

Title: Hunting success of lions affected by the moon's phase in a wooded habitat

Authors: Preston, E. F. R.^{1a}, Johnson, P. J.¹, Macdonald, D. W.¹ and Loveridge, A. J.¹

ORCID IDS: EFRP 0000-0002-4098-2630

Addresses:

1. Wildlife Conservation Research Unit, Department of Zoology, Recanti-Kaplan Centre,
University of Oxford, OX13 5QL, UK.

Acknowledgements

We thank two anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments on earlier drafts of the manuscript, which helped to improve and clarify this manuscript. We thank the Director of ZPWMA for permission to undertake this research (permit numbers: REF:DM/Gen/(T) 23(1)(c)(ii):713/12/01, 03/2002, 07/2003, 20/2004, 01/2005, 01/2007, 03/2008, 03/2009, 25/2010, 06/2011, 12/2012) and the assistance of ZPWMA and Hwange Lion Project field staff for field data collection. This work was supported by Darwin Initiative for Biodiversity Grants 162-09-015 and EIDPO002, Mitsubishi Fund for Europe and Africa, R.G. Frankenberg, Boesak and Kruger, Rufford Maurice Laing, SATIB Trust, Eppley, Panthera, Robertson and, Recanti-Kaplan Foundations and Riv and Joan Winant. Funders had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, manuscript preparation or decision to submit.

^a Presently at Centre for Ecology and Conservation, University of Exeter, Penryn Campus, Cornwall, TR10 9FE, UK.

21

22 **Abstract**

23 Variation in moonlight affects foraging, hunting and vigilance behaviours in many nocturnal
24 species. Here, we explore the effect of moonlight on the movement and hunting behaviour of
25 African lions. Previous studies found bright moonlight is associated with reduced hunting success;
26 however, those studies were largely undertaken in open habitats where predators are easily seen by
27 prey species on moonlit nights. In this study we explored whether moonlight affected hunting
28 behaviour and success in a largely wooded environment. Measures of short-term lion movements
29 (distance moved, displacement, and path tortuosity) derived from GPS telemetry data were used as
30 indicators of movement behaviour. Field observations of belly distension were used to assess recent
31 food intake. Lions had greater belly distension (indicating feeding success) on dark nights. However,
32 this change in feeding success was not reflected by lion movement patterns – there was no evidence
33 that these changed across moon phases. There was no evidence that lions used more covered
34 habitats on brighter nights to facilitate concealment.

35 **Key words:**

36 Moonlight; hunting success; movement ecology

37

38

39

40

41

42

44 Introduction

45 Nocturnal light varies substantially with the phases of the moon. And although moon light is
46 not the only factor that affects how light any given night may be, the amount of moonlight affects a
47 diverse range of taxa, and can affect reproduction, communication, foraging and predation
48 (Kronfeld-Schor et al., 2013). Many species adjust foraging or vigilance behaviours, as the moon
49 phase can affect predator-prey interactions, and therefore the ‘landscape of fear’ (Brown, Laundre,
50 & Gurung, 1999) experienced by prey species. In some cases lighter nights are more dangerous as
51 predators are more active, and in others it is the darkest nights when predators are hidden, that
52 predation risk is highest. A meta-analysis of predation risk in relation to moonlight revealed
53 divergent responses of nocturnal mammals to the moon’s cycle (Prugh & Golden, 2014). Prey
54 species that use primarily visual signals showed increased activity with increased moonlight,
55 whereas those using other sensory systems suppressed activity at these times (Prugh & Golden,
56 2014).

57 The hunting success and activity of nocturnal predators have also been shown to be affected
58 by moon phase. The nocturnal activity of coursing predators, cheetahs (*Acinonyx jubatus*, Schreber)
59 and wild dogs (*Lycaon pictus*, Temminck), was linked to the phase of the moon, with increased
60 activity on lighter nights (Cozzi et al., 2012). Cheetahs’ nocturnal activities were related to the moon
61 phase in the dry season, with an increase in time spent feeding on more illuminated nights
62 (Broekhuis, Grünewälder, McNutt, & Macdonald, 2014). African wild dogs, which are principally
63 diurnal, have also been seen to hunt on moonlit nights, and seem to be limited by light availability
64 (Rasmussen & MacDonald, 2012). Wolves (*Canis lupus*, Linnaeus) were almost twice as successful
65 when hunting on moonlit nights (Theuerkauf et al., 2003). Coursing predators are more successful at
66 high levels of illumination (Cozzi et al., 2012), while ambush predators are at an advantage on darker
67 nights that facilitate concealment (Funston, Mills, & Biggs, 2001; Orsdol, 1984).

Several studies have investigated the relationship between African lion (*Panthera leo*, Linnaeus) hunting behaviour and moon phase. As ambush predators, lions have an advantage when they are concealed, which may be facilitated by low moonlight. Packer et al. (2011) showed that food intake of lions was greater on moonless nights (according to belly size measures) and most attacks on humans occurred during the darkest nights of the moon cycle. Funston et al. (2001) showed a similar pattern for lions in Kruger National Park, with increased hunting success on moonless nights or when the moon was obscured by clouds, a result echoed in Queen Elizabeth National Park in Uganda (Orsdol, 1984). However, a more recent study by Cozzi et al. (2012) found no link between lion activity and the phase of the moon, although this study did not assess hunting behaviour.

