

Artificial night light alters nocturnal prey interception outcomes for morphologically variable spiders

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Artificial night light has the potential to significantly alter visually-dependent species interactions. However, examples of disruptions of species interactions through changes in light remain rare and how artificial night light may alter predator prey relationships are particularly understudied. In this study, we examined whether artificial night light could impact prey attraction and interception in *Nephila pilipes* orb weaver spiders, conspicuous predators who make use of yellow color patterns to mimic floral resources and attract prey to their webs. We measured moth prey attraction and interception responses to treatments where we experimentally manipulated the color/contrast of spider individuals in the field (removed yellow markings) and also set up light manipulations. We found that lit webs had lower rates of moth interception than unlit webs. Spider color however had no clear impact on moth interception or attraction rates in lit nor unlit webs. The results show that night light can reduce prey interception for spiders. Additionally, this study highlights how environmental and morphological variation can complicate simple predictions of ecological light pollution's disruption of species interactions.

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21 **Abstract**

22 Artificial night light has the potential to significantly alter visually-dependent species
23 interactions. However, examples of disruptions of species interactions through changes in light
24 remain rare and how artificial night light may alter predator prey relationships are particularly
25 understudied. In this study, we examined whether artificial night light could impact prey
26 attraction and interception in *Nephila pilipes* orb weaver spiders, conspicuous predators who
27 make use of yellow color patterns to mimic floral resources and attract prey to their webs. We
28 measured moth prey attraction and interception responses to treatments where we experimentally
29 manipulated the color/contrast of spider individuals in the field (removed yellow markings) and
30 also set up light manipulations. We found that lit webs had lower rates of moth interception than
31 unlit webs. Spider color however had no clear impact on moth interception or attraction rates in
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34 complicate simple predictions of ecological light pollution's disruption of species interactions.

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41 **Introduction**

42 Artificial night light represents an emerging threat to biodiversity (Hölker et al., 2010). Studies
43 are increasingly demonstrating the widespread impacts of artificial light on species (Longcore &
44 Rich, 2004), ecological communities (Davies, Bennie & Gaston, 2012; Gaston et al., 2014) and
45 ecosystem functioning (Macgregor et al., 2017). One important consequence of light pollution
46 and artificial night light is a change in natural light landscapes and seascapes that could alter
47 species communication and interactions (Davies et al., 2013). Within species, visual
48 communication can be disrupted by ecological light pollution with consequences for mating
49 success and population dynamics (Firebaugh & Haynes, 2016). However, the prospect that
50 artificial light could disrupt visual cues, color perception and species interactions remains an
51 important subject for further empirical study (Delhey & Peters, 2017).

52 Predator-prey interactions in particular are potentially vulnerable to ecological light pollution.
53 Prey species often rely on specific light conditions for camouflage or crypsis where artificial
54 night light can render such species detectable by predators (Davies et al., 2014; Underwood,
55 Davies & Queirós, 2017). Light pollution can also impact prey behavior including vigilance
56 effectiveness (Yorzinski et al., 2015) and predator avoidance (Perkin et al., 2011). Similarly,
57 Minnaar et al. (2015) found that bats in lit areas consumed six times more moths than bats in
58 unlit areas, highlighting the importance of night light in attracting moths and dramatically
59 changing the dynamics of a long-evolved predator-prey relationship. Some spiders also appear to
60 take advantage of light attraction of prey species and preferentially choose web building sites

61 near light sources (Heiling, 1999), potentially explaining why some orb-weaver spiders have
62 successfully established within well-light urban areas (Lowe, Wilder & Hochuli, 2014).

63 Coloration in spiders is particularly important and recent studies have shown that nocturnal
64 spiders can use body markings as visual lures to attract prey (Tso et al., 2006; Chuang, Yang &
65 Tso, 2008; Fan, Yang & Tso, 2009; Zhang et al., 2015). Night vision is a challenge for nocturnal
66 species requiring visual systems that exploit moonlight, zodiacal light, airglow and starlight to
67 distinguish color and detect motion (Warrant, 2004; Cronin et al., 2014). Therefore, nocturnal
68 insects lured to spider coloration might be differentially attracted or deterred under artificial
69 night light.

