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Under the influence of light: How light pollution disrupts personality and metabolism in hermit crabs

Velasque, M

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- 2 hermit crabs
- 3 Velasque, M. 1,2,3* Denton, J.A. 4, & Briffa, M. 1
- 4 1. School of Biological and Marine Sciences, University of Plymouth, Plymouth, Devon, United
- 5 Kingdom
- 6 2. Genomics & Regulatory Systems Unit, Okinawa Institute of Science & Technology, Okinawa,
- 7 Japan
- 8 3. The Experimental Evolutionary Biology Lab, School of Biological Sciences, Monash
- 9 University, Clayton, Victoria, Australia
- 10 4. The World Mosquito Program, Institute of Vector-borne Disease, Monash University,
- 11 Clayton, Victoria, Australia
- * mari.velasque@monash.edu

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21 Highlights

- Coastal zones are highly affected by light pollution
- Constant light reduced boldness and increased metabolism in hermit crabs
- Behavioural and metabolic changes can affect population stability
- Light pollution might disrupt hermit crab populations changing intertidal diversity

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27 Abstract

- 28 Anthropogenic disturbances are known to cause significant physiological and behavioural
- changes in animals and, thus, are the critical focus of numerous studies. Light pollution is an
- increasingly recognised source of disturbance that has the potential to impact animal physiology
- 31 and behaviour. Here, we investigate the effect of constant light on a personality trait and
- 32 metabolic rate in the European hermit crab *Pagurus bernhardus*. We used Bayesian mixed
- 33 models to estimate average behavioural change (i.e. sample mean level behavioural plasticity)
- and between- and within-individual variation in boldness in response to laboratory light. Hermit
- 35 crabs experiencing constant light were consistently less bold and had a higher metabolic rate than
- 36 those kept under a standard laboratory light regime (12:12h light/dark). However, there was no
- 37 effect of light on individual consistency in behaviour. As boldness is associated with coping with
- 38 risk, hermit crabs exposed to light pollution at night may experience increased perceived
- 39 predation risk, adjusting their behaviour to compensate for the increased conspicuousness.
- 40 However, reduced boldness could lead to lower rates of foraging and this, in combination with
- 41 elevated metabolic rate, has the potential for a reduction in energy balance.

42 Keywords

43 Light pollution, artificial light at night, animal personality, environmental change

Introduction

In natural environments, light regimes follow predictable and cyclic patterns of change. This predictability favoured the evolution of mechanisms that allow animals to anticipate and react to changes in light conditions (Burgess and Marshall, 2014; Lines et al., 2012; Tuomainen and Candolin, 2011), such as adapting their behaviour and physiology according to the duration of the day (Gaston et al., 2013; Hut and Beersma, 2011). For intertidal animals, light availability and brightness carry additional information: changes in lunar brightness caused by the moon cycle help animals to anticipate changes in current velocity and tidal height (Davies et al., 2014; Naylor, 2010; Truscott et al., 2017). However, artificial light at night (ALAN) can mask seasonal and monthly fluctuations in sky brightness regimes and thus interfere with these cues.

There is increasing evidence that ALAN can alter physiology (Forsburg et al., 2021; Luarte et al., 2016; Raap et al., 2016a; Zubidat et al., 2018), metabolism (Finch et al., 2020; Nelson, 2019; Raap et al., 2018a; Welbers et al., 2017), foraging (Davies et al., 2013; Farnworth et al., 2018) reproduction and mating behaviour (Ayalon et al., 2021; Botha et al., 2017; Degen, 2015; Touzot et al., 2019), often in a species specific manner (Amadi et al., 2021; Baskir et al., 2021; Brisbane and van den Burg, 2020; Polak et al., 2011), making understanding ALAN's impacts challenging. However, changes in physiology and behaviour could alter interspecific dynamics, having significant ecological consequences disrupting entire ecological communities (Bennie et al., 2018; Sanders et al., 2018, 2015). In addition, ALAN was also shown to disrupt metabolic rate, increasing organisms' energy requirement and food consumption, which can further alter the stability of the food web (Hillyer et al., 2021; Manríquez et al., 2019; Marangoni et al., 2022).

Consistent between-individual differences in behaviour, known as 'animal personality', are present in a wide variety of taxa (Bergmüller, 2010; Briffa and Weiss, 2010; Carter et al., 2013). Risk-taking behaviour, or 'boldness', is one of the most studied aspects of animal personality as it has direct fitness consequences (Bevan et al., 2018; Oosten et al., 2010; Westneat et al., 2013). For instance, consistent differences in boldness are linked with differences in survival (Bubac et al., 2018; White et al., 2013), reproductive success (Gasparini et al., 2019; Smith and Blumstein, 2008), predation pressure (Biro et al., 2006; Stamps, 2007), parental care (Reddon, 2012), foraging (Sneddon, 2003) and even to different life-history traits, such as growth (Finstad et al., 2007; Lantová et al., 2011). Thus, more active individuals also tend to be more aggressive, bolder and more explorative compared to less active individuals forming a pace-of-life syndrome (POLS; Careau et al., 2008; J. Galliard et al., 2013; Réale et al., 2010). Individuals with a faster POLS (i.e. higher activity, boldness and aggressiveness) also tend to have a higher energetic demand and consequently higher metabolic rates (Dammhahn et al., 2018; J.-F. L. Galliard et al., 2013).

