

2019 Artificial Light at Night Research Year in Review

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Abstract: Interest in the transdisciplinary topic of the effects of artificial light at night (ALAN) is on the rise, and the number of scientific papers about ALAN grew each year during the preceding decade at an annualized rate of more than 10 percent. Results published in 2019 strengthened previous conclusions and explored new ideas, prompting some authors to call for the recognition of ‘night studies’ as its own scholarly discipline. Highlights from ALAN research published in in the past year are reviewed here in five broad subject areas: biology, human health, skyglow, social concerns, and advances in the sensing, measurement and modeling of ALAN. The review concludes with speculations about important elements for the research agenda of the 2020s.

Keywords: artificial light at night; biology; human health; skyglow; society; remote sensing

1. Introduction

Artificial light at night (ALAN) is a novel challenge to the nocturnal environment and one of the key indicators of an epoch in the history of our planet that scholars have called the Anthropocene. [1] While ALAN confers a number of social benefits to humans in both indoor and outdoor settings, it is known to cause harm to wildlife, [2] human health, [3] public safety, [4] and the visibility of the night sky. [5] Strategies for confronting and solving this problem are rooted in humanity’s understanding of it, and research results are important to inform everything from the technical design parameters of outdoor lighting products to the public policy approaches that regulate their use.

¹ 2019 closed a decade during which the number of published papers about ALAN increased by a factor of almost three; in this time the number of papers published each year grew at a steady annual rate of about 13 percent. Figure 1 shows the number of recent citations by publication year in the International Dark-Sky Association/Loss of the Night Network (IDA-LoNNe) Artificial Light At Night Research Literature Database, a curated online resource. This publication rate mirrors the rising research interest in the subject of ALAN and its effects. As the year ended, two papers by Acuto [6] and Kyba *et al.* [7] argued that the broader field of ‘night studies’ is quickly coming into its own as a field of transdisciplinary research and should be recognized as an academic discipline. Kyba and coworkers wrote that when it does, “the field will consider questions that disciplinary researchers haven’t yet thought to ask.” They even suggest a name for this field: *nyctology*.²

For the analysis reported here, we looked at 388 papers listed in the International Dark-Sky Association/Loss of the Night Network (IDA-LoNNe) Artificial Light At Night Research Literature Database

¹ <http://alandb.darksky.org>.

² From the Greek νύξ, νυκτός (‘night’); so, “the study of the night”.

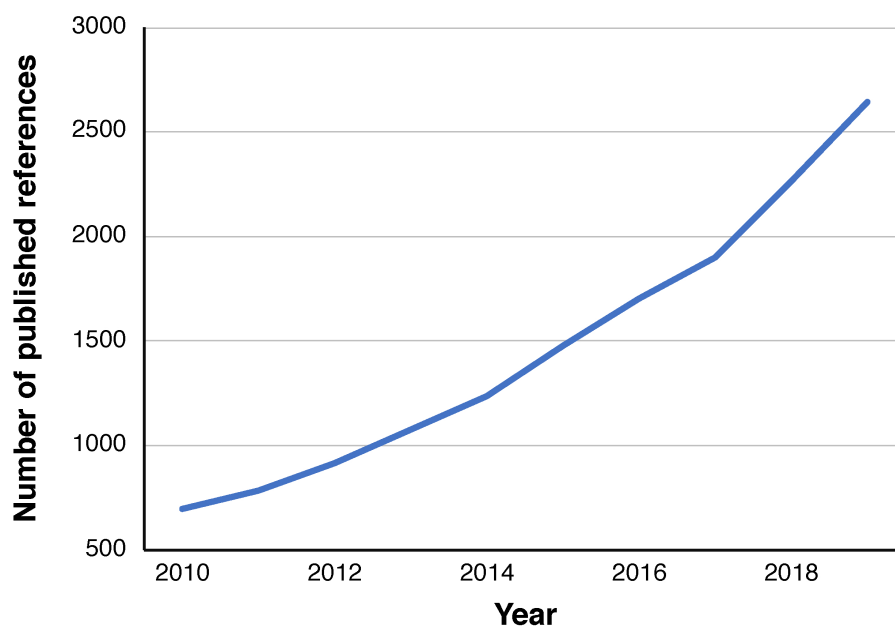


Figure 1. The cumulative number of papers in the IDA-LoNNe Artificial Light At Night Research Literature Database published by year during the period of 2010-2019.

published in 2019.³ From this list we selected 34 papers representing what we feel are the highlights of the year in ALAN research. The papers chosen span five subjects: biology, human health, skyglow, social concerns, and advances in the sensing, measurement and modeling of ALAN. The choice of subjects broadly mirrors their frequency among 2019 papers (Figure 2).⁴

2. Biology

By the end of the 2010s it was clearly established that ALAN exposure produces measurable effects in essentially every species studied to date, and that many of those effects relate to the disruption of endogenous biological rhythms set by the timing of exposure to sources of natural light such as the Sun and Moon. ALAN is a novel challenge to the biology of organisms that evolved in conditions modulated only by the signal from these natural light sources; how biological systems respond to this challenge, from the level of the individual organism to entire populations, is now the focus of much research interest. Furthermore, it is increasingly evident that ALAN represents an ecosystem-scale threat with a host of biological and ecological consequences.

