

**Public Testimony to the ESRC on the Draft Kaua'i Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan (KSHCP)**

May 18, 2020



*Shaping the future for birds*

15 May 2020

**RE: Kauai Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan**

To whom it may concern,

On behalf of American Bird Conservancy, I submit the following comments on the draft Kauai Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan and PIPs, published May 12, 2020.

American Bird Conservancy also submitted detailed comments as part of a letter submitted by Earthjustice on 15 May, 2020. While those comments still stand, I wish to submit this additional letter to highlight the most important issues that, in the very least, should be addressed before the HCP and PIPs are approved.

First, we are pleased that this version of the HCP includes language that states *"Permittees shall not return feral animals to KSHCP covered properties even if neutered"* (section 5.3.2. 3). It is essential that this language be expanded to state that Permittees shall not return feral animals to ~~KSHCP covered properties~~ anywhere in Hawaii even if neutered. It is unacceptable to enable Permittees to create negative outcomes for wildlife and humans as part of this HCP by allowing feral animals to be released on to the landscape elsewhere on Kauai, or anywhere in Hawaii. It is inhumane for the wildlife impacted by these released animals and it is inhumane for the feral animals themselves to be abandoned in new territories.

In regards to the PIPs: Many of the submitted PIPs do not meet the minimum criteria for performance as stated by the KSHCP. Issues include insufficient searches of the properties for downed birds and lack of clarity on feral animal removal activities. It is imperative that the regulatory agencies include independent and regular checks of Permittee compliance and utilize adaptive management to bring Permittees up to the minimum criteria of performance as laid out in the HCP.

Lastly, the direction to control feral animals only during the stated fallout season is insufficient. Birds can fallout due to light attraction beyond the stated period, and in fact the HCP provides evidence of this fact. Permittees should be required to maintain predator numbers low to nonexistent throughout the year to provide maximum benefit to the covered species.

Regards,

American Bird Conservancy  
Santa Cruz

**Brad Keitt**  
Oceans & Islands Program Director



15<sup>th</sup> May 2020

### **Comments on the Kauai Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan**

This document outlines the review and comments by the Kauai Endangered Seabird Recovery Project (KESRP) on the draft Kauai Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan and PIPs, published May 12<sup>th</sup> 2020 and made available for review on May 13<sup>th</sup> and updated in the afternoon on May 15<sup>th</sup> 2020. We request this be submitted for consideration by the Endangered Species Research Committee at their meeting on May 18<sup>th</sup> 2020.

1. In general KESRP supports the concept of this HCP. We believe that the content of the HCP is appropriate for the level of take that the applicants have indicated<sup>1</sup>, and that the location of the predator proof fence enclosure included as part of this HCP is such that the likelihood of rapid colonization by Hawaiian Petrel and Newell's Shearwater is high. There are breeding colonies of Hawaiian Petrel and Newell's Shearwater around the proposed predator proof fence and the habitat within the enclosure is suitable for breeding birds. With appropriate management, this project has a high chance of success as long as the funding is sufficient to allow for all elements of the project to be carried out, INCLUDING long term predator control inside and outside the fence, and seabird monitoring undertaken at a level that is consistent with other endangered seabird monitoring projects on the island of Kaua'i (i.e. all of those being undertaken through the expired KIUC Short-term HCP). It is also critical that the predator proof fence is built as soon as possible to start the process of colonization so that take offset can begin.

2. We continue to have serious concerns related to the searcher efficiency that some of the applicants have stated. It is extremely hard to find downed shearwaters (even more so when searches are conducted during daylight hours, not carried out in a methodical and rigorous way, or carried out by untrained searchers in the course of their normal work hours), and to suggest that searcher efficiency approaches 100% at large hotels or on cruise ships is not credible. Searcher efficiency and carcass removal trials by independent and appropriately qualified researchers are needed at each of the applicant's grounds - to address this issue.

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<sup>1</sup> Although due to the unreasonably high searcher efficiency claimed by some of the entities, I find the level of take requested by several of the entities to be too low.

We have highlighted several of these issues in our assessment of the PIPs below, on a case by case basis.

3. We continue to have serious concerns about the proposed predator control efforts of some of the entities to offset the impact of predators on fallout seabirds. This work must be appropriately qualified staff year-round in a well-planned, well-funded and effective manner, in order to be effective and reduce the likelihood of predators killing downed birds. We have highlighted several of these issues in our assessment of the PIPs below, on a case by case basis.

4. Specific to new track changes on Page 33 – It is important to note that there is a large proportion of fallout birds that are found dead (a previous study on Kauai – Podolsky et al 1998 - found that number to be 43%), and these are very unlikely to be turned in to SOS by the public. Furthermore, research has shown that birds that are rehabilitated and released from SOS are less likely to survive than those that fledged naturally without fallout (Raine et al, in prep). Although SOS is a critical component of this work, it must be accepted that birds that are released will not always survive. It is not appropriate therefore to assume that a bird released by SOS = 100% take offset of a downed and rescued fledgling.

5. Specific to new track changes on page 44 –

Conduct a predator trapping and removal program throughout the Covered Property immediately prior to and throughout the fallout season; feral animals should be humanely removed. Permittees shall not return feral animals to KSHCP Covered Properties even if neutered.” This should read, *‘Permittees shall not release any feral animals caught on their property anywhere on Kaua’i, even if neutered’* and should occur year-round, not just during the fall-out season. There should be no opportunity to release free-roaming feral cats back on the Kauai landscape, where they can then predate on endangered seabirds (or other native endangered species). If entities are allowed to release cats caught on their property elsewhere, this is simply pushing the problem on to native and endangered animals living in these areas. Cats should either be humanely euthanized or re-homed in a permanent indoor space.

Systematically monitor for predator presence immediately prior to and throughout the fallout season. Records should include the type and date of predators sighted, and the timing of response actions and outcome. How will this actually be undertaken – it is not clear what ‘systematically monitor’ means. Predator monitoring and management proposals should be approved by a regulatory agency and regular checks should be made to ensure they are being adhered to.

Applicants will evaluate the efficacy of their predator control programs to ensure the Covered Species discovery rate, as defined in their approved PIP, is met. Applicants will report on predator control monitoring and removal effort as part of their annual review. How will this actually be undertaken – it is not clear what ‘evaluate the efficacy’ means. See above.

Site-specific predator control protocols may vary from the above recommendations as necessary to meet the specific needs of a Covered Property. Site-specific protocols will be detailed in a participant's PIP and Facility Management Plan and will be reviewed and approved by the agencies. Some of the participant's PIPs still remain very unclear and unsatisfactory regarding predator control on their property. As this text effectively provides a get-out clause for any applicant of the terms of the HCP, this needs to be dealt with on a case by case basis within the PIPs. This clause should be removed to avoid undermining the intent of the predator control language in the HCP.

6. Specific to new track changes on page 49 - Site-specific search protocols may vary from the above recommendations as necessary to meet the specific needs of a Covered Property. Site specific protocols will be detailed in an Applicant's PIP and will be reviewed and approved by the agencies. The additional recommendations provided in the new draft HCP are good and will increase the likelihood that searchers will find downed birds. However, as this text effectively provides a get-out clause for any applicant of the terms of the HCP, this needs to be dealt with on a case by case basis within the PIPs. This clause should be removed to avoid undermining the intent of the predator control language in the HCP.

7. Many of the actions in this HCP (e.g. searching for downed birds, predator control, limiting lights during the fallout season) are critical to the success of the KSHCP in off-setting the take of endangered seabirds by each of the applicants. As such, it is important that these actions are monitored by an independent body and / or regulatory agency such as DOFAW and not by a paid consultant hired by the entity itself. This will ensure that the actions are being completed as required by the KSHCP, data is collected in a rigorous manner, and management actions are being undertaken in an effective way. Independent monitoring will also be needed to inform the agencies each year when they come to review the applicants work under the HCP. The HCP does not make clear how independent monitoring will be undertaken.

#### Comments related to individual PIPs.

Marriott

- According to the PIP, ground searches will be conducted during the day. **Diurnal searches are not appropriate for finding fledglings downed at night.** As was clearly demonstrated during the mass fallout event at the Kokee AFS in 2015, when large numbers of seabirds were grounded over the course of several nights, birds that are grounded at night and not immediately located will find dark places to hide during the day – features such as narrow crawl spaces, dense vegetation, culverts, etc. These birds are extremely hard to find and require dedicated searching. Unless ground staff at the Marriott are on their hands and knees diligently searching these areas the vast majority of downed birds will be missed during a diurnal search.
- It appears that ground searches are carried out by staff during their daily activities and not as a rigorous dedicated search effort. This is not sufficient – ground searching needs a dedicated and well-trained team, especially in large areas such as this hotel. Otherwise many birds will be missed and large areas of the property will not be searched each day as individual staff members will not be co-ordinating search effort with each other.

- Discovery rate is 50% - this will need to be studied in the first year by the applicant using random, unannounced deployment of carcasses in areas where birds are likely to crawl for shelter (not obviously left in the open) for an effective searcher efficiency study. The results of this study can then be used to adjust the discovery rate for future years.
- Adjustment based on SOS mortality of 18% - this does not take into account the fact that birds released from SOS have a lower chance of survival than birds that fledge naturally.
- In terms of removal of cats and other predators, this PIP simply states: *“The resort actively implements this measure, deploying cat traps as needed.”* This is not sufficient – an effective cat trapping strategy needs to be developed with cat trapping being continuous throughout the period outlined by the KSHCP. Cats will continue to recruit to the hotel, and so trapping needs to be continuous. An effective monitoring strategy for assessing the cat trapping measures is not mentioned.

#### Kauai Coffee

- In terms of removal of cats and other predators, this PIP simply states: *“Trapping of feral cats. Factory area 2 traps checked daily multiple times throughout the day.”* 2 traps for the entire Kauai Coffee area is not sufficient – traps should be placed around the visitors center and all other buildings at the site and spaced every 250m apart. Trapping should also be undertaken in the coffee fields prior to harvest, as this has been identified in the PIP as a source of light attraction. Specify type of traps and type of bait.

#### Sheraton

- According to the PIP, ground searches will be conducted during the day. **Diurnal searches are not appropriate for finding fledglings downed at night.** As was clearly demonstrated during the mass fallout event at the Kokee AFS in 2015, when large numbers of seabirds were grounded over the course of several nights, birds that are grounded at night and not immediately located will find dark places to hide during the day – features such as narrow crawl spaces, dense vegetation, culverts, etc. These birds are extremely hard to find and require dedicated searching. Unless ground staff at the Sheraton are on their hands and knees diligently searching these areas the vast majority of downed birds will be missed during a diurnal search.
- It appears that ground searches are carried out by staff during their daily activities and not as a rigorous dedicated search effort. This is not sufficient – ground searching needs a dedicated and well-trained team, especially in large areas such as this hotel. Otherwise many birds will be missed and large areas of the property will not be searched each day as individual staff members will not be co-ordinating search effort with each other.
- PIP states *“There are no unleashed animals on property, and trash bins have restricted”*. This statement is highly unlikely, particularly given the density of feral cats on Kauai. What monitoring plans have been implemented to provide evidence for this statement?
- In terms of removal of cats and other predators, this PIP simply states: *“The resort deploys cat traps as needed.”* This is not sufficient – an effective cat trapping strategy needs to be developed with cat trapping being continuous year-round. Cats will continue to recruit to the

hotel, and so trapping needs to be continuous. An effective monitoring strategy for assessing the cat trapping measures is not mentioned.

- Discovery rate is 50% - this will need to be studied in the first year by the applicant using random, unannounced deployment of carcasses in areas where birds are likely to crawl for shelter (not obviously left in the open) for an effective searcher efficiency study. The results of this study can then be used to adjust the discovery rate for future years.
- Adjustment based on SOS mortality of 18% - this does not take into account the fact that birds released from SOS have a lower chance of survival than birds that fledge naturally.

#### NCL

- PIP states that *“Technical consultation with USFWS from 2016 through 2018, including a site visit to the vessel, resulted in a determination by USFWS that a 100% searcher efficiency rate is appropriate for this PIP.”* To suggest that searcher efficiency is 100% and that not a single bird is missed on a large cruise ship is not credible. Does this account for birds that land on roofs, birds that hit the side of the ship and fall into the sea, birds that crawl into the presumably many small hiding places on a ship as large as this vessel? To justify this statement this will need to be studied each year using random, unannounced deployment of carcasses in areas where birds are likely to crawl for shelter (not left in the open) for an effective searcher efficiency study. The results of this study can then be used to adjust the discovery rate for future years.
- PIP states that *“It is unlikely that birds fly into the side of the vessel underway as the vessel is travelling at anywhere between 5 and 12 knots an hour, even at these speeds the vessel creates both an in water pressure wave that marine mammals such as porpoises and dolphins love to ride – as well as an air pressure wave as the vessel cuts through the air. Seabirds often play with this pressure waves, and one of the best places to see seabirds is by riding on a vessel at sea – these seabirds fly at anywhere between 10 and 45 knots an hour and are designed to use the air pressure differential caused by wave action and anything else moving through the environment.”* While this description could describe a seabird during the day, it does not in any way relate to a seabird flying at night that has become attracted and disorientated by bright lights. It is actually highly probable that at night seabirds will indeed become disorientated and fly at *‘45 knots an hour’* into the side of the vessel. Seabird light attraction to brightly lit ocean-going vessels is the subject of a large amount of published literature.

#### Princeville

- The PIP states *“The resort employs commercial pest control services, additionally they deploy cat traps as soon as a cat is spotted on property (very rarely).”* This is not sufficient – an effective cat trapping strategy needs to be developed with cat trapping being continuous throughout the period outlined by the KSHCP. Cats will continue to recruit to the hotel, and so trapping needs to be continuous and year-round. The statement that cats are ‘very rarely’ seen on the property does not seem credible, considering the density of cats on the landscape. An effective monitoring strategy for assessing the cat trapping measures is not mentioned.
- According to the PIP, ground searches will be conducted during the day. **Diurnal searches are not appropriate for finding fledglings downed at night.** As was clearly demonstrated during

the mass fallout event at the Kokee AFS in 2015, when large numbers of seabirds were grounded over the course of several nights, birds that are grounded at night and not immediately located will find dark places to hide during the day – features such as narrow crawl spaces, dense vegetation, culverts, etc. These birds are extremely hard to find and require dedicated searching. Unless ground staff at the Princeville are on their hands and knees diligently searching these areas the vast majority of downed birds will be missed during a diurnal search.

- It appears that ground searches are carried out by staff during their daily activities and not as a rigorous dedicated search effort. This is not sufficient – ground searching needs a dedicated and well-trained team, especially in large areas such as this hotel. Otherwise many birds will be missed and large areas of the property will not be searched each day as individual staff members will not be co-ordinating search effort with each other.
- PIP states that *“Technical consultation with USFWS from 2016 through 2018, including a site visit to the vessel, resulted in a determination by USFWS that a 90% searcher efficiency rate is appropriate for this PIP.”* To suggest that searcher efficiency is 90% and that not a single bird is missed is not credible. Does this account for birds that land on roofs, birds that crawl into the presumably many small hiding places within a hotel ground as large as Princeville which has one of the largest confirmed seabird fallout numbers for a single property on Kauai? To justify this statement, studies are needed annually using random, unannounced deployment of carcasses in areas where birds are likely to crawl for shelter (not left in the open) for an effective searcher efficiency study. The results of this study can then be used to adjust the discovery rate for future years.

#### County of Kauai

- PIP states: *The results of the County’s monitoring of games during the 2017, 2018, and 2019 seabird fledgling season indicates that the modifications that it has made to the stadium lighting have greatly reduced the potential for light attraction. Because of this, the County will continue to allow night-time light use at some facilities; provided the selected nights avoid the peak fledgling migration period and are timed to the moon phase such that fallout is deemed low-risk; provided further that such use does not cause it to exceed the take that is authorized if this application is approved.* This statement should be viewed with caution. The changes the County made with the timing of games (i.e. using the KESRP risk calculator to only allow night football games on low risk nights) has been excellent and has certainly been effective in significantly reducing fallout risk related to night football. However, the effectiveness of the modifications of the lights themselves have not been tested – it is unlikely that the modifications themselves would serve to reduce fallout if night football games were (for example) played during high risk nights.
- PIP states: *“The County will deploy as necessary traps or other appropriate mechanisms during the seabird fallout period to reduce the presence of predators at facilities where minimization measures are not likely to result in the avoidance of seabird take.”* This statement provides no detail on what the County intends to do to remove predators from all of its lands. An effective cat trapping strategy needs to be developed with cat trapping being continuous throughout the period outlined by the KSHCP. Cats will continue to recruit to County land,

and so trapping needs to be continuous and year-round. An effective monitoring strategy for assessing the cat trapping measures is not mentioned.

- **As discussed at ESRC during the last meeting, the Kauai Humane Society has made it clear that it will no longer be accepting feral cats. Has the County come up with an alternative to deal with feral cats caught on County property? This issue was also raised by multiple applicants to the HCP, who stated that because of this new edict by KHS, they would have nowhere to take cats caught on their lands.**
- PIP states: *"It is unlawful for any person to lead or let loose any domestic animal at County parks and recreation facilities."* Do feral cats constitute a 'domestic animal'? If so, what measures are taken by the County to prevent this? There are currently multiple large cat colonies found across County land and continuous dumping of unwanted cats. They need to be permanently removed in the first year of the KSHCP.
- There is no mention on the legality of cat feeding on County property – this should not be allowed under the KSHCP.
- PIP states: *"At Category 3 facilities, for example, during the fledgling season, Fire Department personnel walk a 10-foot perimeter around the fire stations to locate, record, and report any downed seabirds at the beginning of their shifts at around 7:00am."* **Diurnal searches are not appropriate for finding fledglings downed at night.** As was clearly demonstrated during the mass fallout event at the Kokee AFS in 2015, when large numbers of seabirds were grounded over the course of several nights, birds that are grounded at night and not immediately located will find dark places to hide during the day – features such as narrow crawl spaces, dense vegetation, culverts, etc. These birds are extremely hard to find and require dedicated searching. Unless County staff are on their hands and knees diligently searching these areas the vast majority of downed birds will be missed during a diurnal search. This comment also applies to the strategy implemented for both Category 3 & 4 in Table 8.
- Table 8 monitoring plan. Category 3 & 4, searcher frequency is stated as *"If report is received, daily."* This creates a self-fulfilling prophecy; if searches aren't carried out unless a report is received, then no report will be received. It should also be noted that Category 4 relates to 'Substantial Exterior Area & Court Lighting', which relate to *'Facilities with multiple high intensity lights and with significant area coverage.'* These areas need to be searched on a nightly basis, twice a night, as outlined in the KSHCP.
- It appears that ground searches are carried out on only select County property and during staff's daily activities and not as a rigorous dedicated search effort. This is not sufficient – ground searching needs a dedicated team, especially in large areas such as several of the County properties, as otherwise most birds will be missed and large areas will not be searched each day as individual staff members will not be co-ordinating search effort with each other.

#### HDOT

- PIP states: *"The HDOT-A Kauai Airport District Manager will enact a policy that prohibits outdoor feeding of feral cats and dogs at the Lihue Airport during seabird fallout season (September 15–December 15)."* It is not clear why this will only occur during the seabird fallout season. It should be year-round, otherwise the airport may find that a cat colony is created on its property by feeders during the non-fledgling season who will then leave the cats to starve during the fallout season.

- Unlike the airport and Port Allen, the PIP does not mention how it will *‘prohibit the outdoor feeding of animals’* for Kauai Harbours, only that it will conduct animal control on its property. Add the same text as for other locations as follows: *“HDOT-A prohibits unleashed predatory animals such as cats and dogs and the outdoor feeding of animals on the Lihue Airport premises.”*

#### A&B

- The PIP has ticked ‘YES’ for all of its property in the Port Allen area regarding the prohibition of outdoor feeding of animals. It also states further on that this policy has already been ‘enacted’. However, there are multiple existing cat feeding colonies on A&B land (particularly the Port Allen Center 1 and 11) in this area. Considering that this is prohibited under the PIP, and should already have been removed as part of minimization measures, what measures will be put in place by A&B to effectively remove these cat colonies in the first year of the KSHCP and how will this be monitored?
- The PIP also states in for these areas that “In the event that cats or dogs are reported on the property, county animal control is notified or a pest control company is hired to remove the predators.” Considering the large number of cats currently found on the majority of A&Bs properties (including but not limited to the Port Allen properties, Kukuiula and Waipouli Town Center) what measures will be put in place by A&B to effectively remove these cats in the first year of the KSHCP, how will this be monitored and how will they maintain a cat free zone?

If you have any questions related to these comments, please feel free to contact me directly.

Best regards

-Dr. André F. Raine (Project Manager, Kauai Endangered Seabird Recovery Project)

To: ESRC  
Date: May 18<sup>th</sup> 2020

**Re: Kauai Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan**

I would like to offer my support to the KSHCP. I believe that the plan will provide appropriate mitigation for take of seabirds by the applicants on Kaua'i and will deliver positive conservation benefit to endangered seabirds on the ground. It is important for the populations of Newell's Shearwater and Hawaiian Petrels that this plan is accepted in a timely fashion.

**While I support the plan, there are some issues which need to be addressed.**

- 1) There are multiple instances where the commitments made by applicants in the PIPS do not match the requirements of the KSHCP itself. This is particularly the case with predator control. Section 5.3.2 of the KSHCP requires participants to
  - 1) *Prohibit loose, free-roaming cats and dogs (e.g. leash and/or restrain). This prohibition will be clearly communicated with appropriate signage;*
  - and
  - 2) *Conduct a trapping and removal program at the facility for feral cats and dogs; feral animals should be taken to the Humane Society and not returned to the facility even if neutered."*

Several applicants, most particularly the county and A&B, fail to adequately address this in their PIP. (for example, the County says: "*Ordinance No. 965, which went into effect on February 14, 2014, establishes a cat licensing and spay/neuter program. Its purpose is to protect both cats and native wildlife by requiring that cats allowed to roam off their owner's property and are four months of age be sterilized and have a license.*" This is clearly inadequate and does not meet the KSHCP requirements. A&B state that at waipouli, they will not trap for cats as there is a feral feeding colony on adjacent land)

- 2) The Kauai Humane Society (KHS) has made it clear that they no longer wish to carry out euthanasia of cats or permanent housing of these animals and are instead advocating for TNR (trap neuter release – a technique which has been shown to be thoroughly ineffective at reducing cat numbers and predation rates on vulnerable birds in numerous peer reviewed papers). At the current time, KHS are not accepting cats into their facility at all. This means that there is no reliable facility on Kauai to carry out cat euthanasia or keep cats permanently off the landscape. If KHS will not carry out these actions, then the County and / or the applicants must fund a facility / program that can provide the service to prevent downed endangered seabirds being predated by feral cats.

The lack of an appropriate facility to permanently remove cats from the landscape is also causing problems for a second HCP at Kauai Lagoons, where

cat trapping is a critically important action to prevent the depredation of endangered waterbirds.

Concerned citizens also need a place to take feral cats for free on the island to prevent an uptick in the presence of feral animals on the landscape. Any increase in cats will result in increased predation of endangered seabirds both in burrows in the mountains and when downed by lights in the lowlands.

- 3) The applicants should be trapping for cats currently as part of their minimization work, but feral cats have been noted regularly on a number of properties, so these trapping procedures are either not effective or not happening. More effective trapping regimes and better enforcement are required. Applicants have not adequately described how they will carry out effective trapping for cats.
- 4) It is not clear how DOFAW will monitor compliance of minimization and mitigation work. The compliance monitoring regime should be spelled out by DOFAW in the KSHCP document as a commitment, with named members of staff and an indication of how much time will be spent doing this work and how it will be funded. Otherwise, take will increase when applicants fail to carefully monitor for downed birds (which is likely if there are no consequences) or carry out their predator control commitments. This is particularly important where the current PIPS are not in compliance with the KSHCP document.
- 5) Applicants have selected 'self monitoring' for take. It is highly unlikely that this strategy will be effective, given the applicants' vested interests. Take monitoring should be carried out by an appropriate third party or agency and should be spot checked by an appropriate regulatory agency.
- 6) Applicants, particularly the County, should make clear what resources they are committing to take monitoring, which involves twice nightly searches during peak fledgling times: 3-4 hours after sunset and within an hour before sunrise. Regulatory approval should not be given to 'water down' this monitoring requirement.
- 7) Light pollution is increasing islandwide and there is a lack of oversight and enforcement on the lighting requirements for new builds, redevelopment and event permits with regards to the effects on endangered seabirds. The County must ensure that action is taken in the planning department to compel new builds, existing properties and events to fit appropriate lighting in the first place, shield those lights effectively, and that high quality enforcement is also carried out.

In addition, resources must be dedicated to outreach work to encourage local people and businesses to reduce lighting year-round but particularly during the seabird fallout season (such as the 'nights without light' initiative in the Reunion

Islands). Without these measures, endangered seabirds will continue to be downed both at the applicant properties and across the island.

- 8) Norwegian Cruise Lines, Princeville Resort Hotel and Sheraton claim that they have a searcher efficiency rate higher than 50% but do not supply adequate evidence that this is the case. I believe it is highly unlikely that any of the applicants are finding 90-100% of downed birds given that these birds hide in vegetation, holes or under structures once they hit the ground. Finding them requires a well thought out strategy which should be detailed in writing and should include extensive, dedicated searching (i.e cannot be done in conjunction with other duties) and appropriate training on an annual schedule. Evidence of this has not been provided. Even with these provisions, efficiency rates of 90% are unlikely and should not be used as a means to reduce take responsibilities.
- 9) Reference should be made to the businesses that chose not to participate in the KSHCP, particularly those who had take or were likely to have take but did not allow researchers to check their land. Information should be provided on action that will be taken against those non-applicants.

Many thanks,

Helen Raine

Seabird Biologist and Resident of Kaua'i

**From:** [David Henkin](#)  
**To:** [DLNR.FW.HCP](#)  
**Subject:** [EXTERNAL] ESRC Review of KSHCP  
**Date:** Friday, May 15, 2020 3:36:51 PM  
**Attachments:** [2020-4-13 EJ Comments on FWS KSHCP.pdf](#)

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To Whom It May Concern:

Thank you for the opportunity to review the latest draft of the Kaua'i Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan (KSHCP). Please convey the following comments to the members of the Endangered Species Recovery Committee for their consideration at Monday's meeting.

Initially, please find attached our comments on the March 2020 version of the KSHCP that the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service put out for public comment. While the latest draft of the KSHCP has made some improvements (e.g., regarding predator control, as discussed below), it fails to address critical flaws in the earlier draft, in particular the failures to mandate that applicants minimize their use of outdoor lighting with a high percentage of short-wavelength light or to address deficiencies in the Participant Inclusion Plans (PIPs).

Specifically with respect to the recommendations for light minimization, we strongly dispute the draft KSHCP's claim that those recommendations—which fail to mandate reductions in short-wavelength light—represent “the best available science.” 5/20 Draft KSHCP at 46. As discussed in the attached letter, there is a large body of peer-reviewed science that establishes the harmful impact of short wavelengths of light on seabirds, including the Newell's shearwater, one of the “Covered Seabirds” that this HCP is supposed to protect. *See, e.g.,* Longcore, T, *et al.*, “Rapid assessment of lamp spectrum to quantify ecological effects of light at night,” *J. Exp. Zool.* 2018:1-11; Rodríguez, A., *et al.*, “Reducing light-induced mortality of seabirds: High pressure sodium lights decrease the fatal attraction of shearwaters,” *J. for Nature Conservation* 39 (2017) 68–72; *see also* Draft National Light Pollution Guidelines for Wildlife Including Marine Turtles, Seabirds and Migratory Shorebirds, Commonwealth of Australia (2019) (all attached).

We also want to bring to your attention what appears to be a typo in the manner in which the draft KSHCP calculates observed lethal take. The draft states that “the Applicant multiplies its total observed take by 12% to determine its observed lethal take.” 5/20 Draft KSHCP at 65; *see also id.* at 66 (“Lethal take = 100% undiscovered birds + 12% of birds that are discovered and turned into SOS”). Of course, if seabirds are already dead when they are discovered or die by the time they are turned over to SOS, 100% of such birds should be considered lethal take. Accordingly, we suggest that the draft be revised to provide on page 65 that: “the Applicant multiplies its total observed take of birds that are turned over to SOS alive by 12% and then adds the total number of birds that are discovered dead or that die prior to being turned over to SOS to determine its observed lethal take.” Page 66 of the draft should similarly be revised to provide that: “Lethal take = 100% undiscovered birds + 100% of birds that are discovered dead + 100% of discovered birds that die prior to being turned into SOS + 12% of birds that are discovered and turned into SOS alive.”

We appreciate the improvements that this latest draft has made to the requirements for reducing predators at facilities (section 5.3.2). We question, however, why the draft limits mandated predator control efforts to only “immediately prior to” and during the fallout season. 5/20 Draft KSHCP at 47. While the fallout of fledging seabirds may occur primarily during the peak fallout period, fallout of adults occurs throughout the time the seabirds are on-island. These adults must also be protected from predators. Moreover, without year-round predator control, one cannot achieve the same level of reduction in predator numbers at Covered Properties. For these reasons, the KSHCP should

require year-round efforts to reduce predators.

We support the draft's requirement that trapped feral animals must be removed from the Covered Properties and may not be returned, even if neutered. 5/20 Draft KSHCP at 47. The draft creates unnecessary and unhelpful ambiguity, however, when it specifies that "Permittees shall not return feral animals **to KSHCP Covered Properties** even if neutered," which may suggest to some that feral animals may be released elsewhere. *Id.* (emphasis added). The draft should be revised to make absolutely clear that trapped feral animals may not be released anywhere, not just on Covered Properties. After all, if a feral animal (even if neutered) is released elsewhere on Kaua'i (or, for that matter, elsewhere in the state), it can continue to kill Covered Seabirds in other locations.

Finally, we note that the PIPs currently do not comply with the requirements for predator control as specified in this latest draft of the KSHCP. For example the PIP for Kaua'i Marriott Resort does not meet the minimum criteria for searching (*i.e.*, it does not provide for searches twice per day, including first thing in the morning). Before approving any of the PIPs, the ESRC must ensure they comply fully with all KSHCP requirements.

Thank you for your consideration of these comments. Please feel free to contact me to discuss our concerns.

Regards,

David Henkin

(*pronouns he/him*)

Attorney

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April 13, 2020

Via Electronic Mail

U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service  
Pacific Islands Fish and Wildlife Office  
[KauaiSeabirdHCP@fws.gov](mailto:KauaiSeabirdHCP@fws.gov)

Re: Kaua'i Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan and Draft Environmental Assessment, Kaua'i, Hawai'i, 85 Fed. Reg. 14,497 (Mar. 12, 2020)

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To Whom It May Concern:

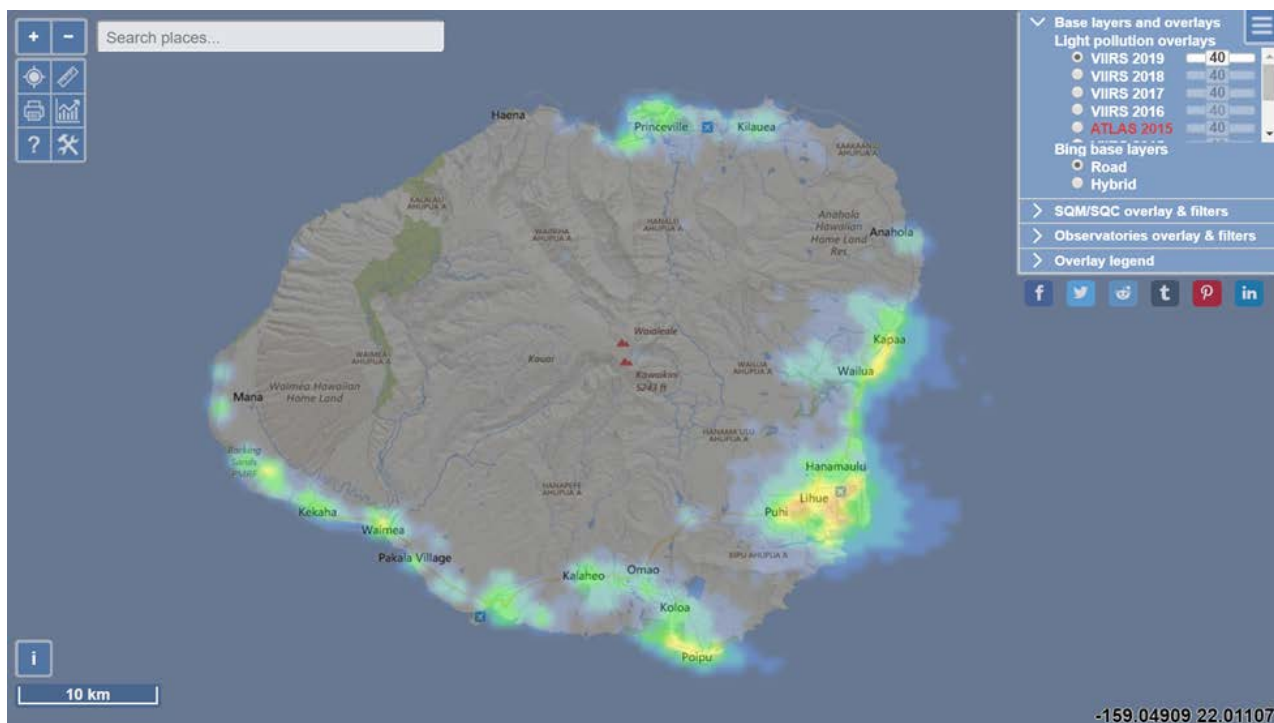
Earthjustice submits these comments on behalf of Hui Ho'omalū i Ka 'Āina, Conservation Council for Hawai'i, Center for Biological Diversity, and American Bird Conservancy in response to the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service's (FWS's) request for comments on the draft Kaua'i Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan, dated March 2020 (KSHCP) and associated draft environmental assessment (EA). *See* 85 Fed. Reg. 14,497 (Mar. 12, 2020). We incorporate by reference the comments that Andrea Erichsen submitted last November on the State of Hawai'i Division of Forestry and Wildlife's (DOFAW's) version of the draft KSHCP (attached) and submit the following additional comments for your consideration.

We appreciate the tremendous amount of time and effort that have gone into developing the KSHCP and, ultimately, would like to see it move forward and succeed. As discussed in further detail below, we are unable to support the KSHCP in its current form due to several deficiencies that fail to ensure that Applicants will "minimize and mitigate" incidental take "to the maximum extent practicable." 16 U.S.C. § 1539(a)(2)(B)(ii). This is particularly so for the state agency Applicants—the County of Kaua'i and the Hawai'i Department of Transportation—which have broad authority over a wide range of properties, facilities, and infrastructure, and are responsible for a significant portion of take of Covered Seabirds throughout Kaua'i. Moreover, the draft DA fails to consider reasonable alternatives that would reduce harm to Covered Seabirds by restricting the use of outdoor lighting fixtures with a high amount of short-wavelength light.

## I. MINIMIZATION

### A. Outdoor Lighting (KSHCP Section 5.3.1)

The KSHCP lacks meaningful standards to minimize lighting impacts on Covered Species. Although the KSHCP contains “Guidelines for Adjusting Lighting at Facilities,”<sup>1</sup> this menu of *options* is too vague and should instead include more specific *requirements* to minimize take. The island of Kaua‘i has become brighter over the past 20 years due to population growth, and also over the last few years due to the widespread adoption of light-emitting diode (LED) lights. The County has been replacing its older, yellow-colored, long-wavelength streetlight fixtures with LED fixtures that are whitish, emit a high amount of short-wavelength light, and are hotter (in terms of lumens). These sweeping changes have exacerbated nighttime lighting problems island-wide.



The spectral composition of artificial lighting can affect the degree of harm to wildlife, including seabirds and sea turtles. Lighting with a high percentage of short wavelength, or blueish light, is generally more harmful to wildlife, including seabirds and sea turtles, than lighting with

<sup>1</sup> KSHCP at 56 & Appendix E.

<sup>2</sup> <https://www.lightpollutionmap.info/#zoom=10&lat=2518510&lon=-17754133&layers=B0TFFFFFFFFFFFF>

longer wavelength, or warmer colored light.<sup>3</sup> The draft KSHCP acknowledges the harmful impact of short wavelengths of light, but only for sea turtles, improperly ignoring the body of peer-reviewed scientific literature establishing harm to seabirds from such lighting.<sup>4</sup>

Shielding lights—without also controlling the color spectrum and power output—fails to minimize seabird attraction. For example, a shielded white, hot light can reflect off of white surfaces such as walls or cars and create a massive nighttime lighting problem.



Picture taken in 2018 by the Center for Biological Diversity

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<sup>3</sup> See Longcore, T, *et al.*, “Rapid assessment of lamp spectrum to quantify ecological effects of light at night,” J. Exp. Zool. 2018:1-11; Rodríguez, A., *et al.*, “Reducing light-induced mortality of seabirds: High pressure sodium lights decrease the fatal attraction of shearwaters,” J. for Nature Conservation 39 (2017) 68–72; *see also* Draft National Light Pollution Guidelines for Wildlife Including Marine Turtles, Seabirds and Migratory Shorebirds, Commonwealth of Australia (2019). These studies are attached.

<sup>4</sup> See KSHCP Appendix E, § 1.13 (requiring “[l]ong wavelength lights ... for all construction visible from and adjacent to sea turtle nesting beaches”).

The KSHCP should, therefore, include mandatory outdoor lighting requirements that specify: (1) the required color spectrum — no greater than 2200 Kelvin (K) (for non-filtered LEDs) or a blue-light percentage of less than 2% (or the sum of energy between 400 and 500 nanometers divided by the sum of energy between 400 and 700 nanometers), (2) the maximum lumens – no greater than 1000 lumens for any individual exterior light, and (3) that full shielding and full cut-off are required. Should an Applicant need to install a specific light that does not meet these standards, the Applicant must be required to justify the specific need for this type of light. The goal for each Applicant's PIP should be to substantially reduce the overall brightness of their facilities, as measured by a high-quality light meter detector, and maintain these reductions for the life of the KSHCP.

The KSHCP should also require Applicants to implement a two-week dark skies period during which outdoor lighting is further restricted (*i.e.*, the maximum number of lights are shut off and non-essential activities are curtailed) to minimize to the extent practicable the take of Covered Seabirds during the peak of fledging season, *i.e.*, during the 2- to 3-week period around the October new moon.

Moreover, we strongly object to the assertion in the KSCHP that “[a]pproximately 50% of the total downed birds recovered by [Save Our Shearwaters] are not currently attributable to any specific, consistent, or known source of light attraction. For this portion of light attraction impact, there is currently no identifiable entity to apply for take authorization ... .”<sup>5</sup> The County has broad authority and responsibility to regulate outdoor lighting across the island and, therefore, is responsible for incidental take caused by inadequate regulation of outdoor lighting. The County, therefore, should in its PIP commit to adopting outdoor lighting standards as well as outdoor lighting zoning ordinances for new and existing structures. Relatedly, the County should hire a full-time employee to: (1) conduct lighting audits during the non-seabird season (December through March), (2) conduct education and outreach training sessions during the early seabird season (March through August), and (3) conduct nighttime island-wide patrols for problematic lighting that has recently come online during the peak seabird fallout season (September through November). In other words, this employee's position would be to ensure that the County makes continuous progress over time to reduce problematic lights, rather than backsliding whenever a new building is built, or a light bulb is replaced.

For example, when the new Ross Store opened on Kaua'i several years ago, no one flagged for that business that the seaward-facing lights it had installed just two blocks from the ocean would harm seabirds. Simple education to the owners of that store could have immediately alleviated another bad exterior lighting situation, but there was simply no one available to do so. If the County had an employee whose job was to educate businesses, then this could have been avoided.

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<sup>5</sup> KSHCP at 37.

Likewise, in October of 2017, there was a large concert at the Cabana Bar and Grill in Po'ipū on October 20th (the date of the new moon). The concert had set up five horizontal floodlights to illuminate the parking areas. These floodlights could be seen for miles around. Within minutes of arriving there, staff from the Center for Biological Diversity observed several Newell's shearwaters circling these lights. This particular concert event illustrates that, without dedicated staff paid by the County to address seabird lighting, the Newell's shearwaters will continue declining towards extinction.



Floodlights at Po'ipū Concert on new moon of October 2017

B. Outdoor Lighting (PIPs)

Given the precipitous declines in the populations of the Covered Seabirds and the impact of artificial light on adult and fledging birds, there is an urgent need for each Applicant to take immediate action to minimize light hazards at each site to the maximum extent possible, with special attention to the highest risk areas (*i.e.*, those with the greatest light footprint). For each site, priority should be given to removal, replacement, shielding or modification of light fixtures that are known to pose the greatest risk to over-flying seabirds (*i.e.*, documented

attraction/collision). Prior to each breeding season, Applicants should ensure staff are trained on how to respond to and rescue downed birds and follow the appropriate reporting protocols.

C. Predator Control (KSHCP Section 5.3.2)

The KSHCP's requirements for predator control are too simplistic and vague. Although the KSHCP requires that Applicants prohibit loose, free-roaming animals, and conduct a trapping and removal program,<sup>6</sup> the KSHCP should include more specific standards for predator control, especially in light of the fact that many of the PIPs lack adequate details or commitments to control predators. For example, the County's PIP lacks any commitments to control feral cats, which is unacceptable.<sup>7</sup>

In addition to requiring that trapped and removed feral cats and dogs "not be returned to the facility even if neutered," the KSHCP should additionally prohibit these predators from being released anywhere on Kaua'i or any other Hawaiian island that has nesting seabirds.<sup>8</sup> These trapped predators should either be humanely euthanized or be placed in permanent facilities where they cannot harm wildlife and will be treated humanely. We are cognizant that costs for "no-kill" options may be substantial particularly in relation to the limited conservation benefit derived from this humane alternative. Furthermore, we are very concerned regarding the requirement that trapped animals be brought to the Kaua'i Humane Society, since it is currently charging high fees to accept feral animals, which effectively makes this option impracticable. The KSHCP should include an alternative that would allow for feral animals to be humanely put down.

II. METHODS FOR DETERMINING TAKE (KSHCP SECTION 6.2.2.1)

For the purposes of estimating unobserved lethal take as part of the incidental take authorization process, the KSHCP requires Applicants to assume that only half (50%) of the seabirds that fallout are actually found and turned in to Save Our Seabirds.<sup>9</sup> However, Applicants have the option of demonstrating that their searcher efficiency rate is greater than 50% to justify lowering their projections for unobserved lethal take.<sup>10</sup>

Some of the Applicants, in their PIPs, have deviated from the 50% searcher efficiency rate without providing adequate data to justify these deviations. These Applicants—*i.e.*, Norwegian

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<sup>6</sup> *Id.* at 47.

<sup>7</sup> County of Kaua'i PIP at 12, Table 5.

<sup>8</sup> KSHCP at 47.

<sup>9</sup> *Id.* at 64.

<sup>10</sup> *Id.*

Cruise Lines (100%), Princeville Resort Hotel (90%), and Sheraton (90%)—should provide data to support these search efficiency rates, which appear unreasonably high.

### III. MONITORING

#### A. Compliance Monitoring (KSHCP Section 6.8.1)

It appears that the KSHCP proposes to monitor compliance with minimization and mitigation actions annually, with the *potential* for follow up site visits to validate compliance.<sup>11</sup> Annual compliance monitoring based on predictable, annually submitted reports, would be inadequate for ensuring compliance with minimization and mitigation measures and limits the ability for mid-season course correction. The KSHCP should specify that this annual review occur *pre-fallout season* (March-May) and include unscheduled, third-party compliance monitoring during peak fallout season to better ensure that minimization and mitigation measures are properly implemented.

