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2 **Ultraviolet radiation triggers “Preparation for Oxidative Stress” antioxidant**  
3 **response in animals: similarities and interplay with other stressors**

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16

17 **Summary**

18 Preparation for oxidative stress (POS), i.e., the upregulation of endogenous antioxidants, is a  
19 widespread response of animals exposed to extreme conditions. This response has been described for  
20 more than 80 animal species belonging to eight phyla during hypometabolism or situations that limit  
21 oxygen availability. The pattern of the typical POS-response, in which a mild redox imbalance triggers  
22 antioxidant adjustments that results in increased tolerance to subsequent oxidative insults, roughly  
23 follows the curve of hormetic phenomena. A similar pattern has been reported for various animal  
24 species exposed to ultraviolet (UV) radiation – these studies, on animals from six phyla, are discussed  
25 herein. In the light of the similarities in the redox-response of animals exposed to either oxygen  
26 restriction or UV radiation, we argue in this essay that UV radiation elicits a type of response that fits  
27 the POS theory. Exposure to UV radiation induces both reactive species formation and antioxidant  
28 adaptation, which is the essence of typical POS-responses. Thus, antioxidant response to UV in animals  
29 can be considered a POS-type mechanism. Moreover, considering that animals are exposed to multiple  
30 stressors simultaneously in nature, this would represent an ecologically relevant process, by which one  
31 stressor (e.g., UV or ionizing radiation) may enhance the tolerance to other. We also discuss a possible  
32 role of low doses of ionizing radiation as inductor of POS-like responses in animals.

33

34 **Keywords:** free radicals, hormesis, electromagnetic wavelength, terrestrial and aquatic animals.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 The light from the sun brings an enormous amount of energy to Earth. Although this energy is  
37 the ultimate fuel for most of the life on this planet, it can also be life's foe. Within the range of  
38 electromagnetic wavelengths, ultraviolet (UV) radiation is the one that causes most harm to animals in  
39 nature (Cockell and Blaustein, 2001). Exposure to both UV-A and UV-B is an important factor not  
40 only for terrestrial environments but also for aquatic ecosystems, where organisms are exposed to solar  
41 UV radiation in the upper photic zone or when exposed to air during low tides. In the context of aquatic  
42 environments, UV-B has received great attention in the past years, especially in regions with a thinner  
43 ozone layer (Misra et al., 2002; Häder et al., 2007); although UV-A is also likely to be important as it  
44 can penetrate deeply into the water.

45 Exposure to UV radiation can damage major biomolecules and cellular structures, either through  
46 direct action of UV or, indirectly, through the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Cadet et  
47 al., 2005; Agnez-Lima et al., 2012; Schuch et al., 2017). In that regard, DNA is a main target of UV  
48 radiation, generating pyrimidine dimers, strand breaks, modified bases, photo-adducts, and DNA–  
49 protein cross-links (Karentz et al., 2004; Yagura et al., 2017). Several reports indicate that UV-effects  
50 on organisms are dose and time-dependent (Chuang and Chen, 2013; Won et al., 2014; Singh et al.,  
51 2015), eliciting adaptive responses in most life forms at low doses (Dahms and Lee, 2010; Häder et al.,  
52 2015; Cadet and Davies, 2017). Therefore, our essay concentrates on the biological effects, both  
53 adaptive and deleterious, of UV exposure, with a focus on the indirect effects mediated by ROS.  
54 Furthermore, the emphasis herein will be on the “classical” antioxidant response in animals, leaving  
55 out sunscreen molecules and DNA repair systems.

56

57 **2. Redox-adaptive animal response to UV radiation**

58 Many invertebrate and vertebrate species can improve their endogenous antioxidant systems  
59 upon exposure to low doses of UV radiation. On the other hand, under high UV doses, a rampant  
60 oxidative stress condition frequently occurs. In addition to dosage, other variables might influence the  
61 outcome of UV exposure, such as the individual size, mode of life (diurnal, nocturnal, etc.) and  
62 skin/exoskeleton characteristics. Therefore, the effects of UV exposure may differ greatly between  
63 different species and how the animal's body is exposed. For example, Kim et al. (2011) reported a  
64 dose-dependent effect of UV in which low doses (0.1–0.4 J/cm<sup>2</sup>) prompted increases in ROS formation  
65 and both glutathione (GSH) and antioxidant enzymes in rotifers *Brachionus* sp. Increased activities of  
66 several antioxidant enzymes, as well as ROS levels, were also observed for the benthic copepod

