

1 **Effects of diclofenac on the oxidative stress parameters of freshwater fish *Oreochromis***
2 ***niloticus***

3

4

5 **Abstract**

6 The indiscriminate use and abuse of pharmaceuticals have led to pharmaceutical residues in the
7 aquatic environment which has been receiving great attention since significant levels of
8 contamination have been found. The present study investigated the acute and sub-lethal effects of
9 a pharmaceutical drug diclofenac (DCF) on oxidative stress parameters and the recovery ability
10 in *O. niloticus*. The juveniles were exposed to different concentrations of diclofenac to determine
11 the 96 h LC₅₀. The results indicated that diclofenac was toxic to *O. niloticus* with a 96 h LC₅₀ of
12 0.489mg/L. The percentage mortality increased as the concentrations increased. Fish were
13 exposed to a control (0.00 mg/L) and three sub-lethal concentrations of 0.48, 0.32, and 0.25
14 mg/L of diclofenac for 28 days and allowed to recover for 7 days. The result of the sub-lethal test
15 indicated that the responses were always dose and duration dependent. The oxidative stress
16 results showed significant concentration- and time-dependent increases in the values of lipid
17 peroxidation, glutathione peroxidase, glutathione reductase and reduced glutathione but
18 reduction in catalase and superoxide dismutase in the liver of the exposed fish. Many of the
19 oxidative parameters were found to be restored after the 7-day recovery period. These results
20 showed that DCF exposure had a profound negative influence on the selected indices of *O.*
21 *niloticus*.

22 **Key words:** Diclofenac, toxicity, oxidative stress, *Oreochromis niloticus*, Nigeria

23 **Introduction**

24 All over the world, there has been growing concerns about environmental quality in recent years
25 both locally and internationally. Pharmaceutical drugs have become the focus of environmental
26 concerns as some of these drugs are not eliminated from environment by conventional
27 wastewater treatment processes. Unlike other contaminants, pharmaceuticals are biologically
28 active compounds designed to interact with specific physiological pathways in the target
29 organism. Thus, they represent a class of emerging compounds able to affect specific animal
30 functions (e.g., development, growth and reproduction) at notable concentrations. In addition,
31 these drugs also exit the organisms, either unchanged or as metabolites (Reis Filo *et al.*, 2007;
32 Sodre *et al.*, 2010). The extensive use of veterinary pharmaceuticals (especially in the treatment
33 of multiple reinfections) and wastes resulting from direct disposal by manufacturing plants,
34 hospitals, and homes contribute to the build-up of the drugs in the environment. The runoff of the
35 pharmaceuticals and metabolites into surface waters stemming from the treatment of livestock
36 and pets may result in the contamination of natural water systems and is becoming a potential
37 risk to non-target organisms (Iglesias *et al.*, 2012). Diclofenac is a popular pharmaceutical drug
38 often detected in aquatic environment. The use of pharmaceutical products is on the increase in
39 our world today, and this is as a result of the rise in global population as well as the increasing
40 need for geriatrics to depend on drugs (Arnold *et al.*, 2014).

41 According to Daughton (2003) it is likely to increase further in developing countries such as
42 Nigeria where pharmaceutical production companies are flourishing due to increasing
43 dependence on pharmaceuticals drugs. In Nigeria, the presence of acetaminophen and diclofenac
44 in groundwater and surface water body has been confirmed by Olaitan *et al.* (2014). Diclofenac
45 belongs to the class of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) with analgesic and anti-
46 inflammatory properties and is a widely prescribed drug (Stu-lten *et al.*, 2008). Stepanova *et al.*

47 (2013) reported exposure to early stages of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) to 3 mg/L of
48 diclofenac for 30 days observed mortality and oxidative stress.

49 Diclofenac has also been detected in Baltic Sea biota at levels above threshold values (e.g. in
50 Perch) (Karlsson and Viktor, 2014; Hallgren and Wallenberg, 2015) and previous studies have
51 linked toxic effects in marine organisms to high concentrations of diclofenac.