#### B. Take Monitoring (KSHCP Section 6.8.3)

The KSHCP appears to include two options for monitoring take: (1) self-monitoring, and (2) DLNR monitoring, which “requires Participant funding & DLNR consultation;”<sup>12</sup> however, the KSHCP lacks any detail on what DLNR take monitoring would entail or how much it would cost. Moreover, given the choice, all Applicants have selected self-monitoring.<sup>13</sup> Self-monitoring would be ill-advised and inadequate given Applicants’ and their employees’ inherent bias to under-report take. The KSHCP should instead require that take monitoring be conducted by a third-party, and possibly provide a DLNR or other government agency option for take monitoring.

### IV. MISSING TEXT IN KSHCP APPENDICES

In both Appendix A and Appendix C, there are several tables where it appears that FWS inadvertently deleted information from various cells where information was provided in the draft KSHCP that DOFAW circulated last year, leaving those cells blank. Examples of this include: (1) Table 13.1 in Appendix A, where all information related to “Pre-Construction” actions and the first entry for “Rodent Trapping Post Construction Actions” have been deleted; (2) Table 6 in Appendix C, where some values for “within fence” scenarios have been deleted; and (3) Table 7 in Appendix C, where the “Difference” values have been deleted.

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<sup>11</sup> *Id.* at 76.

<sup>12</sup> *See, e.g.,* County of Kaua‘i PIP, at 19.

<sup>13</sup> *See, e.g., id.*

We assume that these deletions were inadvertent and encourage FWS carefully to review the final version of the KSHCP to ensure that all information is provided.

V. FAILURE TO CONSIDER REASONABLE ALTERNATIVES IN ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT

The National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) requires FWS to “study, develop, and describe appropriate alternatives to recommended courses of action in any proposal which involves unresolved conflicts concerning alternative uses of available resources.” 42 U.S.C. § 4332(2)(E); *see also id.* § 4332(2)(C)(iii). The alternatives section “is the heart of the environmental impact statement,” 40 C.F.R. § 1502.14, and “applies whether an agency is preparing an [environmental impact statement] or an EA.” *Native Ecosystems Council v. U.S. Forest Serv.*, 428 F.3d 1233, 1245 (9<sup>th</sup> Cir. 2005). The purpose of the alternatives requirement is to “inform decisionmakers and the public of the reasonable alternatives which would avoid or minimize adverse impacts or enhance the quality of the human environment.” 40 C.F.R. § 1502.1.

FWS’s draft EA for the KSHCP considers only two action alternatives: (1) the proposed action, as reflected in the draft KSHCP, and (2) the proposed action “with the addition of seabird translocation as part of the mitigation measures.” Draft EA at 8. The draft EA fails to consider any alternatives that would minimize adverse impacts on Covered Seabirds by controlling the color spectrum and power output of outdoor lighting fixtures used by Applicants; requiring Applicants to implement a two-week dark skies period during the peak of fledging season; requiring the County of Kaua‘i to adopt outdoor lighting standards as well as outdoor lighting zoning ordinances for new and existing structures and to conduct lighting audits; and requiring effective control of feral cats and other predators. FWS’s failure to evaluate any alternatives that include these feasible, reasonable measures to minimize adverse impacts to Covered Seabirds violates NEPA.

Mahalo for the opportunity to provide these comments. Should you wish to discuss these comments, please do not hesitate to contact the undersigned or David L. Henkin at (808) 599-2436, [kwager@earthjustice.org](mailto:kwager@earthjustice.org), or [dhenkin@earthjustice.org](mailto:dhenkin@earthjustice.org).

Sincerely,



Kylie W. Wager Cruz

Attachments

Earthjustice comments on draft KSHCP

April 13, 2020

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# Andrea Erichsen

November 7, 2019

## ***Via Email***

Jim Cogswell  
Department of Land and Natural Resources, State of Hawai'i  
1151 Punchbowl Street, Room 325  
Honolulu, Hawai'i 96813  
[james.m.cogswell@hawaii.gov](mailto:james.m.cogswell@hawaii.gov)  
[dofaw.hcp@hawaii.gov](mailto:dofaw.hcp@hawaii.gov)

**Re:     *Comments on the Kaua'i Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan – DRAFT August 2019***

Dear Mr. Cogswell:

Mahalo for the opportunity to submit comments on the draft Kaua'i Seabird Habitat Conservation Plan (KSHCP), dated August 2019. I am an ornithologist, behavioral ecologist and environmental toxicologist who has worked on a wide range of wildlife and avian projects in the private, public and academic sectors across the country. From 2005-2013, I coordinated the development, planning and writing for the KSHCP and provided technical assistance to public and private sectors regarding seabird conservation and best practices to reduce light pollution across the state. I have spent thousands of hours observing lights across the state as well as seabird behaviors. As part of this process, I have become very familiar with facilities and lights across Kaua'i as well as the fallout associated with locations across the island.

Overall, I appreciate the tremendous amounts of time and effort that have gone into preparing the KSHCP. This draft is a critical first step toward bringing the Applicants into compliance with federal and state endangered species laws. There are, however, fundamental areas of the KSHCP in need of improvement, such as monitoring as well as predator control. Moreover, although the Participant Inclusion Plans (PIPs) contain some essential information for assessing their incidental take applications, there are several critical areas that require clarification and/or improvement. My comments on the KSHCP and the PIPs are discussed in further detail, below.

## ***Measures To Avoid and Minimize Take Impacts (KSHCP Section 5.3)***

Below are some questions and suggestions regarding certain aspects of the proposed avoidance and mitigation strategies.

### **Adjusting Lighting at Facilities (KSHCP Section 5.3.1)**

To this section's bullet list, I recommend refining criteria and information related to the last bullet "use longer wavelengths," which could also be inserted as an update to Appendix E item 13. Minimization of lights should indicate which lamp types and wavelength spectra to avoid (e.g. blue-white) as well as

what wavelengths to use (e.g. yellow-orange), balancing needs for color rendering and light intensities needed for Covered Activities. The addition of more guidelines/criteria related to this topic seems to be particularly important when evaluating LED lamps that tend to emit light in the shorter blue wavelengths. Longcore et al. (2018) discusses models that can help to assess the ecological effects of lights with varying spectral characteristics.<sup>1</sup> For current PIP adjustments and future lighting planning, one approach may include avoiding use of lamps with high actinic power and evaluating lamp effects using the actinic power/lux model and CCT model values for Newell's Shearwater. Updating this information will complement what is in Appendix E item 13.

#### Reducing Predators at Facilities (KSHCP Section 5.3.2, Items 1 and 2)

The requirements for reducing predation are too general and vague. Because many of the PIPs lack adequate detail or plans to reduce predation, these requirements should be strengthened to contain more specific minimum standards. Regarding the trapping and removal of feral cats and dogs (Item 2), the KSHCP should specify that trapping must occur year-round, rather than only around fallout season, to ensure that feral animal populations are more effectively controlled. Regarding prohibiting loose, free-roaming cats and dogs, the KSHCP should specify how this prohibition will be monitored and enforced. The KSHCP should require Applicants to bring animals to licensed animal care facilities where they will be treated humanely and not released anywhere on Kaua'i, thus providing more options rather than just recommending the Kaua'i Humane Society.

#### Conducting Seabird Awareness Training and Outreach (KSHCP Section 5.3.3)

##### **The second paragraph**

- **The first sentence states:** *"Under approved PIPs, each Participant is required to conduct annual outreach and training for workers at their facilities that is specific to Covered Seabirds beginning in Year 1 of the KSHCP."* This sentence should be clarified to reflect that Participants must conduct facility-wide outreach to guests/customers and also provide Seabird Awareness and Response Training to workers so they can help spot downed seabirds and know how to respond in a timely manner. Workers should also be required to communicate to supervisors about problems with lights. The KSHCP should specify that such Seabird Awareness and Response Training must be completed prior to September 15 of each year and within the first day of employment for new employees hired within the fallout season.
- **The second paragraph, second sentence states:** *"A detailed slideshow presentation was developed on this subject will be provided by the Prime Contractor staff on request."* The meaning of this sentence is unclear but it seems the intent is for the Prime Contractor to develop and provide a detailed slide presentation. What is the purpose of this presentation? Is it required or just a guide? The KSHCP should state that the Participants will receive a copy for use. The training must emphasize effective and required search techniques.

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<sup>1</sup> Longcore, T, Rodriguez A, Witherington B, Penniman JF, Herf L, Herf M. Rapid assessment of lamp spectrum to quantify ecological effects of light at night. J. Exp. Zool. 2018:1-11.

### ***Monitoring (KSHCP Section 6.8)***

The most significant weakness of the KSHCP is monitoring (Section 6.8).

#### **Compliance Monitoring (KSHCP Section 6.8.1)**

Merely reviewing annual compliance reports, with the possibility for follow-up site visits, would be inadequate to ensure that Participants' plans and obligations to minimize and mitigate take are being implemented and effective. This annual review of compliance reports should occur *pre-season* (March-May) to better ensure compliance before the Covered Seabirds return to the island and are at risk. Moreover, the KSHCP should include unscheduled third-party monitoring of site conditions (e.g. lighting and predator control) during peak fallout season. Waiting until review of the following year's annual compliance review would eliminate the ability to correct deficient minimization and mitigation measures immediately, mid-season. Perhaps it could be an additional function of the Prime Contractor to evaluate details of monitoring plans and predator control efforts (duties are listed in Table 6-1).

#### **Take Monitoring (KSHCP Section 6.8.3)**

There are discrepancies between the KSHCP's template Monitoring Plan (Item 9) and the PIPs. The template should be clarified and the PIPs updated to specify what is meant by self-monitoring (Option 1) and DLNR-sourced monitoring (Option 2). Given the choice between self-monitoring and DLNR-sourced monitoring, all applicants have selected self-monitoring. Based on my regulatory and monitoring experience, self-monitoring is not reliable or effective because of Participants' and their employees' inherent bias against effectively documenting take. Thus, the KSHCP should justify why self-monitoring is deemed sufficient and how DLNR-sourced monitoring would differ in effectiveness and cost.

Because the PIPs' monitoring plans lack sufficient details to ensure adequate search of harder to search areas, the KSHCP's "guidelines" for take monitoring, Table 6-4, should include more specific search requirements. Specifically, the KSHCP should require that searches be extremely thorough and include looking under and within ground cover, landscaping, drainage ditches, and around water features, for example. Morning searches should occur within 1 hour before sunrise, and if up to 3 hours is deemed sufficient (e.g. open areas, no prevalence of loose predatory animals), the searches (and training) must clearly include how to search all vegetation and structures/vehicles. Employees must search underneath all vehicles before they are moved at night and first thing in the morning.

The guidelines for monitoring of loose predatory animals in Table 6-4 must be clarified to better define when to inform management and how (*i.e.*, immediately via email or phone) and what actions management will take within a specific timeframe. It is important to act immediately during the fallout season.

### ***Participant Inclusion Plans***

With the exception of Norwegian Cruise Lines (which does not have feral animals aboard its vessels), all PIPs lack adequate methods to reduce and manage the presence of loose/feral/fed animals—predominantly cats. In addition to DLNR including clearer minimum standards in the KSHCP, discussed above, the Participants must include more detailed information in their PIPs regarding how they will monitor and humanely control loose/feral/semi-tamed cat colonies within and adjacent to their facilities during the

Jim Cogswell  
Department of Land and Natural Resources, State of Hawai'i  
November 7, 2019  
Page 4

fallout season or throughout the year. My specific comments on each of the eight PIPs are included in the attached table.<sup>2</sup>

Please contact me should you have any questions regarding my comments on the draft KSHCP.

Sincerely,

Andrea Erichsen

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<sup>2</sup> The descriptions of site conditions in the table are based on my personal observations made in October 2019.

Applicant	Section (of PIP) and/or Page (of KSHCP PDF)	Observation	Recommendation/Question
Norwegian Cruise Lines	<p>1. Page 360: Description of facility</p> <p>2. Part 2, Page 381-82, Tables 11-14: Take estimates</p> <p>3. Appendix B: Manufacturers specification sheets for exterior lighting fixtures</p>	<p>1. NCL is seeking coverage for all activities associated with operating its vessels, including but not limited to the Pride of America, in Hawaiian waters and says that all vessels have similar lighting.</p> <p>SOS on Kauai is the only rehabilitation facility mentioned.</p> <p>Table 5, page 369, states: under hosting an SOS station: “Not applicable on an ocean going ship – there is a SOS Aid Station at the harbor where any downed birds are placed.”</p> <p>2. Take estimates for all species seem low and are not broken down by vessel. Tables 12-14 are empty.</p> <p>3. Some lights do not satisfy the requirement to avoid take to the maximum extent practicable in that they are not fully shielded, full cutoff lights, e.g., globe lights (Page 405) and half-moon lights (Page 389).</p>	<p>1. The A&amp;M plan should discuss/clarify SOS type services/plans for other islands such as Maui, Honolulu and Big Island in case a seabird is recovered during transit.</p> <p>2. NCL should provide the data it has collected on its own as part of its seabird monitoring and recovery efforts and report take estimates by vessel. It seems certain that some birds that collide with the ship at night will fall into the ocean. Therefore, search efficiency would not be 100% unless NCL has a method to document this. In addition, birds that fall off the ship, must be attributed as lethal take since the outcome of the bird’s survival is unknown. Tables 12-14 should be completed.</p> <p>3. Globe lights and half-moon lights should be modified/replaced to be fully shielded with full cutoff.</p>

<b>Applicant</b>	<b>Section (of PIP) and/or Page (of KSHCP PDF)</b>	<b>Observation</b>	<b>Recommendation/Question</b>
Princeville Resort Kaua'i	1. Item 2, Page 469, Tables 11-13: Re-requested Take	1. Tables 11-13 are empty and application of a 90% search efficiency seems unjustifiably high.	1. Tables 11-13 should be completed.  Application of a 90% searcher efficiency seems high. The Participant should provide the map data and discussion as to why the analysis used is sufficient for that site.  Based on my assessment of the site, I think the searcher efficiency should be lower, particularly if cats live in unsearchable vegetation or adjacent facilities.
Kaua'i Marriott	1. Item 2, Page 550, Tables 11-13: Re-requested Take	1. Tables 11-13 are empty.	1. Tables 11-13 should be completed.  My general comments on ways to improve or verify self-monitoring apply. Staff training must really focus on how to search non-paved areas and under vehicles prior to use.
Kaua'i Coffee	1. Item 3 Table, Page 578-79, Item 8 Table, Page 587  2. Take Monitoring, Page 591 and Item 9a, #2, Page 592  3. Item 3 Funding Assurance, Page 597  4. Checklist, Page 598	1. Some lights are not listed as fully shielded, with full cutoff, including those needed for Korvan Harvester machines. The lights on these machines should be shielded.  2. Page 591, Table first row, should provide more detailed information regarding percentage of property to be monitored/searched.  Same Table states monitoring will occur twice daily at 5:30 a.m. (which is fine), and 5:30 p.m., which violates KSHCP guidelines.  Item 9a, #2 lacks adequate details of monitoring during night harvest operations.  3. The Funding Assurance section is empty.	1. Item 8 Table needs more detailed information on light adjustments particularly the harvesters since it is not clear at this time. For example, can harvester lights be shielded?  2. Overall this table needs more details of areal coverage, protocols, and reasons as listed in the header of the table.  Evening monitoring must occur 1-2 hours after sunset and more frequently during harvesting operations. The PIP must better specify how staff working during harvesting and processing operations will monitor fall-out. For example the number of monitors (10 during harvesting and 20 for processing) may be sufficient depending on the scale of the searched areas,

Applicant	Section (of PIP) and/or Page (of KSHCP PDF)	Observation	Recommendation/Question
		<p>4. Some items in table not complete.</p>	<p>but more information must be provided on when and how they will work. Monitoring during the harvest is key. Twice per day during harvesting does not seem adequate.</p> <p>3. Provide information under Item 3 regarding funding assurances.</p> <p>4. Complete outstanding items on checklist.</p> <p>My general comments for most PIPs on ways to improve or verify self-monitoring apply. Staff training must really focus on how to search non-paved areas and under vehicles prior to use.</p>
Sheraton Kaua'i Resort	<p>1. Tables 1 and 2, Pages 619-20, 623-24</p> <p>2. Table 4, Page 627 and Table 5, Page 629</p> <p>3. Predator Control, Table 6, Page 630</p> <p>4. Take Estimate and Search Efficiency, Table 10, Page 638</p>	<p>1. These tables were included twice.</p> <p>2. The avoidance and minimization measure to replace all outdoor lights with fully shielded full cutoff fixtures and shields has not been implemented. For example, there are unshielded sets of bright string lights out in the open in the Makai side courtyard.</p> <p>The pagoda lights (N=18) outside the Garden wing reception area are numerous and shine a lot of light out the sides of the lamps, thus resulting in a glow in this area. When out in the open, the large ones especially should not be considered fully shielded full cutoff fixtures or down lights.</p> <p>Floodlights on the roof above the east side eave of the Lava Pool Bar do not point down far enough.</p>	<p>1. Remove the duplicate or inaccurate tables.</p> <p>2. Existing, used facilities are not addressed completely in practice and in the PIP and therefore the PIP does not meet KSHCP A&amp;M standards or maximum extent practicable.</p> <p>3. Table 6 needs to provide more concrete details as to how this minimization will be monitored and managed. The PIP must address humane trapping and data collection on cats around the grounds, which must be active year round. Procedures for managing feral cats must be developed, posted, and enforced.</p> <p>On a related topic, because feral/loose cats are present currently in certain areas around the resort and adjacent lands, staff training must strongly focus on how to search non-paved areas and under vehicles prior to use.</p>

Applicant	Section (of PIP) and/or Page (of KSHCP PDF)	Observation	Recommendation/Question
		<p>There are indoor lights on second and third story common areas that shine out through windows and likely do not meet the A&amp;M standards. These should be re-evaluated to see how window treatments may be used to prevent lights shining out laterally into the sky because the lights are on all night.</p> <p>3. The PIP states that the Resort implements this measure, staff is trained that this is not allowed, and security monitors compliance. More detail on these topics is needed. Numerous feral cats were noted in Sheraton parking lots adjacent to Kiahuna Plantation in October 2019.</p> <p>4. Search efficiency of 90% seems unjustifiably high.</p>	<p>4. The Participant should provide maps and data to support the 90% search efficiency. On the map, please identify areas with “rank” vegetation.</p> <p>Data regarding the presence of cats will inform the survival rate of downed seabirds that are not detected. This will increase the lethal take estimate, further calling into question the claimed 90% search efficacy.</p>
County of Kaua’i	<p>1. Item 7, Page 674</p> <p>2. Predator Control, Table 5, Page 673</p> <p>3. Light shielding, Page 676</p> <p>4. Lighting Ordinance, Page 677, #4</p> <p>5. Monitoring, Table 8, Page 682</p>	<p>1. County staff to check timers at Category 4 facilities 2x/month. There is no timeframe for fixing broken timers and or any explanation of how use will be managed until repairs are completed.</p> <p>2. Description of predator control at County facilities is too vague, particularly at Category 4 and 5 locations.</p> <p>3. The PIP states that shielded lights may not be used at DUI checkpoints where motorists are subject to unannounced traffic stops, or emergency rescue and response where the use of full cut-off fixtures would make it impossible to meet the operational requirements and that they will</p>	<p>1. County staff should check timers more frequently than 2x/month, i.e., 2x/week for Category 4 lights being used. The PIP should provide a timeframe for fixing timers and protocol for controlling use until timers are fixed.</p> <p>2. The table merely lists statutes regarding loose animals and refuse removal, but does not specify whether/how they will be enforced. The PIP needs to contain more detailed information regarding the methods for monitoring and managing feral animals on County lands and partnering perhaps with adjacent landowners. It may be of value to prioritize more intensified predator control efforts at Category 4 and 5 facilities, for example.</p>

Applicant	Section (of PIP) and/or Page (of KSHCP PDF)	Observation	Recommendation/Question
		<p>consider the use of other types of lighting.</p> <p>4. The PIP states that the County declined to adopt a county-wide or facility-wide lighting ordinance without providing justification for this decision or analysis to support their conclusions. Second, the statement that the County is investigating the possibility of adding advisory language to certain building and development permit forms does not go far enough.</p> <p>5. Table is missing headers. For Category 4, monitoring not frequent enough. For Category 5, timing is not frequent enough.</p>	<p>3. There should be a way to ensure that all portable floodlights for emergency uses are shielded. The PIP needs to provide details as to what these “other types of lighting” are.</p> <p>4. The County’s PIP should provide more detailed information on its analysis regarding development of a lighting ordinance, how it will identify future opportunities and mechanisms to address this topic. Even without an ordinance, the County should include permitting and planning requirements, not merely advisory suggestions as provided currently in the PIP. The County should include in their PIP their policy to ensure that new and existing permitted facilities implement seabird friendly lighting.</p> <p>5. Monitoring at Category 4 and 5 facilities should expand from 10’ radius to at least a 30’ radius of a likely sighting, particularly where there is landscaping or other structures.</p> <p>For Category 4 facilities, searching for fallout only in the morning will result in higher mortality and undetected birds. Therefore, the PIP must specify at time of use in addition to the first hour of the morning.</p>

Applicant	Section (of PIP) and/or Page (of KSHCP PDF)	Observation	Recommendation/Question
Hawai'i Dept. of Transportation – Harbors and Airports Divisions	<p>1. Lihue Airport avoidance and minimization Table 4, Page 842</p> <p>2. Predator Control Kauai Harbors Table 11, page 848 Nawiliwili Harbor and Pt. Allen Table 12, page 849, Lihue Airport Table 6, page 853</p>	<p>1. Airports table on avoidance and minimization-provide seabirds awareness training to staff lists April instead of August.</p> <p>2. These tables are sufficient in that they list information on contractors, costs, and time period for predator control. Other participants should do the same.</p>	<p>For Category 5 facilities, County should conduct ongoing monitoring during light use and after lights are off as written.</p> <p>1. Correct Table 4 to read August to match Harbors.</p> <p>2. Monitoring is improved with third party verification, as I have recommended for all PIPs. The DOT PIPs are therefore setting a good standard by including this information and costs.</p> <p>However, the PIP monitoring plan should make it clear that intensive monitoring will be implemented in areas containing vegetation/landscaping and various types of vehicles and movable equipment (e.g. rental car areas and parking lots as well as vehicles within the secured areas). Practices such as trimming vegetation will also help locate birds that have fallen or crawled under vegetation.</p> <p>In addition, random in-season verification monitoring should be included in the plan.</p>
Alexander & Baldwin	<p>1. Table 1(k), page 1083</p> <p>2. Take Monitoring, Item 7a (page 1152) Item 7b (page 1153)</p> <p>3. Item 2, Tables 11-13, Page 1199</p>	<p>1. Table 1(k), page 1083 states that a lighting plan for the Shops at Kukuiula is underway/planned and therefore is incomplete for this draft. The PIP contains a good list including many varied facilities and reasonable A&amp;M for lights at each although some sites are not addressed completely and therefore the PIP does not meet KSHCP A&amp;M standards or maximum extent practicable.</p> <p>For example, there are numerous unshielded and bright/string lights</p>	<p>1. Include a timeframe for completion of the pending lighting plan for the Shops at Kukuiula, Pt Allen Marine Center and any other locations where plans are pending.</p> <p>Predator monitoring and humane control methods need to be more explicitly defined and scheduled, particularly prior to and during the fallout season. Otherwise, seabirds that fallout at the intersection of Waiaolo Road and Aka Ula Street, for example, will be quickly dispatched by feral cats.</p>

Applicant	Section (of PIP) and/or Page (of KSHCP PDF)	Observation	Recommendation/Question
		<p>currently in use at two main areas within the Kukuiula Shopping Center. These are not within KSCHP guidelines. These exposed lights need to be shielded, full cutoff downward facing fixtures.</p> <p>Similarly, light improvement plans are pending for the 1(f) Pt. Allen Marine Center.</p> <p>Predator control methods are weak, particularly at Pt. Allen sites where the need is highest (e.g. cat colonies on property)</p> <p>2.</p> <p>7a Training is provided, but monitoring is not. The solar farm is close to several facilities such as KIUC's power plant, Chevron, and Pt. Allen. Birds may fallout on property despite the low risk of on-site lights.</p> <p>7b Says 1-2 "searches." Should this be "searchers"?</p> <p>3. Tables 11-13 are empty.</p>	<p>2.</p> <p>7a-A&amp;B should monitor daily at solar farm. It is near the KIUC power plant, Chevron, and Pt. Allen, and birds may fall there. A&amp;B should assess localized presence of cats and other loose predatory animals and take appropriate actions to remove them.</p> <p>7b-Correct typo to "searchers" if that is the intended meaning.</p> <p>For sites where predator control is deemed infeasible, if the results of monitoring show depredation of downed seabirds, adaptive management should trigger humane predator control actions.</p> <p>3. These tables should be completed.</p> <p>My general comments for most PIPs on ways to improve or verify self-monitoring apply. Staff training must really focus on how to search non-paved areas and under vehicles prior to use.</p>

# Rapid assessment of lamp spectrum to quantify ecological effects of light at night

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## Abstract

For many decades, the spectral composition of lighting was determined by the type of lamp, which also influenced potential effects of outdoor lights on species and ecosystems. Light-emitting diode (LED) lamps have dramatically increased the range of spectral profiles of light that is economically viable for outdoor lighting. Because of the array of choices, it is necessary to develop methods to predict the effects of different spectral profiles without conducting field studies, especially because older lighting systems are being replaced rapidly. We describe an approach to predict responses of exemplar organisms and groups to lamps of different spectral output by calculating an index based on action spectra from behavioral or visual characteristics of organisms and lamp spectral irradiance. We calculate relative response indices for a range of lamp types and light sources and develop an index that identifies lamps that minimize predicted effects as measured by ecological, physiological, and astronomical indices. Using these assessment metrics, filtered yellow-green and amber LEDs are predicted to have lower effects on wildlife than high pressure sodium lamps, while blue-rich lighting (e.g.,  $K \geq 2200$ ) would have greater effects. The approach can be updated with new information about behavioral or visual responses of organisms and used to test new lighting products based on spectrum. Together with control of intensity, direction, and duration, the approach can be used to predict and then minimize the adverse effects of lighting and can be tailored to individual species or taxonomic groups.

## KEYWORDS

action spectrum, behavioral response, light pollution, phototaxis

## 1 | INTRODUCTION

It has long been known that artificial night lighting affects wildlife through attraction and disorientation (Allen, 1880), and recent research has documented the extent of the adverse consequences of artificial night lighting to include, for example, plant phenology (Somers-Yeates et al., 2016), predator–prey relations (Minnaar, Boyles, Minnaar, Sole, & McKechnie, 2015), circadian rhythms (Dominoni, 2015), and nocturnal rest and recovery (Gaston, Bennie, Davies, & Hopkins, 2013). Importantly, light attraction and disorientation results in direct mortality of many groups of insects (Eisenbeis & Hänel, 2009), birds (Longcore et al., 2012), including seabirds (Rodríguez et al., 2017b), and sea turtles (Salmon, 2003), contributing to species decline (Fox, 2013; Wilson et al., 2018). The degree of influence of outdoor electric lighting is determined by the direction, intensity, duration, and spectrum of the lights (Gaston, Davies, Bennie, & Hopkins, 2012; Longcore and Rich, 2017). For many years, only a handful of lamp types were

economically viable for widespread deployment and their spectral characteristics were limited. For example, low pressure sodium lamps, with nearly all emissions in the yellow/orange at 589 nm became the lamp of choice around astronomical observation sites and near sea turtle nesting beaches because both night sky observation and sea turtle orientation benefit from a narrow-band light in the longer wavelengths (Witherington, 1992). Other lamps were similarly deployed in different situations and consequently most studies of ecological effects are on these types—low-pressure sodium, high-pressure sodium, metal halide, and mercury vapor (although this lamp type has largely been phased out) (Eisenbeis & Eick, 2011; Rich and Longcore, 2006). In the past decade, however, light-emitting diode (LED) lamps have become economically viable, bringing a range of new spectral characteristics to the marketplace (Boyce, Fotios, & Richards, 2009; Gaston, 2013) along with concerns about their differential effects on wildlife species (Davies, Bennie, Inger, de Ibarra, & Gaston, 2013; Gaston, 2013).

In the early days of commercial LEDs for outdoor lighting, full spectrum light was achieved through coating a blue LED with a phosphor, which produced light across the visual spectrum (Hecht, 2012). These lamps had a high correlated color temperature (CCT), indicating a high proportion of blue and violet in the emissions, as a result of the underlying blue LED. This blue hue became more dramatic as the phosphor aged. Many in the general public and scientific community may have developed the perception that all light from LEDs was a “cool” white (high CCT) at this time. Technological innovation in the LED industry has, however, been rapid, because the energy savings from LEDs are so attractive that replacement lamp types that address a range of color spectrum specifications have been developed (Dudley, Erkintalo, & Genty, 2015). While earlier efforts to develop LEDs with lower color temperatures came with a penalty of less efficiency, by 2015, LEDs at 2700 K and 3000 K were commercially available that matched the energy efficiency of 5000 K lamps. Furthermore, the development of different colors of LEDs and different filtering technologies has led to a range of different spectral signatures for lamps that are all economically competitive in terms of energy efficiency.

Conservation scientists need to keep up with the changing array of outdoor lighting options to provide guidance to officials and managers around the world who are faced with the obvious economic choice of switching to high-efficiency lighting such as LEDs (Hecht, 2016). Such a switch can be catastrophic for the effects on other species, or it can be a benefit, depending on the spectrum, duration, direction, and intensity of the new lamps (Gaston et al., 2012; Longcore et al., 2015; Rodríguez, Dann, & Chiaradia, 2017a). The same applies to sky glow (Kinzey et al., 2017). Some ecologists have voiced generic concerns about LEDs in general, questioning whether they pose a risk across the board (Pawson and Bader, 2014; Stone, Jones, & Harris, 2012), and noting the unfortunate “rebound effect” in which more efficient lighting leads to deployment of even more light (Kyba et al., 2017; Kyba, Hänel, & Hölker, 2014). Similar concerns about the adverse effects of the rapid spread of full spectrum LED lighting are voiced by dark sky advocates (Bierman, 2012). The spectrum of light used will greatly affect the amount of scattering of light at different distances from a source (Kinzey et al., 2017). The extent of these effects depends in part on the spectral characteristics of the LEDs used, and many opportunities are available to evaluate the performance of the wide array of LED spectral configurations, such as investigating multiple spectral configurations of 2700 K LEDs to reduce attraction of flying insects (Longcore et al., 2015) or comparing LEDs of different color temperatures (Eisenbeis & Eick, 2011).

Differences between the spectral response curve for human vision (both photopic and scotopic) and the visual sensitivity and measured behavioral responses of animals indicate an opportunity to configure outdoor lighting that avoids sensitive regions of the spectrum while providing needed visibility for humans. For example, many insects are attracted to shorter wavelengths (blue, violet, and ultraviolet) more than longer wavelengths (Eisenbeis, 2006; Eisenbeis & Hänel, 2009). Light sources that have low blue and shorter wavelength emissions attract fewer insects (Cleve, 1964; Eisenbeis & Eick, 2011; Eisenbeis & Hänel, 2009; Menzel & Greggers, 1985) and consequently, fewer bats that forage on insects (Stone, Harris, & Jones, 2015). The lower

behavioral response of hatching sea turtles to longer wavelengths of light (Witherington, 1992) has become the basis to limit the permissible spectral characteristics of lights on and near nesting beaches in many jurisdictions. Such regulations to minimize adverse effects of lighting on nature are always compromises and usually driven by the species or species group with regulatory protection in a particular situation.

The current challenge for conservationists is that assessing the effects of different spectral distributions on wildlife in experimental or field situations is time consuming and an increasing number of lamp types are being developed, while jurisdictions are making decisions about replacement of aging fixtures every day (Hecht, 2016). Once such decisions are made, new lamps will be in place for years to come. Tools are therefore needed to assess the potential adverse effects of newly developed lights compared with existing technologies in a rapid manner and in a way that allows tradeoffs between adverse effects on wildlife and human needs to be compared. In this paper, we assemble a series of spectral response curves from the literature and a series of spectral emission curves for established and new outdoor lighting sources, develop a standardized index that weights the spectral output by the response curves, provide a matrix of lighting performance measures (e.g., color rendering index, correlated color temperature, Star Light Index), and present these results on a website that can be periodically updated to serve as a clearinghouse for this information.

## 2 | METHODS

We obtained spectral power distribution curves for a wide range of lamp types and calculated indices representing the degree of overlap with a series of spectral response curves for different organisms. Following recommendations of the Bureau International des Poids et Mesures (BIPM), action spectra are dimensionless, while spectral irradiance is measured in  $\mu\text{W}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$ , from which we calculate the weighted sum across wavelengths (BIPM, 2006, Appendix 3, Section 2). We treat spectral response curves like action spectra even if they do not meet the high standards for a true action spectrum (Björn, 2015). Species response curves were converted from photons to spectral power ( $\mu\text{W}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$ ) because organismal responses are dependent on the number of photons, not the energy of the light (Johnsen, 2012) while light is frequently measured with power units.

Spectral power distributions were obtained in  $\mu\text{W}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$  and resampled to 1 nm increments from 350 nm (well in the ultraviolet, which is still the visual spectrum for some insects) (Menzel & Greggers, 1985) through 780 nm to encompass the full range of vision for organisms. Spectral response curves were normalized to 1 at the maximal value, and multiplied by the emissions at each wavelength and then summed over all wavelengths, yielding three metrics.

1. A standard “effective irradiance” metric, computed by multiplying spectral irradiance at each wavelength by the spectral response (“actinic power”). (BIPM, 2006, Appendix 3 and CIE, 2007)

$$E_{\text{eff}} = \int E_{\lambda} S_i(\lambda) d\lambda,$$

where  $E_{\lambda}$  represents the source spectral irradiance and  $S_i$  is the actinic spectrum.

2. The actinic power per lux (the human photopic response,  $V(\lambda)$ ):

$$E_{\text{lux}} = \frac{\int E_{\lambda} S_i(\lambda) d\lambda}{\int E_{\lambda} V(\lambda) d\lambda}.$$

The resulting measurement is thereby standardized in terms of the effect on each species per lux produced by the lamp and can be referred to as the taxonomic (e.g., turtle, salmon) action factor of the light source (CIE, 2014).

3. To allow comparison across species, we scaled the action factor relative to the response that would be elicited by daylight.

$$a_{\text{D65}} = \frac{E_{\text{lux}}(E)}{E_{\text{lux}}(\text{D65})}.$$

The resulting values indicate the increase of effects on species relative to sunlight for each additional lux. A metric indexed to daylight allows actinic response metrics to be compared across species, even when the “shape” of the action spectra varies.

This approach allows comparison across lamp types and for different intensities by isolating the effect of spectrum. These methods follow the overall approach of Aubé, Roby, and Kocifaj (2013) and the recommendations of the BIPM (2006) and CIE (2014).

We used measured spectral distributions for mercury vapor, metal halide, high pressure sodium, low pressure sodium, incandescent, phosphor-coated amber LED, and 3000 K LED from Elvidge, Keith, Tuttle, and Baugh (2010). We also obtained spectral power distributions for three filtered LED systems (warm white LED with integrated filter) from C&W Energy Solutions, a filtered LED from LED Living Technology (LLT) and three lamps used in an experiment with attraction of shearwaters to light (Rodríguez et al., 2017a; Table 1; Figure 1).

For the species responses, we used spectral response curves developed for a range of organisms, including insects, sea turtles, and birds (Table 2). Some response curves represent behavioral responses to light of different wavelengths (e.g., moths and hatchling sea turtles) while others represent the visual sensitivity of the eyes of the organisms or physiological response (photosynthesis). For visual sensitivity curves, we used  $\log_{10}$  transformed values, which were then normalized, because perceptual responses to visual cues are widely seen to be on a log scale as suggested by Stevens' power law (Stevens, 1961) and its application to sensory phenomena in insects (Ruchty, Roces, & Kleineidam, 2010).

To evaluate the potential effect of each lamp on night sky pollution, we calculated the Star Light Index proposed by Aubé et al. (2013) using the spreadsheet provided as an electronic supplement, which tracks human scotopic vision. We also calculated indices to evaluate the effect of spectrum on Rayleigh scattering, which would be prevalent near cities, and Mie scattering, which would predominate in indirect skyglow >80 km from city centers (Aubé, 2015; Luginbuhl, Boley, & Davis, 2014; see Figure 2).

Finally, we calculated photometric indices for each light source that are important to lighting engineers and end users. These include the correlated color temperature (CCT), color rendering index (CRI),

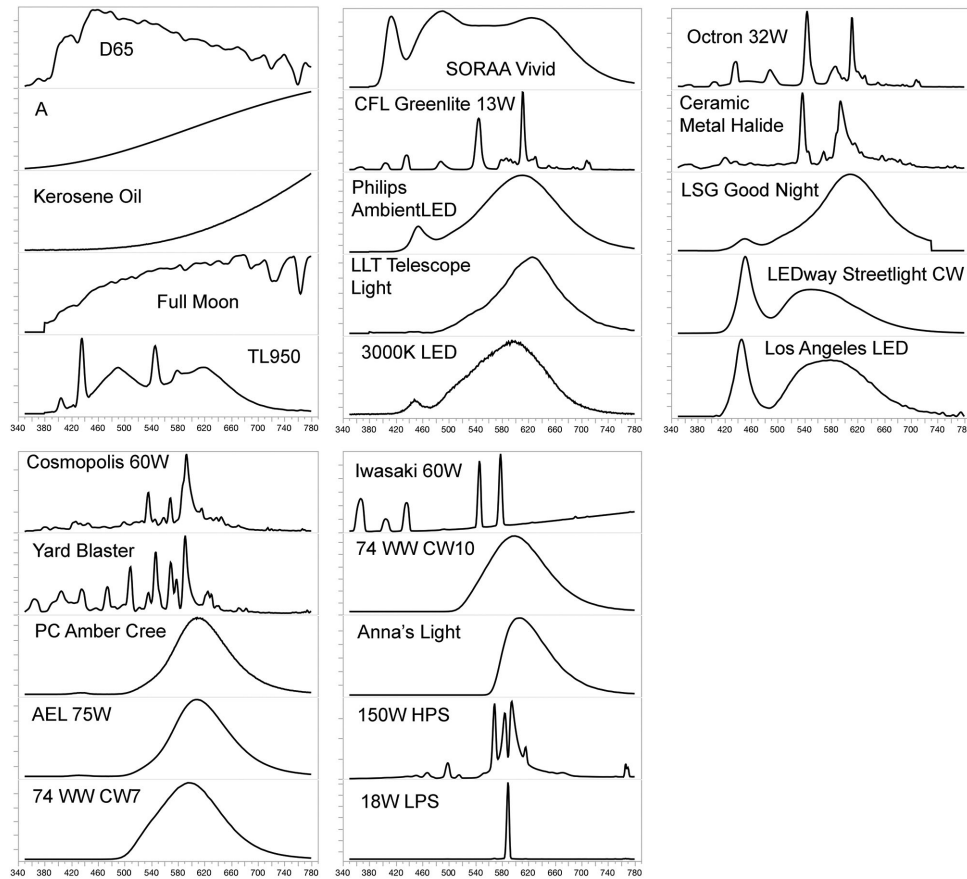
**TABLE 1** Lamps and spectral output curves included in study, by type, correlated color temperature (CCT), and color rendering index (CRI)

Lamp/Standard	Type	CCT	CRI
D65 (Daylight)	Natural	6504	100
CIE Illuminant A	Lighting Standard	2856	100
Kerosene Oil	Combustion	1913	99
Full moon	Natural	4134	98
Philips TL950	Fluorescent	4684	96
SORAA Vivid	LED	4965	93
CFL Greenlite 13 W	Fluorescent	2892	81
Philips AmbientLED	LED	2601	81
LLT Telescope Light	Filtered LED	1908	81
3000K LED	LED	3262	80
OCTRON 32 W	Fluorescent	4012	79
Metal Halide 70W	Metal Halide	3071	79
LSG Good Night 2016	LED	2266	76
LEDway Streetlight CW 54W	LED	6270	75
City of Los Angeles Streetlight	LED	4310	73
LED VBLFL-855-4-40	LED	4663	70
Cosmopolis 60W	Metal Halide	2879	66
Yard Blaster	LED	4164	64
PC Amber Cree	PC Amber LED	1717	59
AEL 75W	PC Amber LED	1743	58
CWES 74 WW CW7	Filtered LED	2448	54
Iwasaki 60W	Mercury Vapor	3757	53
MH MASTER HPI-T Plus 400W/645 E40 1SL	Metal Halide	3808	51
CWES 74 WW CW10	Filtered LED	2096	49
CWES Anna's Light	Filtered LED	1193	26
HPS SON-T 400W/220 E40 1SL	High Pressure Sodium	1947	18
150 W HPS	High Pressure Sodium	2059	17
18 W LPS	Low Pressure Sodium	1810	−44

and M/P ratio (melanopic/photopic ratio), using the spreadsheet from Lucas et al. (2014).

We then calculated the ratio of the actinic power of each lamp per lux of output compared to a D65 standard. This measurement compares the effect on each species response or light pollution metric of an additional lux of each lamp type, compared with an additional lux of daylight (the D65 standard). We also calculated ratio of the actinic power of each lamp compared with the total power of the lamp. This measurement indicates how much of the energy output of the lamp will affect each species or light pollution metric.

