

Thesis
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**Aspects of the Reproductive Biology and Endocrinology of the
Substrate-Spawning Cichlid *Tilapia zillii*.**

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

by

Kevin Coward

Institute of Aquaculture, University of Stirling, Stirling, Scotland.

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DECLARATION.

The work presented in this thesis was carried out between 1991 and 1994 at the Institute of Aquaculture, University of Stirling. Except where specifically acknowledged, the work presented herein has been conducted independently and has neither been accepted nor submitted for any other degree.

CANDIDATE.....

SUPERVISOR.....

DATE.....

Abstract.

This study investigated several, previously little-known, aspects of reproductive physiology and endocrinology in the substrate-spawning cichlid *Tilapia zillii*; a tilapia that is becoming increasingly popular in world aquaculture. Studies were undertaken in controlled laboratory aquaria, thereby reducing the potential influence of environmental variation evident in many previous field studies of this species. Analysis involved two strains of *T. zillii*: strain 'A' (*T. zillii*) and strain 'B' (formerly known as *Tilapia tholloni*).

Spawning periodicity and total fecundity generally increased with fish size. Egg size varied within a narrow window and did not generally increase with fish size though fish weighing 100 - 200g tended to produce the largest eggs. The best estimate of spawning periodicity was considered to be 'mean days elapsed/spawn' as this figure was based upon both spawning and non-spawning fish in an experimental group. Mean days elapsed/spawn increased with increasing fish size and averaged 61.4 days and 37.5 days in strains 'A' and 'B' respectively. The shortest reproductive cycles observed were just 7 days and 6 days for strains 'A' and 'B' respectively. Total fecundity ranged from 461 - 11640 eggs/clutch. Mean total fecundity was 3606 ± 280 in strain 'A' and 3560 ± 243 in strain 'B'. Mean egg diameter was 1.5 ± 0.04 mm and 1.4 ± 0.08 mm in strains 'A' and 'B' respectively. Fecundity and egg size also varied over successive spawns in serial-spawning females but these variations did not appear to be related to spawning periodicity.

Regression analysis revealed strong relationships between fish size (weight and length) and total fecundity, relative fecundity and total egg volume. Relationships between fish size and egg size were generally much weaker. Fecundity and egg size were related to the length of the preceding inter-spawn-interval (ISI) in fish of certain weight categories but not others, providing limited evidence that length of ISI may in part, control fecundity and egg size in this species.

Ovarian recrudescence was classified into ten distinct developmental stages based upon oocyte size, biochemical properties and structure. This classification

scheme was comparable to classification schemes developed for other teleosts but represents the first detailed description of oocyte growth in a substrate-spawning tilapia.

Radioimmunoassay and stereological analysis provided valuable and novel data concerning the dynamics of ovarian development in this species. Levels of 17 β -oestradiol (E₂) and testosterone (T) peaked within 6 days of spawning, suggesting that vitellogenesis began as early as day 2 or 3 post-spawning. By day 8, ovaries were dominated by large late-vitellogenic/maturing oocytes (stages 6 & 7) occupying 60 - 70% of the ovary. Gonadosomatic index (GSI) reached maximal levels by day 14. Since the proportion of stage 6/7 oocytes exhibited little change from day 8 onwards, it is suggested that pre-vitellogenic oocytes are recruited into vitellogenic growth immediately after spawning and complete vitellogenesis as early as day 8 post-spawning. Analysis of serial-spawning fish found that initial post-spawn E₂ and T peaks (on days 2 - 6) were much lower after the second spawning.

Sex steroid levels were also found to be suppressed in confined *T. zillii* (i.e. where stocking densities were > 10kg/m³). Confined females failed to spawn but displayed a marked tendency to do so after transfer to individual aquaria. Serum E₂ and T were suppressed during confinement but increased rapidly following transfer to individual aquaria (coincident with resumed spawning activity). It is suggested that levels of E₂ and T under confinement are not sufficient to allow completion of vitellogenic growth and are most probably suppressed via a pheromonal mechanism.

Finally, the present study investigated the effect of prolonged food restriction on various aspects of reproduction. *T. zillii* were rationed from first feeding and throughout the following 17 months. Despite very large differences in fish size, no significant differences were detected in total fecundity, egg diameter nor total egg volume once data had been adjusted for differences in fish size. These data suggest that despite very large differences in food availability throughout the periods of sexual differentiation and on-growing, investment in reproduction remained relatively

consistent. It appeared that during food restriction, *T. zillii* sacrificed body weight and growth so as to maintain reproductive investment.

