

Impacts of artificial blue light on health and the environment

EVIDENCE SUMMARY

EXPLORE DISCOVER SHARE

ROYAL SOCIETY TE APĀRANGI

BIGGET

Blue light occurs naturally as part of sunlight and moonlight and, like all living things on Earth, we have evolved to respond to the daily cycle of light and dark. There is growing concern that the increased exposure to artificial sources of blue light from lighting and digital screens is having an effect on our health, wildlife and the night sky. This paper summarises the latest evidence on this topic and explores what we can do to protect ourselves and the environment from the effects of exposure to artificial blue light outside daylight hours.

TE AO HURIHURI What has changed?

Artificial light sources are widely used in our everyday lives to illuminate streets and our homes. There has been a change to use more energy efficient technologies such as light emitting diodes (LEDs) and an increase in the use of digital screens. Artificial lights can vary widely in their brightness and colour composition, including how much blue light they emit. These properties, together with the timing and duration of their use, can alter how these light sources may affect health and the environment.

HAUORA Our health



Specialised cells in the human eye have evolved over millions of years to respond to daylight, particularly blue wavelengths of light, in order to track time and regulate biological functions such as our circadian clock. Daylight is important for vision as well as our health and wellbeing. Adequate exposure to daylight, particularly during the morning, is important for synchronising the circadian body clock, which can affect many processes including sleep, metabolism, immune function and even our mood. However, exposure to blue wavelengths in artificial light outside normal daylight hours can disrupt sleep and the body clock, and have flow-on negative health effects.

TE TAIAO The environment



The effects of blue light in the environment on wildlife include similar disruption of biological clocks, and may affect plant growth, pollination, reproduction, migration, predation, and communication.

mātai arorangi **Astronomy**

Blue wavelength light is also more strongly scattered by the night sky, increasing the levels of sky glow at night and reducing visibility of the universe.

HE PUTANGA IHO Solutions



There are ways to reduce some of the negative impacts of using light at night. Limiting screen time before bed may mitigate effects on the circadian rhythm from exposure to blue light at night from digital devices. Selecting 'warmer' coloured white light sources that emit less blue light and reducing brightness may lessen the potential negative effects associated with using blue light at night.

Well-designed outdoor lighting installations can minimise light pollution and other environmental impacts while still providing adequate light for visibility and to support road safety. Strategies for reducing unwanted effects from lighting include matching lighting levels to changing needs with timers, motion and directional controls, avoiding lighting areas excessively, using light shielding, and by installing warmer coloured light sources.

Overall, we can support our natural circadian rhythm by using daylight in the morning and sleeping in a dark room at night.

TŪĀWHIORANGI KITEA What is 'blue' light?

Light is part of the electromagnetic spectrum that ranges from low-energy radio waves to highenergy gamma rays (Figure 1 – see next page). The human eye perceives visible light, from the Sun or other sources, in the region from around 380 nm to 780 nm of the electromagnetic spectrum.^{1,2} Daylight is a white light source composed of the full spectrum of visible light. We can see the spectrum of colours in a rainbow because sunlight refracting through raindrops separates daylight into different wavelengths that the eye perceives as different colours. The Sun emits radiation in the infrared, visible and ultraviolet regions of the electromagnetic spectrum, peaking in the visible region. Daylight is a dynamic light source that varies depending on location, time of day, season and with various weather and atmospheric pollution conditions.² Throughout the day ultraviolet radiation and visible light increase in intensity before peaking in early afternoon. These intensities drop significantly by late afternoon (Figure 2).

Blue and violet light are at the shorter wavelength (higher energy) end of the visible spectrum. This blue light component of sunlight gives the sky its blue appearance³ because it scatters more readily in the atmosphere than most other visible light.^{*} The blue light region of the visible spectrum extends from approximately 424 to 500 nm,⁴ although the exact range differs between reference documents.

This paper refers to blue light as a generic term meaning the blue wavelength portion of the light spectrum. Blue light can refer to either saturated blue lights, which emit a monochromatic blue colour, or blue-enriched broad spectrum white light that contains blue wavelengths as part of its light spectrum. This paper focuses on blue wavelengths due to recent concerns about the associated effects on our health and the environment from increasing exposure to artificial light sources emitting blueenriched white light at night.

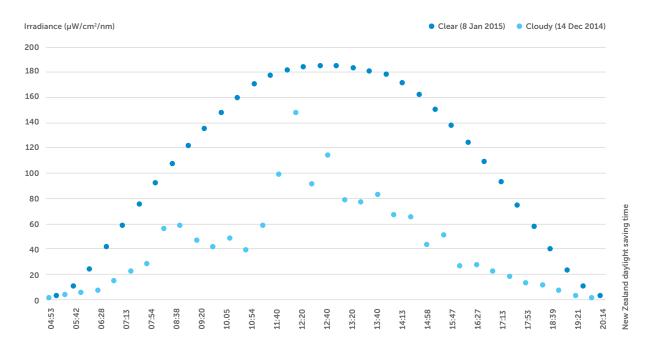


FIGURE 2

Intensity of blue light (480 nm) at the Earth's surface, measurements taken from Lauder, Central Otago on cloudy and clear summer days. Daylight time is approximately the same for both days due to a similar time interval before and after the summer solstice (22 December). The cloudy day was overcast except for a few times between 12:00 and 13:00 where some direct sunlight was observed. Data provided by the National Institute of Water & Atmospheric Research (NIWA). For detail on solar UV and visible light spectra in New Zealand see **niwa.co.nz/our-services/instruments/lauder/uvspec**.

* Blue light scatters less than violet; however, more blue light passes through our atmosphere and our eyes are more sensitive to blue than violet;

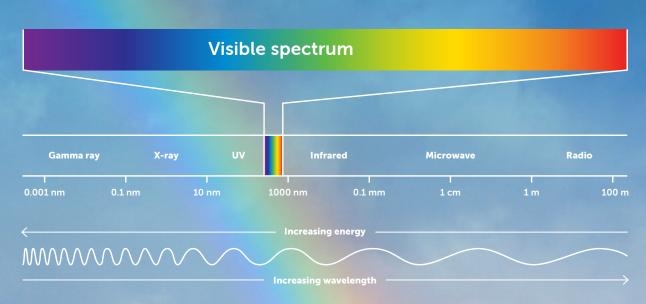


FIGURE 1

Visible light is part of the electromagnetic spectrum. Blue wavelengths are at the shorter (higher energy) end of the visible spectrum

TŪĀWHIORANGI KITEA **Artificial sources** containing blue light

Artificial light sources are widely used in our everyday lives. Broad-spectrum light sources are those that span the visible spectrum producing a resulting white light rather than a coloured light produced from a narrow range of wavelengths. Advanced broad-spectrum lighting technologies have a wide range of applications in lighting systems and digital displays. The reach of these technologies is evident in household lighting, computer and phone screens, televisions, security, architectural and street lighting.

Different broad-spectrum white light sources vary in their colour appearance, generally perceived as ranging from warmer red-yellowish-white light to cooler/brighter blueish-white light.⁵ As a rough indicative measure, the lighting industry uses correlated colour temperature (CCT), measured **CFL and LED** in kelvin,* to describe the perceived colour of 2700K - 6500K a broad-spectrum light source (Figure 3). Low CCT generally, but not always, corresponds to a relatively low proportion of blue wavelengths in the visible spectrum. As CCT increases, the appearance becomes a cooler blueish-white colour. Incandescent lamps, which also include halogens, produce a warm light, weighted towards the yellow/ red end of the visible spectrum. More energy efficient technologies than incandescent lamps, including compact fluorescent lamps (CFLs) and light emitting diodes (LEDs), are available in a range of warm or cool coloured lighting.

A more informative gauge of lighting is to measure the spectrum of light emitted; this is known as Spectral Power Distribution (SPD). These spectra can differ significantly between various lighting technologies such as incandescent, high-intensity discharge lamps, CFLs and LEDs (Figure 4). Researchers can use these spectra to calculate the proportion of blue wavelengths across the visible spectrum. Higher correlated colour temperatures often, but not always, correlate with a higher proportion of blue light (Figure 4 and Table 1). At a given CCT, even within a given light source technology, the proportion of blue wavelengths, and the shape and position of peaks in the visible spectrum can be quite variable.⁴

6500 K	Daylight
6500 K	> 6500 K
6250 K	
6000 К	
5750 K	
5500 K	
5250 K	
5000 K	
4750 K	
4500 K	
4250 K	
4000 К	
3750 К	
3500 K	
3250 K	
3000 к 🔶	Halogen lamp 3000 K
2750 К	Tungsten filament lamp 2700 K
2500 К	
2250 К	
2000 К	Candle flame 2000 K

FIGURE 3

The correlated colour temperature scale. Some light sources come in a range of correlated colour temperatures from the warm-white of traditional incandescent bulbs to the cool/ bright-white light of some CFLs and LEDs. Source: Adapted from lightingschool.eu/portfolio/understanding-the-light.5

* The kelvin scale (K) used to describe the colour of a light source is equivalent to the temperature required to heat an ideal blackbody radiator to give the particular hue of light.