Apex predators exert effects on other species in the ecosystem through direct predation (Grange et al., 2012), interference competition (Van Der Meer & Ens, 1997) and by modifying prey behaviour (Barnier et al., 2014; Creel, Christianson, & Winnie Jr., 2011). Lions have been shown to influence their prey in this way, through changes to vigilance behaviour (Periquet et al., 2010, 2012) and variation in spatial and temporal habitat use in relation to the risk of predation (Valeix, Fritz, et al., 2009; Valeix, Loveridge, et al., 2009). The phase of the moon is potentially an important aspect of this 'landscape of fear'. Lion prey species avoided areas where lions were likely to be found and changed their behaviour in risky areas in relation to the moon in the Serengeti (Palmer, Fieberg, Swanson, Kosmala, & Packer, 2017). This may only be the case when predators are present, as zebra and wildebeest increased their movements during brighter nights when lions were in close proximity, but showed no difference in movements through the lunar cycle when lions were more than a kilometre away (Traill, Martin, & Owen-Smith, 2016). Variation in hunting success over time is likely to affect the spatial and temporal distribution of prey species, which may in turn influence the wider ecosystem, or patterns of human-wildlife conflict.

The aim of this study was to test the effect of the moon phase on lion movement patterns and hunting success in a heavily wooded environment. Movement patterns can represent hunting behaviours, as well as habitat choices, for example, highly tortuous paths indicate searching and hunting behaviour (Benhamou, 1992). The vegetation in the study site, Hwange NP, is composed of woodland and bushland and with only 5% of the area being classified as open habitat (Rogers, 1993). It is far less open than either the Serengeti (Packer et al. 2011), Kruger (Funston et al. 2001) or Queen Elizabeth National Park (Orsdol, 1984). Dense vegetation may offset the potential negative impact of moonlight on lion hunting success. Lions may change their habitat preferences over the moon phase using more wooded areas on lighter nights. In addition, dense habitats could facilitate concealment of hunting lions on lighter nights, leading to more successful kills at these times of the moon's cycle, breaking the relationship between moon phase and hunting success. Some evidence of this has been seen in South Africa, as presence of moonlight is less important than vegetation structure in successful lion kill sites (Davies, Tambling, Kerley, & Asner, 2016).

Methods

Study Area

The study was carried out in Hwange National Park, Zimbabwe (HNP). HNP covers approximately 15,000 km² in the north west of Zimbabwe (19°00'S, 26°30'E). Altitude varies from 800 to 1100 m. The vegetation is primarily woodland and bushland savanna and vegetation communities are dominated by *Colophospermum mopane*, *Combretum* spp., *Acacia* spp., *Baikiaea plurijuga* and *Terminalia sericea* and less than 5% of habitat is open (Rogers, 1993). HNP is a semi-arid ecosystem with a mean annual rainfall of 606 mm and highly variable annual rainfall (CV ≈ 30%) (Loveridge et al., 2009; Valeix, Fritz, et al., 2009).

Lion Movements

Movement data were collected by global positioning system (GPS) collars deployed on 63 individual lions (29 females and 34 males). The data were collected over 10 years between 2002 and 2013 by the Hwange Lion Research Project (Loveridge et al., 2009, 2016; Valeix et al., 2010). The study was undertaken in a study area of approximately 7000 km² (see Supplementary Material Figure S1 for map). Lions were fitted with global positioning system (GPS) collars with either UHF or satellite remote downloads (Televilt Positioning, Lindesberg, Sweden, 950 g; Africa Wildlife Tracking, Pretoria, South Africa, 1400 g). As far as possible one animal was collared in each pride and coalition in the study area. Lions were immobilised for handling and collaring by qualified field staff using standard protocols for the species (Fahlman et al., 2005). Study animals were located weekly to bimonthly from a 4 x 4 vehicle or microlight aircraft.

The GPS collars gave hourly co-ordinates for the individual's location throughout the daily cycle, or every nocturnal hour (according to the collar type). These locations were used to calculate total distance travelled, displacement distance, and path tortuosity. These parameters were used as they describe different aspects of lion movements (Elliot, Cushman, Loveridge, Mtare, & Macdonald, 2014). For example, a highly tortuous path may indicate search behaviour, as this is more efficient for random searching in resource areas (Benhamou, 1992). Lions were defined as sub-adult (less than four years old) or adult (over four years old), and for those study animals for which birth dates were not available ages were estimated from tooth-wear (Smuts, Anderson, & Austin, 1978).

