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2 **Title:** Cryobanking of aquatic species

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1 **Abstract**

2 This review is focused on the applications of genome cryobanking of aquatic species
3 including freshwater and marine fish, as well as invertebrates. It also reviews the latest
4 advances in cryobanking of model species, widely used by the scientific community
5 worldwide, because of their applications in several fields. The state of the art of
6 cryopreservation of different cellular types (sperm, oocytes, embryos, somatic cells and
7 primordial germ cells or early spermatogonia) is discussed focusing on the advantages
8 and disadvantages of each procedure according to different applications. A special
9 review on the need of standardization of protocols has also been carried out. In
10 summary, this comprehensive review provides information on the practical details of
11 applications of genome cryobanking in a range of aquatic species worldwide, including
12 the cryobanks established in Europe, USA, Brazil, Australia and New Zealand, the
13 species and type of cells that constitute these banks and the utilization of the samples
14 preserved.

15

16 **Key words**

17 Cryobanking, aquatic animals, fish gametes, germplasm

18

1. Introduction to germplasm cryobanking

Germplasm cryobanking has important applications in reproductive practices in cultured marine and freshwater aquatic species by simplifying broodstock management. Its potential has also been evident in maintaining important strains of laboratory model fish species. Cryobanking has also been a valuable tool to preserve the genetic resources of a wide range of species and with the help of reproductive biotechnologies, such as germ cell xenotransplantation, it plays an important role in genetic selection programs, biodiversity preservation and assisted reproduction. According to the Red List of the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN, 2015), there are 5,161 threatened aquatic animal species in the world, including fishes, molluscs, crustaceans and corals, therefore, cryopreservation could be a secure method to preserve the genetic material of these species, providing the opportunity to preserve representative samples and further reconstruct the original strain, population or diversity. The management of these banks requires technical capacity in genetics, reproductive physiology, cryobiology and data administration. Cryopreservation protocols must be carefully designed for each species and each type of cells. This review will focus on the potential of cryobanking in aquatic animals, including freshwater and marine fish species as well as invertebrates.

2. Fish sperm cryopreservation

Since the first attempts to cryopreserve fish sperm, the potential application of this methodology to freshwater and marine species has attracted the attention of researchers. Freezing protocols have been developed for many different species around the world, the numerous studies have focused on species from temperate climates and with seasonal reproduction. Among them, salmonids and cyprinids, are by far the most

1 extensively studied because of their high commercial value, either as food or for
2 recreation purposes such as fishing. Research on fish germplasm cryobanking has been
3 carried out on different cells types, including sperm, somatic cells, and more recently
4 spermatogonia and primordial germ cells as well as fish oocytes and embryos.
5 However, mainly due to their small size and relatively high resistance to chilling,
6 spermatozoa present some advantages comparing to other cell types, resulting in sperm
7 cryopreservation the most established technique in aquatic species.

8

9 *2.1. Cryopreservation of sperm from aquaculture species*

10 Extensive reviews, in some cases including detailed protocols for farmed species, have
11 been published by different authors in recent years (Cabrita et al., 2008; Kopeika et al.,
12 2007; Tiersch et al., 2007, 2011). Therefore, in this review we will focus on the research
13 carried out in the last 5 years on commercial species.

14

15 2.1.1 Freshwater species

16 Most of the recent reports are still focused on salmonids, cyprinids and sturgeons
17 (Figure 1) but there is an increasing interest in designing cryopreservation protocols for
18 species from tropical and subtropical areas (Maria et al., 2015; Viveiros and Godinho,
19 2009). Traditional empirical studies in a factorial experimental design testing a range of
20 freezing rates, cryoprotectants or extenders are still conducted in order to develop
21 cryopreservation protocols for species such as Atlantic salmon (Dziewulska et al.,
22 2011), beluga sturgeon (Aramli et al., 2015), Siberian sturgeon (Judycka et al., 2015),
23 perch (Bernáth et al., 2015) or tambaqui (Maria et al., 2015; Varela Junior et al., 2015).
24 Nevertheless, the evaluation of sperm quality after freezing/thawing has evolved,
25 allowing a better understanding of the mechanisms linking to the compromised quality

1 during the cryopreservation process. The motility analysis is commonly performed
2 using computerized systems. Flow cytometry is used to obtain reliable data about cell
3 membrane or mitochondrial status, antioxidant status is evaluated using different
4 methodologies, and chromatin integrity is also considered as an important checkpoint
5 (reviewed by Cabrita et al., 2014). Moreover, proteome analysis contributes to deeper
6 understanding in sperm physiology, revealing changes in proteins related to membrane
7 traffick and organization, metabolism or signal transduction (Li et al., 2010,2013;
8 Nynca et al., 2015a), providing valuable information on the nature of cryodamage
9 (Figure 2). In addition, beyond fertilization rate, different studies have evaluated the
10 long-term development of the progeny (Pérez-Cerezales et al., 2011; Viveiros et al.,
11 2012).

12 The objective of reducing oxidative stress has been achieved by adding different
13 compounds into the freezing extender. There are a number of identified natural and
14 synthetic antioxidants which showed varying level of efficiency depending on the
15 species, concentration or if they were combined with other compounds. Lahnsteiner and
16 his colleagues (2011), tested 10 antioxidant mixtures containing catalase, superoxide
17 dismutase, peroxidase, reduced glutathione, reduced methionine, oxidized glutathione
18 and oxidized methionine and did not show a significant improve on sperm post-thaw
19 quality in *Salvelinus fontinalis* and *Oncorhynchus mykiss*). However, different results
20 were obtained in *O. mykiss* in an experiment in which post-thaw motility increased with
21 5 of the 11 tested antioxidants, but the fertility and hatching rates were not enhanced
22 (Kutluyer et al., 2014). Better results were obtained with beluga sturgeon, where the
23 addition of a synthetic phosphorous-containing phenol to modified Stein's medium
24 doubled the fertility of thawed sperm (Osipova et al., 2014). An analysis of oxidative
25 stress in carp sperm revealed that sperm dilution in extenders containing either dimethyl

1 sulfoxide (DMSO) or ethylene glycol did not show any oxidative effects, whereas
2 freezing promoted a significant oxidative damage, mainly with the use of DMSO as
3 cryoprotectant (Li et al., 2010). Comparing changes in protein phosphorylation
4 occurring during cryopreservation with the same cryoprotectants also revealed that the
5 use of DMSO affected the biochemical profile of carp spermatozoa more seriously than
6 other cryoprotectants (Li et al., 2013).

7 Progresses in carp sperm freezing include different modifications to conventional
8 techniques and the addition of several compounds into the freezing media in order to
9 increase cryoresistance. In these species, membrane protection has been improved using
10 1.5 mg per 120×10^6 spermatozoa of cholesterol-loaded cyclodextrin, which promoted a
11 significant increase in motility, viability and fertility (Yildiz et al., 2015). The addition
12 of 20 mM cysteine rendered higher motility, fertility and hatching rates and lower level
13 of DNA damage (Öğretmen et al., 2015). Extender supplementation with a variety of
14 compounds, including butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) (Öğretmen and İnanan, 2014b),
15 Turkish pine honey (Öğretmen and İnanan, 2014a) and propolis (Öğretmen et al., 2014)
16 has been evaluated with variable results.

17 For salmonids, fertility rates similar to those obtained with control sperm were obtained
18 with sperm to egg ratios as low as 50,000:1 for grayling (Horváth et al., 2015),
19 300,000:1 for brook and brown trout (Nynca et al., 2014, 2015b), 500,000:1 for huchen
20 (Nynca et al., 2015c) and 600,000:1 for rainbow trout (Ciereszko et al., 2014).

21 Vitrification is a rarely used technique in fish sperm but with promising applications.

22 Vitrification of sperm diluted in Cortland medium with 10% DMSO, 2% BSA, 0.13 M
23 sucrose and 50% seminal plasma was reported as an option in Atlantic salmon
24 cryopreservation (Figuerola et al., 2015). The authors reported good membrane integrity,
25 motility and fertility and low DNA fragmentation rates under these conditions.

1 2.1.2. Marine Species

2 Cryopreservation of sperm from most marine fish species is not as developed as for
3 freshwater species, and most of the work conducted in the recent years has been done on
4 freshwater species (Figure 3).

5 One of the reasons for the lack of research and application of cryopreservation
6 technique at production level is the fact that the reproduction of most marine
7 commercial species occurs naturally in the tank, where no artificial fertilization is
8 required, thus reducing the need for gamete management techniques. There are of
9 course exceptions, such as halibut (*Hypoglossus hypoglossus*) or turbot (*Scophthalmus*
10 *maximus*), where important research on sperm cryopreservation has been carried out
11 (Chereguini et al., 2003, Babiak et al., 2008). Most of the work conducted in new
12 species is targeting conservation of stocks for guaranteeing culture production, genetic
13 improvement programs and broodstock management. Successful cryopreservation of
14 male gametes of marine species would contribute to the success of these programs.
15 Despite great interest in optimising genetic resources or limiting risks associated with
16 horizontal disease transmission, there has been limited reports on sperm
17 cryopreservation of new species introduced in aquaculture industry.

18 In flatfish species, successful cryopreservation of Atlantic halibut sperm was first
19 reported by Bolla et al. (1987). Since then, several studies reported the improved the
20 quality of cryopreserved sperm as well as the technology needed for applications in
21 industry (Babiak et al., 2006a; Ding et al., 2011). The methods developed allow the
22 storage of large amount of sperm produced by each male (5-100 ml), maintaining a high
23 fertilization capacity. This has increased the applicability of cryopreservation for
24 commercial operators, and provided a useful tool for seedstock production and
25 broodstock management (Ding et al., 2011, 2012), solving some of the problems of non-

1 synchronization between both sexes at the end of spawning (females still have good
2 eggs where males produce bad sperm quality with high viscosity) and allowing a
3 reduction of manipulation of breeders for spawning (Babiak et al., 2006a; b). Protocols
4 for other flatfish species were also recently developed, such as for Senegalese sole
5 (*Solea senegalensis*) and summer flounder (*Paralichthys dentatus*). For Senegalese sole
6 protocols were adapted from turbot (Rasines et al., 2013) and the work is still ongoing
7 to improving the quality of post-thaw samples (Morais et al., 2014).

8 There are also protocols for new species being introduced in aquaculture in order to
9 address the problems associated with overexploitation of existing fisheries resources.

10 Commercial culture of snappers (*Lutjanus* genus) is increasing worldwide and
11 cryopreservation of spermatozoa is a vital procedure for facilitating the controlled
12 reproduction of fish, overcoming some of the problems associated with broodstock
13 supply (Vuthiphandchai et al., 2009). Research has been conducted in this fish group in
14 order to develop protocols for cryopreservation of sperm in several species of this genus
15 (Gaitán-Espitia et al., 2013). Some snappers (*Lutjanus analis*) are also listed as
16 vulnerable by the IUCN and have been cultured in experimental farms in the Caribbean,
17 Colombia and Brazil and protocols for sperm cryopreservation are under development
18 (Sanches et al., 2013).

19 Research has also been conducted for groupers in the recent years in Asian countries
20 such as Korea, China, Taiwan, Vietnam, Philippines and Thailand showing the potential
21 of cryopreservation of sperm from some species for production. Sperm cryopreservation
22 would guarantee seed production since these species are protogynous hermaphrodites
23 and size-selective fishing has significantly reduced male populations, making it
24 extremely difficult to obtain wild male breeders for aquaculture. In the Mediterranean
25 and in the Southeast Asian coast, the dusky grouper (*Epinephelus marginatus*) and the

1 red-spotted grouper (*Epinephelus akaara*) are two endangered species (IUCN red list)
2 and cryopreservation of sperm would guarantee the development of breeding strategies
3 and restocking programs (Cabrita et al., 2009). Several studies were conducted on
4 sperm cryopreservation of this group as a way to synchronize gamete availability
5 between species. Studies on hybridization, favouring the cultivation of specific fish
6 characteristics such as rapid growth (giant grouper, *E. lanceolatus*) or tolerance to
7 crowding (orange-spotted grouper, *E. coioides*) (Kiriya et al., 2011) have been
8 carried out.