In summary, this study provides valuable and novel information regarding the reproductive physiology and endocrinology of female *T. zillii* and suggests that this species may be a suitable 'model' species for future work on fecundity and ovarian development.

KEYWORDS: Tilapia, *T. zillii*, fecundity, spawning periodicity, ovarian development, food restriction, confinement.

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List of contents.

Title page.....	i
Declaration.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	vi
List of contents.....	vii
List of figures, tables and plates.....	xiv
Glossary of latin and common names of fish.....	xxi
Glossary of commonly-used abbreviations.....	xxiii

Chapter 1: General introduction, literature overview & aims of research.

1.1. Current taxonomic position of tilapia.....	4
1.2. Modes of reproduction in <i>Oreochromis</i> , <i>Sarotherodon</i> and <i>Tilapia</i> ..	5
1.3. Culture systems and tilapia fry production.....	8
1.4. Fecundity in tilapias.....	10
1.5. Spawning cycles and seasonality in tilapias.....	14
1.6. Ovarian recrudescence in teleost fish.....	19
1.7. Exogenous and endogenous control of spawning patterns in teleost fish.	
1.7.1. Exogenous factors.....	25
1.7.2. Endogenous factors.....	40
1.8. Aims of this thesis.....	52

Chapter 2: General materials & methods.

2.1. Fish, aquaria design and fish maintenance.....	54
2.1.1. Fish.....	54
2.1.2. Aquaria design.....	54
2.1.3. Fish maintenance.....	57

2.2. Fish handling, anaesthesia, identification, stripping & fertilisation...	57
2.2.1. Fish handling and anaesthesia.....	57
2.2.2. Fish identification.....	57
2.2.3. Stripping of eggs/milt and fertilisation.....	58
2.3. Blood serum collection, ovarian biopsy and ovary/liver sampling....	60
2.3.1. Blood serum collection.....	60
2.3.2. Ovarian biopsy.....	61
2.3.3. Ovary and liver sampling from sacrificed fish.....	61
2.4. Determination of total fecundity, egg size and estimation of spawning periodicity.....	62
2.4.1. Determination of total fecundity.....	62
2.4.2. Determination of mean egg size, mean egg diameter and validation egg measurement procedure.....	67
2.4.3. Determination of mean individual egg volume, mean individual egg dry weight, relative fecundity, total egg volume and egg weight to body weight ratio (EW:BW).....	68
2.5. Analysis of ovarian morphology and histology.....	71
2.5.1. Plastic resin embedding.....	72
2.5.2. Staining protocols for histological slides.....	75
2.5.3. Photomicroscopy.....	77
2.5.4. Analysis of ovarian histology by stereology and estimation of ovarian volume fractions and ovarian numerical densities.....	77
2.6. Determination of total serum calcium.....	88
2.6.1. Analysis equipment, dilution of serum samples and preparation of calcium standards.....	88
2.6.2. Calculation of total serum calcium and expression of results..	91
2.6.3. Quality control.....	91

2.7. Determination of serum sex steroid levels by radioimmunoassay.....	91
2.7.1. Preparation of assay constituents.....	91
2.7.2. Radioimmunoassay protocol.....	94
2.7.3. Calculation of results.....	96
2.7.4. Assay quality control.....	98
2.7.5. Validation of radioimmunoassay technique.....	98
2.8. Statistical methods.....	98
2.8.1. Estimation of the population mean and calculation of the standard error of the mean.....	102
2.8.2. Calculation of the coefficient of variation.....	102
2.8.3. Chi-squared analysis for comparison of two data sets.....	103
2.8.4. Testing variance for homogeneity.....	103
2.8.5. ARCsine transformation.....	104

Chapter 3: Spawning periodicity, fecundity and egg size in laboratory stocks of *T. zillii* held under controlled environmental conditions.

3.1. General introduction.....	106
3.2. Experiment 1: Spawning periodicity in <i>T. zillii</i> (strains 'A' and 'B')..	115
3.2.1. Materials and methods.....	115
3.2.2. Results.....	116
3.2.3. Summary.....	125
3.3. Experiment 2: Fecundity & egg size in <i>T. zillii</i> (strains 'A' & 'B')...	127
3.3.1. Materials and methods.....	127
3.3.2. Results.....	129
3.3.3. Summary.....	149

3.4. Experiment 3: Variation of fecundity and egg size over consecutive spawns in serial spawning <i>T. zillii</i>	153
3.4.1. Results.....	153
3.4.2. Summary.....	157
3.5. Discussion.....	157

Chapter 4: Histological classification and size distribution of oocyte developmental stages in *T. zillii*.