A subset of lion data were selected from the complete GPS data to include the three nights surrounding the appropriate moon phase, i.e. one night before, the night of the moon phase, and one night afterwards. The data were also limited to nocturnal hours, from sunset to sunrise, on each of the three nights and to times when the moon had risen, i.e. between moon rise and moon set, during these night hours. Times for sunrise, sunset, moonrise and moonset for the study site were extracted using the R package "suncalc" (Agafonkin & Thieurmél, 2018). Some data were patchy due to missing location measurements, consequently the data from that period were discarded.

For each individual an hourly distance moved was calculated between every hourly GPS fix and the previous GPS fix, using Pythagoras' Theorem in R (Equation 1). Three different measurements were calculated from these hourly distances to represent movements; total path distance, displacement, and tortuosity.

$$\text{Distance between coordinates} = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

Equation 1

The total path distance travelled was calculated by summing the distances moved each hour during the three night period. This gave a measurement in meters for the total distance of the path travelled over the three nights i.e. the distances of the three paths (one from each night) were added together to give the total distance travelled during nocturnal hours over the moon phase period. Displacement was calculated as the direct distance (or displacement) from the first point of the first night of the moon phase (i.e. the hour after sunset (or moonrise if later) of Day 1) to the last point of the third night of that moon phase (i.e. hour before sunrise (or moon set if earlier) of Day 4) using Pythagoras theorem, as before. Tortuosity was calculated as a ratio of the total distance travelled and the displacement of the animal. This creates a tortuosity value of 1 for a straight line, and higher values indicate a more tortuous path. A very tortuous path is highly curved and meandering and is characteristic of search behaviour (Benhamou, 1992).

Belly Size

A belly size measure was used to indicate recent food intake, following the methods of Bertram (1975). A belly score of 1 indicates a distended stomach and recent food intake, a belly score of 3 is average, and 5 indicates very little food has been consumed recently. These belly sizes were recorded whenever lions were observed in the field from 2008 to 2013 along with other details including the time, the location and the identity of the animal. This method was also used in Packer's study of lion feeding behaviour and kill success (2011). Cubs were excluded from this data, as belly

size measures are not accurate. A total of 1727 belly score observations were made between May 2008 and December 2013, from 275 lions (123 males and 152 females).

Habitat

Habitat variables were extracted from the MODIS Yearly Vegetation Continuous Fields satellite images (Hansen et al., 2003) and provided the percentage of tree cover to a resolution of 250m. A percentage of tree cover was extracted from the MODIS image for the relevant year for each lion GPS location, using the R package “raster” (Hijmans, 2018). These measurements were averaged over the three night period of the moon phase to provide an average tree cover experienced by the individual lion during this time. The range of tree cover values experienced by lions within three-night periods was low (with the majority of cases experiencing between 0 and 4% tree cover change, and one value experiencing a maximum of 30% tree cover change).

Season

Three seasons were recognised, these were the wet season (from November to February), early dry season (March to June) and late dry season (July to October). These seasons are a good proxy for the weather in this area, and therefore allow for changes in the visibility of the moon. For example, in the wet season cloud cover is greater, reducing the visibility of the moon. Season also affects vegetation cover, with denser vegetation present in the wet season, which may also have an effect on movements or hunting behaviour. Movements, hunting patterns and belly sizes might also be affected by season due to resource availability.

Moon Phase

Two variables were used to define the moon’s phase. The first was the phase of the moon according to the dates provided by National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), and were defined as being either: New Moon, First Quarter or Full Moon (NASA, 2013). Last Quarter was not included as the first and last quarters of the moon’s phase have a similar illumination.

The second measure was the fraction of the moon which was illuminated on a given night; this data was sourced from the United States Naval Observatory (United States Naval Observatory, 2013). This data was used in the belly score analysis as a continuous measure.

Analysis

A linear mixed model was constructed for each movement parameter, with data for all lions included. We used model averaging for linear mixed models (Anderson, 2008), using R software (as described by (Grueber, Nakagawa, Laws, & Jamieson, 2011)). The method also allows for model uncertainty by creating an averaged model (Grueber et al., 2011). Moon phase, tree cover, and the interactions between moon phase and tree cover, season, sex, and age were included as fixed factors. Lion identity was included as a random factor. The *lmer* and *glmer* functions in the *lme4* package (Bates & Maechler, 2009) for R software were used to fit these models. Poisson error structures were used in the models analysing total path distance and displacement (rounded to the nearest metre) to reduce residual heterogeneity, and an observation-level random effect was used to reduce overdispersion in these models (Harrison, 2014). Tortuosity was log transformed to reduce residual heterogeneity, and *lmer* (Gaussian error structure) was used for the model.

Belly distension was used as a response in general linear mixed models (*lmer*). The same predictor variables were used (age, sex, season, tree cover) but moon illumination was included as a continuous predictor. The interaction between moon illumination and tree cover was also included, on the *a priori* expectation that tree cover might mitigate the effect of lunar illumination. The same model averaging procedure was used.

