

Topic: Fish

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implementation Nurpeisova
Nargiz
Group biology 2 course

section1

Fish are gill-bearing aquatic craniate animals that lack limbs with digits. They form a sister group to the tunicates, together forming the olfactores. Included in this definition are the living hagfish, lampreys, and cartilaginous and bony fish as well as various extinct related groups. Tetrapods emerged within lobe-finned fishes, so cladistically they are fish as well. However, traditionally fish are rendered paraphyletic by excluding the tetrapods (i.e., the amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals which all descended from within the same ancestry). Because in this manner the term "fish" is defined negatively as a paraphyletic group, it is not considered a formal taxonomic grouping in systematic biology, unless it is used in the cladistic sense, including tetrapods. The traditional term **pisces** (also **ichthyes**) is considered a typological, but not a phylogenetic classification.



**Giant grouper
swimming among
schools of other fish**

The earliest organisms that can be classified as fish were soft-bodied [chordates](#) that first appeared during the [Cambrian](#) period. Although they lacked a [true spine](#), they possessed [notochords](#) which allowed them to be more agile than their invertebrate counterparts. Fish would continue to evolve through the [Paleozoic](#) era, diversifying into a wide variety of forms. Many fish of the Paleozoic developed [external armor](#) that protected them from predators. The first fish with [jaws](#) appeared in the [Silurian](#) period, after which many (such as [sharks](#)) became formidable marine predators rather than just the prey of [arthropods](#). Most fish are [ectothermic](#) ("cold-blooded"), allowing their body temperatures to vary as ambient temperatures change, though some of the large active swimmers like [white shark](#) and [tuna](#) can hold a higher [core temperature](#).

section2

Fish can communicate in their underwater environments through the use of acoustic communication. Acoustic communication in fish involves the transmission of acoustic signals from one individual of a species to another. The production of sounds as a means of communication among fish is most often used in the context of feeding, aggression or courtship behaviour. The sounds emitted by fish can vary depending on the species and stimulus involved. They can produce either stridulatory sounds by moving components of the skeletal system, or can produce non-stridulatory sounds by manipulating specialized organs such as the swimbladder.



Fish are abundant in most bodies of water. They can be found in nearly all aquatic environments, from high mountain streams (e.g., [char](#) and [gudgeon](#)) to the [abyssal](#) and even [hadal](#) depths of the deepest oceans (e.g., [gulpers](#) and [anglerfish](#)), although no species has yet been documented in the deepest 25% of the ocean. With 33,600 described species, fish exhibit greater species diversity than any other group of vertebrates. Fish are an important resource for humans worldwide, especially [as food](#). Commercial and subsistence fishers hunt fish in [wild fisheries](#) (see fishing) or [farm](#) them in ponds or in cages in the ocean (see [aquaculture](#)). They are also caught by [recreational fishers](#), kept as pets, raised by [fishkeepers](#), and exhibited in public [aquaria](#). Fish have had a role in culture through the ages, serving as [deities](#), religious symbols, and as the subjects of art, books and movies.

section3

Evolution

Main article: [Evolution of fish](#)

Fish, as vertebrata, developed as sister of the tunicata. As the tetrapods emerged deep within the fishes group, as sister of the lungfish, characteristics of fish are typically shared by tetrapods, including having vertebrae and a cranium.

[Dunkleosteus](#) was a gigantic, 10-metre (33 ft) long [prehistoric fish](#) of class Placodermi.

Early fish from the fossil record are represented by a group of small, jawless, armored fish known as [ostracoderms](#). Jawless fish lineages are mostly extinct. An extant clade, the [lampreys](#) may approximate ancient pre-jawed fish. The first jaws are found in [Placodermi](#) fossils. The diversity of jawed vertebrates may indicate the evolutionary advantage of a [jawed mouth](#). It is unclear if the advantage of a hinged jaw is greater biting force, improved respiration, or a combination of factors.

