

## **Incidence of antibiotic residues in cultured African catfish *C. gariepinus* in selected zones at Enugu Nigeria**

### **ABSTRACT**

Antibiotics have been used in fish farming for several decades in combating diseases but improper application and handling had lead to the occurrence of residues in animal food such as fish . Animal products whose drug residue limit exceeds the maximum residue limit (MRL) pose serious concern such as; allergy, carcinogenesis, antibacterial resistance, disruption of intestinal flora, mutagenesis, tetragenesis among others. The study was thus, conducted to assess the residue concentrations in the selected fish farms in Enugu state Nigeria. The study was conducted in three (3) senatorial zones of Enugu State; Enugu north, Enugu west and Enugu east involving two (2) local governments in each zone respectively; Nsukka and Igbo etiti, Awgu and Ezeagu, Nkanu west and Enugu south. A total of fifty four (n=54) *Clarias gariepinus* organs samples with three replicate (3) were used for the study. The kidney-liver-muscles were obtained from the fish samples and analysed for antibiotics residues using Gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GCMS). The antibiotics residues obtained from the analysed samples includes; tylosin, avilamycin, amoxicillin, chloramphenicol, gentamicin, lincomycin, macrolides and quinolones. Available in this increasing order macrolides > quinolone > lincomycin > chloramphenicol > gentamicin > amoxicillin > avilamycin > tylosin with these mean concentrations respectively;  $1.44 \pm 0.17$ ,  $5.71 \pm 0.28$ ,  $10.04 \pm 0.27$ ,  $12.94 \pm 0.34$ ,  $9.09 \pm 0.17$ ,  $21.68 \pm 0.41$ ,  $35.79 \pm 0.47$ ,  $25.86 \pm 0.27 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Tylosin (liver  $1.7 \pm 0.50$ , gills  $1.39 \pm 0.27$ ; muscles  $1.17 \pm 0.12 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) had the least concentration in the analysed organs while macrolides (liver  $29.44 \pm 0.71$ , liver  $49.04 \pm 0.31$ , muscle  $28.87 \pm 0.31 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) had the highest concentrations in the analysed organs. Also, our results showed that the highest concentration of the drug residue was seen in the gills with these mean values except for chloramphenicol (Tylosin  $1.39 \pm 0.27$ , Avilamycin  $6.85 \pm 0.39$ , Amoxicillin  $11.01 \pm 0.34$ , Chloramphenicol  $12.00 \pm 0.33$ , Gentamicin  $11.20 \pm 0.24$ , Lincomycin  $21.75 \pm 0.42$ , Macrolides  $49.04 \pm 0.31$  and Quinolones  $28.40 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). It also indicated that the values of antibiotics residues were highest at Awgu L.G.A. except for Macrolides; (Tylosin  $0.00 \pm 0.00$ , Avilamycin  $9.03 \pm 0.55$ , Amoxicillin  $11.53 \pm 0.31$ , Chloramphenicol  $18.39 \pm 0.61$ , Gentamicin  $0.00 \pm 0.00$ , Lincomycin  $24.84 \pm 0.50$ , Macrolides  $36.12 \pm 0.16$  and Quinolones  $39.05 \pm 0.65 (\mu\text{g/kg})$ ) while Nsukka had the lowest drug residues concentrations except for Tylosin; (Tylosin  $3.84 \pm 0.30$ , Avilamycin  $2.55 \pm 0.20$ , Amoxicillin  $8.99 \pm 0.22$ , Chloramphenicol  $13.82 \pm 0.50$ , Gentamicin  $6.39 \pm 0.10$ , Lincomycin  $21.46 \pm 0.20$ , Macrolides  $29.70 \pm 0.41$  and Quinolones  $10.20 \pm 0.10 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). It was also observed that across the senatorial zones Enugu west had the highest mean residue concentration; (Tylosin  $0.84 \pm 0.15$ , Avilamycin  $6.46 \pm 0.38$ , Amoxicillin  $11.12 \pm 0.36$ , Chloramphenicol  $11.57 \pm 0.33$ , Gentamicin  $7.98 \pm 0.15$ , Lincomycin  $23.94 \pm 0.56$ , Macrolides  $51.58 \pm 0.69$  and Quinolones  $27.99 \pm 0.39 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). The study has shown the presence of antibiotic drug residue in fish samples collected from six local government areas under study. The study also indicated disparities in concentrations of drug residues observed in the sample showed the lowest levels of drugs residues whereas, samples from Awgu L.G.A showed the highest levels of drug residues at this significant level  $p < 0.05$ . Although, the concentrations of these drug residues observed in the samples were below the European Union maximum residue limit, proper monitoring of edible food for pharmaceutical residue is important, also educating farmers on the need to adhere strictly to recommend withdrawal period after the use of products that has these drugs in them is very expedient due to the consequences they pose to human health.

**Key words: antibiotic, drug, maximum residue limit, aquaculture, cat fish, Nigeria**

## **INTRODUCTION**

In the recent times, the increasing human population in the face of inelastic production strategies appears to have widened the demand and supply gap of agricultural products, especially protein-based foods (Igwe and Onyekwere, 2007). According to Cheeke, (2002), the global demand for protein-based foods increased by 58 % between 1995-2020 and that consumption raised in the year 2020. This implied that to ensure food nutrition security, there is need to increase the production of protein-based foods. This is more pertinent in **developing countries where malnutrition and food insecurity is very common, and this is where production of fish products comes in as a panacea to protein-based nutrition deficiency.**

**Fishing like other hunting activities has been a major source of food for the human race and has contributed to the reduction of the unsavory outbreak of anaemia, kwashiorkor and other ailments due to malnutrition (Olagunje *et. al.* 2007).** This is because fish has a nutrient profile superior to most terrestrial meats (beef, pork and chicken, etc). It is an excellent source of high quality animal protein and highly digestible energy (Kudi *et. al.* 2008). According to Ali *et. al.* (2008), fish is the most important animal protein food available in the tropics. It provides about 40 % of the dietary intake of animal protein of the average Nigerian (Federal Department of Fisheries, FDF, 2007). In addition to its nutritional benefits, fish is important for animal feed, and serves as a source of raw materials for allied industries (Esu *et. al.* 2009). Furthermore, fish farming contributes about one-third of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in Nigeria (Amao *et. al.* 2009). The fishery sub-sector provides full-time employment to over 12 million people, which constitutes about 3 % of the active population of the nation; another 11 million **people indirectly earn their livelihoods from activities related to fisheries (FAO, 1991; Olagunje *et. al.* 2007).**

**Over the past two decades, world aquaculture** has developed tremendously to become an economically significant industry. The industry continues to grow at an average global annual growth level of 8.8 % year compared with all other animal food production industries (Onada and Ogunola, 2017).

However, despite the huge potentials of fish farming, Nigeria is still one of the largest importers of fish in the developing world. According to the Central Bank of Nigeria (2016), Nigeria spends over

288 billion Naira on annual fish importation. Nigeria is among the largest fish consumers in the world, with over 1.5 million tons of fish consumed annually, of which over 900,000 metric tons are imported, while its domestic fish catch is estimated at 450,000 metric tons/year. This huge gap in the production of fish serves as a motivation for the government and the private sector to put in measures to increase domestic production. This situation has ensured some form of a boost in the aquaculture industry. There are huge prospects and potential for the growth of the Nigerian aquaculture sector, as there are numerous freshwater lakes, rivers, reservoirs, dams, free-flowing boreholes floodplains, etc. available for fish production (Agbelege and Olarewaju, 2010). It has been projected that Nigeria needs an average annual increase of 3.8 % in fish production to keep up with the demands of an ever-increasing population (Enyidi and Emeaso, 2020; Enyidi and Nduh-Nduh, 2016). This might lead to increased production of African catfish in the country because of relatively good knowledge regarding their culture techniques and high market demands. The demand and market price for catfish are higher than those for tilapia or carps (Dauda *et. al.* 2018). Nigeria is often called the land of aquatic splendor. It has networks of abundant natural water resources vis-à-vis rivers, lagoons, creeks, streams, flood plains and coastal waters constituting approximately 25 % of the total landmass of the country. These resources, in addition to 47, 877 ha of swamps are potential biomes for fish farming (Ahmad and Ibrahim, 2016). Nigeria is blessed with over 12.5 million hectares of water surface which a good percentage could be put to use for aquaculture and development (Udo and Dickson, 2017).

The most commonly cultured species of fish in Nigeria include catfish, tilapia and carp. However, many fish farmers in Nigeria focus on catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) because of how well it adapts to the environment, its hardy nature that allows it to be easily reared live and its premium market price. Since the culture of *C. gariepinus* through hormonal induction (hypophysation) was initiated in Western Nigeria in 1973, the procedure has been widely practiced throughout Nigeria, thus leading to the increase of farm raised catfish from 1980s till date (Iheke and Nwagbara, 2014). African catfish (*C. gariepinus*), *Clarias anguillaris*, *Heterobranchus bidorsalis*, *Heterobranchus longifilis* and their hybrids are cultivated for reasons of their high growth rates, disease resistance and amenability of high density culture, related to their air breathing habits (Fagbenro *et. al.* 1993; Miller and Atanda, 2007). Catfish is suitable for stocking in ponds and they tolerate low dissolved oxygen better than other common species in the country. Farm raised catfish is a good source of high quality protein, and it has essentially little carbohydrate and no fiber. The fat content is low

compared to other animal meat. The cholesterol level and caloric value of catfish are also low with other desirable qualities such as fatty acids, mineral and vitamin content which makes the catfish an exclusively desirable recipe for those on fat and calorie controlled diets. Besides, catfish has wide acceptability as food in Nigeria. Despite these considerably high potentials, local fish production has failed to meet the country's domestic demand (Oladimeji, 2017). This has led to the existence of a demand-supply gap of at least 0.7 million metric tons in Nigeria. Increased catfish production in the country, according to Food and agricultural organization (FAO, 2005), can help reduce this worrisome demand supply fish gap in the nation. Ugwumba and Chukwuji, (2010) suggested that greater improvement in catfish production can be achieved with proper analysis that will lead to the knowledge of the level of profitability of catfish farming and the socio-economic features of catfish farmers that constrain maximum production.

Along with the development of aquaculture, diseases caused by various etiological agents followed by mortality of cultured stock have become limiting factors in production. Hence, the farmers and the hatchery operators have resorted to the use of various remedial measures, including use of antimicrobials and drugs for controlling the disease. The frequency of utilizing these antibiotics and other chemicals is more in hatcheries and commercial farms than in home stead farms. Among the drugs employed in agriculture, antibiotics are the most widely used for animal health and management (Levey, 1992). Accordance with a 2008 amendment to the Animal Drug User Fee Act, The U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) released an annual amount of antimicrobial drugs sold and distributed for use in food animals. The grand total for 2009 is 13.1 million kilograms or 28.8 million pounds (US FDA, 1996). The total amount of veterinary antibiotics used in therapeutic purposes and as feed additives was approximately 5000 tons in 2005 (KFDA, 2011). The use of antimicrobials in aquaculture basically started with the work of Gutsell (1946) who recognized the prospective use of antibiotics (sulphonamides for combating furunculosis). The use of antibiotics as food supplements for disease prevention and treatment and as growth promoters, (Pham, 2015) is common practice. However, such use of antibiotics without veterinary control leads to the inevitably to the presence of antibiotic residues in the animal-derived products and by-product (Mensah *et al.*2014). the utilization of antibiotic products in aquaculture is prejudicial to the aquatic environment and aqualife on one hand, and on the other hand, to the fish products consumers due to the toxicity risk of antibiotic residues (Cabello, 2006; Olatoye and Basiru, 2013; Dhaouadi *et al.*2015). According to Kummerer (2009) antibiotics are naturally occurring or man made

chemicals that can be divided into different classes such as  $\beta$ -lactams, Quinolones, tetracyclines, macrolides and sulfonamides. More antibiotics like chloramphenicol, oxytetracycline, kanamycin and nifurprazine exist.