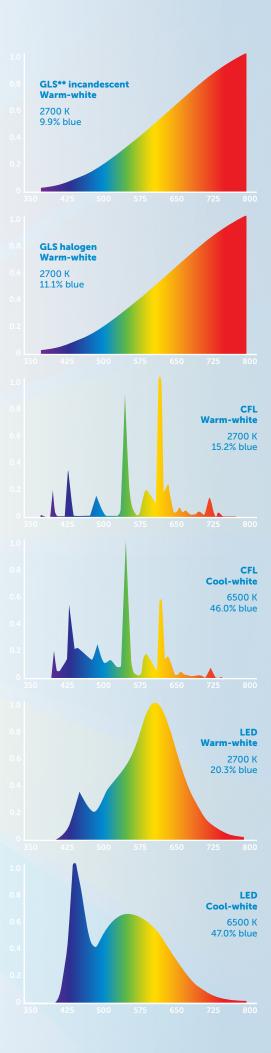


FIGURE 4

Spectra from a few domestic lamps available in the New Zealand market.* The x-axis is wavelength (nm). The y-axis is relative intensity, where 1.0 represents the highest peak in the spectrum. Spectra provided by the School of Engineering and Advanced Technology, Massey University.⁶

* The percentage of blue content is determined using the formula provided by the Lamp Spectral Power Distribution Database,⁷ which uses a very broad definition of blue light ranging from violet (405 nm) to green (530 nm). The calculation for blue light uses 380 to 780 nm as the visible light range to make these calculations consistent with those provided by the United States Department of Energy.⁴,⁸

** GLS: General Lighting Service – standard bulb shape.

Light source	ССТ (К)	% Blue*
Narrowband Amber LED	1606	0%
Low-Pressure Sodium	1718	0%
PC Amber LED [†]	1872	1%
High-Pressure Sodium	2041	10%
PC White LED [†] (2700 K)	2700	15% - 21%
PC White LED [†] (3000 K)	3000	18% – 25%
PC White LED [†] (4000 K)	4000	26% - 33%
Metal Halide	4002	33%
Mercury Vapour	6924	36%
PC White LED [†] (5000 K)	5000	35% - 40%

TABLE 1: Blue light in a selection of outdoor lighting sources at equivalent lumen output (luminous flux 1000 lm)** 8

At home, people may be exposed to blue light through domestic lighting, and through the use of light-emitting screens, including computers, televisions, smartphones, tablets and light emitting eReaders.⁹ Residential lighting has changed dramatically over the past century from traditional incandescent to modern LEDs.⁹ The main sources of residential lighting in New Zealand are CFL, incandescent, halogen and LED lighting.¹⁰ Light emitting diodes are predicted to make up over 70% of the global residential lighting market by 2020.¹¹ Display technologies are also found in many aspects of modern life in the form of computer monitors, data projectors, smartphones, tablets and televisions.¹² A substantial amount of our time is spent using smartphones, which often peaks during the day, but for some users this peaks at night.13

The use of digital display technologies throughout the day and into the night can expose us to relatively high amounts of blue light outside normal daylight hours.⁹

Streetlights are another potential source of blue light exposure. In New Zealand, and worldwide, many streetlights are being switched to LEDs because they are energy efficient to run, long lasting, allow good colour rendition^{***} and give precise optical and electronic optimisation of light delivery. White LED streetlights have a higher proportion of blue wavelengths than the yellow-orange high-pressure sodium streetlights that were New Zealand's dominant streetlight in 2014.¹⁴ By the mid-2020s the percentage of LED streetlights in New Zealand is expected to pass 60%.¹⁵

* The percentages of blue light are provided by the United States Department of Energy, using 405 nm to 530 nm for blue light, and 380 to 780 nm as for the visible spectrum. 4, 8 This definition is the same as the Lamp Spectral Power Distribution Database. 7 It is a broad definition of blue light ranging from violet (405 nm) to green (530 nm), which have been selected to cover the region most strongly influencing the disruption of the circadian rhythm in human health.

** Adapted from the United States Department of Energy website.8

*** Colour rendition describes how accurately a given light source reveals the colour of objects compared with an ideal light source such as the colours observed for the same objects in daylight.

† PC White LED or PC Amber LED are phosphor-converted white or amber light emitting diodes respectively. Phosphor-converted white LEDs are the most common method for forming white LEDs. In this process, a yellow phosphor coats a blue LED to convert some of the short blue wavelengths into longer wavelengths; these combine with the blue wavelengths to give a white light.



TE HAUORA Human health and blue light

Light detection in the eye

The eye detects light and sends information about the environment to the brain through both visual and non-visual processes.¹⁶ Rods and cones are specialised cells in the eye that contribute to image formation. Humans detect colours with three different types of cells – S, M and L cones. These cones have maximum sensitivities in the blue (S cones), green (M cones) and red (L cones) regions of the colour spectrum, (Figure 5) corresponding to peak maxima of approximately 420 nm, 530 nm and 560 nm respectively.¹⁶ Black and white, or monochromatic, vision is undertaken using another type of cell, rods, which can detect light between about 400 and 600 nm (Figure 5).

For more than a century, rods and cones were thought to be the eye's only light detectors. However, in 2002, another cell type, called 'Intrinsically Photosensitive Retinal Ganglion Cells' (ipRGCs), was identified.^{18, 19} These cells drive non-image forming responses to light including aligning when we feel sleepy or alert with the time of day, and controlling pupil constriction.^{18, 20} These cells directly respond to light via a blue light sensitive chemical called melanopsin, which has a peak sensitivity of around 480 nm (Figure 5).^{20, 21} These cells also receive information from other wavelengths indirectly through interconnections with rods and cones.^{16, 22, 23} Rather than forming and tracking images, ipRGCs directly signal the hypothalamus, affecting processes including circadian rhythms and neuroendocrine regulation (the interaction between the nervous system and the hormones of the endocrine glands). The variety of biological functions that ipRGCs are known to modulate has expanded steadily since their discovery in 2002.22

As people age, their eyes will transmit less light to the back of the retina because of the yellowing of the eye's lens.^{1, 24, 25} The eye becomes less responsive to all wavelengths of light with age, with shorter wavelengths in the blue and violet regions of the visible spectrum more prominently affected.^{25, 26}

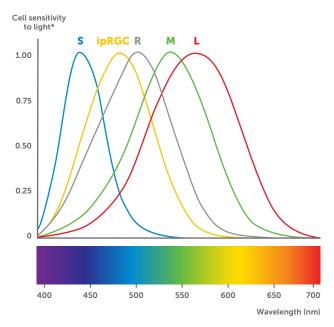


FIGURE 5

Spectral sensitivities to light by photoreceptor cells in the human eye.

Cell type		Peak maximum
S	Short cones	~420 nm
ipRGC	Intrinsically Photosensitive (light detecting) Retinal Ganglion Cells	~480 nm
R	Rods	~500 nm
м	Medium cones	~530 nm
L	Long cones	~560 nm

Figure adapted from Cao and Barrionuevo, 2015.¹⁷ Image reused under CC BY-NC 4.0.

* The y-axis is relative to the peak maximum (adjusted to 1) for each cell type, not absolute values.

Effects of blue light on circadian rhythm

Humans use environmental cues from light to synchronise the body's internal daily rhythms to the external day/night cycle.^{2, 27} How light affects the human body depends on timing and duration of exposure to light, the brightness, as well as its spectral content.^{28, 29} The master circadian clock, a pacemaker in the hypothalamus region of the brain, synchronises daily rhythms at the organ and cellular level. It influences vital processes including metabolism, immune function, sleep, and many aspects of behaviour and mood.^{22, 30, 31} The circadian clock mechanism involves a core group of genes that regulate a protein production loop controlling cell metabolism in cycles ('circadian rhythms') of about 24 hours.^{29, 32-34} The circadian clock receives light information exclusively from ipRGCs in the eye.^{22, 35, 36} These cells are predominantly influenced by blue light at high intensities, 37, 38 although they also receive information from other wavelengths via interconnections with cones and rods.^{16, 22, 23}

Exposure to light, particularly blue wavelengths, at an inappropriate circadian phase leads to circadian disruption and related health and behavioural consequences. Our increasingly 24/7 lifestyle alters our patterns of exposure to blue light and directly challenges our circadian drive for sleep at night. Exposure to blue wavelengths in the evening, including from domestic lighting and light emitting screens, delays the circadian clock. This interference makes it harder to fall asleep at night, to wake up in the morning, and impedes attention abilities the next morning.³⁹⁻⁴² Shift work also results in people sleeping and working at sub-optimal times of the day, leading to poorer sleep⁴³ and health,^{43, 44} reduced productivity, and increased risk of errors and accidents.45-47 In contrast, people experience jetlag as the circadian clock adjusts to the solar cycle of a new time zone and, given enough time, it will adapt completely.48 Social jetlag, the difference between weekend and weekday sleep patterns, can also lead to circadian misalignment with the solar cycle because the body is receiving inconsistent exposure to daylight and light at night.49,50

Reinforcing circadian rhythms with blue-enriched white light at the right time in the circadian cycle can improve alertness, performance, mood and sleep guality.⁵¹ Natural exposure to blue light from the sky during the day is much greater than that received at night from many artificial sources.^{52,53} Exposure to blue light from the sky is greatest around midday.⁹ Exposure to blue light in the morning advances the circadian clock, so may help people who want to move their sleep to an earlier time. Outdoor activities, including camping under natural light conditions, can increase exposure to high intensity light during the day and re-calibrate the circadian rhythm.⁵² Exposure to bright daylight may also reduce the sensitivity of the circadian system to light exposure at night compared to those experiencing dim daytime light with minimal outdoor light contact.54 As mentioned above, as people grow older less blue light is transmitted to the retina and this lower level of transmission during the day is thought to negatively affect sleep for some elderly people.²⁴

Our increasingly 24/7 lifestyle alters our patterns of exposure to blue light and directly challenges our circadian drive for sleep at night.

