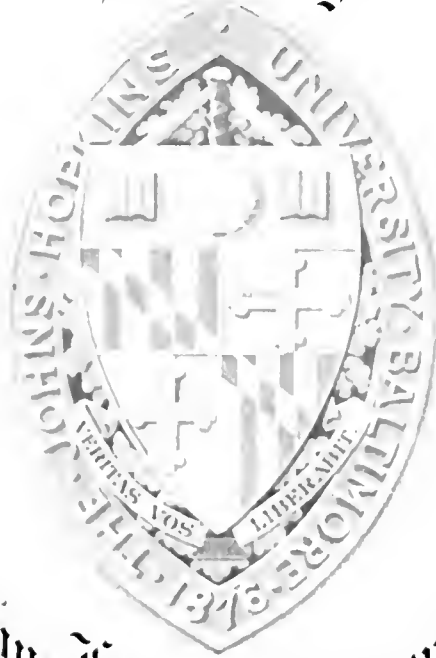


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THE NATURAL HISTORY, OF ANIMATION AND THE
DEVELOPMENT OF THE PERIPHERALS.

1883

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Doctor of Philosophy.

by

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Intro-duction.

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My work on the "Ship-worms" was first suggested by Professor W. K. Brooks. His constant interest and sympathy throughout my stay at the Johns Hopkins University have been of great help to me and it gives me great pleasure to acknowledge my indebtedness to him. My material was collected at Beaufort, North Carolina, during the summers of 1898 and 1899, and my study has been continued in the laboratory in Baltimore. To the authorities of the Johns Hopkins University I am under deep obligations, both for the privileges of the marine laboratories at the seaside, and for facilities for work in the laboratory in Baltimore.

The "Ship-worms" were favorite objects for study during the eighteenth century, on account of their great damage to the dykes of Holland in 1733 and subsequent years. The first modern observations were those of Valisnieri (1711) and Beslandes (1720). After 1733, came Bossuet, J. Bossuet, and especially Godfrey Selliuss. These observers seem to have been unaware of the ancient observations mentioned by Theophrastus, Pliny and Ovid, and it was supposed that "Ship-worms" were natives of India, and that the "Ship-worms"

by slipping in modern times. It was Geoffrey Jellius who first recognized the Molluscan characters of *Terebra*, but these were not used by Linnaeus, who grouped it along with *Cardium* and *Antalium*. Cuvier and Lamarck adopted the view of Jellius, and since their time the group has been put in its proper place.

The first reliable observations on the anatomy of the "lip-worms" were those of Deshayes, who gave a number of artistically executed plates to Terebrat in his "Mollusques d'Algerie", 1846. However, like most of the plates of this great work, they are difficult to study and interpret. Supplementing the work of Deshayes is that of Quatrefages, (14) who began and completed his observations before he had access to the published results of Deshayes. This "Memoire sur le Genre Terebra (Terebra, Linn.)" is the one usually cited at the present time, although the paragraph with which Quatrefages prefaces his paper is almost as applicable now (with slight changes in the wording) as when it was written in 1849. "Naturalists up to the present time", he says, "have strangely neglected *Terebra*. This is not the place to review the anatomical researches of the last century which are filled with errors excusable by the state of science of that

period. But it is surprising that a mollusc with such remarkable external characters has not been the object of any special research from the foundation of comparative anatomy up to the present time. It is necessary to come to the year 1846 to find a naturalist who has taken for the subject of his observations this mollusc so unfortunately celebrated.

Since the appearance of the memoir of Quatrefages, no detailed account of the whole organization of *Terebra* has appeared. Only in comparative treatises has it been taken up. The principal of these are the papers by Grobben (4) on the pericardial glands in Lamellibranchs, by Menegaux (11) on the circulatory system in Lamellibranchs; and by Pelseneer (14) in his extensive comparative studies in the group.

Grobben first observed the anterior adductor muscle in *Terebra* and proved the *adductor* to be divisions. Aside from this point, the figure of *Terebra* that he gives is wholly unreliable. Menegaux attempted to establish the homologies of the aortae, and Pelseneer described the visceral ganglion and related structures. I shall have occasion to refer to these papers in special parts later, and it will be seen that the comparative method of study is not always satisfactory, if the examination of special forms be not made with

sufficient care. My results differ from all of these. Unfortunately the first two do not state the species on which they worked, and so I cannot state that where my observations differ from theirs, they were in error, though there is such great uniformity of organization in the various species, that we may expect only differences in detail in the various types.

My observations have been based chiefly on *Kylatrypa timbrida*, Jeffreys, and unless otherwise stated, this is the form described and figured. Specimens of this species I have had in all stages of development from the newly attached larva to the adult. I have also studied *Tenebrio variica*, Spengler, and *T. navalis*, Linne and where these are essentially different or more favorable for description, they have been used. In general, where "leech" is used as a popular term, it applies to *Kylatrypa* as well as to the species of *Tenebrio*, in a strict sense.

The object of my study of the "leech-worms" has been two-fold. In the first place, I have endeavored, by the use of modern methods, to give a detailed account of the organization of this highly specialized Lamelli-ranch and to correct the errors that by lamellicore existed in the

descriptions of it. In the second line, the state of permanent stage, I have generally traced the transformation of the typical Lamelli-ranch larva into the "highly specialized whip-worm".

I have also traced the early embryology on the artificially fertilized eggs of *M. Florida* and *P. norvegica*, in both of which the eggs are laid free into the water. Much later than the typical Lamelli-ranch veliger raised in aquaria, I have not been able to observe. The intermediate stages, between these and the newly-attached larva, I hope to observe on the larvae of some viviparous species at a future time, so as to complete my study of the development from the egg to the adult.

II. METHODS.

My preserved material was collected during a period of four or five years as follows: By placing boxes and other structures of wood in the water at Beaufort, I was able to obtain all stages from the newly-attached larva to "lip-worms" four inches long, with adult organization. The youngest stages were collected from the surface of the wood. Later stages were dissected out of the wood into which they had bored. Early stages were narcotized with cocaine and afterwards fixed with mercuric chloride. Specimens 1 cm. or more in length were treated as follows: They were exposed quickly and immediately a quantity of Hermann's solution was washed upon them. This kills them instantly, before they have had time to contract appreciably. They were then immediately immersed in mercuric chloride or Perey's solution for fixation. After washing in weaker alcohols, specimens were preserved in 90% alcohol. The early stages were stained in Kleinenberg's hematoxylin. For later stages, the best results were obtained with borax-carline, followed by Lyons blue. For the examination of whole objects, the best results were obtained by a weak solution of borax-carline in acid (1.0% at

coral, which decidedly is not the case. The figures
 are all made from the photographs taken with camera lucida.
 In the case of the siphons, a series of transverse sections of
 the siphons were made, and they have been "touché" ad-
 justed. However, in no case have they been essentially
 modified and are in no wise diagrams. The figures of ad-
 ults have been made from specimens about ten centimeters
 long, which I had raised, and which were killed perfectly
 extended. The siphons, however, have been filled in from
 life, or from preserved specimens that had been narcotized
 before killing. In larger specimens the body as a whole,
 and the various organs are somewhat more elongated, but
 the relations remain the same as in younger specimens.

III. NATURAL HISTORY OF THE "SHIP-WORM".

Any wooden structures that are submerged in the water, which have been in the water for some time and unprotected, are always found infested with "Ship-worms". There are of three species, which Professor W. L. Hall has kindly identified for me as *Clitella limbriata*, Jeffreys, *Teredo navalis*, Linne and *T. norvegica*, Spengler. *T. limbriata* and *T. norvegica* are very abundant, while *T. navalis* is found but rarely. *T. limbriata* is the most abundant of all, and is found everywhere. It may attain a length of two feet, though where it grows in large numbers it is so crowded that specimens are oftener less than a foot in length. *T. norvegica* I have found mostly in the heavier pilings of wharves, where specimens may attain the great size of four feet in length and an inch in diameter. *T. navalis* I have found very sparingly, not over a dozen specimens among the thousands of individuals I have examined. These in all cases were small specimens, from which it seems that the habitat at Leavenworth is not favorable for them, and is more favorable for the other two species which fully occupy all of the available space for ship-

worm" life. The water contains a high percentage of salt, and the warm season is long, and these factors are probably wholly or in part for the absence of *T. norvegica*.

Of the thousands of young specimens (nearly four inches in length) I have taken from boxes, all were of *T. fimbriata* except four specimens of *T. navalis*. These were observed in June, July and early in August. Whether the absence of *T. norvegica* was due to unfavorable locations, or the season for attachment is different from that of the other two species, I was not able to determine.

Breeding Habits. As is well known, some species of *Terebratulina* retain their eggs in the gills during the embryonic development. This is true of *T. navalis*, and even the small (an inch or more) specimens of this species I have taken, have usually had embryos in various stages of development. On the other hand, I have found that the eggs of the other two species are laid free into the water. If specimens of *T. norvegica* be taken from their tubes, they soon begin to extrude their sexual products, if the temperature. The eggs and sperm are extruded from the anal or exhalant siphon in a slow, steady stream, which continues

as soon as the sexual organ contains ripe sexual products. In all types of trematodes I have observed but rarely containing ripe sexual products in this manner, but why there is a difference in this habit I have not determined.

In accordance with their free development in the water, the eggs of the "tapeworm" are very small and very numerous. While they vary somewhat in size, they have an average diameter of somewhat less than 1-20 mm. Very large specimens may lay great numbers of eggs at one time; in one case I estimated the number laid by a large female of *T. norvegica* at one hundred million. The sperms are very minute, and much more numerous than the eggs. The eggs of both species that lay their eggs free may be fertilized artificially, and pass the early stages of development with great uniformity and rapidity in aquaria. The eggs when first laid are of irregular shapes. They soon become spherical, and if fertilized, the polar bodies are soon extruded and segmentation begins. Development is very rapid and, on warm days, the embryos become free-swimming within three hours after the eggs are laid. Within a day the shell has been formed and the typical lemnisculate veliger stage is reached. Beyond this stage they

to develop in aquaria, and that they live for days afterwards. Hatschek has observed () that the viviparous larvae of a species studied by him (*T. carnalis*) are almost always present in only a few stages, and that transitional stages are but seldom found. It seems probable that the free-living larvae of *Xylocheilichthys* and *T. norvegica* attain one of these stages within a short time, and that the unusual conditions in aquaria prevent their advance beyond it.

The mode of life, and rate of development beyond the early stage attained so rapidly in aquaria, have not been determined. What becomes of the larvae that hatch from the eggs, how and where they live, it is difficult to surmise. Though the developed larvae are settling on wooden structures constantly, I have not taken them and intermediate stages in the tow-net, and where they develop I do not know. However, the rate of growth of the marine *Lacellibranchs* is slow, and I think the larvae of "Ship-worms" that attach must be at least a month old, if not more. At this time their development is quite advanced and their organization complete.

The rearing season of *L. (L.)* is very long. It is possible to extend to reach the autumn season. The rearing season for ripe sexual products of both species extends early in the year till the middle of August. At the latter time there seemed no statement in their development. As will be described later, individuals became sexually mature in a month after they have attached, and those which attach in August must bear ripe sexual products later in the season, so that the rearing season seems to extend through the summer.

Attachment of the Larva.- During its free mode of life, the "slip-worm" larva has gradually developed into the typical larva of marine Lamelli-branchs. There is a shell into which the whole creature may be withdrawn for protection; a large swimming organ, the velum, by means of which the larva swims freely in the water; a long, active foot, by means of which it crawls actively over surfaces. At the end of this larval development, in fact, the "slip-worm" larva is a typical shell-dweller, except that it possesses the swimming organ.

