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1 **Sediment toxicity assessment using zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) as a model system:**
2 **historical review, research gaps and trends**

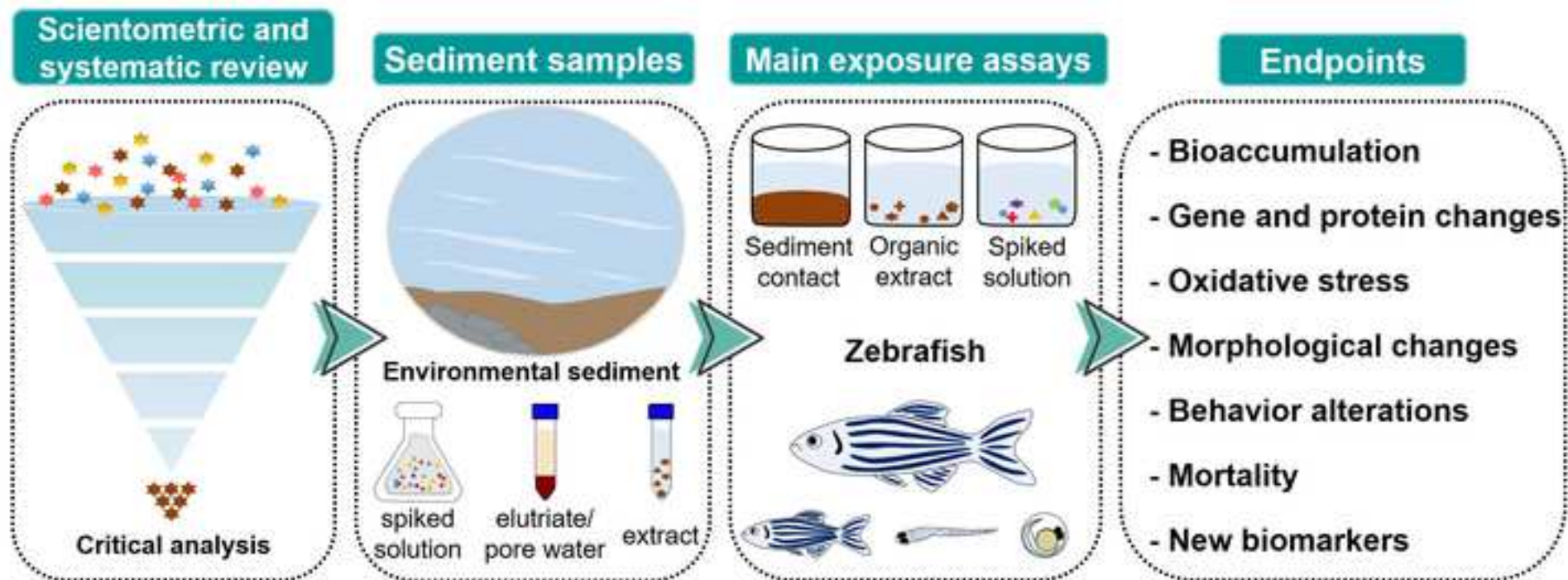
3 Patricia Saiki^{a,b}; Francielli Mello-Andrade^{a,b}; Tânia Gomes^c; Thiago Lopes Rocha^{a*}

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5 ^aLaboratory of Environmental Biotechnology and Ecotoxicology, Institute of Tropical
6 Pathology and Public Health, Federal University of Goiás, Goiânia, Goiás, Brazil.

7 ^bFederal Institute of Education, Science and Technology of Goiás, Goiânia, Goiás,
8 Brazil.

9 ^cNorwegian Institute for Water Research (NIVA), Section of Ecotoxicology and Risk
10 Assessment, Gaustadalléen 21, N-0349, Oslo, Norway.

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13
14 *Corresponding author at: T. L. Rocha, Universidade Federal de Goiás, Instituto de
15 Patologia Tropical e Saúde Pública, Rua 235, Setor Universitário, Goiânia, Goiás, Brasil.
16 CEP: 74605050. Tel.: +55 (62) 3209-6109. E-mail address: thiagorochabio20@ufg.br



Highlights

- State-of-the-art review on the use of zebrafish in sediment toxicity assessment;
- Pollutant-bound sediment exposure induces bioaccumulation and toxic effects on zebrafish;
- Sediment toxicity on zebrafish is mainly associated to oxidative stress and DNA damage;
- Zebrafish as an emerging model system to assess sediment toxicity.

1 **Sediment toxicity assessment using zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) as a model system:**
2 **historical review, research gaps and trends**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 Sediment is an important compartment in aquatic environments and acts as a sink for
6 environmental pollutants. Sediment toxicity tests have been suggested as critical
7 components in environmental risk assessment. Since the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) has been
8 indicated as an emerging model system in ecotoxicological tests, a scientometric and
9 systematic review was performed to evaluate the use of zebrafish as an experimental
10 model system in sediment toxicity assessment. A total of 97 papers were systematically
11 analyzed and summarized. The historical and geographical distributions were evaluated
12 and the data concerning the experimental design, type of sediment toxicity tests and
13 approach (predictive or retrospective), pollutants and stressors, zebrafish developmental
14 stages and biomarkers responses were summarized and discussed. The use of zebrafish to
15 assess the sediment toxicity started in 1996, using mainly a retrospective approach. After
16 this, research showed an increasing trend, especially after 2014-2015. Zebrafish exposed
17 to pollutant-bound sediments showed bioaccumulation and several toxic effects, such as
18 molecular, biochemical, morphological, physiological and behavioral changes. Zebrafish
19 is a suitable model system to assess the toxicity of freshwater, estuarine and marine
20 sediments, and sediment spiked in the laboratory. The pollutant-bound sediment toxicity
21 in zebrafish seems to be overall dependent on physical and chemical properties of
22 pollutants, experimental design, environmental factor, developmental stages and presence
23 of organic natural matter. Overall, results showed that the zebrafish embryos and larvae
24 are suitable model systems to assess the sediment-associated pollutant toxicity.

25 Keywords: ecotoxicity; zebrafish embryotoxicity test; fish; elutriate, sediment-bound
26 pollutant.

27

28 **Introduction**

29 Sediment is an important compartment in aquatic environments, where relevant
30 biochemical transformations take place, and plays a critical ecological role as habitat and
31 food source for countless species (Boulanger et al., 2019). Commonly known as the
32 ultimate sinks for environmental pollutants (e.g., heavy metals, organic pollutants,
33 xenobiotics, macro and micro(nano)plastics, nanomaterials and others), sediments are
34 highly relevant in ecotoxicological assessments as they can provide a realistic scenario
35 regarding environmental contamination (Schiwy et al., 2020). Most of these pollutants
36 after ending in the sediment are expected to persist on aquatic ecosystems after interacting
37 with the sediment matrix. Several pollutants can be released from the sediment to the
38 water column when the sediment is changed by bioturbation and resuspension processes,
39 thus eliciting long-term effects on sediment related/dwelling communities or benthic
40 communities (Hollert et al., 2003; Schiwy et al., 2020).

41 Sediment quality studies evaluating the toxicity and resuspension of pollutants to
42 the water column and its bioavailability for biota are very important to comprise the
43 history, extent and trend of aquatic contamination (Hauer et al., 2018). Toxicological
44 studies evaluating sediment toxicity and its potential impact on the aquatic environment
45 has been widely carried out with primary producers (algae), bacteria and invertebrates
46 (e.g., *Daphnia magna*) (Hollert et al., 2003). Thus, the need to integrate biomonitoring of
47 aquatic ecosystems using a standardized vertebrate model system has emerged to fill

48 knowledge gaps on impacts at higher ecological levels, and in some way, provide a
49 parallel to human exposure as well.

50 The first reported fish-based studies evaluating sediment toxicity included
51 *Pimephales promelas* (fathead minnow), *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (rainbow trout), *Lepomis*
52 *macrochirus* (bluegill bream), *Micropterus salmoides* (largemouth bass), and *Carassius*
53 *auratus* (goldfish) (Birge et al., 1977; Peddicord and McFarland, 1978; US EPA, 1981;
54 Burton Jr, 1992). A large amount of sediment testing using fish species has been used to
55 assess sediment-associated pollutants (Hallare et al., 2011; Feiler et al. 2013; Redelstein
56 et al., 2015). Nonetheless, there is still a significant lack of whole sediment assays using
57 an integrated approach and multiple biomarker response in vertebrate models.

58 In 1992 the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)
59 published the test guideline for acute toxicity test of chemicals (OECD n° 203),
60 recommending the use of zebrafish *Danio rerio* (Hamilton, 1822) in ecotoxicity testing
61 strategies for aquatic environments (OECD, 2019). Zebrafish is considered a gold
62 standard model for toxicity tests with water, effluents and sediments (Babić et al., 2017;
63 Ribeiro et al., 2020). It features a small size, easy maintenance and reproduction in
64 laboratory conditions, low maintenance cost, external embryonic development, high
65 fertility, transparency of embryos and transgenic models available (Braunbeck et al.,
66 2005; Muth-Köhne et al., 2012). In addition, due to highly conserved genetic and
67 molecular processes across animals, many metabolic processes, as cell signaling and
68 structure, anatomy, physiology, immunology, and development can be related to other
69 vertebrates and even to humans, with which the zebrafish genome has approximately 70%
70 similarity (Hill et al., 2005; Howe et al., 2013). Due to its advantages as a model system,
71 multiple biomarker responses in zebrafish have been used to assess the ecotoxicological
72 impact of traditional and emerging pollutants in Global North and South countries

73 (Campagna et al., 2013; Schweizer et al. 2018; Massei et al., 2019; Pereira et al., 2019;
74 Trigueiro et al., 2020). Therefore, in combination with physico-chemical analyses,
75 zebrafish can provide a real-time *in vivo* evaluation of the potential risk of sediments to
76 aquatic ecosystems.

77 Accordingly, the current study aimed to evaluate the use of zebrafish as a model
78 system in sediment toxicity assessments and describe the mechanisms of action and
79 toxicity of pollutants-bound sediments. Besides, this study provides a comprehensive
80 review on the data available in the scientific literature concerning the experimental
81 design, type of sediment toxicity tests and approach (predictive or retrospective),
82 zebrafish developmental stages, pollutants and stressors, bioaccumulation, and
83 biomarkers responses in zebrafish applied in sediment toxicity tests. In addition,
84 significant research gaps and recommendations for future research are also presented.

