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Keywords: Novel-tank diving test; T-maze test; Cu accumulation; Behaviour; Habituation; Conditioning.

Corresponding Author: Mr. Ali Pilehvar,

Corresponding Author's Institution:

First Author: Ali Pilehvar

Order of Authors: Ali Pilehvar; Raewyn M Town; Ronny Blust

Abstract: Copper is an essential element in many biological processes, but may exert toxic effects at levels surplus to metabolic requirements. Herein we assess the effect of copper on zebrafish behaviour using two assays, namely the novel tank diving test and a T-maze test with food reward. Novel tank diving tests were conducted on days 0, 4, and 10 of a 10 day Cu exposure (at concentrations of 0.77 μM (25% of the 240 hr LC50) and 1.52 μM (50% of the 240 hr LC50) to assess the alterations of behavioural responses in repeating novel tank diving assays and the effect of Cu on these patterns. Results demonstrate habituation to novelty, which is an indicator of spatial memory. Copper exposure had no effect on the latency of entry into the upper zones of the tank, nor on the total time spent therein, but did cause a greater number of freezing bouts in comparison to the control group. Additionally, Cu exposure had no effect on the habituation responses of zebrafish. Using the T-maze assay, we tested the effect of prior exposure to Cu for 10 days on subsequent behavioural trainings. The T-maze protocol was based on associative learning, where a visual stimulus (colour) was linked with a natural stimulus (food). Results of the control group showed that zebrafish are able to perform associative learning tasks. Moreover, Cu was found to negatively affect the associative learning capabilities. Specifically, while zebrafish in the control group achieved a significant number of correct choices (leading to food reward) throughout the T-maze training, such a trend was not observed for Cu exposed fish. Thus at the exposure concentrations and exposure times considered herein, Cu has no determinative impact on instinctual behavioural responses of zebrafish in repeated novel tank diving assays but does limit the associative learning capabilities.

*Highlights (for review)

- Zebrafish showed robust habituation responses in novel tank assays.
- Copper exposure did not affect behavioural responses in repeated novel tank assays.
- Zebrafish were able to perform associative learning tasks in the T-maze assay.
- Copper exposure decreased the learning abilities of zebrafish.

1 **The effect of copper on behaviour, memory, and associative learning ability**
2 **of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*)**

3

4 Ali Pilehvar^{a,*}, Raewyn M. Town^a and Ronny Blust^a

5 ^a*Systemic, Physiological and Ecotoxicological Research (SPHERE), Department of Biology, University*
6 *of Antwerp, Groenenborgerlaan 171, 2020 Antwerp, Belgium*

7 * Corresponding Author

8 ali.pilehvar@uantwerpen.be

9 Tel: +3232653779

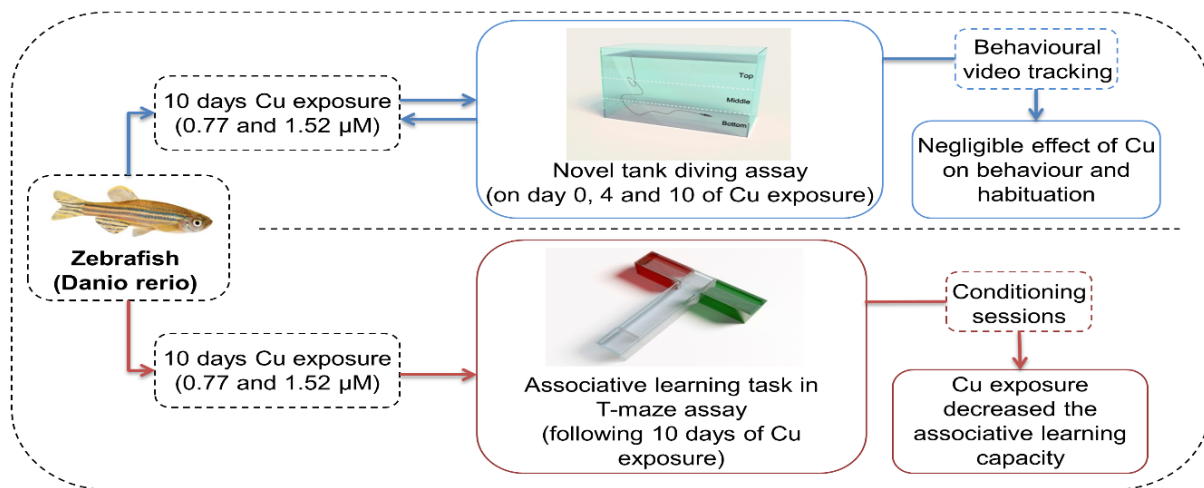
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28 zebrafish in the control group achieved a significant number of correct choices (leading to
29 food reward) throughout the T-maze training, such a trend was not observed for Cu exposed
30 fish. Thus at the exposure concentrations and exposure times considered herein, Cu has no
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33

34 **Graphical abstract**



35

36

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 38 Conditioning.

39

40 **1. Introduction:**

41 Zebrafish has become a valuable vertebrate model organism in a wide range of biological
 42 disciplines including neurobehavioural toxicology studies (Kalueff et al., 2016). Multiple
 43 behavioural assays have demonstrated the effect of various anxiolytic or anxiogenic
 44 compounds, e.g. nicotine (Levin et al., 2007), chlordiazepoxide (Sackerman et al., 2010), and
 45 caffeine (Wong et al., 2010) on zebrafish behavioural responses. However, there is a paucity
 46 of information on the effect of metals on the behavioural phenotypes of zebrafish. Metals
 47 are well known neurotoxicants that can affect animal behaviour (for review see Pyle and
 48 Ford, 2017).

49 The concentration of many metals can be increased in aquatic ecosystems due to
 50 anthropogenic activities such as mining, industrial and domestic waste emission, sewage
 51 sludge discharge, etc. (Förstner and Wittmann, 2012). Thus, it is crucial to understand the
 52 mechanisms of metal toxicity in a wide range of aquatic organisms. Copper (Cu) is one of the
 53 essential trace elements contributing as a cofactor in a wide range of biological processes in
 54 the body including formation of many enzymes and glycoproteins, cellular respiration,
 55 function of nervous system, erythropoiesis and melanin synthesis (Kamunde and Wood,
 56 2004). However, in concentrations above the metabolic requirements it may become toxic
 57 for fish in a variety of ways, e.g. by production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Bopp et al.,
 58 2008) and ionoregulatory disruption, in particular, impairment of branchial sodium (Na)
 59 influx through the effect on Na-K-ATPase (Grosell and Wood, 2002). Moreover, it is evident
 60 that Cu has detrimental neurological effects: it impairs olfaction via accumulation in the
 61 olfactory epithelium and it acts on the molecular signal transduction pathway which inhibits

62 the signal propagation from the sensory epithelium to the brain (Pyle and Mirza, 2007).
63 Copper also downregulates genes related to calcium channels and ion transport, g-proteins,
64 and olfactory receptors (Tilton et al., 2008). Since the ability to detect the olfactory cues is
65 crucial for processes such as food detection, predator avoidance and mating, Cu induced
66 olfactory impairment may affect many behavioural aspects of fish biology (Grosell, 2011).
67 Indeed Cu has detrimental effects on a wide range of neuro-sensory processes
68 encompassing appetite, vision, olfaction, cognition and etc. (Doria et al., 2018). Aversive
69 memory assessment has shown that Cu contamination at a concentration of 9 µg/L (0.14 µM)
70 disrupts the response to novelty and fear conditioning memory in zebrafish (Acosta et al.,
71 2016). Furthermore, a 24 h exposure to Cu (0.006 mg/L, 0.09 µM) prior to a behavioural
72 assay (novel tank diving test) was found to significantly decrease the total distance travelled
73 by zebrafish, suggesting Cu induced impairment of locomotor patterns of zebrafish
74 (Haverroth et al., 2015). However, the effect of continuous Cu exposure concomitant with
75 behavioural assays has not yet been characterised.