The larva is to be seen in (or at least in) the water

At first at least, if one examines the collected material, structures submerged in the water very small bivalves will be found crawling actively over the surface. These are very minute and are easily recognized as "ship-worm" larvae that have just settled upon the wood. The larva moves rapidly in search of a favorable place for attachment, and this is usually in some minute depression or crevice in the wood, though it may also become attached to perfectly smooth surfaces. It seems to possess no organ of special sense for the purpose, and yet, it is able to determine what places are favorable for its future life, and to avoid those which are not. Once it has chosen a point for attachment, it throws out a single long byssus thread, which secures it at the surface of the wood, and soon loses its value, so so that it can no longer lead a free life. Once attached, the larva begins to clear away a place, by scraping away the surface of the wood with the ventral edges of its shell valves. Small particles of wood and other substances, that are thus formed, are carried together over the larva so as to form a sort of conical covering for protection. This is the transition from the free larva into the state of "ship-worm." It has an appearance very

idly. The foot becomes a rattle-shield for an *Arceuthobium* in the shell in burrowing. The shell valves lose their power of opening at the ventral side, as by the development of knobs on the ventral and dorsal portions of either valve, they are able to swing on each other at right angles to the former direction. Meanwhile the shell rapes at both anterior and posterior ends, for the protrusion of the foot in front, and the siphons, and later the body, behind. And on the anterior edges have been formed the small teeth which at this and later stages are the mechanical agents by which their possessor bores into the wood. This transformation has taken place within two days from the time the larva has settled, and afterwards the animal rapidly becomes a "chip-worm", enlarging its burrow in the wood as it increases in size.

Rate of Growth within the Wood.- The "chip-worm" in its larval stages develops rapidly, at once in the wood, it grows with remarkable rapidity. During its free life, most of its energy is spent devoted to active locomotion and development, after settlement, it leads a sedentary life and its growth is comparatively rapid. The newly attached

ed larva is somewhat less than .25 mm. long. In 13 days it has attained a length of about 3 mm.; 16 days, 6 mm.; 20 days, 11 mm.; 27 days, 63 mm., and 73 days, 100 mm. It is thus seen that within two weeks from the time it has settled, the "lip-worm" has increased hundreds of times in size, and in five weeks, thousands of times. Within two weeks it has changed to a real "lip-worm", and even in a month specimens may contain ripe sexual elements, though normally these are retained till larger quantities of sperm and eggs are stored for extrusion at one time. I shall describe later what appears to be a change of sex from males to females, the male sex being developed in young specimens. I have found males four weeks old gorged with ripe sperms, and in every way adult.

The ages of larger specimens I have been able only to estimate, from the time the piles and other wooden structures from which they were taken, had been in the water. In one case I took specimens four feet long and an inch in diameter at the anterior end, from piles that had been in the water less than two years. This was in July, and in this case it seems the "worms" had not yet reached the wood not earlier than the spring of the preceding year, and

ence were little if any over a year old.

The rate of growth seems to depend but little if at all on the hardness or kind of wood. It is well known, that "ship-worms" penetrate all kinds of wood, whether it be soft white pine or hard oak. In India there are types that bore into stiff clay. None of our species adopt such a habitat, so far as I know. But I have found small, abnormal specimens of *Urocyon* in very rotten wood, and I take it that their abnormal character was due to unusual conditions. In this case they were associated with *Urocyon*, *Pholus* and *Pholas* *lactylus*. However, in wood proper, I have observed that they grow quite as rapidly in hard yellow pine as in soft white pine, so that the rate of growth seems conditioned by food supply, and not by the ability of the animal to form its burrow.

Protective Adaptations. - The life of the "ship-worm" in the wood has led to profound changes in the character of its external parts and its means of protection. As the "worm" enters, the posterior part of the body projects out and more beyond the shell which loses its protective

character, to take upon itself the sole purpose of burrowing. In specimens 2 in. long, the shell is still a part of the length; in specimens four feet long, the shell is an inch or less in length. With the loss of protection by the shell, other means are acquired. In a general way, the burrow offers the protection afforded by the shell in other forms. But the very delicate tissues of the mantle would be injured by the rough surface of the wood, and so as the body elongates, it secretes around it a constantly thickening calcareous tube, which lines the whole burrow except the anterior end, where the mantle is somewhat less delicate; and where the tube fades out and the burrow is being constantly enlarged.

When the young "worm" enters the wood, it penetrates vertically to the surface, but soon bends its course, so that within two inches, usually, it becomes straight and the worm moves with the grain. Individuals that enter the wood on end, cut across the grain from the start, so that their burrows are straight, unless they are turned from their course by obstructions of any sort. If there are not, the course is straight, but the burrows are not very tortuous. When the "litworm" is in a corner of a

ing into the tubes of its fellows, or into other species, if its escape route no longer existed, it contracts the anterior part of its body slightly, secretes a closed calcareous lining in front of it, and ceases to burrow further and to grow. Otherwise, it seems it may grow indefinitely, and it is difficult to predict how large specimens of *T. norvegica* might become, were there not adverse conditions to stop their growth.

I believe the calcareous lining of the burrow has been acquired primarily for the protection of the very delicate body from the rough surfaces of the wood. But it serves other purposes also. It prevents the diffusion of injurious substances into the burrow, and also prevents the intrusion of other creatures that live in the wood. Thus, too, when the surrounding wood decays, or is eaten away by other animals, so as to endanger the life of the "inhabitant", the tube may be so strengthened as to serve as the sole means of external protection. In this way the walls of tubes which, protected, are usually not over a quarter to a half millimeter thick, may become two millimeters or more thick. This response of the animal to adverse conditions of the outside is a very interesting

and it is difficult to see how at least it is possible to
 survive.

The peculiar mode of life of *Xylotrypa* is due to the
 development of the palette (*Fig. 1*). These are protec-
 tive structures peculiar to the "tube-worms". They differ
 somewhat in the various species, but are essentially cal-
 careous paddles, attached one on either side of the poste-
 rior end of the body. In *Xylotrypa* the paddle part con-
 sists of a series of funnel-shaped calcareous structures,
 set one within the other upon a cylindrical handle, while
 in *Teredos* it is composed of a single piece. The handle
 of the paddle is imbedded in an invagination of the mantle
 and the paddles project freely behind, where by means of a
 set of muscles, they may be protracted forcibly so as to
 completely close the outer end of the burrow, against the
 intrusion of any enemy from the outside. Also, when the
 burrow extends upwards and is not, or has not, opened at low
 tide, the palettes may so hermetically close the external
 opening as to retain the water in the burrow, and to pre-
 vent the collapse of the body of the "tube-worm".

is small. The front, assisted by the foot, and is actually observed in young specimens in the process. The shell structure of the shell and the arrangement of its adductor muscles indicate this role. The teeth on the anterior edges of the valves point outwards and backwards. Both dorsal and ventral portions of each valve are

there are stout calcareous knobs, which form a curl in front by which the valves swing upon each other, by the contraction of the adductor muscles. The mode of burrowing is as follows: While the foot performs a cutting action, so as to draw the shell close against the surface of the wood, the posterior adductor muscle contracts, so that the teeth on the shell rasp away the wood. The valves are brought to the original position by the small adductor. The comparatively very large posterior adductor is therefore the active agent that does the work, aided by the foot; the shell is the tool by which it is done.

Ingestion of Wood and Food.- As in other Lamelli ranchs, a constant stream of water is passing through the siphons when they are extended into the water, which serves for respiration and also contains all organisms which

level of food. The consistancy of what is
 single float and other material of animals. Small
 particles of animal forms seem almost to be eaten.
 The particles of wood that are swept away in form-
 in the burrow are ingested, as the only means of getting
 rid of them. It has often been debated whether they un-
 dergo any digestion in the alimentary canal, and I am in-
 clined to think they contribute something to the nutrition
 of "the worms". Foring I think to be a periodical func-
 tion, perhaps alternating with more active ingestion of
 food. This is indicated by two facts. In the first place
 it seems that while the teeth are being cemented to the
 anterior edges of the valves the shell could not be used.
 Also, the caecum of the stomach contains mainly particles
 of wood, which indicates that while burrowing, the orifice
 into it is open. The caecum contains a very large fold of
 the internal peritoneum, and seems so evidently
 an absorbent structure, that the reason it seems to
 me there must be some action on the particles of wood wit-
 in it.

of the poly-ittid larva. It is cylindrical, with the anterior end very long, ciliated for most of its extent, and angular at its posterior end. This anterior portion is overlaid by a well-developed, though single, yamum apparatus, which throws out a single, singlebyssus thread, several times as long as the diameter of the larva. This serves to secure the larva in the early stages of attachment, so that, after the velum has been lost, it may still return to its mooring if it lose its footing from any cause.

The single yamum apparatus developed in the larva, the vertebral column, and the gills with ciliated sensory papillae, the head, and the single non-ciliated tail. The gills are advanced far beyond the stage figured by Hatachek (5) for the viviparous larva and probably is the same as in the adult. On each side of the body there are two large gill-slits, and in the gill-chamber, three distinct gill-ribs. The "foot" larva is a typical dipterian. In the adult the gill-slits are in their usual positions, the posterior one being much more widely lateral than the anterior one. The gill-chamber is not at all inflated, and the gill-ribs are in their usual position of the adult. It is front and back-

rior portion.

The primary esophageal diverticulum is a large, pear-shaped structure, the anterior portion of which is comparatively long and cylindrical. It opens into the stomach, from which a single, long, slender viscus projects on either side. The dorsal diverticulum is a tall, slender style projects from the posterior ventral portion of the stomach on the midline. The intestine leaves the stomach from the right side, anteriorly, and the caecum peculiar to the *Theladocera* is present as a spherical rudiment on the right side, just posterior to the opening of the intestine.

The nervous system of the larva (*Theladocera*) is highly specialized. The ganglia are composed of ganglion cells and the connectives consist in only nerve-fibres. On either side the pleural ganglion is still separate from the cerebral ganglion, and the pleural connectives pass to the viscera, one from the cerebral, one to the pleural. I think a supra-pleural connective is also present, but this I am not able to state positively. The temporal ganglia are closely fused, while the visceral are widely apart.

The salivary glands consist of three vacuolated

cells, and open externally in front of the mouth from the buccor. The internal, peripheral cells are not known to me. Lying around the cerebral cells is a sheath, which so far as known, is peculiar to "fire-works" and in a later stage, becomes so greatly developed as to meet with the gills. The glandular portion (Fig. 10, 11) contains spherical cells, and from it a duct opens to the exterior (Fig. 12) under the cerebral sheath.

Metamorphosis. - The duration of the free-swimming life of the larva is not known, but it is perhaps a month, more or less. In a very much shorter period, the peculiar "fire-works" form has been developed, with adult organization. The first change is the sudden, complete loss of the velum. Within a few hours after the larva has settled, the velum begins to disintegrate, and its constituent cells are cast off and eaten up by the larva. The lower lip is projected forwards under the cavity of the velum, and as the cells are cast off, they do not fall to the exterior, but are eaten. The resultant is a rare of the cells of the velum, contracts equally and the cavity of the velum is empty.

richly supplied with blood vessels.

After passing the base of the foot, the larva is
... As soon as the larva is free,
... in a place to which, and in a position to which,
... life, its chief characteristics are to be seen.
... of the little ventral ...
... in the first three days ... only the opening to the
... is left. The sign ... rapidly and very early
... grows out so as to project beyond the ...
... rapidly after attachment. Within two
... the first row of teeth has been formed on either
... the greater growth on the ventral edges causes the
... to ... for the protrusion of the foot; the
... formed on dorsal and ventral portions; the
... formed and the retractor muscles of the
... attached to them. The foot, ... has
... .