4.1. Introduction.....	175
4.1.1. Primary growth phase.....	180
4.1.2. Secondary growth phase.....	184
4.1.3. Post-ovulatory follicles.....	191
4.1.4. Atresia (oocyte degeneration and resorption).....	192
4.2. Materials and methods.....	195
4.3. Results.....	196
4.3.1. Primary growth phase.....	196
4.3.2. Secondary growth phase.....	200
4.3.3. Post-ovulatory follicles.....	210
4.3.4. Atresia.....	210
4.4. Discussion.....	210

Chapter 5: The dynamics of ovarian recrudescence and associated reproductive endocrinology in *T. zillii*.

5.1. General introduction.....	229
5.2. Experiment 1: Profiles of E ₂ , T and total calcium during ovarian recrudescence in individually maintained <i>T. zillii</i> (strains 'A' & 'B').....	236
5.2.1. Materials and methods.....	236
5.2.2. Results.....	237

5.2.3. Summary.....	243
5.3. Experiment 2: Profiles of E ₂ , T and total calcium and concurrent ovarian recrudescence as monitored by serial ovarian biopsy in individually maintained post- spawned <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A').....	244
5.3.1. Materials and methods.....	244
5.3.2. Results.....	247
5.3.3. Summary.....	258
5.4. Experiment 3: Ovarian recrudescence in different regions of the <i>T. zillii</i> ovary as monitored by sacrifice of fish at periodic intervals after spawning.....	261
5.4.1. Materials and methods.....	261
5.4.2. Results.....	263
5.4.3. Summary.....	272
5.5. Discussion.....	278

Chapter 6: Studies on the effect of confinement and transfer to individually-partitioned aquaria on spawning incidence, ovarian development and circulating sex steroid level in *T. zillii*.

6.1. General introduction.....	296
6.2. Experiment 1: Preliminary investigation of the effect of confinement and transfer to individually-partitioned aquaria upon spawning incidence and ovarian condition (as assessed by endoscopy) in female <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B').....	306
6.2.1. Materials and methods.....	306
6.2.2. Results.....	308
6.2.3. Summary.....	314
6.3. Experiment 2: Effect of confinement and transfer to individually-partitioned aquaria on circulating levels of sex steroids, ovarian development and spawning incidence in <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B').....	316
6.3.1. Materials and methods.....	317
6.3.2. Results.....	318

6.3.3. Summary.....	327
6.4. Experiment 3: The effect of visual contact with conspecifics and presence of spawning substrate on levels of circulating sex steroids and spawning incidence in previously confined female <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A') being transferred into individually-partitioned aquaria.....	329
6.4.1. Materials and methods.....	330
6.4.2. Results.....	331
6.4.3. Summary.....	343
6.5. Discussion.....	344

Chapter 7: Studies on the effect of reduced food ration on the reproductive physiology and endocrinology of female *T. zillii*.

7.1. General introduction.....	354
7.2. Experiment 1: The effect of two food ration levels on the growth and early survival of laboratory-held <i>T. zillii</i> stocks.....	363
7.2.1. Materials and methods.....	363
7.2.3. Results.....	366
7.2.4. Summary.....	369
7.3. Experiment 2: Effect of two long-term ration levels on sex steroid level in on-growing <i>T. zillii</i> (male and female).....	371
7.3.1. Materials and methods.....	371
7.3.2. Results.....	371
7.3.3. Summary.....	378
7.4. Experiment 3: Effect of two long-term ration levels on spawning performance, fecundity and egg size.....	379
7.4.1. Materials and methods.....	379
7.4.2. Results.....	380
7.4.3. Summary.....	393

7.5. Experiment 4: Effect of two long-term ration levels on ovarian histology..	393
7.5.1. Materials and methods.....	394
7.5.2. Results.....	395
7.5.3. Summary.....	399
7.6. Discussion.....	401
Chapter 8: General conclusions and discussion.....	415
Chapter 9: References.....	435
Appendix 1.1: Main features of recirculating aquaria (system 1).....	506
Appendix 1.2: Main features of recirculating aquaria (system 2).....	507
Appendix 1.3a: Main features of recirculating aquaria (system 3)...	508
Appendix 1.3b: Main features of recirculating aquaria (system 3)...	509
Appendix 1.4: Specifications of pelleted fish food.....	510
Appendix 1.5: Research Publications.....	511

List of Figures, Tables and Plates.

