

FUDMA Journal of Sciences (FJS) ISSN online: 2616-1370 ISSN print: 2645 - 2944 Vol. 5 No. 1, March, 2021, pp 319 – 332 DOI: <u>https://doi.org/10.33003/fis-2021-0501-571</u>



IMPLICATION OF PESTICIDES USAGE ON FRESHWATER FISH: A REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

Pesticides play a significant role in improving food production through control against harmful pests with low labour and efforts while on the other hand are regarded as aquatic pollutants. These toxicants persist in aquatic environment and cause harmful effects to non- target organisms including fish. The development of pesticide tolerant species led to the need and use of varieties of pesticides with the risk of exposure to many compartments including water. Many pesticides have been proscribed for agricultural purposes by the regulatory agencies such as WHO (2020). However, It is unfortunate that many of these are sold in Nigeria or donated by donor agencies. The donated pesticides offen become "obsolete" while in stock due to poor logistics and delays in receiving them at the point of need. The review on the classification, bioavailability, biotransformation, the direct and indirect effects of pesticides on freshwater fish was carried out. Biomarkers of pesticides toxicity that induce alterations in fish physiology were discussed; these include: behavioral changes such as erratic swimming, hyperactivity among other alterations. Other alterations include feeding behaviour, fluctuation in antioxidant enzyme activities, histology, haematology, growth performance and DNA damage.

Keywords: Bioavailability, Biotransformation, Pesticides Harmful Effect, Freshwater fish, Physiology,

INTRODUCTION

Pesticides are substances produced to control, mitigate, regulate the growth of harmful organisms (IPCS, 2010). They are employed globally in agricultural processes for reducing vector-borne ailments and preventing crops against pests with low labour and efforts (WHO, 2020). They are biocides, designed to regulate and control insect pests, unwanted grasses, fungi and other organisms which cause threat to crop plants (Das, 2013). PANA (2016) ascertained that majority of pests are insects, unwanted weeds, plant pathogens molluscs, birds, mammals, nematodes, and bacteria. However, variety of pests compete with higher organisms for food, transmit diseases to animals and cause havoc to agricultural produce (Mazlan *et al.*, 2017).

The principal classes of pesticides are designed on chemical contents; such as organochlorines, organophosphates, carbamates and pyrethroids. However, based on the targeted organism, several groups such as insecticides (insects), herbicides (weeds), avicides (birds), molluscicides (snails), nematicides (nematodes), algicides (algae) and rodenticides (rodents) have been reported (Annett *et al.*, 2014). Besides, selective pesticides kill the desired organism, while others remains unharmed (Veeraiah *et al.*, 2015). Afful *et al.*, (2010) ascribed the lipophilic, hydrophobic and ubiquitous nature of

pesticides. Further, detected the chemicals far from their sources of application due to their persistency in nature and transport through atmospheric exchange, water, debris and other anthropogenic processes (Afful *et al.*, 2010). Mazlan et al. (2017) reported that many groups of pesticides commonly used across African continent remain stable for many years after their application. Recently, contamination of the aquatic ecosystems by pesticides has received urgent attention (Adeboyejo *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, studies showed acute and sub-acute exposure to pesticides produced adverse effects in the exposed organisms and non-target organisms (Ezemonye *et al.*, 2009; Reuters, 2011; Bartosz *et al.*, 2018 and Ullah *et al.*, 2019).

