

Proposed Solar PV Development

Byers Gill Solar EN010139

8.16 Comments on Deadline 3 Submissions

Planning Act 2008

APFP Regulation 5(2)(q) Infrastructure Planning (Applications: Prescribed Forms and Procedure) Regulations 2009 Volume 8 Deadline 4 – October 2024 Revision C01

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1. Introduction

1.1. Purpose of this document

- 1.1.1. This document provides comments from RWE (the Applicant) on submissions made by Interested Parties at Deadline 3 (19 September 2024) of the Examination of Byers Gill Solar (the Proposed Development). Submissions by Interested Parties at Deadline 3 were limited in number, and primarily relate to comments on the Applicant's response to the first written questions (ExQ1), and other submissions made at Deadline 2.
- 1.1.2. This document also provides an update on matters discussed at earlier Deadlines, where there has been progression since the submissions made at that time, and where this falls outside of the Statement of Common Ground (SoCG) process.

2. Comments on Deadline 3 Submissions

- 2.1.1. The table below provides the Applicant's comments on submissions made at Deadline 3. This sets out the document that was submitted at Deadline 3, the Interested Party that submitted the document, and a summary of the content that the Applicant wishes to comment on, before providing the Applicant comment.
- 2.1.2. The Applicant has sought to summarise only the parts of any submission that it wishes to comment on. As such, elements of any submission to which the Applicant has no response are not included in the below table.

Table 2-1 Applicant comments on submissions at Deadline 3

¹ BHS (undated) 'Advice on solar farms near routes used by equestrians (solar-0424.pdf (bhs.org.uk)

3. Update on Matters Raised at Earlier Deadlines

3.1. Introduction

3.1.1. The sections below provide an update on matters raised in submissions at earlier Deadlines, including where the Applicant has committed to providing further information or clarification.

3.2. Noise modelling

- 3.2.1. Under reference 5.12.4-6 of its response to the DBC LIR [REP2-008], the Applicant committed to review and discuss queries raised that had been raised relating to the noise assessment, and in particular the existing sensitive receptors (ESRs). The Applicant has now completed a review of this matter and has identified that some ESRs were not correctly depicted in ES Figure 11.1 or ES Appendix 11.4. These have been updated to include the full suite of ESRs, as provided at this deadline in ES Appendix 11.4 BS4142 Assessment Calculations (Document Reference 6.4.11.4, Revision 2) and ES Figure 11.1 Sensitive Receptor Location Plan (Document Reference 6.3.11.1, Revision 2).
- 3.2.2. Furthermore, in response to matters raised in the DBC LIR and by Interested Parties regarding construction noise, including on livery businesses [REP2-059, RR-209, RR-533], the Applicant has undertaken further construction noise modelling. This is presented in the ES Chapter 11 Noise and Vibration Addendum – Construction Noise (Document Reference 8.17).

3.3. Further response regarding heritage

- 3.3.1. At Deadline 2, the BVAG Landscape and Visual Review [REP2-044] made reference to potential archaeological features such as a medieval deer park that had not otherwise been identified in the Applicant's heritage analysis. This was identified by the BVAG representative as running around 400m west of the Scheduled Monument at Bishopton, to the west of Folly Bank Lane, where there is a deep ditch followed by a steep bank. The Applicant, in responding at Deadline 3 [REP3-005, Page 42] committed to review this in detail and provide an update at Deadline 4.
- 3.3.2. The Applicant's heritage expert has reviewed available information including Historic Environment Record (HER), LiDAR and historic mapping and has concluded that it does not suggest that the bank is representative of a former deer park. There are no other extant field boundaries in the area which follow the bank, or any visible on historic mapping which could have been removed later. The earthwork is also not traceable on the LiDAR data beyond the short section noted on Folly Bank while no record exists within the HER of such a feature having been present. While the provenance of the bank is unknown at this point in time, the Applicant considers that it is unlikely such a feature would be of more than low significance and as a result will fall

under the requirements set out within the Archaeological Management Strategy for preservation by record [APP-149].