85

86 **1. Methodological approach**

87 A scientometric and systematic review was performed using the databases
88 “ScienceDirect”, “Scopus”, “PubMed” and “Web of Science”. The keywords “sediment”,
89 “extracts” and “elutriate” were combined with “zebrafish OR *Danio rerio*” and “toxicity”
90 and “ecotoxicity”, in both singular and plural forms. Papers until December 2020 were
91 considered, while technical reports, review articles, academic theses, book chapters and
92 scientific events summaries were not included (Figure 1). Initially, a total of 1,757 articles
93 were found in the databases. After screening with the exclusion criteria (non-English
94 records, reviews, technical reports, protocols, grey literature, do not fit the objectives,
95 letters/short communications and duplicated documents), a total of 97 papers were
96 systematically analyzed and summarized according to the following parameters: (i) year

97 of publication; *(ii)* geographical location where the study was performed (identified from
98 the mailing address of the corresponding author); *(iii)* sample type; *(iv)* experimental
99 design (i.e., exposure time and system, extraction methodology); *(v)* developmental
100 stages; *(vi)* biomarkers; *(vii)* type of approach (predictive or retrospective).

101 The data concerning the pollutants and/or stressors associated with the sediments,
102 experimental design (i.e., zebrafish strain, control set up, exposure chambers,
103 concentrations) and effects (i.e., mortality, hatching success, concentrations effects,
104 bioaccumulation, behavioral changes, DNA damage, changes in gene expression and
105 metabolism) were also summarized. The morphological alterations on zebrafish embryos
106 and larvae induced by sediment-bound pollutants were classified into four reactional
107 patterns (Rp): circulatory changes (Rp₁), pigmentation and tegumentary changes (Rp₂),
108 musculoskeletal disorders (Rp₃), and yolk sac alterations (Rp₄), according to Pereira et al.
109 (2019).

110 In order to understand relationship between the countries and the most influential
111 researchers concerned with ecotoxicological assessment of sediments using zebrafish as
112 a model, a cluster analysis among *(i)* the countries and *(ii)* the most influential researchers
113 in the study area was performed using the VOSViewer[®] software (version 1.6.15, Centre
114 for Science and Technology Studies, The Netherlands). The inclusion criteria for this
115 analysis was that the author had at least 10 citations among the analyzed studies. The
116 software generates a network whose visualization is based on nodes and connections, with
117 the diameter of each node indicating the volume of *(i)* publications per country and *(ii)*
118 citations of the referred author, while the distance between two nodes indicates the
119 approximate intensity of the relationship between them (the higher relationship, the
120 shorter the connection distance). Clusters are grouped by different colors (van Eck and
121 Waltman, 2014).

122

123 **2. Zebrafish use on sediment ecotoxicological assessments**

124 **3.1 Historical and geographical overview**

125 Figure 2 presents the absolute and cumulative number of papers published until
126 December 2020. The first studies using zebrafish as a model system to evaluate sediment
127 toxicity were published in 1996, under predictive approach. Djomo et al. (1996) analyzed
128 the toxic effects of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) evaluating uptake and
129 depuration of ¹⁴C-radiolabeled compounds on zebrafish adults after exposure to spiked-
130 sediment for a month. The main results indicated that more than 90 % of the compounds
131 were sorbed to the sediment, decreasing the PAH bioavailability. Besides, Murk et al.
132 (1996) analyzed the toxicity of pore water from 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin
133 (TCDD)-spiked sediment on zebrafish embryos and larvae for eight days, with reported
134 $EC_{50} = 21 \pm 2.3$ ppm.

135 Revised data highlight the years 2014 and 2015, which together account for
136 approximately 27% of the total number of publications. This finding seems to be
137 associated with the publication of the OECD Guideline n° 236 in 2013 for testing of
138 chemicals using the fish embryo acute toxicity (FET) test, which allowed the applicability
139 of a faster and lower cost toxicity test to a wide range of substances (OECD, 2013). In
140 addition, the availability of the full zebrafish genome also contributed to this increase,
141 which has a great similarity to the genome of other vertebrates, including the human
142 genome (Howe et al., 2013). The availability of transgenic strains may have also
143 encouraged the increased use of zebrafish as a vertebrate model in sediment testing
144 (Raftery et al., 2014). A similar growth in the number of studies using zebrafish was also
145 reported for nanotoxicological (Pereira et al., 2019) and pesticide research (Gonçalves et

146 al., 2020), confirming the wide application of zebrafish as a model in toxicological and
147 ecotoxicological studies.

148

149 **3.2. Geographical distribution, institutions and researchers**

150 Regarding the geographical distribution of the studies carried out with sediments
151 and zebrafish, Germany stands out (44.4% of the studies), followed by China (14.5%),
152 the United States (10.3%), France and Brazil (both with 5.2%). Another 16 countries have
153 articles published on that topic; however, 11 countries presented only one publication
154 (Figure 3A). The cluster analysis performed with this data shows a strong relationship
155 between Germany and China, for which the nodes are more expansive and with stronger
156 interconnection (Figure 3B). Interestingly, among these 20 countries with publications
157 evaluating sediment toxicity with zebrafish, 80% are classified with “very high human
158 development” in the Human Development Index (HDI) and 20% with “high human
159 development” (UNDP, 2020), suggesting a lack of investment in education, science and
160 technology in countries with less economic development worldwide.

161 The institutions with the largest number of publications were University of
162 Heidelberg (n = 15; 15.5%), Rheinisch-Westfälische Technische Hochschule (RWTH)
163 Aachen University (n = 7; 7.2 %), University of Tübingen (n = 6; 6.2%), Helmholtz
164 Centre for Environmental Research (n = 4; 4.1%), all in Germany, followed by Tongji
165 University in China (n = 3; 3.1%) and São Paulo University in Brazil (n = 3; 3.1%).

166 The cluster analysis among the researchers with the greatest centrality in this study
167 area can be seen in Figure 4. The most cited author (largest diameter of the node) among
168 all the studies raised was Hollert, H. (n = 30; 31%), followed by Braunbeck, T. (n = 18;
169 18.5%), Kosmehl, T. and Seiler, T. B. (both n = 8; 8.2%), all German researchers (RWTH

170 Aachen University and University of Heidelberg). Another important group visualized
171 was formed by Chinese researchers, highlighted by Chen, L. (n = 4; 4.1%), from Tongji
172 University. The network of connections points of cited authors highlighted Hollert, H.
173 (Germany), as the most influential researcher in this field, with the highest number of
174 citations, mainly due to the standardization of a sediment contact assay using zebrafish
175 embryos for investigating whole sediments without extraction procedures (Hollert et al.,
176 2003).

177

178 **3.3 Experimental design**

179 In terms of developmental stages, the sediment toxicity tests were conducted using
180 mainly embryo-larval stages (77%) or only larvae (5%), while adults and juveniles were
181 used in 15% and 3% of studies, respectively (Figure 5A), confirming the substitution of
182 tests with adult animals for the early developmental stages. A similar trend has been
183 reported regarding the use of zebrafish in effect-directed analysis (Di Paolo et al., 2015),
184 further highlighting the higher sensitivity of early fish embryonic and larval stages to the
185 effects of pollutants compared to juvenile and adult fish. Only one study evaluated
186 transgenerational effects of pollutant-bound sediments (Vignet et al., 2014). These
187 authors exposed zebrafish embryos to PAH-spiked sediment during 96 h and verified
188 reproductive and behavioral effects in adults (after three and six months of development)
189 and in the F2 generation.

190 Even though the use of whole sediment samples represents a more realistic
191 environmental scenario under laboratory conditions, the use of elutriates and pore water
192 have also been commonly used to determine the toxic potential of contaminated
193 sediments. In the reviewed papers, studies involving sediment toxicity and zebrafish were

194 conducted using different exposure procedures, such as whole-sediment contact assay
195 (SCA) (45.1%), extract (31.3%), sediment with spiked solution (9.9%), microcosm with
196 spiked sediment (5.3%), elutriate (3.8%), pore water (3.1%), and spiked food (1.5%)
197 (Figure 5B). It is important to note that pore water is obtained by centrifuging fresh
198 samples of sediment (interstitial water phase), while the elutriate phase intends to mimic
199 the open-water remobilization of substances in sediments after resuspension and flood
200 events through a water-extractable liquid-to-solid (usually 1:4 v/v) (Hallare et al., 2011).

201 The greater number of experiments exposing zebrafish to SCA can be explained
202 due to the agreement that whole-sediment exposure can represent scenarios as close to
203 reality to simulate exposures in the laboratory (Hollert et al., 2003). Organic sediment
204 extracts enable the assessment of strongly absorbed compounds and may overestimate
205 the bioavailability of pollutant-bound sediments to aquatic organisms or simulate worst-
206 case scenarios. Nonetheless, it is a great technique for screening total chemical content in
207 each fractionation step (Hallare et al., 2011). In general, it is believed that exposure to
208 organic extracts imply greater toxicity in zebrafish than SCA (Hollert et al., 2003). Wu et
209 al. (2010) comparing SCA and extracts from six environmental sites found higher
210 mortality in exposed fish than the control group but with no differences between exposure
211 methodologies and sites. In contrast, when assessing abnormalities, significant
212 differences were found between both types of exposure for each site, with greater
213 morphological changes in embryos exposed to the extracts than whole-sediments. Also,
214 embryos exposed to extracts showed higher genotoxicity and gene expression changes
215 (i.e., *cyp1a* and *cyp1c1*) than those exposed to the whole-sediment (Kosmehl et al., 2007;
216 Bluhm et al., 2014). Even so, it is possible to find higher whole-sediment toxicity in
217 relation to its extract, such as reported by Seopela et al. (2016). In this study, a higher
218 mortality was found in zebrafish after exposure to whole-sediments (61.3 to 100%) in

219 comparison with their extracts (1.67 and 3.34%). Another study did not find clear-cut
220 differences in zebrafish responses to both acetonic extracts and native samples (Schulze
221 et al., 2015). The toxicity of natural sediment samples may vary depending on their
222 characteristics such as content of organic matter and grain size distribution (Höss et al.,
223 2010), as well as the extraction procedure.

224 Revised data showed that the knowledge concerning the toxicity of pollutant-
225 bound sediments on zebrafish under environmentally relevant conditions, such as micro-
226 and mesocosms, mixture toxicity and multi-species exposure remain scarce and deserve
227 further studies. Microcosms are intended to simulate natural environments, under control
228 conditions, usually capable to understand bioavailability, uptake, bioaccumulation and
229 bioturbation processes either in a binary system (i.e., water-sediment microcosm) or with
230 more elements (i.e., water-sediment-zebrafish) (Chen et al., 2017). This simulated
231 environment allows researching kinetic and thermodynamic behaviors of pollutants with
232 a good reproducibility (Tian et al., 2020). Mesocosms are cutouts from a natural
233 environment separated from the ecosystem by physical barriers, what provides more
234 realism but at a higher cost (Amiard-Triquet et al., 2015).