76 Behavioural assays have been widely used to evaluate the effect of various pollutants on
77 behavioural paradigms of aquatic organisms (Toft and Guillette, 2005, Cresci et al., 2018). In
78 the present study, we evaluate the effect Cu exposure on behaviour, memory and
79 conditioned learning capacities of zebrafish utilizing two behavioural assays: a novel tank
80 test and a visual discrimination learning test with a T-maze. The novel tank diving test is
81 based on an instinctual tendency of zebrafish to dive to the bottom of a novel environment
82 and remain there until they gradually acclimate to the new environment and feel safe to
83 start exploring and swim in the upper parts of the tank (Levin et al., 2007, Egan et al., 2009).
84 Thus, endpoints such as increased latency to enter the upper zones of the tank, reduced
85 exploration and decreased time spent in the upper zones are considered as indicators of
86 anxiety in fish (Levin et al., 2007). In order to examine the impact of Cu exposure on
87 habituation responses of zebrafish, we have conducted repeated novel tank diving tests
88 during the Cu exposure. Habituation occurs in a wide range of species and neurobehavioral
89 disciplines (Thompson and Spencer, 1966). Moreover, habituation to novelty is often
90 considered as an indicator of spatial memory. Robust habituation responses of zebrafish
91 have already been reported previously within and between the novel tank sessions (Wong
92 et al., 2010).

93 The effect of Cu on the associative learning and memory abilities of zebrafish was assessed
94 by the T-maze test. The protocol is based on Pavlovian conditioning, a form of learning in
95 which a neutral or arbitrary stimulus (conditioned stimulus; e.g., green colour) becomes
96 associated with a stimulus of some significance to the animal (unconditioned stimulus; e.g.,
97 food), so that the conditioned stimulus becomes synonymous with the unconditioned one,
98 thereby evoking the same innate, reflexive behavioural responses, e.g., food seeking (Gould,
99 2011). Associative learning exploiting food rewards has been studied in detail in zebrafish
100 (e.g. Sison and Gerlai, 2010). To evaluate the effect of Cu exposure on associative learning
101 abilities of zebrafish in present study, zebrafish were exposed to Cu prior to the visual

102 discriminative learning test conducted based on standard protocol described by Colwill et al.
103 (2005).

104 Finally, we have measured the whole body metal burden of zebrafish at the end of the
105 experiment to assess the link between the metal accumulation and behavioural phenotypes
106 of zebrafish under metal exposure. By integrating the results of present study we aimed to
107 unveil the effect of Cu exposure (simultaneous and prior) on zebrafish behavioural
108 paradigms.

109 **2. Materials and methods**

110 **2.1. Ethical statement**

111 All the experimental protocols of this study were approved by the Ethical Committee for
112 Animal Testing (ECD) of the University of Antwerp and conducted according to the
113 guidelines of the Federation of European Laboratory Animal Science Associations (FELASA).

114 **2.2. Animal maintenance**

115 Adult wild type and experimentally naive zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) were obtained from the
116 University of Antwerp zebrafish facility and were given 3 weeks to acclimate to laboratory
117 conditions. They were housed in glass aquariums filled with US-EPA medium hard water
118 (NaHCO_3 : 96 mg/L; $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$: 60 mg/L; MgSO_4 : 60 mg/L; KCl 4 mg/L; pH: 7.4-7.8; water
119 hardness: 80-100 mg/L CaCO_3) at 28 °C with the density of 2 fish/L (Lawrence, 2007). The
120 pre-acclimation as well as experimental procedures were conducted in a temperature
121 controlled chamber (Type WT15'+5DU-WB, Weiss Technik, Reiskirchen-Lindenstruth,
122 Germany) with a photoperiod of 14h light: 10h dark (lights on at 8:00 am) and the
123 temperature set at 28 °C. The aquarium water was constantly aerated using an air stone,
124 mechanically and biologically filtered, and ammonia, nitrite and nitrate levels were
125 monitored using TetraTest (Tetra®, Melle, Germany) and always kept under the harmful
126 level for zebrafish (Lawrence, 2007). The fish were fed once a day, ad libitum with Sera
127 vipan® (Heinsberg, Germany) flakes and after 15 minutes the remaining food was removed.

128 **2.3. Experimental procedure**

129 2.3.1. Novel tank diving test

130 2.3.1.1. Chemicals and metal exposure

131 After the pre-acclimation period, a total number of 30 zebrafish were divided into 3
132 experimental treatments: (i) Control (no added metals in the exposure water), (ii) 0.77 μM
133 Cu (*ca.* 50 μg Cu/L; as $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$, Sigma-Aldrich®, MO, USA) and (iii) 1.52 μM Cu (*ca.* 100
134 μg Cu/L) for 10 days. Throughout the remainder of the text, we use Cu to refer to dissolved
135 copper. Previous work in our lab has determined the 240 hr LC50 of Cu in the same medium
136 hard water to be 2.9 μM ; thus the selected Cu concentrations correspond to 25% and 50%

137 of the 240 hr LC50 value. The 10 day duration of metal exposure is sufficient to ensure
138 attainment of the incipient lethal level in fish (e.g. Stubblefield et al., 1999). The metal
139 exposures were conducted in polypropylene aquaria concomitant with the behavioural
140 assays. The water was constantly aerated using an air pipe but not filtered and it was 100%
141 renewed every second day with water of the same metal concentration. The zebrafish were
142 fed minimally (\approx 1% of body weight) during the 10 days of metal exposure to avoid
143 increased levels of ammonia and dissolved organic matter. During the 10 days of metal
144 exposure mortalities were recorded every 12 hours and dead fish were removed and kept
145 frozen at -20°C until the end of the experiment.

146 2.3.1.2. Apparatus and behavioural testing

147 The novel tank diving test was conducted according to the previously described standard
148 protocols (Cachat et al., 2010, Levin et al., 2007, Sackerman et al., 2010). During the
149 experimental phase (metal exposure and behavioural assay) zebrafish were housed
150 individually to enable the behaviour of each individual fish to be tracked throughout the
151 experiment and also to reduce the schooling behaviour (Gleason et al., 1977). Thus each
152 individual serves as a replicate, i.e., $n = 10$ for each treatment. One novel diving tank test
153 was conducted on day 0, day 4 and day 10 of Cu exposure. The procedure involved gently
154 removing fish from the exposure aquarium and introducing them to the rectangular test
155 tank ($29 \times 14 \times 19 \text{ cm}^3$; length \times width \times height), where their behaviour was recorded for 5
156 minutes by a digital camera (Casio[®] Exilim EX-F1) placed in front of the observation tank.
157 The test tank was a glass aquarium filled maximally (7 L) with the home tank water
158 (containing Cu for Cu exposed groups) and was virtually divided into 3 equal horizontal
159 zones. On day 0, zebrafish in Cu treatments, introduced to Cu exposed water inside the
160 observation tank for the first time and then transferred to home tank containing Cu for the
161 rest of the experimental phase. The test tank was placed on a stable surface and all the
162 environmental distractions were kept at minimal level. After each session (for each
163 individual fish), the observation tank was rinsed with clean water to remove any chemical
164 cues which may affect the behavioural patterns of the zebrafish and refilled with clean
165 water. On each observation day, the behavioural testing started with zebrafish in the
166 control group, followed by the $0.77 \mu\text{M}$ Cu exposed fish and then the $1.52 \mu\text{M}$ Cu group. At
167 the end of the each test day, the observation tank was acid washed to remove any Cu
168 contamination. As previously described by Cachat et al. (2010) and implemented by several
169 others (Egan et al., 2009, Wong et al., 2010) we recorded a combination of behavioural
170 parameters of zebrafish in the novel tank diving test by automated video tracking
171 (Behaviorcloud[©], OH, USA) or manual registration including: total distance travelled,
172 average velocity, time spent in the upper 2/3 of the tank, latency of entry into the upper
173 zone of the tank, and the number of freezing bouts. Freezing was defined as a period of
174 immobility for at least 1 s, characterized by total absence of movement, except for the gills
175 and the eyes.

