

Reproductive system

Further information: [Fish reproduction](#) and [Spawn \(biology\)](#)



Organs: 1. [Liver](#), 2. [Gas bladder](#), 3. [Roe](#), 4. Pyloric caeca, 5. [Stomach](#), 6. [Intestine](#)

Fish reproductive organs include [testicles](#) and [ovaries](#). In most species, gonads are paired organs of similar size, which can be partially or totally fused.^[52] There may also be a range of secondary organs that increase reproductive fitness.

In terms of [spermatogonia](#) distribution, the structure of [teleosts](#) testes has two types: in the most common, spermatogonia occur all along the [seminiferous tubules](#), while in [atherinomorph](#) fish they are confined to the [distal](#) portion of these structures. Fish can present cystic or semi-cystic [spermatogenesis](#) in relation to the release phase of germ cells in cysts to the seminiferous tubules [lumen](#).^[52]

Fish ovaries may be of three types: gymnovarian, secondary gymnovarian or cystovarian. In the first type, the [oocytes](#) are released directly into the [coelomic](#) cavity and then enter the [ostium](#), then through the [oviduct](#) and are eliminated. Secondary gymnovarian ovaries shed [ova](#) into the [coelom](#) from which they go directly into the oviduct. In the third type, the oocytes are conveyed to the exterior through the [oviduct](#).^[53] Gymnovaries are the primitive condition found in [lungfish](#), [sturgeon](#), and [bowfin](#). Cystovaries characterize most teleosts, where the ovary lumen has continuity with the oviduct.^[52] Secondary gymnovaries are found in [salmonids](#) and a few other teleosts.

[Oogonia](#) development in teleosts fish varies according to the group, and the determination of oogenesis dynamics allows the understanding of maturation and fertilization processes. Changes in the [nucleus](#), ooplasm, and the surrounding layers characterize the oocyte maturation process.^[52]

Postovulatory [follicles](#) are structures formed after oocyte release; they do not have [endocrine](#) function, present a wide irregular lumen, and are rapidly reabsorbed in a process involving the [apoptosis](#) of follicular cells. A degenerative process called [follicular atresia](#) reabsorbs vitellogenic oocytes not spawned. This process can also occur, but less frequently, in oocytes in other development stages.^[52]

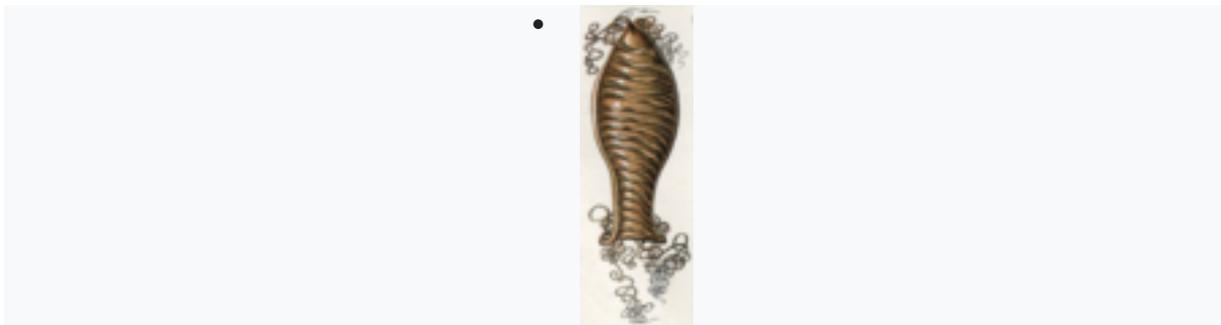
Some fish, like the [California sheephead](#), are [hermaphrodites](#), having both testes and ovaries either at different phases in their life cycle or, as in [hamlets](#), have them simultaneously.

