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Effects of Artificial Light at Night on Metamorphic Rate, Survival, and Size of
Wood Frogs (*Lithobates sylvatica*)

Honors Thesis by Will Pfadenhauer ('20)
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Advisor: Dr. Megan Rothenberger
Committee: Drs. Kira Lawrence, Michael Butler
and Caleb Gallemore

43 **Introduction**

44 Increases in human population and development are closely linked with increases in the amount and extent
45 of artificially generated light (Cauwels et al. 2014). Light pollution, known as artificial light at night (ALAN) is
46 becoming more widely recognized as a threat to biodiversity (Hölker et al. 2010, Gaston and Holt 2018). In a recent
47 study, ALAN dominated nighttime natural sky light at 81% of worldwide locations surveyed, which included rural
48 areas (Kyba et al. 2015). ALAN is known to cause severe issues in animals that rely on regular and consistent light
49 cycles (Longcore and Rich 2004, Davies et al. 2014, Gaston et al. 2017). Many animal processes (e.g. metabolic
50 functions) are dependent on daily fluctuations in the functions of genes, which are initiated by the combination of
51 internal circadian rhythms, light-dark cycles, and feeding patterns (Panda 2016). While animals' circadian rhythms
52 cannot be altered with differences in light, the circadian rhythms can become unsynchronized with the release of
53 certain hormones such as melatonin and many types of glucocorticoids (Bedrosian et al. 2016). Recent research
54 indicates that exposure to ALAN is a major cause of this desynchronization in animals, leading to disruption of
55 homeostatic processes and larger effects on physiology and behavior (Bedrosian et al. 2016).

56 An increasing number of scientific studies are revealing that light pollution negatively impacts amphibians.
57 This is a serious conservation concern because one-third of all known amphibian species are threatened with
58 extinction (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 2015). Although habitat loss is the single largest threat to amphibians,
59 affecting nearly two-thirds of all known amphibian species worldwide (Halliday 2017), habitat loss is likely
60 interacting with ALAN to alter amphibian habitat use, development, growth, and reproduction. For example, Feuka
61 et al. (2017) suggested that blue-spotted salamanders may choose different substrates when exposed to ALAN that
62 they would normally not prefer. Dananay and Benard (2018) observed shorter larval phases and less massive
63 juveniles in American toads that were exposed to ALAN. Underhill and Hobel (2018) observed increased chorusing
64 and breeding in Eastern Gray Treefrogs during nights that are characterized by intermediate levels of light, and
65 female *Physalaemus pustulosus* frogs were found to be less selective of male mates when ALAN levels are elevated
66 (Longcore and Rich 2004).

67 While light pollution has been established as a biological issue for amphibians, more research is needed to
68 understand the precise ecological implications. Most ecological studies on the impacts of ALAN focused on
69 stationary light sources, resulting in a gap in knowledge of the effects of light pollution from road traffic (Gaston

70 and Holt 2018). Although road traffic worsens light pollution in numerous ways, vehicle headlights are the most
71 intense, far-spreading, and inconsistent portions of light pollution from road traffic, making them potentially the
72 most devastating to amphibian habitats (Lyytimäki et al. 2012). Furthermore, vehicular headlights remain largely
73 underrecognized as a threat to biodiversity due to a number of social and psychological reasons (Lyytimäki et al.
74 2012). For example, the widespread usefulness of vehicle headlights and the difficulty of changing the current
75 system of vehicular headlights likely leads some people into deliberate unawareness of the environmental issues of
76 such a system, where facts are pushed aside and the burden of responsibility of addressing such issues are passed on
77 to other people (Lyytimäki et al. 2012). Sky brightness (also referred to as skyglow), in comparison, is more widely
78 recognized as a problematic form of light pollution and is therefore better understood. Light sources that
79 significantly contribute to skyglow have been identified through previous research, but research into the factors that
80 affect the spatial extent of skyglow is lacking (Kuechly et al. 2012).