70 To examine the potential of artificial night light in disrupting a visually driven predator-prey
71 relationship, we manipulated light conditions and spider body coloration in a field experiment of
72 the orb weaver spider, *Nephila pilipes*. The spider has a distinctive yellow body pattern that is
73 well known as a visual lure for nocturnal prey species (Tso, Lin & Yang, 2004; Fan, Yang &
74 Tso, 2009). We predicted that artificial light would decrease the effectiveness of the visual lure
75 and impact prey attraction outcomes for spiders.

76

77 **Materials and methods**

78 **Study sites and species**

79 *Nephila pilipes* are orb-weaver spiders commonly found in Hong Kong during the wet season
80 (March to November). The species exhibits conspicuous yellow patterns scattered over their

81 dorsal and ventral cephalothorax, abdomen and legs. *N. pilipes* hunt diurnally and nocturnally
82 and use these conspicuous color patterns to attract prey (Tso, Lin & Yang, 2004). Habitats
83 include semi-rural areas in Hong Kong where artificial night light sources from street lamps and
84 housing are common. Six sites were chosen due to their semi-rural characteristics including
85 outlying islands (Lamma Island and Lantau Island), country park forests (Tai Tam, Parker Hill
86 and Pak Tam Chung) and a rural village (So Kwun Wat). Sites were close to low-density
87 residential areas where active human disturbance was low relative to nearby urban areas.

88

89 **Experimental design**

90 In each site, we searched for adult female spiders in their webs. We chose four spider individuals
91 at each site and each adult was assigned randomly to one of four experimental set ups: (1) spider
92 web was lit by a lamp and yellow spider coloration was not painted away (lit control), (2) yellow
93 spider coloration was painted away by black paint (dark and painted), (3) both light and paint
94 were applied to the spider (lit and painted), and (4) no lamp was present and yellow coloration
95 remained (dark control). All setups within a site were located within 50m of each other. We used
96 1000W warm white LED light bulbs directed towards the web (approximately one meter from
97 the web) as a light source in lit setups, with paper tape wrapped over the surface to downward
98 adjust the light intensity. These bulbs have a similar emission spectrum as Hong Kong street
99 lamps (i.e. high pressure sodium lamps), characterized by peaks in wavelength between 450 and
100 600 nm (Elvidge & Keith, 2009). For spider color manipulations, we used black acrylic paint due

101 to its low toxicity and ease of removal (Tamiya Colour Acrylic Paint Mini Black X-1, diluted by
102 thinner of the same brand). We also applied the paint to black body parts of spiders in the yellow
103 coloration “controls” (setups 1 and 4) to exclude possible effects of ink. Spiders were gently
104 removed from their webs and cooled to an inactive state by an ice bath. After treating with paint,
105 they were carefully placed back on their webs for the commencement of the experiment.

106 We also recorded body length, the total length of cephalothorax and opisthosoma, of each
107 spider. Web size was measured as the average of web radii in eight cardinal directions, from web
108 hub to the outermost capture spiral following Tso et al. (2006). We measured light intensity by
109 placing a digital light meter (Dr. Meter LX-1330B) one meter from each of the webs.

110 We examined *N. pilipes* predation success through single-night videotaping of all
111 experimental spider webs. We recorded from between 7:00 p.m. and 8:00 p.m. to the beginning
112 of sunrise (4:00 a.m. to 5:00 a.m.). We sampled each site once between Oct 2016 and Nov 2017.
113 All setups in each site were recorded on the same night simultaneously. We used high definition
114 car rearview cameras with infra-red emitters (Theera YRS0889) for the night video recording. *N.*
115 *pilipes* mostly builds webs under tree trunks, at a height of one to two meters. Cameras were
116 therefore placed on tripods approximately one meter from each web.