67 *Tigriopus japonicus* after exposure to UVB (1.2 and 2.4 J/cm<sup>2</sup>) (Kim et al., 2015). Increased ROS  
68 production was accompanied by a rise in SOD activity for the copepod *Paracyclopsina nana* after  
69 exposure to low UV-B dose (0.1 J/cm<sup>2</sup>) (Won et al., 2014) (Figure 1). Considering the effect of the  
70 water column on the intensity of UV that actually reaches animals, some studies have analyzed UV-  
71 effects with that perspective. For instance, an overall activation of endogenous antioxidant enzymes,  
72 as well as protein carbonyls, happened in the sea urchin larvae *Tripneustes gratilla* upon exposure to  
73 natural UV in shallow (1 m), but not in deeper water (4 m) (Lister et al., 2010). For the colonies of the  
74 coral *Acropora microphthalma* (host and zooxanthella), a high antioxidant status was observed in  
75 individuals collected at shallow water, whereas antioxidant levels decreased as depth increased (Shick  
76 et al., 1995). Furthermore, the effect of depth on the redox metabolism is evident in *Strongylocentrotus*  
77 *droeembrachiensis* larvae. Sea urchin larvae exposed to UV at a 1 m depth have higher levels of SOD  
78 and DNA damage than those exposed to UV at deeper depths (Lesser et al., 2010).

79 The modulation of endogenous antioxidant in response to UV might be especially important for  
80 animals restricted to environments under direct solar exposition where no microhabitats with solar  
81 protection are available. This is the case of many water bodies where a number of aquatic vertebrates  
82 cannot shelter from sunlight. Indeed, tadpoles and fish (larval and adults) inhabiting shallow waters  
83 activate their endogenous antioxidants when exposed to UV. For example, *Bufo arenarum* tadpoles  
84 increase their SOD activity when exposed to UV-B sublethal doses (0.02- 0.2 J/cm<sup>2</sup>), followed by a  
85 return to basal levels after 5 h (Herkovits et al., 2006) (Figure 1). A similar response – regarding SOD  
86 and catalase activities - was reported for adult zebrafish (*Brachydanio rerio*) exposed to two UV-B  
87 doses (0.32 and 4.2 J/cm<sup>2</sup>) (Charron et al., 2000). Likewise, embryos of the salamander *Ambystoma*  
88 *maculatum* enhanced their SOD levels at both the protein and activity when exposed to low doses of  
89 UV radiation (0.02-3.96 J/cm<sup>2</sup>) (Lesser et al., 2001b). Moreover, larvae of Atlantic cod (*Gadus*  
90 *morus*) exposed to UV (2.3 J/cm<sup>2</sup>) exhibited higher levels of SOD and DNA damage than control  
91 animals (Lesser et al., 2001a). Intertidal juvenile fish *Girella laevifrons* exposed to UV-B (1.04 J/cm<sup>2</sup>)  
92 presented increases in hepatic SOD and catalase activities after 2 h (Carrasco-Malio et al., 2014).  
93 However, a longer exposure (5 h) elicited a decrease in catalase activity as well as increased  
94 lipoperoxidation and DNA damage. For *Catla catla* fish larvae, Singh et al. (2015) reported increased  
95 SOD activity and oxidative stress after UV-B exposure (0.5-2.0 J/cm<sup>2</sup>) for 21 days. The interplay  
96 between temperature and UV has also been explored. Mosquitofish (*Gambusia holbrooki*) specimens  
97 that had been acclimatized at low temperatures are more susceptible to oxidative damage than those  
98 acclimated at high temperatures when exposed to UV radiation (Kazerouni et al., 2016). The effect of  
99 UV is expected to be more intense in small-bodied slim animals with thin teguments, such as the

100 examples presented above. In these cases, both invertebrates and vertebrates discussed herein presents  
101 an adaptive strategy to manage redox imbalances through activation of antioxidants. There are cases,  
102 however, where UV induces only oxidative stress, without an adaptive antioxidant response, such as  
103 in catfish *Clarias gariepinus* (Ibrahim, 2015). Much further study is needed to understand the UV  
104 action on the redox metabolism of aquatic vertebrates.

