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**Application of commercial biocides to lichens: Does a physiological recovery occur over time?**

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## Abstract

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## Suggested

References

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- Biotin T and Preventol RI80 induced severe physiological alterations in the lichen *Xanthoria parietina*
- Preventol RI80 was more effective in causing faster damage
- No physiological recovery was detected after 90 days from treatment

# 1 Application of commercial biocides to lichens: does a physiological recovery occur over time?

2  
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## 12 13 Abstract

14 Biocidal products are widely used to devitalize lichen thalli on monumental surfaces before their  
15 mechanical removal, but there is still lack of information about the persistence of the toxic effects  
16 over time. This issue is of paramount importance since it can greatly influence the process of lichen  
17 recolonization. The aim of this study was checking for physiological recovery or residual vitality of  
18 lichens after exposure to two commercial biocidal products, Biotin T or Preventol RI80. Samples of  
19 the foliose lichen *Xanthoria parietina* were treated with solutions containing the two biocides at the  
20 highest concentration suggested by the producer (3% and 2% respectively). Selected physiological  
21 parameters were investigated as indicators of sample vitality: photosynthetic parameters ( $F_V/F_M$  and  
22  $PI_{ABS}$ ), content of chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b*, beta-carotene, ergosterol and soluble proteins, after  
23 24 and 72 hours and, to check for recovery, after 20 and 90 days. Both biocidal treatments induced  
24 severe physiological alterations, causing impairment to both the lichen photobiont and mycobiont,  
25 with Preventol showing a faster effect. The substantial loss of vitality following treatments with  
26 Biotin T and Preventol persisted over time, and no physiological recovery was found after 90 days.

27  
28 **Keywords:** Biotin T, ergosterol, chlorophyll fluorescence, Preventol, soluble proteins, toxicity

## 29 30 31 1. Introduction

32 Lichens, symbiotic organisms composed by a heterotrophic (mycobiont) and an autotrophic  
33 (photobiont) partner, are involved in the biological colonization of external monuments and may be  
34 responsible for their biodeterioration (Caneva et al., 2008; Pinna, 2017). They colonize stonework  
35 whenever the conditions of moisture, light, temperature, and nutrition are favorable (Pinna, 2014).  
36 In particular, they are responsible for macroscopic alterations on monumental surfaces as a result of  
37 the release of several acidic substances and the penetration of hyphae into the superficial layers  
38 (Warscheid and Braams, 2000; Seaward, 2015). The relevance of their biological influence to the  
39 entire deterioration process and the interaction with non-biogenic agents should be evaluated very  
40 carefully (Salvadori and Casanova-Municchia, 2016; Pinna, 2017). Besides accounting their  
41 aesthetic value/disvalue, there are some cases in which the removal of lichens is not advisable, e.g.  
42 a high biodiversity value of the communities and/or a bioprotective role (Pinna, 2014). However,  
43 when lichen removal is necessary, suitable techniques should prevent adverse side-effects to the  
44 stone substrate, to the operators, as well as to the surrounding environment (Caneva et al., 2008;  
45 Seaward, 2015). Among these techniques, the application of biocides is an effective method to  
46 devitalize lichen thalli before their mechanical removal (Rodrigues et al., 2011; Pinna, 2017) and,  
47 among biocides, quaternary ammonium compounds (QACs) and isothiazolinone compounds (OITs)

48 are widely used biocidal active-compounds owing to their wide spectrum of action and their  
49 relatively low toxicity for humans and the environment (Richardson, 1988; Kumar and Kumar,  
50 1999; Williams, 2004; Tezel and Pavlostathis, 2015).  
51 The strong biocidal activity of QACs against fungi, algae and bacteria (Gilbert and Moore, 1999)  
52 depends on their mechanism of action, which includes perturbation of the cell wall and membrane  
53 structure, causing the release of cytoplasmic materials and the degradation of proteins and nucleic  
54 acids (Salton, 1968; Denyer and Stewart, 1998). OITs, being electrophile molecules, act on thiolic  
55 proteins, affecting protein synthesis, and the Krebs cycle, i.e. the ATP synthesis (Williams, 2004).  
56 The effectiveness of QACs and OIT-based biocides on lichens has been investigated in the field  
57 (e.g. De los Rios et al., 2009; 2012; Favero-Longo et al., 2017; Fonseca et al., 2010; Tretiach et al.,  
58 2007; 2010), however there is still a lack of information about the persistence of the toxic effects  
59 over time. This issue is of paramount importance since it can greatly influence the process of lichen  
60 recolonization. In addition, investigations about biocidal effects under controlled conditions are  
61 very scanty (Pinna, 2017). The aim of this study was thus to check for physiological recovery or  
62 residual vitality of lichens after exposure to two commercial biocidal products, under laboratory  
63 conditions.