WHO (2020) classify pesticides by hazard into; Class Ia (extremely hazardous), Class Ib (highly hazardous), Class II (moderately hazardous), Class III (slightly hazardous) and Class U (unlikely to be hazardous under short-term use). Due to their impact, this necessitates investigation of their effects in different ecosystem with the view to identify their level. For instance, in some class Ia pesticides such as Parathion, Bromethalin and Disulfoton, 5 ml via the oral route is sufficient to kill an adult human being (WHO, 2020). Nine groups of persistent pesticides were officially proscribed for use in agriculture by WHO (2020). These include: heptachlor,

toxaphene hexachlorobenzene, aldrin, chlordane, DDT, dieldrin, endrin and mirex. However, It is unfortunate that many of these are sold in Nigeria or donated by donor agencies. The donated pesticides often become "obsolete" while in stock due to poor logistics and delays in receiving them at the point of need (Joshua, 2016; FAO/WHO, 2018). Previous findings depicted that many farmers in African countries apply tremendous quantity of class Ia, Ib and class II pesticides mainly due to affordability and being cheaper than the less hazardous ones (Shaibu, 2008; Banjo *et al.*, 2010; Yusuf, 2010; Adegbola *et al.*, 2011; Ali and Muhammad 2016; Joshua, 2016 and Erhunmwunse *et al.*, 2018). In given of the foregoing this research aimed to review the implication of pesticide usage on fresh water-fish species.

Bioavailability of Pesticides in the Aquatic Environment

Pesticides have direct contact with surface freshwater through accidental spills, aerial drift or runoff polluting aquatic environment which in turn cause havoc to aquatic habitats among others (Adeboyejo *et al.*, 2011). Many pesticides have been identified in various aquatic compartments such as within water column, biota and sediments (Banjo *et al.*, 2010; Yusuf, 2010; Adegbola *et al.*, 2011; Akan *et al.*, 2013 and Ezenwosu *et al.*, 2020). They can be determined by studying three major routes such as the organic substrates (epilithic, and epiphytic algal parts, hydrophytes, branches and leaf litter), water column and inorganic substrate (sediments and other debris) (Murthy *et al.*, 2013).

Factors Related to Transport and Fate of Pesticides in the Aquatic Environment

Factors that facilitate pesticides toxicity in the aquatic environment include physical and chemical behaviors, microbial properties, nature of rainfall and frequency of application (Erhunmwunse et al., 2012). Pesticides transfer from one vicinity to another via processes such as transfer (mobility) and biotransformation (degradation) (Annett et al., 2014). Transfer often occur through surface runoff, vapourization to the atmosphere, adsorption and plant uptake or soil water fluxes (Adegbola et al., 2011). Biotransformation happens mainly through microbial activity, photo-catalysis, oxidation, hydrolysis, volatilization and reduction; producing variety of metabolites that could be more or less toxic (Annett et al., 2014; Ullah et al., 2019). Their molecular size, stability, reactivity and solubility are other features of pesticides that determine their specific effects in an organisms (Annet et al., 2014).

Solubility is a vital feature in evaluating how, where and when a toxic pesticide moves through the aquatic domain or its mode of action (Sánchez-Bayo, 2011). Based on their solublity, pesticides can be divided into two groups. Some groups dissolve easily in water and some in oil. Water–soluble pesticides such as glyphosate move rapidly through the environment because water is ubiquitous. They tend to have access to many cells organells since aqueous solutions bathe all cells (Lipok *et al.*, 2010).

Factors Related to Routes and Circumstances of Exposure of Pesticides in the Aquatic Environment

The quantity (dose), exposure duration, route of entry and sensitivity of an organism are important roles in pesticides toxicity investigation (Ullah *et al.*, 2019). Pesticides applied during agricultural activities get into the environment via many routes. According to Sadowski et al. (2014), pesticides compounds leached with runoff together with soil particles or accidental spills into water body and/or direct application during fishing (Sánchez-Bayo, 2012). The mode of action of pecticides are responsible for their toxicity to non-target organisms. However, variation in susceptibility among array of animal taxa indicate that many biochemical properties peculiar to certain species are responsible to specific sensitivity level (Sánchez-Bayo, 2012).