105 Several of the aforementioned examples on the response of endogenous antioxidants in aquatic  
106 animals exposed to UV radiation highlight the occurrence of hormetic biphasic response (i.e., low  
107 doses stimulate antioxidants and potentially increase fitness, whereas high doses inhibit antioxidants  
108 and have deleterious effects). This biphasic-pattern has also works for land animals. For example,  
109 mRNA expression of many antioxidant enzymes is stimulated by UV-A exposure ( $1.1\text{ J/cm}^2$ ) in the  
110 moth *Helicoverpa armigera*. Longer irradiation times decreases GSH:GSSG ratio, indicating that UV-  
111 A induces redox imbalance (Wang et al., 2012). In a study with the ear-cutting caterpillar *Mythimna*  
112 *separata*, low UV-A dose ( $1.2\text{ J/cm}^2$ ) increased the activity of several antioxidant enzymes after 60  
113 min. On the other hand, longer exposures (90–120 min) reduced the activity of antioxidant enzymes,  
114 leading to high levels of oxidative stress markers (Ali et al., 2016). Similarly, *Spodoptera litura* moths  
115 exposed to UV-B ( $1.08\text{ J/cm}^2$ ) for 1 h increased the activities of several antioxidant enzymes. When  
116 UV exposure was extended to 2 h ( $2.16\text{ J/cm}^2$ ), the antioxidant enzymes returned to basal levels or  
117 decreased (Karthi et al., 2014). In the case of earthworms *Amynthas gracilis*, a low UV-B dose ( $0.05\text{ J/cm}^2$ )  
118 prompted an increase in catalase activity. At a higher dose ( $0.3\text{ J/cm}^2$ ), however, there was a  
119 decrease in glutathione peroxidase and catalase activities and an increase in lipid peroxidation (Singh  
120 et al., 2015). (Figure 1). Thus, these studies with terrestrial and aquatic animals indicate that the  
121 response of endogenous antioxidants, as well as the degree of oxidative stress, presents an overall dose-  
122 dependent response within a limited range, leading to UV radiation adaptive responses under low doses  
123 and deleterious outcomes in higher doses.

124

### 125 **3. The POS adaptive theory**

126 The pattern observed in the response of endogenous antioxidants to UV radiation exposure is  
127 reminiscent of the biochemical adaptations reported for many animal species challenged by extreme  
128 environments. These challenges include freezing-cold, oxygen depletion, and recovery from these  
129 conditions. Such conditions may change cyclically or abruptly in natural habitats (Welker et al., 2013).  
130 The activation of endogenous antioxidants under these situations was first reported in 1993 in garter  
131 snakes (Hermes-Lima and Storey 1993) and named “Preparation for Oxidative Stress” (POS) (Hermes-  
132 Lima et al., 1998), whereby a small-scale redox imbalance induces a physiological antioxidant

133 response, setting the animal to deal with subsequent, more severe, oxidative stress (Hermes-Lima et  
134 al., 2015; Giraud-Billaud et al., 2019). More than a hundred studies confirmed that POS occurs in many  
135 animal species in the following stress-situations: hypoxia/anoxia, severe dehydration, freezing,  
136 estivation, hyposaline stress and air-exposure of water-breathing animals (Giraud-Billaud et al., 2019).  
137 In total, such a POS-response was identified in 83 species from 8 different animal phyla, including  
138 vertebrates and invertebrates (Moreira et al., 2016, 2017). In animals under hypoxia, where POS has  
139 been most studied, it is one component of a set of physiological/biochemical adaptive responses that  
140 allows organisms to cope with low oxygen levels. These include: (i) the arrest of most transcriptional  
141 and translational activity, (ii) depression of metabolic rate, (iii) re-wiring of energy metabolism  
142 pathways toward fermentative routes, (iv) activation of mechanisms involved in both macromolecular  
143 repair and detoxification of cellular-derived oxidants (Krivoruchko and Storey, 2015; Storey, 2015;  
144 Biggar and Storey, 2018). Importantly, the transient upregulation of the antioxidant defense system is  
145 a hallmark of many organisms that tolerate hypoxic stresses, as it is crucial to deal with reoxygenation.  
146 Elucidating the exact molecular mechanisms that trigger POS is an active topic of research, but, only  
147 recently, it was proposed that the biochemical patterns we call POS are brought about by an increase  
148 in ROS levels (Hermes-Lima et al., 2015). Such increase in ROS levels (which may happen during  
149 hypoxia, for example) may activate redox-sensitive transcription factors, such as FoxOs, NF- $\kappa$ B, and  
150 Nrf2, promoting the expression of antioxidants (**Figure 2**). In addition, posttranslational modifications  
151 on antioxidant enzymes by kinases and phosphatases may also contribute to the expression of the POS  
152 phenotype (Rashkov et al., 2016; Oliveira et al., 2018). It seems certain that many organisms exposed  
153 to mild sublethal stress conditions trigger a response that is protective against stronger subsequent  
154 challenges, typical of hormetic outputs (Costantini, 2014a). In fact, POS has strong similarities with  
155 the hormetic responses (Oliveira et al., 2018).