Figure 2.1	Gravity-fed recirculating aquaria used for housing individual broodstock.....	56
Table 2.1	Evaluation of fecundity determination method through direct enumeration by tally counter.....	64
Table 2.2.	Evaluation of fecundity determination method through estimation by wet weight.....	66
Table 2.3.	Evaluation of fecundity determination method through estimation by dry weight.....	66
Table 2.4.	Validation of egg measuring technique.....	69
Table 2.5.	Staining protocol for haematoxylin and eosin.....	76
Table 2.6.	Staining protocol for polychrome.....	78
Figure 2.2.	A model illustrating the Delesse principle.....	82
Figure 2.3	Demonstration of the estimation of volume fraction from histological sections.....	85
Table 2.5.	Cross reactivity of E ₂ and T antisera.....	93
Figure 2.4.	Examples of E ₂ and T standard curves.....	97
Table 2.8	Radioimmunoassay correction factors.....	99
Table 2.9.	Radioimmunoassay correction factors.....	99
Figure 2.5.	Parallelism of E ₂ standard curve and inhibition curve.....	100
Figure 2.6.	Parallelism of T standard curve and inhibition curve.....	101
Table 3.1.	Spawning frequencies and repeat spawning in <i>T. zillii</i> (strains 'A' and 'B') held individually for up to 195 days.....	118
Table 3.2.	Spawning frequencies in individually held <i>T. zillii</i> ('A') held individually for up to 195 days.....	119
Figure 3.1.	Mean ISI and mean days elapsed/spawn in <i>T. zillii</i> ('A') held individually for up to 195 days.....	121
Table 3.3.	Spawning frequencies in individually-held <i>T. zillii</i> ('B') held individually for up to 131 days.....	122

Figure 3.2.	Mean ISI and mean days elapsed/spawn in <i>T. zillii</i> ('B') held individually for up to 131 days.....	124
Table 3.4.	Comparison of spawning data for <i>T. zillii</i> (strains 'A' and 'B').....	126
Table 3.5.	Fecundity and egg size data for <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A').....	130
Figure 3.3.	Fecundity and egg size data for <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A').....	131
Table 3.5.	Fecundity and egg size data for <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B').....	134
Figure 3.4.	Fecundity and egg size data for <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B').....	135
Table 3.7.	Inter-strain comparison of fecundity and egg size data.....	137
Table 3.8.	Inter-strain ANCOVA of fish weight and fecundity, egg diameter and total egg volume.....	139
Table 3.9.	Correlation and regression analysis of fecundity and egg size parameters to fish weight/length in <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A').....	140
Table 3.10.	Correlation and regression analysis of fecundity and egg size parameters to fish weight/length in <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B').....	141
Figure 3.5.	Regression analysis of fish size and total fecundity in <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A').....	143
Figure 3.6.	Regression analysis of fish size and total egg volume in <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A').....	144
Figure 3.7.	Regression analysis of fish size and total fecundity in <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B').....	146
Figure 3.8.	Regression analysis of fish size and total egg volume in <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B').....	147
Table 3.11.	Regression analysis of ISI and total fecundity.....	148
Figure 3.9.	Regression analysis of ISI and total fecundity.....	150
Table 3.12.	Regression analysis of ISI and mean egg volume.....	151
Figure 3.10.	Regression analysis of ISI and mean egg volume.....	152
Figure 3.11.	Variation of relative fecundity and mean egg volume over successive spawns in serial-spawning <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A').....	155