117 We examined prey responses to each treatment by focusing on moths in all video recordings.
118 Moths are a dominant nocturnal prey species of *N. pilipes* (Fan, Yang & Tso, 2009). Moths also
119 use a trichromatic visual system, possessing green, blue and ultra-violet light receptors (Briscoe
120 & Chittka, 2001). Based on a model of a hawkmoth visual system (Johnsen et al., 2006),

121 Chuang, Yang & Tso (2007) determined that the yellow stripes of *N. pilipes* were more
122 distinctive under moonlight than black markings. Specifically, the contrast of black body parts of
123 the spiders with vegetation backgrounds was remarkably smaller than those of yellow body parts
124 (Chuang, Yang & Tso, 2007). Yellow flowers are in fact a common moth food source such that
125 this coloration pattern might be particularly attractive to potential moth prey species (Johnsen et
126 al., 2006).

127

128 **Data analysis**

129 We focused on three variables for analysis; attraction (number of moths seen approaching the
130 web), interception (number of moths that physically hit the web, but not necessarily caught in the
131 web) and interception efficiency (number of moths intercepted divided by the number of moths
132 attracted). We used generalized linear mixed models to model the moth attraction and
133 interception data. We fit the models with a negative binomial distribution due to the nature of the
134 count data and the fact that the data were over-dispersed (Zuur et al., 2009). We included site as
135 a random effect and number of hours as an offset term. We modeled web size, color, light and
136 spider size as fixed effects and modeled all combinations and first order interactions. We log
137 transformed interception efficiency and used a linear mixed effects model with site as a random
138 effect and web size, spider size, color and light as fixed effects. For the linear mixed effects
139 models, we also examined all first order interactions. All models were run in R using packages
140 glmmADMB and nlme (Pinheiro et al., 2014; Skaug et al., 2014). For each set of generalized

141 linear mixed models and linear mixed effects models, we used model selection and chose the
142 model with the best AICc. For all models where $\Delta AICc < 4$, we used a model averaging to
143 determine relative variable importance (RVI) using package MuMIn (Barton, 2013).

144

145 **Results**

146 We recorded 163 hours during the course of the study period. In three cases the spider left and so
147 we were unable to collect data. Over the entire recording period we documented 5375 moths
148 attracted and 300 moths intercepted – but only ten moths remained in the web and were
149 consumed by the spider.

150 The best model for attraction included light, color, spider size and the interaction between
151 spider size and color (Table 1; light: estimate±se: -2.40 ± 0.51 , $P < 0.001$; color: -13.1 ± 2.91 ,
152 $P < 0.001$; size: -0.18 ± 0.45 , $P = 0.69$; size:color: 2.65 ± 0.63 , $P < 0.001$). In sites with smaller
153 spiders, fewer moths flew near the webs (Fig. 1: for large spiders above 4.5cm, 31.9 ± 6.1 [mean ±
154 standard error] moths attracted/hour and 14.1 ± 4.7 for small spiders).

155 For interception, lit webs had lower interception rates (Fig. 2) and the best performing model
156 included only light as a variable (Table 1; light: estimate±se: -2.47 ± 0.88 , $P = 0.005$). Seven
157 models performed equally well (Table 1), and of those models light (RVI=1.0) was the most
158 important followed by spider size (RVI=0.45) and color (RVI=0.24).

159 For interception efficiency, the best three models were light alone, size alone and light plus
160 size (Table 1; light alone: estimate±se: -0.43 ± 0.25 , $P = 0.10$; size alone: -0.33 ± 0.18 , $P = 0.08$; and

161 light+size: light: -0.54 ± 0.26 , $P=0.05$; size: -0.37 ± 0.17 , $P=0.04$). Of the five best performing
162 models (Table 1) light was the most important variable (RVI=0.61) followed by spider size
163 (RVI=0.47) and color (RVI=0.19). Light tended to diminish interception efficiency (especially
164 for webs with large spiders) and small spiders exhibited a higher efficiency (Fig. 3). For large
165 spiders, those that were unpainted (yellow) and in dark webs had a higher interception efficiency
166 than all other treatment combinations (Fig. 2).