156

#### 157 **4. Redox-adaptive response to UV radiation as POS**

158 In the present article, we argue that the antioxidant adaptation in response to UV radiation should  
159 be considered a new type of POS-response. Considering the discussion above, it is possible to draw  
160 some parallels between the response of animals' endogenous antioxidant systems to low oxygen  
161 stresses and to UV radiation exposure. These parallels come from the observations that exposure to  
162 low doses of UV radiation can increase ROS production and stimulate the antioxidant system, which  
163 is the essence of the typical POS response (for example, POS response in hypoxia) (**Figure 2**). Such  
164 up regulation of antioxidants should increase the animals' capacity to deal with subsequent exposures

165 to higher dosages of UV radiation. Although the patterns of antioxidant response to hypoxia and UV  
166 exposure are alike, whether they share the same molecular mechanisms is still an open question.

167 The currently proposed biochemical mechanism for POS in animals exposed to hypoxic stress  
168 relies on the increase in ROS production during oxygen deprivation (Hermes-Lima et al., 2015). It is  
169 well known that ROS activate redox-sensitive transcription factors, as well as protein kinase pathways  
170 (Oliveira et al., 2018). Some of these transcription factors, notably Nrf2, can stimulate the expression  
171 of endogenous antioxidants (Espinosa-Diez et al., 2015; Klotz et al., 2015). Like hypoxia, UV radiation  
172 also increases both ROS production (Liu et al., 2016; Jeayeng et al., 2017; Schuch et al., 2017), and  
173 the levels of endogenous antioxidants (Liu et al., 2011). Hence, the evidence strongly suggests the  
174 involvement of redox-sensitive transcription factors, such as Nrf2, in the UV adaptive-response  
175 (**Figure 2**). Indeed, the role of Nrf2 and its related genes has been demonstrated *in vitro* by studies  
176 using dermal cells and fibroblasts (Schafer et al., 2010; Schafer and Werner 2015), but not in the animal  
177 cases reported herein (**Section 2**). Thus, the pathways underlying the redox-response to UV and  
178 hypoxia seem to converge to the same set of cellular responses, both showing the POS pattern.

179 There are, however, some differences between the antioxidant response to UV radiation exposure  
180 and, for example, hypoxia. One of the most relevant difference is the fact that the POS response to UV  
181 radiation is not necessarily accompanied by metabolic depression – a highly relevant adaptive factor  
182 for hypoxia tolerance, which also happens under estivation, severe dehydration and freezing exposure  
183 (Hermes-Lima et al., 2015). Despite their differences, there are striking parallels in the pattern of redox-  
184 response the animals show under those conditions. One of these is the involvement of transcription  
185 factor Nrf2 as a key molecular component of the antioxidant adaptive response (**Figure 2**). In the  
186 currently accepted cases of POS, we can identify typical hormetic patterns (Oliveira et al., 2018), in  
187 which an earlier and mild oxidative stress increases the animals' capacity to deal with a subsequent  
188 and more severe stress. This same POS/hormetic pattern is described herein in 17 animal species from  
189 six phyla (**Section 2**).

190 Although an adaptive redox-response to UV radiation can be induced in the laboratory, it is a  
191 challenge to identify ecological scenarios in which this POS-response may be important. For example,  
192 in tropical marine environments, the diversity of invertebrates exposed to direct UV is immense and  
193 totally depend on the ecophysiological mechanisms to respond to the UV excess. In this sense, the  
194 work by Lister et al. (2010) with *T. gratilla* larvae in the Cook Islands could be viewed as ecologically  
195 relevant for POS response in nature. These larvae are routinely exposed to varying levels of UV  
196 radiation in marine environments. There was an upregulation of antioxidant systems in shallow depth;  
197 such process in larval states constitutes an important investment for the animal fitness because