In 2019 Grubisic *et al.* published an extensive systematic review of studies under typical light-polluted conditions in fishes, amphibians, reptiles, birds, and mammals, including humans. [8] They found that many vertebrate species are more sensitive to ALAN than previously understood, and that the effect of chronic, low-intensity exposure remain unknown. Various studies show that the natural production of

³ The complete list is available from the database on <http://bit.ly/35Vw79Y>. Papers were considered 'published' in 2019 if they were distributed after peer review before the end of the calendar year. For this reason, some papers listed here have publication dates in 2018 or 2020.

⁴ Frequency is determined from the occurrence of top-level keywords among database records. Each paper added to the database receives at least one of 21 possible top-level keywords describing the main subject of the paper. Instances where papers received more than one top-level keyword count as separate occurrences for the purpose of this analysis.

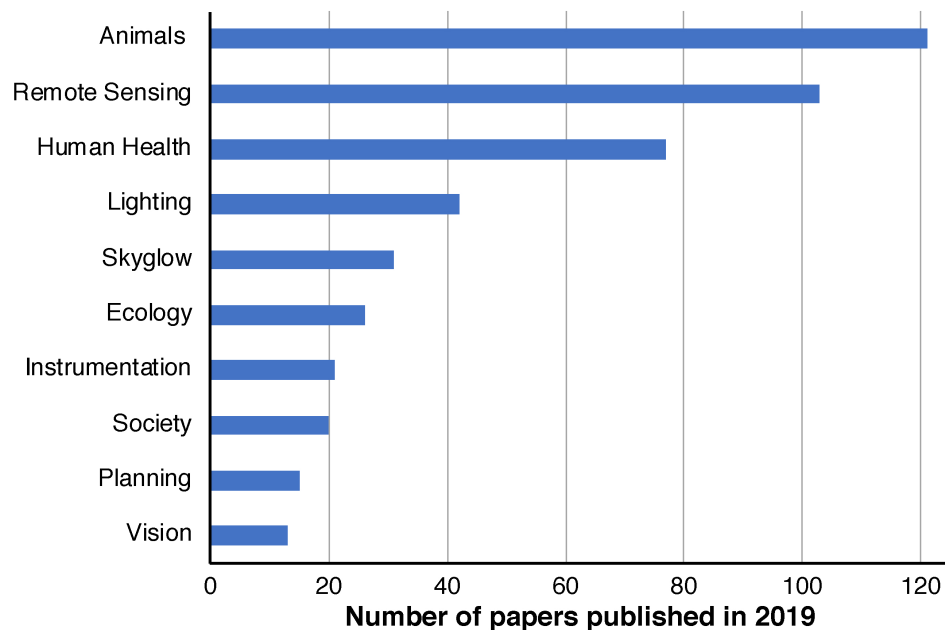


Figure 2. The most frequent top-level keywords characterizing ALAN papers published in 2019 as represented in the IDA-LoNNe Artificial Light At Night Research Literature Database.

47 melatonin, a hormone that regulates the sleep-wake cycle in animals and protects against oxidative stress
 48 in plants, is suppressed by extremely low levels of light at night, from as little as 0.01 lux in certain fish
 49 species. However, the authors note that “even lower, wavelength-dependent intensities are implied by
 50 some studies.”

51 We are beginning to understand how ALAN exposure, and the harms known to result from it, are
 52 influenced and amplified by other environmental stressors; this is not usually taken into account when
 53 assessing the threat. To illustrate the point about interacting influences, May *et al.* studied wood frogs
 54 (*Lithobates sylvaticus*) from embryos to adults in groups both exposed and not exposed to ALAN. [9] ALAN
 55 exposure reduced the hatching success of embryos, produced larger individuals when the frogs underwent
 56 metamorphosis, and yielded more susceptibility to hazards such as road salt and parasite infection. The
 57 work “underscores the importance of considering not only the direct effects of light on fitness metrics but
 58 also the indirect effects of light with other abiotic and biotic stressors.”