Disruption of Ecological Balance by Pesticides to Freshwater Fish

Pesticides used currently in various aquatic ecosystems may endanger populations of different non-target species by reducing their habitat such as wetlands and irrigation areas (Akan *et al.*, 2013). Pesticides have been reported to disrupt the food chain in the aquatic ecosytem by indirectly interrupting the fish food supply and habitat alteration (Olutona *et al.*, 2016). In addition to habitat alteration, fish species can be subjected to predators by decreasing habitat suitability and behaviour changes. Pesticides can run off to water bodies affecting their quality and altering the biology of many non-target species (Ullah *et al.*, 2019). Disruption of the ecological balance of freshwater fish through biological controls, invariably produce pests that were previously of minor importance, leading to a new problem of resistance and unsustainable dependence on more pesticides (USEPA, 2017).

Direct Effects of Pesticides on Freshwater Fish

Pesticides have been reported to induce different kinds of toxicity to aquatic biota including fish. These changes include behavioural changes (Rani and Kumaraguru, 2014; Rakesh and Kumar, 2019), haematological alterations (Modesto *et al.*, 2010; Ullah *et al.*, 2014 and George *et al.*, 2017), histopathological changes (Dane and Sisman, 2017), enzymes alteration (Annett *et al.*, 2014) genotoxicity (Ansari, 2011; Nwani *et al.*, 2013 and Ullah *et al.*, 2017), biochemical modifications (Banee, 2011 and Akan *et al.*, 2013) and changes in antioxidant enzymes activity (Nwani *et al.*, 2010; Ezike *et al.*, 2019)

Behavioural Responses Induced by Pesticide in Fish

Behavioural changes resulting from exposure to pesticides are one of the indicators used to evaluate their effect on aquatic fauna such as fishes (Dube and Hosetti, 2010). Behaviour is the cumulative manifestation of genetics, physiological and biochemical processes (Dube and Hosetti, 2010). It allows an organism to adjust itself to varying external and internal stimuli in many challenging environment. Observation on the swimming-oriented alterations, opercular movement. discolouration, loss of reflex, erratic swimming and schooling are among the abnormal behavioural changes recorded in many fish species (Rakesh and Kumar, 2019). The effect of pesticides on fish population and other non-target organisms often depends on concentrations and exposure period which ultimately manifest in their behaviour (Karates, 2016; Mishra and Verma, 2016). Ogamba et al. (2014) reported behavioural changes such as excessive mucus production, jerky movements and restlessness in Clarias gariepinus challenged with subchronic concentrations of 0.3, 0.4, 0.5 and 0.6mg/l of dichlorvos for 96h. Discolouration, surfacing activity, intense hyperactivity and convulsions were recorded in Clarias batrachus exposed to lambda cyhalothrin (Ogeleka et al., 2010). Omonivi et al. (2013) examined lateral and upward movement, calmness, respiratory distress, spiral swimming and spontaneous air gulping in Clarias gariepinus (juveniles) exposed to dichlorvos 400, 450, 500 and 600 µg/L.

Abnormal behavioural changes in fish due to pesticides exposure have been reported (Alaa, 2014; Ullah et al., 2014; Annett et al., 2014 and Ahmad et al., 2018). Pesticides caused abnormal changes in fish by subjecting them to a sluggish pattern, alter swimming ability, reduction in feeding ability and loss of reflex (Ahmad et al., 2018). Ilavazhahan et al. (2010) reported that Catla catla on exposure to Methyl parathion resulted in elevated mucus secretion, rapid jerk movement, increased movements of opercula and equilibrium loss. Ramesh and Munniswamy (2009) reported that Cyprinus carpio (Linnaeus) on exposure to chlorpyrifos caused hyperexcitability, erratic and irregular swimming and equilibrium loss. Pesticides also alter the migratory behaviour of fish which led to disruption of their life cycle (Nagaraju et al., 2011). Ullah et al. (2014) reported that cypermethrin resulted in jumping, increased surface activity, balance loss, increased air gulping, equilibrium loss, abrupt swimming, sluggishness, motionlessness and internal haemorrhage in Tor putitora. With regards to environmental stress as a result of pesticides exposure, fish become stressed and immunocompromised, which makes them prone to diseases and among other secondary infections (Rakesh and Kumar, 2019).