Table 3.13.	Variation of fish weight, total fecundity and egg size over successive spawns in serial-spawning <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A').....	156
Figure 4.1.	Variation of oocyte shape with developmental stage.....	197
Figure 4.2.	Variation of oocyte diameter with developmental stage.....	197
Plate 4.1.	Transverse section of ovary showing oogonia and stage 1 oocytes.....	199
Plate 4.2.	Transverse section of ovary showing stage 2 oocytes.....	199
Plate 4.3.	Transverse section of ovary showing stage 2 oocytes.....	202
Plate 4.4.	Transverse section of ovary showing stage 2 oocytes.....	202
Plate 4.5.	Transverse section of ovary showing stage 3 oocytes.....	204
Plate 4.6.	Transverse section of ovary showing a stage 4 oocyte.....	204
Plate 4.7.	Transverse section of ovary showing an early stage 5 oocyte.....	207
Plate 4.8.	Transverse section of ovary showing a late stage 5 oocyte.....	207
Plate 4.9.	Transverse section of ovary showing a stage 6 oocyte.....	209
Plate 4.10.	Transverse section of ovary showing a stage 7 oocyte.....	209
Plate 4.11.	Transverse section of ovary showing follicular layer of a stage 6/7 oocyte.....	212
Plate 4.12.	Transverse section of ovary showing a post-ovulatory follicle.....	212
Plate 4.13.	Transverse section of ovary showing numerous post-ovulatory follicles.....	214
Plate 4.14.	Transverse section of ovary showing α -stage atresia.....	214
Plate 4.15.	Transverse section of ovary showing α - and β -atresia.....	216
Plate 4.16.	Transverse section of ovary showing λ -atresia.....	216
Table 4.1.	Summary of classification scheme used to identify stages of oocyte growth.....	217
Figure 5.1.	Comparison of E ₂ , T, total calcium and E ₂ /T ratio in individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strains 'A' and 'B') over a 42 day period.....	239
Figure 5.2.	Profiles of T in eight individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A') over 42 days.....	241

Figure 5.3.	Profiles of T in eight individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B') over 42 days.....	242
Table 5.1.	Validation of ovarian biopsy method.....	248
Figure 5.4.	Profiles of E ₂ , T and E ₂ /T ratio in two experimental groups of <i>T. zillii</i> over a period of 82 days.	250
Figure 5.5.	Volume fraction analysis of oocyte developmental stages in two experimental groups of <i>T. zillii</i> over a 82 day period.....	253
Figure 5.6.	Profiles of E ₂ , T and E ₂ /T ratio in an individual repeat- spawning fish.....	257
Figure 5.7.	Volume fraction analysis of oocyte developmental stages in an individual repeat-spawning fish.....	259
Table 5.2.	Oocyte size and shape data necessary for numerical density stereology.....	264
Figure 5.8.	Profiles of GSI, HSI, E ₂ , T, total serum calcium and E ₂ /T ratio in <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A') over a 26 day period following spawning.....	265
Figure 5.9.	Volume fraction analysis of oocyte developmental stages in <i>T. zillii</i> over a 26 day period following spawning.....	268
Figure 5.10.	Numerical density analysis of oocyte developmental stages in <i>T. zillii</i> over a 26 day period following spawning.....	271
Plate 5.1.	Transverse section of ovary soon after spawning.....	275
Plate 5.2.	Transverse section of ovary one day after spawning.....	275
Plate 5.3.	Transverse section of ovary two days after spawning.....	277
Plate 5.4.	Transverse section of ovary three days after spawning.....	277
Plate 5.5.	Transverse section of ovary four days after spawning.....	280
Plate 5.6.	Transverse section of ovary four days after spawning.....	280
Plate 5.7.	Transverse section of ovary six days after spawning.....	282
Plate 5.8.	Transverse section of ovary twenty six days after spawning.....	282

Figure 6.1.	Flow diagram representing sampling protocol used in Experiment 1b (Chap. 6).....	309
Plate 6.1.	Superficial view of <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B') ovary.....	312
Table 6.1.	Comparison of endoscopic appearance of ovary in three groups of <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B').....	313
Table 6.2.	Incidence of spawning activity in three experimental groups of <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B').....	315
Figure 6.2.	Profiles of E ₂ and T in confined and individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B') over a 65 day period.	320
Figure 6.3.	Profiles of E ₂ and T in confined and individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B'); individual fish subdivided into spawning and non-spawning fish.....	321
Figure 6.4.	Volume fraction analysis of confined and individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B') over a 65 day period.....	324
Figure 6.5.	Volume fraction analysis in confined and individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'B'); individual fish subdivided into spawning and non-spawning fish.....	326
Figure 6.6.	Flow diagram indicating the sampling protocol used in Experiment 3 (Chap. 6).....	332
Figure 6.7.	Profiles of E ₂ and T in confined and individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A') over a 95 day period.....	334
Figure 6.8.	Profiles of E ₂ and T in confined and individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A'); individual fish subdivided into spawning and non-spawning fish.....	336
Figure 6.9.	Profiles of E ₂ and T in confined and individual <i>T. zillii</i> (strain 'A'); individual fish subdivided into 4 sub-groups based upon whether provided with spawning substrate and/or visual contact with male conspecifics.....	340