59 Interest in whether the effects of ALAN are magnified by global climate change is rising. In a recent
 60 review, Walker argued that a previously unappreciated effect of ALAN has to do with the timing of organism
 61 behaviors to properly match availability of resources in the environment, something already under pressure
 62 from climate change. [10] Since many species time their reproductive cycles to coincide with optimal
 63 food availability, misalignments between the apparent length of the day due to ALAN exposure and food
 64 availability can harm fitness among animals. By itself this would disadvantage affected species, but it is
 65 further intensified by climate change, which “has provoked changes in the availability of insects and plants
 66 which shifts the timing of optimal reproduction.” The authors argue that climate change represents an
 67 “extreme evolutionary pressure” on species with severe consequences for both reproduction and survival.

68 Similarly, ALAN is now more firmly established as an influence not limited strictly to the taxa that are
 69 directly affected. Sullivan, Hossley and Meyer looked at the length of food chains in linked aquatic-terrestrial
 70 ecosystems, determining that ALAN exposure at moderate to high levels alters the makeup of the
 71 invertebrate community, particular favoring both predators and detritivores. [11] The result means that

72 ALAN “can alter the flows of energy between aquatic and terrestrial systems, thereby representing an
73 environmental perturbation that can cross ecosystem boundaries.”

74 Seymoure, Linares and White argued that attention to the spectral content of ALAN is more important
75 than ever. [12] They studied five representative visual systems in species ranging from birds to humans
76 and insects, specifically including non-image-forming photoreceptors known to control circadian rhythms in
77 vertebrates. They found that the nature of color perception is highly diverse; for example, although most
78 visual systems would distinguish different types of artificial light sources, mammalian visual systems would
79 perceive many different sources as the same color. The authors concluded that there is equal importance
80 in “understanding not only the brightness of artificial light types, but also the spectral composition of light
81 types, as most organisms have different visual systems from humans.”

82 3. Human Health

83 As part of the biological world, people are not immune to the effects of ALAN exposure. However, the
84 exact causal relationship between ALAN exposure and human health and wellbeing remains an unsettled
85 subject. The dominant hypothesis holds that disruption of the circadian rhythm by ALAN triggers a cascade
86 of effects beginning at the molecular and genetic levels. [3] These changes can culminate in a host of
87 metabolic and ‘lifestyle’ disorders, including obesity, diabetes, and certain cancers. [13,14]

88 There is now enough evidence in the health research literature to support the contention that ‘light
89 desynchronization’ represents a syndrome, or collection of symptoms occurring together, manifested by
90 circadian arrhythmicity resulting from exposure to inappropriately timed ALAN. Anisimov reviewed this
91 evidence in 2019 and argued that “an urgent task is to develop recommendations for optimizing the
92 illumination of workplaces and residential premises, of cities and towns as a prevention measure for
93 premature aging and age-related pathology, which, ultimately, will contribute to the long-term maintaining
94 of performance and improving the quality of life.” [15]

95 The long-term health impacts of low-level ALAN exposure are still unknown, but it is suspected that
96 chronic exposure to dim ALAN has cumulative effects comparable to those from short doses at higher
97 intensities. Prayag, Najjar and Gronfier showed data suggesting that ALAN is effective at suppressing
98 melatonin production and disrupting circadian rhythms in humans at light levels as low 1.5 lux for certain
99 light wavelengths. [16] Melatonin suppression by monochromatic lighting can therefore “be initiated at
100 extremely low melanopic lux levels in experimental conditions.” Low-intensity ALAN also appears to
101 promote the development of some human morbidities. Walker *et al.* looked for effects of low-intensity
102 ALAN exposure on neurological function in a mouse model, exposing mice to a cycle of either light days
103 and dark nights, or light days and low-level (5 lux) ALAN. [17] The ALAN-exposed group experienced
104 physiological changes in the brain and led to increased depressive-like responses compared to the control
105 group. “Altogether,” the authors wrote, “this study demonstrates that acute exposure to LAN alters brain
106 physiology and can be detrimental to well-being in otherwise healthy individuals.”

107 Obayashi *et al.* presented results from ongoing longitudinal studies of the ‘HEIJO-KYO cohort’, a group
108 of 1,127 community-dwelling Japanese individuals aged over 60 previously shown to have a significantly
109 higher clinical depression risk when exposed to moderate levels of ALAN in sleeping rooms. [18] The
110 new work by Obayashi and coworkers shows that exposure to persistent, low levels of ALAN (< 3 lux) in
111 sleeping rooms increases progression of carotid atherosclerosis, even controlling for other known risk
112 factors. [19] Rumanova *et al.* studied dim ALAN exposure in a rat model, finding that it raised systolic blood
113 pressure and raised both plasma insulin and hepatic triglyceride levels compared to a control group not
114 exposed to ALAN. [20] While admitting that the observed effect is not specifically proven in humans, the
115 authors wrote that low-intensity ALAN may nevertheless “represent a serious risk factor for cardiometabolic
116 diseases.”