To illustrate the tradeoffs between minimizing effects on different groups of wildlife and optimizing performance for outdoor lighting, we calculated mean values for each lamp, consisting of: 1) animal response by taxonomic group (insect mean, sea turtle mean, Newell's



**FIGURE 1** Spectral power distributions of light sources investigated. The five panels are in order of decreasing CRI from top left to lower middle

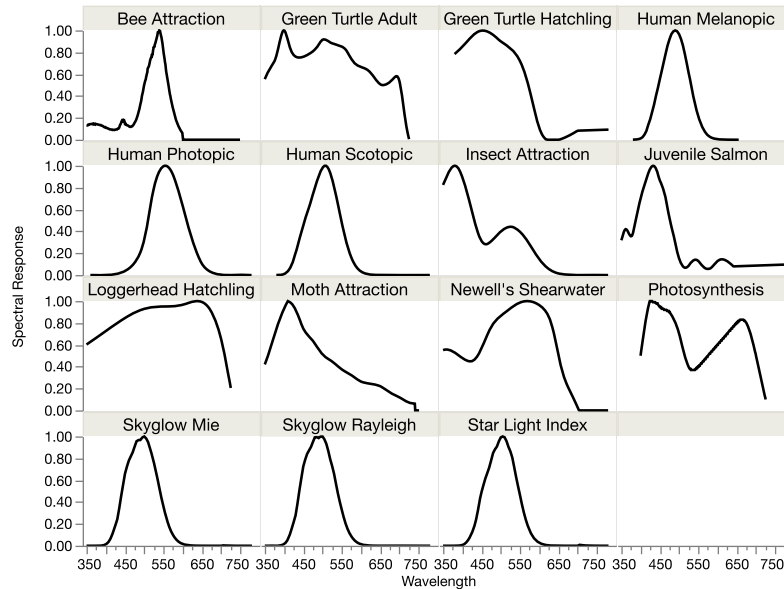
**TABLE 2** Organismal response spectra

Taxon	Response	Format	Notes and Source
Moths (Lepidoptera)	Behavioral	Digitized by CIE	(Cleve, 1964)
Bee (Hymenoptera)	Behavioral	Digitized by CIE	(Menzel & Greggers, 1985)
Insects (Class Insecta)	Behavioral	Modeled	Composite metric for all Insecta (Donners et al., 2018)
Green turtle hatchlings ( <i>Chelonia mydas</i> )	Behavioral	Digitized	(Witherington, 1992)
Green turtle adults ( <i>Chelonia mydas</i> )	Visual sensitivity	Digitized	(Midolo, 2011) See also (Levenson, Eckert, Cognale, Deegan, & Jacobs, 2004)
Loggerhead hatchlings ( <i>Caretta caretta</i> )	Behavioral	Digitized	(Witherington, 1992)
Juvenile Atlantic salmon ( <i>Salmo salar</i> )	Visual sensitivity	Digitized	(Hawryshyn, Ramsden, Betke, & Sabbah, 2010)
Newell's shearwater ( <i>Puffinus newelli</i> )	Visual sensitivity	Digitized	(Reed, 1986)
Photosynthesis (Plantae)	Physiological	Digital	(DIN, 2016)

shearwater, juvenile salmon, or the mean of all four), 2) Star Light Index, 3) melatonin suppression, and 4) visual performance. For visual performance, we assumed that CRI greater than 75 was acceptable and assigned values as follows:

$$\text{If } \begin{cases} \text{CRI} > 75 \Rightarrow 1 \\ \text{else} \Rightarrow 1 - \frac{(75 - \text{CRI})}{150} \end{cases}$$

This approach is necessary to account for the -44 CRI of low pressure sodium lamps so that all values of the index range 0–1. We calculated which lamps performed best as an average of the four categories, running the average once for each of the organismal responses (to match a scenario where that species or species group was most important) and for all organismal responses with a weight of 1 for each of the major taxonomic groups. For comparison with a ranking that considers only environmental factors, we



**FIGURE 2** Response curves that can be used to estimate influence of light sources [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

calculated performance for each lamp in the same manner but without incorporating CRI.

To test this approach with experimental data, we compared the results of the light hazard for shearwaters in an experiment comparing light attraction of short-tailed shearwaters for metal halide, high pressure sodium, and 4536 K LED lamps (Rodríguez et al., 2017a). We modeled relative attraction using the same approach of generalized linear mixed models with night as a random factor and actinic power, lamp type, brightness, and CCT each in separate models as an independent factor. We compared models using Akaike's Information Criterion and visualized the fit using scatterplots. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation between responses and photometric indices, and all other statistics were calculated using JMP Pro 13 (SAS, Inc., Cary, NC).

All of the calculations and visualization of the intersection of light spectrum and human and animal response curves can be viewed at a website (<https://github.com/herf/ecological>) that will be updated with new lamp spectra and response curves and will allow users to submit spectra for analysis.

### 3 | RESULTS

Actinic power as a percent of total power describes the amount of energy from each lamp spectrum that affects the various species and photometric indices. For some lamps this proportion is relatively high for most action spectra, and for some species responses the proportion is high for most lamps (Table 3). For example, a high proportion of the power from all lamp types is calculated to influence loggerhead hatchlings, while few lamps concentrate their power in the areas of the spectrum most attractive to juvenile salmon (Table 3).

Actinic power per lux compared with daylight calculates the effect on species of increasing or decreasing illumination (in lux). For example,

each additional lux of light from a low pressure sodium lamp has 20% of the effect on moths as would an additional lux of daylight, while an additional lux of a mercury vapor lamp would have 72% of the effect of an additional lux of daylight (Table 4).

The tested lamp types ranged in CRI from -44 (low pressure sodium) to 99, and CCT from 1193 (Anna's light) to 6270 (LEDway Streetlight). CCT and CRI were significantly but not strongly correlated (95% CI = 0.10–0.73). The variation in relative actinic power for lamps varied most for juvenile salmon (range, 0.15–1), substantially for insects (range, 0.33–1.16) and sea turtles (range, 0.38–1.02), and least for Newell's shearwaters (range, 0.65–1). For three of the four species groups tested, narrow band lamps with restricted emissions in the shorter wavelengths had the lowest actinic power relative to daylight. Only for Newell's shearwater did one narrow spectrum lamp (CWES Anna's Light) score higher than full spectrum lamps (Figure 3).

Composite assessments that gave equal weight to a wildlife group response, melatonin suppression, and Star Light Index showed lowest effects for lamps with low emissions in the shorter wavelengths (Figure 4a), with low pressure sodium showing the lowest impacts. When CRI was included as a factor, low pressure sodium lamp did not perform as well (Figure 4b), despite low actinic power for wildlife, because of its low CRI. Instead, PC Amber and two filtered LEDs scored lowest overall.

Correlations between photometric values for lamps and resulting light pollution effects were positive and strongest for CCT and both melanopic effect and Star Light Index, positive but weak for CRI and other metrics and modestly strong and positive for CCT and equally weighted wildlife effects (Table 5). Most importantly to our approach, although CCT has a high correlation with the aggregate wildlife effects (95% CI = 0.57–0.90), the correlation between CRI and wildlife effects is lower (95% CI = 0.43–0.86). The same is true for nearly all of the individual responses; CCT predicts wildlife effects more than CRI, with higher CCT values more likely to have higher effects on the wildlife assessed in this study than higher CRI values.

**TABLE 3** Actinic power as a percent of total power for each of the taxonomic-specific responses

Light source	Photosynthesis	Moth	Bee	Insect index	Green turtle behavior	Green turtle visual	Loggerhead behavior	Salmon	Shearwater
D65	56	43	22	30	50	66	78	30	60
A	44	22	12	11	23	45	62	14	41
Kerosene Oil	34	13	4.9	4.6	12	31	47	10	25
Full moon	53	31	19	19	37	57	74	20	54
TL950	65	42	27	26	52	72	90	26	75
SORAA Vivid	65	43	25	27	51	71	88	27	70
LLT Telescope Light	61	26	14	13	19	61	90	11	69
CFL Greenlite 13 W	58	38	30	27	40	72	91	22	81
Philips AmbientLED	61	30	20	17	31	65	90	15	72
3000K LED	57	35	25	24	39	67	87	18	73
OCTRON 32 W	62	43	32	29	52	74	91	28	81
Metal Halide 70W	56	37	25	27	39	68	87	22	73
Ceramic Metal Halide 70 W	56	37	25	27	39	68	87	22	73
LSG Good Night 2016	62	30	18	17	27	66	93	13	75
LEDway Streetlight CW 54W	65	45	32	28	61	75	91	31	79
Los Angeles LED	64	41	29	26	51	72	91	27	77
Cosmopolis 60W	58	38	24	27	41	70	90	21	79
Yard Blaster	56	47	28	37	53	75	87	29	76
PC Amber Cree	61	25	12	13	17	61	92	11	73
AEL 75W	61	25	12	13	17	61	91	10	72
CWES 74 WW CW7	58	28	23	18	27	66	93	10	80
Iwasaki 60W	41	30	17	24	29	51	65	20	48
CWES 74 WW CW10	59	27	18	16	22	64	93	10	78
CWES Anna's Light	64	23	3.8	8.7	8.4	59	92	10	71
150 W HPS	57	30	15	19	29	65	89	14	82
LPS 18 W	55	28	13	20	25	68	95	8.7	97

The reanalysis of shearwater grounding data shows that actinic power per lux provides at least an equally valid model (AICc 546.83, effect 95% CI 3.69–61.84) as a categorical analysis with lamp type (AICc 547.59, LED effect 95% CI –1.07 to 0.45, MH 95% CI 0.20–1.72) (Figure 5). The model for CCT had a higher AICc (549.13) with an effect 95% CI intersecting 0, while the model for brightness had a still higher AICc (551.44) and a 95% CI for effect also intersecting 0.

4 | DISCUSSION

Our effort extends the approach presented by Aubé et al. (2013) to develop a method to calculate indices for any organismal response to lighting spectrum assuming equal visual light intensity to humans. These calculations can be easily repeated and updated with additional organismal response curves or with additional lighting products. We included the ultraviolet part of the spectrum because many other light sources do include ultraviolet and it is important for animal responses,

although it is not a significant issue for most LEDs used for outdoor lighting.

The approach described here establishes appropriate units for measuring ecological responses to light that are consistent with international standards and thereby provides a basis for comparison that is replicable and testable. Quantification of actinic power can be used to develop hypotheses to test in the field, such as the comparison of lamp types undertaken by Rodríguez et al. (2017a) that we revisited. Furthermore, it allows the rapid and easily updatable comparison of new lamp types so that the most promising spectral configurations for a particular situation can be identified and tested in the field.

Our approach is, however, only as accurate as the action spectra and as applicable as the number of different species groups for which action spectra are available. These response curves are scattered in the literature and although many physiological response curves could be calculated from, for example, peak opsin sensitivities (Davies et al., 2013), behavioral response curves derived from field and laboratory tests are more rare. In at least one instance (loggerhead sea turtle hatchlings) there may be behavioral response differences between

**TABLE 4** Actinic power per lux of each lamp type, compared with a lux of daylight (D65)

Light source	Photosynthesis	Moth	Bee	Insect index	Green turtle behavior	Green turtle visual	Loggerhead behavior	Salmon	Shearwater
D65	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A	1	0.639	0.681	0.482	0.588	0.865	1.010	0.587	0.867
Kerosene Oil	1.360	0.673	0.494	0.340	0.558	1.050	1.340	0.754	0.924
Full moon	0.922	0.704	0.821	0.597	0.72	0.841	0.917	0.642	0.874
TL950	0.827	0.691	0.858	0.611	0.736	0.774	0.815	0.618	0.876
SORAA Vivid	0.927	0.793	0.891	0.711	0.822	0.860	0.894	0.720	0.920
LLT Telescope Light	0.772	0.425	0.458	0.306	0.275	0.660	0.818	0.259	0.812
CFL Greenlite 13 W	0.573	0.487	0.746	0.490	0.445	0.606	0.648	0.410	0.748
Philips AmbientLED	0.716	0.464	0.593	0.375	0.408	0.648	0.756	0.33	0.785
3000K LED	0.647	0.522	0.714	0.515	0.497	0.655	0.714	0.392	0.778
OCTRON 32 W	0.632	0.573	0.847	0.556	0.599	0.648	0.670	0.534	0.773
Metal Halide 70W	0.656	0.568	0.732	0.576	0.512	0.673	0.723	0.481	0.788
Ceramic Metal Halide 70 W	0.656	0.568	0.732	0.576	0.512	0.673	0.723	0.481	0.788
LSG Good Night 2016	0.696	0.431	0.526	0.343	0.343	0.625	0.743	0.284	0.779
LEDway Streetlight CW 54W	0.715	0.645	0.900	0.574	0.748	0.697	0.713	0.629	0.800
Los Angeles LED	0.688	0.579	0.782	0.510	0.614	0.657	0.700	0.545	0.771
Cosmopolis 60W	0.603	0.519	0.644	0.518	0.485	0.622	0.668	0.415	0.764
Yard Blaster	0.646	0.701	0.821	0.783	0.686	0.729	0.717	0.624	0.816
PC Amber Cree	0.718	0.387	0.361	0.273	0.223	0.613	0.768	0.232	0.792
AEL 75W	0.711	0.383	0.366	0.274	0.225	0.609	0.762	0.229	0.785
CWES 74 WW CW7	0.542	0.342	0.539	0.309	0.283	0.530	0.624	0.178	0.695
Iwasaki 60W	0.771	0.731	0.806	0.822	0.613	0.817	0.869	0.715	0.827
CWES 74 WW CW10	0.581	0.342	0.446	0.285	0.246	0.540	0.653	0.186	0.715
CWES Anna's Light	0.876	0.414	0.131	0.221	0.129	0.681	0.898	0.266	0.898
150 W HPS	0.529	0.368	0.365	0.335	0.307	0.517	0.593	0.243	0.705
LPS 18 W	0.375	0.254	0.221	0.254	0.193	0.393	0.462	0.112	0.615

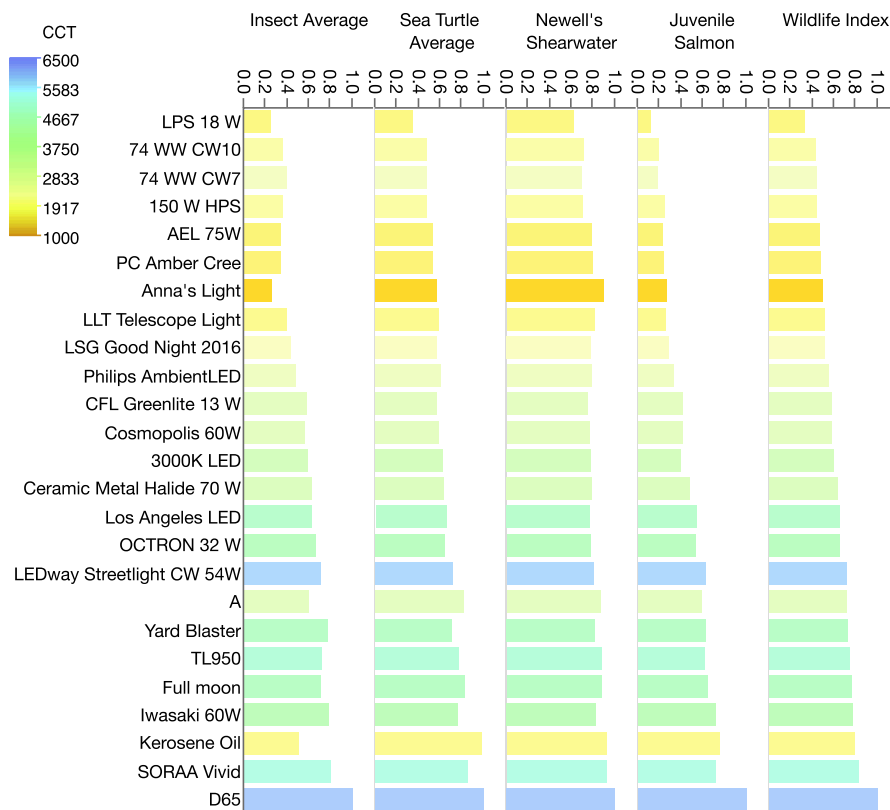
populations of the same species (Fritsches, 2012), meaning that caution should be used in universally applying action spectra. The emergence of highly configurable outdoor lighting demonstrates the need for research to produce more action spectra and to compile them in a repository. This is a central research need from experimental zoologists to provide the information necessary for lighting designers and especially regulators to act quickly in response to new lighting technologies. Peak opsin sensitivity provides a first pass on behavioral responses, and indeed, behavioral response curves can be calibrated from opsin response curves (Donners et al., 2018). Workers in the field and with captive animals should, however, prioritize research to obtain behavioral response information for sensitive species and to test the generalizable patterns in responses within clades where visual systems are conserved.

We are aware of the limitations of using spectral information that may only be applicable within a certain range of intensity values. Some species respond to spectrum differently depending on its intensity (Wiltschko, Stapput, Thalau, & Wiltschko, 2010). Also, mitigation schemes that depend on spectrum can be undermined by brightness.

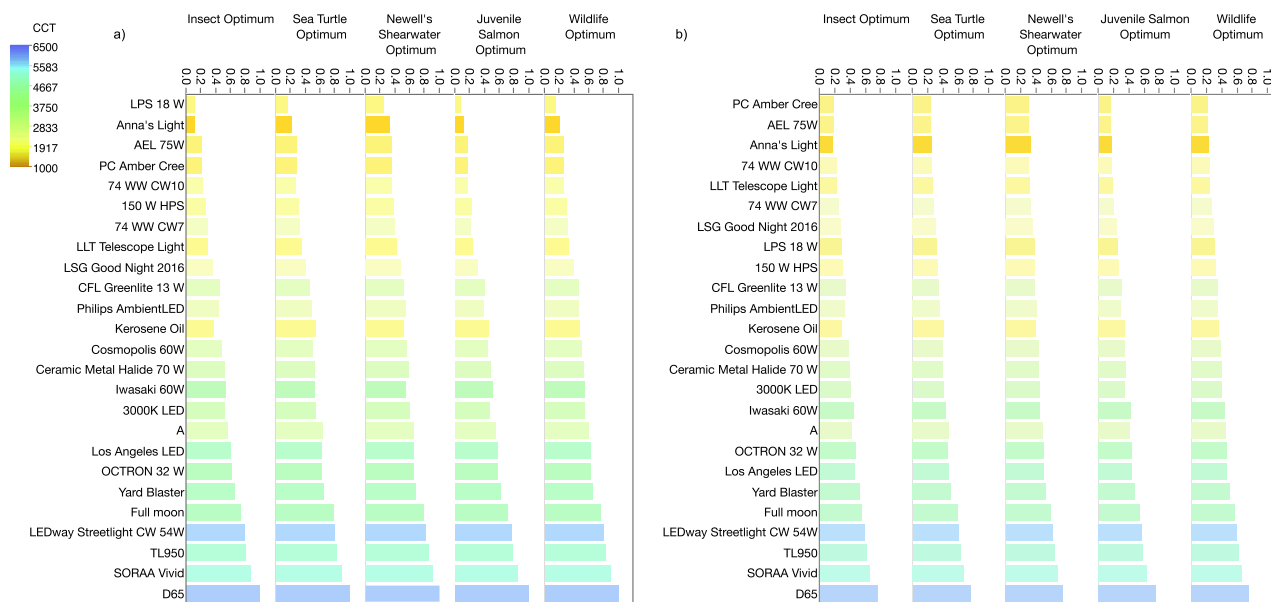
Any approach to reduce ecological effects of lights must keep intensity to a minimum and can then perhaps further reduce adverse effects through tuning of the spectrum used.

We also note that the influence of lamps of different spectra will be affected by atmospheric conditions that influence the amount and nature of reflection and scattering of light (Aubé, Kocifaj, Zamorano, Lamphar, & de Miguel, 2016; Kyba, Ruhtz, Fischer, & Hölker, 2011). Our wildlife response assessments do not include any shifts in spectral distribution of light that would result from scattering in the atmosphere and therefore are most relevant to situations where direct effects are being evaluated (e.g., local attraction and disorientation). Additional calculations could be added to our approach to address different propagation patterns of light under varying weather conditions.

Our use of CRI as a metric for performance of lamps for human vision should not be taken as a blanket endorsement of CRI as an excellent metric, which it is not (Galadí-Enríquez, 2018). It is, however, widely understood and used in the lighting design community and therefore provides a means to incorporate human design preferences into a composite metric of lighting performance. Furthermore,



**FIGURE 3** Relative modeled impact on insects, sea turtles, shearwaters, and juvenile salmon per additional lux from different light spectra compared with a D65 (6500 K) standard. Colors indicate CCT from low (orange) to high (blue) [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]



**FIGURE 4** Nighttime light performance index balancing Star Light Index, melatonin suppression, and a wildlife impact score (a) and incorporating CRI (b) for equal lux from different light spectra compared with a D65 (6500K) standard. Lower values indicate lower predicted impacts and greater CRI. Colors indicate CCT from low (orange) to high (blue) [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

this approach can be updated to use other metrics as desired by an end user.

As a conservation tool, our assessments assume that it is a valuable approach to minimize the intersection between the wavelengths that affect sensitive wildlife species and the output of lamps and that it is

worthwhile to balance those adverse effects against desirable characteristics of outdoor lighting for human use. Lamps that perform well in this assessment would represent a conservation compromise—no light on a sea turtle nesting beach, on a penguin colony, or on the route a fledgling seabird takes to the sea would be optimal, but if there is

**TABLE 5** Pearson's product moment correlation between CCT, CRI, Star Light index, Melanopic response, and average wildlife response. Above diagonal, correlation estimates. Below diagonal, 95% confidence intervals

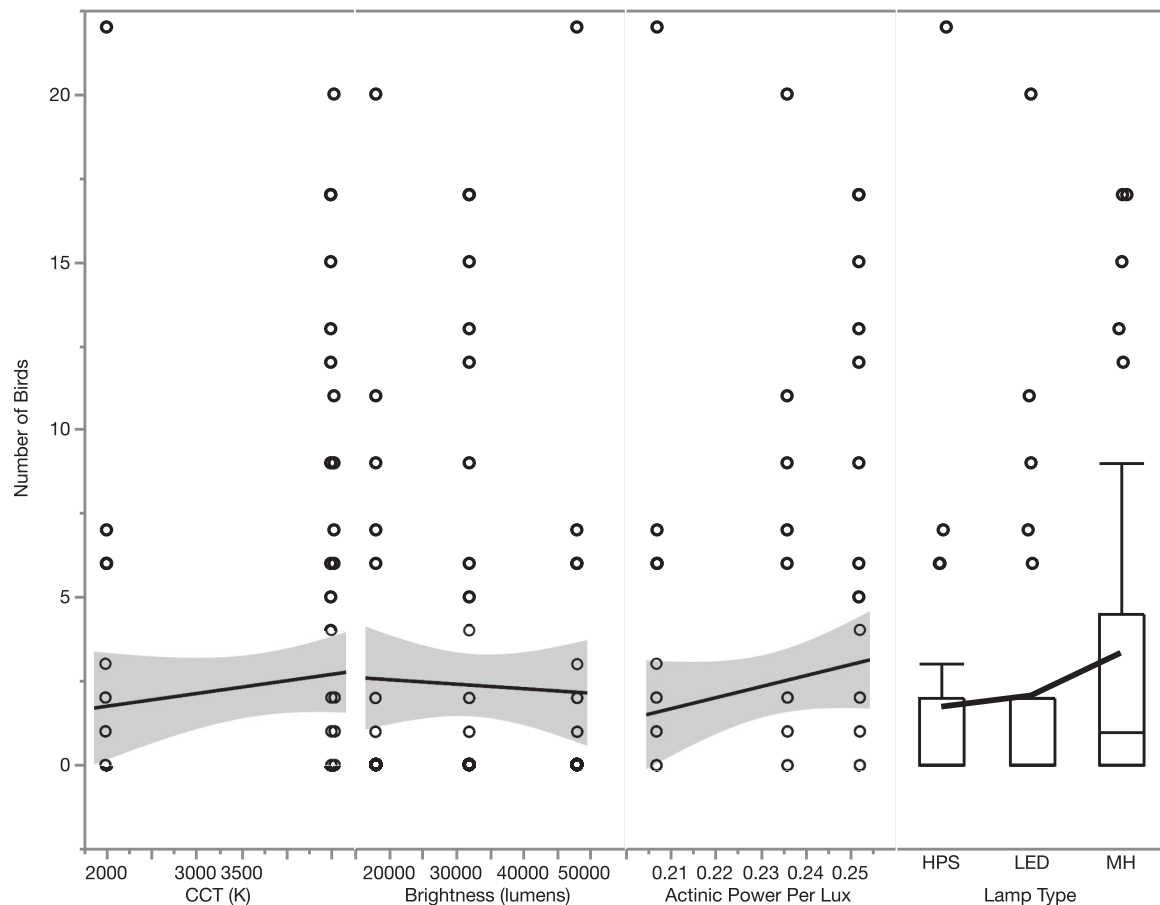
	CCT	CRI	Star light index	Melanopic	Wildlife
CCT	–	0.48	0.94	0.94	0.78
CRI	0.10–0.73	–	0.64	0.67	0.71
Star Light Index	0.87–0.97	0.40–0.84	–	1.00	0.85
Melanopic	0.87–0.97	0.33–0.83	0.99–1.00	–	0.85
Wildlife	0.57–0.90	0.43–0.86	0.69–0.93	0.69–0.93	–

to be a light nearby, minimizing the wavelengths in the part of the spectrum to which turtles or seabirds are most sensitive is preferable (Rodríguez et al., 2017b, 2018), so long as intensity is also minimized. Such hierarchical minimizing approaches might ignore other more complete solutions such as embedded roadway lighting, which provides guidance to drivers and virtually no light on nearby beaches (Bertolotti & Salmon, 2005), but they do provide guidance for reducing adverse effects from existing lighting infrastructure, which will be replaced with full-spectrum lights in the absence of guidance from ecologists and consideration of wildlife responses.

Given the rapid pace of replacement of street and other outdoor lighting motivated by energy savings (Hecht, 2016), an approach to minimize the adverse effects of lighting through choice of spectrum that is endorsed by conservation scientists is desperately needed. Laws

available to reduce the ecological effects from light pollution that are in place around the world are focused predominantly on the direction and intensity of lighting; very few legislators saw the dramatic change in color on the technological horizon. Those jurisdictions that have taken steps to use energy efficient lighting with a spectrum designed to minimize adverse environmental effects have been motivated mostly by particular species protection laws (e.g., the Endangered Species Act in the United States) and by the economic considerations associated with astronomical observatories.

The State of Florida requires that new coastal construction limit lighting near beaches to sources that emit wavelengths only greater than 560 nm to protect sea turtles. Our calculations suggest that several of the filtered LEDs that we assessed would be less attractive to hatchling sea turtles than existing HPS lamps, but none of the filtered



**FIGURE 5** Analysis of birds grounded from Rodríguez et al. (2017a), comparing Actinic Power per Lux with CCT, brightness, and lamp type as explanatory variables

lamps meets the 560 nm cutoff. This raises the interesting regulatory question of whether it might be acceptable to modify the strict 560 nm cutoff in favor of a whole-spectrum assessment that we have proposed here, which would lead to approving lamps for street and outdoor lighting (e.g., at ports) that we predict would be less disruptive to turtles, increase color rendering when replacing existing HPS, and save significant energy. Of course, to fully address outdoor light management, additional techniques to control light intensity, direction, and duration would need to be employed (Longcore and Rich, 2017), such as use of shields, baffles, and louvers to reduce spill light (Mizon, 2002).

Decision-making power for new lighting types is often vested in street lighting agencies and departments of transportation. When regulations exist to control lighting to reduce harms to certain species, these agencies must comply with relevant laws. They also answer to public opinion on the aesthetics of lighting, as has been shown for many LED projects around the USA that have raised the ire of local residents because the high CCT lamps produce significant glare and were displeasing to residents (Hecht, 2016). For those governmental actors trying to balance considerations for wildlife, the night sky, and safety, clear advice on spectrum is needed to navigate the many available choices. This information is also necessary for regulators facing these issues.

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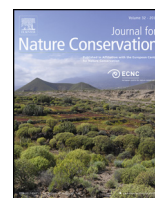
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## Short communication

## Reducing light-induced mortality of seabirds: High pressure sodium lights decrease the fatal attraction of shearwaters

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## ABSTRACT

The use of artificial light at night and its ecological consequences are increasing around the world. Light pollution can lead to massive mortality episodes for nocturnally active petrels, one of the most threatened avian groups. Some fledglings can be attracted or disoriented by artificial light on their first flights. Studies testing the effect of artificial light characteristics on attractiveness to seabirds have not provided conclusive results and there is some urgency as some endangered petrel species experience high light-induced mortality. We designed a field experiment to test the effect of three common outdoor lighting systems with different light spectra (high pressure sodium, metal halide and light emitting diode) on the number and the body condition of grounded fledglings of the short-tailed shearwater *Ardenna tenuirostris*. A total of 235 birds was grounded during 99 experimental hours (33 h for each treatment). 47% of birds was grounded when metal halide lights were on, while light emitting diode and high pressure sodium lights showed lower percentages of attraction (29% and 24%). Metal halide multiplied the mortality risk by a factor of 1.6 and 1.9 respectively in comparison with light emitting diode and high pressure sodium lights. No differences in body condition were detected among the birds grounded by the different lighting systems. We recommend the adoption of high pressure sodium lights (or with similar spectra) into petrel-friendly lighting designs together with other light mitigation measures such as light attenuation, lateral shielding to reduce spill and appropriate orientation.

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## 1. Introduction

The increasing use of artificial light at night is causing a loss of the natural nightscapes worldwide (Falchi et al., 2016). Light pollution is an emerging threat to biodiversity conservation by disrupting circadian rhythms, affecting natural behaviours, reproduction, animal movement or endocrine systems, and finally, influencing the ecosystem functioning by cascading effects (Gaston, Duffy, Gaston, Bennie, & Davies, 2014; Hölker, Wolter, Perkin, & Tockner, 2010; Longcore & Rich, 2004). Although marine environments are mostly free of artificial light, most coastal areas are affected by light pollution at night (Davies, Duffy, Bennie, & Gaston, 2014). Artificial lights along the coast can cause direct and incidental mass mortality events in endangered marine taxa, e.g. turtles or seabirds (Rich & Longcore, 2006; Rodríguez, Holmes et al., 2017). Despite the multiple effects on human health and biodiversity, artificial light is steadily proliferating in the night environment led

by improvements in luminous efficiency (Kyba, Hänel, & Hölker, 2014). Thus, the determination of the impact of the different artificial lighting systems on biodiversity should be a priority for developing appropriate lighting policies to enable better coastal planning and conservation practices.

Fledglings of nocturnal petrel species (including shearwaters and storm-petrels) are attracted to artificial lights during their first flights from nest-burrows to the ocean, often colliding with human structures or the ground. If they survive the collision, they are grounded in artificially lit areas and susceptible to being killed by incidental threats (vehicle collision, predation, starvation or dehydration) (Ainley, Podolsky, Deforest, & Spencer, 2001; Le Corre, Ollivier, Ribes, & Jouventin, 2002; Rodríguez, Rodríguez, Curbelo et al., 2012; Rodríguez et al., 2014). To mitigate light-induced mortality of petrels, rescue programs have been implemented in several locations around the world (Rodríguez, Holmes et al., 2017). However, pre-emptive measures, that reduce the attractiveness of artificial lighting to seabirds, would be much more effective at the population level. To our knowledge, there is no published information on whether seabird attraction to artificial lights is related to the type of lights or individual traits of the seabirds. Here, we test the effect of three commonly used lighting systems with different

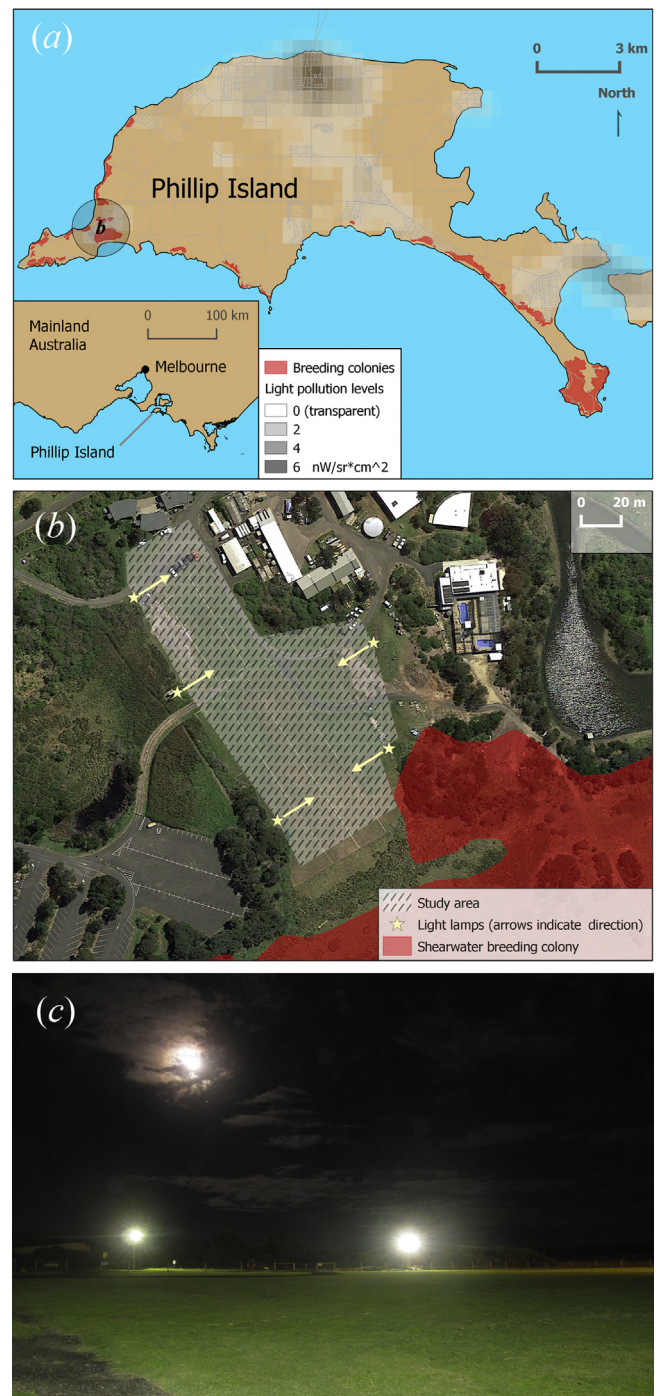
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light spectra (metal halide – MH, high pressure sodium – HPS – and light emitting diode – LED) on the attraction of short-tailed shearwater (*Ardenna tenuirostris*) fledglings, a species severely affected by light pollution (Rodríguez et al., 2014). We also test if body condition of grounded fledglings differs among lighting systems. Why petrels are attracted to lights is not entirely understood, but it may be related to food as petrels could confuse lights with natural bioluminescent prey or associate light with food during the nestling period at their nest-burrows (see Rodríguez, Holmes et al., 2017). Although short-tailed shearwater fledglings attracted by artificial lights do not seem handicapped, as their body condition is similar to those of adults (Rodríguez, Moffett et al., 2017), degree of attraction to lighting systems could be mediated by body condition. Body condition at fledging is a proxy to greater likelihood of survival and recruitment in long-lived seabirds (Becker & Bradley, 2007; Maness & Anderson, 2013). Thus, attraction of birds in good condition, i.e. those with higher survival and recruitment probabilities, to a particular lighting system would worsen the impact of such light for petrel populations. Apart from lighting systems, other factors appear to play a role in the number of seabirds attracted to lights. First, birds tend to fledge early in the night (Reed, Sincok, & Hailman, 1985; Rodríguez, Rodríguez, & Negro, 2015), and therefore, it was expected that the number of grounded birds would increase during the first nocturnal hours. Second, fledging is a synchronous process leading to high number of birds fledging around a peak date (27–28 April for the short-tailed shearwater; Rodríguez et al., 2014). Third, fledging date is favoured by strong winds which give a lift to flight-inexperienced fledglings (Rodríguez et al., 2014; Skira, 1991). Fourth, the number of grounded birds is reduced during full moon nights (Le Corre et al., 2002; Rodríguez & Rodríguez, 2009; Telfer, Sincok, Byrd, & Reed, 1987). Fifth, the number of attracted birds in a year is related to the number of fledglings produced by the population in that particular year, i.e. the higher breeding success the higher the numbers of grounded birds (Day, Cooper, & Telfer, 2003; Rodríguez, Rodríguez, & Lucas, 2012).

## 2. Material and methods

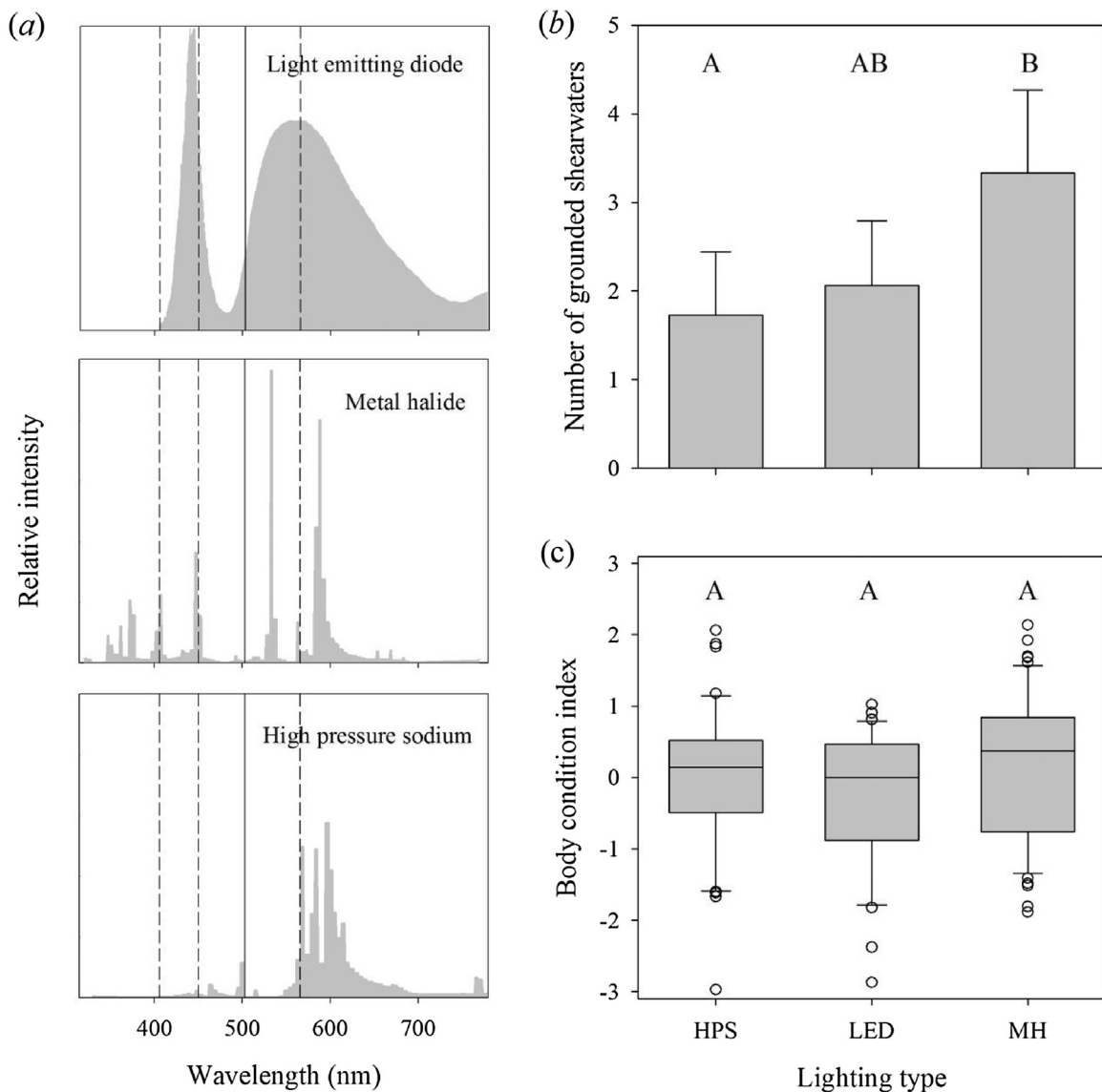
Our study was conducted on Phillip Island, south-eastern Australia, where natural night skies unpolluted by artificial lights are available adjacent to short-tailed shearwater breeding colonies (Fig. 1a). Phillip Island is relatively low with a maximum altitude about 112 m above sea level. It holds around 543,000 breeding pairs of short-tailed shearwaters (Harris, Brown, & Deerson, 1980), which is more than 1% of its global breeding population (BirdLife International, 2017), mainly distributed along the south coast (Fig. 1a). The short-tailed shearwater nests in dense colonies generally in sandy soils. Adults start migration before their chicks fledge and consequently fledglings depart the colony in the absence of their parents. Fledglings try to reach the ocean on their first flights.

Our experiment was conducted in the overflow car park at Phillip Island Nature Parks on the Summerland Peninsula (−38.505942°S, 145.149486°E), which is a 13,000 m<sup>2</sup> grassed area surrounded by some unlit buildings and short-tailed shearwater colonies (Fig. 1b). At the experiment site, masts held the three types of lamps (MH, HPS and LED) at the same height and orientation at each mast. Five masts of 3–5 m high supported the lamps used during the experiment (Fig. 1b, c). The three light types employed in our study are commonly used in outdoor facilities (e.g. car parks, sport stadiums and industrial areas) and they emit different spectra (Fig. 2a; Table 1). MH and HPS bulbs emit light in 360° in every direction, and for this reason they were housed in similar luminaries. In contrast, LED emits light in one direction.



**Fig. 1.** (a) Phillip Island map showing distribution of breeding colonies, study site (grey circle) and light pollution levels taken from a nocturnal satellite imagery; NOAA National Geophysical Data Center; available at [http://ngdc.noaa.gov/eog/viirs/download\\_monthly.html](http://ngdc.noaa.gov/eog/viirs/download_monthly.html). (b) Map of the study area showing the light posts and the lit area. (c) Nocturnal picture showing two light-posts and the moon.

To assess the potential attraction of shearwater fledglings to the three lighting types, we designed an experiment in which every treatment (light type) was replicated every night. We lit the area at night during the fledging period and counted the number of grounded birds on the lit field. The experiment was repeated over three fledging seasons (2014: 22 April–4 May; 2015: 19 April–5 May; 2016: 26–29 April). To account for the high variability in number of groundings from night to night, we turned on each lighting type for one hour in a random order each night. The same type



**Fig. 2.** Spectral composition (a) of the lighting types used (data provided by manufacturer). Vertical dashed and solid lines indicate the wavelength of maximum absorbance of visual pigment of cones and rods for *Ardena pacifica* (Hart, 2004). Mean number per hour (b) and body condition (c) of short-tailed shearwater fledglings grounded by lighting types. In (b) bars show mean  $\pm$  s.e. Different capital letters indicate significant differences between levels.

**Table 1**  
Characteristics of light systems used in the experiment.

Light	Comercial reference	Lamp Wattage (W)	Color Temperature (K)	Luminous Flux (Lm)
High pressure sodium (HPS)	SON-T 400W/220 E40 1SL	400	2000 (warm)	48000
Metal halide (MH)	MASTER HPI-T Plus 400W/645 E40 1SL	400	4500 (cool)	32000
Light emitting diode (LED)	VBLFL-855-4-40	200	4536 (cool)	18111

of light (MH, HPS and LED) was on in the five masts during each experimental hour. We also had a period of 15-min in darkness between treatments to avoid potential attractive effects of the previous treatment on the birds. First light-treatment was turned on 45–60 min after sunset. We ran the experiments in the first hours of darkness (three experimental hours in total plus two 15-min gaps) as they coincide with the peak of fledging time (Reed et al., 1985; Rodríguez et al., 2015). By randomly sequencing the three treatments, we controlled for any changes in hourly fledgling rate through the night.

Grounded birds were collected and kept in boxes. Each individual was marked with a permanent marker pen on the toe webbing

for identification and released in the closest colony at the end of each experimental night. Recaptured birds (five birds) were not included in the analyses. In 2015, body mass (g) and four biometric variables (wing, tarsus, bill length and bill depth) were measured from grounded birds in the treatments of the experiment. The biometric variables were taken using an electronic balance (nearest 5 g), a ruler (nearest 1 mm) and an electronic calliper (nearest 0.01 mm). To obtain a size indicator of the grounded birds, we ran a principal component analysis (PCA) on centered and scaled morphometric variables (wing, tarsus and bill length, and bill depth) and the first principal component was used as a body size index (BSI). The first principal component retained 54% of variation. The

four morphometric variables showed positive factor loadings (factor loadings: 0.47, 0.51, 0.49 and 0.52 for wing, tarsus, and bill length, and bill depth) and highly significant correlations to the first principal component (Fig. S1). Then, we run a linear model of body mass on BSI (the first principal component). This regression showed a  $R^2 = 0.33$  and it was statistically significant ( $F_{1,133} = 65.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Diagnostic plots indicated that model assumptions were not violated (see Fig. S2). Finally, we extracted the standardized residuals of this model and used them as a body condition index (BCI), where positive and negative values indicate that birds are heavier and lighter than the average in the population, respectively (Green, 2001; Rodríguez, Rodríguez, Curbelo et al., 2012; Rodríguez, Moffett et al., 2017).