Pesticides Induced Haematological Alterations in Fish

Prevoius researches carried out revealed the effect of many pesticides on haematological indices on aquatic organisms including fish (Ahrar *et al.*, 2012). Haematological parameters such as WBC count, RBC count, heamoglobin concentrations and PCV exhibit secondary responses of fish to the toxicants (Hedayati and Hassan, 2015). Akinrotimi and Amachree (2016) and Ahmad et al. (2018) opined that when water quality is affected by toxicants, any physiological alterations will be reflected in the haematology of the aquatic biota. For instance, after exposure to sublethal concentration of chlorpyrifos

decrease in RBC count, WBC count, hb and PCV mean was reported in *Channa punctatus* (Bloch) (Deka and Mahanta, 2012). The result obtained by George et al. (2017) during exposure of *C. gariepinus* to varying concentrations of metalochlor and atrazine revealed an increase in WBC, neutrophils, monocytes, Mean Cell Heamoglobin, Mean Cell Heamoglobin Concentrations in both male and female *C. gariepinus*. Akinrotimi et al. (2012) reported a rise in WBC, neutrophils and monocytes in African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) on exposure to cypermethrin.

The rise in WBC, neutrophils and monocytes indicate an immune response to the toxicants. Akinrotimi et al. (2012) also opined a dose-dependent decline in RBC count and considerable elevation in MCV, MCH, and MCHC in C. gariepinus treated with atrazine/metolachlor. Tilapia sp. exposed to pesticides revealed characteristic alteration in the blood indices (Kumari et al., 2018). Chandra et al. (2017) reported the effect of dichlorvos on freshwater fish (Orieochromis niloticus) for 96 hours of exposure. In their findings alterations in the mean value of packed cell volume (PCV), haemoglobin (Hb), Red Blood cell (RBC), neutrophil, monocyte and lymphocytes count were recorded. Toxicological effects of lethal and sub-lethal concentrations of Deltamethrin on haematological parameters in Cirrhinus mrigala (Hamilton) was investigated by David et al. (2015) and the results revealed that the RBC, Hb and Haematocrit values decreased significantly while WBC, MCV and MCH were increased in a dose-dependent manner. Alterations in WBCs and RBCs, haemoglobin contents and packed cell volume of many fish species were reported such as Saeedi et al. (2012) who studied the effect of diazinon on haematological parameters of fry rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss), Akinrotimi et al. (2013) on haematological alterations of Tilapia guineensis challenged to varying concentrations of industrial effluents, Abdul-majid et al. (2014) on dichlorvos to freshwater fish (Cyprinus carpio), (Ullah et al., 2014) on cypermethrin to the haematological and physiological alterations in liver, brain and gills of Mahseer (Tor putitora), Gopala et al. (2017) on Cyprinus carpio challenged to pyrethroid (Permethrin) and Chandra et al. (2017) on the toxicological effects of dichlorvos to the freshwater fish.

Ullah et al. (2015) reported an increase in white blood cells (WBCs) count and a decline in RBCs count on exposure of *Tor putitora* to cypermethrin. Previous related findings reported various alterations in haematological indices in many fish species after exposure to different synthetic pyrethroids. For instance, Vani et al. (2012) investigated the effect of cypermethrin on *Catla catla*, Karatas (2016) on *Salmo trutta fario* exposed to deltamethrin, Ozok et al. (2018) studied the effect of cypermethrin on *Alburnus tarichi* and Vieira and Martinez (2018) on the response of *Prochilodus lineatus* to lambda-cyhalothrin. Changes in hematological indices due to pesticides exposure have been attributed to the inhibition of haemosynthesis, RBCs disruption, RBCs decrease due to hypoxia, hematopoietic system's failure and stimulated

defense mechanism which alters WBCs count (Ullah et al., 2019)

