

1 **Artificial light at night (ALAN) influences understory plant traits through ecological pro-**
2 **cesses: a two-year experiment in a rubber plantation in China**

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14 ABSTRACT

15 Artificial light at night (ALAN) demonstrated a new ecological factor that influences organisms
16 through multi-approach. Yet, the impacts of ALAN on understory plants remain largely un-
17 known. We evaluated whether ALAN would affect leaf mass per area (LMA) of understory plants
18 through a two-year field light experiment in a tropical rubber plantation in south China. We
19 hypothesized that ALAN could impact the understory in two ways: by directly supplementing
20 light to aboveground plant parts (which increases LMA) and indirectly affecting soil nutrient
21 composition by attracting insects (which decreases LMA). We selected two species: *Coloca-*
22 *sia gigantea*, representing shade-tolerant species, and *Melastoma candidum*, representing
23 light-demanding species. We measured canopy openness, LMA, soil nutrients, and individual
24 distance away from light resources. We found a negative relationship between LMA and
25 the strength of ALAN, indicating that ALAN may influence LMA more indirectly by enhancing
26 soil nutrient availability rather than directly acting as a light resource. This relationship was
27 significant for *Colocasia gigantea* but not for *Melastoma candidum*. These results suggest that
28 ALAN might have complex and species-specific impacts on the understory ecosystem.

29 **KEY WORDS** *Colocasia gigantea*, *Melastoma candidum*, artificial light at night, functional traits,
30 leaf mass per area, specific leaf area, understory

31 INTRODUCTION

32 Artificial light at night (ALAN), a leading contributor to light pollution, has disrupted ecological
33 processes since the early 20th century (Longcore and Rich 2004, Gaston et al. 2013, Bennie et al.
34 2016). A recent study estimated that around 23% of the world's inhabited land surfaces, account-
35 ing for over 80% of the global population, are subject to the adverse effects of light pollution
36 (Falchi et al. 2016). Although the intensity of ALAN varies several orders of magnitude from faint
37 skyglow reflected from distant cities to direct illumination of urban and suburban vegetation
38 (Bennie et al. 2016), ALAN influences the behavior or physiology of broad ranges of taxonomic
39 groups, including mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibians, fishes, invertebrates, and plants (Rich
40 and Longcore 2006, Loss et al. 2014, Falcón et al. 2020, Forsburg et al. 2021). It could also alter
41 ecosystem functions (Rich and Longcore 2006, Falcón et al. 2020). For example, ALAN attracts
42 insects and interferes with their movement, foraging, reproduction, and development (Owens
43 et al. 2020, Boyes et al. 2021, Yang and Nakamura 2022). These interferences have been linked
44 to declines in insect populations (Boyes et al. 2021). Unlike animals, only a handful of studies
45 have been published on the effects of ALAN on plants (Bennie et al. 2016, Speißer et al. 2021,

46 Liu et al. 2022). Speißer et al. (2021) conducted plant growth experiments with and without
47 weak ALAN (28 lux: within the range of light intensities at ground level under street lights) and
48 showed that ALAN increases the biomass of herbaceous plants. Their results suggest that even
49 weak ALAN acts as a light resource for plant growth. However, few studies have examined the
50 effects of ALAN on plant functional traits in conditions close to their natural environment.

51 ALAN might, directly and indirectly, affect plant leaf functional traits. First, ALAN might directly
52 affect plant leaf functional traits, such as leaf mass per area (LMA), because ALAN could work
53 as an additional light resource. Although LMA is driven by inherent genetic mechanisms (As-
54 ner et al. 2011), environmental stresses (temperature, water, and light) also shape LMA. Plants
55 can sense light through photoreceptors, allowing them to respond to four parameters of their
56 light environment: light spectral quality, light intensity, light direction, and light duration (Rich
57 and Longcore 2006, Paik and Huq 2019). Terashima et al. (2006) showed that the light-saturated
58 rate of leaf photosynthesis per unit area is highly correlated with leaf structural parameters such
59 as leaf thickness, leaf mass per area, mesophyll surface area, and chloroplast surface area, re-
60 sulting in sun leaves being thicker than shade leaves as the height of the palisade tissue in sun
61 leaves is greater than that in shade leaves. For individual species, LMA was proportional with
62 species distributions along the insolation gradient and was significantly higher in evergreen ver-
63 sus deciduous species (Ackerly et al. 2002, Niinemets et al. 2004, Onoda et al. 2008). Moreover,
64 among a local community, Ackerly et al. (2002) demonstrated that the average values of LMA
65 significantly increased with increasing potential diurnal insolation (PDI).