198 minimize long-term effects such as oxidative DNA damage (Lister et al., 2010). Moreover, the range  
199 of tolerance to direct solar UV radiation is one of the limiting factors defining which habitats a species  
200 can inhabit, especially for sessile animals or those that do not present behavioral adaptations associated  
201 with differential use of microenvironments (Zagarese & Williamson, 1994). Within communities, both  
202 the UV radiation dose and the exposure time are important factors whose differential effects on each  
203 species shape the structure of the communities (Williamson et al., 2001; Yang et al., 2017). In that  
204 regard, the role of UV on animal homeostasis and adaptation can be more complex than its isolated  
205 direct effect on organisms; UV might have transgenerational effects and synergistic interactions with  
206 other environmental stressors. For example, UV radiation not only cause a POS-type adaptive response  
207 in individuals directly exposed to it (Kazerouni et al., 2016) but also in their offspring (Kazerouni et  
208 al., 2017). Moreover, under natural conditions, the exposure to both solar UV radiation and aerial  
209 exposure induced the activation of antioxidant systems in intertidal mussels *Brachidontes solisianus*  
210 (Moreira et al. 2017).

211

## 212 **5. Ionizing radiation and POS**

213 Gamma and X rays are forms of ionizing radiation characterized by their smaller wavelengths,  
214 and higher frequency and energy than UV. We expect them to also elicit a protective response that may  
215 fit into the POS theory. Such response was first shown over a century ago, when low dose X-ray  
216 radiation increased lifespan in flour beetles (Davey, 1917). Additionally, this protection allowed the  
217 beetles to tolerate lethal amounts of radiation when given as smaller doses daily (Davey, 1919).  
218 Predating the concepts of oxidative stress and hormesis, it is clear that Davey was aware of the  
219 protective nature of low dose ionizing radiation (Calabrese, 2013). The bulk of the work on the  
220 protective effects of X-ray radiation has been carried out in insects because of their importance as  
221 agricultural pests and medical research models. Lifespan extensions related to low dose gamma or X-  
222 ray exposure have been recorded in flies, mosquitoes, moths, crickets, wasps, and beetles (Calabrese,  
223 2013). Beyond reporting longer-lived animals, longevity increases in flies only occur when associated  
224 with starvation conditions (Lamb, 1964), suggesting that the mechanism behind this benefit is  
225 connected to mitochondrial function and energetics.

226 Mechanistically, little is known about how gamma and X-rays increase lifespan. However,  
227 performance improvements following low dose and high dose exposures seem to work differently.  
228 Higher doses of ionizing radiation lead to increased longevity in insects, especially in females, mostly  
229 due to a decreased in reproductive output or sterility (López-Martínez and Hahn 2014; López-Martínez  
230 et al., 2014). Sterility triggers a life history trade-off where energy normally allocated for reproduction

now goes towards immunity and defense (Stearns, 1989). Conversely, low dose radiation and its protective phenomena are in line with our POS expectations; an adaptive protective antioxidant response. Mechanistic work with *Drosophila melanogaster* shows that activity and lifespan were shortened in flies with mutations to apoptosis, DNA repair, antioxidant defense, and heat shock protein genes (Moskalev et al., 2006; Moskalev et al., 2009). Mutants for apoptosis and antioxidant genes were the most affected, indicating that the benefit conferred by low-dose gamma rays is connected to a decreased in oxidative stress with the strongest benefit seen in early life exposure (Moskalev, 2007). Antioxidant enzymes and genes involved in oxidative stress responses were expressed in response to low-dose gamma irradiation connected with lifespan extension and the authors propose that the mechanism for low-dose ionizing radiation protection is the activation of oxidative stress defense mechanisms (Seong et al., 2011), which goes to the heart of the POS theory (Giraud-Billoud et al., 2019). *In vitro* and *in vivo* evidence in mammalian cells show lower levels of DNA damage following low dose radiation treatment (Vijayalaxmi et al., 2014). All this work suggests that hormetic effects associated with low-dose gamma and X rays are likely rooted in the POS theory, as some of the mechanism known indicates a key role for antioxidant protection and heat shock proteins - two sets of genes that are crucial in the POS framework.