Results

211 Movements

212 There was no evidence that lion movement parameters were affected by the illumination of
213 the moon (Figure 1), but age, season and tree cover were influential. Total distance travelled was
214 higher for adults than sub-adults (Estimate = -0.226, Confidence intervals = - 0.365 to -0.086, Table
215 1). Total distance travelled was higher for males than females (Estimate = 0.296, Confidence
216 intervals = 0.144 to 0.449, Table 1). Total distance travelled was also higher where average tree
217 cover was higher (Estimate = 0.122, Confidence intervals = 0.026 to 0.218, Table 1). However, there
218 was no evidence for an effect of the illumination of the moon (Figure 1, Table 1), or that the effect of
219 moonlight depended on habitat (Table 1).

220 Similarly, displacement was also higher for males than females (Estimate = 0.272,
221 Confidence intervals = 0.077 to 0.467, Table 2). Displacement increased with higher tree cover
222 (Estimate = 0.299, Confidence intervals = 0.144 to 0.454, Table 2). There was no evidence for an
223 effect of moon phase, or for an interaction between tree cover and moon phase (Table 2).

224 Tortuosity was lower in areas of higher tree cover (Estimate = -0.249, Confidence intervals =
225 -0.296 to -0.065, Table 3). However, there was no relationship between tortuosity and the phase of
226 the moon, or any interaction between tree cover and moon phase (Table 3).

227 Belly Size

228 Belly size scores were higher when moon illumination was greater (Estimate = 0.09,
229 Confidence Intervals = 0.02 to 0.16, Table 4). There were no seasonal differences in belly scores.
230 There was also no relationship between the tree cover and the belly score (Table 4).

231

232

233 Discussion

This study provides evidence that lion hunting success increases on darker nights, as seen in previous studies (Funston et al., 2001; Orsdol, 1984; Packer et al., 2011). We found no evidence that movement patterns of the studied lions changed with the moon phase, but they did appear to be affected by tree cover – lions moved further in less tortuous paths in wooded habitat. The effect of tree cover did not depend on moon phase.

Moon Illumination

The moon is not the only factor that affects the nocturnal level of darkness at ground level. Cloud cover, tree cover and other sources of light (both natural and artificial) can also affect the level of darkness. However, this study provides evidence for reduced hunting success on light nights, as there was a tendency to observe belly scores indicating lack of recent food intake on the lighter nights (close to full illumination) – otherwise there was no clear effect of moonlight on belly scores. This relationship between the moon and food intake is similar to that seen in other studies (Funston et al., 2001; Orsdol, 1984; Packer et al., 2011). However, lions in HNP may also hunt successfully on nights with intermediate moon illumination, rather than just the darkest nights, as belly scores indicating recent food intake were seen across a range of darker moon illuminations.

Movement measures were not influenced by the moon phase, a result which is similar to that of Cozzi et al. (2012) who found no link between lion movements and the moon phase. Lions in HNP do not seem to adjust their movements, or searching behaviours through the moon's phase, but their movements do appear to be influenced by tree cover. In this study the habitat may be of importance, as in open areas (which make up only 5% of HNP (Rogers, 1993) and are prey-rich (Davidson et al., 2012)), a 'sit and wait' strategy may be altered to a stalking ambush technique on moonless nights. In contrast, in wooded habitats lions would not necessarily alter their behaviour between moonlit and moonless nights because cover to ambush prey is provided by vegetation. This follows similar principles to previous observations that lions hunt in the plains at night, and in forests during the day (Schaller, 1972), and that vegetation structure is key in successful kill sites (Davies et

al., 2016). As HNP is a heavily wooded landscape, it may be that the illumination of the moon has an unimportant influence on how lions move in this area, whereas lions in more open areas (as in Funston et al. 2001 and Packer et al. 2011) have to adjust to the changing light levels from the moon. However, there is no interaction between moon phase and tree cover, which suggests that lions are not mitigating against the effects of full moon nights on their hunting success, as there is no evidence that they are using areas with greater tree cover on darker nights.

Lions in HNP do not change their movement patterns, but do appear to feed less on the most moonlit nights. Searching behaviour and general activity may remain high through the phases, as hunting is occurring throughout most of this time (as evidenced by belly scores indicating recent food intake throughout the other phases). This behaviour may also explain why some prey species react to the presence of lions rather than simply the phase of the moon, as the moon's phase is not an accurate signal of risk (Traill et al., 2016). During lighter nights there does not seem to be any change in searching effort, but lions could be performing other behaviours at this time (for example, patrolling territories) that rely less on remaining hidden from prey species. Predators may use different phases of the moon for different behaviours, that are more suited to the available light, for example, eagle owls (*Bubo bubo*, Linnaeus) hunt most on dark nights, but are more active on light nights and perform visual displays (Penteriani, Kupařinen, del Mar Delgado, Lourenco, & Campioni, 2011).