Despite being one of the best-studied personality traits, little is known about how risk-taking behaviour (i.e. boldness) changes in response to environmental disturbances. This is particularly important as environmental changes, such as ALAN, can alter multiple aspects of

predator-prey dynamics. Their impact also varies with the intensity of environmental disturbance, organism physiology and personality (i.e. pace of life; Belgrad et al., 2017; Pamela Delarue et al., 2015). In addition to affecting an individual's mean boldness (and hence that of the population; Kurvers et al., 2018; O'Connor et al., 2019), night-time light may also alter behavioural plasticity itself (i.e. the extent to which individuals adjust their behaviour to match a change in circumstance) and consistency, further increasing the variability across individuals in how they respond to this stressor (Raap et al., 2018b, 2015).

In addition to boldness, light may also alter behavioural plasticity (i.e. mean level adjustments to a change in circumstance) and consistency, increasing the variability with individuals' respond to this stressor. For example, light can hamper the ability to assess risk, which they might counter by behaving in more risk-aversive ways, for example, by increasing their behavioural variability (i.e. within or intra-individual variation and residual variance; see Stamps et al., 2012; Westneat et al., 2015). Alternatively, it could alter how different individuals within a population respond to risk, changing not only the population mean level response but also the among-individual variation around such a mean (i.e. between individual variation or behavioural reaction norms see Dingemanse et al., 2010). Alternatively, it could alter how different individuals within a population respond to risk, changing a population level response (i.e. between individual variation or behavioural reaction norms (Dingemanse et al., 2010). These effects would alter the repeatability of behaviour, the key marker for animal personalities. However, the way in which ALAN alters individual and population-level behavioural expression is not well known.

In arthropods, oxygen is transported by haemocyanin, analogous to haemoglobin in vertebrates (Mangum 1985). Changes in the concentration of this protein are directly correlated to an organism's changes in energetic demands and, thus, can provide a robust estimation of long-term response to stressors (Spicer and Baden, 2000). For instance, an increase in haemocyanin concentration could be associated with adaptations to an increased energetic demand caused by an environmental stressor. Therefore, patterns of oxygen consumption can be used as a proxy for energetic demand and activity to determine environmental factors that shape metabolism (Hillyer et al., 2021; Manríquez et al., 2019; Marangoni et al., 2022; Spicer and Baden, 2000)

Here, we investigated how light at night can disrupt animal personality and its variance components (among and within individual variation in behaviour). As a model system, we used *Pagurus bernhardus*. *P. bernhardus* is a diurnal species (Mitchell, 1973) and one of Europe's most common intertidal decapods (Benedict, 1901; Lancaster, 1990). Although they can be found in a wide range of environments and depths, younger individuals primarily inhabit the intertidal, where they are extremely common in north-western Europe (Benedict, 1901; Elwood, n.d.; Lancaster, 1990). Therefore, *P. bernhardus* is likely to be the species more frequently affected by light pollution, especially in terms of its youngest and largest cohorts.

We were particularly interested in how both within-individual variances in boldness and population average boldness behaviour might be affected by exposure to consistent light at night. Personality traits are often correlated with energy consumption and metabolism (i.e. fast-slow life-history continuum; see Holtmann et al., 2017; Réale et al., 2010), a trait well known to be disrupted by ALAN (O'Connor et al., 2019; Pulgar et al., 2019) metabolic rate. We focused on two aspects of behavioural variation: between individuals (i.e. behavioural plasticity in response to a change in conditions) and within-individuals (i.e. behavioural consistency). We used haemocyanin concentration of hermit crabs and oxygen concentration as proxies for metabolism. As ALAN's effects on behaviour and physiology seem to be dependent on the organism's circadian rhythm (i.e. nocturnal vs diurnal; Dickerson et al., 2022; Le Tallec et al., 2013; Spoelstra et al., 2018), it is possible that any effects also influence day-time behaviour. Therefore, we investigated behavioural changes at two different time periods, day (i.e. during daylight hours) and night (i.e. during night-time hours). We predicted that hermit crabs would be aware of their conspicuousness (Briffa and Twyman, 2011) and adjust their behaviour, by decreasing boldness, in response to light at night. Furthermore, as P. bernhardus is a diurnal species (Mitchell, 1973), we expect a decrease in boldness during the night and an increase during the day when exposed to ALAN. In addition, we also expect that the increased perceived predation risk caused by ALAN would increase individual variation (i.e. decrease predictability) while decreasing overall variation within a population (i.e. among individual variation). We also predict that such a pattern would be conditioned to the time period, with day measurements being less variable than nights.