Pesticides Induced Histopathological Alterations in Fish Tissues

Histopathological investigations have been regarded as a bioindicator of toxicity stress in many vertebrates (in vivo and in vitro) including fish (Revathy and Chitra, 2015). Histopathological alteration is the result of cumulative physiological changes which affect target organs and mechanism of action (Ramesh et al., 2014). On exposure to Malathion (pesticides), alterations were observed in the liver, ovary and kidney tissues of Heteropneustes fossilis (Deka and Mahanta, 2012). When the intestine of H. fossilis were challenged to a sublethal dose (1.42ppm) of chlorpyrifos, degeneration, atrophy on the villi structure and necrosis of mucosal epithelium of the intestine and depletion of lymphoid follicles were observed (Nazia et al., 2016). At 0.28 ppm there was complete disappearance of villi structures, focal areas of necrosis and mucosal epithelium. Karthigayani et al. (2014) reported disintegration of the intestinal tissue in the study of cypermethrin administered to Oreochromis mossambicus.

Bais and Lokhande (2012) also recorded degenerative change of mucosal epithelium necrosis in the intestine of O. striatus challenged to cadmium chloride. Degeneration of glomerulus, lymphocytes infiltration, cytoplasmic vacuolation, necrosis and blood congestion in kidney tissues of Cyprinus carpio after exposure to Sodium cvanide (David and Kartheek, 2014). Other investigations on the histological effects of pesticides in varying organs of fish include that of Rani and Venkataramana, (2012) who determined the effects of Malathion to Glossogobius giuris. Banaee et al. (2013) on Diazinon to Rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss), Karthigayani et al. (2014) on the effect of cypermethrin on O. mossambicus, Ullah et al. (2014) on Cypermethrin to Tor putitora, Pandey and Dubey (2015) on pentachlorophenol (PCP) to catfish (Heteropneustes fossilis), Raibeemol and Chitra (2016) on chlorpyrifos to freshwater fish (Etroplus maculatus) and Nazia et al. (2016) on Chlorpyrifos to catfish.

Pesticides Induce Oxidative Stress in Fish Tissues

Oxidative stress is the imbalance between the productions of free radicals (pro-oxidant) which leads to peroxidation of the cell's lipid bi-layer and the antioxidant defense of the body (Ansari and Ansari, 2014). It is attributed with the increased rate of cellular disruption caused by oxygen free radicals and other reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), superoxide anion (O₂-) and hydroxyl radicals (OH⁻), nitric oxide (NO) and lipid peroxyl (LOO-) (Wu *et al.*, 2011; Agarwal, 2014 and Ahmad *et al.*, 2017). Free radicals are molecules containing one unpaired valence electrons at their outer shell making them highly reactive (Ahmad *et al.*, 2017). High concentration of free radicals and ROS by overcoming the antioxidant defense system causes a detrimental effect on normal cellular functions, inactivate the

enzymes which eventually results in oxidative stress, peroxidation of cell constituents and DNA damage (Ameur *et al.*, 2012; Ahmad *et al.*, 2017). The toxicity of xenobiotics is directly related to the free radicals production in the organisms (Ansari and Ansari, 2014).

Superoxide dismutase is among the vital enzymes that produce the first step of defense against free radicals (pro-oxidants) (Oluwatosin et al., 2016). It breaks down the transformation of superoxide radicals to H2O2 and O2 while catalase stimulates the removal of H₂O₂ into oxygen and water (Oluwatosin et al., 2016). However, Glutathione protects the cell against reactive oxygen (ROS) and Reactive nitrogen species (RNS) whose role in maintaining normal cellular activities such as fighting against toxins and regulating various intercellular pathways (Ahmad et al., 2017). However, a high concentration of ROS in a cell more than antioxidant defense enzymes, results in oxidative stress which causes cellular inactivity through lipid peroxidation and denatures proteins (Ahmad et al., 2017). Toxins (both endogenous and exogenous) of electrophilic nature are detoxified by Glutathione. It maintains and stores the essential thiol profile of proteins and other amino acids such as cysteine (Oluwatosin et al., 2016). Previous researches regarded pesticides as inducers of anomalous biochemical pathways where they change the redox cycles which results in oxidative stress in many organisms including fish (Ameur et al., 2012; Nwani et al., 2015 and Oluwatosin and Abiola, 2016). They also disrupt the intracellular electron transfer processes with reactive oxygen species (ROS) resulting in celllular damage (Ameur et al., 2012).