9 Gadiforms form the basis of large, intensive fishing industries both in the Southern and
10 Northern hemisphere, leading to over-exploitation of stocks in some areas with
11 consequences in reduced catches (Groison et al., 2010). There is therefore a need for
12 research in order to develop captive breeding of some of these species. The genus
13 *Merluccius* has been shown to have potential interest to aquaculture worldwide and
14 techniques such as cryopreservation can significantly contribute to its development.
15 However, very limited studies have been conducted so far. There is a growing interest in
16 farming of European hake, *Merluccius merluccius* and *Merluccius australis* (Chile).
17 Thus, knowledge of sperm biology is of importance not only for broodstock
18 management, but also for the development of sperm preservation techniques (Effer et
19 al., 2013; Groison et al., 2010). Atlantic cod, *Gadus morhua* is another gadiform species
20 where research on cryopreservation protocols has been developed. Presently, cod
21 aquaculture production is primarily based on spawning from wild-caught stocks (Butts
22 et al., 2010). Broodstock selection programs are currently underway for cod
23 (<http://www.genomecanada.ca>), in combination with genomic technologies, will lead to
24 the identification of cod with traits of commercial importance (Symonds and Bowman,

1 2007). Cryopreservation of male gametes will be an important element in the creation of
2 families for laboratory and hatchery production (Butts et al., 2010) in such programmes.
3 For all these fish groups, the successful cryopreservation protocols included a number
4 of cryoprotectants but for most of the species, 10% DMSO produced the best results in
5 terms of motility and fertility rates. In grouper species, 15% trehalose (giant grouper,
6 Kiriya et al., 2011) and 10% glycerol (longtooth grouper, Lim and Le, 2013) also
7 provided good results. The incorporation of other compounds which interact with
8 plasma membrane such as BSA and cholesterol yielded high fertility rates (Cabrita et
9 al., 2009; He et al., 2011). For flatfish sperm, DMSO has been producing the best
10 results in terms of post-thaw quality, although 15% propylene glycol produced similar
11 fertility rates in summer flounder, *Paralichthys dentatus* (93%, Liu et al., 2015).
12 Research on sperm cryopreservation has been conducted at several levels, from
13 application in laboratories to commercial production, incentivising biotechnological
14 companies to invest in studies of some of these species (www.cryogenetics.com).
15 There are other species where research on sperm cryopreservation has been more
16 developed in terms of post-thaw quality control. This is the case in most of the marine
17 species with high production demand in Europe, such as gilthead seabream (*Sparus*
18 *aurata*) and European seabass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*). Studies in these two species
19 reported specific damage to sperm due to cryopreservation. In European seabass, from
20 the first reports in the late nineties by Fauvel et al. (1998), several improvements were
21 made to the protocols using different extender solutions (Fauvel et al., 2012),
22 successfully incorporating antioxidants such as taurine, hypotaurine and α -tocopherol in
23 the freezing media (Martínez-Páramo et al., 2012, 2013). Sperm quality was assessed by
24 determining damage associated with cell metabolism, peroxidation events, DNA
25 fragmentation and changes in protein profiles (Martínez-Páramo et al., 2013; Zilli and

1 Vilella, 2012). In the same line of research, specific regions in gilthead seabream sperm
2 genome were also studied after cryopreservation, as well as the presence of specific
3 mRNAs associated with gamete quality and fertilization events (Cartón-García et al.,
4 2013; Guerra et al., 2013). Specific genome regions were found to be more vulnerable
5 to cryodamage. Consequently, researchers focused on the possible effects of sperm
6 cryodamage on fertilization and future progeny and demonstrated that the protocol for
7 gilthead seabream sperm cryopreservation developed and used by several authors
8 (Beirão et al., 2011; Cabrita et al., 2005; Fabbrocini et al., 2000) does not affect mRNA
9 levels nor it induces telomere shortening. This fact could be attributed in part to the
10 efficient preservation of DNA integrity (% DNA_t lower than 2.47%), avoiding any
11 serious effect on fertilization or even on the offspring (Cartón-García et al., 2013;
12 Guerra et al., 2013).

13

14 *2. 2. Cryopreservation of fish sperm for conservation and restocking programs*

15 An important purpose of developing fish sperm cryopreservation protocols is their
16 application in restocking and conservation programs. Conservation-oriented methods
17 have been developed for various taxa, including acipenseriform fish (Ciereszko et al.,
18 2006; Horvath et al., 2005), salmonids (Martínez-Páramo et al., 2009b; Nynca et al.,
19 2015c; Sarvi et al., 2006), cyprinids (Basavaraja and Hegde, 2004; Tiersch et al., 2004)
20 and other fish species (Asturiano et al., 2003; Maria et al., 2006; Orfão et al., 2011). In
21 addition, studies have been carried out to assess the effect of cryopreservation on the
22 genetic diversity of some species (Martínez-Páramo et al., 2009b; Van Der Walt et al.,
23 1993). All these provide an important background for the application of developed
24 methods in conservation actions.

1 There has been very limited information on the actual application of successful
2 cryopreservation protocols in aquaculture practice or conservation programs. Some
3 studies explore the possibility of application in conservation actions such as in the case
4 of North-American salmonids (Cloud et al., 1990), but do not describe application in
5 details. In aquaculture practice, cryopreserved sperm banks have been developed for the
6 common carp in Hungary (Horváth, 2007) and in Israel (Lubzens et al., 1997). The
7 United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) runs the National Animal Germplasm
8 Program (NAGP, http://ars.usda.gov/research/projects/projects.htm?accn_no=423549)
9 which includes conservation of cryopreserved samples from several fish species. A
10 good example of combination of aquaculture and species conservation application is the
11 cryopreserved gene bank of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) in Norway which contained
12 sperm from 6,500 individuals from 169 populations in 2007 (O'Reilly and Doyle, 2007).
13 The importance of cryopreserved sperm banks in countries with a diverse freshwater
14 fish fauna such as Brazil has also been recognized (Viveiros and Godinho, 2009) and a
15 cryopreserved germplasm repository of the species tambaqui (*Colossoma*
16 *macropomum*) and cachara (*Pseudoplatystoma reticulatum*) has been created (Streit Jr.
17 et al., 2013). Regarding direct conservation programs, cryopreservation has successfully
18 been applied to the restocking program of the Adriatic lineage of the grayling
19 (*Thymallus thymallus*) in Slovenia because its gene pool has been compromised by
20 hybridization with introduced non-native stocks (Horváth et al., 2012).
21 The lack of information on the application of sperm cryopreservation to conservation
22 actions in aquatic species can be attributed to several factors. In terms of conservation-
23 oriented cryopreservation, cultured and “wild” aquatic species share some similarities.
24 Cryopreserved sperm banks are typically created for the conservation of genetic
25 resources of rare breed, threatened or endangered species. In the case of cultured fish,

1 these gene banks can be used for the genetic improvement of population diversity. when
2 it faces the problems of low genetic variability. However, in all cases this means further
3 human intervention on fish culture practice.

4 On the other hand, human intervention is considered more controversial for wild
5 populations which are the primary target of conservation programs. In these programs,
6 captive broodstocks are maintained and spawned in order to supply wild populations by
7 the means of restocking. This activity is considered problematic although the
8 advantages of cryopreservation are acknowledged (Fraser, 2008). For example, sperm
9 cryopreservation can conserve a large portion of the genetic variation of the founder
10 generation of a captive broodstock. It can also minimize the effects of inbreeding and
11 domestication (O'Reilly and Doyle, 2007). Problems associated with cryopreserved
12 gene banks in species conservation include the possibility of outbreeding depression if
13 the founding generation (the sperm donors), the generation providing the eggs are
14 genetically distant and changes in environmental conditions during cryopreservation
15 which reduces the chances of survival of a restored population (Fraser, 2008).

16 The most problematic aspect of applying sperm cryopreservation to species
17 conservation is the lack of specific objectives regarding its use in conservation
18 programs. Development of cryopreserved sperm banks for the “worst-case-scenario” is
19 a typical example of poor planning. It does not define the period of storage time and
20 proposes the use of cryopreserved samples only when the population is in imminent
21 danger of extinction or extirpation. If the conservation program is ultimately successful,
22 these samples might never be used. On the other hand, in a really critical situation,
23 cryopreserved sperm alone will not save the population if females are not available. In
24 addition, indefinite storage of cryopreserved samples increases the associated costs
25 which can be problematic for the sponsors of the program. Thus, careful planning and

1 cooperation among various parties involved in a given conservation program is a key
2 factor for the successful use of sperm cryopreservation.

3 Androgenesis is one of the chromosome set manipulation techniques that can be helped
4 by cryopreservation techniques for the restoration of a given species. It involves
5 inactivation of the oocyte genome through irradiation, fertilization of these eggs with
6 the sperm of the donor species and restoration of the diploid (or rather doubled haploid)
7 state of the embryo using a shock (cold, heat or pressure shock) applied during the first
8 mitotic division (Dunham, 2004; Horváth and Orbán, 1995; Komen and Thorgaard,
9 2007). In principle, androgenesis allows the restoration of a species from the
10 cryopreserved sperm of a single individual using the eggs of a related species.

11 Cryopreserved sperm has been successfully used in androgenesis on sturgeon species
12 (Grunina et al., 2006), rainbow trout (Babiak et al., 2002; Scheerer et al., 1991) and in
13 interspecific androgenesis between common carp and goldfish (Bercsényi et al., 1998),
14 demonstrating the potentials of this technique. On the other hand, the efficiency of
15 androgenesis is low with yields of androgenetic diploid offspring typically below 20%
16 (Komen and Thorgaard, 2007). In addition, androgenetic offspring will inherit their
17 mitochondria (and mitochondrial DNA) from the female parent, making them hybrids in
18 spite of the paternal origin of their nuclear DNA. Thus, androgenesis is currently rarely
19 considered as an effective means of application of cryopreservation to conservation
20 programs. A viable alternative to sperm cryopreservation and androgenesis is the
21 cryopreservation and transplantation of primordial germ cells, spermatogonia or somatic
22 cells, which are also mentioned briefly in this review.

23 Sperm cryopreservation should find niches in conservation programs for successful
24 applications. These can include species where the spawning of females and males is
25 difficult to synchronize such as in the case of the European eel (Asturiano et al., 2007)

1 or where the probability of capturing both sexes simultaneously is low, i.e. European
2 sturgeon, *Acipenser sturio* (Williot et al., 2011). Sperm cryopreservation can be used to
3 facilitate the the time needed for the genetic analysis of a given individual and
4 confirmation of its suitability for use in conservation programs (Horváth et al., 2012).
5 Cryopreservation is applied to the conservation program of the marble trout (*Salmo*
6 *marmoratus*) in Slovenia, where populations of this species were endangered by
7 hybridization and introgression with the introduced non-native brown trout. Only a few
8 non-introgressed pure populations of the species remained in isolated streams that
9 represented a special environmental value which had to be preserved. The Angling club
10 of Tolmin has developed an action plan for the preservation of genetic resources of the
11 marble trout that included the creation of “sanctuary” streams by translocating fish from
12 pure populations to isolated fishless watercourses, thus, increasing the chances of their
13 survival (Crivelli et al., 2000). Currently, cryopreservation of sperm is applied to this
14 activity by freezing the sperm of wild males in one of the pure populations one month
15 prior to the spawning season. This cryopreserved sperm is then used for the fertilization
16 of eggs from captive females of the identical population in the spawning season. Eyed
17 eggs of these fish are then stocked into the “sanctuary” stream. The captive broodstock
18 can be limited to a few females and fish are not disturbed in their spawning during the
19 spawning season.
20 Thus, cryopreservation of sperm continues to be an integral part of fish conservation
21 programs. However, successful application of this technique requires a close
22 cooperation of cryobiologists with other researchers and managers.

23

24 *2.3. Cryopreservation of sperm from aquarium model species*

1 As the largest class of vertebrates, fishes offer unlimited versatility for biomedical
2 research. With extensive studies using aquarium fish models, tens of thousands of
3 specific strains and lines have been created, discovered, and catalogued, and are
4 currently housed worldwide as live animals in resource centres, such as the Zebrafish
5 International Resource Center (University of Oregon, Eugene, OR, USA) which holds
6 around 9,000 inbred, transgenic, knockout and mutant strains. However, with the
7 increasing accumulation of new strains every day, it is becoming more difficult to
8 maintain these valuable genetic resources as live animals. Large-scale sperm
9 cryopreservation is needed to preserve these genetic resources. Sperm banking of these
10 fishes can allow the creation, maintenance, and transport of the associated genetic
11 materials more easily and safely, and can represent a readily transferable form of
12 bankable wealth with the ability to accumulate, archive, and catalogue germplasm.
13 In contrast to the large-sized food fishes and mammals, biomedical research model
14 fishes are characterized by small body sizes (>5 cm), and thus have limited volumes of
15 sperm available from each fish (1–2 μ l) (Tiersch, 2001; Yang and Tiersch, 2009). This
16 constrains the use of automated processing equipment, especially for samples from
17 individual males. Successful cryopreservation and repository development requires
18 proper arrangement of a sequence of procedures, and the balancing of inputs and
19 outputs between connected steps. For any sequence developed, the production utility
20 and processing costs can be evaluated. Based on the procedures of sperm
21 cryopreservation for major biomedical model fishes such as zebrafish (Yang et al.,
22 2007a), medaka *Oryzias latipes* (Yang et al., 2010), and *Xiphophorus* fishes (Yang et
23 al., 2009, 2007b), four major steps can be identified in a basic sequence: i) sample
24 collection and processing, ii) freezing and sorting, iii) frozen storage, and iv) thawing,
25 utilization, and quality assessment.

1

2 2.3.1- Sample collection and processing

3 Sample processing includes sample collection, suspension of sperm in extender,
4 concentration adjustment, and quality assessment. The first two steps can currently be
5 improved only in terms of technical training and increasing the number of personnel
6 involved. Sperm concentration determination is an important factor to be standardized
7 during cryopreservation and *in vitro* fertilization. However, small sample sizes from
8 aquarium fishes limit standardization because determination methods such as a
9 hemocytometer require a relatively large amount (~10 μ l). Micro-spectrophotometric
10 methods to determine sperm concentration have been developed (Tan et al., 2010),
11 which require less time (seconds per sample), and minimal sample volume (1–2 μ l of
12 diluted sperm). Equations relating concentration and absorbance have been established
13 for samples collected by stripping, and by crushing of dissected testis of zebrafish,
14 medaka, and *Xiphophorus*, and the accuracy of these relationships were verified (Tan et
15 al., 2010).

