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2 **Hormonal manipulations for the enhancement of sperm production in cultured fish and**  
4 **evaluation of sperm quality**

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## Abstract

54 This article reviews the use of hormonal treatments to enhance sperm production in  
aquaculture fish and the methods available for evaluating sperm quality. The different types  
56 of testis development are examined and a brief review is presented of the endocrine regulation  
of spermatogenesis in fishes, including the increasing evidence of the existence of  
58 spermatozoa subpopulations. Hormonal manipulations are employed to induce  
spermatogenesis in species such as the freshwater eels, to synchronize maximal sperm volume  
60 to ovulation for *in vitro* fertilization and to enhance sperm production in species with poor  
spermiation. The hormones that are employed include gonadotropins (GtH) of piscine or  
62 mammalian origin, and gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists (GnRHa) administered by  
injections or controlled-release delivery systems, with or without dopaminergic inhibitors.  
64 Pheromones in the culture water and hormones added to the sperm *in vitro* have also been  
employed to enhance spermiation and sperm quality, respectively, in some fishes. Hormonal  
66 therapies usually do not affect sperm quality parameters, except in cases where fish fail to  
spermiate naturally or produce very small volumes of high-density sperm. Different  
68 parameters have been used to evaluate fish sperm quality, including sperm volume and  
density, spermatozoa motility and morphometry, and seminal plasma composition. The  
70 development of Computer-Assisted Sperm Analysis (CASA) systems made possible the  
estimation of a higher number of sperm motion parameters using an objective, sensitive and  
72 accurate technique. The development of Assisted Sperm Morphology Analysis (ASMA)  
software has introduced a new approach for sperm evaluation studies, demonstrating changes  
74 in the spermatozoa related to reproductive season, hormonal treatments or the  
cryopreservation processes, and how these may be related to changes in sperm motility and  
76 fertilization capacity. The article concludes with a few practical protocols for the  
enhancement of sperm production in aquaculture species.

78

**Keywords:** spermiation, broodstock management, sperm enhancement, sperm quality

80

## 1. Introduction

82 Production of high quality eggs and sperm is a prerequisite for the sustainable expansion of  
aquaculture. In captivity, control of reproductive function begins with the manipulation of the  
84 environment, in order to provide the necessary conditions and information -such as  
photoperiod and thermal cyclicality where they exist, and at times spawning substrate- in order  
86 to condition the fish and stimulate them to undergo gametogenesis (oogenesis and  
spermatogenesis), maturation and spawning. However, in many commercially produced  
88 species, there are important reproductive dysfunctions that hinder the efficient and reliable  
production of fertilized eggs (Mylonas et al., 2010). Reproductive dysfunctions are most  
90 often seen in females, with the failure of oocyte maturation, ovulation and/or spawning being  
the most common. As an exception to the above rule of females being the problematic sex in  
92 aquaculture, various flatfishes produce very small amounts of sperm (also referred to as  
semen or milt) during the spawning period (Agulleiro et al., 2007; Guzmán et al., 2011b;  
94 Vermeirssen et al., 1998, 2004). Furthermore, hatchery-produced males (F1 generation) of  
some fishes do not exhibit any breeding behavior and fail to spawn with the females, even if  
96 females complete ovulation and spawning. Such an example is the Senegalese sole (*Solea  
senegalensis*) (Norambuena et al., 2012). In many other fishes where males usually complete  
98 spermatogenesis and spermiation in captivity, it is often observed that the amount of good  
quality sperm produced may be diminished. Hormonal manipulations using a variety of  
100 exogenous hormones have been used in many fishes, in order to address the problems  
exhibited by male breeders. The objective of this article is to summarize the current  
102 knowledge on the reproductive function of male fish in aquaculture, broodstock management  
and methods to enhance spermatogenesis and sperm production. In addition, the article  
104 provides an extensive review of the available sperm quality evaluation methods.

## 2. Spermatogenesis and spermiation

106 The process of gametogenesis in male fishes has been separated into three phases (Schulz et  
al., 2010). In phase one, type A spermatogonia proliferate and differentiate into early B  
108 spermatogonia, which then undergo multiple mitotic divisions –their total number being  
species-specific and genetically determined- that result in late B spermatogonia. In phase  
110 two, after their last mitotic multiplication, late B spermatogonia undergo meiotic division into  
spermatocytes I and then spermatocytes II, eventually becoming haploid spermatids. In phase  
112 three –referred to as spermiogenesis- the spermatids differentiate into flagellated spermatozoa  
and are released in the testicular lumen during spermiation (reviewed by Billard, 1986; Miura  
114 & Miura, 2001; Miura et al., 2002; Schulz & Miura, 2002; Schulz et al., 2010; Vizziano et al.,  
2008).

116 The spermatozoa are released from the spermatocysts into the sperm ducts where  
maturation -the process that renders them capable of vigorous motility and fertilization  
118 (Schulz et al., 2010)- takes place prior to sperm release, during the spawning season. Fish  
ejaculate sperm spontaneously during spawning, and with the exception of catfishes (Kazeto  
120 et al., 2008; Mansour et al., 2004; Viveiros et al., 2002), sperm can also be expressed easily  
from the sperm ducts after application of gentle abdominal pressure (referred to as  
122 “stripping”). Sperm release can be synchronized with female spawning via tactile or  
pheromonal communications (Stacey, 2003).

124

### 2.1. Different types of testis development

126 Testicular development, *i.e.* the changes in the testis structural morphology during the  
reproductive cycle, has been reviewed extensively (Billard, 1986; Mañanos et al., 2009;  
128 Schulz & Miura, 2002; Schulz et al., 2010). Testis development has many common features

among fishes, as well as vertebrates in general, such as for example the progress through the  
130 different developmental stages of germ cells. The main differences in testis development  
among different species relate to: (a) the timing of the progress through the different  
132 developmental stages of the germ cells in relation to the seasonality of spawning of the fish  
species, (b) the testis structure and migration of the spermatocysts, and (c) the stage of  
134 development of the germ cells that leave the spermatocysts.

Different species of fish present different seasonality in spermatogenesis and  
136 spermiation, ranging from the production of sperm all-year-round, to the production of sperm  
for a short or long reproductive period each year or to sperm production once in a life-time.  
138 Spermatogenesis can be considered an asynchronous type of maturation, as most species  
present periods of development with all stages of germ cells. The different seasonality in  
140 spermatogenesis amongst species results in differences in the presence and abundance of the  
different developmental stages of germ cells observed amongst species. Guppies (Poeciliidae)  
142 that produce sperm all-year-round were described to have an asynchronous testis all-year-  
round, which was also termed continuous, as sperm was produced continually (Billard, 1986).  
144 Rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), on the other hand, has a seasonal production of  
spermatozoa in separate annual cycles of spermatogenesis to produce releasable sperm for a  
146 short reproductive period. In general, much of the annual spermatogenesis cycle in fish is  
asynchronous, with all stages of germ cell development present at the same time.  
148 Nevertheless, there is a clear progression through the different germ cell stages and at a given  
time of the reproductive cycle, the testis is dominated by a certain stage of germ cells.  
150 Towards the end of the spawning period the testis is almost entirely full of spermatozoa, with  
a limited presence of earlier stage germ cells. Therefore, germ cells appear to be  
152 synchronized to achieve sperm availability for a short fixed period (Billard, 1986, 1992).



The different structural types of testis (*e.g.* anastomosing tubular and lobular) have been  
154 ordered by phylogeny (Parenti & Grier, 2004) with clearly defined structural criteria, based  
on the tubule or lobule network and the position of spermatogonia and spermatocysts (Grier et  
156 al., 1980; Grier, 1993; Parenti & Grier, 2004). A tubule is defined as a tube with both ends  
open and connecting to other tubular structures, while a lobule was defined as essentially a  
158 tube with one end being blind, forming a lobe (Grier, 1993). When observed in a two-  
dimensional histological section, these tubules and lobules can appear similar, resulting in  
160 considerable confusion in the literature. The lobular structure of the testis has been further  
divided into restricted and unrestricted (Grier et al., 1980). Restricted lobular testes contain  
162 the different stages of spermatogonia and spermatocysts in different restricted areas. The  
spermatogonia are situated at the distal section (blind end) of the lobule, and away from the  
164 lumen (open end), while spermatocysts with spermatids are principally observed close to the  
lumen. As the germ cells undergo the different stages of spermatogenesis, the spermatocysts  
166 appear to move towards the lumen, so that the spermatozoa are released into the lumen when  
the spermatocysts rupture. Unrestricted lobular testes have spermatogonia and spermatocysts  
168 at different stages of development throughout the lobules, and spermatocysts may *move only*  
slightly towards the lumen prior to the release of the spermatozoa.

170 Important aquaculture species have both tubular and unrestricted lobular testis type.  
Tubular type testes are found in various fishes (Parenti & Grier, 2004), ranging from the  
172 primitive non-teleost order Acipenseriformes (which includes paddlefish and sturgeons) to  
early teleost orders such as Cypriniformes (carps), Siluriformes (catfishes), Salmoniformes  
174 (*salmons and trouts*) and Esociformes (pikes). Lobular testes are found in Neoteleostei, with  
unrestricted lobular testes present in the orders Perciformes and Mugiliformes. The different  
176 testis structures (tubular or unrestricted lobular testes) do not appear to be related to the  
amount of sperm that can be produced, as very different volumes of sperm can be collected

178 from species from orders classified with the same testis structure. For example, sperm  
collection from rainbow trout (a Salmoniformes species with tubular type testes) (Billard,  
180 1992) and European seabass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*, a Perciformes species with unrestricted  
lobular type testes) (Asturiano et al., 2001; Sorbera et al., 1996) is easy and large volumes can  
182 be collected. On the contrary, sperm collection from African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*, a  
Siluriformes species with tubular type testes) (Viveiros et al., 2002) and spotted rose snapper  
184 (*Lutjanus guttatus*, a Perciformes species with unrestricted lobular type testes) (Ibarra-Castro  
& Duncan, 2007) is difficult and the amount of sperm collected is usually not sufficient for  
186 aquaculture purposes. In the case of catfishes, the problem with low volumes of sperm  
collected with stripping is related to the presence of seminal vesicles in the efferent duct  
188 (Viveiros et al., 2002).

Testicular development can also be classified as cystic or semicystic. In cystic  
190 development, when the spermatocysts rupture they release spermatozoa, while in semicystic  
development they release spermatids, which then differentiate into spermatozoa and complete  
192 development in the lumen. Cystic development is the most prevalent among fishes, but a  
growing number of species from various taxonomic orders and families have been identified  
194 to have semicystic development, including Perciformes–Bleniidae (Lahnsteiner & Patzner,  
1990), Ophiliiformes–Ophiliidae (Mattei et al., 1993), Scorpaeniformes–Scorpaenidae  
196 (Muñoz et al., 2002) Pleuronectiformes–Soleidae (Garcia-Lopez et al., 2005), Siluriformes–  
Callichthyidae (Spadella et al., 2007), Syngnathiformes–Syngnathidae (Biagi et al., 2010) and  
198 Gymnotiformes–Gymnotidea (Vergílio et al., 2013). The most notable aquaculture species  
with semicystic development is Senegalese sole (Garcia-Lopez et al., 2005), which has a  
200 small testis (gonadosomatic index of <0.15%) and very low-volume sperm production all-  
year-round (<80  $\mu$ L per fish) (Garcia-Lopez et al., 2005), which have frustrated aquaculture  
202 practices (Morais et al., 2014). However, it is unclear if low sperm production is an aspect

associated to semicyclic development, as sperm production in other species with semicyclic  
204 development was either not quantified or the species were of a small size (at reproductive  
maturity) and small sperm volumes would be expected. Senegalese sole appear to have low  
206 sperm volume requirements for successful reproduction due to the paired spawning  
behaviour, where the male and female spawn with genital ducts held closely together so that  
208 the released sperm is immediately next to the released eggs (Morais et al., 2014).

## 210 **2.2. Endocrine control**

Hormonal regulation of fish spermatogenesis and spermiation has been described previously  
212 (Billard et al., 1990; Miura & Miura, 2001; Miura et al., 2002; Peñaranda et al., 2010a; Schulz  
& Miura, 2002; Schulz et al., 2010; Vizziano et al., 2008; Watanabe & Onitake, 2008).

214 Spermatogenesis and spermiation are regulated by the two pituitary gonadotropins (GtH),  
namely Follicle Stimulating Hormone (FSH) and Luteinizing Hormone (LH), whose synthesis  
216 and release is controlled by hypothalamic hormones, the major one being gonadotropin-  
releasing hormone (GnRH). Kisspeptin is also a hormone involved in the onset of puberty  
218 and the stimulation of reproductive function, and it has been shown recently to influence both  
GnRH expression in the brain and FSH/LH in the pituitary, and kisspeptin antagonists  
220 reduced sperm volume in spermiating striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*) (Zmora et al., 2015). A  
dopamine inhibition of the stimulatory effect of GnRH exists in some fishes, mainly  
222 freshwater species (Peter et al., 1993). Recently a gonadotropin release inhibiting hormone  
(GnIH) has been identified also in fish, and was shown to be involved in the regulation of  
224 LH/FSH production, though both stimulatory and inhibitory effects have been documented  
(Biran et al., 2014; Moussavi et al., 2013; Tsutsui & Ubuka, 2014; Wang et al., 2015). The  
226 two GtHs regulate the function of the gonads through their action on the production of sex  
steroid hormones (androgens, estrogens and progestins), as well as other growth factors

228 (Miura & Miura, 2001; Schulz et al., 2010). The FSH is mainly regulating the mitotic phase  
of spermatogenesis, while LH is mainly involved in the phase of spermiogenesis and  
230 spermiation (Schulz et al., 2010), though it has been recently shown that spermatogenesis and  
production of viable spermatozoa can take place in the complete absence of LH stimulation in  
232 zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) (Zhang et al., 2015). Before the onset of spermatogenesis,  
spermatogonial stem cell renewal seems to be regulated by 17 $\beta$ -estradiol (E<sub>2</sub>) acting on  
234 Sertoli cells (Miura & Miura, 2003). The androgen 11 ketotestosterone (11-KT) is the major  
regulator of spermatogenesis and spermiogenesis, while 17,20 $\beta$ -dihydroxy-4-pregnen-3-one  
236 (17,20 $\beta$ -P) and, in some species, 17,20 $\beta$ ,21-trihydroxy-4-pregnen-3-one (17,20 $\beta$ ,21-P or 20 $\beta$ -  
S) function as the maturation inducing steroid (MIS) and regulate spermiation and sperm  
238 maturation (Miura & Miura, 2003), at which stage the spermatozoa acquire the capacity for  
forward motility and fertilization upon spawning. Regarding the function of the two GtHs,  
240 LH is mainly involved in the stimulation of androgen production in Leydig cells, whereas  
FSH seems to exert more complex functions in the male testes, stimulating androgen  
242 production from the Leydig cells as well, but also regulating Sertoli cell activity during  
spermatogenesis (Ohta et al., 2007). Other possible functions of FSH in the testes include the  
244 stimulation of Sertoli cell proliferation and differentiation, and the synthesis of certain growth  
factors that act as autocrine and paracrine factors involved in Sertoli cell proliferation and  
246 differentiation, and germ cell development (Miura & Miura, 2001; Schulz & Miura, 2002;  
Schulz et al., 2010).

248

### 2.3. Sperm maturation

250 Sperm maturation (*i.e.* spermiation) is the phase of male gamete development during which  
the spermatozoa change from nonfunctional, flagellated gametes to fully matured  
252 spermatozoa, able to initiate forward motility and fertilize eggs, and includes physiological

but no morphological changes (Schulz et al., 2010). Sperm maturation in fish occurs in the  
254 sperm duct (Miura et al., 1992; Morisawa & Morisawa, 1988), and the progestin 17,20 $\beta$ -P  
together with changes in pH and ionic composition of seminal plasma are involved in this  
256 process (see section 6.2.)