These enzymes protects cells against reactive oxygen species (ROS) by neutralizing their effect and prevent it against oxidative damage (Doherty et al., 2010). Wu et al. (2013) reported exposure of Clarias gariepinus to Paraquat caused oxidative stress in the fish tissue due to alterations in the electrolyte levels. Nwani et al. (2015) reported impaired physiological activities and biochemical pathways in plasma protein, plasma glucose and triglycerides of C. gariepinus exposed to Paraquat. Mastan and Shaffi (2010) opined that exposure to sub-lethal concentration of organophosphates led to disturbance in various enzyme activities such as glutaminases and L-Keto acid-activated glutaminase in brain tissue, which are related to brain regions metabolism. Malathion pesticides have been reported to cause alterations in Glutathione-S-transferase and Catalase activities in gills, liver and muscles of Labeo rohita (Thenmozhi et al., 2011).

Tor putitora when exposed to cypermethrin resulted in the alterations of Glutathion Reductase, Peroxidase, Lipid peroxidase and Catalase in brain, liver and muscle tissues (Ullah *et al.*, 2014). Faheem and Lone (2017) reported an increase in lipid peroxidation and glutathione-S-transferase (GST) activity in the liver and kidneys of *C. idella* after 14 days of exposure to bisphenol. An increased GST activity was attributed to the detoxification of BPA (Wu *et al.*, 2011). Wu et al. (2011) reported an increase in GST activity in zebrafish embryos challenged to 0.1µg/l BPA. Elevated activity in GST was also observed in hepatocytes of pearl mullet and Japanese

medaka (liver and gills) exposed to BPA (Li et al. (2016). In another development, Prieto et al. (2006) observed the response of the antioxidant enzymes glutathione reductase (GSH), superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT) and lipid peroxidation (LPO) as a biomarkers—of oxygen-mediated toxicity in liver, kidney and gill of *Oreochromis* sp. Glutathione-S-transferase breaks down the correlation reaction between glutathione reductase and metabolites of xenobiotic accelerating their excretion (Doherty *et al.*, 2010). When antioxidant activity cannot compensate for the generation of Reactive Oxygen Species, oxidative damage occurs (Glusczak *et al.*, 2011).

The activity of SOD, Catalase, GSH and GST decreased in the liver, kidney and gills of *Clarias gariepinus* in Asejire River while malondialdehyde (MDA) increased significantly (Oluwatosin and Abiola, 2016). They concluded that decreased in the activity of these enzymes was attributed to the high concentration of toxicants in the River. In an aquatic environment, the significant level of oxidative damage happens in biota challenged to contaminants which facilitates the generation of ROS that impairs antioxidant enzymes leading to oxidative stress (Oluwatosin and Abiola, 2016).

Activities of antioxidant enzymes like CAT, SOD, GSH and GST have been used as biomarkers to assess the influence of aquatic pollution on the biochemical pathway and enzymatic function in fish (Correia *et al.*, 2010). Glutathione peroxidase (GPx) activity was reduced in *Prochilodus lineatus* exposed to 10 mg/l of glyphosate. After 24hours activity SOD decreased while hepatic glutathione content increased (Modesto and Martinez, 2010). Wu et al. (2011) recorded an increase in LPO activity in zebrafish embryos challenged a range of 0.1-1000µg/L of bisphenol.