A.1 RSK Literature Review – Impacts of Solar Farms on Biodiversity

Longfield Solar Energy Farm Ltd

A SUMMARY OF THE PUBLISHED EVIDENCE ON THE IMPACTS OF SOLAR FARMS ON BIODIVERSITY

Richard Delahay & Danielle Sherman - RSK Biocensus

DOCUMENT REFERENCE: PRJ00059-LONG-PLN-HSE-REP-000002

1 Document Control

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2 Introduction

2.1 Background

Solar farms can make a significant contribution to the transition to renewable energy sources required to reduce carbon emissions and limit global warming. In that regard, solar alongside other renewable energy sources, can be viewed as benefiting biodiversity by reducing the detrimental effects of fossil fuel derived pollution and climate change.

Like all developments solar farms will impact on local biodiversity during their construction and subsequent operation. The magnitude of such effects will be largely determined by local conditions and the net impact on biodiversity once a solar installation is operational will depend on the characteristics of the modified habitat in relation to what it replaced. Clearly, there are opportunities to design and manage these modified habitats, that sit beneath, between and in the immediate vicinity of solar panels and associated infrastructure, in the interests of enhancing biodiversity. Hence carefully designed schemes could deliver net gains in biodiversity, particularly where they are sited in nature-depleted locations. However, to realise such gains, it will also be important to understand any negative impacts on biodiversity that arise from solar farms.

2.2 Aims

In this report we describe the current evidence base relating to the impacts of solar farms on biodiversity. We particularly focus on the evidence for negative and positive impacts of operational solar farms and associated habitat management practices. Consequently, we do not consider in any detail the potential impacts that the development footprint may have as these will vary widely amongst sites and are dealt with as part of site-specific ecological impact assessments. The over-arching purpose of this review is to understand the nature of the existing evidence base relating to risks and opportunities for biodiversity on solar farms, identifying common themes and important knowledge gaps.

3 Approach

3.1 Review of published articles

The scope of the literature review was defined as follows,

- Subject matter restricted to solar panels (or photovoltaic panels), excluding other solar power generation methods such as condensing or parabolic arrays.
- Articles published in the last 20 years (period 2002 to 2022 inclusive).
- A focus on studies of likely relevance to temperate regions (such as the UK).
- Articles should include an abstract/executive summary in the English language.

We searched the Web of Science (WoS) database of research publications and citations for published scientific articles. Search terms were 'solar farm', 'solar panel' or 'solar array', each in combination with one of a series of other secondary terms (see Table 1). The choice of secondary search terms reflected the need to identify any articles describing broad impacts on biodiversity, but also included specific groups of organisms of particular interest (e.g., pollinators, birds, bats).

3.2 Review of 'grey literature'

The same search strategy as described above was used to find relevant 'grey literature' such as reports, guidance notes, policy statements and other articles not published in the scientific press. The terms above (see also Table 1) were therefore used in conventional internet searches using Google©. All articles identified on the first ten pages of search results were collated.

3.3 Screening search results

Results of the searches were combined, and duplicates removed before being screened independently by the authors for relevance based on the title and/or abstract content. The resulting sample of articles was then subjected to a second screening whereupon

each article was examined in more detail for relevance and was classified according to several criteria. For each article we determined whether it involved the collection of primary data from solar farms (the alternative being that it either didn't include any data or cited the results of other studies), the geographic region it covered (i.e. Africa, Asia, Australasia, Europe, North America, South America or Global) and whether it targeted a particular taxonomic group (i.e. plants, invertebrates, birds, mammals, others). We also identified studies that included quantitative assessment of the effects of habitat management at solar farms, and those that reported any negative impacts of solar farm operation on biodiversity.

4 Results

The WoS search identified 471 hits in total (see Table 1). However, after screening out all the duplicates this was reduced to 381 articles. Further screening, initially on titles and/or abstracts and subsequently on other content, identified a sub-set of 29 articles of direct relevance to the impacts of solar farms on biodiversity. These articles themselves cited a further 10 relevant publications which had not been identified by the original search, resulting in a final total of 39 articles. The internet searches for grey literature resulted in 184 hits which after the removal of duplicates and screening for relevance revealed 18 sources of relevant information. Hence the final number of relevant articles identified by the searches was 57, comprising 33 published scientific papers, 15 reports and 9 miscellaneous documents (see Appendix for complete list).

Although our searches included any articles published during the last 20 years, none published prior to 2010 survived the screening process. Nevertheless, the literature searches clearly indicate that the number of articles on biodiversity on solar farms has increased in recent years (Figure 1). Although this general trend is apparent for both scientific papers and other articles, it is most pronounced for the former.