Table 6.3.	Incidence of spawning activity in 4 sub-groups of fish experiencing differing regimes of spawning substrate and/or visual contact with male conspecifics.....	342
Figure 7.1.	Growth of 4 groups of <i>T. zillii</i> fry from first feeding to day 290 maintained on either high or low ration sizes.....	367
Figure 7.2.	Cumulative mortality in 4 groups of <i>T. zillii</i> maintained on either high or low ration sizes over 290 days.....	368
Table 7.1.	Ration allocation during Experiment 1 (Chap. 7).....	370
Table 7.2.	Comparison of SGR over Experiment 1(Chap. 7).....	370
Table 7.3.	Comparison of FCR over Experiment 1(Chap. 7).....	370
Figure 7.3.	Mean weight and length of 3 groups of rationed <i>T. zillii</i> (males and females treated separately) over a 90 day period.....	372
Figure 7.4.	Mean weight and length of 3 groups of rationed <i>T. zillii</i> (males and females compared) over a 90 day period.....	374
Table 7.4.	Comparison of SGR in 3 groups of rationed <i>T. zillii</i> over Experiment 2 (Chap. 7).....	376
Table 7.5.	Comparison of FCR in 3 groups of rationed <i>T. zillii</i> over Experiment 2 (Chap. 7).....	376
Figure 7.5.	Comparison of E ₂ and T in rationed groups of <i>T. zillii</i> (male and female).....	377
Figure 7.6.	Variation of mean weight and length in groups of individual <i>T. zillii</i> maintained on differing rations over a 60 day period.....	382
Table 7.6.	Spawning performance of 4 groups of individual <i>T. zillii</i> maintained on differing rations over a 60 day period.....	383
Table 7.7.	Mean fecundity, egg size and other spawning parameters in two groups of rationed <i>T. zillii</i> over a 60 day period.....	385
Figure 7.7.	Cumulative total egg volume in three groups of <i>T. zillii</i> maintained on different rations over a 60 day period.....	385

Table 7.8.	Correlation and regression analysis of fecundity and egg size data with fish size for <i>T. zillii</i> fed upon high ration.....	387
Figure 7.8.	Regression analysis of fecundity and fish weight in high and low ration <i>T. zillii</i>	388
Table 7.9.	Correlation and regression analysis of fecundity and egg size data with fish size for <i>T. zillii</i> fed upon low ration.....	389
Table 7.10.	Correlation and regression analysis of fecundity and egg size data for <i>T. zillii</i> (high and low ration pooled).....	390
Figure 7.9.	Regression analysis of fecundity, mean egg diameter and total egg volume with fish weight (data from high and low rations pooled).....	391
Table 7.11.	ANCOVA of total fecundity, mean egg diameter and total egg volume with fish weight in two groups of <i>T. zillii</i> fed differing ration sizes.....	392
Figure 7.12.	Comparison of mean length, weight, GSI and HSI in groups of <i>T. zillii</i> fed high and low ration sizes.	396
Figure 7.13.	Comparison of mean E ₂ and T in groups of <i>T. zillii</i> fed high and low ration size.....	398
Figure 7.14.	Volume fraction analysis of oocyte developmental stages in three groups of <i>T. zillii</i> fed upon differing feeding regimes.....	400
Plate 7.1.	Transverse section of ovary from a fish fed upon high ration.....	403
Plate 7.2.	Transverse section of ovary from a fish fed upon low ration.....	403
Plate 7.3.	Transverse section of ovary from a fish fed <i>ad libitum</i>	405

Glossary of scientific and common names of fish mentioned in this thesis.

Note: some species of fish (especially tilapia) do not have widely recognised common names. These species are indicated here by a dash (-) in place of the common name.