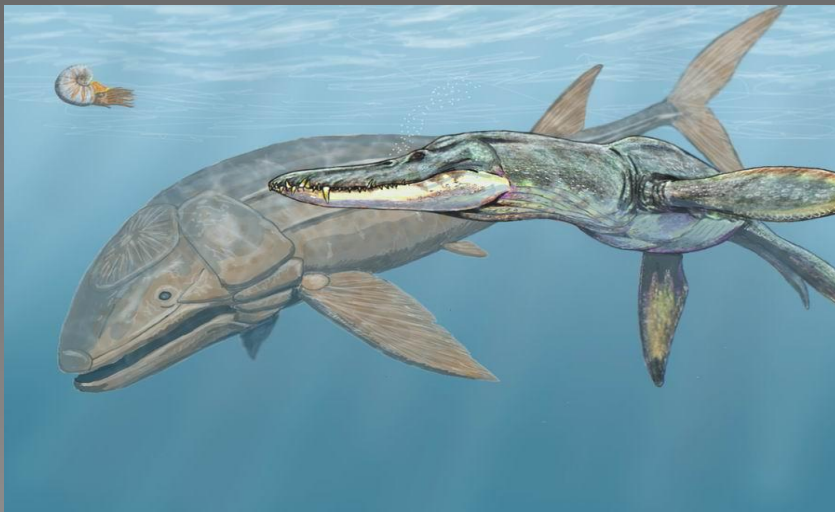
Fish may have evolved from a creature similar to a coral-like [sea squirt](#), whose larvae resemble primitive fish in important ways. The first ancestors of fish may have [kept the larval form into adulthood](#) (as some sea squirts do today), although perhaps the reverse is the case.

Taxonomy

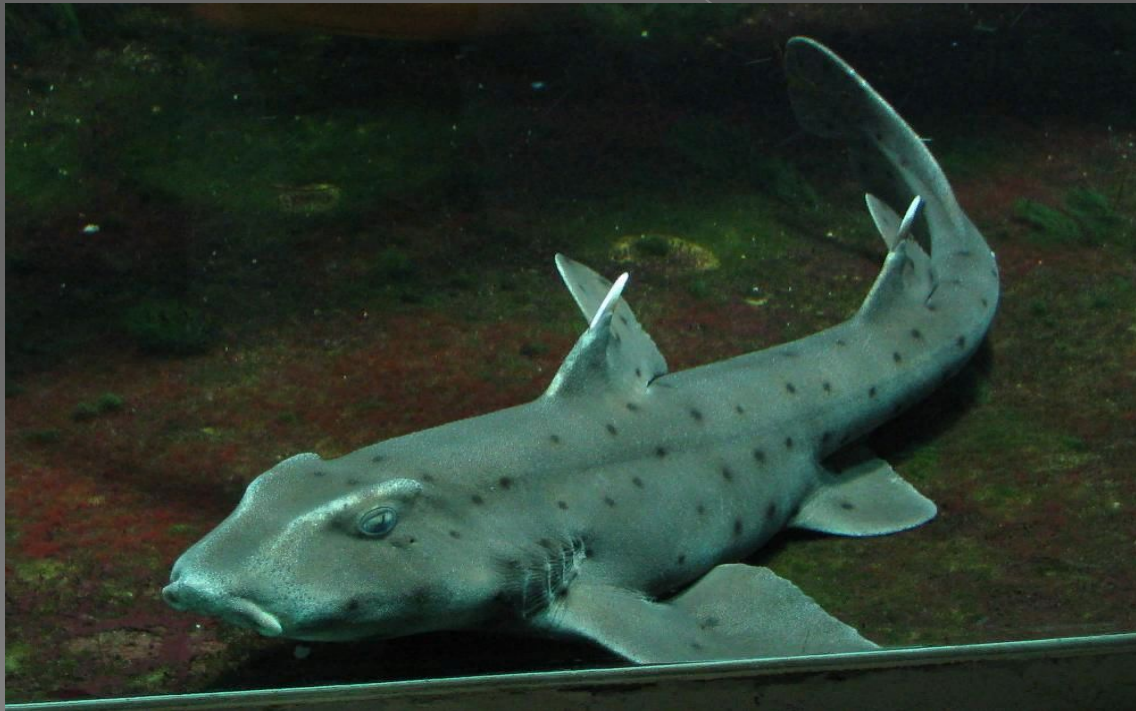
Fish are a paraphyletic group: that is, any clade containing all fish also contains the tetrapods, which are not fish. For this reason, groups such as the class Pisces seen in older reference works are no longer used in formal classifications.