117 Chronic inflammation is important to heart health because it plays a crucial role in the progress of
118 atherosclerosis that can lead to heart attack and death. Mindel *et al.* recently showed that by contributing
119 to systemic inflammation, exposure to moderate ALAN intensities could have an overall negative impact on
120 health beyond metabolic and hormonal disorders. [21] Study subjects were exposed to either darkness or 40
121 lux of light during sleep at home for seven nights, after which tests showed that ALAN exposure “significantly
122 increased hsCRP [high-sensitivity C-reactive protein] levels and modestly increased depression scores in
123 humans.” Patients with elevated hsCRP are known to be at higher risk of major adverse cardiovascular
124 events. Fonken *et al.* observed that exposure to dim (5 lux) ALAN led to increased overall brain inflammation,
125 neuronal damage, and mortality in mice, which may well impair recovery from injury. [22] The work by
126 both groups suggests that the management of cardiovascular disease risk should include consideration of
127 light in patients’ sleeping rooms at night. Fonken and colleagues submit that “replacing broad-spectrum
128 nighttime light with specific circadian-inert wavelengths could be protective.”

129 2019 saw the publication of more evidence for epigenetic changes resulting from ALAN exposure.
130 Yonis, Haim and Elsalam reported results in a rat model that provide more clarity on the interacting roles of
131 ALAN-mediated melatonin suppression and epigenetic changes brought about through DNA methylation
132 in certain body tissues. [23] They studied the effects of ALAN on body mass, food and water intake,
133 daily rhythms of body temperature, serum glucose and insulin in male rats, concluding that although the
134 signaling pathway eliciting metabolism and endocrine responses due to ALAN exposure is still unclear,
135 ALAN-induced alteration in metabolic and hormonal responses may well be mediated by melatonin via
136 epigenetic modifications. The authors describe this phenomenon as one of “crosstalk between melatonin
137 and both epigenetics and metabolic levels expressed as body temperature rhythm.”

138 Furthermore, changes at the epigenetic level do not seem to be confined to the ‘central’ timing system
139 in the brain. Instead, researchers are discovering that exposure to ALAN can cause damage in peripheral
140 systems in the human body in part by disrupting the expression of local clock genes. As an example,
141 Dong *et al.* recently showed that epidermal skin cells sense light directly and control their own clock gene
142 expression, which “triggers cells to ‘think’ it is daytime even at nighttime.” [24] Skin cells exposed to blue
143 light in different doses and at different times in their study exhibited an increase in radical oxygen species
144 production, DNA damage, and inflammatory mediators versus cells kept in full darkness.

145 Lastly, the influence of ALAN exposure appears to play specific roles during both the beginning and
146 end of life. Torres-Farfan *et al.* reviewed studies in the literature on the effects of circadian disruption in
147 pregnant women on their offspring, finding that gestational chronodisruption induces major changes in
148 fetal development, and these changes have an impact in the adult phase of life at several physiological
149 levels. [25] It alters the consistency of melatonin signaling, explained by ‘phenotypic plasticity’ in which
150 a particular genotype can result in different physiological or morphological outcomes depending on the
151 dominant environmental influences during development. The result is unsettling of the fetal circadian
152 system, “potentially inducing long-term effects in the offspring.” Shen and Tower reviewed the literature on
153 ALAN exposure as it appears to affect the regulation of aging and longevity, identifying the relevant routes
154 as “controlling circadian rhythms, inducing oxidative stress, and acting through the retina to affect neuronal
155 circuits and systems.” [26]

156 4. Skyglow

157 The most the most immediate environmental manifestation of ALAN is ‘skyglow,’ a brightening of
158 the night sky resulting from the atmospheric scattering of light emitted on the ground. In addition to
159 diminishing the contrast between astronomical objects and the sky, making it more difficult to see those
160 objects, skyglow increases ground illuminance both in and beyond urban spaces. The impacts of ALAN are

161 therefore not strictly confined to areas near sources of light; rather, they can be measured up to hundreds
162 of kilometers away.

