. This process is repeated until the desired tension on the mooring line

533   has been reached and the steel buoys are then attached.