176 2.3.2. T-maze test

177 *2.3.2.1. Chemicals and metal exposure*

178 The same metal exposure procedure as for the novel tank test was applied (Section 2.3.1.1)
179 with one exception: the zebrafish were exposed to Cu for 10 days prior to the behavioural
180 assays (see section 2.3.2.2), and then were subsequently maintained and tested in clean
181 water. In the T-maze assay, a 10 day exposure to Cu was conducted prior to the behavioural
182 testing in order to evaluate the alterations of the associative learning abilities of zebrafish
183 during a recovery phase of a prior Cu exposure. The selected Cu exposure concentrations
184 resulted in higher levels of Cu in the bodies of exposed fish compared to control fish
185 throughout the duration of the experiment.

186 *2.3.2.2. Apparatus and behavioural testing*

187 Following the metal exposure, all of the fish were transferred to and maintained in a home
188 tank containing clean water throughout the performance of a T-maze visual discrimination
189 learning task. The T-maze assay was conducted according to the protocol defined by Colwill
190 et al. (2005) with some modifications in the choice of the colour pair used for the T-maze
191 sleeves (red and green instead of purple and green or blue and red). The test tank was a
192 custom made T-shaped transparent plexiglass maze equipped with two removable colour
193 sleeves (green and red) to fit around the arms (Fig. 1). The depth of the maze was 10 cm and
194 it was filled to a height of 8 cm with clean water adjusted to the home tank conditions (7.2
195 L). At the stem of the maze an area measuring 10 cm × 10 cm × 10 cm could be closed off to
196 form a start box. Plexiglass doors were used to isolate the arms of the maze from the stem.
197 Two digital timers were used to time the events and the food rewards (Sera vipan® flakes,
198 Heinsberg, Germany) were delivered using stainless steel tweezers. In the T-maze assay, fish
199 received food only during the daily training sessions and were not fed in the home tank.
200 Additionally, the training sessions were recorded using a digital camera (Casio® Exilim EX-F1)
201 mounted above the T-maze as a means to verify manual observations.

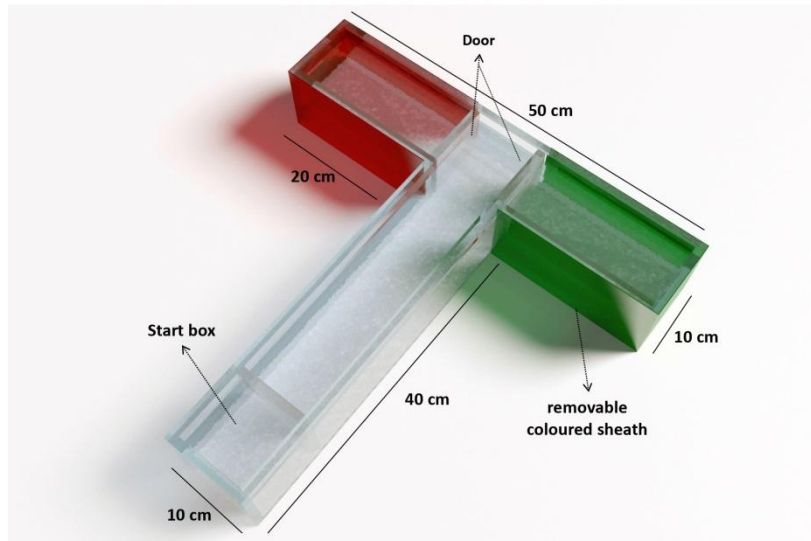


Fig. 1. The schematic view of the configuration and dimensions of the tank used for the T-maze test. The arms of the maze were equipped with removable coloured sheaths (red and green).

202

203 The entire behavioural assay was conducted over 25 days and consisted of three phases as
204 follows: (i) Pre-training: a period of two days during which one session per day of
205 conditioning in the T-maze without the colour stimulus was applied for each subject. A
206 session consisted of two subsequent trials with a 30 s interval between each trial. In each of
207 the trials, one of the maze arms was barred while the opposite arm was open. At the start of
208 the trial, 2 minutes were given to the fish to acclimatize to the novel environment in the
209 start box (Colwill et al. 2005). After the acclimation period, the door of the start box was
210 opened and then closed immediately after the fish left the box. As soon as the fish entered
211 the open arm the door was closed and food was rewarded. Whether the fish consumed the
212 food reward or not, latency to leave the start box and the total time taken to complete the
213 trial were recorded for each trial. (ii) Discrimination: a period of 16 days in which the side
214 arms were lined with red and green sleeves and zebrafish were given a choice between the
215 two coloured arms. One discrimination session was conducted on each of the 16 days; each
216 session consisted of 4 trials with a 30 s interval between each trial. For each trial the
217 position of the colour sleeves on the T-maze left and right arms was altered based on the
218 pattern specified in the protocol: RGGRGRRG (Colwill et al. 2005). After the 2 minutes
219 acclimation period in the start box, the door was opened and the fish were allowed to swim
220 into one of the coloured arms. As soon as the fish entered one of the arms the door was
221 closed and a correct colour choice was awarded with food. Incorrect colour choices led to a
222 correction procedure, i.e. the trial was repeated with the wrong colour arm closed, thus the
223 only available option was to swim into the correct coloured arm and receive the food
224 reward. The correction procedure itself did not constitute a trial round. For half of the fish
225 in each treatment ($n = 5$) red was designated as the correct colour while for the other half
226 green was designated as the correct choice leading to food reward. Food consumption, time
227 to leave the start box and enter an arm, as well as the colour of the arm chosen was

228 recorded in discrimination trials. (iii) Extinction: a period of 7 days in which the same
229 procedure as the discrimination training was performed with two exceptions: no food
230 reward and no correction rounds were given. On each of the 7 days, each subject was tested
231 with one extinction session comprising 4 trials.

232 In the T-maze assay the fish were also housed individually during the experimental phase
233 (metal exposure and behavioural assay). Thus each zebrafish is a replicate, i.e., $n = 10$ for
234 each treatment. After each trial the maze tank was rinsed with clean water to remove any
235 remaining food odours and/or chemical cues from the tank, and refilled with clean water.

236 The T-maze assay was designed to assess the learning abilities of zebrafish in recognition of
237 the colour leading to food reward (discrimination training) and to evaluate the strength of
238 the formed conditioning in the absence of the unconditioned stimulus (extinction training).