66 On the other hand, ALAN might indirectly affect plant leaf functional traits because ALAN has
67 the potential to increase soil fertility by attracting insects. Many insects orient themselves by
68 maintaining a constant angle to light rays and are attracted by light (Baker and Sadovy 1978,
69 Sothibandhu and Baker 1979). Previous studies showed that 30–40% of insects die soon after
70 approaching street lamps for collision, overheating, dehydration, or predation (Minnaar et al.
71 2015, Owens and Lewis 2018). Since nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) are the nutrients most
72 frequently limiting primary productivity in forest ecosystems (Wright 2019), dead insects killed
73 by ALAN could be important nutrient inputs for soil nutrients (Behie and Bidochka 2013). Soil
74 resources, especially N and P availability, are known to affect LMA and leaf N and P contents
75 (Wright et al. 2004, Katabuchi et al. 2012, de la Riva et al. 2016), and those effects are known to
76 be opposite to the effects of light (Ackerly et al. 2002, Hernández-Vargas et al. 2019) (i.e., while
77 strong light increases LMA but high levels of N availability decrease LMA).

78 In this study, we investigated the effects of ALAN on LMA of understory plants through a two-
79 year experiment in a tropical rubber plant forest in south China. A previous study conducted
80 under the same experimental setup at this site demonstrated that ALAN attracts ants (Yang and

81 [Nakamura 2022](#)). We selected two understory species as subjects of this experiment, each rep-
82 resenting light-demanding and shade-tolerant species, to discern differences in their responses
83 to ALAN. Our hypothesis proposes that ALAN would influence the understory plants via two dis-
84 tinct pathways. The first would be a direct effect, with ALAN serving as a supplementary light
85 resource for plants, increasing LMA. The second pathway would be an indirect effect, where
86 ALAN enhances soil nutrient availability, decreasing LMA. To determine the relative importance
87 of these two pathways, we estimated the influences of ALAN, daylight, and their interaction on
88 LMA of the understory plants.

89 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

90 *Experimental setup*

91 ALAN field experiments were located within the Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden
92 (XTBG), China, in a rubber tree forest (N21°54' E101°16') where we set 5 plots and selected two
93 plots for this experiment based on the natural distribution of the target plant species. In the
94 study area, the average yearly temperature is recorded at 21.7 °C, accompanied by an average
95 annual precipitation of 1557 mm. No fertilizer was used in the study area. LED lights (10W) were
96 used to create an artificial light environment in all plots at night (Fig. 1). The LED system was
97 programmed to function automatically from 8 pm to 5 am daily. A rechargeable lithium battery
98 (12V/30Ah) and an electric timer controlled the timing and duration of the LED operation at
99 night. The battery and LEDs were connected by electric wire and hung from a tree branch with
100 a lampshade approximately 2 m from the ground. The light intensity of LED lights at the light
101 sources was 372.8 ± 66.6 (mean \pm SE) lux. The light intensity decreased with distance: $190.2 \pm$
102 26.5 lux at a radius of 1 m, 62.0 ± 4.9 lux at a radius of 2 m, and 9.9 ± 0.7 lux at a radius of 4 m.
103 The light intensity was almost undetectable at 0 lux beyond 10 m. The experiment was set up
104 in November 2019, and leaf disc samples were collected two years later, in November 2021.

105 *Species Selection*

106 We considered the understory conditions to select species, ensuring that at least 15 mature indi-
107 viduals were present from the light source to 10 m away from it. Essential criteria also included
108 the species being part of functional groups, specifically evergreen species, and not belonging to
109 nitrogen-fixing families such as Leguminosae. As a result, we chose two species, each from a dif-
110 ferent plot, for our study: *Colocasia gigantea*, representing shade-tolerant species, and *Melastoma*
111 *candidum* representing light-demanding species.