Methods

We collected hermit crabs from Hannafore Point, UK., an area with low light pollution levels and transported them to the lab. We removed crabs from their shells by cracking in a bench vice in the laboratory. This stage is necessary because hermit crabs' behaviour, including the startle response's duration, could be affected by the shell mass (Briffa and Bibost, 2009). All crabs thus received a new *Littorina littorea* shell with 100% of its preferred mass, calculated from a relationship between crab mass and preferred shell mass established during a previous shell-selection experiment (Briffa and Elwood, 2007). We only used adult male crabs (mean mass = $0.76 \text{ g} \pm \text{S.E.} = 0.34 \text{ g}$) as females may change their shell preferences in unpredictable ways during the breeding season (Benedict, 1901; Lancaster, 1990). All hermit crabs were free from apparent parasites (such as Rhizocephalans) that generally attach to the abdomen or are present in the gill chambers, causing noticeable bulging of the carapace, appendage damage, or recent moult. Crabs were individually housed in white plastic dishes of 16 cm in diameter, filled to 4 cm depth with seawater, with continuous aeration, and fed daily ad libitum with cubes of white fish at the end of night-time measurements (i.e. there was always excess food available in the housing dishes, outside of the observation periods) and water was replaced daily.

Before all observations, all animals were housed in separate chambers with controlled light conditions to simulate either constant light or a 'standard light' regime. Standard light

treatment employed a 12:12h (7 am:7 pm) light: dark treatment, whereas constant light used the same intensity light for 24 hours. Those animals were left in either condition for a 10-day acclimation period, followed by ten days of observations (twice a day as described below). The startle response was measured on the 11th day following the acclimation, and on the 21st day, we reversed light conditions experienced by animals. Thus, all animals initially undergoing standard light treatment were transferred to constant light treatment and vice versa. We restarted observations after a 10-day acclimation period, followed by ten days of observations (Briffa and Bibost, 2009). We applied a crossover design (Briffa et al., 2013), as it is the standard approach in behavioural experiments involving repeated measures, where individuals are subject to more than one treatment.

Hermit crabs were kept under fluorescent lights (fluorescent tubes, white colour) with similar light conditions during the day (unpaired t-test $t_{24} = 0.11$, p = 0.92) and were on average 38.554 lux (range = 30.1- 44.6, $n_{locations} = 25$). In Hannafore Point, street lighting used high-pressure sodium lamps and varied across the shore, averaging 0.127 lux (range = 0 - 1.4, $n_{locations} = 25$). Although light conditions at the laboratory were higher and less variable when compared to Hannafore Point, the light intensity of 30-40 lux can also be considered conservative relative to developed coastal areas with high human influence (60-210 lux; Luarte et al., 2016; Pulgar et al., 2019).

179 Behavioural assays

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- We used a startle response as a proxy for boldness. We induced startle response (standard light,
- N = 15; constant light, N = 15, N total = 30) using a handling protocol, where crabs were lifted
- out of their tank and replaced in an inverted position on the tank's base. This causes them to
- 183 withdraw into their gastropod shell. We timed the recovery latency from the point at which the
- crab was replaced in the tank to when the walking legs were re-contacted with the tank's base
- 185 (Briffa et al., 2008). Although many marine animals are assumed to be more active at night, P.
- bernhardus under standard light conditions (12:12h light: dark) is more active during the day
- than at night (peak of activity at 9:00 and lower activity at 22:30h(Mitchell, 1973). Therefore, we
- induced startle responses twice daily at 9:00 (day-time observations) and 21:00 (night-time
- observations) for 10 days in each experimental period. We made night-time observations under
- the 12:12h light: dark cycle with low levels of red light to avoid influencing crab behaviour
- 191 (Hazlett, 1966; Sinn and Moltschaniwskyj, 2005).

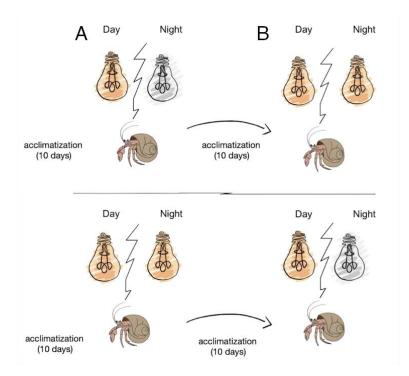


Figure 1: Schematic representation of the experiment's timeline, showing the experimental groups (constant and standard light) and the experimental crossover design. Incandescent light bulbs are used for illustrative purposes only, experiment was conducted using fluorescent light bulbs.