167

168 **Discussion**

169 Prey attraction rates were affected by size, color, and light conditions but not in a consistent
170 manner (Fig. 1). We did however find a consistent and large effect of light in lowering prey
171 interception (~ 1 moth/hr; Fig. 2) comparable to the positive effect of yellow markings
172 documented in previous studies of *N. pilipes* (~ 1 moth/hr; Chuang, Yang & Tso (2007)). In this
173 study, we found no clear consequences of color for prey attraction or interception. Yet, spider
174 size and color exhibited an interactive effect for all attraction variables (Table 1) demonstrating
175 the complexity of the relationship between spider morphology and attraction outcomes. These
176 results together highlight 1) that light can reduce prey interception for spiders and 2) the role of
177 morphological and environmental variation in complicating and potentially obscuring important
178 but difficult-to-detect artificial night light effects on predator-prey interactions.

179 We found that interception rates were lower in lit webs than unlit webs. The lack of an effect
180 of color on interception suggests that the cause for this pattern is unlikely through changes in the

181 effectiveness of the visual lure. The presence of light will change the contrast of the web with its
182 background and could make the web more easily perceived and avoided by moth prey (Craig,
183 1988; Théry & Casas, 2009). While some spiders build webs near artificial light sources to take
184 advantage of attracted prey (Heiling, 1999), there might be a tradeoff in web detectability that
185 could offset increased prey availability near light. Further exploration into the costs and benefits
186 of locating webs near artificial night light would be productive in revealing the impacts of
187 ecological light pollution on urban spider populations.

188 For attraction, the light treatment alone did not consistently result in higher attraction rates.
189 While each site had all treatments on the same day to minimize time or site effects on the results,
190 the high variation in attraction may have obscured possible effects of light and morphology.
191 Light can have strongly contrasting effects on predator-prey interactions depending on the
192 habitat (Russ, Lučeničová & Klenke, 2017). Environmental conditions across sites and days, and
193 variable light intensity in particular (e.g. different moon phases), may have resulted in complex
194 patterns between the light treatment effects and prey attraction. We did find that, in general,
195 larger spiders had more moths attracted to their webs than smaller spiders (Fig. 1). The higher
196 attraction rate for large spiders could be a consequence of a bigger visual lure capable of
197 attracting more prey than smaller spiders (Hauber, 2002). Alternatively, spiders who select better
198 microhabitats with more prey may grow larger (Brown, 1981) such that the association is driven
199 by greater prey availability increasing spider size, not larger spiders attracting more prey. In any
200 case, the high heterogeneity of light landscapes across spatial scales in the environment (Swaddle

201 et al., 2015) along with other sources of microhabitat and temporal variation are important
202 considerations for the results of this study as well as ecological light pollution studies broadly.

203 Size and color likely have different effects at variable distances: small spiders may attract

204 fewer prey (or be located in sites with fewer prey) but they also tend to have a higher (but

205 variable) interception efficiency suggesting that their small size might be advantageous in

206 disguising their presence once moths are near the web. For large spiders, that the unlit and

207 unpainted (yellow markings intact) treatment had the highest interception efficiency could be

208 indicative of increased, effectiveness of the lure for large spiders in natural light conditions.

209 However, interception efficiencies across treatments were highly variable across treatments and

210 the mechanisms and effects are difficult to interpret. In addition to the importance of morphology

211 for prey attraction, the visual cues and coloration of *N. pilipes* may also attract their own

212 predators potentially (Fan, Yang & Tso, 2009; Meyer et al., 2013; Yeh et al., 2015). Artificial

213 night light effects on predator-prey relationships must then take into account multiple

214 morphological variables (e.g. color and size) as well as multiple consequences of those visual

215 cues (e.g. prey attraction and predator attraction).