64

## 65 **2. Materials and Methods**

66 The response of the lichen green-algal photobiont has been assessed by means of the chlorophyll *a*  
67 fluorescence emission analysis, recognized as a tool for checking the vitality of photosynthetic  
68 organisms (Tretiach et al., 2008), as well as by the content of chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b* and beta-  
69 carotene (Vannini et al., 2016). Ergosterol, the main sterol of the cell walls in fungi has been used  
70 as indicator of the health state of the mycobiont (Vannini et al., 2016). The content of soluble  
71 proteins refers to both symbionts (Paoli et al., 2014).

72

### 73 *2.1. Lichen material*

74 Lichen communities that colonize stone substrates are often dominated by crustose species, which  
75 are hardly suitable for running lab experiments, in view of the difficulties in obtaining sufficient  
76 material for the analysis, and to have it reasonably clean from impurities like soil or mineral  
77 particles and crystals. Therefore, in this study we used the foliose green-algal lichen *Xanthoria*  
78 *parietina* Th. Fr. (L.), which is routinely in use in our laboratory and has been already successfully  
79 used as a test-organism to evaluate the accumulation and toxicity of heavy metals (e.g., Paoli et al.,  
80 2014), herbicides (Vannini et al., 2015; 2016) and other contaminants (e.g., Vannini et al., 2017).  
81 Moreover, this species, albeit mostly epiphytic, commonly grows also on stone substrates,  
82 especially basic and eutrophicated ones. Branches colonized by *X. parietina* were collected in a  
83 rural area of Tuscany (Italy) far from direct pollution sources (43°14'07" N, 11°20'26" E). In the  
84 laboratory, samples were stored in a climatic chamber at 16°C, 40  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photons PAR  
85 (photoperiod of 12 hours) and RH=65% until use.

86

### 87 *2.2. Experimental design*

88 Biocide solutions were prepared diluting the pure biocide in mineral water to the highest  
89 concentration suggested by the producer: 3% for the OIT-based Biotin T [N-octyl-isothiazolinone  
90 (7.0-10.0%) + didecyl-dimethyl ammonium chloride (40.0-60.0%) + formic acid (2.0-2.5%) +  
91 isopropyl alcohol (15.0-20.0%); C.T.S. S.r.l., Altavilla Vicentina, Italy] and 2% for the QAC-based  
92 Preventol RI80 [Benzalkonium chloride (i.e. alkyl dimethyl benzyl ammonium chloride; approx.  
93 80%) + isopropyl alcohol (2%) in water; Lanxess, Köln, Germany]. Lichen samples were soaked  
94 for 1 h either in Biotin T or Preventol solutions or water alone as control, roughly maintaining the

95 ratio 10:1 between sample mass (mg) and relative volume of the solution (cm<sup>3</sup>) as suggested by  
96 Vannini et al. (2015, 2016). After soaking, two batches dedicated to the evaluation of short-term  
97 physiological effects were transferred to the climatic chamber at 16°C and 40 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> photons  
98 PAR (photoperiod of 12 hours) with RH=85% and then used for analysis after 24 and 72 hours.  
99 Other two batches dedicated to the evaluation of long-term effects and possible recovery were tied  
100 on rigid plastic nets and exposed on the trunk of pine trees at the Botanical garden of the University  
101 of Siena. The area is a suitable habitat for lichen recovery: it has been already used for  
102 physiological experiments on lichens (Paoli et al., 2010), being relatively humid and with a low  
103 level of pollution (Loppi and Paoli, 2015). Samples were harvested both after 20 days from  
104 treatment, allowing a comparison with data collected during *in-situ* studies (Favero-Longo et al.,  
105 2017), and after 90 days, a time suitable to detect signals of recovery.

