

Fish Cell Cultures - Uses and Prospects

Suja Aarattuthodi*, Vandana Dharan, Manoj Koshy

Thad Cochran National Warmwater Aquaculture Center, Mississippi State University, Stoneville, Mississippi, USA

ABSTRACT

Fish cell cultures are employed in diverse research fields such as virology, physiology, toxicology, immunology, genetics, and pharmacology. These systems can be utilized for pathogen detection, confirmation, propagation, and characterization, especially of viruses. Cell cultures are also utilized in the case of intracellular bacteria, *Myxosporean*, or *Microsporidian* parasites. Fish cell cultures have gained more popularity in recent years and have prominent roles as model systems and in the large-scale production of biologicals. The recent swift growth observed in research employing cell cultures is definitely an outcome of the progress in this sector and also due to increasing ethical demands for reduction and replacement of animals used in research. *In vitro* fish cell cultures are excellent research models in simulating host animal *in vivo*. The diverse applications of fish cell cultures in various research fields are attributed to their versatility, cost-effectiveness, convenience in handling, and ease in genetic manipulation. For several infectious viral diseases, as therapeutic options are limited, early disease diagnosis and prophylactic measures are crucial for efficient fish health management. In this scenario, a better understanding of the viral pathogenesis and mechanisms utilizing *in vitro* cell lines are essential to facilitate disease management strategies such as vaccines and antiviral agents. Moreover, host preferences of pathogens, virus-host cell interactions, and virus localization can also be studied using cell cultures. Availability of host-specific or host-susceptible fish cell cultures is very limited, which is a major concern in this area. In near future, innovations in 3D cell culture, stem cells, and genome editing will further enhance the research prospects of fish cell cultures.

Keywords: Fish cell culture; *In vitro*; *In vivo*; Model systems; Virus

INTRODUCTION

Culture of cells in a controlled environment is referred to as cell culture. The versatility, cost-effectiveness, and high potential of cell cultures facilitate their use in diverse research fields [1-3]. In addition, cell cultures are utilized in the mass production of commercially relevant biologicals.

Fish cell cultures have gained more popularity in recent years due to progress in this sector and increasing ethical demands for the reduction, replacement, and refinement (the 3 R's) of animal use in research [4-6]. Different animal activist groups, environmental agencies, and cosmetic industries are also insistent in reducing animal testing and promote alternate *in vitro* models. In addition to avoiding the social and ethical concerns of animal use in research and several regulatory concerns, fish cell cultures offer multiple advantages such as easy dosing of drugs, reproducibility, rapid test results, and economical feasibility [7-11].

The acceptance of fish cell lines in various research disciplines is due to their ease of generation, maintenance, potential for

genetic manipulation, quantification, characterization, and cryopreservation for future applications [12,13]. Fish-derived cells can be cultured in a wide range of temperatures and osmolarity conditions and are easily adjusted to bicarbonate buffered media [14-18]. In addition, the methodology for fish cell culture is more or less similar to that for terrestrial vertebrates. Also, fish cells can be maintained for longer periods of time due to lower metabolic rates [15,16].

Both primary (cells isolated directly from the host tissue) and established cell cultures (immortal) are used in research (Table 1). Primary cultures are physiologically closer to the host and thereby serve as an appropriate model [19]. In comparison, established cell lines are cancerous and might have lost normal host physiological properties [19-25]. A list of fish cell lines available from ATCC (American Type Culture Collection) and ECACC (The European Collection of Authenticated Cell Cultures) including the species of fish and tissue of origin is provided (Table 2). Cell cultures of marine fish and invertebrate origin (Tables 3 and 4) are also provided.

Correspondence to: Suja Aarattuthodi, Thad Cochran National Warmwater Aquaculture Center, Mississippi State University, Stoneville, Mississippi, USA

Received: 23-Sep-2021, Manuscript No. jard-21-14366; **Editor assigned:** 27-Sep-2021, Pre QC No. jard-21-14366 (PQ); **Reviewed:** 11-Oct-2022, QC No. jard-21-14366; **Revised:** 15-Oct-2021, Manuscript No. jard-21-14366(R); **Published:** 22-Oct-2021, DOI: 10.35248/2155-9546.22.13.667.

Citation: Aarattuthodi S, Dharan V, Koshy M (2021) Fish Cell Cultures - Uses and Prospects. J Aquac Res Dev. 13:667.

Copyright: © 2021 Aarattuthodi S, et al. This is an open access article distributed under the term of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Table 1: Characteristics of primary cell cultures and established cell lines [24,25,28,47,154-156].

Primary Cell Cultures	Established Cell Lines
Derived directly from host tissues/tumors.	Cell transformation can be spontaneous or induced by viral oncogenes, chemicals and radiation. Can be developed from tumor tissues.
Can be initiated either as explants or from enzymatically dissociated cells.	Lost many properties of the parental cell tissue, less preferred as a biologically relevant option, authentication required before use.
Closely represent host tissue, physiologically more similar to <i>in vivo</i> cells.	Infinite lifespan, immortal as neoplastic cells, proliferate indefinitely given appropriate culture conditions.
No authentication required prior to use.	Completely adapted to culture, rapid growth rate, reduced serum dependence, absence of contact inhibition.
Finite life span, undergo senescence after a definite number of cell divisions. Usually 5-20 divisions.	Loss of cell specificity/ identity (due to high mutations and clonal selections).
Minimal adaptation to culture media, slow growth rate, high serum requirement, shows (susceptible to) contact inhibition.	Aneuploidy chromosome
Retention of cell identity, tissue-specific functions.	Homogenous/clonal cell population, stop expressing tissue-specific genes.
Normal number of chromosomes	Generated from cells with high mutations and clonal selections. Shows genotypic and phenotypic drift.
Heterogeneous cell population, possibilities to study cells with varied donor characteristics.	Cells have overcome the Hay flick's limit. Shows phenotypic alterations from donor tissues/cells.
Initiated from a broad range of tissues and fish spp. allowing to study species-specific responses.	Less expensive, easy to handle and manipulate genetically; can be cryopreserved indefinitely.
There appears to be a correlation between the maximum number of passages and aging.	Fast growth and provision of higher cell density
Development is more difficult compared to established cell lines.	Can harbor mycoplasma, usually free of microbes
Expensive to maintain.	Reproducible and convenient source of cells
Cell density might be a limiting factor	
Potential to harbor resident pathogens	
Necessity to isolate cells for each experiment	

Table 2: List of cell lines developed from warmwater and cold-water fish species and currently available from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and the European Collection of Authenticated Cell Cultures (ECACC) [157-159]. This is not an exhaustive list.

Fish Type & Family	Species of Origin	Cell Line	Growth Mode
Warmwater fish			
Cyprinidae	<i>Danio rerio</i> (zebra fish)	ZF4	Adherent
	<i>Danio rerio</i> (zebra fish)	ZEM2S	Adherent
	<i>Danio rerio</i> (zebra fish)	AB.9	Adherent
	<i>Danio rerio</i> (zebra fish)	SJD.1	Adherent
	<i>Pimephales promelas</i> (fathead minnow)	FHM	Adherent
	<i>Pimephales promelas</i> (fathead minnow)	EPC	Adherent
	<i>Cyprinus rubrofasciatus</i> (Koi carp)	KF1	Adherent
	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i> (Common carp)	CCB	Adherent
	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i> (Common carp)	CLC	Adherent
	<i>Carassius auratus</i> (Goldfish)	CAR	Adherent
Poeciliidae	<i>Poeciliopsis lucida</i> (live bearer)	PLHC-1	Adherent
Clariidae	<i>Clarias batrachus</i> (walking catfish)	G1B	Adherent
	<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (channel catfish)	G14D	Suspension
	<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (channel catfish)	3B11	Suspension
	<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (channel catfish)	28S.3	Suspension
Ictaluridae	<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (channel catfish)	42TA	Suspension
	<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (channel catfish)	1G8	Suspension
	<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (channel catfish)	CCO	Adherent
	<i>Ictalurus nebulosus</i> (brown bullhead)	BB	Adherent
Centrarchidae	<i>Lepomis macrochirus</i> (blue gill)	BF-2	Adherent

