

Toxicity, physiological, histopathological and antiparasitic effects of the formalin, a chemotherapeutic of fish aquaculture

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Abstract

The search for more effective methods and drugs to control parasites in fish farming is constant. Several studies have evaluated the effects of formalin in freshwater and marine fish and their parasites. Thus, this paper focuses on the major toxicological aspects of this chemotherapeutic including growth performance, histopathological damages, haematological and biochemical alterations, and antiparasitic efficacy. Acute toxicity ($LC_{50-96\text{ h}}$) to formalin sulphate vary widely among fish species (0.1–640.0 mg/L) depending on various factors, as many fish species are sensitive to concentrations near those required for controlling and treating parasites. The toxicity of formalin on some metabolic processes leads to disturbances and imbalances to various physiological functions, particularly respiration and haematological and biochemical processes, due to histopathological damages in gills and haematopoietic organs. Formalin often affects the gills, liver, kidney and spleen, and in the gills provokes an increase in mucus and chloride cells, hyperplasia and/or hypertrophy of lamellae and epithelial lifting. Formalin used in therapeutic baths is extremely effective against various protozoan and monogenean species, which are parasites that infect gills, skin and/or fins of farmed freshwater and marine fish.

KEYWORDS

antiparasitic, formaldehyde, immunity, parasites, toxicity, treatment

1 | INTRODUCTION

Global fish production continues to grow due to advancements in intensive production systems (Hoai, 2020). The growing demand of food fish combined with the scope of economic gain has favoured both horizontal and vertical expansion of aquaculture around the world. Freshwater and marine aquaculture and the aquarium industry also play an active role to conserve the global diversity of fish species. However, the rapid expansion of fish aquaculture and aquarium industries may lead to inadequate environmental conditions that induce stress in fish, particularly due to poor management (Andrade-Porto et al., 2017; Hoai, 2020). Diseases in the aquaculture of food fish and ornamentals have been responsible for economic losses around the world, and their management is second only

to feed in terms of costs. The adequate management of diseases is crucial for the expansion of the aquaculture industry since parasites can cause severe morbidity and mortality of fish stocks (Hoai, 2020). The main objective of improving rearing methods is to ensure fish welfare through technological solutions while achieving maximum productivity.

Preventative and *in situ* treatment methods should have minimal negative impacts on the health of farmed fish (Andrade-Porto et al., 2017). Methods for preventing and treating fish diseases are aimed mainly at controlling and limiting the occurrence of parasites and pathogens. Such management regimes have only shown the capacity to limit the occurrence of parasites and pathogens rather than accomplish complete elimination. As a consequence, economic losses from diseases may still occur in fish culture

despite treatment. Nevertheless, water quality must be monitored since adverse changes in the environment may compromise the ability of fish to cope with stressors. The physiological and immune systems of fish are sensitive to environmental changes and they can react to lethal and sublethal levels of xenobiotics or their metabolites, which are used as chemotherapeutic agents to control and treat parasitic diseases (Nouh & Selim, 2013). Negative effects from these chemotherapeutic agents include increasing the susceptibility of fish to other diseases and mortality (Andrade-Porto et al., 2017; Fajer-Ávila et al., 2007; García-Magaña et al., 2019).

Parasitic diseases are common in fish farming (Andrade-Porto et al., 2017; Hoai, 2020). In general, parasites of fish are simple to diagnose within broad taxa, which allows selection of adequate control and treatment options using antiparasitic chemotherapeutics. Various chemotherapeutics are available in the market that can be used to control and treat ectoparasites in fish. These chemotherapeutic are often used for different fish species with different metabolisms and hence, their efficacy can vary according to fish and parasite species. Formalin has been recognized as an effective chemotherapeutant to control various ectoparasite diseases in fish (Allison, 1954; Andrade-Porto et al., 2017; Chmelova et al., 2016; Fish, 1940a, 1940b; Fish & Burrows, 1940; García-Magaña et al., 2019; Harms, 1996; Sandoval-Gío et al., 2019; Stoskopf, 1988; Subasinghe & Yusoff, 1993). However, further review is needed regarding the adequate use of formalin and its toxicological, histomorphological and physiological effects on fish.

Formalin $\text{CH}_2(\text{OH})_2$ is a liquid formaldehyde solution in standard concentration of 37%–40%, which is heavily diluted for use in aquaculture mainly to treat freshwater and marine fish and fish eggs, and to disinfect hatcheries and other facilities (Akpoilih & Adebayo, 2010; Andrade-Porto et al., 2017; Beevi & Radhakrishnan, 1987; El-Gawad et al., 2015; Farmer et al., 2013; Fish, 1940a, 1940b; Fish & Burrows, 1940; Harms, 1996; Hodkovicova et al., 2019). Formalin has been used by researchers since the early 1900s to control parasites in rainbow trout (Fish, 1940a, 1940b). Formalin has since become the most used chemotherapeutic in the control and treatment against diseases in fish farming because of its versatility and effectiveness, particularly for controlling and treating diseases of skin, fins and gills. The use of this chemotherapeutic in aquaculture now requires registration and is used for different fish species around world. However, formalin is considered to be a potential carcinogen and thus, precautions must be taken when administering this chemotherapeutic agent (Andrade-Porto et al., 2017; Chmelova et al., 2016; Hodkovicova et al., 2019; Holladay et al., 2010; Lai et al., 2016).

The effective dose of formalin used to treat fish is determined by the time that the fish are subjected to the baths and the tolerance of the animals. It is noteworthy that keeping the fishes in their rearing system during treatment may mitigate added stress from handling. Furthermore, parasites are unable to infect other areas of fish farming when fish are maintained in the rearing system, thus reducing the potential for reinfection. Nevertheless, the adequate concentration of formalin for a prolonged or short-term bath depends on certain

factors such as fish species and condition, water quality, and parasite species; factors that will be discussed here.

The aim of this review was to gather information from published research that focus on the use of formalin for controlling and treating ectoparasites in freshwater and marine fish farming. Focus was also given to acute toxicity and potential harm to the physiology, immunity and histomorphology of fish.

2 | ACUTE TOXICITY OF FORMALIN IN FRESHWATER AND MARINE FISH SPECIES

Acute toxicity of formalin has been determined for some freshwater and marine fish species, of which indicated that this chemotherapeutic has a relatively low toxicity for some fish species and high for other fish species. The toxic effects of formalin in fish include mortality and are directly proportional to the concentration (Table 1). However, tolerance to formalin varies among fish depending on the species, size (age), treatment conditions (Chmelova et al., 2016; Cruz et al., 2005; Cruz-Lacierda et al., 2012; Fajer-Ávila et al., 2003; Hoseini & Nodeh, 2013; Hoseini et al., 2013; Intorre et al., 2007; Neves et al., 2020; Tancredo et al., 2019), among other factors. Therefore, the toxicity of this chemotherapeutic to each fish species must be determined before application, and the data of toxicity and safe ranges of the dose of formalin can be extrapolated for fish farming. This is particularly important as the recommended concentrations and treatment times for formalin are near the lethal concentration for some farmed fish species.

The acclimation of fish to lethal formalin concentrations may increase tolerance to this chemotherapeutic agent. For *Paralichthys olivaceus* fry, the 24 h-LC₅₀ was 209.0 mg/L of formalin and the 48 h-LC₅₀ was 182.0 mg/L (Jung & Kim, 1998) and 141 mg/L (Park et al., 1994). For *Clarias gariepinus* fry, the 24 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 90.0 mg/L (Mbaru et al., 2011), and for *O. niloticus* fry, the 24 h-LC₅₀ was 81.3 mg/L of formalin (Aly et al., 2020). For *Oncorhynchus mykiss* fingerlings, the 48h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 50.0 mg/L (Tisler & Zagorc-Koncan, 1997). For *O. mykiss* fingerlings, the 48 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 168.0 mg/L, for *Salvelinus namaycush* fingerlings was 167.0 mg/L, for *Salvelinus fontinalis* fingerlings was 157.0 mg/L, for *Salmo trutta* fingerlings was 185.0 mg/L, for *Ictalurus punctatus* fingerlings was 96.0 mg/L and for *Lepomis macrochirus* fingerlings was 140.0 mg/L (Willford, 1967). For hybrid *Huso huso* × *Acipenser ruthenus* fingerlings, the 48 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 216.0 mg/L and for *O. mykiss* fingerlings was 211.0 mg/L (Hung et al., 2019). Kouril and Prikryl (1988) reported 15 min-LC₅₀ of formalin of 1.2 mg/L for *Tinca tinca*. For *Centropomus viridis* juveniles, the 12 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 495.4 mg/L (Morales-Serna et al., 2020).