106

### 107 2.3. Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence

108 Twenty samples were randomly chosen and processed as reported by Vannini et al. (2016; 2017).  
109 Samples were lightened with saturating red light for 1 sec (650 nm, 3000 μmol photons s<sup>-1</sup>m<sup>-2</sup>) with  
110 a light emitting diode (LED). Measurements were carried out through a Plant Efficiency Analyzer  
111 fluorimeter (Handy PEA, Hansatech, Norfolk, UK). Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence emission increases  
112 from F<sub>0</sub>, when all the reaction centres of the PSII are open, to F<sub>M</sub>, when all the reaction centres are  
113 closed. Results were expressed as F<sub>V</sub>/F<sub>M</sub>, an indicator of the maximum quantum yield of primary  
114 photochemistry (where F<sub>V</sub>=F<sub>M</sub>-F<sub>0</sub>) and PI<sub>ABS</sub>, a global indicator of photosynthetic performance  
115 (Strasser et al., 2004). Results of these tests were coupled with the analysis of the polyphasic  
116 transient of Chl<sub>*a*</sub>F, plotted on a logarithmic scale (OJIP transient); this test is used for lichen  
117 photobionts as an integrative analysis for the evaluation of structural and functional information on  
118 the photosynthetic apparatus (Malaspina et al., 2004).

119

### 120 2.4. Ergosterol and photosynthetic pigments

121 Lichen samples (130 mg) were homogenized in 1 mL of absolute ethanol and then centrifuged at  
122 22,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C. The resulting supernatant was filtered at 0.45 μm through a  
123 syringe filter and then stored at 4°C. Samples were analysed by HPLC (Agilent 1100) using a C18  
124 column (Phenomenex, 250 × 4.6 mm, particle size 5μm) as separator. Ergosterol was separated  
125 using methanol as mobile phase at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. Runs were monitored at 280 nm.  
126 Chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b* and beta-carotene were separated isocratically using methanol-acetone  
127 volumes (50-50) with a flow rate of 1 mL/min. Runs were monitored at 440 nm. Calibrations curves  
128 of chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b*, beta-carotene and ergosterol were prepared by dissolving pure  
129 standards (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany) in absolute ethanol. Three replicates were used for each  
130 sample. The limits of quantification (LOQ) were: chlorophyll *a* = 2 μg/g, chlorophyll *b* = 3 μg/g,  
131 beta-carotene = 2 μg/g, ergosterol = 4 μg/g.

132

### 133 2.5. Soluble proteins

134 Lichen samples (about 50 mg) were homogenized with 1 mL of phosphate buffer solution (K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>  
135 50mM and KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 50Mm, pH 6) and then centrifuged for 5 minutes at 22,000 rpm. An aliquot of  
136 100 μL of the supernatant was added to 1.5 mL of the Bradford solution. After the reaction (about  
137 15 minutes) samples were analysed by a spectrophotometer (Agilent 8453) at a wavelength of 595  
138 nm. The calibration curve was prepared with albumin bovine serum diluted in the phosphate buffer  
139 solution at 0.125 mg/mL to 1 mg/mL. Three replicates were used for each sample. LOQ was 1 μg/g.

140

### 141 2.6. Statistical analysis



142 Owing to the limited data-set, non-parametric statistics were used. The Mann-Whitney U test was  
143 used to check for differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) between treatments and control samples, as well as between  
144 different treatments at the same time. Differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) among the effect of one biocide at  
145 different times were checked with the Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA using the Dunn's test for post-hoc  
146 comparisons. For the statistical analysis, values below the LOQ were replaced by their respective  
147 LOQ value. To normalize the data and allow for meaningful comparisons, the effect of treatments  
148 was expressed as percentage ratios between treated to control samples. Results are presented as  
149 means  $\pm$  bootstrapped 95% confidence interval. All calculations were run using the free software R  
150 (R Core Team, 2017).