The overwhelming majority of articles on biodiversity and solar farms related to studies originating from Europe and North America (Figure 2). Where articles focused on particular taxonomic groups the most common were birds, closely followed by insects, then plants, with fewer studies on mammals (Figure 3). However, all four species groups were equally represented in studies published in scientific journals indicating that the variation was driven entirely by other article types. Very few articles of either type focused on other species.

Only 19 (33.3%) articles included the collection of primary data from solar farms and only 8 (14.0%) involved any empirical assessment of the impact of different habitat management regimes on biodiversity. Of the latter, all involved the collection of primary data, except one article (Blaydes et al., 2021) which included a meta-analysis of results from several other studies. Plants were the most frequent taxonomic group of interest in articles reporting on primary data collection from solar farms, featuring in 11 (57.9%) such studies. Insects and birds were the subject of on-site field studies in six and five instances respectively, with mammals only appearing in two studies. Many articles (n=32, 56.1%) described negative effects of operational solar farms on biodiversity, but few (n=7, 12.3% of the total number of articles) demonstrated such effects from on-site collection of primary data.

Table 1 : Search terms and numbers of articles identified from the searches of the WoS bibliographic database (for articles in the scientific press) and of the internet (for other articles).

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*Indicates any additional letters (e.g., to account for plurals).

Figure 1: Numbers of articles on biodiversity and solar farms published in the scientific press (Journal Article) or available elsewhere in the public domain (Other) since 2010.

Figure 2: Numbers of articles on biodiversity and solar farms published in the scientific press (Journal Article) or available elsewhere in the public domain (Other), shown by geographic region.

Figure 3: Number of articles on biodiversity and solar farms per taxonomic group showing the proportion published in the scientific press (Journal Article) or available elsewhere in the public domain (Other). The totals per taxonomic group sum to more than the 57 articles identified by the literature search as several studies involved more than one group.

5 Discussion

Our review of the available literature suggests that the evidence base relating to biodiversity impacts of solar farms is relatively limited. We were only able to identify 33 scientific articles and 24 other relevant publications from the period 2002 to 2022 inclusive. Although our literature search will not have identified every relevant article published during this period (as for example we only used a single bibliographic database) it is likely to include the majority of most influential works as we scanned all articles for citations of other relevant studies. This also suggests that our sample of articles is sufficient to infer broad trends in the evidence base.

Of the 57 articles identified in the literature search, only a third involved direct data collection from solar farm sites. Hence, the evidence base underpinning current practice and recommendations does not appear to be well developed. The paucity of studies involving collection of primary data from solar farms also suggests that the broad referencing of negative impacts on biodiversity (56.1% of all articles described negative effects) is based on relatively little empirical data. Although the majority of articles originated from Europe and North America, this was partly the result of our general focus on evidence of relevance to temperate regions, but their dominance was such that this may also reflect real regional differences in publication interest.

The land take required to create solar farms can be relatively large compared to other energy generating operations (Fthenakis & Kim, 2009) and so, depending on location, the loss and fragmentation of existing habitats could be potentially significant. Net impacts of solar farm construction on biodiversity will reflect the relative values of the previous habitats and those that are created subsequently. Protected areas, priority and sensitive habitats should clearly be avoided, and further research on threshold distances from solar farms for any detrimental effects on biodiversity would allow conservation buffer zones to be identified (Smith & Dwyer, 2016). Dhar et al. (2020) reviewed the evidence for environmental impacts of solar panel developments and concluded that most of the impacts (including habitat fragmentation and loss of biota) could be minimised through appropriate management and monitoring. Developments on agricultural and brownfield sites of low biodiversity value for example may be able to achieve significant net benefits for biodiversity if appropriately designed and managed (Lammerant et al., 2020). For example, Armstrong et al. (2016) demonstrated the development of species-rich meadow on solar farm land that was previously arable, whilst a study of 11 solar farms in the UK revealed greater abundance of several native species groups compared to control plots on adjacent undeveloped farmland (Montag et al., 2016).

Impacts on existing habitats may include removal of large areas of topsoil and hence alteration of soil composition (including carbon content), biotic communities and the composition of regenerating vegetation. Significantly less carbon and nitrogen has been observed in solar farm soils compared to undeveloped adjacent land, likely due to the removal of topsoil during construction (Choi et al., 2020). However, stripping of topsoil from agricultural land that has been 'improved' by the addition of fertilisers is a wellestablished technique for the restoration of native plant communities which thrive better in nutrient poor soils. A study of three solar farms in France showed that although soil quality, the flow of carbon and microbial activity were similar to that in recently abandoned agricultural land and lower than in semi-natural habitats, this did not impair early successional plant communities (Lambert et al., 2021).