216 Our results provide insights into the relationship between prey attraction and artificial night

217 light but this study may not be reflective of the entirety of night light impacts on this predator-

218 prey relationship. For example, the short time period covered for each web in this study could

219 miss crucial rare catches of large prey items which may have disproportionate positive impacts

220 on spider fitness (Venner & Casas, 2005). If light differentially affects or attracts large moths

221 (Wölfling et al., 2016) then the average overall interception rate may be less important than the
222 ability to catch large moths occasionally. The effects of artificial night light on predation rates
223 are rarely straightforward and will ultimately be the product of both negative and positive
224 impacts of light on predator and prey behavior (Grenis, Tjossem & Murphy, 2015).

225 Reduced feeding, mobility and possible increased predation are all potential consequences of
226 artificial night light for moths and these effects may result in trophic cascades within these novel
227 ecosystems (van Langevelde et al., 2017). This study highlights how night light can impact
228 species interactions but also that environmental and morphological variation can obscure simple
229 relationships between predator and prey. As artificial night light continues to dramatically alter
230 the environment (Davies et al., 2013), the conditions under which these predator-prey
231 relationships have evolved will also change resulting in the possible disruption of important
232 species interactions within ecosystems.

233

234 **Conclusion**

235 Our experiment demonstrates a clear reduction of prey interception in sites with artificial
236 night light for orb-weaver spiders in Hong Kong. The results also suggest that body size and
237 color might also influence prey interception outcomes for spiders but no clear patterns were
238 detected. Future research into the complex interactions between predator, prey, light and
239 morphology will aid in predictions and understanding of how anthropogenic changes in light are
240 likely to affect ecological communities and ecosystems.

241

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245

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Table 1 (on next page)

Model results for attraction, interception and interception efficiency.

We used generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) for attraction and interception and linear mixed effects models (LMM) for interception efficiency. Fixed effects include color, light, spider size (Size), and web size (Web). Roman"; co  BG

1

Models	Log-likelihood	AIC_c	AIC_c Delta	Akaike Weight
Moth attraction (GLMM)				
Color, Light, Size, Color:Size	-145.14	312.9	0.00	0.61
Moth interception (GLMM)				
Light	-95.47	201.4	0.00	0.31
Light, Size	-94.29	202.6	1.13	0.18
Color, Light, Size, Color:Size	-90.65	203.9	2.48	0.09
Light, Web	-95.18	204.4	2.92	0.07
Color, Light	-95.39	204.8	3.35	0.06
Light, Size, Web	-93.64	205.3	3.84	0.05
Color, Light, Size	-93.665	205.3	3.89	0.04
Interception efficiency (LMM)				
Light	-20.83	52.2	0.00	0.35
Size	-21.56	53.6	1.47	0.17
Light, Size	-19.90	53.8	1.65	0.15
Color	-22.17	54.8	2.68	0.09
Color, Size, Color:Size	-18.70	55.4	3.24	0.07

2

Figure 1(on next page)

Prey attraction rates (number of moths/ hour) across color and light treatments.

Error bars indicate mean \pm standard error. Spider size was broken down into categorical variable for visualization, where spiders of 4.5cm or below were identified as small.