Metabolic rate measurements

To investigate whether metabolic rate varies in response to the light conditions, we measured the routine metabolic rate (routine MR) of 10 individuals in each group (constant light-A, N= 5; constant light-B, N= 5, standard light-A, N= 5; standard light-B, N= 5) exposed to the same conditions as described above. Routine MR was measured with a different cohort as startle response duration. Routine MR refers to an animal's average rate of metabolism and is measured when the animal is undergoing normal behaviours or some other specified type of activity (Dupont-Prinet et al., 2010; Speakman, 2013)

Animals used to estimate the routine MR were submitted to similar light conditions to those used in the behavioural assay. Thus, we measured each hermit crab's metabolic rate in two light regimes, constant and standard light. To minimise measurement errors, we measured routine MR with a different cohort of animals in the same room (i.e. same experimental conditions) where the animal was maintained and in parallel with the startle response duration. To ensure that changes in oxygen consumption were mediated by changes in light regime (i.e. standard or constant light treatment) and not a temporal component (i.e. duration of the

experiment, time in the laboratory), we performed MR measurements on alternating days on each condition.

We measured routine MR throughout 24 hours using the oxygen uptake as a proxy in a closed chamber respirometer. Due to experimental limitations, we only measured one hermit crab at a time (20 measurements in total). We used an oxygen-sensitive sensor spot (PreSens Precision Sensing GmbH, Regensburg, Germany) attached to the inner wall of the chamber with a silicone rubber compound, as specified by the manufacturer. This approach allowed non-invasive and more precise measures by preventing gas exchange during the readings.

Measures conducted in closed chambers are never constant due to the continuous oxygen consumption by the animal. We used the difference in oxygen concentration over time to estimate the oxygen consumption inside the chamber, which can be read by the sensor spot and recorded by a Fibox 4 trace machine (PreSens Precision Sensing GmbH, Regensburg, Germany) attached to a temperature sensor (Pt100, Bioengineering AG, Wald, Switzerland). To prevent oxygen stratification and ensure enough water mixing, we placed the chamber onto a multichannel magnetic stirrer (MIX 15 eco; 2mag A.G., Munich, Germany) with a magnetic flea inside. We placed a mesh between the hermit crab and the magnetic flea to prevent contact between them.

We sealed the chambers underwater using filtered seawater to prevent air bubbles and minimise bacterial and algal activity. As a preventive measure against algal or bacterial activity, we also measured the oxygen consumption in three extra chambers ('blanks') containing a single *L. littorea* shell of a similar size as used by the crab. Differences in oxygen concentration in the blanks indicated microbial activity and were accounted for during routine MR estimation of *P. bernhardus*. We obtained the O₂ consumption rate using the slope of a linear regression of the oxygen consumption over time minus the blank O₂ consumption rate (Calosi et al., 2013). Then, we multiplied the slope by the oxygen solubility coefficient and adjusted for salinity and temperature. Although we conducted the metabolic rate measurements in a temperature-controlled room, there were minimal fluctuations in temperature (0.2 - 1°C), which can affect oxygen solubility values (Calosi et al., 2013; Widdows et al., 2002). We accounted for such minor changes in temperature in estimating the oxygen solubility coefficient (as described above). We calculate the rate of O₂ consumption using:

Rate of
$$O_2uptake$$
 (µmoles O_2h^{-1}) = $C(t) \times (V_r) \times \left(\frac{60}{t_1 - t_2}\right)$

Where C(t) is the O_2 consumption rate (from the linear regression of oxygen consumption over time), V_r is the total volume of water inside the jar (jar volume minus the hermit crab volume), and t1-t2, is the measurement period (in minutes; (Calosi et al., 2013; Widdows et al., 2002). To estimate the metabolic rate and create a standardised measure, allowing comparisons between individuals, we divided the rate of O_2 uptake by individual body mass (Porter and Brand, 1995). We allowed hermit crabs to rest for 30 minutes before starting routine MR measures of oxygen consumption. We kept the same individual during the 24 hours' measurement to prevent stress

and possible disturbances in the animal. Although the metabolic rate was estimated during 24h continuous measurement, it was later divided into two experimental blocks, corresponding to day and night-time measures (12 - 12 h). Oxygen levels were carefully monitored throughout the experiment, and if oxygen concentration dropped below a threshold, the investigation would be interrupted and restarted with a different hermit crab. However, this step was not necessary.

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Haemocyanin concentration

259 After completing the behavioural observations, we extracted a haemolymph sample from hermit 260 crabs from both metabolic rate measurement and startle response duration (standard light; N = 20 261 and constant light; N = 20), following the protocol described by Bridger et al. (Bridger et al., 262 2015) by inserting an insulin syringe into the infra-branchial sinus. Then, we transferred 10µl of 263 the haemocyanin recently sampled into a semi-micro cuvette containing 690 ul of double-264 distilled water. After mixing, we measured the haemocyanin absorbance at 337 nm in a 265 spectrophotometer. We used the Nickerson & Van Holder (1971) extinction coefficient to 266 determine the haemocyanin concentration. After the haemolymph collection, we euthanised all 267 individuals by placing them into a saturated magnesium chloride solution.