Clinically administered exposure to light therapy with carefully selected intensity, wavelength and exposure of light can treat some conditions associated with sleep and behaviour. Repeated flashes of saturated blue light (480 nm) during the circadian night, even delivered through closed eyelids, has been shown to shift the human circadian clock.⁵⁵ Professionally administered bright light therapy is used to treat some mood disorders (see the section Behaviour on page 13). Preliminary evidence in honeybees, used as a model for anaesthesia in humans, shows that administering bright white light (fluorescent source, 10 000 Lux) alongside the general anaesthetic isoflurane can counteract the circadian shift caused by the anaesthetic.^{56, 57}



Preliminary evidence suggests that high levels of light exposure at night, particularly when enriched in blue wavelengths, may contribute to the development of some cancers and other health problems.58-66 Possible mechanisms proposed include sleep and circadian disruption via melatonin suppression or disruption of the immune system.⁶⁶ White light sources that are enriched in blue wavelengths, particularly around 460 nm, are more potent at suppressing normal night-time production of the hormone melatonin, which is also regulated by the circadian body clock.^{38, 67} Mice prone to developing breast cancer have an increased risk of forming tumours under repeated light/dark cycle changes simulating shift work.⁶⁸ In humans, there is research supporting the impact that the disruption of normal circadian rhythms has on mood disorders, such as depression, as well as cognitive dysfunction,⁵⁹

increased risk of obesity⁵⁸ and some types of cancer.^{60-62, 65} Preliminary evidence provides a possible association of blue-enriched, white outdoor lighting with breast cancer and prostate cancer.⁶⁹ However, although blue wavelength light potentially contributes to health problems associated with circadian disruption, research has not conclusively demonstrated that blue wavelength light exposure at night causes an increase in these health risks. 63, 64, 70 More research is required into potential mechanisms that light at night might contribute to certain cancer risks, such as disrupting circadian clock genes or by directly suppressing melatonin synthesis.⁶⁶ Further research is also needed to investigate potential long-term health effects caused by the increasing use of blue light enriched sources in many aspects of our daily lives.9

Other health effects of blue light

Behaviour

Regions of the brain involved in attention, alertness, and emotional processes can be stimulated by exposure of the eyes' ipRGCs to blue light (470-480 nm).59,71-73 This effect is even present in some visually blind individuals.⁷⁴ Professionally administered light therapy has been found to be an effective treatment for mood disorders, such as seasonal affective disorder.^{75, 76} and other major depressive disorders.^{76, 77} Bright light therapy containing blue wavelength light is more effective than other wavelengths for treating some sleep and mood disorders, including seasonal affective disorder.^{59, 78, 79} Increasing exposure to blue light from natural daylight may also enhance patient recovery for some depressive disorders. Preliminary evidence suggests patients with depressive disorders who are exposed to more daylight in the morning, in addition to the conventional treatment by their psychiatrist, may require, on average, shorter stays in hospital.⁸⁰ Similar research found that the length of hospital stays decreased for bipolar patients, but not unipolar depressed patients, in rooms receiving direct sunlight in the morning.⁸¹

Road safety

Street lighting aims to reduce accident rates by improving visibility at night⁸² and can be an effective road safety measure.⁸²⁻⁸⁴ Advances in lighting technologies have also enhanced the ability to tune the spectrum of LED streetlights and to dynamically adapt light levels compared with older, high pressure sodium or mercury vapour lighting technologies.⁸⁵

The use of white light at night, at low illumination levels, may improve visibility and safety. Streetlights with blue-enriched white light, including metal halide lights and some LEDs, may improve some aspects of peripheral vision,⁸⁶⁻⁸⁹ which is important in lower-speed residential roads that have low illuminance lighting levels. On highways and other higher speed roads the visual benefits of white light are less apparent.86 Reaction times are faster at low light intensities of white light than at low intensities of yellower high-pressure sodium streetlamps.^{86, 88} While headlights with a higher proportion of blue wavelengths can improve visibility, they also can increase disability glare* when viewed directly.⁹⁰ Studies in the US have found that both drivers and pedestrians perceived better visibility, safety, security and colour rendering with whiter street lighting containing a higher proportion of blue light** than highpressure sodium lamps.^{87, 91}

Further research is required to demonstrate substantial road safety effects for selecting white LED street lighting over high pressure sodium.^{85, 92} Street lighting is a complex issue, with safety, road use and driving behaviour, visibility and environmental impacts to consider when choosing lighting options. Factors other than colour temperature, such as lighting levels, uniformity, glare, waste light, energy consumption, reliability, maintainability and costs need to be considered.⁹³

Eye damage

Even momentary exposure to high intensity light sources can result in severe and permanent damage to the retina, such as found in solar retinopathy, an injury commonly associated with gazing directly at the sun or a solar eclipse. Examples of high intensity blue light sources where this is an issue include arc welding or high-powered blue coloured lasers.^{1, 24, 95} Recent animal studies provide evidence that filtering very highintensity blue light partially protects photoreceptors from damage.⁹⁶ The blue light levels used to induce this damage are usually much higher than the human retina would experience under normal circumstances⁹⁷ and not applicable to artificial light sources for general purpose lighting.

Artificial light sources on the market must meet certain requirements including assessment for the potential hazard caused to the retina for sources that contain a significant portion of blue light wavelengths.^{1, 98} The health risks from direct viewing of light sources enriched in blue wavelengths, as found in white LED sources, vary depending on the duration of exposure, strength of the light, and distance from the source. For example, under acute, direct viewing conditions of selected LEDs at 200 lumens, the cold-white LEDs (above 5000 K) fell into the moderate risk category (Risk Group 2).¹ Under the same conditions, the neutralwhite (4000 K) and warm-white (3000 K) LEDs were classified as low risk or exempt, respectively.¹ Any lamps that are classified as moderate risk (Risk Group 2) must be labelled with a warning not to stare at the lamp during operation because it may be harmful to the retina.⁹⁸ Light emitted from typical settings on computer and mobile device screens has been shown to be well below the threshold luminance to cause retinal damage, such as that seen in macular degeneration.⁵³ There is some concern about the effect of blue light on young children, since their retina receives relatively more blue wavelength light than adults.^{1, 97} Further research is required to establish whether long-term, low-level exposure to artificial light enriched in blue wavelengths is a risk factor for macular degeneration.^{1, 24, 97}

^{*} Loss of visibility of an object due to stray light scatter within the eye.

^{**} The New Zealand Transport Agency prefers 4000 K LED streetlights, in accordance with the current road lighting standards.⁹³ Consideration is given for warmer lighting in special circumstances including around Dark Skies reserves or areas of high pedestrian use where additional measures have been taken to mitigate accidents between vehicles and pedestrians.⁹⁴

Mitigating the harmful health effects of blue light at night

Humans have evolved to use daylight and darkness to regulate circadian rhythms, which is important for our health and wellbeing.^{2, 27} Increasing exposure to natural daylight, particularly in the morning, can help synchronise the body clock with the solar day.^{52, 54} Limiting the amount of light at night is also important for circadian health.

Advances in lighting technology have provided possible ways of reducing adverse lighting effects and enhancing other desired effects. Compared with earlier lighting technologies, LEDs provide precise optical control and more opportunity to change and tune their spectral distribution, allowing lighting designers to reduce obtrusive effects from light scattering into unintended areas.⁸⁵ Consumers can make some decisions about the brightness and blue light specifications in their personal use, including smartphones, laptops, televisions, and household lighting. In contrast, local governing bodies are responsible for decisions relating to broader community and local environment, including street lighting. Light limiting technologies are also available that reduce exposure to blue light and its potentially adverse effects in the evening. These technologies, designed to block blue light from suppressing melatonin, include blue light blocking glasses ⁹⁹⁻¹⁰³ or applications to lower blue light spectral content and backlight intensities (brightness) of digital screens at night.^{100, 104} While these technologies may reduce the blue light effects on circadian health, there is currently a lack of high quality evidence regarding the overall benefits of installing filters or using blue light blocking glasses with regard to long-term macular health.¹⁰⁵

Other steps to mitigate the harmful effects of blue light at night include using light bulbs with warmer hues and using dimmers to reduce the intensity of exposure to light at night. In addition to using the light limiting technologies above, limiting the amount of screen time on electronic devices at night and reading from a book or from a non-light emitting eReader instead of a device with a backlit digital screen can also reduce exposure.⁴¹ Darkness is beneficial for sleep; rooms can become darker by blocking light from outside with curtains, and turning off lights.



ACTIONS WE CAN TAKE TO Reduce harmful effects of blue light on our health



- 1. Be exposed to daylight in the morning and darkness at night for better circadian health and wellbeing.
- Limit blue light exposure from digital screens including smartphones, televisions and computers at night by reducing screen brightness, using night-time apps that lower blue light output or turning devices off.
- Replace cooler/brighter blueish-white lightbulbs with warmer coloured yellowishwhite lightbulbs.

TE TAIAO Blue light and the environment

The role of blue light in nature

Plants, animals and many microorganisms have adapted to use and respond to light. The ability to sense blue light (400–500 nm) is widespread throughout the plant and animal kingdoms. This ability works through specialised light-sensitive structures including cryptochromes, blue/UV-A photoreceptors, ^{106, 107} and short-wavelength sensitive cone cells in the eye.¹⁰⁸ Response to light depends on many factors including timing, duration, intensity, spectral content and spatial distribution.¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹¹ Different spectral colours of light have been shown to have a range of effects on plants and animals.¹¹² Light-associated biological processes, including photosynthesis, vision and circadian rhythms, have evolved to respond more to some wavelengths over others.¹¹³

Potential effects of artificial blue light on the ecosystem

Circadian regulation

Like humans, plants and animals possess a circadian clock that regulates aspects of their activity and physiology on a cycle that usually approximates 24 hours.^{110, 114} Light is generally the most important time cue to synchronise circadian rhythms to the day/night cycle. Exposure at night may disrupt melatonin production in many animals including fish, birds and mammals.¹¹⁰ Chronic circadian clock disruption caused by experiments inducing jetlag has been shown to accelerate malignant cancer grown in mice; ¹¹⁵⁻¹¹⁷ and to suppress immune responses in Siberian hamsters, ¹¹⁸ rats, ¹¹⁹ chickens¹²⁰ and Japanese quail.¹²¹ Blue light has been shown to play a role in regulating circadian clocks in plants and animals.^{106, 107, 122} For example blue/green light disruption of the light/dark cycle has been shown to reduce both male caterpillar and pupal mass, and reduce the duration of pupation in both sexes in the European cabbage moth.¹²³

Plants

Cryptochromes, photoreceptors for blue light and UV-A radiation, play an important role in how plants react to light.¹⁰⁷ Blue (400–500 nm) and red (650-700 nm) light are the primary wavelengths that activate chlorophyll, the main light absorbing pigment in plants.¹²⁴ The blue light photoreceptor, phototropin, controls plant behaviours such as growing towards a light source.¹¹¹ Blue light has been shown to affect plant greening, 125, 126 budburst,¹²⁷ photoperiodic flowering,¹²⁸ stomatal opening,^{129, 130} the inhibition of warm temperatureinduced growth,¹³¹ circadian activity,¹³² and root development,¹³³ and is indicated in the inhibition of spore germination in ferns.¹³⁴ Red light also plays a role in controlling flowering and shoot elongation in plants.135, 136

Blue light has been shown to play a role in regulating circadian clocks in plants and animals.