235 Regarding the type of sediment samples analyzed with an integrated approach
236 with zebrafish, there is a predominance on the use of freshwater samples (82.5%)
237 followed by marine sediments (7.3%), sediments spiked in the laboratory (5.1%) and
238 samples collected from estuaries (5.1%) (Figure 5C). Furthermore, sediment toxicity
239 studies using zebrafish as a model were conducted under different exposure periods
240 (Figure 5D). The exposures were performed mainly during 96 h (37.2%), as
241 recommended in the FET Test Guidelines (OECD, 2013), followed by 48 h (18.6%) and
242 72 h (12.7%), with 69.5% of the studies under acute toxicity conditions. Revised data

243 showed that sediment toxicity to zebrafish embryos and larvae is dependent on exposure
244 time and that more chronic studies are needed.

245 The analysis of whether the reviewed studies carried out a retrospective approach
246 to the possible contamination existing in the samples or a predictive approach to analyze
247 the toxic potential of contaminants associated with sediments was also conducted. More
248 than 75% of the studies assessed the toxic potential of sediments towards zebrafish using
249 a retrospective approach, highlighting the analysis of multiple biomarkers in zebrafish as
250 an important tool in quality assessment of environmental samples (Figure 5E).

251

252 **3.4 Pollutants and stressors**

253 Pollutants and stressors associated to sediment toxicity assessments with zebrafish
254 were classified into 21 categories, based on their composition, physicochemical
255 properties and usage. PAHs were the main pollutant class used on zebrafish pollutant-
256 bound sediment toxicity testing (47.4%), followed by metals (40.2%), dioxin-like
257 compounds (38.1%) and agrochemicals (19.6%), which include pesticides (such as
258 Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane - DDT), herbicides and fungicides (Figure 6).

259 PAHs are substances formed by the incomplete combustion of organic material,
260 present in complex mixtures in all environmental compartments, but mostly associated
261 with suspended particulate matter which makes the sediment their main source of storage
262 (Cousin and Cachot, 2014). In addition, they have great persistence in the environment
263 and have carcinogenic and mutagenic potential (Hylland, 2006). PAHs induced several
264 toxic effects in zebrafish under different exposure conditions, such as increased mortality
265 rates, genotoxicity, morphological changes (i.e., pericardial and yolk sac edemas, tail
266 malformations, underdeveloped eyes, lack of pigmentation), in addition to decreased

267 hatching rates, circulatory functions and swimming behaviors (Yang et al., 2010;
268 Perrichon et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016; Johann et al., 2020; Table S1).

269 Metals are widely used in human manufacturing processes and their tendency to
270 ionization can enhance toxicity to aquatic organisms even at low concentrations by
271 alterations in their absorption, distribution and metabolism (Donkin et al., 2000), with a
272 great persistence and potential for bioaccumulation (Ali et al., 2019). Some examples of
273 metals analyzed in the reviewed studies were cadmium (Cd), chromium (Cr), nickel (Ni),
274 zinc (Zn), mercury (Hg) and lead (Pb) and their main effects to zebrafish were increased
275 mortality, morphological changes, bioaccumulation, changes in genes expression related
276 to metals metabolism and hatching rates (Bécharde et al., 2008; Dedeh et al., 2014;
277 Redelstein et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Table S1).

278 Dioxins and dioxin-like compounds (DLCs) refer to polychlorinated
279 dibenzodioxins (PCDDs), polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs), polychlorinated
280 biphenyls (PCBs), and PCBs with structure and effects similar to dioxins (dioxin-like
281 PCBs - DL-PCBs) (Chung et al., 2018), which ring structures can be chlorinated to
282 varying degrees. They emerge mainly from combustion reactions and industrial process,
283 are persistent in the environment due to lipophilic, hydrophobic and chemical stability
284 characteristics and can travel long distances from the source, causing countless effects in
285 humans and environment life, like cancer, thyroid disturbance, reproductive fail,
286 neurodevelopment diseases and biomagnification (Schiavon et al., 2016; WHO, 2019).
287 Zebrafish exposed to DLCs showed morphological and histopathological changes in gill,
288 liver, intestinal folds, head, kidney, spleen, swim bladder and blood cells (Yu et al., 2017;
289 Qamar et al., 2020) and PCB bioaccumulation in lipids (Fadaei et al., 2015). In addition,
290 DLCs induced mortality, development and hatching alterations, genetic damages,

291 morphological changes and biochemical effects (Kais et al., 2017; Boulanger et al., 2019;
292 Dong et al., 2019; Table S1).

293 Agrochemicals are a worldwide concern since their indiscriminate use and lack of
294 proper regulation and monitoring of its trade in several countries. The problem hides in a
295 lack of knowledge about their adverse effects on non-target organisms and the entrance
296 of agrochemicals into aquatic ecosystems per run-off, which will increase due to frequent
297 rain events as a consequence of climate change. Their very well-known consequences to
298 biota are related to carcinogenic, mutagenic, reproductive and endocrine effects
299 (Larramendy and Soloneski, 2015). Associated with sediments, agrochemicals cause
300 increased mortality, teratogenicity, reproductive disorders, developmental delay, changes
301 in swimming behavior, genotoxic and biochemical alterations in zebrafish (Nguyen and
302 Janssen, 2001; Kais et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2015; Table S1).

303

304 **3.5 Bioaccumulation**

305 Few studies (12%) evaluated bioaccumulation in zebrafish after exposure to
306 pollutant-bound sediments. Half of them evaluated bioaccumulation of metals and only
307 four studies were carried out with early developmental stages (embryo and larvae) (Table
308 S1). Two studies evaluating metal accumulation in zebrafish embryos after 48 h SCA
309 exposure showed a decrease in bioaccumulation when metals were in mixture (Redelstein
310 et al., 2015) or associated to an ion exchange resin (Mages et al., 2008), probably by
311 causing a decrease in their bioavailability. In addition, pH was an important factor in
312 determining toxicity of mixtures. Zebrafish larvae accumulated decabromodiphenyl ether
313 (BDE-209), a flame retardant, 10-fold than the control, and yet did not show differences
314 in morphology, morphometrics length and levels of T4 in thyroid follicles; apart from

315 changes in swimming behavior (Garcia-Reyero et al., 2014). Trevisan et al. (2019)
316 estimating PAH-mixture bioaccumulation in zebrafish after a 96 h co-exposure with
317 nanopolystyrene particles (Nano-PS) observed a decrease in PAH bioavailability and
318 uptake probably due to the absorption of PAHs to the surface of the Nano-PS.

319 Seeking to evaluate PCB bioaccumulation in fish lipid content, zebrafish juveniles
320 were submitted to different sediment exposure setups undergoing treatment with and
321 without coal-based fine granular activated carbon (AC). PCB uptake in zebrafish
322 decreased by 87% in treatments with AC after 90 days, which is also consistent to percent
323 reductions in porewater and overlying water (Fadaei et al., 2015). Bioavailability
324 reduction of hydrophobic organic chemicals bound to sediments treated with AC was also
325 evident to other organisms, as the freshwater oligochaete worm (*Lumbriculus variegatus*)
326 (Beckingham and Ghosh, 2011) and benthic invertebrates, zooplankton and fish
327 (*Leuciscus idus melanotus*) (Kupryianchyk et al., 2013).

328 The remaining papers evaluating bioaccumulation were performed in microcosms
329 scenarios using zebrafish adults, in which several tissues were analyzed for
330 bioaccumulation of sediment-bound pollutants. The relationship between sediments and
331 its properties to sorb pollutants from the aquatic environment was analyzed by Djomo et
332 al. (1996). This study showed that over 90% of PAHs (phenanthrene, pyrene, anthracene,
333 benzo[a]pyrene) in spiked-medium were sorbed to the sediment, which resulted in the
334 reduction of PAH bioavailability to zebrafish over time. The fate and bioavailability of
335 total mercury (HgT) in the presence of sediment collected from a forest creek was
336 investigated by Dominique et al. (2007), in which a significant HgT bioaccumulation was
337 observed in the brain, gill, liver and skeletal muscle of zebrafish exposed via microcosms.
338 In addition, after spiked-sediment exposure, the elimination of PAHs and nonylphenol
339 was observed in zebrafish after depuration in a clean medium during 360 h (Djomo et al.,

340 1996) and 408 h (Huang et al., 2007). The authors suggest, however, that this decrease
341 was probably associated with detoxification mechanisms present in fish that allowed the
342 metabolization and transformation of these compounds. Trophic transfer of Cd from
343 chironomids (*Chironomus riparius*) exposed via sediment to zebrafish was also observed,
344 resulting in high concentrations in the gut and kidney, followed by the liver, gill and
345 carcass of adult zebrafish, when compared to waterborne exposure (Bécharde et al., 2008).
346 Metal accumulation was observed in the digestive tract, gill and muscle of zebrafish,
347 being ionic Au greater than Au nanoparticles (AuNP) (Dedeh et al., 2014), while Hg was
348 poorly available to the fish at 168 hours of exposure because of the metal adsorption to
349 the sediment (De Carvalho et al., 2006). Despite the adsorption of pollutants to the
350 sediment, Chen et al. (2017) showed that the sediment sorption of pharmaceutical
351 pollutants decrease their bioavailability to zebrafish, and is highly affected by sediment
352 particle size and organic matter content similarly, as already reported in the literature
353 (Bowman et al., 2002; Zhou and Broodbank, 2014).

354

355 **3.6 Biomarkers**

356 In addition to behavioral effects, mortality, hatching alterations and
357 morphological changes, multiple biomarkers were identified in zebrafish exposed to
358 pollutant-bound sediment at the molecular, genetic and biochemical levels, including
359 genotoxicity (26%, n = 16), xenobiotic metabolism (24%, n = 15), oxidative stress (13%,
360 n = 8), neurotoxicity (11%, n = 7), endocrine disruption (10%, n = 6), mitochondrial
361 dysfunction (6%, n = 4), cytotoxicity (5%, n = 3), developmental toxicity (3%, n = 2),
362 and immunotoxicity (2%, n = 1) (Table S2; Figure 7).

363

364 **3.6.1 Behavioral biomarkers**

365 Animal behavior is correlated to development and function of their neural systems
366 and behavior assays can provide signs of disruptions and neurotoxicity. Several behavior
367 assays with zebrafish are suggested in literature (Orger et al., 2004; Legradi et al., 2018;
368 Shen et al., 2020); however, these studies have not yet been widely applied or
369 standardized in sediment toxicity assessments. Only 8% of the reviewed studies analyzed
370 behavioral changes in zebrafish after pollutant-bound sediment exposures (Table 1). The
371 main assays used to evaluate behavioral changes in zebrafish exposed to pollutant-bound
372 sediments were swimming activity (distance and velocity), touch-escape response and
373 photomotor response (PMR), which are used as indicators of stress and anxiety (Vignet
374 et al., 2014). In general, the studies found a decrease in zebrafish locomotor activity,
375 swimming velocity and a reduced touch-escape response after pollutant exposure (Table
376 1). Only two studies analyzed behavioral responses in adult zebrafish (Vignet et al., 2014;
377 Hafner et al., 2015). Strmac et al. (2002) observed a concentration-dependent reduction
378 in motility of 96 hpf larvae exposed to sediment extracts polluted by metals, PAHs and
379 pesticides, at concentrations ranging from 0.0125 to 0.1%.