For *Xiphophorus maculatus*, *Oreochromis niloticus*, *Danio rerio* and *Carassius auratus*, the 24 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 152.1, 191.3, 186.1 and 110.7 mg/L, respectively (Tancredo, Ferrarezi, et al., 2019). For *Clarias macrocephalus* fry, the 49h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 82.5 mg/L of formalin, and for *Epinephelus coioides* fingerlings, the 24 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 214.0 mg/L (Cruz-Lacierda et al., 2012). For

TABLE 1 Lethal concentrations (LC_{50-96 h}) of formalin for different fish in aquaculture

| Fish species – Life phase | LC (mg/L) | References |
|--|-----------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Hoplias lacerdae</i> (FW) – Larva | 2.0 | Cruz et al. (2005) |
| <i>Chanos chanos</i> (MW) – Fingerling | 232.0 | Cruz and Pitogo (1989) |
| <i>Clarias gariepinus</i> (FW) – Fingerling | 42.5 | Okomoda et al. (2010) |
| <i>Clarias gariepinus</i> (FW) – Fingerling | 1.8 | Andem et al. (2015) |
| <i>Arapaima gigas</i> (FW) – Fingerling | 36.4 | Andrade-Porto et al. (2018) |
| <i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (FW) – Fingerling | 69.0 | Clemens and Sneed (1958) |
| <i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (FW) – ND | 0.1 | Leteux and Meyer (1972) |
| <i>Rutilus rutilus caspicus</i> (MW) – Fingerling | 49.0 | Hoseini and Nodeh (2013) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> (FW) – Fingerling | 148.0 | Mert et al. (2015) |
| <i>Danio rerio</i> – (FW) – Fingerling | 30.0 | Mohammed et al. (2012) |
| <i>Danio rerio</i> – (FW) – ND | 45.7 | Resendes et al. (2018) |
| <i>Mugil liza</i> (MW) – Fingerling | 20.8 | Pahor-Filho et al. (2012) |
| <i>Morone saxatilis</i> (MW) – Fingerling | 4.9 | Reardon and Harrell (1990) |
| <i>Morone saxatilis</i> (MW) – Fingerling | 10.8 | Reardon and Harrell (1990) |
| <i>Morone saxatilis</i> (MW) – Fingerling | 13.5 | Reardon and Harrell (1990) |
| <i>Morone saxatilis</i> (MW) – Fingerling | 15.5 | Reardon and Harrell (1990) |
| <i>Morone saxatilis</i> (MW) – Fingerling | 18.0 | Wellborn (1969) |
| <i>Aequidens portalegrensis</i> (FW) – Fingerling | 40.7 | Domitrovic (1997) |
| <i>Rutilus rutilus caspicus</i> (MW) – Fry | 49.0 | Hoseini et al. (2013) |
| <i>Salmo salar</i> (MW) – Fry | 64.0 | Bills et al. (1977) |
| <i>Puntius gonionotus</i> (FW) – Fry | 67.4 | Chinabut et al. (1988) |
| <i>Puntius gonionotus</i> (FW) – Fry | 73.2 | Chinabut et al. (1988) |
| <i>Puntius gonionotus</i> (FW) – Fry | 75.2 | Chinabut et al. (1988) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> (FW) – Fry | 118.0 | Chinabut et al. (1988) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> (FW) – Fry | 122.9 | Chinabut et al. (1988) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> (FW) – Fry | 128.8 | Chinabut et al. (1988) |
| <i>Channa striatus</i> (FW) – Fry | 147.1 | Chinabut et al. (1988) |
| <i>Channa striatus</i> (FW) – Fry | 152.6 | Chinabut et al. (1988) |
| <i>Channa striatus</i> (FW) – Fry | 166.8 | Chinabut et al. (1988) |

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| Fish species – Life phase | LC (mg/L) | References |
|---|-----------|----------------------------|
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (FW) – Fry | 430.0 | Bills et al. (1977) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (FW) – Fry | 430.0 | Howe et al. (1995) |
| <i>Salvelinus namaycush</i> (MW) – Fry | 370.0 | Bills et al. (1977) |
| <i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (FW) – Fry | 14.7 | Howe et al. (1995) |
| <i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (FW) – Fry | 243.0 | Bills et al. (1977) |
| <i>Ameiurus melas</i> (FW) – Fry | 229.0 | Bills et al. (1977) |
| <i>Lepomis cyanellus</i> (FW) – Fry | 640.0 | Bills et al. (1977) |
| <i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> (FW) – Fry | 100.0 | Bills et al. (1977) |
| <i>Micropterus dolomieu</i> (FW) – Fry | 503.0 | Bills et al. (1977) |
| <i>Micropterus salmoides</i> (FW) – Fry | 529.0 | Bills et al. (1977) |
| <i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> (MW) – Fry | 141.0 | Jung and Kim (1998) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> (FW) – Fry | 2.9 | Dureza (1995) |
| <i>Clarias gariepinus</i> (FW) – Juvenile | 112.2 | Ayuba et al. (2013) |
| <i>Trachinotus carolinus</i> (MW) – Juvenile | 69.1 | Birdsong and Avault (1971) |
| <i>Trachinotus carolinus</i> (MW) – Juvenile | 71.6 | Birdsong and Avault (1971) |
| <i>Trachinotus carolinus</i> (MW) – Juvenile | 74.9 | Birdsong and Avault (1971) |
| <i>Paracheirodon axelrodi</i> (FW) – Adult | 67.9 | Dias et al. (2018) |
| <i>Corydoras melanistius</i> (FW) – ND | 50.7 | Santos et al. (2012) |
| <i>Anguilla rostrata</i> (FW) – ND | 329.6 | Hinton and Eversole (1980) |

FW, freshwater fish; MW, marine water fish; ND, Not informed.

Gymnocorymbus ternetzi, the 24 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 72.0 mg/L (Nam & Heo, 2004). For *Cyprinus carpio*, the 24 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 135.4 mg/L (Tancredo et al., 2019), and for *Sphaeroides annulatus*, the 48h and 72-LC₅₀ of formalin was 87.0 and 79.0 mg/L, respectively (Fajer-Ávila et al., 2003). For *Danio rerio* adults, the 1h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 648.0 mg/L, and for *Carassius auratus* adults was 272 mg/L (Intorre et al., 2007). For *Danio rerio* larvae, the 144 h-LC₅₀ of formalin varied of 0.2 to 4.9 Mn (Meinelt et al., 2005), and for *Siganus rivulatus* juveniles, the 72 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 551.0 mg/L (Nasser et al., 2017). For *Lophiosilurus alexandri* larvae with 7 days post-hatch (ph), the 12 h-LC₅₀ of formalin was 108.9 mg/L and for larvae of 45 days was 244.4 mg/L (Neves et al., 2020).

In *Rhamdia quelen* fingerlings, exposure to 0.2 ml/L of formalin caused high mortality (Carneiro et al., 2005). Rothen et al. (2002) demonstrated that *Hemigrammus caudovittatus* and *Trichogaster*

trichopterus exposed to 12.5 or 25.0 mg/L of formalin, for 24 or 48 h, were more sensitive than *Danio rerio*, which showed a higher survival (95%–100%). *Etiopis swatensis* exposed to 100–500 mg/L of formalin for 2–4 min died during 48 h after treatment (Wijeyaratne & Gunawardene, 1988). *Clarias gariepinus* fry exposed to 50.0–2000 mg/L of formalin for 1 h had a mortality of 57.3%–100% while exposure for 15 min caused mortality of 54.0%–92.3% (Mbaru et al., 2011). However, *C. gariepinus* fingerlings, exposed to 3700 mg/L of formalin, had 2.7%–8.7% of mortality (Yisa et al., 2014). In *R. quelen*, exposure to 740.0 mg/L for 24–120 h caused mortality of 2.0%–100% (Carneiro et al., 2006). *Micropterus salmoides* exposed to 630.0–1420.0 mg/L of formalin for 24 h caused 90.0%–100% of mortality (Carmichael & Tomasso, 1983). In *Rutilus rutilus caspicus*, long-term exposure to 10, 15 and 25 mg/L of formalin affected survival at both 24 and 72 h, while no further change in survival was shown for 168 h of exposure. However, 12 and 24 h of exposure to 25 mg/L of formalin reduced the survival of fish when compared to 10 and 15 mg/L (Ghelichpour & Eagderi, 2012). The survival of *O. niloticus* exposed to 250.0 mg/L of formalin was 92.0% (Perera & Pathiratne, 2005). Sultana et al. (2013) reported that the mortality of *Channa punctatus* exposed to 925.0–3700 mg/L of formalin was of 66.7%–100%. *Lepomis macrochirus* exposed to 5 mg/L of formalin presented 100% of mortality within 48 h, while exposure to 10 and 15 mg/L was shown with mortality rates of 80% and 50%, respectively (Allison, 1957).