Moronidae	<i>Morone chrysops</i> (White bass)	WBE	Adherent
Cichlidae	<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i> (Tilapia)	OmB	Adherent
Channidae	<i>Channa striatus</i> (Striped snakehead)	E11	Adherent
	<i>Channa striatus</i> (Striped snakehead)	SSN-1	Adherent
Tetraodontidae	<i>Fugu niphobles</i> (Grass puffer fish)	Fugu fry	Adherent
Cold-water Fish			
Salmonidae	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (Rainbow trout)	RTgill-W1	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (Rainbow trout)	RTH-149	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (Rainbow trout)	RTG-2	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (Rainbow trout)	SOB-15	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (Rainbow trout)	RTG-P1	Adherent
	<i>Salmo salar</i> (Atlantic salmon)	ASK	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i> (Coho salmon)	CSE-119	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i> (Chinook salmon)	CHH-1	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus nerka</i> (Sockeye salmon)	SSE-5	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i> (Chinook salmon)	CHSE-214	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (Rainbow trout)	STE-137	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (Rainbow trout)	TPS	Adherent
	<i>Oncorhynchus keta</i> (Chum salmon)	CHH	Adherent
Esocidae	<i>Esox lucius</i> (Northern pike)	PG	Adherent

Table 3: Cell lines of marine fish origin [116,140,142,143]. The cell lines (SAF, SaBE-1c) are currently available from the cell culture repositories.

Family	Species of Origin	Cell Line	Growth Mode
Gadidae	<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i> (Haddock)	HEW	Adherent
	<i>Pagrus major</i> (Red sea bream)	SBES1	Adherent
Sparidae	<i>Sparus aurata</i> (Gilthead seabream)	SAF	Adherent
	<i>Sparus aurata</i> (Gilthead seabream)	SaBE-1c	Adherent
Paralichthyidae	<i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> (Olive flounder)	OFEC-17FEN	Adherent
Scophthalmidae	<i>Scophthalmus maximus</i> (Turbot)	TEC	Adherent
Lateolabracidae	<i>Lateolabrax japonicus</i> (Japanese sea bass)	LJES1	Adherent
Pomacentridae	<i>Amphiprion ocellaris</i> (Ocellaris clownfish)	OCF	Adherent
Gadidae	<i>Gadus morhua</i> (Atlantic cod)	GML-5	Adherent

Table 4: Cell lines originated from aquatic invertebrates. These are not currently available from the cell culture repositories.

Family	Species of Origin	Cell Culture	Growth Mode
Nephropidae	<i>Homarus americanus</i> (American lobster)	Olfactory sensory neurons (Primary culture)	Adherent
Palinuridae	<i>Panulirus argus</i> (Caribbean spiny lobster)	Hemocytes (Primary culture)	Adherent
Ostreidae	<i>Crassostrea gigas</i> (Pacific oyster)	Heart tissue (primary culture)	Adherent
Planorbidae	<i>Biomphalaria glabrata</i> (freshwater snail)	Bge	Adherent
	<i>Penaeus monodon</i> (tiger shrimp)	PmLyO-Sf9	Adherent
Penaeidae	<i>P. monodon</i> (tiger shrimp)	PMO	Adherent
Portunidae	<i>Scylla serrata</i> (giant mud crab)	Testicular tissue (# no designation)	Adherent

Applications of fish cell cultures

Rainbow Trout Gonad (RTG2) was the very first fish cell line to be developed and used for virus studies [26]. Subsequently, several fish cell lines were established from different fish species and employed in diverse research fields including immunology, toxicology, genetic engineering, genetic regulation, gene expression studies, endocrinology, biomedical research, disease control, biotechnology, biomedical research, and radiation biology [9,26-35]. With the growing concerns for animal welfare, there is more

than ever pressure to find alternatives for animal use in research, and cell cultures could be the perfect substitute. Some of the applications of fish cell cultures are given below.

Model systems: Since *in vitro* cell cultures mimic the host animal *in vivo*, fish cell cultures act as excellent research models. Also, these are not subjected to interference from environmental disturbances to which animals are sensitive. On the other hand, genetic manipulations of the cells can be easily achieved to study differential expression of genes and or proteins. Consistency and reproducibility of results are added advantages. Cell cultures

have been increasingly used as model systems to study basic cell biology, physiology, cellular communications, signaling pathways, expression profiling, apoptosis, interactions between cells and pathogenic agents, effects of drugs, metabolic effects of nutritional elements, and mutagenesis. They are also important model systems in embryology, neurobiology, endocrinology, and environmental biology. Consequently, cultured cells are vital for the identification of specific molecules and/or mechanisms used in initial pathogen-host cell interactions. For example, the macrophage cells from tilapia gill were used to investigate the attachment of pathogens during infection [36]. Ease of manipulation and homology with functional genes engaged in human diseases make zebra fish cell lines, a potential *in vitro* model to study diseases as well as cellular processes [37-40]. Many fish-derived cell lines were used to explore the field of fish endocrinology [29,41,42].

Virology: Being obligate intracellular parasites, viruses require host cell machinery for replication and propagation. Cell cultures are considered 'the gold standard' due to their diverse roles in virology such as detection, identification, propagation, isolation, confirmation, and characterization of viruses [43-45]. Due to the relevance of cells in virology, the OIE (Office International des Epizooties) protocols require cell cultures, in viral disease diagnosis and confirmation. Fish cell cultures can function as an effective replacement for animals, especially in the field of virology [46-49]. Cell cultures can be reliable sources of viruses when compared to the uncertainties associated with obtaining viruses from infected animals for research purposes [50,51].

Susceptible cell lines are essential to determine the detailed etiology of viruses as evidenced in the case of Infectious Pancreatic Necrosis (IPN) and Infectious Hematopoietic Necrosis (IHN) viruses [46,49]. For the emerging fish viruses, the infectious cycle, mode of infection, pathogenicity, potential host range, and viral replication inhibition strategies need to be determined for establishing

comprehensive management approaches. Since treatment options are limited for many viral diseases, early disease diagnosis and proactive management measures are key for successful fish health management.

Many fish cell lines have been established for the detection and isolation of fish viruses and are valuable for studying species-specific responses to viral infection at the cellular level. Cell cultures are an integral part of verifying River's postulates to establish the causative agent of a disease as a virus [52]. Replication and propagation of virus in the host cells result in Cytopathic Effects (CPEs) (Figure 1). Cell cultures are also increasingly utilized to determine cellular translocation and localization of viral proteins during acute and chronic infections. For example, the Viral Hemorrhagic Septicemia Virus (VHSV) was detected in Fat-Head Minnow (FHM) cell line by using RNA probes targeting viral transcripts.

Cell lines of aquatic invertebrate origin are scarce (Table 4). Some of the finfish cell lines are used to study viruses isolated from molluscs and crustaceans. For example, Akoya virus infecting pearl oysters was cultured in Eel Kidney (EK-1) and EPC cell lines [53]. Bluegill Fry (BF2) cell lines were used to propagate a reo-like virus isolated from juvenile American oyster, *Crassostrea virginica* [54].