After administration of drugs a significant fraction is released into the environment (Zhou *et. al.* 2013). Between 30 to 90 % of all drugs used in humans and animals are excreted unchanged or as active metabolites into the environment through urine and feces (Ijemba 2006 and Lienert *et.al.* 2007). Bacterial resistance genes are pressing public health problems (UN, 2016). High rates of common infections are caused by resistant bacteria in all WHO regions, including Nigeria (WHO, 2014). Thus, antibiotics resistance has become a serious and growing threat to modern medicine and is considered a leading health concern of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (UN, 2016). In recognition of the above concern, this study is to determine the occurrence of drug residue in African catfish among cultured fish in six selected local governmental areas in Enugu State, Nigeria.

Antibiotics have been used in livestock farming for several decades in combating bacterial infections, but lack of proper application and handling can lead to occurrence of residues in the food of animal origin particularly meat, milk, and eggs. Farm animals treated with antibiotics are required to be withheld for the residues in the edible tissues for specific withdrawal period until all residues are depleted to safe level before the animal tissue can be used as food for human consumption (Kukanich *et. al.* 2005).

Different types of antibiotics are used to keep fish free from diseases (Avsever *et. al.* 2010). Among them, oxytetracycline is one of the most popular primarily used antibacterial used in aquaculture production (Erdogdu, 2012). Now it is abundantly used in fish farms to treat disease affected fish and/or as a prophylactic in freshwater aquaculture in Africa (Ali *et. al.* 2016). But antibiotics like oxytetracycline have not always been used in a responsible manner in aquaculture (FAO/WHO 2003). Indiscriminate use of antibiotic could lead to undesirable deposition of their residues in edible tissues which could hamper public health to some extents. Antibiotic residues transferred to humans through food can also alter the intestinal ecology thereby favouring the emergence of resistant microflora (Perrin-Guyomard *et. al.* 2001). Residues of antimicrobials also result in lowering the marketing and export value of aquaculture products (Sapkota *et. al.* 2008; Heuer *et. al.* 2009). So it is important to give attention to this contamination because of the potential hazards associated with these products content in edible tissues. However, in Nigeria indiscriminate

administrations of oxytetracycline in fish culture have been reported by several authors but quantitative risks assessment of antimicrobial residues in fishes is not limited (Muriuki *et. al.*, 2001, Erdogdu, 2012, Olatoye and basiru, 2013, Ali *et. al.*, 2016).

Drug residue is defined by CVM (Centre for Veterinary Medicine) as any compound or metabolite of a compound that is present in edible tissues of food animals because of the use of a compound in or on animals (EC European Commision, 2012, Beyene, 2016). Residues can be from the compound itself, its metabolites, or any other substances formed in or on food as a result of the compound's use. CVM has a rigorous program for establishing the safety of residues present in food-animal tissues. Data are required for toxicity testing, residue and metabolism testing, and development of analytical methods. Toxicity testing is used to establish the maximum safe residue concentration in the edible tissues of the target animal. CVM evaluates toxicity with tests designed to monitor acute, short-term, and chronic toxicity over time. Within the scope of these tests, concentrations of drug residues are determined that affect morbidity and mortality as well as reproductive toxicity, teratology, and carcinogenicity (Beyene, 2016).

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Description of Study Area

#### Geographical Location / Demography of Enugu State Nigeria

Enugu State (figure 1) is in the South East geo-political Zone of Nigeria. It is located at 6° 30' North of Equator, and 7° 30' East of Longitude. It is plus one hour (+1hr) GMT on the World Time Zone. It shares border with the following states: Abia and Imo to the south; Ebonyi to the east, Benue to the north-east, Kogi to the north-west and Anambra State to the west. It covers an area of 7,161 km<sup>2</sup> (2,765sq m), and ranks 29th out of the 36 States of Nigeria in terms of land area. Enugu State has a good climatic condition all the year round. The hottest month is February with about 87.16 °F (30.64 °C), while the lowest temperature is recorded in November/December, reaching about 60.54 °F (15.86 °C). Lowest rainfall of about 0.16 cubic centimeters (0.0098 cu in) is recorded in February, while the highest rainfall is recorded in July at about 35.7 cubic centimeters (2.18 cu in). With an estimated population of 3,267,837, (1,596,042-males and 1,671,795- females) (NPC, 2006), it ranks 23rd out of the 36 States of the federation. Enugu State is also densely populated, and is rated at 460/km<sup>2</sup> (1,200/sq mi). This is regarded as one of the highest in Africa. Demographers have however, continually put the realistic population figure of Enugu State at six million. Enugu State is basically rural and agrarian, with a substantial number of its working population engaged in fish farming, although trading and services are also important, while trading and services are predominant in the urban area (Department of geography, University of Nigeria, Nsukka).

The map of Enugu state showing the selected local government

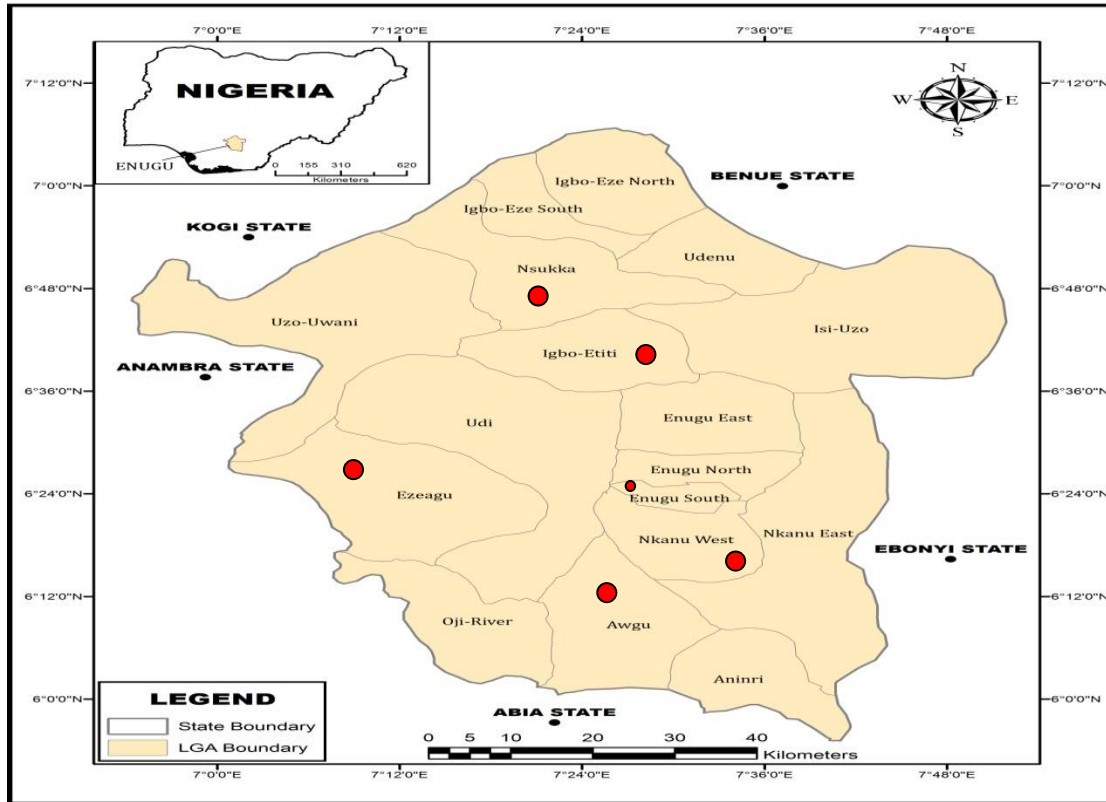


Figure 1: Map showing the study area. A. Map of Nigeria B. Map of the Enugu showing local government under study, study area marked with orange bullet.

Source: Afamefuna *et. al.* (2017)

Ministry of Land surveys, Enugu State.

### **Description of Sample collection method**

The study was conducted in three senatorial zones of Enugu State (Enugu north, Enugu West and Enugu east) involving two (2) local government areas (Nsukka and Igbo Etiti, Awgu and Ezeagu, Nkanu west and Enugu south) in each zone. A total of 18 catfishes were collected from the selected fish farms in these locations while fifty four (n=54) organs (liver, kidney and muscle) of the fish samples were extracted for analysis.

Two fish farms each selected from the three geographical zones in Enugu State;

Enugu North Local Government: Nsukka (Freedom Fishery Farm) and Igbo Etiti (Chukwuweife farm), Enugu West local Government: Awgu (Diamond Fish Farm) and Ezeagu (God is good farm) Enugu East Local Government: Enugu South (St. Mosco Feed the nation farm) and Nkanu west (Master's skill Acquisition centre, Agbani)

A total of 54 fish organs were extracted for this study from the selected fish. The fish samples were collected from the ponds of the selected fish farms as listed above, in a well labeled plastic bucket with lid. The collected samples were transported in plastic buckets with sufficient amount of ice blocks to prevent deterioration, and taken to the Department of Applied Biology and Biotechnology, Enugu State University of Science and Technology (ESUT), Enugu state, where the organs of interest; liver, gills and muscle were extracted and homogenised in a plastic tube and sent for analysis to the Toxicology Department of Arbovirus Research Centre Enugu, Enugu State.

### **Description of Method**

#### **Instrumentation**

The Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis for the different extracts was done using Agilent Technologies GC systems with GC-7890A/MS-5975C model (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) equipped with HP-5MS column (30 m in length  $\times$  250  $\mu$ m in diameter  $\times$  0.25  $\mu$ m in thickness of film).

Spectroscopic detection by GC-MS involved an electron ionization system which utilized high energy electrons (70 eV).

Pure helium gas (99.995 %) was used as the carrier gas with flow rate of 1 ml/min. the analysis was carried out in the Toxicology Department of Arbovirus Research Centre Enugu, Enugu State.

## **Preparation of Samples for GC Analysis (AOAC, 1990)**

### **Soxhlet Extraction Method**

Ten grams (10g) of the homogenized sample of the fish was mixed with 60g of anhydrous sodium sulphate in agate mortar to absorb moisture. The homogenate was placed in a 500ml beaker and extracted with 300ml of n – hexane for 24h. Crude extract obtained was evaporated using a rotary vacuum evaporator at 40<sup>0</sup>c, just to dryness.

### **Preparation of Sample for GC Analysis**

1ml of filtered residue was dissolved in 50ml of chloroform and transferred to a 100ml volumetric flask and diluted to the mark. The chloroform was evaporated at room temperature, 1ml of the reagent (20 % vol. benzene and 55 % vol. methanol) was added, sealed and heated at 40<sup>0</sup>C in a water bath for 10 minutes.

After heating, the organic sample was extracted using hexane and water was added to the reaction mixture. The mixture was shaken vigorously by hand for 2mins, a stable emulsion was formed, centrifugation was used to break the emulsion into layers. About half of the top hexane phase was transferred to a small test tube for injection. Adequate care was taken at this point to remove only the organic layer into a tube for injection. Injection directly from the reaction vial is usually discouraged because of the risk in injecting water, for it can ruin GC column.

### **Fixed Setting of Apparatus:**

Generally, gas flows to the columns, the inlets, the detectors, and the split ratio. In addition, the injector and detector temperatures must be set. The detectors are generally held at the high end of the oven temperature range to minimize the risk of analyte precipitation.

Set the oven temp to 180<sup>0</sup>c and allow the GCMS to warm up, when the instrument is ready, usually the not ready light will be turned off, and sample now runned. Using a vial, 1 microliter of the sample was injected into the sample injection port.

### **Preparation of standard**

10ul of standard was injected in the chromatography and the retention time compared with retention time of standard.

### **The GC–MS Analysis**

The GC–MS analysis of bioactive compounds from the different extracts was done using Agilent Technologies GC systems with GC-7890A/MS-5975C model (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) equipped with HP-5MS column (30 m in length × 250 µm in diameter × 0.25 µm in thickness of film). Spectroscopic detection by GC–MS involved an electron ionization system which utilized high energy electrons (70 eV).

Pure helium gas (99.995 %) was used as the carrier gas with flow rate of 1 mL/min.

The initial temperature was set at 120–180 °C with increasing rate of 3 °C/min and holding time of about 10 min.