The alimentary canal takes an indirect course in the
... The caecum of the stomach, present in the
... , ... , ...
... , ... , ...
... .
... , ...

long) it is a very common feature of the visceral wall. In the early stages of development, the space is more anteriorly and more posteriorly, and in some specimens, it extends much beyond the posterior end of the anterior. It is well seen from above to extend posteriorly and in specimens 2 mm. long, ten to twelve days old, project much beyond the visceral mass (Fig. 1). This space is also above the pericardial space, with its contained and associated structures, in the position which it occupies in the adult, distinctly posterior to the large adductor. In this, as in subsequent stages the visceral connection lies on the posterior end of the pericardial cavity.

There are a number of facts in the organization and metamorphosis of the larva that lead to have a wider significance. One of these is the slender and coiled form of the valve. Iovin thought that, in its development, it entered into the formation of the lateral palps. These structures are present in the larva as the small spaces on the sides of the shell, and are not the mouth; so that a form in which the mouth is not present, and the valve is very visible, is a result of the invagination of the palps from the valve region, and is not the

form are all very common. However, the "W" form is
the all'round larval form, and is not to be found
elsewhere, so that most of it is a cast-off form
of the "W" form. In the newly-attached oyster I have observed that
the tails of the velum are absorbed or "dropped," the
velum is developed somewhat later, and is not
the same as the south. The evidence from the
oyster, *W. m. m. m.*, it seems to me, shows that the
tails of the velum are not derived from the "W" form. The loss of the
velum is an event not confined to the "W" form. Wil-
son (1910) has observed that the trochal cells of *W. m. m. m.*
are "usually cast off and eaten as in *N. timorana*," and
Pratt has described the loss of the testis in *W. m. m. m.*
These all seem to be one and the same phenomenon, and in-
dicate that the loss of a part of the ectodermal covering in
these and any other forms is a very primitive and general
occurrence.

The addition of the "W" form to the forms which
have hitherto been known to possess a particular
inside testis structure is a very important addition to the
branch. It was, however, the result of a very simple
change. I say "simple" because the change is a very

a part of it is present in the newly-attached larvae, but the rest is thrown out through the anal valve, and does not form a paludicium. In forms like *Paludicium* and *Streplocypris* the byssus serves for the attachment of the youngivalves, and apparently it has the same purpose in other forms in which it is present in the youngivalves, but is lost in the adult. In *Salicorina* it serves to attach the viviparous larva to the wall of the food chamber. All the known facts go to show that the byssus apparatus has been developed to assist in the transformation of the free-swimming paludic larva into the attached or other settled mode of life; and that, the transformation having taken place, the byssus apparatus may be retained in forms which are permanently attached, but lack other means than the byssus for attachment.

The mouth of the crystalline style is well developed in the newly-attached larva. It is situated in the anterior end of its tube, and its position from the posterior end of the stomach. In the young larva it is situated in the middle of the mouth, but in the adult it is situated in the anterior end of the mouth, and its position is such that it is situated in the anterior end of the mouth.

attached to the anterior end of the stomach, and its position is
 no stable is formed. At the intestine is left its original
 position at the extreme posterior end of the stomach. In
 the development of more specialized forms, it has become
 attached to various parts of the sheath of the style, and
 in some forms, and has reached its greatest displacement in
 Formica, *Lasius* and *Pholas*, in which it leaves the stom-
 ach from one side, and in which the sheath of the style
 forms a large blind pouch. If this view of the relations
 of the stomach, intestine, and sheath is the correct one,
 then the sheath is not a structure which has been acquired
 in the more highly specialized forms. It is homologous
 with the posterior part of the stomach of primitive forms
 like *Microlepis* and *Yoldia*, while the intestine has left its
 original median attachment to the posterior end, to be at-
 tached at one side of, the stomach.

. The General Organization of the Adult.

In order to understand the general organization of the
 metamorphosis, the general plan of the adult form must

the superior factorials, and the
with the original factoriality of the
the factoriality is generally
the factoriality which are
branches.

c. The Shell and Valves.

The Shell.- The newly-attached "Ship-worm" larva possesses a typical bivalve shell. The valves are equal and articulated dorsally by a well-developed hinge apparatus. The shell in side view is wider than long; the transversal diameter is about equal to the longitudinal. The right valve (fig. 11) bears three equal hinge teeth; the left, two. Dorsal to the teeth is an external hinge ligament. In either valve, the apophyses of later stages is present as a rudiment. Up to this time growth has taken place along concentric lines. From this time on, rapid, very unequal growth in different parts of the valves causes a sudden transformation of the shell, which comes very different from that of the typical bivalve. The initial stages in this change are shown in fig. 14, which is an anterior view of the shell of a "Ship-worm" which has been in the wood a day or less. After growing a small amount, the anterior border has cemented to it a row of teeth, which have been secreted separately in small pockets in the epithelium of the anterior side of the mantle. The first row of teeth, as well as those formed to a certain

pointe d'arras et de la base. The propidium, which is
smaller in the larval life, has grown into
the shell cavity, retaining the mantle invagination before
it; and in this very rapidly attained state, is about as
large comparatively as in the adult. Meanwhile, the ven-
tral edge of the valve has grown rapidly, and there have
appeared on the dorsal and ventral portions the two knobs,
upon which the two valves swing in this and subsequent
stages, during the mechanical process of boring. During
these changes, the hinge teeth have disappeared, probably
by absorption. The valves which, during larval life, have
swung at the hinge so as to open or close the shell cavity
on the ventral side, come to swing upon the knobs along
a vertical transverse axis vertical to the axis of the
hinge. The greater growth of the valves on their ventral
edges causes them to curve before and behind for the pro-
trusion of the foot and siphons.

Growth of the valves continues with great rapidity.
The left valve of a specimen lar. lev. in view is obliquely
view in fig. 15. The chief features that have been intro-
duced are as follows: The point of contact with the
right valve. The hinge teeth, and the two

of teeth, are wider apart on the dorsal side than on the anterior border on the ventral. In this way, the valve is formed, in position (fig. 14) nearly a right angle. Meanwhile, the posterior border has grown rapidly and flares outwards so as to give better purchase for the anterior adductor during its contraction. Likewise, a much smaller portion of the dorsal anterior edge flares outwards for the attachment of the anterior adductor (fig. 15).

There is little modification in form or structure of the shell after the stage shown in fig. 16, which is a side-view of the left valve from a specimen 5 mm. long. As growth on the ventral edge takes place, the knob is constantly being added to towards the midline and absorbed on the side towards the concavity of the valve. And as growth at the posterior border takes place, the posterior adductor is constantly moving backwards. In the larval and subsequent stages, the whole shell, including the teeth, is covered externally by an epidermis.

The Palattes.- These structures are peculiar to the "Ship-worms" and have been acquired for the purpose of closing the external end of the burrow against intruders. The structure of one of them is shown in fig. 20, which

right and the left palette of a specimen 1.6 mm. long consists of a series of seven funnel-shaped structures which have been formed and cemented in succession to form a handle. The formation of the palettes is as follows: In specimens still less than 1 mm. long, the mantle of the anterior region has formed a duplicature (figs. 4,7) which project over the base of the siphons. At the anterior portions of the sides of the space thus formed, the epithelium of either side pushes forwards. In the invagination thus formed, the handle of the palette is formed, and projects into the "collar" space. The lining walls of the sides of the collar space secrete the funnel-shaped pieces which are cemented to the handle. New larger pieces are added at the anterior end, and those first formed may be broken off. In *Teredo*, the paddle part of the palette is a solid piece and not divided into pieces, as has just been described for *Xylotrya*. Strictly speaking, the segments of a palette are semi-circular when seen on end. When the two palettes are brought together in closing the tube, they form a truncated cone.

d. The Mantle and Siphons.

In the adult "Ship-worm" (fig. 4) the mantle forms a very long and very delicate tube, which stretches from the anterior edge of the shell, to the ends of the siphons, which are modifications of the mantle, as in other forms of Lamellibranchs. This tube is open only at the anterior end, the pedal opening for the protrusion of the foot; and at the ends of the siphons, the inhalent and exhalent openings. It was formerly a much debated question, how much of this tube should be considered body proper, and how much siphons. In the light of our present knowledge, it is easy to see that the muscular collar marks off the end of the body and the beginning of the siphons.

The mantle of *Teredo* has undergone more differentiation than in any other Lamellibranch. The anterior edge is thickened, as in other forms, and secretes the teeth, the edges of the valves and the epipodis. The very delicate part underlying the shell and stretching to the siphons, secretes the inner layers of the shell, and the calcareous tube lining the burrow. Within the shell cavity, integumentous cover to the propyls and at the same time a work part of the burrow as they come to their position

about 1/2 inch in extent, the anterior ends of the valves. The posterior end of the shell is not produced to form a significant edge as in other tubes, but forms a duplicature around the whole posterior end of the shell, which stretches backwards. In the dorsal region, the whole unboned region of the valves is covered by this duplicature and to this special part, Quatrefages gave the name of "cephalic-hood" (c.h. figs. 7,28). To it he assigned the function of forming the burrow. It is somewhat, but not very muscular, and no such important work could be done by it. In the collar region it has been seen that the mantle forms the duplicature or collar which projects posteriorly over the base of the siphons; and within the cavity of which the handles and paddles of the palettes are forced separately (figs. 7,10). The siphons as part of the mantle, form two long tubes (figs. 7-9) which are joined together through half or more of their extent. The anal or exhalent siphon is fit out with bristles or tentacles and is shorter and less muscular than the respiratory or inhalent siphon, which bears a number of tentacles (figs. 7-9). These are sensory structures, which also serve to close the entrance of the respiratory siphon very efficiently.

But in the ciliated part of the mantle, the cells are of the columnar, the centre is very uniform. Its structure is as follows:- Externally, the surface epithelium is composed of the flattened, non-ciliated cells, which bear to the calcareous lining of the burrow. Internal to the outer epithelium, are the weak muscles of the mantle, consisting of the longitudinal layer; a layer in which the fibres cross obliquely to the longitudinal fibres; and internal to these, the circular layer. The internal surface of the mantle (the lining of the mantle cavity), is lined by cells which in general are columnar and ciliated. Opposite the ends of the gills, the mantle is strongly ciliated and bears numerous mucous gland cells which empty to the surface. This region is indicated diagrammatically in figs. 33-34, where on either side ventral to the ciliated, glandular area the mantle wall is thickened, so as to form a groove opposite the groove of the gill.

Between the two epithelial layers of the mantle, there is a reticular net-work formed of connective tissue, with a small amount of muscle and nerve fibres, etc. The spaces between are lacunar blood spaces which are

filled with a peculiar soft granular material, the nature of which is not possible to determine. In living animals, as the result of a light pinkish, translucent appearance. But specimens in alcohol become of almost a chalky whiteness, due to the masses of this peculiar material. Each lacunar space is filled by a more or less spherical nodule, which is just visible to the naked eye. Examined by transmitted light, these nodules are very opaque and seem composed of granular particles; by reflected light they are white. They are insoluble in acids, but soluble in water and pickles; disappear in aqueous solutions. Deshayes described them as non-nucleated mucous cells. They are apparently the "siliceous particles" which Hancock observed, and with which he supposed the burrow to be formed. They are not cells, but deposits of some sort. It seems that they should be regarded as constituting a reserve of oscillatory material of some sort for use as occasion may require.

Special Gland of the Mantle. - Lying between the two epidermal layers of the mantle, in the mid-dorsal region near the extreme posterior end of the body, there is a small special gland which is peculiar to the "P" worms.

Its location is shown in Figs. 19 and 20; its internal structure in Fig. 22, which represents a transverse section of the gland in a specimen about a half centimeter long. The gland consists of numerous, for the most part spherical, vesicular acini whose average diameter is about a fortieth millimeter. They are lined by flattened, non-ciliated, slightly granular cells. From the gland a duct passes posteriorly to open on the dorsal outer surface.