Leedsichthys (left), of the subclass Actinopterygii, is the largest known fish, with estimates in 2005 putting its maximum size at 16 metres (52 ft).

Traditional classification divides fish into three extant classes, and with extinct forms sometimes classified within the tree, sometimes as their own classes.



The above scheme is the one most commonly encountered in non-specialist and general works. Many of the above groups are paraphyletic, in that they have given rise to successive groups: Agnathans are ancestral to Chondrichthyes, who again have given rise to Acanthodians, the ancestors of Osteichthyes. With the arrival of phylogenetic nomenclature, the fishes has been split up into a more detailed scheme, with the following major groups.



Chondrichthyes
([Horn shark](#))

Diversity

The term "fish" most precisely describes any non-[tetrapod craniate](#) (i.e. an animal with a skull and in most cases a backbone) that has [gills](#) throughout life and whose limbs, if any, are in the shape of fins. Unlike groupings such as birds or [mammals](#), fish are not a single [clade](#) but a [paraphyletic](#) collection of [taxa](#), including [hagfishes](#), [lampreys](#), [sharks and rays](#), [ray-finned fish](#), [coelacanth](#)s, and [lungfish](#).^{[18][19]} Indeed, lungfish and coelacanth are closer relatives of [tetrapods](#) (such as [mammals](#), birds, [amphibians](#), etc.) than of other fish such as [ray-finned fish](#) or sharks, so the [last common ancestor](#) of all fish is also an ancestor to tetrapods. As paraphyletic groups are no longer recognised in modern [systematic biology](#), the use of the term "fish" as a biological group must be avoided.



Agnatha
(Pacific hagfish)

section4

Anatomy and physiology

Respiration

See also: [Aquatic respiration](#)

Gills

Most fish exchange gases using [gills](#) on either side of the [pharynx](#). Gills consist of threadlike structures called [filaments](#). Each filament contains a [capillary](#) network that provides a large [surface area](#) for exchanging [oxygen](#) and [carbon dioxide](#). Fish exchange gases by pulling oxygen-rich water through their mouths and pumping it over their gills. In some fish, capillary blood flows in the opposite direction to the water, causing [countercurrent exchange](#). The gills push the oxygen-poor water out through openings in the sides of the pharynx. Some fish, like [sharks](#) and [lampreys](#), possess multiple gill openings. However, [bony fish](#) have a single gill opening on each side. This opening is hidden beneath a protective bony cover called an [operculum](#).

Juvenile [bichirs](#) have external gills, a very primitive feature that they share with larval [amphibians](#).

Air breathing

Photo of fish head split in half longitudinally with gill filaments crossing from top to bottom

Tuna gills inside the head. The fish head is oriented snout-downwards, with the view looking towards the mouth.

Fish from multiple groups can live out of the water for extended periods.

Amphibious fish such as the mudskipper can live and move about on land for up to several days,[dubious – discuss] or live in stagnant or otherwise oxygen depleted water. Many such fish can breathe air via a variety of mechanisms. The skin of anguillid eels may absorb oxygen directly. The buccal cavity of the electric eel may breathe air. Catfish of the families Loricariidae, Callichthyidae, and Scoloplacidae absorb air through their digestive tracts.[30] Lungfish, with the exception of the Australian lungfish, and bichirs have paired lungs similar to those of tetrapods and must surface to gulp fresh air through the mouth and pass spent air out through the gills. Gar and bowfin have a vascularized swim bladder that functions in the same way. Loaches, trahiras, and many catfish breathe by passing air through the gut. Mudskippers breathe by absorbing oxygen across the skin (similar to frogs). A number of fish have evolved so-called accessory breathing organs that extract oxygen from the air. Labyrinth fish (such as gouramis and bettas) have a labyrinth organ above the gills that performs this function. A few other fish have structures resembling labyrinth organs in form and function, most notably snakeheads, pikeheads, and the Clariidae catfish family.