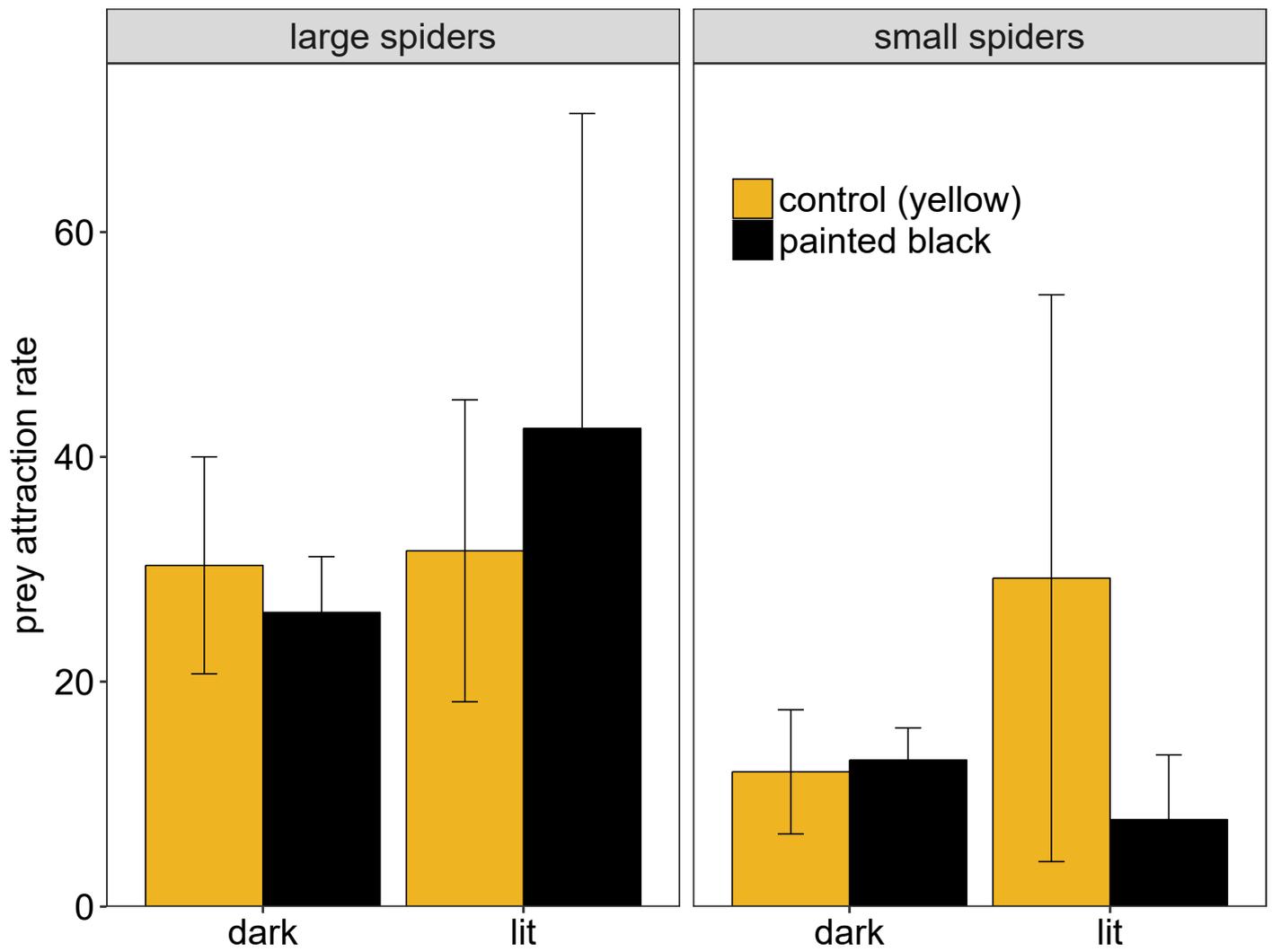


Figure 2 (on next page)

Moth interception rate as a function of spider color and light.

Error bars indicate mean \pm standard error.