To control for the confounding variables noted in the introduction, i.e. fledging time/order and wind strength, moon light and inter-annual breeding success, we added five predictors: 1) Order of light treatment (three-level factor: first, second and third). 2) Quadratic term of fledging date (continuous variable ranging from 19 April to 5 May). 3) Wind speed (km/h) taken from an automated meteorological station located at Rhyll, Phillip Island, and distant 15 km from the study area (Bureau of Meteorology reference: 086373). The station provides wind data every 30 min and we calculated the average for the two readings of each experimental hour (treatment). 4) Moon light or luminance (continuous variable) measured as the percentage of luminance at full moon at zenith at distance equal mean equatorial parallax (Austin, Phillips, & Webb, 1976). We calculated moon luminance for each 10-min periods by using the moonlight Fortran software (Austin et al., 1976) and we assigned the maximum moon luminance to each experimental hour. 5) Year as a three-level factor to account for annual variation in breeding success.

We used generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) with log link and Poisson error distributions to assess whether the number of grounded birds differs between light treatments (three-level factor). To control for the dependence in the number of grounded birds per light treatment in a single night, night was included as a random factor. To control for confounding variables, i.e. variables affecting the number of attracted birds (see above), we conducted GLMMs adding these predictors plus light treatment factor. To avoid over parameterization, only two predictors were included in each model (light treatment plus predictor). To assess whether body condition of grounded birds differs between lighting types, a linear model was conducted including body condition index as response variable and light treatment as a factor. Models were compared to null models, i.e. including only the intercept, using the 'anova' function (stats package) and assumptions were checked using diagnostic plots (Supplementary material). Statistical analyses were conducted in R version 3.3.2 (R Core Team, 2016). The function 'prcomp' (stats package) was employed to conduct the principal component analysis (PCA). Linear models and generalised linear mixed models were conducted using the functions 'lm' (stats package) and 'glmer' (lme4 package) (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015). Model assumptions of generalised linear mixed models were checked through a simulation-based approach using the 'DHARMA' package (Hartig, 2016).

### 3. Results

A total of 235 short-tailed shearwater fledglings were grounded during the 33 experimental nights (99 h; 33 h for each treatment) in the three annual fledging periods. Pooling all nights, the highest number of grounded fledglings was reached when MH lights were on ( $\chi^2_2 = 19.974$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ; 110, 68 and 57 birds for MH, LED and HPS lights, respectively). Eight out of the 235 birds were killed or subsequently euthanized after fatal collision with the ground or

light-posts (4, 3 and 1 birds for MH, LED and HPS lights). The GLMM including just the light treatment was significant with regard to the null model, i.e. including only the intercept term ( $\chi^2_2 = 19.209$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2b). Light treatment was also significant in all the GLMMs including additional variables (all  $P$ -values  $< 0.003$ ; Supplementary material). In 2015, 135 grounded shearwaters were captured and measured. Body condition was similar between the shearwaters grounded by the different lighting types (Fig. 2c), as the model was not better than the null model ( $F_{2,132} = 1.908$ ;  $P = 0.153$ ).

### 4. Discussion

The number of grounded birds differed among light types, with MH being the light type attracting the highest number of the short-tailed shearwater fledglings. LEDs were second highest light type in causing grounded birds, although no statistical differences were apparent in comparison with HPS. Body condition of birds grounded by each lighting type was similar, indicating that attraction power of each lighting type did not depend on body condition, and more interestingly that no lighting system selectively attracted birds with higher survival and recruitment probabilities, i.e. birds in good body condition.

Differences in the number of grounded birds per light type may be explained by the visual systems of shearwaters. The retina of the congeneric wedge-tailed shearwater (*Ardenna pacifica*) have five visual pigments with maximum absorbance at 406–566 nm (Hart, 2004). Assuming a similar visual system, short-tailed shearwater fledglings could be more sensitive to MH and LED lighting, which produce a very cool light (blue) and a wider emission spectrum, than HPS which produces warmer light (red/orange) and low emissions under 550 nm (Table 1; Fig. 2a). Thus, shearwaters are likely to perceive lights differently. Given they display an attraction response, heightened perception may lead to heightened attraction. Our results on the higher number of grounded birds by MH and LED than HPS lights, agree with the possibility that MH and LED lights are appreciably brighter for shearwaters than HPS lights, thus increasing the attraction response.

Our results agree with other studies on other taxa in which HPS lights affect behaviour less than MH or LED lights, e.g. bats (Stone, Wakefield, Harris, & Jones, 2015) or invertebrates (Pawson & Bader, 2014), but contrast with those found for songbirds at off-shore platforms. Nocturnal migrating songbirds are more attracted by light with visible long-wavelength radiation (red and white) than by light with less or no visible long-wavelength radiation (blue and green) (Poot et al., 2008). Thus, adopting taxa-specific recommendations for the effect of artificial lights is crucial.

Designing experiments to study the potential attraction of different light types to seabirds is a challenging task, due to the intrinsic seabird natural traits, the low number of colonies and the vast extensions of cities and their associated light pollution (Reed, 1987, 1986; Reed et al., 1985). Reed et al. conducted two field experiments changing light characteristics (polarization and spectra), but failed to reduce light attraction in Newell's shearwaters *Puffinus newellii* (Reed, 1987, 1986). Despite these inconclusive results, light signatures (wavelength and intensity) have been changed around nesting colonies around the world to mitigate light-induced mortality. However, these actions have been conducted without any scientific evidence and their effectiveness has not been appropriately assessed (Rodríguez, Holmes et al., 2017). Our experimental study sheds some light on the potential effect of commercially available lighting systems, providing first-hand information for the lighting management around seabird breeding grounds. If artificial lights cannot be completely avoided, we strongly recommend that HPS lights, or filtered LED and MH lights with purpose-designed filters for lower emission spectra, should be the only external lights

used in proximity to shearwater colonies. The type of light must be adopted together with other light reduction actions (KSHCP, 2017). Light should be as dim as possible to be fit the purpose, and should be correctly oriented towards the target area or object to avoid skyward light spill. Shielding and cut-off designs for luminaries can also help to avoid unnecessary light spread and reduce shearwater attraction (Reed et al., 1985). Finally, turning off the lights when not required or using motion sensors to turn on/off the lights would contribute to reducing light pollution (for a complete list of light mitigation actions see KSHCP, 2017). More research is needed to further understand the role of emission spectra on the potential attraction of seabirds and the impact of seabird-friendly lighting on sympatric organisms.

## Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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## Ethics

Procedures were approved by the Animal Ethics Committee, Phillip Island Nature Parks (Project 1.2014), and the Department of Environment and Primary Industries, Victorian State Government (Permit 10007170).

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jnc.2017.07.001>.

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**Australian Government**

**Department of the Environment and Energy**

*DRAFT Light Pollution Guidelines*

# **National Light Pollution Guidelines for Wildlife**

***Including marine turtles, seabirds and migratory  
shorebirds***

September 2019



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# National Light Pollution Guidelines

## Introduction

Natural darkness has a conservation value in the same way that clean water, air and soil has intrinsic value. Artificial light at night is increasing globally by about two per cent per year<sup>1</sup>. Animals perceive light differently from humans and artificial light can disrupt critical behaviour and cause physiological changes in wildlife<sup>2</sup>. For example, hatchling marine turtles may not be able to find the ocean when beaches are lit<sup>3</sup>, and fledgling seabirds may not take their first flight if their nesting habitat never becomes dark<sup>4</sup>. Tamar wallabies exposed to artificial light have been shown to delay reproduction<sup>5</sup> and clownfish eggs incubated under constant light do not hatch<sup>6</sup>.

Consequently, artificial light has the potential to stall the recovery of a threatened species. For migratory species, the impact of artificial light may compromise an animal's ability to undertake long-distance migrations integral to its life cycle.

Artificial light at night also provides for human safety, amenity and increased productivity. Australian legislation and standards regulate artificial light for the purpose of human safety. These Guidelines do not infringe on human safety obligations. Where there are competing objectives for lighting, creative solutions may be needed that meet both human safety requirements for artificial light and threatened and migratory species conservation.

The Guidelines outline the process to be followed where there is the potential for artificial lighting to affect wildlife. They apply to new projects, lighting upgrades and where there is evidence of wildlife being affected by existing artificial light.

The technology around lighting hardware, design and control is changing rapidly and biological responses to artificial light vary by species, location and environmental conditions. It is not possible to set prescriptive limits on lighting. Instead, these Guidelines take an outcomes approach to assessing and mitigating the effect of artificial light on wildlife.



**Figure 1 Pink anemone fish and marine turtle laying eggs. Photos: Nigel Marsh and Robert Thorn.**

## How to use these Guidelines

These Guidelines provide users with the theoretical, technical and practical information required to assess if a lighting project is likely to affect wildlife and the management tools to minimise and mitigate that affect. These techniques can be applied regardless of scale, from small, domestic projects to large-scale industrial developments.

**The aim of the Guidelines is that artificial light will be managed so wildlife is:**

- 1. Not disrupted within, nor displaced from, [important habitat](#)**
- 2. Able to undertake critical behaviours such as foraging, reproduction and dispersal.**

The Guidelines recommend:

1. Always using [Best Practice Lighting Design](#) to reduce light pollution and minimise the effect on wildlife.
2. Undertaking an [Environmental Impact Assessment for Effects of Artificial Light on Wildlife](#) for listed species for which artificial light has been demonstrated to affect behaviour, survivorship or reproduction.

### ***Technical Appendices***

The Guidelines are supported by a series of technical appendices that provide additional information about [Best Practice Lighting Design](#), [What is Light and How Wildlife Perceive it](#), [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#), and [Artificial Light Auditing](#). There is also a [checklist](#) for artificial light management, and species-specific information for the management of artificial light for [Marine Turtles](#), [Seabirds](#) and [Migratory Shorebirds](#). The range of species covered in taxa-specific appendices will be broadened in the future.

# Regulatory Considerations for the Management of Artificial Light around Wildlife

These Guidelines provide technical information to guide the management of artificial light for *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act (1999)* (EPBC Act) listed threatened and migratory species, species that are part of a listed ecological community, and species protected under state or territory legislation for which artificial light has been demonstrated to affect behaviour, survivorship or reproduction.

## ***Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act (1999)***

The EPBC Act regulates any action that will have, or is likely to have, a significant impact on a Matter of National Environmental Significance (MNES), including listed threatened and migratory species. Any action likely to have a significant impact on a MNES must be referred to the Australian Government for assessment. Further, it is an offence under the EPBC Act to kill, injure, take or trade a listed threatened, migratory or marine species in a Commonwealth area. Anyone unsure of whether the EPBC Act applies, is strongly encouraged to seek further [information](#).

## ***State and territory legislation and policy***

State and territory environmental legislation and policy frameworks may also have provisions for managing threats, such as light, to protected species. For example, artificial light is a form of pollution regulated for impacts on humans and the environment under the Australian Capital Territory *Environment Protection Act 1997*. Consideration should be given to the function of relevant state and territory environment and planning legislation and policy concerning the protection of wildlife from artificial light.

## ***Local and regional government requirements***

Advice should also be sought from local government as to whether specific requirements apply in the area of interest concerning artificial light and wildlife. For example, the [Queensland Government Sea Turtle Sensitive Area Code](#) provides for local governments to identify sea turtle sensitive areas within local government planning schemes. Development in these areas will need to avoid adverse effects to sea turtles from artificial lighting.

## ***Australian standards***

Australian standards provide agreed limits for various lighting scenarios, generally for the purposes of human safety and for the provision of amenity. For example, Australian Standard DR AS/NZS 1158.3.1:2018 *Lighting for roads and public spaces pedestrian area (Category P) lighting* provides minimum light performance and design standards for pedestrian areas.

More recently, Australian standards have also provided for consideration of environmental concerns. Australian Standard AS/NZS 4282:2019 *Control of the obtrusive effects of outdoor lighting* provides information in Appendix C about the impact of artificial light on biota.

These Guidelines should be followed to ensure all lighting objectives are adequately addressed. This may require solutions to be developed, applied and tested to ensure lighting management meets the needs of human safety and wildlife conservation. The [Case Studies](#)

illustrate examples of how a liquefied natural gas processing plant, a transport authority and a marine research vessel have addressed this challenge.

### ***Associated guidance***

These Guidelines should be read in conjunction with:

- [EPBC Act 1999 Significant Impact Guidelines 1.1 Matters of National Environmental Significance](#)
- [EPBC Act 1999 Significant Impact Guidelines 1.2 Actions on, or impacting upon, Commonwealth land and Actions by Commonwealth Agencies;](#)
- Recovery Plans and approved conservation advice for listed threatened species
- approved Wildlife Conservation Plans for listed migratory species
- state and territory environmental legislation, regulations, and policy and guidance documents
- up-to-date scientific literature
- local and Indigenous knowledge.

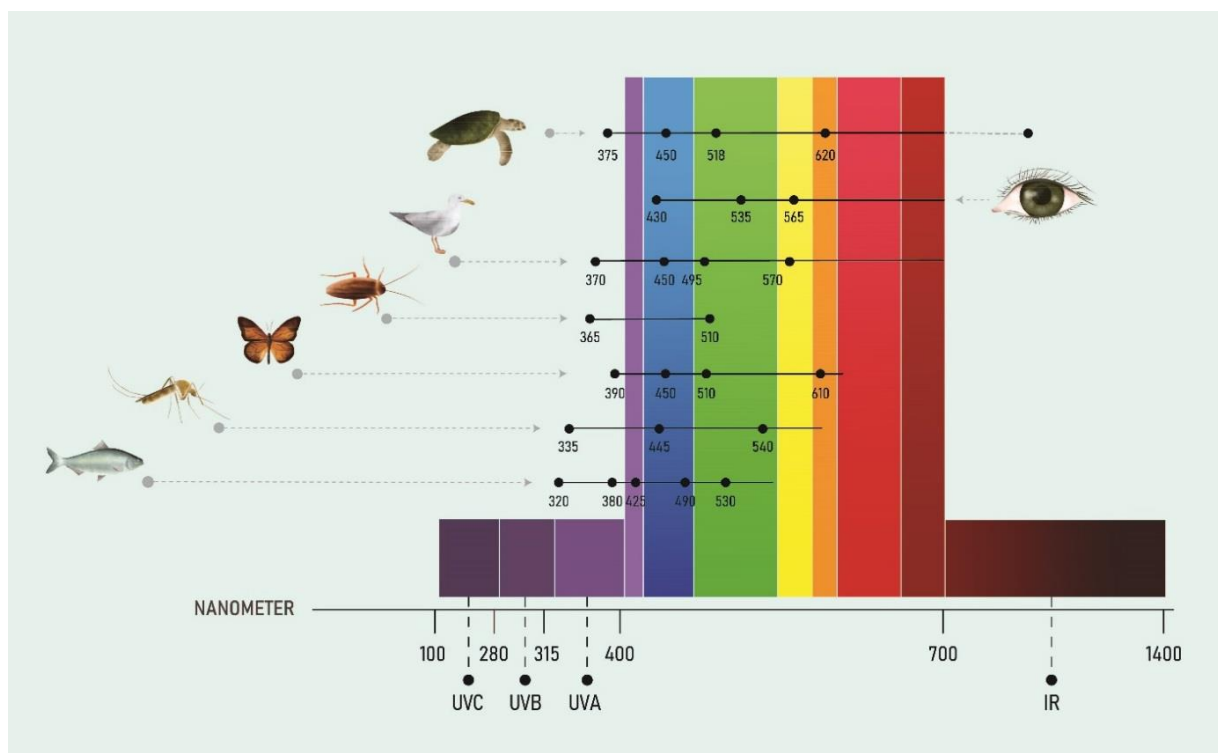
## Wildlife and Artificial Light

Vision is a critical cue for wildlife to orient themselves in their environment, find food, avoid predation and communicate<sup>7</sup>. An important consideration in the management of artificial light for wildlife is an understanding of how light is perceived by animals, both in terms of what the eye sees and the animal's viewing perspective.

Animals perceive light differently from humans. Most animals are sensitive to ultra-violet (UV)/violet/blue light<sup>8</sup> and some snakes, for example, can detect infra-red wavelengths<sup>9</sup> (Figure 2). Understanding the sensitivity of wildlife to different light wavelengths is critical to assessing the potential effects of artificial light on wildlife.

The way light is described and measured has traditionally focused on human vision. To manage light appropriately for wildlife, it is critical to understand how light is defined, described and measured and to consider light from the wildlife's perspective.

For a detailed explanation of these issues see [What is Light and how do Wildlife Perceive it?](#) The [Glossary](#) provides a summary of terms used to describe light and light measurements and notes the appropriate terms for discussing the effects of light on wildlife.



**Figure 2 Ability to perceive different wavelengths of light in humans and wildlife. Note the common sensitivity to ultraviolet, violet and blue light across all wildlife.**

© Pendoley Environmental, adapted from Campos (2017)<sup>10</sup>.

Artificial light is known to adversely affect many species<sup>2,11</sup> and ecological communities<sup>12,13</sup>. It can change behaviour and/or physiology, reducing survivorship or reproductive output. It can also have the indirect effect of changing the availability of habitat or food resources. It can attract predators and invasive pests, both of which may pose a threat to listed species.

Behavioural changes in wildlife have been well described for some species. Adult marine turtles avoid nesting on beaches that are artificially lit<sup>14</sup>, and adult and hatchling turtles can be disoriented and unable to find the ocean in the presence of direct light or sky glow<sup>3</sup>. Similarly, lights can disorient flying birds and cause them to collide with infrastructure<sup>15</sup>. Birds may starve when artificial lighting disrupts foraging, and fledgling seabirds may not be able to take their first flight if their nesting habitat never becomes dark<sup>4</sup>. Migratory shorebirds may use less preferable roosting sites to avoid lights and may be exposed to increased predation where lighting makes them visible at night<sup>4</sup>.

Physiological changes have been described in Tammar Wallabies exposed to artificial light, resulting in delayed reproduction<sup>5</sup>, and clownfish eggs incubated under constant light do not hatch<sup>6</sup>. Plant physiology can also be affected by artificial light with changes to growth, timing of flowering and resource allocation. This can then have flow-on affects for pollinators and herbivores<sup>13</sup>.

The indirect effects of artificial light can also be detrimental to threatened species. The Mountain Pygmy Possum, for example, feeds primarily on the Bogong Moth, a long distance nocturnal migrator that is attracted to light<sup>16</sup>. Recent declines in moth populations, in part due to artificial light, have reduced the food supply for the possum<sup>17</sup>. Changes in food availability due to artificial light affect other animals, such as bats<sup>18</sup>, and cause changes in fish assemblages<sup>19</sup>. Lighting may also attract invasive pests such as cane toads<sup>20</sup>, or predators, increasing pressure on protected species<sup>21</sup>.

These Guidelines provide information on the management of artificial light for [Marine Turtles](#), [Seabirds](#) and [Migratory Shorebirds](#) in technical appendices. Consideration should be given to the direct and indirect effect of artificial light on all listed species for which artificial light has been demonstrated to negatively affect behaviour, survivorship or reproduction.

### ***Light Emitting Diodes (LEDs)***

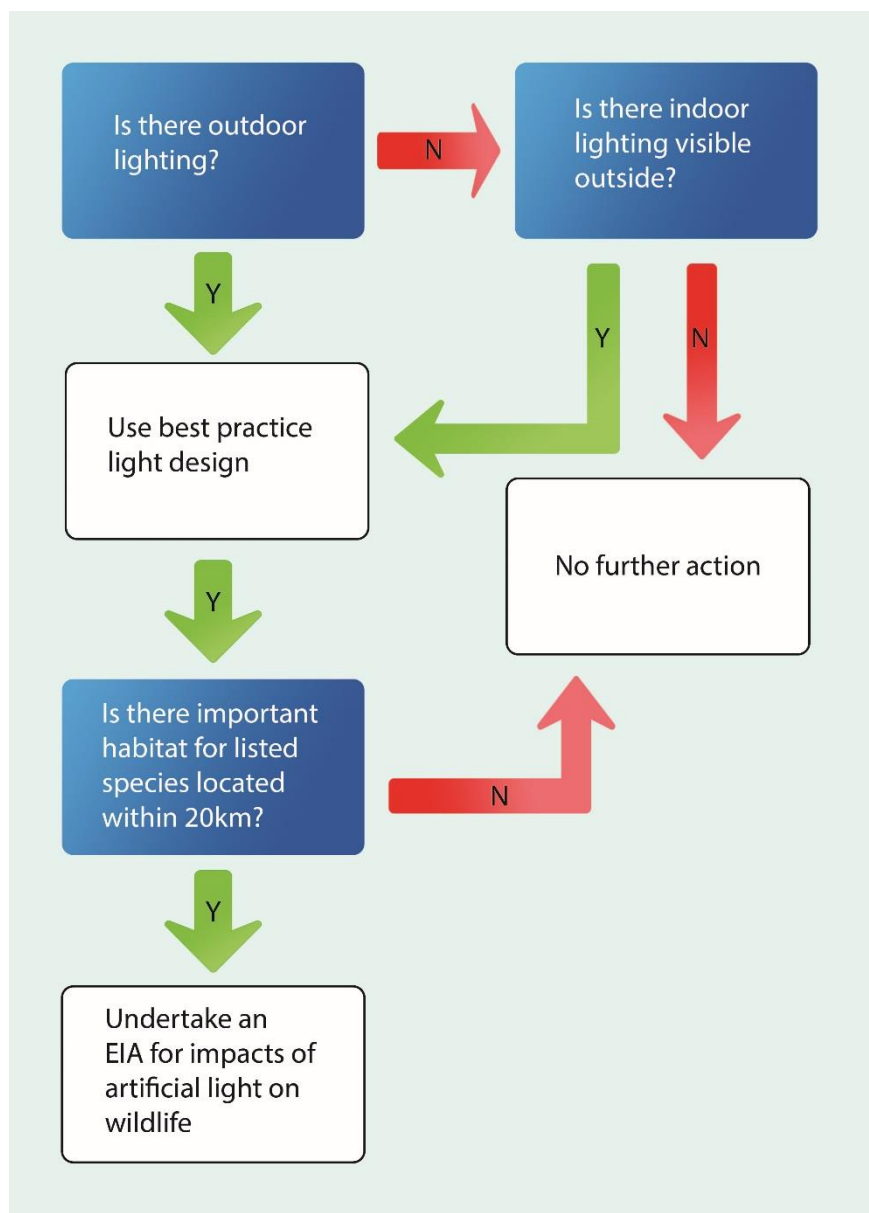
During the life of these Guidelines, it is anticipated that light technology may change dramatically. At the time of writing, LEDs were rapidly becoming the most common light type used globally. This is primarily because they are more energy efficient than earlier light sources. LEDs and smart control technologies provide the ability to control and manage the physical parameters of lighting, making them an integral tool in managing the effects of artificial light on wildlife.

Whilst LEDs are part of the solution, consideration should be given to some of the characteristics of LEDs that may influence the effect of artificial light on wildlife. White LEDs generally contain short wavelength blue light and most wildlife is sensitive to blue light (Figure 2). More detailed consideration of LEDs, their benefits and challenges for use around wildlife are provided in the Technical Appendix [What is Light and how does Wildlife Perceive it?](#)

## When to Consider the Impact of Artificial Light on Wildlife?

### *Is Artificial Light Visible Outside?*

Any action or activity that includes externally visible artificial lighting should consider the potential effects on wildlife (refer Figure 3 below). These Guidelines should be applied at all stages of management, from the development of planning schemes to the design, approval and execution of individual developments or activities, through to retrofitting of light fixtures and management of existing light pollution. [Best Practice Lighting Design](#) is recommended as a minimum whenever artificial lighting is externally visible.



**Figure 3 Decision tree to determine whether to undertake a light environmental impact assessment. © Pendoley Environmental.**

### *Best practice lighting design*

Natural darkness has a conservation value and should be protected through good quality lighting design and management for the benefit of all living things. To that end, all infrastructure that has outdoor artificial lighting or internal lighting that is externally visible should incorporate best practice lighting design.

**Best practice lighting design incorporates the following design principles.**

- 1. Start with natural darkness and only add light for specific purposes.**
- 2. Use adaptive light controls to manage light timing, intensity and colour.**
- 3. Light only the object or area intended – keep lights close to the ground, directed and shielded to avoid light spill.**
- 4. Use the lowest intensity lighting appropriate for the task.**
- 5. Use non-reflective, dark-coloured surfaces.**
- 6. Use lights with reduced or filtered blue, violet and ultra-violet wavelengths.**

Figure 4 provides an illustration of best practice light design principles. For a detailed explanation see Technical Appendix [Best Practice Lighting Design](#).

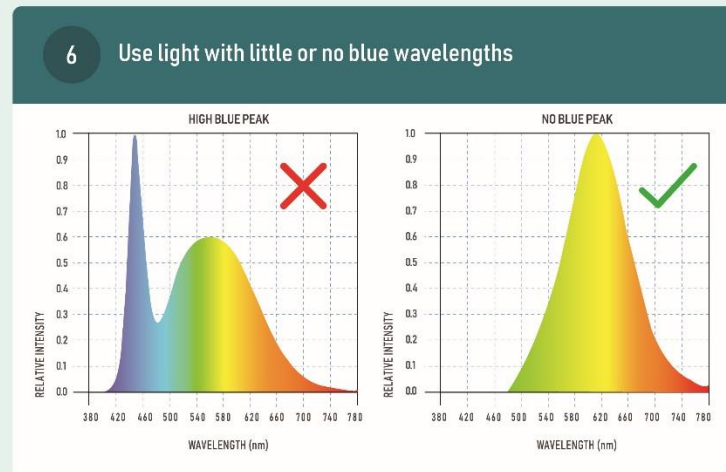
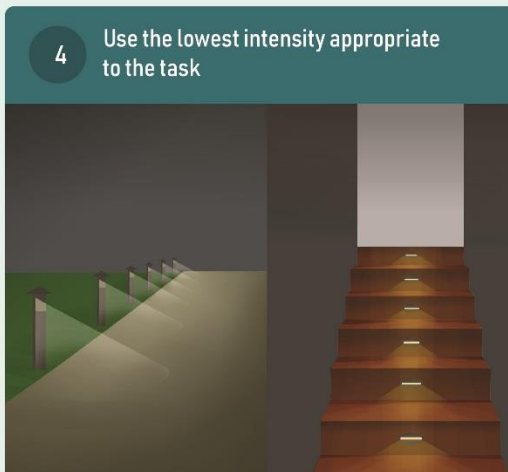
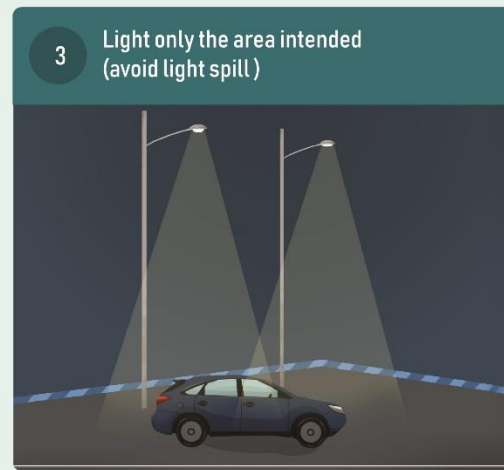
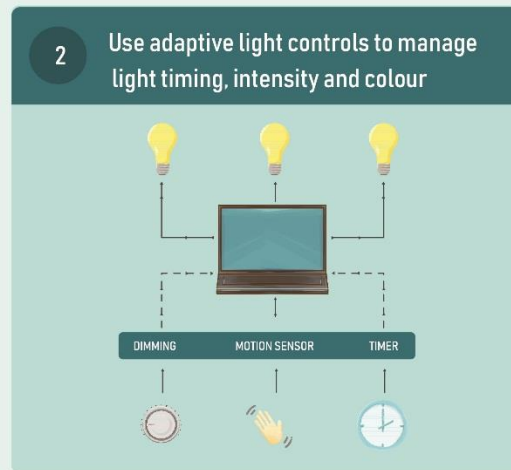
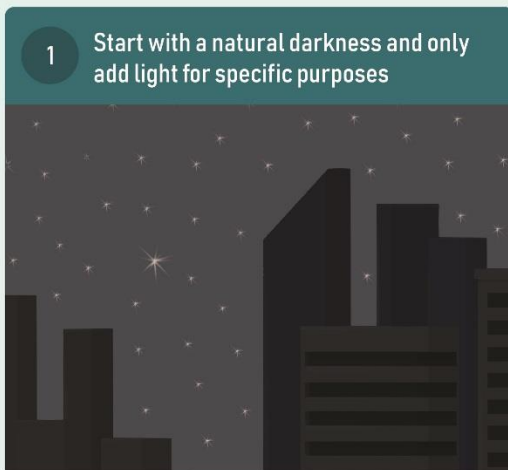


Figure 4 Principles for best practice lighting design. © Pendoley Environmental.

## ***Is there Important Habitat for Listed Species Located within 20km?***

Important habitats are those areas necessary for an ecologically significant proportion of a listed species to undertake important activities such as foraging, breeding, roosting or dispersal. This might include areas that are of critical importance for a particular life stage, are at the limit of a species range or habitat, or where the species is declining. They may also be a habitat where the presence of light pollution may cause a significant decline in a listed threatened or migratory species.

Important habitat will vary depending on the species. For some species, areas of importance have been designated through recovery plans, conservation advice, and under planning regulations (for example [Queensland Sea Turtle Sensitive Areas](#)). Important habitat would include those areas that are consistent with 'habitat critical to the survival' of a threatened species and 'important habitat' for listed migratory species as described in the [EPBC Act Significant Impact Guidelines](#)<sup>22</sup>. Important habitat may include areas designated as [Biologically Important Areas](#) (BIAs), or in the case of migratory shorebirds, Internationally Important or Nationally Important Habitat. Consideration should be given to the ecological characteristics of Ramsar sites and the biological and ecological values of National and World Heritage Areas.

Species specific descriptions of important habitat can be found in Technical Appendices relating to [Marine Turtles](#), [Seabirds](#) and [Migratory Shorebirds](#). For other listed species see relevant information available in [Associated guidance](#) and [Desktop Study of Wildlife](#).

Where there is important habitat for listed species that are known to be affected by artificial light within 20 km of a project, species specific impacts should be considered through an [Environmental Impact Assessment](#) (EIA) process.

The 20 km threshold provides a precautionary limit based on observed effects of sky glow on marine turtle hatchlings demonstrated to occur at 15-18 km<sup>23,24</sup> and fledgling seabirds grounded in response to artificial light 15 km away<sup>25</sup>. The effect of light glow may occur at distances greater than 20 km for some species and under certain environmental conditions. The 20 km threshold provides a nominal distance at which artificial light impacts should be considered, not necessarily the distance at which mitigation will be necessary. For example, where a mountain range is present between the light source and an important turtle nesting beach, further light mitigation is unlikely to be needed. However, where island infrastructure is directly visible on an important turtle nesting beach across 25 km of ocean in a remote location, additional light mitigation may be required.

## ***Managing existing light pollution***

The impact of artificial light on wildlife will often be the result of the effect of all light sources in the region combined. As the number and intensity of artificial lights in an area increases there will be a visible, cumulative increase in sky glow. Sky glow is the brightness of the night sky caused by the reflected light scattered from particles in the atmosphere. Sky glow comprises both natural and artificial sky glow. As sky glow increases so does the potential for adverse impacts on wildlife.

Generally, there is no one source of sky glow and management should be undertaken on a regional, collaborative basis. Artificial light mitigation and minimisation will need to be addressed by the community, regulators, councils and industry to prevent the escalation of, and where necessary reduce, the effects of artificial light on wildlife.

The effect of existing artificial light on wildlife is likely to be identified by protected species managers or researchers that observe changes in behaviour or population demographic parameters that can be attributed to increased artificial sky glow. Where this occurs, the population/behavioural change should be monitored, documented and, where possible, the source(s) of light identified. An [Artificial Light Management Plan](#) should be developed in collaboration with all light owners and managers to mitigate impacts.

# Environmental Impact Assessment for Effects of Artificial Light on Wildlife

There are five steps involved in assessing the potential effects of artificial light on wildlife, and the management of artificial light requires a continuing improvement process (Figure 5). The amount of detail included in each step depends on the scale of the proposed activity and the susceptibility of wildlife to artificial light. The first three steps of the EIA process should be undertaken as early as possible in the project's life cycle and the resulting information used to inform the project design phase.

[Marine Turtle](#), [Seabird](#) and [Migratory Shorebird](#) Technical Appendices give specific consideration to each of these taxa. However, the process should be adopted for other protected species affected by artificial light.

## *Qualified personnel*

Lighting design/management and the EIA process should be undertaken by appropriately qualified personnel. Management plans should be developed and reviewed by appropriately qualified lighting practitioners in consultation with appropriately qualified wildlife biologists or ecologists.

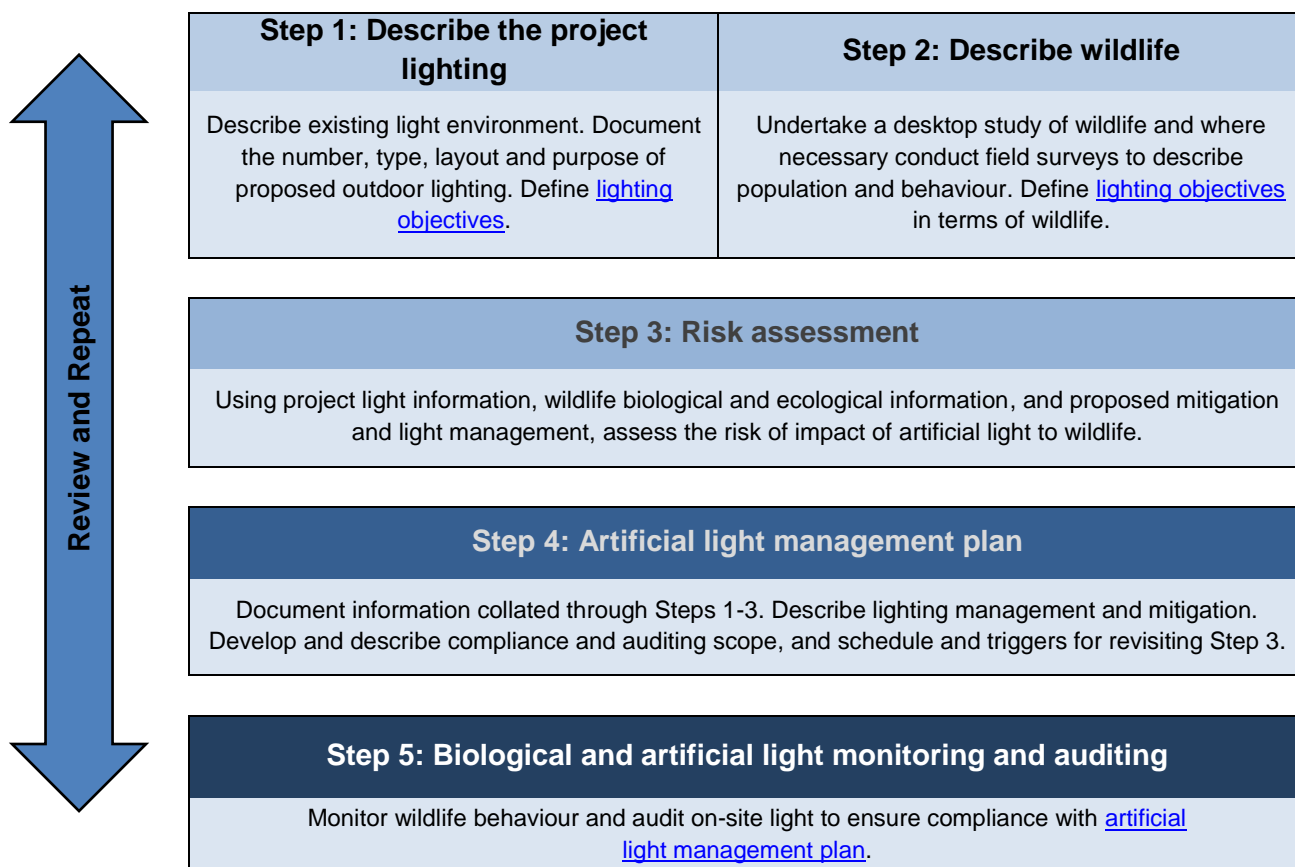


Figure 5 Flow chart describing the environmental impact assessment process.

## ***Step 1: Describe the project lighting***

Describe the existing light environment and characterise the light likely to be emitted from the site. Information should be collated, including (but not limited to): the location and size of the project footprint; the number and type of lights; their orientation and hours of operation; site topology and proximity to wildlife and/or wildlife habitat. This information should include whether lighting will be directly visible to wildlife or contribute to sky glow; the distance over which this artificial light is likely to be perceptible; shielding or light controls used to minimise lighting; and spectral characteristics (wavelength) and intensity of lights.

Project specific lighting should be considered in the context of the existing light environment and the potential for cumulative effects of multiple light sources. The information collected should be sufficient to assess the likely effects of artificial light on wildlife given the biology and ecology of species present (Step 2).

Where there will be a need to monitor the effectiveness of artificial light mitigation and management strategies (Step 5), baseline monitoring will be necessary. Measurements of the existing light environment should recognise and account for the biologically relevant short (red) and long (violet/blue) wavelengths of artificial lighting (see [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#)).

### ***Lighting objectives***

During the planning phase of a project the purpose of artificial lighting should be clearly articulated, and consideration should be given as to whether artificial light is required at all. Lighting objectives should be specific in terms of location and times for which artificial light is necessary, whether colour differentiation is required and whether some areas should remain dark. The objectives should include the wildlife requirements identified in Step 2 and be consistent with [the aims of these Guidelines](#).

For more information about developing lighting objectives see [Best Practice Lighting Design](#).

## ***Step 2: Describe wildlife***

Describe the biology and ecology of wildlife in the area that may be affected by artificial light (species identified during the screening process, Figure 3). The abundance, conservation status and regional significance of wildlife will be described, as will the location of [important habitat](#). Recognise biological and ecological parameters relevant to the assessment, particularly how artificial light will be viewed by an animal. This includes an animal's physiological sensitivity to wavelength and intensity, and its visual field.

Depending on the availability of information, scale of the activity and the susceptibility of wildlife to artificial light, this step may only require a desktop analysis. Where there is a paucity of information or the potential for effects is high, field surveys may be required. Where there will be a need to monitor the effectiveness of lighting mitigation and management strategies (Step 5), baseline monitoring will be necessary.

### *Desktop study of wildlife*

A review of the available government databases, scientific literature and unpublished reports should be conducted to determine whether listed or protected wildlife that are susceptible to the effects of artificial light could be present. Tools to identify species or Important habitat that may occur within 20 km of the area of interest include (but are not limited to):

- [Protected Matters Search Tool](#)
- [National Conservation Values Atlas](#)
- State and territory protected species information
- Scientific literature
- Local and Indigenous knowledge

To assess the risks to a species, an understanding of the animal's susceptibility to the effects of light should be evaluated, as well as the potential for artificial light to affect the local population.

The species conservation status should be identified and relevant population demographic and behavioural characteristics that should be considered include population size, life stages present and normal behaviour in the absence of artificial light. This step should also identify biological and ecology characteristics of the species that will be relevant to the assessment. This may include understanding the seasonality of wildlife using the area; behaviour (i.e. reproduction, foraging, resting); migratory pathways; and life stages most susceptible to artificial light. Consideration should also be given to how artificial light may affect food sources, availability of habitat, competitors or predators.

### *Field surveys for wildlife*

Where there are insufficient data available to understand the actual or potential importance of a population or habitat it may be necessary to conduct field surveys. The zone of influence for artificial lighting will be case and species specific. Surveys should describe habitat, species abundance and density on a local and regional scale at a biologically relevant time of year.

### *Baseline monitoring*

Where it is considered likely that artificial lighting will impact on wildlife, it may be necessary to undertake baseline monitoring to enable assessment of mitigation and light management (Step 5).

Field survey techniques and baseline monitoring needs will be species specific and detailed parameters and approaches are described in the [Marine Turtles](#), [Seabirds](#) and [Migratory Shorebirds](#) Technical Appendices. Guidance from species experts should be sought for other species.

## **Step 3: Risk assessment**

Using information collated in steps one and two, the level of risk to wildlife should be assessed. Risk assessments should be undertaken on a case by case basis as they will be specific to the wildlife involved, the lighting objectives and design, and the prevailing

environmental conditions. Assessments should be undertaken in accordance with the *Australian Standard Risk Management – Guidelines (AS ISO 31000:2018)* (or superseding equivalent), which provides for adaptive management and continuous improvement. The scale of the assessment is expected to be commensurate with the scale of the activity and the vulnerability of the wildlife present.

In general, the assessment should consider how important the habitat is to the species (e.g. is this the only place the animals are found), the biology and ecology of wildlife, the amount and type of artificial light and whether the lighting scenario is likely to cause an adverse response. The assessment should take into account the artificial light impact mitigation and management that will be implemented. It should also consider factors likely to affect an animal's perception of light; the distance to the lighting source; and whether light will be directly visible or viewed as sky glow. The process should assess whether wildlife will be disrupted or displaced from important habitat, and whether wildlife will be able to undertake critical behaviours such as foraging, reproduction, and dispersal.

Where a likely risk is identified, either the project design should be modified, or further mitigation put in place to reduce the risk.

If the risk is likely to be significant, consideration should be given as to whether the project should be referred for assessment under the EPBC Act and/or relevant state or territory legislation.

#### ***Step 4: Artificial light management plan***

The management plan will document the EIA process. The plan should include all relevant information obtained in Steps 1-3. It should describe the lighting objectives; the existing light environment; susceptible wildlife present, including relevant biological characteristics and behaviour; and proposed mitigation. The plan should clearly document the risk assessment process, including the consequences that were considered, the likelihood of occurrence and any assumptions that underpin the assessment. It should document the scope of monitoring and auditing to test the efficacy of proposed mitigation and triggers to revisit the risk assessment. This should include a clear adaptive management framework to support continuous improvement in light management, including a hierarchy of contingency management options if biological and light monitoring or compliance audits indicated that mitigation is not meeting the objectives of the plan.

The detail and extent of the plan should be proportional to the scale of the development and potential impacts to wildlife.

A toolbox of species specific options are provided in the [Marine Turtles](#), [Seabirds](#) and [Migratory Shorebirds](#) Technical Appendices. Guidance from species experts should be sought for other species.

#### ***Step 5: Biological and light monitoring and auditing***

The success of the impact mitigation and artificial light management should be confirmed through monitoring and compliance auditing. Light audits should be regularly undertaken and biological and behavioural monitoring should be undertaken on a timescale relevant to the species present. Observations of wildlife interactions should be documented and accompanied by relevant information such as weather conditions and moon phase. The results of monitoring

and auditing are critical to an adaptive management approach, with the results used to identify where improvements in lighting management may be required.

Light audits should be undertaken by appropriately qualified personnel and considered in consultation with an appropriately qualified biologist or ecologist.

