



Fish Hybridization: A Pathway to Sustainable Seafood Production and Environmental Adaptability

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However, aquaculture still faces significant challenges, including disease outbreaks, environmental sustainability, and long-term economic viability. Fish hybridization has emerged as a promising solution to address these issues, aiming to improve productivity, resilience and sustainability in aquaculture (Lorenzen et al., 2012; Mitra et al., 2023). Researchers from various fields are working to enhance aquaculture production, focusing on creating viable progeny with desirable traits to boost resilience and adaptability to the unpredictable ecological changes (Roberts et al., 2010; Masuma & Aoki, 2023; Ye et al., 2024).

Global Demand for Seafood

FAO (2020) reported that seafoods demand is anticipated to rise by 50% by 2050, driven by increasing population, urbanization and incomes especially in Asia and Africa. The COVID-19 pandemic has underscored the need for robust food systems, with aquaculture proving essential in sustaining seafood supply chains during disruptions (Love et al., 2021; Kelling et al., 2023). This escalating demand underscores the urgent need for sustainable aquaculture practices that can meet international seafood demands while minimizing environmental impacts (Micheli et al., 2014; Ababouch et al., 2023). However, attaining this demand poses a major challenge, for instance, ecological and biodiversity degradation, depletion of wild fish stock, and vulnerabilities in the supply chain (Mangano et al., 2022; Beaugrand et al., 2010). Concurrently, fluctuations in the ecological climate, such as changes in ocean acidity and temperature, lead to disruptions in the distribution of marine species and food webs, affecting biodiversity (Beaugrand et al., 2010; Albouy et al., 2014; du Pontavice et al., 2019; Hodapp et al., 2023).

Overfishing

Human activities, such as overexploitation and ecosystem disturbances, have triggered significant ecological degradation and biodiversity loss. Overfishing, both of targeted and non-targeted species, is a major challenge to food security, contributing to unsustainable fisheries in marine ecosystems and coastal communities (Coll et al., 2008; Cheung et al., 2025). Overfishing remains a critical threat to global fish stocks, with the FAO reporting that 34.2% of fish stocks are currently overfished (FAO, 2020). The overexploitation of wild fish stocks has led to unsustainable fisheries and failures in fisheries management systems (Hilborn et al., 2003; Bastardie et al., 2024). In response, governments are developing more comprehensive management frameworks that focus on holistic ecosystem approaches and species conservation (Murawski, 2000; Naylor et al., 2023). Recent findings indicate that climate change exacerbates the depletion of wild fish populations, affecting fish reproduction, distribution, and growth rates (Free et al., 2019; McKenzie et al., 2021). This persistent decline underscores the growing importance of the aquaculture sector as a sustainable alternative to meet global seafood demands.

Aquaculture Growth

Aquaculture has emerged as a sustainable solution to

the depletion of wild fish stocks. It involves the cultivation of fish, invertebrates, and aquatic plants for human consumption. According to the FAO (2022), aquaculture production has seen significant growth, increasing from approximately 15 million tons to over 90 million tons between 2000 and 2020. This growth has been driven by advancements in feed technology, selective breeding programs (Abwao et al., 2021), improved cultivation management techniques, and genetic enhancement (Lu et al. 2019; Manan et al., 2023; Flourizel et al., 2023). As a result, the aquaculture sector plays a crucial role in mitigating the overexploitation of wild fish stocks by contributing to the global food supply chain.

Furthermore, FAO (2020) reported that aquaculture production increased annually by 5.8% from 2000 to 2018, reaching an international production level of approximately 114.5 million tons. With this rapid expansion, the industry is incorporating advancements from various disciplines to further enhance production. Recent innovations, such as the application of biotechnology, the integration of mechanization, and advanced farming systems, have significantly contributed to the efficiency and sustainability of the aquaculture sector (Gladju et al., 2022).

Challenges in Aquaculture

The aquaculture industry faces numerous challenges, such as disease outbreaks (Murray & Peeler, 2005; Leung & Bates, 2013; Sanches-Fernandes et al., 2022), environmental degradation (Pérez, 2003; Martínez-Porcas et al., 2012; Sampantamit et al., 2020; Chiquito-Contreras et al., 2022), and the high costs associated with feed (Suleiman & Rosentrater, 2018). Disease management remains a significant concern, with recent studies indicating a rise in antibiotic-resistant pathogens within aquaculture systems (Miranda et al., 2013; Hossain et al., 2022). Furthermore, the environmental impacts of aquaculture, including habitat destruction, water pollution and reliance on wild fish for feed production, have raised sustainability concerns (Beveridge et al., 2018; Verdegem et al., 2023). One promising solution is the development of fish hybrids, which can enhance the resilience and productivity of farmed fish, reduce the dependency on chemical inputs, and improve the overall efficiency of aquaculture systems (Lorenzen et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2023).

Fish Hybridization

Fish hybridization has long been practiced, involving the intentional crossing of different species or genera to produce offspring with enhanced traits (Alm, 1955; Hubbs, 1955; Rahman et al. 2013; Adah et al., 2014; Semeniuk et al., 2019). Hybridization can be classified into two types: interspecific, where fish from different species within the same genus are crossed, such as the brown-marbled grouper (*Epinephelus fuscoguttatus*) and giant grouper (*E. lanceolatus*) (Ch'ng & Senoo, 2008) and intergeneric, which involves crossing fish from different genera, like the sympatric kirikuchi char (*Salvelinus japonicus*) and the red-spotted Masu salmon (*Oncorhynchus masou macrostomus*) (Sato et al., 2008).