52 Diclofenac was included on the EU first watch list (2013/39/EU) with the stated aim being to
53 gather monitoring data for the purpose of facilitating the determination of appropriate measures
54 to address the risk posed by those substances. Inclusion on such watch list is done when there is
55 insufficient data to assess potential negative impacts on the environment, the assertion being
56 based on results from the prioritization process of hazardous substances under the WFD, research
57 results and similar reports.

58
59 It has been reported that Diclofenac can bio-accumulate in fish and other aquatic organisms
60 (Brown *et al.* 2007; Schwaiger *et al.*, 2004; Ericson *et al.*, 2010; Brozinski *et al.*, 2013). It has
61 been implicated in damages to the kidneys, (Schwaiger *et al.*, 2004; Triebkorn *et al.*, 2004;
62 Hoeger *et al.*, 2005) eggs and embryos (Hallare *et al.*, 2004) and altered gene expression (Cuklev
63 *et al.*, 2011).

64 One common mechanism of toxicity shared among a variety of different toxicant classes is the
65 induction of oxidative stress (Birben *et al.*, 2012). Oxidative stress is the result of an imbalance
66 between reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the antioxidant systems of the body. Metabolic
67 processes are responsible for the formation of certain ROS such as hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂),
68 superoxide radical (O₂⁻) and the hydroxyl radical (OH·) anion (Kinnula *et al.*, 2002). Reactive

69 oxygen species cause toxicity through binding to proteins, lipids and DNA/RNA. Due to their
70 reactive nature, they bind to the DNA bases causing structural alterations that go on to affect
71 translation and transcription resulting in inhibition of protein and enzyme formation (Valko *et*
72 *al.*, 2005; Ghelfi *et al.*, 2016).

73 Diclofenac has been known to cause oxidative damage through binding to lipids resulting in an
74 increase in lipid peroxidation (Gomez-Olivan *et al.*, 2014). Consequently, oxidative stress can be
75 measured as either an increase in ROS that cause effects, an increase in oxidative damage, or as a
76 change in the activity of anti-oxidant defence mechanisms. Diclofenac has been known to react
77 with glutathione (GSH) indicating it is metabolised to prevent damage to cells. Hepatic protein
78 adducts have been detected in liver cells in mice resulting in the diclofenac-GSH conjugate
79 becoming a useful biomarker for the hepatotoxicity of diclofenac (Valko *et al.*, 2005).

80 It has been established that pharmaceutical drugs induce oxidative stress. Oxidative stress is the
81 disturbances in the balance between the production of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) and
82 oxidative defences. It usually results to tissue damage and disturbances in the normal redox state
83 of cells. Oxidative stress can also cause base damage as well as unwanted gaps in the DNA
84 (Cadet *et al* 2003). This is as a result of the ROS generated in the cell. Examples of Reactive
85 Oxygen Species include: hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), superoxide radical (O_2^-) and hydroxyl
86 radical (OH). All these radicals make up the Reactive Oxygen Species (Santos, 2014). There
87 cause diseases that are associated with oxidative stress in humans. These include -vitiligo (patchy
88 loss of skin pigmentation), autism (neurological disorder), chronic fatigue, Asperger's syndrome
89 (having social defect), sickle cell disease (Tejada, *et al.*, 2007). Nwani *et al.* (2016) noted that the
90 level of damage caused to the cell is dependent on the level of the stress caused to cell. While

91 severe oxidative stress causes death, mild stress causes slight changes which can normalize when
92 the cell recovers.

93 An antioxidant defense system (ADS) is needed to protect bio-molecules from the harmful
94 effects of ROS (Nwani et al., 2014). Fish are endowed with defensive mechanisms to neutralize
95 the impact of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) resulting from metabolism of various chemicals.
96 These include various antioxidant defense enzymes such as superoxide dismutase (SOD)
97 Catalase (CAT), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), glutathione S-transferase (GST) and glutathione
98 reductase (GR). Low molecular weight antioxidants such glutathione reductase (GSH), ascorbate
99 (Vitamin C), Vitamin A and E are also reported to contribute in the reduction of oxy radicals.
100 ROS which is not neutralized by this antioxidant defense system damages bio-molecules. One of
101 the most important targets of ROS is membrane lipids which undergo peroxidation (LPO). Thus
102 LPO estimation has also been successfully employed to signify oxidative stress induced in
103 aquatic animals by such chemicals (Folarin *et al.*, 2018). The present study was designed to
104 investigate the acute and sub-lethal effects of a pharmaceutical product diclofenac on the
105 oxidative stress parameters of Tilapia fish (*O. niloticus*). The study will also investigate the
106 recovery ability of the fish after exposure to the drug.