Baseline, construction or post construction artificial light monitoring, wildlife biological monitoring and auditing are detailed in [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#), [Light Auditing](#) and species specific [Marine Turtles](#), [Seabirds](#) and [Migratory Shorebirds](#) Technical Appendices.

### *Review*

Once light audits and biological monitoring have been completed, a review of whether the lighting objectives have been met should be conducted. The review should incorporate any changing circumstances and make recommendations for continual improvement. The recommendations should be incorporated through upgraded mitigations, changes to procedures and renewal of the light management plan.

## Case Studies

Unlike many forms of pollution, artificial light can be removed from the environment. The following case studies show it is possible to balance the requirements of both human safety and wildlife conservation.

### ***Gorgon Liquefied Natural Gas Plant on Barrow Island, Western Australia***

The Chevron-Australia Gorgon Project is one of the world's largest natural gas projects. The liquefied natural gas (LNG) processing facility is on Barrow Island a Western Australian Class A nature reserve off the Pilbara Coast known for its diversity of fauna, including important nesting habitat for flatback turtles<sup>26</sup>.

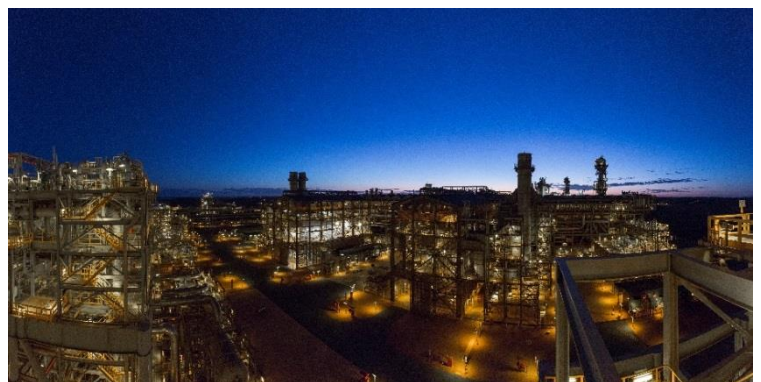
The LNG plant was built adjacent to important turtle nesting beaches. The effect of light on the turtles and emerging hatchlings was considered from early in the design phase of the project and species-specific mitigation was incorporated into project planning<sup>26</sup>. Light management is implemented, monitored and audited through a light management plan and turtle population demographics and behaviour through the *Long Term Marine Turtle Management Plan*<sup>27</sup>.

Lighting is required to reduce safety risks to personnel and to maintain a safe place of work under workplace health and safety requirements. The lighting objectives considered these requirements while also aiming to minimise light glow and eliminate direct light spill on nesting beaches. This includes directional or shielded lighting, the mounting of light fittings as low as practicable, louvered lighting on low level bollards, automatic timers or photovoltaic switches and black-out blinds on windows. Accommodation buildings were oriented so that a minimal number of windows faced the beaches and parking areas were located to reduce vehicle headlight spill onto the dunes.

Lighting management along the LNG jetty and causeway adopted many of the design features used for the plant and accommodation areas. LNG loading activity is supported by a fleet of tugs that were custom built to minimise external light spill. LNG vessels are requested to minimise non-essential lighting while moored at the loading jetty.

To reduce sky glow, the flare for the LNG plant was designed as a ground box flare, rather than the more conventional stack flare. A louvered shielding wall further reduced the effects of the flare.

Lighting reviews are conducted prior to the nesting season to allow time to implement corrective actions if needed. Workforce awareness is conducted at the start of each turtle breeding season to further engage the workforce in the effort to reduce light wherever possible.



**Figure 6 Liquefied natural gas plant on Barrow Island.**  
**Photo: Chevron Australia.**

The *Long Term Marine Turtle Management Plan*<sup>27</sup> provides for the ongoing risk assessment of the impact of artificial light on the flatback turtles nesting on beaches adjacent to the LNG plant, including mitigation measures to minimise the risk from light to turtles. The plan also provides for an ongoing turtle research and monitoring program. The [plan](#) is publicly available.

## Phillip Island

Victoria's Phillip Island is home to one of the world's largest colonies of listed migratory Short-tailed Shearwaters (*Ardenna tenuirostris*). It supports more than six per cent of the global population of this species<sup>25</sup>. Shearwaters nest in burrows and are nocturnally active at their breeding colonies. Fledglings leave their nests at night. When exposed to artificial light fledglings can be disoriented and grounded. Some fledglings may reach the ocean, but then be attracted back toward coastal lighting. Fledglings are also vulnerable to collision with infrastructure when disoriented and once grounded become vulnerable to predation or road kill<sup>4</sup> (Figure 7).

Phillip Island also attracts over a million visitors a year during peak holiday seasons to visit the Little Penguin (*Eudyptula minor*) ecotourism centre, the Penguin Parade®. Most visitors drive from Melbourne across a bridge to access the island. The increase in road traffic at sunset during the Easter break coincides with the maiden flight of fledgling shearwaters from their burrows<sup>25</sup>.

In response to the deaths of fledglings, Phillip Island Nature Parks has an annual shearwater rescue program to remove and safely release grounded birds<sup>25</sup>. In collaboration with SP Ausnet and Regional Roads Victoria, road lights on the bridge to the island are turned off during the fledgling period<sup>28</sup>. To address human safety concerns, speed limits are reduced and warning signals put in place during fledgling season<sup>28,29</sup>. The reduced road lighting and associated traffic controls and warning signals, combined with a strong rescue program, have reduced the mortality rate of shearwaters.<sup>25</sup>.



**Figure 7 Short-Tailed Shearwater (*Ardenna tenuirostris*) fledgling grounded by artificial light, Phillip Island. Photo: Airam Rodriguez.**

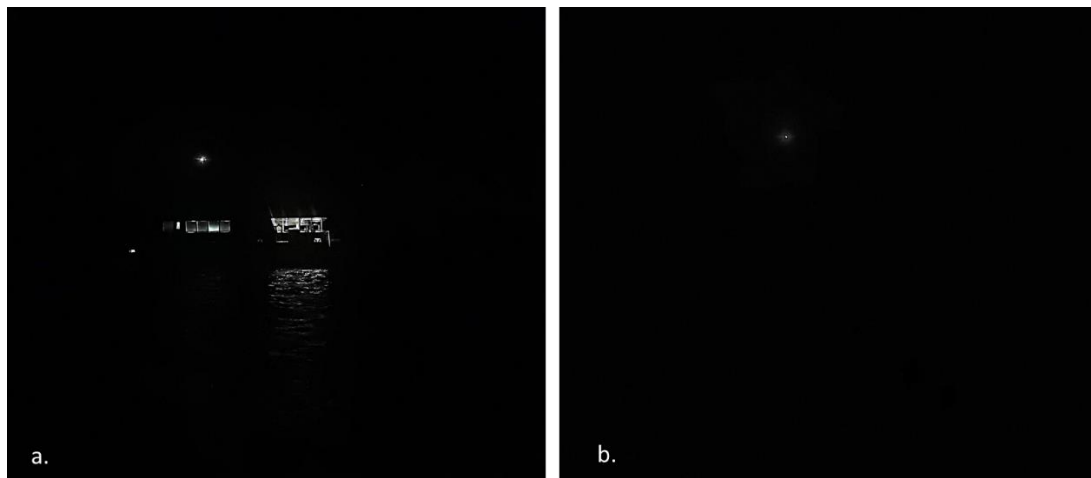
### ***Raine Island research vessel light controls***

The Queensland Marine Parks primary vessel *Reef Ranger* is a 24 m catamaran jointly funded by the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority and the Queensland Parks and Wildlife Service under the Field Management Program (FMP). The *Reef Ranger* is often anchored at offshore islands that are known marine turtle nesting sites and is regularly at Raine Island, one of the world's largest green turtle nesting sites<sup>30</sup> and a significant seabird rookery.

Vessels often emit a lot of artificial light when at anchor and the FMP took measures to minimise direct lighting spillage from the vessel. A lights-off policy around turtle nesting beaches was implemented, where the use of outdoor vessel lights was limited, except for safety reasons.

The original fit out of the vessel did not include internal block-out blinds (Figure 8a). These were installed before the 2018-19 Queensland turtle nesting season. The blinds stop light being emitted from inside the vessel, therefore limiting light spill around the vessel (Figure 8b). This can make an important difference at remote (naturally dark) sites such as Raine Island.

Anecdotal evidence suggests hatchlings previously attracted to, and captured in, light pools around the vessel are no longer drawn to the *Reef Ranger*.



**Figure 8 Vessel lighting management at Raine Island a. Vessel with decking lights, venetian blinds down and anchor light on; and b. Vessel with outside lights off, and blackout blinds installed (note the white anchor light is a maritime safety requirement).**

**Photo: Queensland Parks and Wildlife Service.**

## Appendix A – Best Practice Lighting Design

**Natural darkness has conservation value in the same way as clean water, air and soil and should be protected through good quality lighting design.**

**Simple management principles can be used to reduce light pollution, including:**

- 1. Start with natural darkness and only add light for specific purposes.**
- 2. Use adaptive light controls to manage light timing, intensity and colour.**
- 3. Light only the object or area intended – keep lights close to the ground, directed and shielded to avoid light spill.**
- 4. Use the lowest intensity lighting appropriate for the task.**
- 5. Use non-reflective, dark-coloured surfaces.**
- 6. Use lights with reduced or filtered blue, violet and ultra-violet wavelengths.**

### Lighting Objectives

At the outset of a lighting design process, the purpose of artificial lighting should be clearly stated and consideration should be given as to whether it is required at all.

Exterior lighting for public, commercial or industrial applications is typically designed to provide a safe working environment. It may also be required to provide for human amenity or commerce. Conversely, areas of darkness, seasonal management of artificial light, or minimised sky glow may be necessary for wildlife protection, astronomy or dark sky tourism.

Lighting objectives will need to consider the regulatory requirements and Australian standards relevant to the activity, location and wildlife present.

Objectives should be described in terms of specific locations and times for which artificial light is necessary. Consideration should be given to whether colour differentiation is required and if some areas should remain dark – either to contrast with lit areas or to avoid light spill. Where relevant, wildlife requirements should form part of the lighting objectives.

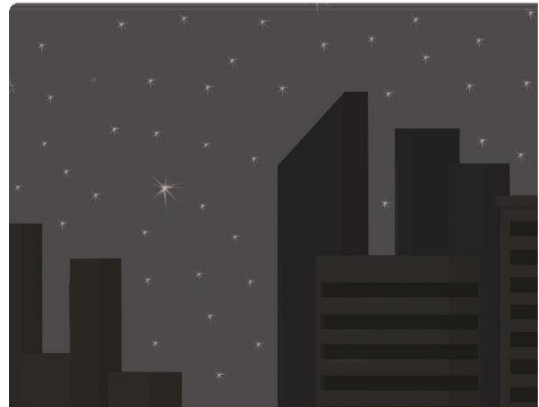
A lighting installation will be deemed a success if it meets the lighting objectives and areas of interest can be seen clearly, easily, safely and without discomfort.

# Principles of Best Practice Lighting Design

Good lighting design incorporates the following design principles. They are applicable everywhere, especially in the vicinity of wildlife.

## 1. Start with natural darkness

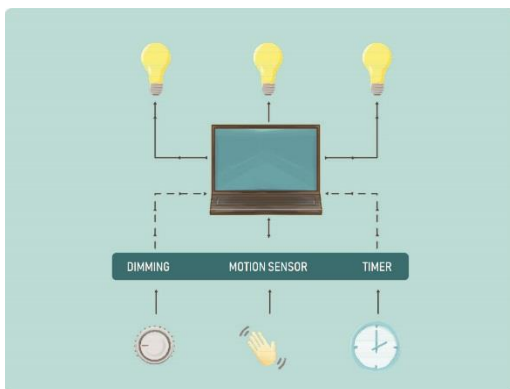
The starting point for all lighting designs should be natural darkness (Figure 9). Artificial light should only be added for specific and defined purposes, and only in the required location and for the specified duration of human use. Designers should consider an upper limit on the amount of artificial light and only install the amount needed to meet the lighting objectives.



**Figure 9 Start with natural darkness.**  
© Pendoley Environmental.

## 2. Use adaptive controls

Recent advances in smart control technology provide a range of options for better controlled and targeted artificial light management (Figure 10). For example, traditional industrial lighting should remain illuminated all night because the High-Pressure Sodium, metal halide, and fluorescent lights have a long warm up and cool down period. This could jeopardise operator safety in the event of an emergency. With the introduction of smart controlled LED lights, plant lighting can be switched on and off instantly and activated only when needed, for example, when an operator is physically present within the site.



**Figure 10 Use adaptive controls to manage light timing, intensity and colour.**  
© Pendoley Environmental.

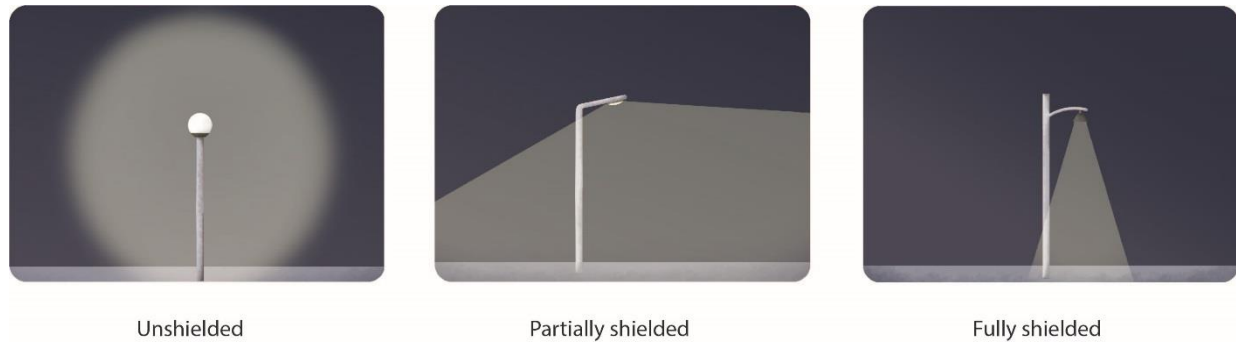
Smart controls and LED technology allow for:

- remotely managing lights (computer controls)
- instant on and off switching of lights
- control of light colour
- dimming, timers, flashing rate, motion sensors
- well defined directivity of light.

Adaptive controls should maximise the use of latest lighting technology to minimise unnecessary light output and energy consumption.

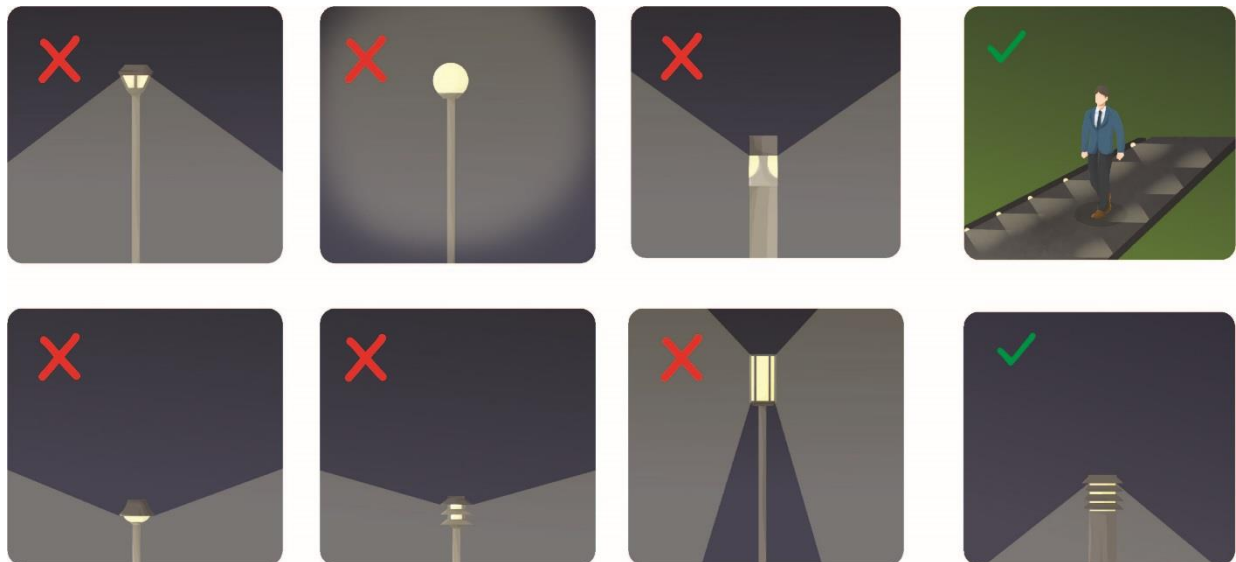
### ***3. Light only the intended object or area - keep lights close to the ground, directed and shielded***

Light spill is light that falls outside the area intended to be lit. Light that spills above the horizontal plane contributes directly to artificial sky glow while light that spills into adjacent areas on the ground (also known as light trespass) can be disruptive to wildlife in adjacent areas. All light fittings should be located, directed or shielded to avoid lighting anything but the target object or area (Figure 11). Existing lights can be modified by installing a shield.

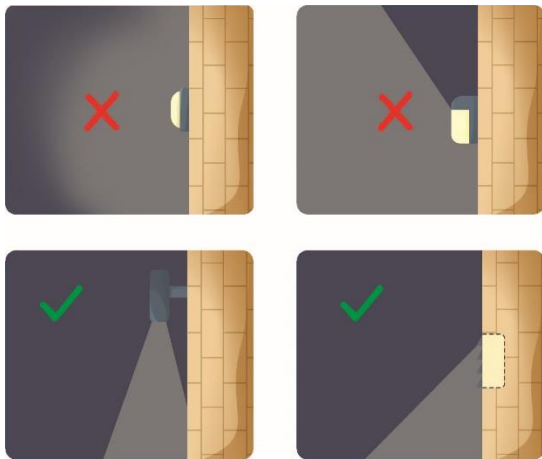


**Figure 11 Lights should be shielded to avoid lighting anything but the target area or object.**  
© Pendoley Environmental, adapted from Witherington and Martin (2003)<sup>3</sup>.

Lower height lighting that is directional and shielded can be extremely effective. Light fixtures should be located as close to the ground as possible (Figure 12).



**Figure 12 Walkway lighting should be mounted as low as possible.** © Pendoley Environmental, adapted from Witherington and Martin (2003)<sup>3</sup>.



**Figure 13 Lighting should be directed to ensure only the intended area is lit.**  
© Pendoley Environmental, adapted from Witherington and Martin (2003)<sup>3</sup>.

Artificial light can be prevented from shining above the horizontal plane by ensuring the luminaire is mounted horizontally relative to the ground and not at an angle or mounted on a building so that the structure prevents the light shining above the horizontal plane. When determining angle of the mounting, consideration should be given to the reflective properties of the receiving environment.

If an unshielded fitting is to be used, consideration should be given to the direction of the light and the need for some form of permanent physical opaque barrier that will provide the shielding requirement. This can be a cover or part of a building (Figure 13). Care should be taken to also shield adjacent surfaces, if they are lightly coloured, to prevent excessive reflected light from adding to sky glow.

Consideration should also be given to blocking light spill from internal light sources. This should include block-out blinds for transparent portions of a building, including sky lights.

#### **4. Use appropriate lighting**

Lighting intensity should be appropriate for the activity. Starting from a base of no lights, use only the minimum number and intensity of lights needed to provide safe and secure illumination for the area at the time required to meet the lighting objectives. The minimum amount of light needed to illuminate an object or area should be assessed during the early design stages and only that amount of light installed. For example, Figure 14 provides examples lighting for a parking lot.



**Figure 14 Lighting options for a parking area.**  
© Pendoley Environmental, adapted from Witherington and Martin (2003)<sup>3</sup>.

### *Off-the-shelf lighting design models*

Use of computer design engineering packages that recommend a standard lighting design for general application should be avoided or modified to suit the specific project objectives, location and risk factors.

### *Lumens mean more than Watts*

Improvements in technology mean that new bulb types produce significantly greater amount of light per unit of energy. For example, LED lights produce between two and five times the amount of light as incandescent bulbs. The amount of light produced (lumen), rather than the amount of energy used (watt) is the most important consideration in ensuring that an area is not over lit.

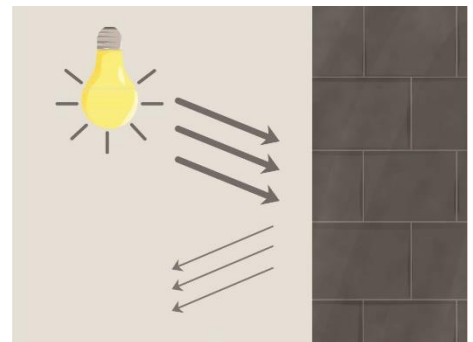
### *Consider re-evaluating security systems and using motion sensor lighting*

Technological advances mean that techniques such as computer managed infra-red tracking of intruders in security zones is likely to result in better detection rates than a human observer monitoring an illuminated zone.

High quality, low glare lighting should always be a strong consideration regardless of how the project is to be designed. Low glare lighting enhances visibility for the user at night and places light where it is needed.

## **5. Use non-reflective, dark coloured surfaces**

Light reflected from highly polished, shiny or light-coloured surfaces such as white painted infrastructure, polished marble or white sand can contribute to sky glow. For example, alternatives to painting storage tanks with white paint to reduce internal heating should be explored during front-end engineering design. If a darker colour paint or material is selected, this should be included in the [Artificial Light Management Plan](#).



**Figure 15 Use non-reflective dark coloured surfaces. © Pendoley Environmental.**

## **6. Use lights with reduced or filtered out blue, violet and ultraviolet wavelengths**

Humans and wildlife are sensitive to short wavelength (blue/violet) light (for detailed discussion see [What is Light and how do Wildlife Perceive it?](#)). Only lights with little or no short wavelength violet or blue light should be used to avoid unintended effects.

It is not possible to tell how much blue light is emitted from an artificial light source by the colour of light it produces (see [Light Emitting Diodes](#)). LEDs of all colours, particularly white, can emit a high amount of blue light and the [Colour Correlated Temperature](#) (CCT) only provides a proxy for the blue light content of a light source. Consideration should be given to the spectral characteristics (spectral power distribution curve) of the lighting to ensure short wavelength light is minimised.

## Appendix B – What is Light and how does Wildlife Perceive it?

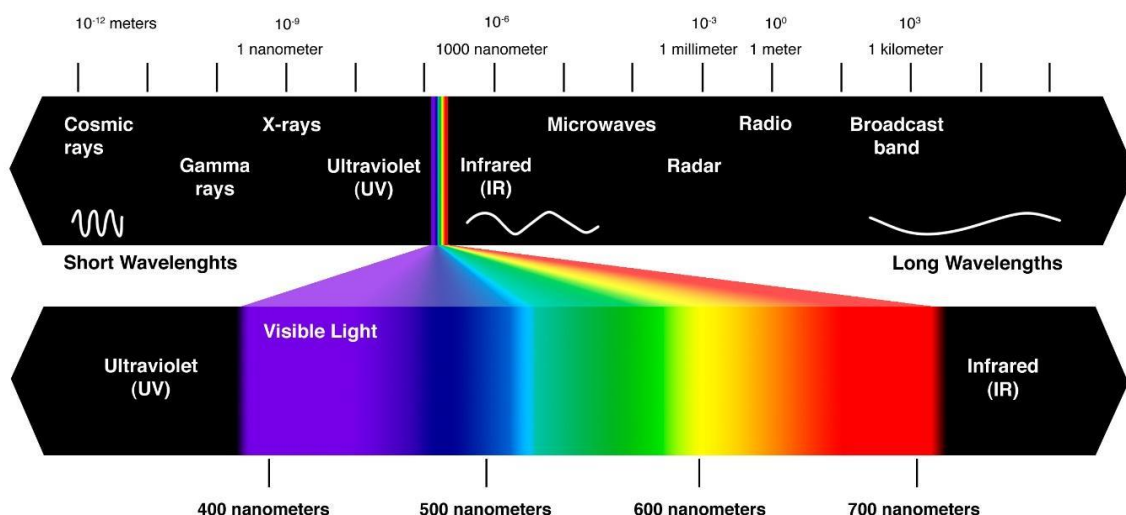
**A basic understanding of how light is defined, described and measured is critical to designing the best artificial light management for the protection of wildlife.**

**Humans and animals perceive light differently. However, defining and measuring light has traditionally been focused exclusively on human vision. Commercial light monitoring equipment is calibrated to the sensitivity of the human eye and has poor sensitivity to the short wavelength light that is most visible to wildlife. These issues should be considered when describing, monitoring and designing lighting near important wildlife habitat.**

### What is Light?

Light is a form of energy and is a subset of the electromagnetic spectrum that includes visible light, microwaves, radio waves and gamma rays (Figure 16). In humans, visible light ranges from 380 nm to 780 nm - between the violet and red regions of the electromagnetic spectrum. In animals, visible light ranges from 300 nm to greater than 700 nm, depending on the species. White light is a mixture of all wavelengths of light ranging from short wavelength blue to long wavelength red light.

The perception of different wavelengths as 'colour' is subjective and is described and characterised by how the human eye perceives light, ranging from red (700 nm), orange (630 nm), yellow (600 nm), green (550 nm), blue (470 nm), indigo (425 nm) and violet (400 nm) (Figure 16). Generally, this is not how animals see light (Figure 2).



**Figure 16 The electromagnetic spectrum. The 'visible light spectrum' occurs between 380-780 nm and is the part of the spectrum that the human eye can see. Credit: Mihail Pernichev<sup>31</sup>.**

## Artificial light

Artificial light at night has many positive attributes. It can enhance human safety and provide for longer periods of work or recreation. However, it can also have a negative effect. For example, it can cause:

- physiological damage to retinal cells in human and animal eyes<sup>32</sup>
- disruption of the circadian cycles in vegetation, animals and humans<sup>2,13,33</sup>
- changes in animal orientation, feeding or migratory behaviour<sup>16,34-36</sup>.

The biological mechanisms that cause these effects vary. It is necessary to understand some basic light theory and language in order to assess and manage the effect of light on wildlife. Some basic principles are briefly described in this section.

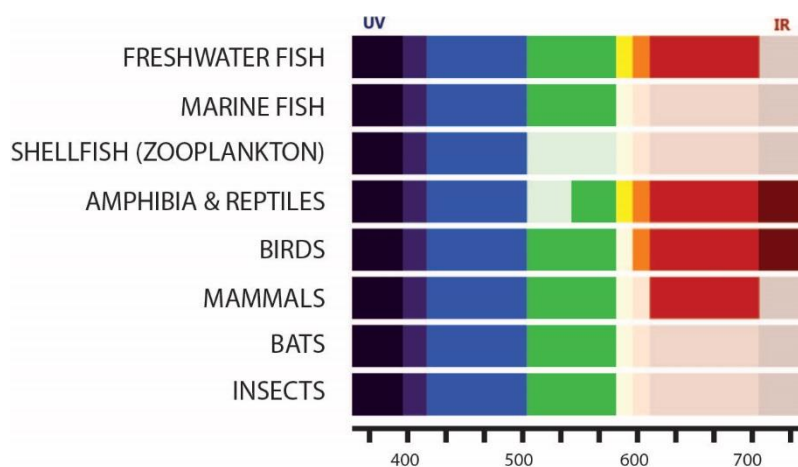
## Vision in Animals

Vision is a critical cue for animals to orient themselves in their environment, find food, avoid predation and communicate<sup>7</sup>. Humans and wildlife perceive light differently. Some animals do not see long wavelength red light at all, while others see light beyond the blue-violet end of the spectrum and into the ultraviolet (Figure 17).

Both humans and animals detect light using photoreceptor cells in the eye called cones and rods. Colour differentiation occurs under bright light conditions (daylight). This is because bright light activates the cones and it is the cones that allow the eye to see colour. This is known as photopic vision.

Under low light conditions (dark adapted vision), light is detected by cells in the eye called rods. Rods only perceive light in shades of grey (no colour). This is known as scotopic vision and it is more sensitive to shorter wavelengths of light (blue/violet) than photopic vision.

The variation in the number and types of cells in the retina means animals and humans do not perceive the same range of colours. In animals, being 'sensitive' to light within a specific range of wavelengths means they can perceive light at that wavelength, and it is likely they will respond to that light source.



**Figure 17 Ability to perceive light in different groups of wildlife. Note the common sensitivity to ultraviolet, violet and blue light. © Pendoley Environmental.**

## Sensitivity to blue light

Sensitivity to high energy, short wavelength UV/violet/blue light is common in wildlife (Figure 17). This light is strongly detected under scotopic (dark adapted) vision, particularly in nocturnal species. Short wavelength light at the blue end of the spectrum has higher energy than longer wavelength light at the red end of the spectrum. This is important to understanding the physical impact that the short wavelength, high energy UV/blue light has on damaging photoreceptor cells in the eye<sup>37</sup>.

In addition to the potential for physical damage to the eye from exposure to blue light (400 - 490 nm), there is mounting evidence that exposure to these wavelengths at night may affect human and wildlife physiological functions. This is because a third type of photoreceptor cell has recently been identified in the retina of the mammalian eye – the photosensitive retinal ganglion cells (pRGCs). The pRGCs are not involved in image-forming vision (this occurs in the rods and cones), but instead regulate the production of melatonin and are involved in synchronising circadian rhythms to the 24-hour light/dark cycle<sup>38</sup>. These cells are particularly sensitive to blue light<sup>39</sup>.

## Factors Effecting Perception of Light

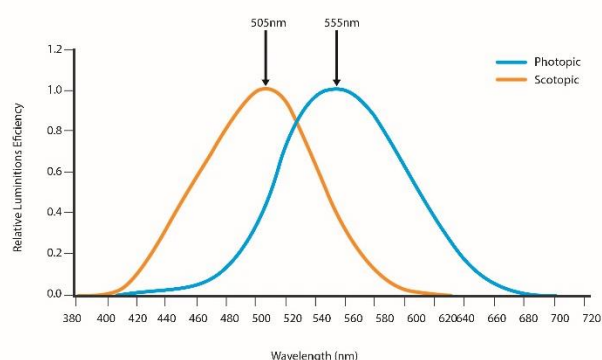
Factors affecting how humans and wildlife perceive light include the type of cells being employed to detect light (photopic vs scotopic vision); whether the light is viewed directly from the source or as reflected light; how the light interacts with the environment; and the distance from the light source. These influences are discussed below.

### Perspective

Understanding an animal's perception of light will include consideration of the animal's visual field. For instance, when flying, birds will generally be looking down on artificial light sources, whereas turtles on a nesting beach will be looking up. Further, some birds' field of view will stretch around to almost behind their head.

### Bright vs dim light

Understanding photopic and scotopic vision is important when selecting the colour (wavelength) and intensity of a light because scotopic (dark adapted) vision allows for the detection of light at very low intensities and the sensitivity in the blue/UV region (Figure 18) may explain why nocturnal wildlife are extremely sensitive to white and blue light even at low intensities.



**Figure 18 Scotopic and photopic luminosity functions. © Pendoley Environmental.**

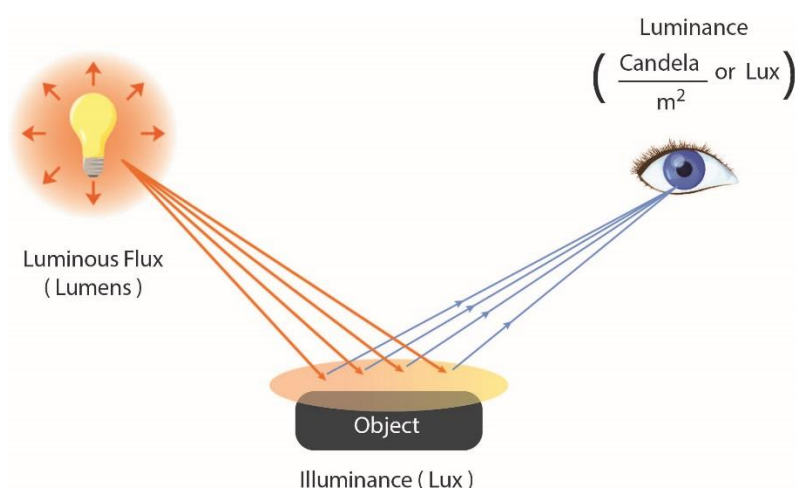
## Direct vs reflected light

Understanding the difference between light direct from the source (luminance) and reflected or refracted light (illuminance) is important when selecting methods for measuring and monitoring light. Equipment used to measure illuminance and luminance is not interchangeable and will lead to incorrect conclusions if used incorrectly.

Luminance describes the light that is emitted, passing through or reflected from a surface. This light is detected by the human eye. The total amount of light emitted from a light is called luminous flux and represents the light emitted in all directions (Figure 19). Luminance is quantified using a Spectroradiometer or luminance meter.

Illuminance describes the measurement of light waves falling onto (illuminating) and spreading over a surface. An instrument to measure this light will be aimed directly at the light source to collect the light waves leaving the source. Illuminance is quantified using an Illuminance spectrophotometer or Lux meter.

The total amount of light emitted by a bulb is measured in lumens and is different to watts, which are a measure of the amount of power consumed by the bulb. Lumens, not watts, provide information about the brightness of a bulb.



**Figure 19 Luminous flux, luminance and illuminance. © Pendoley Environmental**

## Visibility of light in the environment

The physical properties of light include reflection, refraction, dispersion, diffraction and scattering. These properties are affected by the atmosphere through which light travels. Short wavelength violet and blue light scatters in the atmosphere more than longer wavelength light such as green and red, due to an effect known as Rayleigh scattering<sup>40</sup>.

Scattering of light by dust, salt and other atmospheric aerosols increases the visibility of light as sky glow while the presence of clouds reflecting light back to earth can substantially illuminate the landscape<sup>41</sup>. Hence the degree of overhead sky glow is a function of aerosol concentration and cloud height and thickness.

### *Direct light vs sky glow*

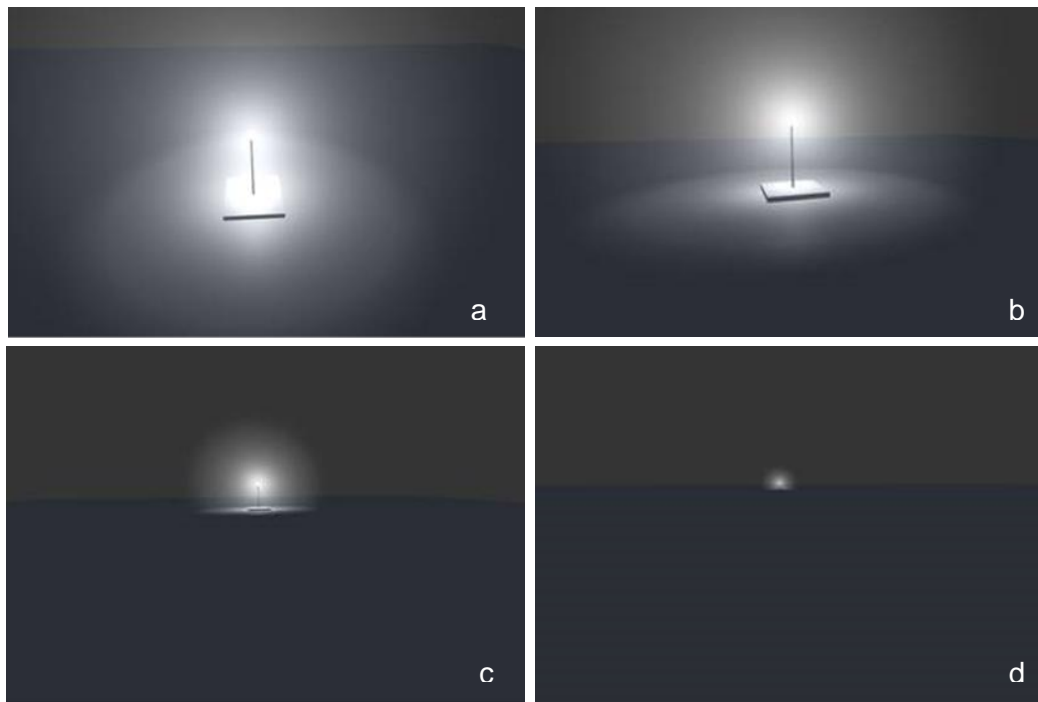
Light may appear as a direct light source from an unshielded lamp with direct line of sight to the observer or through sky glow (Figure 20). Sky glow is the diffuse glow caused by light that is screened from view but through reflection and refraction creates a glow in the atmosphere. Sky glow is affected by cloud cover and other particles in the air. White/blue light scatters more easily and further in the atmosphere compared with yellow-orange light. Clouds reflect light well.



**Figure 20** Point source of light directly visible (circled left) and sky glow created by lights shielded by a vegetation screen (circled right). © Pendoley Environmental.

### *Distance from light source*

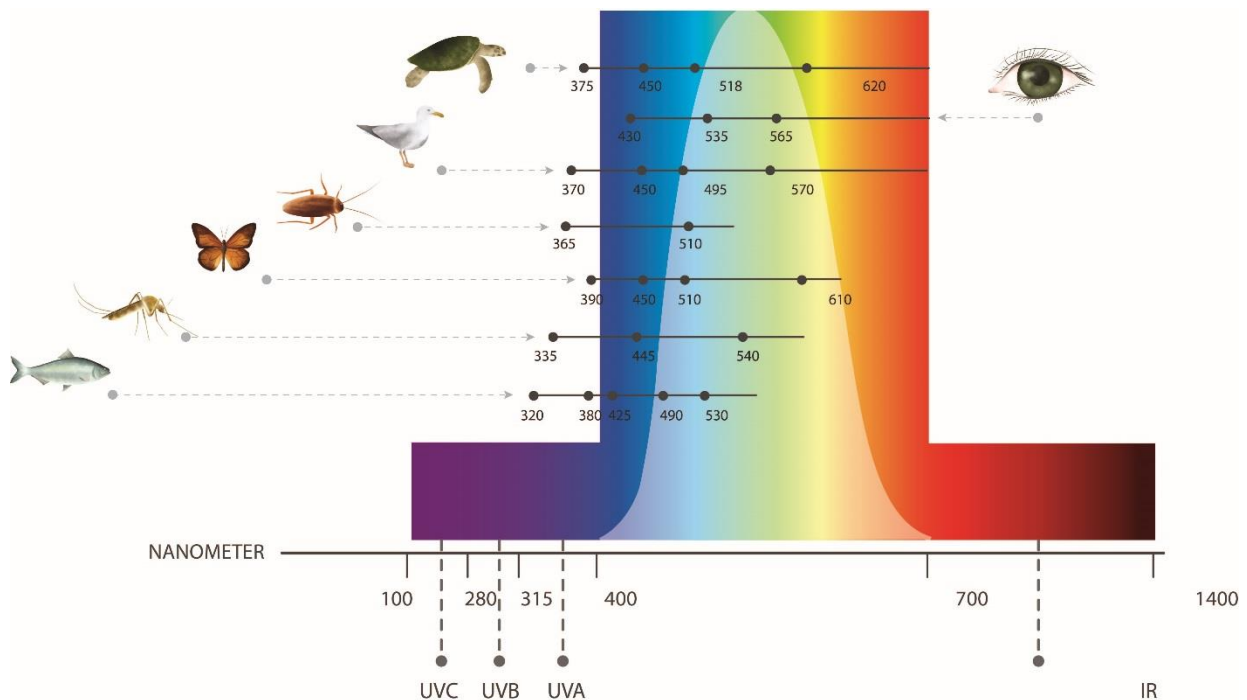
The physical properties of light follow the inverse square law which means that the visibility of the light, as a function of its intensity and spatial extent, decreases with distance (Figure 21). This is an important factor to consider when modelling light or assessing the impact of light across different spatial scales.



**Figure 21** Modelled changes in the visibility of an unshielded 1000 W white LED viewed from a. 10 m; b. 100 m; c. 1 km and d. 3 km. © Pendoley Environmental.

## Measurement of Light

Light has traditionally been measured photometrically or using measurements that are weighted to the sensitivity of the human eye (peak 555 nm). Photometric light is represented by the area under the Commission International de l'Eclairage (CIE) curve, but this does not capture all light visible to wildlife (Figure 22).



**Figure 22 Photometric light represented by the area under the CIE curve (white area). Note that this measurement of light does not include much of the violet and ultra-violet light visible to many animals. © Pendoley Environmental adapted with permission from Campos (2017)<sup>10</sup>.**

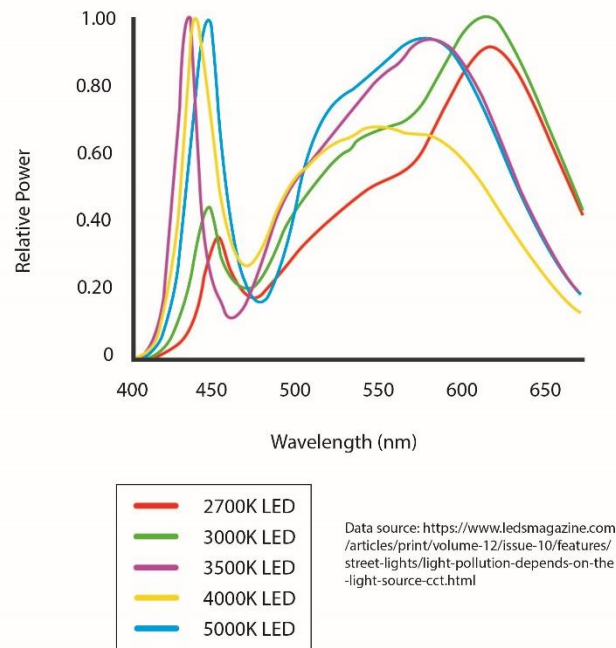
Light can also be measured radiometrically. Radiometric measurements detect and quantify all wavelengths from the ultra-violet (UV) to infrared (IR). The total energy at every wavelength is measured. This is a biologically relevant measure for understanding wildlife perception of light. Terminology, such as radiant flux, radiant intensity, irradiance or radiance all refer to the science and measurement of light across all wavelengths of the electromagnetic spectrum.

Understanding the difference between photometry (weighted to the sensitivity of the human eye) and radiometry (measures all wavelengths) is important when measuring light since many animals see light in the blue and the red regions of the spectrum and, unlike photometry, the study of radiometry includes these wavelengths.

Photometric measures (such as luminous, luminous flux, luminous intensity, illuminance and luminance) can be used to discuss the potential impact of artificial light on wildlife, but their limitations should be taken into account as these measures do not include blue and red wavelengths to which animals can be sensitive.

## Spectral curve

White light is made up of wavelengths of light from across the visible spectrum. A spectral power curve (Figure 23) provides a representation of the relative presence of each wavelength emitted from a light source. This is an important tool for understanding the amount of blue light emitted by a lighting design.