16

17 2.3.2-Sperm freezing and sorting

18 Sample packaging can influence the cooling rate during freezing, storage efficiency
19 after freezing, sample identification, and biosecurity. In zebrafish and medaka, glass
20 capillary tubes or cryovials were first used in sperm cryopreservation (Aoki et al., 1997;
21 Draper and Moens, 2009; Krone and Wittbrodt, 1997). To standardize protocols with
22 potential for high-throughput automation, French straws were chosen for sperm
23 packaging with the smallest commercially available volume (0.25 ml) (Yang et al.,
24 2007a, 2010), and were also used with *Xiphophorus* fishes (Yang et al., 2007b, 2009).
25 The different materials and shapes of these containers result in different heat transfer

1 properties during freezing and thawing. Even for the same style of container, differences
2 can exist with products from different manufacturers, which can result in variability of
3 cooling or thawing rates. Therefore, it is necessary to standardize the packaging method
4 to ensure that protocols will be repeatable especially in different laboratories. Also, the
5 choice of packaging container should consider the potential for high-throughput
6 processing, permanent labelling, reliable sealing, efficient storage, shipping, and
7 inventory. Cryotubes (0.5 ml and 1 ml) have become available for cell banking with
8 compatibility for automated handling in 96-well plates and labelling with two-
9 dimensional laser etching. It is possible that systems such as these could be used for
10 sperm cryopreservation for model fishes, although more investigation is needed. There
11 is no established coding system for aquatic germplasm. Unlike the dairy industry, the
12 variety of taxa and protocols encompassed by aquatic species would challenge the
13 format applied by the dairy and beef industries (www.naab-css.org). If a universal code
14 for aquatic germplasm is to be developed, it should provide comprehensive procedure
15 descriptions.

16 Sample freezing can be accomplished for biomedical fishes by methods including
17 placement on dry ice, suspension in liquid nitrogen vapour, and controlled cooling with
18 a programmable freezer. The first two methods are inexpensive and do not need
19 expensive equipment, and thus can be used in field situations. Programmable freezers
20 are typically used to produce accurate and repeatable cooling rates, especially for sperm
21 that are sensitive to small variations in cooling rate during freezing. For example, for
22 medaka sperm, a change of 5°C/min in cooling rate yielded a significant change in post-
23 thaw sperm motility (Yang et al., 2010). Therefore, strict control of cooling rate can
24 assure quality and uniformity of cryopreserved sperm.

25

1 2.3.3- Samples frozen storage

2 Storage of frozen samples in vapour-phase (-120°C) or liquid-phase nitrogen (-196°C)
3 in a storage dewar is a standard method. During frozen storage, the important
4 considerations are sample identification, potential contamination, and ease of sample
5 inventory. The use of French straws for packaging offers the advantages of permanent
6 alphanumeric and barcode labelling by printer, and complete sealing which prevents
7 transfer of materials (e.g., sperm cells or bacteria) among samples stored in the same
8 dewar (Morris, 2005). When storage is in the liquid phase of nitrogen, another
9 important consideration is floating of frozen samples, especially when small volumes
10 are packaged in lightweight containers with a large air space. Sample sorting into bulk
11 containers for long-term storage is often needed after freezing. This process should be
12 done under liquid nitrogen, and can be time consuming if the labelling is not easily
13 discernible. If samples can be frozen in storage containers without affecting the cooling
14 process, the sorting step could be skipped or minimized, and the process can be
15 accelerated.

16

17 2.3.4- Thawing and quality assessment.

18 Standardization of the use of thawed samples for fertilization can increase offspring
19 production, minimize variability, and minimize waste of cryopreserved samples.
20 Fertilization can be standardized and quantified in terms of the sperm number used for
21 specific numbers of eggs (e.g. sperm-to-egg ratio), the associated water volumes and
22 concentrations, gamete holding times, and protocols used for activation of the gametes.
23 In addition, age, body weight, body length, and culture conditions of fish need to be
24 evaluated with respect to identifying correlations with fertilization success.
25 Optimization of these conditions can greatly improve the efficiency of fertilization and

1 offspring production. Due to the small sample volumes available from most model
2 fishes, increases in volume need to come from pooling of samples from different
3 individuals. This would enable processing with a high-throughput approach, minimize
4 male-to-male variation, and provide uniform batches of cryopreserved samples that can
5 receive rigorous quality control and evaluation. More importantly, the pooling of
6 samples can greatly reduce the time needed at certain procedure steps such as motility
7 estimation and sperm concentration determination to achieve the goal of high
8 throughput, and substantially reduce the time and sample volume necessary for quality
9 assessment of fresh and thawed samples.

10 Quality assessment of gametes is an essential component for successful
11 cryopreservation and repository development. A quality assurance program would
12 include assessment at all relevant steps along the process. For example, sperm motility
13 could be assessed at the time of collection, after suspension in extender, after
14 refrigerated storage or shipping of the diluted samples, after cryoprotectant
15 equilibration, and after thawing. This information can be related to fertilization success.

16 Typical quality assessment methods for biomedical fishes include motility estimations
17 by experienced technicians or by use of computer-assisted sperm analysis (CASA),
18 evaluation of various cellular properties by flow cytometry (Daly and Tiersch, 2011),
19 and estimates of DNA damage has been studied by methods such as comet assay.

20 Aquarium fishes have displayed a wide variety of sperm activation modes that range
21 from hypotonic activation (e.g., freshwater fishes such as zebrafish), isotonic activation
22 (e.g., live-bearers such as *Xiphophorus*) and hypertonic activation (estuarine and marine
23 fishes). This range of sperm behaviours is one of the factors that make it difficult to
24 generalize quality assessment methods for aquarium fishes. Despite this, standardization

1 of methods and reporting are necessary for optimizing protocols and approaches for use
2 with biomedical fishes.

3 The large number of research strains of small-bodied model fishes held at stock centres
4 or laboratories is continuously growing, and expanded capabilities are needed to
5 preserve these valuable genetic resources. As we move forward, the steps involved in
6 large-scale repository of model species or of any other species are summarized in table
7 1 (Tiersch et al., 2011).

8

9 *2.4. Cryopreservation of sperm from other aquatic species*

10 There are currently 5,161 threatened aquatic species (IUCN Red List 2015), where
11 cryopreservation could benefit from *ex situ* programs for restocking or even for
12 conservation of wild populations. Aquatic mammals are good examples where research
13 has been conducted with the aim of increasing population in captivity, especially in sea
14 aquaria, as well as monitoring the effects of anthropogenic contamination of wild
15 populations in order to preserve those species in the future. Killer whales (*Orcinus*
16 *orca*) are at risk due to bioaccumulation of environmental contaminants and this risk is
17 already associated with adverse effects in sperm motility, sperm production, sperm
18 chromatin integrity and, consequently fertility. A simple methodology for
19 cryopreservation of killer whale sperm was described by Robeck et al. (2004), and more
20 recently a critical evaluation of extenders and freezing methods was performed by the
21 same group (Robeck et al., 2011). Sperm was cryopreserved by these authors using
22 glycerol and cryoprotectants and directional solidification technology, producing a high
23 recovery rate of motile sperm and motility longevity (Robeck et al., 2011). This
24 technology can be used to develop a gamete resource bank for *ex situ* population
25 management. For the same purpose a program was developed to store sperm from the

1 bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*). Although management tools to ensure the long-
2 term sustainability of *ex situ* bottlenose dolphin populations have been under
3 development for the last 30 years (reviewed in O'Brien and Robeck, 2010), only
4 recently several reproductive tools (assisted reproductive technologies-ART, artificial
5 insemination –AI, sperm sorting and sex pre-selection) have been combined with a
6 successful protocol for cryopreservation in this species (O'Brien and Robeck, 2010;
7 Robeck et al., 2013).

8

9 **3. Fish oocyte cryopreservation**

10 Fish embryo cryopreservation is difficult because of their large size, low membrane
11 permeability and chilling sensitivity (Zhang and Rawson, 1995, 1998; Zhang et al.,
12 2003). More recent studies have been focused on cryopreservation of fish oocytes and
13 ovarian follicles as they are better candidates than embryos for cryopreservation, e.g.
14 they are smaller in size, have higher membrane permeability, less chilling sensitive and
15 have a less complex membrane system (Isayeva et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2005a).
16 Studies carried out so far associated to fish oocyte cryopreservation have been mainly
17 focused on model species such as zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) (Anil et al., 2011; Godoy et
18 al., 2013; Guan et al., 2010) although other marine and freshwater species has also been
19 studied e.g. gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) (Zhang et al., 2007) and some South
20 American freshwater species (Streit Jr. et al., 2014).
21 Earlier studies on late stage oocyte cryopreservation were focused on cryoprotectant
22 toxicity studies (Plachinta et al., 2004), oocyte chilling sensitivity studies (Isayeva et al.,
23 2004), oocyte membrane permeability studies (Zhang et al., 2005a) and
24 cryopreservation studies using zebrafish and gilthead seabream with both controlled
25 slow cooling and vitrification (Guan et al., 2008, 2010; Zhang et al., 2007). More recent

1 studies have been carried out on both controlled slow cooling and vitrification of
2 isolated oocytes at early stages (Guan et al., 2010; Tsai et al., 2009a; b), studies of
3 controlled slow cooling and vitrification of ovarian follicles in ovarian tissues (Anil,
4 2013; Godoy et al., 2013), and development of protocols for *in vitro* culture and
5 maturation of ovarian follicles at late (Seki et al., 2008) and early stages (Anil, 2013;
6 Tsai et al., 2010). Since a review on cryopreservation of fish oocytes was carried out for
7 the work before 2007 (Zhang et al., 2007), this present review will mainly focus on
8 more recent developments in fish oocyte cryopreservation using controlled cooling and
9 vitrification and especially of early stage ovarian follicles together with developments in
10 *in vitro* culture and maturation of ovarian follicles.

11 The studies on cryopreservation of isolated late stage (stage III) zebrafish oocytes using
12 controlled cooling showed that the viability of oocytes frozen in KCl buffer was
13 significantly higher than oocytes frozen in L-15 medium. The results also showed that
14 fast thawing and stepwise removal of cryoprotectant improved oocyte survival
15 significantly, with highest viability of 88.0% being obtained immediately after rapid
16 thawing when assessed by trypan blue staining. However, after 2 h incubation at 22 °C
17 the viability of freeze-thawed oocytes decreased to 29.5%. Results also showed that the
18 ATP level in oocytes decreased significantly immediately after thawing (Guan et al.,
19 2008). Studies on cryopreservation of stage III zebrafish oocytes by vitrification
20 produced similar results to those obtained from controlled slow cooling in relation to
21 oocyte viability (Guan et al., 2010). Vitrification of stage III zebrafish ovarian follicles
22 in ovarian fragments was also studied by Godoy et al. (2013). The results showed that
23 although membrane integrity of stage III ovarian follicles in ovarian fragments was
24 slightly lower than in those obtained from isolated stage III ovarian follicles after
25 vitrification, the follicles remained opaque and morphologically intact when compared

1 with isolated follicles described by Guan et al. (2010) as became swollen and
2 translucent after vitrification.

3 Studies on early stage zebrafish oocytes indicated that early stage ovarian follicles
4 (stage I and II) are less sensitive to chilling injury than late stage ovarian follicles (Tsai
5 et al., 2009a). The results from cryopreservation of isolated follicles using controlled
6 slow cooling showed that ovarian follicle viability for early stages was higher (41.7%
7 and 65.8% for stage I and II respectively) than stage III (29.5%) after cryopreservation
8 and 2 hour culturing but ADT:ATP ratios were significantly increased (Tsai et al.,
9 2009b). Cryopreservation of zebrafish ovarian tissue fragments containing ovarian
10 follicles at different stages has also been studied (Anil, 2013). The optimal
11 cryopreservation protocol for the ovarian tissue fragments was found to be 2 M
12 methanol + 20% FBS in 90% L-15 medium with the cooling rate of 4°C/min. The
13 highest survival rate obtained for stage II follicles within the fragments was 68% and
14 stage I follicles within the fragments was 55% using trypan blue staining. These studies,
15 performed by Anil (2013), provided an improved cryopreservation protocol since it
16 enhanced the viability of stage I and II follicles with the use of 2 M methanol + 20%
17 FBS in 90% L-15 medium when compared to the previous protocols developed by Guan
18 et al. (2008) and Tsai et al. (2009b). However, the results obtained from ATP assay also
19 showed compromised survival of the ovarian follicles after cryopreservation (Anil,
20 2013).