This gland appears in the young "Ship-worm" soon after attachment as a single median small vesicle, of apparently epidermal derivation. As the animal grows, new vesicles are formed as outgrowths from those already present. What the function of the gland is, has not been determined, but its position indicates that it may be the secretion of a poison noxious to enemies that may get into the end of the "Ship-worm" burrow.

e. The Muscular System.

Early in this century it was one of the most important questions in Zoology, whether the muscles known in the "Ship-worms" was homologous with the anterior ones

terior adductor and other adductor muscles, or with the co-
 ordination. It was probably overlooked in the study of the
 muscles of the dissection. (2) the two adductor muscles
 anterior, which are overlooked before.

In the general transformation of the larva into the
 "Ship-work", the ligament, which in the larva opposes the
 two adductor muscles comes to serve only to keep the two
 valves from separating from each other. And the two mus-
 cles, which in the larva oppose the action of the liga-
 ment, to close the shell, come to cause the two valves to
 swing open each other on the dorsal and ventral lines of
 the shell valves, during the process of boring. So the
 two adductors become antagonistic to each other.

In the newly-hatched larva, both adductors are pres-
 ent, the posterior (a.p. figs. 2, 24) already considerably
 larger than the anterior (a.a.). Both are attached in the
 concavity of the shell valve and wall towards the dorsal
 side. In the general transformation, the anterior muscles
 act as the active mechanical agents in boring, and are consid-
 erably enlarged. The posterior, as the one that really does
 the work, becomes very large (figs. 7, 1, 10), and passes pos-
 teriorly and laterally to the anteriorly to the dorsal side of

the shell (figs. 15-17) so as to give it a slight pressure during its contraction. The anterior, whose only work is to bring the shell valves back to their original position, after contraction of the posterior, is comparatively very small (figs. 7,9,10, a.a.), and moves forward in the position in the larva, to be attached to the anterior, outwardly turned edges of the shell valves.

In minute structure, all of the muscle fibres of both abductors are apparently striated, due to a more or less regular deposit of granular material on their surface. This structure seems to support the view held of the two parts of the abductor in forms like Pecten. One part is tendinous and is supposed to prevent the shell valves from separating too far. The other part is for active abduction of the valves. In Teredo, where it is not necessary to oppose the action of a hinge ligament, all parts of both muscles are of the same character as that part in Pecten which is supposed to serve for active abduction.

The gular muscles in the larva are those typical of Laellibranchs with a foot. A pair of protractors of the foot are attached in the anterior suboral region of the shell valves; and a pair of retractors, in the posterior

muscular region, anterior to the anterior part of the anterior adductor (p.l.p., Fig. 20). With the removal by appearance of the apophyses of the shell, the adductor muscles still only lose their old attachment in the muscular region, to become attached to the apophyses throughout the whole length of the latter. After this modification, which takes place as the young "Ship-worm" begins to bore, the adductor muscles no longer form distinct muscles, but with bands which run from the apophyses to be distributed around the sides of the foot.

In Terebo, the posterior end of the body, which has usually been described as the "muscular collar", contains a number of highly specialized muscles, some of which are peculiar to the "Ship-worms". Their general arrangement, and their relations to the palettes and calcareous tube are shown in Figs. 11 and 22. They are divided into two sets, those which manipulate the palettes, and those which are distributed to the siphons. The first set consists of a pair of protractors of the palettes (p.p.), two pairs of retractors of the palettes (p.r.) and a single adductor of the palettes (a.p.). On either side of the retractor of the palette is inserted along the angle of the palette,

The central part of the body of the "Ship-worm" is a cylindrical tube, its origin on either side there are two retractors of the palette. One is inserted at the end of the handle and passes forwards to be distributed in the mantle along the sides of the body. The other is inserted near the outer end of the handle, whence it runs forwards to be attached along with the siphonal muscles. The adductor is a stout, cylindrical muscle, stretching between the anterior ends of the palette handles, and lying in the septum which divides the mantle cavity posteriorly. The muscles of the siphons are attached on either side along a triangular area to the calcareous tube, slightly anterior and ventral to the attachment of the palette muscles. From this origin the siphonal muscles are distributed to the siphons, mostly to the respiratory.

The action of the muscles of the palettes and siphons is as follows:- When the "Ship-worm" is undisturbed, the siphons are widely extended, as represented in fig. 11. If disturbed in any way, the siphons are retracted with great rapidity by the contraction of their muscles. At the same time, the action of the retractors of the

muscles, the palettes are pushed forcibly into the siphons
 until the valves are completely closed to the latter. The outer
 margins of the valves are joined together by the sides of
 the siphons, while the anterior ends of the handles are sepa-
 rated. As the disturbance disappears, the palettes are
 dissolved by the ventral retractors, and retraction seems
 to be completed by the long muscles attached to the bases
 of the handles. At the same time, by the action of the
 abductor of the palettes, their paddles are separated, so
 as to permit the extension of the siphons by an inflow of
 blood.

From this description, it is seen that the end of
 the tube of *Teredo* is homologous with the pallial sinus
 of typical Lamelli branches. The same siphonal muscles are
 present as in other forms, while the muscles of the pal-
 ettes are peculiar to the "Ship-worms".

1. The Respiratory System.

The gills of *Teredo* are probably more complicated in structure than those of any other type of Lamellibranch. For, besides possessing a membranous, non-perforate portion which reminds one of the gill structure in the Cephalopoda, they are otherwise sharply marked off from those of forms nearly related to the "Ship-worms".

The Development and General Structure of the Gills.- The embryonic development of the gills of *Teredo* has been observed by Hatschek (6) in the viviparous larva of the unidentified species studied by him. Here the rudimentary gill of either side is a fold, in which perforations appear in succession, new ones being added posterior to those already formed. In the newly-attached larva, the gills have advanced but little beyond the stage described by Hatschek. On either side there are two slits and the rudiment of a third. However, the slits have so increased in size as to occupy most of the space on the upper sides of the foot, and the gill-fold has fused to the sides of the foot by its ventral edge. In this way, the gill-slits

come to separate into or filaments (Fig. 2) of the gill-fold (Fig. 2). And as the fold, as it appears, is attached at the point of insertion of the mantle on the sides of the body, and the ventral edge fuses with the body, the part of the foot - the gill-bars or filaments lie almost horizontally in the mantle chamber.

This mode of formation of gill-slits in a Gill-stic fuses continuously, at first with the sides of the body and visceral mass (Fig. 3) and later, with its fellow of the opposite side as well (Fig. 3) is kept up during life. However, beginning with stages still less than 1 mm. long, the process is modified as follows:- In specimens less than 1 mm. long (fig. 3) the gill of either side consists of a membrane with a series of gill slits which decrease in size from before backwards. When, however, there are about fifteen slits in the series, a perforation in the gill-fold or membrane appears opposite and internal to the tenth (usually, rarely ninth or eleventh) slit of the first series. Now one appears in succession posterior to it, so that a second series of slits begins to form internal to the first (Fig. 4). As the development of the internal always slightly exceeds that of the external, as is shown in Fig. 5, there are no slits in the in-

terminal series internal to a ctenidial filament, and never appear.

The "bill-fold" or "bill" is the posterior end of the internal half of the Molluscan ctenidium. From the resemblance of the mode of development to that in *Cydia* (Sieglar) and *Mytilus* (Lacaze-Buthiers), it is seen that the splits of the first formed series separate the ascending limbs of the Laevellian branch bill filaments; and that the second series separate the ascending limbs. The anterior ten filaments, then, never develop the ascending limbs. Likewise, the other half of the ctenidium is never developed in *Teredo*, contrary to the belief of Peshayes and Quatrefages, who believed the whole ctenidium, or "pair" of bills to be present on either side of the body.

The term "bill-fold" I have used to designate the posterior end or growing point of the bill, and "bill-filaments", the elements that are formed from it. However, in later stages, soon after that shown in fig. 3, the growing point forms a sort of low cylindrical hollow tube filled by a roof space, which thence acts as a sort of filling in its hollow on the opposite side, and for all over the area (but not the central part) shown in fig. 37, with the tube. I have only seen a single bill

and by its separation from the rest of the branchial cavity. Finally, the free portion of the growing point of the external lamina, and at the sides of the lamina two series of perforations are formed progressively (Fig. 36), the external always slightly in advance of the internal. The corresponding slits of the two series push in (in the direction of the lower arrows in Fig. 37) till they meet each other and till they push through to the peripheral cavity. These inpushings divide the original blood space of the growing point into narrow spaces separated from each other except at two points, the openings into the afferent and efferent branchial veins. The median portion of the original blood space remains undivided as the afferent vein, and by the disappearance of the middle part of the walls of the two growing points as they fuse together, the afferent veins of the two sides unite to form the large afferent branchial vein. The undivided dorsal portion persists as the efferent branchial vein on either side. The walls of adjacent slits are connected together by numerous connective-tissue cells (Fig. 38), which to form the Gill lamina, the same given to form the branchial filaments, and more appropriate for the formation of the Gill

which (except the anterior ten) are of the same size. From the mode of formation it is evident that there is a large blood space in each lamina, and that there is a free flow of blood through the "gill" (in the direction of the arrows fig. 37) between the afferent and efferent branchial veins.

In a young *Teredo* a half centimeter in length (somewhat later than the stage represented in fig. 6), there is on either side a continuous series of seventy-five or more gill filaments (filaments and laminae), stretching from the mouth region, around the sides of the body, and posterior to the visceral mass. Soon afterwards the "filament" between the tenth and eleventh (usually) gill-slits remains free before backwards. This growth increases till, in the adult, the anterior ten filaments (it may rarely be nine or eleven) are separated from the rest of the gill by ten cm. or more, in large specimens. However, they retain the structure and, doubtless, the function of gill elements, though in the adult, they form a series of projections on the sides of the "head" (fig. 9).

In *Teredo*, the epibranchial cavity forms a lens-shaped posteriorly (figs. 10, 33, 34) but is divided anteriorly

ly connect the gills of the anterior five filaments of the gill. As the anterior ten filaments become separated from the rest of the gill, the epibranchial cavity remains a long, very narrow canal (sp. ca. figs. 28-31) which lies in the mantle on either side external to the afferent branchial vein, and adjacent to the groove described below.

The two limbs of a gill lamina (fig. 37) form almost a right angle with each other. At the angle there is a ciliated groove (figs. 32, 34, 37) which expands the full length of the gill in young specimens (fig. 6), and in adults, in addition, connects the anterior ten filaments with the rest of the gill (figs. 9, 28-31). In the adult, the connecting part of the groove, then, is really a part of the gill and is homologous with the groove of one filament in other parts of the gill. The minute structure of the groove is as follows:- The lining cells are in the main strongly ciliated and columnar (fig. 44), but there are distributed among them numerous mucous gland cells. The internal surface of the mantle opposite to the base of the gill, also forms a groove lined by strongly ciliated cells with gland cells scattered among them, and this with the groove of the gill forms a sort of trough which conveys the afferent

mouth.

The Minute Structure of the Gills. - It has been seen that, by their mode of formation, the "intra-filamentar union" between the two limbs of a lamina is so complete, that blood may flow freely through the lamina from the afferent to the efferent branchial vein. The "inter-filamentar" connection, between adjacent laminae is also very complete, but serves only for support and not for the full interchange of blood. The general plan of the inter-laminar connections is shown in fig. 39, which is a tangential section of a gill almost in the line of the letters i.i. in fig. 38. It is seen that the points of union in adjacent laminae are arranged in regular rows. At each point, the supporting rod (s.r. fig.40) projects through a perforation, so as to bind together adjacent laminae. Attached to adjacent rods are fiber-like cells which are apparently muscular and contractile.