**Figure 23 Spectral curves showing the blue content of 2700-5000 K LED lights. © Pendoley Environmental.**

## Light Emitting Diodes (LEDs)

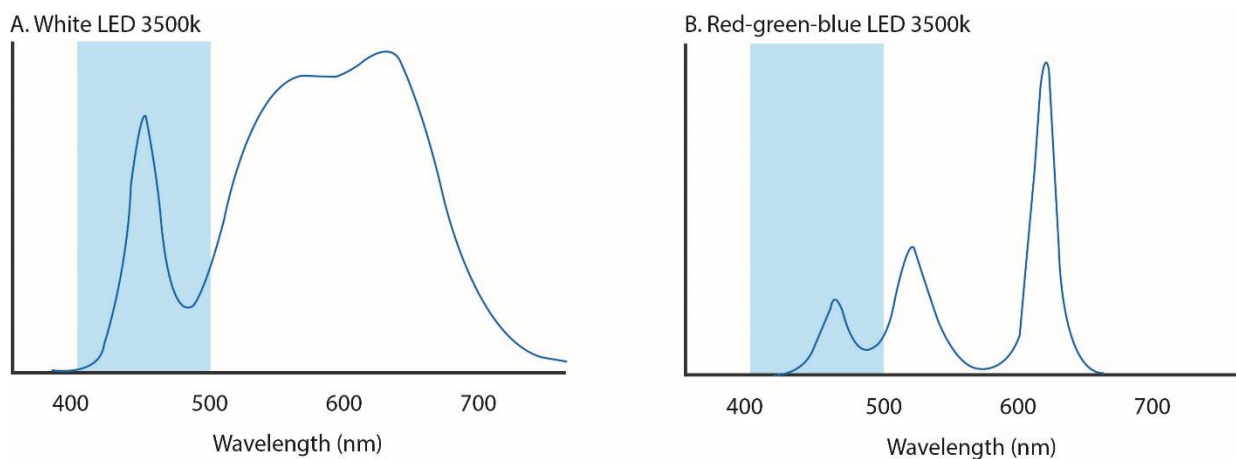
Light emitting diodes are rapidly becoming the most common light type globally as they are more energy efficient than previous lighting technology. They can be smart controlled and are highly adaptable in terms of wavelength, intensity and can be instantly turned on and off.

Characteristics of LED lights that are not found in older types of lamps, but which should be considered when assessing the impacts of LEDs on wildlife, include:

- With few exceptions, all LED lights contain blue wavelengths (Figure 24).
- The wattage of an LED is a measure of the electrical energy needed to produce light and is not a measure of the amount or intensity of light that will be produced by the lamp.
- The output, or intensity of light produced by all lamps, including LEDs, is measured in lumens (lm).
- LED lamps require less watts (energy) to produce the equivalent amount of light output. For example, 600 lm output of light requires 40 watts of energy for an incandescent light bulb and only 10 watts of energy for a LED lamp. It is important to

not replace an old-style lamp with the equivalent wattage LED. For example, a 100 W incandescent bulb will produce the same amount of light as a 20 W LED.

- Different LED lights with the same correlated colour temperature (CCT) can have very different blue content (Figure 24) yet can appear, to the human eye, to be a similar colour. As the colour temperature of a white LED increases so can the blue content (Figure 23). Little or none of this increase in blue wavelength light is measured by photometric equipment (i.e. lux meter, luminance, illuminance meter, Sky Quality Meter – see [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#)).
- All animals studied to date (including humans) are affected by blue wavelength light, regardless of the wavelength to which they are most sensitive. It is the single common vision characteristic in all species independent of eye physiology and irrespective of adaptive nocturnal behaviours.

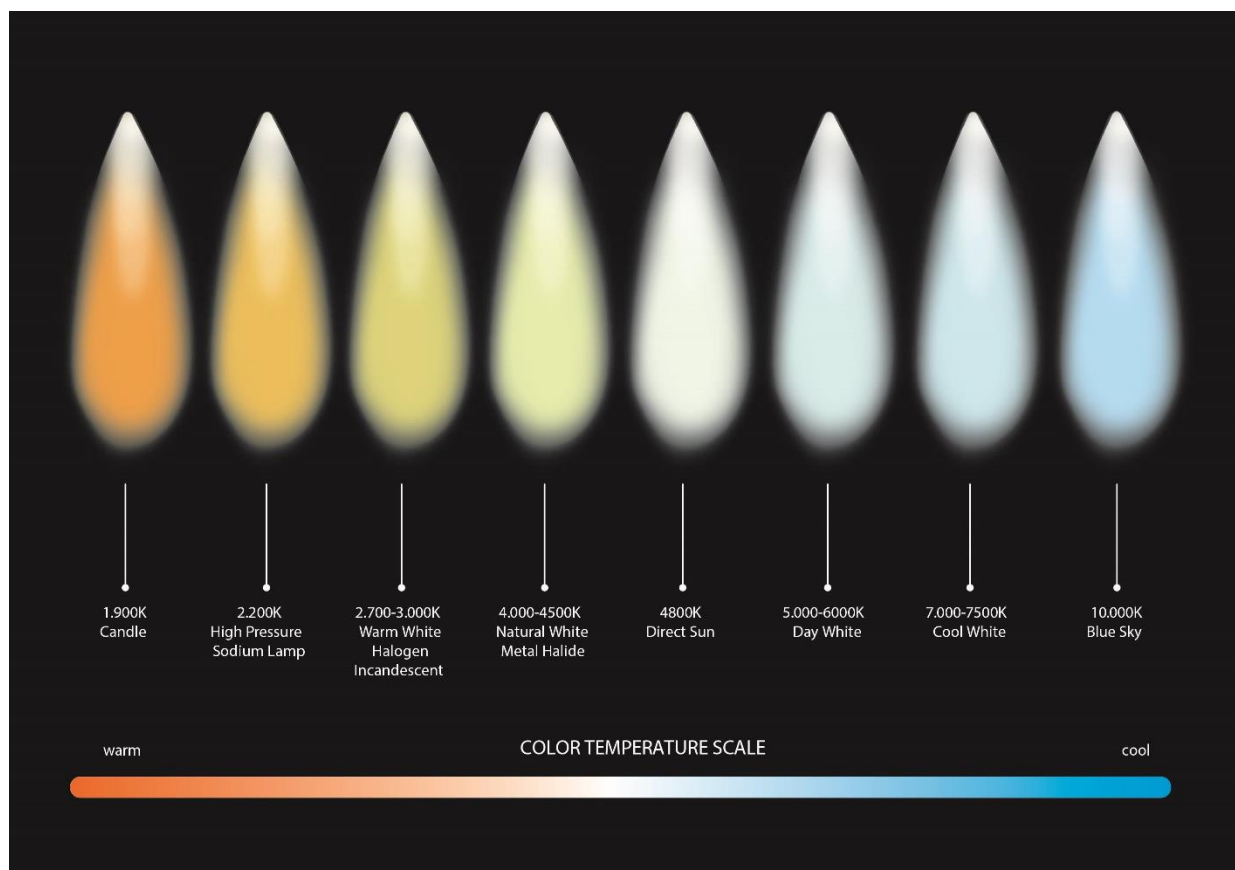


**Figure 24 A comparison of the blue wavelength spectral content of two LED lights with the same CCT (3500k). The blue wash shows the blue region of the visible spectrum (400–500 nm). The light in A. has a much greater blue light content than B. yet the two appear to the human eye as the same colour. © Pendoley Environmental.**

## Correlated colour temperature (CCT)

This is a simplified way to characterise the spectral properties of a light source and is correlated to the response of the human eye. Colour temperature is expressed in degrees Kelvin, using the symbol K, which is a unit of measure for absolute temperature. Practically, colour temperature is used to describe light colour and perceived “warmth”; lamps that have a warm yellowish colour have low colour temperatures between 1000K and 3000K while lamps characterised by a cool bluish colour have a colour temperature, or CCT, over 5000K (Figure 25).

Correlated colour temperature does not provide information about the blue content of a lamp. All LEDs contain blue light (Figure 23) and the blue content generally increases with increased CCT. The only way to determine whether the spectral content of a light source is appropriate for use near sensitive wildlife is to consider the spectral curve.



**Figure 25 Correlated colour temperature (CCT) range from warm 1000K to cool 10,000K.**  
© Pendoley Environmental.

## Appendix C - Measuring Biologically Relevant Light

**Animals and humans perceive light differently. Commercial light monitoring instruments focus on measuring the region of the spectrum most visible to humans. It is important to recognise and account for this fact when monitoring light for wildlife impact assessment purposes.**

**Commercial light modelling programs focus on light most visible to humans and this should also be recognised and accounted for in the impact assessment on wildlife.**

**Information critical to monitoring light for wildlife includes:**

- **Sky glow**
- **Bearings to lights on horizon**
- **Spatial extent of sky glow**
- **Visibility of light (direct and sky glow) from wildlife habitat**
- **Spectral curves of source lights.**

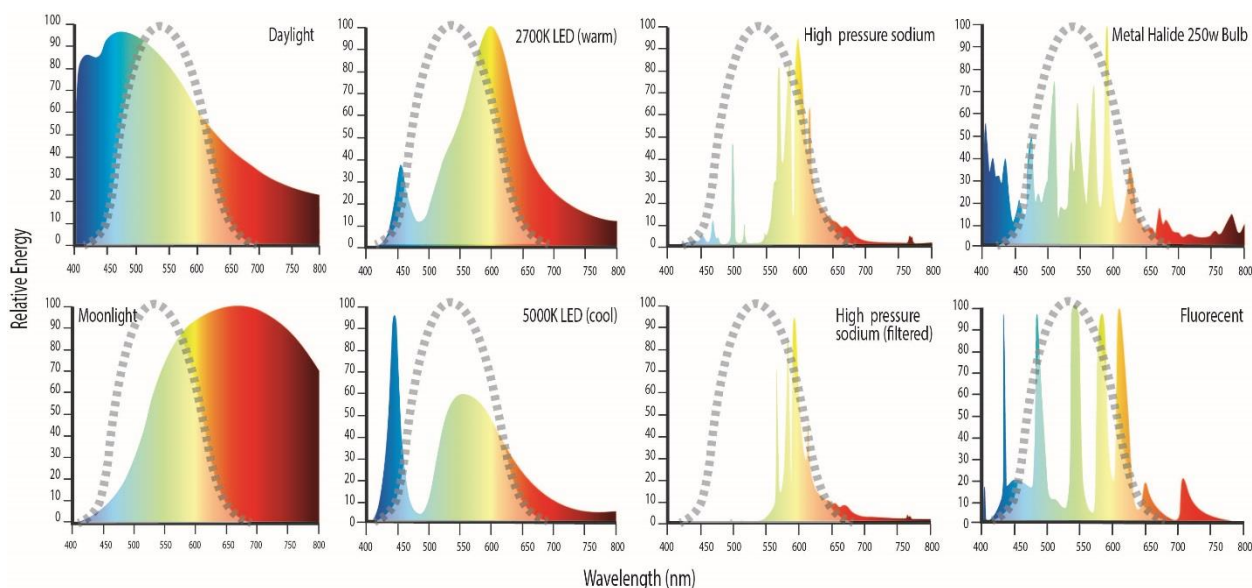
Measuring light to assess its effect on wildlife is challenging. Most instruments used to measure sky glow are still in the research phase of development, with only a few in early operational trials. The wide range of measurement systems and units in use globally makes it difficult to choose an appropriate measurement method and results cannot be compared between techniques due to variations in how light is measured and different units of measurement. There is no globally recognised standard method for monitoring light pollution.

### Radiometric vs Photometric Measurement Techniques

Radiometric instruments detect and quantify light equally across the spectrum (see [Measurement of Light](#)) and are the only instruments appropriate for monitoring and measuring light for wildlife management. However, the techniques to measure radiometric light are not well developed beyond classical astronomy applications. The instruments being trialled globally are largely experimental or in early stages of academic and/or commercial research and development, are expensive, and require specialised technical skills for operation, data analysis and interpretation and equipment maintenance.

The majority of both commercial and research instruments quantify photometric light, which is weighted to the sensitivity of the human eye, as per the CIE luminosity function curve described in [Measurement of Light](#). Consequently, they have little or no sensitivity to light in the blue (400 – 500 nm) (or the red (650 – 700 nm), regions of the spectrum – wavelengths to which wildlife may be sensitive (Figure 22).

When using photometric instruments for monitoring light this insensitivity to the short and long wavelength region of the spectrum should be recognised and accounted for in the assessment of impact. Information on the spectral power distribution of commercial lights is readily available from manufacturers and suppliers and should be used to inform any artificial light impact assessment or monitoring program. An example of the spectral power distribution curves for various light sources is shown in Figure 26, along with an overlay of the CIE curve that represents the light that is measured by all commercial photometric instruments.



**Figure 26 Photometric instruments only quantify light that is within the CIE curve (shaded area under grey dashed line). This is shown in comparison with the spectral curves of a range of different light sources. © Pendoley Environmental.**

It is possible and acceptable to use photometric instruments under conditions where the light sources are consistent. Monitoring results can be compared for measurements taken of the same light types (i.e. comparing two High Pressure Sodium, HPS, lights spatially or temporally), but cannot be used to compare light from an HPS and an LED since they have different wavelength distribution. It is not acceptable therefore to use photometric instrument to measure cumulative sky glow, which is often the result of cumulative light from multiple sources and there is more than one light type being assessed. An assessment of the various instrumental techniques for monitoring light is provided in the following sections.

In selecting the most appropriate measuring equipment to monitor the biological impacts of light on wildlife, it is important to decide what part of the sky is being measured; horizon, zenith or whole of sky. For example, marine turtles view light on the horizon between 0° and 30° vertically and integrate across 180° horizontally<sup>42</sup>, so it is important to include measurement of light in this part of the sky when monitoring for the effects on hatchling orientation during sea-finding. In contrast, juvenile shearwaters on their first flight view light in three dimensions (vertically, from below and above) as they ascend into the sky. Overhead sky glow (zenith) measurements are important when the observer is trying to avoid glare contamination by point sources of light low on the horizon. Quantifying the whole of sky glow is important when measuring the effects of cloud cover which can reflect light back to illuminate an entire beach or wetland.

The effect of light on wildlife is a function of the animal's sensitivity and response to light and the cues it uses during sea finding, foraging, migrating etc. The effect of light on marine turtle hatchling sea finding behaviour is relatively well understood, but the effects are less well described for seabirds and migratory shorebirds. However, the literature suggests that all three taxa appear to respond to high intensity short wavelength light, point sources of light, sky glow and directional light.

Consequently, the information/techniques likely to be needed to monitor light for marine turtles, shearwaters and migratory shorebirds includes:

- The brightness of the entire sky from horizon to horizon;
- The bearing to light (point sources and sky glow) on the horizon. This will dictate the direction in which wildlife can be disoriented;
- The spatial extent of glow on the horizon. A large area of glow on the horizon is likely to be more visible and attractive to turtle hatchlings, or more disruptive to shearwater fledglings than a small area of glow;
- Presence or absence of clouds. Clouds reflect light from distant sources very well, making an inland source highly visible on the coast. Sky glow is a function of cloud height and thickness;
- Qualitative information on the light visible to wildlife. An image of light pollution visible from wildlife habitat can show the spatial extent of light in the sky and direction (see Figure 20) and in some cases provide information on the light source type (i.e. orange sky glow will be caused by high pressure sodium or amber LEDs);
- Emission spectra (colour) of the light. It is particularly important to identify light in the UV-blue region of the visible spectrum since this is the light most visible and disruptive to wildlife; and
- The ability to measure radiometric and photometric light, recognising that photometric light measurements underestimate the short wavelength blue light most visible to wildlife.

## Instrumental Techniques

The science of measuring and monitoring sky brightness or sky glow is complex and poorly understood by most biologists and ecologists. A recent study reviewed the various commercial and experimental instrumental techniques used around the world for quantifying sky glow<sup>43</sup>. The review assessed the benefits and limitations of the various techniques and made recommendations for biologists interested in characterisation of field sites.

Light can be measured in different ways, depending on the objective, landscape scale and point of view and include:

- satellite imagery
- spectrometers
- one dimensional (numerical) instruments
- two dimensional (numerical and imaging) instruments.

## Satellite imagery

Satellite photography has been used to map artificial light at night. Examples are:

- [The New World Atlas of Artificial Night Sky Brightness](#)
- [Light pollution map](#)

**Benefits:** The maps are useful as broad scale indicators of light pollution and for designing biological and light monitoring programs.

**Limitations:** Maps have limited value in quantifying light. The images are a measure of light after it has passed through the atmosphere and been subject to scattering and absorption. They do not give an accurate representation of the light visible to wildlife at ground level. The annual composite images are made from images collected under different atmospheric conditions and therefore they cannot be used to confidently quantify light within or between years.

**This tool is not appropriate for the measurement of light in wildlife monitoring programs.**

## Spectroradiometry

A telescope with a spectrometer collects light data as a spectral power distribution curve which deconstructs light into characteristic wavelengths for a specific light type. Different light types produce a specific spectral signature that can be identified within the visible spectrum.

**Benefits:** This approach can quantify light at specific wavelengths across the entire spectrum (radiometric) so it can measure light visible to wildlife.

**Limitations:** Collection and interpretation of these data requires specialist knowledge and equipment and is expensive. It requires calibration by a specialist knowledgeable in astronomical calibration techniques. It cannot resolve individual light sources, so is a measure of all cumulative light energy in the sky.

**Spectroradiometry can be used with an imaging instrument to measure light visible to wildlife on a local and a landscape scale.**

## One dimensional (numerical) Instruments

These instruments measure sky glow using a single channel, producing a single numerical value to represent sky glow, typically at zenith. Commonly used instruments, their benefits and limitations are discussed below and summarised in Table 1.

### *Sky quality meter (SQM)*

This is a small handheld unit that quantifies the light in an area of sky directly overhead within a 20° field of view. It is simple to use, relatively cheap and portable. It measures photometric

light in units of magSQM/arcsec<sup>2</sup> at relatively low detection limits (i.e. it can measure sky glow). Instrument accuracy is reported at  $\pm 10$  per cent though a calibration study on a group of SQM instruments in 2011 found errors ranging from -16 per cent to +20 per cent<sup>44</sup>. Long term stability of SQMs has not been established.

Reviewers suggest that the first 3-4 measurements from a handheld SQM should be discarded, then the average of four observations should be collected by rotating the SQM 90° after each observation to obtain a value from four different compass directions so that the effects of stray light can be minimised or identified<sup>43</sup>. If the measurements vary by more than 0.2 magSQM/arcsec<sup>2</sup> the data should not be recorded and a new location for measurements selected. Data should not be collected on moonlit nights to avoid stray light influencing the results.

Benefits: The SQM is cheap, easy to use and portable.

Limitations: SQM cannot be used to resolve individual lights, identify light direction nor can it measure light visible to wildlife on the horizon. The precision and accuracy of the instrument can vary substantially and an intercalibration study is recommended to quantify the error of each instrument.

**A sky quality meter can be used to measure sky glow overhead at the wildlife habitat, however, it is important to recognise its limitations and follow the methods recommended by Hänel et al (2017).**

#### *Dark sky meter*

This is an iPhone app developed in the Netherlands.

Benefits: It's cheap and easy to use.

Limitations: It's restricted to Apple iPhones. It will not work on older models and cannot be used to resolve individual lights or identify light direction. It is relatively imprecise and inaccurate and cannot reliably measure light on the horizon.

**A dark sky meter is not appropriate for the measurement of light in wildlife monitoring programs.**

#### *Solar cell-based Lightmeter and Digilum*

These are experimental photometric instruments that are built, calibrated and operated by research groups in Europe.

Benefits: Both instruments report data in lux and have good precision and accuracy.

Limitations: They require specialised knowledge to operate and interpret data. They are expensive (Digilum) or unavailable (Lightmeter) and cannot be used to resolve individual lights or identify light direction nor can they reliably measure light on the horizon.

**A solar cell-based Lightmeter and Digilum is not appropriate for the measurement of light in wildlife monitoring programs.**

### *Lux meters and luminance meters*

These meters measure photometric light.

Benefits: Both are cheap and easy to use.

Limitations: Their detection limits are not low enough to measure typical night sky brightness and therefore cannot measure sky glow for wildlife monitoring purposes.

**Lux and luminance meters are not appropriate for the measurement of light in wildlife monitoring programs.**

### *Two dimensional (Imaging) instruments*

These instruments map and measure the sky brightness by analysing photographic images of the whole sky. The images are processed to derive a luminance value for all or parts of the sky. Commonly used, their benefits and limitations are discussed below and summarised in Table 1.

#### *All-Sky Transmission Monitor (ASTMON)*

This charge-coupled device (CCD) astronomical camera has been modified by the addition of a filter wheel to allow collection across the visible spectrum.

Benefits: The Lite version of the instrument is portable with a weather-proof enclosure and can remain outdoors operating robotically for weeks. It reports data in magnitudes V/arcsec<sup>2</sup> and has good precision and accuracy.

Limitations: The ASTMON is expensive and requires specialised knowledge to operate and interpret data. The software provided is not open source and so cannot be modified to suit individual requirements.

**The ASTMON is not appropriate for the measurement of light in wildlife monitoring programs.**

#### *All Sky Mosaics*

This technique collects whole of sky images by mosaicking 45 images collected using a wide-angle lens. The system comprises a CCD detector, a standard 50 mm lens, an astronomical photometric Bessel V filter with IR blocker and a computer controlled robotic telescope mount. Data collection is managed using a portable computer, commercial software and custom scripts.

Benefits: The precision and accuracy of the system is good, and it is calibrated and standardised for research purposes. The system is best suited for long range monitoring from mountain tops and high-quality dark sites.

Limitations: It is expensive and requires specialised knowledge to operate the system, analyse and interpret data.

**All sky mosaics are not appropriate for the measurement of light in wildlife monitoring programs.**

### *Digital Camera Equipped with Wide Angle and Fisheye Lenses*

Provides quantitative data on the luminance of the sky in a single image.

Benefits: The cameras are easily accessible and portable. When precision is not critical, the directional distribution of night sky brightness can be obtained. As a minimum, the use of a digital camera with a fisheye lens allows for qualitative imagery data to be collected and stored for future reference and data analysis. If standard camera settings are used consistently in all surveys, it is possible to compare images to monitor spatial and temporal changes in sky brightness.

Limitations: Cameras must be calibrated before use and this, together with the specific camera model, will dictate the precision of the measurements. Calibration for data processing requires lens vignetting (also known as flat fielding), geometric distortion, colour sensitivity of the camera, and sensitivity function of the camera. Specialised knowledge is required to process and interpret these images.

Calibrating the camera is difficult and standard methods have not been developed. Laboratory or classical astronomy techniques are used and both require specialist knowledge and expertise to complete. A precision of ~10 per cent can be achieved using this technique.

**A digital camera equipped with wide angle and fisheye lenses is the most appropriate method for measuring light in wildlife monitoring programs.**

### ***Most appropriate instrument for measuring biologically relevant light***

At the time of writing, the digital camera and fisheye lens technique was recommended by Hänel et al (2017) as the best compromise between cost, ease-of-use and amount of information obtained when measuring and monitoring sky glow. Hänel et al (2017) did, however, recognise the urgent need for the development of standard software for calibration and displaying results from light monitoring instruments<sup>43</sup>.

**Table 1 Instrumental light measurement techniques (modified from Hänel et al, 2017<sup>43</sup>).**

Instrument	Measurement Units	Detect Sky Glow	Data Type	Ease of Use	Commercially Available	Data Quality	Price (as at 2018)	Appropriate for wildlife
SAND*	W/(m <sup>2</sup> nm sr)	Yes	Spectral power curve	Spec Knowl	Yes	Mod-high	\$7000	Landscape scale
Sky Quality Meter - SQM	mag <sub>SQM</sub> /arcsec <sup>2</sup>	Yes	Num. Val.	Easy	Yes	Mod	<\$300	Limited
Dark Sky Meter – iPhone app	~mag <sub>SQM</sub> /arcsec <sup>2</sup>	Yes	Num. Val.	Easy	Yes	Low	\$0, iPhone only	No
Digilum	Cd/m <sup>2</sup>	Yes	Num. Val.	Spec Knowl	?	High	~\$16,000	No
Luxmeter	Lux	No	Num. Val.	Easy	Yes	Low	<\$300	No
ASTMON	mag <sub>v</sub> /arcsec <sup>2</sup>	Yes	Image + Num. Val.	Spec Knowl	Yes	High	>\$15,000	No
USNPS, All sky mosaic	cd/m <sup>2</sup> , mag <sub>v</sub> /arcsec <sup>2</sup>	Yes	Image + Num. Val.	Spec Knowl	No	High	~ \$20,000	No
*DSLR + fisheye	~cd/m <sup>2</sup> , ~mag <sub>v</sub> /arcsec <sup>2</sup>	Yes	Image + Num. Val.	Spec Knowl	Yes	Mod-high	>\$2,500	Yes

\* Spectrometer for Aerosol Night Detection (SAND)

\*1D photometric = 1 dimensional photometric numerical values only, 2D photometric = 2 dimensional photometric numerical values and imagery. Num. Val. = Numerical Value: Spec Knowl = Specialist Knowledge required, USNPS = United States National Park Service \* System recommended by Hänel et al, 2017 as the best compromise between cost, ease of use and data.

## Modelling Predicted Light

### *Available commercial light models*

Most modelling software that is currently available is problematic as the models are weighted towards a human perception of light as represented by the CIE/photometric curve and do not account for the light that is most visible to wildlife. For example, most wildlife is sensitive to short wavelength violet and blue light (Figure 17), but little or none of this light is measured by commercial instruments and consequently it is not accounted for in commercial light models.

A second limitation of many commercial light models is the inability to accurately account for environmental factors, such as: atmospheric conditions (moisture, cloud, rain, dust); site topography (hills, sand dunes, beach orientation, vegetation, buildings); other natural sources of light (moon and stars); other artificial sources of light; the spectral output of luminaires; and the distance, elevation, and viewing angle of the observing animal (which will differ between turtle hatchlings and birds, for example). Such a model would involve a level of complexity that science and technology cannot deliver commercially at this time.

A final major limitation is the lack of biological data with which to confidently interpret a model outcome, therefore it is not possible to put a numerical value on how much artificial light is going to cause an impact on a particular species, or age class, over a given distance and under variable environmental conditions.

Recognising these limitations, it can still be valuable to model light during the design phase to test assumptions about the light environment. For example, models could test for the potential for light spill. These assumptions should be confirmed after construction.

## Appendix D – Artificial Light Auditing

**Industry best practice requires onsite inspection of a build to ensure it meets design specifications. An artificial light audit should be undertaken after construction to confirm compliance with the artificial light management plan.**

**An artificial light audit cannot be done by modelling of the as-built design alone and should include a site visit to:**

- **Confirm compliance with the artificial light management plan**
- **Check as-built compliance with engineering design**
- **Gather details on each luminaire in place**
- **Conduct a visual inspection of the facility lighting from the wildlife habitat**
- **Review the artificial light monitoring at the project site**
- **Review artificial light monitoring at the wildlife habitat.**

Following completion of a new project or modification/upgrade of the lighting system of an existing project, the project should be audited to confirm compliance with the artificial light management plan.

### Step-by-Step Guide

The steps required to carry out an artificial light audit include:

- Review of the artificial light management plan
- Review of best practice light management or approval conditions
- Review of as-built drawings for the lighting design
- Check for compliance with the approved pre-construction (front end) lighting design;
- Conduct a site inspection and visually check the placement, number, intensity, spectral power output, orientation, and management of each lamp and lamp type
- Report on the findings and include any non-conformances
- Make recommendations for any improvements or modifications to the lighting design that will decrease the impact on wildlife.

The audit should be conducted by a qualified environmental practitioner/technical specialist during a site visit. The audit should also include:

- A visual inspection of the facility lighting from the location of the wildlife habitat and where feasible the perspective of the wildlife (i.e. sand level for a marine turtle)
- Artificial light monitoring at the project site
- Artificial light monitoring at the wildlife habitat.

A post-construction site visit is critical to ensure no previously unidentified lighting issues are overlooked.

## Appendix E – Artificial Light Management Check List

Table 2 provides a check list of issues to be considered during the environmental assessment of new infrastructure involving artificial light, or upgrades to existing artificial lighting for both proponents and assessors. Table 3 provides a check list of issues to be considered for existing infrastructure with external lighting where listed species are observed to be impacted by artificial light. Relevant sections of the Guidelines are provided for each issue.

**Table 2 Checklist for new developments or lighting upgrades.**

Issue to be considered	Light owner or manager	Regulator	Further information
<i>Pre-development</i>			
What are the regulatory requirements for artificial light for this project?	Is an environmental impact assessment required? What other requirements need to be addressed?	What information should be sought from the proponent as part of the assessment process?	<a href="#">Regulatory considerations for the management of artificial light</a>
Does the lighting design follow principles of best practice?	What is the purpose of the artificial light for this project?	Does the project use the principles of best practice light design?	<a href="#">Best practice light design</a>
What wildlife is likely to be affected by artificial light?	Review species information within 20 km of the proposed development.	Assess species information.	<a href="#">Wildlife and artificial light</a>
What light management and impact mitigation will be implemented?	What light mitigation and management will be most effective for the affected species?	Is the proposed management and mitigation likely to reduce the effect on listed species?	Species specific technical appendices and species expert guidance
How will light be modelled?	Is light modelling appropriate? How will the model be used to inform light management for wildlife?	Are the limitation of light modelling for wildlife appropriately acknowledged?	<a href="#">Modelling predicted light</a>
Have all lighting-relevant considerations been included in the light management plan?	Have all steps in the EIA process been undertaken and documented in the light management plan?	Does the light management plan comprehensively describe all steps in the EIA process?	<a href="#">Environmental impact assessment for effects of artificial light on wildlife</a> <a href="#">Light Management Plan</a>
How will continuous improvement be achieved?	How will light management be evaluated and adapted?	Is a continuous review and improvement process described?	<a href="#">Light Management Plan</a>

Issue to be considered	Light owner or manager	Regulator	Further information
<i>Post development</i>			
How will lighting be measured?	What is the appropriate technique for measuring biologically relevant light?	Ensure appropriate light measurement techniques are used or limitations of methods recognised.	<a href="#">Measuring biologically relevant light</a>
How will lighting be audited?	What is the frequency and framework for in-house light auditing?	How will the results of light audits feedback into a continuous improvement process?	<a href="#">Artificial light auditing</a>
Is artificial light affecting wildlife?	Does the biological monitoring indicate an effect of artificial light on fauna?	How will the results of light audits feedback into a continuous improvement process?	<a href="#">Wildlife and artificial light</a> <a href="#">Light Management Plan</a> <a href="#">Managing existing light pollution</a>
What adaptive management can be introduced?	How will the results of light audits and biological monitoring be used in an adaptive management framework, and how will technological developments be incorporated into artificial light management?	What regulatory mechanisms can be put in place to ensure that approval conditions can adjust to new information? Conditions put in place in 2020 may not be suitable in 2050 for the same project.	<a href="#">Light Management Plan</a>

**Table 3 Checklist for existing infrastructure**

Consideration	Light owner or manager	Regulator	Further information
Are wildlife exhibiting a change in survivorship, behaviour or reproduction that can be attributed to artificial light?	What listed species are found within 20 km of light source? Are there dead animals or are animals displaying behaviour consistent with the effects of artificial light?	Is there evidence to implicate artificial light as the cause of the change in wildlife survivorship, behaviour or reproductive output?  Review existing environmental approvals.	<a href="#">Describe wildlife</a> <a href="#">Wildlife and artificial light</a> <a href="#">Regulatory considerations for the management of light</a>  Species expert advice
Is lighting in the area best practice?	Are there improvements or technological upgrades that could be made to improve artificial light management?	Are there individual light owners or managers who can be approached to modify current lighting?	<a href="#">Principles of best practice light management</a>
Is the light affecting wildlife from a single source or multiple sources?	Are there multiple stakeholders that need to come together to address the cumulative light pollution?	Is there a role for government to facilitate collaboration between light owners and managers to address light pollution?	<a href="#">Managing existing light pollution</a> <a href="#">Light Management Plan</a>
Can appropriate monitoring be undertaken to confirm the role of artificial light in wildlife survivorship, behavioural or reproductive output changes?	How much light is emitted from my property?	Facilitate wildlife monitoring.	<a href="#">Field surveys for wildlife</a> <a href="#">Measuring biologically relevant light</a>  Species expert advice
How will artificial light be audited?	What is the frequency and framework for in-house light auditing?	Can a light audit be undertaken on a regional scale?	<a href="#">Artificial light auditing</a>
What adaptive light management can be introduced?	Are there improvements in lighting technology that can be incorporated into existing lighting?	What changes can be implemented in response to biological monitoring and light audits?	Specialist lighting engineer advice

## Appendix F - Marine Turtles

**Marine turtles nest on sandy beaches in northern Australia. There is a robust body of evidence demonstrating the effect of light on turtle behaviour and survivorship. Light is likely to affect the turtles if it can be seen from the nesting beach.**

**Adult females may be deterred from nesting where artificial light is visible on a nesting beach. Hatchlings may become misoriented or disoriented and be unable to find the sea or successfully disperse to the open ocean. The effect of light on turtle behaviour has been observed in lights up to 18 km away.**

**The physical aspects of light that have the greatest effect on turtles include intensity, colour (wavelength), and elevation above beach. Management of these aspects will help reduce the threat from artificial light.**

Six species of marine turtles are found in Australia: the green (*Chelonia mydas*), loggerhead (*Caretta caretta*), hawksbill (*Eretmochelys imbricata*), olive ridley (*Lepidochelys olivacea*), flatback (*Natator depressus*) and leatherback (*Dermochelys coriacea*) turtles.

Light pollution was identified as a high-risk threat in the *Recovery Plan for Marine Turtles in Australia (2017)* because artificial light can disrupt critical behaviours such as adult nesting and hatchling orientation, sea finding and dispersal, and can reduce the reproductive viability of turtle stocks<sup>45</sup>. A key action identified in the Recovery Plan was the development of guidelines for the management of light pollution in areas adjacent to biologically sensitive turtle habitat.



**Figure 27 Loggerhead turtle. Photo: David Harasti.**

## Conservation Status

Marine turtles in Australia are protected under international treaties and agreements including the Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS, Bonn 1979), the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Flora and Fauna (CITES, Washington 1973), and the CMS Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation and Management of Marine Turtles and their Habitats of the Indian Ocean and South-east Asia (IOSEA, 2005). In Australia, the *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999* (EPBC Act) gives effect to these international obligations.

All six species are listed under the EPBC Act as threatened, migratory and marine species. They are also protected under state and territory legislation.

The *Recovery Plan for Marine Turtles in Australia* (2017) identifies threats to marine turtles and actions required to recover these species<sup>45</sup>. To ensure the maintenance of biodiversity, the Plan considers marine turtles on a genetic stock basis rather than the species level. The Plan found light pollution to be a high-risk threat to five of 22 genetic stocks of marine turtles. The development and implementation of best practice light management guidelines was identified as a key action for promoting the recovery of marine turtles<sup>45</sup>.

## Distribution

Turtle nesting habitats include sub-tropical and tropical mainland and offshore island beaches extending from northern New South Wales on the east coast around northern Australia to Shark Bay in Western Australia. The extent of the known nesting range for each genetic stock can be found on the Department of the Environment and Energy's [Species Profile and Threats Database](#) and in the [Recovery Plan](#)<sup>45</sup>.

### *Timing of nesting and hatching*

Marine turtles nesting in the far north, between the Kimberley and Cape York, typically nest year round, but have a peak during the cooler winter months, while summer nesting is favoured by turtles nesting from the Central Kimberley south in Western Australia and along the Pacific coast of Queensland and Northern New South Wales. Specific timing of nesting and hatching seasons for each stock can be found in the [Recovery Plan](#)<sup>45</sup>.

### *Important habitat for marine turtles*

The effect of artificial lights on turtles is most pronounced at nesting beaches and in the internesting area through which hatchlings travel to reach the ocean. For the purposes of these Guidelines, Important Habitat for turtles includes all areas that have been designated as **Habitat Critical to Survival of Marine Turtles** and **Biologically Important Areas (BIAs)**, or in Queensland areas identified under local planning schemes as **Sea Turtle Sensitive Areas**.

- **Habitat Critical to the Survival of Marine Turtles** was identified for each stock as part of the development of the [Recovery Plan for Marine Turtles in Australia \(2017\)](#). Nesting and internesting areas designated as Habitat Critical to the Survival of Marine Turtles can be found in the Recovery Plan or through the Department of the Environment and Energy's [National Conservation Values Atlas](#).

- **Biologically Important Areas** (BIAs) are areas where listed threatened and migratory species display biologically important behaviour such as breeding, foraging, resting and migration. BIAs of highest relevance for the consideration of light impacts are nesting and internesting BIAs for each species. Marine turtle BIAs can be explored through the Department of the Environment and Energy's [National Conservation Values Atlas](#).
  - The presence of a BIA recognises that biologically important behaviours are known to occur, but the absence of such a designation does not preclude the area from being a BIA. Where field surveys identify biologically important behaviour occurring, the habitat should be managed accordingly.
- **Sea Turtle Sensitive Areas** have been defined in local government planning schemes in accordance with the Queensland Government Sea Turtle Sensitive Area Code. These may be shown in local government biodiversity of coastal protection overlay maps in the planning scheme.

## Effects of Artificial Light on Marine Turtles

The effect of artificial light on turtle behaviour has been recognised since 1911<sup>46</sup> and since then a substantial body of research has focused on how light affects turtles and its effect on turtle populations - for review see Witherington and Martin (2003)<sup>3</sup>; Lohmann et al (1997)<sup>42</sup>; and Salmon (2003)<sup>47</sup>. The global increase in light pollution from urbanisation and coastal development<sup>48</sup> is of particular concern for turtles in Australia since their important nesting habitat frequently overlaps with areas of large-scale urban and industrial development<sup>49</sup>, which have the potential to emit a large amount of light, including direct light, reflected light, sky glow and gas flares<sup>50,51</sup>. Nesting areas on the North West Shelf of Western Australia and along the south-eastern coast of Queensland were found to be at the greatest risk from artificial light<sup>49</sup>.

### *Effect of artificial light on nesting turtles*

Although they spend most of their lives in the ocean, females nest on sandy tropical and subtropical beaches, predominantly at night. They rely on visual cues to select nesting beaches and orient on land. Artificial night lighting on or near beaches has been shown to disrupt nesting behaviour<sup>3</sup>. Beaches with artificial light, such as urban developments, roadways, and piers typically have lower densities of nesting females than dark beaches<sup>47,52</sup>.

Some light types do not appear to affect nesting densities (Low Pressure Sodium, LPS, and filtered High Pressure Sodium, HPS), which excluded wavelengths below 540 nm)<sup>53</sup>. On beaches exposed to light, females will nest in higher numbers in areas that are shadowed<sup>54</sup>. Moving sources of artificial light may also deter nesting or cause disturbance to nesting females (e.g. flash photography)<sup>36</sup>.

### *Effect of artificial light on hatchlings emerging from the nest*

Most hatchling turtles emerge at night<sup>55</sup> and must rapidly reach the ocean to avoid predation<sup>36</sup>. Hatchlings locate the ocean using a combination of topographic and brightness cues, orienting towards the lower, brighter oceanic horizon and away from elevated darkened silhouettes of dunes and/or vegetation behind the beach<sup>34,42,56</sup>. Sound and beach slope are secondary cues that are overruled by light<sup>42</sup>.

Sea finding behaviour may be disrupted by artificial lights, including flares<sup>50</sup>, which interfere with natural lighting and silhouettes<sup>3,23,34</sup>. Artificial lighting may adversely affect hatchling sea finding behaviour in two ways: disorientation - where hatchlings crawl on circuitous paths; or misorientation - where they move in the wrong direction, possibly attracted to artificial lights<sup>3,36</sup>. On land, movement of hatchlings in a direction other than the sea often leads to death from predation, exhaustion, dehydration, or being crushed by vehicles on roads<sup>57</sup>.

### ***Wavelength, intensity and direction***

Brightness is recognised as an important cue for hatchlings as they attempt to orient toward the ocean. Brightness refers to the intensity and wavelength of light relative to the spectral sensitivity of the receiving eye<sup>3</sup>. Both field and laboratory-based studies indicate that hatchlings have a strong tendency to orient towards the brightest direction. The brightest direction on a naturally dark beaches is typically towards the ocean where the horizon is open and unhindered by dune or vegetation shadows.

The attractiveness of hatchlings to light differs by species<sup>51,58,59</sup>, but in general, artificial lights most disruptive to hatchlings are those rich in short wavelength blue and green light (e.g. metal halide, mercury vapour, fluorescent and LED)<sup>51,60</sup> and lights least disruptive are those emitting long wavelength pure yellow-orange light (e.g. high or low pressure sodium vapour). Loggerhead turtles are particularly attracted to light at 580 nm<sup>61</sup>, green and flatback turtles are attracted to light <600 nm with a preference to blue light (400 – 450 nm) over longer wavelength light<sup>51,60</sup>, while flatback turtles are also attracted to light in the ultra violet range (365 – 400 nm<sup>60</sup>). Metal halide lighting has been found to be particularly disruptive to flatback turtle hatchlings on land, even at low intensities, as it is enriched in short wavelength light<sup>34</sup>.

Although longer wavelengths of light are less attractive than shorter wavelengths, they can still disrupt sea finding<sup>34,51,62</sup>, and if bright enough can elicit a similar response to shorter wavelength light<sup>63,64</sup>. Hence, the disruptive effect of light on hatchlings is also strongly correlated with intensity. Red light must be almost 600 times more intense than blue light before green turtle hatchlings show an equal preference for the two colours<sup>64</sup>. It is therefore important to consider both the wavelength and the intensity of the light.

Since the sun or moon may rise behind the dunes on some nesting beaches, hatchlings attracted to these point sources of light would fail to reach the ocean. Hatchlings orientate themselves by integrating light across a horizontally broad (180° for green, olive ridley and loggerhead turtles) and vertically narrow (“few degrees” for green and olive ridleys, and 10° - 30° for loggerheads) “cone of acceptance” or “range of vision”. This integration ensures that light closest to the horizon plays the greatest role in determining orientation direction, so it is important to consider the type and direction of light that reaches the hatchling<sup>42</sup>.

As a result of these sensitivities, hatchlings have been observed to respond to artificial light up to 18 km away during sea finding<sup>23</sup>.

### ***Shape and form***

Horizon brightness and elevation are also important cues for hatchling orientation. In laboratory and field studies hatchlings move away from elevated horizons and towards the lowest bright horizon<sup>56,65</sup>. However, in situations where both cues are present, hatchlings are more responsive to the effects of silhouettes and darkened horizon elevation than to

differences in brightness. On a natural beach this behaviour would direct the hatchlings away from dunes and vegetation and towards the more open horizon over the ocean.

This hypothesis has been supported by field experiments where hatchling sea finding was significantly less ocean oriented when exposed to light at 2° elevation compared with 16° elevation, emphasising the importance of horizon elevation cues in hatchling sea-finding<sup>34</sup>.

### ***Effect of artificial light on hatchlings in nearshore waters***

Artificial lights on land can also interfere with the dispersal of hatchlings swimming through nearshore waters. Lights can slow their in-water dispersal<sup>59,66</sup>, increase their dispersion path<sup>59</sup> or even attract hatchlings back to shore<sup>67</sup>. In addition to interfering with swimming it can influence predation rates, where hatchlings were predated more in areas with significant sky glow<sup>68,69</sup>. Since the nearshore area tends to be predator-rich, hatchling survival may depend on them rapidly leaving this area<sup>68</sup>.

At sea, hatchlings have been reported swimming around lights on boats<sup>30,70</sup> and in laboratory studies lights have attracted swimming hatchlings<sup>71</sup>. Recent advances in acoustic technology has allowed hatchlings to be tracked at sea, demonstrating that hatchlings are attracted to lights at sea and spend longer in the nearshore environment when lights are present<sup>66,72</sup>. In one study, approximately 80 per cent of hatchlings oriented towards a metal halide light and became trapped in the light spill, while 60 per cent of hatchlings were attracted to longer wavelength high pressure sodium light<sup>66</sup>. This can become a more serious problem when light sources are associated with structures that also attract fish (such as jetties), as there will be increased predation<sup>21</sup>.