Despite its potential, fish hybridization faces biological challenges, including sperm recognition barriers, difficulties with sperm-egg penetration, and complications in pronucleus formation (Su et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2023). Researchers have developed strategies to overcome these issues, with hybridization becoming increasingly adopted in aquaculture to improve growth rates, enhance disease resistance, and increase adaptability to environmental changes. Recent advancements in genomic technologies and selective breeding have expanded the potential for hybrid fish breeding, making it a critical tool for enhancing aquaculture's contribution to global food security (Yue & Wang, 2017; Mushtaq et al., 2025).

Hybridization allows for the precise control of genetic traits, with modern molecular biology and genomics enabling the development of hybrids with specific desirable characteristics (Yue & Wang, 2017). These advancements have made hybridization an essential technique for improving the sustainability and performance of farmed fish. Artificial hybridization has also gained traction as an adaptation mechanism in fields such as ecology, conservation, and evolution, helping species adapt to fluctuating environments and promoting ecosystem resilience (Krasnovyd et al., 2020; Bartley, 2021). Studies show that hybrid fish often exhibit greater genetic variability, making them more resilient to stressors such as ocean acidification, climate change, and salinity fluctuations (Jones et al., 2018; Sundin, 2023).

Environmental changes have driven the evolution of species, but some now face endangerment due to these pressures. Fish hybridization offers a solution by creating offspring with greater adaptability to environmental challenges, such as improved growth and disease resistance (Lorenzen et al., 2012). These hybrids are valuable in sustainable aquaculture practices (Kamal & Mair, 2005; Sonesson et al., 2023), especially as the aquaculture industry seeks ways to meet rising demand for protein while managing ecological impacts.

Hybridization also plays a role in conservation by restoring genetic diversity in endangered species through the introduction of strains well-adapted to fluctuating native habitats (Reisenbichler et al., 2003). However, hybridization carries risks, such as potentially harming local native species and leading to genomic extinction in some cases (Muelfeld et al., 2014). Researchers emphasize the need for careful monitoring and management of hybrid populations to prevent negative impacts on wild populations (Harbicht et al., 2014; Hoffmann et al., 2021).

Traditionally, selective breeding for broodstock has focused on selecting desirable morphological traits, which is time-consuming and uncertain in its outcomes. In contrast, hybridization offers a more efficient method for increasing genetic diversity and improving traits in progeny (Harbicht et al., 2014; Salgotra and Chauhan 2023). Early hybridization efforts in aquaculture, such as tilapia (*Oreochromis* spp.) hybrids (Pullan & Smith, 1987), have paved the way for more recent developments, like the hybrid catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus* × *Ictalurus furcatus*), which has gained widespread adoption in the U.S. due to its superior growth rates and disease resistance (Dunham

et al., 2020).

Fish hybridization, which began as a scientific curiosity in the 1880s (Green, 1881; Day, 1882), has evolved into a critical tool for aquaculture and conservation. Early experiments by Alm (1955) on the Salmonidae family laid the foundation for modern hybridization techniques. Although initial hybrids were often less viable than purebreds, continued research has addressed challenges such as hatchability, larval development, and growth rates (Blanc and Chevassus, 1979; Chevassus, 1979). Today, hybridization is recognized as a valuable method for enhancing aquaculture productivity and ecological resilience (Salgotra and Chauhan 2023).

Fish Hybridization Techniques

Numerous studies on fish hybridization have been conducted to advance the aquaculture industry. The primary objective is to enhance specific desirable traits, such as disease resistance, adaptability to diverse ecological and biological environments, lower feed conversion ratios and improved growth and survival rates (Devlin et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2017; Cook et al., 2000). In earlier decades, fish hybridization primarily focused on broodstock selection and induced breeding through artificial insemination, but managing desirable traits from broodstock proved challenging. However, with the complexities of genetic variation, researchers have adopted innovative approaches, introducing genetic engineering as a solution (Munday et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2018). The use of genetic engineering, particularly CRISPR-Cas9, has been successfully implemented in hybrid fish breeding to enhance specific traits and develop improved strains, contributing to the growth of innovative aquaculture (Lu et al., 2021; Roy et al., 2022). This paper explores the techniques used in fish hybridization for aquaculture.

Genetic and Biological Implications of Fish Hybridization

Genetic Diversity

Due to the depletion of wild fish stocks, genetic biotechnologists have developed new variations that improve growth rates, disease resistance, and adaptability to environmental fluctuations. These enhanced traits, often referred to as hybrid vigor, are the result of increased genetic diversity. Hybrid vigor, or the superiority of hybrid offspring over their parental species, is well-documented, with hybrid progeny exhibiting better qualities than their parents (Devlin et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2022). The increased genetic diversity offers significant advantages for breeding programs by enabling the manipulation of desirable traits to improve stock quality (Zhang et al., 2023). However, while hybridization can increase genetic diversity, improper management can lead to inbreeding depression, where backcrossing with parental species can result in reduced fitness, lower reproduction rates, and genetic expression issues (Reed et al., 2015). Therefore, effective breeding strategy management is essential to limit the risks and maximize the benefits of hybridization (Luo et al., 2014).