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Data analysis

270 We used three analyses to investigate the effect of constant light on the startle response. In the 271 first analysis, we quantified the impact of light and dark conditions on the duration of the startle 272 response using a hierarchical generalised linear model (HGLM) implemented within a Bayesian framework (MCMC Bayesian approach implemented in the R package MCMCglmm; Hadfield, 273 274 2010). We then used a second HGLM to estimate treatment group and time-specific repeatabilities (these could not be obtained from the primary model used to test for mean level 275 276 effects; see details below). In the third analysis, we determined the impact of constant light on 277 metabolic rate using repeated-measures ANOVA. Analysis, results and raw data can be viewed 278 at https://github.com/marivelasque/Light-pollution.

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Personality and behavioural variation

In the first analysis, we fitted a model allowing a random intercept for each individual. This enables the estimation of between-individual variation in startle responses (V_{BI} : between-individual variance) and random slopes across the repeated observations (V_{WI} : within-individual or residual variance, providing a measure of consistency) and the estimation of individual variation across all observations. To account for the time the animal was in the laboratory, we added the experimental period as a random effect. We assumed the residual variance to be normally distributed and uncorrelated across all observations. We used the startle response duration ($log10_{10}$ transformed to improve normality) as the response variable and time at which startle response duration was measured (day or night), treatment (constant or standard light),

occasion (day 1-20) on which the behaviour was observed, the hermit crab mass, the haemocyanin concentration as fixed effects. Because startle response duration is likely to vary according to the time of the day on which it was measured and the experimental treatment. We also included the interactions between treatment * time as fixed effects.

To compare repeatability (and V_{BI} and V_{WI} components) across treatment groups, we modelled another HGLM with a similar structure for fixed effects as the model described above. To achieve this, we constructed a model using block-specific (i.e. treatment groups) random intercepts for individuals, on which the within-group covariance was constrained to 0 and the within-group (diagonals) were allowed to vary (i.e. measures within each light treatment and time of the day were allowed to vary), creating a block-specific G-structure that corresponds to VBI. Similar to the previous model, we also compared effect size, autocorrelation between estimated samples and DIC of this model against five priors (see Supplemental Material S1) to choose the best-unbiased model based on the overall results. We report the results obtained using 'prior 2' as it achieved convergence and had lower autocorrelation between samples (see Supplemental Material S1). All models had similar DIC values. We reported the posterior mode for fixed effects and 95% credible intervals (C.I.s). Additionally, we modelled separate residual variances for each experimental block (R-structure, corresponding to V_{WI}).

We estimated the posterior modes for repeatability in each experimental block (with 95% C.I.s). We also determined whether the repeatability estimates showed significant differences among the experimental blocks by calculating the posterior modal differences between blocks (ΔR ; see Supplemental Material S1) and the 95% CI values of these differences (Osborn and Briffa, 2017; Royauté et al., 2015; White and Briffa, 2017). We estimated the difference in repeatability, ΔR , between treatments within each time of day ($R_{constant\ light}$ - $R_{standard\ light}$) and between each time of day within groups ($R_{constant\ light\ during\ day}$ - $R_{constant\ light\ during\ night}$). We made similar calculations to assess the changes in the specific variance components of repeatability (ΔV_{BI} and ΔV_{WI}) between treatments and times of the day.

In all Bayesian modules, we compared the effect size, autocorrelation between estimated samples and Deviance Information Criterion (DIC) with four different priors to choose the best-unbiased model based on the overall results (see Supplemental Material S1). We report the results obtained using the model containing the lower autocorrelation between samples (see Supplemental Material S1). All models had similar DIC values. As standard when implementing Bayesian framework, significance occurs when 95% C.I.s of their posterior modes did not overlap zero. We specified a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) for both models with 5 x 10⁶ interactions, a thinning interval of 100 and a burn-in of 50000. We fitted all models using MCMC methods (implemented with MCMCglmm in R version 3.6.0).

The effect of constant light on metabolic rate and haemocyanin concentration

327 In the third analysis, we determined the effect of light on metabolic rate using a Linear Mixed-

Effects Model. As the metabolic data was not normally distributed, we applied Log10 +1

329 transformation before analysis. We used metabolic rate as the dependent variable and added it as 330 a fixed effect containing the time of the day and an interaction between the treatment group and 331 experiment period (i.e. crossover). To account for the crossover effect, we built a model 332 containing a random intercept (i.e. individuals) and random slopes (i.e. experimental period), 333 indicating that individual slopes vary across different experimental periods). This analysis was 334 performed using the lmer function from the lme4 package on R. As haemocyanin was only 335 measured once at the end of the experiment, we also tested the effect of treatment on its 336 concentration using Welch's t-test (Lu and Yuan, 2010).