In salmonids and Japanese eel (*Anguilla japonica*) the sperm is not capable of motility  
258 initiation if it is extracted from the testis without passing through the sperm duct, but that can  
be reverted if it is incubated in a solution with HCO<sup>3-</sup> and a high pH (Morisawa & Morisawa,  
260 1988; Ohta et al., 1997a,b). Progestins mediate the process of sperm maturation in male fish  
(Scott et al., 2010). In the Japanese eel, 17,20 $\beta$ -P regulates sperm maturation through the  
262 increase of pH of seminal plasma, which induces an increase of sperm cAMP, allowing its  
motility (Miura et al., 1992). Miura & Miura (2003) proposed a model in the Japanese eel in  
264 which the 17,20 $\beta$ -P acts at the receptor at the spermatozoa membrane and activates the  
carbonic anhydrase, causing an increase of the seminal plasma pH.

266 Depending on the species, 17,20 $\beta$ -P and/or 20 $\beta$ -S have been identified as the active  
progestin(s). However, the limitations in the analysis of these progestins and their low plasma  
268 levels could explain at least in part why some of these progestins have not been identified as  
active steroids. The classically accepted role of progestins is their participation in the control  
270 of gamete maturation, both eggs and spermatozoa, and has been related with the development  
of the hydration mechanisms that are part of the germinal vesicle breakdown in oocytes and  
272 the increase of sperm volume (and decrease of sperm density) during spermiation. Cyclical  
shifts in gonadal steroidogenesis have been described in group-synchronous spawning  
274 species, causing waves of progestins in the plasma, related with each spawning event or with  
peaks of sperm production (Asturiano et al., 2002).

276

### 3. Need for the use of exogenous hormones in male breeders

278 Although spawning induction therapies are more often targeted towards females in  
aquaculture situations, hormonal therapies in male broodstock may be needed for the  
280 stimulation or enhancement of sperm production. Even in species that do produce releasable  
sperm, it is at times necessary or useful to enhance spermiation and increase sperm volume,  
282 for example in order to facilitate sperm collection or increase availability during *in vitro*  
fertilization protocols.

284

#### 3.1. Hormonal induction of spermatogenesis and spermiation

286 Under culture conditions, Japanese and European eel (genus *Anguilla*) males have immature  
testes containing only type A and early-type B spermatogonia (Miura et al., 1991b,c, 2002;  
288 Peñaranda et al., 2010a) and fail to produce any sperm. To continue spermatogenesis,  
spermiogenesis and spermiation, it is necessary to administer a long-term (*i.e.* during several  
290 weeks) hormonal treatment, usually with a GtH (Asturiano et al., 2005, 2006; Pérez et al.,  
2000). This treatment promotes plasma increases of 11-KT, which is the major androgen in  
292 most male fishes, including the freshwater eel (Miura et al., 1991a). Leydig cells are  
considered the major source of androgens, while androgen receptors are mainly expressed in  
294 Sertoli cells and in interstitial cells. However, androgen receptors are also expressed in  
Leydig cells, where androgens change the expression/activity of steroidogenic genes (Miura  
296 et al., 2006), suggesting that androgens develop biological activity via the testicular somatic  
cells (Schulz et al., 2010). Sertoli cells produce different growth factors during  
298 spermatogenesis, and their expression or repression seems to regulate spermatogonial mitosis  
and germ cell differentiation (Baudiffier et al., 2012; Schulz et al., 2010). So, as a result of  
300 the exogenous GtH hormonal treatment, spermatogenesis proceeds and spermiation is  
achieved.

302 Another example of a fish that fails to undergo normal spermatogenesis is the golden  
rabbitfish (*Siganus guttatus*) in Okinawa (Japan), which does not attain full gonadal  
304 maturation during the first spawning season, even though its testes have well-developed  
spermatogenic germ cells, including spermatozoa (Komatsu et al., 2006b). On the contrary in  
306 the Philippines, males and females in captivity are sexually mature at the age of 10 and 12  
months, respectively (Juario et al., 1985). Implants loaded with GnRH agonists (GnRHa)  
308 were used to induce complete maturation of these fish (Komatsu et al., 2006a). The treatment  
promoted spermatogenesis, inducing the development and maturation of spermatogenic germ  
310 cells, and leading to spermiation in under-yearling male testes.

In Siluridae spp, various hormonal therapies –though producing variable results- have  
312 been assessed for their ability to increase seminal volume and produce releasable sperm.  
These include the Mekong catfish (*Pangasius bocourti*) (Cacot et al., 2003), employing  
314 heterologous GtH preparations or GnRHa combined with dopamine antagonists (DA) and the  
African catfish, where several protocols were tested (Viveiros et al., 2002). However, even in  
316 those treatments that enabled collection of sperm by stripping, sperm showed lower quality  
and was of less quantity than that obtained directly from the testis. So, the problem of  
318 collecting sperm by stripping in catfishes could not be solved by the administration of  
exogenous hormones.

320

### 3.2. Enhancement of sperm production in poorly spermiating fishes

322 In general, male fish do complete spermatogenesis in captivity and produce sperm of adequate  
quality (*i.e.* motility characteristics). However, the amount of sperm produced is often  
324 reduced, either due to inadequate rearing conditions (*e.g.* small or shallow tanks not allowing  
proper breeding behavior, lack of salinity changes during the spawning season, excessive  
326 handling during the spawning season, etc.) or as a result of selective breeding for fast growth

(Mylonas & Zohar, 2001b; Zohar, 1996; Zohar & Mylonas, 2001). In these situations, males  
328 produce some sperm in the beginning of the female spawning season, but the amount is  
reduced rapidly and towards the end of the season either no sperm or a very small amount is  
330 available. This phenomenon is problematic in fish species with a rather long female  
spawning season, and with batch spawning females with asynchronous or group-synchronous  
332 ovarian development. An extreme situation is observed in flatfishes, where there is often very  
small sperm production when fish are reared in captivity, especially towards the end of the  
334 reproductive season (Vermeirssen et al., 1998, 2000). This sperm may be of very high  
spermatocrit (>85% spermatozoa) and the spermatozoa may be immotile or the sperm may  
336 not disperse readily in the tank water upon release, resulting in very low fertilization success.

The reason for the low sperm production or the very high spermatocrit (which are due  
338 to low seminal fluid production) has been shown in some species to be the low levels of  
plasma LH during the period of spermiation (Mylonas & Zohar, 2001b). In fact, treatment of  
340 fish with GnRHa or GtH preparations has a marked effect on seminal fluid production  
(Clemens & Grant, 1964; 1965; LaFleur & Thomas, 1991; Takashima et al., 1984).  
342 Furthermore, it has been observed that in many seasonal spawning fishes, the testes at the  
beginning of the spermiation season contain most of the spermatozoa that they have available  
344 for the spawning season (Billard et al., 1995), although they also contain some spermatocysts  
at earlier stages of development. These spermatocysts may undergo further development and  
346 produce more spermatozoa during the spawning season, especially in response to exogenous  
hormonal treatment (Rainis et al., 2003). So, the poor production of sperm by some species is  
348 due to (a) low seminal fluid production, which prevents the release of the fully developed  
spermatozoa from the testes or (b) the lack or low rate of further spermatogenesis and  
350 production of spermatozoa during the spawning season. Therefore, exogenous hormones may  
stimulate further the process of spermatogenesis, although the main effect may be mainly an



352 increased seminal fluid production, which is necessary to allow the spermatozoa to be  
“washed” out of the testes (Fig. 1).

354

### 3.3. Synchronization of sperm production to ovulation for *in vitro* fertilization

356 The practice of *in vitro* fertilization (also called artificial fertilization or strip spawning) is a  
fairly simple husbandry procedure, where the gametes are removed manually from each sex  
358 and fertilized *in vitro* as has been already described and reviewed (Duncan et al., 2013;  
Mylonas et al., 2010; Urbanyi et al., 2009). This practice is common in the mass production  
360 of freshwater species (Salmonids and Cyprinids, among others), and there is interest in  
applying it to marine fishes in order to facilitate the genetic crosses required for selective  
362 breeding programs (Fauvel et al., 1999, 2012). The most difficult aspect of *in vitro*  
fertilization is the prediction of ovulation time after hormonal therapy, since eggs become  
364 overripe after ovulation and lose their fertilization potential (Bromage & Roberts, 1995;  
Duncan et al., 2013; Mylonas et al., 2010; Urbanyi et al., 2009). Therefore, most research –  
366 and thus scientific literature and reviews- have so far focused on females. However, an  
essential prerequisite of *in vitro* fertilization is that maximal sperm production in the males is  
368 synchronized with the time of ovulation and the collection of the ripe eggs from the females.  
As explained earlier in sections 3.1 and 3.2, exogenous hormones may be needed for some  
370 fishes to ensure that adequate volumes of sperm are produced during the reproductive season.  
Especially in *in vitro* fertilization applications, hormonal therapies must be timed  
372 appropriately in order to ensure that maximal sperm production coincides with ovulation. The  
time of availability of sperm after the application of exogenous hormones depends on the type  
374 and method of hormone used, the species and temperature (these aspects will be considered in  
section 5). In males, the latency time from hormone application to spermiation is generally  
376 shorter than the latency time in females from hormone application to ovulation. For example,

European seabass males produced significantly higher sperm production 2 days after GnRHa  
378 application (Sorbera et al., 1996) compared to females that ovulated 3-4 days after GnRHa  
application (Mylonas et al., 2003). Therefore, when both sexes must be induced with  
380 exogenous hormones to undergo spermiation/ovulation for *in vitro* fertilization, the therapies  
must be timed appropriately in males and females, in order to ensure maximum sperm  
382 availability at the time of ovulation. This appropriate timing in the case of males is more  
flexible, because the spermatozoa released at spermiation are stored in the lumen of the testes  
384 (Grier, 1993; Grier & Taylor, 1998) until spontaneously released during spawning or  
artificially collected by stripping. Therefore, maximum sperm availability actually extends for  
386 a period after maximum spermiation has been achieved. In many species these characteristics  
facilitate the management of mixed sex stocks, and protocols have been developed where both  
388 sexes are treated with exogenous hormones at the same time to ensure maximum sperm  
availability before and at the time of ovulation.

390

#### **4. Environmental factors influencing spermatogenesis and spermiation**

392 Environmental factors (*e.g.* photoperiod, temperature, nutrition, lunar cycle, ocean currents,  
rains, etc.), as well as social context determine the timing and progress of reproductive  
394 development and so have a critical influence on spermatogenesis and the availability of  
spermatozoa for release during spawning (Bromage et al., 2001; Mañanos et al., 2009). When  
396 these environmental factors are not optimal, reproductive dysfunctions compromise  
gametogenesis and, therefore, sperm production (Duncan et al., 2013; Mylonas et al., 2010;  
398 Zohar & Mylonas, 2001). The environmental factors that improve sperm production by  
avoiding dysfunctions are particular to each species and can be considered limiting factors  
400 that should be met to ensure the progress of gametogenesis. These factors are (in order of  
significance): holding conditions > nutrition > environment during gametogenesis >

402 environment during spawning (Duncan et al., 2013). The holding environment must avoid the  
adverse effects of stress on reproductive development (Schreck, 2010) by maintaining high  
404 fish welfare (Duncan et al., 2013). For example, rainbow trout that were left briefly without  
water at random points in the 9 months before the reproductive period had reduced sperm  
406 density compared to undisturbed controls (Campbell et al., 1992). An adequate diet is also  
essential to ensure the production of high quality sperm in the quantities necessary (see  
408 reviews by Fernández-Palacios et al., 2011; Izquierdo et al., 2001) and sperm production has  
been improved by varying the content of dietary poly-unsaturated fatty acids (PUFA,  
410 Eicosapentaenoic, EPA; Docosahexaenoic, DHA and Arachidonic acid, ARA) and anti-  
oxidants (vitamin E and selenium) (Asturiano et al., 2001; Beirão et al., 2015). Temperature  
412 during spermatogenesis or the spawning period has been shown to affect sperm volume and  
motility, and spermatozoa velocity and morphology (Adriaenssens et al., 2012; Breckels et  
414 al., 2014; Breckels & Neff, 2013; Gallego et al., 2012b; Williot et al., 2000).  
Consequently, temperature has been used in some fishes to predict the spawning period  
416 (Baynes et al., 1993; Rothbard & Yaron, 1995) and to manipulate an advance, delay or  
elongation of the spawning period (Brauhn, 1971; Hall et al., 2002; Lang & Tiersch, 2007).

418 Social environment is another factor that affects sperm production, and various social  
parameters have been demonstrated to affect sperm quality parameters in different species.  
420 These parameters include the presence of females (Cabrita et al., 2010), hierarchical position  
of dominant versus subordinate fish (Leach & Montgomerie, 2000; Rudolfson et al., 2008a;  
422 Vladić, 2001), presence of dominant fish on subordinate fish (Kustan et al., 2012), number of  
subordinate fish together or increasing competition for female (Candolin & Reynolds, 2011;  
424 Pilastro et al., 2002; Stoltz & Neff, 2006). Therefore, the environmental parameters that can  
be controlled in the culture system should be adjusted to provide optimal conditions for sperm

426 production and once this has been achieved then the need for further measures (*i.e.* exogenous  
hormones) to improve sperm production can be assessed.

428

## 5. Hormonal methods to enhance sperm production

430 As with artificial induction of ovulation in fish, hormonal therapies for the enhancement  
of spermiation and sperm production have been tried and employed in aquaculture before the  
432 exact nature of the endocrine control of spermatogenesis and spermiation was known (see  
reviews by Mylonas & Zohar, 2001a; Zohar & Mylonas, 2001). Later on, evidence had  
434 suggested that the diminished sperm production could be the result of low LH release from  
the pituitary during the spermiation period (Mylonas et al., 1997a,b, 1998b; Mylonas &  
436 Zohar, 2001b). Although recent data indicates that FSH alone may be able to induce  
spermatogenesis and spermiation in some fishes (Chu et al., 2015; Mazón et al., 2014; Zhang  
438 et al., 2015), methods to enhance spermiation have traditionally focused on the use of  
exogenous LH preparations that act directly at the level of the gonad, or the use of GnRHAs --  
440 with or without a DA-- that release the endogenous LH stores from the pituitary (Fig. 1). The  
endogenous LH, in turn, acts at the level of the gonad to induce steroidogenesis, resulting  
442 mainly in spermiation and seminal fluid production –and thus the increase in sperm volume.  
The hormonal treatments in some cases also induce the process of spermatogenesis, and  
444 spermiogenesis and spermiation, but this effect may be through stimulation of other hormones  
(Schulz et al., 2010), especially in the case of using GnRHAs.

446

### 5.1. GtH preparations of piscine origin

448 The injection of pituitary extracts (PE) from mature fish into breeders of the same or different  
species –referred to as “hypophysation”- was the first method used to control reproductive

450 function in aquaculture fishes (Von Ihering, 1937) and has been used widely in a variety of  
species, especially cyprinids (see reviews by Mañanos et al., 2009; Zohar & Mylonas, 2001).

452 Pituitary extracts contain mainly LH and less FSH, since the pituitaries are collected from fish  
during the spawning season, and stimulate oocyte maturation and enhance spermiation.

454 Hypophysation is still used extensively today, especially in developing countries or remote  
areas where access to expensive purified hormones is limited. The advantages of this  
456 approach (apart from being inexpensive and easy to prepare) include (a) rapid action, as the  
exogenous LH acts directly on the gonad, (b) it does not require an active pituitary containing  
458 large amounts of LH and (c) it may be more effective in stimulating gametogenesis as well, as  
it contains also FSH and other hormones that may have some involvement in gametogenesis.