380 The acclimation time, analysis and recordings varied widely between the studies,
381 confirming the lack of standardization in this type of research. Larvae acclimation varied
382 mainly between 5 and 10 min and up to 2 h. Time of analysis varied from 15 min to 1.75
383 h and recording periods varied from 15 min to 2.75 h, in addition to light/dark challenges
384 (5 min to 1.5 h). Two software's were used to record zebrafish activities: EthoVision®
385 XT video tracking software (version 8.0.516, Noldus Information Technology, The
386 Netherlands) and VideoTrack for Zebrafish™ (ViewPoint Life Sciences, France). Just one
387 study presented the illumination used on PMR assays, which corroborates, one more time,
388 the lack of standardization for behavioral tests (Vignet et al., 2014).

390 **3.6.2 Mortality, hatching inhibition and morphological changes**

391 Almost 70% of papers evaluated zebrafish mortality after pollutant-bound
392 sediment exposure (Table 1). Most studies that did not evaluate mortality used sub-lethal
393 concentrations in order to assess genotoxic effects or changes at molecular levels in living
394 animals. Half of these papers estimated LC₅₀ (median lethal concentration), LOEC
395 (lowest observed effects concentration) or EC₅₀ (Effect Concentration 50%), seeking to
396 understand the minimum concentrations that caused effects at the morphological level
397 and mortality of 50% of the population (Table S1). Again, half of these studies were
398 directed to determine PAH concentrations (43.8%), followed by metals (28.1%), dioxin-
399 like compounds (25%) and agrochemicals (15.6%).

400 Decreased hatching rates were reported in 25% of the studies, indicating that
401 several pollutants-bound sediments can inhibit zebrafish hatching and induce high
402 mortality rates. Hatching inhibition was reported for zebrafish embryos exposed to PAHs,
403 DLCs and metals (Vincze et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015; Viganò et al., 2020) (Table S1).
404 On the other hand, the mechanism of action of these pollutants on gene expression and
405 enzymes responsible for hatching deserve further studies.

406 Of the 77% of studies carried out with zebrafish in embryo-larval stages, 57.7%
407 analyzed morphological effects. Morphological alterations in zebrafish were grouped into
408 general alterations and the four reaction patterns described by Pereira et al. (2019):
409 circulatory changes (Rp₁), pigmentation and tegumentary changes (Rp₂),
410 musculoskeletal disorders (Rp₃) and yolk sac alterations (Rp₄) (Table 1). General edema
411 was assigned when the authors did not detail the type of morphological changes.
412 Musculoskeletal disorders and circulatory changes account almost 78% of the

413 morphological effects reported, highlighting pericardial edema (12.6%), bradycardia
414 (11.6%), abnormal circulation or vasculature (8.2%) and spine malformations (7.2%).
415 Yolk sac edema and changes in pigmentation have also been detected frequently, 9.2%
416 and 7.2%, respectively. Interestingly, only one paper presented changes in the swim
417 bladder after DL-PCBs-sediment extracts exposure (Yu et al., 2017). The swimming
418 bladder plays a fundamental role in coordination of larvae after hatching and locomotion
419 for survival and escape predation (Lindsey et al., 2010) and its inflation is a relevant
420 biomarker to assess the thyroid hormones disruption (Li et al., 2011; Stinckens et al.,
421 2016; Wang et al., 2020).

422

423 **3.6.3 Molecular and biochemical assays**

424 Molecular and biochemical biomarker responses in zebrafish were assessed in
425 48% of studies with pollutant-bound sediment toxicity tests. Zebrafish at different
426 developmental stages (i.e., embryo, larvae, and adult) were used in 36% (n = 35) of the
427 studies (Table S2), while 12% (n = 12) of the studies were performed with other models.
428 Most research using zebrafish evaluated the genetic and molecular parameters as a
429 sediment toxicity endpoint (n = 21, 22%), while biochemical assays were performed in
430 6% of the studies (n = 6). Interestingly, 23% (n = 8) research of sediment toxicity using
431 zebrafish evaluated both biomarkers (Figure 7, Table S1). Molecular assays evaluated
432 genetic parameters, such as genome integrity and protein and genes expression, while
433 biochemical assays included measurement of enzyme activity (e.g., ethoxyresorufin-O-
434 deethylase - EROD, acetylcholinesterase - AChE).

435 Results of the present study showed that genotoxicity was the most reported
436 sediment toxicity biomarker using zebrafish embryos. Genotoxic studies using zebrafish

437 as an experimental model have been recently reviewed, and sediment genotoxicity
438 represented only 6.9% of all studies (Canedo and Rocha, 2021). The following techniques
439 were applied to measure DNA damage as a sediment toxic effect in zebrafish: alkaline
440 comet assay (Kosmehl et al., 2006, 2007, 2008; Boehler et al., 2017), global DNA
441 methylation (Boulanger et al., 2019) and random amplified polymorphic DNA-PCR
442 (RAPD-PCR) (Dedeh et al., 2014). Quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain
443 reaction (qRT-PCR) is another technique that was used to identify gene expression
444 changes related to DNA repair mechanisms (Bluhm et al., 2014; Boulanger et al., 2019;
445 Viganò et al., 2020). Similarly, the majority of genotoxicity studies adopted comet assay
446 to evaluate DNA damage (Canedo and Rocha, 2021). The comet assay is a well-
447 established technique useful in assessing the genotoxic potential of a wide range of
448 pollutants (Frenzilli et al., 2009; Lapuente et al., 2015; Canedo and Rocha, 2021).

449 Zebrafish embryos exposed to whole sediments or their organic extracts proved
450 to be sensitive to genotoxic effects of sediment pollutants, including heavy metals (Kang
451 et al., 2014), organic pollutants (Kosmehl et al., 2006; Li et al., 2016; Sogbanmu et al.,
452 2016), or both (Kosmehl et al., 2007, 2008). It is worthy to note that genotoxicity is a
453 complex biological phenomenon implicated in multiple pathways, and DNA repair
454 mechanisms as a response to adverse effects on a cell's genetic material and its integrity
455 is often a rapid process. Therefore, the connection between DNA damage and other
456 biomarkers becomes necessary to fully understand the extent of the mechanism behind
457 the toxicity seen, as the case of xenobiotic metabolism, oxidative stress and general
458 defense mechanism, cytotoxicity, among others (Canedo and Rocha, 2021). A study using
459 zebrafish embryos observed that different sediment constituents probably led to
460 differences in the embryotoxicity and genotoxicity of sediments organic extracts from
461 different sampling sites in the Yangtze River estuary (Li et al., 2016). Whereas in another

462 study, the genotoxicity was associated with cytotoxicity, i.e. cell death by apoptosis, as
463 toxic effect of exposure to whole sediment from Vering Kanal (Hamburg, Germany). As
464 a consequence, bradycardia and pericardial edema were also observed on zebrafish
465 embryos and larvae (Garcia-Käufer et al., 2015).

466 One of the most investigated biomarker responses in zebrafish exposed to
467 sediments were related to the xenobiotic metabolism determined either by the expression
468 of genes that encodes proteins or enzymes well established in the xenobiotic
469 detoxification (e.g., *cyp1*) (Redelstein et al., 2015; Boulanger et al., 2019), or by
470 enzymatic activity (e.g., EROD activity) (Perrichon et al., 2014; Boehler et al., 2018), or
471 both (Schiwy et al., 2014; Bräunig et al., 2015). Xenobiotic-metabolizing enzyme CYP1A
472 (cytochrome P450, family 1, subfamily A) is associated with the EROD activity. The
473 EROD assay is widely used as a biomarker of xenobiotic metabolism in research
474 toxicology, including aquatic ecotoxicology (Šíroková and Drastichová, 2004). However,
475 based on cellular and subcellular responses induced by xenobiotic detoxification
476 processes, an integrated biomarker approach is necessary to provide information about
477 the process involved in toxicity response (Janz, 2013). For example, Schiwy et al. (2014)
478 showed embryotoxicity in zebrafish exposed to sediment from the Rhine River (Altrip
479 and Ehrenbreitstein, sites classified as low and moderately contaminated sites,
480 respectively) and the Vering Kanal (highly contaminated site). Despite the fact that
481 exposure to these sediments induced upregulation of *cyp1*, only Vering Kanal sediment
482 exposure was able to induce the xenobiotic-metabolizing enzyme CYP1A1 (cytochrome
483 P-450 1a1) in zebrafish embryos, curiously the sediment with highest embryotoxicity.

484 Xenobiotic detoxification comprises a central process in the metabolism of
485 xenobiotic pollutants, such as planar aromatic substance classes, metals and pesticides.
486 The well-known mechanism of CYP1A1 induction is mediated by binding of several

487 xenobiotics, such as dioxins, PCBs and PAHs, to protein complexes formed by cytosolic
488 aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) and heat shock protein 90 (HSP90) (Whyte et al., 2000).
489 A series of molecular events are initiated after AhR binding, leading to the expression of
490 several genes that encode protein associated with xenobiotic's metabolism response,
491 including increased expression and activity of CYP1A (Safe and Krishnan, 1995).
492 Alterations in the xenobiotic metabolism of zebrafish embryos exposed to PAHs
493 containing fraction of sediment extracts from the Vering Kanal was reflected by an
494 increased *cyp1a1* activity, upregulated *cyp1* gene expressions (*cyp1a*, *cyp1b1*, *cyp1c1*,
495 and *cyp1c2*), as well as upregulated *ahr2* expression (Bräunig et al., 2015). Indeed,
496 sediment contaminated with dioxin-like compounds, PBDEs, PCBs, PCDDs, and HCB
497 can also act as inducers of zebrafish *cyp1a* (Kosmehl et al., 2012; Boulanger et al., 2019;
498 Dong et al., 2019; Viganò et al., 2020).

499 As well as CYP1A1 have commonly been used as biomarkers for planar aromatic
500 substance classes exposure (e.g., PAHs), so metallothioneins (MTs) have been used as
501 biomarkers for trace metal exposure. MTs comprise a family of metal-binding protein
502 involved in heavy metal detoxification and cellular antioxidative defense (Chan, 1995).
503 Zebrafish embryos exposed to artificial Zn-spiked sediment caused changes in gene
504 expression related to xenobiotic metabolism, including *mt1* and *mt2*, but not *cyp1a1*
505 (Redelstein et al., 2015). In contrast, zebrafish larvae exposed to three sample of
506 contaminated sediments with chemical mixtures (PAHs, PCBs, PCDDs and metals) from
507 Lake Saint-Louis, Canada, increased the expression of *cyp1a* and *cyp1b1*, but not *mt2*
508 gene. Although sediments contain high concentrations of organic contaminants and
509 metals, molecular assays showed evidence of organic contaminants as the main
510 responsible for the different biological level's effects. Notably, a significant increase in

511 zebrafish mortality was associated to sediment exposure presenting higher PCDDs
512 concentration (Boulanger et al., 2019).