81 I aim to address gaps in our knowledge regarding the impact of ALAN on amphibians with my honors
82 thesis research by building on an existing amphibian conservation project started by faculty and former students at
83 Lafayette College (Rothenberger et al. 2019). The ultimate goal of that project was to compare amphibian habitat
84 quality among 15 natural, restored, and created vernal pools. Vernal pools are forested depressions that temporarily
85 fill with surface runoff during the spring months each year. In northeastern North America, approximately 56% of
86 frog, toad, and salamanders species frequent vernal pools for breeding, development, foraging, or hibernation
87 (Colburn 2004). Rothenberger et al. (2019) used successful reproduction and metamorphosis of two vernal pool
88 indicator species (the wood frog and spotted salamander) to measure and compare vernal pool quality. Results
89 indicated that amphibian success is not necessarily related to pool type, but that quality of mitigation attempts is
90 variable, and certain factors are more important for governing amphibian success than others (Rothenberger et al.
91 2019). The vernal pools used in this study vary in their proximity to roads, housing developments, and cities, and
92 therefore also in their exposure to ALAN. Since previous studies that focused on amphibian success at vernal pools
93 have overlooked light pollution as a potential variable, I propose a next step in this project that involves an
94 experiment to quantify the impact of ALAN on wood frog growth and development by simulating both skyglow and
95 vehicular light pollution in the laboratory at levels comparable to those at field sites.

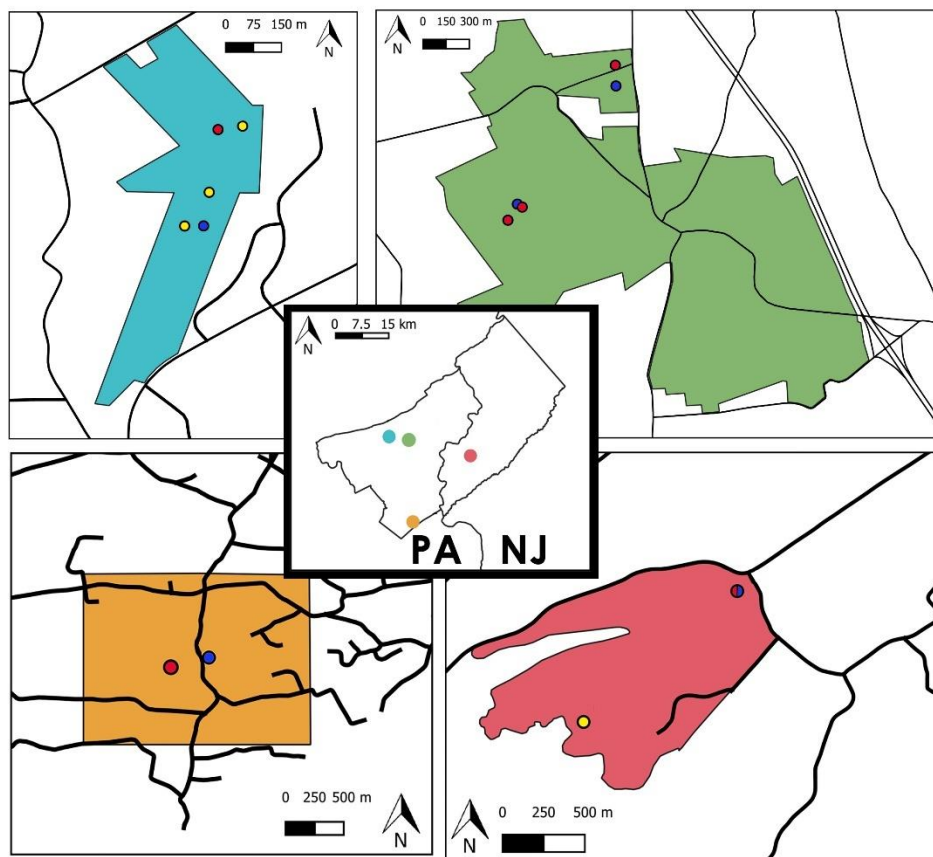
96 Aside from the deficiencies in knowledge regarding the effect of ALAN on amphibians, there is also little
97 understanding about the spatial extent of light pollution from cities. Although remote sensing has been used for
98 modeling spatial extents of sky brightness, satellites measure upward facing light as a proxy for sky brightness
99 which reflects false differences in data due to varying policies and technologies (Kyba et al. 2013). Additionally,
100 satellites are only capable of relatively coarse imagery, which does not work as well on regional scales (Elvidge et
101 al. 2007). Citizen science has been proven to be effective in areas with high quantities of observations, but this
102 presents accuracy issues for geographic areas with fewer observations (Kyba et al. 2013). Since there is currently no
103 consistent way to predict how far meaningful light pollution from cities spreads into surrounding suburbs and
104 wildlife habitats, I propose a complimentary analysis to the aforementioned laboratory experiment that evaluates the
105 spatial variations in sky brightness between the vernal pools listed above, and attempts to provide a quick and
106 consistent method for predicting these spatial variations in future scenarios.