Hatchling's attraction to white LEDs increases with increasing intensity. Recent studies on the effects of light intensity on hatchlings in the water found olive ridley hatchlings were attracted to low intensity green and yellow lights, and to high intensity red lights while swimming<sup>73</sup>. And a field study investigating five different intensities of white LEDs located on a boat found an increase in hatchling attraction with increasing LED intensity during their nearshore transit (Wilson et al. unpublished data). This study also provided evidence that the presence of artificial light (white LEDs) contributed to an increase in predator encounter rates, with the highest rates in the brightest (120 watt) treatment.

## **Environmental Impact Assessment of Artificial Light on Marine Turtles**

Infrastructure with artificial lighting that is externally visible should implement [Best Practice Lighting Design](#) as a minimum. Where there is important habitat for turtles within 20 km of a project, an EIA should be undertaken. The following sections step through the [EIA process](#) with specific consideration for turtles.

The 20 km buffer required for considering important habitat is based on sky glow approximately 13 km from the nesting beach affecting flatback hatchling behaviour<sup>23</sup> and light from an aluminium refinery disrupting turtle orientation 18 km away<sup>24</sup>.

Where artificial light is likely to affect marine turtles, consideration should be given to employing mitigation measures as early as possible in a project's life cycle and used to inform the design phase.

## ***Associated guidance***

- [Recovery Plan for Marine Turtles in Australia \(2017\)](#)
- [Single Species Action Plan for the Loggerhead Turtle \(\*Caretta caretta\*\) in the South Pacific Ocean](#)
- [Queensland Government Sea Turtle Sensitive Area Code](#)

## ***Qualified personnel***

Lighting design/management and the EIA process should be undertaken by appropriately qualified personnel. Light management plans should be developed and reviewed by appropriately qualified lighting practitioners who should consult with an appropriately qualified marine biologist or ecologist. Methods that lower the impact of artificial light on turtles should be incorporated into the lighting design process and reduce the need to refer the activity for environmental approval.

People advising on the development of a lighting management plan, or the preparation of reports assessing the impact of artificial light on marine turtles should have qualifications equivalent to:

- a tertiary qualified marine turtle biologist; or
- publication on a relevant topic in peer reviewed literature within the past five years; or
- a member of the IUCN Marine Turtle Specialist Group.

## ***Step 1: Describe the project lighting***

Information collated during this step should consider the [Effects of Light on Marine Turtles](#). Turtles are susceptible to the effect of light on beaches and in the water, so the location and light source (both direct and sky glow) should be considered. Turtles are most sensitive to short wavelength (blue/green) light and high intensity light of all wavelengths. Hatchlings are most susceptible to light low on the horizon. They orient away from tall dark horizons so the presence of dunes and/or a vegetation buffer behind the beach should be considered at the design phase.

## ***Step 2: Describe marine turtle population and behaviour***

The species and the genetic stock nesting in the area of interest should be described. This should include the conservation status of the species; stock trends (where known); how widespread/localised nesting for that stock is; the abundance of turtles nesting at the location; the regional importance of this nesting beach; and the seasonality of nesting/hatching.

Relevant species and stock specific information can be found in the [Recovery Plan for Marine Turtles in Australia \(2017\)](#), [Protected Matters Search Tool](#), [National Conservation Values Atlas](#) state and territory protected species information; scientific literature and local/Indigenous knowledge.

Where there is insufficient data to understand the population importance or demographics, or where it is necessary to document existing turtle behaviour, field surveys and biological monitoring may be necessary.

#### *Biological monitoring of marine turtles*

Any monitoring associated with a project should be carried out by appropriately [qualified personnel](#) to ensure reliability of the data.

The objectives of turtle monitoring in an area likely to be affected by artificial light are to:

- understand the size and importance of the population;
- describe turtle behaviour before the introduction/upgrade of light; and
- assess nesting and hatchling orientation behaviour to determine the cause of apparent misorientation or disorientation.

The data will be used to inform the EIA and assess whether mitigation measures are successful. Suggested minimum monitoring parameters (what is measured) and techniques (how to measure them) are summarised in Table 4.

As a minimum, qualitative descriptive data on visible light types, location and directivity should also be collected at the same time as the biological data. Handheld-camera images can help describe the light. Quantitative data on existing sky glow should be collected, if possible, in a biologically meaningful way, recognising the technical difficulties in obtaining these data. See [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#) for a review.

**Table 4 Recommended minimum biological information required to assess the importance of a marine turtle population and existing behaviour, noting that the risk assessment will guide the extent of monitoring required (e.g. a large source of light visible over a broad spatial scale will require monitoring of multiple beaches whereas a smaller localised source of light may require fewer beaches to be monitored).**

Target Age Class	Survey Effort	Duration	Reference
Adult Nesting	<p>Daily track census over 1–1.5 internesting cycles at peak of the nesting season (14–21 days).</p> <p>If the peak nesting period for this population/at this location has not been defined, then a study should be designed in consultation with a qualified turtle biologist to determine the temporal extent of activity (i.e. systematic monthly surveys over a 12-month period).</p>	Minimum two breeding seasons	<p>Eckert et al (1999)<sup>74</sup></p> <p>Pendoley et al (2016)<sup>75</sup></p> <p><a href="#">Queensland Marine Turtle Field Guide</a></p> <p><a href="#">NWSFTCP Turtle Monitoring Field Guide</a></p> <p><a href="#">Ningaloo Turtle Monitoring Field Guide</a></p>
Hatchling Orientation	Hatchling fan monitoring. Minimum of 14 days over a new moon phase about 50 days* after the peak of adult nesting.	Minimum two breeding seasons	<p>Pendoley (2005)<sup>51</sup></p> <p>Kamrowski et al (2014)<sup>23</sup></p> <p>Witherington (1997)<sup>76</sup></p>

\*Incubation time will be stock specific. Consult the Recovery Plan for Marine Turtles in Australia for stock specific information.

To understand existing hatchling behaviour, it will be necessary to undertake hatchling fan monitoring (or similar approach) to determine hatchling ability to locate the ocean prior to construction/lighting upgrades.

A well-designed monitoring program will capture:

- hatchling behaviour<sup>23,51,76</sup> at the light exposed beach and a control beach
- hatchling behaviour before project construction begins to establish a benchmark to measure against possible changes during construction and operations
- hatchling behaviour on a new moon to reduce the influence of moonlight and capture any worst case scenario effects of artificial light on hatching orientation
- hatchling behaviour on full moon nights to assess the relative contribution of the artificial light to the existing illuminated night sky.

Ideally, survey design will ensure that hatchling orientation and artificial light data sets can be integrated for meaningful analysis and interpretation of findings.

### ***Step 3: Risk assessment***

The [Recovery Plan](#) states that management of light should ensure turtles are not displaced from habitat critical to their survival and that anthropogenic activities in biologically important areas are managed so that the biologically important behaviour can continue. These consequences should be considered in the assessment process. The aim is to ensure that at important nesting beaches females continue to nest on the beach, post nesting females return to the ocean successfully and hatchlings orient in a seaward direction.

Consideration should be given to the relative importance of the site for nesting. For example, if this is the only site at which a stock nests, a higher consequence rating should result from the effects of light

In considering the likely effect of light on turtles, the risk assessment should consider the existing light environment, the proposed lighting design and mitigation/management, and the behaviour of turtles at the location. Consideration should be given to how the turtles will perceive light. This should include wavelength and intensity information as well as perspective. To assess how/whether turtles are likely to see light, a site visit should be made at night and the area viewed from the beach (approximately 10 cm above the sand) as this will be the perspective of the nesting turtles and emerging hatchlings. Similarly, consideration should be given to how turtles (both adults and hatchlings) will see light when in nearshore water.

Using this perspective, the type and number of lights should be considered/modelled to determine whether turtles are likely to be able to perceive light and what the consequence of the light on their behaviour is likely to be.

### ***Step 4: Light management plan***

A light management plan for marine turtles should include all relevant project information (Step 1) and biological information (Step 2). It should outline proposed mitigation. For a range of specific mitigation measures see the [Mitigation Toolbox](#) below. The plan should also outline the type and schedule for biological and light monitoring to ensure mitigation is meeting the objectives of the plan and triggers for revisiting the risk assessment phase of the EIA. The plan should outline contingency options if biological and light monitoring or compliance audits indicate that mitigation is not meeting the objectives of the plan (e.g. light is visible on the nesting beach or changes in nesting/hatchling behaviour are observed).

### ***Step 5: Biological and light monitoring and auditing***

The success of risk mitigation and light management should be confirmed through monitoring and compliance auditing. The results should be used to inform continuous improvement.

Relevant biological monitoring is described in [Step 2: Describe marine turtle population and behaviour](#) above. Concurrent light monitoring should be undertaken and interpreted in the context of how turtles perceive light and within the limitations of monitoring techniques described in [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#). [Auditing](#) as described in the light management plan should be undertaken.

## Marine Turtle Light Mitigation Toolbox

Appropriate lighting design/lighting controls and light impact mitigation will be site/project and species specific. Table 5 provides a toolbox of options for use around important habitat. These options would be implemented in addition to the six [Best Practice Light Design](#) principles. Not all mitigation options will be required for every project. Table 6 provides a suggested list of light types appropriate for use near turtle nesting beaches and those to avoid.

One of the most effective approaches for management of light near important nesting beaches is to ensure there is a tall dark horizon behind the beach such as dunes and/or a natural vegetation screen.

**Table 5 Light management options specific to marine turtle nesting beaches.**

Management Action	Detail
Implement light management actions during the nesting and hatching season.	Peak nesting season for each stock can be found in the <a href="#">Recovery Plan for Marine Turtles in Australia</a> <sup>45</sup> .
Avoid direct light shining onto a nesting beach or out into the ocean adjacent to a nesting beach.	Adult turtles nest in lower numbers at lit beaches <sup>14</sup> .
Maintain a dune and/or vegetation screen between the nesting habitat and inland sources of light.	Hatchlings orient towards the ocean by crawling away from the tall, dark horizon provided by a dune line and/or tree screen.
Maintain a dark zone between turtle nesting beach and industrial infrastructure	Avoid installing artificial light within 1.5 km of an industrial development <sup>63</sup> .
Install light fixtures as close to the ground as practicable.	Any new lighting should be installed close to the ground and reduce the height of existing lights to the extent practicable to minimise light spill and light glow.
Use curfews to manage lighting.	Extinguish lights around nesting beaches by 10 pm.
Aim lights downwards and direct them away from nesting beaches.	Aim light onto the exact surface area requiring illumination. Use shielding on lights to prevent light spill into the air and outside the footprint of the target area.
Use flashing/intermittent lights instead of fixed beam.	For example, small red flashing lights can be used to identify an entrance or delineate a pathway.
Use motion sensors to turn on lights only when needed.	For example, motion sensors could be used for pedestrian or street lighting near a nesting beach.
Prevent indoor lighting reaching beach.	Use fixed window screens or window tinting on fixed windows and skylights to contain light inside buildings.
Limit the number of beach access areas or construct beach access such that artificial light is not visible through the access point.	Beach access points often provide a break in dune or vegetation that protects the beach from artificial light. By limiting the number of access points or making the access path wind through the vegetation, screen light spill can be mitigated.
Work collectively with surrounding industry/private land holders to address the cumulative effect of artificial lights.	Problematic sky glow may not be caused by any one light owner/manager; by working with other industry/stakeholders to address light pollution, the effect of artificial light may be reduced more effectively.
Manage artificial light at sea, including on vessels, jetties and marinas.	Hatchlings are attracted to, and trapped by, light spill in the water.

Management Action	Detail
Reduce unnecessary lighting at sea.	Extinguish vessel deck lights to minimum required for human safety and when not necessary. Restrict lighting at night to navigation lights only.
Avoid shining light directly onto longlines and/or illuminating baits in the water.	Light on the water can trap hatchlings, delaying their transit through nearshore waters, consuming their energy reserves and exposing them to predators.
Avoid lights containing short wavelength violet/blue light.	Lights rich in blue light include; metal halides, fluorescent, halogens, mercury vapour and most LEDs.
Avoid white LEDs.	Ask supplier for an LED light with little or no blue in it or only use LEDs filtered to block the blue light. This can be checked by examining the spectral power curve for the globe.
Avoid high intensity light of any colour.	Keep light intensity as low as possible in the vicinity of nesting beaches. Hatchlings can see all wavelengths of light and will be attracted to long wavelength amber and red light as well as the highly visible white and blue light, especially if there is a large difference between the light intensity and the ambient dark beach environment.
Shield gas flares and locate inland and away from nesting beach.	Manage gas flare light emissions by: reducing gas flow rates to minimise light emissions; shielding the flame behind a containment structure; elevating glow from the shielded flare more than 30° above hatchling field of view; containing pilot flame for flare within shielding; and scheduling maintenance activity requiring flaring outside of turtle hatchling season.
Industrial/port or other facilities requiring intermittent night-time light for inspections should keep the site dark and only light specific areas when required.	Use amber/orange explosion proof LEDs with Smart lighting controls and/or motions sensors. LEDs have no warmup or cool down limitations so can remain off until needed and provide instant light when required for routine nightly inspections or in the event of an emergency.
Industrial site/plant operators to use head torches.	Consider providing plant operators with white head torches (explosion proof torches are available) for situations where white light is needed to detect colour correctly or when there is an emergency evacuation.
Supplement facility perimeter security lighting with computer monitored infra-red detection systems.	Perimeter lighting can be operated if night-time illumination is necessary, but remain off at other times.
No light source should be directly visible from the beach.	Any light that is directly visible to a person standing on a nesting beach will be visible to a hatchling and should be modified to prevent it being seen.
Manage light from remote regional sources (up to 20km away).	Consider light sources up to 20 km away from the nesting beach, assess the relative visibility and scale of the night sky illuminated by the light e.g. is a regional city illuminating large area of the horizon and what management actions can be taken locally to reduce the effect i.e. protect or improve dune systems or plant vegetation screening in the direction of the light.

**Table 6** Where all other mitigation options have been exhausted and there is a human safety need for artificial light, this table provides commercial luminaire types that are considered appropriate for use near important marine turtles nesting habitat and those to avoid.

Light type	Suitability for use near marine turtle habitat
Low Pressure Sodium Vapour	✓
High Pressure Sodium Vapour	✓
Filtered* LED	✓
Filtered* metal halide	✓
Filtered* white LED	✓
White LED	✗
Metal halide	✗
White fluorescent	✗
Halogen	✗
Mercury vapour	✗

\* 'Filtered' means LEDs can be used *only* if a filter is applied to remove the short wavelength light.

## Appendix G - Seabirds

**Seabirds spend most of their lives at sea, only coming ashore to nest. All species are vulnerable to the effects of lighting. Seabirds active at night while migrating, foraging or returning to colonies are most at risk.**

**Fledglings are more affected by artificial lighting than adults due to the synchronised mass exodus of fledglings from their nesting sites. They can be affected by lights up to 15 km away.**

**The physical aspects of light that have the greatest impact on seabirds include intensity and colour (wavelength). Consequently, management of these aspects of artificial light will have the most effective result.**

Seabirds are birds that are adapted to life in the marine environment (Figure 28). They can be highly pelagic, coastal, or in some cases spend a part of the year away from the sea entirely. They feed from the ocean either at or near the sea surface. In general, seabirds live longer, breed later and have fewer young than other birds and invest a great deal of energy in their young. Most species nest in colonies, which can vary in size from a few dozen birds to millions. Many species undertake long annual migrations, crossing the equator or circumnavigating the Earth in some cases<sup>77</sup>.

Artificial light can disorient seabirds and potentially cause injury and/or death through collision with infrastructure. Birds may starve as a result of disruption to foraging, hampering their ability to prepare for breeding or migration. High mortality of seabirds occurs through grounding of fledglings as a result of attraction to lights<sup>4</sup> and through interaction with vessels at sea.



**Figure 28 Flesh-footed Shearwater at sunset. Photo: Richard Freeman.**

## Conservation Status

Migratory seabird species in Australia are protected under international treaties and agreements including the *Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals* (CMS, Bonn Convention), the *Ramsar Convention on Wetlands*, the *Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels* (ACAP), and through the East Asian - Australasian Flyway Partnership (the Flyway Partnership). The Australian Government has bilateral migratory bird agreements with Japan (Japan-Australia Migratory Bird Agreement, JAMBA), China (China-Australia Migratory Bird Agreement, CAMBA), and the Republic of Korea (Republic of Korea-Australia Migratory Bird Agreement, ROKAMBA). In Australia the *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999* (EPBC Act) gives effect to these international obligations. Many seabirds are also protected under state and territory environmental legislation.

An estimated 15.5 million pairs of seabirds, from 43 species, breed at mainland and island rookeries<sup>4</sup>. Of the 43 species, 35 are listed as threatened and/or migratory under the EPBC Act. Of the 35 EPBC Act listed species, 90 per cent are Procellariiformes (petrels, shearwaters, storm petrels, gadfly petrels and diving petrels) that breed in burrows, only attend breeding colonies at night<sup>78</sup>, and are consequently most at risk from the effects of artificial light. Short-tailed Shearwaters comprise 77 per cent (11.9 million pairs) of the total breeding seabird pairs.

## Distribution

Seabirds in Australia belong to both migratory and residential breeding species. Most breeding species include both temperate and tropical shearwaters and terns that undergo extensive migrations to wintering areas outside Australia's Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ). However, there are significant numbers of residential species that remain within the EEZ throughout the year and undergo shorter migrations to non-breeding foraging grounds within the EEZ.

### *Timing of habitat use*

Most seabird breeding occurs during the austral spring/summer (September-January), but may extend in some species to April/May. The exceptions are the austral winter breeders, a handful of species largely comprised of petrels that may commence nesting in June. Breeding occurs almost exclusively on many of the offshore continental islands that surround Australia. Seabirds spend most of their time flying, at sea, and so are usually found on breeding islands only during the breeding season, or along mainland coastal sand bars and spits or island shorelines when roosting during their non-breeding period.

## ***Important habitat for seabirds***

Seabirds may be affected by artificial light at breeding areas, while foraging and migrating. For the purposes of these Guidelines, Important Habitat for seabirds includes all areas that have been designated as Habitat Critical to the Survival of Seabirds and Biologically Important Areas (BIAs) and those areas designated as important habitat in wildlife conservation plans and in species specific conservation advice.

- The [National Recovery Plan for Threatened Albatrosses and Giant Petrels 2011-2016](#)<sup>\*</sup> provides designated Habitat Critical to the Survival of affected species. Where a recovery plan is not in force for a listed threatened species, please see relevant approved conservation advice.
- Actions in Antarctica should consider [Important Bird Areas in Antarctica](#)<sup>79</sup>.
- Biologically Important Areas (BIAs) are areas where listed threatened and migratory species display biologically important behaviour, such as breeding, foraging, resting and migration. Seabird BIAs can be explored through the Department of the Environment and Energy's [National Conservation Values Atlas](#).
  - The presence of a BIA recognises that biologically important behaviours are known to occur, but the absence of such a designation does not preclude the area from being a BIA. Where field surveys identify biologically important behaviour occurring, the habitat should be managed accordingly.

## **Effects of Artificial Light on Seabirds**

Seabirds have been affected by artificial light sources for centuries. Humans used fire to attract seabirds to hunt them for food<sup>80</sup> and reports of collisions with lighthouses date back to 1880<sup>81</sup>. More recently artificial light associated with the rapid urbanisation of coastal areas has been linked to increased seabird mortality<sup>82</sup> and today, 56 petrel species worldwide are known to be affected by artificial lighting<sup>4,28</sup>. Artificial light can disorient seabirds causing collision, entrapment, stranding, grounding, and interference with navigation (being drawn off course from usual migration route). These behavioural responses may cause injury and/or death.

All species active at night are vulnerable as artificial light can disrupt their ability to orient towards the sea. Problematic sources of artificial light include coastal residential and hotel developments, street lighting, vehicle lights, sporting facility floodlights, vessel deck and search lights, cruise ships, fishing vessels, gas flares, commercial squid vessels, security lighting, navigation aids and lighthouses<sup>28,82-88</sup>. Seabirds, particularly petrel species in the Southern Ocean, can be disoriented by vessel lighting and may land on the deck, from which they are unable to take off. The effect of artificial light may be exacerbated by moon phase<sup>85</sup>, wind direction and strength<sup>25,89</sup>, precipitation, cloud cover and the proximity of nesting sites or migrating sites to artificial light sources<sup>90-92</sup>. The degree of disruption is determined by a combination of physical, biological and environmental factors including the location, visibility, colour and intensity of the light, its proximity to other infrastructure, landscape topography, moon phase, atmospheric and weather conditions and the of the bird.

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<sup>\*</sup> This legislative instrument is in force until 2021.

Seabirds that are active at night while migrating, foraging or returning to colonies and are directly affected include petrels, shearwaters, albatross, noddies, terns and some penguin species. Less studied are the effects of light on the colony attendance of nocturnal Procellariiformes, which could lead to higher predation risks by gulls, skuas or other diurnal predators, and the effects on species that are active during the day, including extending their activities into the night as artificial light increases perceived daylight hours.

High rates of fallout, or the collision of birds with structures, has been reported in seabirds nesting adjacent to urban or developed areas<sup>4,93,94</sup> and at sea where seabirds interact with offshore oil and gas platforms<sup>95,96</sup>. A report on interactions with oil and gas platforms in the North Sea identified light as the likely cause of hundreds of thousands of bird deaths annually. It noted that this could be a site specific impact<sup>97</sup>.

Gas flares also affect seabirds. One anecdote describes 24 burnt carcasses of seabirds (wedge-tailed shearwaters) in and around an open pit gas flare. The birds were likely to have been attracted to the light and noise of the flare and as they circled the source, became engulfed, combusting in the super-heated air above the flame (pers. obs. K Pendoley, 1992).

### ***Mechanisms by which light affects seabirds***

Most seabirds are diurnal. They rest during dark hours and have less exposure to artificial light. Among species with a nocturnal component to their life cycle, artificial light affects the adult and fledgling differently.

Adults are less affected by artificial light. Many Procellariiformes species (i.e. shearwaters, storm petrels, gadfly petrels) are vulnerable during nocturnal activities, which make up part of the annual breeding cycle. Adult Procellariiformes species are vulnerable when returning to and leaving the nesting colony. They may leave or enter to re-establish their pair bonds with breeding partners, repair nesting burrows, defend nesting sites or to forage. Adults feed their chick by regurgitating partially digested food<sup>98</sup>. A recent study shows artificial light disrupts adult nest attendance and thus affects weight gain in chicks<sup>99</sup>.

Fledglings are more vulnerable due to the naivety of their first flight, the immature development of ganglions in the eye at fledging and the potential connection between light and food<sup>93,100</sup>. Burrow-nesting seabirds are typically exposed to light streaming in from the burrow entrance during the day. The young are fed by parents who enter the burrow from the entrance and this creates an association between light and food in newly fledged birds<sup>28</sup>. Much of the literature concerning the effect of lighting upon seabirds relates to the synchronised mass exodus of fledglings from their nesting sites<sup>85,87,90,91,101,102</sup>. Fledging Procellariiformes leave the nesting colony for the sea at night<sup>78</sup>, returning to breed several years later. In Australia, the main fledgling period of shearwaters occurs in April/May<sup>103</sup>.

Emergence during darkness is believed to be a predator-avoidance strategy<sup>104</sup> and artificial lighting may make the fledglings more vulnerable to predation<sup>102</sup>. Artificial lights are thought to override the sea-finding cues provided by the moon and star light at the horizon<sup>105</sup> and fledglings can be attracted back to onshore lights after reaching the sea<sup>25,94</sup>. It is possible that fledglings that survive their offshore migration cannot imprint their natal colony, preventing them from returning to nest when they mature<sup>87</sup>. The consequences of exposure to artificial light on the viability of a breeding population of seabirds is unknown<sup>106</sup>.

## Eye structure and sensitivities

Seabirds, like most vertebrates, have an eye that is well adapted to see colour. Typically, diurnal birds have six photoreceptor cells which are sensitive to different regions of the visible spectrum<sup>107</sup>. All seabirds are sensitive to the violet – blue region of the visible spectrum (380 - 440 nm)<sup>108</sup>. The eyes of the Black Noddy (*Anous minutus*) and Wedge-tailed Shearwaters (*Puffinus pacificus*) are characterised by a high proportion of cones sensitive to shorter wavelengths<sup>109</sup>. This adaptation is likely due to the need to see underwater, and the optimum wavelength for vision in clear blue oceanic water is between 425 and 500 nm. There is no ecological advantage to having many long-wavelength-sensitive photoreceptors in species foraging in this habitat<sup>109</sup>.

Many diurnal birds can see in the UV range (less than 380 nm<sup>110</sup>), however, of the 300 seabird species, only 17 have UV sensitive vision<sup>108</sup>. In all seabirds, their photopic vision (daylight adapted) is most sensitive in the long wavelength range of the visible spectrum (590 – 740 nm, orange to red) while their scotopic (dark adapted) vision is more sensitive to short wavelengths of light (380 – 485 nm, violet to blue).

Petrel vision is most sensitive to light in the short wavelength blue (400 – 500 nm), region of the visible spectrum. Relative to diurnal seabirds, such as gulls and terns, petrels have a higher number of short wavelength sensitive cones. This is thought to be an adaptation that increases prey visibility against a blue-water foraging field favoured by petrels<sup>109</sup>.

Little has been published on vision in penguins. Penguins are visual foragers with the success of fish capture linked directly to the amount of light present<sup>111</sup>. The eyes of the Humbolt Penguin (*Spheniscus humboldti*) are adapted to the aquatic environment, seeing well in the violet to blue to green region of the spectrum, but poorly in the long wavelengths (red)<sup>112</sup>.

## Wavelength, intensity and direction

The intensity of light may be a more important cue than colour for seabirds. Very bright light will attract them, regardless of colour<sup>87</sup>. There are numerous, although sometimes conflicting, reports of the attractiveness of different wavelengths of artificial light to seabirds. White light has the greatest effect on seabirds as it contains all wavelengths of light<sup>7,85,113</sup>. Seabirds have reportedly been attracted to the yellow/orange colour of fire<sup>80</sup>, while white Mercury Vapour and broad-spectrum LED is more attractive to Barau's Petrel (*Pterodroma baraui*) and Hutton's Shearwater (*Puffinus huttoni*) than either Low or High-Pressure Sodium Vapour lights<sup>85</sup>. Bright white deck lights and spot lights on fishing vessels attract seabirds at night, particularly on nights with little moon light or low visibility<sup>84,86,93</sup>.

A controlled field experiment on Short-tailed Shearwaters at Phillip Island tested the effect of metal halide, LED and HPS lights on fledging groundings<sup>29</sup>. The results suggested the shearwaters were more sensitive to the wider emission spectrum and higher blue content of metal halide and LED lights relative than to HPS light. The authors strongly recommended using HPS, or filtered LED and metal halide lights with purpose designed LED filters to remove short wavelength light for use in the vicinity of shearwater colonies<sup>29</sup>.

The first studies of penguins exposed to artificial light at a naturally dark site found they preferred lit paths over dark paths to reach their nests<sup>114</sup>. While artificial light might enhance penguin vision at night, reducing predation risk and making it easier for them to find their way, the proven attraction to light could attract them to undesirable lit areas. This study concluded

that the penguins were habituated to artificial lights and were unaffected by a 15 lux increase in artificial illumination<sup>114</sup>. However, the authors were unable to rule out an effect of artificial light on penguin behaviour due natural differences between the sites; potential complexity of penguin response to the interaction between artificial light and moonlight; and probable habituation of penguins to artificial lights.

## Environmental Impact Assessment of Artificial Light on Seabirds

As a minimum, infrastructure with artificial lighting that is externally visible should have [Best Practice Lighting Design](#) implemented. Where there is important habitat for seabirds within 20 km of a project, an EIA should be undertaken. The following sections step through the [EIA process](#) with specific consideration for seabirds.

The 20 km buffer required for considering important seabird habitat is based on the observed grounding of seabirds in response to a light source at least 15 km away<sup>25</sup>.

The spatial and temporal characteristics of migratory corridors are important for some seabird species. Species typically use established migratory pathways at predictable times and artificial light intersecting with an overhead migratory pathway should be assessed in the same way as ground-based populations.

Where artificial light is likely to affect seabirds, consideration should be given to mitigation measures at the earliest point in a project development and used to inform the design phase.

### ***Associated guidance***

- [National Recovery Plan for Threatened Albatrosses and Giant Petrels 2011-2016](#)<sup>†</sup>
- [EPBC Act Policy Statement 3.21—Industry guidelines for avoiding, assessing and mitigating impacts on EPBC Act listed migratory shorebird species](#)

### ***Qualified personnel***

Lighting design/management and the EIA process should be undertaken by appropriately qualified personnel. Light management plans should be developed and reviewed by appropriately qualified lighting practitioners who should consult with appropriately trained marine ornithologists and/or ecologists. People advising on the development of a lighting plan, or the preparation of reports assessing the effect of artificial light on seabirds, should have qualifications equivalent to:

- a tertiary qualified ornithologist; or
- publication on a relevant subject in ornithology peer reviewed literature in the past five years.

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<sup>†</sup> Please note that this legislative instrument is in force until 2021.

### ***Step 1: Describe the project lighting***

The type of information collated during this step should consider the biological [Impact of Light on Seabirds](#). Seabirds are susceptible when active at night while migrating, foraging or returning to colonies. The location and light source (both direct and sky glow) in relation to breeding and feeding areas should be considered. Seabirds are sensitive to short wavelength (blue/violet) light with some species able to detect UV light. However, the intensity of lights may be more important than colour.

### ***Step 2: Describe seabird population and behaviour***

The species, life stage and behaviour of seabirds in the area of interest should be described. This should include the conservation status of the species; abundance of birds; how widespread/localised is the population; regional importance of the population; and seasonality of seabirds utilising the area.

Relevant seabird information can be found in the, [National Recovery Plan for Threatened Albatrosses and Giant Petrels 2011-2016](#); [Protected Matters Search Tool](#); [National Conservation Values Atlas](#); relevant conservation advice; relevant wildlife conservation plans; state and territory protected species information; scientific literature; and local/Indigenous knowledge.

Where there are insufficient data available to understand the population importance or demographics, or where it is necessary to document existing seabird behaviour, field surveys and biological monitoring may be necessary.

#### ***Biological monitoring of seabirds***

Any biological monitoring associated with a project should be carried out by an appropriately qualified biologist or ornithologist to ensure reliability of the data.

The objectives of monitoring in an area likely to be affected by light are to:

- understand the habitat use and behaviour of the population (e.g. migrating, foraging, breeding)
- understand the size and importance of the population
- describe seabird behaviour prior to the introduction/upgrade of light.

The data will be used to inform the EIA process and assess whether mitigation measures are successful. Suggested minimum monitoring parameters (what is measured) and techniques (how to measure them) are summarised in Table 7.

**Table 7 Recommended minimum biological information required to assess the importance of a seabird population. Note: the information in this table is not prescriptive and should be assessed on a case-by-case basis.**

Target Age Class	Survey Effort	Duration	Reference
Adult Nesting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In colonial nesting burrow or surface nesting species with fixed or transient nesting sites, a single survey timed to coincide with predicted peak laying period.</li> <li>• A minimum of three sampling areas (transects/quadrats) appropriate for nest density to capture ~100 nests per transect. Status of nests recorded (used/unused- chick stage).</li> <li>• Transient surface nesting species - estimate of chicks in crèches using aerial or drone footage.</li> <li>• A minimum of three sampling areas (transects/quadrats) appropriate for nest density to capture ~100 nests per transect. Status of nests recorded (used/unused- egg or chick).</li> </ul>	Minimum of two breeding seasons	Henderson and Southwood (2016) <sup>115</sup> Surman and Nicholson (2014) <sup>116</sup> <a href="#">Survey Guidelines for Australia's Threatened Birds</a> <sup>117</sup>
Fledging	In colonial nesting burrow or surface nesting species with fixed nesting sites, a single survey timed to coincide with predicted max fledging period.	Minimum of two breeding seasons	Henderson and Southwood (2016) <sup>115</sup> Surman and Nicholson (2014) <sup>118</sup>

#### *Additional seabird monitoring*

- Monitor fledging behaviour before project begins to establish a benchmark for assessing changes in fledging behaviour during construction and operations.
- Monitor fallout by assessing breeding colonies prior to fledging to assess annual breeding output/effort and measure against fallout (expecting greater fallout in years with higher reproductive output).
- Install camera traps at key locations to monitor fallout.
- Conduct nightly assessments of target lighting/areas to identify and collect grounded birds.
- Conduct observations post-dusk and pre-dawn with night vision goggles to assess activity/interactions.
- Track movement using land-based radar to determine existing flightpaths<sup>87</sup>.

As a minimum, qualitative descriptive data on visible light types, location and directivity should also be collected at the same time as the biological data. Handheld camera images can help to describe the light. Quantitative data on existing sky glow should be collected, if possible, in a biologically meaningful way, recognising the technical difficulties in obtaining these data. See [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#) for a review.

### ***Step 3: Risk assessment***

The objective is that light should be managed in a way that seabirds are not disrupted within, or displaced from, important habitat, and they are able to undertake critical behaviours, such as foraging, reproduction and dispersal. These consequences should be considered in the risk assessment process. The aim of the process is to ensure that at important seabird rookeries, burrow usage remains constant, adults and fledglings are not grounded, and fledglings launch successfully from the rookery.

In considering the likely effect of light on seabirds, the assessment should consider the existing light environment, the proposed lighting design and mitigation/management, and behaviour of seabirds at the location. Consideration should be given to how the birds perceive light. This should include both wavelength and intensity information and perspective (i.e. when in flight likely to be looking down on lights). To discern how/whether seabirds are likely to see light, a site visit should be made at night and the area viewed from the seabird rookery. Similarly, consideration should be given to how seabirds will see light when in flight.

Using this perspective, the type and number of lights should be considered/modelled to determine whether seabirds are likely to perceive light and what the consequence of the light on their behaviour is likely to be.

### ***Step 4: Light management plan***

This should include all relevant project information (Step 1) and biological information (Step 2). It should outline proposed mitigation. For a range of seabird specific mitigation measures please see the [Seabird Mitigation Toolbox](#) below. The plan should also outline the type and schedule for biological and light monitoring to ensure mitigation is meeting the objectives of the plan and triggers for revisiting the risk assessment phase of the EIA. The plan should outline contingency options if biological and light monitoring or compliance audits indicate that mitigation is not meeting objectives (e.g. light is visible in seabird rookeries or fallout rates increase).

### ***Step 5: Biological and light monitoring and auditing***

The success of the impact mitigation and light management should be confirmed through monitoring and compliance auditing and the results used to facilitate an adaptive management approach for continuous improvement.

Relevant biological monitoring is described in [Step 2: Describe the Seabird Population](#) above. Concurrent light monitoring should be undertaken and interpreted in the context of how seabirds perceive light and within the limitations of monitoring techniques described in [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#). [Auditing](#), as described in the light management plan, should be undertaken.

## Seabird Light Mitigation Toolbox

Appropriate lighting design/lighting controls and mitigating the effect of light will be site/project and species specific. Table 8 provides a toolbox of management options relevant to seabirds. These options should be implemented in addition to the six [Best Practice Light Design](#) principles. Not all mitigation options will be practicable for every project. Table 9 provides a suggested list of light types appropriate for use near seabird rookeries and those to avoid.

A comprehensive review of the effect of land based artificial lights on seabirds and mitigation techniques found the most effective measures were:

- turning lights off during the fledgling periods
- modification of light wavelengths
- banning external lights and closing window blinds to shield internal lights
- shielding the light source and preventing upward light spill
- reducing traffic speed limits and display of warning signs
- implementing a rescue program for grounded birds<sup>4</sup>.

Additional mitigation measures listed, but not assessed for effectiveness were:

- using rotating or flashing lights because research suggests that seabirds are less attracted to flashing lights than constant light
- keeping light intensity as low as possible. Most bird groundings are observed in very brightly lit areas<sup>4</sup>.

**Table 8 Light management options**

Management Action	Detail
Implement management actions during the breeding season.	Most seabird species nest during the Austral spring and summer. Light management should be implemented during the nesting and fledgling periods.
Maintain a dark zone between the rookery and the light sources.	Avoid installing lights or manage all outdoor lighting within three kilometres of a seabird rookery <sup>91</sup> . This is the median distance between nest locations and grounding locations. Avoiding the installation of lights in this zone would reduce the number of grounding birds by 50 per cent.
Turn off lights during fledgling season.	If not possible to extinguish lights, consider curfews, dimming options, or changes on light spectra (preferably towards lights with low blue emissions). Fledglings can be attracted back towards lights on land as they fly out to sea.
Use curfews to manage lighting.	Extinguish lights around the rookery during the fledgling period by 7 pm as fledglings leave their nest early in the evening.
Aim lights downwards and direct them away from nesting areas.	Aim light onto only the surface area requiring illumination. Use shielding to prevent light spill into the air and outside the footprint of the target area. This action can reduce fallout by 40 per cent <sup>4</sup> .
Use flashing/intermittent lights instead of fixed beam.	For example, small red flashing lights can be used to identify an entrance or delineate a pathway.
Use motion sensors to turn lights on only when needed.	Pedestrian or street lighting within three kilometres of a seabird rookery.
Prevent indoor lighting reaching outdoor environment.	Use fixed window screens or window tinting on fixed windows and skylights to contain light inside buildings.
Manage artificial light on jetties, wharves, marinas, etc.	Fledglings and adults may be attracted to lights on marine facilities and become grounded or collide with infrastructure.
Reduce unnecessary outdoor, deck lighting on all vessels and permanent and floating oil and gas installations in known seabird foraging areas at sea.	Extinguishing outdoor/deck lights when not necessary for human safety and restrict lighting at night to navigation lights. Use block-out blinds on all portholes and windows.

Management Action	Detail
Fishing vessels at high risk of interaction with seabirds should not set lines at night except in accordance with approved management arrangements, but should also keep deck lighting to the minimum where possible so as to not breach minimum standards for safety and navigation, and to allow for appropriate use of electronic monitoring equipment.	Night setting is between nautical dusk and nautical dawn (as defined in the Nautical Almanac tables for relevant latitude, local time and date). Record bird strike or incidental catch and report these data to regulatory authorities.
Avoid shining light directly onto longlines and/or illuminating baits in the water.	Light on the water can attract birds and facilitate the detection and consumption of baits, increasing bycatch in fisheries (i.e. killing or injuring birds). Record bird strike or incidental catch and report these data to regulatory authorities.
Vessels working in seabird foraging areas during breeding season should implement a seabird management plan to prevent seabird landings on the ship, manage birds appropriately and report the interaction.	For example, see the International Association of Antarctica Tour Operators (IAATO) <a href="#">Seabirds Landing on Ships</a> information page.
Avoid lights containing short wavelength violet/blue light.	Do not use lights rich in blue light, i.e. metal halides, fluorescent, halogens, mercury vapour and white LEDs in or near seabird rookeries. Sodium vapour and amber LEDs are preferable options.
Avoid white LEDs.	Ask your supplier for an LED light with little or no blue in it, or only use LEDs filtered to block blue light. Relative wavelength content can be visualised through a spectral power curve.
Avoid high intensity light of any colour.	Keep light intensity as low as possible in the vicinity of seabird rookeries and known foraging areas.
Shield gas flares and locate inland and away from seabird rookeries.	Manage gas flare light emissions by: reducing gas flow rates to minimise light emissions; shielding the flame behind a containment structure; containing the pilot flame for flare within shielding; and scheduling maintenance activity requiring flaring outside of shearwater breeding season or during the day.
Minimise flaring on offshore oil and gas production facilities.	Consider reinjecting excess/test gas instead of flaring.

Management Action	Detail
In facilities requiring intermittent night-time inspections, turn on lights only during the time operators are moving around the facility.	Use amber/orange explosion proof LEDs with smart lighting controls and/or motion sensors. LEDs have no warmup or cool down limitations so can remain off until needed and provide instant light when required for routine nightly inspections or in the event of an emergency.
Ensure industrial site/plant operators use head torches.	Consider providing plant operators with white head torches (explosion proof torches are available) for situations where white light is needed to detect colour correctly or in an emergency.
Supplement facility perimeter security lighting with computer monitored infrared detection systems.	Perimeter lighting can be operated when night-time illumination is necessary but otherwise remain off.
Tourism operations around seabird colonies should manage head-torch use so birds are not disturbed.	Consideration should be given to educational signage around seabird colonies where tourism visitation is generally unsupervised.
Design and implement a rescue program for grounded birds.	This will not prevent birds grounding, but it is an important management action in the absence of appropriate light design. Rescue programs have proven useful to reducing mortality of seabirds. The program should include documentation and reporting of data about the number and location of rescued birds to regulatory authorities.

**Table 9** Where all other mitigation options have been exhausted and there is a human safety need for artificial light, this table provides commercial luminaires recommended for use near seabird habitat and those to avoid.

Light type	Suitability for use near seabird habitat
Low Pressure Sodium Vapour	✓
High Pressure Sodium Vapour	✓
Filtered* LED	✓
Filtered* metal halide	✓
Filtered* white LED	✓
White LED	✗
Metal halide	✗
White fluorescent	✗
Halogen	✗
Mercury vapour	✗

\* 'Filtered' means this type of luminaire can be used *only* if a filter is applied to remove the short wavelength light.

## Appendix H - Migratory Shorebirds

**There is evidence that night-time lighting of migratory shorebird foraging areas may benefit the birds by allowing greater visual foraging opportunities. However, where nocturnal roosts are artificially illuminated, shorebirds may be displaced, potentially reducing their local abundance if the energetic cost to travel between suitable nocturnal roosts and foraging sites is too great.**

**Artificial lighting could also act as an ecological trap by drawing migratory shorebirds to foraging areas with increased predation risk. Overall the effect of artificial light on migratory shorebirds remains understudied and consequently any assessment should adopt the precautionary principle and manage potential effects from light unless demonstrated otherwise.**

Shorebirds, also known as waders, inhabit the shorelines of coasts and inland water bodies for most of their lives. Most are from two taxonomic families, the Sandpipers (*Scolopacidae*) and the Plovers (*Charadriidae*). They are generally distinguished by their relatively long legs, often long bills, and most importantly, their associations with wetlands at some stages of their annual cycles<sup>119</sup>.

At least 215 shorebird species have been described<sup>120</sup> and their characteristics include long life-spans, but low reproductive output, and they are highly migratory<sup>121</sup>. Many species have special bills for feeding on different prey in wetlands. Their bills contain sensory organs to detect the vibrations of prey inside the substrate. Shorebirds are often gregarious during the non-breeding season, which is perhaps a mechanism to reduce individual predation risk<sup>122</sup> and increase the chance of locating profitable feeding patches<sup>121</sup>. About 62 per cent of shorebird species migrate. Some are transoceanic and transcontinental long-distance migrants capable of flying up to eight days non-stop, with examples of individuals covering distances up to 11,500 km<sup>123</sup>.