247

## 248 **6. Conclusions**

249 Finally, the molecular similarity between the responses to UV radiation (and ionizing radiation)  
250 and other POS conditions may also expand the ecological relevance of POS phenotypes. It implies a  
251 possible interaction between, for example, UV radiation and hypoxia – where UV radiation pre-  
252 exposure could set up preparation for hypoxic stress (or vice-versa). This would be similar to what has  
253 been reported for other hormetic phenomena, where “stress X” sets up animals for tolerance to “stress  
254 Y” (Costantini, 2014b; López-Martínez and Hahn, 2014; Espinosa-Diez et al., 2015). This has been  
255 verified in the case of pre-exposure of multiple species of fruit flies and moths to hypoxia causing  
256 beneficial outcomes for ionizing radiation exposure (Robinson 1975, Nestel et al. 2007, López-  
257 Martínez and Hahn, 2012; López-Martínez and Hahn, 2014; López-Martínez et al., 2014). Considering  
258 that animals may be subjected to multiple stressors simultaneously, the interplay between UV/ionizing  
259 radiation and hypoxia, for instance, should affect and modulate the POS-response in nature.

## 260 **Conflict of Interest**

261 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial  
262 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

263 **Author Contributions**

264 MG, DCM and MHL worked on the concept of UV redox-adaptation response as being part of the  
265 overall POS strategy. MG, MM, MFC, JMCF and MHL contributed with key examples of UV-related  
266 studies. GLM contributed with discussions on ionizing radiation. MM and DCM produced the artwork.  
267 MG, DCM, GLM, MFC, JMCF, and MHL drafted the manuscript, which was reviewed and approved  
268 by all authors.

269 **Funding**

270 This work was supported by Fundação de Apoio à Pesquisa do Distrito Federal (FAPDF, Brazil, grant  
271 193.000.947/2015 to MHL and 193.00002154/2018-17 to DCM), Conselho Nacional de  
272 Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq, Brazil, grant 421384/2018-2 to MHL and  
273 428048/2018-8 to DCM) and National Science Foundation (Office of Integrative Actives RII Track-2  
274 #1826834 to GLM). JMCF is a recipient of a PNPD/CAPES Scholarship (# 23106.055368/2017-89).

275 **Acknowledgments**

276 We thank Dr. Georgina A. Rivera-Ingraham (Kourou, French Guiana) for help with the manuscript  
277 preparation and Flávio Boechat (Brasília) for help with the artwork.

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507 **Figure Captions.**

508 **Figure 1.** Schematic alterations in the redox metabolism in various animal species in response to UV  
509 radiation. It depicts 12 animal species, from 6 different phyla, responding to UV according the  
510 following variables: (i) levels/activity of endogenous antioxidants (GSH and antioxidant enzymes),  
511 (ii) ROS formation and (iii) and markers of oxidative stress (lipid peroxidation, protein carbonyl or  
512 DNA damage) (see **Section 2** in the main text). The figure shows only variables that increased under  
513 UV radiation.

514 **Figure 2.** Animals' redox-response to UV irradiation shares many similarities with responses to other  
515 POS-inducing conditions. The scheme shows an illustration of the convergence of redox-responses to  
516 low doses of UV irradiation and hypoxia exposure, a classical POS-inducing condition. There is  
517 accumulating evidence that hypoxia changes the redox state of mitochondria, increasing  
518 mitochondrial ROS production. This may trigger, in hypoxic-tolerant animals, a series of  
519 biochemical responses that increase the activity of the endogenous antioxidant system, either by  
520 acting upon existing enzymes through post-translational modifications (such as phosphorylation; or  
521 by inducing the synthesis of new antioxidant enzymes via activation of redox-sensitive transcription  
522 factors, such as Nrf2 (Hermes-Lima et al., 2015; Giraud-Billoud et al., 2019). This increase in  
523 antioxidant defenses helps the animal to cope with the subsequent, more severe redox stress of  
524 reoxygenation, thus creating the POS pattern (Moreira et al., 2017). UV irradiation induces ROS  
525 formation by completely different mechanisms than the ones in hypoxia, such as generation of singlet  
526 oxygen by DNA and other chromophores excited by UV-A (Yagura et al., 2017) or by UV-B-  
527 induced activation of ROS-generating enzymes, such as NADPH oxidase and cyclooxygenases (Beak  
528 et al., 2004; Masaki et al., 2009; Schuch et al., 2017). Thus, low doses of UV radiation can boost  
529 antioxidant defenses and help animals to cope with subsequent exposures to higher doses of UV.