Virus isolation relies on the availability of permissible cell cultures. In this context, suitable fish cell cultures for the propagation of viruses and disease diagnosis are very limited, which is a major concern in this area. Host and tissue-specificity of viruses necessitate the development of cell cultures from appropriate hosts and from different tissues to represent diverse cell types (epithelial cells, fibroblast cells, etc.). For example, ictalurid herpesviruses, cyprinid herpesviruses (koi herpesvirus, goldfish hematopoietic necrosis virus, and carp pox virus), salmonid herpesvirus, acipenserid herpesvirus, and walleye herpesvirus are highly host-specific and most of them are refractory to nonspecific cell cultures [55-57]. Species-specific cell cultures are relevant to study the evolving and

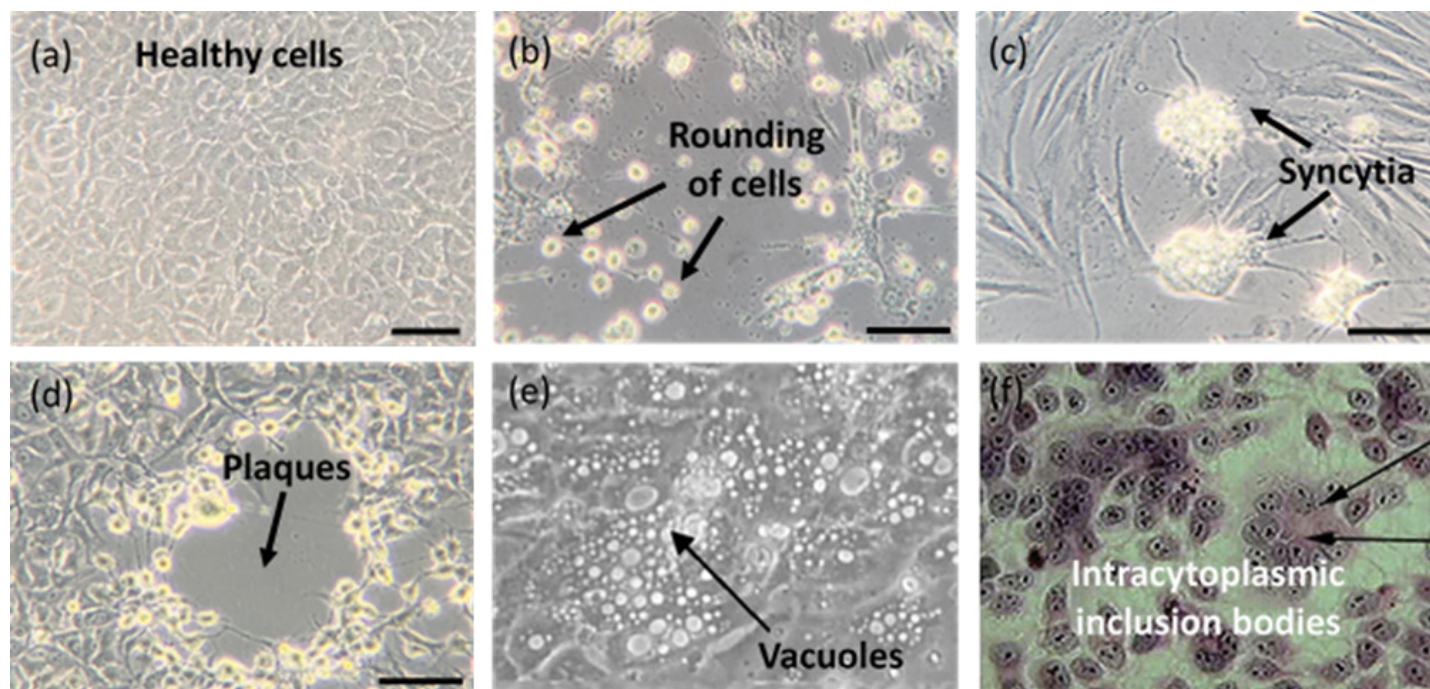


Figure 1: Cytopathic Effects (CPEs) displayed by viruses in susceptible host cell lines. (a) healthy catfish cell line, (b-d) cells infected with catfish viruses displaying CPEs such as rounding of cells, syncytia, plaques, and destruction of cell monolayer, (e) vacuoles in Vero cells caused by vaccinia virus, and (f) intracytoplasmic inclusion bodies in carp cells infected with koi herpesvirus (scale bar-10 μ m) [43,44,57,152,153].

infectious fish viruses that affect the aquaculture industry. The unavailability of suitable fish cell cultures hinders investigations on newly emerging unknown viruses [18,58,59].

Attenuated viral vaccines can be developed by repeatedly passing the wild-type virus through susceptible fish cell cultures, which has proven to weaken the virus [60]. Virus attenuation has been achieved in the case of koi herpesvirus vaccine in koi fin cell culture [61] and Channel Catfish Virus (CCV) vaccine in *Clarias batrachus* kidney cell line [60]. Cyprinid Herpesvirus (CyHV3) was attenuated by serial transfer (20 passages) of the virus in Koi fin (KF-2) cells and found to be very effective against CyHV3 infections [61-63]. Attenuation using cell culture systems also avoids undesired recombination, complementation, and reversion to a pathogenic virus as evidenced in previously published studies.

Research on antivirals

Fish cell lines are routinely used for screening antiviral compounds [64,65]. Hao K, et al. [66] reported the efficacy of acyclovir, a common antiviral to treat human herpesvirus infection, against channel catfish virus infection in CCO cells. Acyclovir was also found to exert effective antiviral activity against cyprinid herpesvirus-3 (CyHV-3) infection in Common Carp Brain (CCB) and Koi Fin cells (KF-1) [67]. Exopolysaccharides isolated from the algae *Arthrospira platensis* inhibited KHV replication in CCB cell lines [68]. Similarly, polyinosinic polycytidylic acid (poly I:C) was reported to induce an antiviral state in CHSE-214 cell line against IPNV [69]. Balmer BF, et al. [70] studied the efficacy of a compound against Infectious Hematopoietic Necrosis Virus (IHNV) using EPC cell lines, which was found to hinder viral entry by inhibiting virus-host cell membrane fusion.

Toxicology

Being relevant representatives for the aquatic environment, fish cell cultures function as apt alternative for animals and are extensively used as *in vitro* models for environmental toxicology studies especially cytotoxicity analysis [8,30,71-75]. In addition to avoiding high costs and variability of results; the genotoxicity of chemicals, metabolism, DNA binding, and mode of action can be evaluated [73,76-79]. Fish hepatoma cell lines were found useful to test the xenobiotic efflux activity of human drugs [80]. Fish cell lines were used to evaluate the cytotoxicity of chromium, Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAH), and aflatoxins [76,77,81,82] using comet assays and or neutral red dye uptake method [80,83-85].

Fish cell cultures were found sensitive to several bacterial or fungal toxins/extracellular products [86-88]. The EPC cell line was found to be a suitable substrate for the study of intracellular antigens and virulence factors produced by *Renibacterium salmoninarum* [89].

Drug screening and development

Cell-based assays have become an inevitable part of the pharmaceutical industry for high throughput screening of potential compounds and to test the cytotoxicity of candidate drugs. Other related applications include dose optimization, drug delivery, drug safety, pharmacology, cellular targeting, pharmaceutical analysis, and quality assurance [31,90]. Fish cell cultures can potentially play an important role in the research and development of drugs aimed to benefit fish and also to identify therapeutic targets such

as receptors.

Production of biologicals

Cell cultures allow for the large-scale production of vaccines, interferons, blood clotting factors, monoclonal antibodies (mABs), interleukins, lymphokines, insulin, growth factors, hormones, viruses, enzymes, and anticancer agents [11,73,91-97]. Fish cell lines are less expensive and thus more economical for the mass production of biologicals compared to mammalian cell cultures [98]. Fish cell cultures can act as miniature factories to express substantial quantities of commercially important proteins after being infected with genetically engineered baculoviruses. More than 90% of the mABs are produced using *in vitro* methods due to the ease of culture and less economic consideration compared with the use of animals. Human cell lines are used to produce numerous FDA-approved therapeutic proteins [99]. Similar efforts could be ventured using fish cell cultures.