Tree cover

Distance travelled, and the displacement of the lions, increased in areas of higher average tree cover. Lions may be moving further when they are in areas of high tree cover, and moving only short distances in areas of low tree cover, because open areas are preferred to more covered areas. Tree cover could provide concealment for lions when hunting, but for this reason may be avoided by prey species. The teak woodland which makes up a large area of the study site is dystrophic (very unproductive) so very few prey individuals are located here, whereas there is a higher prey

abundance in more open landscapes and lions in this area are known to prefer grassed bushland and areas close to waterholes (Davidson et al., 2012). A lower prey encounter rate, caused by lower prey densities and restricted visibility, might explain why lions seem to move greater distances and move a greater distance from the area when they are in areas of higher tree cover. Although there is also evidence that lions prefer to kill in denser habitats in HNP (Davidson et al., 2012). The different foraging techniques of lions may also influence their preference for open areas, as in prey-rich areas (open areas in HNP (Davidson et al., 2012)) a 'sit and wait' strategy is often used. This would lead to short distances being covered and less tortuous paths, as seen in our results. Tree cover may be more important than moon phase for lion movements in this area because of the concentration of prey animals in open areas.

Alternatively, it is possible that the average tree cover was simply likely to be higher when a greater distance or displacement took place, because areas of different habitat have been travelled through. Therefore, a low tree cover level was less likely to persist in our data when an animal had travelled a large distance, because large areas of low tree cover are rare, and lions are likely to enter areas with a higher tree cover and therefore increase the average tree cover experienced.

Lion traits

Displacement measurements, and the total path travelled, are higher for males than for females. This may be linked to home range size differences; male home ranges were found to be much larger than female home ranges in HNP (Loveridge et al., 2009). The difference in home range size, and males patrolling their territorial boundaries, could explain why males move further than females. This explanation potentially extends to the greater distances moved by adults compared to sub-adults, as sub-adults are likely to be with a pride and therefore have a smaller home range, like females, whereas lone adults with large home ranges will increase the average distance travelled of adult lions as a whole.

In conclusion, this study supports previous findings that lions are more successful at hunting on dark nights, and that the moon phase (rather than simply the presence or absence of the moon) affects lion hunting success. This study also shows that the moon is important to hunting success in a wooded area, as well as the more open areas where this relationship has been seen before (Funston et al., 2001; Packer et al., 2011), as moon illumination was correlated to belly size of lions. Some evidence of the moon affecting hunting success has been seen in African thicket, but the effect of the moon was small compared to other factors like the viewshed (the areas visible) around a kill site and the wind speed at the time of the hunt (Davies et al., 2016). These results suggests that even in wooded areas, the light of the moon, or lack thereof, is still important to lions. Moonlight is also known to affect jaguar behaviour, in secondary forests, with jaguars switching prey species across moon phases, tracking the changes to armadillo activity across the moon phase (Harmsen, Foster, Silver, Ostro, & Doncaster, 2011). Tree cover may not affect the effect of moon phase for large predators, and this may particularly be the case in HNP as fewer prey individuals are found in areas of high tree cover, meaning that there would be no advantage to switching activity to high tree cover areas during lighter nights of the moon to facilitate concealment for hunting. This may be another reason that prey species do not use areas of high tree cover, as these are high risk areas for predation.

References

- Agafonkin, V., & Thieurmél, B. (2018). suncalc: Compute Sun Position, Sunlight Phases, Moon Position and Lunar Phase. R package version 0.4. Retrieved from <https://cran.r-project.org/package=suncalc>
- Anderson, D. R. (2008). *Model based inference in the life sciences: a primer on evidence*. Springer.
- Barnier, F., Valeix, M., Duncan, P., Chamaillé-Jammes, S., Barre, P., Loveridge, A. J., ... Fritz, H. (2014).

332 Diet quality in a wild grazer declines under the threat of an ambush predator. *Proceedings.*
 333 *Biological Sciences / The Royal Society*, 281(1785), 20140446.
 334 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2014.0446>

335 Bates, D., & Maechler, M. (2009). lme4: Linear mixed-effects models using S4 classes. R package,
 336 version 0.999375-31. Retrieved from <http://cran.r-project.org/package=lme4>

337 Benhamou, S. (1992). Efficiency of area-concentrated searching behaviour in a continuous patchy
 338 environment. *Journal of Theoretical Biology*, 159(1), 67–81. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5193(05)80768-4)
 339 5193(05)80768-4

340 Bertram, B. C. R. (1975). Weights and measures of lions. *East African Wildlife Journal*, 13(151), 141–
 341 143.

342 Broekhuis, F., Grünewälder, S., McNutt, J. W., & Macdonald, D. W. (2014). Optimal hunting
 343 conditions drive circalunar behavior of a diurnal carnivore. *Behavioral Ecology*, 25(5), 1268–
 344 1275. <https://doi.org/10.1093/beheco/aru122>

345 Brown, J. S., Laundre, J. W., & Gurung, M. (1999). The ecology of fear: Optimal foraging, game
 346 theory, and trophic interactions. *Journal of Mammalogy*, 80(2), 385–399.
 347 <https://doi.org/10.2307/1383287>

348 Cozzi, G., Broekhuis, F., McNutt, J. W., Turnbull, L. A., Macdonald, D. W., & Schmid, B. (2012). Fear of
 349 the dark or dinner by moonlight? Reduced temporal partitioning among Africa's large
 350 carnivores. *Ecology*, 93(12), 2590–2599. Retrieved from
 351 <http://www.esajournals.org/doi/abs/10.1890/12-0017.1>

352 Creel, S., Christianson, D. A., & Winnie Jr., J. A. (2011). A survey of the effects of wolf predation risk
 353 on pregnancy rates and calf recruitment in elk. *Ecological Applications*, 21(8), 2847–2853.