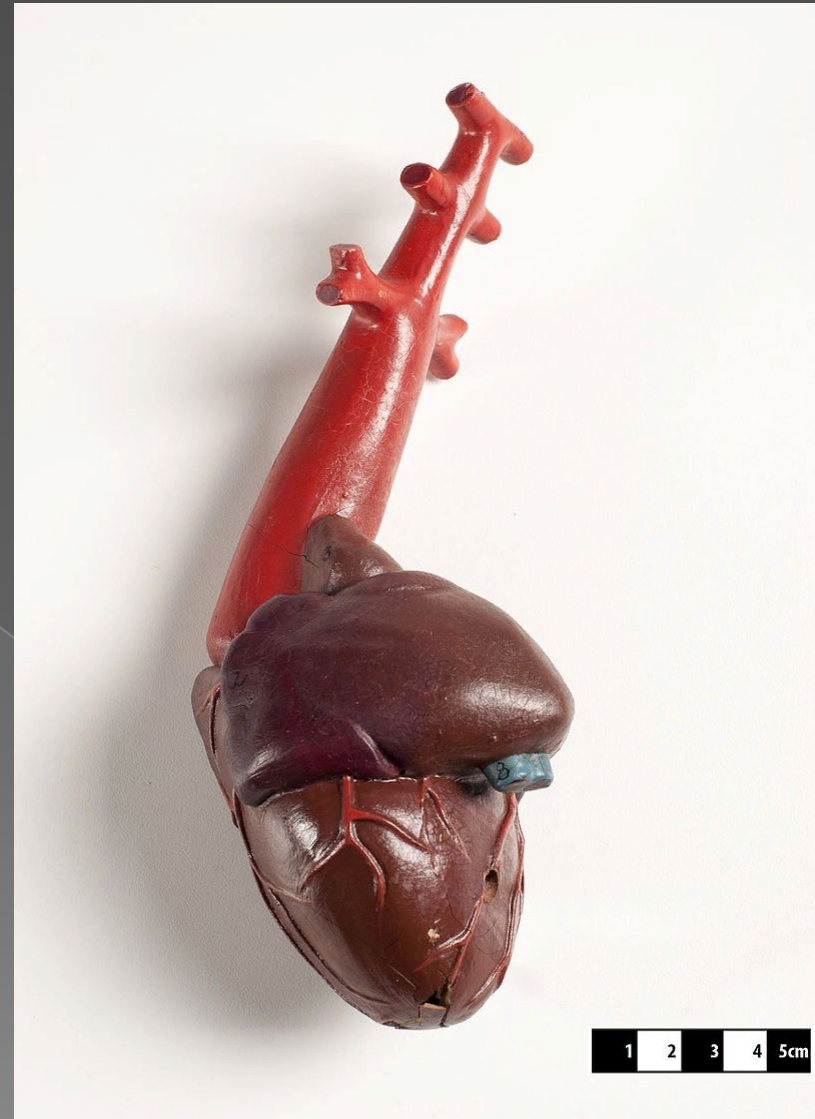


[Tuna](#) gills inside the head. The fish head is oriented snout-downwards, with the view looking towards the mouth.

Circulation

Didactic model of a fish heart

Fish have a closed-loop circulatory system. The heart pumps the blood in a single loop throughout the body. In most fish, the heart consists of four parts, including two chambers and an entrance and exit.[31] The first part is the sinus venosus, a thin-walled sac that collects blood from the fish's veins before allowing it to flow to the second part, the atrium, which is a large muscular chamber. The atrium serves as a one-way antechamber, sends blood to the third part, ventricle. The ventricle is another thick-walled, muscular chamber and it pumps the blood, first to the fourth part, bulbus arteriosus, a large tube, and then out of the heart. The bulbus arteriosus connects to the aorta, through which blood flows to the gills for oxygenation.



Digestion

Jaws allow fish to eat a wide variety of food, including plants and other organisms. Fish ingest food through the mouth and break it down in the [esophagus](#). In the stomach, food is further digested and, in many fish, processed in finger-shaped pouches called [pyloric caeca](#), which secrete digestive [enzymes](#) and absorb nutrients. Organs such as the [liver](#) and [pancreas](#) add enzymes and various chemicals as the food moves through the digestive tract. The intestine completes the process of digestion and nutrient absorption.



Excretion

As with many aquatic animals, most fish release their nitrogenous wastes as [ammonia](#). Some of the wastes [diffuse](#) through the gills. Blood wastes are [filtered](#) by the [kidneys](#). Saltwater fish tend to lose water because of [osmosis](#). Their kidneys return water to the body. The reverse happens in [freshwater fish](#): they tend to gain water osmotically. Their kidneys produce dilute urine for excretion. Some fish have specially adapted kidneys that vary in function, allowing them to move from freshwater to saltwater.