Blue light also has the potential to influence plantanimal interactions. For example, blue/green light has been shown to reduce activity and mating in the European winter moth (*Operophtera brumata*).¹³⁷ These moths typically show strong synchrony in egg hatching with spring budburst in host trees such as oak.¹³⁸ Disruption of seasonal light cues by artificial light, population level changes or aggregation of individuals could modify interactions including herbivory, seed dispersal and pollination.^{111, 139}

Animals

Animals have adapted to perceive wavelengths of light in different areas of the electromagnetic spectrum,¹¹² some at much lower light intensities than humans can see. Artificial light can sometimes enhance or detract from an animal's vision, changing behaviour such as foraging, navigation and reproductive behaviour.¹¹³ At an ecosystems level, light can also change how species interact, for example by altering competitive advantage under different light conditions at night. Different wavelengths can also trigger responses in some species but not in others, for example ultraviolet radiation, violet and blue light are particularly attractive to bees and some other insects.^{140, 141} While much is known about the negative effects of artificial light at night on animal physiology and behaviour, few studies have looked at the emerging issue of blue light wavelengths from streetlights on animals.¹⁴² A New Zealand study showed that flying insects were more attracted to white LED (48% more trapped) than to traditional high-pressure sodium streetlights.¹⁴³ These white LEDs contain a higher proportion of blue light than the predominantly orange light from high-pressure sodium lamps. The attraction to light was dependent on the type of insect, with strong effects observed for Lepidoptera^{**} and Diptera^{**}, whereas other dominant taxa showed no significant increase seen from the dark control.



* Lepidoptera is the order that contains moths and butterflies.

** Diptera is the order that contains true flies.

Even warmer coloured LED lights (2700 and 3000 K) affected these insects. There was no significant difference observed for the number of insects trapped as colour temperature increased from 2700 K to 6500 K LED lights.¹⁴³ In Germany, white mercury lamps were shown to attract more than twice the number of insects as high-pressure sodium streetlights.¹⁴⁴ This increase is probably associated with both the blue light and UV wavelengths of the mercury lamps. LED streetlights do not radiate UV.

Blue/green outdoor lighting has been shown to affect the foraging of various European bat species, increasing the activity of some, and reducing it in others.^{145, 146} Blue/green light has been shown to help birds align in direction during migration, while red light has been shown to disrupt this orientation,^{147, 148} with the potential to increase the risk of birds striking communication towers.¹⁴⁹ Leatherback turtles are more sensitive to shorter wavelengths than other colours, moving towards blue or white light even on moonlit nights.¹⁵⁰ Most frogs also exhibit a blue light preference, and move towards blue light,¹⁵¹ whereas migrating toads avoid areas of road illuminated with white or green light.¹⁵²

Bioluminescence signals are used in sexual communication by marine species and fireflies, and operate at the 470 nm blue wavelength.¹⁵³ Artificial lighting with this spectrum could disrupt mating behaviour in these species.¹⁵⁴

Mitigating the harmful ecological effects of artificial blue light

A review of the impact of artificial light at night proposed several management strategies to reduce the harmful effects on ecosystems.¹⁰⁹ These strategies include avoiding use altogether, reducing the duration of use, limiting light scattering directed into unintended areas, dimming light intensities and altering the spectral composition through light source selection and filters.¹⁰⁹ However, the effectiveness of many of these strategies to reduce the biological effects of blue light has not been extensively studied.¹⁵⁵ A study in the UK investigated how light intensity, use of timers, and changing the spectral composition affected spiders and beetles in grassland communities. The combination of lower intensity light and turning off the lights between midnight and 4 am had the most potential, but did not completely mitigate the environmental impacts.¹⁵⁵ Further research, with expertise from both ecologists and lighting engineers, is needed to develop lighting that is fit for purpose and which minimises harm to the ecosystem.¹⁴³ Some of this research is already underway as part of the Australian Federal Government project on developing 'Light Pollution Guidelines for Marine Turtles, Seabirds and Migratory Shorebirds'.¹⁵⁶

ACTIONS WE CAN TAKE TO Reduce harmful effects of blue light on plants and wildlife

- Be aware that plants and animals are also sensitive to light; some are strongly affected by blue wavelengths whereas others may be more strongly affected by other colours.
- 2. Use outdoor lighting only when and where needed and ensure light does not spill into unintended areas.
- Change the colour of outdoor light by filtering or by changing the light source if it will benefit species in your area.



MĀTAI ARORANGI Artificial blue light and the night sky

Artificial sky brightness

Enhancement of sky brightness due to artificial lighting is known as artificial sky glow.¹⁵⁷ Even some locations with pristine dark skies above them can experience significant artificial sky glow at the horizon.^{158, 159} The majority of light pollution comes from road-associated lighting including street lighting, vehicle lights, and roadside advertisements.¹⁶⁰ Design standards in New Zealand and Australia set significantly lower road lighting levels than Europe and the USA.^{92, 93} A snapshot of artificial sky glow on a cloudless^{*} night in Wellington suggested that artificial sky glow varies during the night as various light sources are turned off.¹⁶¹ In the late evening, 28% of sky glow could be attributed to variable sources including domestic, commercial and vehicle lighting, and by early morning this contribution had reduced to around 4%. Static sources accounted for the majority of sky glow. The relative contributions of discrete static sources including street lighting, industrial lighting (port and rail), architectural and security lighting, were not quantified.¹⁶¹

When observing the night sky, the brightness of artificial sky glow is strongly affected by the spectral distribution of the light sources causing it, and by air clarity and cloud cover.^{157, 159, 162} While any light contributes to this issue, blue light easily scatters, which increases light pollution.¹⁶³ When the sky is clear, blue-rich white LED and metal halide sources produce up to 3x brighter visual sky brightness than high-pressure sodium lamps, owing to the stronger scattering of blue light in the atmosphere.¹⁶² However, cloudy conditions can substantially increase the relative back-scattering of all wavelengths of light, particularly at the red end of the spectrum.¹⁶⁴ There has been a global movement to replace traditional yellow-orange sodium streetlights (both low and high-pressure) with more energy-efficient LED streetlights. Historically, New Zealand, like many other countries, installed predominantly high-pressure sodium lamps¹⁶⁵ but many are now being replaced with LED streetlights.¹⁵ In comparison with high-pressure sodium lights, 4000 K LED streetlights could cause a 2.5x increase in sky brightness, if other aspects of the lamp design are not improved with the retrofit.¹⁵⁸ In New Zealand,

to reduce the impact on sky brightness, design standards restrict the amount of upwards light⁹³ and guidelines recommend only streetlights with less than 1% direct upward waste light emissions are installed.¹⁶⁶

Astronomical observations

Any increase in sky brightness has implications for optical astronomical observations as dark skies are required to detect the faint light from objects in outer space.¹⁶³ Blue light is of particular concern as it scatters more readily, exacerbating loss of night sky visibility.^{162, 163} Māori use of astronomy is also fundamental to many traditional practices including agriculture, architecture and navigation and is entwined in many aspects of Māori culture and beliefs.¹⁶⁷ In New Zealand, 53% of the country is estimated to experience a pristine night sky (See figure 6 on page 20), but only 3% of New Zealand's population is predicted to live under this pristine dark sky.¹⁵⁸ It is estimated that 56% of New Zealand's population lives under a sky where, due to light pollution, the Milky Way is no longer clearly visible.¹⁵⁸

Light pollution makes ground-based optical astronomical observations more difficult to perform, particularly when the spectral interference from the light pollution overlaps with wavelengths for spectra investigated in astronomy.¹⁶⁸ For example, the blue wavelengths observed in optical astronomy are often characteristic in emerging new stars and galaxies.¹⁶³ Blue wavelengths found in some white streetlamps can interfere with these astronomical observations.¹⁶³ The wavelength of light used to identify a form of oxygen found in interstellar dust clouds (436.3 nm) is nearly identical to the wavelength of light from fluorescent (low-pressure mercury vapour) streetlamps (435.8 nm).¹⁶⁸ Low-pressure sodium lights produce nearly monochromatic yellow light (589 nm) which is easy to filter out by astronomers.¹⁶⁹ Fluorescent and low-pressure sodium streetlamps are now outdated technology; however, the blue wavelengths of modern, broad-spectrum, white LEDs also cause issues for optical astronomy.¹⁶³ Narrowspectrum amber LEDs may be more suitable than white LEDs around observatories.163

* A thin layer of high cloud was detected after 1 am, this was taken into account in the study. 161

Any increase in sky brightness has implications for optical astronomical observations as dark skies are required to detect the faint lights from objects in outer space.