The minute structure of the cells of a lamina is similar to that of the filaments in forms like *Nytilus*, though the various types of cells are not so highly developed as in the other. At either side there are the same

lance "lateral cells" (l.c. fig.40), bearing long flagella. External to these are small non-ciliated "lateral cells", and at the angles, the small, flattened "lateral frontal" cells (l.f.c. fig.40), with a single row of stiff cilia. The outer edge of the lamina is occupied by numerous small "frontal-cells" (f.c.) which bear numerous weaker cilia. The two broad sides of the lamina are composed of very flat cells without cell outlines or regular arrangement, and are connected together by numerous connective tissue cells which penetrate the flood space of the lamina (b.S. figs. 38,40). In their minute structure (fig.41) the anterior ten filaments are essentially like the rest of the gill, except that the "frontal cells" are more numerous, and the middle ones bear no cilia. The first filament is only a half filament, indicating that the filaments are formed by perforations in a gill membrane, and not by the latter precocious fusion of gill filaments. The long epibranchial canal is sparsely ciliated, and it seems that the function of the anterior ten filaments is to get rid of superfluous water in the anterior end of the burrow.

Glands of Deshayes. - Closely associated with the gill
cavity is a pair of very prominent glandular
masses, as far as known, are peculiar to the genus
which constitute one of the most important features which
distinguish the "Ship-worms" from other types of Lamelli-
branchs. In honor of the observer who first described
them, I have called them the glands of Deshayes. Though
he pointed them out, they have never been fully described
as to character, structure and relations.

Deshayes observed a peculiar structure in the umbo-
nal region on either side of the shell cavity. He describ-
ed it as of glandular nature, and supposed its function to
be the secretion of a fluid to soften wood in the forma-
tion of the burrow. In the gill laminae he described pe-
culiar modifications of the tissues, which he supposed to
be mucous glands, and to serve for the nutrition of the
viviparous embryos of *Teredo*. He also described a third
structure, as invading a part of the walls of the afferent
branchial vein, and of unknown function. These three
glands described by Deshayes are parts of one and the same
structure which is present, in different degree of devel-
opment, in all of the three species I have studied. In
all three the part in the gill is well developed. It is

norvegica, the umbonal part is so large as to occupy a considerable part of the umbonal portion of the shell cavity; in X. fimbriata it is small, and in T. nevalis, a paucely rudimentary. In his studies of the pericardial glands in Lamellibranchs, Grobben sought in Terego for the gland described by Peshayes in the umbonal region, thinking it might represent a part of the pericardial gland of other forms which possess this organ. He failed to find it and supposed it to be absent. However, though he apparently had none of the forms with which I have worked, I think it was doubtless present in his species.

In the larva this peculiar structure is present on either side in front of the cerebral ganglion, though in a much simplified form (g.D. fig.2). It is vesicular and filled with spherical cells of apparently mucous nature. A duct leads to the exterior, opening at the side of the mouth, on the ventral side of the velum.

The structure of subsequent stages of the gland will be best understood by first describing that part in the adult. A diagram fig. 33 will show that the mollified portion contains elements of two very different types of structure. Their distribution and relations are best shown in fig.37, which represents a longitudinal section of

T. navalis. This figure also shows the distribution of the material in the branchial vein, and that this portion is of the same nature as that lying in the lamina adjacent to it. Still farther from the vein, is the second type of structure. Ramifying in all directions from the latter are dendritic processes, which penetrate the epithelial walls of the lamina. These ramified portions are the primary structures, and the other two are derived from them. The structure of the dendritic portion is shown in figs. 47, 48, which were drawn under a magnification of 1900 diameter. The processes seem devoid of any membrane. The contents consist of very minute filamentous structures arranged lengthwise in the direction of the process. Lying in the mass thus formed are nuclei which vary in number and position. The middle one in fig. 48 indicates that they may change position, and that the whole structure forms a syncytium. The enlarged portions of the processes shown in fig. 47, because surrounded by an epithelial covering, apparently derived from the lining cells of the lamina. This stage is represented in figs. 46 and 47. The minute filamentous structures have taken on a more irregular arrangement, and lying within the cells are spher-

ical cells of varying appearance. While some (fig. 48) are coarsely granular, others are almost homogeneous. The nuclei lie to one side of the cells.

The other type of structure (figs. 50-52) I am confident though not perfectly sure, is also derived from the dendritic processes, along with a modification of the surrounding epithelium. The developed structure is of remarkable appearance (fig. 52). The base is composed of modified epithelium cells of the wall of the lamina. The nuclei stain lightly and lie in a granular protoplasm, from which deeply staining rods project into the blood-space, but from which they are separated by a membrane formed of very flat cells. The development of this structure seems to be as follows: When the dendritic processes penetrate among the epithelial cells (fig. 49), the filaments are arranged lengthwise; soon they take on a vertical position (fig. 50) enlarge, and become covered by the cap-like membrane (figs. 50-52). If this derivation be the correct one, then the rods in fig. 53 have been formed by the enlargement of the filaments of the dendritic structures. In the lamina the rods project into the blood-space; in the afferent branchial vein, away from the

blood space. Why the difference, I do not know.

The development of the gland of the adult, so far as I can determine, is as follows:- When the small Terebo have been in the wood for a day or so, the gland of the larva sends out processes which invade the surrounding ectodermal tissues (the mantle, sides of the body). As the side of the body becomes enlarged, it fuses with the dorsal sides of the gill filaments (fig. 27). From the first there is close association between the gland and the gill. As the latter grows, the filaments become invaded by the gland; and as the anterior ten filaments become separated from the rest of the gill, the two parts of the gland remain connected together by a long, narrow duct which accompanies the epibranchial canal and lies in the afferent branchial vein (figs. 28-33). With the separation of the two parts of the gill, the intervening part of the gland disappears in *X. fimbriata* and *T. navalis*, but persists in *T. norvegica*. As the gland enters the gill lamina, it remains connected by a small duct with the main duct, and sends the granular cells into the latter. The main duct may become covered with granular cells (fig. 37). However, in both cases there are few cells in it, and I am inclined

to regard it (at least in *X. fibrinata*) as a mucous gland. In *T. nava*, I am inclined to regard the formation of the spherical cells, in the outer part, as not the chief function of this part of the gland. The origin and fate of these cells I have not been able to determine. Their contents suggest that they may be modified mucous gland cells.

What the special function of this remarkable structure is I am not able to even guess. The rudimentary character of the anterior part in the "head" of *T. nava* indicates that it cannot be the formation of a secretion to soften wood. Its development in the gill, in small as well as large individuals, in male and female, and in forms that do not retain the eggs in the gill, proves that this part cannot be for the nutrition of viviparous embryos. The close connection with the gill indicates, it seems to me, that its function is probably the elaboration of some internal secretion for whose formation the presence of both blood and water is necessary.

r. The Circulatory System.

The circulatory system of the "Sip-worms" is peculiar in relation to the peculiar form of the body. The growth of the visceral mass ventrally at first, and afterwards its great elongation posteriorly along with the elongation of the rest of the body accounts for the changes that have taken place. Doubtless the ancestors of *Teredo* were Lamellibranchs with typical circulation, in which on either side in the pericardial cavity lay an auricle latent to, and emptying into, the median ventricle which surrounded the intestine. From the ventricle the anterior aorta passed forward above the intestine and the posterior aorta backward below the intestine. In *Teredo*, the pericardial space, with its contained parts, has come to lie on the morphologically ventral side of the intestine, and the relations of the various parts of the circulatory system to each other have been radically changed.

The youngest stage of the circulatory system I have observed in detail is in specimens 3 mm. long. Here the heart consists of two almost separate halves (fig. 12). On either side a more or less spherical auricle (an.) lies lateral and slightly ventral to, and leads into, a more or

less spherical ventricle (ve.) Each ventricle sends a very narrow, vessel-like portion towards the mid-line where the two sides unite. In this middle portion there are two semilunar valves (fig. 33) on the dorsal and ventral sides, and from this point two vessels emerge. One runs anteriorly, and bending around the posterior adductor muscle, runs posteriorly in the mantle. At this stage, the visceral mass has projected but little posteriorly (fig. 32), and the second vessel from the heart, somewhat smaller than the other, runs ventrally into the visceral mass. These structures are shown in section in fig. 34, which is a longitudinal section through the median part of the ventricles and aortae in a specimen 4 mm. long.

In the stage in which the heart is developing, the stomach and caecum already occupy most of the visceral mass, and the gills are wide apart. This may account for the wide separation of the two halves of the heart. In development posteriorly, the gills advance ahead of the other structures and, accompanying them, the two sides of the heart are drawn backwards so as to lie side by side. In the adult (fig. 34) the ventricles (ve.) have fused in the midline, except at the posterior end, where they are

lines situated at the anterior end of the ventricle. However, internally the latter is thus divided (Fig. 1) through half of the extent of the ventricle. At the anterior end, the ventricle has the same of the perforated zone. The two auricles accompany the bill in the posterior level part of the latter and come to lie side by side like two large vessels, in the posterior half of the pericardial cavity. Each projects into the ventricle on its own side and valves separate the cavities of the auricle from that of the ventricle (Fig. 24).

The pericardial cavity of the "Ship-worms" (Figs. 10, 31, 32) lies on the apparent dorsal side of the visceral mass. It is very large, extending from the posterior adductor to the visceral randlion. In *Xylophaga* species, it narrows in front to form a canal which projects beyond the side part to the posterior adductor muscle. About two-thirds of the distance from the visceral randlion to the posterior adductor (Fig. 10) the anterior end of the ventricle is so close to the pericardium, into the visceral mass. This point is the end of the ventricle and the beginning of the aorta, the end of the ventricle going back off by the aorta and ventricle is the end of

forwards of its dorsal and ventral lines (val. fig. 6). From the base of the ventricle two vessels arise over the dorsal line (an. fig. 10, 36) and forwards (figs. 25-26) in the visceral mass, and pass ventral to and in front of the posterior alarator, to bend over the latter and enter the mantle as the large dorsal or posterior pallial artery. This runs as a single vessel in *Kylothrya* at the right side of the anal canal and epibranchial cavity (figs. 23-24, d.n.) to the posterior end of the body, where it divides into the two paired arteries of the siphons. This dorsal line just described is the morphological posterior aorta, though its course at first is anteriorly. The second aorta leaving the ventricle runs posteriorly in the visceral mass and is the morphological anterior aorta.

The venous system consists of three important parts. Blood from the viscera and anterior part of the body is gathered into a system of afferent branchial veins consisting anteriorly of large paired vessels (v.a. figs. 29-31), which in the region of the visceral caudon unite to form the very large afferent branchial vein which runs up the gill-risers (figs. 10, 32-34). Proceeding from this vein through the gill lamella, it enters the large

part of the anterior venous arch, to the posterior. Behind the posterior part of the body is situated the anterior aortic ventral vein (a.o.v. figs. 1, 2, 3) which runs forward and enters the pericardial space, at the posterior ends of the kidneys.

The description I have just given applies to *X. fimbriata* and *T. navalis*. In *T. norvegica*, while the relations are somewhat different, the homologies remain the same. In this species, the principal part of the visceral mass has remained more anteriorly and the posterior part of the body is longer in proportion. In following the aorta-like structure, it at least has become much more elongated, and this elongation has taken place in the aorta-like structure which runs forward from the more thickened portion of the ventricle. In this species, the pericardial cavity extends much farther forwards than in *X. fimbriata*, passing in front and anterior to the posterior aortic vessel as a long canal, to run under the oesophagus. In it, the ventricle runs to the anterior side of the posterior aortic vessel, to dip into the visceral mass. Valves mark the end of the visceral ventricle, where an entrance vessel passes forwards. The latter, after giving off branches to the

... the posterior aorta, ... into ...
 ... the anterior aorta. The other, the ...
 ... forwards a short distance, ...
 ... the visceral mass.