Genome editing

Cell lines are amenable for genetic modifications. Hence, fish cell cultures are used in knockout studies, where certain genes are inactivated and their effects are traced. The first gene editing using CRISPR-cas9 system in fish somatic cell lines [100] was followed by several such studies [101]. Chinook salmon embryo (CHSE-214) cell line capable of expressing geneticin and hygromycin resistance was generated by knockout technology. Liu Q, et al. [102] reported successful gene editing using gRNA-Cas9 Ribonucleoprotein (RNP) Complex in medaka embryonic cell lines. Gratacap RL, et al. [103] developed protocols for successful CRISPR gene editing in CHSE-214 cell line using lentivirus transduction which could be used to manipulate disease resistance in salmonid species. Chang N, et al. [104] and Hwang WY, et al. [105] successfully carried out genome editing with RNA-guided Cas9 nuclease in zebrafish embryos. Fish cells can be fused with one another and with mammalian cells [106,107]. For example, microcells have been prepared from goldfish RBCF-1 and fused with human cells [108].

Embryonic stem cells

Embryonic Stem (ES) cells are pluripotent (ability to differentiate into any cell type) and used in biodiversity conservation and biotechnology studies [109]. Extensive studies in fish ES have been done in small model fishes, such as zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) and medaka (*Oryzias latipes*) due to the convenience in combining embryological, genetic and molecular analysis of vertebrate development [109-112]. Fish ES cell lines are used as a vector for the efficient transfer of foreign DNA into the germ cells of an organism. Hong Y, et al. [113] developed a spermatogonial cell line from the testis of adult medaka fish which produced viable sperm via spermiogenesis. With the hybrid catfish (♀ channel catfish × ♂ blue catfish) production, the blue catfish are sacrificed for sperm collection. Development of a blue catfish spermatogonial cell line could be of potential benefit to the industry. Embryonic germ cell transplantation was successfully used for surrogate production in salmonids [114]. Embryonic cell lines have been established from catfish, Nile tilapia and several marine fish species [115-120].

Cancer research

Normal cells can be transformed into cancer cells using radiation, chemicals, and viruses to study the mechanism and functions of

various carcinogenic chemicals, induction of cellular apoptosis, DNA methylation, histone modifications, tumor suppressor gene expressions, etc. [121]. Fish cell lines are used in cancer biology to study the mechanism of activation of procarcinogens, molecular damage, and DNA repair activity [122]. Fathead Minnow Cells (FHM), goldfish erythrocytes, and goldfish fibroblast cell lines were used to study the mechanism and activation of procarcinogens and subsequently the damage and repair of genetic materials [29,122].

Parasitology

Several fish cell cultures were used to study the development and pathogenesis of parasites [123-126]. EPC cell line supported the attachment and transformation of various stages of a fish ectoparasite, *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis* [127]. Buchmann K, et al. [128] studied the non-specific response of EPC to encapsulate and degrade the fish parasite *Gyrodactylus derjavini*. Primary cell cultures derived from salmonid fish allowed investigation of the phagocytic activity of microsporidian parasite *Loma salmonae* [129]. Primary cultures of rainbow trout kidney were used to study the comparative development of two microsporidians infecting AIDS patients and salmonid fish [130].

Regenerative therapy

Cell culture systems can produce functional cells or tissue analogues on a large-scale that can be used as replacement tissue or organs [131]. Reconstitution of skin following severe burns is considered the most successful application of cell-based regenerative therapy. In this regard, fish cell cultures are experimentally utilized for producing artificial skin to treat patients with burns and ulcers.

Three-dimensional cell cultures

Since cells in 3D systems interact with their surroundings in all three dimensions; these models are physiologically similar to *in vivo* conditions and provide more reliable data. The 3D spheroids of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) cell lines, RTG-2 and RTS-11 were successfully developed and tested for their efficiency to propagate *Saprolegnia parasitica* spores that resembled *in vivo* infection [132,133]. The 3D cell cultures raise the possibility for the study of complex physiological processes *in vitro*.

Cell-based fish

Cell culture systems can function as an innovative way of animal-free production. Considering the adaptation of fish cell culture to *in vitro* growth conditions in terms of tolerance to hypoxia, high buffering capacity, and low-temperature, an advanced approach towards the sustainability of global fishery resources is the production of cell and tissue culture-based seafood through bioreactor culture [134-136]. Benjaminson MA, et al. [137] used tissue engineering for the *in vitro* culture of skeletal muscle of goldfish that resembled the fillet from a fibroblast fish cell line to use in space travel.

Other uses

A recent study by Morin G, et al. [138] revealed the nutritional-research capabilities of fish cell lines. Another study by Lescat L, et al. [139] used fibroblast cell line from medaka fish (*Oryzias latipes*) to demonstrate that chaperone-mediated autophagy (CMA) pathway involving lysosomal proteolysis exists in fish, which was thought to be present only in mammals and birds. This study was a breakthrough in fish metabolism and provided insight into the

evolutionary relationship of vertebrates including fish, mammals, and birds. The potential utility of fish cell lines for transgenic and genetic manipulation studies was identified from the fluorescent signals produced, when transfected with pEGFP vector DNA [86,140-144].

Toxins produced by fish species such as chimeras, sharks, sting-rays, silurid catfish, and surgeonfish, stone-fish, and rabbitfish exhibit enzymatic, antimicrobial, cytotoxic, hemolytic, cardiovascular, neuromuscular, and anti-cancerous properties and have pharmacological and therapeutic applications [145-147]. Maintenance of venom gland organoids via 3D technology can be used to produce venom for use in biomedical research [148].

While the applications of cell cultures are numerous, one must be mindful of the disadvantages as well. Cell lines are prone to genotypic and phenotypic drift [149]. Another concern is misidentification or cell line cross-contamination [150]. Apart from these, several biological pathways cannot be represented by cell line, which limits their use in certain research areas. Primary cells and cell lines could show variability in drug dose, thus the data acquired through cell lines need to be adjusted or cannot easily be replicated in an *in vivo* model. Additionally, primary cell cultures have the potential to harbor resident pathogens [28]. In research involving fish cell cultures (in virology and toxicology), a common practice observed is to use non-specific cells [29,30,47] unlike in mammalian biology studies. Utilizing fish cell lines with specific functions (originated from specific tissue type) will greatly advance fundamental knowledge in the respective fields [151-159].

CONCLUSION

Fish cell culture systems have the advantages of defined, but pliable physiochemical environment, cost-effectiveness, convenience, and infinite source of cells exhibiting a high degree of homogeneity. Though fish cell cultures have proven to be a successful biological alternative to the use of animals in research, fish as a source of cell lines remains unexplored. Despite the huge diversity in fish species, there is still a scarcity of host-specific fish cell lines in the aquaculture research which is concerning. Considering the wide diversity of fish, there is untapped potential for the development of cell cultures from various fish species and tissues, allowing the study of species-specific as well as tissue-specific responses of cells towards different etiologic agents.

Since it will be beneficial for researchers to have the high biological relevance of primary cells and the proliferative capacity of cell lines, attempts are made to combine primary cells with 3D cell culture. More research progress in this direction with fish cell cultures will be appreciated. As properly standardized *in vitro* assays can provide relevant data, cell cultures should be given proper care and quality control measures including the use of standardized media and other commercially available laboratory reagents.

In near future, innovations in 3D cell culture and CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing will further enhance the research prospects of fish cell culture systems. So far, fish cell lines have been an under-utilized research resource. In the coming years, the fish cell area will see diverse applications in molecular biology especially in gene editing, production of recombinant proteins, and regenerative therapies. Its enormous potential in the fields of stem cells has hardly started to be realized. Across the world, scientists are trying to improve cell lines for enhanced growth, product synthesis, energy metabolism, etc. employing genomic and proteomic approaches. Undoubtedly,

cell cultures are likely to be the key technology for the foreseeable future.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors have no conflicts of interest.