Finally, the temperature was increased to 300 °C at 10 °C/min.

One microlitre of the prepared 1 % of the extracts diluted with respective solvents was injected in a splitless mode. Relative quantity of the antibiotic residue present in each of the extracts was determined based on peak area produced in the chromatogram.

### **Statistical Analysis**

The data obtained from the study were statistically analysed using the statistical package for social science (SPSS) version 20.0, (Chicago USA). Analysis of variance would be used to check for the significant mean difference between the detected drug residues followed by Post Hoc Duncan test to measure specific differences between pairs of mean. Values were presented as mean = standard deviation and level of significance set at < 0.05.

## **RESULTS**

### **Antibiotics Residue in Liver, Gills and Muscles of fish (*Clarias gariepinus*) Samples**

The result for the analysis of antibiotics residue in fish organs was represented in Table 1. It was observed that drug residues: such as tylosin, avilamycin, amoxicillin, chloramphenicol, gentamicin, lincomycin, acrolides, and quinolone were present in all the organs investigated (liver, gills, and muscles). The result showed the mean drug residue concentrations were higher in the order; macrolides > quinolone > lincomycin > chloramphenicol > amoxicillin > gentamicin > avilamycin > tylosin. Tylosin showed the least concentration in these organs while macrolides had

the highest concentration in the organs. In the **liver**, the concentration of tylosin, chloramphenicol and quinolone were highest with mean concentrations of  $1.77 \pm 0.50$ ,  $14.68 \pm 0.51$  and  $25.93 \pm 5.33$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  respectively. In the **gills**, concentrations of avilamycin, amoxicillin and gentamicin were observed to be highest with mean concentrations of ( $6.85 \pm 0.39$ ,  $11.01 \pm 0.34$  and  $11.20 \pm 0.24$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) respectively. Equal concentrations of lincomycin was observed in the liver, gills and muscles of the fish samples with mean concentration of  $21.68 \pm 0.43$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ . The muscles samples showed the least concentrations of most of the drug residues except the concentration of chloramphenicol which was observed to be higher in the muscle  $12.12 \pm 0.36$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  than in the gills  $12.00 \pm 0.33$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  of the samples. Also, the mean concentration of chloramphenicol in the muscles ( $12.06 \pm 0.35$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) were observed to be equal to the concentration observed in the gills. The concentrations of macrolides residues were observed to be highest amongst the analysed organs with mean concentration of ( $35.78 \pm 0.44$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) compared to the other antibiotics investigated.

**Table 1: Concentration of drug residues in *Clarias garienpinus* from the selected Local Government Areas**

| Location                     | Tylosin                | Avilamycin             | Amoxicillin             | Chloramphenicol         | Gentamicin              | Lycomycin               | Macrolides              | Quinolones              |
|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Nsukka                       | 3.84±0.30 <sup>a</sup> | 2.55±0.20 <sup>a</sup> | 8.99±0.22 <sup>a</sup>  | 13.82±0.50 <sup>a</sup> | 6.36±0.10 <sup>a</sup>  | 21.46±0.20 <sup>a</sup> | 29.70±0.41 <sup>a</sup> | 10.20±0.10 <sup>b</sup> |
| Igbo Etiti                   | 2.15±0.31 <sup>a</sup> | 5.44±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 9.23±0.10 <sup>a</sup>  | 12.99±0.55 <sup>a</sup> | 16.13±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 18.88±0.12 <sup>b</sup> | 30.17±0.55 <sup>a</sup> | 27.14±0.22 <sup>a</sup> |
| Awgu                         | 0.00±0.00              | 9.03±0.55 <sup>c</sup> | 11.53±0.31 <sup>b</sup> | 18.39±0.61 <sup>b</sup> | 0.00±0.00               | 24.84±0.50 <sup>a</sup> | 36.11±0.16 <sup>b</sup> | 39.05±0.65 <sup>c</sup> |
| Ezeagu                       | 1.68±0.30 <sup>b</sup> | 3.88±0.21 <sup>a</sup> | 10.70±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 4.74±0.05 <sup>c</sup>  | 15.96±0.30 <sup>b</sup> | 23.03±0.61 <sup>a</sup> | 67.05±1.22 <sup>c</sup> | 10.92±0.12 <sup>b</sup> |
| Nkanu                        | 0.42±0.05 <sup>c</sup> | 7.59±0.22 <sup>c</sup> | 9.93±0.30 <sup>a</sup>  | 12.77±0.12 <sup>a</sup> | 16.07±0.21 <sup>b</sup> | 23.73±0.60 <sup>a</sup> | 26.69±0.44 <sup>d</sup> | 36.93±0.22 <sup>c</sup> |
| Enugu South                  | 0.60±0.05 <sup>c</sup> | 5.75±0.12 <sup>b</sup> | 9.83±0.30 <sup>a</sup>  | 14.90±0.21 <sup>b</sup> | 0.00±0.00               | 18.15±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 24.98±0.30 <sup>d</sup> | 30.90±0.30 <sup>c</sup> |
| <b>MRL (EUL, 1990; 2008)</b> | 100                    | 200                    | 50                      | 0.2                     | 100                     | 100                     | 50                      | 100                     |

Results are in mean±SE. MRL – Maximum Residue Limit. Same alphabets within a column are not significantly different (p<0.05)

## **Antibiotics concentration in the liver of *C. garienpinus* samples from the selected L.G.A in Enugu State**

The concentrations of tylosin, avilamycin, amoxicillin, chloramphenicol, gentamicin, lincomycin, macrolides and quinolone were investigated in the liver of fish samples collected from different local government areas in Enugu State. Avilamycin, gentamicin and quinolone were not observed in the liver of fish samples from Nsukka. Tylosin and gentamicin were not observed in the liver of fish samples from Awgu L.G.A. Also, gentamicin was not observed in the liver of fish samples from Enugu South L.G.A (Table 2). The entire drug residues investigated were observed in the liver samples from Igbo Etit, Ezeagu and Nkanu L.G.A. The concentration of tylosin was observed to be highest in the samples from Nsukka ( $4.17 \pm 0.90 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) and lowest in samples from Enugu South ( $1.19 \pm 0.90 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Avilamycin concentration was observed to be highest in liver samples from Awgu L.G.A ( $9.08 \pm 0.80 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). The concentrations of amoxicillin, chloramphenicol, lincomycin, macrolides and quinolone were observed to be highest in liver samples from Awgu L.G.A ( $17.30 \pm 0.40$ ,  $18.92 \pm 0.80$ ,  $25.32 \pm 0.40$ ,  $36.21 \pm 0.40$  and  $38.96 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{g/kg}$  respectively). Liver sample of fishes from Enugu South had the lowest concentrations of lincomycin and macrolides ( $18.47 \pm 0.50$  and  $25.17 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{g/kg}$  respectively). Liver sample from Nsukka L.G.A had the lowest concentration of amoxicillin ( $9.37 \pm 0.90 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). The lowest concentration of chloramphenicol was observed in liver samples from Nkanu L.G.A ( $12.74 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Liver samples from Igbo Etit had the lowest concentrations of gentamicin ( $16.10 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) and quinolone ( $16.18 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Lincomycin and macrolides concentrations were lowest in samples from Enugu South L.G.A ( $18.47 \pm 0.50$  and  $25.12 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{g/kg}$  respectively) as shown in (Table 2).

The concentration of tylosin, avilamycin, amoxicillin, gentamicin, lincomycin, macrolides and quinolone in the liver of all the samples investigated from the different Local Government Areas were below the maximum residue limit set by the European Union Legislation (1990; 2008); 100, 200, 50, 100, 100, 50 and 100  $\mu\text{g/kg}$  respectively. The concentration of chloramphenicol in all the liver samples from the different L.G.As were above the EU maximum residue limit (0.2  $\mu\text{g/kg}$ ).

**Table 2: Concentration of drug residue in the liver of *C. gariepinus* samples from the selected Local Government Areas in Enugu State**

| Location                     | Tylosin<br>(µg/kg)     | Avilamycin<br>(µg/kg)  | Amoxicillin<br>(µg/kg)  | Chloramphenicol<br>(µg/kg) | Gentamicin<br>(µg/kg)   | Lincomycin<br>(µg/kg)   | Macrolides<br>(µg/kg)   | Quinolone<br>(µg/kg)    |
|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Nsukka                       | 4.17±0.90 <sup>a</sup> | 0.00±0.00              | 9.37±0.90 <sup>a</sup>  | 14.23±0.55 <sup>a</sup>    | 0.00±0.00               | 21.74±0.90 <sup>a</sup> | 29.73±0.37 <sup>a</sup> | 0.00±0.00               |
| Igbo Etit                    | 2.28±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 5.81±0.90 <sup>a</sup> | 9.55±0.80 <sup>a</sup>  | 13.07±0.40 <sup>b</sup>    | 16.10±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 19.16±0.90 <sup>b</sup> | 31.39±2.27 <sup>b</sup> | 16.18±0.40 <sup>a</sup> |
| Awgu                         | 0.00±0.00              | 9.08±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 17.30±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 18.92±0.90 <sup>c</sup>    | 0.00±0.00               | 25.32±0.40 <sup>c</sup> | 36.21±0.40 <sup>c</sup> | 38.96±0.40 <sup>b</sup> |
| Ezeagu                       | 1.69±0.40 <sup>c</sup> | 5.90±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 10.03±0.89 <sup>c</sup> | 14.21±0.40 <sup>a</sup>    | 16.14±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 23.07±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 27.06±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 32.76±0.40 <sup>c</sup> |
| Nkanu                        | 1.27±0.40 <sup>c</sup> | 7.69±0.55 <sup>c</sup> | 10.07±0.40 <sup>c</sup> | 12.74±0.40 <sup>b</sup>    | 16.17±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 23.69±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 27.07±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 36.83±0.40 <sup>b</sup> |
| Enugu South                  | 1.19±0.90 <sup>c</sup> | 5.79±0.45 <sup>a</sup> | 10.20±0.90 <sup>c</sup> | 14.92±0.40 <sup>a</sup>    | 0.00±0.00               | 18.47±0.50 <sup>b</sup> | 25.17±0.40 <sup>d</sup> | 30.87±0.40 <sup>d</sup> |
| <b>MRL (EUL, 1990; 2008)</b> | 100                    | 200                    | 50                      | 0.2                        | 100                     | 100                     | 50                      | 100                     |

Results are in mean ± SE; MRL – Maximum Residue Limit. Same alphabets within a column are not significantly different (p<0.05)

## Antibiotics concentration in the gills of *C. gariepinus* samples from the selected L.G.A in Enugu State

The concentrations of all drug residue investigated (tylosin, avilamycin, amoxicillin, chloramphenicol, gentamicin, lincomycin, macrolides and quinolone) were observed in the gills of fish samples from Nsukka and Igbo Etiti L.G.A. as shown in (Table 3). Tylosin and gentamicin were not observed in the gill samples from Awgu L.G.A. Likewise, tylosin was not observed in gill samples from Nkanu L.G.A. Chloramphenicol and quinolone were not observed in the gill samples from Ezeagu L.G.A. while gentamicin was not observed in the gill samples from Enugu South L.G.A. The concentrations of tylosin and gentamicin were highest in gill samples from Nsukka L.G.A ( $3.68 \pm 0.40$  and  $19.07 \pm 0.50$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  respectively). The concentrations of avilamycin, amoxicillin, chloramphenicol, lincomycin and quinolone were high in the gill samples from Awgu L.G.A ( $9.18 \pm 0.50$ ,  $17.30 \pm 0.40$ ,  $18.42 \pm 0.41$ ,  $25.42 \pm 0.50$  and  $39.07 \pm 0.51$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  respectively). Macrolides concentration was observed to be highest in the gill samples from Ezeagu L.G.A ( $147.06 \pm 1.20$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ). Gill samples from Nsukka L.G.A had the lowest concentrations of amoxicillin ( $8.87 \pm 0.50$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) and quinolone ( $30.59 \pm 0.40$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ). Igbo Etiti L.G.A gill samples had the lowest concentration of avilamycin ( $5.18 \pm 0.40$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ). The lowest concentration of gentamicin was observed in the gill samples from Ezeagu L.G.A ( $15.87 \pm 0.13$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ). Gill samples from Awgu L.G.A had the highest concentration of chloramphenicol ( $18.42 \pm 0.41$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ). The lowest concentrations of tylosin, lincomycin and macrolides were observed in the gill samples from Enugu South L.G.A ( $0.61 \pm 0.39$ ,  $17.99 \pm 0.02$  and  $24.88 \pm 0.12$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  respectively).