I have gone into details in describing the aorta,
 because the posterior aorta is described as fused with the
 anterior in Terebr. This observation was first made by
 Grobner (2), who described as aorta a part of the ventri-
 cle which is distinctly muscular and contractile. The
 part that should have been described as aorta has not
 figure at all. Menegaux has also maintained that the two
 aorta are fused (11). Unfortunately, neither of these
 workers shares the species with which he worked, but their
 descriptions of other parts are so faulty as to indicate
 that there is little doubt that they have been in error in
 this regard.

b. The Alimentary Canal.

In adaptation to their parasitic mode of life, the alimentary canal of all the Pholadacea has become more highly specialized, perhaps, than in any other type of Lamellibranch. This specialization is carried farthest in the "Ship-worms".

Most of the parts of the alimentary canal of the adult are already present in the newly-attached larva, though their relations to each other and their relative development are very different. The general plan is shown in fig. 2, which represents a larva from the right side with the shell, mantle and gills removed. A long ciliated oesophagus (figs. 2, 24, oc.) leads into a rather small stomach, from which project on either side the two large, single liver lobules, composed of large, coarsely granular, pigmented, non-ciliated cells (figs. 2, 25). The intestine leaves the right side of the stomach, (figs. 2, 26) and, after forming a single loop passes over the posterior adductor at the rectum. Just posterior to the intestinal opening is a small hemispherical diverticulum of the stomach, the caecum (ce. figs. 2, 27) composed of coarsely granular, non-ciliated cells. The posterior, ventral

part of the stomach is occupied by the opening of a large, conical diverticulum, which is the insertion of the sheath of the crystalline style (Fig. Figs. 2, 3). Its walls are composed of the large, coarsely granular, sense-ciliated cells characteristic of this structure, except at the blind end, where the cells are smaller, more finely granular and non-ciliated. (Fig. 24).

The alimentary canal of the larva is interesting because of the advanced development of some parts and the retarded development of others. The liver has advanced but little in form beyond a stage reached two or three days after hatching. On the other hand, the caecum of the stomach, which is peculiar to the members of the Pholadacea, is already present as a rudiment, although it is not to become functional till after the adoption of the life in the wood.

As the larva develops into the "Whip-worm", the size and relations of the parts of the alimentary canal change greatly. The oesophagus becomes, in the adult, very short in comparison with other parts (Fig. 19). The stomach elongates posteriorly more and more (Figs. 4, 7, 11) till in the adult it projects far beyond the rest of the body and forms a long cylindrical tube (Fig. 11). Its wall

When, the wood is cut away, in order, it is cut in a
 shape in the caecum of the stomach. When, before the in-
 festation of the wood by ins, the caecum projects into the
 foot as a large hollow vesicle, lined by clear, ciliated
 cells. But, as soon as wood is ingested, it enlarges rap-
 idly and soon forms the largest part of the alimentary
 canal (figs. 4,7,10 e.). With its increase in size, it
 comes to leave the posterior end of the stomach, and
 crowds the sheath of the crystalline style to the left
 side (figs. 4,7,10). In young specimens, the caecum occu-
 pies almost the whole mass of the foot, and its blind end
 points forwards (figs. 4,7). As the visceral mass elon-
 gates, the caecum is gradually drawn backwards, till in
 the adult, it forms a very long cylindrical tube, stretch-
 ing to the posterior end of the visceral mass (fig.10 e.).
 In "Ship-worms" that are boring and growing, the caecum is
 always completely filled with ingested particles of wood.
 The scarcity of diatoms and other food materials seems to
 indicate that in the "Ship-worm", boring and ingestion of
 wood, and ingestion of food alternate, and that, when
 feeding, the food is taken into the intestine; and when
 boring, into the caecum. The caecum, then, is a long,

stomach, or in only at its anterior end. The stomach is laterally flattened. Internally it is lined by a flattened muscular layer, which is folded like a typhlosole (figs. 22, 23), but the fold does not have the origin, and is not at all homologous with the fold in the intestine. The local retention of woody particles in the caecum, along with the greatly increased absorbent surface of the latter, indicates that the wood is in part digested and serves as food.

In elongating posteriorly the caecum pushes the intestine ahead of it, so that the latter always forms a very long straight loop around the former. The intestine, along with the great development of the caecum, and the greater development of the liver on the right side, in the adult leaves the stomach slightly to the left of the midline, near the posterior end (fig. 10). Turning forwards, it forms a single short loop and then passes backwards to form the loop around the caecum. Then passing dorsal to the stomach it runs over the posterior adductor and the rectum (r) which projects slightly into the anterior end. Throughout its whole extent the intestine possesses a typhlosole, but slightly developed, except in that part next to the stomach. In the typhlosole is so greatly

developed to form several coils (Fig. 11) which pass to the intestine at the junction to the caecum (Fig. 12). The intestine of *Piniriata* is very much shorter than in other "Ship-worms". The shortness of the intestine is doubtless connected with the greatly increased absorptive surface of the coiled typhlosole. In most "Ship-worms" the intestine forms several coils before it passes around the caecum and in such forms there is no greatly coiled typhlosole.

In *Teredo*, as in *Pholas*, there is a second small, pill-shaped caecum of the stomach on the dorsal side to the left, under the posterior adductor (i.e. Figs. 7, 10, 13). It is lined by columnar, ciliated cells and generally contains particles of sand. It is small and seems degenerate, but it may have some function at the present time. Talsen¹ has observed an apparently homologous structure in *Mucula*, where it is said to secrete a small style.

The sheath of the crystalline style, present on the midline of the larva, comes to open from the left side of the stomach near the anterior end of the latter (i.e. Figs. 7, 10), and turns towards the right side. Its blind end

forms a vertical tube, which is very minute at the anterior end of the stomach. The latter has its walls composed of large coarsely granular, cells, which bear very long, fine cilia (fig. 27, A.). The tubular portion, on the other hand, has its walls composed of elongated, finely granular and deeply staining, non-ciliated cells. In adults, the walls of the tube may become very thin (fig. 27 B.) in parts. What the function of this tubular portion is I am not able to state, though it is perhaps the secretion of some constituent of the style. Larrois (1) has figured a pair of diverticula at the ends of the stomach of *Pholas lactylus*, lined by cells similar to those of the rest of the stomach. On examining sections of apparently specimens of the same species, I find a tube, as in *Terebr.*, lined by cells of the same character as in the latter, so that I am inclined to believe that Larrois' description and figures are faulty.

The liver, composed of a single spherical lobe on either side of the stomach in the larva, soon divides into several lobes on either side (l. figs. 4, 7). As growth takes place, the part of the right lobe of the liver divides (in specimens 4-6, l. figs. 4, 7) and at the same time

or" locates, the posterior part of the duct of the
 the liver gland backwards, so that in the adult, its duct
 opens into the posterior end of the stomach. The anterior
 and posterior portions of the liver are completely separa-
 ted from each other, forming separate liver masses (Fig.
 10). The anterior remains in the foot, and sends its duct
 to open into the external anterior portion of the stomach.
 There seems little doubt that it was this part which Frey
 and Lenckart observed and described as the salivary glands
 peculiar to *Perle*. The posterior part of the liver is
 the larger of the two, and opens by a very large duct into
 the ventral part of the stomach. It is differentiated in-
 to two portions, which in structure and apparently in
 function, are quite distinct from each other, though they
 open into the stomach by the same duct. The more eleva-
 ted, slightly larger portion (Fig. 30) lies on the right
 side, and in structure is like the anterior liver mass of
Perle and the whole liver in other forms of *Paralli* species.
 The second portion (Fig. 30) lying low on the left side,
 is different in appearance. Its lobes are larger, with
 larger lamens and thinner walls, which are composed of
 flattened large cubical cells. The presence of large

quantity of soap particles is to be obtained, and the
 laboratory tests that this portion of the liver is
 specialized for the digestion of cellulose, and in view
 of its structure, adapted for long retention of woody materials
 in the caecum. This portion of the liver is adjacent to
 the opening of the caecum, and it may be that it secretes
 a ferment for cellulose digestion which is contained in the
 caecum. As has been pointed out already, the latter by
 its structure seems adapted to absorption on a large
 scale.

i. The Nervous System.

The nervous system of "Eurytemora" has been described in the larval and subsequent stages of Eurytemora affinis, and in the adult of T. nevalis and T. norvegica. While my description applies especially to the first of these, the other two are in such close agreement, that we may justifiably believe that there is great uniformity in this regard in all of the species of the Terebinthidae, and that the descriptions heretofore given have been erroneous.

The Nervous System of the Larva. - In the larva the principal elements of the adult are present. However, in their relations to each other, their embryonic development is not completed and in their relation to other structures great changes take place along with the change in the general organization. The cerebral ganglion is shown in fig. 1 and 2, the latter representing a dorsal view of the nervous system of a larva just attached. In front of the cerebral ganglion are the two cerebral ganglia, (a) separated by a very short distance, and the two cerebral

dorsal, ventral, and lateral (3) of the *Prothorax*.
 The *Prothorax* is central and peripheral *Prothorax*, which is
 represented by the dorsal, ventral and lateral *Prothorax*.
 In the *Prothorax*. I think that the dorsal *Prothorax*
 is not a connective at this stage, at this stage I do not
 state positively. The dorsal *Prothorax* is not as
 completely fused as in the adult, but the *Prothorax*
 anterior to the *Prothorax* of the *Prothorax* (Fig. 3). It is
 situated in front of the anterior *Prothorax* muscle
 (Figs. 3, 4, 5), the *Prothorax* forms a long cylinder
 perpendicular at both ends. The *Prothorax* contains
 small cells. The two *Prothorax* gradually become more closely
 fused and in the early stage represented in fig. 4,
 the concentration is almost as great as in the adult.
 Each *Prothorax* of the larva gives off a respira-
 tory tube which bears a respiratory chamber still far
 posterior to the *Prothorax*. While the *Prothorax* are
 fused into a *Prothorax*, the *Prothorax* in the
Prothorax and *Prothorax* are not differentiated. After
 the *Prothorax* persist as two *Prothorax* in the *Prothorax* "Di-
 agon" of the *Prothorax* (Fig. 4). I think that the
Prothorax, the *Prothorax* of the *Prothorax* is

indicated by their structure and position of the so-called cerebral ganglia.

While these concentrations of the visceral ganglia with each other and of the pleural with the cerebral ganglia are taking place, the cerebral commissure is constantly elongating, along with the growth of the oesophagus, so that in the adult, the cerebral ganglia are separated from each other by a long commissure.

The Nervous System of the Adult. - Along with the great change in the general relations of the various systems that have taken place from the "Ship-worm" larva to the adult, the nervous system has changed, principally in the changed position of the visceral ganglia, which lose their position in front of the posterior adductor, and come to lie back posterior to it. However, the same three pairs of ganglia are present in the "Ship-worms" as in other types of Lamellibranchs. The general arrangement is shown in Fig. 10. Lying almost at the sides of the mouth are the two cerebral ganglia (c. figs. 10, 10), well developed

a large paired (11) cerebral ganglion (c.c.g.), which is composed of 12 nerve fibres. From the anterior end of this r., a single large pallial nerve (p.n.) is distributed to the anterior part of the mantle which underlies the shell, and forms the cephalic hood. From near the inner ends of the ganglia large connectives pass around the sides of the mouth to the pedal ganglia (p.g.); and, from the posterior outer ends, the cerebro-visceral connectives pass posteriorly to the visceral ganglia. The pedal ganglia give off several pairs of large nerves which innervate the foot.