460 On the other hand, the use of PEs has significant drawbacks. The most evident disadvantage  
is the great difficulty of calculating the doses of administered hormones due to the great  
462 variability in the LH content of the pituitaries, which depends on the sex and reproductive  
stage of the donor fish at the time of sampling. In addition, PEs are a heterogeneous mix of  
464 different compounds than can have adverse physiological effects, as well as cause  
immunoreactions –due to the large molecular weight of the GtHs, especially in species  
466 needing long-term hormonal treatments with repeated administration of these extracts.  
Finally, PEs can transmit diseases to very expensive and genetically selected broodstock.

468 Thus, the chromatographic purification or partial purification of LH from pituitaries of mature  
fish was the following approach, and for some time salmon (*Oncorhynchus spp*) and carp  
470 (Cyprinidae family) GtHs have been commercialized, although species-specificity of fish LH  
can limit their use only to phylogenetically-related fishes.

472 Still, males of a variety of fish species have been treated with PEs, in order to enhance  
spermiation (Table 1). For example, carp PE (CPE, 1.5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> body weight, b.w.) enhanced  
474 sperm production 1 d after treatment in common tench (*Tinca tinca*) (Linhart et al., 1995) and

higher sperm volume and motility was obtained from common bream (*Abramis brama*)  
476 treated with homologous PE (2.5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) or CPE (2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) (Kucharczyk et al., 1997).  
Male European catfish (*Silurus glanis*) were treated with CPE at a dose of 5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and  
478 injected at four times (Day 0, 6, 12 and 18) resulting in higher sperm volumes after the 3<sup>rd</sup>  
treatment (Linhart et al., 2004). African catfish males were treated with CPE or *Clarias* PE,  
480 but even in those treatments that resulted in sperm collection using manual stripping, sperm  
volume was less and quality was lower compared to sperm obtained directly from the testis  
482 (Viveiros et al., 2002). Sperm volume of pejerrey (*Odontesthes bonariensis*) was increased  
by the injection of 30 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> CPE (13.5-fold increase) or salmon PE (12.8-fold increase),  
484 with sperm concentration remaining unchanged as either more spermatozoa were produced in  
response to the treatment or more became available for stripping (Miranda et al., 2005).  
486 Spermatozoa motility and fertilization success of sperm from hormone treated males were not  
statistically different compared to controls (Miranda et al., 2005).

488 In South American fishes, a single injection of CPE (dose not reported) was used to  
improve the sperm quality of streaked prochilod (*Prochilodus lineatus*) (Viveiros & Godinho,  
490 2009; Viveiros et al., 2010). Ovulation and spermiation of curimatã-pacu (*Prochilodus*  
*argenteus*) was induced with CPE (Arantes et al., 2011) and out-of-season sperm production  
492 was induced in pirapitinga (*Piaractus brachypomus*) after a single intramuscular injection  
(Nascimento et al., 2010). Finally in the tambaqui (*Colossoma macropomum*), intramuscular  
494 injections of 2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of CPE increased sperm volume and decreased viscosity (Maria et al.,  
2015), as a routine method for Characiformes (Viveiros & Godinho, 2009). Also, various  
496 studies have been carried out to induce spermiation and improve the sperm cryopreservation  
techniques in several species of the genus *Brycon* (Characidae family) that comprises more  
498 than 70 fish species distributed in Central and South America. A dose of 4 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> CPE was  
used for yamú (*Brycon amazonicus*) males (Velasco-Santamaría et al., 2006), and for

500 evaluating cooling and freezing effects on piracanjuba (*Brycon orbignyanus*) sperm (Maria et  
al., 2006). A single intramuscular dose of 5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of CPE has been used to increase sperm  
502 volume and decrease viscosity in already running males of pirapitinga-do-sul (*Brycon  
opalinus*) (Orfão et al., 2011; Viveiros et al., 2012a), while a lower dose of 3 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of CPE  
504 was effective in the case of piabanha (*Brycon insignis*) (Viveiros et al., 2012b).

Finally, CPE has been used in various sturgeons, and a single dose as low as 1 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>  
506 was effective to obtain sperm (with 77% motility) 24 h later in male shortnose sturgeon  
(*Acipenser brevirostrum*) (Horváth et al., 2005). Male sterlet (*Acipenser ruthenus*) were  
508 treated with a single dose of CPE at 4 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> to evaluate the effect of repeated stripping on  
sperm production, its fertilization ability and cryo-resistance (Dzyuba et al., 2012). The  
510 highest numbers of spermatozoa per individual were collected 15-42 h post CPE treatment;  
the sperm motility ranged between 26-100% depending on the stripping sequences; higher  
512 total volumes were obtained making sequential sperm collections, and fertilization was 90-  
100% with fresh sperm and 13-76% using frozen-thawed samples. In the same species, CPE  
514 injection of 4 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> was used to evaluate the post-cryopreservation effect of different  
cryoprotectants (methanol and DMSO) on the acrosome of the spermatozoa (Psenicka et al.,  
516 2008), and to test different techniques to measure the changes on the spermatozoa volume  
during the motility period, in comparison with other species (Bondarenko et al., 2013).  
518 Finally in the beluga (*Huso huso*), a study of the morphology and ultrastructure of  
spermatozoa in comparison with related sturgeons was undertaken after treating males with a  
520 single injection of 4 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of CPE (Linhartova et al., 2013). The study concluded that  
spermatozoan ultrastructure and morphology were similar among sturgeon species, and  
522 beluga may be closely related to the genus *Acipenser*, even though it has been assigned to the  
genus *Huso*.

524 So, PEs and the hypophysation technique is used widely in various fishes, especially in  
developing countries where access to expensive purified hormones is limited, whereas  
526 pituitaries from mature fish are easily available. However, most of these works are not  
reported in the peer-reviewed literature, but can be found as conference abstracts, PhD theses,  
528 and manuals or books written in local languages.

## 530 **5.2. Recombinant GtHs of piscine origin**

Recently, studies have examined the production and use of recombinant (re) LH and FSH of  
532 some fish species. Recombinant proteins are produced by introducing the protein DNA  
sequence into a plasmid, which transfers the sequence into cultured cells of another organism,  
534 referred to as the “expression system”. Large glycoproteins, such as GtHs that require  
glycosylation, are produced in yeast, mold, insect or mammalian cell expression systems, to  
536 ensure correct glycosylation. Incorrect glycosylation reduces *in vivo* half-life and biological  
activity/receptor binding of the reGtH and for these reasons mammalian cells are the most  
538 popular for producing recombinant mammalian glycosylated proteins (Demain & Vaishnav,  
2009). Homologous reFSH and reLH have been produced for zebrafish (So et al., 2005),  
540 channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*) (Zmora et al., 2007), goldfish (*Carassius auratus*)  
(Hayakawa et al., 2008), Japanese eel (Kobayashi et al., 2010), European seabass (Molés et  
542 al., 2011), Senegalese sole (Chauvigné et al., 2012), cinnamon clownfish (*Amphiprion*  
*melanopus*) (Kim et al., 2012) and European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) (Peñaranda et al., 2015).  
544 All these reGtHs were shown to stimulate GtH receptors *in vitro*. Assays *in vitro* found that  
homologous reFSH of zebrafish (So et al., 2005) and Senegalese sole (Chauvigné et al., 2012)  
546 stimulated only the FSH receptors, whilst reLH was promiscuous and stimulated both FSH  
and LH receptors. However, the *in vitro* effect of reGtHs was not always the same as the *in*  
548 *vivo* effect. In the Japanese eel reGtH stimulated spermatogenesis *in vitro*, but had little effect



*in vivo* (Kazeto et al., 2008). On the other hand, reGtH administered *in vivo* to male  
550 Senegalese sole (Chauvigné et al., 2012) and European seabass (Mazón et al., 2013, 2014)  
stimulated testosterone (T) and 11-KT release, and reFSH applied *in vivo* induced the early  
552 stages of spermatogenesis in immature Japanese eel (Kamei et al., 2006) and immature  
European seabass (Mazón et al., 2014).

554 Spermiation was enhanced in mature goldfish with the application of reGtH  
(Hayakawa et al., 2008; Kobayashi et al., 2006). Mature goldfish injected with a single  
556 injection of 20  $\mu\text{l g}^{-1}$  of superworm hemolymph containing either reFSH or reLH increased  
sperm volume >4X after 24 h compared to control fish. Full spermatogenesis and the  
558 production of spermatozoa were induced with reGtH in Japanese eel (Hayakawa et al., 2009)  
and European eel (Peñaranda et al., 2015). Japanese eel were treated with superworm  
560 hemolymph containing undetermined concentrations of goldfish reGtH. Treatments (volume  
of hemolymph per gram of eel) of either 3  $\mu\text{l g}^{-1}$  reLH, or 3  $\mu\text{l g}^{-1}$  reFSH + 3  $\mu\text{l g}^{-1}$  reLH  
562 administered eight consecutive times at 2-5 day intervals induced complete spermatogenesis  
with the production of spermatozoa (Hayakawa et al., 2009). However, spermatozoa were not  
564 released from the spermatocysts into the lumen as would be expected and as observed with  
other GtH therapies. More recently, full spermatogenesis and the production of spermatozoa  
566 with spermiation into the lumen was achieved using homologous reFSH and reLH  
(synthesized with Chinese hamster ovary-CHO expression system by Rara Avis Biotec S.L.,  
568 Valencia, Spain) in European eel (Peñaranda et al., 2015). The treatment that induced  
spermatogenesis and spermiation was weekly injections during six weeks of reFSH at a dose  
570 of 2.8  $\mu\text{g fish}^{-1}$  combined with increasing doses of reLH during the last three weeks as  
follows: 1  $\mu\text{g fish}^{-1}$  in week four, 2  $\mu\text{g fish}^{-1}$  in week five and 6  $\mu\text{g fish}^{-1}$  in week six. The  
572 sperm quality was variable and not all the spermiating males produced samples with high  
sperm quality. However, the sperm had motilities  $\geq 50\%$ , densities around  $7 \times 10^9$  cells  $\text{ml}^{-1}$

574 and sperm volumes of approximately 0.4 ml. Thus, for the first time in teleosts, homologous  
reGTHs have produced good quality sperm, demonstrating that the half-life of these  
576 hormones is long enough to induce *in vivo* effects (Kobayashi et al., 2006). A different  
approach using this type of biotechnology was to inject a plasmid with the LH sequence  
578 directly into the muscle of mature European seabass (Mazón et al., 2013). Mature males were  
administered two injections on day 0 and 3 of 200 µg fish<sup>-1</sup> of plasmid, and sperm was  
580 collected on five occasions at weekly intervals from day 2 onwards. Circulating LH in  
plasmid-injected fish was significantly higher than in control fish. Total sperm produced and  
582 sperm density was doubled by the plasmid treatment compared to control groups, and was  
similar to a group injected with reLH. The use of reGtH clearly has great promise for future  
584 applications in aquaculture, but there remains considerable work to identify the most adequate  
expression system to produce biologically active reGtH with a long half-life.

586

### 5.3. GtH preparations of mammalian or human origin

588 A wide range of GtH preparations of mammalian or human origin have been tested in some  
fishes, including mammalian FSH and LH, ovine LH, Pregnant Mare Serum Gonadotropin  
590 (PMSG) and human Chorionic Gonadotropin (hCG) (Donaldson & Hunter, 1983). However,  
only hCG –which is purified from the urine of pregnant women- has been used routinely in  
592 aquaculture. The comparative success of the use of hCG in stimulating increases in sperm  
volume, compared to the lack of success of other mammalian GtH preparations (Donaldson &  
594 Hunter, 1983) has resulted in just a few isolated reports on the use of other mammalian GtHs  
(Billard, 1977). The advantages of hCG include (a) a very rapid response, as it acts directly  
596 on the gonad –similarly to CPE, (b) world-wide availability due to its use in human Assisted  
Reproductive Technologies, (c) sterile, pure and bioassayed activity and (d) longer half-life in  
598 circulation compared to pituitary GtHs (Zohar & Mylonas, 2001). A drawback of hCG that is

often quoted by aquaculturists is that the treatment becomes less effective with repeated use  
600 (*i.e.* over repeated reproductive seasons) due to the development of an immune response.  
However, studies examining the antigenicity of hCG have produced contradictory results  
602 (Zohar & Mylonas, 2001). For example, hCG antibodies were observed in circulation in  
striped bass after a single treatment of hCG (Zohar & Mylonas, 2001), but no antibodies  
604 against hCG were detected in silver carp (*Hypophthalmichthys molitrix*) and goldfish, in the  
latter even after three repeated treatments (Van Der Kraak et al., 1989).

606 The first studies with hCG administered a dose from 100 to 10,000 IU kg<sup>-1</sup> and resulted  
in a dose dependent increase in the occurrence of spermiating goldfish (Yamazaki &  
608 Donaldson, 1968). This early success, in addition to the long half-life of hCG in circulation  
(Ohta & Tanaka, 1997; Zohar & Mylonas, 2001) has resulted in the use of hCG to enhance  
610 sperm production in a wide range of fish species (Table 2). In all species used, increased  
sperm volume may be achieved after a single injection of hCG and within a period of a few  
612 hours, but the effect is rather short lived and most studies found higher sperm volume for a  
period of only 1-2 days after administration. In the Japanese eel, a single hCG injection can  
614 induce the whole process of spermatogenesis resulting in sperm production (Miura et al.,  
1991b), but only weekly administrations guarantee high volume and adequate quality for *in*  
616 *vitro* fertilization (Asturiano et al., 2006). The most common dose applied in fishes is 1000  
IU kg<sup>-1</sup>, but doses may range from 150 IU kg<sup>-1</sup> in pikeperch (*Sander lucioperca*) (Falahatkar  
618 & Poursaeid, 2014) and 312 IU kg<sup>-1</sup> in pejerrey (Miranda et al., 2005) to 10,000 IU kg<sup>-1</sup> in  
goldfish (Yamazaki & Donaldson, 1968) and 50,000 IU kg<sup>-1</sup> in silver perch (*Leiopotherapon*  
620 *plumbeus*) (Denusta et al., 2014). When the latter extremes are not considered, the mean ( $\pm$   
SD) hCG dose applied across all remaining species is 1200  $\pm$  458 IU kg<sup>-1</sup>.

622 Recombinant hCG (rehCG) is also available commercially, but has not been used much  
in fish so far. In a recent trial comparing hCG and rehCG in the European eel, rehCG was

624 more effective in increasing sperm volume, density, motility and kinetic features, throughout  
most weeks of the treatment (Gallego et al., 2012b).

626

#### **5.4. GnRHa injections and delivery systems**

628 The commercial synthesis and widespread use of GnRHa for human medicine (Ulloa-Aguirre  
& Timossi, 2000), made a number of different GnRHAs available for spawning induction  
630 therapies in fish. Compared to the use of GtH preparations, GnRHa offers some important  
advantages. For example, GnRHa treatments are less species-specific, due to the high  
632 structural similarity of native GnRHs among fishes (Lethimonier et al., 2004). Being of  
synthetic nature, a GnRHa offers absolute biosecurity against disease transmission threats  
634 compared to PEs, and a better calculation of effective doses. The most important advantage is  
that GnRHa acts at a higher level of the brain-pituitary-gonad axis and stimulates the release  
636 of the endogenous GtHs (mainly LH, but also FSH), as well as other pituitary hormones that  
may be involved in the regulation of reproduction (Cyr & Eales, 1996; Le Gac et al., 1993;  
638 Negatu et al., 1998; Weber et al., 1995). In species such as cyprinids (Yaron, 1995), catfishes  
(Brzuska, 2001) and mullets (Aizen et al., 2005), where there is a strong dopaminergic  
640 inhibition of GtH release, GnRHa treatments are usually combined with DA (*e.g.*  
domperidone, pimozone, reserpine or metoclopramide). Another advantage of GnRHa is that  
642 it is a small decapeptide with a low molecular weight and is effective in  $\mu\text{g}$  doses, enabling its  
incorporation in controlled-release delivery systems (Mylonas & Zohar, 2001a). Various  
644 GnRHAs are available that are based on the native structure of either the mammalian or  
salmon GnRH, all modified structurally with synthetic amino acid substitutions at positions 6  
646 and/or 10 of the peptide (Zohar & Mylonas, 2001), which makes them more active and  
resistant to enzymatic degradation (Zohar et al., 1990).

