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Running head: Phototoxicity of retene

to coregonid larvae

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PHOTOINDUCED LETHAL AND SUBLETHAL TOXICITY OF RETENE, A RESIN ACID DERIVED PAH, TO COREGONID LARVAE

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1	Abstract — A comparative investigation on the acute phototoxicity of retene to	
2	vendace (Coregonus albula) and whitefish (Coregonus lavaretus), both having	
3	pelagial larvae in spring, was conducted. In order to test the concept of early warning	
4	of sublethal biomarkers in relation to lethality to posthatch stages, we examined the	
5	effects of ultraviolet-B (UV-B) and retene on the levels of CYP1A and HSP70 by	
6	exposing the animals to elevated levels of these factors for 48 and 72 h, respectively.	
7	While UV-B and retene on their own were not lethal, simultaneous retene and UV-B	
8	exposure caused very high mortality to both species. The LC50 (lethal	
9	concentration 50%, i.e. the concentration at which half of the larvae died) of	
10	retene as a precursor was 41 $\mu g/L$ for vendace and 15-16 $\mu g/L$, depending on UV	
11	dose, for whitefish. Retene evoked substantial induction of CYP1A in larvae of both	
12	species and UV-B induced CYP1A in whitefish. In vendace, no effect on HSP70	
13	levels by any factor was observed. In whitefish, however, UV-B radiation and water	
14	retene alone upregulated HSP70, but no additive response was detected. CYP1A is a	
15	biomarker of exposure to retene in both species. HSP70 is an early warning signal of	
16	UV-B exposure in whitefish. As a species vendace appears to be more resistant to the	
17	phototoxicity of retene than whitefish, as indicated by the higher tolerance.	
18		
19		
20	Keywords — Phototoxicity Fish Retene Ultraviolet-B Cytochrome	
21	P4501A Heat shock protein 70	
22		

24 INTRODUCTION

UV-B radiation (280 – 315 nm) levels have increased due to stratospheric ozone depletion [1]. Enhanced UV-B radiation poses a threat to organisms due to its potential to cause harmful biological effects, directly or indirectly. Of the latter effects of UV-B, photoinduced toxicity of environmental contaminants like polynuclear aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) has been documented [2]. Pelagic or semipelagic stages of animals, such as planktonic larvae of coregonid fishes, may potentially be exposed to such a combination in aquatic ecosystems.

Many PAHs can absorb energy from the UV spectrum of sunlight thereby resulting in excited state molecules. The excited state is lost resulting either in the production of active oxygen (photosensitization) or modification of the PAH to new chemical species (photomodification) [2]. Active oxygen is biologically damaging and also the photomodification products are often more toxic than the parent compound.

Retene (7-isopropyl-1-methylphenantrene) is a PAH that is formed from resin compounds during incomplete combustion of resinuous softwood and via action of anaerobic microbes [3-4]. In addition to being formed from coniferous resins, it may originate from algal and bacterial precursors [5]. High concentrations of retene (**up to 1.6 mg/g dry weight**) have been found in pulp mill sludges and sediments downstream of pulp and paper mill discharges [6-9]. As a natural product, it is also

17	present in sediments not close to pulp mills, although at negligible concentrations (< 4
18	ng/g dry weight) [6, 10].
19	
50	Retene is not acutely lethal to fish at water-soluble concentrations [11]. On the
51	other hand, its subchronic toxicity is high $(10-32\ \mu\text{g/l})$ as evidenced by teratogenic
52	effects, most distinctly the blue sac disease in fish embryos and larvae [12]. The acute
53	toxicity of retene to <i>Daphnia magna</i> is enhanced under UV-B radiation [13].
54	
55	Autumn-spawning vendace and whitefish lay their eggs on lake bottom where
56	they may come in contact with sediment retene, shown to be bioavailable to fish [14].
57	Newly hatched larvae may also be exposed to retene in water or particulate
58	material [9]. After hatching the positively phototactic larvae of both species swim
59	near the surface for the first months, thus likely to be exposed to episodes of solar
50	UV-B [15].
51	
52	The objective of this study was to examine the effects of sole and
53	simultaneous exposures to retene and UV-B on larval vendace and whitefish. The
54	focus was on UV-B because its levels are rising and because retene has an
55	absorption peak in the UV-B region of the sunlight spectrum [13]. The endpoints
56	were mortality and two inducible proteins, CYP1A and HSP70. We suggested that
67	these proteins, while serving as early response biomarkers, allow comparison of the
58	two coregonid species at the larval stages.
59	
70	Cytochrome P4501A (CYP1A), a heme-containing microsomal
71	monooxygenase, catalyzes the first step in the biotransformation of many xenobiotics.