Over time, the genomes of fish hybrids may be subject to genetic drift, which results from random changes in allele frequencies and genome segregation. This drift can alter the genetic population and impact the ecological performance and biodiversity of hybrid fish (Devlin et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2017). In aquaculture, hybridization enhances genetic diversity, contributing to increased resilience in the face of environmental fluctuations and biodiversity changes. Hybrid populations have been shown to be more resilient to diseases and environmental changes due to their greater genetic variation (Sonesson et al., 2023). Recent studies confirm that hybrid fish often possess greater genetic variation than purebred strains, which improves survival and adaptability to changing environments (Zhu et al., 2021). This genetic diversity is critical for maintaining robust and productive aquaculture systems, as it enables populations to adapt to emerging challenges like climate change and new diseases.

Growth Rates and Efficiency

One of the key advantages of hybrid fish breeding is the potential for enhanced growth rates and improved feed conversion efficiency. Recent studies have shown that hybrid tilapia (*Oreochromis* spp.) exhibit faster growth and greater efficiency compared to purebred strains, making them a more cost-effective choice for aquaculture operations (El-Sayed & Kawanna, 2021). Likewise, newly developed carp hybrids (*Cyprinus carpio* × *Carassius auratus*) have demonstrated superior growth performance and increased disease resistance, further highlighting the potential of hybridization to boost productivity in aquaculture (Zhang et al., 2020; Salgotra and Chauhan 2023).

Disease Resistance

Hybridization in fish increases resistance to diseases, reducing the reliance on antibiotics and other chemical interventions. Recent research has shown that hybrid fish may be more resilient to common aquaculture related diseases, such as bacterial infections and parasites (Miranda et al., 2013). For instance, a study on hybrid grouper (*Epinephelus lanceolatus* × *E. coioides*) found that the hybrid offspring demonstrated significantly higher resistance to *Vibrio* spp. infections compared to their purebred counterparts (Sun et al., 2021). These results suggest that hybrid fish breeding could play a crucial role in minimizing the environmental impact of aquaculture by reducing the need for chemical interventions.

Despite these advantages, many questions about hybridization in aquatic animals remain unanswered. Why is biotechnology increasingly being applied in hybridization? What are the primary goals of hybridization, and what effects does it have on aquatic life? How do hybrid and genetically modified aquatic animals compare to their parent species in terms of resilience to environmental fluctuations? The answer lies in the numerous benefits of hybrid vigor (Ye et al., 2024). Hybrids are often characterized by faster growth, higher disease resistance, resilience under environmental stress, and improved antioxidant and immune capacity (Mitra et al., 2023; Franke et al., 2024). Due to their adaptability to fluctuating

conditions, several species, such as zebrafish, have been introduced (Stickney et al., 2002; Zon & Peterson, 2005).

Previous studies have shown that zebrafish possess morphological and physiological traits that are remarkably like mammals, making them valuable in genomic research and pharmaceutical applications. Their adaptability and ability to perform large-scale phenotype-based screenings make them ideal for such purposes (Ton et al., 2002; Zon & Peterson, 2005). These characteristics are vital for producing high-quality offspring to meet the growing demand for food production. The desirable traits in hybrids encourage aquaculturists to increase hybrid production to address the shortage of aquatic life (Bartley et al., 2020). As a result, many new hybrid species have been introduced into aquaculture for human consumption (Olesen et al., 2003).

However, due to the unclear long-term effects of hybridization, many consumers prefer purebred fish over hybrids. Despite this, hybrids offer promising opportunities for high-quality production due to their rapid growth, high survival rates, and disease resistance (Krasnovyd et al., 2020; Bartley, 2021). Previous research indicates that hybrid populations can exhibit enhanced antioxidant and immune capacities, allowing them to better adapt to varying environmental conditions, such as salinity fluctuations (Ye et al., 2024).

Environmental Adaptability

Recent study has identified fish hybrids as a key factor with significant potential for resilience in fluctuating environments. These hybrids, which are often classified as genetically modified organisms (GMOs), possess a wide range of genetic variability, making them more resilient to ecological stressors such as ocean acidification (Jones et al., 2018; Sundin, 2023). Ocean acidification, which is on the rise, has a profound impact on aquatic life by altering the chemical composition of seawater and disrupting the physiological processes of many marine organisms (Sundin, 2023). This change disrupts normal metabolic functions and buffering capacities, thereby enhancing metabolic processes and increasing survival rates in certain species (Servili et al., 2023).

Some marine species exhibit a higher degree of resilience than others. For example, a previous study has shown that Atlantic salmon and brown salmon hybrids demonstrate greater adaptability to pH fluctuations compared to purebred species (Bryden et al., 2004). Similarly, Mustafa et al. (2013) found that hybrid groupers are more tolerant of ocean acidification than their purebred counterparts. These hybrids, therefore, display a greater capacity to adapt to climate change, exhibiting better endurance under stress compared to purebred species (Ye et al., 2024). Studies on hybrids in invertebrates have also reported better adaptability than purebreds (Salgotra and Chauhan 2023).