648           The potential of long-term administration of GnRHa via delivery systems was  
recognized from the early beginnings of commercial aquaculture (Fontenele, 1955). This is  
650 because oocyte maturation and spermiation often require prolonged hormonal treatments,  
given in multiple injections (Dabrowski et al., 1994; Slater et al., 1995). Handling stress from  
652 such repetitive manipulations may be damaging to the brood fish or affect negatively their  
reproductive performance (Schreck, 2010). This may be especially true when broodfish are  
654 very large (*e.g.* groupers, amberjacks or tunas) or kept outdoors --in ponds or sea cages  
(Corriero et al., 2009; Mylonas et al., 2007)– and it is also very time consuming and labor  
656 intensive to capture and inject the fish with multiple treatments. Therefore, GnRHa-delivery  
systems have been used extensively in the last decades, mainly for controlling oocyte  
658 maturation in females, but also for enhancing spermiation in males (Mañanos et al., 2009;  
Mylonas & Zohar, 2001a; Mylonas et al., 2010).

660           The available GnRHa delivery systems may be in the form of solid implantable pellets  
of cholesterol (Weil & Crim, 1983), Ethylene-Vinyl Acetate (EVAc) (Mylonas et al., 2007;  
662 Zohar, 1996) or other material (*e.g.* “Ovopel”) (Horváth et al., 1997), or in the form of  
biodegradable microspheres (Mylonas et al., 1995). Both solid/implantable and  
664 microspheric/injectable systems have been used effectively in controlling reproductive  
function, each method having specific advantages. For example, the injectable systems can  
666 be administered to fish of great variations in size without any modification of the hormone  
preparation. On the other hand, solid implants are easier to use by aquaculturists in the field,  
668 but they offer less accuracy on treatment dose when breeders are of different sizes. Delivery  
systems for GnRHa may release for periods of 1 to 5 weeks, depending on the matrix type and  
670 water temperature (Crim et al., 1988; Mañanos et al., 2002; Mylonas et al., 1998a; Mylonas &  
Zohar, 2001a; Vermeirssen et al., 2004; Zohar, 1996).

672 As mentioned above, a single injection of GnRHa has a short-term effect on the  
reproductive function, due to the transient increase in plasma LH, which lasts for a few hours  
674 or days. For example, in the barbel (*Barbus barbus*) a single injection of GnRHa (with a DA)  
increased sperm volume for a period of only 12 to 24 h after treatment (Cejko et al., 2014).  
676 Similarly in the golden rabbitfish, a single injection of GnRHa induced an increase in sperm  
volume for only 24 h, but after 48 h from treatment, spermiation was similar to non-treated  
678 controls (Garcia, 1991). Repeated weekly injections of GnRHa in the same species could  
sustain elevations in sperm volume for 4 weeks, underlining the potential of controlled-  
680 release delivery systems for a more long-term stimulation of sperm production (Garcia, 1993).  
Longer stimulation was effected in the European seabass, where a single GnRHa injection  
682 induced a significant increase in plasma LH for 3 days (Mañanos et al., 2002), which was  
associated with an increase in expressible sperm for 3 days (Rainis et al., 2003) or 7 days  
684 (Sorbera et al., 1996). After plasma LH levels returned to pretreatment levels, the amount of  
sperm produced was similar to non-treated controls (Mañanos et al., 2002). Examples of the  
686 use of GnRHa injections for the enhancement of spermiation are given in Table 3.

On the other hand, the use of controlled-release delivery systems for GnRHa can result  
688 in a very long-term stimulation of sperm production for up to many weeks (Table 3). For  
example, in yellowtail flounder (*Pleuronectes ferrugineus*) both GnRHa implants and  
690 microspheres induced sustained elevations in sperm production for >29 days (Clearwater &  
Crim, 1998). Similarly in the European seabass, GnRHa implants and microspheres induced  
692 significantly elevated plasma LH levels for 28-42 days after treatment (Mañanos et al., 2002),  
resulting in the collection of significantly higher sperm volumes for at least 35 days after  
694 treatment (Sorbera et al., 1996). In fact, the amount of sperm produced after 35 days was  
almost 2X higher than the amount produced prior to the GnRHa treatment, even after repeated  
696 weekly stripping of all expressible sperm. In another study with European seabass, sperm

production was stimulated for only 3 days after a GnRHa injection, whereas GnRHa implants  
698 enhanced spermiation for at least 27 days (Fig. 2). Finally, in striped bass both GnRHa  
microspheres and implants enhanced sperm production for at least 14 days, with treated fish  
700 producing >4X as much sperm than non-treated controls over the course of the study  
(Mylonas et al., 1997b). So, it is clear from all the studies undertaken so far, that GnRHa  
702 delivery systems offer an important tool for the long-term enhancement of sperm production  
in aquaculture (Table 3).

704

## **6. Other approaches to enhance sperm production**

706 In addition to the use of hormones administered to male breeders in order to induce  
spermatogenesis and enhance sperm production, there are also other approaches that have  
708 been employed in some fishes. These methods may stimulate spermiation or improve sperm  
quality.

710

### **6.1. Pheromone applications**

712 The importance of pheromones in fish reproduction is generally accepted and often  
insinuated, but perhaps surprisingly the identification of pheromones and the mechanisms of  
714 production/reception and biological function have been described in just a few species, such  
as the goldfish (DeFraipont & Sorensen, 1993; Stacey et al., 1989), masu salmon  
716 (*Oncorhynchus masou*) (Yambe et al., 2006) and Mozambique tilapia (*Oreochromis*  
*mossambicus*) (Keller-Costa et al., 2014). In Mozambique tilapia the male is the signaling-  
718 sex, whilst in goldfish and masu salmon the female was identified as the emitter of  
pheromones, and the male as the receptor. However, of these three species only male goldfish  
720 were described to increase GtH secretion, sperm production and motility in response to the  
female MIS that functions also as a pheromone (*i.e.* 17,20 $\beta$ -P). Holding male goldfish in a

722 flow through aquarium with a concentration of  $10^{-10}$  M declining to  $10^{-11}$  M of 17,20 $\beta$ -P  
increased sperm volume >3X (from 22  $\mu$ g prior to exposure to 77  $\mu$ g after exposure)  
724 compared to 21  $\mu$ g of sperm in control fish exposed to the ethanol carrier (DeFraipont &  
Sorensen, 1993). It has been shown that female goldfish produce and release 17,20 $\beta$ -P (also  
726 androstenedione and 17,20 $\beta$ -P-sulfate) in the pre-ovulatory period and electro-olfactogram  
recordings (EOGs) have shown that males can detect low pmol concentrations of these  
728 substances (Sorensen et al., 1999; Sorensen & Stacey, 2004). During ovulation, females  
produce and release prostaglandin F<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  (PGF), which stimulates male spawning behavior and  
730 spawning. It is also interesting to note that sperm from male goldfish exposed to 17,20 $\beta$ -P  
fertilized more eggs than sperm from control males (Zheng et al., 1997). This was observed  
732 both with *in vivo* competition between two males for an ovulated female and with *in vitro*  
fertilization using the stripped sperm.

734 Following this work, 17,20 $\beta$ -P has been used to increase sperm production and motility  
in common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) and Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*). Precocious male  
736 common carp increased significantly their sperm volume (4X) when exposed to a  $5 \times 10^{-10}$  M  
concentration of 17,20 $\beta$ -P (Stacey et al., 1994) and Nile tilapia exposed to a  $5 \times 10^{-9}$  M  
738 concentration of 17,20 $\beta$ -P increased significantly their sperm volume (2X) and motility  
duration compared to controls and pre-exposure values (Pinheiro et al., 2003). In salmonids,  
740 PGF have been identified as probable pheromones that stimulate sperm production. Both  
Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) (Moore & Waring, 1996) and brown trout (*Salmo trutta*)  
742 (Moore et al., 2002) mature parr were shown to increase significantly (2X) sperm volume  
when exposed to  $10^{-8}$  M concentration of either PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  or PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$</sub> . These studies demonstrate  
744 that pheromones enhanced significantly sperm production and suggest that pheromones  
require further research especially in species that produce small amounts of sperm even in the



746 wild, since behavior and pheromones may be the mechanism that increases sperm volume in  
the moment that sperm is required for spawning.

748

## 6.2. Hormones added to sperm *in vitro* to increase sperm quality

750 After spermiation, spermatozoa undergo maturation (or capacitation), a process that renders  
them capable of forward motility upon ejaculation and competent to fertilize an oocyte  
752 (Schulz et al., 2010). The process is regulated through the actions of the MIS (17,20 $\beta$ -P or  
20 $\beta$ -S). Their physiological roles have been explored in the last two decades (reviewed by  
754 Asturiano et al., 2002; Scott et al., 2010) and a two phase process of maturation has been  
proposed in the females of species where both hormones are found (Mylonas et al., 1998a),  
756 with a first phase (early maturation) controlled by 17,20 $\beta$ -P, followed by a second phase (final  
maturation) in which 20 $\beta$ -S predominates (Asturiano et al., 2000). The existence of several  
758 types of progestin membrane receptors in fish cells has been documented and its presence has  
been related with oocyte and testis/sperm function (reviewed by Morini et al., 2014; Thomas  
760 et al., 2004). The binding of progestin to spermatozoa membrane progestin receptors (mPR $\alpha$ ,  
mainly localized on the mid piece of the spermatozoa) results in rapid activation of  
762 intracellular signaling pathways by a non-genomic mechanism involving some G proteins,  
causing an increase in cAMP production and of intracellular calcium levels, and improving  
764 spermatozoa motility (Tubbs & Thomas, 2009). The *in vitro* progestin stimulation of sperm  
motility has been described in different sciaenid species (Tubbs & Thomas, 2008), such as the  
766 spotted sea trout (*Cynoscion nebulosus*), Atlantic croaker (*Micropogonias undulatus*) and red  
drum (*Sciaenops ocellatus*), and in the southern flounder (*Paralichthys lethostigma*) (Tan et  
768 al., 2014).

Sperm motility has been improved by incubating sperm samples with 20 $\beta$ -S (10-200  
770 nM) for 1-5 min in the spotted sea trout (Tubbs & Thomas, 2008), the Atlantic croaker

(Thomas et al., 2004) or the southern flounder (Tubbs et al., 2011). In the Atlantic croaker,  
772 sperm motility increases were obtained out of the peak of the spawning season with such  
treatment (Thomas et al., 2005), a method that could be used to obtain high quality sperm for  
774 longer periods. And in the southern flounder, 20 $\beta$ -S treatment caused an increase of  
spermatozoa motility and fertilization capacity (Tan et al., 2014). Moreover, a single GnRH $\alpha$   
776 administration (100  $\mu$ g kg<sup>-1</sup>) induced an increase of the concentration of membrane mPR $\alpha$   
receptors that was correlated with higher sperm motility and fertilization success (Tubbs et  
778 al., 2011). Altogether, these results underline that *in vitro* treatment of fish sperm with 20 $\beta$ -S  
has a good potential for practical applications in aquaculture production or research, in cases  
780 where *in vitro* fertilization is used.

## 782 **7. Effect of hormonal therapies on sperm quality**

While treatment of male breeders with exogenous hormones enhances consistently sperm  
784 production (*i.e.* volume) in fish, the effect of the treatment on various sperm quality  
parameters is variable. For the majority of examples, hormonal treatments do not affect  
786 sperm quality or they reduce spermatozoa density (Table 4) through the stimulation of  
testicular hydration and the production of seminal fluid. In some cases –such as cultured  
788 flatfishes that produce very thick sperm in captivity (up to 80% spermatocrit), the increase in  
seminal fluid production induced by the hormonal therapy results also in an improvement in  
790 sperm quality parameters (Vermeirssen et al., 2004), as explained below.

### 792 **7.1. Changes in spermatozoa density**

A common result of all hormonal therapies for the enhancement of spermiation is the  
794 hydration of the testes through the production of seminal fluid (Clemens & Grant, 1965),  
which is effected by the MIS (Scott et al., 2010). The increased fluid content of the testes

796 allows the stripping of more spermatozoa, which are often already present within the testes  
(*i.e.* intra-testicular sperm) but cannot be released. As a result, hormonal therapies “wash out”  
798 more available spermatozoa from the testes, and over time the spermatozoa density of the  
collected sperm decreases significantly (Table 4). In Atlantic halibut (*Hippoglossus*  
800 *hippoglossus*) (Vermeirssen et al., 2004), sperm volume decreases towards the end of the  
spawning season, with a concomitant dramatic increase in viscosity, making it difficult to  
802 collect sperm. Treatment at this time with GnRHa in controlled-release implants increases  
seminal fluid production –through increases in testicular MIS synthesis (Vermeirssen et al.,  
804 2000), which results in a significant increase in sperm volume, and a decrease in sperm  
density for a period of 40 days (Vermeirssen et al., 2000, 2004). The resulting reductions in  
806 spermatozoa density in various fishes range between 20-300%, but coupled with the  
significant increases in expressible sperm, the end result is that there is an increase in total  
808 number of spermatozoa collected in response to hormonal stimulation. Only in extreme  
situations, where exogenous hormone stimulation of sperm production lasts for a very long  
810 time through repeated treatments, sperm concentration may be reduced by up to 400X  
compared to normal values, as observed in meagre (*Argyrosomus regius*) after 17 weeks of  
812 spermiation induction with the multiple use of GnRHa implants (Fig. 3), and participation in  
two spawning events each week (unpublished data).

814 In many fishes, however, sperm density may be unaffected or may even increase in  
response to hormonal treatment (Table 4), especially with the use of GnRHa delivery systems.  
816 In these situations, it is obvious that the hormonal therapy functions not only in increasing  
seminal fluid production and the facilitation of stripping of existing spermatozoa from the  
818 testes, but also in stimulating spermatogenesis, spermiogenesis and spermiation (Schulz et al.,  
2010). In European seabass for example (Rainis et al., 2003), the testes of spermiating males  
820 towards the end of the spawning period contain large numbers of spermatocysts at different

stages of development (Fig. 4A), in addition to the tubules being full of spermatozoa (Fig. 822 4B). Seven days after treatment with a GnRH $\alpha$  implant that induced a significant increase in sperm volume without a significant decrease in spermatozoa density (Fig. 2B), the testes had 824 tubules filled with a large number of spermatozoa in the central part of the gonad (Fig. 4C), whereas the cortical area still contained a significant number of spermatocysts with 826 spermatogonia, spermatocytes and spermatids (Fig. 4D). On day 21, males treated with a GnRH $\alpha$  implant still produced significantly more sperm than non-treated controls (Fig. 2A), 828 but at this time the whole testis contained only free spermatozoa (Fig. 4E and F). The somatic cells were greatly hypertrophied -which is a sign of the end of the spermiation period- and 830 there were no spermatocysts with spermatocytes or spermatids, suggesting that all spermatocysts available at the beginning of the hormonal induction had undergone 832 spermiogenesis and spermiation (spermatozoa release). So, in many fishes the resulting increase in sperm volume after hormonal stimulation involves the combination of (a) 834 increased seminal fluid production that facilitates the release/stripping of existing spermatozoa and (b) development and spermiation of spermatocysts already at different 836 stages of spermatogenesis.