References

- Carrel A, Burrows MT. Cultivation of tissues *in vitro* and its technique. *J Exp Med*. 1911;13(3):387.
- Lynn, D. E. Cell culture. *Encyclopedia of Insects*. 2009;2:144-145
- Sykes JE, Rankin SC. Isolation in cell culture. Canine and feline infectious diseases. 2014;2.
- Russell WM, Burch RL. The principles of humane experimental technique. Methuen. 1959.
- Balls M, Riddell RJ, Worden AN. Animals and alternatives in toxicity testing. Academic Press, London. 1983;175-184.
- Vertrees RA, Goodwin T, Jordan JM, Zwischenberger JB. Tissue culture models. In *Molecular Pathol of Lung Dis*. 2008;150-165.
- Wolf K, Ahne W. *Advances in cell culture*. Academic Press. 1982;2:305-328.
- Babich H, Rosenberg DW, Borenfreund E. *In vitro* cytotoxicity studies with the fish hepatoma cell line, PLHC-1 (*Poeciliopsis lucida*). *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf*. 1991;21(3):327-336.
- Bols NC, Lee LE. Technology and uses of cell cultures from the tissues and organs of bony fish. *Cytotechnol*. 1991;6(3):163-187.
- Quintero-RP, Arango MT, Castiblanco J, Correa NE, Montoya-OG. Analysis of proteins and antibodies. In *Autoimmunity: From Bench to Bedside*. 2013.
- Verma A, Verma M, Singh A. Animal tissue culture principles and applications. *Anim Biotechnol*. 2020;269-293.
- Mazur P. Freezing of living cells: mechanisms and implications. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol*. 1984;247(3):125-142.
- Thangaraj RS, Ravi C, Kumar R, Dharmaratnam A, Saidmuhammed BV, Pradhan PK, et al. Derivation of two tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) cell lines for efficient propagation of Tilapia Lake Virus (TiLV). *Aquaculture*. 2018;492:206-214.
- Leibovitz A. The growth and maintenance of tissue-cell cultures in free gas exchange with the atmosphere. *Am J Hyg*. 1963;78(2):173-180.
- Wolf K, Quimby MC. Primary monolayer culture of fish cells initiated from minced tissues. *TCA manual/Tissue Culture Association*. 1976a;2(4):445-448.
- Wolf K, Quimby MC. Primary monolayer culture of fish cells initiated from trypsinized tissues. *TCA manual/Tissue Culture Association*. 1976b;2(4):453-456.
- Lannan CN. Fish cell culture: a protocol for quality control. *J Meth Cell Sci*. 1994;16(2):95-98.
- Pandey G. Overview of fish cell lines and their uses. *Int J Pharm Res Sci*. 2013;2:580-590.
- Uysal O, Sevimli T, Sevimli M, Gunes S, Sariboyaci AE. Cell and tissue culture: The base of biotechnology. In *Omics Technologies and Bio-Engineering*. 2018:391-429.
- Luginbuhl RE, Black FL. Applications of Primary Cell Cultures in the Study of Animal Viruses: I. The Isolation and Characterization of Bovine and Avian Enteric Viruses. *Yale J Biol Med*. 1961;33(5):339.
- Chacon E, Acosta D, Lemasters JJ. Primary cultures of cardiac myocytes as *in vitro* models for pharmacological and toxicological assessments. *In vitro methods in pharmaceutical research*. 1997:209-223.
- Ulrich AB, Pour PM. Cell lines. *Encyclp of Genetics*. 2001;310-311.
- Alge CS, Hauck SM, Priglinger SG, Kampik A, Ueffing M. Differential protein profiling of primary versus immortalized human RPE cells identifies expression patterns associated with cytoskeletal remodeling and cell survival. *J Proteome Res*. 2006;5(4):862-878.
- Pan C, Kumar C, Bohl S, Klingmueller U, Mann M. Comparative proteomic phenotyping of cell lines and primary cells to assess preservation of cell type-specific functions. *Mol Cell Proteomics*. 2009;8(3):443-450.
- Kaur G, Dufour JM. Cell lines: Valuable tools or useless artifacts. 2012.
- Wolf K, Quimby MC. Established eurythermic line of fish cells *in vitro*. *Science*. 1962;135(3508):1065-1066.
- Officer JE. Ability of a fish cell line to support the growth of mammalian viruses. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med*. 1964;116(1):190-194.
- Wolf K. *Fish viruses and fish viral diseases*. Cornell University Press. 1988.
- Hightower LE, Renfro JL. Recent applications of fish cell culture to biomedical research. *J Exp Zool*. 1988;248(3):290-302.
- Babich H, Borenfreund E. Cytotoxicity and genotoxicity assays with cultured fish cells: a review. *Toxicol In Vitro*. 1991;5(1):91-100.
- Villena AJ. Applications and needs of fish and shellfish cell culture for disease control in aquaculture. *Rev Fish Biol Fish*. 2003;13(1):111-140.
- Schirmer K. Proposal to improve vertebrate cell cultures to establish them as substitutes for the regulatory testing of chemicals and effluents using fish. *Toxicol*. 2006;224(3):163-183.
- Ryan LA, Seymour CB, O'Neill-Mehlenbacher A, Mothersill CE. Radiation-induced adaptive response in fish cell lines. *J Environ Radioact*. 2008;99(4):739-747.
- Ryan LA, Seymour CB, Joiner MC, Mothersill CE. Radiation-induced adaptive response is not seen in cell lines showing a bystander effect but is seen in lines showing HRS/IRR response. *Int J Radiat*. 2009;85(1):87-95.
- Collet B, Collins C, Lester K. Engineered cell lines for fish health research. *Dev Comp Immunol*. 2018;80:34-40.
- Saggers BA, Gould ML. The attachment of micro-organisms to macrophages isolated from the tilapia *Oreochromis spilurus* Gunther. *J Fish Biol*. 1989;35(2):287-294.
- Howe K, Clark MD, Torroja CF, Torrance J, Berthelot C, Muffato M, et al. The zebrafish reference genome sequence and its relationship to the human genome. *Nature*. 2013;496(7446):498-503.
- Heilmann S, Ratnakumar K, Langdon EM, Kansler ER, Kim IS, Campbell NR, et al. A quantitative system for studying metastasis using transparent zebrafish. *Cancer Res*. 2015;75(20):4272-4282.
- Rapanan JL, Pascual AS, Uppalapati CK, Cooper KE, Leyva KJ, Hull EE. Zebrafish keratocyte explants to study collective cell migration and re-epithelialization in cutaneous wound healing. *J Vis Exp*. 2015;96:52489.
- Miserocchi G, Mercatali L, Liverani C, De Vita A, Spadazzi C, Pieri F, et al. Management and potentialities of primary cancer cultures in preclinical and translational studies. *J Transl Med*. 2017;15(1):1-6.
- Chen MJ, Chiou PP, Liao YH, Lin CM, Chen TT. Development and characterization of five rainbow trout pituitary single-cell clone lines capable of producing pituitary hormones. 2010.
- Higaki S, Koyama Y, Shimada M, Ono Y, Tooyama I, Fujioka Y, et al. Response to fish specific reproductive hormones and endocrine disrupting chemicals of a sertoli cell line expressing endogenous receptors from an endemic cyprinid *Gnathopogon caeruleus*. *Gen Comp Endocrinol*. 2013;191:65-73.