513

514 **3.6.4 Oxidative stress and antioxidant mechanisms**

515 Pollutant-bound sediments can induce oxidative damage by intracellular reactive
516 oxygen species (ROS) production and oxidative damage in proteins, lipids and DNA,
517 leading to cell death (Lushchak, 2011). Defense antioxidant mechanisms are usually
518 activated, such as heat shock proteins (HSP), superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase
519 (CAT), and glutathione peroxidase (GPx), to prevent cellular damage (e.g., DNA damage
520 and cell death) (Lushchak, 2011, 2016). Zebrafish embryos exposed to zinc oxide
521 nanoparticles (ZnO NPs) aggregates presented cellular oxidative stress, due to failure to
522 upregulated of *gstp2* and *nqo1* (xenobiotic metabolism genes) and higher levels of ROS.
523 These results were associated with hatching inhibition and high frequency of pericardial
524 edema. Interestingly, zebrafish embryos exposed to ZnO NP aggregates in the presence
525 of sediments were able to upregulate the expression of *gstp2* and *nqo1*, thus normalizing
526 hatching rate and avoid cardiotoxic effects (Zhu et al., 2009).

527 Nevertheless, pollutant-bound sediments led to oxidative stress and changes in the
528 antioxidant enzymes in zebrafish. For example, zebrafish embryos exposed to organic
529 sediment extracts of Laguna Lake, Philippines, increased levels of hsp70 protein,
530 resulting in delayed hatching and pericardial edema (Hallare et al., 2005). In addition to
531 xenobiotic metabolism activation, oxidative stress responses resulted in the upregulation
532 of the *hsp70* gene but not *sod1*, which regulates oxidative stress resistance, in zebrafish
533 embryos exposed to Zn-bound sediments at sub-lethal concentrations (Redelstein et al.,
534 2015). Similar effects were reported in adult zebrafish (Dedeh et al., 2014).

535

536 **3.6.5. Endocrine disruption and neurotoxicity**

537 Environmental pollutants and stressors may affect the normal secretion of
538 hormones, influencing the growth, development, sexual differentiation and reproduction
539 of aquatic organisms (Mouneyrac and Amiard-Triquet, 2013; Guo et al., 2019).
540 Endocrine disruption was evaluated on the response to sediment exposure in zebrafish.
541 Nevertheless, the effects caused by endocrine disruptors are not entirely clear from the
542 revised data, probable due to the complexity of the sediment samples. Fetter et al. (2014)
543 reported the estrogenic activity in transgenic zebrafish embryos *tg(cyp19a1b:GFP)*, after
544 exposure to sediment fractionated extracts from the river Bilina, Czech Republic.
545 Alkylphenols and the natural steroid estrone present in the sediment-fractionated extracts
546 were suggested as endocrine disruptors. Adult zebrafish exposed orally to organic extracts
547 of sediments from Molnbyggen, a leachate-contaminated lake in Sweden, were evaluated
548 for relationships between changes in sex steroid levels and index for assessing
549 reproductive toxicity. Whole-body estradiol and testosterone levels were reduced,
550 evidencing the presence of pollutants with endocrine-disrupting potential in the sediment;
551 however, whole-body steroid concentration did not seem to affect body weight. No effects
552 were observed on spawning capacity, gonadosomatic index (GSI), or liver somatic index
553 (LSI) (Linderoth et al., 2006). Overall, selecting multiples endpoints at different
554 biological levels may offer a comprehensive toxicological characterization of the
555 sediment using zebrafish as a model system.

556 Alterations in AChE activity is a well-established biomarker of neurotoxicity in
557 ecotoxicological studies (Payne et al., 1996). AChE inhibition in zebrafish embryos was
558 also considered a suitable biomarker of neurotoxicity in sediment toxicity assessments
559 (Kais et al., 2015). In contrast, sediments contaminated with organic pollutants and heavy

560 metals from Gulf of Bothnia, in Sweden, caused developmental malformations, delayed
561 hatching, bradycardia, and alterations of locomotor activity in zebrafish embryos;
562 however, inhibition of AChE was not detected (Massei et al., 2019). Notably,
563 neurotoxicity associated with an increase in AChE activity was also reported. Adult
564 zebrafish exposed to Au NPs-bound sediment induced AChE activity, DNA damage and
565 upregulation of gene related to oxidative stress (*sod2*, *hsp70*), mitochondrial dysfunction
566 (*cox1*), DNA repair mechanisms (*gaad*), and neurotoxicity (*ache*). As mentioned
567 previously, neurodevelopmental and reproductive toxicity could lead to the behavioral
568 changes (He et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2019). In fact, revised data highlighted that
569 neurodevelopment may be influence by several biological organismal levels.

570

571 **3.6.6 Histopathological biomarkers**

572 Alterations in tissue-level biomarkers were also reported in zebrafish exposed to
573 contaminated-sediments, for example, which contains DLCs. Qamar and coworkers
574 (2020) revealed alterations in spleen and kidney of adult zebrafish after 28 days exposure
575 to DL-PCBs bound-sediment using classic histopathological analysis (hematoxylin and
576 eosin staining). Several histological damages were reported in the spleen of zebrafish
577 exposed to DL-PCBs, including decrease in spleen size, reduction of lymphocyte number
578 and increased lysis of red blood cells. In addition, cell dissolution, tubular lumen
579 dilatation and renal interstitial cell edema were detected in the kidney. Corroborating
580 these findings, the increased white blood cells and reduced the number of red blood cells,
581 lysozyme activity and immunoglobulin concentration were also reported as immunotoxic
582 effect in zebrafish after exposure to DL-PCBs-bound sediments (Qamar et al., 2020).

583 Revised data showed that the use of new routine histological approaches,
584 including immunohistochemistry and *in situ* hybridization, allows not only the detection
585 of morphological and structural alterations in multiples organs, but their association with
586 molecular events (Janz, 2013). For example, exposure to DLC-contaminated sediment
587 extracts revealed the activation of *cyp1a* at transcriptional and protein levels in a
588 concentration-dependent manner. The use of whole mount *in situ* hybridization (WISH)
589 analysis by the authors allowed for the localization of *cyp1a* expression to the gill arches
590 of larvae at 36 hpf (Dong et al., 2019).

591

592 **3.6.7 OMICs approaches and transgenic zebrafish strains**

593 OMICs approaches comprise of high-throughput technologies that measure the
594 entirety of gene transcripts (transcriptome), proteins (proteome), or metabolites
595 (metabolome) in a biological sample after xenobiotic exposure (Sukardi et al., 2010;
596 Mushtaq et al., 2013). It is noteworthy to mention that the use of “OMICs” technologies
597 associated with toxicological effects of different pollutant types in zebrafish have been
598 reported (Schüttler et al., 2017; Piña et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2018; Pereira et al., 2019;
599 Farnsworth et al., 2020). Organic pollutants and heavy metals are major classes of
600 pollutants identified in the sediment samples using OMICs approaches. OMICs
601 technologies were also reported in sediment toxicity assessments, such as the use of
602 microarrays (Kosmehl et al., 2012; Bluhm et al., 2014; Garcia-Reyero et al., 2014) and
603 capillary column high resolution gas chromatography/high resolution mass spectrometry
604 (HRGC/HRMS) (Linderoth et al., 2006).

605 Microarray is used as a transcriptome technology to monitor the concentration of
606 specific mRNA molecules for a given cell, tissue, organ, or whole organism.

607 HRGC/HRMS can be used to describe the chemical composition of endogenous
608 metabolites originating from biochemical pathways (Piña et al., 2018). These advances
609 make it possible to observe the total system and explore the molecular mechanisms
610 underlying a phenotype alteration, as well as identify new biomarkers of exposure and
611 effect. This will in overall provide an insight into the possible mechanism of action related
612 to the phenotypic changes as a direct or an indirect consequence of a toxicant exposure
613 (Sukardi et al., 2010; Mushtaq et al., 2013). One example is the study by Garcia-Reyero
614 et al. (2014), where several biological responses were evaluated after exposure to BDE-
615 209 contaminated sediments in zebrafish. In this study, phenotypic and individual
616 responses were linked to pathways regulated by molecules mainly associated with
617 neurodevelopmental toxicity, even though differences in the thyroid function measured
618 as intrafollicular T4-content by T4 immunofluorescence quantitative disruption test
619 (TIQDT) and whole-mount immunohistochemistry, were not detected in zebrafish larvae.
620 The first study using microarrays for the characterization of sediment toxicity, revealed a
621 relationship between DNA damage (comet assay) and alterations in gene expression
622 profiles in zebrafish embryos. These alterations in gene expression related to catabolic
623 processes and neurodevelopmental processes, which responded to lipid binding and
624 peptidase activity, visual perception, xenobiotic metabolism, and oxidative stress
625 (Kosmehl et al., 2012).

626 Only one study used knockdown technology to assess the toxicity of pollutant-
627 bound sediments, while transgenic zebrafish strains were used in three studies to analyze
628 sediment toxicity assessment. The strains of *tg(cyp19alb:GFP)*, *tg(cyp1a: mCherry)*,
629 *tg(mlse:GFP)*, and *tg(flkl:EGFP)* were used to evaluate endocrine disruption (Fetter et
630 al., 2014), xenobiotic metabolism (Dong et al., 2019), mitochondrial dysfunction and
631 cardiotoxicity (Trevisan et al., 2019), respectively. Wild-type zebrafish exposed to

632 sediment demonstrated the activation of *cyp1a* at transcriptional and protein levels and
633 cardiotoxicity, which are related to the presence of dioxin-like compounds in the sediment
634 extracts and binding with AhR2 receptor. Confirming these findings, the use of the
635 zebrafish *ahr2* morpholino knockdown did not show pericardial edema. Moreover, the
636 induction of *cyp1a* promoter revealed by *mCherry* expression in heart position of the
637 transgenic zebrafish larvae *tg(cyp1a:mCherry)* was also demonstrated as a toxic effect of
638 exposure to dioxin-like contaminated sediments (Dong et al., 2019). In addition, the
639 assessment of pollution monitoring using transgenic technology might reveal sediment
640 toxicity mechanisms (Padilla, 2014).