21 Another challenge associated with developing cryopreservation protocols for fish
22 oocytes is the development of successful protocol for *in vitro* maturation of oocytes
23 after cryopreservation. Although a successful protocol has been developed for *in vitro*
24 maturation of late stage III zebrafish oocytes which supported their ability to be
25 fertilized and to develop until hatching (Seki et al., 2008, 2011), *in vitro* maturation of

1 earlier stages of ovarian follicles has not been studied until more recently. Studies on *in*
2 *vitro* culture of stage I and stage II ovarian follicles demonstrated that early stage
3 zebrafish ovarian follicles can be cultured *in vitro* for 24 h, stage I and II ovarian
4 follicles can grow to the sizes of early stage II and early stage III ovarian follicles after
5 hCG treatment (Tsai et al., 2010). More recent studies have been focusing on the
6 development of *in vitro* culture methods for ovarian tissue fragments containing stage I
7 and stage II follicles. The results showed that stage I and II follicles can be cultured *in-*
8 *vitro* for 24 h, treated in 90% L-15 medium (pH 9) containing 100 mIU/ml FSH with
9 20% FBS. It showed ovarian follicle growth competence from stage I to stage II and
10 from stage II to stage III respectively. The growth assessment was also confirmed by
11 determining the expression of P450arom A and Vtg1 gene which were used as
12 biomarkers for stage II and stage III ovarian follicle development (Anil, 2013).

13 Some recent studies have also been carried out on other species such as South American
14 fish species *Collossoma macropomum*. Digmayer (2013) assessed the viability of
15 *Collossoma macropomum* oocytes in 1.6 M methanol and glucose, sucrose, trehalose or
16 fructose (0.25 and 0.50 M) using controlled slow cooling. The SEM analyses following
17 cryopreservation showed that oocytes maintained some intact morphological structures,
18 such as the micropyle when 1.6 M methanol and 0.25 M sucrose was used.

19 In summary, studies carried out so far on cryopreservation of fish oocytes indicated that
20 better results were obtained with early stage ovarian follicles such as stage I and stage II
21 with stage II ovarian follicles being the most promising candidates. Vitrification of
22 these ovarian follicles also produced some initial promising results. More work needs to
23 be carried out in optimising the protocols for both cryopreservation and *in vitro*
24 maturation of fish ovarian follicles.

25

1 **4. Fish embryo cryopreservation**

2 Fish embryo cryopreservation has been a challenging objective for decades and is yet to
3 be achieved. Persistence of scientists in developing protocols for fish embryo
4 cryopreservation after a number of unsuccessful trials can be explained by the
5 advantages associated with successful fish embryo cryopreservation. From a
6 conservation point of view, successful cryopreservation of fish embryos would ensure
7 the preservation of both paternal and maternal genome; from an aquaculture point of
8 view, successful fish embryo cryopreservation would significantly simplify the
9 establishment and management of genetic selection programs in fish farms.

10 Challenges hindering fish embryo cryopreservation are well known and could be
11 summarized in four areas: fish embryos have low surface-to-volume ratio, large size of
12 yolk, low membrane permeability and high chilling sensitivity (Hagedorn et al.,
13 1997a,b; Zhang and Rawson, 1998; Zhang et al., 2003). In this section, different
14 approaches used during the last decades for fish embryo cryopreservation will be
15 reported including limited success reported together with future perspectives.

16 Embryo sensitivity to chilling and cryopreservation has been studied in over 20 teleost
17 species (Table 2). However, only embryo chilled storage has resulted in successful
18 embryo development in different species (Fornari et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2001b; Pessoa
19 et al., 2014; Robles et al., 2007). Reports on embryo survival after cryopreservation
20 (controlled slow freezing or vitrification) has been very limited (Chen and Tian, 2005;
21 Robles et al., 2005) although Chen and Tian's results have been disputed (Edashige et
22 al., 2006). Fish embryo cryopreservation studies can be grouped into four main
23 categories: i) studies involving cryopreservation protocol development such as toxicity
24 of different cryoprotectants, freezing/thawing rates, optimum species or embryo
25 developmental stage for cryopreservation, ii) studies on membrane permeability and

1 cryoprotectant penetration, iii) studies that aim to provide new methods or tools for
2 evaluating embryo viability/survival after freezing/thawing, and iv) studies that aim to
3 provide new technologies or procedures that improve fish embryos' ability to be
4 cryopreserved. A recent systematic review on fish embryo vitrification protocols
5 established that, in most of the studies, the major aspects to be considered for the
6 development of new vitrification protocols are cryoprotectant toxicity, embryo
7 developmental stage, conditions under which embryos were exposed to cryoprotectants
8 and vitrification devices (de Carvalho et al., 2014). Most of the studies on fish embryo
9 vitrification fall within the area of toxicity of vitrification solutions. Considering that
10 fish embryos at different stages possess different barriers to cryoprotectant penetration,
11 some studies have also been carried out using different methods to evaluate
12 cryoprotectant flux or concentration within the embryos at different stages. Impedance
13 spectroscopy (Zhang et al., 2006), magnetic resonance microscopy (Hagedorn et al.,
14 1996), HPLC (Cabrita et al., 2003) and scanning calorimetry studies (Liu et al., 2001a)
15 have all been used for this purpose. The scarce report of embryo survival after
16 freezing/thawing has pushed some researchers to explore different methods for
17 evaluating cryopreservation protocols. These studies intend to combine observational
18 methods (morphological studies) with molecular biological methods in order to provide
19 more information on embryo metabolism at enzymatic level (Robles et al., 2004) or
20 molecular level (Desai et al., 2011). Finally, studies have also been carried out with the
21 aim of modifying the embryos in order to overcome some of the problems associated
22 with their cryopreservation. These studies explored the use of microinjection in
23 delivering cryoprotectants into the embryos (Janik et al., 2000), incorporation of
24 antifreeze proteins (AFP I, AFP III) within the embryos (Martínez-Páramo et al., 2008,
25 2009a; Robles et al., 2007), partial yolk removal to reduce chilling sensitivity (Liu et al.,

1 2001b), the use of ultrasounds to increase cryoprotectant penetration (Wang et al., 2008)
2 or even altering fish embryo membranes with aquaporin 3 to increase permeability
3 (Hagedorn et al., 2002).
4 Despite all these efforts, successful fish embryo cryopreservation remains elusive.
5 However recent studies on cryopreservation of primordial germ cells have provided a
6 promising alternative for the cryopreservation of both paternal and maternal genomes.
7 By recovering the primordal germ cells from vitrified embryos, and transplanting them
8 into sterile recipient larvae, Higaki and collaborators (2009, 2010, 2013) achieved the
9 production of fertile zebrafish. This is undoubtedly a promising area of study, which
10 must be explored until fish embryo cryopreservation can be achieved.

11

12 **5. Spermatogonia and primordial germ cell cryopreservation**

13 From the successful cryopreservation of sperm from numerous fish species, allowing
14 the preservation of the paternal genome to the several studies on fish oocytes and
15 embryo cryopreservation, still representing a bottleneck in the preservation of the
16 maternal genome, several attempts have been made to search and preserve other type of
17 cells that could guarantee all individual genome cryobanking. Primordial germ cells,
18 spermatogonia and oogonia have been explored as an alternative reproductive material
19 to answer this problem and have been cryopreserved successfully in several fish species
20 (Robles et al., *in press*; Yoshizaki et al., 2011). These cells can represent a good
21 opportunity to store individual genome, being possible, with the application of
22 reproductive biotechnological tools, such as transplantation, to restore and individual or
23 a species. There are several applications of cryopreservation of stem germ cells that
24 have been reviewed elsewhere (Robles et al., *in press*; Yoshizaki et al., 2011).

25

1 **6. Somatic cells: strength and pitfalls of preservation and regeneration**

2 The use of differentiated somatic cells for genome preservation, including the
3 cryopreservation, the culture, and fish regeneration by nuclear transfer were reviewed
4 previously (Chenais et al., 2014), and the reader is referred to this review for
5 comprehensive description and discussion of the different steps at stake. The present
6 subsection will emphasize the main bottlenecks and the research efforts still necessary
7 to make the involved technologies more reliable.

8 In the context of genome preservation, somatic cells can be limited to differentiated
9 cells which are collected on adult fish or on developing embryos after epiboly. This
10 excludes the embryonic fish cells collected before the embryonic genome activation.
11 The main outcome in using those early embryonic cells is to recover primordial germ
12 cells either directly within the blastula or after culture (Riesco et al., 2014). Some
13 reviewed information on embryonic stem cells which have been studied for more than
14 20 years (Ma et al., 2001; Sun et al., 1995; Wakamatsu et al., 1994) can be found in
15 Barnes et al., (2008), Hong et al., (2011), Labbé et al., (2013), and Robles et al., (2011).
16 Somatic cells are diploid, so their advantage in genome preservation is that they
17 transmit both maternal and paternal genome. Besides, somatic cells can be collected
18 independently of the sex or age of the fish and still bear the same interest for genome
19 preservation. Skin and fin in fish are good candidates for tissue collection because of
20 their regenerative capacity (Akimenko et al., 2003; McDonald et al., 2013; Poss et al.,
21 2003). This is especially important in the case of endangered fish or unique specimen,
22 where no drastic injury should impair the precious individual. Besides, fin cells are
23 among the best donor cells for fish regeneration by nuclear transfer (Siripattaraprat et
24 al., 2011). Collection of somatic cells from developing embryos can be trickier as it will
25 require chorion removal (by enzymatic digestion or mechanical shearing) and that after

1 collection of few cells, the embryo is incubated into media with specific ion
2 composition before reaching the hatching stage, in order to cope with the loss of the
3 chorion barrier.

4

5 *6.1. Tissue collection and cryopreservation*

6 Once the tissue is collected, it must be maintained in culture in order to increase the cell
7 number before cryopreservation, or frozen to store the tissue piece until the regeneration
8 of the fish is necessary. When many fish are collected at the same time, it can become
9 costly and practically impossible to set cell culture for all samples. One alternative is to
10 cryopreserve tissue pieces just after collection, as successfully explored in Moritz and
11 Labbe (2008). In all cases, although it is common to freeze cultured cells or tissue
12 pieces in cryovials, we advice to set up procedures where the samples can be
13 cryopreserved in straws. Indeed, almost every fish sperm cryobank is equipped for
14 straws (cryopreservation, straw printing, storage tanks), and it should be foreseen that
15 the somatic samples will incorporate the same banks. Apart from this requirement,
16 cryopreservation of fin pieces or of cultured cells does not raise specific difficulties
17 (Chenais et al., 2014).

18 In the context of fish regeneration, enough cells can be recovered from a few milligrams
19 of tissue. However, in some cases optimization of the culture conditions should be
20 planned, and this can be made separately from the sampling and cryopreservation
21 process. Methods to obtain cultured cells from fish tissues have been developed for
22 many species (Lakra et al., 2011), but the culture quality and the growth capacity of the
23 cells can be variable (Chenais et al., 2014). This may require some culture conditions
24 adjustments which are not always handy. For example, the yield of cell production may
25 be better with thin pieces than with thicker ones, likely because of a more

1 heterogeneous cell population in the later (Labbe et al., 2011). Also, although most
2 species can be cultured with quite standard culture conditions, some are more
3 demanding and specific growth factors may be needed (Collodi et al., 1992).

4 5 *6.2. Fish regeneration by nuclear transfer*

6 The main method to regenerate a fish from somatic cells is nuclear transfer (Chenais et
7 al., 2014), also called cloning. In the most efficient conditions (Bail et al., 2010; Hattori
8 et al., 2011; Siripattarapratvat et al., 2009), nuclear transfer in fish consist in injecting
9 the whole cell, or only the nucleus, into an oocyte previously enucleated, or not, and
10 previously activated, or not. The whole purpose of the procedure is that the recipient
11 oocyte will reprogram the injected chromatin so that a proper embryonic development
12 will take place. Nuclear transfer allows that the offspring bear the nuclear DNA from
13 the donor animal. It is important to understand that the embryo is developing thanks to
14 the oocyte material (proteins, mRNA, mitochondria), and that in most cases,
15 mitochondrial DNA from the donor animal is lost in the offspring (reviewed in Chenais
16 et al., 2014). The extent and consequences of this mitochondria loss have not been
17 explored yet in fish. A better understanding of the consequences, or of the lack of, may
18 help to identify to which extent the produced clones are truly nucleo-cytoplasmic
19 hybrids.

20 The strength of regeneration by nuclear transfer is that the recipient can belong to a
21 species which is different from that of the donor one (Sun et al., 2005; Yan et al., 1985).
22 This ability raises the major question of the best recipient species for an array of donor,
23 in a situation where few species easily obtained in aquaculture could provide good
24 quality oocytes for a high number of donor. Some research is still needed to understand
25 the requirement for embryo development in such nucleo-cytoplasmic hybrids (Chenais

1 et al., 2014). For example, the number of mitochondria and the yolk composition and
2 quantity in the oocyte should meet the energy requirement of the developing embryo.
3 We also know too little about the epigenetic influence of the oocyte cytoplasm on gene
4 regulation of the foreign donor chromatin.