Over 97% of all known fish are [oviparous](#),^[54] that is, the eggs develop outside the mother's body. Examples of oviparous fish include [salmon](#), [goldfish](#), [cichlids](#), [tuna](#), and [eels](#). In the majority of these species, fertilisation takes place outside the mother's body, with the male and female fish shedding their [gametes](#) into the surrounding water. However, a few oviparous fish practice internal fertilization, with the male using some sort of [intromittent organ](#) to deliver sperm into the genital opening of the female, most notably the oviparous sharks, such as the [horn shark](#), and oviparous rays, such as [skates](#). In these cases, the male is equipped with a pair of modified [pelvic fins](#) known as [claspers](#).

Marine fish can produce high numbers of eggs which are often released into the open water column. The eggs have an average diameter of 1 millimetre (0.039 in).



Egg of [lamprey](#)



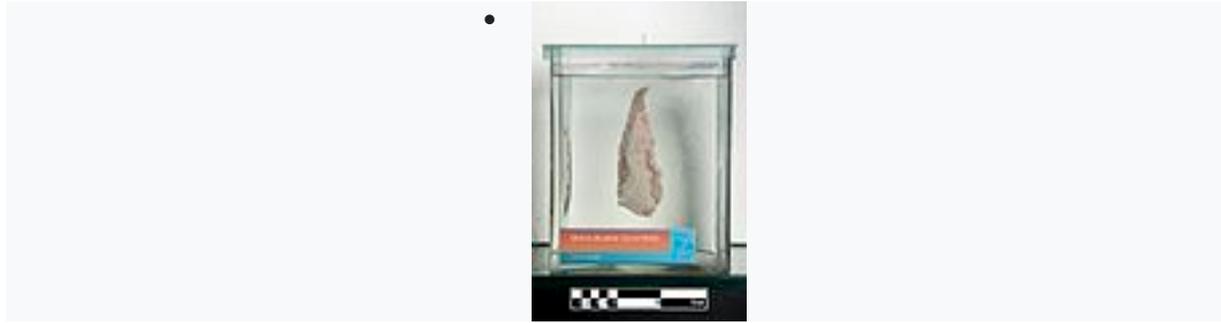
Egg of [catshark \(mermaids' purse\)](#)



Egg of [bullhead shark](#)



Egg of [chimaera](#)



Ovary of fish (Corumbatá)

The newly hatched young of oviparous fish are called [larvae](#). They are usually poorly formed, carry a large [yolk sac](#) (for nourishment), and are very different in appearance from juvenile and adult specimens. The larval period in oviparous fish is relatively short (usually only several weeks), and larvae rapidly grow and change appearance and structure (a process termed [metamorphosis](#)) to become juveniles. During this transition larvae must switch from their yolk sac to feeding on [zooplankton](#) prey, a process which depends on typically inadequate zooplankton density, starving many larvae.

In [ovoviviparous](#) fish the eggs develop inside the mother's body after internal fertilization but receive little or no nourishment directly from the mother, depending instead on the [yolk](#). Each embryo develops in its own egg. Familiar examples of ovoviviparous fish include [guppies](#), [angel sharks](#), and [coelacanth](#)s.

Some species of fish are [viviparous](#). In such species the mother retains the eggs and nourishes the embryos. Typically, viviparous fish have a structure analogous to the [placenta](#) seen in [mammals](#) connecting the mother's blood supply with that of the embryo. Examples of viviparous fish include the [surf-perches](#), [splitfins](#), and [lemon shark](#). Some viviparous fish exhibit [oophagy](#), in which the developing embryos eat other eggs produced by the mother. This has been observed primarily among sharks, such as the [shortfin mako](#) and [porbeagle](#), but is known for a few bony fish as well, such as the [halfbeak](#) *Nomorhamphus ebrardtii*.^[65] [Intrauterine cannibalism](#) is an even more unusual mode of vivipary, in which the largest embryos eat weaker and smaller siblings. This behavior is also most commonly found among sharks, such as the [grey nurse shark](#), but has also been reported for *Nomorhamphus ebrardtii*.^[65]

[Aquarists](#) commonly refer to ovoviviparous and viviparous fish as [livebearers](#).