Central nervous system

Fish typically have quite small brains relative to body size compared with other vertebrates, typically one-fifteenth the brain mass of a similarly sized bird or mammal. However, some fish have relatively large brains, most notably [mormyrids](#) and [sharks](#), which have brains about as massive relative to body weight as birds and [marsupials](#).

Fish brains are divided into several regions. At the front are the [olfactory lobes](#), a pair of structures that receive and process signals from the [nostrils](#) via the two [olfactory nerves](#). The olfactory lobes are very large in fish that hunt primarily by smell, such as hagfish, sharks, and catfish. Behind the olfactory lobes is the two-lobed [telencephalon](#), the structural equivalent to the [cerebrum](#) in [higher vertebrates](#). In fish the telencephalon is concerned mostly with [olfaction](#). Together these structures form the forebrain.

Connecting the forebrain to the midbrain is the [diencephalon](#) (in the diagram, this structure is below the optic lobes and consequently not visible). The diencephalon performs functions associated with [hormones](#) and [homeostasis](#). The [pineal body](#) lies just above the diencephalon. This structure detects light, maintains [circadian](#) rhythms, and controls color changes.

Sense organs

Most fish possess highly developed sense organs. Nearly all daylight fish have color vision that is at least as good as a human's (see vision in fishes). Many fish also have chemoreceptors that are responsible for extraordinary senses of taste and smell. Although they have ears, many fish may not hear very well. Most fish have sensitive receptors that form the lateral line system, which detects gentle currents and vibrations, and senses the motion of nearby fish and prey. Some fish, such as catfish and sharks, have the Ampullae of Lorenzini, organs that detect weak electric currents on the order of millivolt. Other fish, like the South American electric fishes Gymnotiformes, can produce weak electric currents, which they use in navigation and social communication.

Fish orient themselves using landmarks and may use mental maps based on multiple landmarks or symbols. Fish behavior in mazes reveals that they possess spatial memory and visual discrimination.



In this oblique view of a [goldfish](#) (*Carrasius auratus*), some of the pored scales of the lateral line system are visible.

Vision

Main article: [Vision in fishes](#)

[Vision](#) is an important [sensory system](#) for most species of fish. Fish eyes are similar to those of [terrestrial vertebrates](#) like [birds](#) and mammals, but have a more [spherical lens](#). Their [retinas](#) generally have both [rods](#) and [cones](#) (for [scotopic](#) and [photopic vision](#)), and most species have [colour vision](#). Some fish can see [ultraviolet](#) and some can see [polarized light](#).

Amongst [jawless fish](#), the [lamprey](#) has well-developed eyes, while the [hagfish](#) has only primitive [eyespots](#).^[37] Fish vision shows [adaptation](#) to their visual environment, for example [deep sea fishes](#) have eyes suited to the dark environment.