107 **Materials and methods**

108 **Experimental fish and Maintenance**

109 Three hundred healthy juveniles of fresh water Tilapia, *O. niloticus* (Family: Cichlidae; Order:
110 **Perciformes**; Genus: *Oreochromis*) with the mean weight of $29 \pm 4.10\text{g}$ were collected from a
111 private fish farm and acclimatized for 14 days in concrete pond using non-chlorinated tap water
112 at biology department laboratory of University of Nigeria, Nsukka. They were fed 3% of their

113 body weight in divided rations, twice daily (7.00am and 7.00pm) with Coppens commercial feed,
114 containing 35% crude protein. The fish were subjected to a bath treatment with tetracycline to
115 avoid possible dermal infection as a result of injuries sustained from the stress of transportation.
116 The faecal matter and other waste materials were siphoned off daily to maintain hygienic
117 conditions. Dead fishes were removed with forceps to prevent deterioration of water quality. The
118 physicochemical properties of the test water were analysed weekly using the standard methods
119 according to American Public Health Association (APHA, 2005), were: temperature (28.7 ± 0.15
120 $^{\circ}\text{C}$), conductivity ($234.10 \pm 0.35 \mu\text{M cm}^{-1}$), dissolved oxygen ($7.9 \pm 0.26 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$), pH ($7.5 \pm$
121 0.04) and hardness in terms of CaCO_3 was ($135.50 \pm 0.60 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$). Feeding was terminated 24 h
122 before the commencement of the range finding and acute toxicity tests to avoid interference by
123 faeces (Ward and Parrish 1982). The experiment was conducted according to the approved
124 guidelines of the Animal Ethics Committee of the Enugu State University of Science and
125 Technology (ESUT). The experiment was carried out in an indoor experimental system under
126 normal photoperiod of day/night (12:12) cycle prevalent at Nsukka, Nigeria. **The mortality of the**
127 **fish from 24 h to 96 h duration were obtained and used to calculate the 96h LC₅₀. The safe level**
128 **of diclofenac at the 96 h duration were calculated by multiplying the 96 h LC₅₀ by the various**
129 **application factors as obtained by Hart et al. (1948), Sprague (1971), Committee on Water**
130 **Quality Criteria (CWQC, 1972), National Academy of Science/National Academy of**
131 **Engineering (NAS/NAE, 1973), Canadian Council of Resources and Environmental Ministry**
132 **(CCREM, 1991) and International Joint Commission (IJC, 1977).**

133 **Determination of sub-lethal concentrations**

134 The LC₅₀ of diclofenac to *O. niloticus* was determined by exposing a set of 10 fish specimens
135 each to five different (0.35, 0.45, 0.55, 0.65 and 0.75mg/l) Diclofenac concentrations and