5

6 *6.3. The challenge of somatic cell reprogramming*

7 As previously reviewed (Chenais et al., 2014), many embryos showing a normal early
8 development after nuclear transfer are dying at the onset of embryonic genome
9 activation, or show some malformations once the organs are developing. Because most
10 abnormal clones show aberrant gene expression (Biddle et al., 2009), including in fish
11 (Luo et al., 2009; Pei et al., 2007), it was hypothesized that the epigenetic control of
12 silencing the right set of genes or of allowing expression of another set of genes is
13 flawed. Indeed, during early development, the parental chromatin undergoes extensive
14 epigenetic reprogramming driven by the oocyte factors in order to allow the proper
15 establishment of the gene expression pattern in the embryo (Robles et al., *in press*).
16 Failure in clones means that the gene expression pattern of the differentiated cell is not
17 faithfully reset towards an embryonic pattern.

18 This reasoning led to investigate the benefit of treating the donor cells and the clones
19 with epigenetic drugs which were initially developed to understand cancer mechanism
20 and stem cell pluripotency. Some drugs are targeting inhibition of DNA methylation
21 (Eilertsen et al., 2007), with the 5-aza-2' deoxycytidine (aza-dC) among the most used.
22 Aza-dC acts as an analogue of the cytosine base with the loss of methylation ability.
23 However, the most efficient drugs for reprogramming donor cells for nuclear transfer
24 are targeting histone acetylation, by way of HDAC (histone deacetylase) inhibitors
25 (Biran and Meshorer, 2012; Gaspar-Maia et al., 2011) with trichostatin A (TSA) as the

1 most widely tested molecule (Enright et al., 2003; Luo et al., 2013). Another
2 reprogramming strategy in mammal is to use oocyte extracts, mainly from *Xenopus* (Liu
3 et al., 2014). These reprogramming treatments are to be tested on fish cells, either
4 before or after cryobanking. The fact that the embryonic genome activation takes place
5 after up to 10 mitoses in fish (Kane and Kimmel, 1993) (when it takes 1 to 3 mitoses
6 only in mammals) should favour the positive action of the reprogramming treatment in
7 those species.

8 One last reprogramming strategy for somatic cells lies in their trans-differentiation into
9 germ cells, so that they can be used to produce gametes after transplantation (see Robles
10 et al., *in press*). This strategy finds its roots in the work of Takahashi and Yamanaka
11 (2006), where adult mouse fibroblasts in culture could be reprogrammed into
12 pluripotent cells (iPSC for induced pluripotent stem cells), the later being able to
13 develop into the three embryonic germ layers. From then on, many groups tried to
14 reprogram differentiated cells into other types of differentiated cells *via* iPSCs,
15 including germ cells (Ishii, 2014). The most advanced works are found in mouse (Cai et
16 al., 2013; Imamura et al., 2010) and human (Ishii, 2014). Although fully functional
17 gametes could not be obtained yet, this strategy should not be forgotten among the panel
18 of biotechnologies for fish regeneration from somatic cells.

19

20 **7. Germplasm cryobanking of invertebrates**

21 As in other species, germplasm cryobanking of invertebrates has a twofold benefit: it is
22 the perfect tool to preserve genetic diversity and it has evident benefits for aquaculture
23 industry. Coral reefs are a clear example of the need of cryopreservation for
24 conservation purposes. Human activities have a deep impact in coral reefs degradation,
25 and successful cryopreservation protocols could guarantee genotypes preservation until

1 habitats could be rehabilitated (Hagedorn et al., 2012). Regarding aquaculture industry,
2 cryopreservation would contribute to reduce broodstock cost and to have a fine control
3 of several reproductive aspects (Adams et al., 2004). As in fish, there are several
4 biological materials that can be preserved including germ cells (spermatogonia and
5 sperm), and contrarily to fish there are successful attempts to cryopreserve other
6 materials such as spermatophore (capsule containing sperm cells), oocytes, embryos and
7 larvae.

8

9 *7.1. Sperm and spermatophores of invertebrates*

10 Sperm cryopreservation has been studied in several species of invertebrates. Several
11 species of oysters have been the main focus of such studies: pearl oyster (*Pinctada*
12 *margaritifera*) (Acosta-Salmón et al., 2007); Japanese pearl oyster (*Pinctada fucata*
13 *martensii*) (Kawamoto et al., 2007); Pacific oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*) (Dong et al.,
14 2005; Dong et al., 2006); Eastern oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*) (Paniagua-Chavez and
15 Tiersch, 2001); *Ostrea edulis* (Vitiello et al., 2011) and Portuguese oyster (*Crassostrea*
16 *angulata*) (Riesco et al., *in press*). Different studies on cryopreservation and cold
17 storage of spermatozoa from Echinoderms have also been performed during more than
18 three decades (Adams et al., 2004; Dunn and McLachlan, 1973; Spiegler and
19 Oppenheimer, 1995). Mussels (*Mytilus galloprovincialis*) (Di Matteo et al., 2009);
20 abalones (*Haliotis laevis*) (Liu et al., 2014); tunicates (*Ciona intestinalis*) (Sorrenti
21 et al., 2014); and shrimps (*Sicyonia ingentis*) (Anchordoguy et al., 1988) and
22 (*Litopenaeus vannamei*) (Lezcano et al., 2004) have also been considered important
23 targets for sperm cryopreservation. All these studies are mainly focused in designing a
24 cryopreservation protocol successful in terms of sperm viability and motility, and are
25 basically centred in studying different cryoprotectants and freezing rates (Acosta-

1 Salmón et al., 2007; Ieropoli et al., 2004), different equilibration times in
2 cryoprotectants or different types and sizes of straws (Dong et al., 2005, 2006).
3 Fluorescent dyes have been used in some of these studies to evaluate sperm cell
4 membrane integrity and mitochondrial function (Lezcano et al., 2004; Paniagua-Chávez
5 et al., 2006). Comet assay (Single cell gel electrophoresis assay) has been successfully
6 used in oyster to detect DNA damage after cryopreservation (Gwo et al., 2003).
7 Spermatophore cryopreservation has been tried in some invertebrate species, from
8 shrimps (*Penaeus monodon*) to cephalopods (*Illex coindetii*). The first case reported
9 viable spermatozoa for up to 210 days (Vuthiphandchai et al., 2007). However,
10 cephalopod spermatophore cryopreservation is challenging. The study performed in the
11 squid, *Illex coindetii* determined by flow cytometry sperm post-thaw viability and
12 mitochondrial activity using Mitotracker deep red, YOPRO1 and Hoechst 33342 after
13 testing different cryoprotectants, concentrations and freezing/thawing rates. This study
14 pointed to DMSO as an appropriate cryoprotectant for this species, and represented the
15 first approach on spermatophore cryopreservation in this group of molluscs (Robles et
16 al., 2013). DMSO has also been suggested as a good cryoprotectant for gorgonian coral
17 sperm sacs by testing mitochondrial activity by an ATP luminescence assay (Tsai et al.,
18 2014).
19 Despite the remarkable effort in developing successful sperm cryopreservation
20 protocols for all these species, much work has still to be done, particularly in
21 standardization (Dong et al., 2005), before most of these protocols could be used on a
22 commercial scale. From a conservation point of view, efforts towards coral biodiversity
23 preservation yield promising results, and the first frozen repository of coral has been
24 created (Hagedorn et al., 2012). The establishment of genetic banks will undoubtedly

1 help in the conservation of valuable areas such as the Great Barrier Reef (Hagedorn and
2 Spindler, 2014).

3 *7.2. Embryos and larvae of invertebrates*

4 Contrary fish species, the success of the cryopreservation of invertebrate embryos or
5 larvae is favoured by some biological characteristics such as a limited embryo size
6 improving water and cryoprotectant exchange, a low yolk content in the oocyte and a
7 holoblastic cleavage improving cryoprotectant penetration (Robles et al., 2008). Since
8 the pioneering work published by Renard (1991), 40 studies have been published in few
9 invertebrate species (Figure 4).

10 The increasing interest in embryo cryopreservation in invertebrate species may be
11 explained by the recent improvement of farming techniques, including breeder selection
12 and creation of special lines such as tetraploids: the genome of these embryos must be
13 preserved. Embryo or larva cryopreservation studies have mainly focused on Pacific
14 oyster because of its high commercial value. Whatever the species, the survival remains
15 limited (<1%) but promising because of the high quality of surviving thawed larvae
16 observed in a few long-term studies.

17 Most published studies aim at defining a cryopreservation protocol, including the main
18 points classically investigated: cryoprotectant nature and concentration, freezing rate,
19 embryo concentration in straws and thawing conditions. Preliminary studies investigate
20 the cryoprotectant toxicity tolerance of embryos at room temperature: compared to
21 ethylene glycol (EG), DMSO appeared to be less toxic for Pacific oyster embryos (Chao
22 et al., 1994). On the contrary, EG gave a better survival than DMSO after freezing and
23 thawing (Choi and Chang, 2014). Furthermore, EG was less toxic to sea urchin
24 (*Evechinus chloroticus*) larvae than DMSO, while no larvae survived after freezing and
25 thawing using EG (Adams et al., 2006). These contradictory results suggest that toxicity

1 studies do not take into account the possible interactions of the cryoprotectant with the
2 following steps of the cryopreservation process. Adding sugars (glucose or sucrose)
3 improved the post-thaw survival of Pacific oyster (Renard, 1991) and of pearl oyster
4 (Choi and Chang, 2003) by reducing the toxicity of cryoprotectants and decreasing
5 injuries of thawed embryos. However, adding trehalose did not improve the post-thaw
6 survival of blue mussel embryos (Wang et al., 2011). Regarding embryo development
7 stage, the consensus view is that the trochophore stage is best adapted to
8 cryopreservation in Pacific oyster (Gwo, 1995; Usuki et al., 2002), but not in pearl
9 oyster, the best survival being observed at the D-larval stage (Choi and Chang, 2003).
10 However, from thawing up to the adult stage, the survival of Pacific oysters
11 cryopreserved at the trochophore stage was lower than the results observed after
12 cryopreservation at the D-larval stage: 0.05 and 0.15%, respectively (Suquet et al.,
13 2014).

14 Particular attention must be paid to three questions which are not strictly related to the
15 basic cryopreservation technique: i) the problem of the assessment of embryonic or
16 larval survival, ii) the inter-female variations of embryo survival after thawing and iii)
17 the long-term rearing performances of thawed larvae. The survival of thawed mollusc
18 embryos was generally estimated by assessing the percentage of motile larvae: just after
19 thawing, 20 to 40% Pacific oyster larvae are motile, while only one larva succeed to
20 settle after 29 days rearing (Usuki et al., 2002). The decrease of larval movement
21 velocity observed using a CASA system, is suggested to be a more reliable estimation
22 of the quality of thawed Pacific oyster larvae (Suquet et al., 2012).

23 Inter-female variations of embryo survival after thawing were first suggested by Renard
24 (1991), showing the higher the development rate of the control (non cryopreserved
25 embryos), the better the survival of thawed Pacific oyster embryos. More precisely,

1 Paniagua-Chavez and Tiersch (2001) observed that control Eastern oyster larvae having
2 a low survival rate (<40%), also have a low cryopreservation ability. The survival after
3 thawing can be improved by broodstock conditioning regime (Adams et al., 2013).
4 However, the effect of several factors (genetic, physiological, environmental) which can
5 be responsible for such individual variations must be investigated.
6 Studying the long-term rearing performances of thawed embryos is a prerequisite to the
7 development of embryo cryobanking. Four month after thawing, the survival of oysters
8 was not different from the control (Paniagua-Chavez et al., 2000). Close to three years
9 after embryo thawing, the growing-out and reproductive capacities of Pacific oysters
10 were similar to those observed for unfrozen ones (Suquet et al., 2014). Both examples
11 suggest an absence of genome alterations of thawed embryos, allowing subsequent
12 development of these oysters and their use in cryobanks.
13 In conclusion, although the survival of thawed mollusc embryos remains low, this
14 technique looks promising because this result may be largely increased by further
15 technical improvements, sustained by a better knowledge of biological characteristics of
16 mollusc larvae. Then, this technique can be applicable for the establishment of mollusc
17 embryo cryobanks in species for which high long-term rearing performances have been
18 confirmed.

19

20 **8. The need for standardization**

21 Cryopreservation methods are developed by scientists for various purposes; however,
22 the main objective of the development of this methodology is application to practice.
23 Cryopreservation is essentially an applied area of science, cells are rarely cryopreserved
24 only for the sake of novel biological information on their behaviour at ultra-low
25 temperatures. The purpose of methodical development in fish sperm cryopreservation

1 can be – among others – to assist reproduction in aquaculture (Bokor et al., 2010;
2 Linhart et al., 2005), to apply in selective breeding programs (Adams et al., 2008) or to
3 apply in species conservation actions (Viveiros and Godinho, 2009).

4 Nevertheless, the use of cryopreservation methods in aquaculture is very limited or is
5 applied on individual basis, not systematically as part of a greater industry. The reasons
6 for this rejection can be various: sperm is seldom a limiting factor in induced fish
7 spawning, selective breeding is applied only to a handful of aquaculture species and
8 finally, sperm cryopreservation methods are not standardized or universally accepted as
9 they are in the cryopreservation industry serving domestic livestock farming.