Water quality, which includes biological, chemical, and physical parameters, is crucial in aquaculture systems. Dissolved oxygen (DO) is a particularly vital component. Rapid depletion of DO can lead to hypoxia, which induces stress in fish, suppresses immunity, and can even result in

death (Abdel-Tawwab et al., 2019). Research has shown that hypoxia can make fish more vulnerable to diseases (Moyson et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2023). However, Lee et al. (2024) observed that hybrid progenies exhibit higher survival rates compared to purebreds due to their superior ability to manage stress. Additionally, Roberts et al. (2010) discussed how hybrids could potentially replace obligately estuarine fish in nature. Therefore, cultivating hybrid species in controlled, closed-water systems is essential to harness their desirable traits and potential to replace natural species (Allendorf et al., 2001).

Economic Viability of Hybrid Fish

Hybrid fish offers numerous advantages, including higher survival rates, improved feed conversion ratios, enhanced adaptability to environmental conditions, greater disease resistance, faster growth rates, and significant cost reductions related to feed and disease management (Faudzi et al., 2017; Shapawi et al., 2018; Ahmed et al., 2019). Studies suggest that hybrid fish farming can be more profitable than purebred farming, especially regarding disease and feed management, due to hybrids' ability to thrive in fluctuating environments, which increases yields in aquaculture production. However, hybrid fish farming requires proper regulatory oversight, practical measures, and appropriate post-harvest handling to ensure sustainability and market success (Zhou & Gui, 2018). Innovations in aquaculture have further enhanced efficiency, with hybrid breeding providing economic benefits through improved productivity, higher market demand, disease resistance, and resource efficiency.

Hybrids often exhibit faster growth rates than their purebred counterparts. For example, a study on walleye and sauger hybrids demonstrated faster growth compared to purebreds, a trend seen in several other species as well (Giudice, 1966; Malison et al., 1990; Rosenfield et al., 2004; Nielsen et al., 2010). These growth advantages lead to higher productivity and yield in aquaculture. Additionally, hybrids tend to display greater disease resistance, as seen in hybrid chinook salmon, which showed improved resistance to diseases without significant differences in genetic diversity (Semple et al., 2021). Numerous studies support the observation that hybrids have superior disease resistance compared to purebreds (LaPatra et al., 1996; Bakke et al., 1999; Bunlipatanon & U-Taynapun, 2016; Šimková et al., 2022). This increased resilience, coupled with better feed conversion ratios, means hybrid fish require less feed, resulting in greater resource efficiency and lower costs related to disease management and feed.

Investing in hybrid fish breeding involves three main areas: initial investment, genetic management, and marketing. The initial investment includes breeding facility costs, training, and acquiring broodstock. Genetic management is essential to prevent negative impacts on native species and biodiversity, while marketing strategies ensure the commercial success of hybrids by considering consumer preferences and safety concerns. A comprehensive cost-benefit analysis is crucial for

evaluating the feasibility of hybrid fish breeding, factoring in initial investments, operational costs, market prices, and other variables (Salgotra and Chauhan 2023).

Hybridization is a promising solution to address sustainability challenges in fisheries, particularly those caused by overfishing. Hybrids offer improved traits, such as faster growth, better disease resistance, and adaptability to environmental changes, which support market feasibility and help meet the growing demand for protein sources (Brown & Day, 2002). Global fish demand has increased, driven by population growth and consumer interest in healthy lifestyles, with a projected 1.5% annual rise in fish consumption through 2030 (FAO, 2020).

Consumers increasingly prefer hybrid products over purebreds because of their superior quality and sustainability. Market research indicates that consumers favor premium seafood products with high nutritional value and health benefits. For example, genetically improved tilapia has demonstrated better fatty acid metabolism, resulting in improved growth and nutritional quality (Ng & Hanim, 2007; Teoh et al., 2011). Hybrid tilapia have successfully penetrated global markets due to their taste, texture, and nutritional value, while hybrid catfish have gained popularity in the U.S. market, appreciated for their consistent quality and availability (Kumar et al., 2008; Stankus, 2010; Sun et al., 2022).

Hybridization contributes to the efficiency of fish farming by offering better growth rates, survival, and disease resistance compared to purebred species. These traits help reduce production costs and enhance profitability, supporting sustainable aquaculture practices (Dee et al., 2022). Genetically improved strains, such as hybrid tilapia, have demonstrated superior growth, survival, and adaptation to environmental stresses, making them a viable economic choice for aquaculture (Prabu et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020). Hybrids also exhibit greater resistance to diseases, reducing mortality rates and the need for antibiotics, further lowering costs related to disease and water management (Cai & Ma, 2004; Zabidi et al., 2021). Some examples of fish hybrids across fish family produced for aquaculture are summarized in Table 1.

Environmental and Ethical Considerations

Environmental Impacts

Releasing hybrid fish into natural environments may pose risks to native populations by introducing new competition for resources and causing genetic pollution (Alves et al., 2007; Laikre et al., 2010; Erarto & Getahub, 2020). Recent studies have raised concerns about the potential for hybrid fish to interbreed with native species, which could lead to the loss of unique genetic traits and disruption of local ecosystems (Arthington, 1991; Laikre et al., 2010; Bradbeer et al., 2019). However, advancements in technology, such as the development of sterile hybrids, have reduced the threat of genetic contamination, making fish breeding a more environmentally sustainable option (Bradbeer et al., 2019). These innovations highlight the importance of responsible breeding practices and the need for stringent regulations to safeguard natural ecosystems (Naish et al., 2007; Reid et al., 2018; Jolly et al., 2023).