163 Garrett, Donald and Gaston showed the extent to which skyglow now affects key biodiversity areas
164 globally and significant protected spaces locally. [27] Using the the 2016 New World Atlas of Artificial Night
165 Sky Brightness dataset [28] and the Atlas definition of ‘pristine’ darkness (up to one percent above the
166 natural background level), the authors compared the spatial extent of pristine darkness against Important
167 Bird and Biodiversity Areas.⁵ Less than a third of the world’s Key Biodiversity Areas (KBAs)⁶ have
168 completely pristine night-time skies; about a half lie entirely under artificially bright skies; and only about
169 a fifth contain no area in which night-time skies are not polluted at the zenith. They further examined
170 night sky quality in KBAs as a function of regional gross domestic product, human population density and
171 protected area coverage, finding that “likelihood of a KBA having pristine skies decreased with increasing
172 GDP and population density, and the interaction between the two, and increased with proportional coverage
173 by protected areas.”

174 On smaller spatial scales, new investigations are providing input to urban planners on how to reduce
175 skyglow impacts in urban protected areas. Schirmer *et al.* combined field and laboratory techniques,
176 applying observed light level impacts from lab studies in a mouse model to measured intensities in the
177 field in order to identify behaviorally relevant ALAN levels and mapping the extent of those levels across
178 the city of Chicago, U.S. [29] Their results indicate that over one-third of urban greenspace in Chicago is
179 illuminated at night to levels higher than that required to cause animal behavioral changes. The technique
180 can be used to better delineate regions of particular ALAN sensitivity as an input to developing better
181 urban habitat plans.

182 In 2019 we learned more about the susceptibility of cities to changes in skyglow caused by climatic
183 and air quality events. Jechow and Hölker identified the amplification of skyglow by snow with and without
184 clouds — christened ‘snowglow’ — that represents an increase of night sky brightness in (sub)urban
185 areas by a factor of as much as 3500 times over that of a natural night sky. [30] On clear nights with snow
186 on the ground, the amplification is still up to 33 times the sky brightness without snow. Other factors
187 influencing skyglow are caused by humans. Liu *et al.* examined weather data and night sky brightness
188 measurements over Dalian, China, taken by ground-based sensors in 2016-17, finding “a significant
189 correlation among the air quality index, the ground illumination ratio of moon, the atmospheric visibility and
190 the sky brightness.” [31] They identified the culprit as small particulates in air pollution, primarily PM2.5,
191 which can increase the brightness of the night sky over a polluted city by factors ranging from three to
192 ten. Moonlight, tracking the lunar cycle, has the least impact on sky brightness under clear conditions,
193 accounting for an increase of only two to three times under a full moon as compared to a new moon.

194 As the snowglow phenomenon suggests, it is increasingly clear that the albedo of ground surfaces is
195 important in determining night sky brightness. This is especially true as newer, fully shielded light-emitting
196 diode (LED) lighting gradually replaces older, partially shielded technologies like sodium vapor. Kocifaj
197 lately showed through radiative transfer modeling that the artificial brightness of the night sky correlates
198 with ground albedo, but the effect is dependent on angle and amplitudes are higher toward shorter
199 wavelengths. [32] Skyglow exhibits a positive correlation with ground albedo, but Kocifaj found no linear
200 relationship between ground albedo and night sky brightness. Noting that the effects of seasonally changing
201 ground albedo are observable in time-series night sky brightness measurements, Wallner and Kocifaj
202 simulated skyglow using as inputs spatially detailed albedo information. [33] Their results indicate that the
203 averaged surface albedo value over a city does not provide accurate predictions of zenithal brightness in

⁵ See <https://www.birdlife.org/worldwide/programme-additional-info/important-bird-and-biodiversity-areas-ibas>.

⁶ See <https://www.iucn.org/resources/conservation-tools/world-database-on-key-biodiversity-areas>.

204 simulations, and they note that “there is a major difference in simulation results if either conducting city
205 parts with various surface albedos or using only one averaged value over the whole city.”

206 5. Society

207 Research on the “society” of artificial light at night, light pollution and dark skies takes place in the
208 overlap of diverse disciplines in the humanities and the social sciences. It is also one of the least explored
209 spaces in the broad subject areas represented by the references listed in the ALAN Research Literature
210 Database. In her review of two recent books about social scientific aspects of ALAN, Schulte-Römer
211 describes the nature of the ALAN research field as a “promising test bed for exploding the social dimension
212 of human-environment interactions . . . perfectly suited to challenging the persistent dichotomous notions of
213 nature and culture and add to a better understanding go how our sense making relates to our senses.” [34]