136 control in 40 l glass aquaria ($60 \times 30 \times 30$ cm size) for 96 h. Each experimental set up was set in
137 triplicate and the mortalities were recorded. The mortality data (Table 1) were used to obtain the
138 96 h LC_{50} following the probit analysis method as described by Finney (1971). The 96-h value of
139 diclofenac that was 0.489 mg/L. Based on the 96 h LC_{50} , three different sublethal concentrations
140 (0.25, 0.32, and 0.48 mg/L) were selected for the sublethal exposure. A total of 120 acclimated
141 fish were used in the sublethal experiment. The sample was divided into four groups (Groups 1,
142 2, 3 and 4) in separate 40-L glass aquaria. The fish in groups 1, 2, and 3 were exposed to 0.25,
143 0.32, and 0.49 mg/L of diclofenac, respectively. The fish in group 4 were designated as the
144 control and only exposed to tap water. A total of 30 fish were randomly distributed to each of the
145 four groups of the experimental set up without regard to the sex. Each experimental group was
146 further divided into three with ten fish per replicate. The experimental set up was semi-static and
147 the test solution was changed every alternate day to counter balance the decreasing drug
148 concentration. The experiment set up lasted for 21 days and another 7-days recovery during
149 which the fish were fed small quantity of feed (approximately 1% of the body weight) to avoid
150 mortality arising from starvation. There were no mortalities during the 28-day exposure period.
151 Three fish from each of the experimental and control groups were removed for sampling at the
152 end of every week. The fish were anaesthetised with a solution of tricainemethanesulfonate (MS
153 222) at a concentration of 0.1 g l^{-1} to minimise stress. The liver was dissected out, carefully
154 washed in an ice-cold 1.15% KCl solution, blotted and weighed. The live samples were
155 homogenized in pre-chilled phosphate buffer (0.1M, pH 7.2). Some parts of the homogenate
156 were used for the estimation of thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS), while the other
157 part was further centrifuged at $12,500 \times g$ for 10 min at 4°C for estimation of other oxidative
158 stress biomarkers.

159 **Assay of oxidative stress and antioxidant enzymes**

160 The LPO was assessed by measuring malondialdehyde (MDA) formation, as described by
161 Wallin *et al.* (1993). The activity of CAT was assayed, as described by Sinha (1972). The SOD
162 activity was determined spectrophotometrically by measuring the inhibition of autoxidation of
163 epinephrine at pH 10.02 at 30 °C, as described by Arthur and Boyne (1985). The activity of
164 glutathione reductase (GR) was assayed by measuring NADPH oxidation at 340 nm (Tayarani *et*
165 *al.*, 1989), the activity being expressed as U/mg protein. The activity of glutathione peroxidase
166 (GPx) was measured by the method of Lawrence and Burk (1976), with the specific activity
167 being determined using the extinction coefficient of 6.22 mM/cm. The activity of glutathione
168 (GSH) was assayed as described by King and Wootton (1959).

169 **Statistical analysis**

170 The median lethal concentration was calculated following the probit analysis method of Finney
171 (1971). One-way analysis of variance using (SPSS version 16.0) was used to analyse the data
172 followed by Duncan multiple range post-hoc test at 95% significant level to separate the means
173 of treatment. Analysis and sample percentages were also used where applicable.

174 **Results**

175 **Fish mortalities and safe levels of diclofenac**

176 The mortality rate of fish in the treatment group during the acute exposure, increased with
177 increasing concentration and the duration of exposure to DCF (Table 1). No mortality was
178 observed in the control group after 96 h of the test. For the group exposed to 0.35 mg/l
179 concentration of DCF, the fish mortality rate was 20% after 96 h. However, at a higher
180 concentration of 0.75 mg/l, the mortality rate after 96 h increased to 100%. The safe level of

181 DCF as obtained by multiplying the LC_{50} by various application factors, ranged between 4.89
 182 $\times 10^{-2}$ to 4.89×10^{-6} mg/l (Table 2).

183 **Table 1. Cumulative mortality of *O. niloticus* exposed to various concentrations of**
 184 **Diclofenac**

Concentration (mg/L)	mortality 24 h	Cumulative				% Mortality	% Survival
		48 h	72 h	96 h			
Control	00	00	00	00	00	100	
0.35	02	04	05	06	20	70	
0.45	03	06	08	10	34	60	
0.55	04	08	12	16	54	46	
0.65	08	15	21	26	87	13	
0.75	10	20	25	30	100	0	

185

186

187 **Table 2: Estimated safe levels of diclofenac for *O. niloticus* after 96 h exposure**