10 Adoption of cryopreservation into aquaculture practice is further hindered by the lack of
11 consensus among scientists on standard protocols in a given species. For instance,
12 cryopreservation of eel sperm has been reported for the first time in the Japanese eel
13 *Anguilla japonica* (Tanaka et al., 2002). In the European eel (*A. anguilla*), two teams
14 started to work on the species independently of each other, a Spanish team building on
15 the experiences of the previously mentioned experiments on the Japanese eel and
16 developing their own media for cryopreservation (Peñaranda et al., 2009) and a
17 Hungarian team building on their previous experience in common carp (Magyary et al.,
18 1996) and later developing their methods based on those of Tanaka et al. (2002) (Müller
19 et al., 2012). This demonstrates the abundance of cryopreservation methods developed
20 by several teams independently for a single species without intercalibration or
21 standardization of their protocols.

22 Standardization of existing methodologies can be achieved by systematic optimization
23 of factors affecting the quality of the product, intercalibration of methods by a reference
24 laboratory or by the simple adoption of one of the methods by the industry. Systematic
25 optimization of methodologies has been carried out in a number of species including the

1 Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas* (Dong et al., 2005, 2006) or the zebrafish (Yang et al.,
2 2007a) and includes careful analysis of factors such as cooling rates, cryoprotectants
3 and their concentrations as well as sperm concentration. Intercalibration of existing
4 methods can be a complicated process that may take several decades to complete
5 (Poikane et al., 2014), and to the best of our knowledge this has not been carried out in
6 cryopreservation science. This type of standardization is typically monitored by
7 international organizations such as FAO (EIFAC, 1986) or WHO (WHO, 2010) and can
8 later serve as a gold standard for scientists and professionals of the given area. Adoption
9 of a given protocol by the industry is simpler procedure. The adoption of the Tris-egg
10 yolk-glycerol method to bull sperm freezing has resulted in its acceptance as a standard
11 industry protocol (Walters et al., 2009). Adoption by the industry also involves quality
12 control to reduce variability in the use of standardized protocols and branding of the
13 protocol or its components as a product. Quality control of high-throughput
14 cryopreservation of sperm has been described in detail for the blue catfish *Ictalurus*
15 *furcatus* (Hu et al., 2013).

16 Standardization in reporting the results of cryopreservation studies is also an important
17 factor that can affect the reproducibility of the given protocol. There is a significant
18 variation in the use of terminology in cryopreservation science. A typical example is the
19 interchangeable use of the terms “extender” and “diluent” which may (Cabrita et al.,
20 2001; Ciereszko et al., 2014; Lahnsteiner et al., 1996) or may not (Kurokura and
21 Hirano, 1980; Kusuda et al., 2005) contain cryoprotectants. There is also a lack of
22 consensus whether cryoprotectant concentrations should be given relative to the
23 extender (Lahnsteiner et al., 1996; Robles et al., 2003a; Rurangwa et al., 2001) or to the
24 final dilution with sperm (Linhart et al., 2000; Rodina et al., 2007). A significant effort

1 has been made to reduce these ambiguities in reporting cryopreservation results (Benson
2 et al., 2013), however, more specific guidelines might be necessary for aquatic species.

3 **9. The cryopreservation industry**

4 In mammals, the cryopreservation of gametes and embryos has been developed as a
5 very profitable business; however, in aquatic species this technique is far to reach this
6 level. In the last years, the increasing need of reproductive assisted treatments in
7 humans have promoted the use of cryopreserved oocytes and sperm (Rodriguez-
8 Wallberg, 2015). Recent findings have demonstrated the multiple applications of stem
9 cells, leading to the appearance of cryobanks for cord blood stem cells used for medical
10 purposes (Pineault and Abu-Khader, 2015). In other non-human mammals, similar
11 companies have been developed with the aim of using cryopreservation as a tool in
12 selective breeding programs. For instance, in cattle, the use of cryopreserved sperm
13 from selected breeders is extensively used to maintain the genetic traits in a selected
14 population (Thurston and Watson, 2002). In fish, the idea to develop selective breeding
15 programs to improve productivity in aquaculture has been taking special attention
16 during the last years (Lind et al., 2012). Thus, biotechnological companies have realized
17 the profitable point of view of this field, and their growing offer in cryobanking services
18 for fish sperm is increasing. Problems associated with disease-free control of horizontal
19 pathogens transmission help to understand that cryopreservation of sperm could be one
20 of the solutions to guarantee safety use of biological material for the production of new
21 generations. Another target market is in the recovery of endangered species by
22 cryopreserving sperm from individuals with low effectiveness or in fish model organisms,
23 such as zebrafish, to preserve genetic material of selected strains with biotechnological
24 interest. All procedures are standardized for an effective fish reproduction, including
25 development of media to increase sperm and egg quality, to ensure optimal activation of

1 the sperm cells, or for short-term storage of milt when cryopreservation is not needed.
2 Presently, cryopreservation services are available for several fish species
3 (<http://www.cryogenetics.com/>), specially salmonids like Atlantic salmon (*Salmo*
4 *salar*), rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*), coho salmon (*O. kisutch*), chinook salmon (*O.*
5 *tshawytscha*), Arctic char (*Salvelinus alpinus*), sockeye salmon (*O. nerka*), brown trout
6 (*Salmo trutta*), brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*), and other species like sablefish
7 (*Anoplopoma fimbria*), zebrafish (*D. rerio*), and lump sucker (*Cyclopterus lumpus*).
8 Tailoring your needs could be also done by developing specific protocols based on
9 customer demands. Specific media have also been commercialized for gamete
10 preparation (<http://www.imv-technologies.com/>). Thus, there are companies providing
11 different media to dilute sperm for short-storage or cryopreservation, or to optimize
12 motility activation. According to manufacturers, these media can be used for a wide
13 range of species like salmonids, turbot, gilthead seabream or tilapia.
14 Despite that cryopreservation industry in aquatic species is scarce compared with the
15 one in mammals, a significant increase is expected in the next decade, since research in
16 aquatic species and aquaculture industry are probably two areas that have been suffering
17 technological advancements in recent years. Thus, considering the usefulness of
18 cryopreservation as a tool for selective breeding programs, more market and business
19 opportunities can appear in the near future.

20

21 **10. Cryobanking worldwide**

22 *10.1. European cryobanks*

23 Several cryobanks were developed in Europe over the last 30 years, with a common
24 purpose of conservation of the genetic diversity from wildlife and from farmed
25 resources (Table 3). Because no shared European repertoire is available, an exhaustive

1 list of those banks is difficult to establish. Additionally, because each bank was
2 established independently in every country, the way they are run is very heterogeneous,
3 and the quality of the collections is impossible to state on a general scale. In the COST
4 Action AQUAGAMETE (FA 1205; <http://aquagamete.webs.upv.es/>), some common
5 and standardized cryopreservation procedures should be proposed to these cryobanks,
6 but a lot is to be done before the different collections can be displayed and proposed to
7 the European community of researchers, breeders, or conservation biologists. So far, we
8 have only few examples where these collections are used, either because the bank is not
9 organized for collection providing, or because the information on the genetic resource is
10 difficult to find for the putative user.

11

12 10.1.1. European cryobanks for wildlife conservation

13 To our knowledge, one of the oldest fish cryobank in Europe was established in the
14 former USSR, under the supervision of Dr E. Kopeika (Head of the Department of
15 Reproductive System Cryobiology Institute for Problems of Cryobiology and
16 Cryomedicine of National Academy of Science of Ukraine). Back in 1981, the head of
17 the department of animal breeding and genetics VNIIPRKh (All-Union Scientific
18 Research Institute of Pond Fisheries, Moscow district), Dr Katasonov signed with the
19 Ukrainian Institute an economic agreement (1981-1985) to create the Cryobank of Carp
20 sperm. The VNIIPRKh was developing different new breeds of carp and asked the
21 Ukrainian Institute to cryopreserve sperm of all these lines. Besides breeds from that
22 institute, they also cryopreserved sperm of carps from different regions of the former
23 USSR (Krasnodarsky region, Tula region, Habarovsk region, and other areas). They
24 also had sperm from German, Romanian, Hungarian, Zagorski, Parsky and Cherepetsky
25 carp breeds. Very importantly, all collected samples at the time were brought into two

1 locations. One location was in the Cryobank at VNIIPRKh (Moscow suburban) and the
2 second was in the Ukrainian Institute in Kharkov. By 1985, the bank was officially
3 established, and more samples were added to both banks until 1990. However, starting
4 from 1990, any newly collected samples were taken only to the Ukrainian Institute.
5 Today, the Ukrainian Cryobank is still there with 500 litre storage space filled
6 completely with cryopreserved sperm from different fish species, although the latest
7 samples were cryopreserved in 2010. Liquid nitrogen is supplied by a weak budget of
8 the Institute. The stored resources are utterly valuable, with some of the samples more
9 than 30 years old. The bank contains frozen sperm of species that are close to extinction
10 such as aral thorn or ship *Acipenser nudiventris* Lovetzky, 1828, *Huso huso* Linne,
11 1758, from Azov Sea, green sturgeon (*A. medirostris* Ayres, 1854) from the Far East,
12 stellate sturgeon (*Acipenser stellatus* Pallas, 1771), sterlet (*Acipenser ruthenus* Linne
13 1758) from the Caspian Sea, Russian sturgeon (*Acipenser guldenstadti colchicus*
14 Brandt., 1833) sperm from Berdyansk, troopera (*Tripterygion tripteronotus* Russo,
15 1810), species from the Black Sea. Other species include trout from the river Rioni,
16 pink salmon (*Oncorhynchus gorbuscha* Walbaum, 1792) caught in Kamchatka,
17 different carps from the Khabarovsk territory (wild form *Cyprinus carpio*
18 *haematopterus temminck* Schlegel, 1842), and mullet (*Mugil cephalus* Linnaeus, 1758)
19 from Azov Sea. This bank is a unique resource for either agricultural breeding program,
20 when some crossing of species is required, or restoration programs for endangered
21 species.

22 More recently, the Frozen Ark project (<http://www.frozenark.org/>) was launched in the
23 2000 in the UK, with the establishment of a major new cryofacility at the Natural
24 History Museum in London. Although not dedicated to reproductive tissues and cells,
25 the project aims to conserve the genetic resources of the world's endangered species

1 with an international consortium of centres that hold frozen tissues, cells and DNA
2 samples of many animal species. As part of the frozen Ark project, University of
3 Bedfordshire (UK) has established a cryobank for critically endangered fish species as
4 well as a specimen cryobank for UK fish species. The specimen collection of the
5 cryobank began in June 2008 and the collection of the specimens of freshwater species
6 was made in collaboration with the Environment Agency in England, the collection of
7 specimens of marine species was in collaboration with the Centre for Environment,
8 Fisheries & Aquaculture Science (Cefas) and the collection of non-UK species was in
9 collaboration with Zoos and Aquariums in the UK. The cryobank currently holds 112
10 species of fish - 94 marine and 8 freshwater from UK waters, and 10 tropical species.
11 None of the samples are related to farmed fish lines. In total 624 vials of tissues and
12 cells have been banked and in all cases fin clips have been banked to preserve cell
13 viability and cell lines have been established from 24 of the 112 species. Muscle tissue
14 has also been cryopreserved to ensure long-chain DNA integrity, and in the case of
15 marine species, blood samples are held on Whatman FTA cards.

16 The Cryo-Brehm project in Germany is a member of the Frozen Ark consortium. The
17 common aim is to secure a variety of scientific samples of wild animals before they
18 become extinct. Cryo-Brehm was initiated in 2007 by the Fraunhofer-Gesellschaft zur
19 Förderung der angewandten Forschung e.V. with its Research Institution for Marine
20 Biotechnology (EMB), the Fraunhofer Institute for Biomedical Engineering (IBMT),
21 the Zoo Rostock and the "Tierpark Hagenbeck" zoo of the city of Hamburg. Recently,
22 the Sea-Life Centre Timmendorfer Strand joined the consortium. Cryo-Brehm has
23 conservation purposes, but with the additional aim to establish cell lines from the
24 collected samples, for research or veterinary purposes. More than 80 cell cultures were
25 collected from 20 fish species, 8 freshwater and 12 marine species. Vials of untreated

1 tissues from even more fish species are banked at Cryo-Brehm. The collected cell
2 cultures derive from organs like heart, skin, spleen, head-kidney, liver, brain, testis,
3 pancreas, pylorus or pituitary gland. More recently, the project initiated the
4 cryopreservation of reproductive material (sperm, blastula cells). Under the EMB
5 leadership, sperm samples of many carp breeders in Germany will soon be incorporated
6 to the cryobank.