214 Some of these scholarly efforts turn a figurative mirror on the world of light pollution research and
215 activism, exploring the motives and outcomes of these efforts. Two papers published in 2019 examine
216 the interactions of outdoor lighting advocates, experts and design professionals in reaching consensus
217 on the issues of light pollution mitigation methods and standards. As part of a larger research project,
218 Schulte-Römer *et al.* surveyed over 200 world experts described under the group headings “lighting
219 professionals” and “light pollution experts.” [35] Their analysis of survey responses suggests that although
220 members of these two groups agree that light pollution is a problem and that there are some obvious
221 ways to approach solving it, they often disagree in the details. “Despite seemingly conflicting interests,
222 lighting professionals and light pollution experts largely agree on the problem definition and problem-solving
223 approaches,” the authors wrote. “However, we see diverging views regarding potential obstacles to light
224 pollution mitigation and associated governance challenges.”

225 Ebbensgaard, drawing from interviews with lighting designers involved in a recent mixed-use
226 redevelopment project in east London, U.K., finds that although standards and regulations can establish
227 frameworks for improving outdoor lighting and simultaneously reducing light pollution, lighting designers
228 should actively question how standards and regulations are measured, defined and maintained. [36]
229 The London case was used to explore how designers often confront and manage the challenge posed
230 by various industry standards and legal regulations in such projects, arguing that these professionals
231 can and should play more of a direct role in the definition of the parameters that bound their work by
232 challenging such standards. Ebbensgaard noted that while both scholars and lighting practitioners “unite in
233 their disapproval of uniform and homogenous lighting that follows from standardised lighting technologies
234 and design principles,” outdoor lighting standards and regulations are useful tools. The author urges
235 urban scholars to be more involved in ‘foregrounding’ the process by which standards and regulations are
236 measured, defined and maintained.

237 Light trespass, in which light emitted on one property falls on another property, remains an urgent
238 matter in issues of lighting design. Communities are increasingly aware of it as a problem, but designers
239 still lack a proper methodology and tools to measure it especially as pertains to dynamic and color-changing
240 sources such as non-static, self-luminous LED displays. Zielińska-Dąbkowska and Xavia considered both
241 a literature review and survey results in this area to confirm the significance of the problem and highlight
242 “the need to better measure, apply, and manage this new technology.” [37]

243 Even as the “professional” ALAN world continues to grow and mature, increasing emphasis is placed
244 on the importance of recognizing nighttime darkness as a valuable natural resource that calls for the
245 protection of dark sites. Pressure in this direction comes from the burgeoning ‘astrotourism’ business,
246 which is now shown to have the potential to realize significant financial gains, particularly in depressed
247 rural economies suffering the wind-down of traditional extractive industries. Mitchell and Gallaway reported
248 the results of the first study attempting to value the environmental amenity of dark skies under such

249 circumstances in the Colorado Plateau region of the western U.S. [38] "Using a 10-year forecast of visitors
250 to the national parks and using standard input-output modeling," the authors found that "non-local tourists
251 who value dark skies will spend \$5.8 billion over the next 10 years in the Colorado Plateau." They further
252 predict that astrotourism will generate \$2.4 billion in higher wages and create over 10,000 additional jobs
253 for the region annually in the coming decade. The projected economic benefits are made more impactful
254 to local economies because "they have the ability to increase visitor counts to national parks year-round
255 and lead to a more efficient use of local community and tourism-related resources throughout the year."

256 6. Remote Sensing

257 Understanding a problem and devising solutions often starts with quantifying the underlying effect.
258 Researchers now have access to a variety of platforms with which to sense and measure ALAN from
259 Earth-orbiting satellites to uncrewed aerial vehicles, or drones, flying close to the ground. Developments
260 in hardware, software and analysis methods are growing the utility of these observations, and remote
261 sensing data are both improving our understanding of the science of ALAN as well as providing the means
262 to assess the efficacy of various outdoor lighting treatments and interventions. The recent, comprehensive
263 review by Levin *et al.* conveys a sense of the remarkable current capabilities of the remote sensing of night
264 lights as well as future opportunities and challenges. [39]

265 2019 saw the publication of the most granular data yet available on ALAN as it relates to population
266 density and economic output. Falchi *et al.* applied the the New World Atlas of Artificial Sky Brightness data
267 set to sub-national regional divisions to correlate upward radiance with population and gross domestic
268 product (GDP). [40] The authors found large disparities in the consumption of artificial light per capita and
269 per dollar of GDP in both the U.S. and Europe, noting that "a direct correlation between the wealth of a
270 country or a state and the light it uses at night does not exist." Wang, Sutton and Qi showed that latest
271 civilian satellite remote sensing data for night lights can yield accurate subnational GDP data products
272 uniformly across the globe. They used Day-Night Band radiance data from the Visible Infrared Imaging
273 Radiometer Suite (VIIRS-DNB) aboard the Suomi NPP satellite, World Bank data on GDP at purchasing
274 power parity, and machine learning techniques to to map GDP at 1 km² resolution. The authors then used
275 the data products to derive inequality indexes (e.g., Gini coefficients) at nationally aggregate levels. [41]