All the drug residue investigated were observed to be below the EU maximum residue limit (tylosin 100  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ , avilamycin 200  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ , amoxicillin 50  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ , gentamicin 100  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ , lincomycin 100  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ , macrolides 50  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  and quinolone 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) except for macrolides in the gills of samples from Ezeagu ( $147.06 \pm 0.40$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) which was above the EU maximum residue limit (50  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ). The concentration of chloramphenicol observed in all the samples were also above the EU maximum residue limit (0.2  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ )

**Table 3: Concentration of drug residue in the gills of *C. gariepinus* samples from the selected Local Government Areas in Enugu State**

| Location                     | Tylosin<br>(µg/kg)     | Avilamycin<br>(µg/kg)  | Amoxicillin<br>(µg/kg)  | Chloramphenicol<br>(µg/kg) | Gentamicin<br>(µg/kg)   | Lincomycin<br>(µg/kg)   | Macrolides<br>(µg/kg)    | Quinolone (µg/kg)       |
|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Nsukka                       | 3.68±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 7.66±0.40 <sup>a</sup> | 8.87±0.40 <sup>a</sup>  | 13.02±0.50 <sup>a</sup>    | 19.07±0.50 <sup>a</sup> | 21.29±0.45 <sup>a</sup> | 29.68±0.32 <sup>a</sup>  | 30.59±0.40 <sup>a</sup> |
| Igbo Etiti                   | 2.24±0.36 <sup>b</sup> | 5.18±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 9.26±0.51 <sup>a</sup>  | 13.07±0.40 <sup>a</sup>    | 16.10±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 18.76±0.50 <sup>b</sup> | 29.56±0.44 <sup>a</sup>  | 32.75±0.40 <sup>a</sup> |
| Awgu                         | 0.00±0.00              | 9.18±0.50 <sup>c</sup> | 17.30±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 18.42±0.41 <sup>b</sup>    | 0.00±0.00               | 25.42±0.50 <sup>c</sup> | 36.21±0.41 <sup>b</sup>  | 39.07±0.51 <sup>b</sup> |
| Ezeagu                       | 1.79±0.50 <sup>b</sup> | 5.74±0.26 <sup>b</sup> | 11.12±0.20 <sup>c</sup> | 0.00±0.00                  | 15.87±0.13 <sup>b</sup> | 23.17±0.50 <sup>a</sup> | 147.06±0.40 <sup>c</sup> | 0.00±0.00               |
| Nkanu                        | 0.00±0.00              | 7.57±0.43 <sup>a</sup> | 9.86±0.15 <sup>a</sup>  | 12.74±0.40 <sup>a</sup>    | 16.17±0.40 <sup>b</sup> | 23.84±0.55 <sup>a</sup> | 26.84±0.16 <sup>d</sup>  | 37.03±0.60 <sup>c</sup> |
| Enugu                        | 0.61±0.38 <sup>c</sup> | 5.74±0.40 <sup>c</sup> | 9.65±0.35 <sup>a</sup>  | 14.76±0.24 <sup>c</sup>    | 0.00±0.00               | 17.99±0.02 <sup>b</sup> | 24.88±0.12 <sup>d</sup>  | 30.98±0.50 <sup>a</sup> |
| South                        |                        |                        |                         |                            |                         |                         |                          |                         |
| <b>MRL (EUL, 1990; 2008)</b> | 100                    | 200                    | 50                      | 0.2                        | 100                     | 100                     | 50                       | 100                     |

Results are in mean ± SE; MRL – Maximum Residue Limit. Same alphabets within a column are not significantly different (p<0.05)

### **Antibiotics concentration in the **muscles** of *C. gariepinus* samples from the selected L.G.A in Enugu State**

The result in Table 4 showed the highest concentration of tylosin was observed in the muscle of samples from Nsukka L.G.A ( $3.12 \pm 0.38 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) and the lowest concentration was observed in samples from Ezeagu L.G.A ( $1.40 \pm 0.27 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Tylosin was not observed in muscle samples from Awgu, Nkanu and Enugu South L.G.A. The concentration of avilamycin was observed to be highest in muscle samples from Awgu L.G.A ( $8.84 \pm 0.16 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) and lowest in muscle samples from Igbo Etiti L.G.A ( $5.32 \pm 0.55 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Avilamycin was not observed in the muscle samples from Nsukka and Ezeagu L.G.A. Muscle samples from Ezeagu L.G.A had the highest concentration of amoxicillin ( $10.96 \pm 0.04 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) and muscle samples from Nsukka had the lowest concentration of amoxicillin ( $8.73 \pm 0.27 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Amoxicillin was not observed in muscle samples from Awgu L.G.A. Gentamicin concentration was observed to be highest in muscle samples from Igbo Etiti L.G.A ( $16.20 \pm 0.50 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) and lowest in muscle samples from Ezeagu L.G.A ( $15.87 \pm 0.13 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Gentamicin residue was not observed in the muscle samples from Nsukka, Awgu and Enugu South L.G.A. Lincomycin was observed in all the samples from all the different local government areas. The highest concentration of lincomycin was observed in samples from Nkanu L.G.A ( $23.65 \pm 36 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) while the lowest concentration was observed in samples from Enugu South L.G.A ( $17.99 \pm 0.15 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Also, the macrolides residue was observed in the all the samples from all the Local Government Areas investigated. The highest concentration of macrolides was observed in samples from Awgu L.G.A ( $35.90 \pm 0.10 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) and the lowest concentration was observed in samples from Enugu South L.G.A ( $24.88 \pm 0.12 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). The concentration of quinolone was observed to be highest in samples from Awgu L.G.A ( $39.12 \pm 0.34 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) and lowest in samples from Enugu South L.G.A ( $30.34 \pm 0.36 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ). Quinolone residue was not observed in samples from Nsukka and Ezeagu L.G.A (Table 4).

The concentration of all the drug residue investigated except for chloramphenicol ( $0.2 \mu\text{g/kg}$ ) were observed to be below the EU maximum residue limits (tylosin  $100 \mu\text{g/kg}$ , avilamycin  $200 \mu\text{g/kg}$ , amoxicillin  $50 \mu\text{g/kg}$ , gentamicin  $100 \mu\text{g/kg}$ , lincomycin  $100 \mu\text{g/kg}$ , macrolides  $50 \mu\text{g/kg}$  and quinolone  $100\mu\text{g/kg}$ ).

**Table 4: Concentration of drug residue in the muscle of *C. gariepinus* samples from the selected Local Government Areas in Enugu State**

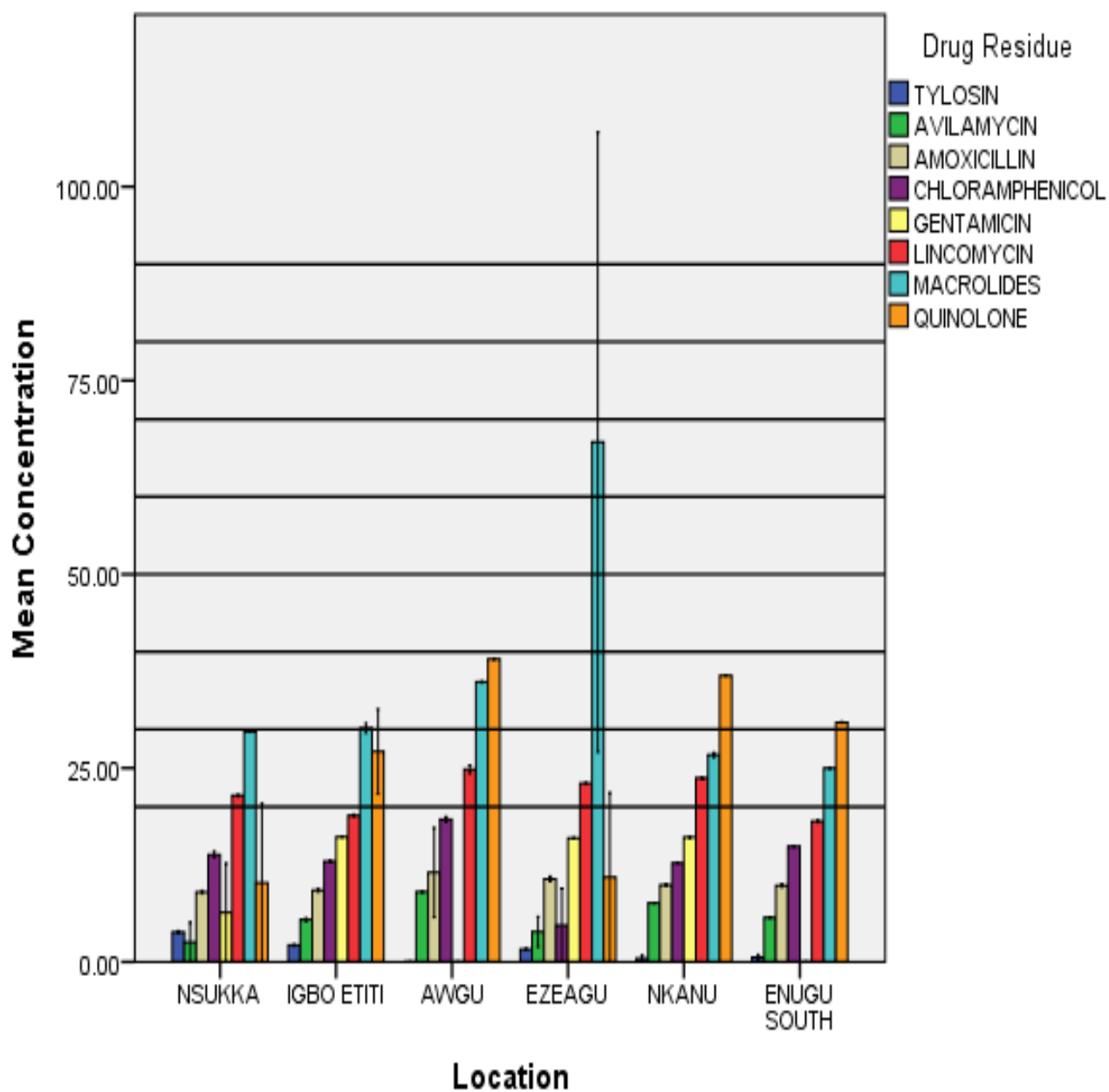
| Location                     | Tylosin<br>(µg/kg)     | Avilamycin<br>(µg/kg)  | Amoxicillin<br>(µg/kg)  | Chloramphenicol<br>(µg/kg) | Gentamicin<br>(µg/kg)   | Lycomycin<br>(µg/kg)    | Macrolides<br>(µg/kg)   | Quinolone<br>(µg/kg)    |
|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Nsukka                       | 3.68±0.38 <sup>a</sup> | 0.00±0.00              | 8.73±0.27 <sup>a</sup>  | 14.22±0.48 <sup>a</sup>    | 0.00±0.00               | 21.35±0.51 <sup>a</sup> | 29.68±0.32 <sup>a</sup> | 0.00±0.00               |
| Igbo Etiti                   | 1.94±0.06 <sup>b</sup> | 5.32±0.55 <sup>a</sup> | 8.88±0.13 <sup>a</sup>  | 12.83±0.18 <sup>b</sup>    | 16.20±0.50 <sup>a</sup> | 18.73±0.47 <sup>b</sup> | 29.56±0.44 <sup>a</sup> | 32.49±0.41 <sup>a</sup> |
| Awgu                         | 0.00±0.00              | 8.84±0.16 <sup>b</sup> | 0.00±0.00               | 17.82±0.50 <sup>c</sup>    | 0.00±0.00               | 23.78±0.22 <sup>c</sup> | 35.90±0.10 <sup>b</sup> | 39.12±0.34 <sup>b</sup> |
| Ezeagu                       | 1.40±0.27 <sup>b</sup> | 0.00±0.00              | 10.96±0.04 <sup>b</sup> | 0.00±0.00                  | 15.87±0.13 <sup>a</sup> | 22.84±0.16 <sup>a</sup> | 27.03±0.37 <sup>c</sup> | 0.00±0.00               |
| Nkanu                        | 0.00±0.00              | 7.52±0.37 <sup>b</sup> | 9.86±0.14 <sup>b</sup>  | 12.82±0.48 <sup>b</sup>    | 15.88±0.12 <sup>a</sup> | 23.65±0.36 <sup>c</sup> | 26.17±0.50 <sup>c</sup> | 36.93±0.50 <sup>c</sup> |
| Enugu South                  | 0.00±0.00              | 5.66±0.34 <sup>a</sup> | 9.65±0.35 <sup>b</sup>  | 15.02±0.50 <sup>a</sup>    | 0.00±0.00               | 17.99±0.02 <sup>b</sup> | 24.88±0.12 <sup>d</sup> | 30.84±0.36 <sup>a</sup> |
| <b>MRL (EUL, 1990; 2008)</b> | 100                    | 200                    | 50                      | 0.2                        | 100                     | 100                     | 50                      | 100                     |