43. Hsiung GD. Diagnostic virology: From animals to automation. *Yale J Biol Med.* 1984;57(5):727.
44. Leland DS, Ginocchio CC. Role of cell culture for virus detection in the age of technology. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2007;20(1):49-78.
45. Jabbour RE, Snyder AP. Mass spectrometry-based proteomics techniques for biological identification. *In Biol Ident.* 2014:370-430.
46. Kelly RK, Souter BW, Miller HR. Fish cell lines: Comparisons of CHSE-214, FHM, and RTG-2 in assaying IHN and IPN viruses. *Can J Fish Aquat Sci.* 1978;35(7):1009-1011.
47. Nicholson BL. Fish cell culture: An update. *Adv Cell Culture.* 1989;7:1-8.
48. Ott T. Tissue culture of fish cell lines. *NWFHS Laboratory procedures manual.* 2004;2:1-6.
49. Sommerset I, Krossøy B, Biering E, Frost P. Vaccines for fish in aquaculture. *Expert Rev Vaccines.* 2005;4(1):89-101.
50. Wolf K, Darlington RW. Channel catfish virus: a new herpesvirus of ictalurid fish. *J Virol.* 1971;8(4):525-533.
51. Bowser PR, Plumb JA. Channel catfish virus: Comparative replication and sensitivity of cell lines from channel catfish ovary and the brown bullhead. *J Wildl Dis.* 1980;16(3):451-454.
52. Rivers TM. Viruses and Koch's postulates. *J Bacteriol.* 1937;33(1):1.
53. Miyazaki T, Goto K, Kobayashi T, Kageyama T, Miyata M. Mass mortalities associated with a virus disease in Japanese pearl oysters *Pinctada fucata martensii*. *Dis Aquat Org.* 1999;37(1):1-2.
54. Meyers TR. A reo-like virus isolated from juvenile American oysters (*Crassostrea virginica*). *J Gen Virol.* 1979;43(1):203-212.
55. Hedrick RP, Gilad O, Yun S, Spangenberg JV, Marty GD, Nordhausen RW, et al. A herpesvirus associated with mass mortality of juvenile and adult koi: A strain of common carp. *J Aquat Anim Health.* 2000;12(1):44-57.
56. Hanson L, Dishon A, Kotler M. Herpesviruses that infect fish. *Viruses.* 2011;3(11):2160-2191.
57. Aarattuthodiyil S, Dharan V. Viruses impacting the catfish industry. *J World Aquac Soc.* 2019;16(1):10-11.
58. Bang FB. Virus Disease: Some aspects of host and tissue specificity. *Annu Rev Med.* 1960;11(1):1-8.
59. Baron S, Fons M, Albrecht T. Viral pathogenesis. *Medical Microbiology.* (4th edn). University of Texas Medical Branch at Galveston. 1996.
60. Noga EJ, Hartmann JX. Establishment of walking catfish (*Clarias batrachus*) cell lines and development of a channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*) virus vaccine. *Can J Fish Aquat Sci.* 1981;38(8):925-930.
61. Ronen A, Perelberg A, Abramowitz J, Hutoran M, Tinman S, Bejerano I, et al. Efficient vaccine against the virus causing a lethal disease in cultured *Cyprinus carpio*. *Vaccine.* 2003;21(32):4677-4684.
62. Perelberg A, Ronen A, Hutoran M, Smith Y, Kotler M. Protection of cultured *Cyprinus carpio* against a lethal viral disease by an attenuated virus vaccine. *Vaccine.* 2005;23(26):3396-3403.
63. Dishon A, Ashoulin O, Iii ES, Kotler M. 27 Vaccination against Koi Herpesvirus Disease. *Fish Vaccination.* 2009:321.
64. Huang YC, Han YS. Anti-Nervous Necrosis Virus drug screening using fish cell line. *J Fish Dis.* 2010;25:127-142.
65. Krishnan K, Khanna VG, Hameed S. Antiviral activity of Dasyscyphin C extracted from *Eclipta prostrata* against fish nodavirus. *J Antivir Antiretrovir.* 2010;1:29-32.
66. Hao K, Yuan S, Yu F, Chen XH, Bian WJ, Feng YH, et al. Acyclovir inhibits channel catfish virus replication and protects channel catfish ovary cells from apoptosis. *Virus Res.* 2021;292:198249.
67. Troszok A, Kolek L, Szczygieł J, Wawrzeczek J, Borzym E, Reichert M, et al. Acyclovir inhibits *Cyprinid herpesvirus 3* multiplication *in vitro*. *J Fish Dis.* 2018;41(11):1709-1718.
68. Reichert M, Bergmann SM, Hwang J, Buchholz R, Lindenberger C. Antiviral activity of exopolysaccharides from *Arthrospira platensis* against koi herpesvirus. *J Fish Dis.* 2017;40(10):1441-1450.
69. Jensen I, Larsen R, Robertsen B. An antiviral state induced in Chinook salmon embryo cells (CHSE-214) by transfection with the double-stranded RNA poly I: Fish Shellfish Immunol. 2002;13(5):367-378.
70. Balmer BF, Powers RL, Zhang TH, Lee J, Vigant F, Lee B, et al. Inhibition of an aquatic rhabdovirus demonstrates promise of a broad-spectrum antiviral for use in aquaculture. *J Virol.* 2017;91(4):2181-2216.
71. Rachlin JW, Perlmutter A. Fish cells in culture for study of aquatic toxicants. *Water Res.* 1968;2(6):409-414.
72. Castano A, Cantarino MJ, Castillo P, Tarazona JV. Correlations between the RTG-2 cytotoxicity test EC50 and *in vivo* LC50 rainbow trout bioassay. *Chemosph.* 1996;32(11):2141-2157.
73. Segner H. Fish cell lines as a tool in aquatic toxicology. *Fish Ecotoxicol.* 1998:1-38.
74. Fent K. Fish cell lines as versatile tools in ecotoxicology: Assessment of cytotoxicity, cytochrome P4501A induction potential and estrogenic activity of chemicals and environmental samples. *Toxicol In Vitro.* 2001;15(4-5):477-488.
75. Chen B, Zheng Z, Yang J, Chi H, Huang H, Gong H. Development and characterization of a new cell line derived from European eel *Anguilla anguilla* kidney. *Biology Open.* 2019;8(1):37507.
76. Loveland PM, Wilcox JS, Pawlowski NE, Bailey GS. Metabolism and DNA binding of aflatoxicol and aflatoxin B1 *in vivo* and in isolated hepatocytes from rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri*). *Carcinog.* 1987;8(8):1065-1070.
77. Behrens A, Schirmer K, Bols NC, Segner H. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons as inducers of cytochrome P4501A enzyme activity in the rainbow trout liver cell line, RTL-W1, and in primary cultures of rainbow trout hepatocytes. *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry: An Int J.* 2001;20(3):632-643.
78. Rehberger K, Kropf C, Segner H. *In vitro* or not *in vitro*: A short journey through a long history. *Environ Sci Eur.* 2018;30(1):1-2.
79. Klingelfus T, Disner GR, Voigt CL, Alle LF, Cestari MM, Leme DM. Nanomaterials induce DNA-protein crosslink and DNA oxidation: A mechanistic study with RTG-2 fish cell line and Comet assay modifications. *Chemosph.* 2019;215:703-709.
80. Caminada D, Zaja R, Smital T, Fent K. Human pharmaceuticals modulate P-gp1 (ABCB1) transport activity in the fish cell line PLHC-1. *Aquat Toxicol.* 2008;90(3):214-222.
81. Bailey G, Taylor M, Selivonchick D, Eisele T, Hendricks J, Nixon J, et al. Mechanisms of dietary modification of aflatoxin B1 carcinogenesis. *In Genet Toxicol.* 1982;149-165.
82. Taju G, Majeed SA, Nambi KS, Hameed AS. Application of fish cell lines for evaluating the chromium induced cytotoxicity, genotoxicity and oxidative stress. *Chemosph.* 2017;184:1-2.
83. Borenfreund E, Puerner JA. A simple quantitative procedure using monolayer cultures for cytotoxicity assays (HTD/NR-90). *J Meth Cell Sci.* 1985;9(1):7-9.
84. Castaño A, Bols N, Braunbeck T, Dierickx P, Halder M, Isomaa B, et al. The use of fish cells in ecotoxicology: The report and recommendations of ECVAM Workshop 47. *Altern Lab Anim.* 2003;31(3):317-351.