107 I established that skyglow at the 15 vernal pool study sites ranges from 19.41 to 20.62 magnitudes per
108 square arcsecond, indicating that they are being exposed to a moderate amount of light pollution. Vernal pools in
109 Susquehannock State Forest, an area renown for its dark skies and lack of light pollution were exposed to skyglow
110 in the range of 21.7 magnitudes per square arcsecond. Three of the vernal pools are also within 45 meters of paved
111 roads and are exposed to varying levels of vehicular light pollution. Based on preliminary observations and results
112 of previous studies of the effects of ALAN on amphibian development (Dananay and Benard 2018), I predict that
113 skyglow and vehicular light pollution are additional environmental variables governing amphibian success at these
114 pools. I hypothesize that, if I expose developing wood frogs to levels of ALAN comparable to those measured at
115 field sites, then metamorphic duration and size of wood frogs at metamorphosis will both decrease when compared
116 to wood frogs not exposed to intermediate levels of light pollution. Based on research by McDonald et al. (2009), I
117 also hypothesize that biologically relevant levels of skyglow will persist within at least a 10-kilometer radius from
118 the urban source of the skyglow, and that increasing levels of skyglow at the urban source will correspond with
119 greater distances of persistence.

120 **Proposed Methods**

121 *Quantifying ALAN at Vernal Pool Sites*

122 Skyglow will be quantified at field locations through use of a Sky Quality Meter manufactured by
123 Uniuhedron. This device is used frequently in the scientific community because of its ability to consistently quantify
124 night sky brightness (Kyba et al. 2015, Jechow et al. 2016, Hänel et al. 2018). The frequency of vehicle headlights
125 passing vernal pools in the field will be observed through use of a game camera. The intensity of vehicle headlights
126 will be measured by a lux meter at the edge of vernal pools closest to the paths of vehicular traffic. Measurements of
127 skyglow at vernal pools will be done once per month. Quantification of intensity and frequency of vehicular light
128 pollution at vernal pools will be done on two separate nights in early March 2020.



129 *Figure 1. Vernal pools and surrounding properties from Rothenberger et al. (2019).*

130 *Recreating ALAN conditions in the laboratory*

131 To simulate skyglow, blue, 13-watt, 120-volt fluorescent light bulbs will be used since they are relatively
132 inexpensive and emit short wavelength light similar to that of light scattered by the atmosphere. The bulbs will be
133 controlled and dimmed by a computerized light controller and mounted in such a way that the light emitted is
134 reflected off solid black fabric above the aquaria containing developing wood frogs. Further dimming will be done

135 by neutral density filters if necessary. The black fabric above the aquaria will be checked for accuracy with a Sky
136 Quality Meter. To simulate vehicular light pollution, 60-watt, 120-volt halogen flood light bulbs will be used since
137 they are also relatively inexpensive and halogen lights are still the most common form of vehicle headlights. These
138 will be mounted such that they are directly facing the developing wood frogs, and these lights will be controlled and
139 dimmed with the same light controller, and by neutral density filters if necessary. The light reaching each of the
140 aquaria will be checked for accuracy with a luxmeter. The levels of simulated skyglow and vehicular light pollution
141 in the lab will match field measurements from the vernal pools described above.

142 *Impact of ALAN on wood frog growth and development*

143 Experiments to assess the effect of ALAN on wood frog development will include four manipulation types:
144 1) no ALAN (control), 2) simulated vehicular light pollution, 3) simulated skyglow, and 4) combined simulated
145 skyglow and vehicular light pollution. Each treatment will consist of three replicates. The levels of ALAN for the
146 control will be equivalent to measurements of vehicular light pollution and skyglow taken at vernal pools in
147 Susquehannock State Forest (mentioned above). Dependent variables will include wood frog survival rates, larval
148 stage length, snout to vent length, and mass of wood frog individuals.