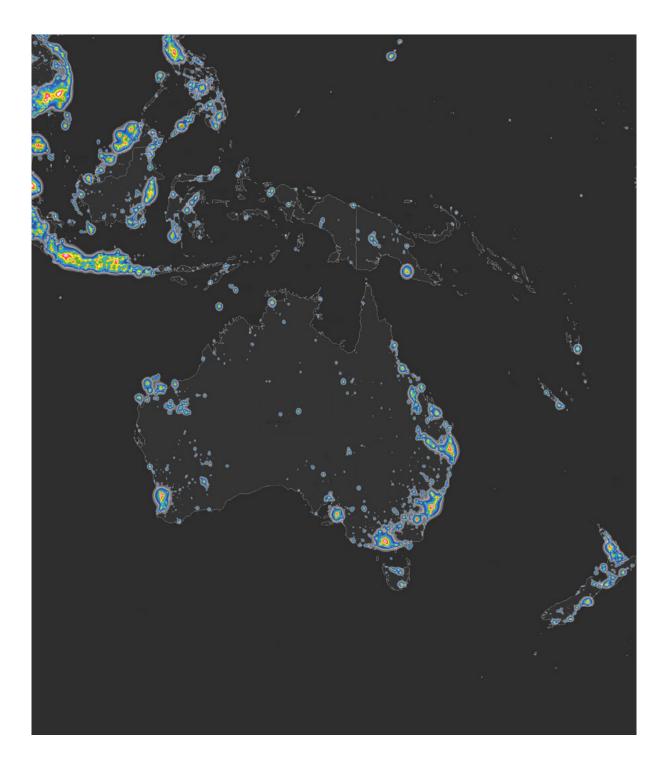


FIGURE 6

Estimated artificial sky brightness for Australia, Indonesia, and New Zealand when viewing the night sky at the zenith (directly above).158 The colours notate the lighting levels compared to natural background light. Black and grey regions have very low levels of artificial light (<2% natural background). The blue coloured regions (above 8% natural background) are considered polluted from an astronomical perspective. Yellow regions (128–256% natural background) are the level at which the Milky Way can no longer be observed in winter. Red through white (above 512% natural background) are regions that never experience true night as the light levels are at least as bright as natural twilight. The satellite data for mapping the artificial sky brightness in these images were collected over six months in 2014.158

Image reused under CC BY-NC 4.0.

Mitigating the impact of artificial blue light on the night sky

The International Astronomical Union¹⁶³ and the International Dark-Sky Association¹⁷⁰ suggest measures for effectively reducing light pollution. These recommendations include only lighting areas when and where required, reducing the use of light with dimmers, timers and motion sensors, and avoiding over-lighting.^{163, 170} Recommendations also include selecting fully-shielded fixtures that do not emit light upwards, and selecting lamps with lower blue emissions, such as those with a CCT of 3000 K or less.^{163, 170} LED technology gives much finer control over tuning and adapting light levels that was not available with previous technology.⁸⁵ Smart controls can be installed which can assist in reducing wasteful and unnecessary lamp operation during off-peak traffic periods.92

The International Dark-Sky Association certifies communities, parks, reserves and sanctuaries around the world which meet international specifications for their Dark Sky Places Program.¹⁷¹ The Aoraki Mackenzie International Dark Sky Reserve was designated New Zealand's first International Dark Sky Reserve in 2012. Great Barrier Island received certification as an International Dark Sky Sanctuary in 2017. There is a current proposal underway for Martinborough to become a Dark Sky Reserve.¹⁷² Stewart Island, Waiheke Island and Naseby are also working towards accreditation as Dark Sky Places.¹⁷³⁻¹⁷⁶ Martinborough and Naseby are the first two places in New Zealand to be recognised by the International Dark-Sky Association for providing 3000 K street lighting.177



ACTIONS WE CAN TAKE TO

Reduce harmful effects of blue light on the night sky

- 1. Be aware that light pollution reduces our ability to see features in the night sky.
- Reduce light pollution by using outdoor lighting only when and where needed; ensure light does not spill upwards or into unintended areas; and select amber or warm white sources over those with higher blue emissions.
- Modify the lighting of communities, parks, reserves and sanctuaries so that they meet international standards for good outdoor lighting practice set out in the Dark Sky Places Program.

Research gaps

Further peer-reviewed research on the impact of artificial blue light exposure, and how rapidly advancing lighting technologies may mitigate any negative effects of exposure, is required. Examples include:

- Investigating long-term health-related impacts of exposure, including for shift workers; 63, 64, 70, 97
- The changing effects of blue light on circadian rhythms and eye health across different life stages; 1, 9, 24, 26, 97
- The impact of long-term, low-level retinal exposure to blue wavelengths from common white light sources; 1, 9, 24, 97
- The impact of exposure from outdoor lighting on ecosystems, including flora and fauna unique to Aotearoa New Zealand; 110, 111, 113, 143, 178, 179
- How to best mitigate the health and environmental impacts of lighting while still maintaining demonstrable benefits from using artificial light at night.^{64, 85, 92, 109, 110, 143, 158, 179}

Our experts

This paper was authored by Royal Society Te Apārangi, under the guidance of the following expert reference group:

Mr Godfrey Bridger, Professor Philippa Gander FRSNZ, Professor John Hearnshaw FRSNZ, Ms Susan Mander, Dr Stephen Pawson, Associate Professor Karen Pollard, Associate Professor Margaret Stanley, Dr Alexander Tups, and Dr Lora Wu.

The Society would like to thank the following experts and organisations for their valuable input in contributing to and commenting on the paper:

Dr John Barentine, Mr Denis Burchill, Mr Steve Butler, Mr Chris Chitty, Dr Andrew Collins, Mr Bill Frith, Mr Mike Jackett, Mr Bryan King, Ms Ellery McNaughton, Mr Lee Mauger, Dr Franck Natali, Associate Professor Guy Warman, Dr David Wratt CRSNZ, with feedback from Dunedin City Council, Dunedin Dark Skies Group, Illuminating Engineering Society of Australia and New Zealand, Lauder Atmospheric Research Station NIWA, Lighting Council New Zealand, Ministry of Business Innovation and Employment, Ministry of Health, New Zealand Dark Sky Network, New Zealand Transport Agency, Royal Astronomical Society of New Zealand and The Royal Australasian College of Physicians.

Professor Kevin Gaston and Dr Katharina Wulff provided independent international review of this paper.

International award winning photographer Mark Gee provided the astrophotograph of the night sky above Wellington.

References

- 1. Behar-Cohen, F., et al., *Light-emitting diodes (LED) for domestic lighting: Any risks for the eye?* Progress in Retinal and Eye Research, 2011. 30(4): p. 239–257.
- Norton, B., et al., Daylight: contexts and concepts, in Changing perspectives on daylight: science, technology and culture, S. Sanders and J. Oberst, Editors. 2017, Science/AAAS: Washington DC. p. 4–8.
- Nasrallah, M., Why is the sky blue? Scientific American, 2003. 289(4): p. 103.
- US Department of Energy, Street lighting and blue light: frequently asked questions. 2017, Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy, US Department of Energy. Accessed March 2018. energy.gov/eere/ssl/downloads/street-lightingand-blue-light-faqs
- European Lighting School. Understanding the Light. Accessed March 2018. lightingschool.eu/portfolio/ understanding-the-light
- Mander, S., Spectra of selected domestic lamps available on the New Zealand market. 2018, School of Engineering and Advanced Technology, Massey University: Auckland. p. 14.
- Roby, J. and M. Aubé. Lamp Spectral Power Distribution Database. Accessed March 2018. galileo.graphycs. cegepsherbrooke.qc.CA/app/en/home
- US Department of Energy. Table: selected blue light characteristics of various outdoor lighting sources at equivalent lumen output. (Updated June 2017). Acessed April 2018. energy.gov/eere/ssl/downloads/selected-blue-lightcharacteristics-various-outdoor-lighting-sources-equivalent
- Hatori, M., et al., Global rise of potential health hazards caused by blue light-induced circadian disruption in modern aging societies. NPJ Aging and Mechanisms of Disease, 2017. 3(9): p. 1–3.
- **10.** Wooliscroft, B., *National household survey of energy and transportation: energy cultures two.* 2015: CSAFE University of Otago: Dunedin. p. 140.
- **11.** Baumgartner, T., et al., *Lighting the way: perspectives on the global lighting market*. 2012, McKinsey and Company: Vienna. p. 58.
- **12.** Chen, H.-W., et al., *Liquid crystal display and organic lightemitting diode display: present status and future perspectives.* Light: Science and Applications, 2018. 7(3): p. e17168.
- Christensen, M.A., et al., Direct measurements of smartphone screen-time: relationships with demographics and sleep. PLoS ONE, 2016. 11(11): p. e0165331.
- **14.** Pricewaterhouse Coopers, *Review on the likely impact of an uptake in LED road lighting.* 2014, Pricewaterhouse Coopers: Wellington. p. 23.
- 15. EECA Business. *Road lighting*. 2016. Accessed January 2018. eecabusiness.govt.nz/technologies/lighting/road-lighting
- Münch, M., et al., The effect of light on humans, in Changing perspectives on daylight: science, technology and culture, S. Sanders and J. Oberst, Editors. 2017, Science/AAAS: Washington DC. p. 16–23.
- **17.** Cao, D. and P.A. Barrionuevo, *The importance of intrinsically photosensitive retinal ganglion cells and implications for lighting design.* Journal of Solid State Lighting, 2015. 2(1): p. 10.