239 2.3.3. Sampling and analytical procedure

240 During the metal exposure, water samples from the home tank were collected once a day
241 (after feeding and prior to water change on water renewal days) from each tank to
242 determine the dissolved metal concentrations. Water samples were filtered using a 0.2 μm
243 syringe filter (Acrodisc[®], Supor Membrane; PALL life sciences), acidified to 2 % H^+ with trace-
244 metal-grade HNO_3 (69 %) and kept at 4 °C until the analysis. The concentrations of Cu and
245 major ions in the exposure media were determined using inductively coupled plasma-mass
246 spectrometry (7700x ICP-MS, Agilent Technologies[®]) and Inductively coupled plasma
247 optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, iCAP6300 Duo, Thermo Scientific[®]) respectively. At
248 the end of the experiment, zebrafish were euthanized by a lethal dose of tricaine
249 methanesulfonate (MS-222) solution (0.3 g/L) (Matthews and Varga, 2012). The fish samples
250 were then weighed to obtain the fresh weight, oven dried (60 °C, 48 h) and digested by
251 adding 2 ml of nitric acid (HNO_3 , 69%) and 0.5 ml of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2 , 30%) in a hot
252 block (Environmental Express SC154[®]). Whole body Cu concentration was determined by
253 ICP-MS and calculated on a dry weight basis. Blanks and certificated reference material
254 (SRM-2976, mussel tissue, National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg,
255 MD 20899, USA) were included in all series of metal analysis to validate the accuracy of the
256 analytical procedure. Recoveries were within 5% of certified values.

257 2.4. Statistical analysis

258 Statistical analyses were conducted using GraphPad Prism 8.0.2 software (GraphPad
259 software, CA, USA). Data were tested for normality of distribution using the D'Agostino-
260 Pearson test. The experiments were conducted in a repeated design: each individual fish
261 was measured 3 times in the novel tank diving test or received several training sessions in
262 the T-maze assay. Accordingly, a two-way repeated measures analysis of variance, RM-
263 ANOVA, with Geisser-Greenhouse correction followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test
264 was done to analyse the behavioural variables of novel tank test and response time in T-

265 maze test. To compare the percentage of correct choices between two sessions in T-maze
 266 experiment, a two tailed Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test was used. The whole
 267 body Cu burden of the zebrafish in different treatments were compared using two-way
 268 ANOVA (with Cu treatment and the behavioural assay as the two factors) followed by
 269 Tukey’s multiple comparisons test.

270 3. Results

271 3.1. Exposure medium composition

272 The average total dissolved Cu and major ion concentrations measured in the exposure
 273 medium during 10 days of metal exposure in the 3 different treatments (for both novel tank
 274 and T-maze assays) are presented in Table 1.

275 **Table 1.** Mean (\pm SD) concentrations of dissolved Cu and major ions in the exposure medium during 10 days of
 276 exposure (sample size, $n = 10$).

Treatment	Average measured concentration of Cu and major ions ($\mu\text{M}\pm\text{SD}$)				
	Cu	Na	K	Mg	Ca
Control	BQL ⁽¹⁾	1025.1 \pm 24.8	65.7 \pm 3.1	520 \pm 10.2	395.5 \pm 17.2
Cu (low)	0.77 \pm 0.07	1028.3 \pm 29.1	64.1 \pm 3.5	518.9 \pm 13.4	396.6 \pm 20.2
Cu (high)	1.52 \pm 0.1	1028.4 \pm 27.3	64.7 \pm 3.7	538.8 \pm 11.7	394.7 \pm 19.6

277 ⁽¹⁾ below quantification limit of ICP-MS ($1.5 \times 10^{-3} \mu\text{M}$).

278 3.2. Survival

279 As expected, no mortality was observed in zebrafish exposed to 0.77 μM Cu, while the
 280 survival rate decreased to 90% in zebrafish exposed to 1.52 μM Cu in both behavioural
 281 assays. Specifically one fish died at 108 hr in the novel tank assay and at 60 hr in the T-maze
 282 test. However, no significant difference between mortality curves of the control and
 283 exposed fish was detected (Log-rank [Mantel-Cox] test).

284 3.3. Novel tank diving test

285 Results of screening behavioural phenotypes of zebrafish in novel tank test are presented in
 286 Fig. 2. Neither Cu treatment, nor repetition of the assay affected the total distance travelled
 287 by zebrafish (Fig. 2A). Two-way RM-ANOVA showed that repetition of the assay significantly
 288 affected the time spent in the upper zone of the tank ($p < 0.0001$), latency to enter the
 289 upper zone ($p < 0.0001$), and the number of the freezing bouts ($p < 0.001$). The Cu
 290 treatment had a significant impact on freezing bouts only ($p < 0.05$). Moreover, two-way
 291 RM-ANOVA revealed a significant interactive effect of Cu treatment and time (repeated
 292 tests over subsequent days) on zebrafish average velocity ($p < 0.05$). The 1.52 μM Cu

293 exposed zebrafish had a significantly lower velocity at day 10 in comparison to control fish
294 at the same day (Fig 2B). The time spent in the upper zone significantly increase in all
295 treatments at day 4 and day 10 compared to the same treatment at day 0. No significant
296 effect of Cu exposure was observed at each specific day of the novel tank test between
297 treatments (Fig. 2C). The latency to enter the upper zone decreased constantly over time in
298 all 3 treatments, however, it was only significantly lower at day 10 compared to day 0 (Fig.
299 2D). Finally, the number of the freezing bouts decreased over subsequent days in control
300 fish and it was significantly lower at day 10 compared to day 0, while no significant effect of
301 time was found on freezing bouts in Cu treatments. On day 4, the number of the freezing
302 bouts was significantly higher in the 1.52 μ M Cu exposed group compared to control fish at
303 the same day (Fig. 2E).

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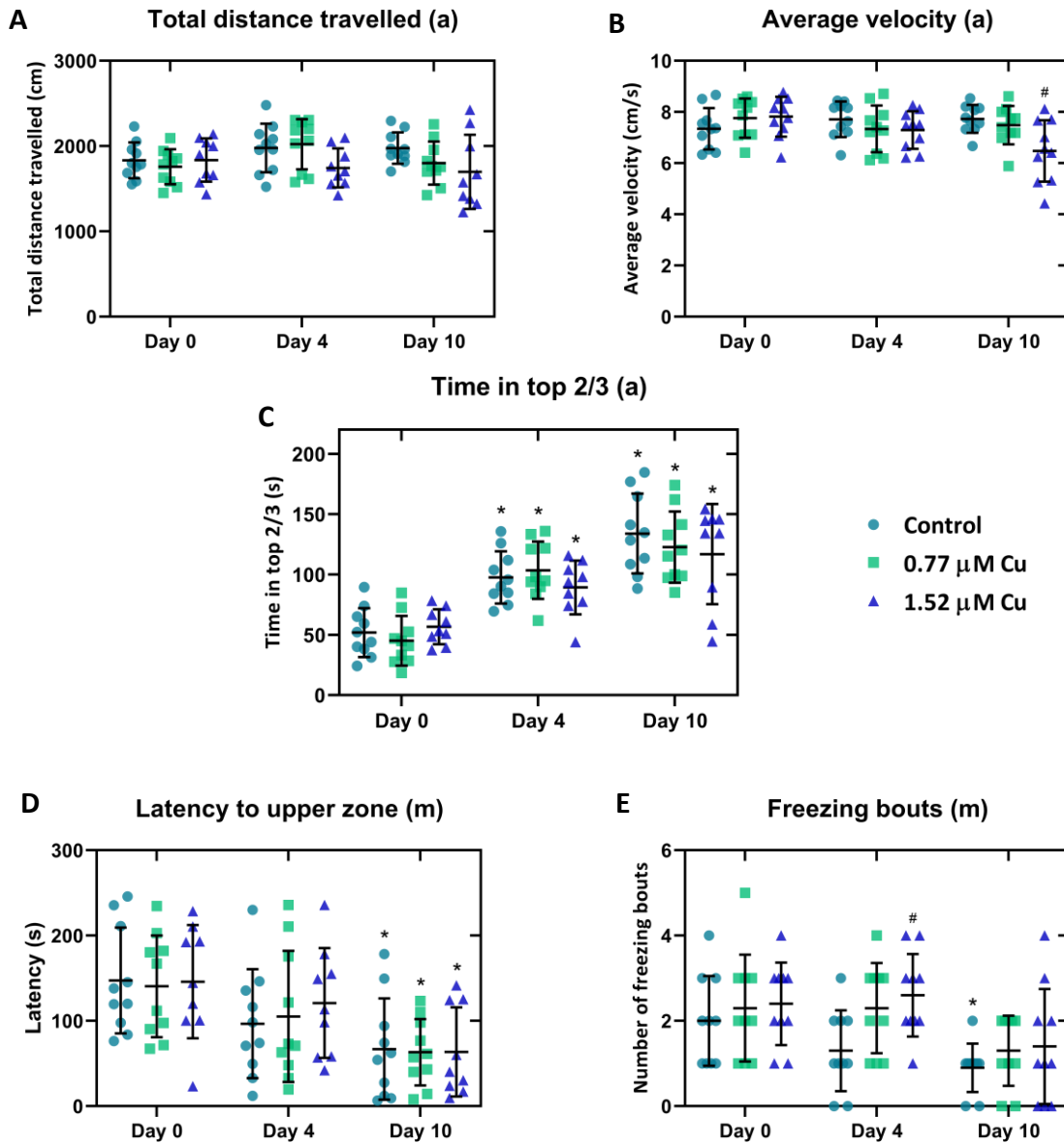