Drug	96 h LC_{50} (mg/L)	Method	AF	Safe level (mg/L)
Diclofenac	0.489	Hart et al. (1948)*	-	8.13×10^{-3}
		Sprague (1971)	0.1	4.89×10^{-2}
		CWQC (1972)	0.01	4.89×10^{-3}
		NAS/NAE (1973)	0.1 – 0.00001	$4.89 \times 10^{-2} - 4.89 \times 10^{-6}$

CCREM (1991)	0.05	2.445×10^{-2}
IJC (1977)	5 % LC ₅₀	2.445×10^{-2}

* $C = 48h LC_{50} \times 0.03/S^2$, where C = presumable harmless concentration and S = 24 h
LC₅₀/48h LC₅₀

188

189 **Effects of lipid peroxidation and antioxidant enzyme**

190 The effect of different sub-lethal concentrations of diclofenac on lipid peroxidation in the form
191 of TBARS formation and the responses of other antioxidants enzymes (CAT, SOD, GPx, GSH-R
192 and GSH) in the liver of tissue of *O. niloticus* are presented in Table 3. Diclofenac was
193 associated with oxidative stress in *O. niloticus* in a manner dependent on the drug concentration
194 in the aquatic medium and the duration of exposure. The activity of LPO increased significantly
195 on exposure to the drug ($p < 0.05$) and the effects of the drugs appeared more pronounced at
196 higher concentration on prolonged exposure. There was slight recovery after the 7-day
197 withdrawal. The activities of the oxidative stress biomarkers SOD and CAT where significantly
198 reduced by diclofenac as the concentration increases throughout the exposure period. Reduction
199 in SOD and CAT activities were more on day 21 compared to previous noted days and effects
200 diclofenac on the activities of SOD and CAT were similar in magnitude. The GR and GPx
201 activities increased significantly in fish exposed to the drug, the effect of the drug concentrations
202 was significant for the duration of exposure. The was significant recovery after the 7-day
203 withdrawal.

204 There was significant increase in GSH activity in fish exposed to diclofenac as the concentration
205 increases throughout the exposure time. There was recovery after the withdrawal phase in the
206 exposed fish.

207 **Table 3: Changes in oxidative stress biomarkers of *O. niloticus* on 21-day exposure to**
 208 **Diclofenac.**