151

### 152 **3. Results**

153 As expected, both biocidal treatments induced severe physiological alterations in the lichen *X.*  
154 *parietina* (Table 1). Compared with control values, Preventol RI80 altered all investigated  
155 parameters already after 24 h from treatment. Chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b*, beta-carotene,  
156 ergosterol and soluble proteins showed time-dependent changes comparing early (24 and 72 h) with  
157 late effects (20 and 90 d), with lower values being detected after 20 and 90 days from treatment.  
158 Biotin T induced alterations mainly after 20 and 90 days from treatment. Early physiological effects  
159 (24 h) were detected in the photobiont, consisting in alteration of chlorophyll fluorescence emission  
160 ( $F_V/F_M$  and  $PI_{ABS}$ ), and content of chlorophyll *b*. Ergosterol content was significantly reduced only  
161 after 72 hours. The content of chlorophyll *a*, beta-carotene and soluble proteins showed significant  
162 reductions only after 20 and 90 d from treatment.

163 Fluorescence transient curves (Figure 1) reflected a substantial loss of vitality in the photobiont  
164 following treatments with both Biotin T and Preventol, which persisted over time. Transient curves  
165 lost the typical sequence of inflection points (O-J-I-P steps) of healthy (control) samples.  
166 Fluorescence emission was characterized by an abrupt (24 h) reduction of  $F_M$  values, and a zeroing  
167 of both  $F_M$  and  $F_0$  after 20 and 90 d. Although the ratio  $F_V/F_M$  in some cases significantly increased  
168 after 20 and 90 d from treatment, the flat profile of the curves and the reductions of chlorophyll *a*,  
169 chlorophyll *b* and beta-carotene content, indicated the absence of any physiological recovery.

170

### 171 **4. Discussion**

172 Both biocidal treatments caused overall severe physiological alterations to the lichen *X. parietina*,  
173 in the long time (20-90 d), but some temporal differences emerged in the short time (24-72 h), with  
174 Preventol being usually more effective.

175 Both biocides are characterized by the presence of a QAC as active ingredient: Preventol is  
176 composed only of the benzalkonium chloride (BZK) (about 80%) while the Biotin T, in addition to  
177 an isothiazolinone (7-10%), is composed of the dodecyl-dimethyl ammonium (40-60%). QACs are  
178 a class of membrane-active molecules effective on a broad range of microorganisms and commonly  
179 used as antiseptics and disinfectants (McDonnel and Russel, 1999). They are able to alter cell walls  
180 and membranes, leading to the leakage of intracellular materials and to the degradation of nucleic  
181 acids and proteins (Salton, 1968; Denyer and Stewart, 1998). In fact, the strong dissolution of  
182 intracellular solutes, as well as membrane constituents, caused in particular by benzalkonium  
183 chloride (BZK), can be the reason of a higher levels of beta-carotene, ergosterol and soluble  
184 proteins observed after 24 and 72 h from treatment with Preventol. The algicidal action of QACs  
185 has been well investigated under laboratory conditions: Walker and Evans (1978) reported that high  
186 concentrations of these compounds (between 3 to 5 ppm) inhibited the growth of *Spirodela*  
187 *oligorhiza* and caused the death of *Chlorella* sp.; other studies reported the occurrence of toxic  
188 effects on the physiology of *Chlorella pyrenoidosa*, *C. vulgaris* and *Scenedesmus quadricauda*

189 (Jing et al., 2012; Liang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2010). Negative effects of QACs  
190 on chlorophylls and carotenoids have been reported also in higher plants, with damages being dose-  
191 and time-dependent (Biczak et al., 2017).