85. Žegura B, Filipič M. The application of the Comet assay in fish cell lines. *Mutation Research/Genetic Toxicology and Environmental Mutagenesis*. 2019;842:72-84.
86. Ku CC, Teng YC, Wang CS, Lu CH. Establishment and characterization of three cell lines derived from the rockfish grouper *Epinephelus quoyanus*: Use for transgenic studies and cytotoxicity testing. *Aquacult*. 2009;294(1-2):147-151.
87. Ahmed VI, Babu VS, Chandra V, Nambi KS, Thomas J, Bhonde R, et al. A new fibroblastic-like cell line from heart muscle of the Indian major carp (*Catla catla*): Development and characterization. *Aquacult*. 2009;293(3-4):180-186.
88. Bernal AE, Pulgarín AM, Fernández CML. Cytotoxicity of mycotoxins frequently present in aquafeeds to the fish cell line RTGill-W1. *Toxins*. 2021;13(8):581.
89. McIntosh D, Flano E, Grayson TH, Gilpin ML, Austin B, Villena AJ. Production of putative virulence factors by *Renibacterium salmoninarum* grown in cell culture. *Microbiol*. 1997;143(10):3349-3356.
90. Allen DD, Caviedes R, Cárdenas AM, Shimahara T, Segura-Aguilar J, Caviedes PA. Cell lines as *in vitro* models for drug screening and toxicity studies. *Drug Dev Ind Pharm*. 2005;31(8):757-768.
91. Capstick PB, Telling RC, Chapman WG, Stewart DL. Growth of a cloned strain of hamster kidney cells in suspended cultures and their susceptibility to the virus of foot-and-mouth disease. *Nature*. 1962;195(4847):1163-1164.
92. Beale AJ. Cell substrate for killed polio vaccine production. *Developments in biological standardization*. 1981;47:19-23.
93. Bibila TA, Ranucci CS, Glazomitsky K, Buckland BC, Aunins JG. Monoclonal antibody process development using medium concentrates. *Biotechnol Prog*. 1994;10(1):87-96.
94. Merten OW. Introduction to animal cell culture technology: Past, present and future. *Cytotechnol*. 2006;50(1-3):1.
95. Lovitt CJ, Shelper TB, Avery VM. Advanced cell culture techniques for cancer drug discovery. *Biol*. 2014;3(2):345-367.
96. Maguire G. Therapeutics from adult stem cells and the hype curve. 2016.
97. Zhang CL, Huang T, Wu BL, He WX, Liu D. Stem cells in cancer therapy: opportunities and challenges. *Oncotarget*. 2017;8(43):757-756.
98. Wang Q, Fang J, Pan Q, Wang Y, Xue T, Li L, et al. Efficient and stable delivery of multiple genes to fish cells by a modified recombinant *baculovirus* system. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2018;19(12):3767.
99. Dumont J, Ewart D, Mei B, Estes S, Kshirsagar R. Human cell lines for biopharmaceutical manufacturing: history, status, and future perspectives. *Crit Rev Biotechnol*. 2016;36(6):1110-1122.
100. Dehler CE, Boudinot P, Martin SA, Collet B. Development of an efficient genome editing method by CRISPR/Cas9 in a fish cell line. *Mar Biotechnol*. 2016;18(4):449-452.
101. Ma J, Fan Y, Zhou Y, Liu W, Jiang N, Zhang J, et al. Efficient resistance to grass carp reovirus infection in JAM-A knockout cells using CRISPR/Cas9. *Fish Shellfish Immunol*. 2018;76:206-215.
102. Liu Q, Yuan Y, Zhu F, Hong Y, Ge R. Efficient genome editing using CRISPR/Cas9 ribonucleoprotein approach in cultured Medaka fish cells. *Biology Open*. 2018;7(8):35170.
103. Gratacap RL, Regan T, Dehler CE, Martin SA, Boudinot P, Collet B, et al. Efficient CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing in a salmonid fish cell line using a lentivirus delivery system. *BMC Biotechnol*. 2020;20(1):1-9.
104. Chang N, Sun C, Gao L, Zhu D, Xu X, Zhu X, et al. Genome editing with RNA-guided Cas9 nuclease in zebrafish embryos. *Cell Res*. 2013;23(4):465-472.
105. Hwang WY, Fu Y, Reyon D, Maeder ML, Tsai SQ, Sander JD, et al. Efficient genome editing in zebrafish using a CRISPR-Cas system. *Nat Biotechnol*. 2013;31(3):227-229.
106. Yip JH, Bols NC. The fusion of trout spermatozoa with Chinese hamster fibroblasts. *J Cell Sci*. 1982;53(1):307-321.
107. Bols NC, Yip JH, Wolff BR. Trout red blood cells treated with proteases fuse when placed on glass slides. *Biosci Rep*. 1984;4(1):65-70.
108. Shima A, Isa K, Komura J, Hayasaka K, Mitani H. Somatic cell genetic study of DNA repair in cultured fish cells. *Invert Fish Tissue Cult*. 1987:215-217.
109. Hong Y, Winkler C, Scharlt M. Pluripotency and differentiation of embryonic stem cell lines from the medakafish (*Oryzias latipes*). *Mech Dev*. 1996;60(1):33-44.
110. Sun L, Bradford CS, Ghosh C, Collodi P, Barnes DW. ES-like cell cultures derived from early zebrafish embryos. *Mar Biol Biotechnol*. 1995;4(3):193-199.
111. Yi M, Hong N, Hong Y. Generation of medaka fish haploid embryonic stem cells. *Science*. 2009;326(5951):430-433.
112. Ciarlo CA, and Zon LI. Embryonic cell culture in zebrafish. *Met Cell Bio*. 2016;133:01-10.
113. Hong Y, Liu T, Zhao H, Xu H, Wang W, Liu R, et al. Establishment of a normal medakafish spermatogonial cell line capable of sperm production *in vitro*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*. 2004;101(21):8011-8016.
114. Yoshizaki G, Ichikawa M, Hayashi M, Iwasaki Y, Miwa M, Shikina S, et al. Sexual plasticity of ovarian germ cells in rainbow trout. *Development*. 2010;137(8):1227-1230.
115. Parameswaran V, Shukla R, Bhonde RR, Hameed AS. Splenic cell line from sea bass, *Lates calcarifer*: establishment and characterization. *Aquacult*. 2006;261(1):43-53.
116. Chen SL, Sha ZX, Ye HQ, Liu Y, Tian YS, Hong Y, et al. Pluripotency and chimera competence of an embryonic stem cell line from the sea perch (*Lateolabrax japonicus*). *Mar Biotechnol*. 2007;9(1):82-91.
117. Holen E, Kausland A, Skjaerven K. Embryonic stem cells isolated from Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) and the developmental expression of a stage-specific transcription factor ac-Pou2. *Fish Physiol Biochem*. 2010;36(4):1029-1039.
118. Lakra WS, Swaminathan TR, Joy KP. Development, characterization, conservation and storage of fish cell lines: A review. *Fish Physiol Biochem*. 2011;37(1):1-20.
119. Fan Z, Liu L, Huang X, Zhao Y, Zhou L, Wang D, et al. Establishment and growth responses of Nile tilapia embryonic stem-like cell lines under feeder-free condition. *Dev Growth Differ*. 2017;59(2):83-93.
120. Vergès-Castillo A, González-Vargas IA, Muñoz-Cueto JA, Martín-Robles AJ, Pendón C. Establishment and characterisation of single cell-derived embryonic stem cell lines from the gilthead seabream, *Sparus aurata*. *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part B: Biochem Mol Biol*. 2021:110626.
121. Mehta G, Hsiao AY, Ingram M, Luker GD, Takayama S. Opportunities and challenges for use of tumor spheroids as models to test drug delivery and efficacy. *J Control Release*. 2012;164(2):192-204.
122. Grist E, Woodhead AD, Carlson C. Established cell lines from non-mammalian vertebrates: models for DNA repair studies. *In Vitro Cell Dev Biol*. 1986;22(11):677-680.
123. Bedrnik P, Vavra J. Further observations on the maintenance of *Encephalitozoon cuniculi* in tissue culture. *J Protozool*. 1972;19:75.
124. Wongtavatchai J, Conrad PA, Hedrick RP. *In vitro* cultivation of the microsporidian: *Enterocytozoon salmonis* using a newly developed medium for salmonid lymphocytes. *Meth Cell Sci*. 1994;16(2):125-131.