149 *Retrieval of eggs*

150 To obtain individuals for this experiment, we will collect two egg masses (each with about 500 eggs per
151 mass) in March 2020 from one of our natural vernal pools. Collecting two egg masses will enable us to begin with
152 about 80 eggs in each one of our twelve 38-L treatment tanks and a density of about 2 larvae per liter, which is
153 comparable to our most successful vernal pools and to previous studies using wood frog larvae in experimental
154 laboratory assays. Water quality in the aquariums will be maintained in accordance with parameters used in Barr et
155 al. (2018) and the Association of Zoos and Aquariums (2012). These methods have already received approval from
156 IACUC and the Pennsylvania DCNR.

157 The developing wood frogs will be raised in the laboratory until late April 2020 when they will be released
158 at the vernal pool from which they were collected. During the experiment, developing wood frogs will be exposed to
159 natural light-dark cycles with the added light simulations for the replicates in treatments 2-4 (outlined above).

160 Survival rates and larval stage length will be observed and recorded every third day of the experiment, while snout
161 to vent length and mass measurements will be recorded once, immediately prior to release.

162 The vernal pools studied in Rothenberger et al. (2019) will mark the edges of the study area for spatial
163 skyglow variations. Monthly skyglow measurements will be taken at each of 18 sites, spread out in a grid across the
164 greater Easton, PA area (Fig. 2). These sites were selected in an attempt to create even spatial distribution of points
165 between vernal pool sites, while selecting locations that were feasible for taking measurements. These
166 measurements will be plotted in QGIS and analyzed to determine an equation of best fit that describes how skyglow
167 changes as it extends farther from its source.

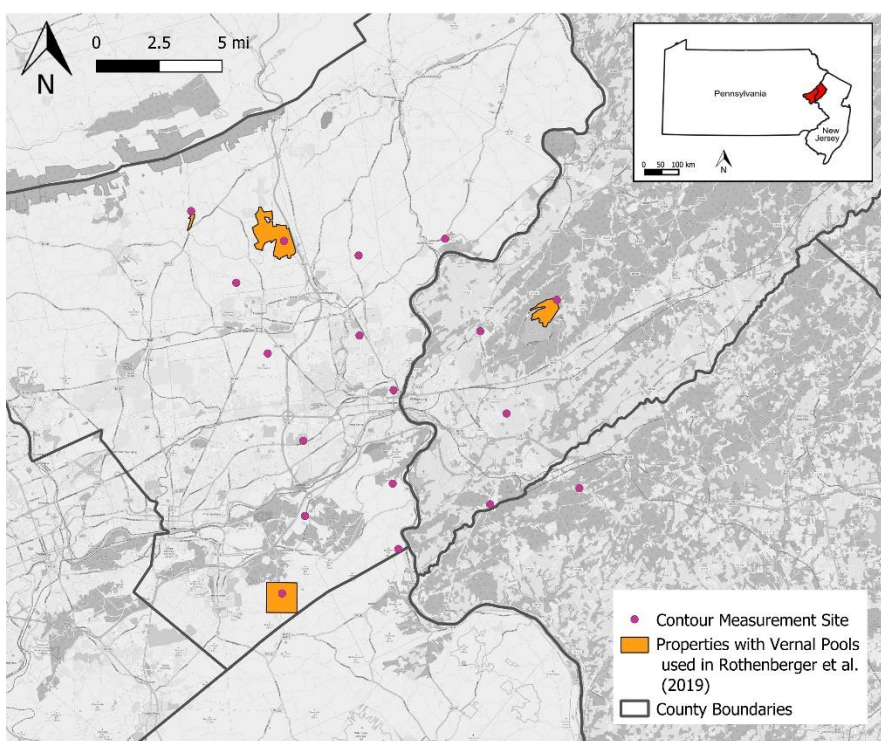


Figure 2. Night sky brightness measurement sites used for skyglow analysis.

168 Budget

169 This research will be funded in part through a \$500 photosciences grant from the Zoological Lighting
170 Institute. Sky quality meters, aquaria, a game camera, and a computerized light controller have already been purchased,
171 meaning light bulbs, fixtures, fabric, and wood frog food are the main expenses that will be covered by the grant funds.

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