The installation of solar panels creates new microclimatic conditions at the soil surface beneath them, including lower temperatures, irregular distribution of rainwater, enhanced moisture retention (Choi et al., 2020; Lambert et al., 2021; Vervloesem et al., 2022), reduced organic matter and lower microbial activity (Moscatelli et al., 2022). However, despite such changes Moscatelli et al. (2022) concluded that this should not compromise reversion to agricultural land, whilst Macknick et al. (2013) cited evidence that the reduced temperatures beneath solar panels may increase their efficiency. Solar panels also provide some shelter from strong solar radiation, which Tanner et al. (2020) found improved plant species richness in a desert environment. In contrast, several European studies reported that the conditions beneath solar panels resulted in reduced plant biomass and diversity (Armstrong et al., 2016; Uldrijan et al., 2022; Vervloesem et al., 2022). Conflicting results have been reported in relation to crop growth beneath solar panels (see Marrou et al., 2013). Hence, effects are likely to vary with the prevailing conditions and so optimising biodiversity gains beneath the panels may require careful consideration of which plant species to use in revegetation schemes. Nevertheless, the intrinsic heterogeneity in microclimate on solar farms might be beneficial in terms of favouring a diversity of niches for plant and invertebrate species (Choi et al., 2020; Blaydes et al., 2021; Nordberg et al., 2021). It is important to recognise that microclimate and soil characteristics will also vary according to solar farm design, particularly the distance between panels and arrays, the height and orientation of panels (Lammerant et al., 2020). There is a clear need for better evidence on how to maximise biodiversity and ecosystem service benefits through habitat management beneath solar panels. Beatty et al. (2017) suggested that adjusting panel height and spacing could be used to reduce any detrimental effects on soil quality and plant growth, enhance structural complexity and thereby enhance biodiversity benefits. A study in Germany provided evidence that wider gaps between rows of solar panels

could yield multiple benefits for biodiversity (Peschel et al., 2019) indicating how additional benefits could be achieved through design change.

The UK's Building Research Establishment (BRE) estimates that solar farm infrastructure typically disturbs less than 5% of the ground, that panels cover only 25-40% of the development footprint and that sites have an expected lifespan of at least 20 years (BRE, 2014). This suggests there are considerable opportunities for the creation of biodiverse habitats on solar farms, and there is no shortage of published recommendations on how to achieve this (e.g. BRE, 2014; Fox & Bennett, 2019; Lammerant et al., 2020; Miller et al., 2013; Parker & Monkhouse, 2022; Solar Energy UK, 2022; Steinberger, 2021). These potential opportunities for biodiversity gains have been recognised by several conservation organisations, some of which have engaged actively in the production of guidance (see BRE, 2014). Nevertheless, our literature search identified very few studies that presented empirical evidence for the relative effectiveness of different habitat management regimes. Hence, many of the recommendations available in published guidance for enhancing biodiversity on solar farms are based on well-established general principles of habitat creation and restoration, rather than on evidence derived from in-situ studies. But the potential for collating such evidence is increasing as relevant management interventions become more commonplace.

Planting with native species can relatively quickly create extensive plant cover under solar arrays, for example Beatty et al. (2017) describe achieving native grassland cover within three years. Lambert et al. (2022) also demonstrated success by seeding rather than relying on natural regeneration when restoring Mediterranean grassland beneath solar panels. Rapidly establishing vegetation cover will likely provide additional benefits such as controlling soil erosion and rainwater runoff (Beatty et al., 2017). Sowing traditional grasses or wildflowers (e.g. fine grasses and herbs) may also provide vegetation cover that is more drought resistant than agricultural crops or pasture grasses, since they tend to have deeper roots (Gazdag & Parker 2019). This may be important in maintaining biodiversity and other ecosystem services of species-rich grasslands (e.g. carbon storage) in the face of global climate change. Low intensity livestock grazing can be employed as an effective means of managing grassland habitats (also called conservation grazing). Sinha et al. (2018) demonstrated that seeding with native flora followed by periodic grazing resulted in greater richness of plant and animal species on a solar farm compared to adjacent undeveloped land. Similar biodiversity benefits have been observed elsewhere although they will decline as grazing pressure increases (e.g. Parker and McQueen 2013). The timing of grazing is also important as native plants can be allowed to flower and set seed by suspending grazing at particular times of year, such as in either spring or summer to favour early or late flowering species in the UK (BRE, 2014). By combining conservation grazing with animal production it may be possible to devise strategies that produce biodiversity benefits (and other ecosystem services) whilst also generating income (Nordberg et al., 2021).