Table 1: Summary of hybrid fish produced for the aquaculture industry

Family	Hybrid name	Parent species	Key traits	References
Moronidae	Hybrid Striped Bass	<i>Morone chrysops</i> ♀ × <i>Morone saxatilis</i> ♂	Hybrids exhibited higher growth rates but demonstrated lower survival at the lowest feeding level due to excessive cannibalism. Hybrids showed significantly lower metabolic energy expenditure and utilized food more efficiently than purebred. Showed higher growth efficiencies (12-15% higher), food conversion ratios. Hybrids exhibited lower metabolism (by 10-14%) and higher growth energy (by 10-14%)	Tuncer et al. (1990)
Ictaluridae	Hybrid catfish	Channel catfish, blue catfish, and their F1 and F2 Hybrids Use genus and species name consistently	F2 hybrid females had a significantly lower ovulation rate (12.2%) compared to channel catfish, blue catfish, and F1 hybrids (83.5, 58.4, and 56.5%, respectively). F2 hybrids produced fewer eggs per kilogram of body weight (923 eggs/kg) than the other groups (2020) (channel catfish: 7,893; blue catfish: 5,600; F1 hybrids: 5,676). F1 hybrids had smaller testes relative to body weight compared to channel catfish but not blue catfish. Fertilization rates were highest in channel catfish eggs (73.6%), while F3 hybrid eggs had much lower fertilization rates (5.1%). F1 hybrids rarely laid eggs when backcrossed to parent species, and F2 hybrids did not spawn naturally in various environments, indicating reproductive breakdown and difficulties in backcrossing.	Dunham & Argue (2020)
	Hybrid catfish	<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> ♀ × <i>I. furcatus</i> ♂	At low densities, channel catfish fry grew faster than hybrid catfish fry. However, the Dunham et al. (1990) hybrid catfish exhibited superior growth at higher densities, surpassing both channel and blue catfish in growth performance. Hybrid catfish demonstrated greater survival rates than channel catfish, particularly under conditions of stress such as oxygen depletion and bacterial infections.	Argue et al. (1990)
		<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> ♀ × <i>I. furcatus</i> ♂	F1 hybrids had higher growth rates, reaching an average weight of 666 grams compared to channel catfish (577 grams) and blue catfish (396 grams). Growth performance (2014) declined in later hybrid generations (F2, F3). F1 hybrids grew faster in high-density environment. backcross hybrids with parental species showed poorer growth performance.	Hoag et al. (2014)
		<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> ♀ × <i>I. furcatus</i> ♂	Hybrid Catfish demonstrated better growth performance compared to purebred. Fantini-Survival rate higher for hybrids (75-97%) than purebred (67-94%). Hybrids reached Hoag et al. (2022) higher harvest weight (671-825g) compared to purebred (525-821g)	Hoag et al. (2022)
Portunidae	Hybrid mud crab	<i>S. olivacea</i> ♀ × <i>S. tranquebarica</i> ♂	The hybridization between <i>S. paramamosain</i> and <i>S. tranquebarica</i> resulted in fecundity Gunarto et al. ranging from 32,200 to 1,868,000 eggs, with a hatching rate between 2 and 45.8%. The al. (2020) hybridization of <i>S. olivacea</i> with <i>S. tranquebarica</i> resulted in a 98% hatching rate. Production of viable offspring (crablets) in interspecific hybridization is lower compared to intraspecific mating.	Gunarto et al. (2020)
Pleuronectidae	Hybrid yellowtail flounder	<i>Pleuronectes ferrugineus</i> ♀ × <i>Pleuronectes americanus</i> ♂	Despite the successful creation of hybrids, the gonad development in the hybrid fish Park et al. was abnormal. Many hybrid individuals exhibited underdeveloped gonads or did not (2003) reach reproductive maturity, suggesting potential fertility issues with the hybrids. This could limit their ability to reproduce naturally in the wild or in aquaculture settings.	Park et al. (2003)
Acipenseridae	Hybrid Sturgeon	<i>Acipenser Baerii</i> × <i>Acipenser gueldenstaedtii</i>	The survival rate of diploid hybrids was relatively high, with no significant difference Fopp-Bayat compared to pure Siberian sturgeon. The mortality rate of triploid hybrids was al. (2022) approximately twice as high as that of diploid hybrids, indicating that triploidization negatively affected the viability of the hybrids.	Fopp-Bayat et al. (2022)
Cyprinidae	Hybrid sturgeon	<i>Acipenser baerii</i> ♀ × <i>A. gueldenstaedtii</i> ♂	Excessive protein in the diet (beyond 400 g/kg) resulted in decreased growth, poorer Guo et al. protein utilization by the hybrids.	Guo et al. (2012)
	Hybrid carp	female grass carp (<i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i>) X male carp (<i>Cyprinus carpio</i> , Israeli mirror variety)	Hybrid died during embryonic development	Stanley (2011)
	Hybrid grass carp	<i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i> x <i>Hypophthalmichthys nobilis</i>	hybrid grass carp exhibited slow growth and high mortality rates. Hybrid grass carp Osborne consumed less vegetation and had a significantly lower feeding rate than grass carp. (2011) hybrids exhibited physical deformities such as spinal curvature, enlarged guts, and misshapen heads.	Osborne (2011)
	Hybrid carp	<i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i> x <i>Aristichthys nobilis</i>	hybrid grass carp larvae exhibited very low survival rates (1-3%), despite achieving Opuszynski decent growth (84-212mg) over 13 days. The high mortality of hybrid larvae was al. (1985) attributed to genetic abnormalities resulting from hybridization.	Opuszynski et al. (1985)
	Hybrid carp	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i> X <i>Carassius gibelio</i>	The hybrids exhibited intermediate traits between the two parental species, both Šimková et al. morphologically and physiologically. This included intermediate glucose and cholesterol (2015) levels, as well as an intermediate intestine-to-body size ratio, suggesting hybrid vigor in terms of food utilization, metabolism, and energy intake. hybrids demonstrated higher gonado-somatic indices (GSI) than common carp.	Šimková et al. (2015)
Cichlidae	Hybrid Tilapia	<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> x <i>O. mossambicus</i>)	The study observed that hybridization between male Nile tilapia and female Sarker et al. Mozambique tilapia resulted in an all-female F1 generation.	Sarker et al. (2024)
	Hybrid Tilapia	<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> x <i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i> & <i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i> x <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>	Hybrids of <i>O. mossambicus</i> x <i>O. niloticus</i> showed positive heterosis on weight gain and Kamal and biomass gain but low FCR. Hybrids of <i>O. niloticus</i> x <i>O. mossambicus</i> showed low Mair (2005) spawning frequency. Hybrids superior for salinity. Potential for brackish water culture.	Kamal and Mair (2005)
Percidae	Hybrid walleye	<i>Stizostedion vitreum</i> x <i>S. canadense</i>	Hybrids had more severe erosion of pectoral and pelvic fins than walleyes. Hybrid more Clayton et al. (1998) susceptible to columnaris disease caused by <i>Flexibacter columnaris</i>	Clayton et al. (1998)
Percidae	Hybrid walleye	<i>walleye</i> ♀ × <i>sauger</i> <i>S. canadense</i> ♂	Both walleyes and hybrids had high survival rates, with over 90% survival during the Siegwarth & 126-day study. Hybrids grew faster than walleyes at lengths under 325mm, but walleyes Summerfelt reached the minimum market weight (681g) 31 days sooner than hybrids.	Siegwarth & Summerfelt (1993)