It was chosen as an endpoint because it is known to be induced by many PAHs,			
including retene [12, 16]. The aim was to investigate whether the induction			
differs between species and whether UV-B has an effect on the induction caused			
by retene (e.g. if more potent CYP1A inducers are generated by UV-B).			
Heat shock protein 70 (HSP70) is a class of stress proteins with a molecular			
weight of 70 – 72 kDa. Cells express some proteins of this family constitutively (hea			
shock cognates, HSC's) and some are upregulated by a variety of environmental			
stressors that generate denatured proteins, including UV radiation and bleached			
kraft pulp mill effluent [17-19]. HSP70 is believed to have a protective role against			
tissue damage as it binds to denatured proteins and attempts to restore their			
tertiary structure and function [19].			
MATERIALS AND METHODS			
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hardness (Ca + Mg) was 1.3-1.4 mmol/L and conductivity 26.2 mS/m. One-day

old larvae were kept in the same well-aerated water after hatching and used for the experiments.

Exposure system and sampling

The vendace and whitefish larvae (45 and 25 per replicate, respectively) were carefully transferred to retene (nominal concentrations 3.2; 10, 25, 32 and 100 μg/L and 10, 32 and 100 μg/L, respectively) or control treatments (water only or 0.1% dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), used as carrier) with large-bore pipettes and pre-exposed for 24 hours in Pyrex glass bowls. The depth and volume of pre-aerated water were 5 cm and 1 liter, respectively. A portion of the water was changed daily. There were three replicates for each treatment. After a 24-h accumulation period, the larvae were further exposed to retene and, in addition, irradiated with either UV-B or visible light. UV-B was provided in the laboratory using a fluorescent lamp (UVB-313, Q-Panel, Cleveland, OH, USA). Ultraviolet-C (UV-C; under 280 nm), which in the nature is blocked by the atmosphere and does not reach the surface of the earth, was blocked with a cellulose diacetate filter (Clarifoil, Derby, UK), replaced after each 3-hour UV-B radiation. Control treatments without UV-B received visible light (TLD 36 W/950 daylight, Philips, Eindhoven, Netherlands). The photoperiod was 16h:8h (light:dark).

The larvae received UV-B or visible light 3 h per day (between 24 – 27 hours and 48-51 hours after the beginning) to mimic midday exposure, for two days. UV was quantified using Hamamatsu Photonic Multichannel Spectral analyser (model PMA-11), measuring the wavelength area 280 – 380 nm. The UV-B intensities were

warious spots to ensure equal doses for all replicates in each treatment. The daily doses were 2.8 kJ/m² for the lower UV-B intensity and 5.4 kJ/m² for the higher, calculated as CIE-weighted (Commission Internationale de l'Eclairage; International Commission on Illumination) J/m², i.e., the action spectrum specific for human erythema [20]. These UV-B doses correspond with slightly subambient (7%) and 80% increase relative to the maximum daily doses in Finland (approx. 60 – 70 °N) in early May. The vendace were exposed only to the higher and the whitefish to both intensities.

The larvae were sampled after 3 days (72 hours) from the start by an esthetizing the animals with MS222 (50 mg/L, 2 min) and freezing in liquid nitrogen. The samples were transferred to $-80~^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ and preserved there until processed further.

Positive controls for Western blotting

The positive control used for Western blotting of CYP1A was obtained by injecting four one-year-old juvenile whitefish with 30 μ g/g β -naphthoflavone in 95% ethanol : olive oil (1:1). The fish were further kept at 12 °C in a 40-liter aquarium for 4 days, anesthetized with MS-222 (50 mg/L) and sacrificed. The organs were removed and frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen. Once thawed on ice the livers were homogenized with potassium gluconate buffer (70 mmol/L, pH 7.8) and centrifuged for five minutes (3000 x g). The supernatant was used for the blotting.