Fig. 2. Behavioural responses of zebrafish in the novel tank test on day 0, day 4 and day 10 of a simultaneous Cu exposure utilizing automated (a) or manual (m) registrations (each data point represents an individual fish and the bars on each group denote the mean \pm SD for that treatment). Data for surviving fish (replicates, $n = 10$ for the control and 0.77 μM Cu treatment; $n = 9$ for the 1.52 μM Cu treatment). * indicates a significant ($p < 0.05$) difference of a treatment compared to same treatment at day (0). # indicates a significant ($p < 0.05$) difference of a treatment compared to control group at the same day (two-way RM-ANOVA).

305

306

307 3.4. T-maze test

308 The average time taken for zebrafish to complete the trial for each session is presented in
 309 Fig. 3. There was a significant (two-way RM-ANOVA) decrease in the response time of

310 zebrafish over the 2 pre-training sessions ($p < 0.0001$), in addition Cu treatment also
 311 affected this endpoint in this phase significantly ($p < 0.05$). This trend partially occurred in
 312 the discrimination sessions as well, where the response time strongly decreased over the
 313 first few sessions and then remained approximately constant. Again, both time and
 314 treatment significantly affect this endpoint in the discrimination phase ($p < 0.0001$ for both
 315 factors). During the discrimination phase in all 3 treatments, the average time taken for
 316 zebrafish to complete the trial was significantly lower at the final session 16 compared to
 317 session 1 of the same treatment. In the extinction phase, while time was not a
 318 determinative factor anymore (i.e. no significant variations over the sessions), Cu treatment
 319 still significantly affected the endpoint ($p < 0.0001$). Overall, while all 3 treatments
 320 presented a similar trend over the sessions (pre-training, discrimination and extinction), the
 321 time taken for the 1.52 μM Cu exposed zebrafish to complete the trial was often higher than
 322 that for the 0.77 μM Cu and control groups Fig. 3. While fish in the control and 0.77 μM Cu
 323 groups consumed the food rewards in 100% of the trials, the 1.52 μM Cu exposed fish did
 324 not eat the food in 8.5% of discrimination trials.

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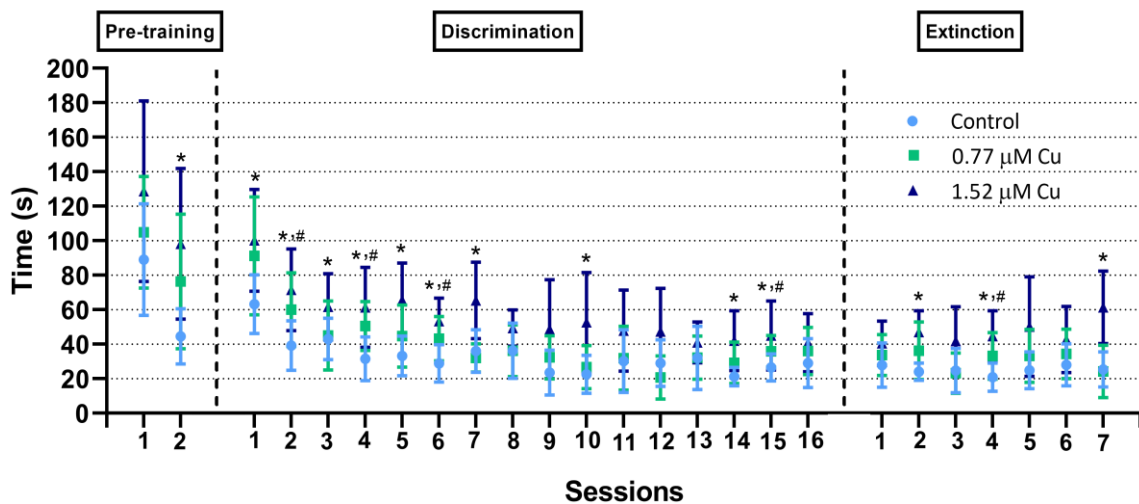


Fig. 3. The average time taken for zebrafish to complete each trial (excl. correction trials) in pre-training, discrimination and extinction sessions (data are presented as means \pm SD; data for surviving fish; replicates, $n = 10$ for the control and 0.77 μM Cu treatment; $n = 9$ for 1.52 μM Cu treatment). * and # indicate significant ($p < 0.05$) difference of 1.52 μM Cu and 0.77 μM Cu in comparison to the control group at the same session respectively (two-way RM-ANOVA).

326

327 An overview of the mean percentage of correct choices among the coloured arms, over the
 328 discrimination and extinction sessions is presented in Fig. 4. In each treatment, half of the
 329 zebrafish were trained to pick red as the colour for the food reward (Red+) while for the
 330 other half green was designated as the correct choice (Green+). In discrimination trainings,
 331 in all 3 treatments, zebrafish showed an increased number of correct choices over the
 332 subsequent sessions and the percent of mean correct choices were above the chance level

333 (50%) at the last session. The learning curve had a steeper ascending slope in the control
334 group compared to Cu exposed groups. In all treatments, zebrafish started with a mean
335 correct choice slightly above or below the chance level (depending on the colour trained for)
336 and finished the discrimination trials by reaching up to 80% and 60% mean percent correct
337 choice for the control and Cu exposed groups respectively (Fig. 4A). The statistical
338 comparison (two tailed Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test) of the mean percentage
339 of correct choices between the first and last discrimination session among each treatment
340 revealed that there is a significant increase in the number of correct choices made by
341 control group ($p < 0.05$) while this was not significant for Cu exposed zebrafish ($p = 0.0938$
342 and $p = 0.1250$ at Cu concentrations of $0.77 \mu\text{M}$ and $1.52 \mu\text{M}$ respectively). Moreover,
343 zebrafish showed a minor instinctual preference towards red colour, however they could
344 overcome this preference over the training sessions and the amount of choices for green or
345 red were comparable at the last discrimination sessions. This preference was not affected
346 by the Cu exposure (Fig. 4). The first extinction session is generally considered as the test
347 session and fish in the control group confirmed that zebrafish can learn a visual
348 discrimination task by performing correct choices up to 80%. For $0.77 \mu\text{M}$ Cu exposed
349 zebrafish this value decreased in the first session of the extinction phase but was still above
350 the random chance level (50%). In the $1.52 \mu\text{M}$ Cu exposed group, the zebrafish which were
351 trained to choose red as the correct choice showed a mean percent correct choice just
352 above the chance level (50%), however, the zebrafish trained to choose green failed the test
353 by obtaining a final mean percent correct choice below the chance level (Fig. 4B). The
354 statistical analyses showed that, the number of correct choices made at the first session of
355 the extinction phase is significantly higher than the first session of the discrimination phase
356 in control group, such an effect was not observed for the Cu treatments. Throughout the
357 extinction sessions and in the absence of food rewards, the mean percent correct choice
358 curves followed a descending slope in all 3 treatments and for both colours (Fig. 4B).