<u>SCIENTIFIC NAME.</u>	<u>COMMON NAME.</u>
<i>Acanthobrama terrae-sanctae</i>	-
<i>Acipenser transmontanus</i>	White sturgeon
<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel
<i>Brachydanio rerio</i>	Zebrafish
<i>Carassius auratus</i>	Goldfish
<i>Carassius carassius</i>	Crucian carp
<i>Chelidonichtys kumu</i>	Red gurnard
<i>Chromis dispilus</i>	Damselfish
<i>Cichlasoma citrinellum</i>	Midas cichlid
<i>Cichlasoma nigrofasciatus</i>	Convict cichlid
<i>Clarias gariepinus</i>	African catfish
<i>Clupea harengus</i>	Atlantic herring
<i>Clupea harengus pallasii</i>	Pacific herring
<i>Colisa lalia</i>	Dwarf gourami
<i>Cottomephorus grewingi</i>	Yellowfish Baikal sculpin
<i>Cymatogaster aggregata</i>	Sea perch
<i>Cynoscion nebulosus</i>	Spotted sea trout
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	Common carp
<i>Dicentrachus labrax</i>	Sea bass
<i>Esox lucius</i>	Pike
<i>Etroplus suratensis</i>	Pearlspot
<i>Engraulis japonica</i>	Japanese anchovy
<i>Fundulus confluentus</i>	Marsh killifish
<i>Fundulus heteroclitus</i>	Killifish
<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Cod
<i>Gasterosteus aculeatus</i>	Three-spined stickleback
<i>Gobius joso</i>	Black goby
<i>Haplochromis 'argens'</i>	-
<i>Heteropneustes fossilis</i>	Indian catfish
<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i>	Atlantic halibut
<i>Lates niloticus</i>	Nile perch
<i>Leuciscus leuciscus</i>	Dace
<i>Lepomis gibbosus</i>	Pumpkinseed sunfish
<i>Leptocottus armatus</i>	Staghorn sculpin
<i>Limanda limanda</i>	Dab
<i>Lutjanus campechanus</i>	Red snapper
<i>Maccullochella macquariensis</i>	Australian freshwater trout cod
<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i>	Haddock
<i>Merlangus merlangus</i>	Whiting
<i>Micropogonias undulatus</i>	Atlantic croaker
<i>Micropterus salmoides floridanus</i>	Largemouth bass
<i>Mugil cephalus</i>	Grey mullet
<i>Mycteroperca olfax</i>	Galapagos bacalao
<i>Oncorhynchus keta</i>	Chum salmon
<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>	Coho salmon
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	Rainbow trout
<i>Oncorhynchus nerka</i>	Kokanee salmon
<i>Oncorhynchus rhodurus</i>	Amago salmon
<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	Chinook salmon
<i>Oreochromis aureus</i>	Blue tilapia

<i>Oreochromis esculenta</i>	-
<i>Oreochromis leucosticta</i>	-
<i>Oreochromis macrocephala</i>	-
<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i>	Mozambique mouthbrooder
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>	Nile tilapia
<i>Oreochromis spilurus niger</i>	-
<i>Oryzias latipes</i>	Medaka
<i>Pagrus auratus</i>	Snapper
<i>Pagrus major</i>	Red sea bream
<i>Perca flavescens</i>	Yellow perch
<i>Petromyzon marinus</i>	Sea lamprey
<i>Pimophales promelas</i>	Fathead minnow
<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>	Plaice
<i>Pseudopleuronectes americanus</i>	Winter flounder
<i>Poecilia monacha</i>	Top minnow
<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>	Guppy
<i>Pterophyllum scalare</i>	Angelfish
<i>Rutilus rutilus</i>	Roach
<i>Salmo salar</i>	Atlantic salmon
<i>Salmo trutta</i>	Brown trout
<i>Salvelinus alpinus</i>	Arctic charr
<i>Salvelinus fontinalis</i>	Brook trout
<i>Sardinops melanostictus</i>	-
<i>Sarotherodon galileus</i>	-
<i>Sarotherodon leucostictus</i>	-
<i>Sarotherodon melanotheron</i>	Black-chinned tilapia
<i>Scomber scombrus</i>	Atlantic mackerel
<i>Scophthalmus maximus</i>	Turbot
<i>Seriola dumerilii</i>	Mediterranean yellowtail
<i>Solea solea</i>	Dover sole
<i>Sparus auratus</i>	Gilthead sea bream
<i>Symphysodon aequi fasciata axelrodi</i>	-
<i>Thunnus albacares</i>	Yellowfin tuna
<i>Tilapia guineensis</i>	-
<i>Tilapia macrocephala</i>	-
<i>Tilapia mariae</i>	-
<i>Tilapia rendalli</i>	-
<i>Tilapia tholloni</i>	-
<i>Tilapia zillii</i>	Redbelly tilapia
<i>Trichogoita trichopterus</i>	Blue gourami

Glossary of commonly-used abbreviations.