112 *Measurements*

113 We measured the horizontal distance and geographic orientation of each individual away from
114 the LED using a tape measure representing the relative effects of ALAN. The canopy openness of
115 each individual was on behalf of individual daylight interception, which was photographed by
116 Nikon COOLPIX4500 with a fish-eye lens (Nikon FC-e8) and then measured using the R package
117 *LeafArea* ([Katabuchi 2015](#)).

118 For leaf mass per area (LMA), we used a 1.0×cm×diameter puncher instead of using whole-leaf
119 LMA values, avoiding veins and leaf margins ([Maenpuen et al. 2022](#)). We chose five healthy
120 leaves from each individual *M. candidum* plant, and between three to five healthy leaves from
121 each individual *C. gigantea* plant. We then punched five leaf discs from each *M. candidum* leaf,
122 and seven leaf discs from each leaf of *C. gigantea*.

123 For soil nutrients (N, C, P), we collected surface soil samples (0-10 cm depths) in five plots in
124 June 2019 and June 2022 to investigate the general trends in soil nutrients. Detailed analy-
125 sis of soil nutrients was conducted in the two selected plots. We took three replicates at the
126 place under ALAN and 10 m away from ALAN separately from each plot. After sampling, the soils
127 were air-dried at room temperature for one week, then sieved through 0.85-mm and 0.15-mm
128 mesh finally used for total N, C measurements by combustion using an elemental analyzer (Vario
129 MAX CN, Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Germany) and total P measurement by inductively
130 coupled plasma atomic-emission spectrometer (iCAP7400, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). We
131 then calculated the relative percentage change of each nutrient between the value in 2019 and
132 2022 to compare the soil nutrient change with ALAN's effect (sampled under ALAN) and without
133 ALAN's effect (sampled 10 m away from ALAN).

134 *Data Analysis*

135 To analyze the effects of ALAN, daylight and their interaction on *M. candidum* and *C. gigantea*,
136 we fitted a Bayesian linear mixed-effects model for each species. The leaf mass per area (LMA)
137 of each leaf of each individual was modelled as a function of the distance from the ALAN source
138 for each individual, the canopy openness of each individual, and the interaction between the
139 distance from the ALAN source and the canopy openness. We transformed the distance from
140 the ALAN source for each individual using a log and reciprocal function, as the intensity of ALAN
141 diminish non-linearly with distance. Hereafter, we refer to the distance from the ALAN source for
142 each individual as the ALAN effect and the canopy openness of each individual as the daylight
143 effect. To account for non-independence among individuals of the same species, we included
144 individuals as a random intercept in our models.

145 Posterior distributions of all parameters were estimated using the Hamiltonian Monte Carlo al-
146 gorithm (HMC) implemented in Stan ([Carpenter et al. 2017](#)) using the weakly-informative priors

147 (Gelman et al. 2008). Convergence of the posterior distribution was assessed with the Gelman-
148 Rubin statistic with a convergence threshold of 1.1 (Gelman et al. 2013) and effective sample sizes
149 > 400 (Vehtari et al. 2021) for all parameters. All statistical analyses were conducted in R version
150 4.2.0 (R Core Team 2022) using the R package *targets* version 1.2.0 for workflow management
151 (Landau et al. 2023). Codes are available at https://github.com/congz007/light_project.

152 RESULTS

153 The influence of artificial light at night (ALAN) and daylight on LMA had significant effects on the
154 species *Colocasia gigantea*, while for *Melastoma candidum*, these effects were not significant
155 (Fig. 2). In the case of *C. gigantea*, ALAN led to a decrease in the average individual leaf mass
156 per area (LMA) value (Table 1, slope: -0.1052 [95% CI: -0.1500, -0.0613]). Although *M. candidum*
157 showed a similar decrease in LMA value in response to ALAN (Table 1, slope: -0.0434 [95% CI:
158 -0.1147, 0.0278]), this change was not statistically significant. The interaction of the effects of
159 ALAN and daylight did not yield any significant results for both species (Table 1).