125. Kou GH, Wang CH, Hung HW, Jang YS, Chou CM, Lo CF. A cell line (EP-1 cell line) derived from “Beko disease” affected Japanese eel elver (*Anguilla japonica*) persistently infected with *Pleistophora anguillarum*. *Aquacult.* 1995;132(1-2):161-173.
126. Kim JH, Ogawa K, Wakabayashi H. Lectin-reactive components of the microsporidian *Glugea plecoglossi* and their relation to spore phagocytosis by head kidney macrophages of ayu *Plecoglossus altivelis*. *Dis Aquat Org.* 1999;39(1):59-63.
127. Nielsen CV, Buchmann K. Prolonged *in vitro* cultivation of *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis* using an EPC cell line as substrate. *Dis Aquat Org.* 2000;42(3):215-219.
128. Buchmann K, Nielsen CV, Bresciani J. *In vitro* interactions between epithelial cells and *Gyrodactylus derjavini*. *J Helminthol.* 2000;74(3):203-208.
129. Shaw RW, Kent ML, Adamson ML. Phagocytosis of *Loma salmonae* (Microsporidia) spores in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*), a resistant host, and chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*), a susceptible host. *Fish Shellfish Immuno.* 2001;11(1):91-100.
130. Desportes LIS, Chilmonczyk S, Hedrick R, Ombrouck C, Monge D, Maiga I, et al. Comparative development of two microsporidian species: *Enterocytozoon bieneusi* and *Enterocytozoon salmonis*, reported in AIDS patients and salmonid fish, respectively. *J Eukaryot Microbiol.* 1996;43(1):49-60.
131. Mori S, Sakakura E, Tsunekawa Y, Hagiwara M, Suzuki T, Eiraku M. Self-organized formation of developing appendages from murine pluripotent stem cells. *Nat Commun.* 2019;10(1):1-3.
132. Desoize B, Gimonet D, Jardiller JC. Cell culture as spheroids: an approach to multicellular resistance. *Anticancer Res.* 1998;18(6):4147-4158.
133. Faber MN, Sojan JM, Saraiva M, van West P, Secombes CJ. Development of a 3D spheroid cell culture system from fish cell lines for *in vitro* infection studies: Evaluation with *Saprolegnia parasitica*. *J Fish Dis.* 2021;44(6):701-710.
134. Rubio N, Datar I, Stachura D, Kaplan D, Krueger K. Cell-based fish: A novel approach to seafood production and an opportunity for cellular agriculture. *Front Sustain Food Syst.* 2019;3:43.
135. Potter G, Smith AS, Vo NT, Muster J, Weston W, Bertero A, et al. A more Open approach is needed to develop cell-based fish technology: It starts with zebrafish. *One Earth.* 2020;3(1):54-64.
136. Miller RK. A 2020 synopsis of the cell-cultured animal industry. *Animal Frontiers.* 2020;10(4):64-72.
137. Benjaminson MA, Gilchrist JA, Lorenz M. *In vitro* edible muscle protein production system (MPPS): Stage 1, fish. *Acta Astronaut.* 2002;51(12):879-889.
138. Morin G, Pinel K, Dias K, Seiliez I, Beaumatin F. RTH-149 Cell Line: A useful tool to decipher molecular mechanisms related to fish nutrition. *Cells.* 2020;9(8):1754.
139. Lescat L, Véron V, Mourot B, Péron S, Chenais N, Dias K, et al. Chaperone-mediated autophagy in the light of evolution: Insight from fish. *Mol Biol Evol.* 2020;37(10):2887-2899.
140. Qin QW, Wu TH, Jia TL, Hegde A, Zhang RQ. Development and characterization of a new tropical marine fish cell line from grouper, *Epinephelus coioides* susceptible to iridovirus and nodavirus. *J Virol Methods.* 2006;131(1):58-64.
141. Ye HQ, Chen SL, Sha ZX, Xu MY. Development and characterization of cell lines from heart, liver, spleen and head kidney of sea perch *Lateolabrax japonicus*. *J Fish Biol.* 2006;69:115-126.
142. Parameswaran V, Ahmed VI, Shukla R, Bhonde RR, Hameed AS. Development and characterization of two new cell lines from milkfish (*Chanos chanos*) and grouper (*Epinephelus coioides*) for virus isolation. *Mar Biotechnol.* 2007;9(2):281-291.
143. Zhou GZ, Li ZQ, Yuan XP, Zhang QY. Establishment, characterization, and virus susceptibility of a new marine cell line from red spotted grouper (*Epinephelus akaara*). *Mar Biotechnol.* 2007;9(3):370.
144. Ishaq A VP, Chandra V, Parameswaran V, Venkatesan C, Shukla R, Bhonde R, et al. A new epithelial-like cell line from eye muscle of *Catla catla* (Hamilton): Development and characterization. *J Fish Biol.* 2008;72(8):2026-2038.
145. Church JE, Hodgson WC. The pharmacological activity of fish venoms. *Toxicon.* 2002;40(8):1083-1093.
146. Ortiz E, Gurrola GB, Schwartz EF, Possani LD. Scorpion venom components as potential candidates for drug development. *Toxicon.* 2015;93:125-135.
147. Pandey S, Upadhyay RK. The fish venom toxins: natural source of pharmaceuticals and therapeutic agents “pharmaceutical and therapeutic uses of fish venom toxins. *Int J Pharm.* 2020:1-4.
148. Puschhof J, Post Y, Beumer J, Kerckamp HM, Bittenbinder M, Vonk FJ, et al. Derivation of snake venom gland organoids for *in vitro* venom production. *Nat Protoc.* 2021;16(3):1494-1510.
149. Bahia H, Ashman JN, Cawkwell L, Lind M, Monson JR, Drew PJ, et al. Karyotypic variation between independently cultured strains of the cell line MCF-7 identified by multicolour fluorescence *in situ* hybridization. *Int J Oncol* 2002;20(3):489-494.
150. Ford L, Subramaniam K, Waltzek TB, Bowser PR, Hanson L. Cytochrome oxidase gene sequencing reveals channel catfish ovary cell line is contaminated with brown bullhead cells. *J Fish Dis.* 2021;44(1):119-122.
151. Altman PL, Dittmer DS, editors. *Biology data book*. Bethesda, MD: Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology. 1972.
152. Dishon A, Davidovich M, Ilouze M, Kotler M. Persistence of *Cyprinid herpesvirus 3* in infected cultured carp cells. *J Virol.* 2007;81(9):4828-4836.
153. Dharan V, Khoo L, Phelps NB, Kumar G, Steadman J, Bosworth B, et al. An investigation into the pathogenesis of blue catfish alloherpesvirus in ictalurid catfish. *J World Aquac Soc.* 2021.
154. Hayflick L, Moorhead PS. The serial cultivation of human diploid cell strains. *Exp Cell Res.* 1961;25(3):585-621.
155. Schaffer WL. Terminology associated with cell, tissue and organ culture, molecular biology and molecular genetics. *In Vitro Cell Dev Biol Plant.* 1990;26(1):97-101.
156. Freshney RI. *Culture of animal cells: a manual of basic technique and specialized applications*. John Wiley & Sons; 2015.
157. Driever W, Rangini Z. Characterization of a cell line derived from zebrafish (*Brachydanio rerio*) embryos. *In Vitro Cell Dev Biol.* 1993;29(9):749.
158. Ghosh C, Collodi P. Culture of cells from zebrafish (*Brachydanio rerio*) blastula-stage embryos. *Cytotechnol.* 1994;14(1):21-26.
159. Paw BH, Zon LI. Primary fibroblast cell culture. *Methods Cell Biol.* 1999;59:39-43.