Parameter	Conc.(mg/L)	Duration (day)				
		1	7	14	21	7-day withdrawal
LPO (U/L)	Control	1.56 ± 0.09 ^{a1B}	1.91 ± 0.29 ^{b1B}	2.68 ± 0.45 ^{b1A}	1.80 ± 0.38 ^{b1B}	2.41 ± 0.52 ^{b1A}
	0.48	2.08 ± 0.41 ^{a1B}	4.68 ± 0.12 ^{a2B}	5.45 ± 0.44 ^{a3A}	6.85 ± 0.46 ^{a4A}	4.04 ± 0.74 ^{a2A}
	0.32	1.66 ± 0.43 ^{a1B}	4.13 ± 0.20 ^{a2B}	5.41 ± 0.27 ^{a3A}	6.77 ± 0.42 ^{a4A}	4.33 ± 0.11 ^{a2A}
	0.25	1.43 ± 0.17 ^{a1B}	4.31 ± 0.18 ^{a2B}	5.70 ± 0.20 ^{a3A}	6.34 ± 0.22 ^{a4A}	4.30 ± 0.31 ^{a2A}
SOD(U/L)	Control	8.25 ± 0.32 ^{a1A}	8.62 ± 0.57 ^{a1A}	9.76 ± 0.53 ^{a1A}	8.76 ± 0.38 ^{a1A}	8.33 ± 0.32 ^{a1A}
	0.48	6.91 ± 1.18 ^{b2A}	4.47 ± 0.23 ^{c1A}	5.74 ± 0.34 ^{b1A}	4.18 ± 0.16 ^{b1A}	8.39 ± 0.26 ^{a3A}
	0.32	8.32 ± 0.58 ^{a3A}	5.90 ± 0.35 ^{b2A}	5.47 ± 0.30 ^{b2A}	4.54 ± 0.17 ^{b1A}	7.88 ± 0.51 ^{b3A}
	0.25	8.08 ± 0.68 ^{a3A}	5.82 ± 0.35 ^{b2A}	5.74 ± 0.30 ^{b2A}	4.68 ± 0.28 ^{b1A}	7.69 ± 0.40 ^{b2A}
CAT(U/L)	Control	0.65 ± 0.01 ^{a2A}	0.77 ± 0.07 ^{a3A}	0.60 ± 0.04 ^{a1A}	0.60 ± 0.02 ^{a1A}	0.62 ± 0.03 ^{a1A}
	0.48	0.59 ± 0.07 ^{a4A}	0.39 ± 0.06 ^{b2A}	0.24 ± 0.02 ^{b12A}	0.16 ± 0.06 ^{c1A}	0.44 ± 0.03 ^{b3A}
	0.32	0.63 ± 0.04 ^{a2A}	0.37 ± 0.08 ^{b1A}	0.31 ± 0.08 ^{b1A}	0.30 ± 0.15 ^{b1A}	0.58 ± 0.03 ^{ab2A}
	0.25	0.67 ± 0.04 ^{a2A}	0.36 ± 0.05 ^{b1A}	0.27 ± 0.04 ^{b1A}	0.22 ± 0.01 ^{b1A}	0.54 ± 0.02 ^{ab2}
GR (U/L)	Control	11.10 ± 0.57 ^{a1A}	11.50 ± 0.67 ^{b1A}	10.82 ± 0.56 ^{b1A}	10.89 ± 0.52 ^{b1A}	11.30 ± 0.34 ^{a1A}
	0.48	11.60 ± 0.64 ^{a1B}	14.83 ± 0.34 ^{a2B}	15.89 ± 0.90 ^{a2A}	16.25 ± 0.57 ^{a2A}	12.58 ± 0.44 ^{a1A}
	0.32	12.15 ± 0.46 ^{a1A}	15.41 ± 0.41 ^{a2A}	15.96 ± 0.28 ^{a2A}	15.71 ± 0.61 ^{a2A}	12.73 ± 0.79 ^{a1A}
	0.25	12.02 ± 0.46 ^{a1B}	14.38 ± 0.73 ^{a2A}	16.11 ± 0.63 ^{a23A}	15.37 ± 0.60 ^{a2A}	12.18 ± 0.23 ^{a1A}
GPx (U/L)	Control	4.87 ± 0.08 ^{a1A}	6.14 ± 0.20 ^{b1A}	4.80 ± 0.58 ^{b1A}	5.98 ± 0.42 ^{b1A}	4.92 ± 0.24 ^{a1A}
	0.48	5.30 ± 0.33 ^{a1A}	9.03 ± 0.33 ^{a2A}	8.44 ± 0.48 ^{a2A}	9.88 ± 0.40 ^{a2A}	6.37 ± 0.32 ^{a1A}
	0.32	5.50 ± 0.23 ^{a1A}	8.37 ± 0.07 ^{a2A}	8.40 ± 0.20 ^{a2A}	9.07 ± 0.45 ^{a2A}	5.17 ± 0.17 ^{a1A}
	0.25	4.60 ± 0.43 ^{a1A}	8.59 ± 0.35 ^{a2A}	8.70 ± 0.21 ^{a2A}	9.16 ± 0.19 ^{a2A}	5.69 ± 0.52 ^{a1A}
GSH (U/L)	Control	2.68 ± 0.28 ^{b1A}	3.57 ± 0.08 ^{a1B}	3.56 ± 0.40 ^{b1A}	2.94 ± 0.27 ^{b1A}	2.77 ± 0.31 ^{a1A}
	0.48	3.37 ± 0.92 ^{a1B}	3.86 ± 0.17 ^{a1B}	4.63 ± 0.50 ^{a1B}	3.86 ± 0.19 ^{a1B}	3.64 ± 0.37 ^{a1A}
	0.32	3.65 ± 0.33 ^{a1B}	3.77 ± 0.53 ^{a1B}	4.69 ± 0.22 ^{a1B}	3.67 ± 0.25 ^{ab1B}	3.74 ± 0.15 ^{a1A}
	0.25	3.91 ± 0.23 ^{a1B}	3.88 ± 0.58 ^{a1B}	4.31 ± 0.17 ^{b1B}	3.76 ± 0.17 ^{ab1B}	3.62 ± 0.17 ^{a1A}

209 Values with different small letter alphabet superscript between different drug concentrations along a
 210 column were significantly different; while values with different numeric superscript across a row were
 211 significantly different; and values with different capital letter superscript along a column were
 212 significantly different between same concentrations ($p < 0.05$). of Diclofenac.