146	Heat-shocked vendace and whitefish larvae were used as positive controls for
147	the responsivity and Western blotting of HSP70. Larvae acclimated at 6 °C were held
148	in 16 °C for 1 hour, transferred back to 6 °C and sampled after 3 hours. The animals
149	were frozen in liquid nitrogen and preserved in $-80^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$.
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151	Western immunoblotting
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153	Larvae frozen in liquid nitrogen (30 - 40 mg, corresponding to 10 larvae of
154	vendace or 5 larvae of whitefish) were homogenized in a glass homogenizer with
155	potassium gluconate buffer (5 mmol/L MgSO ₄ , 5 mmol/L NaH ₂ PO ₄ , 40 mmol/L
156	HEPES, 70 mmol/L potassium gluconate, 150 mmol/L sorbitol, pH 7.8) [21]. The
157	homogenates were centrifuged at 1000 g for 5min.
158	
159	Total protein concentration of the supernatant was determined by modified
160	Lowry method (BioRad DC, Bio Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA) adapted for
161	96-well plates [22]. Five µl of each diluted sample was pipetted into a microtiter plate,
162	in triplicate. Similarly, 5 μ l aliquots of protein standards (bovine serum albumin, 0 –
163	1.5 mg/ml) were pipetted into the 96-well plate. An aliquot of 25 μ l of Bio-Rad
164	reagent A was added and 200 µl reagent B pipetted into each well. The plate was put
165	into the microplate reader for mixing, incubated for 15 min and absorbance read at
166	690 nm.
167	
168	The CYP1A and HSP70 determination was made by Western blot after
169	sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) separation

(100 and 20 μg protein / lane, respectively), using a Mini-Protean II apparatus [21,

171 23-24]. The positive controls were the liver of β -naphthoflavone injected juvenile 172 whitefish (3.15 µg protein / lane) and heat-shocked vendace and whitefish larvae (20 173 μg protein / lane) for CYP1A and HSP70, respectively. Samples were diluted in a 174 buffer solution (0.125 mol/L Tris-HCl, 2% SDS, 20% glycerol, 0.02% bromophenol 175 blue, 5% 2-mercaptoethanol) and loaded onto gels after heating (4 min, 95 °C). 176 Proteins were run on a SDS-PAGE gel for 1 h (V = 100 V for 5 min, 200 V for 55 177 min), after which gels were soaked in blotting buffer (25 mmol/L Tris, 192 mmol/L 178 glycine, 20% methanol, pH 8,3). Proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose 179 membrane (Trans-Blot Transfer Medium, Bio-Rad) using Bio Rad Mini-Protean II 180 apparatus at 100 V for 90 min. The membrane was stained with 0.2 % Ponceau S in 3 181 % trichloroacetic acid for 1 min to confirm protein transfer, rinsed twice with Tris-182 buffered saline-Tween (TBST; 0.9% NaCl, 10 mmol/L Tris, 0.1% Tween-20, pH 7.4) 183 and incubated in blocking buffer (9% non-fat dry milk in TBST) for 14 h in 4 °C. 184 185 The blot was probed with 3 µg/ml anti-CYP1A (Mab 1-12-3, kindly provided 186 by Dr. John Stegeman) or 1:5000 anti-HSP70 (MA3-006, Affinity BioReagents, 187 Golden, CO, USA) in blocking buffer for 2 h. These antibodies recognize CYP1A or 188 HSP70, respectively, of many species including fish, amphibians, and mammals 189 (Murphy SP, Fox S, Myers MP, Morimoto RI. Unpublished data. Affinity 190 Bioreagents) [25]. After washing (TBST, 1x15 min, 2x5 min), the blot was probed 191 with secondary antibody, 1:3000 peroxidase labeled anti-mouse IgG (A9044, Sigma-192 Aldrich Chemie, Steinheim, Germany), in TBST for 1 hour. After washing (TBST, 193 1x15 min, 2x5 min) the immunodetection was performed via enhanced 194 chemiluminescence using Star-Glo chemiluminescent substrate (ICN Biomedicals,