In embryos of *C. carpio* and *C. gariepinus*, exposure to 2000.0 mg/L formalin for 15–30 min had no effect on the survival up to 38 h post-fertilization (Theron et al., 1991a). In *Clarias gariepinus* larvae with an age of 4 days ph exposed to 200.0 mg/L formalin for 30–90 min showed survival of 97.0%–92.7% after treatment. *C. carpio* larvae (4 days ph) exposed to 200.0 mg/L formalin for 30–90 min showed survival of 0 to 80.7% after treatment. *C. gariepinus* larvae (12 days ph) exposed to 200.0 mg/L of formalin for 30–90 min showed survival of 44.0%–96.0%. *C. carpio* larvae (12 days ph) exposed to 200.0 mg/L of formalin for 30–90 min showed survival of 28.0%–71.3%. However, *C. carpio* larvae with 21 days ph exposed to 200.0 mg/L formalin for 30–90 min showed survival of 90.0 to 93.7%. *C. gariepinus* larvae with 20 days ph exposed to 200.0 mg/L formalin for 30–90 min showed survival of 39.0%–97.0%. (Theron et al., 1991b). *Ictalurus punctatus* exposed to 50.0 mg/L of formalin showed 0% mortality after administration of two doses (Tieman & Goodwin, 2001). For *Micropterus salmoides* fry (24 h ph) exposed to 1000–10,000 mg/L of formalin, the survival varied from 89.0%–97.0%. However, after 48 h of exposure to 10.0–250 mg/L survival varied from 1.0 to 92.0% (Wright, 1976).

The toxicity of formalin for fish in waters of different quality has been studied. Bills et al. (1977) observed that water hardness had no effect on the toxicity of formalin in fish, whereas in soft water with a pH of 9.5 the formalin was more toxic than with pH 6.5 and 8.5. However, no significant differences in the effects of formalin in water of different hardness and pH have been reported (Chinabut et al., 1988; Marking et al., 1972; Piper & Smith, 1973; Stoskopf,

1988). Temperature may also influence the toxicity of formalin (Bills et al., 1977; Bodensteiner et al., 1993; Chmelova et al., 2016; Clemens & Sneed, 1958; Fish, 1939; Forwood et al., 2014; Piper & Smith, 1973) because it increases toxicity of this chemotherapeutic. Concentrations of 30.0 or 40.0 mg/L of formalin in temperatures of 24.1–26.9°C also caused a decline in dissolved oxygen levels of water (Rowland et al., 2006).

Alterations in fish behaviour after exposure to formalin are due to endogenous and exogenous processes, and they may help to understand the health and viability of fish exposed to this chemotherapeutic. In general, alterations in behaviour are related to changes in physiological and histomorphological functions of fish exposed to formalin. Behavioural alterations reported for fish species exposed to lethal or sublethal concentration of formalin include: jumping due to skin irritation, agitation, respiratory distress, loss of balance, erratic swimming, lethargy, exophthalmia, crowding on the water surface, loss of hydrodynamic equilibrium, spasms, agonistic confrontation, darkening of the body, sudden and quick movement and excessive accumulation of mucus (Andem et al., 2015; Andrade et al., 2005; Andrade-Porto et al., 2018; Ayuba et al., 2013; Intorre et al., 2007; Jimmy et al., 2013; Mohammed et al., 2012; Morales-Serna et al., 2020; Nam & Heo, 2004; Nouh & Selim, 2013; Okomoda et al., 2010; Pahor-Filho et al., 2015; Perera & Pathiratne, 2005; Santos et al., 2012; Sultana et al., 2013; Tancredo, Ferrarezi, et al., 2019). Many of these behavioural problems are related to reduced oxygen consumption (Mohammed et al., 2012), perhaps due to damages in the gill epithelium from exposure to formalin. Treatment with formalin may cause a decrease in oxygen consumption and an increase in the energy expenditure for swimming. Hence, formalin may induce an increased metabolic rate while causing a decrease in swimming due to stress in exposed fish.

Dissolved oxygen also influences the toxicity of formalin in fish. Knight et al. (2016) analysed the degradation of formalin in brackish water recirculating systems and the response of the biological filter during 5 days with a 25 mg/L formalin treatment, and reported that degradation rates changed over time (0.69–7.55 formalin mg/L per h), resulting in periods below therapeutic concentrations during treatment. Meinelt et al. (2005) reported that the toxicity of formalin decreases with the presence of natural organic matter in water. Salinity was shown to have no influence on the toxicity of formalin in *Trachinotus carolinus* (Birdsong & Avault, 1971). However, salinity influenced the 96- LC_{50} of formalin for *Morone saxatilis*, perhaps due to damage in the gills of fish, leading to a disruption in osmoregulation or respiration. Furthermore, these alterations may be caused by osmotic stress in the absence of an acclimation period of fish to salinities (Reardon & Harrell, 1990).

The mechanism of toxicity to formalin is little understood in fish. Toxicity occurs when concentrations of formalin exceed physiological thresholds and interrupt physiological functions in fish. Formalin may accumulate in gills and interfere in osmoregulation by decreasing branchial Na^+ and K^+ adenosine triphosphate activity, but this has yet to be investigated. However, such accumulation of formalin causes severe damages to fish gills and affects energy metabolism,

which compromise the swimming performance and equilibrium of fish. Given that swimming is central to many aspects of fish biology, a decreased performance may have implications for interspecific and intraspecific interactions and may influence the fitness of individuals. Alterations in behaviour after exposure to formalin appear to be caused by the neurotoxic effects and by the irritation to the perception system of the fish. Therefore, strategies are needed to reduce this toxicity of formalin in fish aquaculture systems. Moreover, swimming performance of fish could be used as an indicator for measuring toxic effects of formalin, which include the impairing of transport or exchange of respiratory gases as well as alterations in energy transformations, or inhibition of functions of the nervous and muscular systems.

3 | HISTOMORPHOLOGICAL ALTERATIONS ON GILLS AND HAEMATOPOIETIC ORGANS OF FRESHWATER AND MARINE FISH EXPOSED TO FORMALIN

Gills of fish are in contact with the external environment and may be subject to morphological changes when exposed to chemical substances (Pahor-Filho et al., 2015). Gills and haematopoietic tissues of fish are key organs for metabolizing formalin, and gills are the first to be affected by exposure to formalin. Hence, the histological evaluation of these tissues is considered an effective tool for detecting the effects of exposure to this chemotherapeutic in different fish species (Andrade-Porto et al., 2018; Bodensteiner et al., 1993; Mert et al., 2015; Nouh & Selim, 2013; Pahor-Filho et al., 2015), since exposure to formalin causes severe damage in branchial epithelium and compromises respiration of fish (Table 2). The gills are directly in contact with water and are the first organ to respond when exposed to acute and sublethal concentrations of formalin. Furthermore, exposure of fish to formalin causes damages to the liver, kidney and spleen (Tables 3-5).

Pampus argenteus exposed to 80 mg/L of formalin increased the superoxide dismutase activity of the liver in the first 2 days and decreased in the third day. The superoxide dismutase activity of the kidney also increased in the first day and decreased in the third day after exposure. Catalase activity of the liver increased in the first 2 days and decreased in the third day, but no significant changes were observed in the kidney. Glutathione activity of the liver increased in the first day and decreased during the last 2 days of exposure to formalin. However, the kidneys showed no changes. Malondialdehyde content in the liver and kidney increased in the second and third days, and in the liver increased throughout the 3 days of treatment (Hu et al., 2019). In the same tissues of *O. mykiss* exposed for 24 h to 50–200 mg/L of formalin, there was an increase in malondialdehyde activity and a decrease in glutathione, catalase, glutathione and peroxidase activities (İspir et al., 2017). Exposure of *O. mykiss* to 200 mg/L of formalin resulted in metabolic plasticity in the liver with decreased levels of oxidative stress biomarkers

and aminotransferases activity (Tkachenko & Grudniewska, 2016). On the other hand, Smith et al. (1987) reported that *Oncorhynchus shawytscha* exposed to 618.0 mg/L of formalin showed no consistent effect on gill Na^+ , K^+ -ATPase activity.

Fish gills are morphologically and physiologically complex given that they perform several functions such as gas exchange, ion exchange, acid base balance, excretion of nitrogenous waste and other metabolic functions. Fish live in intimate contact with the water, of which the gills surface comprises over half of the body surface area and the delicate gill epithelium separates the internal environment from the external environment (Afaghi & Zare, 2020; Basirun et al., 2019; Kumar & Ram, 2015). The liver, spleen and kidney are pivotal organs of the body that maintain homeostasis. The liver is the centre of metabolism and detoxification, and the kidneys are involved in elimination of wastes from the body and selective reabsorption. The liver plays a central role in the metabolism of toxins (Jegade, 2013; Latif et al., 2013). The fish spleen is an erythro- and leukopoietic organ involved in the synthesis of new erythrocytes and lymphocytes, and this haematopoietic tissue is the only organ in fish to trap antigens (Balamurugan et al., 2012; Taheri et al., 2016). Hence, these haematopoietic organs show morphological alterations as responses to toxicity from formalin (Tables 3-5). However, the few available studies have shown that the spleen undergoes changes in its haematopoietic structure/function due to the toxic effects of formalin (Table 5).

It has been suggested that the reactions of formalin with functional groups occur by intra- and intermolecular cross-linking of macromolecules that modify the physical characteristics of tissues (Fox et al., 1985; McDonnell & Russell, 1999). Understanding the differences in the effects of formalin concentrations on tissues and biological mechanisms may provide essential information to manage the use of this chemotherapeutic in aquaculture. Although studies on different species often involve the repetition of the same experimental methodologies, this review attempts to demonstrate the advantage of such comparative studies for a thorough understanding of formalin bioaccumulation and its potential harm to tissues.