## 838 **7.2. Changes in motility parameters**

Hormonal enhancement of spermiation does not usually influence sperm quality parameters 840 such as sperm motility percentage, motility duration or spermatozoa velocity (Table 4). An exception may be seen in species that either spermiate very poorly in captivity –such as a 842 number of flatfishes, or fish that do not produce any expressible milt in captivity, although their testes may contain small amounts of intra-testicular sperm. For example in sterlet (Alavi 844 et al., 2012), GnRH $\alpha$  and CPE induced spermiation in non-spermiating males in <24 h after treatment, an effect that was no doubt related to a stimulatory effect on seminal fluid

846 production alone and the maturation of existing intra-testicular spermatozoa, and not to any  
enhancement of spermatogenesis and/or spermiogenesis. Such increase in seminal fluid,  
848 together with increases in testicular steroid production (Miura et al., 1992; Vermeirssen et al.,  
1998, 2000) and changes in pH (Alavi & Cosson, 2005; Genz et al., 2014; Woolsey &  
850 Ingermann, 2003), have a significant positive effect on sperm quality, such as motility  
percentage and spermatozoa velocity. Similarly in common bream (Kucharczyk et al., 1997),  
852 PEs and hCG induced 2X increases in sperm volume within <36 h after treatment, resulting in  
a highly significant improvement in motility percentage (from 22 to 84%). As mentioned  
854 earlier in Atlantic halibut (Vermeirssen et al., 2004), sperm volume decreases significantly  
towards the end of the spawning season, with a concomitant dramatic increase in viscosity  
856 and a decrease in sperm motility. Treatment with GnRH $\alpha$  implants increased sperm volume,  
with a concomitant decrease in sperm density and a long-term increase in motility percentage  
858 (Vermeirssen et al., 2000, 2004) allowing the fertilization of eggs with good results. So, in  
general hormonal therapies for the enhancement of spermiation have positive effects on sperm  
860 quality characteristics only in species that have very viscous sperm in captivity or that do not  
produce any releasable sperm. In the vast majority of fishes, however, they have neither  
862 positive nor negative effects on sperm quality parameters.

### 864 **7.3. Changes in sperm composition**

#### *Fatty acids*

866 Polyunsaturated fatty acids are the main components of fish sperm membranes (Wathes et al.,  
2007). *In vitro* testis treatment with hCG in goldfish demonstrated that the T production  
868 stimulated by hCG was inhibited by n-3 series fatty acids such as EPA and DHA (Wade et al.,  
1994). Asturiano et al. (2001) found similar results in European seabass males, indicating  
870 that PUFA are capable of regulating prostaglandin and androgen production. In European eel

males that were treated weekly with hCG injections to induce sexual maturation, levels of  
872 EPA, DHA and ARA remained unchanged during spermiation, suggesting an important role  
of PUFA in the development of spermatozoa membranes (Baeza et al., 2014). The latter  
874 study also showed significant correlations between different fatty acids and sperm quality  
parameters, especially between spermatozoa velocity and the consumption of ARA present in  
876 the testis (Baeza et al., 2015a). Also, in the same hormonally treated animals, correlations  
were found between sex steroids and fatty acids, suggesting that EPA in the testis may act as a  
878 modulator of androgen synthesis (Baeza et al., 2015b). In another study in European eel  
males, it was shown that after 10 weeks of hormonal treatment to induce sexual maturation,  
880 animals fed previously with different diets reached the same levels of PUFA in the sperm,  
highlighting the important role of fatty acids in sperm viability (Baeza, 2015; Butts et al.,  
882 2015). After the hormonal treatment, the sperm showed more than 60% of motile  
spermatozoa, with PUFA being the fatty acid class with the highest concentration in sperm,  
884 and DHA having the highest concentration among PUFA.

### 886 *Seminal plasma proteins*

During the last few years, the importance of seminal plasma proteins in relation to sperm  
888 quality has been demonstrated (Lahnsteiner, 2007; Peñaranda et al., 2010b). In Eurasian  
perch (*Perca fluviatilis*) the seminal plasma contains proteins that are involved in membrane  
890 trafficking, organization, spermatozoa motility and oxido-reductase activity (Shaliutina et al.,  
2012). In the same regard, the high presence of Cu/Zn superoxide dismutase (SOD) and Zn in  
892 Japanese eel sperm provided a higher resistance to reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Celino et  
al., 2011). In brown trout, lysozyme activities were higher in samples with high motility,  
894 whereas spermatozoal immunoglobulin concentrations were higher in samples with low  
motility (Lahnsteiner & Radner, 2010). Both results probably are related to antibacterial

896 activity of the seminal plasma. Furthermore, anti-trypsin and anti-proteinase activity has been  
found in seminal plasma of freshwater species (Ciereszko et al., 1998; Dabrowski &  
898 Ciereszko, 1994). Although their function has not been elucidated, it seems that they have  
protective role against proteolysis. In fact, multiple forms of proteolytic enzymes have been  
900 found in seminal plasma of teleost fishes (Kowalski et al., 2003). Finally, Fe metabolism also  
seems to play a role in sperm quality, since transferrin polymorphism observed in seminal  
902 plasma of common carp was related to sperm motility parameters (Wojtczak et al., 2007b).

#### 904 ***Ion concentrations and pH***

Several ions (*e.g.*  $K^+$ ,  $Na^+$ ,  $Cl^-$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Mg^{2+}$ ) can be found in the seminal plasma of fish,  
906 and  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $K^+$  have been proposed to be the main ions involved in sperm motility activation  
in marine fish (Cosson et al., 2008; Morisawa, 2008; Pérez et al., 2016), but the exact  
908 mechanism through which this happens is still unknown. Moreover, there are only a few  
works studying the changes of ion concentrations during sperm capacitation. In hCG-treated  
910 European eel, the ionic composition of seminal plasma varied through the spermiation period  
in relation to sperm motility (Asturiano et al., 2004). The  $K^+$  concentration increased with  
912 increasing sperm motility, while  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Mg^{2+}$  concentrations decreased as sperm motility  
increased. The concentration of  $Na^+$  showed a slight decreasing tendency and pH values had  
914 no significant differences, being constant between pH 8.4 and 8.6 during the whole assay.  
Miura et al. (2013) observed that sperm motility in Japanese eel decreased 24 h after injection  
916 of  $17\alpha$ -hydroxyprogesterone (a precursor of the MIS) in correlation with a decrease in  
seminal plasma  $K^+$ , while seminal plasma pH and  $Na^+$  concentration were not affected by the  
918 hormonal treatment.

As mentioned earlier (Section 2.3) sperm maturation (*i.e.* capacitation) occurs in the  
920 sperm duct (Miura et al., 1992; Morisawa & Morisawa, 1988), and in salmonids and Japanese

eel if the sperm is extracted from the testes without passing through the sperm duct, it  
922 becomes unable to acquire motility, unless it is incubated in a solution with  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and high  
pH, or elevated concentrations of  $\text{K}^+$  (Morisawa & Morisawa, 1988; Ohta et al., 1997a). In  
924 hCG-treated European eel, incubating sperm in extender solution with low pH (6.5) induced a  
reversible motility inhibition, which was not observed in sperm maintained at physiological  
926 pH of 8.5 (Peñaranda et al., 2010c). Using flow cytometer, it was shown for the first time that  
intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{K}^+$  levels increased with the hyperosmotic activation of sperm motility  
928 in the European eel (Gallego et al., 2014a). So, internal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{K}^+$  fluctuations seem to  
participate in the initiation of motility in European eel sperm (Pérez et al., 2016), in  
930 agreement with the proposed model of sperm motility activation in marine fish (Morisawa,  
2008). In the latter work, baseline levels of intracellular pH ( $\text{pH}_i$ ) remained constant 30 s  
932 post-activation, and a gradual decrease was observed 60 s post-activation, in agreement with  
other published data (Oda & Morisawa, 1993).

934

#### **7.4. Relationships between motility parameters and fertilization and hatching rates**

936 The use of high quality gametes from both males and females is an essential prerequisite to  
achieve high fertilization success and hatching, both for aquaculture and scientific purposes.  
938 With regards to sperm, motility percentage has been the most commonly used parameter to  
predict quality and fertilization potential. However, for many years the conventional method  
940 of motility evaluation has been subjective, and the more recent utilization of **Computer-**  
**Assisted Sperm Analysis (CASA)** systems (See Section 8 below) has made it possible to  
942 estimate a higher number of sperm parameters by an objective, rapid and accurate technique  
(Gallego et al., 2013b). As a result, today total motility percentage (TM, which includes all  
944 spermatozoa showing any movement) and progressive motility percentage (PM, which  
includes only spermatozoa that swim in an essentially straight line) estimated using CASA are



946 recognized as important sperm parameters related to male fertility and sperm competition in  
fish (Rurangwa et al., 2004), and high correlations ( $r > 0.7$ ) have been found between these  
948 parameters, and fertilization and hatching success in some marine fishes such as the pufferfish  
(*Takifugu niphobles*), Atlantic halibut (Ottesen et al., 2009) and red seabream (*Pagrus major*)  
950 (Liu et al., 2007). However, similar studies on the existence of such a relationship in other  
fishes have produced conflicting results, as negligible correlations were found between TM or  
952 PM and fertilization success (Bozkurt & Secer, 2006). In this respect, it is worth highlighting  
that fertilization trials should be carried out with an optimal sperm/egg ratio for each species -  
954 limiting to the fertilization process, and not in excess, which will allow differences in sperm  
quality to be reflected on fertilization success. In addition, such trials should be using a wide  
956 range of sperm motility values, to avoid masking the real correlations between the motility  
values, and fertilization and hatching success.

958 In addition to TM or PM being good indicators of fertilization ability, spermatozoa  
velocities may also predict the fertilization potential of spermatozoa. In pufferfish, it was  
960 shown that the coefficients of correlation between fertilization success and CASA-obtained  
curvilinear velocity (VCL), straight-line velocity (VSL) or angular path velocity (VAP) were  
962 higher than with TM and PM (Gallego et al., 2013a). Similar data has been reported in other  
marine species such as Atlantic salmon, Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) and green swordtail  
964 (*Xiphophorus helleri*), in which spermatozoa velocity seems to be the major component that  
determines fertilization success and the proportion of the paternity through sperm competition  
966 (Gage et al., 2004; Gasparini et al., 2010; Rudolfson et al., 2008b). Based on this information,  
new approaches for male broodstock selection through evaluation of sperm kinetics can be  
968 used in some fishes, which could optimize the reproductive efficiency in fish farms, making  
rational use of gametes possible and limiting the number of breeding males and, thus,  
970 reducing production costs.

## 972 **8. Monitoring sperm quality parameters**

974 Different parameters have been used to evaluate fish sperm quality, including sperm volume, aspect and color, sperm density, spermatozoa motility and morphometry and seminal plasma composition. However, new techniques are being developed and have improved the assessment methods (Bobe & Labbé, 2010; Cabrita et al., 2009; Cosson et al., 2008; Pérez et al., 2009; Valdebenito et al., 2015), although an evident lack of standardization can compromise the comparison of results between different laboratories (Rosenthal et al., 2010).

### 980 **8.1. Sperm density**

982 Very different methods have been used to evaluate sperm density, from the classical use of haemocytometers to spermatocrit determinations, flow cytometry and spectroscopy measurements. Sørensen et al. (2013) evaluated different techniques, demonstrating their strong and weak points and made emphasis on the need for protocol standardization (Table 5). The most common counting method for human spermatozoa is the use of a haemocytometer, which is classified by the World Health Organization as the ‘gold standard’ (WHO, 1999). However, this method is time consuming (Suquet et al., 1992), and precision relies on skilled personnel. Thus, several studies have been carried out to develop faster and more automated counting methods (reviewed in Fauvel et al., 2010).

990 Spermocrit (*i.e.* the percentage of spermatozoa volume after centrifugation of sperm in a capillary tube) is a fast and easy method, and correlations between spermocrit and haemocytometer estimations of sperm density have been reported for several species (reviewed previously by Sørensen et al., 2013). However, spermocrit results can be influenced by the spermatozoa sedimentation capacity reported in some fish species (Fauvel

et al., 2010), as well as spermatozoa head size changes that occur in some marine fishes  
996 during the spawning season (Asturiano et al., 2006; Butts et al., 2011c).

Flow cytometry may also be employed to determine the number of spermatozoa by  
998 measuring one or more fluorescent stains. The method features high precision, sensitivity,  
accuracy and speed (Cordelli et al., 2005). Sørensen et al. (2013) reported that  
1000 “measurements made with flow cytometer had the strongest relationship to haemocytometer  
counts, demonstrating the usefulness of this technique”. Computer-Assisted Sperm Analysis  
1002 also allows the quantification of sperm density (Ehlers et al., 2011) and, finally, some  
researchers have applied also spectrophotometric techniques (Fauvel et al., 1999).

1004

## **8.2. Computer-Assisted Sperm Analysis (CASA)**

1006 Initially, evaluation of sperm motility was done by a subjective assessment of only two sperm  
motion traits: the percentage of motile spermatozoa and the duration of spermatozoa  
1008 movement. Then, sperm samples were classified into arbitrarily selected scales of criteria  
usually comprising 3-5 categories (*e.g.* low, medium and high; I, II, III, IV and V; or 20, 40,  
1010 60, 80 and 100%). The development of CASA systems made possible the estimation of a  
higher number of sperm motion parameters using an objective, sensitive and accurate  
1012 technique. These systems evolved from the multiple photo-micrographic exposure and video-  
micrographic techniques for spermatozoa tracks, using a computer equipped with imaging  
1014 software (Rurangwa et al., 2004). This technique was first introduced in the 1980’s in  
mammalian sperm and much later modern CASA systems were adapted for fish spermatozoa  
1016 (Kime et al., 1996; Van Look & Kime, 2003; Wilson-Leedy & Ingermann, 2007).

To use CASA, the spermatozoa movement is video-recorded after activation, and then  
1018 a short sequence of the video file is analyzed (Figuerola et al., 2014; Kime et al., 1996;  
Wilson-Leedy et al., 2009). The CASA analysis consists of the determination of a high

1020 number of spermatozoa movement parameters using an objective, sensitive and accurate  
technique. The TM and PM parameters can provide a general overview of the quality of the  
1022 sperm sample. However, for some authors the most useful parameters are the specific  
spermatozoa velocities (Gallego et al., 2013a; Kime & Tveiten, 2002; Rurangwa et al., 2004).  
1024 The most commonly used parameters include VCL, VSL, VAP and beating cross frequency  
(BCF). Several companies produce CASA equipment, but the parameters recorded by each  
1026 system are similar. The improvement of CASA techniques to evaluate sperm motility  
parameters that could not be assessed by the human eye, allowing the tracking of many  
1028 individual spermatozoa and hundreds of motion tracks analyzed per sample in an objective  
and repetitive way, has permitted an increasing number of applications in a wide range of  
1030 aquaculture-related research fields (Table 6). It is noteworthy that most of the parameters  
evaluated by CASA systems have been correlated positively with fertilization potential of the  
1032 sperm, thus CASA is a very useful tool for assessing sperm quality in fish reproduction  
research, although it is not yet used widely in commercial production. However, CASA  
1034 systems must be calibrated to each species of interest, trying to follow previously  
standardized methods, and details of the set-up must be reported together with the obtained  
1036 results to guarantee repetitiveness of the process.

### 1038 **8.3. Assisted Sperm Morphometry Analysis (ASMA)**

The development of ASMA software for the study of spermatozoa morphometry has  
1040 introduced a new approach for sperm evaluation studies, demonstrating that changes in the  
spermatozoa head and/or flagella are related with the reproductive season, the effect of  
1042 hormonal treatments or the cryopreservation processes, and how this can be related to changes  
in sperm motility and fertilization capacity. These aspects have been explored in an  
1044 increasing number of aquaculture studies (Table 7).