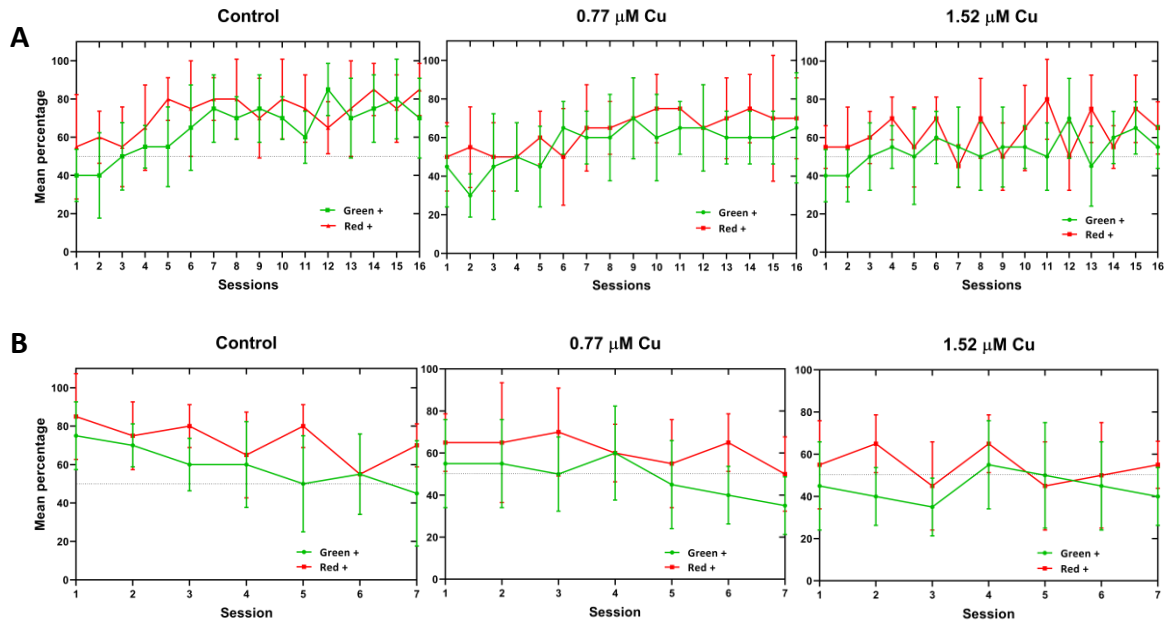


Fig. 4. Mean percentage of correct choice for zebrafish in (A) discrimination and (B) extinction sessions. The dotted line indicates random chance level (50%). Values are means \pm SD (data for surviving fish; replicates, $n = 5$ for [Green +] and [Red +] groups in the control and 0.77 μM Cu treatment; $n = 4$ for [Green +] and $n = 5$ for [Red +] groups in 1.52 μM Cu treatment).

359

360 3.5. Whole body burden of Cu

361 The whole body burden of Cu in zebrafish trained in the novel tank and T-maze tasks are
 362 presented in Fig. 5. The Cu burden was significantly (two-way ANOVA) higher in 0.77 μM
 363 and 1.52 μM Cu exposed groups compared to the control group in both assays.
 364 Furthermore, the Cu burden in Cu exposed fish in the T-maze test was significantly lower
 365 compared to the group exposed to same concentration in the novel tank test (Fig. 5). This
 366 effect is mainly linked to the period (25 days) that zebrafish were in clean water (following
 367 the 10 day metal exposure) during the behavioural trainings of T-maze assay and
 368 subsequent elimination of part of the Cu.

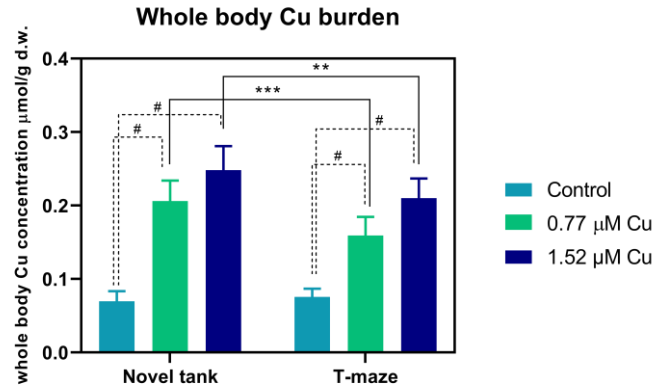


Fig. 5. Whole body Cu burden of zebrafish trained in novel tank and T-maze assays at the end of the experiment. Values are means \pm SD (data for surviving fish; replicates, $n = 10$ for the control and $0.77 \mu\text{M Cu}$ treatment; $n = 9$ for $1.52 \mu\text{M Cu}$ treatment). ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ and # $p < 0.0001$.

369

370 4. Discussion

371 Zebrafish behaviour has been studied extensively in various behavioural assays (e.g. Bault
372 et al., 2015). Moreover, it has been shown that zebrafish have a remarkable capacity to
373 perform learning tasks (Sison and Gerlai, 2010, Arthur and Levin, 2001).

374 Dissolved Cu in concentrations above the metabolic threshold can affect fish behaviour and
375 learning processes by impairing the neuro-physiological functions of the organism. For
376 example, it has been shown that Cu exposure, at concentrations of 0.22 , 0.34 , and $0.84 \mu\text{M}$
377 for 7 days, decreases serotonin and dopamine levels in the brain of common carp (*Cyprinus*
378 *carpio*) (De Boeck et al., 1995). These neurotransmitters have wide ranging impacts on fish
379 biology including the locomotion activity and behaviour (Winberg and Nilsson, 1993). Also,
380 the dopaminergic system has been found to modulate different aspects of learning and
381 memory in zebrafish (Naderi et al., 2016). Moreover, exposure to waterborne Cu at
382 concentrations of 0.3 and $1.6 \mu\text{M}$ for 10 days was reported to cause some histopathological
383 damage to brain tissue of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Al-Bairuty et al., 2013). The
384 aforementioned cases draw attention to Cu as a neuro-toxicant and its importance in
385 neurobehavioral toxicology. The goal of the present work is to explore whether copper
386 under sub-lethal and close to toxicity threshold scenarios has effects on a number of
387 behavioural traits as manifested in novel tank and T-maze tests.

388

389 In the present study, we evaluated (i) the effect of continuous Cu exposure over 10 days on
390 the concomitant behavioural responses of zebrafish to anxiety evoked by novelty via novel
391 tank assays repeated over the exposure period, and (ii) the effect of prior Cu exposure on
392 the learning capacities of zebrafish via T-maze assays.