Habitat creation on solar farms provides opportunities to substantially enhance these locations for invertebrates. One UK study showed that the abundance of butterflies and bumblebees was greater on a sample of 11 solar farms compared to adjacent undeveloped farmland, and on solar farms that been managed in the interests of wildlife the diversity of these species was also higher (Montag et al., 2016). In another UK study the density of bumblebees and their nests was enhanced on solar farms that were entirely managed as wildflower meadows compared to those with only wildflower margins (Blaydes et al., 2022). Comparison of a pollinatorfriendly versus a turfgrass solar farm showed higher plant and insect diversity on the former, with the added benefit of the flowerrich habitat providing a cooling effect which improved the energy output of the panels under certain conditions (Martin, 2022). Several articles provide recommendations to improve habitats on solar farms for the benefit of insects (e.g. BRE, 2014; Fox & Bennett, 2019), but in many cases supporting empirical evidence is not provided. Notable exceptions are reviews by Dolezal et al. (2021) and Blaydes et al. (2021). The latter included a systematic assessment of information relating to the effectiveness of management interventions proposed to benefit pollinators, which led to ten evidence-based recommendations on improving solar farm management for pollinators. Recommendations arising from these two reviews include providing a diverse mix of flowering plants including native perennials, ensuring season-long access to foraging resources, creating habitats for nest sites and minimising the use of agrochemicals. Such approaches have the capacity to substantially increase the attractiveness of solar farm habitats to invertebrates above that of adjacent species-poor agricultural land. Furthermore, enhancing rurally located solar farms for invertebrates could potentially provide a source of pollinating and pest-predating insects to the benefit of surrounding agricultural land (Dolezal et al., 2021; Blaydes et al., 2021). Solar farms managed as wildflower meadows have been shown to have more foraging bumblebees in the immediately surrounding area than those comprised of turf (Blaydes et al., 2022). It has been suggested that locating honeybee hives on solar farms could also boost local pollination services, although this would require careful consideration given the potential for detrimental impacts on native pollinators (Armstrong et al., 2021).

Parts of the solar farm that are not dominated by the arrays of panels, such as field margins and areas around access routes, can provide opportunities for a range of generic interventions to benefit wildlife. Examples include retained or planted hedgerows, clumps of shrubs, ponds, log and brash piles and ditches or swales (e.g. BRE, 2014; Solar Energy UK, 2022). However, it will be

necessary to better understand the potential for detrimental effects of solar panels on various species groups (see below), such as bats, birds and aquatic invertebrates in particular, to assess whether they are likely to benefit from such enhancements.

There is conflicting evidence for the abundance and diversity of bird species on solar farms in relation to surrounding areas. One study in the US identified lower bird species diversity on sites with solar panels compared to adjacent grassland, but substantially higher densities of certain species on the former (DeVault et al., 2014). Visser et al. (2019) observed reduced abundance and diversity of bird species on a solar facility compared to adjacent land. In contrast a comparative study by Montag et al. (2018) indicated that bird species diversity was higher overall on solar farm sites than adjacent undeveloped agricultural land, and bird abundance was higher on two of the solar farms. They attributed these benefits to the more diverse habitat providing better foraging and the availability of perching opportunities on the solar panels. Other studies have also identified birds using solar panels for perching, shade and providing nesting opportunities (Parker & McQueen, 2013; DeVault et al., 2014; Hernandez et al., 2014).

Despite calls for more studies on the potential adverse impacts of operational solar farms on wildlife (e.g. RSPB, 2014; Harrison et al., 2017; US Department of Energy, 2021) empirical evidence remains limited. This is captured by our literature search which only identified 19 articles (33.3% of the total) that described the collection of primary field data from solar farm sites. Potential impacts on birds were mentioned widely in the literature, although often the same small number of primary data sources were cited as supporting evidence. There is a clear lack of observational and experimental studies on impacts of solar farms on wildlife, and several articles identified a need for standardised approaches to assessing and monitoring solar farms for adverse impacts on birds and bats in particular (Walston et al., 2015; Conkling et al., 2021). Bird conservation groups have highlighted the absence of sufficient monitoring data from a range of sites to be able to determine whether solar farms are likely to have significant impacts on bird populations (e.g. RSPB, 2014) and have consequently developed best-practice guidance on monitoring and assessment methods (Jenkins et al., 2017). Specific guidance has also been developed for monitoring bird mortality associated with large-scale solar installations (Huso et al., 2021).