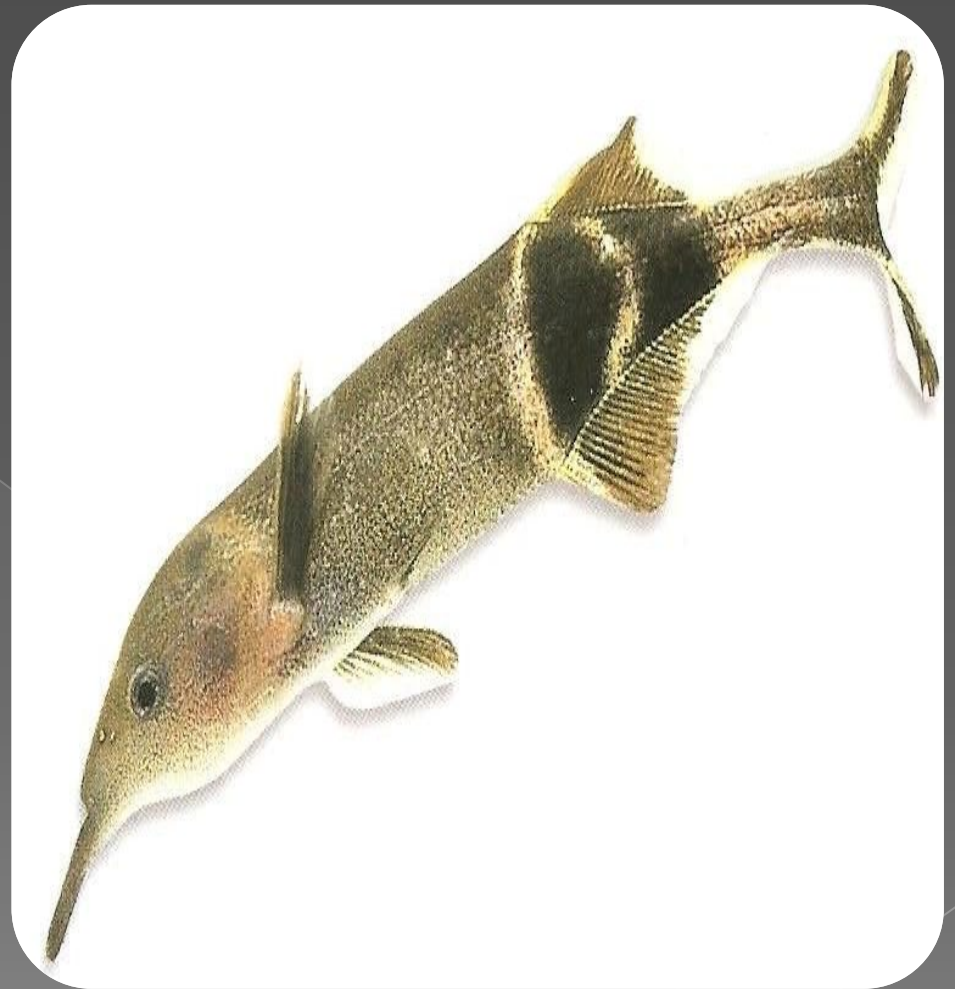


Cognition

Further information: [Fish intelligence](#)

New research has expanded preconceptions about the cognitive capacities of fish. For example, [manta rays](#) have exhibited behavior linked to [self-awareness](#) in [mirror test](#) cases. Placed in front of a mirror, individual rays engaged in contingency testing, that is, repetitive behavior aiming to check whether their reflection's behavior mimics their body movement. [Wrasses](#) have also passed the mirror test in a 2018 scientific study.

Cases of tool use have also been noticed, notably in the [Choerodon](#) family, in [archerfish](#) and [Atlantic cod](#).



Muscular system

Main article: Fish locomotion

Photo of white bladder that consists of a rectangular section and a banana-shaped section connected by a much thinner element
Swim bladder of a rudd (*Scardinius erythrophthalmus*)

Most fish move by alternately contracting paired sets of muscles on either side of the backbone. These contractions form S-shaped curves that move down the body. As each curve reaches the back fin, backward force is applied to the water, and in conjunction with the fins, moves the fish forward. The fish's fins function like an airplane's flaps. Fins also increase the tail's surface area, increasing speed. The streamlined body of the fish decreases the amount of friction from the water. Since body tissue is denser than water, fish must compensate for the difference or they will sink. Many bony fish have an internal organ called a swim bladder that adjusts their buoyancy through manipulation of gases.