Results

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- 338 Personality and behavioural variation
- The parameter estimates for both random and fixed effects of the HGML model and their 95%
- 340 credible intervals (and estimated p values) are given in Table 1. The fixed effects components of
- 341 the HGLM model provide strong evidence that the startle response duration changed according
- to the treatment (p < 0.001), being longer in animals experiencing the constant light treatment
- 343 (Figure 2). We also found strong support that startles response duration did not vary between day
- and night measures (p = 0.87) nor with the hermit crab mass (p = 0.065).
- 345 Although we did not find a significant change in startle response behaviour between day and
- 346 night-time measures, we found strong evidence that boldness changed with the interaction
- between treatment and time (p < 0.001; Figure 2; Table 1). Our results suggest that the
- 348 difference in startle response duration between day and night was more marked for the constant
- light than standard light treatment (p < 0.001; Figure 2; Table 1). In addition, we found strong
- evidence that the decrease in boldness was greater in hermit crabs with higher haemocyanin
- 351 concentration (p < 0.01; Figure 2; Table 1). Startle response duration also decreased throughout
- 352 the experiment (p = 0.036; Table 1). We estimated the repeatability from the second HGLM (see
- 353 Supplemental Material S1). The repeatability estimates (Table 2) provide strong evidence that
- 354 the startle response duration was repeatable in all treatment blocks. There was no significant
- difference in repeatability between treatment groups within periods. The HGLM model also
- indicates an increased amount of variation in response to changes in light conditions, both
- between (V_{BI}-) and within-individuals (V_{Wi}; Table 3). It also indicates that such response was
- 358 consistent across individuals (V_{BI}) in different experimental groups and times of the day.
- 359 Although such behavioural consistency was considerable throughout the experimental group,
- individuals on the standard light treatment had a lower behavioural consistency during the day.
- 362 The effect of constant light on metabolic rate and haemocyanin concentration
- In addition to behavioural changes, hermit crabs exposed to constant light also had significantly
- higher MR than those in standard light conditions. (p = 0.001, Figure 2; Table 4). We also found
- the metabolic rate to vary with the period, being higher during the second part of the experiment
- (p = 0.043; Table 4). In addition, we also found that such crossover effect was significantly

higher when animals were exposed to constant light in the second experimental period instead of 368 the first (Treatment x Period - p = 0.008; Table 4). We did not find any changes in metabolic rate 369 between day and night-time measures (p = 0.509; Table 4). We also found that constant light significantly increases haemocyanin concentration in hermit crabs ($t_{17,401} = -3.173$, p = 0.005). 370

Table 1: Posterior summary statistics for the mean effect of startle response, showing posterior mean, lower and upper 95% C.I.s and P-values (for fixed effect only). Significant values are shown in bold.

Parameter name	Posterior mean	95% CI lower	95% CI Upper	p		
Fixed effects						
Intercept	-29.262	-3.3272	7.1733	0.12		
Time	0.0134	-0.1647	0.2084	0.87		
Treatment	0.573	0.3925	0.7685	< 0.001		
Occasion	0.0248	0.0023	0.048	0.036		
Mass	-0.2503	-0.5195	-3e-04	0.065		
Haemocyanin concentration	0.0073	0.0041	0.0109	< 0.001		
Treatment x Time	-0.7164	-0.9748	-0.4443	< 0.001		
Random intercepts (between-individual variation, G-structure and R-structure)						
Hermit Crab ID (intercept)	9e-04	4e-04	0.0013	-		
Observational period	1534349.5381	4e-04	95.2922	-		
Error	1.1287	0.9702	1.2785	-		

Table 2: Posterior modes, upper and lower 95% C.I.s (in brackets) for MCMC repeatability estimates between treatment groups within periods and repeatability of differences (Δ) between treatments (Δ constant light - standard light) and between the time on which the startle response was induced (Δ Night-Day). Significant values are shown in bold.

	Day	Night	Δ Night-Day
constant light	0.34 [0.248, 0.535]	0.23 [0.127, 0.374]	0.15 [-0.043, 0.347]
standard light	0.49 [0.358, 0.65]	0.35 [0.22, 0.503]	0.14 [-0.078, 0.332]
Δ constant - standard light	-0.12 [-0.313, 0.109]	-0.11 [-0.311, 0.073]	-

Table 3: Posterior modes, upper and lower 95% C.I.s (in brackets) for (a) between and (b) within-individual variation in startle response duration between treatment groups within periods and the difference (Δ) in variation between treatments (Δ constant light - standard light) and between the time on which the startle response was induced (Δ Night-Day). Significant values are shown in bold

(a) Between-individual variation, V_{BI}

	Day	Night	Δ Night-Day
constant light	0.55 [0.278, 0.977]	0.30 [0.139, 0.541]	0.26 [-0.131, 0.745]
standard light	0.71 [0.377, 1.249]	0.56 [0.288, 0.993]	0.22 [-0.461, 0.785]
Δ constant light -			
standard light in VBI	-0.04 [-0.797, 0.416]	-0.23 [-0.733, 0.167]	-