4 | PHYSIOLOGICAL AND IMMUNOLOGICAL ALTERATIONS CAUSED BY FORMALIN IN FRESHWATER AND MARINE FISH

Haematological and biochemical variables have been widely used for clinical diagnoses related to the physiology of fish and for determining the effects of external stressors and diseases. Fish haematology and other biochemical variables may be used to indicate stress caused by toxic chemicals such as formalin (Chmelova et al., 2016; Şahan, 2020; Witeska et al., 2013). Chemical products such as formalin may impair the physiology and compromise the health condition of exposed fish. Thus, blood and biochemical parameters are useful in identifying the lethal, sublethal or chronic toxicity concentrations of formalin and their effects in target organs.

TABLE 2 Histopathological effects of exposure to formalin on gills of different freshwater and seawater fish species

| Fish species | Dose (mg/L) | Exposure | Tissue alterations | References |
|--|-------------|-----------|--|-------------------------------|
| <i>Oncorhynchus tshawytsch</i> | 200 | Sublethal | Epithelial hypertrophy and hypertrophic and degenerating epithelial cells. These cellular changes often gave an irregular, ragged appearance to the lamellar surface. | Wedemeyer and Yasutake (1974) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 280.0 | Lethal | Moderate epithelial hypertrophy with epithelia partially desquamated from the lamellae and gill epithelia often severely swollen. Hyperplasia and hypertrophy of epithelial cells at the base of secondary lamellae | Kakuta et al. (1991) |
| <i>Chanos chanos</i> | 100.0–500.0 | Lethal | Slight epithelial lifting, complete separation of the entire epithelial layer and necrosis of the lamellar epithelial cells. Respiratory epithelia were ruptured at various points, thereby exposing the gill ray and capillaries to water. Exhibition of hyperplastic and club-shaped lamella | Cruz and Pitogo (1989) |
| <i>Arapaima gigas</i> | 66.0–110.0 | Lethal | Lamellar epithelium hypertrophy and hyperplasia, proliferation of mucus cells and mitochondria-rich cells, partial and total fusion of the lamellae, oedema, capillary constriction, lamellar aneurism and epithelial rupture (haemorrhage) | Andrade-Porto et al. (2018) |
| <i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> | 92.0 | Sublethal | Hypertrophy, hyperplasia and excess mucous secretion | Bodensteiner et al. (1993) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 200.0 | Sublethal | Progressive damages in gill damage, whit degenerative changes and some necrosis Hypertrophy accompanied by pyknotic and karyorrhetic epithelial nuclei, as well as epithelial separation | Wedemeyer and Yasutake (1974) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 250.0–500.0 | Lethal | Necrosis in the gill lamellae epithelial cells and haemorrhage | Bulut et al. (2015) |
| <i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> | 141.0 | Lethal | Hypertrophy of mucous and epithelial in secondary gill lamella | Park et al. (1994) |
| <i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> | 150.0–300.0 | Sublethal | Mild oedema and winding of secondary gill lamellae. Separation of epithelial layer, hypertrophy and scattered necrosis of the lamellar epithelial cells, and thrombosis of secondary gill lamellae | Cho et al. (1997) |
| <i>Rutilus rutilus caspicus</i> | | Sublethal | Epithelial lifting and hyperplasia, aneurysm at different intensities, and lamellar fusion and shortening, but curling rarely was observed | Ghelichpour et al. (2016) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 629.0 | Sublethal | Destruction of the lamellas and inflammatory necrotic masses on the gill and hyperaemia. Lamellas were deformed with a separated surface layer and numerous mucinous cells. An amount of mononuclear lysis was observed among the bases of the lamellas. | Chmelova et al. (2016) |
| <i>Huso huso</i> × <i>Acipenser ruthenus</i> | 50.0–200.0 | Sublethal | Mucus production, a large number of gill filaments with epithelial shedding, engorgement on apical surfaces, and degeneration of column cells. Column cells degeneration, gill lamellae rupture, cell hypertrophy on gill filaments and the rupture, and lamellar fusion | Hung et al. (2019) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 167.0–250.0 | Lethal | Gill epithelium often severely swollen, and in some instances, had completely desquamated from the lamellae, leaving only the blood capillary and supportive pillar cells. Leukocyte infiltration, some epithelial cells showed cloudy swelling, and others had pyknotic and fragmented nuclei. Presence pf blood plasma sometimes accumulated between gill epithelium and blood capillaries and haemorrhage | Smith and Piper (1972) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 50.0–200.0 | Sublethal | Mucus production on gill tissue and a large number of gill filaments showed epithelial shedding, engorgement of the top of gill filaments and the degeneration of column cells. Degeneration of column cells, the rupture of gill lamellae, hypertrophy of cells on top gill filaments and gill filament with signs of fusion | Hung et al. (2019) |

(Continues)

TABLE 2 (Continued)

| Fish species | Dose (mg/L) | Exposure | Tissue alterations | References |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-----------|---|------------------------------|
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 250.0 | Lethal | Hyperplasia, hypertrophy, epithelial separation and club-shaped deformities | Perera and Pathiratne (2005) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 30.0–75.0 | Sublethal | Epithelial lifting, branchitis, hyperaemia, telangiectasia and hyperplasia | Mert et al. (2014) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 25.0 | Sublethal | Congestion and hyperplasia in the epithelium of the secondary lamellae, with infiltration of mononuclear leukocytes in the gill arch and lamellae | Nouh and Selim (2013) |
| <i>Gymnocorymbus ternetzi</i> | 7.2–15.0 | Sublethal | Clubbing and slight swelling of gill lamellae | Nam and Heo (2004) |
| <i>Mugil liza</i> | 57.5–540.0 | Lethal | Severe hyperplasia and soft detachment of respiratory epithelium, increase in chloride cells and detachment of the respiratory epithelium | Pahor-Filho et al. (2015) |
| <i>Corydoras melanistius</i> | 50.7 | Lethal | Cell hyperplasia and reaching levels of filling interlamellar | Santos et al. (2012) |
| <i>Salmo salar</i> | 167.0–250.0 | Sublethal | Increase in frequency of lamellar fusion and numbers of lamellar mucous cells | Speare et al. (1997) |
| <i>Lophiosilurus alexandri</i> | 54.0–648.0 | Lethal | Lamellar hyperplasia ranging from mild to severe, epithelial detachments and telangiectasia | Neves et al. (2020) |

Exposure to sublethal and lethal concentrations of formalin causes alterations in biochemical, erythrocyte and leukocyte parameters (Table 6). Elevated cortisol concentration has been considered as the major stress response, as it increases rapidly after stress. Hyperglycaemia is a secondary stress response, which is stimulated by primary stress responses (release of catecholamines and corticosteroids into blood circulation) to supply energy needed to cope with stress. However, when in prolonged stress conditions, secondary stress responses can change the tertiary stress responses. During the adaptive phase, energy is prioritized towards organs and other physiological functions related to survival such as breathing, swimming, osmoregulation and tissue repair, reducing the contribution of energy to long-term anabolic activities such as growth, reproductive process and immune functions (Barton, 2002; Urbinati et al., 2020; Wendelaar Bonga, 1997).

Changes in erythrocytic parameters may occur in fish exposed to formalin in function of the oxygen demand (Table 6). Elevations in these blood parameters are a response to the inefficient uptake of oxygen in the gill epithelium, and as a consequence, the haematopoietic tissues release more erythrocytes to supply the oxygen demand in fish (Perera & Pathiratne, 2005). However, reductions in erythrocytic parameters are due to damages in gills and haematopoietic tissues caused by the exposure to formalin. In *O. mykiss* exposed to 167.0 or 250.0 mg/L of formalin, an increase in haematocrit was shown with haemolysis of erythrocytes as caused by stress (Smith & Piper, 1972). Witeska et al. (2013) reported that therapeutic baths with 63.0 mg/L of formalin induced increases in haematopoietic cell proliferation and apoptosis in *C. carpio*.

The fish immune system consists of a set of cellular and humoral components that function as the defence of the organism against foreign substances, such as parasites, toxins, toxic substances and malignant cells. This system is the first line of defence

against invading agents, whereas acquired immunity is related to the elimination of the pathogen in a late stage and the production of immunological memory. The innate system includes cellular components, which are defence cells, that is granulocytes, monocytes, macrophages and natural killer cells; and humoral components, that is the complement system, antimicrobial enzyme system, and nonspecific mediators such as interferon and interleukins (Urbinati et al., 2020). For *Arapaima gigas*, short-term exposures in baths (1 h) to 220–550 mg/L of formalin showed no alterations in erythrocytes and leukocyte parameters (Andrade-Porto et al., 2017). However, in *Oreochromis niloticus* exposed to 15.0–75.5 mg/L of formalin for 168 h, an increase of micronucleus in erythrocytes was shown after exposure (Mert et al., 2015). In *D. rerio* exposed to sublethal concentrations of formalin, the incidence of micronuclei increased with concentration, indicating that this chemical agent caused genotoxic effects in erythrocytes of fish (Resendes et al., 2018).