Collision with infrastructure on solar farms has been reported as a cause of mortality in birds, including endangered species (Penniman & Duffy, 2021), although the frequency of such incidents varies amongst sites (e.g. Kagan et al., 2014; Visser et al., 2019; Kosciuth et al., 2020), with one UK study finding no evidence of bird mortalities from solar panels (Feltwell, 2013). Avian mortality data from solar farms is subject to many potential biases and variation relating to the type of solar development and location. For example, mortality rates varied widely amongst different types of solar installation in a US study, with estimated collision rates for solar panel facilities being lower than for condensing or parabolic arrays (Kagan et al., 2014; Walston et al., 2016). Also, studies of mortality rates from the USA have focused on very large installations in arid environments, and so may not be reliably extrapolated to circumstances elsewhere. The majority of reports of bird mortality on solar farms suggest that collisions with infrastructure such as transmission lines may be more important than direct collisions with solar panels (e.g. Harrison et al., 2016; Kagan et al., 2014). Walston et al. (2016) concluded that passerine species were most at risk but using empirical data on bird collisions from a range of studies they estimated that overall mortality related to solar installations was likely to be negligible compared to other anthropogenic causes of death (e.g. wind turbines, power plants, other infrastructure). However, even relatively low levels of mortality could potentially have cumulative effects, particularly where clusters of solar developments occur (Birdlife Europe, 2011).

Some concern has been expressed that birds might collide with solar panels if they were to mistake them for waterbodies, a phenomenon sometimes referred to as the 'lake effect' (Kagan et al., 2014). It might be expected that such an effect would pose the greatest risk to migratory waterbirds and although a relatively high proportion of 'water-dependent' species were amongst the collision fatalities recorded at one large solar installation (Kagan et al., 2014) there is no evidence to directly support the 'lake effect' (Kosciuch et al., 2020). It has also been suggested that birds which drink on the wing (e.g. swallows) may be at risk (Bernath et al., 2001; Harrison et al., 2017), although evidence is again lacking. Measures that have been suggested to mitigate these perceived collision risks include avoiding provision of waterbodies on solar farms (Smith & Dwyer, 2016) and tilting solar panels to an upright position at night to reduce reflection of moonlight (Penniman & Duffy, 2021). However, the value of such measures is unclear as the question of whether solar farms contribute to bird mortality through collisions requires further investigation. Future studies should employ standardised monitoring approaches (Walston et al., 2015) and consider the potential for cumulative effects. It would also be useful to better understand whether solar farms may have indirect adverse impacts on bird populations (Lammerant et al., 2020), for example through enhanced predation (Smith & Dwyer, 2016).

One potential adverse impact of solar farms that has benefited from experimental studies is the issue of flying insects being attracted to solar panels. Mayflies, stone flies, long-legged flies, and horse flies have been shown to be attracted to solar panels as they use highly polarized reflected light to guide them towards water to lay their eggs (Horvath et al. 2010; Farkas et al. 2016). Other invertebrate species have also been shown to be similarly attracted to highly polarized light (e.g. Egri et al., 2016) with concerns being

raised that interference with egg-laying (oviposition) behaviour could have the potential to cause population-level impacts (Taylor et al., 2019). Although many other artificial surfaces can also cause misplaced egg-laying behaviour in invertebrates, the impact of solar panels could potentially be locally significant if located near diverse assemblages of aquatic insects. Horvath et al. (2010) advised consideration of the presence of important populations of aquatic invertebrates when deciding on the location of solar farms and employing white borders or grids on panels to break up the reflective areas making them less attractive to egg laying invertebrates. Subsequent work indicated that white non-polarizing grids of line width 1-5 mm were sufficient to deter ovipositing behaviour in all aquatic insect taxa tested (Black & Robertson, 2020). Penniman & Duffy (2021) raised the question of whether such measures might also usefully help reduce the likelihood that birds would similarly mistake panels for water, although there is little evidence to support this hypothesis. Anti-reflective coating has also been proposed as a means of creating less polarized light although more research is required as its effects varied amongst insect taxa and under different prevailing light conditions (Szaz et al., 2016). Subsequently, Fritz et al. (2020) have showed that a micro-textured cover layer was effective in reducing polarized light reflection and hence the attractiveness of solar panels to horse flies and mayflies. However, there is little field evidence to confirm any adverse effects of insitu solar panels on oviposition behaviour in insects.