The Visceral Ganglia. - The two visceral (v.fig. 10, 20) ganglia of the larva fuse into the single mass which lies very far posteriorly in the adult (v.fig.10). After leaving the cerebro-pleural ganglia, their connectives with the visceral pass along the sides of the "head" under the anterior Gill Filament, posterior to the large adductor muscle, they take up a more medial position, among the tissues of the liver and genital organs. In front of the visceral ganglia they seem to lie close to the anterior

that is to say, the lateral extensions of the central cords.
The nerves entering the visceral ganglia, being preserved
from the "anterior ganglion" and lying just in front of
the latter. In passing it, they lose a considerable number
of fibres (fig. 43), which are lost in it. The other
connectives enter the visceral ganglia, but little dimin-
ished in size. This anterior ganglion as first described
by Pelsener (13) for the "Ship-worms" and seems peculiar
to them and their allies. It is a small ganglionic mass
lying distinctly in front of the visceral in well preserv-
ed specimens, and from the fibres crossing between the sides
it seems composed of two halves, quite completely fused
together. As has been stated, the connectives in passing
send fibres ventrally into it, to be completely lost in
it. From this ganglion several pairs of nerves are given
off which innervate the kidneys and other viscera, the ven-
ital papillae and the oesophidium, at least in part (fig.
50). From the anterior end, a pair passes forwards to sup-
ply the genital organs and perhaps other viscera. From
the middle of the ganglion a pair passes laterally to in-
nervate the genital papillae and the kidneys (fig. 43).
Leaving the posterior lateral angles of the ganglion, the

... into ... and ... the ...
 ... into two parts. The ...
 ... the other, ... to enter, ...
 ... mass of the visceral ganglia. ... later-
 ally to innervate the oesophagus.

The visceral ganglia proper of the adult (figs. 10, 50), along with the greater development of the posterior part of the body innervated by them, have attained greater comparative size than the cerebral and pedal. They form a somewhat three lobed mass, in which the larger, central, part consists of the completely fused visceral ganglia of the larva, while the lobe on either side consists of the respiratory ganglia which have come to lie adjacent to the visceral proper.

From the visceral ganglia several pairs of nerves are given off, whose connection with the visceral is through the lateral masses (fig. 50). Passing forward on either side are two small nerves (figs. 50, 1, 2) which accompany the kidneys and anal canal, which innervate the posterior auctor and the anterior part of the mantle. Given off slightly posterior to these, a lateral one (3) runs directly to the middle part of the mantle. Posterior

ly, a pair of large ocellar nerves (O.N. Nos. 13, 14, 15) arises backwards to innervate the posterior part of the mantle, including the siphons and the muscles of the palpsites. The branchial nerves (B.N.) arise laterally, and are associated with the osphradium, and then innervate the gills.

This description of the nervous system differs essentially from that of Quatrefages (15) which has hitherto been accepted. He thought the two cerebral ganglia closely fused and the pedal rudimentary and separate. I have no doubt that he mistook the pedal ganglia for the cerebrals; his figures show this. But what he observed and figured as the two very small pedal ganglia I do not know. It has been seen that while they are not so large as in forms with a large foot, they are not at all rudimentary.

Otolith. - The larva leads a active locomotor life, and some means for distinguishing the position of its possessor is very essential. But the adult "ship-worm" by assume any position, and the otoliths become useless and degenerate. After attachment, they soon cease to grow, and

1. The organ is located in the anterior part of the body, just behind the head, and is situated in the region of the genital duct.

Sense-Organ of the Genital Papilla. - One of the pairs of nerves of the anterior ganglion has been described as going to the kidneys and genital papillae. Situated just at the junction of the ectodermal genital duct, with the sexual organ there is an organ which by its structure seems to be for special sensation. The nerve to it (Figs. 13, 14) after a very short course is distributed to sensory cells which lie adjacent to the epithelial lining of the genital duct. The sensory cells are long spindle-shaped, and send their peripheral ends to terminate upon the epithelial cells lining the genital duct. Their central ends I have not traced into the nerve, but it seems justifiable to suppose that this is their connection. What the function of this organ is I do not state. While the figures apparently show it some distance from the exterior, it should be remembered that in "Scip-worms" 10 cm. long, the sexual duct is less than a half m. long, and that the

the organ is really very close to the surface of the mantle cavity, practically at the surface.

The Osphradia. - These Molluscan organs of special sense form large masses of complex tissues at either side of the visceral caecum. (fig. 60). Their general shape is elliptical and they are in close association with the branchial nerves. Each organ (fig. 61) is composed of two parts. At the ventral (outer) surface, there is a part of the body epithelium, which in this region is specially differentiated from the surrounding cells. While the epithelium of the epibranchial cavity is ciliated, the osphradial epithelium is quite devoid of cilia. Besides, the cells composing the osphradial epithelium seem to have quite lost their cell-walls, so that the spherical nuclei lie in a common mass of protoplasm. The outer surface of the epithelial layer is covered by a very delicate membrane, and at its internal surface there is a stouter basal membrane. Underlying the surface epithelium is a mass of nervous elements, composed of lot cells and nerve fibres. The cells, however, are sensory and obtain so-called differently from the ordinary caecum cells. These sensory

cells are of two kinds, one smaller than the other, and their peripheral ends through the bases of the larger cells overlap the epithelium, to form a continuous epithelium. Connections just inside the delicate outer margin of the epithelium. These structures are shown in Figs. 1 and 2. In Fig. 1, the two types of cells are shown, the larger one to the left representing the type much less numerous than the other, staining differently from them and penetrating the osphradial mass to terminate centrally differently from the smaller, more numerous cells. The internal or central connections I have not been able to determine, but this much it seems justifiable to state. The osphradial nerve from the anterior ganglion becomes so closely associated with the respiratory nerve, that it cannot be stated that it alone supplies the osphradium. Also, the large sensory cells penetrate through the osphradial mass, and especially it cannot be stated that their connection is with the osphradial nerve.

These structures I have described in detail for two reasons. In the first place, the epithelium of the osphradium is usually described as consisting of columnar cells, thick for the sensory part of the structure. This I have

found to consist of a layer of cells, the thickness of which is variable, and in which the cells are held in place by a sinuatum. The real sensory cells are the large, rounded cells lying in the deeper part of the osphradium.

In the second place, Pellenzer (10) has described the osphradium in *Tarado* and *Pholas* as innervated by a nerve from the anterior ganglion, and the latter was connected with the cerebral ganglia through the connectives. From this he concludes that the osphradia, as well as the other organs of special sense, are innervated from the cerebral ganglia. The organization of the nervous system in *Tarado*, it seems to me, lends no evidence whatever to this view. The nerve fibres received from the connectives of the anterior ganglion are quite lost in the latter and cannot be traced into any of the nerves which leave it. Moreover, the anterior ganglion may with much more reason be said to be connected with the visceral ganglion, for the branch of the so-called oesophageal nerve from it to the latter, in which large numbers of sensory fibres are received by it from the cerebro-visceral connectives. This nerve may be said to give rise to the oesophageal ganglion, the anterior ganglion, if we wish to call it that.

tail, and the cerebral ganglion is only a few millimeters from the cerebral ganglia. In some species, it is possible that the cerebral ganglion is anterior to the cerebral, but that the latter is the only center in which reflexes have been established seem not in accordance with the structure of the nervous system in general. It seems more plausible to regard the anterior ganglion as a part of the visceral which has been separated from the latter. It receives a part of the cerebro-visceral connective, and gives off some of the nerves that formerly were given off by the visceral.

From a theoretical standpoint, too, one would expect elongated forms like *Teredo* and *Pholas* to have a more direct connection between the osphradia and the reflex centres. In the osphradia test the character of the water flowing over the gills, then it is difficult to believe that in a large "Ship-worm" the nerve impulse should travel from them to the cerebral ganglion and back again through the visceral ganglia to the gill nerves before the siphons could be contracted and the inhalant current stopped. This would necessitate a considerable distance between the cerebral and visceral ganglia. It is more probable that some

tion of the viscera (see also the notes on the anatomy of the
respiratory system).

j. The Kidneys.

The kidneys (organs of Lojanus, nephridia, of Terebratula) were observed, apparently, by Feshayev, but mistaken for veins. Quatrefages also observed them but gave no adequate description. Pelsener (14) has noted the position and relations of the openings of the two ducts.

In the adult "Ship-worm" the paired kidneys lie on the lateral side of the large pericardial cavity and ventral to the anal canal, extending the long distance between the posterior adductor muscle and the visceral perforation. Each kidney consists of that segment of the body wall, which lies around the anterior face of the posterior adductor muscle (K. Fig. 10; see also the notes on the anatomy of the body wall). The kidneys sit in the pericardial cavity, with their anterior ends directed towards the anterior end of the body.

of the afferent duct, the tube is lined with a single layer of cuboidal, non-ciliated, non-excretory epithelium. The afferent duct passes posteriorly (k.a., figs. 29-31) near the midline. Just in front of the visceral sacellion it dilates, becomes convoluted internally, diverges from its fellow of the opposite side (k.a. fig. 36) and tips near the end of the efferent duct (fig. 35) to open into the posterior angles of the pericardial cavity (fig. 32) by a large funnel-shaped opening. The lining cells of the afferent duct are not vacuolated and apparently not excretory; and, are not ciliated except in the enlarged, funnel-shaped portion in which they bear strikingly long, dense cilia (fig. 64).

The efferent duct, leading from the body of the kidney to the exterior, is also a cylindrical tube, of larger diameter than the afferent duct. It runs with the afferent duct near the mid-line (k.a., figs. 10, 29-31) and in front of the visceral sacellia. As the afferent duct diverges from its fellow of the opposite side (fig. 36), it crosses dorsal to the end of the afferent duct. The afferent ducts to ventrally and dorsally (fig. 31, 32) to the

opening into the epimucous cavity, and the external
opening. The different duct is located posteriorly, and is
formed by apparently secretory cells, which are not cili-
ated except at the anterior end, and also at the external
opening.

Venous blood from the posterior end of the body re-
turns by an efferent renal vein (Figs. 33, 34, a.r.v.) which
runs in the mantle, and on a level with the posterior ends
of the kidney duct, enters the peri-renal blood spaces
(Figs. 39-41). After bathing the kidneys, it enters the
general venous circulation.

Halsander, who, it seems, observed only the poste-
rior ends of the kidney ducts, described them as such pouch-
ed. In properly prepared specimens of *K. fimbriata*, I
find that, while the body of the kidney is such pouch-
ed, the ducts form straight cylindrical tubes. The preserved
"lip-worms" are almost always very greatly swollen, and
I am inclined to believe that this accounts for Hal-
sander's results. Also, contrary to the statements in text-
books (Lane), I find that the kidney ducts of *K. fimbriata*
do not communicate with the other, as is the case in
other forms.

the larva, the first is a lateral one, the second is a dorsal one, and the third is a ventral one. As the larva grows, the first two kidneys are posterior to the coelom, the third is anterior (Fig. 10). In the early stages each kidney consists of a simple loop (Fig. 11) of which the branch opening to the exterior is the excretory. In the "Shig-form" stages, the excretory portion of the kidney remains with the coelom, while the two ducts become very long, and their openings accompany the visceral caecum.

k. The Reproductive Organs.

The first stage in which I have observed the reproductive organs, is in specimen No. 100, in which the first pair of germ cells is in the visceral caecum (Fig. 12). As growth takes place, processes are sent to the original organ, till in the adult, the sexual organs occupy a large part of the anterior part of the visceral caecum (Figs. 10, 31-33). The sexual organs are the

the subesophageal region with a few small, dark spots. The gills are yellowish, with a few dark spots. The head is broad and flat, with a few small, dark spots. The body is elongated and tapers towards the tail. The tail is short and ends in a small, dark spot. The overall appearance is that of a small, brownish insect.