160 Soil nutrients decreased from 2019 to 2022 [$X_{2022}/X_{2019} < 1$, where X represents carbon (C),
161 nitrogen (N), and phosphorus (P)] across all of the locations, regardless of the distance away
162 from ALAN. However, the relative percentage change in each soil nutrient demonstrated that
163 the locations under ALAN sustained more nutrients in 2022 ($C_{2022}/C_{2019} = 0.919$, $N_{2022}/N_{2019} =$
164 0.948 , $P_{2022}/P_{2019} = 0.537$) compared to the locations 10 m away from ALAN ($C_{2022}/C_{2019} = 0.663$,
165 $N_{2022}/N_{2019} = 0.695$, $P_{2022}/P_{2019} = 0.492$) in the plot where *C. gigantea* was investigated. In the
166 plot where *M. candidum* was investigated, we found less pronounced differences between the
167 locations under ALAN ($C_{2022}/C_{2019} = 0.677$, $N_{2022}/N_{2019} = 0.761$, $P_{2022}/P_{2019} = 0.729$) and those 10m
168 away from ALAN ($C_{2022}/C_{2019} = 0.712$, $N_{2022}/N_{2019} = 0.746$, $P_{2022}/P_{2019} = 0.742$).

169 DISCUSSION

170 Our findings support the hypothesis that artificial light at night (ALAN) can influence leaf mass
171 per area (LMA) in understory plants, but the response appears to vary among species. We ob-
172 served a significant decrease in LMA in response to ALAN in shade-tolerant species *Colocasia*
173 *gigantea*, but not in light-demanding species *Melastoma candidum*.

174 We observed the apparent decline in soil nutrient content from 2019 to 2022. This trend could
175 be primarily attributed to the nutrient absorption characteristics of the rubber trees (Yang et

176 al. 2004) and the absence of fertilizer applications in our study site. Rubber trees are known
177 for their high nutrient uptake, which can lead to significant soil nutrient depletion over time.
178 This effect was evident in our study, with noticeable decreases in soil nutrient levels over two
179 years in both ALAN-influenced and non-influenced areas. This soil nutrient decline seemed less
180 pronounced near ALAN in the plot populated by *C. gigantea*. This trend suggests a potential
181 positive impact of ALAN on soil nutrient content, likely mediated by the attraction of insects.
182 ALAN is known to attract insects, which, upon death due to collision, overheating, or predation,
183 could contribute additional nutrient inputs into the soil, such as N and P (Minnaar et al. 2015,
184 Owens and Lewis 2018). This ALAN-induced insect influx could help offset the nutrient depletion
185 caused by the nutrient-intensive rubber trees, thereby helping to maintain soil nutrient levels
186 under ALAN exposure.

187 The significant decrease in LMA for *C. gigantea* under ALAN could be predominantly driven by in-
188 direct effects mediated through changes in soil nutrient availability rather than direct effects of
189 ALAN acting as a light resource because sunlight increased LMA (Table 1). The presence of ALAN
190 is known to attract a higher density of insects, many of which may die due to collision, overheat-
191 ing, dehydration, or predation (Minnaar et al. 2015, Owens and Lewis 2018). The decomposition
192 of these deceased insects could lead to considerable enrichment of soil nutrients, particularly
193 N and P (Schulze et al. 1997, Fagan et al. 2002, Woods et al. 2004, Behie and Bidochka 2013),
194 which are fundamental to plant growth. Although the precise quantity of dead insects and the
195 resultant increase in soil nutrient content is a subject for further detailed study, this enhanced
196 nutrient availability could potentially shift the resource allocation strategy of *C. gigantea*. Ad-
197 ditionally, increased soil nutrient availability, particularly N, could increase the photosynthetic
198 capacity of *C. gigantea*. The enhanced nutrient availability may enable *C. gigantea* to allocate
199 more resources to rapid leaf growth rather than structural tissue, leading to a decrease in LMA
200 (Onoda et al. 2017, Hernández-Vargas et al. 2019).

201 On the other hand, ALAN did not have a significant effect on LMA in the light-demanding species
202 *M. candidum*. light-demanding species receive stronger sunlight than shade-tolerant species,
203 which might result in the small effect of ALAN on their LMA. Because the effect of daylight was
204 not significant either, intraspecific trait variability (ITV) itself for light-demanding species may
205 inherently be smaller than for shade-tolerant species. Although many studies have explored ITV
206 within different functional groups, such as herbs and trees (Siefert et al. 2015), there needs to
207 be more research into the ITV differences between light-demanding species and shade-tolerant
208 species. Additionally, the less pronounced soil nutrient differences between ALAN-influenced
209 and non-influenced areas in the plot with *M. candidum* compared to the plot with *C. gigantea*
210 may explain the lack of significant change in LMA for *M. candidum*. The ALAN treatment was
211 set up on a slope in this plot, and therefore, increased soil nutrients resulting from dead insects

212 attracted by ALAN might be more likely to be washed off and not persist in the soil (Zhao et
213 al. 2013, Yi et al. 2018, Bai et al. 2020). Alternatively, ALAN's attraction to insects might be
214 spatially dependent, which leads to certain locations attracting fewer insects and consequently
215 experiencing a diminished soil fertilization effect.