Results are in mean ± SE; MRL – Maximum Residue Limit. Same alphabets within a column are not significantly different (p<0.05)

### Comparison of Drug Residue in *Clarias gariepinus* Samples from the Selected Local Government Areas in Enugu State

The levels of drug residues observed in catfish collected from the six Local government Areas investigated were summarized in Figure 2. It was observed that samples from Awgu L.G.A (tylosin  $0.00 \pm 0.00$ , avilamycin  $9.03 \pm 0.55$ , amoxicillin  $11.30 \pm 0.31$ , chloramphenicol  $18.39 \pm 0.61$ , gentamicin  $0.00 \pm 0.00$ , lincomycin  $24.84 \pm 0.50$ , macrolides  $36.11 \pm 0.16$ , quinolone  $39.05 \pm 0.65$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) had the highest levels of all the drug residue investigated except for macrolides ( $67.05 \pm 1.22$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) which was highest in samples from Ezeagu. Also, tylosin and gentamicin was not observed in the samples collected from Awgu L.G.A. Samples from Ezeagu LGA (tylosin  $1.68 \pm 0.30$ , avilamycin  $3.88 \pm 0.21$ , amoxicillin  $10.70 \pm 0.40$ , chloramphenicol  $4.74 \pm 0.50$ , gentamicin  $15.96 \pm 0.30$ , lincomycin  $23.03 \pm 0.61$ , macrolides  $67.05 \pm 1.22$  and quinolone  $10.92 \pm 0.12$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) had the second highest levels of drug residue. All the drug residues investigated were present in the samples collected from Ezeagu L.G.A. Samples collected from Nkanu L.G.A (tylosin  $0.42 \pm 0.05$ , avilamycin  $7.59 \pm 0.22$ , amoxicillin  $9.93 \pm 0.30$ , chloramphenicol  $12.77 \pm 0.12$ , gentamicin  $16.07 \pm 0.21$ , lincomycin  $23.73 \pm 0.60$ , macrolides  $26.69 \pm 0.44$ , quinolone  $36.93 \pm 0.22$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ) had the presence of all the drug residues investigated. Although the concentrations of these drug residues were observed to be below the concentrations observed in Awgu and Ezeagu samples; but higher than the concentrations observed in Igbo Etiti (tylosin  $2.15 \pm 0.31$ , avilamycin  $5.44 \pm 0.40$ , amoxicillin  $9.23 \pm 0.10$ , chloramphenicol  $12.99 \pm 0.55$ , gentamicin  $16.13 \pm 0.40$ , lincomycin  $18.88 \pm 0.12$ , macrolides  $30.17 \pm 0.55$ , quinolone  $27.14 \pm 0.22$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ), in Nsukka (tylosin  $3.84 \pm 0.30$ , avilamycin  $2.55 \pm 0.20$ , amoxicillin  $8.99 \pm 0.22$ , chloramphenicol  $13.82 \pm 0.50$ , gentamicin  $6.36 \pm 0.10$ , lincomycin  $21.46 \pm 0.20$ , macrolides  $29.70 \pm 0.41$ , quinolone  $10.20 \pm 0.10$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ), and Enugu South L.G.A (tylosin  $0.60 \pm 0.05$ , avilamycin  $5.75 \pm 0.12$ , amoxicillin  $9.83 \pm 0.30$ , chloramphenicol  $14.90 \pm 0.21$ , gentamicin  $0.00 \pm 0.00$ , lincomycin  $18.15 \pm 0.40$ , macrolides  $24.98 \pm 0.00$ , quinolone  $30.90 \pm 0.30$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ ). The entire drug residue investigated was observed in samples collected from Igbo Etiti L.G.A. It was observed that the concentrations of tylosin and chloramphenicol in samples from Igbo Etiti were higher than the concentration observed in samples from Nkanu L.G.A. But the concentrations of avilamycin, amoxicillin, gentamicin, macrolides and quinolone observed in samples from Igbo Etiti L.G.A were lower than the concentrations observed in samples from Nkanu west. Samples from Nsukka L.G.A had the lowest concentrations of the drug residues investigated compared to other Local Government Areas. The entire drug residue investigated was observed in the samples from Nsukka L.G.A but were the lowest concentrations except for tylosin. The concentration of

tylosin observed in samples from Nsukka L.G.A was the highest compare to the concentration of tylosin observed in samples from the other Local Government Areas.



**Figure 2: Concentrations of drug residues in *Clarias gariepinus* from the selected Local Government Areas under study**

**Table 5: Comparison of the mean drug residues concentration in *C. gariepinus* from the selected Local Government Areas**

| Locatio<br>n                             | Tylosin                    | Avilamyci<br>n             | Amoxicilli<br>n             | Chlorampheni<br>col     | Gentamici<br>n              | Lycomycin                   | Macrolide<br>s              | Quinolone<br>s              |
|--|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Nsukka                                   | 3.84±0.3<br>0 <sup>a</sup> | 2.55±0.2<br>0 <sup>a</sup> | 8.99±0.22<br>a              | 13.82±0.50 <sup>a</sup> | 6.36±0.10<br>a              | 21.46±0.2<br>0 <sup>a</sup> | 29.70±0.4<br>1 <sup>a</sup> | 10.20±0.1<br>0 <sup>b</sup> |
| Igbo<br>Etiti                            | 2.15±0.3<br>1 <sup>a</sup> | 5.44±0.4<br>0 <sup>b</sup> | 9.23±0.10<br>a              | 12.99±0.55 <sup>a</sup> | 16.13±0.4<br>0 <sup>b</sup> | 18.88±0.1<br>2 <sup>b</sup> | 30.17±0.5<br>5 <sup>a</sup> | 27.14±0.2<br>2 <sup>a</sup> |
| Awgu                                     | 0.00±0.0<br>0              | 9.03±0.5<br>5 <sup>c</sup> | 11.53±0.3<br>1 <sup>b</sup> | 18.39±0.61 <sup>b</sup> | 0.00±0.00                   | 24.84±0.5<br>0 <sup>a</sup> | 36.11±0.1<br>6 <sup>b</sup> | 39.05±0.6<br>5 <sup>c</sup> |
| Ezeagu                                   | 1.68±0.3<br>0 <sup>b</sup> | 3.88±0.2<br>1 <sup>a</sup> | 10.70±0.4<br>0 <sup>b</sup> | 4.74±0.05 <sup>c</sup>  | 15.96±0.3<br>0 <sup>b</sup> | 23.03±0.6<br>1 <sup>a</sup> | 67.05±1.2<br>2 <sup>c</sup> | 10.92±0.1<br>2 <sup>b</sup> |
| Nkanu                                    | 0.42±0.0<br>5 <sup>c</sup> | 7.59±0.2<br>2 <sup>c</sup> | 9.93±0.30<br>a              | 12.77±0.12 <sup>a</sup> | 16.07±0.2<br>1 <sup>b</sup> | 23.73±0.6<br>0 <sup>a</sup> | 26.69±0.4<br>4 <sup>d</sup> | 36.93±0.2<br>2 <sup>c</sup> |
| Enugu<br>South                           | 0.60±0.0<br>5 <sup>c</sup> | 5.75±0.1<br>2 <sup>b</sup> | 9.83±0.30<br>a              | 14.90±0.21 <sup>b</sup> | 0.00±0.00                   | 18.15±0.4<br>0 <sup>b</sup> | 24.98±0.3<br>0 <sup>d</sup> | 30.90±0.3<br>0 <sup>c</sup> |
| <b>MRL<br/>(EUL,<br/>1990;<br/>2008)</b> | 100                        | 200                        | 50                          | 0.2                     | 100                         | 100                         | 50                          | 100                         |

Results are in mean±SE. MRL – Maximum Residue Limit. Same alphabets within a column are not significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ )

### The Comparison of Mean Drug Residue Concentration amongst the Organ Samples

The result in Table 5 showed that tylosin, amoxicillin and lycomycin were highest in the liver. Also, avilamycin, gentamicin, macrolides and quinolone were observed to be the highest in the gills of *C. gariepinus* analysed. The result revealed that the muscle had the least level of drug residue except for chloramphenicol which had the highest residue level in the muscle. The drug residue level in the gills were the highest. All the drug residue levels were observed to be below the EU maximum residue level except for chloramphenicol which has (0.2 µg/kg) as EU maximum limit.

**Table 6: Comparison of the mean concentration of the organs across the selected Local Government Areas under study**

| Organ   | Tylosin                    | Avilamycin                 | Amoxicillin                 | Chloramphenicol         | Gentamicin                  | Lycomycin                   | Macrolides                  | Quinolone                   |
|---------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
|         |                            | n                          | n                           | col                     | n                           |                             | s                           | s                           |
| Liver   | 1.70±0.5<br>0 <sup>a</sup> | 5.71±0.4<br>5 <sup>b</sup> | 11.09±0.7<br>2 <sup>b</sup> | 14.68±0.51 <sup>b</sup> | 8.06±0.20<br>a              | 21.91±0.5<br>8 <sup>a</sup> | 29.44±0.7<br>1 <sup>a</sup> | 25.93±0.3<br>3 <sup>b</sup> |
| Gills   | 1.39±0.2<br>7 <sup>a</sup> | 6.85±0.3<br>9 <sup>b</sup> | 11.01±0.3<br>4 <sup>b</sup> | 12.00±0.34 <sup>a</sup> | 11.20±0.2<br>4 <sup>b</sup> | 21.75±0.4<br>2 <sup>a</sup> | 49.04±0.3<br>1 <sup>b</sup> | 28.40±0.4<br>0 <sup>c</sup> |
| Muscles | 1.17±0.1<br>2 <sup>a</sup> | 4.56±0.2<br>3 <sup>a</sup> | 8.01±0.01<br>a              | 12.12±0.16 <sup>a</sup> | 7.99±0.13<br>a              | 21.39±0.2<br>9 <sup>a</sup> | 28.87±0.3<br>1 <sup>a</sup> | 23.31±0.2<br>7 <sup>a</sup> |

Results are in mean $\pm$ SE. MRL – Maximum Residue Limit. Same alphabets within a column are not significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ )

### **Comparison of Mean Drug Residue in *Clarias garienpinus* Organ Samples from the Three (3) Senatorial Zones in Enugu State.**

The result in table 6 showed the mean levels of drug residues of the analysed samples from the three senatorial zones. The result showed that tylosin and gentamicin are the highest level of residues in Enugu north zone while avilamycin, amoxicillin, lycomycin, and quinolone had the least in this zones.

Amoxicillin, lycomycin and macrolides had the highest drug residue levels in Enugu west zone.

Also, avilamycin, chloramphenicol, and quinolone had the highest drug residue levels in Enugu east senatorial zones.

The results showed that Enugu north had the least of drug residue analysed while Enugu east and Enugu west had the highest level of drug residues.