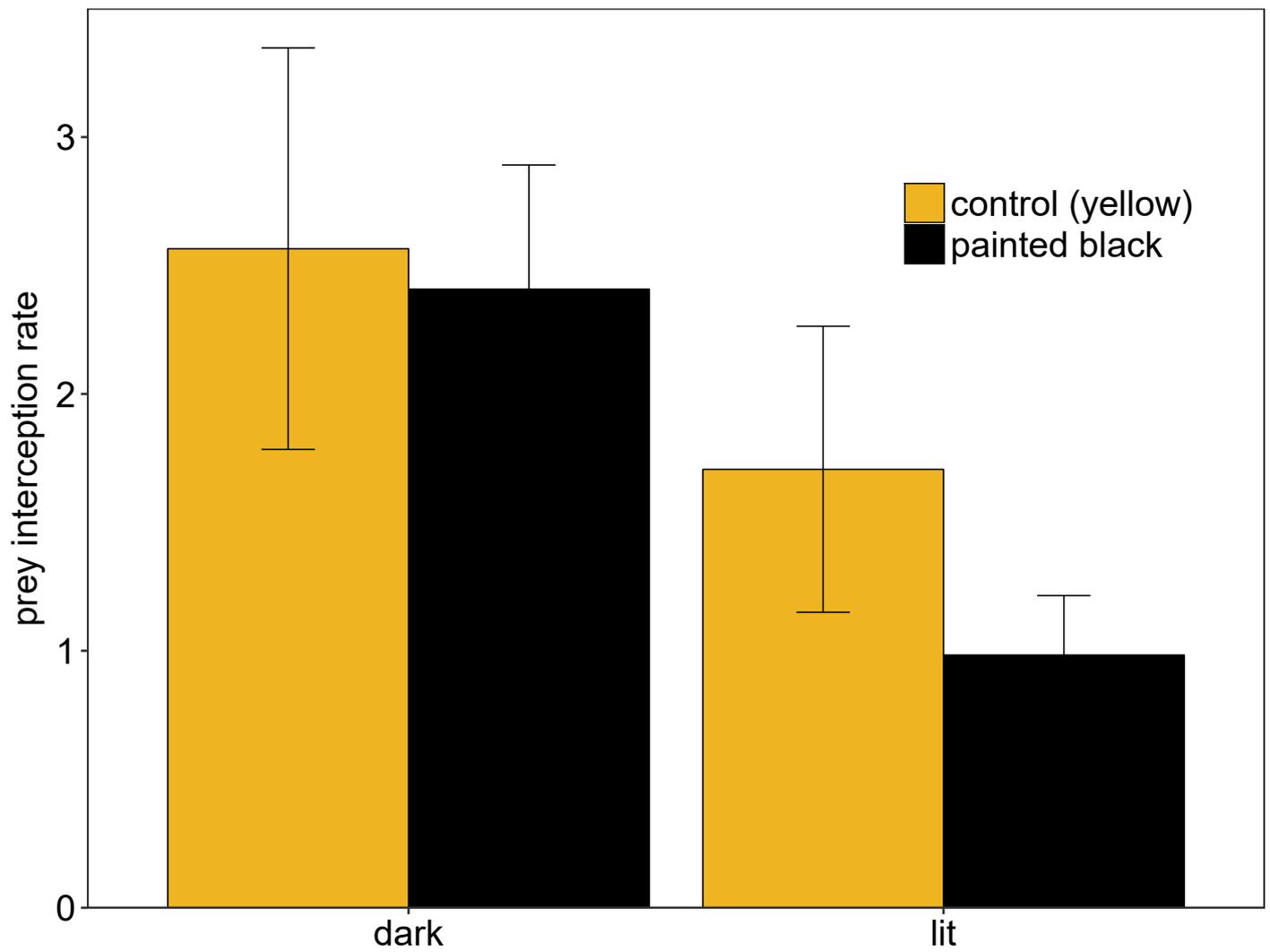


Figure 3(on next page)

Interception efficiency across color and light treatments.

Error bars indicate mean \pm standard error. Spider size was broken down into categorical variable for visualization, where spiders of 4.5cm or below were identified as small.