- Hattar, S., et al., Melanopsin-containing retinal ganglion cells: architecture, projections, and intrinsic photosensitivity. Science, 2002. 295(5557): p. 1065–1070.
- Berson, D.M., F.A. Dunn, and M. Takao, Phototransduction by retinal ganglion cells that set the circadian clock. Science, 2002. 295(5557): p. 1070–1073.
- Graham, D.M. and K.Y. Wong, Melanopsin-expressing, intrinsically photosensitive Retinal Ganglion Cells (ipRGCs), 2008 (Updated 2016) in Webvision: the organization of the retina and visual system [internet], H. Kolb, E. Fernandez, and R. Nelson, Editors. 1995-, University of Utah Health Sciences Center: Salt Lake City. p. 47.
- Lucas, R.J., et al., Measuring and using light in the melanopsin age. Trends in Neurosciences, 2014. 37(1): p. 1–9.
- **22.** Lazzerini Ospri, L., G. Prusky, and S. Hattar, *Mood, the circadian system, and melanopsin retinal ganglion cells.* Annual Review of Neuroscience, 2017. 40: p. 539–556.
- Altimus, C.M., et al., Rod photoreceptors drive circadian photoentrainment across a wide range of light intensities. Nature Neuroscience, 2010. 13(9): p. 1107–1112.
- **24.** Tosini, G., I. Ferguson, and K. Tsubota, *Effects of blue light on the circadian system and eye physiology.* Molecular Vision, 2016. 22: p. 61–72.
- Kessel, L., et al., Age-related changes in the transmission properties of the human lens and their relevance to circadian entrainment. Journal of Cataract & Refractive Surgery, 2010. 36(2): p. 308–312.
- **26.** Rukmini, A.V., et al., *Pupillary responses to short-wavelength light are preserved in aging.* Scientific reports, 2017. 7: p. e43832.
- 27. Reppert, S.M. and D.R. Weaver, *Coordination of circadian timing in mammals*. Nature, 2002. 418(6901): p. 935–941.
- **28.** Gooley, J.J., et al., Spectral responses of the human circadian system depend on the irradiance and duration of exposure to light. Science Translational Medicine, 2010. 2(31): p. 31ra33.
- **29.** Bedrosian, T.A. and R.J. Nelson, *Timing of light exposure affects mood and brain circuits*. Translational Psychiatry, 2017. 7(1): p. e1017.
- Hastings, M.H., A.B. Reddy, and E.S. Maywood, A clockwork web: circadian timing in brain and periphery, in health and disease. Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 2003. 4(8): p. 649–661.
- Foster, R.G. and L. Kreitzman, *The rhythms of life: what your body clock means to you!* Experimental Physiology, 2014. 99(4): p. 599–606.
- Gillette, M.U., Chronobiology: biological timing in health and disease. 2013: Progress in Molecular Biology and Translational Science (Vol. 119). Academic Press. p. 356.
- **33.** Dibner, C. and U. Schibler, *Body clocks: time for the Nobel Prize*. Acta Physiologica, 2018. 222(2): p. e13024.
- Zubidat, A., E. and A. Haim, Artificial light-at-night a novel lifestyle risk factor for metabolic disorder and cancer morbidity, Journal of Basic and Clinical Physiology and Pharmacology. 2017. 28(4): p. 295–313.
- Gooley, J.J., et al., *Melanopsin in cells of origin of the retinohypothalamic tract*. Nature Neuroscience, 2001. 4: p. 1165.

- Thapan, K., J. Arendt, and D.J. Skene, An action spectrum for melatonin suppression: evidence for a novel non-rod, non-cone photoreceptor system in humans. The Journal of Physiology, 2001. 535(1): p. 261–267.
- **37.** Brainard, G.C., et al., *Action spectrum for melatonin regulation in humans: evidence for a novel circadian photoreceptor.* Journal of Neuroscience, 2001. 21(16): p. 6405–6412.
- Brainard, G.C., et al., Short-wavelength enrichment of polychromatic light enhances human melatonin suppression potency. Journal of Pineal Research, 2015. 58(3): p. 352–361.
- Green, A., et al., Comparing the response to acute and chronic exposure to short wavelength lighting emitted from computer screens. Chronobiology International, 2018. 35(1): p. 90–100.
- Green, A., et al., Evening light exposure to computer screens disrupts human sleep, biological rhythms, and attention abilities. Chronobiology International, 2017. 34(7): p. 855–865.
- Chang, A.-M., et al., Evening use of light-emitting eReaders negatively affects sleep, circadian timing, and next-morning alertness. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2015. 112(4): p. 1232–1237.
- **42.** Cajochen, C., et al., *Evening exposure to a light-emitting diodes (LED)-backlit computer screen affects circadian physiology and cognitive performance.* Journal of Applied Physiology, 2011. 110(5): p. 1432–1438.
- **43.** Yong, L.C., J. Li, and G.M. Calvert, *Sleep-related problems in the US working population: prevalence and association with shiftwork status.* Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 2017. 74(2): p. 93–104.
- **44.** Wyse, C.A., et al., Adverse metabolic and mental health outcomes associated with shiftwork in a population-based study of 277,168 workers in UK biobank. Annals of Medicine, 2017. 49(5): p. 411–420.
- **45.** Gander, P., et al., *Work patterns and fatigue-related risk among junior doctors*. Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 2007. 64(11): p. 733–738.
- **46.** Folkard, S. and P. Tucker, *Shift work, safety and productivity.* Occupational Medicine, 2003. 53(2): p. 95–101.
- Marquié, J.-C., et al., Chronic effects of shift work on cognition: findings from the VISAT longitudinal study. Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 2015. 72(4): p. 258–264.
- Kiessling, S., G. Eichele, and H. Oster, Adrenal glucocorticoids have a key role in circadian resynchronization in a mouse model of jet lag. The Journal of Clinical Investigation, 2010. 120(7): p. 2600–2609.
- **49.** Parsons, M.J., et al., *Social jetlag, obesity and metabolic disorder: investigation in a cohort study.* International Journal of Obesity (2005), 2015. 39(5): p. 842–848.
- **50.** Roenneberg, T., et al., *Social jetlag and obesity.* Current Biology, 2012. 22(10): p. 939–943.
- Viola, A.U., et al., Blue-enriched white light in the workplace improves self-reported alertness, performance and sleep quality. Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health, 2008: p. 297–306.
- **52.** Wright, Kenneth P., et al., *Entrainment of the human circadian clock to the natural light-dark cycle*. Current Biology, 2013. 23(16): p. 1554–1558.
- O'Hagan, J.B., M. Khazova, and L.L.A. Price, Low-energy light bulbs, computers, tablets and the blue light hazard. Eye, 2016. 30: p. 230–233.

- Hébert, M., et al., The effects of prior light history on the suppression of melatonin by light in humans. Journal of Pineal Research, 2002. 33(4): p. 198–203.
- 55. Figueiro, M.G., A. Bierman, and M.S. Rea, A train of blue light pulses delivered through closed eyelids suppresses melatonin and phase shifts the human circadian system. Nature and Science of Sleep, 2013. 5: p. 133–141.
- **56.** Cheeseman, J.F., et al., *General anesthesia alters time perception by phase shifting the circadian clock.* Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2012. 109(18): p. 7061.
- **57.** Ludin, N.M., et al., *The effects of the general anaesthetic isoflurane on the honey bee (Apis mellifera) circadian clock.* Chronobiology International, 2016. 33(1): p. 128–133.
- Wyse, C., et al., Circadian desynchrony and metabolic dysfunction; did light pollution make us fat? Medical Hypotheses, 2011. 77(6): p. 1139–1144.
- LeGates, T.A., D.C. Fernandez, and S. Hattar, Light as a central modulator of circadian rhythms, sleep and affect. Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 2014. 15(7): p. 443–454.
- **60.** Straif, K., et al., *Carcinogenicity of shift-work, painting, and fire-fighting*. 2007, Elsevier.
- Smolensky, M.H., L.L. Sackett-Lundeen, and F. Portaluppi, Nocturnal light pollution and underexposure to daytime sunlight: Complementary mechanisms of circadian disruption and related diseases. Chronobiology International, 2015. 32(8): p. 1029–1048.
- **62.** Haim, A. and B.A. Portnov, *Light pollution as a new risk factor for human breast and prostate cancers*. 2013, Dordrecht: Springer. p. 168.
- **63.** Reiter, R.J., et al., *Light-mediated perturbations of circadian timing and cancer risk: a mechanistic analysis.* Integrative Cancer Therapies, 2009. 8(4): p. 354–360.
- Stevens, R.G. and Y. Zhu, *Electric light, particularly at night, disrupts human circadian rhythmicity: is that a problem?* Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 2015. 370(1667): p. 20140120.
- **65.** Kim, Y.J., et al., *High incidence of breast cancer in lightpolluted areas with spatial effects in Korea.* Asian Pacific Journal of Cancer Prevention, 2016. 17(1): p. 361–367.
- 66. Samuelsson, L.B., et al., Sleep and circadian disruption and incident breast cancer risk: an evidence-based and theoretical review. Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews, 2018. 84: p. 35–48.
- Vartanian, G.V., et al., Melatonin suppression by light in humans is more sensitive than previously reported. Journal of Biological Rhythms, 2015. 30(4): p. 351–354.
- Van Dycke, Kirsten C.G., et al., Chronically alternating light cycles increase breast cancer risk in mice. Current Biology, 2015. 25(14): p. 1932–1937.
- **69.** Garcia-Saenz, A., et al., *Evaluating the association between artificial light-at-night exposure and breast and prostate cancer risk in Spain (MCC-Spain study).* Environmental Health Perspectives, 2018. 126(4): p. 047011.
- **70.** Stevens, R.G., et al., *Breast cancer and circadian disruption from electric lighting in the modern world.* CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicans, 2014. 64(3): p. 207–218.
- **71.** Vandewalle, G., et al., Wavelength-dependent modulation of brain responses to a working memory task by daytime light exposure. Cerebral Cortex, 2007. 17(12): p. 2788–2795.
- Vandewalle, G., et al., Spectral quality of light modulates emotional brain responses in humans. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2010. 107(45): p. 19549–19554.