All the drug residues analysed were observed to be below the EU maximum residue limit (Tylosin 100, Avilamycin 200, Amoxicillin 50, Chloramphenicol 0.2, Gentamicin 100, Lycomycin 100, Macrolides 50, Quinolides 100  $\mu$ g/kg).

**Table 7: Comparison of the mean drug residues concentration in *C. gariepinus* for the three senatorial zones**

| Location     | Tylosin                    | Avilamycin                 | Amoxicillin                 | Chloramphenicol         | Gentamicin                  | Lycomycin                   | Macrolides                  | Quinolones                  |
|--------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
|              | n                          | n                          | n                           | n                       | n                           | n                           | n                           | n                           |
| Enugu North  | 2.96±0.3<br>1 <sup>b</sup> | 3.95±0.3<br>0 <sup>a</sup> | 9.11±0.16<br>a              | 13.41±0.53 <sup>a</sup> | 11.25±0.2<br>5 <sup>b</sup> | 20.17±0.1<br>6 <sup>a</sup> | 29.44±0.3<br>5 <sup>b</sup> | 18.67±0.1<br>6 <sup>a</sup> |
| Enugu West   | 0.84±0.1<br>5 <sup>a</sup> | 6.46±0.3<br>8 <sup>b</sup> | 11.12±0.3<br>6 <sup>b</sup> | 11.57±0.33 <sup>b</sup> | 7.98±0.15<br>a              | 23.94±0.5<br>6 <sup>b</sup> | 51.58±0.6<br>9 <sup>c</sup> | 27.99±0.3<br>9 <sup>b</sup> |
| Enugu East   | 0.51±0.0<br>5 <sup>a</sup> | 6.57±0.1<br>7 <sup>b</sup> | 9.38±0.30<br>a              | 13.84±0.17 <sup>a</sup> | 8.04±0.11<br>a              | 20.94±0.5<br>0 <sup>a</sup> | 25.84±0.5<br>7 <sup>a</sup> | 33.92±0.2<br>6 <sup>c</sup> |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>4.43±0.5<br/>1</b>      | <b>17.12±0.1<br/>85</b>    | <b>30.11±0.8<br/>2</b>      | <b>38.82±1.03</b>       | <b>29.27±0.5<br/>1</b>      | <b>65.25±0.2<br/>2</b>      | <b>107.36±1.1<br/>41</b>    | <b>77.58±0.8<br/>1</b>      |
| <b>Mean</b>  | <b>1.44±0.1<br/>7</b>      | <b>5.71±0.2<br/>8</b>      | <b>10.04±0.2<br/>7</b>      | <b>12.94±0.34</b>       | <b>9.09±0.17</b>            | <b>21.68±0.4<br/>1</b>      | <b>35.99±0.4<br/>7</b>      | <b>25.36±0.2<br/>7</b>      |

Results are in mean±SE. MRL – Maximum Residue Limit. Same alphabets within a column are not significantly different (p<0.05)

## Discussion

The outcome of this research work reviewed that the following antibiotics were present in the analysed African catfish organs in this order; macrolides > quinolone > lincomycin > chloramphenicol > amoxicillin > gentamicin > avilamycin > tylosin. This is in line with Huerta *et. al.* 2018, who observed the presence of antibiotics residues of which most were antiepileptics and antidepressants drug residues in the fillets of wild fish samples collected from polluted river sites in the USA. Likewise, Rafati *et. al.* 2018, observed antibiotics oxytetracycline residue in the livers and fillets of *Oncorhynchus mykiss* collected from water discharge in Nahavand, Iran.

The presences of these residues could be attributed to the following reasons; farmers not following recommended label directions or dosage (extra-label usage); not adhering to recommended withdrawal times, administering too large a volume at a single injection site, use of drug-contaminated equipment, or failure to properly clean equipment used to mix or administer drugs, dosing, measuring, or mixing errors, allowing animals access to spilled chemicals or medicated feeds, animal effects- age, pregnancy, congenital, illness, allergies, chemical interactions between drugs, variations in water temperature for fish species, environmental contamination. This is in agreement with the reports of Van Dresser and Wilke, 1989 and Kukanich *et. al.* (2005), who reported that the high levels of veterinary drugs in food was due to failure to observe and adhere to the recommended withdrawal periods. Sundlof, 2000 suggested that the improper maintenance of treatment records or failure to identify treated animals

adequately can also lead to their omission. McCaughey *et. al.* 1990, was of the opinion that faecal recycling, where the drug excreted in faeces of treated animals contaminates the feed of untreated animals, can be the cause of residues of certain antimicrobial groups. This is in line with Elliott *et. al.* 1994, who said housing of un-medicated pigs in boxes where pigs had previously been treated orally with sulfamethazine resulted in residues in urine, kidney and diaphragm. Kaneene and Miller, 1997 and Higgins *et. al.* 1999, argued that high drug residues can also occur as a result of improper use of a licensed product or through the illegal use of an unlicensed substance or extra-label dosages and use. Residues can also occur in calves fed milk and/or colostrum from cows receiving antimicrobials as suggested by Guest and Paige, 1991. In most countries  $\beta$ -lactams are widely applied in mastitis therapy and are consequently the major reason for the presence of inhibitory substances in milk as purported by Sternesjö and Johnsson, 1998. The disease status of an animal and the way in which drugs are administered also influence the potential for residues as they affect the pharmacokinetics of the drugs, metabolism, or the presence of infection and/or inflammation may cause the drug to accumulate in affected tissues as suggested by Kaneene and Miller 1997. Subcutaneous and intramuscular administrations increase the potential for residues at the injection sites as suggested by Kaneene and Miller (1997) and Berands *et. al.* (2001). Secondary drug concentration peaks in plasma have been detected after subcutaneous injections of benzathine procaine penicillin. Contamination of feeding stuffs could also be an important source of unintended application of antimicrobials as suggested by McEvoy, 2002. In a survey carried out in Northern Ireland antimicrobials were detected in 44 % of feeds declared by the manufacturers to be free of medication (Lynas *et. al.* 1998). Residual quantities of medicated feed may be retained at various points along the production line, contaminating subsequent batches of feed as they are processed according to Kennedy *et. al.* 2000. Data from a sulfamethazine residue programme suggested that 25 % of violations were due to inadequate cleaning of feed mixers (Guest and Paige, 1991).

Amongst the local governments within the study areas it was discovered that Awgu local government as well as Enugu west senatorial zone had the highest drug residue level, this could be linked to farmers from this Awgu LGA and Enugu West senatorial zone possessing a limited knowledge of drugs residues in aquatic animals and its implication on the food safety and consumer health. This could also be tied to socio-demographic characteristics, pattern of application and level of awareness on dangers of use of antimicrobial agents. This supports the ascertainment of Abiola *et. al.* (2020), that awareness level of most farmers are low resulting in drug residue occurrence. It also lend taught to Banrie, (2013), who suggested farmers have limited

knowledge of antibiotics and their decision-making process farm owners depended on consultations from sellers and manufacturers for antibiotics, who may encourage them to use antibiotics indiscriminately to make profit. Olufemi Olatoye and Basiru Afisu, (2013) reported that misuse of antibiotics in aquaculture production without veterinary prescription and control coupled with lack of awareness of the food safety consequences were the contributing factors for the high level of residue violation. Samwel Limbu *et. al.* (2020), suggested that the rearing of fish in intensive systems reduced their immunity leading to eruption of diseases, consequently prompting the use of antibiotics. Similarly, Okoacha *et. al.* 2020, highlighted that farmers with secondary and tertiary education were more likely to produce fish that contained antibiotics residues than those with primary education, while fish farms managed by men were about three times more likely to contain residues than those managed by women. Also, Idowu *et. al.* 2010 suggested that two-third of farmers were not adhering to the recommendation of drug use and thus allowing drug residues in egg. Olatoye *et. al.* 2010 reported that the high level of drug residue was as a result of the indiscriminate and misuse of veterinary drugs as commonly practiced among livestock producers and marketers without observing withdrawal period prior to slaughter. Beyene, 2016, argued that the most likely reason for drug residues maybe as a result human management, such as improper usage, including extra-label or illegal drug applications. Contrary to the above views is Esther *et. al.* 2005, who argued that other practices such as manure use and untreated waste disposal may contribute to antibiotic resistance on fish farms in Ghana not use of antibiotics.

Amongst the analysed organs, the gills had the highest, followed by the liver and then the muscle Table 7, this could be attributed to the gills being the site for drug action in fish, as well as the muosa. This also confirmed the opinion of Banrie (2013), who noted that the gills and gut mucosa are sites of drug action where there is high rate of blood circulation. Also, the fish gills serve as a multi-functional organ in that it serves for gaseous exchange, play other role which includes; osmotic and ionic regulation, acid-base regulation and excretion of nitrogenous waste. This was in agreement with David *et. al.* (2003), who suggested that the gill epithelium is the site of many processes that are mediated by the renal epithelia in the terrestrial vertebrates. Beyene *et. al.* (2016), was of the opinion that veterinary drug residues usually accumulate in the liver or kidney rather than other tissues. He also argued that the different residue levels can be found in the different tissue positions such as site and routes of administration. Mensah *et. al.* 2019 and Rafati *et. al.* 2018, also observed higher concentrations of oxytetracycline in the liver of *O. mykiss* samples collected from Nahavand, Iran. In contrast to these findings, Mensah *et. al.* 2019,

observed high concentrations of tetracyclines (about 11.1 %) in the muscles of *C. gariepinus* and *O. niloticus* samples collected from Benin. They noted that drug residues were not observed in any other fish tissue other than the muscles.

### Conclusion

The study has shown the presence of antibiotic drug residue in fish samples collected from six local government areas in Enugu State. The study indicated disparities in the concentrations of drug residues observed in the samples from the different Local Government Areas. The muscle of the fish sample had the lowest levels of drug residue compared to the liver and gills. Samples from Nsukka L.G.A had the lowest levels of drug residues; whereas, samples from Awgu L.G.A had the highest levels of drug residues. Amongst the senatorial zones Enugu North L.G.A. had the lowest levels of drug residues; whereas, samples from Enugu West and Enugu East L.G.A. had the highest levels of drug residues. Although the concentrations of these drug residues observed in the samples were below the European Union maximum residue limit, it is important to control and monitor the contamination of edible food source by antibiotics residues in order to prevent the consequences it poses to human health.

### REFERENCES

- Abiola Durojaiye, Akintuyole S. A., Balogun T. E., Sule, S. O., Ojetayo, T. A. (2020). Survey on farmers' awareness on the dangers associated with the use of antimicrobial agents in hatcheries in Ijebu-ode Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of fisheries*, **17** (1): 1946-50.
- Agbelegbe and Olarewaju (2010). Overview of Aquaculture Systems in Egypt and Nigeria, Prospects, Potentials and Constraints. *J. of Aquaculture and Fisheries*. **6**: 535-547.
- Agoba E.E., Adu F., Agyare C. and Boamah V.E. (2017). Antibiotic use and practices in selected fish farms in Ashanti region of Ghana. *Journal of infectious diseases and treatment*. **3**(2),0-0.
- Ahmad, M. K., and Ibrahim, S. S. (2016). Local fish meal formulation: Its principles, prospects and problems in fishery industry. *International Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Studies*, **4** (1): 276-279.
- Ali, E. A., Gaya, H.I.M. and Jampada, T.N. (2008). Economic analysis of fresh fish marketing in Maidugri Gaboru Market and Kachallari Alau Dam Landing Site of Northeastern Nigeria. *J. Agric. Soc. Sci.*, **4**: 23-26.
- Ali, H., Rico, A., Murshed-e-Jahan, K. and Belton, B. (2016). An assessment of chemical and biological product use in aquaculture in Bangladesh, *Aquaculture J.*, **454**: 199–209.