(b) Within-individual variation, V_{WI}

	Day	Night	Δ B-A
constant light	0.94 [0.77, 1.05]	0.97 [0.79, 1.11]	0.06 [-0.18, 0.24]
standard light	0.73 [0.63, 0.89]	1.03 [0.85, 1.21]	0.29 [0.04, 0.48]
Δ constant light - standard light	-0.13 [-0.81, 0.51]	-0.11 [-0.31, 0.16]	-

Table 4: Fixed-effects estimates for the Linear Mixed-Effects Models for the effect of time (day or night-time), experimental period (crossover A or B) and treatment group (constant light or standard light) on metabolic rate of hermit crabs. Significant values are shown in bold.

	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t-value	Pr(> z)
Intercept	0.477	0.166	19.559	2.87	0.01
Treatment	0.977	0.235	19.559	4.159	0.001
Period	0.52	0.245	26.801	2.122	0.043
Time	-0.142	0.212	23.999	-0.67	0.509
Treatment x Period	-1.177	0.386	15.399	-3.047	0.008
Treatment x Time	-0.395	0.299	23.999	-1.319	0.2
Period x Time	0.103	0.299	23.999	0.344	0.734
Treatment x Period x Time	0.627	0.423	23.999	1.482	0.151

Reference values: Treatment – constant light; Period – B; Time - night.

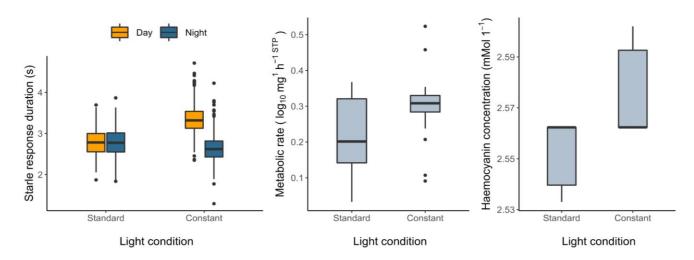


Figure 2. Night-time light and time effects on the startle response duration, metabolic rate, and haemocyanin concentration of the hermit crab $Pagurus\ bernhardus$. A) Startle response duration was predicted using the best unbiased HGLM model (see materials and methods). B) the metabolic rate (MO₂). $Pagurus\ bernhardus$. Metabolic rate is expressed as $log_{10}\ nmol\ O_2\ mg^{-1}$ $h^{-1}\ STP\ (STP\ -\ standard\ temperature\ and\ pressure)$ and haemocyanin concentration as mMol 1^{-1} .

Discussion & Conclusions

We investigated the effect of constant light on personality traits and metabolic rate in the hermit crab *Pagurus bernhardus*. We show that night-time light influences mean level startle response durations and repeatability estimates. Although startle responses observed during the night were unaffected, those individuals kept under constant light exhibited reduced boldness during day-time hours (with longer startle response duration) than individuals experiencing standard light conditions. Our data also indicates that animals kept under constant light conditions showed a higher metabolic rate than those under standard light conditions. The increased haemocyanin concentration in constant light treated animals indicates an increased oxygen demand resulting from an increased metabolic rate.

Night-time light increases animal visibility facilitating predator detection, and thus, increases perceived predation risk (Prugh and Golden, 2014; Troscianko et al., 2009). Previous studies in *P. bernhardus* have shown that hermit crabs can be aware of the shell conspicuousness and predation risk associated with the shell and in turn displayed a modified startle response duration (Briffa and Twyman, 2011). However, we found no overall significant difference in startle response duration between day and night measures. Nevertheless, this effect depends on the treatment. Hermit crabs experiencing constant light had shorter startle response duration at night-time than individuals under standard light regimes. This suggests that constant light treatment may increase hermit crab conspicuousness and, consequently, the perceived risk (Gaston and Spicer, 2013). However, *P. bernhardus* is less active at night (Mitchell, 1973), such perceived risk may be transferred, causing more severe behavioural changes when hermit crabs are more active (i.e. day). Perhaps long-term adaptation may result in increased activity during the daytime, but this was not observed in this work. It is also possible that constant light disrupts resting and sleep behaviour (Alaasam et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2020; Raap et al., 2016b) in hermit crabs, increasing stress and modifying activity patterns and response to risk.