The biochemical analysis of blood of fish exposed to formalin is relevant because these physiological parameters may be a sensitive indicator of stressful agents. Hence, they are important for determining the influence of pathophysiological conditions on the homeostasis of fish exposed to formalin. However, in *Colossoma macropomum*, exposure to 100.0–250.0 mg/L of formalin had no influence on plasma levels of glucose, chloride, sodium and potassium (Araújo et al., 2004). Similarly, for *Arapaima gigas*, exposure through short-term baths (1 h) to 220–550 mg/L of formalin showed no alterations in plasma levels of glucose, cortisol, total protein, sodium, calcium, potassium, chloride and magnesium (Andrade-Porto et al., 2017).

Same had careful to avoid stressing the fish, we cannot be assured that immunity fish of is not affected by the exposure to formalin (Sandoval-Gío et al., 2008). Hodkovicova et al. (2019) reported that after 10 days of treatment with 185.3 mg/L of formalin, there was a decrease in the lysozyme in skin mucus, a decrease

TABLE 3 Histopathological effects of exposure to formalin on liver of different freshwater and seawater fish species

| Fish species | Dose (mg/L) | Exposure | Tissue alterations | References |
|-------------------------------|-------------|-----------|--|------------------------------|
| <i>Chanos chanos</i> | 100.0–500.0 | Lethal | Focal and diffuse haemorrhages with vacuolation of hepatocytes and pigment deposits occurred in the parenchyma. Pyknotic nuclei and severe necrosis of hepatocytes with thick layers of fibrin, and complete destruction of the cell outline. Cloudy swelling of the hepatocytes and hepatocytes and sinusoidal dilation | Cruz and Pitogo (1989) |
| <i>Clarias gariepinus</i> | 370.0 | Sublethal | Multifocal necrosis of hepatocytes | Adeyemo et al. (2012) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 200.0 | Sublethal | Shrinkage of liver cells and cytoplasmic degeneration. Sinuses were packed with red blood cells and blood and vacuolization Widespread cytoplasmic degeneration and loss of architecture and degenerate red blood cells were evident in sinuses | Williams and Wootten (1981) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 250.0–500.0 | Lethal | Increased dilatation, haemorrhage and damage in the blood vessels | Bulut et al. (2015) |
| <i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> | 141.0 | Lethal | Focal or massive necrosis in hepatocyte | Park et al. (1994) |
| <i>Hoplias lacerdae</i> | 1.0–2.0 | Lethal | Cordon disarrangement of hepatocytes, nuclei such as condensed chromatin and decrease in size, in addition to cell fusion in some regions and congestion in sinusoids | Cruz et al. (2005) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 629.0 | Sublethal | Congestive parenchyma with dissemination of siderin deposits and moderate glycogen content | Chmelova et al. (2016) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 250.0 | Lethal | Elevated vacuolization in hepatocytes | Perera and Pathiratne (2005) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 30.0–75.0 | Sublethal | Hyperaemia, hydropic degeneration and fatty degeneration | Mert et al. (2015) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 25.0 | Sublethal | Swollen and vacuolated hepatocytes with basophilic cytoplasm, congestion of sinusoids, vacuolar degeneration, proliferation of melanomacrophages centre, oedema, hyperplasia in the bile ducts | Nouh and Selim (2013) |
| <i>Gymnocorymbus ternetzi</i> | 7.2–15.0 | Sublethal | Lytic degeneration and cytoplasmic and mild vacuolization in hepatocytes. | Nam and Heo (2004) |
| <i>Corydoras melanistius</i> | 50.7 | Lethal | Sinusoids capillaries congested and hepatocytes presented hypertrophic with changes in cytoplasmatic granulation | Santos et al. (2012) |

in the anti-inflammatory cytokine transforming growth factor beta in gill tissue and an increase in interleukin-10 in kidney tissue. The pro-inflammatory cytokine interleukin-1b increased in the gill tissue immediately after the bath, as well as glutathione peroxidase in gill tissue, 24 h and 10 days after treatment baths. Holladay et al. (2010) suggest that certain components of the fish immune system, specifically the lymphoid progenitor compartment, may be negatively affected by exposure to formalin exposure. Hence, studies have suggested that the fish should be kept in quarantine to allow their immune system to recover from the influence of formalin (Sandoval-Gío et al., 2008).

The physiological balance and homeostasis in fish is maintained by the proper functioning of innate or natural, and adaptive or acquired resistance mechanisms. Thus, the simultaneous and adequate function of these systems and ideal environmental conditions are necessary. This presents certain limitations, especially in intensive fish aquaculture when considering large stocks are kept at high densities, requiring antiparasitic treatments and thus generating stressful conditions.

5 | GROWTH PERFORMANCE ALTERATIONS OF FRESHWATER AND MARINE FISH EXPOSED TO FORMALIN

Increasing fish production depends on feeding, handling and the absence of stress, among other factors. The use of chemotherapeutics to control and treat parasites is one of the most important issues in all phases of fish aquaculture production. Exposure to formalin may interfere in fish performance. In *C. gariepinus*, exposure to 185.0–222.0 mg/L (Jimmy et al., 2013) and 3700 mg/L of formalin (Yisa et al., 2014) decreased weight gain (Jimmy et al., 2013), while 1850.0 mg/L of formalin (Yisa et al., 2014) and 100 mg/L (Jimoh et al., 2020) increased the weight gain. Similarly, exposure to 1.6–25.0 mg/L of formalin also decreased the weight gain of *O. niloticus* (Omorieg et al., 1998). In contrast, exposure of *Salmo salar* to 618.0–925.0 mg/L of formalin increased the weight gain (Powell et al., 1996). Rábago-Castro et al. (2014) reported that *Ictalurus punctatus* exposed to 250.0 mg/L of formalin increased the weight gain and specific growth rate.

TABLE 4 Histopathological effects of exposure to formalin on kidney of different freshwater and seawater fish species

| Fish species | Dose (mg/L) | Exposure | Tissue alterations | References |
|-------------------------------|-------------|-----------|---|------------------------|
| <i>Chanos chanos</i> | 100.0–500.0 | Lethal | Extensive degeneration of the renal tubules and intertubular tissue and extensive pigment deposits to form. The disappearance of the renal tubules led to replacement of the tubules with interstitial lymphoid tissue. Tubular degeneration and deposition of pigments | Cruz and Pitogo (1989) |
| <i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> | 141.0 | Lethal | Hyaline droplet degeneration of tubular epithelial cells in the proximal convoluted segment of tubules | Park et al. (1994) |
| <i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> | 150.0–300.0 | Sublethal | Mild oedema of renal tubule, renal tubule epithelium with hyaline droplet degeneration. Extensive hydropic degeneration and nuclear swelling of renal tubule epithelium | Cho et al. (1997) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 629.0 | Sublethal | Congestive parenchyma with dissemination of siderin deposits and moderate glycogen content | Chmelova et al. (2016) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 280.0 | Lethal | Abnormalities such as enlargement of glomerula, thickening and cloudy swelling of epithelial cells of renal tubules and formation of an eosinophilic cast in the renal tubules | Kakuta et al. (1991) |
| <i>Gymnocorymbus ternetzi</i> | 7.2–15.0 | Sublethal | Epithelial cell oedema of renal tubules | Nam and Heo (2004) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 25.0 | Sublethal | Congestion of intertubular capillaries and perivascular oedema and tubular nephrosis. Vacuolization in the renal epithelium with focal depletion of haematopoietic tissue | Nouh and Selim (2013) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 167.0–250.0 | Lethal | Congestion of blood sinusoids and nuclear swelling and hydropic degeneration of renal tubule epithelium | Smith and Piper (1972) |

TABLE 5 Histopathological effects of exposure to formalin on spleen of different freshwater fish species

| Fish species | Dose (mg/L) | Exposure | Tissue alterations | References |
|------------------------------|-------------|-----------|--|------------------------|
| <i>Clarias gariepinus</i> | 370.0 | 3 days | Massive lymphoid depletion | Adeyemo et al. (2012) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 629.0 | Sublethal | Congestion and siderin deposits | Chmelova et al. (2016) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 25.0 | Sublethal | Proliferation of melanomacrophages centre and focal depletion in the lymphoid tissue | Nouh and Selim (2013) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 167.0–250.0 | Lethal | Reduction of lymphoid tissue in spleen | Smith and Piper (1972) |

If the stressor agent is acute, the homeostasis can be recovered without severe consequences to the fish. However, stressors of a chronic nature lead to compromises of the energy stores, with the onset of physiological exhaustion and a reduced growth rate. The impairment of the fish defence system affects its health, welfare and survival (Barton, 2002; Urbinati et al., 2020; Wendelaar Bonga, 1997). The suppression on growth may be due to adverse effects of formalin on metabolism of the exposed fish (Omeregíe et al., 1998). The suppressive effect of formalin may be due to a reduction of food and nutrient uptake. However, an exposure of 48 h with 222.0 mg/L of formalin had no influence on the weight of *Poecilia reticulata* (Andrade et al., 2005). *Oncorhynchus mykiss* exposed to intermittent

baths with 200.0 mg/L of formalin for 1 h showed no alterations in growth rates, appetite, feed conversion and body condition index (Speare & Macnair, 1996). Exposure of *Oncorhynchus shawytscha* to 618.0 mg/L of formalin also showed no alterations in growth performance (Smith et al., 1987).