- Amao, J. O., Awoyeni, T. T., Omonona, B. T. and Falusi, A.O. (2009). Determinants of poverty among fish farming households in Osun State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Agricultural Economics and Rural Development*, **2**(2): 14-25.
- Amy Pruden, Joakim L., and Young-Guan, Z. (2013). Mgt options for reducing the release of antibiotics and antibiotics resistance genes in the environment. *Enviro health prospective*, **121**(8): 878-885.
- Avsever, M. L., Türk, N. and Tunaligil, S. (2010). The increase of antibiotic resistance in aquaculture and its effects on human health. *Journal of Aquaculture*, **32** (46): 19-23.
- Banrie, (2013). Use of Antimicrobial Agents in Aquaculture. An introduction to fish health management. *J. of fishery*, **1**.
- Beyene, T. T. (2015). Veterinary drug residues in the food- animal products. Its risk factors and potential effects on public health. *Journal of Veterinary Science and Technology*, **7** (1).
- Beyene, T. (2016). Veterinary Drug Residues in Food-animal Products: Its Risk Factors and Potential Effects on Public Health. *J Veterinar Sci Technol.*, **7**: 285.
- Bulletin of United Nations meeting on antimicrobial resistance (2006). Antibiotic resistance in the food chain. Bulletin World Health organization. A developing country perspective 16:020916
- CAC, (1997). Hazard analysis and critical control point (HACCP) system and guideline for its application Codex Alimentarius Commission (CAC) food hygiene basic texts. Rome, FAO/WHO Pp: 58
- CAC- Codex Alimentarius Commission, (2006). Joint FAO/WHO Food Standards Programme Codex Alimentarius Commission 29th Session Report of the Sixteenth Session of the Codex Committee On Residues Of Veterinary Drugs In Foods Cancun, Mexico.
- CAC. (2009). Codex Alimentarius Commission Maximum Residue Limits for Veterinary Drugs in Foods. Updated as at the 32nd Session of the Codex Alimentarius Commission (July 2009). CAC/MRL. Pp. 1-36
- Cheeke, P.R. (2002). Rabbit feeding and nutrition. Rabbit research centre, Department of Animal science, Oregon state University, Corvallis, Academicpress Inc, pp. 66 .
- CBN, (2016). 2015 Statistical Bulletin: Domestic production, Consumption and prices. Central Bank of Nigeria. Annual statistical Bulletin.
- Dauda, A. B., Natrah, I., Karim, M., Kamarudin, M.S. and Bichi, A. H. (2018). African catfish aquaculture in Malaysia and Nigeria: Status, trends and prospects. *Fisheries and Aquaculture Journal*, **9** (1): 1-5.

- David, H. E., Peter, M. E. and Keith, P. C. (2003). The multi-functional fish gills: Dominant sites of gaseous exchange, osmoregulation, Acid-base regulation and excretion of nitrogenous waste. *Phy. Rev. J.*, **10**: 1153 .
- Elliot, C. T., Baxter, G. A., Crooks, S. R. H. and McCaughey, W. J. (1999). The development of a rapid immunobiosensor screening method for the detection of residues of sulphadiazine. *Food Agric. Immunol*, **11**:19-27.
- Erdogdu, A.T. (2012). Using antibiotics in aquatic living beings, Rational use of antibiotics and antimicrobial resistance symposium, Ankara, Turkey, pp 87-95.
- Esu, B.B., Asa, U.A. and Iniedu, M.O. (2009) Costs and returns of fish production using earthen ponds in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Agriculture, Food and Environment*, **5** (4): 26-29.
- Esther, E. A., Francis, A., Christian, A. and Vivian, E. A. (2017). Use and practices in selected fish farms in Ashanti region. *J. of infectious diseases and treatment*, **3**: 2-9.
- European Commission (EC) (2001). Notice to Applicant and Note for Guidance Establishment of Maximum residue limits for residue of veterinary medicinal products in food stuffs of Animal Origin, Pp: 4-10.
- European Commission (2002). Commission decision on 12 Aug. 2002 implementing Council Directive 96/23/EC Concerning the performance of results. *J. Eur Communities* 221:8-36
- European Commission (EC) (2010). Omission Regulation EU No37/2010 of 22<sup>nd</sup> December 2009 on pharmacologically active substance and their classification regarding maximum residue limits in foodstuffs of animal origin official Journal European Union, **15**: 1-72
- European Commission (EC) (2012). Commission Staff working document on the Implementation of National residue Monitoring Plan in the member States in 2009 (Council Directive 96/23/ EC).
- Fagbenro, O .A., Adedire, C. O., Oweseeni, E. A. and Ayotunde, E. O. (1993). Studies on the biology and aquacultural potential of feral catfish, *Heterobranchus bidorsalis* (Clariidae). *Tropical Zoology*, **6**: 67-79.
- F.A.O. (Food and Agricultural Organisation (1991)). Fish for Food and Employment. Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome, Italy Global Agriculture Information Network Report, 17026.
- F.A.O. / WHO, (2003). Code of practice for fish and by Fishery products. Codex Alimentarius Commission. FAO, Rome: Pp 238.
- FAO, (2004). The State of the World Fisheries and Aquaculture (SOFIA). Rome: FAO 1997.

- F.A.O / WHO., (2005). Regional Review on Aquaculture Development in Sub-Sahara Africa. FAO Fisheries Circular **1017**(4): 1-23.
- F.A.O of the United Nations, (2007). Food safety risk analysis. A guide for National food safety Authorities. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper 87, FAO, Rome Pp145.
- FAO / WHO, (2008). Definitions for the purpose of the Codex Alimentarius. In: Procedural manual, 18<sup>th</sup> ed., Rome, Food and Agricultural organization of the United Nations, Codex Alimentarius Commission, Pp: 17-19.
- FAO / WHO, (2009). Maximum Residue Limits for pesticides and Veterinary Drugs, principles and methods for the risks Assessment of Chemicals in food. Environmental Health criteria, Pp:240.
- FAO / WHO, (2018). Residue evaluation of certain Veterinary drug. Joint FAO/WHO Expert committee on food additives- 85<sup>th</sup> meeting 2017 FAO Monographs 21. Rome Italy.
- FAO / WHO, (2020). Residue evaluation of certain veterinary drugs. Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on food Additives -88<sup>th</sup> meeting 2019.
- F.D.F. (Federal Department of Fisheries (2007)). Fishery Statistics, FDF, Abuja, Nigeria.
- Food and Drug administration Center for Veterinary Medicine (FDA- CVM) (2006) Guidance for approval of a withdrawal period. In: Contains-Binding Recommendations: Guidance for Industry- General Principles for evaluating the safety of compounds used in food-producing animals. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
- Guest, G. B. and Paige, J.C. (1991). The magnitude of the tissue residue problem with regard to consumer needs. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.* **198**:805-808.
- Gutsell, J. (1946). Sulfa Drugs and the treatment of Furunculosis in the Trout. *J. of fish health*, **104**: 85-86.
- Heshmanti, A. (2015). Impact of cooking Procedures on antibacterial drug residues in foods: A Review. *Journal of food quality and Harzards control*, **2**(2): 33-37.
- Heuer, O. E., Kruse, H., Grave, K., Collignon, P. and Karunasagar, I. (2009). Human health consequences of use of antimicrobial agents in aquaculture. *Clin Infect Dis.*, **49**: 1248-1253.
- Heurta, B., Rodriguez-mozaz, S., Lazorchak, J., Baecolo, D., Batt, A., Watten, J. and Stahl, L. (2018). Presence of Pharmaceuticals in fish collected from Urban rivers in US EPA 2008-2009 National Rivers and Streams Assesment. *Science of the Total Enviroment*, **634**: 542-549.
- Higgins, H. C., McEvoy, J. D. G., Lynas, L. and Fagan, N. P. (1999). Evaluation of a single plate microbiological growth inhibition assay as a screening test for the presence of

- antimicrobial agents in compound animal feedingstuffs at therapeutic and contaminating concentrations. *J. of Food Addit. Contam.* **16**:543-554.
- Idowu, O. F., Jumaid, K., Paul, A. (2010). Antimicrobials screening of commercial eggs and the determination of tetracycline using two microbiological methods. *International Journal of Poultry*, **9**(10): 1.
- Igwe, K.C. and Onyekwere, O.N. (2007). Meat Demand analysis in Umuahia Metropolis Abia State. *Agricultural Journal*, **2** (5): 550-554.
- Iheke, O.R. and Nwagbara, C. (2014). Profitability and viability analysis of catfish enterprise in Abia. *Journal of Agriculture and Social Research*. **14** :1
- Inoni, O. E., Ekokotu, P. A. and Idoge, D. E. (2017). Factors influencing participation in homestead catfish production in Delta state, Nigeria. *Acta Agriculturae Slovenica*, **110** (1): 21–28
- Jjemba, P.K. (2006). Excretion and ecotoxicity of pharmaceutical and personal care products in the environment. *Ecotoxi J.*, **130**.
- Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA) (2013). Residue evaluation of certain veterinary drugs. 8<sup>th</sup> meeting FAO/JECFA monographs, pp.15.
- Kaneene, J. B., Miller, R. (1997). Problems associated with drug residues in beef from feeds and therapy. *Rev Sci Tech.*, **16**: 694-708.
- Kennedy, D. G., Young, P. B. and McCracken, R. J. (2003). Analysis of veterinary drug residues in food. The nitrofurans issue. *Mitteilungen aus Lebensmitteluntersuchung and Hygiene*, **94**: 510-526.
- Kohanski, M. A., Dwyer, D. J., Collins, J. J. (2010). How antibiotics kill bacteria: from targets to network. *Nat. Rev. Microbiology*. **8**: 423-435.
- Korean Food and Drug Administration (KFDA), (2011). Validation study of the dietary questionnaire for assessing exposure to food-borne hazards. *Journal of Nutrition and Health*, **442**: 171-180.
- Krupesha, S., Sumithra, S. R., Gangadharan, S. (2020). Evaluation of biosafety and tissue residue of oxytetracycline in juvenile *Snubnose pompano*, *Trachinotus blochii* along with in-vitro efficacy against fish pathogen. *J. of aquaculture*, **30**(40): 30.
- Kudi, T.M., Bako, F.P. and Atala, T.K. (2008). Economics of fish production in Kaduna State, Nigeria. *ARNP. Journal of Agricultural and Biological Science*, **3** (6): 17-21.
- Kukanich, B., Gehring R., Webb, A. I., Craigmill, A. L., and Riviere, J. E. (2005). Effect Of Formulation And Route Of Administration On Tissue Residues And Withdrawal Times. *J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc.*, **227**: 1574-1577.

- Kümmerer, K. (2009). Antibiotics in the aquatic environment--a review--Part I. *J. Chemosphere*. **75**:417-34.
- Lakshmi K. J., J., Devi, P. R. and Mukkanti, K. (2010). Quantitative determination of residual hydrazine content in cilazapril by ion chromatography. *Oriental Journal of chemistry*, **26**(3): 1001.
- Levey, S. B. (1992). The antibiotics paradox, how miracle drugs are destroying the miracle. Plenum publication, New York.
- Levy, S. B., Marshall, B., (2004). Antibacterial resistance worldwide: Causes, challenges and responses. *Nat. Med.*, **10**:122–129.
- Lienert, J., Bürki, T. and Escher, B.I. (2007). Reducing micropollutants with source control: substance flow analysis of 212 pharmaceuticals in faeces and urine. *Water Sci. Technol. J. Int. Assoc. Water Pollut. Res.* **56**: 87–96.
- Lynas, L., Currie, D., McCaughey, W. J., McEvoy, D.J. and Glenn, D. (1998). Contamination of animal feeding stuffs with undeclared antimicrobial additives. *J. of food additives and contaminant*. **15** (2): 162-170.
- Madhu, S. (2021). Toxic effects of pharmaceutical with reference to oxytetracycline. *Asian Journal of pharmaceutical and clinical research*, **14**(1): 64-68.
- Mahmoudi, R., Gajarbeygi, P., Norian, R. and Farhoodi, K. (2015). Chloramphenicol, sulfonamide and tetracycline residues in cultured rainbow trout meat (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), Bulgarian. *Journal of Veterinary Medicine*. **17**(2): 147-152.
- Martínez, J. L. (2008). Antibiotics and antibiotic resistance genes in natural environments. *Science J.*, **321**:365–367.
- Martinez, J. L. (2009). The role of natural environments in the evolution of resistance traits in pathogenic bacteria. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.*, **276**: 2521–2530.
- McCaughey, W. J., Elliot, C. T., Campbell, J. N. and Rice, D. (1990). Tissue residues in pigs feed on meal contaminated with sulphadimidine during mixing. *Iran Vet. Journal*, **43**.
- McEvoy, J. D. G. (2002). Contamination of animal feed stuffs as a cause of residues in food. A review of regulatory aspects, incidence and control. *Analytica Chimica Acta.*, **473**: 2-26.
- Mensah, S.E.P., Ahissou, H. H., Koudande, O.D., Salifou, S., Mensah, G. A., Abiola, F.A. (2011). Detection of antibiotics residues in meat of reformed and marketed laying hens in southern Benin. *Int. J. Biol. Chem. Sci.* **5** (6): 2195-2204.
- Mensah, S. E. P, Koudandé, O. D., Sanders, P., Laurentie, M. and Mensah, G. A. (2014). Antimicrobial residues in foods of animal origin in Africa: public health risks. *Rev Sci Tech*, **33** (3): 987-996.