641

642 **4. Conclusion and perspectives**

643 The present review summarized the data available in literature concerning the use
644 of zebrafish (*D. rerio*) as a vertebrate model to assess the bioaccumulation and toxicity
645 of pollutant-bound sediments. Overall, the revised data showed that zebrafish is an
646 emerging model-system for testing the toxicity of traditional and emerging pollutant-
647 bound sediments, of different contamination grades. The sediment toxicity in zebrafish is
648 dependent on physical and chemical properties of pollutants, experimental design (i.e.,
649 exposure condition, concentration and exposure period), environmental factors (i.e.,
650 temperature, pH, conductivity), developmental stages and presence of organic natural
651 matter. The sediment toxicity tests were conducted using mainly zebrafish embryos and
652 larvae, focusing on the analysis of multiple biomarker responses, such as mortality rate,
653 hatching rate, morphological alteration frequency, genotoxicity, neurotoxicity, xenobiotic
654 metabolism, among others. Results showed that further studies with multiple biological
655 targets at different levels of biological organization are needed to better understand the

656 mechanism of action and toxicity of pollutant-bound sediments. To summarize, several
657 research gaps that deserve further attention are highlighted, such as:

658 a) Assessment of sediment toxicity in more environmentally relevant conditions (i.e.,
659 multispecies exposure and microcosms);

660 b) Interactive effects of pollutants-bound sediments (mixture toxicity);

661 c) Transgenerational exposures and multigenerational effects;

662 d) Interaction between sediment microbiology and toxicity;

663 e) Development of standard protocols for assessing the toxicity of emerging pollutants
664 (i.e., nanomaterials and endocrine disruptive compounds);

665 f) Investigate sediment toxicity under global changes.

666

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674

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1296 **Figure captions**

1297 Figure 1. Systematic review methodology. A) Scoping; B) Planning; C) Identification;
1298 D) Screening; E) Eligibility assessment; F) Interpretation and Presentation. ¹ Electronic
1299 databases: “ScienceDirect”, “Scopus”, “PubMed” and “Web of Science”. ² Exclusion
1300 criteria: non-English records, reviews, technical reports, protocols, grey literature, do not
1301 fit the objectives, letters/short communications and duplicated documents.

1302

1303 Figure 2. Number of papers published (absolute and cumulative) concerning the use of
1304 zebrafish as a model system in sediment toxicity assessment from 1996 until December
1305 2020.

1306

1307 Figure 3. A) Number of papers per country evaluating sediment toxicity and zebrafish,
1308 from 1996 to 2020, n = 97. B) Cluster analysis of the countries with studies evaluating
1309 sediments and zebrafish. The diameter of the node indicates the volume of publications
1310 and the connections indicate the intensity of the relationship between the countries.

1311

1312 Figure 4. Cluster of the most influential authors in research with sediment toxicity
1313 assessment and zebrafish, with at least ten citations, over the years. The diameter of the
1314 node indicates the volume of citations and the connections indicate the intensity of the
1315 relationship between the authors cited.

1316

1317 Figure 5. Number of papers (%) by experimental designs in sediment toxicity assessment
1318 using zebrafish. A) Zebrafish development stages used for assessing sediment toxicity.
1319 B) Sediment exposure procedures; C) Type of sediment sample; D) Exposure times; E)
1320 Approach evaluation of the sediment toxicity.

1321

1322 Figure 6. Number of papers (%) according to pollutant or stressor categories on sediment
1323 toxicity assessment using zebrafish as model system.

1324

1325 Figure 7. Trends in molecular and biochemical techniques using zebrafish as model to
1326 assess sediment toxicity.

1327

1328 **Table caption**

1329 Table 1. Morphological alterations in zebrafish induced by pollutant-bound sediments,
1330 based on reaction patterns of Pereira et al. (2019), with modifications.

1331

1332 **Supplementary materials**

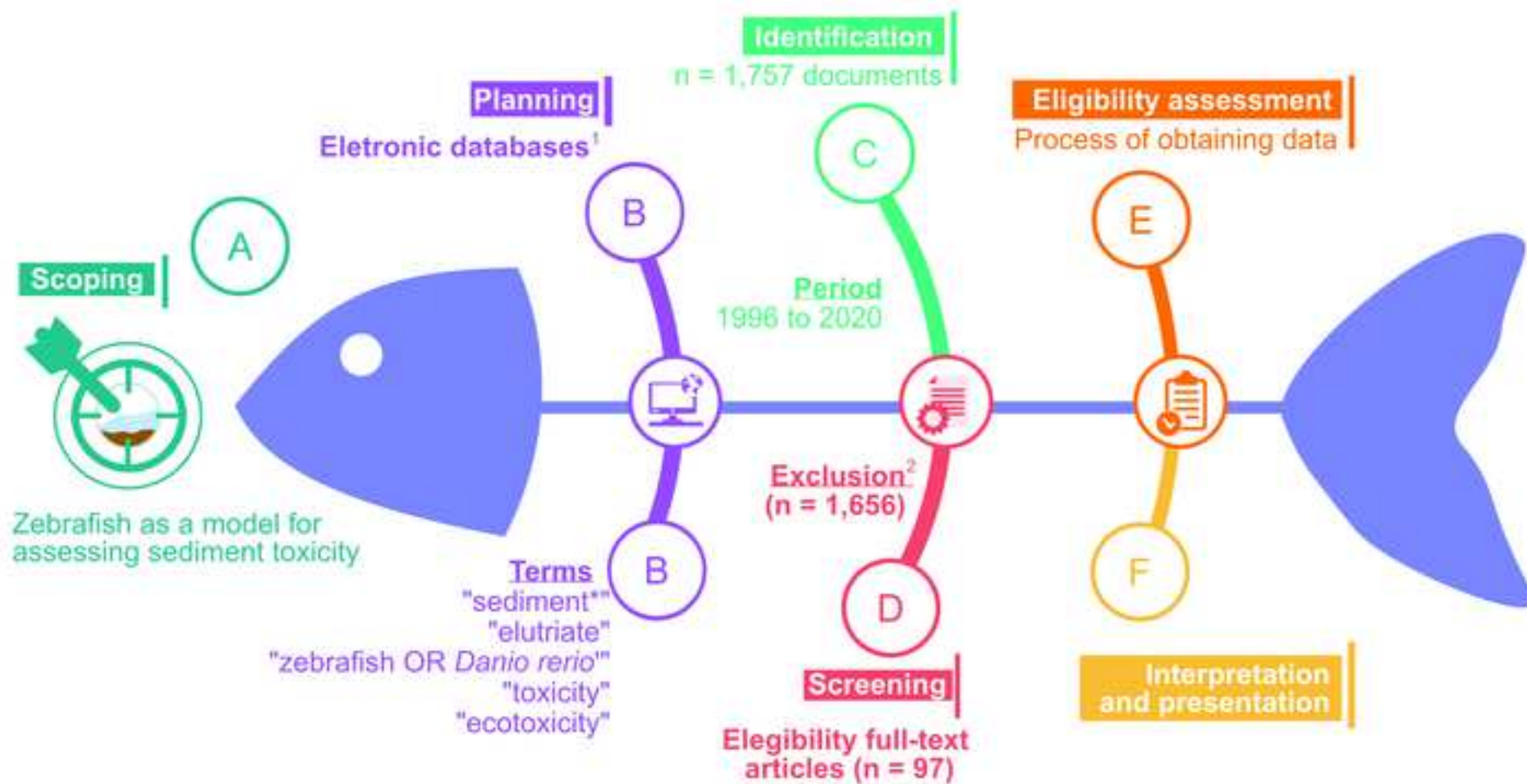
1333 Table S1. General conditions and effects of sediment toxicity assessments using zebrafish
1334 as model system. N.d. = not described to assess.

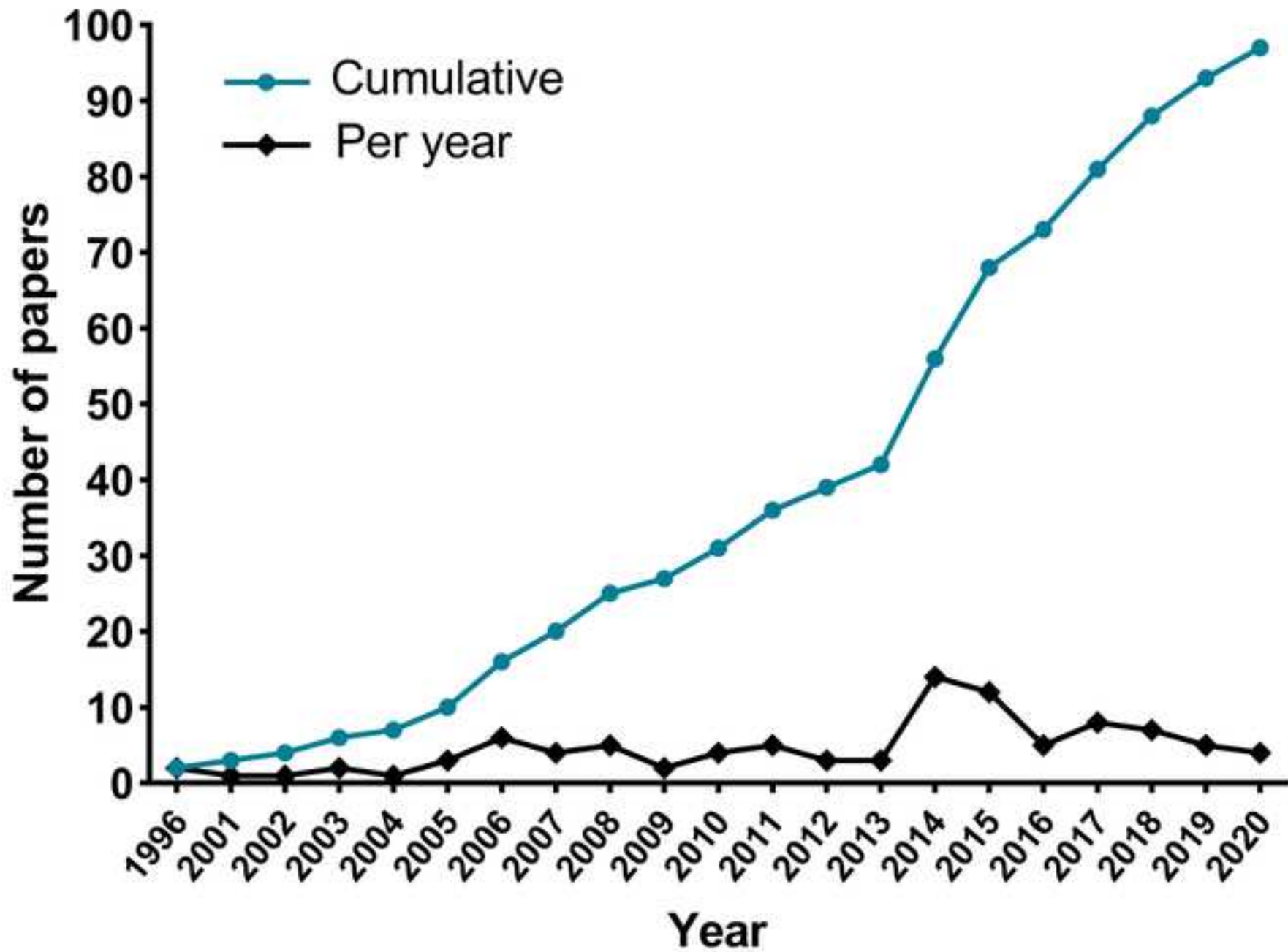
1335

1336 Table S2. Biological responses carried out by molecular and biochemical assays using
1337 zebrafish as model system to assess sediment toxicity.