Molecular Alterations in Fish Tissue Induced by Pesticides Exposure

Genotoxic potential assessment in an aquatic domain is one of the major challenges to the environmental pollution control programmes (Alaa, 2014). Genotoxicological investigation involves the use of toxicants that damage DNA of the cell and subsequently impact the wellbeing of aquatic biota (Ullah and Zorriehzahra, 2015). The single-cell gel electrophoresis is a versatile techniques applied for assessing the effects of environmental contaminants for biomonitoring purposes (Boettcher et al., 2010; Guilherme et al., 2010; Akcha et al., 2012; Obiakor et al., 2012; Ghisi and Cestari, 2013; Alaa, 2014; Ullah et al., 2017; Tasneem and Yasmeen, 2018; Ullah et al., 2019). It is more sensitive compared to other techniques applied in genotoxicological studies, like chromosomal aberration, sister chromatid exchanges test, and micronucleus test (Ullah et al., 2016). Comet assay has been proved to be reliable and has the ability of examining minute DNA damage. It is used for single and double-strand breakage in DNA, cell death and incomplete excision repair sites induced by chemical or physical agents eukaryotic cells (Poletta et al., 2013; Ullah et al., 2016).

The biotransformation of toxicants stimulates the generation of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) which can be harmful to fish and another aquatic biota. Fish possess an antioxidant defense system against ROS, but an increase in the production of ROS overcomes the defence systems of fish which results in cellular lesions and DNA alteration (Ansari et al., 2011). ROS directly catalyze DNA via OH- by directly reacting with DNA molecules and H2O2 causes base oxidation of intracellular DNA (Akcha et al., 2013). Osman et al. (2012) reported a higher degree of DNA damage in the blood of Oreochromis niloticus and Clarias gariepinus in downstream of heavily polluted areas of the River Nile. The DNA damage was significantly elevated in peripheral blood erythrocytes of the fish examined (Osman et al., 2012; Meza-Joya et al., 2013). The Corydoras paleatus revealed an increase in micronuclei frequency as well as DNA damage in peripheral erythrocytes after exposure to glyphosate (Ghisi and Cestari, 2013).

Double-stranded DNA damages were examined in Anguilla anguilla challenged to 58 and 116 µg/L of glyphosate-based herbicide after 24-hour exposure (Guilherme et al., 2010). In another finding, Guilherme et al. (2012) reported that the type of DNA damage differs with exposure period and concentration with ROS-dependent DNA damage. Glyphosate exposure induces DNA quality in the Neotropical fish, after only 6 hours of exposure at the highest concentration of 10 mg/L. Other investigations on induced genotoxicity of pesticides include Ansari et al. (2011) on cypermethrin in Channa punctatus, Poletta et al. (2013) on DNA damage in the gills of Prochilodus lineatus, Ullah (2015) on the erythrocyte of Labeo rohita and Vieira and Martinez (2018) on DNA damage in the blood erythrocyte of Prochilodus lineatus induced by λ -cyhalothrin. Ateeq et al. (2005) evaluated the genotoxic potential of two commonly used herbicides; 2, 4dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2, 4-D) and 2-chloro-2, 6-diethyl-N-(butoxymethyl) in erythrocytes of freshwater catfish, Clarias batrachus. The marked increase in comet tail length indicating DNA damage was observed at all concentrations of both herbicides compared to the control. Cypemethrin induced alterations in DNA and RNA in gonadal tissue of Colisa fasciatus (Singh et al., 2016).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is concluded that pesticides cause tremendous economic loss by fish death and rendering them unfit for human consumption, indicating a threat to fish biodiversity. Various ecotoxicological investigations revealed the detrimental effects of pesticides on fish such as behavioural change, haematological, biochemical, histological alterations, antioxidant enzymes activities and genotoxicity. It is therefore recommended that more investigation concerning new introduced harmless pesticides should be carried out in both *invivo* and *in-vitro*. Environmental friendly pesticides should also be employed in agricultural production.

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IMPLICATION OF PESTICIDES USAGE ...

Nafi'u and Ibrahim

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IMPLICATION OF PESTICIDES USAGE ...

Nafi'u and Ibrahim

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FUDMA Journal of Sciences (FJS) Vol. 5 No. 1, March, 2021, pp 319 - 332