Spermatozoa ultrastructure and morphology were studied previously by transmission  
1046 electron microscopy, scanning electron microscopy or laser light-scattering spectroscopy and  
stroboscopic illumination (reviewed by Pérez et al., 2009). However, these techniques are  
1048 subjective and time-consuming, and when spermatozoa morphology is analyzed by these  
visual methods, the intra- and inter-observer laboratory variations are usually very large  
1050 (Soler et al., 2003). The ASMA has introduced a higher repeatability and validity in these  
morphological evaluations. Moreover, a high number of spermatozoa can be measured using  
1052 ASMA, allowing fast and accurate studies of sperm samples, with much less expensive  
equipment required, in comparison with electron microscopy techniques. As a result, ASMA  
1054 has been used increasingly in mammalian research since the 1990's, but its application to fish  
is much more recent. However, fish sperm differs in many aspects from that of mammals  
1056 (Kime et al., 2001) and the ASMA methodology used for livestock production animals needs  
set-up adjustments to be applicable to fish (Van Look & Kime, 2003). One of the first  
1058 applications of ASMA methodology in fish was carried out in the European eel, comparing  
the results obtained by ASMA to those obtained by scanning electron microscopy (Marco-  
1060 Jiménez et al., 2006a). Later, ASMA was used to describe spermatozoa morphology changes  
during sperm maturation under hormonal induction (Asturiano et al., 2006), as well as  
1062 evaluating the osmotic effects suffered by spermatozoa and the cryoprotectant effects during  
cryopreservation (Asturiano et al., 2007; Garzón et al., 2008; Marco-Jiménez et al., 2006b;  
1064 Peñaranda et al., 2010c).

Several studies have evaluated the relationships between morphology, motility and  
1066 fertilization capacity in European eel (Asturiano et al., 2006), rainbow trout (Tuset et al.,  
2008a) and Atlantic cod (Butts et al., 2010b; Tuset et al., 2008b). Other studies have tried to  
1068 improve the ASMA techniques. For example, different staining techniques were compared  
for the morphometric study of rainbow trout sperm (Tuset et al., 2008c), two techniques were

1070 compared for the morphometric study of gilthead seabream spermatozoa (Gallego et al.,  
2012a), and the use of an ASMA open-source software was explored (Butts et al., 2011b).

1072 During the last years, ASMA techniques are becoming relatively common in studies of fish  
reproductive strategies or fish comparative physiology (Table 7).

1074

#### **8.4. Fluorescent staining**

1076 Cell viability (evaluated based on cell-membrane integrity) and mitochondrial functionality  
(*i.e.* ATP synthesis to maintain sperm motility) have also been used as indicators of fish  
1078 sperm quality, using simple and rapid protocols based on the use of fluorescent staining (He  
& Woods III, 2004; Ogier de Baulny et al., 1999; Rurangwa et al., 2004; Segovia et al.,  
1080 2000). To assess the non-viable cells, membrane-impermeable nucleic acid stains can be  
used, which identify positively dead spermatozoa by penetrating into cells with damaged  
1082 membranes. An intact plasma membrane will prevent these products from entering the  
spermatozoa and staining the nucleus. Phenanthridines, such as propidium iodide (PI, Garner  
1084 et al., 1994), SYBR14 (Garner et al., 1994; Segovia et al., 2000) and bisbenzimidazole  
Hoechst 33258 (De Leeuw et al., 1991; Garzón et al., 2008) have been used commonly. The  
1086 use of sperm viability kits, combining the SYBR Green and PI stains, has become popular in  
fish research during the last years because they allow classification of spermatozoa as dead  
1088 when nuclei show red fluorescence over spermatozoa head and as alive when they show green  
fluorescence (Gallego et al., 2012a). Mitochondrial function can be assessed using rhodamine  
1090 123 (Segovia et al., 2000) or 5,5', 6,6'-tetrachloro-1,1',3,3'-tetraethylbenzimidazolyl-  
carbocyanine iodide (JC-1), allowing a distinction between spermatozoa with poorly and  
1092 highly functional mitochondria (Asturiano et al., 2006; Graham, 2001).

## 1094 **8.5. Other techniques**

1096 The cryopreservation of the sperm can cause different damages to the spermatozoa. For  
1098 example, it can induce DNA fragmentation and changes in proteins profile (Zilli & Vilella,  
1100 2012), as well as increases on the reactive oxygen species (ROS) inducing alterations at the  
1102 DNA level (Martínez-Páramo et al., 2012a; Thomson et al., 2009). Thus, some techniques  
1104 have been specifically developed during the last years to evaluate the effects of the freezing-  
1106 thawing processes. For example, the Comet assay is used for the measurement of DNA  
1108 damage, evaluating the grade of DNA fragmentation (Cabrita et al., 2005; Riesco et al.,  
2011). The TUNEL (terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUDP nick-end-  
labeling) and SCSA (sperm chromatin structure assay) assays are flow cytometry-based  
techniques used as well to evaluate DNA breaks and fragmentation (Bungum et al., 2011;  
Chohan et al., 2006). Finally, during the last years, new techniques providing specific  
information about damages in specific genes have been developed using qPCR approaches.  
For example, after gilthead seabream sperm cryopreservation, the lesions generated in nuclear  
genes (having important roles in embryo development) and mitochondrial genes have been  
recently quantified (Cartón-García et al., 2013). It is expected that these and other new  
techniques will be used more widely in the field of sperm quality in the future.

## 1112 **8.6. Spermatozoa subpopulations**

1114 Computer-Assisted Sperm Analysis systems are able to track a very large number of  
1116 spermatozoa per capture/frame, which means hundreds of motion tracks analyzed per sample.  
Despite working with such extensive databases, sperm motility analyses often show the mean  
parameter values, considering the whole sperm sample as homogeneous. However, it has  
1118 been pointed out that the sperm of some species is not a homogeneous mixture, and different  
spermatozoa subpopulations coexist in the same sperm sample (Gallego, 2013). Thus, the

spermatozoa can be classified into different subpopulations within each sample according to  
1120 their kinetic characteristics (Holt et al., 2007) making use of multivariate statistical methods  
such as cluster analysis (Gallego et al., 2015; Martínez-Pastor et al., 2011). Using these  
1122 kinetic parameters, the samples are characterized considering not only the mean values of  
CASA parameters, but also the relative proportions of each subpopulation (Holt & Harrison,  
1124 2002; Martinez-Pastor et al., 2005).

Sperm subpopulation analysis has been studied mostly in mammals (Dorado et al.,  
1126 2010, 2011; Quintero-Moreno et al., 2003), but it has been applied in a few studies in fish  
(reviewed by Gallego, 2013) demonstrating the coexistence of 3-4 motility-based  
1128 subpopulations of spermatozoa in the sperm of different species, such as Senegalese sole  
(Beirão et al., 2009; Martínez-Pastor et al., 2008), gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) (Beirão  
1130 et al., 2011b), three-spined stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) (Le Comber et al., 2004),  
steelhead trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Kanuga et al., 2012) and European eel (Gallego et al.,  
1132 2015).

The spermatozoa subpopulations found in the different species have several  
1134 combinations of velocity and linearity, but all the studies have described a ‘fast and linear’  
subpopulation that apparently includes the best-quality spermatozoa (Beirão et al., 2009;  
1136 Martínez-Pastor et al., 2008) and has been correlated positively with total motility, implying  
that the samples with the highest proportion of these spermatozoa tended to show the highest  
1138 motility (Gallego et al., 2015). The rest of the subpopulations could be related with exhausted  
spermatozoa near cessation of swimming, and probably unable to fertilize an egg (Gallego et  
1140 al., 2012b), or even being germ cells forced out during the stripping process (Marco-Jiménez  
et al., 2006a).

1142 The number, the proportion and the motility characteristics of the subpopulations  
present in the sperm comprise useful information whose biological meaning can be analyzed



1144 in relation to reproductive strategies, hormonal treatments, individual male differences, sperm  
aging, sperm storage or cryopreservation effects, testis physiology and male fertility  
1146 (Figuerola et al., 2014; Gallego et al., 2014b, 2015; Martínez-Pastor et al., 2008).

## 1148 **9. Representative practical protocols of the use of hormones for the enhancement of spermiation in fishes**

1150 Protocols for the enhancement of spermiation have been developed for a variety of  
commercially important fishes, and below we present some practical information about three  
1152 representative approaches that have been shown to be effective in enhancing spermatogenesis  
and sperm production in freshwater eels, freshwater and marine fish.

1154 The most impressive application of a hormonal therapy for the induction of  
spermatogenesis and spermiation is the protocol used for freshwater eels. Hormonal  
1156 treatments are based on weekly administration of hCG, normally after a gradual  
acclimatization to seawater, maintaining the water temperature at 20°C and fasting the fish  
1158 throughout the treatment. In the Japanese eel, male maturation has been induced with a single  
high dose treatment of hCG (Miura et al., 1991c), but better results have been obtained using  
1160 weekly injections of lower doses of 1,000 IU kg<sup>-1</sup> body weight, allowing the collection of  
sperm after the 5-6<sup>th</sup> week of treatment (Ohta et al., 1996; Ohta et al., 1997b). In the  
1162 European eel, weekly injections of 1,500 IU kg<sup>-1</sup> have been used (Asturiano et al., 2006;  
Müller et al., 2004; Peñaranda et al., 2010a; Pérez et al., 2000). Sperm samples of high  
1164 volume and density (3–6 x 10<sup>9</sup> spermatozoa ml<sup>-1</sup>) are collected between the 6<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> weeks  
of treatment, always 24 h after the administration of the hormone, as studies have  
1166 demonstrated that this is the time when the highest sperm quality is obtained (Pérez et al.,  
2000). Different hormonal preparations, such as hCG, rehCG and PMSG -which is less  
1168 expensive than either hCG or rehCG- were evaluated in a recent trial (Gallego et al., 2012b).

The rehCG produced the best results in relation to sperm volume, density, motility and kinetic  
1170 features throughout most weeks of treatment. Moreover, rehCG was the most cost effective  
treatment, making it possible to obtain more good quality sperm samples at a lower price than  
1172 by using the other two hormonal treatments.

For freshwater fishes, a spermiation enhancement protocol should first consider  
1174 whether the species in question exhibits or not a dopamine inhibition of the action of GnRH,  
since both cases are common. Carps, in general, exhibit a dopamine inhibition of GnRH  
1176 stimulated release of LH (Peter et al., 1988). Common carp spawn spontaneously in ponds,  
and eggs or fry can be collected (Rothbard & Yaron, 1995; Yaron et al., 2009). However,  
1178 induced spawning is often preferred for intensive hatchery production. The breeders need to  
be exposed to the appropriate environmental cycling to ensure the progress of gametogenesis  
1180 and although males often have adequate sperm production, it is common practice to also  
induce males to enhance sperm production. Sperm production has been enhanced with CPE  
1182 (Horvath et al., 1985; Saad & Billard, 1987), gonadotropin-calibrated CPE (Rothbard &  
Yaron, 1995) or GnRH<sub>a</sub> in combination with or without DA (Billard et al., 1987; Roelants et  
1184 al., 2000; Saad & Billard, 1987; Takashima et al., 1984). Doses of 10 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> of GnRH<sub>a</sub>  
(Billard et al., 1987; Takashima et al., 1984) or 10 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> of GnRH<sub>a</sub> in combination with 10  
1186 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of the DA pimozide or metoclopramide (Billard et al., 1987; Roelants et al., 2000)  
provided a > 4X increase in sperm volume of similar quality, 24 h after hormone treatment.  
1188 After treatment with GnRH<sub>a</sub>/DA, circulating plasma LH levels peaked at 24 h and were  
maintained elevated until 40-48 h before decreasing (Billard et al., 1987), and plasma levels  
1190 of LH were directly correlated to volume of sperm collected (Roelants et al., 2000), indicating  
that the most adequate time point for sperm collection was 24 h after treatment. In the case of  
1192 another cyprinid, the tench, although studies provided evidence of a dopaminergic inhibition  
of LH release, both GnRH<sub>a</sub> alone and GnRH<sub>a</sub>/DA treatments were equally effective in

1194 inducing ovulation (Podhorec et al., 2011). An injection of  $20 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  of salmon GnRHa  
(Linhart et al., 1995) or mammalian GnRHa (Caille et al., 2005) increased sperm production  
1196 by 3-4X compared to controls and gave a similar result as an implant of  $25 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  of  
mammalian GnRHa or an injection of  $0.5\text{-}2 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  of CPE. Sperm was collected over a 5-  
1198 day period after hormonal treatment (Linhart et al., 1995) and production was observed to  
peak at 72 h post treatment (Caille et al., 2005).

1200 Finally, controlled-release delivery systems loaded with GnRHa have been used  
successfully in a variety of marine fishes including European seabass, striped bass, Atlantic  
1202 halibut and meagre, among others. Treatment is usually done at the same time females are  
treated for spawning, or whenever sperm production appears diminished during the spawning  
1204 season. Treatments may be repeated after a few weeks, if spermiation declines again, once  
the release of GnRHa from the delivery system is exhausted. The usual GnRHa treatment  
1206 dose ranges between  $20$  and  $50 \mu\text{g GnRHa kg}^{-1}$  body weight and an increase in sperm  
production can be within 24-48 h. The duration of elevated sperm production lasts for 2-5  
1208 weeks (depending on species, GnRHa delivery system and water temperature), and it is  
usually not associated with changes in sperm quality parameters, such as density, motility  
1210 percentage or duration. Sperm collection in European seabass in response to hormonal  
therapy may range between  $1\text{-}4 \text{ ml kg}^{-1}$  at every sampling, which can be done on a weekly  
1212 basis.

## 1214 **10. Conclusion**

The review has demonstrated the wide range of successful hormone manipulations that have  
1216 been employed to date to enhance sperm production in fishes. So far, gonadotropin  
preparations (PEs and hCG) and GnRHAs have been used (with or without DA), though other  
1218 more recently identified hormones may become important in future applications. Recent

studies have demonstrated the potential of reGtHs to both induce spermatogenesis and  
1220 spermiation, although more work is needed to increase biological activity and establish  
practical applications. In particular, the use of reFSH to stimulate the early stages of  
1222 spermatogenesis offers the potential to control the entire process of spermatogenesis, while  
reLHs also offer great potential to stimulate spermiation and increase sperm volume, while  
1224 avoiding undesirable effects that can be associated to non-homologous PEs. Pheromones also  
appear to offer good potential to enhance spermiation in the future. With more research on  
1226 their precise function, it appears possible that pheromones may induce rapid increases in  
sperm volume that could be helpful in species with low collectable sperm volumes. Existing  
1228 methods to evaluate sperm quality have improved during the last years, becoming more  
accurate and objective, while some new ones are currently under development. However,  
1230 more efforts are required to standardize the use of all evaluation methods in fish, in order to  
assure the repeatability of the measurements and to enable easy and meaningful comparisons  
1232 between studies.

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2304



2306 **Figure legends**

2308 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of the dysfunction in the reproductive axis of cultured  
male breeders, and the exogenous hormonal interventions for the enhancement of  
2310 spermiation. DA = dopamine antagonist, FSH =follicle stimulating hormone, GnRH =  
gonadotropin-releasing hormone, GnRH<sub>a</sub> = GnRH agonist, GtH = gonadotropin, LH =  
2312 luteinizing hormone, 11-KT = 11 ketotestosterone, 17,20β-P = 17,20β-dihydroxy-4-  
pregnen-3-one.

2314 **Figure 2.** Mean (+SEM) volume of expressible sperm and spermatozoa density over a 27-  
day period, from European seabass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*, n = 6) administered different  
2316 hormonal treatments of GnRH<sub>a</sub>: control = saline, Inj = a single injection of GnRH<sub>a</sub>,  
Implant = GnRH<sub>a</sub> delivery system – implant at different doses (20-80 μg kg<sup>-1</sup>). Different  
2318 letters in the legend indicate significant differences (P ≤ 0.05) in sperm volume between  
treatments throughout the study (two-way ANOVA, P = 0.010, DNMR P ≤ 0.05). There  
2320 were no significant differences among treatments in spermatozoa density. (From the  
experiments reported by Rainis et al., 2003).