- Mensah, S. E. P., Dokpogan, H., Aboh, A. B., Chabi, S. K. and Ableto, M. (2019). Occurrence of antibiotic residues in raw fish *Clarias gariepinus* and *Oreochromis niloticus* from intensive system in Benin. *Veterinaria, Veterinary faculty sarajiro*, **68**(20): 91-94
- Miller, J. and Atanda, T. (2007). Catfish culture in Nigeria: progress, prospects and problems. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*. **6**(6): 1281-1285.
- Mohammad, M. A., Aowsafur, M. R., Hossain, M.B. and Rahman, M. Z. (2014). Aquaculture Drugs Used for Fish and Shellfish Health Management in the Southwestern Bangladesh. *Asian Journal of Biological Sciences*. **7**: 225-232.
- Muriuki, F. K Ogara, W. O, Njeruh And Mitema E. S. (2001). Tetracycline residue levels in cattle meat from Nairobi slaughterhouse in Kenya.
- National Research Council (2011). Nutrient requirement of fish and shrimps. Committee on the Nutrient requirements of fish and shrimp; National Research Council. National Academic Press Washington DC, USA, pp: 392.
- Nigerian Population Commission (NPC) (2006). 2006 Nigerian Census Figures. Nigerian Population Commission, Abuja.
- Nisha, A.R. (2008). Antibiotic Residues - A Global Health Hazard. *Veterinary World*, **1**:375-377.
- Okocha, Reuben, Olufemi Olatoye and Peter Ibukun, (2020). Aquaculture management practices associated with antimicrobial residues in SouthWest Nigeria. *J. Aquaculture*, 533.
- Oladimeji, Y.U., (2017). Trend in fish production parameters in Nigeria and its total estimated demand: empirical evidence from fish production. *J. Anim. Prod. Res*, **29**(1): 410-418.
- Olagunje, F.I., Adesiyani, I.O. and Ezekiel, A.A., (2007). Economic Viability of Cat Fish Production in Oyo State, Nigeria. *J. Hum. Ecol.*, **21**(2): 121-124.
- Olatoye, I. O., and Ehinmowo, A.A. (2010). Oxytetracycline Residues in edible tissues of Cattle Slaughtered in Akure, Nigeria. *Nigerian. Veterinary Journal*. **31** (2): 93-102.
- Olatoye, I. O. and Basiri, A. (2013). Antibiotic usage and oxytetracycline residue in African catfish (*C.gariepinus*) in Ibadan, Nigeria. *World fish marine sci*. **5** (3): 302-3099
- Olayinka, A. O., Olatoye, I. O., Okocha, R. O., Obisesan, A. D., Adedeji, O. B. (2018). Antibiotics and Ivermectin residues in commercial *Clarias gariepinus* (catfish) and feeds available in Southwest, Nigeria. *Journal of fisheries*. **36**: 1
- Olufemi, I. O. and Basiru, A. (2013). Antibiotic usage and oxytetracycline residues in African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) in Ibadan, Nigeria. *World journal fish and mar. Sci*, **5**(3): 302- 309.

- Onada, O. A. and Ogunola, O.S. (2017). Effects of catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) brood-stocks Egg combination on hatchability and survival of fish larvae. *Journal of Aquaculture Research & Developmen.* **2**.
- Onyekuru, N. A., Ihemezie, E. J. and Chima, C. C. (2019). Socioeconomic and profitability analysis of catfish: case study of Nsukka Local Government area of Enugu state , Nigeria. *J of tropical agriculture, food, environment and extension*, **18** (2): 51-58.
- Paige, J. C., Tollerfson, L. and Miller, M. C. (1999). Health implication of residues of Vet. Drugs and chemical in animal tissues. *Vet. Clinic North Am. Food Anim. Pract.*, **15** (1): 31-43.
- Peeters, L. E., Daeseleire, E., Devreese, M., Rasschaert, G., smet, A., Dewulf, J., Heyndricks M., Imberechts, H., Haesebroick, F., Butaye, P. and Croubels, S. (2016). Residues of chlortetracycline, doxycyclin and sulfadiazine-trimethoprim in the intestinal content and faeces of pigs due to cross contaminationof feeds. *B.M.C Vet. Res.* **12**: 209.
- Perrin-Guyomard, A., Cottin, S., Corpet, D.E., Boisseau, J. and Poul, J. M. (2001), Evaluation of residual and therapeutic doses of tetracycline in the human-flora-associated (HFA) mice model, *Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology*, **34**(2): 125-136.
- Pham, D. K. (2015). Monitoring antibiotics use and residue in fresh water aquaculture for domestic use in Vietnam. *J. EcoHealth*, **12**: 480-489.
- Poole, C. F. (2015). Ionization based dectector for gas chromatography. *Journal of chromatography A.*, **1421**: 137-153.
- Rafati, L., Ehrampoush, M. H., Mokhtari, M., Sohrabi, A., Shirazi, A., Mahvi, A.M. and Momtaz, S. M. (2017). The analysis of Oxytetracycline residue in tissues of cultured rainbow trouts (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *Health Scope.*, **7**(2): 57495
- Reuben, C. O., Olatoye, I. O. and Adedeji, O. B. (2018). Food safety impacts of Antimicrobial use and their residues in Aquaculture. *Public health review J.* **21**
- Riviere J.E., Cragmill, A.L., sundlof, F. (1991).Handbook of comparative pharmacokinetics and residues of veterinary antimicrobials. Boca Raton, FL (ED) CRC press, Inc, Florida, USA.
- Salehzadeh, F., Madani, R., Salehzadeh, A., Rokni, N. and Golchinefar, F. (2006). Oxytetracycline Residue in Chicken Tissues from Tehran Slaughterhouses inIran. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition.* **5** (4): 377-381.
- Samuel, M. L., Li-Qiao, C., Mei-ling, Z., (2020). A global analysis on the systemibc effects of antibiotics in cultured fish and their potential health risk. *Review in Aquaculture.* **13** (2): 1015-1059.

- Sapkota A, Sapkota, A.R., Kucharski, M., Burke, J., McKenzie, S., Walker, P. and Lawrence, R., (2008). Aquaculture practices and potential human health risks: current knowledge and future priorities, *Environment International*. **34**(8): 1215–1226.
- Schwarz, S. and Chaalus-danda, E.(2001). Use of antimicrobials in veterinary medicine and mechanisms of resistance. *Vet. Res. J*. **32**: 201-205.
- Shareef, A. M., Jamel, Z. T. and Yonis, K. M. (2009). Detection of antibiotic residues in stored poultry products. *Iraqi Journal of Veterinary Sciences*, **23**: 45-48.
- Shehel Rana, M. D., Seung, Y. L., Kang, H.I. and Sun, J. H. (2019). Reducing Veterinary drug Residues in Animal products. *J of foodSci.Anim Resour*. **39**(5):687-703.
- Stålsby Lundborg, C., Tamhankar, A.J., (2017). Antibiotic residues in the environment of South East Asia. *Bio Med J*. **358**:2440.
- Sternesjö, Å. and Johnsson, G. J. (1998). A novel rapid enzyme immunoassay (Fluorophos BetaScreen) for detection of beta-lactam residues in ex-farm raw milk. *J. Food. Prot.*, **61**:808-811.
- Sundlof, S. F., Fernandez, A. H. and Paige, J. C. (2000) Antibiotic Residues in Food Producing Animals. In: *Antimicrobial Therapy in Veterinary Medicine*. Prescott JF, Baggot RD, Walker RD (ed): 3rd Edition: Iowa State University Press, USA. pp 744-759.
- Takele, B., Abdulkaf, K., Tariku, J., Fanos, T. and Dinka, A. (2015). Assessment on chemicals and drugs residue in dairy and poultry products in Bishoftu and Modjo, central Ethiopia. *J Nutri Food Sci.*, **13**: 3.
- Takele, B. (2015). Veterinary drug residues in food-animal products: its risk factors and potential effects on the public health. *J veterinary Sci. Technology*. **7**:1.
- Takele, B. (2016). Veterinary drug residues in food-animal products: its risk factors and potential effects on the public health. *J veterinary Sci. Technology*, **7**:1.
- Udoh, I. U. and Dickson, B. F. (2017). The Nigerian Aqua- feed industry potentials for commercial feed production. *Nigerian Journal of Fisheries and Aquaculture*. **5** (2): 86-95.
- Ugwumba, C.O.A. and Chukwuji, C. (2010). The economics of Catfish production in Anambra state, Nigeria: a profit function project. *Journal of Agriculture and Social sciences*, **6**(4): 105-109.
- United Nation, (2003). Food and agricultural organization of the United Nations, World Health Organization. Assuring food safety and quality: guideline for strengthening National Food Control System. United Nation paper 76.

- US-FDA, (1996). United States Food and Drug Administration. Microbiological testing of antimicrobial drug residues in food, U.S. Food and Drug Administration, Center for Veterinary Medicine Guideline no. 52.
- Van Boeckel, T. P., Brower, C., Gilbert, M., and Greenfell, B. T. (2015). Global trends in antimicrobial use in food animals. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **112**: 5649–5654.
- Van Boeckel, T. P., Brower, C., Gilbert, M., and Greenfell, B. T. (2017). Reducing antimicrobial use in food animals. *Science*. **357**: 1350–1352.
- Van Dresser W. R. and Wilcke J. R. (1989). Drug residues in food animals. *J Am Vet Med Assoc.*, **194**:1700–1710
- World Health Organization -WHO (1988).] Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA). Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food: Monograph prepared by the thirty-second meeting of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives. WHO Technical Report Series, No. 763.
- WHO, Geneva. World Health Organization -WHO (1991). Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA). Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food: Monograph prepared by the thirty-sixth meeting of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives. WHO Technical Report Series, No. 815. WHO, Geneva.
- World Health Organization -WHO (2000). Global principles for the containment of antimicrobial resistance in animals intended for food. Report of a WHO Consultation with FAO and OIE. Geneva, Switzerland.
- World Health Organization (2006). Food Safety risk analysis. A guide for national safety authorities.
- World Health Organization (2007). World Health Organization guidelines on use of medically important antimicrobials in Food-producing animals.
- World Health Organization (2014). Antimicrobial resistance: Global report on surveillance. WHO, Pp: 232.
- Zhou, L., Limbu, S.M., Sun, S.X., Zhang, M.L. and Du, Z.Y. (2018). Chronic exposure to low environmental concentrations and legal aquaculture doses of antibiotics cause systemic adverse effects in Nile tilapia and provoke differential human health risk. *Environ Int.*, **115**:20
- Enyidi U, Emeaso BA. Effects of African Bentonite on Feed Mycotoxigenic Fungi and Growth of African Catfish *Clarias gariepinus*. *Aquaculture Studies*. 2020 Oct 13;20(2):121-31.

Enyidi UD, Nduh-Nduh AS. Application of phytogenics as first feed of larval African catfish *Clarias gariepinus*. Journal of Advances in Biology and Biotechnology. 2016;5:1-0.

UNDER PEER REVIEW