192 A faster action of Preventol on the photobiont of *X. parietina* can be explained by a greater algicidal  
193 action of BZKs compared with Biotin T compounds. BZKs alter the fluidity of cell membranes,  
194 leading to the dissolution of lipids contained in the phospholipid bilayer of cell membrane, which at  
195 once generates modifications of osmotic properties and affects physiological processes, such as  
196 cellular respiration, ion exchange and cell wall biosynthesis (e.g., Salt and Wiseman, 1970; Gilbert  
197 and Moore, 2005; Pérez et al., 2009). Also, n-octyl isothiazolinone (OIT) in Biotin T is reported as  
198 an efficient biocidal (Williams, 2004) with algicidal action, as shown in the alga *Selenastrum*  
199 *capricornutum* (EPA, 2007). OIT inhibits dehydrogenase enzymes involved in several steps of the  
200 Krebs cycle, blocking critical functions of the cellular metabolism, such as energy production and  
201 cellular respiration, and hence, cellular growth (Williams, 2007). Despite the algicidal action of OIT  
202 is proven, if we consider the relatively low persistence of this compound in the environment (EPA,  
203 2007) and the lack of any information about its residence time in treated lichens, no assumption  
204 about its stability in these organisms can be made. Considering the proved stability of QACs (Li et  
205 al., 2014), we may argue that the loss of chlorophyll content in the lichen photobiont following  
206 Biotin T treatment could be mainly due to the action of dodecyl-dimethyl ammonium.

207 The apparent increase in  $F_v/F_M$  (about 11%) after 20 and 90 d does not indicate a physiological  
208 recovery, since the flat profile of fluorescence emission curves (OJIP transients), coupled with the  
209 reduction of  $F_0$  over time, confirm the severe damage occurred to the photosynthetic apparatus of  
210 the photobiont. A similar loss of vitality (leading to flat OJIP transients) was observed during field  
211 treatments of crustose lichens (*Protoparmeliopsis muralis* and *Verrucaria nigrescens*) with a wide  
212 range of biocides, including Biotin T and Preventol (Favero-Longo et al., 2017).

213 Ergosterol is a fundamental component of the fungal membrane, being responsible for its  
214 functionality (Parks and Casey, 1995) and mechanical resistance to osmotic stresses (Dupont et al.,  
215 2012). The quantification of ergosterol is commonly used for the evaluation of fungal membrane  
216 integrity and functionality (Eklab et al., 1998; Sundberg et al., 1999), as well as for the assessment  
217 of the physiological status of the mycobiont in lichen thalli (Vannini et al., 2017). Ergosterol  
218 content reflected the damage endured by the lichen mycobiont: the loss of ergosterol after 72 h  
219 following Biotin T treatment was probably due to the interactive effect of QACs and OITs. Its  
220 complete degradation after 20 d irrespective of biocidal treatment is likely a consequence of the  
221 degradation of the fungal membrane caused by QACs; on the other hand, the lack of any recovery  
222 after 90 days could be related to the block of the biosynthetic pathway leading to its synthesis. In  
223 fact, ergosterol and cholesterol are the final products of the same biosynthetic pathway (Dupont et  
224 al., 2012), and cholesterol biosynthesis has been proven as sensitive to the effects of a particular  
225 class of QACs, namely BZKs (Herron et al., 2016). Accordingly, alterations of the biosynthetic  
226 pathway are plausible also in the case of ergosterol following exposure to QACs.

227 Reductions in the content of soluble proteins were observed for Biotin T (71%) and Preventol  
228 application (41%) after 20 and 90 days. QACs are known to alter the functionality of proteins,  
229 especially those linked to the phospholipid bilayer (Gilbert and Moore, 2005). Furthermore, OIT  
230 compounds may cause a damage to thiol-proteins, both soluble and insoluble, as shown in  
231 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, where protein degradation was considered the main cause of cellular  
232 death (Williams, 2007). Therefore, a higher damage to soluble proteins after 90 days following  
233 Biotin T exposure is likely due to the synergic effects of OITs and the QACs.