213

214 Discussion

215 The effect of pharmaceutical drugs on non-target organisms has been on the increase due to the
216 ever growing population. Fent *et al.* (2006) reported that although pharmaceutical drugs are
217 usually in low concentration, and are also considered to be non-toxic compounds, they can exert
218 toxic effects on non-target species. The increase in LPO suggests that there is increase in
219 production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). The interaction of ROS with biological molecules
220 may cause increase in LPO, DNA damage and protein oxidation resulting in the disturbance of
221 the physiological processes (Tejeda, 2007). The elevation in LPO may be due to the stress
222 associated with exposure to the drug as earlier reported in rats administered albendazole (Nwani
223 *et al.*, 2016). Some related pharmaceuticals, notably benznidazole and mebendazole (Für *et al.*,
224 2012) have been reported to stimulate the production of ROS and to cause oxidative damage and
225 lipid peroxidation in animals.

226 Antioxidant enzymes play significant roles in preventing cellular damage in animals (Nwani *et*
227 *al.* 2016). The inhibition of SOD and CAT activity in the liver tissues contributed to higher LPO
228 values in the exposed fish, indicating that in aquatic environment DCF could induce oxidative
229 stress in fish. Inhibition of SOD and CAT that lead to oxidative stress was also reported in
230 *Clarias gariepinus* exposed to primextra herbicide (Nwani *et al.*,2016). Ahmed (2015) also
231 reported that simultaneous treatments with vitamin E and/or lycopene resulted in a significant
232 decrease in the tissue SOD activities. This decrease in SOD activity can be attributed to the
233 inhibition of superoxide radical formation or the potential free radical scavenging activity of
234 vitamin E and/or lycopene (Ahmed, 2015). According to Puerto *et al.* (2010), decrease in SOD
235 and CAT were attributed to direct damage of its protein structure by the drug and increasing
236 amounts of hydrogen peroxide produced. The low level of SOD and CAT when compared to the
237 control indicates the high risks of cell injuries.

238 The GPx depletion in the stress-treated fish may be connected with increased exposure of the
239 plasma membrane to peroxide attack, as reflected in changes in LPO levels. The depletion of
240 GPx further enhances the susceptibility of the lymphoid tissues to oxygen metabolites and acid-
241 mediated cell damage. These effects may subject livers to higher risk of damage from oxidative
242 stress and more limited antioxidant responses. The continuous oxidative damage caused to the
243 cells could paralyse them and eventually degrade completely the self defence mechanisms of the
244 cells (Birben *et al.*, 2012). Our result is in agreement with Ajima *et al.* (2015) who reported that
245 structural and functional alterations in the liver result in changes in the levels of these enzymes in
246 circulation.

247 **Conclusion**

248 This present study shows that diclofenac is toxic and may cause significant alterations in the
249 oxidative stress of *O. niloticus*. Thus, it can be said that diclofenac at various doses and duration
250 of study can cause adverse effects on liver resulting in oxidative stress. High concentration of
251 diclofenac above its safe level is highly toxic to tilapia fish and could be toxic to non- target
252 organisms. Thus, caution should be exercised in the clinical use of the is drug for therapeutic
253 purpose, which should be limited to the lowest dose and treatment duration required to achieve
254 the best therapeutic effect to avoid being toxic to non- target organisms. It is also clear that there
255 is a need for further studies to determine the accurate effects of this drug on several other
256 biological organisms, and also to determine whether the effects are similar when fish are
257 subjected to longer exposures to lower concentrations; a combined toxicity study will satisfy this
258 need.

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