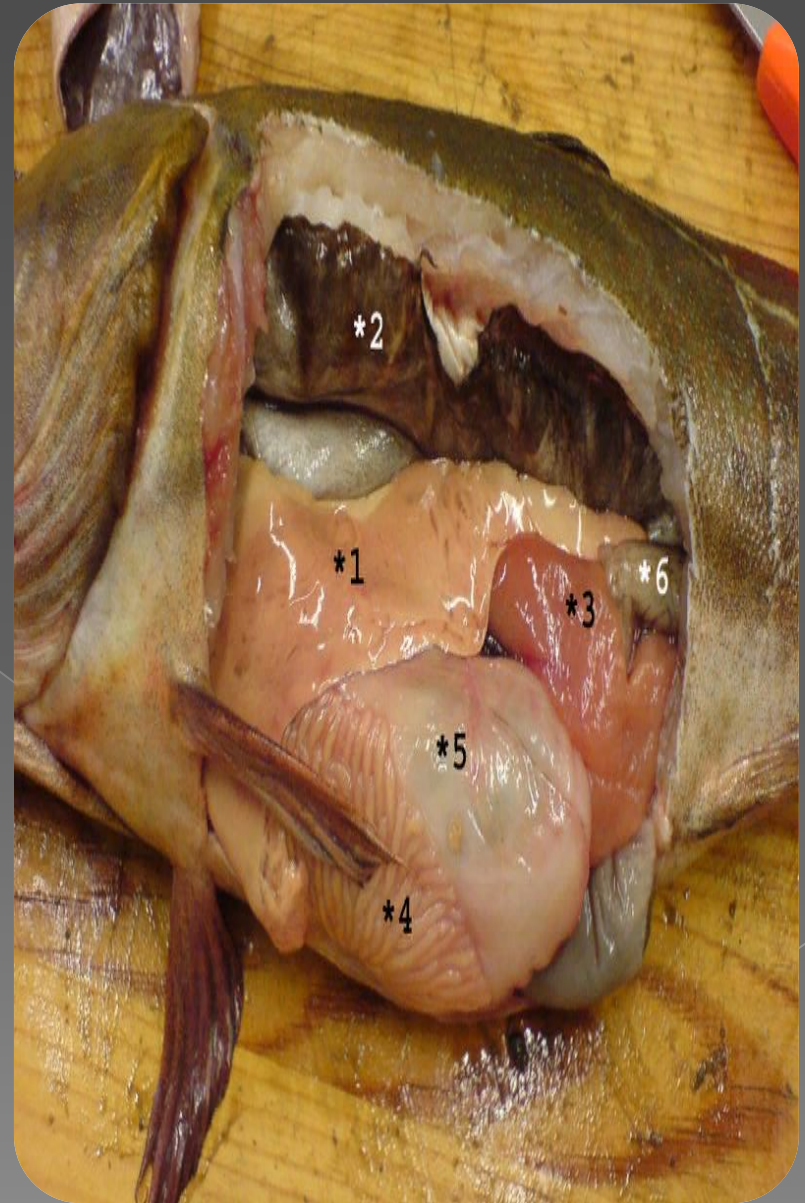
Reproductive system

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. [51] 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.



Immune system

Immune organs vary by type of fish.[67] In the jawless fish (lampreys and hagfish), true lymphoid organs are absent. These fish rely on regions of lymphoid tissue within other organs to produce immune cells. For example, erythrocytes, macrophages and plasma cells are produced in the anterior kidney (or pronephros) and some areas of the gut (where granulocytes mature.) They resemble primitive bone marrow in hagfish. Cartilaginous fish (sharks and rays) have a more advanced immune system. They have three specialized organs that are unique to Chondrichthyes; the epigonal organs (lymphoid tissue similar to mammalian bone) that surround the gonads, the Leydig's organ within the walls of their esophagus, and a spiral valve in their intestine. These organs house typical immune cells (granulocytes, lymphocytes and plasma cells). They also possess an identifiable thymus and a well-developed spleen (their most important immune organ) where various lymphocytes, plasma cells and macrophages develop and are stored. Chondrosteian fish (sturgeons, paddlefish, and bichirs) possess a major site for the production of granulocytes within a mass that is associated with the meninges (membranes surrounding the central nervous system.) Their heart is frequently covered with tissue that contains lymphocytes, reticular cells and a small number of macrophages. The chondrosteian kidney is an important hemopoietic organ; where erythrocytes, granulocytes, lymphocytes and macrophages develop.

Shoal or school

Main article: Shoaling and schooling

Photo of thousands of fish separated from each other by distances of 2 inches (51 mm) or less
These goldband fusiliers are schooling because their swimming is synchronised.

A random assemblage of fish merely using some localised resource such as food or nesting sites is known simply as an aggregation. When fish come together in an interactive, social grouping, then they may be forming either a shoal or a school depending on the degree of organisation. A shoal is a loosely organised group where each fish swims and forages independently but is attracted to other members of the group and adjusts its behaviour, such as swimming speed, so that it remains close to the other members of the group. Schools of fish are much more tightly organised, synchronising their swimming so that all fish move at the same speed and in the same direction. Shoaling and schooling behaviour is believed to provide a variety of advantages.