Startle response duration is a complex behaviour widely used as a proxy for defensive response in several animals. In hermit crabs, gas exchange occurs in modified gills located in the brachial chamber (Gerlach et al., 1976; Lancaster, 1990). When they withdraw inside their shells, such gas exchange is interrupted, temporarily limiting oxygen availability. Hence, the increase in startle response duration will cause a reduction in oxygen availability, creating a trade-off (Briffa and Bibost, 2009). Traits with a substantial trade-off tend to vary both in populations and throughout an organism's lifetime (i.e. shorter to long). Traits with inter- and intra-individual variation are an important coping strategy, as they reduce the ability of predators to adapt to prey behaviour (Briffa, 2013; Briffa et al., 2013). Although we found that hermit crabs adapt their average day-time behaviour in response to constant light (i.e. decreasing boldness), there were no differences in predictability (i.e. VwI) between light treatments. Constant light did, however, lead to an increase in energy consumption (when compared with standard light regimes). Therefore, it is possible that under long-term constant light, hermit crabs need to increase their food consumption to support their high energetic demand (Lima, 1998; Lima and Dill, 1990) which

increases foraging and, therefore, the predation risk (Lima, 1998; Lima and Dill, 1990). Animals in captivity tend to have a more homogeneous behaviour due to reduced environmental heterogeneity (Bell et al., 2009; Dammhahn and Almeling, 2012; Desy et al., 1990). However, captive animals still have some activity pattern with higher and lower activity phases, usually reinforced by light (e.g. circadian rhythms: (Palmer, 1973). Thus, under constant light conditions, such patterns are expected to be minimised (Ringelberg, 2007; Wyse et al., 2011), producing a more homogeneous response (e.g. lower variance or higher repeatability). However, we found no evidence for this, with constant light exposed individuals similar to those under the standard light and dark regime. The repeatability within groups (i.e., consistent behavioural differences among individuals the day versus night) was also similar across treatment groups.

Individuals in both treatment groups and at both periods exhibit significant between- and within-individual variance in boldness (V_{BI} and V_{WI} , respectively). There was also no significant variation in V_{BI} between treatment groups and time. However, under standard light and dark regime treatment, there was a substantial difference in the amount of within-individual variation (V_{WI}) between day and night; crabs had more within-individual variation in behaviour (less consistent) at night than during the day (Table 3). One possible explanation is that *P. bernhardus* is a diurnal species, maintaining its activity pattern even under constant light (Mitchell, 1973). Therefore, it is possible that in the absence of constant light exposure, other rhythms than circadian (tidal or lunar) are more pronounced, resulting in a higher variation in behaviour within-individuals. Alternatively, hermit crabs may be subjected to different pressures throughout a 24-hour period. For instance, the predation risk increases during the night-time and thus, decreasing predictability (increases V_{WI}) may increase survival in natural conditions. Therefore low predictability (i.e. low behavioural consistency or high V_{WI}), alongside low boldness, is potentially a strategy to cope with risk, as less predictable individuals might reduce the chance of being captured (Briffa, 2013; Briffa et al., 2013).

How organisms respond to ALAN is not homogeneous and varies across species, seasons and even daily activity patterns. For instance, some animals showed a significant decrease in energy expenditure (Duarte et al., 2019; Manríquez et al., 2019; Pulgar et al., 2019; Touzot et al., 2019). The usage of the crossover design allowed us to test the effect of the treatment while avoiding confounding factors, such as time and habituation (Briffa, 2013; Briffa et al., 2008; Briffa and Bibost, 2009; Briffa and Twyman, 2011; Mowles et al., 2012).

Light pollution is a modern, globally widespread (Cinzano et al., 2001) and fast-expanding (Hölker et al., 2010) issue. Nevertheless, the effect on marine life is not well documented, especially for invertebrates. To our knowledge, no prior studies have explored the effects of constant light as a potential driver (or disruptor) of variation in repeatable personality traits. Previous work examining ALAN induced personality changes in guppies did not appear to influence variation (Kurvers et al., 2018). Therefore, our study shows how light pollution may affect *P. bernhardus* physiologically, increasing metabolic rate and behaviourally by reducing within-individual variation in behaviour and decreasing boldness overall. Further experiments are required to explore the potential downstream effects of these light pollution-induced changes.

- 476 For instance, it has been shown that hermit crabs exposed to predator chemical cues (e.g. effluent
- form containers with a predator) or visual (e.g. predator model) cues tend to adjust their
- behaviour (Briffa, 2013; Briffa et al., 2008) and could be used to simulate risk under varying
- light treatments. Our results (increased metabolic rate and decreased day-time boldness), indicate
- 480 that artificial light at night can cause systemic changes to hermit crab's physiology and risk
- 481 coping mechanisms. Furthermore, such changes in response to light conditions could interact
- potentially in a non-linear way. If elevated metabolism requires greater foraging, under elevated
- predation risk, then increased foraging behaviour could place crabs under even greater risk. On
- 484 the other hand, if crabs try to avoid elevated predation risk by foraging less, their energy balance
- will be negatively impacted under conditions of increased metabolic rate. We did not measure
- 486 foraging in this experiment, but since boldness is linked to the exploration in hermit crabs
- 487 (Mowles and Briffa, 2012), the second of these two scenarios seem the most likely. Such
- changes could influence individual fitness and population stability in affected areas.

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- The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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