- **73.** Hung, S.-M., et al., *Cerebral neural correlates of differential melanopic photic stimulation in humans.* NeuroImage, 2017. 146: p. 763–769.
- **74.** Vandewalle, G., et al., *Blue light stimulates cognitive brain activity in visually blind individuals.* Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 2013. 25(12): p. 2072–2085.
- Westrin, Å. and R.W. Lam, Seasonal Affective Disorder: A clinical update. Annals of Clinical Psychiatry, 2007. 19(4): p. 239–246.
- **76.** Terman, M. and J.S. Terman, *Light therapy for seasonal and nonseasonal depression: efficacy, protocol, safety, and side effects.* CNS spectrums, 2005. 10(8): p. 647–663.
- **77.** Lam, R.W., et al., *Efficacy of bright light treatment, fluoxetine, and the combination in patients with nonseasonal major depressive disorder: A randomized clinical trial.* JAMA Psychiatry, 2016. 73(1): p. 56–63.
- **78.** Glickman, G., et al., *Light therapy for seasonal affective disorder with blue narrow-band light-emitting diodes (LEDs).* Biological Psychiatry, 2006. 59(6): p. 502–507.
- 79. Strong, R.E., et al., Narrow-band blue-light treatment of seasonal affective disorder in adults and the influence of additional nonseasonal symptoms. Depression and Anxiety, 2009. 26(3): p. 273-278.
- Canellas, F., et al., Increased daylight availability reduces length of hospitalisation in depressive patients. European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience, 2016. 266(3): p. 277–280.
- **81.** Benedetti, F., et al., *Morning sunlight reduces length of hospitalization in bipolar depression*. Journal of Affective Disorders, 2001. 62(3): p. 221–223.
- **82.** Elvik, R., et al., *The handbook of road safety measures*. 2009: Emerald Group Publishing. p. 1140.
- **83.** Frith, B. and M. Jackett, *An investigation into the safety benefits of flag lighting at New Zealand state highway intersections.* 2016, Opus International Consultants Ltd: Lower Hutt. p. 31.
- Jackett, M. and W. Frith, *Quantifying the impact of road lighting on road safety a New Zealand study.* IATSS Research, 2013. 36(2): p. 139–145.
- Fotios, S. and R. Gibbons, Road lighting research for drivers and pedestrians: The basis of luminance and illuminance recommendations. Lighting Research & Technology, 2018. 50(1): p. 154–186.
- Fotios, S.A. and C. Cheal, Lighting for subsidiary streets: investigation of lamps of different SPD. Part 1–Visual Performance. Lighting Research & Technology, 2007. 39(3): p. 215–232.
- Akashi, Y., M. Rea, and J.D. Bullough, Driver decision making in response to peripheral moving targets under mesopic light levels. Lighting Research & Technology, 2007. 39(1): p. 53–67.
- **88.** Lewis, A.L., Visual performance as a function of spectral power distribution of light sources at luminances used for general outdoor lighting. Journal of the Illuminating Engineering Society, 1999. 28(1): p. 37–42.
- 89. Frith, B. and M. Jackett, The safety health and environmental implications of adopting LED (4000K neutral white light) over high pressure sodium road lighting. 2017, Opus International Consultants Ltd: Wellington. p. 65.
- **90.** Sivak, M., et al., *Short-wavelength content of LED headlamps and discomfort glare*. LEUKOS: The Journal of the Illuminating Engineering Society, 2005. 2(2): p. 145–154.

- **91.** Morante, P., Mesopic street lighting demonstration and evaluation Final Report. 2008, Lighting Research Center, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute: New York. p. 69.
- 92. Institute of Public Works Engineering Australia, Street Lighting and Smart Controls (SLSC) Roadmap. 2016, Strategic Lighting Partners and Next Energy: Sydney. p. 105.
- **93.** Australian/New Zealand Standard, *AS/NZS* 1158.1.1:2005 Lighting for roads and public spaces - Part 1.1: vehicular traffic (Category V) lighting - performance and design requirements. Incorporating amendment No. 1, 2, and 3. 2015, Standards New Zealand: Wellington.
- 94. New Zealand Transport Agency, M30 Accepted Luminaires. May 2018, New Zealand Transport Agency: Wellington. Accessed June 2018. nzta.govt.nz/assets/resources/ specification-and-guidelines-for-road-lighting-design/ docs/m30-accepted-luminaires.pdf
- **95.** Alsulaiman, S.M., et al., *High-power handheld blue laser-induced maculopathy: the results of The King Khaled Eye Specialist Hospital Collaborative Retina Study Group.* Ophthalmology, 2014. 121(2): p. 566–572.e1.
- **96.** Vicente-Tejedor, J., et al., *Removal of the blue component of light significantly decreases retinal damage after high intensity exposure.* PLoS ONE, 2018. 13(3): p. e0194218.
- 97. SCHEER (Scientific Committee on Health Environmental and Emerging Risks), Opinion on Potential risks to human health of Light Emitting Diodes (LEDs). 6 June 2018, European Union: Luxembourg. p. 92. Accessed June 2018. ec.europa.eu/health/scientific_committees/consultations/ public_consultations/scheer_consultation_05_en
- Australian/New Zealand Standard, AS/NZS 60598.1:2017 Luminaires - Part 1: general requirements and tests. 2017, Standards New Zealand: Wellington.
- **99.** Leung, T.W., R.W.-h. Li, and C.-s. Kee, *Blue-light filtering* spectacle lenses: optical and clinical performances. PLoS ONE, 2017. 12(1): p. e0169114.
- 100. Gringras, P., et al., Bigger, brighter, bluer-better? Current light-emitting devices-adverse sleep properties and preventative strategies. Frontiers in Public Health, 2015. 3: p. 233.
- 101. Ayaki, M., et al., Protective effect of blue-light shield eyewear for adults against light pollution from self-luminous devices used at night. Chronobiology International, 2016. 33(1): p. 134–139.
- 102. van der Lely, S., et al., Blue blocker glasses as a countermeasure for alerting effects of evening light-emitting diode screen exposure in male teenagers. The Journal of Adolescent Health: Official Publication of the Society for Adolescent Medicine, 2015. 56(1): p. 113.
- 103. Ostrin Lisa, A., S. Abbott Kaleb, and M. Queener Hope, Attenuation of short wavelengths alters sleep and the ipRGC pupil response. Ophthalmic and Physiological Optics, 2017. 37(4): p. 440–450.
- 104. Heo, J.-Y., et al., Effects of smartphone use with and without blue light at night in healthy adults: A randomized, double-blind, cross-over, placebo-controlled comparison. Journal of Psychiatric Research, 2017. 87: p. 61–70.
- 105. Lawrenson, J.G., C.C. Hull, and L.E. Downie, The effect of blue-light blocking spectacle lenses on visual performance, macular health and the sleep-wake cycle: a systematic review of the literature. Ophthalmic and Physiological Optics, 2017. 37(6): p. 644–654.
- 106. Cashmore, A.R., et al., Cryptochromes: blue light receptors for plants and animals. Science, 1999. 284(5415): p. 760–765.

- **107.** Lin, C. and T. Todo, *The cryptochromes*. Genome Biology, 2005. 6(5): p. 220.
- 108. Hunt, D.M., et al., Spectral tuning of shortwave-sensitive visual pigments in vertebrates. Photochemistry and Photobiology, 2007. 83(2): p. 303–310.
- **109.** Gaston, K.J., et al., *Reducing the ecological consequences of night-time light pollution: options and developments.* Journal of Applied Ecology, 2012. 49(6): p. 1256–1266.
- **110.** Gaston, K.J., et al., *The ecological impacts of nighttime light pollution: a mechanistic appraisal.* Biological Reviews, 2013. 88(4): p. 912–927.
- **111.** Bennie, J., et al., *Ecological effects of artificial light at night* on wild plants. Journal of Ecology, 2016. 104(3): p. 611–620.
- **112.** Davies, T.W., et al., Artificial light pollution: are shifting spectral signatures changing the balance of species interactions? Global Change Biology, 2013. 19(5): p. 1417–1423.
- **113.** Gaston, K.J., M.E. Visser, and F. Hölker, *The biological impacts of artificial light at night: the research challenge.* Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B, 2015. 370(1667): p. 20140133.
- **114.** Sweeney, B.M., *Biological clocks in plants*. Annual Review of Plant Physiology, 1963. 14(1): p. 411–440.
- **115.** Filipski, E., et al., *Effects of chronic jet lag on tumor progression in mice*. Cancer Research, 2004. 64(21): p. 7879–7885.
- 116. Filipski, E., X.M. Li, and F. Lévi, Disruption of circadian coordination and malignant growth. Cancer Causes & Control, 2006. 17(4): p. 509–514.
- **117.** Davidson, A., et al., *Chronic jet-lag increases mortality in aged mice*. Current Biology, 2006. 16(21): p. R914–R916.
- **118.** Bedrosian, T.A., et al., *Chronic exposure to dim light at night suppresses immune responses in Siberian hamsters.* Biology Letters, 2011: p. rsbl20101108.
- **119.** Oishi, K., et al., *Extended light exposure suppresses nocturnal increases in cytotoxic activity of splenic natural killer cells in rats.* Biological Rhythm Research, 2006. 37(01): p. 21–35.
- **120.** Kirby, J.D. and D.P. Froman, *Research note: Evaluation of humoral and delayed hypersensitivity responses in cockerels reared under constant light or a twelve hour light:twelve hour dark photoperiod.* Poultry Science, 1991. 70(11): p. 2375–2378.
- **121.** Moore, C. and T. Siopes, *Effects of lighting conditions and melatonin supplementation on the cellular and humoral immune responses in Japanese quail Coturnix coturnix japonica.* General and Comparative Endocrinology, 2000. 119(1): p. 95–104.
- **122.** Thresher, R.J., et al., *Role of mouse cryptochrome blue-light photoreceptor in circadian photoresponses.* Science, 1998. 282(5393): p. 1490–1494.
- **123.** Geffen, K.G., et al., Artificial light at night causes diapause inhibition and sex-specific life history changes in a moth. Ecology and Evolution, 2014. 4(11): p. 2082–2089.
- 124. Gessler, A., et al., Light as a source of information in ecosystems, in Changing perspectives on daylight: science, technology and culture, S. Sanders and J. Oberst, Editors. 2017, Science/AAAS: Washington DC. p. 9–15.
- **125.** Wang, X., et al., *Cryptochrome-mediated light responses in plants.* Enzymes, 2014. 35: p. 167–189.
- **126.** Yang, Z., et al., *Cryptochromes orchestrate transcription regulation of diverse blue light responses in plants.* Photochemistry and Photobiology, 2017. 93(1): p. 112–127.