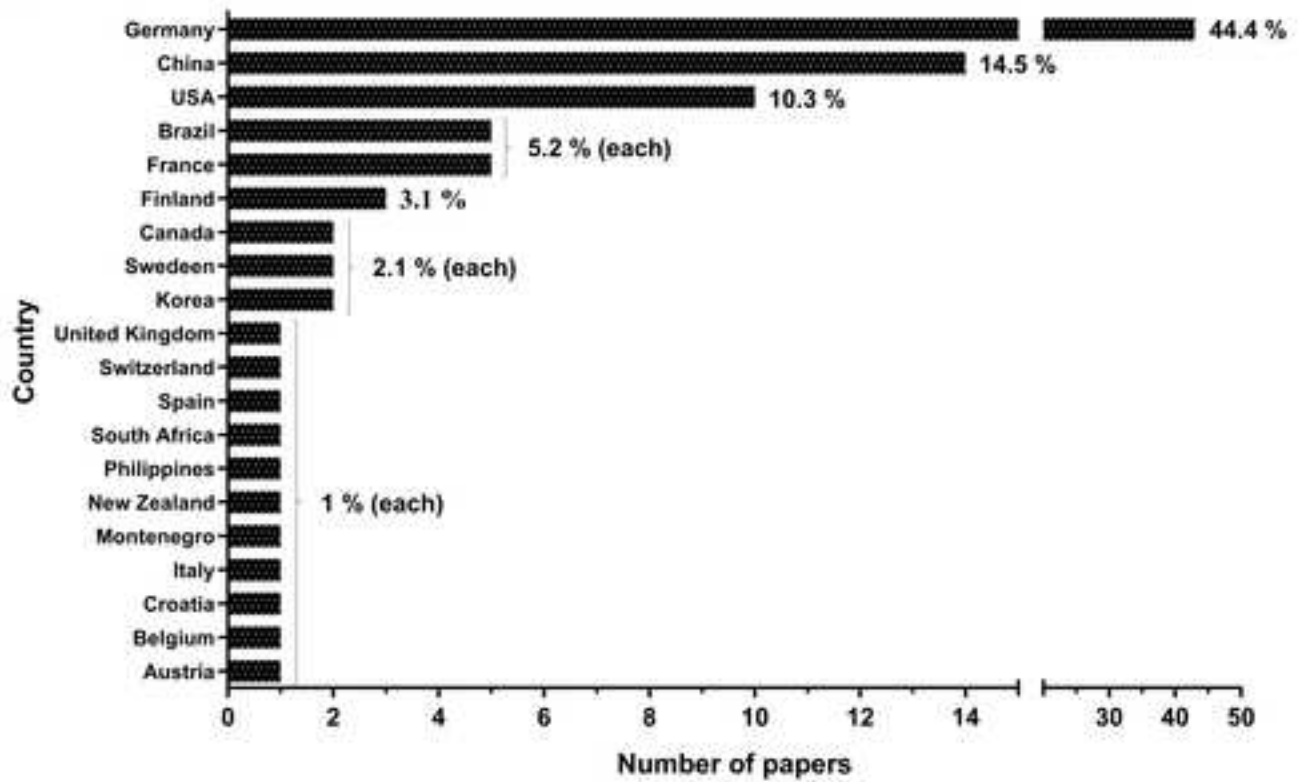
Table 1.

Reaction pattern	Effects	n° of papers (%)
General alterations	General edemas	7.2
	Reduced brain size	1.0
Circulatory changes (Rp ₁)	Pericardial edema	26.8
	Bradycardia	24.7
	Abnormal circulation or vasculature	17.5
	Blood accumulation	1.0
Pigmentation and tegumentary changes (Rp ₂)	Changes of pigmentation (weak/miss)	15.5
Musculoskeletal disorders (Rp ₃)	Spinal malformation	15.5
	Absence or irregular size of eyes	11.3
	Defects in the somites	11.3
	Tail malformation	9.3
	Undetached tail	9.3
	Head malformation	6.2
	Underdeveloped ears	5.2
	General body structure malformations	14.4
	Development retardation	12.4
	Uninflated swim bladder	1.0
Yolk sac alterations (Rp ₄)	Yolk sac edema	19.6
	Unresorbed yolk	3.1
	Yolk detachment	1.0