Few studies have investigated the effects of formalin on growth performance parameters despite the frequent use of this chemotherapeutic in fish aquaculture and aquaria. Further research is necessary to investigate whether exposure to formalin may lead to negative effects on the obtaining of food, as well as if swimming behaviour and avoidance of adverse conditions affect the fish appetite, as both activities can influence fish survival

TABLE 6 Haematological and biochemical effects of acute and sublethal exposure to formalin for different fish species after

| Fish species | Doses (mg/L) | Alterations | References |
|---------------------------------|--------------|---|--------------------------------|
| <i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i> | 200.0 | Increase in plasma chloride, cholesterol and cortisol | Wedemeyer and Yasutake (1974) |
| <i>Salmo salar</i> | 250.0 | Increase in plasma glucose and total protein | Nieminen et al. (1983) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 200.0 | Decrease in plasma calcium levels and in plasma chloride | Wedemeyer (1971) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 200.0 | Increase in plasma chloride and cholesterol | Wedemeyer and Yasutake (1974) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 250.0 | Decrease in haematocrit, haemoglobin, plasma lactate and glucose, and increase in total protein levels | Nieminen et al. (1983) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 1250 | Decrease in haematocrit, haemoglobin, plasma lactate and glucose, and increase in total protein levels | Nieminen et al. (1983) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 200.0 | Increase in haematocrit and plasma glucose, and increase in plasma glutamate oxaloacetic transaminase | Williams and Wootten (1981) |
| <i>Salmo salar</i> | 1250 | Increase in haematocrit and haemoglobin | Nieminen et al. (1983) |
| <i>Salmo salar</i> | 618.0–925.0 | Increase in plasma sodium, chloride and calcium | Powell et al. (1996) |
| <i>Clarias gariepinus</i> | 370.0–480.0 | Decrease in total erythrocyte number, and increase in haemoglobin, haematocrit and mean corpuscular volume (MCV) and mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration (MCHC), and increase in total leukocyte number | Okomoda et al. (2010) |
| <i>Clarias gariepinus</i> | 100 | Decrease in total erythrocyte number and haemoglobin | Jimoh et al. (2020) |
| <i>Hemigrammus</i> sp. | 370.0 | Increase in perceptual of lymphocytes, and decrease in perceptual of monocytes | Paixão et al. (2013) |
| <i>Sarotherodon massambicus</i> | 80.0 | Decrease in total erythrocyte number, and increase in haemoglobin and haematocrit and mean corpuscular volume (MCV) | Beevi and Radhakrishnan (1987) |
| <i>Arapima gigas</i> | 55.0–66.0 | Increase in plasma levels of glucose and cortisol, and decrease haematocrit, plasma levels of chloride and calcium | Andrade-Porto et al. (2017) |
| <i>Colossoma macropomum</i> | 200.0–250.0 | Increase in plasma calcium levels | Araújo et al. (2004) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 1.6–25.0 | Decrease in total erythrocyte number and increase in plasma glucose levels | Omorieg et al. (1994) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 20.0 | Decrease in total erythrocyte number, haemoglobin, haematocrit and serum level of aspartate aminotransferase (AST), and increase in serum level of alanine aminotransferase (ALT), urea, sodium and potassium | El- Deen et al. (2010) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 150.0 | Decrease in perceptual of lymphocytes | Holladay et al. (2010) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 25.0 | Decrease in total erythrocytes and leukocyte number, haemoglobin, haematocrit, plasma total protein and albumin, and increase in plasma glucose, urea, creatinine and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) | Nouh and Selim (2013) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 150.0–250.0 | Decrease in total erythrocyte number, haematocrit and haemoglobin | Perera and Pathiratne (2005) |
| <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> | 5550 | Increase in serum cortisol and glucose | Sandoval-Gío et al. (2019) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 280.0 | Increase in haematocrit, plasma glucose, total protein and lactic acid, and decrease in mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration (MCHC) | Kakuta et al. (1991) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 629.0 | Increase in total erythrocyte number and basophils, haemoglobin, haematocrit, plasma glucose, lactate, calcium, and decrease in plasma level of alanine aminotransferase | Chmelova et al. (2016) |
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 150.0 | Decrease in total erythrocyte number, haemoglobin, haematocrit, mean corpuscular volume (MCV), mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration (MCHC), increase in serum cortisol and glucose, total leukocytes, lymphocytes and monocytes | Şahan (2020) |

(Continues)

TABLE 6 (Continued)

| Fish species | Doses (mg/L) | Alterations | References |
|--------------------------------|--------------|--|-------------------------------|
| <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | 63.0 | Increase in haematocrit and perceptual of erythroblasts, and decrease in total thrombocytes | Witeska et al. (2013) |
| <i>Carassius auratus</i> | 250.0 | Increase in serum level of cortisol, glucose, calcium, albumin, and total protein, and decrease in serum level of chloride | Hoseini and Tarkhani (2013) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 120.0 | Increase in plasma cortisol | Jørgensen and Buchmann (2007) |
| <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | 200.0 | Increase in plasma cortisol | Sanchez et al. (1997) |
| <i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> | 300.0 | Increase in total erythrocyte number, immature erythrocyte number, haemoglobin, haematocrit, mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration (MCHC), alanine aminotransferase, serum magnesium, potassium, chloride and lactate dehydrogenase, and decrease in serum level of total protein, aspartate aminotransferase | Jung et al. (2003) |
| <i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> | 212.00 | Increase in haemoglobin, haematocrit, immature erythrocyte number, and inorganic phosphorus, and decrease in serum level of total protein, magnesium, chloride, alkaline phosphatase and lactate dehydrogenase | Jung et al. (2003) |
| <i>Heteropneustes fossilis</i> | 925.0 | Decrease in total erythrocyte number, haemoglobin, haematocrit and mean corpuscular haemoglobin concentration (MCHC), and increase in mean corpuscular volume (MCV), total leukocyte number and clotting time | Srivastava et al. (2009) |
| <i>Sparus aurata</i> | 150.0 | Increase in plasma level of glucose, cortisol, calcium, sodium, chloride and sodium | Yildiz and Ergonul (2010) |
| <i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i> | 150.0 | Increase in plasma level of glucose, cortisol, calcium, potassium, phosphorus, magnesium, and decrease in haematocrit | Yildiz and Ergonul (2010) |

6 | ANTIPARASITIC EFFICACY OF FORMALIN IN TREATED FRESHWATER AND MARINE FISH SPECIES

Successful aquaculture depends on numerous biological and environment factors. However, prevention and control of diseases is given priority for all production types and phases. Studies on the parasites in fish farming are important in food production and industrial processes. Infestation in fish farming increases with intensification because a high density causes an increase in the parasite populations, which may cause ideal conditions for epizootics for ectoparasites with a direct life cycle. Hence, researchers and fish farmers have experimented with various chemical products and methods of application to control and treat parasites in fish farming. Rucker et al. (1963) stated that in 1909, Leger already recommended the use of a 1300.0–1480.0 mg/L of formalin in baths of 15 min to control *Ichthyobodo necator* in *O. mykiss*. Since then, formalin has been recommended for controlling ectoparasites of farmed fish (Fish, 1940 a,b; Allison, 1954).

The control of parasitic diseases in fish is important for the success of the aquaculture and aquaria industries. Nevertheless, treatment for controlling and treating ectoparasites in fish farming involves the use of chemotherapeutic agents such as formalin. Infection by ectoparasites causes significant economic losses of billions of dollars for freshwater and marine fish farming industries worldwide. Hence, formalin has been used since the beginning of the 20th century to eradicate species of ectoparasites (Fish, 1939;

Rucker et al., 1963), given that these infections are considered as a major problem in fish farming (Farmer et al., 2013; Jørgensen & Buchmann, 2007; Jørgensen et al., 2009; Katharios et al., 2006; Pironet & Jones, 2000). Furthermore, severe parasitic infestations can compromise the quality of fish destined for human consumption (Pahor-Filho et al., 2012).

The following types of baths of formalin and time of exposure may be used for administering treatments against ectoparasites: (i) Dip—fish are dipped into a concentrated solution of formalin for 1 min. (ii) Short-term baths—water flow is shut off and formalin is added to the tank at high concentrations, relative to toxicity and allowed to remain up to one hour. The flow is then turned on, and the chemical flushed out (iii) Long-term baths—low concentrations of formalin are added to tanks or aquaria and allowed to dissipate naturally. (iv) Flush—the entire dose of formalin is added at the flowing inlet and allowed to spread through and out of the container. Water flow is continuous, and concentrations are about the same as for short baths. (v) Constant flow—a metering device is used to introduce concentrated formalin into the water flow to give a constant, continuous dose.