276 The application of orbital remote sensing data strongly suggests that the growth of cities is fueling the
277 observed global average increase in light pollution. An analysis of U.S. Defense Meteorological Satellite
278 Program (DMSP) data from India during the twenty years between 1993 and 2013 by Kumar *et al.* indicates
279 that the main drivers behind observed changes in upward radiance detected on orbit are "urban expansion,
280 industrial development and air pollution." [42] The study found a "strong correlation . . . between light
281 pollution and digital numbers (DN) values at regional scale." Even with known DMSP calibration issues, the
282 authors conclude that nighttime lights data can be effectively utilized for the purposes of land management
283 and conservation planning.

284 Although new DMSP observations have not been routinely available to the public since 2013, the
285 lengthy DMSP time series is still being mined to draw new inferences about the nature and impacts of ALAN.
286 Leng, He and Jiang published a study last year based on DMSP observations in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei
287 region of China essentially confirming that urbanization is the main driver of observed time-series changes
288 in upward radiance. [43] The authors applied the Mann-Kendall non-parametric test, the standard deviation
289 method, and nighttime light indices to DMSP data, finding urban radiance increases as high as 334 percent
290 over the 1992 to 2012 study period. "Urban expansion, transportation hubs, and industries were the major
291 reasons for the significant change in nighttime light," they wrote, identifying "a trend of overuse" of light in
292 cities as the proximate cause of the increase.

293 At the same time, new results urge caution in applying satellite remote sensing data to epidemiological
294 studies, suggesting that upward radiance measurements of ALAN from space may not correlate with
295 human exposures on the ground. Huss *et al.* attempted to correlate satellite measurements of upward
296 radiance with the reported personal exposure to outdoor ALAN in a limited geographic sample, finding only
297 a very weak dependence. [44] They found that although “outdoor satellite-assessed outdoor LAN exposure
298 levels were correlated with urban environmental exposures, ... they were not a good proxy for indoor
299 evening or nighttime personal exposure.” While it does not discount the reliability of studies depending
300 on radiance as an indicator of total human nighttime light exposure, the results of this work imply that the
301 “moderate-to-strong correlation of outdoor LAN with other environmental exposures should be accounted
302 for in epidemiological investigations.”

303 7. ALAN Research in the 2020s

304 A number of technological and social changes are expected in the coming decade that will influence
305 trends in research. For instance, the color of the world at night continues to change with the ongoing
306 transition away from conventional lighting technologies such as high-intensity discharge lamps and toward
307 solid-state lighting (SSL) sources like white LED. The last major manufacturer of low-pressure sodium
308 (LPS) lamps phased out their production in 2019 as global demand for LPS continued to decline. While
309 the demand for high-pressure sodium (HPS) lighting products remains strong, it too is under downward
310 pressure brought on by the rapid adoption of SSL. As light sources change, so too does the spectral power
311 distribution of their light, with implications for the measurement and modeling of light pollution to biological
312 impacts.

313 Research into the biological and ecological consequences of ALAN is expected to dominate published
314 results in the 2020s as evidence mounts that many species are sensitive to light at night with illuminances
315 comparable to moonlight (≤ 0.3 lux; [45]). For instance, we anticipate a more definitive answer about the
316 degree to which ALAN is related to the global insect biodiversity loss. [46,47] ALAN may influence the
317 population dynamics of human communicable disease vectors such as mosquitoes, which is of heightened
318 interest as the effects of climate change are felt more acutely. Given that some species appear to orient
319 and navigate by the stars at night, [48], it is currently an open question whether the proliferation of large
320 constellations of satellites in low-Earth orbit pose a novel ecological threat. [49] A need persists for the
321 holistic integration of existing knowledge about the interactions between ALAN and biology to better
322 understand impacts of the former at the ecosystems level; from this we are optimistic that effective methods
323 and best practices can be developed to remediate ecological light pollution and reliably monitor the efficacy
324 of interventions.