195	Irvine, CA, USA). Hyperfilm ECL® high performance chemiluminescence film
196	(Amersham Pharmacia, Uppsala, Sweden) was used for visualization.
197	
198	The exposed films were scanned and, for densitometric analysis, the pictures
199	were analyzed using Scion Image 4.0.2. Different blots were made comparable to
200	each other by calibrating them with positive controls, fixing each positive control at a
201	value of 1.
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203	Statistical analysis
204	
205	Differences in mortality between control and treatment groups were
206	tested using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's test. LC50
207	values were calculated using Probit analysis. Values for CYP1A and HSP70
208	induction were log-transformed and the differences between control and
209	treatment groups tested using two-way ANOVA and Tukey's test. The level of
210	significance of $p < 0.05$ was considered as statistically significant.
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212	RESULTS
213	
214	Lethality and behavioural effects
215	
216	UV-B or retene alone caused no acute mortality. However, UV-B radiation
217	increased the toxicity of retene significantly. On day three, after two daily 3-h periods
218	of UV-B, most vendace larvae in 100 $\mu g/L$ retene treatments were dead (Fig. 1). All

whitefish larvae in 100 $\mu g/L$ and nearly all in 32 $\mu g/L$ retene treatments died by day

three, at both UV-B intensities. As retene in itself did not cause lethality, we call the type of toxicity as retene-based lethality potential, but the concentrations are expressed as those of the precursor, retene. The LC50 values (72 h) calculated from nominal concentrations of the precursor, retene, were 41 µg/L (95% confidence limits 30 and 58 μ g/L) for vendace, and 16 μ g/L (13, 20 μ g/L) and 15 μg/L (13, 17 μg/L) for whitefish exposed to the lower and higher dose of UV-B, respectively. Vendace is statistically more tolerant, but the whitefish exposed to lower and higher dose of UV-B do not differ statistically from each other. The vendace larvae exposed to 100 µg/L retene and receiving UV-B radiation showed coughing and decreased motility after the first and second UV exposure. The whitefish larvae showed similar symptoms but even more frequently. Symptoms typically lasted for 3 - 4 hours. CYP1A induction Retene caused induction of CYP1A both in the prescence and absence of UV-B radiation in both species. In vendace the CYP1A induction was approximately proportional to the concentration of retene, being greatest with the highest concentration (100 µg/L). In vendace, UV-B radiation alone caused no induction of

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CYP1A (Fig. 2).

In whitefish the induction was greatest with 32 μ g/L retene, being slightly submaximal (p > 0.05, Tukey) with the highest retene concentration applied (100 μ g/L). The lower UV-B intensity caused induction in non-retene-exposed whitefish

245 larvae. In retene-exposed whitefish (10 µg/L only, because the higher 246 **concentrations of retene as precursor were lethal**) the lower UV-B level also 247 seemed to have an additive effect, but this finding was not statistically significant (p >248 **0.05, Tukey**) (Fig. 3). 249 250 When comparing the maximal responses of CYP1A, the inducibility of 251 vendace was slightly higher than that of whitefish (p > 0.05, Tukey). The positive 252 control gave a strong dark band in the Western blots even with the low protein amount 253 used $(3.15 \mu g / lane)$. 254 255 HSP70 induction 256 257 In vendace, neither UV-B nor retene had an effect on HSP70 induction that 258 was statistically significant. Also the HSP70 level of the positive control, heat 259 shocked vendace, was similar to control, showing no induction (Fig. 4). 260 261 In whitefish, the lower intensity of UV-B radiation caused an induction of 262 HSP70 in retene non-exposed animals. Also the higher intensity seemed to induce 263 HSP70, but this finding was not statistically significant (p > 0.05, Tukey). Retene 264 upregulated HSP70 slightly in larvae not exposed to UV-B, but only the 265 induction by the highest concentration was statistically significant because of 266 high variability among individuals. Even though simultaneous exposure to retene 267 and UV-B seemed to elevate HSP70 levels, this finding was not statistically 268 significant (Fig. 5). The HSP70 level of the positive control, heat-shocked whitefish,

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was 2.5 times that of the control fish.

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271	DISCUSSION

In the clearest oligotropic lakes in Finland, UV-B can penetrate deeper than 1 metre and, as larval whitefish and vendace are positively phototactic and swim near the surface for the first weeks, in some years they are likely exposed to episodes of exceptional solar UV-B [15, 26]. Additionally, related to climatic change, up to 90% increase in CIE-weighted UV doses have been predicted in northern latitudes [27]. The UV daily doses used in this study, 2.8 kJ/m² and 5.4 kJ/m², were realistic and correspond with a slightly (7%) subambient or an 80% increase relative to the maximum daily doses in Finland in early May.