2322 **Figure 3.** Mean (+SEM) sperm density of meagre (*Argyrosomus regius*, n = 1-4) at weekly  
samplings during a spawning induction experiment (2014). All males were given a  
2324 GnRH<sub>a</sub> implant at the beginning of the experiment, and were treated again as needed  
when sperm production was considered inadequate (approximately every 2-3 weeks).  
2326 Statistically different means are indicated by different letter superscripts (one-way  
ANOVA, P = 0.012; DNMR, P ≤ 0.05).

2328 **Figure 4.** Histological sections of testes from European seabass at different times after  
treatment with a GnRH $\alpha$  implant. At Day 0, the cortex of the testis (A) contained free  
2330 spermatozoa, but also a large number of spermatocysts with spermatids and  
spermatocytes at various stages, while the central part (B) contained mostly spermatozoa.  
2332 At Day 7 after GnRH $\alpha$  implantation, the cortical area of the testes (C) contained less  
intact spermatocysts with more advanced-stage gametes (spt), while the central part (D)  
2334 contained exclusively spermatozoa. At Day 21, both the cortical (E) and central area (F)  
of the testes contained exclusively spermatozoa, without any intact spermatocysts with  
2336 gamete cells at earlier developmental stages. In addition, the somatic cells lining the  
tubules became hypertrophied. Somatic cells (som), spermatocytes (spc), spermatids  
2338 (spt) and spermatozoa (spz). The bar in all sections is 100  $\mu$ m (from the experiments  
reported by Rainis et al., 2003).

2340

2342 **Table 1.** Representative applications of hormonal manipulations for the enhancement of spermiation using various gonadotropin (GtH) preparations of piscine origin.

2344	Species	Common name	Treatment <sup>1</sup>	Enhancement <sup>2</sup> period (h)	Reference
2346	<i>Abramis brama</i>	bream	CPE	18-24	(Kucharczyk et al., 1997)
	<i>Acipenser brevirostrum</i>	shortnose sturgeon	CPE	24	(Horváth et al., 2005)
2348	<i>Acipenser ruthenus</i>	sterlet	CPE	24, 48, 72 /12-42	(Alavi et al., 2012; Dzyuba et al., 2012; Psenicka et al., 2008)
	<i>Anguila japonica</i>	Japanese eel	salmon PE	42 days <sup>3</sup>	(Kagawa et al., 2009)
2350	<i>Brycon amazonicus</i>	yamú	CPE	24	(Velasco-Santamaría et al., 2006)
	<i>Brycon insignis</i>	tiete tetra/piabanha	CPE	8	(Viveiros et al., 2012b)
2352	<i>Brycon opalinus</i>	pirapitinga-do-sul	CPE	8	(Orfão et al., 2011)
	<i>Brycon orbignyanus</i>	piracanjuba	CPE	5	(Maria et al., 2006)
2354	<i>Clarias gariepinus</i>	African catfish	CPE, Clarias PE	24	(Viveiros et al., 2002)
	<i>Colossoma macropomum</i>	tambaqui	CPE	10	(Maria et al., 2015)

2356	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	common carp	CPE	24	(Li et al., 2013)
	<i>Huso huso</i>	beluga	CPE	48	(Linhartova et al., 2013)
2358	<i>Odontesthes bonariensis</i>	pejerrey	CPE, salmon PE	24	(Miranda et al., 2005)
	<i>Piaractus brachypomus</i>	cirapitinga	CPE	12	(Nascimento et al., 2010)
2360	<i>Prochilodus argenteus</i>	curimatã-pacu	CPE	-	(Arantes et al., 2011)
	<i>Prochilodus lineatus</i>	curimba	CPE	8	(Viveiros et al., 2009, 2010)
2362	<i>Silurus glanis</i>	European catfish	CPE	24-48	(Linhart et al., 2004)
	<i>Tinca tinca</i>	common tench	CPE	24	(Linhart et al., 1995)

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2364 <sup>1</sup> Ground pituitaries or pituitary extracts, mainly Carp Pituitary Extract (CPE), or pituitary extracts (PE) from other fishes.

<sup>2</sup> The enhancement period is in days (d) after treatment. The absence of a number indicates that this parameter was not reported in the article.

2366 <sup>3</sup> Through the use of an controlled-release osmotic pump loaded with salmon PE.

2368

2370 **Table 2.** Representative applications of hormonal manipulations for the enhancement of spermiation using gonadotropin (GtH) preparations of mammalian origin.

	Species	Common name	Treatment <sup>1</sup>	Enhancement <sup>2</sup>	Reference
2372					period (d)
	<i>Abramis brama</i>	common bream	hCG	-	(Kucharczyk et al., 1997)
2374	<i>Acipenser ruthenus</i>	sterlet	hCG	1	(Rzemieniecki et al., 2004)
	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	hCG <sup>3</sup>	35	(Asturiano et al., 2006)
2376	<i>Anguilla japonica</i>	Japanese eel	hCG <sup>3</sup>	35	(Ohta & Tanaka, 1997)
	<i>Carassius auratus</i>	goldfish	hCG	1	(Yamazaki & Donaldson, 1968)
2378	<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	European seabass	hCG	7	(Schiavone et al., 2006)
	<i>Leiopotherapon plumbeus</i>	silver perch	hCG	1	(Denusta et al., 2014)
2380	<i>Leuciscus leuciscus</i>	dace	hCG	2	(Cejko et al., 2012)
	<i>Odontesthes bonariensis</i>	pejerrey	hCG	2	(Miranda et al., 2005)
2382	<i>Pagrus auratus</i>	New Zealand snapper	hCG	1	(Pankhurst, 1994)
	<i>Pangasius bocourti</i>	Mekong catfish	hCG	1	(Cacot et al., 2003)
2384	<i>Rhynchocypris oxycephalus</i>	Chinese minnow	hCG	1	(Park et al., 2002)
	<i>Sander lucioperca</i>	pikeperch	hCG	1	(Falahatkar & Poursaeid, 2014)
2386	<i>Siganus argenteus</i>	forktail rabbitfish	hCG	2	(Rahman et al., 2003)

<sup>1</sup> Human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG).

2388 <sup>2</sup> The enhancement period is in days (d) after treatment. The absence of a number indicates that this parameter was not reported in the article.

<sup>3</sup> Treatment applied a minimum of 5 times at weekly intervals.

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**Table 3.** Representative applications of hormonal manipulations for the enhancement of spermiation using injections of agonists of gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRHa) and sustained-release GnRHa-delivery systems (implants or microspheres).

2394	Species	Common name	Method <sup>1</sup>	GnRHa <sup>2</sup>	Enhancement <sup>3</sup>	Reference
2396				type	period (d)	
	<i>Acanthopagrus australis</i>	yellowfin bream	Inj	Trp	2	(Black & Pankhurst, 2009)
2398	<i>Acipenser baerii</i>	Siberian sturgeon	Inj	Phe	1.5	(Williot et al., 2002)
	<i>Acipenser ruthenus</i>	sterlet	EVAc, OP	Ala	7	(Alavi et al., 2012)
2400	<i>Barbus barbus</i>	barbel	Inj	Arg <sup>4</sup>	1	(Cejko et al., 2014)
			OP	Ala <sup>4</sup>	0.5	(Cejko et al., 2014)
2402	<i>Carassius carassius</i>	crucial carp	Inj	Arg <sup>4</sup>	1	(Cejko et al., 2013)
	<i>Coregonus lavaretus</i>	European whitefish	Inj	Naf	11	(Wojtczak et al., 2005)
2404	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	common carp	Inj	Ala	2	(Takashima et al., 1984)
			Inj	Ala <sup>4</sup>	2.5	(Roelants et al., 2000)
2406	<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	European seabass	Inj	Ala	3, 7	(Rainis et al., 2003; Sorbera et al., 1996)
			EVAc, FA	Ala	27, 35	(Rainis et al., 2003; Sorbera et al., 1996)
2408	<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	Chol	Arg	27	(Garber et al., 2009)
	<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i>	Atlantic halibut	EVAc	Ala	30, 40	(Vermeirssen et al., 2000, 2004)
2410	<i>Lates calcarifer</i>	Asian seabass	Inj	Ala <sup>4</sup>	2	(Hilomen-Garcia et al., 2002)
	<i>Leuciscus leuciscus</i>	dace	Inj	Arg <sup>4</sup>	2	(Cejko et al., 2012)

2412			OP	Ala <sup>4</sup>	2	(Cejko et al., 2012)
	<i>Morone chrysops</i>	white bass	FA	Ala	7	(Mylonas et al., 1997c)
2414	<i>Morone saxatilis</i>	striped bass	EVAc, FA	Ala	14	(Mylonas et al., 1997b)
			FA	Ala	14	(Mylonas et al., 1995)
2416	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	rainbow trout	Inj	Ala	7	(Heyrati et al., 2010)
	<i>Osmerus eperlanus</i>	smelt	Inj	Ala <sup>4</sup>	3	(Kowalski et al., 2012)
2418			Inj	Ala <sup>4</sup>	1	(Krol et al., 2009)
	<i>Pagrus auratus</i>	New Zealand snapper	Inj	Ala	1	(Pankhurst, 1994)
2420	<i>Pangasius bocourti</i>	Mekong catfish	Inj	Arg	2	(Cacot et al., 2003)
	<i>Perca flavescences</i>	yellow perch	Inj	Ala	4	(Dabrowski et al., 1994)
2422	<i>Platichthys stellatus</i>	starry flounder	Chol	Ala	35	(Moon et al., 2003)
	<i>Pleuronectes americanus</i>	winter flounder	Inj	Ala	12	(Harmin & Crim, 1993)
2424			Chol	Ala	35	(Shangguan & Crim, 1999)
	<i>Pleuronectes ferrugineus</i>	yellowtail flounder	Chol, FA	Ala	29	(Clearwater & Crim, 1998)
2426	<i>Rhombosolea tapirina</i>	greenback flounder	Chol	Ala	35	(Lim et al., 2004)
	<i>Rhynchocypris oxycephalus</i>	Chinese minnow	Inj	Ala	2	(Park et al., 2002)
2428	<i>Salmo salar</i>	Atlantic salmon	FA	Ala	10	(Mylonas et al., 1995)
			EVAc	Ala	10	(Zohar, 1996)
2430			Inj	Arg <sup>4</sup>	8	(King & Young, 2001)
	<i>Siganus guttatus</i>	golden rabbitfish	Inj	Ala	1	(Garcia, 1991)



2432					7	(Garcia, 1993)
	<i>Solea senegalensis</i>	Senegalese sole	EVAc	Ala <sup>4</sup>	25	(Guzmán et al., 2011 a, b)
2434	<i>Tinca tinca</i>	common tench	Inj	Arg	5	(Linhart et al., 1995)
			EVAc	Ala	5	(Linhart et al., 1995)

2436 <sup>1</sup> Chol = cholesterol/cellulose; EVAc = poly[ethylene-vinyl acetate]; FA = poly[fatty acid dimer-sebasic acid]; Inj = Injection(s); OP=Ovopel, pellet containing GnRH $\alpha$  (Ala) and metoclopramide

2438 <sup>2</sup> Ala = D-Ala<sup>6</sup> Pro<sup>9</sup> NEt-mGnRH; Arg = D-Arg<sup>6</sup> Pro<sup>9</sup> NEt-sGnRH; Naf = Azagly Nafareling (Gonazon); Phe = D-Phe<sup>6</sup> NH<sub>2</sub>-mGnRH ; Trp = D-Trp<sup>6</sup> -mGnRH

2440 <sup>3</sup> The enhancement period is in days (d) after treatment.

<sup>4</sup> Combination treatment with a dopamine antagonist (DA) such as pimozide, domperidone, reserpine or metoclopramide, or steroids.

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2444

**Table 4.** Representative effects of various hormonal manipulations on sperm quality parameters.

2446	Species	Common name	Hormone <sup>1</sup> treatment	Motility <sup>2</sup> %	Motility <sup>2</sup> duration	Sperm <sup>2</sup> density	Sperm <sup>2</sup> velocity	Reference
2448	<i>Abramis brama</i>	common bream	GtH	(+)				(Kucharczyk et al., 1997)
			hCG	(+)				(Kucharczyk et al., 1997)
2450	<i>Acanthopagrus australis</i>	yellowfin bream	GnRH <sub>a</sub>		(=)	(+)		(Black & Pankhurst, 2009)
	<i>Acipenser ruthenus</i>	sterlet	GnRH <sub>a</sub> , GtH	(+)			(+)	(Alavi et al., 2012)
2452	<i>Barbus barbus</i>	barbel	GnRH <sub>a</sub>	(=)		(=)	(=)	(Cejko et al., 2014)
	<i>Carassius carassius</i>	crucian carp	GnRH <sub>a</sub>	(=)		(=)	(=)	(Cejko et al., 2013)
2454	<i>Coregonus lavaretus</i>	European whitefish	GnRH <sub>a</sub>	(=)	(=)	(=)	(+)	(Wojtczak et al., 2005)
	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	common carp	GnRH <sub>a</sub>			(-)		(Takashima et al., 1984)
2456	<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	European seabass	GnRH <sub>a</sub>	(=)	(=)	(=)		(Rainis et al., 2003)
			hCG	(=)	(=)	(=)		(Schiavone et al., 2006)
2458	<i>Esox masquinongy</i>	muskellunge	GtH			(-)		(Lin & Dabrowski, 1996)
	<i>Esox lucius</i>	pike	GtH			(-)		(Billard & Marcel, 1980)
2460	<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	GnRH <sub>a</sub>	(+)		(+)		(Garber et al., 2009)
2462	<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i> Vermeirssen et al., 2004)	Atlantic halibut	GnRH <sub>a</sub>			(-)	(+)	(Vermeirssen et al., 2000;

	<i>Lates calcarifer</i>	seabass	GnRHa				(-)	(Hilomen-Garcia et al., 2002)	
2464	<i>Leuciscus leuciscus</i>	dace	GnRHa	(=)			(-)	(=)	(Cejko et al., 2012)
			GtH	(=)			(-)	(=)	(Cejko et al., 2012)
2466	<i>Morone chrysops</i>	white bass	GnRHa	(=)			(=)		(Mylonas et al., 1997c)
	<i>Morone saxatilis</i>	striped bass	GnRHa				(+/-)		(Mylonas et al., 1997b)
2468			GnRHa				(+/=)		(Mylonas et al., 1995)
	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	rainbow trout	GnRHa		(=)		(=)		(Heyrati et al., 2010)
2470	<i>Osmerus eperlanus</i>	smelt	GnRHa	(+)			(+/=)	(+)	(Kowalski et al., 2012)
			GnRHa	(=)	(=)		(-)	(=)	(Krol et al., 2009)
2472	<i>Pangasius bocourti</i>	Mekong catfish	GnRHa				(=)		(Cacot et al., 2003)
			hCG				(=)		(Cacot et al., 2003)
2474	<i>Platichthys stellatus</i>	starry flounder	GnRHa	(=)			(+/=)	(=)	(Moon et al., 2003)
	<i>Pleuronectes americanus</i>	winter flounder	GnRHa				(=)		(Harmin & Crim, 1993)
2476			GnRHa	(+/-)			(-)		(Shangguan & Crim, 1999)
			GtH	(=)	(=)		(-)		(Shangguan & Crim, 1999)
2478	<i>Pleuronectes ferrugineus</i>	yellowtail flounder	GnRHa	(+)	(+)		(=)		(Clearwater & Crim, 1998)
	<i>Rhombosolea tapirina</i>	greenback flounder	GnRHa		(=)		(-)	(=)	(Lim et al., 2004)
2480	<i>Rhynchocypris oxycephalus</i>	Chinese minnow	GnRHa				(-)		(Park et al., 2002)
			hCG				(-)		(Park et al., 2002)
2482	<i>Salmo trutta</i>	brown trout	GnRHa	(=)	(=)		(-)		(Mousavi et al., 2011)

	<i>Siganus guttatus</i>	golden rabbitfish	GnRHa	(-)	(Garcia, 1991; Garcia, 1993)
2484	<i>Silurus glanis</i>	European catfish	GtH	(=)	(Linhart & Billard, 1994)
	<i>Solea senegalensis</i>	Senegalese sole	GnRHa	(-)	(Guzmán et al., 2011b)

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2486 <sup>1</sup> GnRHa = gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists (w/without DA); human Chorionic Gonadotropin = hCG; Pituitary extracts or piscine GtHs (mainly LH) = GtH

2488 <sup>2</sup> (+) = increase; (-) = decrease; (=) = not affected. The absence of any symbol indicates that this parameter was not reported in the article.