	Hybrid walleye	<i>walleyes (Stizostedion vitreum) and saugers (S. canadense)</i>	The W × S hybrids showed significantly greater weight gain, length gain, and condition factors compared to purebred walleyes and S × W hybrids. W × S hybrids exhibited less aggressive behavior and were less affected by routine disturbances and handling, making them easier to manage in an intensive culture setting. S × W hybrids had lower egg survival (48.0%).
Pangasiidae	Hybrid catfish	<i>Pangasianodon hypophthalmus x Pangasius bocourti</i>	The hybrid fish exhibited significantly lower growth rates and survival compared to the Hatachote parental species. Specific growth rate for hybrid was 0.60% compared to maternal (2015) (1.23%) and paternal (1.20%). Hybrids showed higher crude protein (74.74%) but lower lipid content (15.64%).
Paralichthyidae	Hybrid flounder	<i>Platichthys stellatus x Kareius bicoloratus</i>	The hybrid larvae develop to a larger size and settle later than <i>P. stellatus</i> , but develop Yamashita et with a smaller size and settle earlier than the larvae of <i>K. bicoloratus</i> . Hybrids exhibit euryhaline characteristics similar to those of <i>P. stellatus</i>
	Hybrid flounder	<i>Paralichthys olivaceus x P. dentatus</i>	hybrid flounder showed superior growth rates and temperature tolerance. Slow Yu et al. development of gastric digestion and earlier formation of pyloric ceca. the survival rates (2010) of hybrid flounder larvae through metamorphosis were low (approximately 30% compared to 70% in <i>P. olivaceus</i>).
	Hybrid flounder	<i>Paralichthys olivaceus x P. dentatus</i>	no obvious heterosis during 64 days in the three crosses (Po x Pd, Fo x Po, Fo x Pd). the Sui et al. hybrids of Po x Pd demonstrated positive heterosis in growth and high temperature (2013) tolerance after 196dph.
	Hybrid flounder	<i>Paralichthys olivaceus x Verasper variegatus</i>	Low percentage fertilization and hatching but high percentage of early survival.
	Hybrid flounder	<i>Verasper variegatus</i>	Kim et al. (1996)
Salmonidae	Hybrid salmon	<i>Paralichthys olivaceus Salmo salar x Salmo trutta</i>	Hybrids between the two species displayed varying levels of susceptibility to Bakke et al. <i>Gyrodactylus salaris</i> and <i>Gyrodactylus derjavini</i> based on the parental line, with resistance being influenced by the identity of the sire or dam.
	Hybrid salmon	marble trout (<i>Salmo marmoratus</i>) and the brown trout (<i>Salmo trutta</i>)	Hybrid offspring often showed better survival and growth rates than pure species, Meldgaarda particularly in inter-specific competition. The hybrids were generally larger than both marble and brown trout in certain conditions, potentially indicating heterosis (hybrid vigor).

Ethical Concerns

The ethical concerns surrounding fish hybridization breeding have raised significant attention among researchers, focusing on issues such as fish welfare, unintended consequences of genetic manipulation, and broader implications for natural ecosystems (Tiedje et al., 1989; Snow et al., 2005; Mastor et al., 2025). These concerns are particularly relevant with the increasing use of CRISPR and other gene-editing technologies in aquaculture, sparking debate among genetic engineers and conservationists about the potential for creating invasive species or disrupting natural food webs (Martin et al., 2010; Erarto & Getahun, 2020). Developing ethical guidelines and regulatory frameworks that balance the benefits of hybrid fish breeding with the need to protect animal welfare and biodiversity is essential (Ahmed et al., 2019; Cook et al., 2000).