UV-B radiation has been shown to be detrimental to fishes, especially at embryonic and larval stages [28]. In our study, however, UV-B on its own had no effect on the behaviour or mortality of the larvae of vendace and whitefish. This is in accordance with former results showing that vendace and whitefish are relatively resistant to UV-B [29]. As species, therefore, they appear to be well adaptable in respect to scenarios of the future UV-climate. Importantly, however, UV-photoinduced ecotoxicity of xenobiotic chemicals may provide additional risks to adaptable species, as we hypothetized.

Retene is found at mg/L concentrations in pulp mill sludges and sediments downstream of wastewater discharges [6-9]. Preliminary elutration trials show that sediment retene is dissolved from this matrix (up to $13 \mu g/L$) and is bioavailable to

fish [14, 30]. Despite these aspects of its environmental fate, retene is not acutely lethal to fish in water-soluble concentrations [11], as also verified in this study.

Certain PAHs (e.g. fluoranthene, anthracene, pyrene) have been found to be acutely phototoxic to a number of aquatic organisms including microbes, plants, invertebrates and vertebrates, in the presence of UV radiation [2, 31-34]. It was recently discovered that retene is acutely phototoxic to *Daphnia magna* and to whitefish (*Coregonus lavaretus*) in the presence of UV-B [13, 35] and this study extends those observations with more realistic daily doses of UV-B and with tests of another fish species, vendace. While both coregonids were sensitized due to simultaneous exposure to UV-B and retene, vendace was more tolerant to this **retene-based lethality potential**. Importantly, the lower dose of UV-B also evoked similar lethality in whitefish as the higher dose, a UV-B intensity predicted for the coming decades.

The retene concentrations we used were below (10 μ g/L) and over (32 and 100 μ g/L) the concentrations that are likely to occur in the nature. This was needed for a more mechanistic approach of effects. It must be noted that only two days of simultaneous exposure to UV-B and 10 μ g/L retene (a concentration likely to occur in the nature) caused significant mortality (20 – 30%). In addition to water as a source, retene can be accumulated by eggs from the sediment, or by larvae from particulate material [9, 11]. Furthermore, the applied safety factors in risk assessment with the given set of endpoints often range from 10 to 100.

The LC50 values were calculated with nominal concentrations of the precursor retene, as the concentrations were measured only in the beginning of the experiment, the measured concentrations being similar to nominal concentrations (data not shown). In a similar but different experiment the actual concentrations were measured also after 24 h, before the first UV-B radiation: The concentrations had diminished so that thay were about 80% of nominal concentrations (Häkkinen, unpublished results). So the LC50 values are perhaps optimistic compared to the real-life situation.

As behavioural endpoints, retene caused signs of hypoxia in both species during simultaneous UV-B exposure. Increased ventilation rate and coughing were noted in juvenile sunfish (*Lepomis macrochirus*) and whitefish (*Coregonus lavaretus*) exposed to PAH and UV in combination [31, 35]. The actions behind these symptoms in whitefish larvae seem to be the functional disruption of mucous cells eventually expressed as respiratory stress [35].

UV-B induces CYP1A1 gene expression in mammalian cells [36]. Irradiation of amino acid tryptophan with UV causes the formation of formylated indolocarbazoles, which are very potent Ah-receptor agonists [37]. Although no CYP1A induction by UV-B could be detected in vendace, a slight induction (10% of the maximum induction detected) was observed in whitefish exposed to the lower UV-B dose (2.8 kJ/m²). In whitefish larvae exposed to the higher dose (5.4 kJ/m²), however, no induction by UV-B was detected. Why? We presume that the higher UV-B level may have caused damage to the skin where the CYP1A induction would have taken place. This is in accordance with our earlier observation on UV-B induced skin

pathology in larval whitefish exposed to the same high UV-B dose as in the present study [35].