Experimental studies indicate that bats can mistake horizontal smooth surfaces for water and attempt to drink from them (Greif & Siemers 2010) whilst vertical smooth surfaces can be mistaken for clear flight paths (Greif et al. 2017). This has raised concerns that bats might accidentally collide with solar panels, or that their reflective properties could be disorientating to echolocating bats, thus causing them to avoid solar farms (see Harrison et al., 2017; Szabadi et al., 2023). However, the effects of solar panels on bat behaviour are not currently known and results from the few monitoring studies conducted to date have been mixed. Montag et al. (2016) recorded lower levels of bat activity on some solar farms than on adjacent undeveloped farmland, although bats did not avoid the former and species diversity was similar in both locations. Unpublished preliminary data from a study in south-west England indicated substantially reduced bat activity on solar farms compared to matched undeveloped areas (R. McDonald, Exeter University, unpublished data). The reasons for such effects are unclear and their magnitude may vary amongst species, as suggested by a recent UK study which showed that solar farms were frequented by bat species which typically use anthropogenic landscapes but were avoided by rarer species (Szabadi et al., 2023).

Despite the relatively high profile that adverse impacts on wildlife are afforded in the literature we reviewed, direct evidence is scant. Previous reviews have come to similar conclusions, including Taylor et al. (2019) who also stated that many concerns were based on evidence from studies that were not designed to assess impacts from ground-mounted solar panels.

6 Conclusions

There is insufficient empirical data on the impacts of solar farms to inform best-practice guidance on reducing adverse impacts and enhancing sites for certain species groups. Furthermore, there is insufficient evidence to determine whether measures are indeed required to mitigate putative impacts of solar panels on specific groups of species (e.g. bats, aquatic insects). Also, most of the existing recommendations for habitat restoration and creation on solar farms are based on generic principles, and so are not tailored to the specific ecological conditions that prevail on these sites such as the microclimate and soil conditions beneath arrays. Consequently, there are many clear knowledge gaps in the evidence base. Below we describe several research priorities informed by our review of the literature, although this list is not exhaustive.

- Experimental studies on how to optimise native plant diversity in the heterogenous environment beneath and between rows of solar panels.
- Experimental studies on the comparative value of different planting regimes for enhancing pollinator and pestpredating insect diversity and abundance on solar farms. This should include assessment of the role that grazing animals may play and the potential to export ecosystem services into adjacent farmland.
- Collection of in situ monitoring data to assess the risks of bat collisions with solar panels and impacts on bat foraging activity, abundance and species diversity (comparison with undeveloped adjacent habitat).
- Collection of in situ monitoring data to assess the attractiveness of solar panels to invertebrates, and in particular their role in altering oviposition behaviour.
- Collection of in situ monitoring data to assess the risks of bird collisions with solar panels and related infrastructure, including assessment of population-level effects.

It should be noted that what is ideally required in each instance is the collection of quantitative data from a range of different sites (i.e. replicated studies), before and after development and along a gradient into land adjacent to the solar farm. However, it is acknowledged that for practical reasons the number of sites and scale of individual studies may in some cases be limited. Nevertheless, the dearth of evidence currently available means that even small-scale studies may make important contributions to the development of best-practice, and could contribute to meta-analyses (e.g. Blaydes et al., 2022).

The availability of better evidence on the risks and opportunities for biodiversity on solar farms will improve our capacity for effective habitat management and mitigation of adverse impacts. But this knowledge is also important for informing the future design of solar farms so that maximising such benefits is considered from inception. Solar farms can be considered as 'engineered ecosystems' (Semeraro et al., 2020), where there is an opportunity to deliver a range of ecosystem services including enhanced biodiversity, pollination services, carbon storage and water retention, whilst also generating clean, renewable energy.

7 References

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8 Appendix A – List of articles

Lin Wu

Biodiversity Literature Review