325 The results of studies aiming to identify the human health effects of ALAN exposure progressively
326 make a stronger case associating ALAN with specific morbidities, but many unknowns remain in terms of
327 the intensity, duration, timing and spectral content of ALAN that promote or inhibit the incidence of disease.
328 The full range of visual and non-visual mechanisms through which light interacts with and regulates
329 human physiology is not known. The relative risks of human exposure to ALAN in indoor versus outdoor
330 contexts are not well quantified, and the relevance of ALAN in the overall human exposome [50] has yet
331 to be demonstrated. The coming decade may see advances in the direction of defining dose-response
332 relationships that may yield something like safe exposure thresholds; this in turn has implications for
333 occupational safety as well as the design of lighting in public indoor and outdoor spaces. We foresee both
334 new epidemiological studies about ALAN, and investigations into lighting technological innovations that
335 actively promote human health and wellbeing.

336 Our understanding of skyglow and its impacts on the environment still depends on a better contextual
337 definition of “darkness” based on field measurement techniques and limits imposed by terrestrial

338 atmospheric and astrophysical light sources, particularly for non-human visual systems. By the end
339 of the decade, we speculate that researchers will understand the relative contributions of different light
340 sources to both upward radiance and skyglow. There will be better and more consistent tracking of
341 how skyglow is changing around the world, including spectral information, through approaches such as
342 citizen science; among the outputs of these efforts we expect the emerging capability to forecast night sky
343 brightness over large areal regions. Controlled experiments will demonstrate a clearer connection between
344 specific outdoor lighting interventions and resulting changes in night sky brightness, specifically with regard
345 to the continuing adoption of solid-state lighting for roadway applications. New sensor and passband
346 combinations will improve sky brightness measurements while better accounting for the changing color of
347 the night sky attributable to the proliferation of LED lighting, and more reliable methods will be devised for
348 extracting night sky brightness from diffuse light observations with existing remote sensing platforms.

349 Meanwhile, we envision a decade of bigger and more extensive data sets from remote sensing
350 platforms along with the large-scale deployment of new devices for sensing and monitoring ALAN. Drone
351 aircraft will make important observations of ALAN at low altitudes and with unprecedented spatial resolution,
352 while instrumentation for new small satellites and cubesat missions will make routine the collection of
353 multispectral night lights data with regular temporal cadence. By the end of the 2020s, we hope to see
354 the launch of a years-long, dedicated “NightSat” mission with nightly global overpasses, high radiance
355 sensitivity, imaging in multiple spectral bands, and spatial resolution better than 100 meters per pixel. [51]

356 Robust empirical evidence is still lacking in decisions about how much light to use in different
357 applications in order to ensure adequate public safety. [4] At least in the West, the price of electricity
358 delivered at night may well rise due to the proliferation of electric cars recharged during overnight hours
359 and the gradual shift away from fossil fuels and toward more renewable sources of energy; this may result
360 in a reduction in the demand for ALAN measurable through remote sensing. Autonomous vehicles will
361 constitute an increasing share of automobiles on the world’s roads, and in some economies may come to
362 dominate traffic by decade’s end; their prevalence may eventually obviate the need for continuous roadway
363 lighting in many circumstances, offering an opportunity to reduce ALAN reliance in their designs. [52] And
364 even as the nature of the interplay between ALAN and the incidence of both property and violent crime
365 remains fundamentally unknown, evidence suggests that widely held beliefs about lighting and crime may
366 simply be wrong. [53] This subject needs more funding, better experimental design, and more thoughtful
367 statistical analysis to bring the problems to solution. And although the popularity of astrotourism will likely
368 increase in the 2020s, it remains to be shown empirically that assumptions about the economic benefit to
369 local communities are correct.

370 Lastly, the social scientific scrutiny of the ALAN phenomenon will only intensify in coming years, and
371 scholars in the humanities will increasingly hold a mirror up to the nature of the academic discipline itself.
372 Methods and approaches in this field have already drawn critical attention, [54,55] challenging ideas about
373 ‘sustainability’ [56] and confronting social justice issues. We cannot yet tell whether various conservation
374 and regulatory frameworks designed to preserve natural darkness in protected areas yield meaningful
375 results, [57,58] but we are hopeful that research in the next decade will reveal the most effective strategies
376 and guide the creation of public policies that prioritize the control of light pollution as highly as existing
377 policies value control of other forms of environmental pollution such as air and water pollution. Once
378 enacted, these policies will require robust enforcement regimes in order to be effective. In the meantime,
379 researchers and conservation practitioners alike will continue to focus on quantifying the impacts of policy
380 and technology changes on lightscapes through further development of light pollution monitoring
381 systems.

382 Public attention to the issue of ALAN, and the problem is presents, is higher than ever, and interest on
383 the part of the research community mirrors this upward trend. As an environmental issue, light pollution

384 may be to the dawning decade what plastic pollution was to the previous decade: a problem that attracts
385 intense public concern and drives demand for a solution.

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