354 Davidson, Z., Valeix, M., Loveridge, A. J., Hunt, J. E., Johnson, P. J., Madzikanda, H., & Macdonald, D.
 355 W. (2012). Environmental determinants of habitat and kill site selection in a large carnivore:

scale matters. *Journal of Mammalogy*, 93(3), 677–685. <https://doi.org/10.1644/10-MAMM-A-424.1>

Davies, A. B., Tambling, C. J., Kerley, G. I. H., & Asner, G. P. (2016). Effects of vegetation structure on the location of lion kill sites in African thicket. *PLoS ONE*, 11(2), 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0149098>

Elliot, N. B., Cushman, S. A., Loveridge, A. J., Mtare, G., & Macdonald, D. W. (2014). Movements vary according to dispersal stage, group size, and rainfall: The case of the African lion. *Ecology*, 95(10), 2860–2869. <https://doi.org/10.1890/13-1793.1>

Fahlman, A., Loveridge, A. J., Wenham, C., Foggin, C., Arnemo, J. M., & Nyman, G. (2005). Reversible anaesthesia of free-ranging lions (*Panthera leo*) in Zimbabwe. *Journal of the South African Veterinary Association*, 76(4), 187–92. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16642713>

Funston, P. J., Mills, M. G. L., & Biggs, H. C. (2001). Factors affecting the hunting success of male and female lions in the Kruger National Park. *Journal of Zoology*, 253, 419–431. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0952836901000395>

Grange, S., Owen-Smith, N., Gaillard, J. M., Druce, D., Moleon, M., & Mgobozi, M. (2012). Changes of population trends and mortality patterns in response to the reintroduction of large predators: The case study of African ungulates. *Acta Oecologica*, 42, 16–29. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actao.2012.02.007>

Grueber, C. E., Nakagawa, S., Laws, R. J., & Jamieson, I. G. (2011). Multimodel inference in ecology and evolution: challenges and solutions. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology*, 24(4), 699–711. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1420-9101.2010.02210.x>

Gunn, J., Hawkins, D., Barnes, R. F. W., Mofulu, F., Grant, R. A., & Norton, G. W. (2014). The influence of lunar cycles on crop-raiding elephants; evidence for risk avoidance. *African Journal of Ecology*, 52(2), 129–137. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aje.12091>

381 Hansen, M. C., DeFries, R. S., Townshend, J. R. G., Carroll, M., Dimiceli, C., & Sohlberg, R. A. (2003).
382 Global percent tree cover at a spatial resolution of 500 meters: first results of the MODIS
383 vegetation continuous fields algorithm. *Earth Interactions*, 7(10), 1–15.
384 [https://doi.org/10.1175/1087-3562\(2003\)007<0001:GPTCAA>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1087-3562(2003)007<0001:GPTCAA>2.0.CO;2)

385 Harmsen, B. J., Foster, R. J., Silver, S. C., Ostro, L. E. T., & Doncaster, C. P. (2011). Jaguar and puma
386 activity patterns in relation to their main prey. *Mammalian Biology*, 76(3), 320–324.
387 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mambio.2010.08.007>

388 Harrison, X. A. (2014). Using observation-level random effects to model overdispersion in count data
389 in ecology and evolution. *PeerJ*, 2, e616. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.616>

390 Hijmans, R. J. (2018). raster: Geographic Data Analysis and Modeling. R package version 2.7-15.

391 Kronfeld-Schor, N., Dominoni, D., de la Iglesia, H., Levy, O., Herzog, E. D., Dayan, T., & Helfrich-
392 Forster, C. (2013). Chronobiology by moonlight. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B-Biological*
393 *Sciences*, 280(1765), 20123088. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2012.3088>

394 Lamichhane, B. R., Persoon, G. A., Leirs, H., Poudel, S., Subedi, N., Pokheral, C. P., ... de longh, H. H.
395 (2018). Spatio-temporal patterns of attacks on human and economic losses from wildlife in
396 Chitwan National Park, Nepal. *PLoS ONE*, 13(4), 1–18.
397 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0195373>

398 Loveridge, A. J., Valeix, M., Chapron, G., Davidson, Z., Mtare, G., & Macdonald, D. W. (2016).
399 Conservation of large predator populations: Demographic and spatial responses of a large
400 predator population to the intensity of trophy hunting. *Biological Conservation*, 204, 247–254.
401 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2016.10.024>

402 Loveridge, A. J., Valeix, M., Davidson, Z., Murindagomo, F., Fritz, H., & Macdonald, D. W. (2009).
403 Changes in home range size of African lions in relation to pride size and prey biomass in a semi-
404 arid savanna. *Ecography*, 32(6), 953–962. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0587.2009.05745.x>