<u>ABBREVIATION</u>	<u>FULL TERM</u>
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
ANCOVA	Analysis of covariance
E ₁	Oestrone
E ₂	17 β -oestradiol
E ₃	Oestriol
FSH	Follicle stimulating hormone
GnRH	Gonadotropin releasing hormone
GnRIH	Gonadotropin release inhibitory factor
GSI	Gonadosomatic index
GTH	Gonadotropin
hCG	Human chorionic gonadotropin
HSI	Hepatosomatic index
LH	Luteinizing hormone
MIS	Maturation-inducing steroid
ND	Numerical density
POF	Post-ovulatory follicle
PRL	Prolactin
SE	Standard error
T	Testosterone
VF	Volume fraction
VTG	Vitellogenin
3 β -HSD	3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase
11-KT	11-ketotestosterone
17 α -OH-P	17 α -hydroxy-progesterone
17 α -20 β -P	17 α -20 β -dihydroxy-pregnen-3-one

Chapter 1

General introduction, literature overview and aims of research.

(1) General introduction, literature overview & aims of research.

Over recent years, tilapiine fish (Family: Cichlidae) have steadily grown to become one of the most commercially important groups of freshwater fish species in tropical aquaculture and represent a major protein source in many developing countries. Whilst tilapia are indigenous to African countries, their distribution has been widened through artificial introduction to over 100 tropical and sub-tropical countries including the Americas, the Middle East and Asia (Balarin & Hatton, 1979; Pullin & Lowe-McConnell, 1982; Pullin, 1983).

Tilapias offer immense potential to aquaculture due to several beneficial physiological attributes. Firstly, tilapias tolerate a variety of environmental conditions and can adapt to wide ranges of salinity, oxygen tension and overcrowding. Growth rates are swift even when maintained on various natural or cheap artificial foods. Tilapias have relatively short reproductive cycles, breed prolifically under culture conditions, are strongly resistant to disease and infection and are relatively amenable to handling. Most importantly, tilapias are valued by humans for their palatability as a food source (Pullin & Lowe-McConnell, 1982). An excellent example of the tilapias suitability to aquaculture was provided by Edwards *et al.* (1988), who claimed yields of 5 - 6 tonnes/hectare/year of the Nile tilapia *Oreochromis niloticus* (L.) raised in ponds solely fertilized with sewage over a period of 5 to 7 months.

Despite the current widespread distribution and development of tilapia culture, world production of tilapia from aquaculture totalled just 391,000 tonnes in 1990 (Source: Food and Agricultural Organization, 1992; cited by Macintosh & Little (1995)). This production figure forms just over 5% of the annual total freshwater fish production for 1990.

Over 70 species of fish are referred to by the common name 'tilapia'. Of these, Huet (1971) listed 16 species that had been subject to either experimental or commercial culture; a more recent study by Balarin and Hatton (1979) quoted a total of 23 separate species. Realistically, just eight or nine species of tilapia remain of significance in terms of aquaculture (Schoenen, 1982; Pullin, 1983).

Culture of tilapia has progressed swiftly over recent years, particularly in certain parts of Asia, e.g. Thailand, Taiwan, the Phillipines and notably as part of integrated culture schemes in China (Chen, 1990). Culture has remained relatively poorly developed in African and other regions.

The potential for future expansion of commercial tilapia culture is extremely high. An estimated shortfall of approximately 20 million tonnes is expected between market demand and expected marine fisheries production (100 million tonnes) by the year 2000. In order to address this shortfall, output by inland fisheries will need to rise proportionally (Manzi, 1989; Haight, 1992; cited by Macintosh & Little, 1994). Clearly then, the further development of tilapia culture operations not only shows huge potential but will become a necessity within the next decade.

As consumer demand for tilapias increases it becomes vital that culture operations strive to meet such market demand. Optimisation of hatchery efficiency is of paramount importance if production is to be maximised and maintained. Mass production of high quality fry remains the most important prerequisite in the expansion and intensification of tilapia culture. Broodfish productivity remains one of the most significant constraints on commercial production costs and thus knowledge of the factors affecting broodstock productivity is of great importance to the futher development of tilapia culture.

Sexually mature Cichlidae are generally able to undergo successive reproductive cycles at intervals of 4 - 6 weeks. Theoretically, this should lead to an almost continous production of fry assuming that seasonal environmental variation remained minimal (Moreau, 1979). Under intensive farming conditions however, the asynchronous nature of the reproductive cycles of individual broodstock may lead to spasmodic fry production to the detriment of total farm output (Jalabert & Zohar, 1982). Low fecundity and asynchronous spawning patterns by female broodstock inevitably lead to the need for extensive fish holding facilities to even approach satisfactory output and often requires careful, time-consuming management of very large numbers of fish.