234 Finally, after 90 days our results suggest the occurrence of irreversible damages in *X. parietina* after  
235 both biocidal applications, so that these biocides can be considered interchangeable for lichen

236 removal during stone treatments. Since phenomena of resistance or residual vitality were detected in  
237 crustose lichens (*V. nigrescens*) even 180 days after the treatments (Favero-Longo et al., 2017), a  
238 recovery after longer periods cannot be completely excluded. In fact, some residual healthy  
239 photobiont cells were observed in the lower part of the photobiont layer, even in thalli for which  
240 both  $F_V/F_M$  and  $F_0$  decreased below specific thresholds ( $F_V/F_M < 0.150$  and  $F_0$  decreased by 80%)  
241 (Favero-Longo et al., 2017), so that the question of a species-specific resistance to biocidal  
242 compounds remains open. With this regard, *X. parietina* exhibited a remarkable sensitivity to  
243 glyphosate (Vannini et al., 2016), but the same herbicide was instead quite ineffective against other  
244 lichen species i.e. *V. nigrescens* and *P. muralis* (Favero-Longo et al., 2017).  
245 On the other hand, even after an effective devitalization of the thalli, the dispersion of non-dead  
246 propagules during the mechanical cleaning (Seaward, 2004) and/or the arrival of new propagules  
247 from the surrounding environment (Nascimbene et al., 2009; Favero-Longo et al., 2014; 2017)  
248 enhance lichen recolonization after restoration works (Nascimbene et al., 2008; 2009), which is,  
249 nevertheless, an unavoidable process. In this context, it is worth noting that both research and field  
250 evidence discourage the widespread use of nitrogen-containing biocides like QACs, which can act  
251 as nutrients for micro- and macro-organisms, and thus favour recolonization phenomena (Pinna,  
252 2017). Moreover, QAC resistance and QAC-induced antibiotic resistance are increasingly reported  
253 due to the wide QAC use in disinfectant formulations, and their consequent release and persistence  
254 in the environment, suggesting that QACs should be generally cautiously used to reduce/avoid  
255 adverse impacts to both humans and the environment (Tezel and Pavlostathis, 2015). Thus, the  
256 development of alternative control methods is of primary importance (Pinna, 2017).

257

## 258 **5. Conclusions**

259 Treatments with both Biotin T and Preventol induced severe physiological alterations in the lichen  
260 *X. parietina*. Our results showed great changes in chlorophyll *a* fluorescence emission, as well as  
261 the content of photosynthetic pigments, ergosterol and soluble proteins already after 24 h from  
262 treatment, with Preventol being more effective to generate rapid physiological alterations. After 20  
263 days from the application, both biocides produced physiological impairments to the photobiont and  
264 the mycobiont. The substantial loss of vitality following the treatments with Biotin T and Preventol  
265 persisted over time. After 90 days, no physiological recovery was observed.