**Figure 29 Curlew Sandpipers. Photo: Brian Furby.**

## Conservation Status

Migratory shorebird species in Australia are protected under international treaties and agreements including the *Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals* (CMS, Bonn Convention), the Ramsar Convention on Wetlands, and through the East Asian - Australasian Flyway Partnership (the Flyway Partnership). The Australian Government has bilateral migratory bird agreements with Japan (Japan-Australia Migratory Bird Agreement, JAMBA), China (China-Australia Migratory Bird Agreement, CAMBA), and the Republic of Korea (Republic of Korea-Australia Migratory Bird Agreement, ROKAMBA). In Australia, the *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999* (EPBC Act) gives effect to these international obligations. Many species are also protected under state and territory environmental legislation.

There are 37 species listed as threatened and/or migratory species under the EPBC Act and are hence Matters of National Environmental Significance (MNES) in Australia. At least 56 trans-equatorial species belonging to three families: Pratincoles (*Glareolidae*), Plovers (*Charadriidae*) and Sandpipers (*Scolopacidae*) have been recorded in Australia<sup>124</sup>. Of these, 36 species and one non-trans-equatorial species are listed under the EPBC Act. Three species (and one subspecies) of migratory shorebird are listed as “Critically Endangered”, two species as “Endangered” and one species (and one subspecies) as “Vulnerable” under the EPBC Act.

These Guidelines should be read in conjunction with EPBC Act [\*Policy Statement 3.21 Industry guidelines for avoiding, assessing and mitigating impacts on EPBC Act listed migratory shorebird species\*](#)<sup>125</sup>.

## Distribution

Migratory shorebirds are found in all states and territories, and are found in Australia throughout the year. Peak abundance occurs between August and April, however, sexually immature birds defer their northward migration for several years and can be found in Australia during the Austral winter months.

They are predominantly associated with wetland habitats including estuaries and intertidal wetlands, coastal beaches, saltmarsh, mangrove fringes, wet grasslands, and ephemeral freshwater and salt lakes in inland Australia. Shorebirds are also opportunists and exploit artificial habitats such as pastures, tilled land, sewage treatment plants, irrigation canals, sports fields and golf courses. Of 397 internationally recognised sites considered important for migratory shorebirds along the East Asian–Australasian Flyway, 118 are found in Australia<sup>126</sup>.

## ***Important habitat for migratory shorebirds***

For the purposes of these Guidelines, Important Habitat for migratory shorebirds includes all areas that are recognised, or eligible for recognition as nationally or internationally important habitat. These habitats are defined in EPBC Act [\*Policy Statement 3.21 Industry guidelines for avoiding, assessing and mitigating impacts on EPBC Act listed migratory shorebird species\*](#)<sup>125</sup> and the [\*Wildlife Conservation Plan for Migratory Shorebirds \(2015\)\*](#)<sup>127</sup>.

- **Internationally important** habitat are those wetlands that support one per cent of the individuals in a population of one species or subspecies; or a total abundance of at least 20 000 waterbirds.
- **Nationally important** habitat are those wetlands that support 0.1 per cent of the flyway population of a single species; 2000 migratory shorebirds; or 15 migratory shorebird species.

## **Effects of Artificial Light on Migratory Shorebirds**

Artificial light can disorient flying birds and subsequently cause their death through collision with infrastructure. Birds may starve as a result of disruption to foraging, hampering their ability to prepare for breeding or migration. However, artificial light may help some species, particularly nocturnally foraging shorebirds as they may have greater access to food<sup>128,129</sup>.

### ***Annual cycle and habitat use in migratory shorebirds***

Migratory shorebird species listed on the EPBC Act breed in the northern hemisphere, except the Double-banded Plover (*Charadrius bicinctus*), which breeds in New Zealand. Many of the northern hemisphere breeders nest in the arctic or sub-arctic tundra during the boreal summer (May – July) and spend the non-breeding season (August – April) in Australia or New Zealand. They usually spend five to six months on the non-breeding grounds, where they complete their basic (non-breeding plumage) moult, and later commence a pre-alternate (breeding plumage) moult prior to their northward migration. While undergoing their pre-alternate moult, shorebirds also consume an increased amount of prey to increase their fat storages, permitting them to travel greater distances between refuelling sites. Shorebirds refuel in East Asia during their northward migration, but during southward migration, some individuals travel across the Pacific, briefly stopping on islands to refuel. Shorebirds migrating across the Pacific typically have non-breeding grounds in Eastern Australia and New Zealand. Shorebirds returning to non-breeding grounds in Western and Northern Australia, once again pass through East Asia on their southward journey.

A common feature for many birds is their reliance on inland or coastal wetland habitats at some stages in their annual life-histories. In many migratory shorebirds, despite the vast distances they cover every year, they spend most of their time on coastal wetlands except for the two months of nesting when they use the tundra or taiga habitats. However, productive coastal wetland is localised, which means large proportions, or even entire populations, gather at a single site during stopover or non-breeding season. The Great Knot and Greater Sand Plover, is an example, with 40 per cent and 57 per cent respectively of their entire flyway population spends their non-breeding season at Eighty-Mile Beach in Western Australia<sup>126</sup>. Wetlands commonly used include coastal mudflats and sandflats, sandy beaches, saltmarsh and mangrove fringes, ephemeral freshwater wetlands and damp grasslands.

The coastal intertidal wetlands favoured by many migratory shorebirds are a dynamic ecosystem strongly influenced by the tidal cycle. This is part of the critical transition zones between land, freshwater habitats, and the sea. Throughout the East Asian-Australasian Flyway, intertidal wetlands have been susceptible to heavy modification for the development of farmlands, aquaculture, salt mining, ports and industry.

### ***Daily activity pattern and habitat use of migratory shorebirds***

The daily activity pattern of shorebirds at coastal wetlands is not only determined by daylight, but also tidal cycle<sup>120</sup>. They feed on the exposed tidal wetland during low tide and roost during high tide as their feeding areas are inundated. The birds feed during both the day and night, especially in the lead-up to migration<sup>130,131</sup>.

Roost site selection can vary between day and night. Shorebirds often use diurnal roosts nearest to the intertidal feeding area and may travel further to use safer nocturnal roosts – but at greater energetic cost<sup>132,133</sup>. Roosting habitat can also vary between day and night. For example, the Dunlin (*Calidris alpina*), in California, had a greater use of pasture at night (which tended to be less affected by artificial light and disturbances) and relied less on their diurnal roosts of islands and artificial structures such as riprap and water pipes<sup>134</sup>.

Foraging behaviours differ between day and night, and between seasons<sup>131,135</sup>. Shorebirds typically show a preference for daytime foraging, which occurs over a greater area, and at a faster rate, than nocturnal foraging<sup>131</sup>. Increased prey availability, avoidance of daytime predation and disturbance are some reasons for nocturnal foraging<sup>135</sup>. Two basic types of foraging strategies have been described: visual and tactile (touch-based) foraging, with some species switching between these strategies. Tactile feeders such as sandpipers can use sensory organs in their bills to detect prey inside the substrate in the dark and can switch to visual foraging strategy during moonlit nights to take advantage of the moonlight<sup>135</sup>. Visual feeders such as plovers, have high densities of photo receptors, especially the dark adapted rods, which allow foraging under low light conditions<sup>135,136</sup>. Plovers have been shown to employ a visual foraging strategy during both the day and night, whereas sandpipers can shift from visual foraging during the day, to tactile foraging at night, likely due to less efficient night vision<sup>131</sup>.

### ***Vision in migratory shorebirds***

There is a dearth of literature on light perception in migratory shorebirds with most studies confined to the role of vision in foraging and nothing on the physiology of shorebirds' eyes or their response to different wavelengths of light.

Birds in general are known to be attracted to and disoriented by artificial lights. This could be a result of being blinded by the intensity of light that bleaches visual pigments and therefore failing to see visual details<sup>137</sup> or interference with the magnetic compass used by the birds during migration<sup>138</sup>. An attraction to conventional artificial night lightings may lead to other adverse consequences such as reducing fuel stores, delaying migration, increasing the chance of collision and thereby, injury and death<sup>139</sup>.

Gulls and terns (*Anous minutus*, *Anous tenuirostris* and *Gygis alba*) have been shown to share visual pigments that give them vision in the short wavelength ultraviolet region of the spectrum in addition to the violet (blue) region of the spectrum. However, this sensitivity to very short wavelength light is rare in seabirds, which are characterised by photopic vision (daylight adapted) sensitivity in the long wavelength range of the visible spectrum (590 – 740 nm,

orange to red) while their scotopic (low light, dark adapted) vision is more sensitive to short wavelengths of light (380 – 485 nm, violet – blue)<sup>108</sup>.

### **Biological impacts on migratory shorebirds**

The exponential increase in the use of artificial light over the past decade means ecological light pollution has become a global issue<sup>48</sup>. Although the extent to which intertidal ecosystems are being affected is unclear<sup>140</sup>, several studies have assessed both the positive and negative aspects of light pollution on migratory shorebirds.

Artificial lighting has been shown to influence the nocturnal foraging behaviour in shorebirds<sup>129,141</sup>. Santos et al (2010) demonstrated three species of plover (Common Ringed Plover *Charadrius hiaticula*, Kentish Plover *Charadrius alexandrina* and Grey Plover *Pluvialis squatarola*) and two species of sandpiper (Dunlin *Calidris alpina* and Common Redshank *Tringa totanus*) improved foraging success by exploiting sites where streetlights provided extra illumination<sup>141</sup>.

Similarly, Dwyer et al (2013) showed artificial light generated from a large industrial site significantly altered the foraging strategy of Common Redshanks within an estuary. The greater nocturnal illumination of the estuary from the industrial site allowed the birds to forage for extended periods using a visual foraging strategy, which was deemed a more effective foraging behaviour when compared to tactile foraging<sup>129</sup>.

Although shorebirds may be attracted to foraging areas with greater nocturnal illumination, artificial light near nocturnal roosting sites may displace the birds. Rogers et al (2006) studied the nocturnal roosting habits of shorebirds in north-western Australia, and suggested nocturnal roost sites with low exposure to artificial lighting were selected (e.g. streetlights and traffic), and where the risk of predation was perceived to be low<sup>128</sup>. The study also found nocturnal roosts spatially differed from diurnal roosts and required increased energetic cost to access as the distance between nocturnal roosts and foraging areas was greater than the distance between diurnal roost sites and the same foraging areas<sup>133</sup>. The overall density of shorebirds in suitable foraging areas is expected to decline with increased distance to the nearest roost, due to the greater energetic cost travelling between areas<sup>132,133</sup>. The artificial illumination (or lack thereof) of nocturnal roost sites is therefore likely to significantly influence the abundance of shorebirds in nearby foraging areas.

Intermittent or flashing lights could flush out the shorebirds and force them to leave the area, especially if the light is persistent (Choi pers. obs. 2018, Straw pers. comm. 2018).

There is no information that specifically addresses the impact of light on migrating shorebirds while in flight. However, Roncini et al (2015) reported on interactions between offshore oil and gas platforms and birds in the North Sea and found these were likely to include migratory shorebirds. The review estimated that hundreds of thousands of birds were killed each year in these interactions and light was the likely cause. The review recognised the gaps in monitoring and concluded that impacts are likely to be region, species and platform specific<sup>97</sup>.

# Environmental Impact Assessment of Artificial Light on Migratory Shorebirds

As a minimum, [Best Practice Lighting Design](#) should be implemented on infrastructure with externally visible artificial lighting. Where there is important habitat for migratory shorebirds within 20 km of a project, consideration should be given as to whether that light is likely to have an effect on those birds. The following sections step through the framework for managing artificial light, with specific consideration for migratory shorebirds.

The 20 km buffer is based on a precautionary approach that sky glow can cause a change in behaviour in other species up to 15 km away<sup>25</sup>.

Where artificial light is likely to affect migratory shorebirds, consideration should be given to mitigation measures at the earliest point in a project and used to inform the design phase.

It is important to recognise the spatial and temporal characteristics of migratory corridors for some migratory shorebird species. Species typically use established migratory pathways at predictable times and artificial light intersecting with an overhead migratory pathway should be assessed in the same way as for ground-based populations.

## ***Associated guidance***

- [Wildlife Conservation Plan for Migratory Shorebirds \(2015\)](#)

## ***Qualified personnel***

Lighting design/management and the EIA process should be undertaken by appropriately qualified personnel. Plans should be developed and reviewed by appropriately qualified lighting practitioners who should consult with an appropriately trained marine ornithologist or ecologist. People advising on the development of a lighting plan, or the preparation of reports assessing the effect of artificial light on migratory shorebirds, should have qualifications equivalent to:

- a tertiary qualified ornithologist; or
- publication on a relevant subject in ornithology peer reviewed literature in the previous five years.

## ***Step 1: Describe the project lighting***

The information collated during this step should consider the biological [impact of light on migratory shorebirds](#). They can be affected by light when foraging or migrating at night. Artificial light at night may also affect their selection of roost site. The location and light source (both direct and sky glow) in relation to feeding and resting areas should be considered, depending on whether the birds are active or resting at night. Shorebirds are sensitive to short wavelength (blue/violet) light with some species able to detect UV light. However, the intensity of lights may be more important than colour.

## ***Step 2: Describe the migratory shorebird population and behaviour***

The species, and behaviour of shorebirds in the area of interest should be described. This should include the conservation status of the species; abundance of birds; how widespread/localised is the population; the regional importance of the population; the number of birds in the area in different seasons; and their night-time behaviour (resting or foraging).

Relevant shorebird information can be found in the EPBC Act [Policy Statement 3.21 Industry guidelines for avoiding, assessing and mitigating impacts on EPBC Act listed migratory shorebird species](#)<sup>125</sup>, [Wildlife Conservation Plan for Migratory Shorebirds \(2015\)](#)<sup>127</sup>, the [Protected Matters Search Tool](#), the [National Conservation Values Atlas](#), state and territory protected species information, scientific literature, and local/Indigenous knowledge.

Where there is insufficient data to understand the population importance or demographics, or where it is necessary to document existing shorebird behaviour, field surveys and biological monitoring may be necessary.

### ***Biological monitoring of migratory shorebirds***

Monitoring associated with a project should be carried out by appropriately [qualified biologists](#) to ensure reliability of the data.

The objective is to collect data on the abundance of birds and their normal behaviour. Please see [Survey guidelines for Australia's threatened birds](#)<sup>117</sup>.

The data will be used to inform the EIA and assess whether mitigation measures are successful. Suggested minimum monitoring parameters (what is measured) and techniques (how to measure them) are summarised in Table 10.

**Table 10 Recommended minimum biological information required to assess the importance of a migratory shorebird population. Note: the information in this table is not prescriptive and should be assessed on a case-by-case basis.**

Target Age Class	Survey Effort	Duration	Reference
Adult	Four surveys of roosting birds (one in December, two in January and one in February), with an additional three to four surveys within the same neap-spring tide cycle is recommended.	Two hours before and after predicted high tide.	<a href="#">Industry guidelines for avoiding, assessing and mitigating impacts on EPBC Act listed migratory shorebird species</a> <sup>125</sup>
Immature	One to two surveys on roosting birds between mid-May and mid-July.	Two hours before and after predicted high tide.	

#### *Monitoring migratory shorebird populations*

- Monitor the population (during different seasons) to establish a benchmark for assessing abundance before, during and after construction, and during operations to detect project-related change.
- Quantify the diurnal and nocturnal habitat use and movement in relation to tidal cycle (both high and low tides during the neap and spring tide cycles) in the area under baseline conditions to compare with light-affected conditions during construction and operations.
- Measure nocturnal light levels at foraging sites and nocturnal roost sites before and after the construction period of a project.
- Monitor nocturnal roost sites using acoustic recording devices and/or infrared cameras to determine nocturnal roost site use following the introduction of artificial light.

As a minimum, qualitative descriptive data on visible light types, location and directivity should also be collected at the same time as the biological data. Handheld camera images can help to describe the light. Quantitative data on existing sky glow should be collected, if possible, in a biologically meaningful way, recognising the technical difficulties in obtaining these data. See [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#) for a review.

### **Step 3: Risk assessment**

The objective of these Guidelines is that light should be managed so that shorebirds are not disrupted within or displaced from important habitat and are able to undertake critical behaviours such as foraging, roosting and dispersal. These consequences should be considered in the risk assessment process. At important shorebird habitats, roosting and foraging numbers should remain constant and foraging birds should not be startled or at increased risk from predators as a result of increased illumination.

The assessment should consider the existing light environment, the proposed lighting design and mitigation/management, the behaviour of shorebirds at the location, and how the birds perceive light. This should include wavelength and intensity information and perspective. To

understand how/whether shorebirds are likely to see light, a site visit should be made at night and the area viewed from the intertidal flats and roosting areas. Similarly, consideration should be given to how shorebirds will see light when in flight.

The type and number of artificial lights should then be considered to assess whether the birds are likely to perceive the light, and the possible consequences of light on their behaviour.

#### ***Step 4: Light management plan***

This plan should include all relevant project information (Step 1) and biological information (Step 2). It should outline proposed mitigation. For a range of shorebird specific mitigation measures see the [Migratory Shorebird Light Mitigation Toolbox](#) below. The plan should also outline the type and schedule for biological and light monitoring to ensure mitigation is meeting the objectives of the plan and triggers for revisiting the risk assessment phase of the EIA. The plan should outline contingency options if biological and light monitoring or compliance audits indicate that mitigation is not meeting the objectives of the plan (e.g. light is visible on intertidal flats or shorebirds cease using resting areas).

#### ***Step 5: Biological and light monitoring and auditing***

The success of the plan should be confirmed through monitoring and compliance auditing. The results should be used to facilitate an adaptive management approach for continuous improvement.

Biological monitoring is described in [Step 2: Describe the Migratory Shorebird Population](#). Concurrent light monitoring should be undertaken and interpreted in the context of how the birds perceive light and within the limitations of monitoring techniques described in [Measuring Biologically Relevant Light](#). [Auditing](#), as described in the plan, should be undertaken.

## Migratory Shorebird Light Mitigation Toolbox

All projects should incorporate the [Best Practice Light Design Principles](#). Appropriate lighting controls and light impact mitigation will be site/project and species specific. Table 11 provides a toolbox of options that would be implemented in addition to the six [Best Practice Light Design](#) principles. Not all mitigation options will be required for every project. Table 12 provides a suggested list of light types appropriate for use near rookeries or roosting sites and those to avoid.

**Table 11 Light management actions specific to migratory shorebirds.**

Management Action	Detail
Implement actions when birds are likely to be present. This includes peak migration periods (flyway locations).	Birds are found in Australia year-round. Major movements along coastlines take place between March and April, and August and November. Between August and April, shorebird abundance peaks. Smaller numbers are found from April to August.
No light source should be directly visible from foraging or nocturnal roost habitats.	Any light that is directly visible to a person standing in foraging or nocturnal roost habitats will potentially be visible to a shorebird and should be modified to prevent it being seen.
Do not install fixed light sources in nocturnal foraging or roost areas.	Installing light sources (e.g. light poles) within shorebird habitat may permanently reduce the available area for foraging or roosting and provide vantage points for predators (e.g. raptors) during the day.
Prevent mobile light sources shining into nocturnal foraging and roost habitat.	The light from mobile sources such as mobile lighting towers, head torches or vehicle headlights should be prevented from aiming into nocturnal foraging or roost areas, as this can cause immediate disturbance.
Maintain a natural barrier (e.g. dune and/or vegetation screen) between nocturnal foraging and roost areas, and sources of artificial light.	Reducing the exposure of shorebirds to artificial light will reduce the risk of predation and disturbance.
Maintain a dark zone between nocturnal foraging and roost habitats and sources of artificial lights.	Creating a dark zone between artificial lights and shorebird habitat will reduce disturbances to shorebirds.

Management Action	Detail
Use curfews to manage lighting near nocturnal foraging and roosting areas in coastal habitats.	Curfews must consider the tidal cycle if the artificial lighting is located coastally, e.g. extinguish lighting from two hours before high tide, until two hours after high tide, while shorebirds are potentially roosting.
Use of flashing/intermittent lights instead of fixed beam.	For example, small red flashing lights can be used to identify an entrance or delineate a pathway. The timing of when lights flash must follow a predictable, well-spaced pattern.
Use motion sensors to turn lights on only when needed.	For example, installing motion-activated pedestrian lighting within 500 m of nocturnal foraging or roost areas may reduce the amount of time the habitat is exposed to artificial light.
Manage artificial light on jetties and marinas.	Shorebirds will often roost on breakwaters and jetties, so allowing dark areas in such places may provide a safe area for shorebirds to roost.
Reduce deck lighting to minimum required for human safety on vessels moored near nocturnal foraging and roost areas, and those operating offshore.	Extinguish deck lights when not necessary and restrict lighting at night to navigation lights only. Offshore vessels should direct light inwards, particularly during the migration periods when shorebirds are potentially overhead.
Minimise night-time flaring on offshore oil and gas production facilities.	Consider reinjecting excess/test gas instead of flaring. Schedule maintenance flaring during daylight hours.
Avoid lights containing short wavelength violet/blue light.	Lights rich in blue light include: metal halides, fluorescent, halogens, mercury vapour and most LEDs.
Avoid high intensity light of any colour.	Keeping light intensity as low as possible in the vicinity of nocturnal foraging and roost areas will minimise impact.
Prevent indoor lighting reaching migratory shorebird habitat.	Use fixed window screens or window tinting on fixed windows and skylights to contain light inside buildings.

Management Action	Detail
In facilities requiring intermittent night inspections, turn lights on only during the time operators are moving around the facility.	Use amber/orange explosion proof LEDs with smart lighting controls and/or motions sensors. LEDs have no warmup or cool down limitations so can remain off until needed and provide instant light when required for routine nightly inspections or in the event of an emergency.
Industrial site/plant operators to use personal head torches.	Consider providing plant operators with white head torches (explosion proof torches are available) for situations where white light is needed to detect colour correctly, or in the event of an emergency. Operators should avoid shining light across nocturnal foraging or roost areas as this can cause disturbance.
Supplement facility perimeter security lighting with computer monitored infrared detection systems.	Perimeter lighting can be operated when night-time illumination is necessary but remain off at other times.

**Table 12** Where all other mitigation options have been exhausted and there is a human safety need for artificial light, the following table provides commercial luminaires recommended for use near migratory shorebird habitat and those to avoid.

Light type	Suitability for use near migratory shorebird habitat
Low Pressure Sodium Vapour	✓
High Pressure Sodium Vapour	✓
Filtered* LED	✓
Filtered* metal halide	✓
Filtered* white LED	✓
White LED	✗
Metal halide	✗
White fluorescent	✗
Halogen	✗
Mercury vapour	✗

\* 'Filtered' means this type of luminaire can be used *only* if a filter is applied to remove the short wavelength light.

# Glossary

**ACAP** is the *Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels*.

**Adaptive controls** are devices to vary the intensity or duration of operation of lighting, such as motion sensors, timers and dimmers used in concert with outdoor lighting equipment.

**ALAN** is Artificial Light At Night and refers to artificial light outside that is visible at night.

**Artificial light** is composed of visible light as well as some ultraviolet (UV) and infrared (IR) radiation that is derived from an anthropogenic source.

**Artificial sky glow** is the part of the sky glow that is attributable to human-made sources of light (see also **sky glow**).

**Baffle** is an opaque or translucent element to shield a light source from direct view, or to prevent light reflecting from a surface like a wall.

**Biologically Important Area (BIA)** is a spatially defined area where aggregations of individuals of a species are known to display biologically important behaviour, such as breeding, feeding, resting or migration.

**Biologically relevant** is an approach, interpretation or outcome that considers either the species to which it refers, or factors in biological considerations in its approach.

**Brightness** is the strength of the visual sensation on the naked eye when lit surfaces are viewed.

**Bulb** is the source of electric light and is a component of a light fitting, not a light fitting on its own.

**CAMBA** is the *China-Australia Migratory Bird Agreement*.

**Candela (cd) (photometric term)** is a unit of luminous intensity of a light source in a specific direction. Technically, the radiation intensity in a perpendicular direction of a surface of 1/600 000 m<sup>2</sup> of a black body at the temperature of solidification of platinum under a pressure of 101,325 N/m<sup>2</sup>. A candle emits light with a luminous intensity of approximately one candela.

**Charge Coupled Device (CCD)** is the sensor technology used in digital cameras. It converts captured light into digital data (images) which can be processed to produce quantifiable data.

**CIE** is the Commission Internationale de l'Eclairage (International Light Commission), which sets most international lighting standards.

**CMS** is the *Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals* or the Bonn Convention.

**Colour temperature** is the perceived colour of a light source ranging from cool (blue) to warm (yellow), measured in degrees Kelvin (K). A low correlated colour temperature such as 2500K will have a warm appearance while 6500K will appear cold.

**Correlated Colour Temperature (CCT)** is a simplified way to characterize the spectral properties of a light source and is correlated to the response of the human eye. Colour temperature is expressed in degrees Kelvin (K).

**Cumulative light** refers to increased sky brightness due to light emissions contributions from multiple light producers. Measured as **sky glow**.

**Disorientation** refers to any species moving in a confused manner e.g. a turtle hatchling circling and unable to find the ocean.

**EEZ** is the Australian Exclusive Economic Zone.

**EIA** is an environmental impact assessment process.

**Electromagnetic radiation** is a kind of radiation including visible light, radio waves, gamma rays, and X-rays, in which electric and magnetic fields vary simultaneously.

**EPBC Act** is the Commonwealth *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Act 1999*.

**Fallout** refers to birds that collide with structures when disoriented.

**Footcandle (fc or ftc) (photometric term)** is a unit of light intensity based on the brightness of one candle at a distance of one foot. Measured in lumens per square foot, one ftc is equal to approximately 10.7639 lux.

**FMP** refers to the Field Management Program.

**Genetic stock** is a discrete grouping of a species by genetic relatedness. Management of the species may be undertaken on a genetic stock basis because each genetic stock represents a unique evolutionary history, which if lost cannot be replaced.

**Grounding** refers to events where birds fail to take their first flight from the nest or collide with a structure (adults and juveniles) and are unable to launch back into the air.

**Habitat critical to the survival of the species** is an area defined in a Recovery Plan for a listed threatened species that provides for the recovery of the species.

**Horizontal plane**, in relation to the light fitting, means the horizontal plane passing through the centre of the light source (for example the bulb) of the light fitting.

**HPS** is a high-pressure sodium lamp that produces a characteristic wavelength near 589 nm.

**IAATO** is the International Association of Antarctica Tour Operators.

**Illuminance** is the amount of light reflected from a surface.

**Important habitats** are those areas that are necessary for an ecologically significant proportion of a listed species to undertake important activities such as foraging, breeding, roosting or dispersal. Important habitats will be species specific and will depend on their listing status. It will include areas that have been designated as **Habitat Critical to Survival** of a threatened species.

**Incandescent bulb** is a bulb that provides light by a filament heated to a high temperature by electric current.

**Intensity** is the amount of energy or light in a given direction.

**Internationally important** refers to wetland habitat for migratory shorebirds that support one per cent of the individuals in a population of one species or subspecies; or a total abundance of at least 20 000 waterbirds.

**IR** is infrared radiation and represents a band of the electromagnetic spectrum with wavelength from 700 nm to 1 mm.

**Irradiance (radiometric term)** is a measurement of radiant flux on a known surface area, W/m<sup>2</sup>. This measure is appropriate for understanding animal perception of light.

**IUCN** is the International Union for the Conservation of Nature.

**JAMBA** is the *Japan-Australia Migratory Bird Agreement*.

**Kelvin (K)** is the absolute unit for temperature and is equal in magnitude to one degree Celsius. Kelvin is typically used to describe **Correlated Colour Temperature (CCT)**.

**Lamp** is a generic term for a source of optical radiation (light), often called a “bulb” or “tube”. Examples include incandescent, fluorescent, high-intensity discharge (HID) lamps, and low-pressure sodium (LPS) lamps, as well as light-emitting diode (LED) modules and arrays.

**LED** is a light-emitting diode, or a semiconductor light source that emits light when current flows through it.

**Light fitting** is the complete lighting unit. It includes the bulb, reflector (mirror) or refractor (lens), the ballast, housing and the attached parts.

**Light** is the radiant energy that is visible to humans and animals. Light stimulates sight and makes things visible.

**Light pollution** is the brightening of the night sky caused by **artificial light**.

**Light spill** is the light that falls outside the boundaries of the object or area intended to be lit. Spill light serves no purpose and if directed above the horizontal plane, contributes directly to **artificial sky glow**. Also called spill light, obtrusive light or light trespass.

**Lighting controls** are devices used for either turning lights on and off, or for dimming.

**LNG** is liquefied natural gas.

**LPS** is a low pressure sodium lamp that produces a characteristic wavelength near 589 nm.

**Luminaire** refers to the complete lighting unit (fixture), consisting of a lamp, or lamps and ballast(s) (when applicable), together with the parts designed to distribute the light (reflector, lens, diffuser), to position and protect the lamps, and to connect the lamps to the power supply.

**Luminous flux** is the light emitted by a bulb which is measured in **lumen**.

**Lumen (lm) (photometric term)** is the measure of light output from a bulb. The output of artificial lights can be measured in lumens and is the most common measurement of light output (luminous flux). This is a **photometric** unit, weighted to the sensitivity of the human eye (as distinct from a watt which is a measure of power consumption). The quantity of lumens produced by a bulb is independent of the wattage (the energy required to illuminate the lamp).

Some types of bulb (e.g. **LED**) are more energy efficient than others and produce more lumens per watt. This is not an appropriate measure for understanding how animals perceive light.

**Luminance ( $\text{cd/m}^2$ )** is the amount of light emitted in a given direction by the light source or illuminated surface and is measured in candelas per square metre.

**Lux (lx) (photometric term)** is a unit of illumination equal to one lumen per square metre. This is the metric equivalent of foot-candles (one lux equals 0.0929 foot candles). Also called metre-candle. This is not an appropriate measure for understanding how animals perceive light.

**Magnitudes per square arc second ( $\text{magnitudes/arcsec}^2$ ) (radiometric term)** is a term used in astronomy to measure sky brightness within an area of the sky that has an angular area of one second by one second. The term magnitudes per square arc second means that the brightness in magnitudes is spread out over a square arcsecond of the sky. Each magnitude lower (numerically) means just over 2.5 times more light is coming from a given patch of sky. A change of 5  $\text{magnitudes/arcsec}^2$  means the sky is 100x brighter.

**Misorientation** occurs when a species moves in the wrong direction, e.g. when a turtle hatchling moves toward a light and away from the ocean.

**MNES** are Matters of National Environmental Significance as defined by the EPBC Act and include listed threatened and listed migratory species.

**Mounting height** is the height of the fitting or bulb above the ground.

**Nationally important** habitat are those wetlands that support 0.1 per cent of the flyway population of a single species of migratory shorebird; or 2 000 migratory shorebirds; or 15 migratory shorebird species.

**Natural sky glow** is that part of the **sky glow** that is attributable to radiation from celestial sources and luminescent processes in the Earth's upper atmosphere.

**Outdoor lighting** is the night-time illumination of an area by any form of outside light fitting.

**Outside light fitting** means a light fitting that is attached or fixed outside or on the exterior of a building or structure, whether temporary or permanent.

**Photocells** are sensors that turn lights on and off in response to natural light levels. Some advanced mode can slowly dim or increase the lighting (see also **adaptive controls**).

**Photometric terms** refer to those measurements of light that are weighted to the sensitivity of the human eye. They are not appropriate for understanding how animals perceive light.

**Photometry** is a subset of radiometry that is the measurement of light as it is weighted to the sensitivity of the human eye.

**Point source** is light from an unshielded lamp (i.e. directly visible).

**Radiance (radiometric term)** is a measure of radiant intensity emitted from a unit area of a source, measured in  $\text{W/m}^2$ .

**Radiant flux/power (radiometric term)** is expressed in watts (W). It is the total optical power of a light source. It is the radiant energy emitted, reflected, transmitted or received, per unit time. Sometimes called radiant power, and it can also be defined as the rate of flow of radiant energy.

**Radiant intensity (radiometric term)** is the amount of flux emitted through a known solid angle, W/steradian, and has a directional quantity.

**Radiometric terms** refer to light measured across the entire visible spectrum (not weighted to the human eye). These are appropriate for understanding how animals perceive light.

**Radiometry** is the measurement of all wavelengths across the entire visible spectrum (not weighted to the human eye).

**Reflected light** is light that bounces off a surface. Light coloured surfaces reflect more light than darker coloured surfaces.

**ROKAMBA** is the *Republic of Korea-Australia Migratory Bird Agreement*.

**Sensitive receptor** is any living organism that has increased sensitivity or exposure to environmental contaminants that may have adverse effects.

**Shielded light fitting** means a light fitting that does not permit light to shine above the horizontal plane.

**Sky glow** is the brightness of the night sky caused by the cumulative impact of reflected radiation (usually visible light), scattered from the constituents of the atmosphere in the direction of observation. Sky glow comprises two separate components: natural sky glow and artificial sky glow (see also **natural sky glow** and **artificial sky glow**).

**Spectral power curve** provides a representation of the relative presence of each wavelength emitted from a light source.

**Task lighting** is used to provide direct light for specific activities without illuminating the entire area or object.

**Upward Light Ratio (ULR)** is the proportion of the light (flux) emitted from a **luminaire** or installation that is emitted at and above the horizontal, excluding reflected light when the luminaire is mounted in its parallel position. ULR is the upward flux/total flux from the luminaire.

**UV** is ultraviolet light and represents a band of the electromagnetic spectrum with wavelength from 10 nm to 400 nm.

**W/m<sup>2</sup>** is a measure of radiance, the radiant intensity emitted from a unit area of a source (see **radiance**). This is an appropriate measure for understanding how animals perceive light.

**Wattage** is the amount of electricity needed to light a bulb. Generally, the higher the wattage, the more **lumens** are produced. Higher wattage and more lumens give a brighter light.

**Wavelength** as light travels through space it turns a wave with evenly spaced peaks and troughs. The distance between the peaks (or the troughs) is called the wavelength of the light. Ultraviolet and blue light are examples of short wavelength light while red and Infrared light is

long wavelength light. The energy of light is linked to the wavelength; short wavelength light has much higher energy than long wavelength light.

**Zenith** is an imaginary point directly above a location, on the imaginary celestial sphere.

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May 17, 2020

To: Endangered Species Recovery Committee

From: Jay F. Penniman  
Maui Nui Seabird Recovery Project Manager

RE: Comment on KSHCP

Aloha members of the ESRC.

I support the KSHCP as being the best path forward to bring the numerous entities with take of listed species into compliance with federal and state law. For the most part, and I have not fully digested the totality of details within the document, I find the KSHCP to be well crafted and a good template for other jurisdictions needing to address similar conditions of take.

There is one facet of considerations for nighttime lighting that I believe will improve the minimization of take by entities that should be addressed directly by the KSHCP. It should be required that all night time lighting fixtures must limit spectral content to less than 2% wavelengths between 400 and 500 nm. Most new outdoor lighting will be Light Emitting Diodes (LED) due to the dramatic cost savings in energy usage. The KSHCP should recognize this and require that Filtered Light Emitting Diodes (FLED) that minimize spectral content of wavelengths between 400 and 500 nm to less than 2%

One of the earlier peer reviewed publications identifying short wave length light as a problem for seabirds was Imber 1975. He makes the point that much of the prey of petrels is bioluminescent and young birds in particular may not have honed their instinct on what prey actually looks like when artificial lights set off their innate drive to feed. (Imber, M.J. 1975. Behavior of Petrels in Relation to the Moon and Artificial Lights. *Notornis*, Vol. 22, no. 4. Pp. 302-306.)

Today there is a growing body of literature documenting the detrimental effects of “Blue Light at Night” (BLAN). Blue, or short wave length light is what all flora and fauna evolved with during the day (BLAD). By night, short wave length light was, evolutionarily, very low intensity – the moon and the stars. Research on humans shows that BLAD is necessary for optimal health and may prevent certain cancers. While it is becoming better understood that BLAN is detrimental to human health, resulting in increased rates of cancer and disrupted circadian rhythms. Research is continuing to provide additional species for whom the same is true. Research on the optical response of seabirds has clearly documented the fact that seabirds respond to the presence of short wave length light. Though there are few studies clearly documenting the relationship to light distraction, the trends are clear enough to act now. We are dealing with the loss of critical ecological engineers, seabirds, ‘a’o, ‘ua’u and ‘akē’akē. It is imperative that we follow the precautionary principle and take the clear indication of potential harm from short wavelength light and specifically regulate it to less than 2% of spectral content for all outdoor lighting.

The other mitigating requirements, i.e., down directed, shielded, motion detection on and off, etc. are spot on and should be required as they are. In the text below I have included comments and

additional resources documenting the impacts of short wavelength light on seabirds and the recommendation to minimize short wavelength light.

### 3.1.1 ARTIFICIAL LIGHTING

The KSHCP covers incidental take requests involving a full range of lighting types present on Kauaʻi. Kauaʻi contains a variety of lighting types, the specific type and intensity of which depend upon the purpose for the lighting. Under the KSHCP, all types of artificial lighting including land-based lights found at parks, retail stores, resorts, condominium complexes, agribusiness and industrial facilities, as well as lighting on ocean-going vessels such as cruise ships, can be addressed in PIPs. Artificial lighting includes the placement and operation of current light structures, as well as the placement and operation of new or future lights that have similar effects.

Outdoor lighting fixtures may include, but are not limited to:

- Parking lot lights;
- Security lights;
- Searchlights, spotlights and floodlights;
- Building and structural or architectural lights;
- Building overhang and canopy lights;
- Landscape lights;
- Recreational lights;
- Signage lights; and
- Product display area lights.

Applicants to the KSHCP must submit a PIP, which provides detailed information on outdoor lighting, such as:

- Light type
- Make & model
- Light output (e.g. lumens) & bulb type
- Bulb color
- Quantity (number of fixtures)
- Location
- Purpose of the lights
- Direction of light angle (e.g. up, down, out)
- Full cut-off/shielded fixture (yes/no)
- Time on/Time off

In addition, PIPs must describe any lighting standards required for facility operations or other requirements that necessitate the use of lighting (e.g., required for security, safety, operations) and any plans for future lights.

lighting.

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### 5.3.1 ADJUSTING LIGHTING AT FACILITIES

*Appendix E: Guidelines for Adjusting Lighting at Facilities* includes the following measures to avoid and minimize take impacts to Covered Seabirds:

- Deactivate non-essential lights
- Install full cut-off light fixtures
- Shield light fixtures

**Commented [JP1]:** More important than the “color” of the light is the spectral content. There should be a requirement that all luminaires, and we would assume that going forward, most will be Light Emitting Diodes (LED), limit spectral content in the 400-500nm wavelengths to less than 2%. Basically all outdoor fixtures should be Filtered Light Emitting Diodes (FLED) to achieve the desired spectral content.

- Angle lights downward
- Place lights under eaves
- Shift lighting according to moon phase (during the fall-out period)
- Install motion sensors for motion-activated lighting
- Decrease lighting levels
- Decrease visibility of interior lights
- Use light-less technologies
- Plant vegetation around lights to reduce light visibility
- Lower height of lights
- Use longer light wavelengths

These guidelines are intended to be used in individual PIPs submitted to the USFWS and DLNR as part of the application process. Under the KSHCP, all minimization measures must be implemented within Year 1 of an ITP/ITL and maintained throughout the life of the permit/license. Compliance with the avoidance and minimization measures in PIPs will be monitored and reported at the onset of the KSHCP, and annually thereafter (see [Section 6.8.1](#)). New facilities or expansion of existing facilities identified in PIPs shall use, as appropriate, the avoidance and minimization measures described in this section.

The installation of “new” lights (those that are proposed or planned but do not exist at the time of the application for take permit/license) has the potential to exacerbate existing adverse light attraction impacts on Covered Seabirds and cause fallout (i.e. take) of seabirds. Participants in the KSHCP shall consult with the USFWS and the DLNR in advance on their plans to install new

lights at existing facilities or to construct new facilities to determine the required avoidance and minimization measures. Depending on their potential impact, installation of new lights at an existing Participant’s facility may require an amendment to a PIP and the permit that has been issued to a Participant.

[These recommendations for light minimization isare based on current published scientific literature and represents the best available science available. However, the best available science regarding light attraction behavior and the variations between the Covered Species’ sensitivity to light color and intensity remains extremely limited. As new information becomes available regarding new technologies, different lighting designs, and/or identifying appropriate light attraction minimization measures, they will be incorporated into the KSHCP as practicable. Adaptive management will be recommended to incorporate these minimization measures as part of each Permitted Participant’s annual review.]

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Buildings or facilities that are light colored or are made of shiny surface material can reflect light from nearby light sources. To minimize the reflective glare, Applicants will minimize to the extent practicable (as described in Appendix E) with the exception of late Applicants that will minimize to the extent practicable prior to the first fledgling season following permit issuance.

## 6.9 ADAPTIVE MANAGEMENT

USFWS policy defines Adaptive Management as “a formal structured approach for addressing uncertainty in natural resources management using the experience of management and the results of research as an ongoing feedback loop for continuous improvement” (USFWS and NMFS 1996). Uncertainties may include limited biological information for the Covered Species, a lack of knowledge about the effectiveness of mitigation or management techniques, or doubt

**Commented [JP2]:** This is good but should be more specific – limit short wavelength content (400-500nm) to less than 2%

**Commented [JP3]:** There is literature not reflected in the bibliography that supports the reduction of short wavelength content in night time lighting:

Rodríguez, Airam, Nick D. Holmes, Peter G. Ryan, Kerry-Jayne Wilson, Lucie Faulquier, Yovana Murillo, André F. Raine, Jay F. Penniman, Veronica Neves, Beneharo Rodríguez, Juan J. Negro, André Chiaradia, Peter Dann, Tracy Anderson, Benjamin Metzger, Masaki Shirai, Lorna Deppe, Jennifer Wheeler, Peter Hodum, Catia Gouveia, Vanda Carmo, Gilberto P. Carreira, Luis Delgado-Alburquerque, Carlos Guerra-Correa, François-Xavier Couzi, Marc Travers, & Matthieu Le Corre. (2017). Seabird Mortality Induced by Land-based Artificial Lights. *Conservation Biology*, Volume 00, No. 0, 1–16.

Longcore T, Rodríguez A, Witherington B, Penniman JF, Herf L, Herf M. Rapid assessment of lamp spectrum to quantify ecological effects of light at night. *J Exp Zool*. 2018;1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jez.2184>

Rodríguez, Airam, Peter Dann, and André Chiaradia. “Reducing Light-Induced Mortality of Seabirds: High Pressure Sodium Lights Decrease the Fatal Attraction of Shearwaters.” *Journal for Nature Conservation* 39.C (2017): 68–72. Web.

about the anticipated effects of Participants' facilities on Covered Species. Adaptive management recognizes that full information necessary to make decisions is often unavailable, and allows for change of management practices when supported by data or other information. It allows for the incorporation of new information into conservation and mitigation measures during KSHCP implementation.

#### **6.9.1 ADAPTIVE MANAGEMENT OF MINIMIZATION MEASURES**

Although KSHCP uses the best available information to evaluate measures to minimize incidental take of Covered Species, new or untested minimization measures to reduce incidental take of Covered Species may be introduced over the course of the KSHCP.

Participants may consult at any time with USFWS and DLNR to determine if implementation of new technologies is practicable and appropriate, and develop monitoring protocols to

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measure the effectiveness of new measures. This might include a different design of lighting, different bulbs or more effective searching strategies.

Participants will also identify the need for Adaptive Management of minimization measures in their Participant Annual Reports, and suggest options to alter currently implemented measures. These will be discussed during the KSHCP Annual Review Meeting or in individual meetings with

the regulatory agencies, and will be implemented as soon as reasonably possible.