7

8 10.1.2. European cryobanks for farmed species

9 Among the first in Europe, cryobanking of farmed fish sperm was launched in the Czech
10 Republic in 1996 as a part of the National program of conservation and use of farm
11 animal genetic resources. The objective was to keep old less productive breeds as a part
12 of national heritage and a source of genes for contemporary breeding. The Cryobank
13 was established in the Research Institute of Fish Culture and Hydrobiology (RIFCH),
14 part of the nowadays Faculty of Fisheries and Protection of Waters in Vodnany. The
15 cryobank activity is oriented to the maintenance and storage of 6,833 frozen
16 insemination doses of farmed common carp, tench, wels, rainbow- and brown trout,
17 whitefishes and sturgeon, as well as on extending the number of doses. Altogether,
18 sperm samples from 11 breeds of carp, 7 breeds of tench, 3 breeds of wels, 3 breeds of
19 trouts and 2 species of sturgeons are stored. Besides genetic resources, fish sperm
20 cryopreservation is also used for international scientific cooperation and commercial
21 purposes. Until now, the samples were not used for any reconstruction of a breed.
22 In France, it was the development of breeding programs in trout fish farms in the
23 nineties which prompted the need for genetic resource preservation at the production
24 level. First, each breeding farm started to store its own cryopreserved resources thanks
25 to the help of the non-profit professional association SYSAAF (Union of French poultry

1 and aquaculture breeders) and the INRA research institute. Almost 10 years later, the
2 CryoAqua bank was set up under the leadership of SYSAAF, INRA and IFREMER:
3 this more secured bank dedicated to French aquatic resources is housed in a bovine
4 genetics cooperative, Evolution (www.evolution-xy.fr), equipped for farmed animal
5 gamete cryopreservation and management. The setting up of CryoAqua was entirely
6 covered by public funding (CCRB/IBiSA 2008), while Evolution provided the lab,
7 storage room and the staff.

8 Another function of CryoAqua is that this cryobank is the fish and shellfish secondary
9 site of the French National Cryobank (FNCb), a member of the CRB-Anim network
10 since 2012 (national infrastructure connecting reproductive and genomic collections for
11 domestic animals). The National Cryobank was set up in 1999 with three main
12 objectives: preserving genetic diversity, restoring rare genotypes of endangered lines,
13 and monitoring French farmed animal genetic resources. Thanks to the CRB-Anim
14 network, the collections are being enriched and are also intended to be used more
15 broadly, for economic and research purposes.

16 Today, any private or public organization in France can benefit from CryoAqua service:
17 fresh milt is sent from fish farms to CryoAqua where it is cryopreserved and stored by
18 Evolution's staff. The costs are covered by the collection owner. The straws have a
19 unique number ensuring reliable traceability of the male. Today, CryoAqua houses
20 resources from 9 breeding companies, 2 research institutes and the FNCb, with up to 12
21 species and lines from fish to molluscs, stored mainly as sperm. As for the Czech bank,
22 CryoAqua is benefiting from the research input via INRA and IFREMER institutes.

23 A specificity of the aquatic collections at CryoAqua is the very strict sanitary
24 regulation: farms or research institutes should obtain a disease-free status before they
25 are allowed to send any sample to CryoAqua. As a consequence, many collections

1 without this status are at risk to be lost. A strictly controlled quarantine system of the
2 live fish prior to sperm or cell collection is one mean currently set up to circumvent this
3 limitation, although it increases a lot the cost of the cryobanking procedure.
4 A cryobank for common carp in Szarvas, Hungary, is managed by the National
5 Agricultural Research and Innovation Centre, Research Institute for Fisheries and
6 Aquaculture (NAIK HAKI, Dr Jeney). The cryobank was created in 2005 in order to
7 serve as a backup to the live common carp gene bank. Originally it was created from
8 sperm samples of 15 Hungarian and 8 foreign carp varieties and 2 more were added in
9 2007. The basic policy was to cryopreserve 40 straws from 10 males of each variety.
10 Some compromises in the numbers had to be made as the right male number was not
11 always available. The research department of Aquaculture at Szent Istvan University in
12 Gödöllő cooperated with HAKI in the creation of the cryobank for the freezing
13 procedure and random analysis of the sample quality. In May, 2013, stored sperm
14 samples were used to refresh the gene pool of one of the varieties.

15

16 10.1.3. European cryobanks for model species:

17 The European Zebrafish Resource centre (EZRC, <http://www.ezrc.kit.edu/index.php>)
18 was officially opened in July 2012 at the Karlsruhe Institute of Technology (KIT,
19 Germany), to provide permanent repository for zebrafish lines from European
20 researchers and to provide access to those lines for the research community. In the
21 EZRC, zebrafish stocks are maintained mostly as frozen sperm, and when a frozen line
22 is requested, embryos are produced by *in vitro* fertilization and shipped to the customer.
23 The EZRC could therefore be considered as a cryobank whose service starts from
24 receiving the breeders and ends up with the providing of embryos sired by the frozen-
25 thawed sperm. The costs are partly covered by the customer. Because this service is at

1 the heart of research, one limitation to this open access centre is that the original
2 provider must agree to make the strain freely available to the whole community for non-
3 commercial purposes. Any commercial licensing is negotiated directly between the
4 recipient and the provider.

5 To add up to this open service, some laboratories are in the process of developing local
6 cryobanking to secure their newly made transgenic lines (before they feel ready to
7 release them to the scientific community). The difficulty is that gametes from model
8 species (especially zebrafish and medaka) are more difficult to obtain than naturally
9 fertilized embryos, and cryopreservation and *in vitro* fertilization requires some
10 experience and high quality breeders that are not always available in every research lab
11 (see 2.3 subsection). We believe that such cryobanking should be centralized at a
12 national or regional scale, so that the expertise can be shared between actors, and the
13 equipment and storage costs reduced.

14

15 10.1.4. European cryobanks for research

16 Beyond all the above-described banks, it is well known that almost every fish research
17 institute has its own cryobank, very often reduced to few liquid nitrogen tanks. These
18 banks often house the breeds and lines developed by the research groups within one
19 department. Some of these banks can also develop some biodiversity conservation
20 purpose, such as the bank at the Department of Gamete and Embryo Biology in Olsztyn
21 (PL) where wild whitefish or farmed carp strains are cryopreserved.

22 These banks are the most difficult to track because of course, the intrinsic purpose of
23 these banks is to provide a local service. It is usually run by the researcher themselves,
24 with very variable traceability systems and security systems. One work package of the

1 H2020 AquaExcel project (<http://www.aquaexcel.eu/>) is to establish a network of these
2 scattered cryobanks, to standardize the cryobanking pipeline, and to enlarge the
3 availability of the resources to a broader research community.

4

5 *10.2. Cryobanking in USA*

6 The following summary provides a short overview of cryobanking with examples of
7 various activities. It is not intended to be a comprehensive listing of efforts or facilities
8 in the United States. At present, there is no formal central or national planning authority
9 in the US for germplasm repositories of aquatic species. A broad array of
10 cryopreservation activities have taken place over the past six decades across the country
11 with earliest efforts relating to research of techniques, mostly in salmonids. As such,
12 some collections were informally accrued by researchers using a wide variety of
13 containers and labelling methods, and using diverse cryopreservation protocols. For
14 example, the Aquatic Germplasm and Genetic Resources Center at Louisiana State
15 University Agricultural Center in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, has an inventory of around
16 65,000 French straws from a wide range of aquatic species. These samples are utilized
17 as a research resource for various studies and projects rather than as a germplasm
18 repository *per se*.

19 Over the years, with the establishment of working cryopreservation techniques, emphasis
20 broadened to applications directed at repository development. These included
21 conservation efforts with imperilled species such as chinook salmon, *Oncorhynchus*
22 *tshawytscha* and rainbow trout, *O. mykiss* (Cloud et al., 2011; Harvey et al., 1998),
23 razorback sucker, *Xyrauchen texanus* (Tiersch et al., 1998), Colorado pikeminnow,
24 *Ptychocheilus lucius* (Tiersch et al., 2004), and pallid sturgeon, *Scaphirhynchus albus*
25 (Wayman, 2011). Work with threatened or endangered species has continued with

1 support of the US Fish and Wildlife Service and a repository exists at the USFWS Fish
2 Technology Center in Warm Springs, Georgia, largely for pallid sturgeon, but
3 including sperm from salamanders, and sperm and glochidia from freshwater mussels
4 (Wayman, 2011). This collection currently comprises around 26,000 straws (W.
5 Wayman, personal communication).

6 Another main thrust has been in forming repositories for biomedical research model
7 fishes such as zebrafish (Varga and Westerfield, 2011), and *Xiphophorus* species
8 (Walter, 2011). This work has been supported largely by the US National Institutes of
9 Health (NIH), and in April 2007, the National Center for Research Resources of the
10 NIH held a meeting entitled *Achieving High Throughput Repositories for Biomedical*
11 *Germplasm Preservation Workshop* in which a large-scale overview was developed for
12 current status and needs for development of germplasm resources for biomedical model
13 species (Rall et al., 2011). The final report is available at: [www.esi-](http://www.esi-bethesda.com/ncrrworkshops/Biomedical/index.aspx)
14 [bethesda.com/ncrrworkshops/Biomedical/index.aspx](http://www.esi-bethesda.com/ncrrworkshops/Biomedical/index.aspx). Programmatic development has
15 proceeded in the past few years at the Zebrafish International Resource Center (ZIRC)
16 housed at the University of Oregon in Eugene, Oregon (Varga and Westerfield, 2011).
17 Currently the ZIRC holds the largest biomedical collection in the US with around
18 60,000 samples from zebrafish representing some 9,000 lines and 26,000 characterized
19 single alleles. To exclude redundancies, a curator-approved name must be established
20 with the Zebrafish Model Organism Database called ZFIN (www.zfin.org). A similar,
21 but smaller repository is being developed for live-bearing fishes held at the
22 *Xiphophorus* Genetic Stock Center (XGSC) housed at Texas State University in San
23 Marcos, Texas (<http://www.xiphophorus.txstate.edu/>).

24 A major national-level advance for aquatic germplasm resources came in 1990 when
25 national legislation was passed that provided the US Department of Agriculture

1 (USDA) with a mandate to conserve animal genetic resources (Blackburn, 2011). This
2 legislation provided support for public and private sector initiatives to address
3 conservation of genetic resources (National Research Council, 1993). In 1999, the
4 USDA formed the National Animal Germplasm Program (NAGP) housed in Ft. Collins,
5 Colorado (http://nrrc.ars.usda.gov/A-GRIN/main_webpage/ars?record_source=US).
6 The NAGP is patterned after the well-established USDA National Plant Germplasm
7 System, and has essentially unlimited storage capabilities available based on current
8 national usages of aquatic germplasm. The NAGP is organized around permanent
9 species committees for beef and dairy cattle, swine, goats and sheep, poultry, and
10 aquatic species. The Aquatic Species Committee brings together members from
11 universities, industry, and federal agencies, and is responsible for providing an interface
12 for parties that wish to place material into the NAGP collection or to remove it. The
13 current inventory is maintained in a database that can be viewed at: [www.ars-](http://www.ars-grin.gov:8080/j2ee/nagppub/jsp/nagp/drilldown2.jsp)
14 [grin.gov:8080/j2ee/nagppub/jsp/nagp/drilldown2.jsp](http://www.ars-grin.gov:8080/j2ee/nagppub/jsp/nagp/drilldown2.jsp). At present the core collection at
15 NAGP has an inventory of 32,500 samples from around 3,000 individual animals
16 representing major groupings of freshwater and marine fishes, and marine invertebrates.
17 Aquatic species comprise 4.4% of the entire NAGP collection based on number of
18 samples, but comprise 15% of the entire collection based on number of individuals.
19 This program, database, its collection, and core capabilities are a tremendous resource
20 for aquatic germplasm conservation in the United States, and has been developing
21 relationships with other countries such as Brazil and Canada. Samples from other
22 collections, such as those mentioned above from the LSU Agricultural Center, USFWS,
23 XGSC, and ZIRC are routinely transferred into the collection at NAGP. Large
24 collections such as those from the Nez Perce tribe, University of Idaho and Washington
25 State University (some 50,000 samples) of chinook salmon and rainbow trout (also

1 mentioned above, Cloud et al., 2011) have been transferred to NAGP because resources
2 became unavailable for archival storage at the facilities that performed the original
3 collections. These samples are being catalogued into the database for inclusion in the
4 core collection (H. Blackburn, personal communication). The NAGP can provide a
5 useful model for aquatic species in general for the development of an integrated
6 repository system that incorporates a single or a few well-equipped, experienced central
7 facilities that carry out most of the cryopreservation work using samples or broodstock
8 sent to the facility (Caffey and Tiersch, 2011). Other facilities can serve as satellite
9 repositories to protect backup samples, or as user endpoints for the samples, such as in
10 working hatcheries.

11 Overall, application of cryopreservation and development of cryobanking for fishes or
12 other aquatic species constitutes a balancing act of attempting to generalize observations
13 into basic principles while recognizing the considerable diversity that exists across these
14 organisms. To address this, the Aquatic Species Committee of the NAGP has employed
15 the following concepts: i) be aware of the differences among entities such as species and
16 user groups; ii) focus on the commonalities across groups and technologies; iii)
17 generalize technology development to the extent possible; iv) target broad application of
18 findings; v) work to reduce barriers to communication and integration across
19 communities (e.g., species, commodity groups, or private and public sectors), and vi)
20 work to establish standardization and harmonization in protocols, terminology, and
21 reporting in the aquatic species cryopreservation literature. Future expansion of
22 cryobanking in the US will likely rest upon advances in high-throughput
23 cryopreservation and commercial-scale application (Hu and Tiersch, 2011; Tiersch,
24 2011).