Vigorous aeration must be provided in recirculating aquaculture systems or in cultivation tanks whenever formalin is applied. When using formalin as a prolonged bath in a flow-through tank system, it is recommended that the water flow be turned off for at least 12 h or up to 24 h to ensure enough exposure time with the parasite. Moreover, water quality (e.g. ammonia, nitrite, pH, dissolved oxygen and temperature) must be optimal before stopping

TABLE 7 Management strategies of therapeutic baths with formalin to control and treatment of freshwater and marine ectoparasite species

| Parasite species | Doses (mg/L) | Exposure time | Results | References |
|--|--------------|-----------------|---------------|--|
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 370.0–1850.0 | 1–2 h | High efficacy | Fish and Burrows (1940) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 620.0–925.0 | 24 h | High efficacy | Fish (1940a) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 10.0–15.0 | 72 h | High efficacy | Allison (1957) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 610.0–970.0 | 0.5–1 h | High efficacy | Ceccarelli et al. (1993) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 200.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Diggles (2000) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 92.5 | 72 h | Low efficacy | Alcântrara-Rocha et al. (1993) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 46.0–92.5 | – | High efficacy | Silva et al. (2009) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 250 | 1h | High efficacy | Vargas et al. (2003) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> spp. | 370.0–740.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Balta et al. (2008) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 20.0 | 24 h | High efficacy | El-Deen et al. (2010) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> spp. | 925.0 | 10 min | High efficacy | García-Magaña et al. (2019) |
| <i>Trichodina</i> sp. | 150.0 | 1 h each 2 days | High efficacy | Xu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Trichodina epizootica</i> | 629.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Chmelova et al. (2016) |
| <i>Trichodina jadratica</i> | 75.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Madsen et al. (2000) |
| <i>Trichodina fultoni</i> and <i>Trichodina salmincola</i> | 25.0 | 72 h | High efficacy | Aly et al. (2020) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 100.0 | 240 h | No efficacy | Farmer et al. (2013) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 740.0 | 24–120 | No efficacy | Carneiro et al. (2005), Carneiro et al. (2006) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 370.0–740.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Balta et al. (2008) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 37.0 | 72 h | No efficacy | Alcântrara-Rocha et al. (1994) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 15.0 | – | High efficacy | Allison (1957) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 25.0 | 7 days | High efficacy | Klein et al. (2004) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 400.0 | 1–2 | High efficacy | Lahnsteiner and Weismann (2007) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 10.0–20.0 | 22 days | No efficacy | Rowland et al. (2009) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 30.0 | 22 days | High efficacy | Rowland et al. (2009) |
| <i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i> | 25.0 | 21 days | High efficacy | Tieman and Goodwin (2001) |
| <i>Amyloodinium ocellatum</i> | 51.0 | 1–7 h | High efficacy | Fajer-Ávila et al. (2003) |
| <i>Cryptocaryon irritans</i> | 35–50 | 5 h per day | High efficacy | Rasheed (1989) |
| <i>Philasterides dicentrarchi</i> | 25.0–30.0 | 24–72 h | High efficacy | Budiño et al. (2012) |
| <i>Cichlidogyrus tubicirrus</i> and <i>Cichlidogyrus</i> sp. | 25.0 | 72 h | High efficacy | Aly et al. (2020) |
| <i>Cichlidogyrus</i> sp. | 20.0 | 24 h | High efficacy | El-Deen et al. (2010) |
| <i>Cichlidogyrus</i> sp. | 5500.0 | 40 min | High efficacy | Sandoval-Gío et al. (2019) |
| <i>Gyrodactylus</i> sp. | 5.0–15.0 | 72 h | High efficacy | Allison (1957) |
| <i>Gyrodactylus</i> sp. | 620.0–925.0 | 24 h | High efficacy | Fish (1940a) |
| <i>Gyrodactylus</i> sp. | 50.0–250 | 1 h | High efficacy | Vargas et al. (2003) |
| <i>Dawestrema cycloancistrum</i> | 440.0–550.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Andrade-Porto et al. (2017) |
| <i>Diplectanum aequans</i> | 370.0–1100.0 | 1 h | No efficacy | Cecchini and Cognetti-Varriale (2003) |
| <i>Gyrodactylus derjavini</i> | 20.0 | 18 h | High efficacy | Buchmann and Kristensson (2003) |
| <i>Gyrodactylus corti</i> | 150.0–200.0 | 5 days | High efficacy | Jones et al. (2015) |
| <i>Haliotrema</i> sp. and <i>Euryhaliotrema</i> sp. | 51.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Fajer-Ávila et al. (2007) |
| <i>Pseudorhabdosynochus</i> sp. and <i>Haliotrema</i> sp. | 30.0 | 24 h | High efficacy | Zafran et al. (1998) |
| <i>Haliotrema</i> sp. | 150.0 | 1 h | No efficacy | Pironet and Jones (2000) |
| <i>Microcotyle</i> sp. | 200.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Katharios et al. (2006) |

(Continues)

TABLE 7 (Continued)

| Parasite species | Doses (mg/L) | Exposure time | Results | References |
|--|--------------|----------------|---------------|------------------------------------|
| <i>Urocleidoides</i> sp. | 370.0 | 1h per 3 days | High efficacy | Paixão et al. (2013) |
| <i>Pseudorhabdosynochus lantauensis</i> | 250.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Cruz-Lacierda et al. (2012) |
| <i>Pseudorhabdosynochus lantauensis</i> | 100.0 | 1 h | No efficacy | Cruz-Lacierda et al. (2012) |
| <i>Onchocleidus mimus</i> | 100.0 | 20 h | High efficacy | Farmer et al. (2013) |
| <i>Lepidotrema bidyana</i> | 150–250 | 30 min | High efficacy | Forwood et al. (2013) |
| <i>Lepidotrema bidyana</i> and <i>Gyrodactylus</i> sp. | 30.0–40.0 | 120 days | High efficacy | Rowland et al. (2006) |
| <i>Gyrodactylus</i> sp. | 46.0–92.5 | – | High efficacy | Silva et al. (2009) |
| <i>Gyrodactylus sprostonae</i> | 629.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Chmelova et al. (2016) |
| <i>Gyrodactylus legans</i> | 50.0 | 14 | High efficacy | William and Lewis (1963) |
| <i>Monogenea</i> gen. sp. | 15.0 | 24 h | High efficacy | Fujimoto et al. (2006) |
| <i>Monogenea</i> gen. sp. | 925.0 | 20 min | High efficacy | Sanches (2008) |
| <i>Haliotrema johnei</i> | 300.0 | 30 min | High efficacy | Liang and Leong (1992) |
| <i>Polylabroides mutispinosus</i> | 400.0 | 25 min | High efficacy | Diggles et al. (1993) |
| <i>Haliotrema abaddon</i> | 25.0 | 24 h | Low efficacy | Stephens et al. (2003) |
| <i>Entobdella hippoglossi</i> | 200.0 | 160 min | No efficacy | Svendsen and Haug (1991) |
| <i>Ligophorus uruguayensis</i> | 135.0–540.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Pahor-Filho et al. (2012) |
| <i>Solostamenides platyorchis</i> | 135.0–540.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Pahor-Filho et al. (2012) |
| <i>Ligictaluridus floridanus</i> | 250.0 | 7 days | High efficacy | Rábago-Castro et al. (2014) |
| <i>Neobenedenia melleni</i> | 1850.0 | 10 min | High efficacy | Sanches et al. (2007) |
| <i>Neobenedenia melleni</i> | 250.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Thoney and Hargis (1991) |
| <i>Microcotyle hiatalae</i> | 250.0 | 1 h | No efficacy | Thoney and Hargis (1991) |
| <i>Benedenia seriola</i> and <i>Zeuxapta seriola</i> | 250.0–400.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Sharp et al. (2004) |
| <i>Linguadactyloides</i> sp. | 610.0–970.0 | 0.5–1 h | High efficacy | Ceccarelli et al. (1993) |
| <i>Linguadactyloides brinkmanni</i> | 925.0 | 10–15 min | High efficacy | Thatcher and Kritsky (1983) |
| <i>Ichthyobodo necator</i> | 925.0 | 30 h | High efficacy | Fish (1940b) |
| <i>Ichthyobodo necator</i> | 600.0 | 1 h per 9 days | High efficacy | Ostland et al. (1995) |
| <i>Ichthyobodo necator</i> | 370.0–740.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Balta et al. (2008) |
| <i>Ichthyobodo necator</i> | 80.0 | 2 h | High efficacy | Jaafar et al. (2013) |
| <i>Zeylanicobdella arugamensis</i> | 50.0 | 1 h | High efficacy | Cruz-Lacierda et al. (2000) |
| <i>Myxobdella lugubris</i> | 150.0 | 1 h | No efficacy | Morrison et al. (1993) |
| <i>Ergasilus ceylonensis</i> | 50.0 | 20 min | No efficacy | Wijeyaratne and Gunawardene (1988) |
| <i>Caligus elongatus</i> | 10.0–250.0 | 0.5–18 h | No efficacy | Landsberg et al. (1991) |
| <i>Argulus coregoni</i> | 0.002 | 16 h | No efficacy | Hakalahti-Sirén et al. (2008) |
| <i>Lepeophtheirus kabatai</i> | 200.0 | 30 min | High efficacy | Ranjan et al. (2018) |
| <i>Caecognathia coralliophila</i> | 100–200 | 24 h | High efficacy | Thing et al. (2016) |
| <i>Caecognathia coralliophila</i> | 6.2–50.0 | 24 h | No efficacy | Thing et al. (2016) |
| <i>Myxobolus</i> sp. | 0.004 | 15 min | High efficacy | Singhal et al. (1986) |

water flow and beginning the therapeutic treatment. Heinen et al. (1995) reported that nitrification in the biofilter was not impaired by 1 h formalin treatments of up to 167.0 mg/L. However, indefinite treatment of 70.0 mg/L showed high nitrite levels for 9 days. Formalin remained detectable in the biofilter system for 11 h during indefinite treatment at 120 mg/L of formalin. In stable biofilters of recirculating aquaculture systems when exposed once to 9.25, 18.5, 37 or 55.5 mg/L formalin, the formalin concentration