Regulatory Frameworks

Table 2 illustrates that regulations governing hybrid fish breeding and aquaculture vary significantly across regions, with some enforcing strict controls on genetically modified organisms (GMOs) and hybrids. The growing complexity of international trade agreements and environmental standards has further complicated the regulatory landscape, as some countries have adopted more stringent rules regarding the import and export of such species (FAO, 2020). Consequently, it is crucial for consumers to maintain open communication with regulatory bodies to stay informed about these evolving regulations (Leng, 2020; McMahon, 2020).

Challenges and Limitations of Fish Hybridization

Genetic Instability

One of the main challenges in fish hybridization is maintaining genetic stability across successive generations.

Recent studies have emphasized the risks of genetic drift and the potential loss of desirable traits in hybrid populations, particularly when hybrids are produced over multiple generations without proper management (Ahmed et al., 2019; Cook et al., 2000). To address this issue, comprehensive monitoring and breeding programs must be implemented to ensure genetic stability. These programs should incorporate genomic tools and marker-assisted selection (Kalueff et al., 2014; Coughlan et al., 2020). Such approaches help sustain desirable traits in hybrids, ensuring their reliable performance in commercial production settings (Bartley et al., 2020; Briggs, 2002).

Health and Welfare

Previous studies on fish hybridization have indicated that hybrid fish may be more susceptible to health issues, such as deformities or reduced fertility, which can negatively impact the efficiency of breeding programs (Krasnovyd et al., 2020; Bartley, 2021). The occurrence of deformities and other health problems is particularly common among hybrid offsprings, especially when raised under suboptimal conditions (Mitra et al., 2023; Franke et al., 2024). As a result, it is essential to closely monitor standard operating practices and breeding programs to ensure the production of high-quality hybrid progeny (Ye et al., 2024). This approach helps minimize health risks and improves the overall effectiveness of fish breeding efforts.

Regulatory and Public Perception

Obtaining regulatory approval for fish hybridization and securing public acceptance can be difficult, especially in areas where scepticism about GMOs and other forms of genetic modification exists. Recent surveys of public opinion revealed significant variability in consumer acceptance of hybrid fish products, with some expressing concerns over the safety and environmental impact of

Table 2: Regulatory frameworks for fish hybridization in various countries

Country/Region	Regulatory Body	Key regulations	Specific Guidelines for Hybridization	References
United States	U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS)	National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA), Lacey Act, Endangered Species Act (ESA)	This act focusing on conservation of threatened and endangered National plants and animals. Hybridization requires environmental Aquaculture assessments; restrictions on hybrid species that may impact native Act, 1980 populations	Native and animals. Hybridization requires environmental Aquaculture assessments; restrictions on hybrid species that may impact native Act, 1980 populations
European Union	European Commission (EC), Habitats Directive Member States	Common Fisheries Policy (CFP), EU	Focusing on sustainable management on fishing fleets and Council preserving fish stock. Hybrid species must comply with biodiversity Directive and ecosystem protection guidelines; requires risk assessments	92/43/EEC
China	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs (MARA)	Fisheries Law of the People's Republic of China	The law is stipulate to enhance the protection, increasing and developing fishery resources. Strict regulations on the introduction of the and breeding of non-native species; licenses required for hybrid	People's Republic of China, 1986
India	Ministry of Fisheries, Animal Husbandry and Dairying	Coastal Aquaculture Authority Act, 2005	This act encompasses the farming of aquatic life under controlled condition. Regulation of hybrid species in coastal aquaculture; Aquaculture guidelines for species introduction and environmental impact assessments	Coastal Aquaculture Authority Act, 2005
Japan	Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (MAFF)	Fisheries Law of Japan	This act stipulates the basic framework of Japan's Fishery policy of which hybridization activities require permits; environmental impact and biodiversity conservation are key considerations	Protection of Fisheries Resources Act, 1951
Norway	Directorate of Fisheries	Aquaculture Act, Nature Diversity Act	Hybridization must adhere to strict environmental and biodiversity conservation guidelines; licensing required. This act established a governing framework for aquaculture industry in inland and marine waters including the provincial sea, EEZ and mainland shelf of Norway	Aquaculture Act, 2005
Russia	Federal Agency for Fisheries (Rosrybolovstvo)	Federal Law on Fisheries and Conservation of Aquatic Biological Resources	Hybrid species breeding is strictly regulated; permits required, with a focus on conservation of native species. This law focusing on fisheries and conservation of aquatic biological resources which consisting of 65 articles	2013
Vietnam	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MARD)	Fisheries Law of Vietnam	Regulations focus on preventing environmental degradation; Law on hybridization must align with sustainable aquaculture practices. The law consists of two articles on 61 and 61 on illegal fishing which focusing on exploitation of fish	2019
South Africa	Department of Environment, Forestry and Fisheries (DEFF)	National Environmental Management Act (NEMA), Marine Living Resources Act	Hybridization requires environmental impact assessments; specific Marine Living guidelines to protect native biodiversity. This act focusing on Resources Act, providing co-operative environmental governance by principal 1998 affecting the environment	1998
Brazil	Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, and Supply (MAPA)	National Environmental Policy Act, Fisheries Law	Hybrid breeding must comply with environmental protection laws; Sustainable specific regulations for non-native species but more focusing on Development protection of migratory fish	Policy on Fisheries and Aquaculture, 2009
New Zealand	Ministry for Primary Industries (MPI)	Freshwater Fisheries Regulations 1983, Subclause (2) Part 8A Schedule 3	Focusing on indigenous species management. Prohibition of noxious fish species (Schedule 3) including its subspecies, hybrids and variations of the species	Fisheries Act, 1996
Australia	Department of Agriculture, Water and the Environment (DAWE)	Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act (EPBC Act)	Hybrid species must undergo rigorous risk assessments; regulations to prevent impacts on native species and ecosystems.	EPBC Act, 1999
Canada	Fisheries and Oceans Canada (DFO)	Fisheries Act, Species at Risk Act (SARA)	Biodiversity conservation refers to the protection, preservation, and management of ecosystems and natural habitats and ensuring that they are healthy and functional. To protect and preserve species diversity. To ensure sustainable management of the species and ecosystems.	1985
Thailand	Department of Fisheries (DOF)	Fisheries Act of Thailand	Focusing on four categories which are endangered, threatened, extirpated and special concern. Hybridization practices are regulated to protect native species; permits required for hybrid breeding activities.	Fisheries Act, 1947
			Section 73 of the Species at Risk Act ('SARA', the Act) sets out conditions that must be met before a competent minister can issue a permit for an activity affecting a listed wildlife species, any part of its critical habitat or the residences of its individuals.	
			Hybridization is regulated with a focus on preventing adverse environmental impacts and protecting native species.	
			This Act lays down the general principles relating to fisheries. The 104 Sections of the Act are divided into a title part (sections 1 to 5) and 11 Chapters: Fisheries Management (1); Fishery Zone (2); Promotion of Aquaculture (3); Standard of Fish or Fish Products (4); Importation and Exportation of Fish and Fish Products (5); Overseas Marine Fishery (6); Fees on license or Permit and Substitute (7); Transferability (8); Competent Official (9); Administrative Measure (10); Penalties (11).	