2490

**Table 5.** Resource requirements, advantages and disadvantages for the different quantitative methods used to determine fish sperm density (mModified from Sørensen et al., 2013).

	<b>Quantification method</b>	<b>Requirements</b>	<b>Advantage</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
2494	Neubauer improved haemocytometer	Microscope, haemocytometer and trained personnel	Inexpensive, precise, and well described in the literature	Time consuming
2496	Spermatocrit	Centrifuge, microhaematocrit tubes tube sealant, and microhaematocrit tube reader	Fast, precise, and low level of training	Inaccurate, and sperm sedimentation
2498				
2500	Computer-Assisted Sperm Analysis (CASA)	Microscope, computer with frame grabber, CASA software, software calibration and specific training	Fast, additional measures of sperm quality may be obtained	Low precision, inaccurate, and trained personnel required
2502				
2504	Flow cytometry	Flow cytometer, and specific training	Precise and accurate a	Trained personnel required, need to extrapolate by equation, and expensive if fluorospheres are required
2506				

2508

**Table 6.** Representative applications of Computer-Assisted Sperm Analysis (CASA) in some aquaculture related areas.

2510	Research area	Species	Common name	Reference
	CASA development	<i>Acipenser ruthenus</i>	sterlet	(Boryshpolets et al., 2013)
2512		<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	(Gallego et al., 2013b)
		<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	common carp	(Boryshpolets et al., 2013)
2514		<i>Danio rerio</i>	zebrafish	(Wilson-Leedy et al., 2009)
		<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	rainbow trout	(Boryshpolets et al., 2013)
2516	Sperm cryopreservation	<i>Acipenser baerii</i>	Siberian sturgeon	(Judycka et al., 2015; Sieczynski et al., 2015)
		<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	(Asturiano et al., 2004, 2007)
2518		<i>Brycon orbignyanus</i>	piracanjuba	(López et al., 2015)
		<i>Clarias gariepinus</i>	African catfish	(Rurangwa et al., 2001)
2520		<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	common carp	(Warnecke & Pluta, 2003)
		<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	European seabass	(Cabrita et al., 2011)
2522		<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	(Butts et al., 2011a)
		<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>	Eurasian perch	(Bernáth et al., 2015)
2524		<i>Salmo salar</i>	Atlantic salmon	(Dziewulska et al., 2011)
		<i>Sparus aurata</i>	gilthead seabream	(Beirão et al., 2011b; Cabrita et al., 2010)
2526		<i>Thymallus thymallus</i>	grayling	(Horváth et al., 2015)
	Sperm chilled storage	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	(Peñaranda et al., 2010c)
2528		<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i>	Atlantic halibut	(Babiak et al., 2006)

		<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	rainbow trout	(Lahnsteiner et al., 2004)
2530		<i>Salmo trutta</i>	brown trout	(Formicki et al., 2015)
		<i>Steindachneridion parahybae</i>	surubim-do-Paraíba	(Sanches et al., 2015)
2532	Activation media tests	<i>Coregonus lavaretus</i>	European whitefish	(Dziewulska et al., 2015)
		<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	common carp	(Zarski et al., 2015)
2534		<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	steelhead	(Kanuga et al., 2012)
		<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>	Eurasian perch	(Lahnsteiner, 2011)
2536	Broodstock management	<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	European seabass	(Felip et al., 2006)
		<i>Solea senegalensis</i>	Senegalese sole	(Beirão et al., 2011a)
2538	Spermiation induction	<i>Acipenser ruthenus</i>	sterlet	(Alavi et al., 2012)
		<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	(Asturiano et al., 2005; Gallego et al., 2015)
2540		<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i>	Atlantic halibut	(Vermeirssen et al., 2004)
		<i>Osmerus eperlanus</i>	smelt	(Kowalski et al., 2012)
2542	<i>In vitro</i> fertilization trials	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	(Butts et al., 2014)
		<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i>	Atlantic halibut	(Ottesen et al., 2009)
2544		<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	rainbow trout	(Tuset et al., 2008c)
		<i>Pagrus major</i>	red seabream	(Liu et al., 2007)
2546	Diet evaluation	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	(Baeza et al., 2015a; Butts et al., 2015)
		<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	European seabass	(Martínez-Páramo et al., 2012a, b)
2548		<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	(Butts et al., 2011c)

		<i>Solea senegalensis</i>	Senegalese sole	(Beirão et al., 2015)
2550	Comparative physiology	<i>Acipenser gueldenstaedtii</i>	Russian sturgeon	(Li et al., 2012)
		<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	(Butts et al., 2010c)
2552		<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i>	Atlantic halibut	(Alavi et al., 2011)
		<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	rainbow trout	(Wojtczak et al., 2007a)
2554		<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	chinook salmon	(Lehnert et al., 2012)
		<i>Salvelinus namaycush</i>	Lake trout	(Galvano et al., 2013)

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2558 **Table 7.** Representative applications of Assisted Sperm Morphometry Analysis (ASMA) software in some aquaculture related areas.

	<b>Research area</b>	<b>Species</b>	<b>Common name</b>	<b>Reference</b>
2560	Reproductive strategies	<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	(Butts et al., 2010b)
		<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	chinook salmon	(Flannery et al., 2013)
2562	Sperm chilled storage and/or cryopreservation	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	(Marco-Jiménez et al., 2006b; Peñaranda et al., 2010c)
2564		<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	European seabass	(Peñaranda et al., 2008)
2566		<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	(Butts et al., 2010a)
		<i>Sparus aurata</i>	gilthead seabream	(Gallego et al., 2012a)
2568	Relation with sperm motility	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	(Asturiano et al., 2006)
		<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	(Butts et al., 2010b; Tuset et al., 2008a)
2570	Technique development	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	rainbow trout	(Tuset et al., 2008c)
		<i>Anguilla Anguilla</i>	European eel	(Asturiano et al., 2006)
2572		<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	(Butts et al., 2011c)
		<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	rainbow trout	(Tuset et al., 2008b)
2574	Comparative physiology	<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	chinook salmon	(Butts et al., 2011b)
		<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	(Gallego et al., 2014a; Peñaranda et al., 2010b)
2576		<i>Diplodus puntazzo</i>	sharpnout seabream	(Marco-Jiménez et al., 2008)
		<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	(Butts et al., 2010b; 2011c)

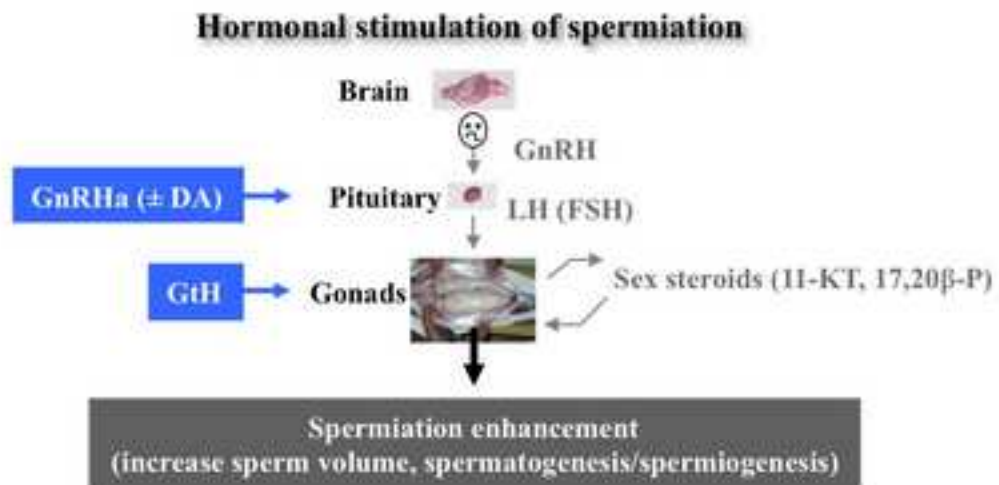
2578                      *Sparus aurata*                      gilthead seabream                      (Marco-Jiménez et al., 2008)

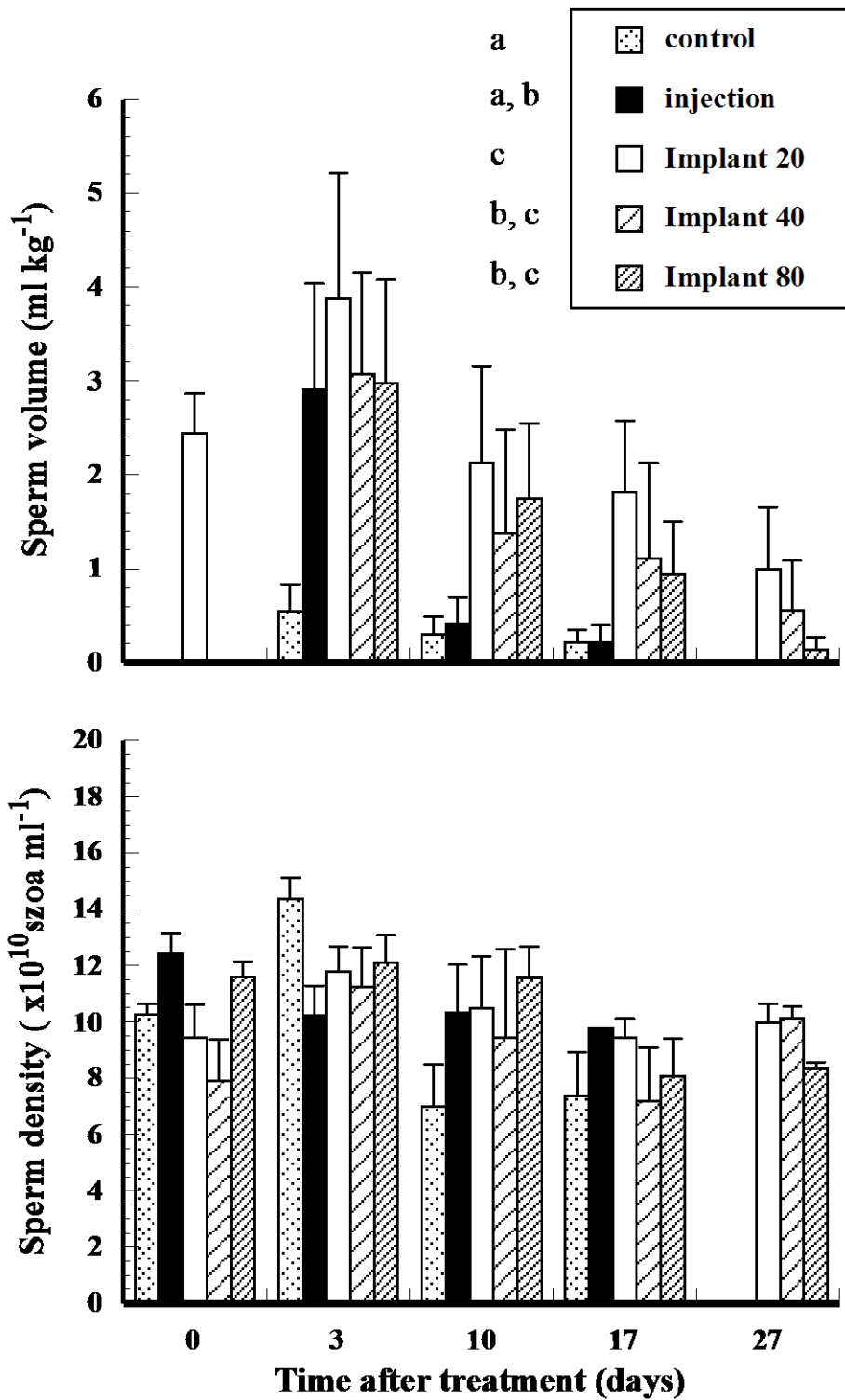
*Takifugu niphobles*                      pufferfish                      (Gallego et al., 2014b)

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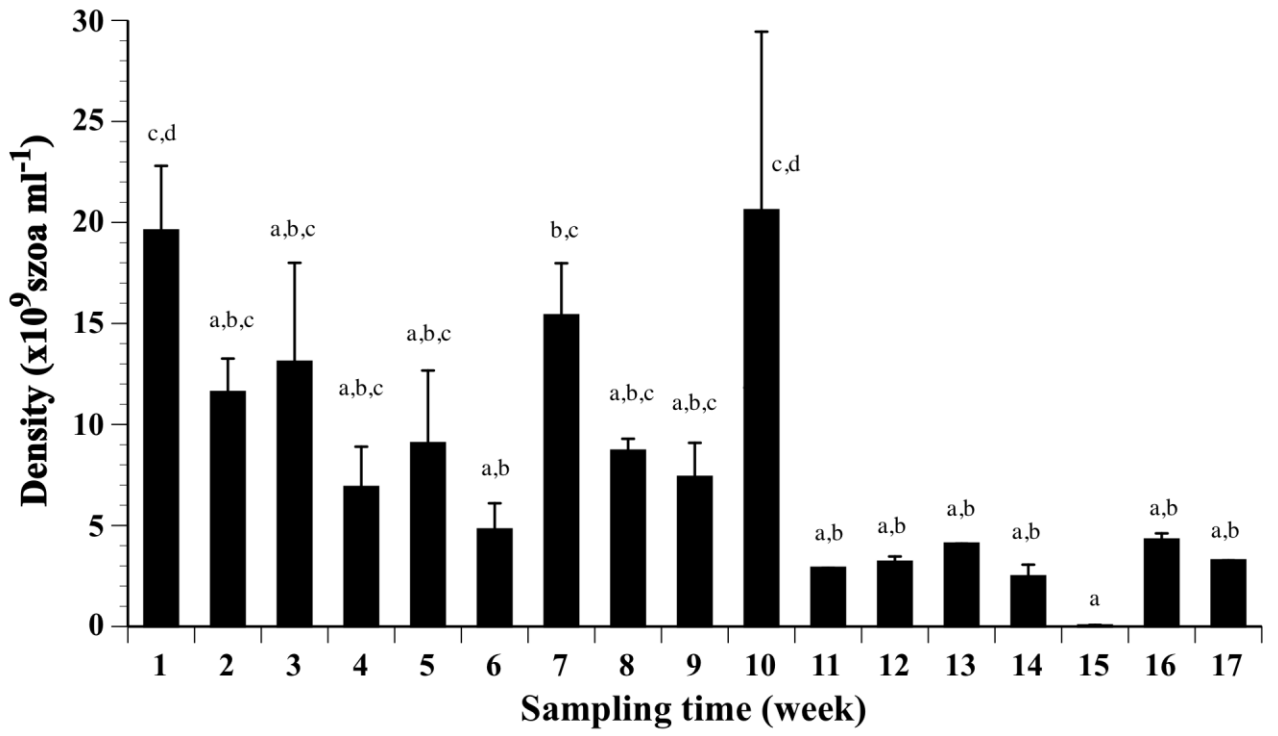
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Mylonas et al.  
Fig. 2



Mylonas et al.  
Fig. 3