393 4.1. Novel tank diving test

394 We monitored several behavioural traits of zebrafish in the control group (without Cu
395 exposure) upon their introduction to a novel environment. In addition, we evaluated the
396 effect of continuous (10 days) Cu exposure concomitant with repeated novel diving tank
397 assays on behavioural traits of zebrafish. The total distance travelled and the average
398 velocity are typically considered as the indicators of locomotor activity of fish, whereas, the
399 time spent in the upper zones of the tank, latency to enter the upper zones and the number
400 of freezing bouts are linked to the anxiety level and exploratory behaviour (Cachat et al.,
401 2010). In the present study, we have observed no significant effect of Cu treatment or
402 repeated sessions on total distance travelled by fish (Fig. 2A), although, there was a
403 relatively smaller distance covered by the 1.52 μM Cu exposed group at day 4 and 10. On
404 the other hand, whilst the control and 0.77 μM Cu treatments did not show a significant
405 variation in average velocity over the test sessions, exposing zebrafish to 1.52 μM of Cu
406 significantly decreased the average velocity at day 10 (Fig. 2B). In teleosts, decreased
407 swimming performance as a consequence of sub-lethal Cu toxicity has been reported in
408 several studies (e.g. De Boeck et al., 2006). De Boeck et al. (2006) proposed that reduction
409 of swimming performance in carp exposed to Cu could be explained by elevated ammonia
410 accumulation in the plasma and muscle tissue.

411 Latency to enter the upper zone decreased, and the total time spent therein increased with
412 subsequent sessions (Fig. 2C,D). This could be an indicator of habituation to novelty and
413 decreased anxiety levels in zebrafish as a result of repeated stimulation. Habituation is a
414 central neural process and is termed as “the simplest form of learning” (Rankin et al., 2009).
415 Our results complement the findings of Wong et al. (2010) who examined the intra- (per-
416 minute analysis of zebrafish behaviour during a 6 or 30 minute trial) and inter-session (daily
417 6 minute trials over 7 days) habituation in zebrafish utilizing the novel tank test. The authors
418 reported significant habituation responses of control groups of zebrafish in both assays.
419 Furthermore, in the same study, the effect of some anxiogenic (caffeine and
420 pentylenetetrazole) and anxiolytic (morphine and ethanol) compounds on the habituation
421 responses of zebrafish was investigated. The anxiogenic compounds suppressed the
422 habituation responses while the anxiolytic compounds appeared to have no effect. In the
423 present study, we have observed no significant effect of Cu treatment on these two
424 endpoints (total time spent and latency), nor on the habituation responses of zebrafish.
425 Finally, the number of freezing bouts in the control group decreased over the test sessions
426 and was significantly lower at day 10 which confirms the aforementioned habituation
427 hypothesis. Nevertheless, Cu exposure significantly affected this variable and the number of
428 freezing bouts observed in the 1.52 μM Cu group was significantly higher at day 4 compared
429 to the control group on the same day.

430 Other studies have shown that a 24 h 6 μg Cu/L (0.09 μM) exposure prior to the novel tank
431 test, significantly decreases the distance travelled and maximum speed of the zebrafish

432 (Haverroth et al., 2015). Additionally, the exposure increased the freezing duration and
433 decreased latency to enter the upper zone and the time spent in the upper zone, although,
434 these alterations were not significant compared to the control group (Haverroth et al.,
435 2015). In another report on the influence of Cu exposure (with concentrations ranging from
436 5 to 60 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (0.079-0.94 μM) for 96 h) on exploratory behaviour of zebrafish and response
437 to novelty by using a Y-maze test, none of the Cu exposures affected the locomotor activity
438 of adult zebrafish (distance travelled and average velocity). Moreover, only 60 $\mu\text{g/L}$
439 exposure altered the exploratory behaviour of zebrafish (time spent in the novel arm of the
440 Y-maze), while the other exposures (0, 5, 9 and 20 $\mu\text{g/L}$) had no significant impact on this
441 behaviour (Acosta et al., 2016).

442 Comparison of the various literature reports with the results of the present work requires
443 consideration of the different exposure times and Cu concentrations employed. For
444 example, the study of Haverroth et al. (2015) shows that a prior, short term (24 h) exposure
445 to a low concentration of Cu appears to have a more determinative impact on zebrafish
446 behavioural responses in the novel tank diving test. A possible explanation for this effect is
447 the time required for regulatory and detoxification mechanisms to become active. Thus, the
448 minimal effects of a prolonged exposure (4 or 10 days) to high Cu concentrations on
449 instinctual behavioural traits observed in the present work, and by others for 96 hr
450 exposures (Acosta et al., 2016) is ascribed to the efficacy of the activated regulatory and
451 detoxification procedures. The observation of an initial adverse effect at short exposure
452 times, followed by recovery, is a typical response to Cu exposure across many endpoints
453 (e.g. De Boeck et al., 2006).

454 Overall, in the present experiment, despite the significantly higher Cu accumulation in the
455 body of zebrafish exposed to Cu (0.77 or 1.52 μM) in comparison to the control group (Fig.
456 5), we have observed no effect of a sub-lethal (0.77 μM) concentration of Cu on the
457 locomotor or behavioural profiles of zebrafish. Although the higher concentration of Cu
458 (1.52 μM) suppressed the locomotor activity (especially velocity) of zebrafish, there was no
459 effect on exploratory variables (time spent in upper zone and latency). The only behavioural
460 variable affected by the 1.52 μM Cu exposure was the number of freezing bouts, which
461 transitionally increased on day 4 and decreased again on day 10 (Fig. 2E). Overall our results
462 indicated robust habituation responses of zebrafish to novelty. Moreover, despite the
463 relatively high Cu concentration applied in this work, no significant influence of Cu
464 exposures was observed on the behavioural traits of zebrafish in repeated novel tank diving
465 assays.

466 **4.2. T-maze test**

467 Discrimination learning capabilities of zebrafish and the effect of Cu exposure were assessed
468 by utilizing a T-maze test. The zebrafish were trained to differentiate the correct colour
469 choice leading to food reward. We used green and red as the pair of colour stimuli.
470 Zebrafish are very visually oriented and their eyes for a large part display the same

471 morphology and function as other vertebrates including humans (Glass and Dahm, 2004).
472 Zebrafish colour vision is tetrachromatic, that is, their retina possess four types of cone cells
473 sensitive to red, green, blue and ultraviolet (Robinson et al., 1993). Several studies have
474 addressed the inherent colour preference of zebrafish. For example, Jessica et al. (2015)
475 assessed the colour preference in zebrafish using a multiple chamber tank with different
476 environmental colour options, they found that zebrafish preferred blue and green and
477 avoided red and yellow. In another observation, using a two chambered place preference
478 apparatus with colour gravel and T-maze, a strong aversion toward blue colour was
479 observed relative to all other colours (red, yellow and green) when tested in combinations.
480 Moreover, while no biases over the other 3 colour combinations was noted in a place
481 preference assay, red and green were equally preferred and both were preferred over
482 yellow in a T-maze experiment (Avdesh et al., 2012). Spence and Smith (2008) tested
483 foraging biases of zebrafish by raising fish on diets consisting of different coloured food.
484 They reported that zebrafish showed a highly significant innate preference for red, which
485 was modified, but not superseded, by learning. Two explanations were offered for this
486 preference: first, the higher contrast of red colour against background illumination and
487 second, in ecological perspective, the pigmentation of neutral diet of zebrafish which is rich
488 in zooplankton. It has been shown that the predation risk of the zooplankton by zebrafish is
489 proportional to the degree of the red pigmentation in the body of the zooplankton. This
490 could explain the innate bias of zebrafish for the red colour (Spence and Smith 2008).
491 Finally, Bault et al. (2015) evaluated the colour preference of adult zebrafish and the effect
492 of Pb exposure during developmental stages on it by using a three-chambered apparatus
493 and 5 different colour stimuli (orange, yellow, green, blue and purple). Their results showed
494 a general preference for colours of shorter wavelengths, furthermore, they have shown that
495 developmental Pb exposure alters innate colour preference in adult male zebrafish. In the
496 present study, we have used green and red as colour stimulus to elucidate: (1) whether
497 zebrafish have an innate preference for one of the colours, (2) if they can overcome any
498 instinctive tendency by training, and (3) if Cu exposure affects any preference or not.