Subchronic exposure of rainbow trout larvae to retene causes CYP1A induction [12]. In the present study, a three-day retene exposure induced CYP1A in both vendace and whitefish. Induction in vendace was highest with the highest retene concentration (100 µg/L) but this concentration seemed to cause a distinctly submaximal induction in whitefish. Additionally, when comparing the maximal responses of CYP1A in the same larval phase of the two closely related coregonid species, the inducibility of vendace is slightly higher than that of whitefish. Overall, the response of CYP1A in animals exposed to combined UV-B + retene equalled the response to exposure to retene alone, particularly in vendace.

HSPs are upregulated by a variety of environmental stressors, including elevated temperatures, UV radiation and many xenobiotics [19]. Our results show that heat shock (used as a positive control), retene and UV-B were all inefficient in upregulating HSP70 levels in vendace. One may assume that the treatments we applied were too mild or too short to upregulate HSP70 in larval vendace. The levels of HSP70 in control vendace were slightly lower compared to the levels in control whitefish (data not shown), so it is not likely that the vendace larvae were unresponsive because of previous and ongoing HSP70 induction.

In contrast to vendace, **the lower dose of UV-B** induced HSP70 in whitefish larvae. The LD50 (14 d) for larval whitefish is 5.1 kJ/m² (CIE-weighted) of daily exposure, which corresponds to the total dose of 71 kJ/m² (O. Ylönen, personal

communication). Supposing the model of cumulative dose for an effect endpoint of UV-B, the total dose in two days (2 x 2.8 kJ/m²) causing significant induction in HSP70 of whitefish larvae reveals an early signal being 12 times more sensitive in relation to lethality.

There was an increasing trend in HSP70 levels in whitefish exposed to retene, but the induction varied a lot among individuals and only the highest concentration of retene caused an upregulation that was statistically significant.

HSP70 induction is often considered as a protective response and the inability to upregulate HSP70 usually correlates with tissue injury [19]. This does not directly correlate with our findings where the more tolerant species, vendace, was unresponsive and the more sensible species, whitefish, was able to upregulate HSP70. Presumably vendace has other protective mechanisms making it more tolerant than whitefish.

In conclusion, larval vendace and whitefish exposed simultaneously to retene and UV-B revealed different mortality and differ also in the induction of CYP1A and HSP70. Vendace appears to be more resistant to the **retene-based lethality potential** than whitefish, as indicated by the higher tolerance. CYP1A, being elevated even at the lowest sublethal concentration used, was a biomarker of retene exposure in both species. In whitefish, HSP70 acts as an early warning signal of effect due to UV-B exposure. These sublethal responses, however, cannot be used as specific biomarkers of combined retene and UV-B exposures.

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Figure 1. Retene-based lethality potential of newly hatched vendace and whitefish. Vendace and whitefish larvae were pre-exposed to retene, followed by two 3 h daily irradiations with UV-B (2.8 or 5.4 kJ/m2) or visible light. Bar denotes standard deviation. Groups denoted by the same letter do not differ significantly from each other ($p \ge 0.05$, Tukey). UV-B = ultraviolet-B.

Figure 2. CYP1A induction in larval vendace by retene and UV-B, alone or in combination. Positive control values were fixed at a value of 1. Bar denotes standard deviation. Number of determinations 6, each sample pooled of 10 animals. Groups denoted by the same letter do not differ significantly from each other ($p \ge 0.05$, Tukey). UV-B = ultraviolet-B.

Figure 3. CYP1A induction in larval whitefish by retene and UV-B, alone or in combination. No measurements of CYP1A in animals exposed to 32 μ g/L and 100 μ g/L retene + UV-B were done, as these treatments were lethal. **Positive control values were fixed at a value of 1. Bar denotes standard deviation.** Number of determinations 6, each sample pooled of 5 animals. Groups denoted by the same letter do not differ significantly from each other ($p \ge 0.05$, Tukey). **UV-B** = **ultraviolet-B**.

Fig. 4. HSP70 induction in larval vendace by retene and UV-B, alone or in combination. **Bar denotes standard deviation.** For the details, see legend to Fig. 2. **UV-B = ultraviolet-B.**

Fig. 5. HSP70 induction in larval whitefish by retene and ultraviolet-B (UV-B), alone or in combination. **Bar denotes standard deviation.** For the details, see legend to Fig. 3. **UV-B = ultraviolet-B.**