South Korea	Ministry of Oceans and Fisheries (MOF)	Fisheries Act, Environmental Impact Assessment Act	Strict guidelines for hybrid species; environmental impact assessments are mandatory before breeding. The purpose of this Act is to promote environment-friendly, sustainable development and healthy and pleasant life of citizens by Act, 1 forecasting and assessing the environmental impacts of a plan or project and by formulating measures for environmental conservation when a plan or project that has an environmental impact is formulated and implemented.
Malaysia	Fisheries Department Malaysia	Fisheries Act 1985 Section 40(2) Please refer to the Malaysian Biosafety Law (Akta 678) which mentions crossing of species beyond their natural reproductive range.	No specific regulations for fish hybridization but Part VIII, section 40 Fisheries Act (2) of the Fisheries Act 1985 on control the release of non- (No. 317 of indigenous fish species into the natural environment may govern 1985) 1985 this activity in Malaysia.

genetically modified or hybridized fish (Pérez-Ramírez et al., 2020; Dayé et al., 2023). To address these challenges, the aquaculture industry needs to prioritize transparent communication and public education, emphasizing the benefits of hybrid fish while addressing concerns related to its safety and sustainability (Love et al., 2021).

Future Directions and Innovations in Fish Hybridization

The future of fish hybridization is poised for significant advancements through the integration of cutting-edge genomic technologies such as CRISPR and other gene-editing techniques (Charpentier, 2017; Yoon et al., 2023) which offer precise genetic modifications to enhance traits like disease resistance, environmental adaptability, improved growth rates, and higher survival rates (Snow et al., 2005; Ahmed et al., 2019; Cook et al., 2000). Despite these advancements, ethical and regulatory concerns surrounding gene-editing in aquaculture must be properly addressed. Alongside these technologies, selective breeding programs that leverage genomic selection and marker-assisted breeding are becoming increasingly important, enabling the accurate identification of desirable traits and improving breeding outcomes (Gjedrem et al., 2020; Lal et al., 2024). As climate change continues to impact ecosystems, hybrid species such as tilapia and catfish are being developed to adapt to shifting environmental conditions, including changes in water temperature and salinity, ensuring the sustainability of global seafood production (Free et al., 2019). Furthermore, incorporating fish hybridization into sustainable aquaculture practices, such as multi-trophic systems and recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS), can significantly boost efficiency and reduce environmental impact, contributing to the long-term preservation of aquatic ecosystems (Troell et al., 2020; Salgotra and Chauhan 2023; Lal et al., 2024).

Conclusion

Fish hybridization offers a promising strategy for enhancing the productivity, resilience, and sustainability of aquaculture. By combining favourable traits from different species or strains, hybrid fish can deliver significant advantages, such as faster growth rates, improved disease resistance, and greater adaptability to environmental changes. Advances in genomic technologies, selective breeding, and sustainable farming practices have further amplified the potential of hybrid fish to contribute to global seafood security. However, the success of these

breeding programs depends on careful management, comprehensive research, and responsible practices to address the potential risks and challenges associated with hybridization. As global seafood demand continues to rise, hybrid fish breeding is expected to play an increasingly crucial role in ensuring seafood security and fostering the development of sustainable aquaculture.

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