A



B

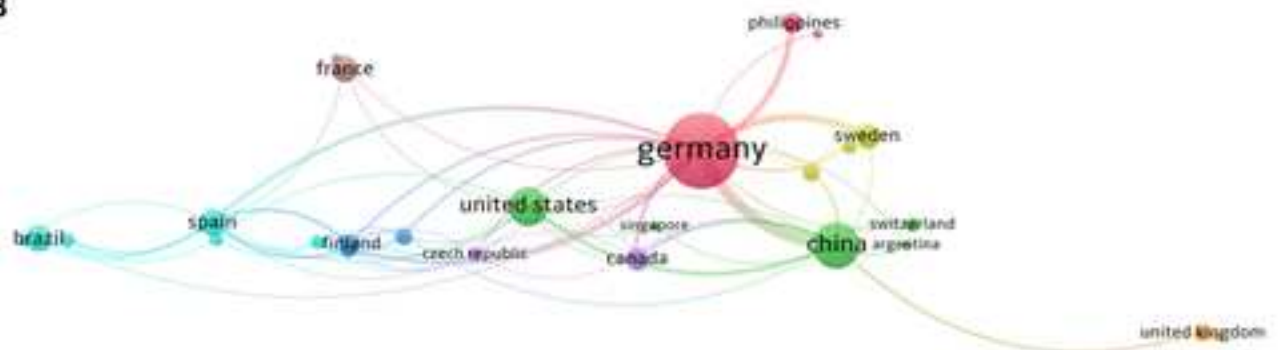
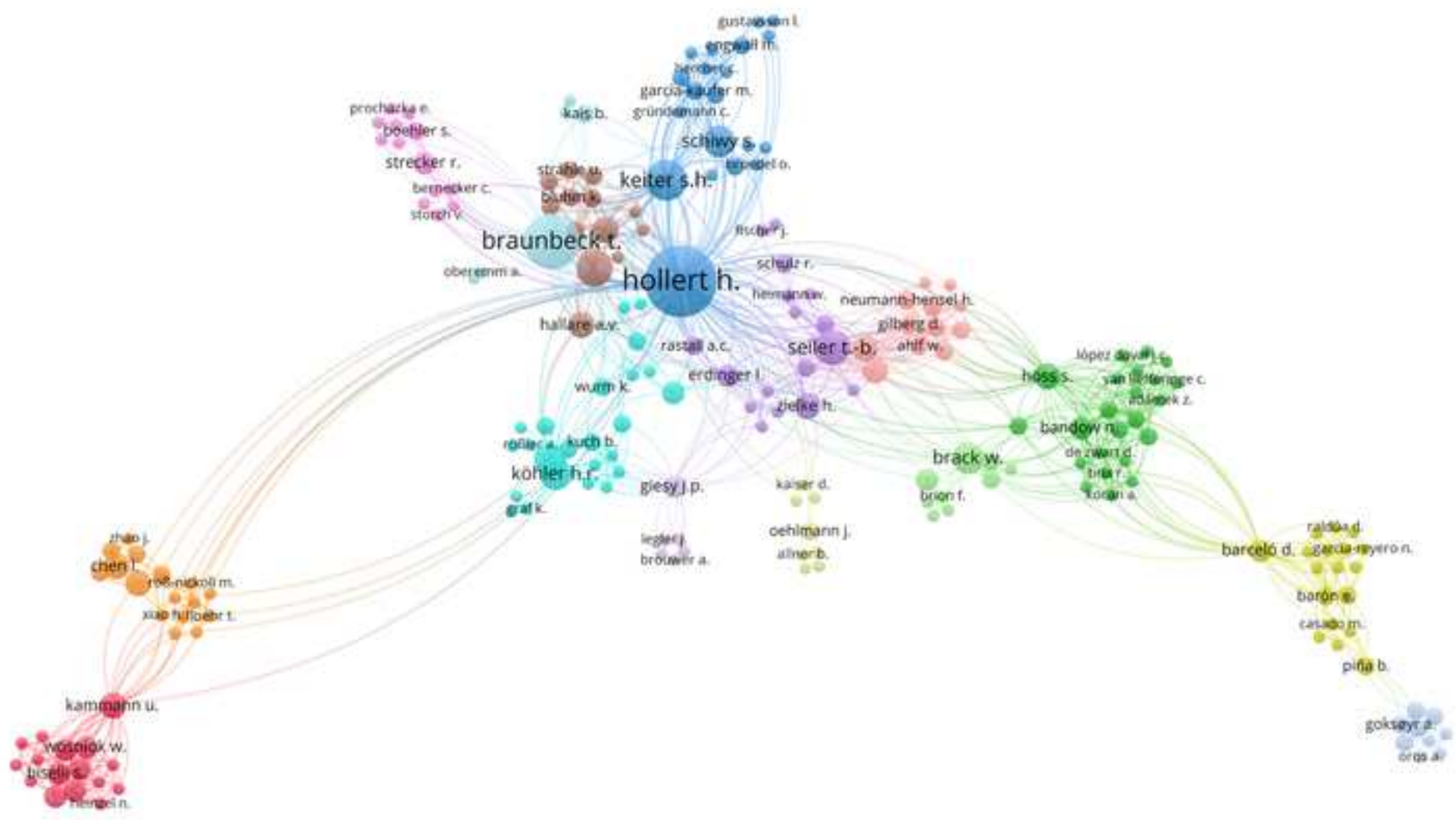
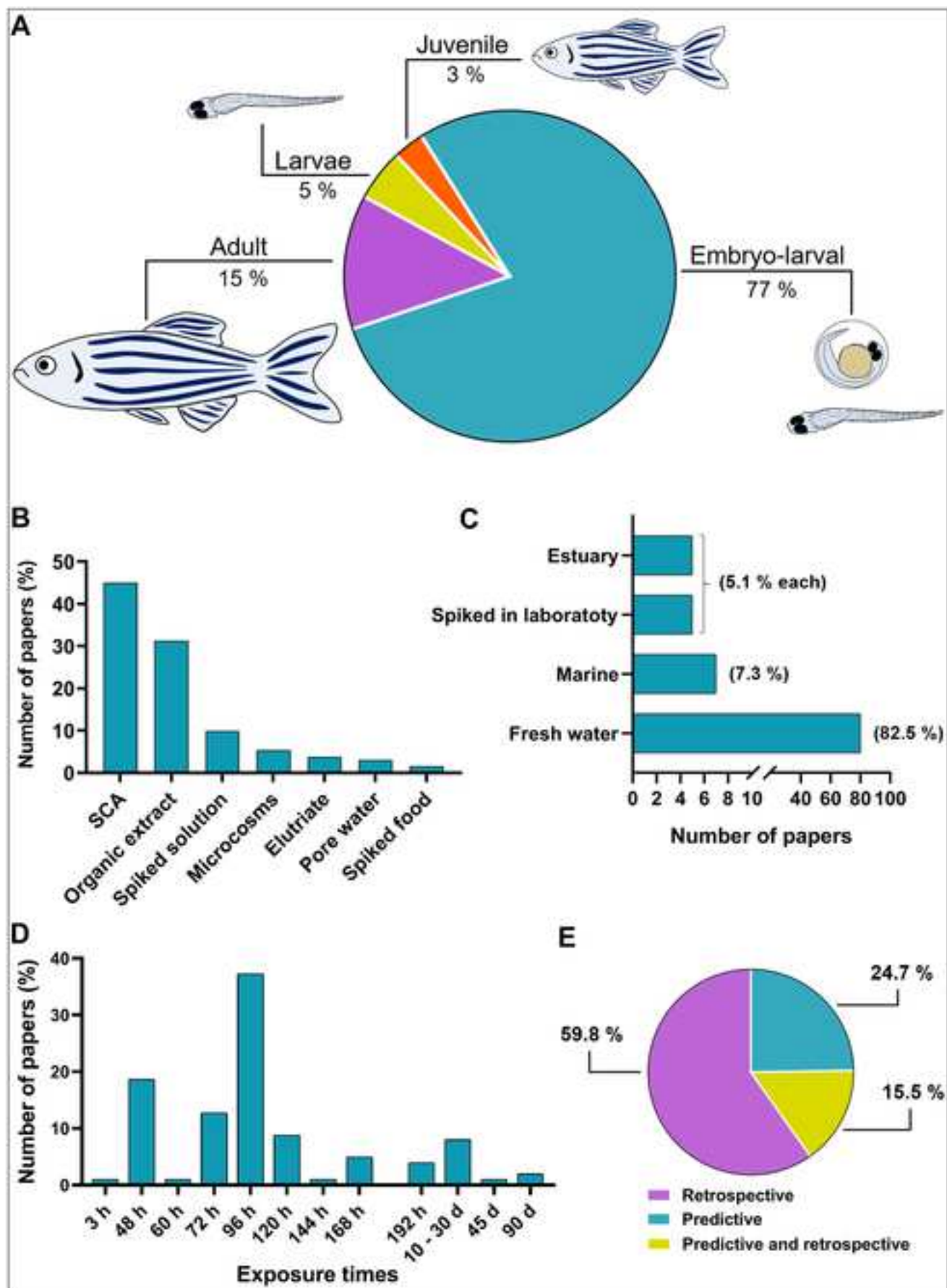
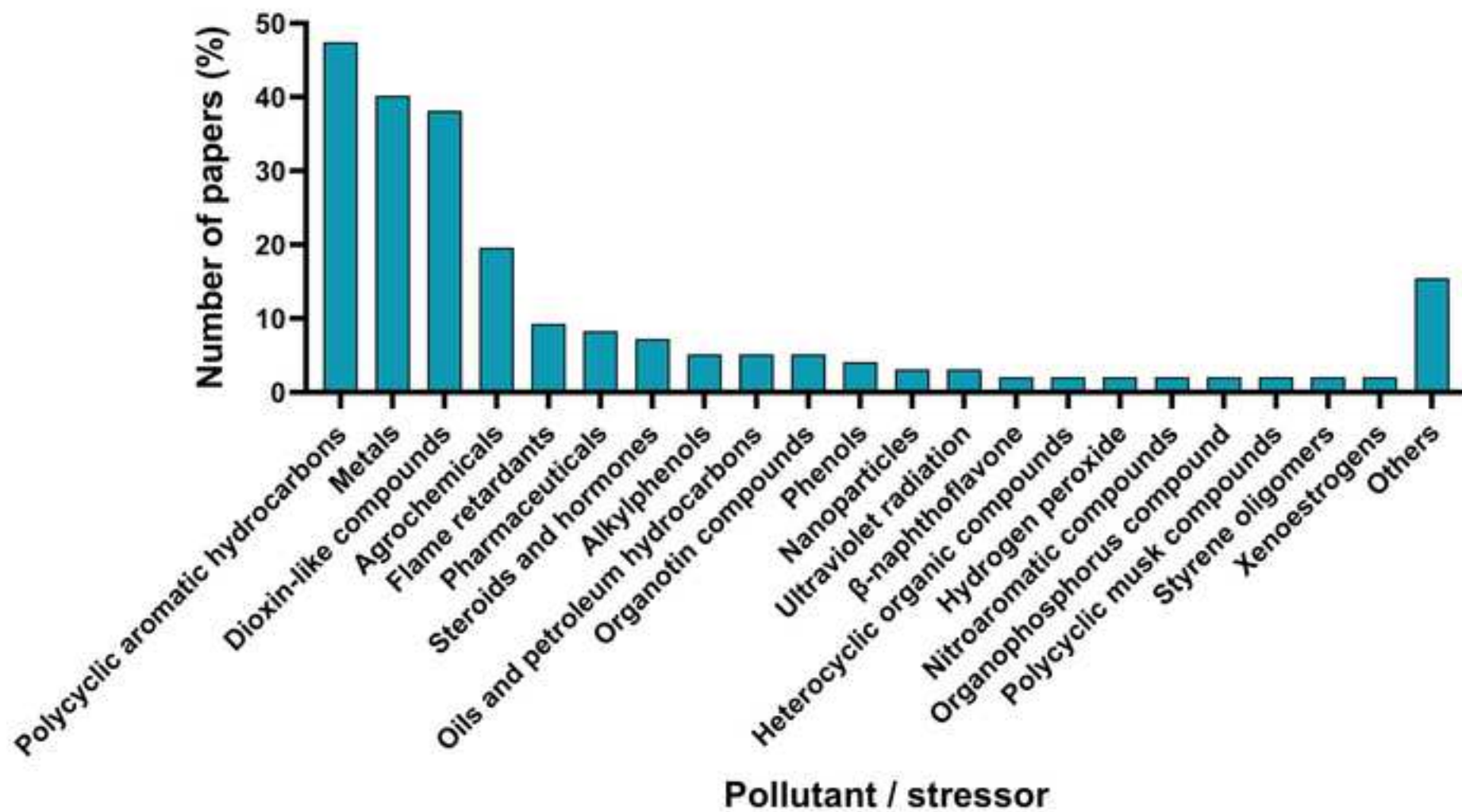
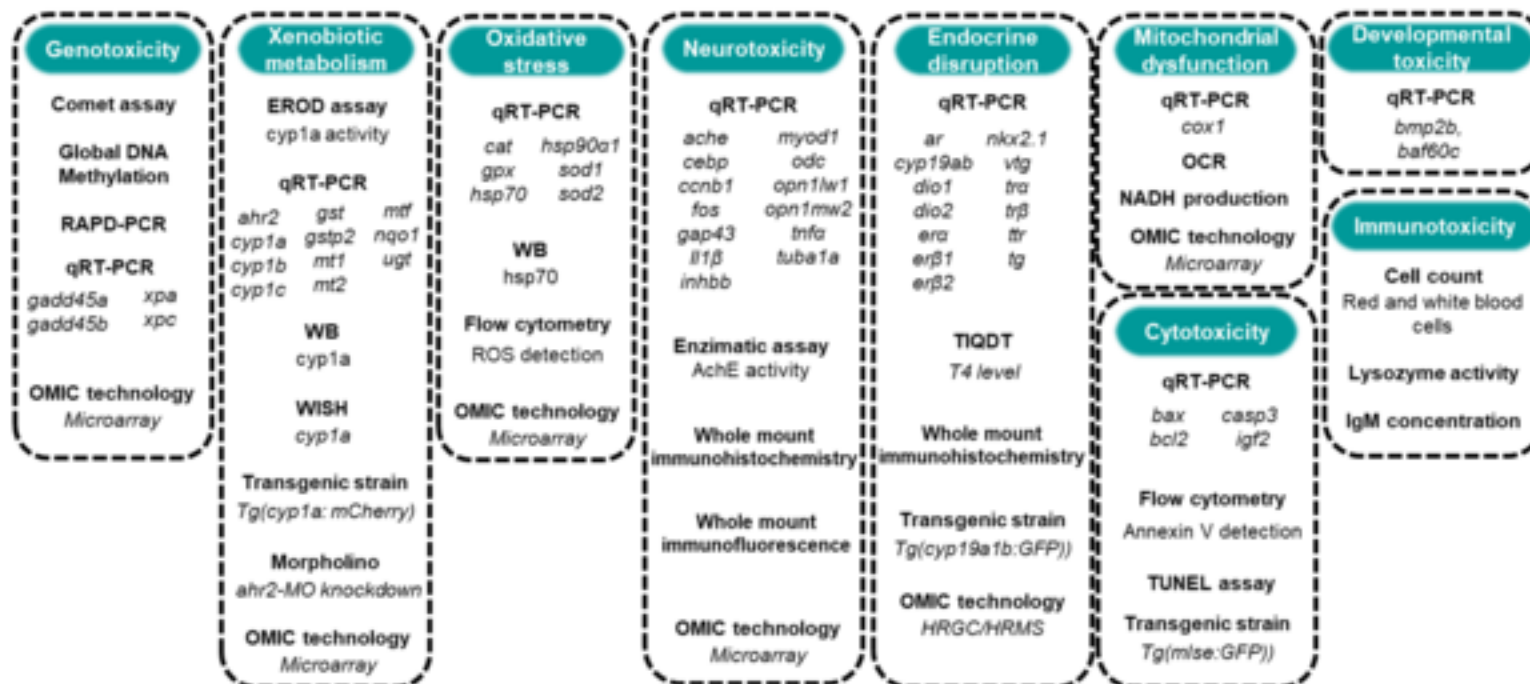


Figure 4











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Supplementary material for on-line publication only
Table S1.docx





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Supplementary material for on-line publication only
Table S2.docx