405 NASA. (2013). Eclipse Predictions by Fred Espenak. Retrieved from
 406 <http://eclipse.gsfc.nasa.gov/phase/phase2001gmt.html>

407 Oriol-Cotterill, A., Valeix, M., Frank, L. G., Riginos, C., & Macdonald, D. W. (2015). Landscapes of
 408 Coexistence for terrestrial carnivores: the ecological consequences of being downgraded from
 409 ultimate to penultimate predator by humans. *Oikos*, 124(10), 1263–1273.
 410 <https://doi.org/10.1111/oik.02224>

411 Orsdol, K. G. V. A. N. (1984). Foraging behaviour and hunting success of lions in Queen Elizabeth
 412 National Park, Uganda. *African Journal of Ecology*, 22(2), 79–99.
 413 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2028.1984.tb00682.x>

414 Packer, C., Swanson, A., Ikanda, D., & Kushnir, H. (2011). Fear of darkness, the full moon and the
 415 nocturnal ecology of African lions. *Plos One*, 6(7), e22285–e22285.
 416 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0022285>

417 Palmer, M. S., Fieberg, J., Swanson, A., Kosmala, M., & Packer, C. (2017). A ‘dynamic’ landscape of
 418 fear: prey responses to spatiotemporal variations in predation risk across the lunar cycle.
 419 *Ecology Letters*, 20(11), 1364–1373. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12832>

420 Penteriani, V., Kupařinen, A., del Mar Delgado, M., Lourenco, R., & Campioni, L. (2011). Individual
 421 status, foraging effort and need for conspicuousness shape behavioural responses of a
 422 predator to moon phases. *Animal Behaviour*, 82(2), 413–420.
 423 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2011.05.027>

424 Periquet, S., Todd-Jones, L., Valeix, M., Stapelkamp, B., Elliot, N. B., Wijers, M., ... Loveridge, A. J.
 425 (2012). Influence of immediate predation risk by lions on the vigilance of prey of different body
 426 size. *Behavioral Ecology*, 23(5), 970–976. <https://doi.org/10.1093/beheco/ars060>

427 Periquet, S., Valeix, M., Loveridge, A. J., Madzikanda, H., Macdonald, D. W., & Fritz, H. (2010).
 428 Individual vigilance of African herbivores while drinking: the role of immediate predation risk
 429 and context. *Animal Behaviour*, 79(3), 665–671.

430 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2009.12.016>

431 Prugh, L. R., & Golden, C. D. (2014). Does moonlight increase predation risk? Meta-analysis reveals
 432 divergent responses of nocturnal mammals to lunar cycles. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 83(2),
 433 504–514. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2656.12148>

434 Rasmussen, G. S. A., & MacDonald, D. W. (2012). Masking of the zeitgeber: African wild dogs
 435 mitigate persecution by balancing time. *Journal of Zoology*, 286(3), 232–242.
 436 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7998.2011.00874.x>

437 Rogers, C. M. L. (1993). *A woody vegetation survey of Hwange National Park*. Dept of National Parks
 438 and Wildlife Management, Zimbabwe.

439 Schaller, G. B. (1972). *The Serengeti Lion*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

440 Smuts, G. L., Anderson, J. L., & Austin, J. C. (1978). Age determination of the African lion *Panthera*
 441 *leo*. *Journal of Zoology, London*, 185(1978), 115–146. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7998.1978.tb03317.x)
 442 [7998.1978.tb03317.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7998.1978.tb03317.x)

443 Theuerkauf, J., Jedrzejewski, W., Schmidt, K., Okarma, H., Ruczynski, I., Sniezko, S., & R, G. (2003).
 444 Daily patterns and duration of wolf activity in the Bialowieza Forest, Poland. *Journal of*
 445 *Mammology*, 84(1), 243–253. Retrieved from
 446 [http://www.asmjournals.org/perlserv/?request=get-abstract&doi=10.1644%2F1545-](http://www.asmjournals.org/perlserv/?request=get-abstract&doi=10.1644%2F1545-1542(2003)084%3C0243%3ADPADOW%3E2.0.CO%3B2)
 447 [1542\(2003\)084%3C0243%3ADPADOW%3E2.0.CO%3B2](http://www.asmjournals.org/perlserv/?request=get-abstract&doi=10.1644%2F1545-1542(2003)084%3C0243%3ADPADOW%3E2.0.CO%3B2)

448 Traill, L. W., Martin, J., & Owen-Smith, N. (2016). Lion proximity, not moon phase, affects the
 449 nocturnal movement behaviour of zebra and wildebeest. *Journal of Zoology*, 299(3), 221–227.
 450 <https://doi.org/10.1111/jzo.12343>

451 United States Naval Observatory. (2013). Phases of the moon and percent of the moon illuminated.
 452 Retrieved from <http://aa.usno.navy.mil/data/docs/MoonFraction.php>