499 In the present experiment, the time taken for zebrafish to complete the trials decreased
500 over the pre-training and discrimination sessions until a plateau value was reached (Fig. 3).
501 This finding could be an indicator of habituation and spatial memory in zebrafish. The spatial
502 memory capabilities of zebrafish are well established (Sison and Gerlai, 2010, Arthur and
503 Levin, 2001). Copper treatment significantly affected this endpoint in all 3 training phases
504 and increased the response time. There are two possible explanations for this effect: Cu
505 impairs the spatial memory functions in zebrafish, and/or Cu impairs the locomotor system.
506 The latter effect was observed partially (only average velocity and only at the highest Cu
507 concentration) in the novel tank test, and can make the response time longer.

508 Throughout the discrimination sessions, the control group confirmed that zebrafish are able
509 to learn to discriminate between the two colour stimuli and to choose the colour leading to
510 food reward (Fig. 4A). The learning curve had an ascending slope in this group and the

511 average number of correct choices reached up to 80% at the last discrimination sessions.
512 Our findings in this part complement the previous studies on visual discrimination learning
513 capacities of zebrafish (Colwill et al., 2005, Arthur and Levin, 2001). Copper contamination
514 decelerated the learning curve and although the Cu exposed zebrafish (0.77 and 1.52 μM)
515 showed some preference for the correct colour throughout the discrimination sessions
516 (above the chance level, 50%), none of them reached a significant learning level at the end
517 of the discrimination sessions. The first extinction session is considered as the test session
518 (Colwill et al., 2005). In the present study, while the control fish showed a significant
519 acquisition of ability to discriminate colour for food reward, the Cu exposed zebrafish in
520 both groups did not show a significant learning performance in the first extinction session
521 (Fig. 4B). Copper has been suggested to negatively affect the function of the neuro-sensory
522 system of fishes in various aspects. It has been shown that waterborne Cu exposure (at
523 concentrations of 1-50 μM CuSO_4) impairs the function of the lateral line system in zebrafish
524 larvae by inducing cellular damage (Hernández et al., 2006). The effects of copper can also
525 be observed as cytopathological changes in the eye cornea of fish, suggesting impairment of
526 the visual system (Baatrup, 1991). Moreover, the Cu induced olfactory impairment is well
527 documented (Grosell, 2011). Finally, it has been suggested that Cu can affect the fish
528 foraging behaviour by causing cessation of feeding or reduced food consumption
529 (Sandheinrich and Atchison, 1990). Any one or combination of these effects may explain the
530 reduced rate of food consumption of 1.52 μM Cu exposed zebrafish in the present study,
531 which in turn can affect the formation of conditioning.

532 In the present work, the T-maze assay (over 25 days) was conducted in clean water
533 following an initial 10 day exposure to Cu. Thus interpretation of our results is confounded
534 by the potential recovery of the olfactory and other sensory systems during this period. It
535 has been suggested that the Cu induced olfactory impairment occurs rapidly (within
536 minutes) and persists for weeks or longer (Grosell, 2011). Several studies have addressed
537 the recovery time of the olfactory system following Cu exposure. For example, Saucier and
538 Astic (1995) studied the morpho-functional changes in the olfactory system of rainbow trout
539 (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) during a 40 week exposure to 20 μg Cu/L (0.31 μM) or 40 μg Cu/L
540 (0.63 μM). The time for the olfactory epithelium to recover was 6 weeks for the 20 μg Cu/L
541 exposed group and 14 weeks for the 40 μg Cu/L group. Beyers and Farmer (2001) showed
542 that recovery of olfactory functions is dependent on Cu exposure conditions (time and
543 concentration); based on literature review, they suggested that the regeneration of
544 olfactory cells after Cu exposure occurs within 8 days to 12 weeks. Accordingly, considering
545 the relatively high concentration and the duration of the applied Cu exposures in the
546 present work, the recovery of olfactory functions during the recovery phase (25 days) would
547 be negligible. The number of studies on the recovery of the other neuro-sensory functions
548 following Cu exposure is limited. Hernández et al. (2006) evaluated regeneration of the
549 neuromasts structure in the lateral line of the larval zebrafish during 5 days following 2 h of
550 Cu exposure (1-100 μM CuSO_4). The authors reported that, in anterior lateral line (ALL;

551 which covers the head) regeneration occurred in all applied concentrations, while, in
552 posterior lateral line (PLL; which covers the trunk and tail) regeneration did not occur above
553 a threshold concentration (50 μM CuSO_4). They also showed that in concentrations below
554 this threshold, the time of recovery was proportional to the applied Cu concentration.
555 Therefore, they concluded that in the PLL regeneration of neuromasts after copper
556 treatment is concentration dependent.

557 The number of correct choices decreased throughout the extinction sessions (Fig. 4B),
558 suggesting that the formed conditioning between the food and colour stimulus was
559 gradually extinguished in all 3 treatment groups in the absence of food reward. In the
560 present study, zebrafish showed a minor innate preference for red colour, however they
561 could overcome this bias throughout the discrimination sessions and the number of choices
562 for both colours was comparable at the end of the discrimination phase (especially for the
563 control group). The Cu exposure did not affect this preference in our study.

564 Overall, we have shown that zebrafish are able to perform associative learning tasks. In
565 addition, we have demonstrated that, prior exposure to both sub-lethal (0.77 μM) and close
566 to toxicity threshold (1.52 μM) concentrations of Cu can significantly limit the associative
567 learning capacities of zebrafish probably by impairing neuro-sensory as well as central
568 nervous system functions. The magnitude of the body burdens generated following
569 exposure to such high Cu concentrations appears to prevent significant recovery of the
570 sensory system within the 25 day test period.

571 **5. Conclusion**

572 Copper can affect a wide range of biological processes that may impact on behavioural
573 responses. We have assessed the effect of Cu on the behavioural paradigms and learning
574 capabilities of zebrafish by utilizing two well-known behavioural assays: the novel tank
575 diving test and the T-maze test. Our findings in the novel tank test demonstrate the robust
576 habituation responses of zebrafish, i.e. the exploratory activity of the fish increased by
577 repetition of the assay on subsequent days. Nevertheless, despite the concentration
578 dependent Cu accumulation in the whole body of zebrafish, we have observed almost no
579 effect of Cu exposure on behavioural responses of zebrafish observed in repeated novel
580 tank diving assays. On the other hand, zebrafish showed a remarkable associative learning
581 performance in a T-maze assay. Copper exposure at both concentrations (0.77 and 1.52 μM)
582 was found to significantly limit the learning capability of zebrafish. Overall, our data suggest
583 that exposure to Cu at the concentrations and durations used herein, has no determinative
584 impact on behavioural traits of zebrafish in repeated novel diving task assays but does limit
585 the associative learning abilities of zebrafish in T-maze task. The observed outcomes of
586 behavioural assays depend on the interplay between the exposure conditions
587 (concentration of target compound and duration of exposure) and the timescale of biotic
588 handling processes involved in regulation and repair. Such factors also apply to physiological

589 endpoints. It will thus be of interest to explore the relative sensitivity of behavioural and
590 physiological endpoints for (eco)toxicological risk assessment.

591

592

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597

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