25

1 10.3. Cryobanking in Brazil

2 Brazil contains the largest number of hydrographic basins, the largest amount of
3 freshwater available in the world and more than 8,000 km of coastal regions.
4 Consequently, Brazil holds the incredible number of 885 marine species and more than
5 2,100 freshwater species (Buckup and Menezes, 2003), corresponding to almost 21% of
6 the total number of fish species in the world (Reis et al., 2003), and probably higher due
7 to the large diversity and a considerable number of hydrographic basins that has not yet
8 been studied (Agostinho et al., 2005).

9 Due to environmental changes mostly caused by human activities such as hydroelectric
10 dams, pollution and overfishing, many fish species and especially those that migrate
11 during the spawning season, are set as endangered. The use of sperm cryobanking could
12 be an alternative to protect this species from extinction by preserving genetic diversity.
13 Many Brazilian fish species have been subjected to sperm cryopreservation studies
14 mainly during the past decade, and these studies have been compiled in recent reviews
15 (Godinho and Viveiros, 2011; Viveiros et al., 2014). However, data on post-thaw sperm
16 quality are highly heterogeneous even for the same species; some reports are incomplete
17 and, given that only positive results are usually published, the true variability of results
18 remains unknown (Viveiros, 2005). Thus, development of reliable cryopreservation
19 protocols for fish sperm are often performed on a species-by-species basis and it differs
20 from one region to another.

21 In Brazil, the routine use of sperm cryobanks in hatchery production is very limited, if
22 present, but for conservational purposes it is a feasible alternative. The Brazilian
23 Agriculture Research Corporation (EMBRAPA) is in charge of holding germplasm
24 banks of different species of plants, animals and microorganisms of the whole country.
25 The Unit of Pantanal, in the city of Corumbá, holds a sperm cryobank of *Piaractus*

1 *mesopotamicus*, *Salminus brasiliensis*, *Brycon hilarii*, *Pseudoplatystoma corruscans*
2 and *Pseudoplatystoma reticulatum*, from the rivers Taquari and Miranda (Resende and
3 Marques, 2009). Since 2012, the Unit of Fisheries and Fish Culture, in the city of
4 Palmas, is organizing a DNA cryobank in order to allow identification and conservation
5 of fish species native to Araguaia-Tocantins basin. This bank stores DNA samples from
6 68 Amazonian fish species, including some important commercial species such as
7 *Colossoma macropomum*, *Brycon amazonicus*, *Piaractus brachypomus* and *Arapaima*
8 *gigas* (Barroso et al., 2013). Finally, the Unit of Tabuleiros Costeiros, in the city of
9 Aracajú, holds DNA and sperm cryobanks of *C. macropomum* (Dr. A.N. Maria,
10 personal communication).

11 Besides EMBRAPA, there are some cryobanks at Institutes and Universities in Brazil.
12 At the Institute Chico Mendes for Biodiversity Conservation (CEPTA/ICMBio), in the
13 city of Pirassununga, sperm of *Brycon orbignyanus*, *Brycon vermelha*, *P.*
14 *mesopotamicus*, among other species, are stored for both conservational and restocking
15 purposes (Dr J.A. Senhorini, personal communication). Among the Universities, just to
16 name a few, UFLA, in the city of Lavras, holds sperm cryobanks of *Brycon insignis*, *B.*
17 *orbignyanus*, *Prochilodus lineatus*, *Steindachneridion parahybae*, *S. brasiliensis*,
18 among other species, and UEM in the city of Maringá holds samples of *B. orbignyanus*,
19 *Leporinus* sp, *Leporinus elongates*, *P. lineatus*, *P. mesopotamicus*, *Pseudoplatystoma*
20 *reticularum*, *Salminus brasiliensis*, *Schizodon* spp, among other species (Dr. R.P.
21 Ribeiro, personal communication), for both research and restocking purposes.

22

23 10.4. Cryobanking in Australia and New Zealand

24 In both New Zealand and Australia there are only a handful of cryobanks for aquatic
25 species and cell types. The banks have been created and maintained for a variety of

1 purposes from fundamental to applied research, and from conservation to commercial
2 applications.

3

4 10.4.1. Cryobanks of molluscs

5 Cryopreservation is potentially a powerful tool for selective breeding and hatchery
6 production of molluscs (Adams et al., 2011, 2015; Tiersch et al., 2007). It can enable
7 breeders to have complete control over parental crosses and provide a resource for
8 breeders to return to when breeding programme objectives change. In hatchery
9 production, it can reduce broodstock conditioning costs and allow excess gametes from
10 a spawning to be stored for later use. The benchmarks for incorporating
11 cryopreservation in selective breeding and in hatchery production differ. For hatchery
12 production, ~350 million – 1 billion early D-stage larvae are required for each
13 commercial batch. However, selective breeding requires only ~100 000 larvae per
14 family. Cryopreserving mollusc gametes and early embryos can also be useful in
15 ecotoxicology for carrying out direct toxicity assessments outside the natural spawning
16 season (Adams et al., 2015).

17 Cryopreservation methods have been developed for the sperm of New Zealand's
18 commercially important shellfish species including the greenshell™ mussel (*Perna*
19 *canaliculus*), Pacific oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*) and abalone (paua; *Haliotis iris*)
20 (Adams et al., 2008, 2011, 2015; Smith et al., 2012). The Cawthron Institute runs
21 selective breeding programs for greenshell™ mussel and Pacific oyster for the New
22 Zealand aquaculture industry. As part of these programs, sperm collected from
23 individuals used to make family crosses in a breeding run is banked. Methods have also
24 been developed for cryopreserving Pacific oyster oocytes and for larvae of greenshell™
25 mussels and Pacific oyster (Paredes et al., 2012, 2013; Tervit et al., 2005). These

1 methods have not yet been incorporated in either selective breeding or hatchery
2 production and further research is needed to improve the reliability of these methods for
3 both purposes. The current methods for sperm are also being continually refined and
4 methods for emerging species such as geoduck (*Panopea zelandica*) are being
5 developed (Adams et al., 2012).

6 In Australia, gametes and embryos of the blue mussel, *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, are
7 banked for out of season commercial production (Xiaoxu Li, SARDI, personal
8 communication) but presently there is no banking for selective breeding (Liu and Li,
9 2015; Paredes et al., 2013).

10

11 10.4.2. Microalgae cryobanks

12 In New Zealand, the Cawthron Institute maintains the Cawthron Institute Culture
13 Collection of Microalgae (CICCM) - a collection of over 400 strains of freshwater and
14 marine microalgae as well as cyanobacteria collected from New Zealand waters
15 (Krystyna Ponikla, Cawthron Institute, personal communication). Over 250 of these
16 strains are held cryopreserved in liquid nitrogen. The collection includes a number of
17 unique species and strains and underpins applied and fundamental research including:
18 characterisation of algal toxin producers and their toxins, phytoplankton monitoring,
19 validation of molecular-based detection tools, as well as research for bioactive and
20 novel compounds (Rhodes et al., 2006; Woods et al., 2008).

21 In Australia, CSIRO maintains the Australian National Algae Culture Collection.
22 Although the collection contains over 1000 strains of microalgae, almost all are
23 maintained in liquid/agar cultures with only a few, mainly thraustochytrids, maintained
24 at -80°C (Ian Jameson, CSIRO National Facilities and Collections, personal
25 communication). The University of Queensland has its own cryobank of microalgae

1 containing over 200 strains (Ben Hankamer, University of Queensland, personal
2 communication) (Bui et al., 2013) and is used for algal biotechnology research
3 including sustainable production of biodiesel, protein-rich animal feed and other high
4 value products from microalgae ([http://www.schenklab.com/research-groups/algae-](http://www.schenklab.com/research-groups/algae-biotechnology/)
5 [biotechnology/](http://www.schenklab.com/research-groups/algae-biotechnology/)).

6

7 10.4.3. Cryobanking of fish

8 Sperm cryobanks are maintained in some fish hatcheries as part of their selective
9 breeding programmes. New Zealand King Salmon has a selective breeding programme
10 for the King salmon (also known as chinook salmon; *Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*) that it
11 farms. It maintains a cryobank of sperm dating back to 1996 frozen using a method
12 developed in house (Jon Bailey, New Zealand King Salmon; Jane Symmonds, NIWA,
13 personal communication). Each year New Zealand King Salmon selects around 10
14 males with different traits, often unusual, or low incidence ones to add to its bank. This
15 year they will trial a different method using cryogenetics' square packs.

16 In Australia, the CSIRO and Salmon Enterprises of Tasmania Pty Limited (SALTAS)
17 run a joint project to enhance selective breeding of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) for
18 the Australian salmon farming industry.

19 ([http://www.csiro.au/en/Research/AF/Areas/Aquaculture/Premium-breeds/breeding-](http://www.csiro.au/en/Research/AF/Areas/Aquaculture/Premium-breeds/breeding-salmon/)
20 [salmon/](http://www.csiro.au/en/Research/AF/Areas/Aquaculture/Premium-breeds/breeding-salmon/)). This program also cryopreserves milt (Peter Kube, CSIRO, personal
21 communication).

22

23 10.4.4. Cryobanking of other species

24 With increasing pressure from climate change, habitat loss, over fishing and
25 anthropogenic inputs, many aquatic species are now threatened or endangered. In

1 Australia and New Zealand, cryopreservation research is being carried out on
2 germplasm from a range of species from frogs to elasmobranchs (Jonathan Daly, The
3 Australian Frozen Zoo; Rebecca Hobbs, Taronga Conservation Society Australia,
4 personal communication) (Browne et al., 2002).
5 The Taronga Conservation Society Australia maintains the Taronga CryoReserve – a
6 bank that stores germplasm from “at risk” species (Rebecca Hobbs, Taronga
7 Conservation Society Australia, personal communication). At this time, the bank
8 maintains germplasm from a number of coral species from the Great Barrier Reef
9 (Hagedorn and Spindler, 2014; Hagedorn et al., 2012) as well as from Dugong (*Dugong*
10 *dugon*) and these are the only aquatic species in the bank. The CryoReserve also
11 participates in projects investigating sperm cryobiology of other “at risk” species.

12

13 **11. Concluding remarks**

14 Cryopreservation of germ cells has a huge potential, especially concerning sperm
15 research that has been quite developed. Research on germplasm cryobanking of aquatic
16 species embrace diverse cell types including sperm, oocytes, somatic cells,
17 spermatogonia and primordial germ cells, besides cryopreservation of embryos and
18 larvae, both successfully developed in invertebrate species. In fish species, sperm
19 cryopreservation has been quite developed mainly due to the handicaps presented by
20 other cell types such as oocytes or embryos, which needs the optimization of protocols
21 for both cryopreservation and oocyte *in vitro* maturation. Recent studies have arisen on
22 cryopreservation of primordial germ cells as an alternative for the cryopreservation of
23 both paternal and maternal genomes. However, more work needs to be carried out in the
24 development of reproductive biotechnological tools, such as transplantation, to restore
25 an individual or a species. Cryopreservation of fish tissues, especially fin pieces, can

1 easily be considered for cryobanking with some minor technical adjustments. However,
2 the regeneration methods necessary to recover the fish are still at the level of research
3 development: although the nuclear transfer technology is globally mastered in fish, the
4 reprogramming of the somatic gene expression into an embryonic pattern has to be
5 extensively studied in order to yield higher development rates. The limitations to
6 interspecific nuclear transfer have to be explored as well. Last, reprogramming of
7 somatic cells into primordial germ cells is an open field with still very little data in fish.
8 Cryopreservation methods are developed for various purposes: to assist reproduction in
9 aquaculture, to be applied in selective breeding programs or to be applied in species
10 conservation actions. In the recent years, the aquaculture industry has been suffering
11 technological advancements accompanied by an increased interest on sperm
12 cryopreservation. However, the application of cryopreservation methods as part of the
13 greater fish farming industry is still limited in comparison to the cryopreservation
14 industry serving domestic livestock farming. This is mainly due to the absence of
15 standardized methods for fish sperm cryopreservation. To solve this issue,
16 cryobiologists are doing a huge effort to reduce ambiguities in reporting
17 cryopreservation results, but more specific guidelines might be necessary for aquatic
18 species to establish protocols universally accepted. Germplasm cryobanking of aquatic
19 species has significant potential, but to optimize the management of these banks a
20 multidisciplinary team with skills in genetics, reproductive physiology, cryobiology and
21 data administration is required. Thus, careful planning and cooperation among various
22 disciplines involved in a given conservation program, and a close cooperation of
23 cryobiologists with other representatives of science and management, is a key factor for
24 the successful use of cryopreservation.

25

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16

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21 **Figure captions**

22 Figure 1. Publications dedicated to cryopreservation of sperm from diferent fish species
23 in the last 5 years (source: sciencedirect).

24

1 Figure 2. Type of cryopreservation research done in the last five years (source:
2 sciencedirect).
3
4 Figure 3. Publications dedicated to sperm cryopreservation from marine species vs
5 freshwater species (source: sciencedirect).
6
7 Figure 4. Distribution of publications dealing with embryo cryopreservation in relation
8 with invertebrate species.
9
10 Table 1. Steps involved in large-scale repository of model species or of any other
11 species (Tiersch et al., 2011).
12
13 Table 2. Studies performed in embryo resistance to chilling and cryopreservation over
14 the last years.
15
16 Table 3. Summary of the main cryobanks in Europe.
17