453 Valeix, M., Fritz, H., Loveridge, A. J., Davidson, Z., Hunt, J. E., Murindagomo, F., & Macdonald, D. W.

(2009). Does the risk of encountering lions influence African herbivore behaviour at waterholes? *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology*, 63(10), 1483–1494.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00265-009-0760-3>

Valeix, M., Loveridge, A. J., Chamaillé-Jammes, S., Davidson, Z., Murindagomo, F., Fritz, H., & Macdonald, D. W. (2009). Behavioral adjustments of African herbivores to predation risk by lions: Spatiotemporal variations influence habitat use. *Ecology*, 90(1), 23–30.
<https://doi.org/10.1890/08-0606.1>

Valeix, M., Loveridge, A. J., Davidson, Z., Madzikanda, H., Fritz, H., & Macdonald, D. W. (2010). How key habitat features influence large terrestrial carnivore movements: waterholes and African lions in a semi-arid savanna of north-western Zimbabwe. *Landscape Ecology*, 25(3), 337–351.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10980-009-9425-x>

Van Der Meer, J., & Ens, B. J. (1997). Models of interference and their consequences for the spatial distribution of ideal and free predators. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 66(6), 846–858.

Tables

Parameter (Reference category)	Estimate†	Confidence Intervals (95%)		Relative Importance ‡
Age (Adult)	-0.226	-0.365	-0.086	1.00
Season Late Dry (Early Dry)	-0.015	-0.083	0.052	0.48
Season Wet (Early Dry)	0.031	-0.064	0.127	0.48
Sex (Female)	0.296	0.144	0.449	1.00
Tree Cover	0.122	0.026	0.218	1.00
Moon Phase Full Moon (First Quarter)	-0.019	-0.095	0.057	0.29
Moon Phase New Moon (First Quarter)	-0.003	0.054	0.047	0.29

Table 1 - Model averaged parameter estimates for factors affecting total distance travelled by lions at night. Only parameters included in the model set are reported. †Effect size has been standardized using R (see Grueber et al. 2011). ‡Relative importance is calculated according to the number of models that include the variable, and their weighting within the models.

Parameter (Reference category)	Estimate†	Confidence Intervals (95%)		Relative Importance‡
Age (Adult)	-0.055	-0.246	0.135	0.42
Season Late Dry (Early Dry)	-0.066	-0.232	0.010	0.50
Season Wet (Early Dry)	-0.002	-0.124	0.119	0.50
Sex (Female)	0.272	0.077	0.467	1.00
Tree Cover	0.299	0.144	0.454	1.00

Table 2 - Model averaged parameter estimates for factors affecting distance of displacement of lions at night. Only parameters included in the model set are reported. †Effect size has been standardized using R (see Grueber et al. 2011). #Relative importance is calculated according to the number of models that include the variable, and their weighting within the models.

Parameter (Reference category)	Estimate†	Confidence Intervals (95%)		Relative Importance‡
Age (Adult)	-0.082	-0.265	0.102	0.61
Season Late Dry (Early Dry)	0.023	-0.071	0.122	0.23
Season Wet (Early Dry)	0.015	-0.071	0.101	0.23
Sex (Female)	0.009	-0.060	0.077	0.20
Tree Cover	-0.181	-0.296	-0.065	1.00
Moon Phase Full Moon (First Quarter)	-0.050	-0.193	0.094	0.40
Moon Phase New Moon (First Quarter)	-0.029	-0.134	0.077	0.40

Table 3 - Model averaged parameter estimates for factors affecting tortuosity of path. Only parameters included in the model set are reported. †Effect size has been standardized using R (see Grueber et al. 2011). #Relative importance is calculated according to the number of models that include the variable, and their weighting within the models.

Parameter (Reference category)	Estimate†	Confidence Intervals (95%)		Relative Importance‡
Season Late Dry (Early Dry)	-0.032	-0.123	0.059	0.42
Season Wet (Early Dry)	-0.023	-0.103	0.056	0.42
Sex (Female)	0.059	-0.038	0.156	0.75
Tree Cover	-0.016	-0.079	0.047	0.71
Moon Illumination	0.092	0.023	0.160	1.00
Moon Illumination: Tree Cover	-0.106	-0.282	0.069	0.71

Table 4 - Model averaged parameter estimates for factors affecting lion belly scores over three night periods. Only parameters included in the model set are reported. †Effect size has been standardized using R (see Grueber et al. 2011). #Relative importance is calculated according to the number of models that include the variable, and their weighting within the models.

Figure legends

513 *Figure 1 – (a) The total distance travelled by lions over three night periods; (b) the tortuosity of lion*
514 *movement paths over three night periods; and (c) the displacement distance of lions over three night*
515 *periods; during different phases of the moon. Dots indicate means across all lions, and bars show*
516 *standard error.*

517

518 *Figure 2 – The mean moon illumination at belly scores of lions. Belly score of 1 indicates large belly*
519 *and recent food intake, belly score of 5 indicates small belly and lack of recent food intake. Dots*
520 *indicate means, and bars show standard error.*

521