266

267

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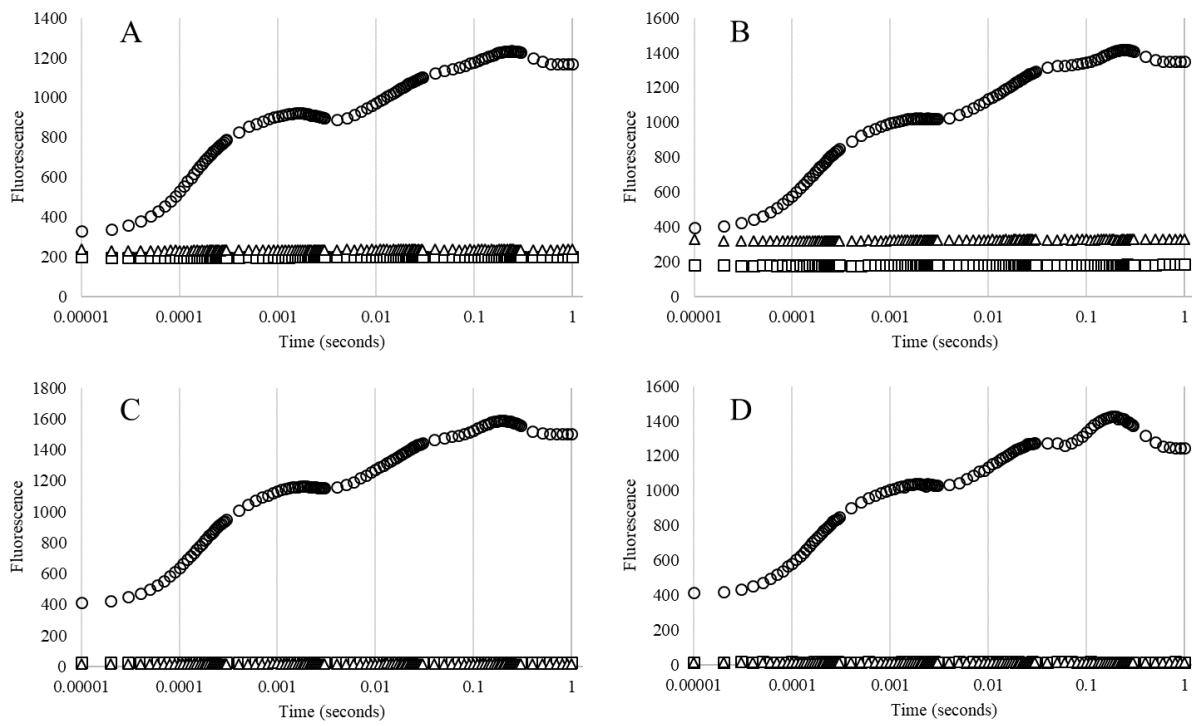
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**Fig. 1.** OJIP fluorescence transients of lichen samples treated with Biotin T (□), Preventol (△) and mineral water (○) (used as control), after 24 (A) and 72 hours (B) and 20 (C) and 90 days (D) from the applications. Each transient represents the average of five replicates.

**Table 1.** Physiological parameters (% of control) in samples of the lichen *Xanthoria parietina* after biocidal treatments (means  $\pm$  95% confidence interval). Different letters indicate statistically significant differences over time; values in bold indicate significant differences between treatment and its respective control; italics indicates significant differences between treatments at the same time.

Time	Chlorophyll <i>a</i>		Chlorophyll <i>b</i>		Beta-carotene		Ergosterol		Soluble proteins		F <sub>V</sub> /F <sub>M</sub>		PI <sub>ABS</sub>	
	Bio	Prev	Bio	Prev	Bio	Prev	Bio	Prev	Bio	Prev	Bio	Prev	Bio	Prev
24 h	<i>139±59a</i>	<i>7±3a</i>	<i>243±96a</i>	<i>0.5±0.1a</i>	<i>132±68a</i>	<i>209±105a</i>	<i>90±29a</i>	<i>157±40a</i>	<i>101±17a</i>	<i>225±35a</i>	<b>4±2a</b>	<b>4±1a</b>	<b>0.1±0.1a</b>	<b>0.1±0.1a</b>
72 h	<i>121±27a</i>	<i>7±2a</i>	<i>7±2b</i>	<i>0.5±0.1a</i>	<i>86±18a</i>	<i>230±62a</i>	<i>54±9a</i>	<i>162±42a</i>	<i>127±10a</i>	<i>228±48a</i>	<b>8±5ab</b>	<b>3±1a</b>	<b>1±1a</b>	<b>0.1±0.1a</b>
20 d	<b>3±3b</b>	<b>0.1±0.01b</b>	<b>2±2c</b>	<b>0.3±0.04b</b>	<b>4±4b</b>	<b>3±3b</b>	<b>4±1b</b>	<b>2±2b</b>	<b>27±2b</b>	<b>66±5b</b>	<b>11±4b</b>	<b>17±6b</b>	<b>0.4±0.4a</b>	<b>2±2a</b>
90 d	<b>0.1±0.01b</b>	<b>0.1±0.01b</b>	<b>0.3±0.04c</b>	<b>0.3±0.03b</b>	<b>3±0.2b</b>	<b>3±0.2b</b>	<b>0.4±0.05c</b>	<b>0.4±0.03b</b>	<b>30±16b</b>	<b>52±23b</b>	<b>15±6b</b>	<b>20±7b</b>	<b>0.1±0.01a</b>	<b>0.1±0.01a</b>



The Authors declare no conflict of interest