55.5 mg/L also increased total ammonia nitrogen and nitrite nitrogen concentrations, and nitrification did not recover to pre-exposure concentrations during up to 8 days postexposure (Fredricks et al., 2018).

Formalin has been used extensively in freshwater and marine fish species to control and treat monogenean and protozoan species (Table 7). Nevertheless, the effective management of parasites often relies on the concentrations of formalin and treatment strategies.

Formalin is generally used therapeutically by fish farmers in treatment baths at 550.0–9.25 mg/L for up to 1 h for consecutive days, for a maximum of three treatments (Adeyemo et al., 2012). Martins et al. (1999) recommended the application of 10 ml/m³ of formalin against *Henneguya leporinicola* in cultivation ponds of *Leporinus macrocephalus*.

The use of low concentrations of formalin requires prolonged treatments for a satisfactory efficacy in cultivation ponds and recirculation aquaculture systems. In contrast, the use of high concentrations of formalin requires short-term baths for survival of fish and obtaining of satisfactory efficacy (Allison, 1954; Farmer et al., 2013; Fish, 1940a, 1940b; Fish & Burrows, 1940; Harms, 1996; Perera & Pathiratne, 2005; Rábago-Castro et al., 2014; Rowland et al., 2006; Stoskopf, 1988). Formalin has also been tested as a chemotherapeutic in fish farming ponds due to low cost (Jaafar et al., 2013; Jørgensen et al., 2009; Pahor-Filho et al., 2012; Rowland et al., 2006, 2009; Thorburn & Moccia, 1993; William & Lewis, 1963). For example, a treatment regime involving daily applications of formalin for controlling ichthyophthiriosis in earthen ponds had an average cost of US\$ 466.37 per hectare/day (Rowland et al., 2009).

After *in vitro* exposure to 64.0 and 128.0 mg/L of formalin, the viability of *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis* stages was 0%. Formalin is currently used in trout farms at 200 mg/L for 1 h because this treatment has been effective against all free-living stages of this ectoparasite (Forwood et al., 2014). *In vitro* exposure to 25–100 mg/L of formalin was effective against *Tetrahymena pyriformis* (Gilbert et al., 1979). *In vitro* exposure to 100–200 mg/L of formalin was also effective against *Uronema nigricans* (Crosbie & Munday, 1999). Similarly, *in vitro* exposure with 200.0 mg/L for 6 or 12 h was effective against *Amyloodinium ocellatum* (Paperna, 1984). Jee et al. (2002) reported that *in vitro* exposure to 50.0 mg/L of formalin for 1.5 h was also effective against *Uronema marinum*. *In vitro* exposure of *Rhabdosynochus* sp. to 218 and 327 mg/L of formalin caused 100% of mortality within 1 h, while 110 mg/L required 150 min to eliminate all parasites (Morales-Serna et al., 2020), showing that the effect was dose dependent.

In vitro exposure with 62.0 mg/L of formalin was effective against *Philasterides dicentrarchi* (Iglesias et al., 2002). *In vitro* treatment with 300 mg/L of formalin for 30 min caused 100% of mortality in larvae and adults of *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* (Sitjà-Bobadilla et al., 2006). However, Jin et al. (2010) demonstrated that *in vitro* exposure to 50 mg/L for 3 h was moderately effective against *P. dicentrarchi*. Hari Krishnan et al. (2010) also reported that 100–400 mg/L for 30 min was moderately effective against *P. dicentrarchi*. For *Dactylogyrus minutus*, 200 mg/L of formalin had a rapid *in vitro* efficacy, killing all parasites in 16 min (Tancredo, Marchiori, et al., 2019). *In vitro* exposure of *Haliotrema* sp. and *Euryhaliotrema* sp. adults to 83.0 mg/L of formalin for 1 h reduced the number of parasites by 72.0%. However, formalin treatment was ineffective in preventing the hatching of monogeneans from eggs (Fajer-Ávila et al., 2007). Treatments with 200.0 mg/L of formalin for 6–35 days had no effect on the hatching of *Entobdella hippoglossi* eggs (Svendsen & Haug, 1991). Diggle et al. (1993) demonstrated that 200.0 mg/L of

formalin decreased the viability of eggs and survival of oncomiracidia of *Polylabroides mutispinosus*.

The formalin EC₅₀ for *Heterobothrium ecuadori* at 30 min of exposure was 225.0 mg/L, decreasing to 87.0 mg/L at 1 h of exposure and 47.0 mg/L at 105 min of exposure (Fajer-Ávila et al., 2003). Studies showed that the lethal concentrations (24-LC₅₀) of formalin for *Tetrahymena thermophila* were 37.5 mg/L, for *Tetrahymena pyriformis* was 37.5 mg/L, for *Tetrahymena* sp. was 50.0 mg/L. 24-LC₅₀ of formalin, and for *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis* was 20.3 mg/L (Xu et al., 2016). Exposure of *A. gigas* to low concentration of formalin (33.0–66.0 mg/L) for 12 h showed no influence on the control of *Dawestrema cycloancistrum* in gills (Andrade-Porto et al., 2017).

The appropriate concentration of formalin for a prolonged bath is lower than 25 mg/L. Concentrations higher than 25 mg/L are appropriate for short-term baths. The lower concentration of 12.5 mg/L is recommended for more sensitive fish species or extremely sick fish that may have low tolerance to treatment using a higher concentration. The lower concentration may also be adequate for indefinite baths in cultivation ponds in some situations, but the use of formalin in ponds should be parsimonious.

7 | CONCLUSIONS

To control and treat ectoparasites in fish farming, fish producers and researchers in the past have experimented with various chemicals and methods of application. Formalin has a long history in the treatment against fish ectoparasites and is extremely effective, particularly against protozoan and monogenean species in freshwater and marine environments. Formalin is an excellent ectoparasiticide for use in small tanks and aquaria, where the depletion of dissolved oxygen can be easily avoided by using an aeration system. At lower concentrations, formalin must be applied as a prolonged bath and is put directly into the system water with the fish and left indefinitely. At higher concentrations, formalin must be applied as a short-term bath. However, caution is recommended for the successful use of formalin to control ectoparasites in fish. Furthermore, after treatment with formalin, the residues should be treated for before its discharge into the environment.

The acute toxicity of formalin varies among fish species due to some factors such as age and species. However, studies in marine fish species need to be carried out given the lack of information regarding their tolerance to treatment with formalin. Erythrocytic parameters of fish as a response to exposure of formalin occur with changes in the oxygen consumed by the organism and possibly the activation of haematopoietic organs. Formalin has toxic effects on homeostasis and immune system of exposed fish. Innate immunity plays a role in the defence against ectoparasites in farmed fish as well.

Caution must be taken when applying formalin in high temperatures to avoid increasing the toxicity, which may disrupt homeostasis

in fish. Therefore, careful measures of this water quality parameter in cultivation tanks must be taken to ensure fish survival when using this therapeutic. Further investigations are required to optimize treatments and to establish protocols to minimize the quantity of formalin applied while ensuring the best efficacy. More research is needed regarding the pharmacological aspects of formalin and management strategies, including the use of safe interventions focusing on the removal of all phases of ectoparasites in cultivation systems. The use of such strategies may provide more environmentally friendly alternatives when using formalin for the control ectoparasitic infections.

We are unable to suggest definitively that applications of formalin in freshwater aquaculture, fish mariculture and aquarium systems must be stopped under any circumstances, despite having negative impacts on the environment or presenting potential risks to food security. Formaldehyde has been classified as a human carcinogen, because the exposure to this chemical can lead to the development of human haematopoietic cancers, such as leukaemia. However, there appears to be no valid reasons for prohibiting the use of formalin in aquaculture when following basic precautions. Nevertheless, applications of formalin in fish farming should be made only when strictly necessary.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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