- **127.** Brelsford, C.C. and T.M. Robson, *Blue light advances bud burst in branches of three deciduous tree species under short-day conditions.* Trees, 2018. 32(4): p. 1157–1164.
- **128.** Guo, H., et al., Regulation of flowering time by Arabidopsis photoreceptors. Science, 1998. 279(5355): p. 1360–1363.
- 129. Mao, J., et al., A role for Arabidopsis cryptochromes and COP1 in the regulation of stomatal opening. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2005. 102(34): p. 12270–12275.
- **130.** Kang, C.-Y., et al., *Cryptochromes, phytochromes, and COP1 regulate light-controlled stomatal development in Arabidopsis.* The Plant Cell, 2009. 21(9): p. 2624–2641.
- **131.** Ma, D., et al., *Cryptochrome 1 interacts with PIF4 to regulate high temperature-mediated hypocotyl elongation in response to blue light.* Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2016. 113(1): p. 224–229.
- **132.** Gould, P.D., et al., *Network balance via CRY signalling controls the Arabidopsis circadian clock over ambient temperatures*. Molecular Systems Biology, 2013. 9(1): p. 650.
- **133.** Zeng, J., et al., *Arabidopsis cryptochrome-1 restrains lateral roots growth by inhibiting auxin transport.* Journal of Plant Physiology, 2010. 167(8): p. 670–673.
- **134.** Imaizumi, T., T. Kanegae, and M. Wada, *Cryptochrome* nucleocytoplasmic distribution and gene expression are regulated by light quality in the fern Adiantum capillusveneris. The Plant Cell, 2000. 12(1): p. 81–95.
- **135.** Takeda, F., D.M. Glenn, and G.W. Stutte, *Red light affects flowering under long days in a short-day strawberry cultivar.* HortScience, 2008. 43(7): p. 2245–2247.
- **136.** Ito, A., et al., *Effect of extending the photoperiod with low-intensity red or far-red light on the timing of shoot elongation and flower-bud formation of 1-year-old Japanese pear (Pyrus pyrifolia).* Tree Physiology, 2014. 34(5): p. 534–546.
- **137.** Geffen, K.G., et al., *Artificial light at night inhibits mating in a Geometrid moth.* Insect Conservation and Diversity, 2015. 8(3): p. 282–287.
- **138.** Visser, M.E. and L.J. Holleman, *Warmer springs disrupt the synchrony of oak and winter moth phenology.* Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences, 2001. 268(1464): p. 289–294.
- **139.** Knop, E., et al., *Artificial light at night as a new threat to pollination*. Nature, 2017. 548: p. 206–209.
- **140.** van Grunsven, R.H., et al., *Spectral composition of light sources and insect phototaxis, with an evaluation of existing spectral response models.* Journal of Insect Conservation, 2014. 18(2): p. 225–231.
- **141.** Briscoe, A.D. and L. Chittka, *The evolution of color vision in insects*. Annual Review of Entomology, 2001. 46(1): p. 471–510.
- **142.** Stanley, M.C., et al., *Emerging threats in urban ecosystems: a horizon scanning exercise*. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment, 2015. 13(10): p. 553–560.
- 143. Pawson, S.M. and M.K.F. Bader, LED lighting increases the ecological impact of light pollution irrespective of color temperature. Ecological Applications, 2014. 24(7): p. 1561–1568.
- 144. Eisenbeis, G. and A. Hänel, Light pollution and the impact of artificial night lighting on insects, in Ecology of Cities and Towns, M.J. McDonnell, A.H. Hahs, and J.H. Breuste, Editors. 2009, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge. p. 243–263.

- 145. Spoelstra, K., et al., Response of bats to light with different spectra: light-shy and agile bat presence is affected by white and green, but not red light. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 2017. 284(1855): p. 20170075.
- **146.** Spoelstra, K., et al., *Experimental illumination of natural habitat—an experimental set-up to assess the direct and indirect ecological consequences of artificial light of different spectral composition.* Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 2015. 370(1667): p. 20140129.
- **147.** Wiltschko, R., et al., *Light-dependent magnetoreception in birds: increasing intensity of monochromatic light changes the nature of the response.* Frontiers in Zoology, 2007. 4(1): p. 5.
- **148.** Poot, H., et al., *Green light for nocturnally migrating birds.* Ecology and Society, 2008. 13(2): p. 47.
- **149.** Longcore, T., C. Rich, and S.A. Gauthreaux, *Height, guy wires, and steady-burning lights increase hazard of communication towers to nocturnal migrants: a review and meta-analysis.* The Auk, 2008. 125(2): p. 485–492.
- **150.** Rivas, M.L., et al., *Leatherback hatchling sea-finding in response to artificial lighting: Interaction between wavelength and moonlight.* Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology, 2015. 463: p. 143–149.
- 151. Buchanan, B.W., Observed and potential effects of artificial night lighting on anuran amphibians, in Ecological Consequences of Artificial Night Lighting, C. Rich and T. Longcore, Editors. 2006, Island Press: Washington, D.C. p. 192–220.
- **152.** van Grunsven, R.H., et al., *Behaviour of migrating toads under artificial lights differs from other phases of their life cycle*. Amphibia-Reptilia, 2017. 38(1): p. 49–55.
- **153.** Haddock, S.H., M.A. Moline, and J.F. Case, *Bioluminescence in the sea*. Annual Review of Marine Science, 2010. 2: p. 443–493.
- **154.** Longcore, T. and C. Rich, *Ecological light pollution*. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment, 2004. 2(4): p. 191–198.
- 155. Davies, T.W., et al., Multiple night-time light-emitting diode lighting strategies impact grassland invertebrate assemblages. Global Change Biology, 2017. 23(7): p. 2641–2648.
- **156.** Pendoley Environmental. Commonwealth government light pollution guidelines for marine turtles, seabirds and migratory shorebirds. 2018 Accessed June 2018. penv.com.au/news/light-pollution-guidelines-formarine-turtles-seabirds-and-migratory-shorebirds
- **157.** Solano Lamphar, H.A., *The emission function of groundbased light sources: State of the art and research challenges.* Journal of Quantitative Spectroscopy and Radiative Transfer, 2018. 211: p. 35–43.
- **158.** Falchi, F., et al., *The new world atlas of artificial night sky brightness*. Science Advance, 2016. 2(6): p. e1600377.
- **159.** Jechow, A., et al., *Imaging and mapping the impact of clouds on skyglow with all-sky photometry.* Scientific Reports, 2017. 7(1): p. 6741.
- **160.** Hale, J.D., et al., *Mapping lightscapes: spatial patterning of artificial lighting in an urban landscape*. PloS ONE, 2013. 8(5): p. e61460.
- 161. Jackett, M. and B. Frith, The impact of road lighting on Sky Glow in rural and CBD locations - an exploratory study. Forthcoming 2018, WSP Opus Research: Lower Hutt. p. 53.

- **162.** Luginbuhl, C.B., P.A. Boley, and D.R. Davis, *The impact of light source spectral power distribution on sky glow.* Journal of Quantitative Spectroscopy and Radiative Transfer, 2014. 139: p. 21–26.
- 163. International Astronomical Union Office for Astronomy Outreach, *Light Pollution*, S.-L. Cheung, et al., Editors. 2018, International Astronomical Union. p. 16. Available from: iau.org/public/images/detail/light-pollution-brochure
- **164.** Kyba, C.C.M., et al., *Red is the new black: how the colour of urban skyglow varies with cloud cover.* Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society, 2012. 425(1): p. 701–708.
- 165. New Zealand Transport Agency. LED lighting. Accessed January 2018. nzta.govt.nz/roads-and-rail/highwaysinformation-portal/technical-disciplines/resourceefficiency/standards-guidelines-and-specifications/ led-lighting
- 166. Muir, S. and A. Collins, M30 specification and guidelines for road lighting design. 2014. New Zealand Transport Agency: Wellington. Report number: SP/M30:2014 140812. p. 61. Accessed April 2018. nzta.govt.nz/resources/specificationand-guidelines-for-road-lighting-design
- 167. Harris, P., et al., A review of Māori astronomy in Aotearoa-New Zealand. Journal of Astronomical History and Heritage, 2013. 16(3): p. 325–336.
- **168.** Riegel, K.W., *Light pollution*. Science, 1973. 179(4080): p. 1285–1291.
- **169.** Rea, M. and J. Bullough, *In defense of LPS*. Lighting Design and Application, 2004. 34(9): p. 51–55.
- 170. International Dark-Sky Association. New IDA LED lighting practical guide. 2015. Accessed January 2018. darksky.org/the-promise-and-challenges-of-ledlighting-a-practical-guide
- 171. International Dark-Sky Association. International Dark Sky Places. Accessed 26 January 2018. darksky.org/idsp
- **172.** Martinborough Dark Sky Society. Accessed March 2018. martinboroughdarksky.org
- 173. Henderson, S., Dark-sky vision step closer, in Otago Daily Times. 8 March 2018: Accessed May 2018. odt.co.nz/ regions/central-otago/dark-sky-vision-step-closer
- 174. Newman, T., Stewart Island has eyes on the night sky, in Southland Times. 26 March 2018: Accessed May 2018. stuff.co.nz/southland-times/news/102572962/stewartisland-has-eyes-on-the-night-sky
- **175.** Venture Southland. *Rakiura Dark Sky Sanctuary*. Accessed May 2018. venturesouthland.co.nz/projects/tourismproduct-development/rakiura-dark-sky-sanctuary
- 176. Davis, R., Move to protect Waiheke Island's starry skies, in Waiheke Marketplace. 5 March 2018: Accessed May 2018. stuff.co.nz/environment/101896259/move-to-protectwaiheke-islands-starry-skies
- 177. International Dark-Sky Association. LED: Why 3000 K or less. Accessed June 2018. darksky.org/lighting/3k/#list
- 178. Bennie, J., et al., Cascading effects of artificial light at night: resource-mediated control of herbivores in a grassland ecosystem. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B, 2015. 370(1667): p. 20140131.
- **179.** Davies, T.W., et al., *The nature, extent, and ecological implications of marine light pollution*. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment, 2014. 12(6): p. 347–355.

Learn more at royalsociety.org.nz/bluelight

(f) RoyalSocietyNZ | (g) @royalsocietynz | (g) royalsociety.org.nz

ROYAL SOCIETY TE APĂRANGI

11 Turnbull Street, Thorndon, Wellington 6011 PO Box 598, Wellington 6140, New Zealand

Phone +64 4 472 7421 Email info@royalsociety.org.nz

ISBN 978-1-877317-31-6

Except for figures, photos & the Royal Society Te Apārangi logo, expert advice papers are licensed under a Creative Commons 3.0 New Zealand License.

Published November 2018