216 ALAN, an increasingly prevalent aspect of our anthropogenic world, can have complex and nu-
217 anced impacts on forest ecosystems. Although it has been demonstrated that insolation (i.e.,
218 natural light) increases LMA (Ackerly et al. 2002, Niinemets et al. 2004), our research indicates
219 that ALAN may influence LMA more indirectly by enhancing soil nutrient availability rather than
220 directly acting as a light resource. ALAN may unexpectedly impact forest health and produc-
221 tivity by affecting understory plant functional traits and possibly soil nutrient dynamics. Con-
222 trolled experiments potentially underestimate species interactions and unpredictable environ-
223 mental heterogeneity because many irreplaceable features of field conditions, such as subtle
224 nutrient change, herbivores, and competitors, are usually absent in the controlled experiments.
225 Thus, robust tests of the ALAN effects on the understory will require more experimental work
226 under field conditions. Further investigations into the intricate relationships between ALAN,
227 plant functional traits, and soil nutrient dynamics are warranted to enable the development of
228 comprehensive forest management strategies that consider the broad implications of artificial
229 lighting.

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237 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

238 C.Z. and M.K. conceived the study; A.N. and X.S. set up the ALAN experiment; C.Z. and X.S. col-
239 lected data; C.Z. performed the analysis; C.Z. and M.K. led the writing of the paper; and all au-
240 thors contributed to revisions.

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A



B



Fig. 1: Photographs of the experimental setup during daytime (A) and nighttime (B) in a rubber tree forest within the Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden (XTBG), China. One of the target species, *Colocasia gigantea*, is visible in both pictures.

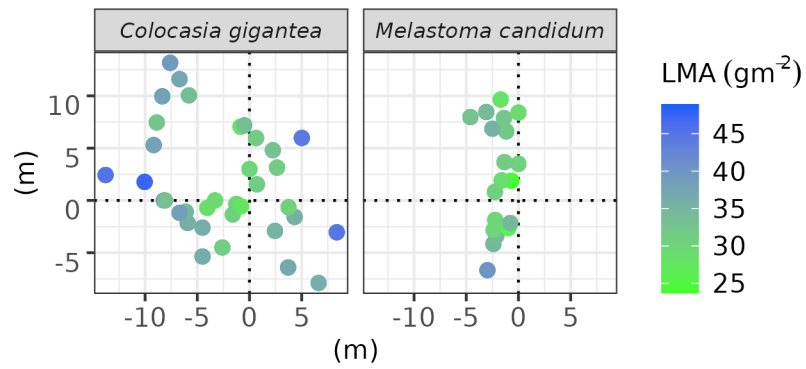


Fig. 2: Leaf mass per area (LMA) values of individuals from the two experimental species, *C. gigantea* and *M. candidum*, in relation to their relative geographic locations with respect to the artificial light at night (ALAN). The ALANs are located in the center of the maps (0, 0). Color represents the LMA values.

367 **Table. 1.** Summary of Bayesian linear mixed-effect models testing the effects of artificial light at
 368 night (ALAN), daylight, and their interaction on leaf mass per area (LMA) values. Posterior means
 369 and 95% credible intervals (CI) are shown. Intervals that do not include zero are highlighted in
 370 bold.

Variables	Mean	95% CI
<i>Melastoma candidum</i>		
ALAN	-0.0434	[-0.1147, 0.0278]
Daylight	0.0006	[-0.0736, 0.0768]
ALAN × Daylight	-0.0309	[-0.0840, 0.0233]
<i>Colocasia gigantea</i>		
ALAN	-0.1052	[-0.1500, -0.0613]
Daylight	0.0489	[0.0036, 0.0934]
ALAN × Daylight	-0.0113	[-0.0436, 0.0216]

371