In the adult Terebridae, the sexes are separate. However, young specimens (1-2 cm. long) of *T. fimbriata* are very frequently hermaphrodite. As in all such cases the spermatheca are developed first, it appears as if the species are protandrous. In the adults, I have observed no external differences between the sexes. However, in the male, there is a remarkable development of mucous gland cells on the dorsal side of the epibranchial cavity; while in the female, they are not unusually developed in this region.

1. Anatomy.

... results of ... of ... to ...

... follows: ... of ... of ... is ... typical ... - ...

... larine lamelli branch larva. ... of ... only

... cast off ... soon after the attachment of the larva.

After the loss of the velum the young Teredo is a typical

small bivalve. The loss of the velum in Teredo and in Os-

treea (which I have also observed), indicates that the for-

mation of the palps in Lamellibranchs has no connection

with the velum. A byssus apparatus is present in the new-

ly-attached larva. It is functional for but a few hours.

The position and relations of the sheath of the crystal-

line style in the larva indicate that this structure, in

... specialized lamellibranchs, is homologous

with the posterior half of the stomach in forms like Vol-

via or Venus. The pleural caudon of the larva is sep-

arate from the cerebral.

The transformation of the Teredo larva into the

adult "ship-worm" is so rapid as to amount to metamor-

phosis. Almost the whole organization is largely ...

... not, ...

... active ...

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In the "wing-words", there is a peculiarly developed set of the posterior part of the body. The body is highly specialized, muscles are isolated, the palates are highly peculiar to the o. There is on either side but a half sternidium. The anterior ten filaments for the gill-plates on the side of the "head", separated from the rest of the gill by a long distance. In close association with the gills is a prominent glandular structure of unknown function. It consists of two types of filaments of remarkable character.

Through the elongation of the visceral mass, the positions of the two aortae have been reversed; i. e., the apparent posterior aorta is the real anterior, and the apparent anterior the real posterior. The caecum of the stomach is very large and apparently an important absorbent organ. The blind end of the style sheath is tubular and of very different character from the outer part. In *Hylotrya* the typhlosole of the anterior part of the intestine is remarkably developed.

The nervous system contains the central parts of the ganglia, well developed, and is typical of the o. The

all the inner surface of the body, the outer surface of the body, and the surface of the body. The body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, the outer surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, the inner surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, and the surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium. The body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, the outer surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, the inner surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, and the surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium.

The body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, the outer surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, the inner surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, and the surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium. The body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, the outer surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, the inner surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium, and the surface of the body is covered by a thin layer of epithelium.

In the adult female, the sexes are separate. However, young individuals (1-2 cm. long) of *A. sinensis* are very frequently hermaphrodite; in all such cases the males are always developed first, indicating that the males may be protandrous. The normal sex ratio of the population is fixed as an october 1:1 ratio.

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EXPLANATION OF FIGURES.

General reference letters:

- an. Anus.
 a.a. Anterior adductor Muscle.
 a.c. Anal Canal.
 a.g. Anterior ganglion.
 ae.a. Anterior Aorta.
 ae.p. Posterior Aorta.
 a.p. Posterior adductor Muscle.
 a.p.a. Adductor Muscle of Palate.
 a.r.v. Afferent Renal Vein.
 au. Auricle.
 e.a. Afferent Branchial Vein.
 e.e. Efferent " " "
 e.s. Blood Space of Gill lamina.
 by. Bysus.
 g. Branchial Groove.
 c. Cerebral ganglion.
 c.c. Cerebral Commissure.
 c.s. Crystallin Stone.
 ce. Cæcum of Stomach.
 ce'. Cæcum of Intestine.

- c.i. Caudal Fin of the Gill.
- c.v. Caudro-ventral Connective.
- c.v. Caudro-Visceral Connective.
- d.f. Duct of the gland of Deshayes.
- d.a. Dorsal Artery.
- d.k. Dorsal pivotal Knob of the Gill.
- ep.c. Epibranchial Cavity.
- q.ca. " Canal.
- e.s. Exhalent or Anal Siphon.
- f. Foot.
- f.c. Frontal Cells of Gill.
- f. Ftenidium of Gill.
- g'. Anterior Gill Filaments.
- g.a. Ascending Limb of Gill Filament.
- g.d. Descending Limb of Gill Filament.
- g.m. Genital duct.
- g.l. Gland of Deshayes.
- gl.ep. Gland Cells of Epibranchis.
- g.o. Genital Organ.
- i. Intestine.
- i.f.j. Inter-filamentar Junction of Gill.
- i.l.s. Inter-laminar Spaces of Gill.
- i.s. Inhalent or Respiratory Siphon.

- k. Kidney.
- k.a. Anterior Side of Kidney.
- k.b. Different Side of Kidney.
- l. Liver. l.d. Liver Duct.
- l.c. Lateral Cells of Gill.
- l.f.c. Latero-Frontal Cells of Gill.
- liv. Shell Ligament
- m. Mantle.
- m.c. " Cavity.
- mu. Muscle Fibres.
- o. Mouth.
- oe. Oesophagus.
- o.n. Osmoradial Nerve.
- os. Osmoradium.
- ot. Otolithic Vesicle.
- ov. Ovary.
- p. Pedal Ganglion.
- pa. Palette.
- p.c. Pericardial Cavity.
- p.l. Gland Cells of Foot.
- pl. Pleural Ganglion.
- p.n. Radial Nerve.
- p.p. Retractor Muscle of Palette.

- r. Rectum.
- r.f. Retractor muscle of foot.
- r.p. Retractor muscle of pedicel.
- r.s. Retractor muscle of siphons.
- s. Stomach.
- s.r. Supporting rod of Gill filament.
- s.s. Sheath of Crystalline style.
- v. Visceral sacculon.
- vl. Valve of Anterior End of Ventricle.
- v.c. Velar cavity.
- ve. Ventricle.
- v.k. Ventral Pivotal Knob of the Shell Valve.
- v.m. Visceral Mass.

Explanation of Figures.

- Fig. 1. Newly-attached larva of *A. filicirata*. - Lateral view. The foot is shown fully extended. x 100.
- Fig. 2. Newly-attached larva, from the right side. - The right shell, mantle and gills removed. The cells of the disintegrating velum are not represented. The foot not fully extended. x 320.
- Fig. 3. Young "Ship-worm" of about three days attachment, from the ventral side. The shell is represented as transparent, to show the underlying gills on the sides of the visceral mass. x 250.
- Fig. 4. Same stage as fig. 3, from the left side. The left shell, mantle and gills represented as removed. The double origin of the cerebral ganglion is still shown. The visceral ganglion and kidney still lie in front of the posterior atractor. The caecum fills the foot, and has elevated the crystalline style and intestine to the left side. x 250.
- Fig. 5. Specimen of about one week in the foot. The semi-line form is becoming rapidly assumed. x 100.
- Fig. 6. Same stage as fig. 3, ventral view. Shows the attachment of the gills to the anterior end of the visceral mass. x 190.
- Fig. 7. Same as fig. 3, the anterior end, showing the

Fig. 8. Adult, from left side. The two extensions of the mantle over the snail shown on the dorsal side of the latter. The mantle also extends over the posterior margin of the shell for a short distance. The siphons are represented as fully extended, but the palettes not quite fully retracted. The mantle extends over the bases of the palettes as a collar. The attachments of the muscles of the palettes and siphons are shown. The drawing was made from a slightly contracted specimen 10 cm. long.

Fig. 9. Same as 8, the mantle removed to its line of attachment dorsally, at the two ends, to the midline.

Fig. 10. Adult, anterior half of the body, with the left shell valve, mantle and gill removed, and the pericardial cavity laid open. Half of the posterior adductor removed.

Fig. 11. Right, and fig. 12, left shell valves of newly-attached larva, internal view. The radiatory apophyses are shown below the teeth. x 320.

Fig. 13. Shell of newly-attached larva, external view. x 320.

Fig. 14. Shell of "lip-worm" (Lepidodermis) attached to shell

Fig. 12. Front view of shell of specimen a 0.1 mm. long. The shell is closed and the pivotal process is not visible. The shell is closed at all points. x 20.

Fig. 13. Left shell valve of specimen a 0.1 mm. long. Oblique view. The larval shell still shown. x 20.

Fig. 14. Left shell-valve of specimen b 0.14 mm. long. x 20.

Fig. 17. Left shell-valve of adult. x 15.

Fig. 18. Front view of shell of adult. x 15.

Fig. 19. Internal view of right valve. x 15.

Fig. 20. Left palette of specimen b 0.14 mm. long. x 140.

Figs. 21 and 22. Diagrams of the posterior end of body of adult, left side, to show the arrangement of the siphons and palettes, and their muscles. In fig. 21 the siphons are represented as extended, the palettes as retracted; in fig. 22, the siphons are represented as contracted, the palettes as protracted.

Fig. 23. Dorsal gland of the posterior part of the mantle. Section of whole gland of specimen b 0.14 mm. long. The letters are placed in the epithelial cavity. x 100.

Fig. 24. Sagittal section of a newly-attached larva. The very large glands of the foot occupy a large part of the base of the latter. A large quantity of material derived from these glands lies adjacent to the orifice of the

visibly smaller cells on the left, and the right side of the duct, and no cells are present. x 100.

Fig. 25. Transverse section of larva. The glandular part of the foot has more protruded than in Fig. 24. The ventral angle here is filled with cells comparable with Fig. 24, evidently for the rapid growth of the glandular part of the transformation. x 100.

Fig. 26. Horizontal section of specimen in which the cavity of the valva was partially obliterated. On the left side the contents of the gland of Deshayes are shown; on the right side, the duct. x 100.

Fig. 27. Transverse section of a specimen 1 cm. long, to show especially the extent and relations of the gland of Deshayes. x 250.

Figs. 28-35. A series of transverse sections of a specimen 10 cm. long, along the lines indicated in Fig. 9. The drawings were made with the aid of a camera and after the parts touched up, though not essentially changed. The details of structure are semi-diagrammatic. The first line in the sections is on the left side of the observer. All x 75.

Fig. 28. Section toward the post foot. The anterior arch and cephalic nod. Tubular part of style is situated on the right side. Anterior lobe asymmetrical, on the right side.

Fig. 29. Section through the posterior body, coal-like anterior end of pericardial cavity and posterior body of the kidney.

Fig. 30. Section through the large, posterior liver mass. Shows the distribution and character of the two important parts.

Fig. 31. Section through the large ventricle and the ovary.

Fig. 32. Section through the opening of the kidney into the pericardial cavity, the anterior ganglion and ends of the auricles. The two arrows from the right indicate the course of the water currents between the gill laminae; the one pointed dorsally, that of blood through the gill lamina. See also the distribution of the inter-laminar connections indicated by dots.

Fig. 33. Section near the posterior end of the visceral mass.

Fig. 34. Section to illustrate the structure in the lower portion of the visceral mass and the scalar collar.

Fig. 35. Section through the "collar", palatine and the base of the gill rakers.

Fig. 36. Section of a part of the mantle cavity showing the anterior and posterior scalar collars. See also Fig. 34.

Fig. 37. Transverse section of three gill laminae, showing the distribution of the inter-laminar spaces, and the elements are represented as follows. The arrows indicate the course of the water and blood currents over the lamina. The epibranchial cavity and the blood vessels are indicated by the letters which are placed in these spaces. x 312.

Fig. 38. Transverse section of three laminae almost in the line of the lower arrow in fig. 37. Two inter-laminar functions are shown. The two elements of the gland of le-shapes are shown, both as to character and distribution. x 312.

Fig. 39. Longitudinal section of a gill to show the distribution of the inter-laminar functions. x 312.

Fig. 40. Transverse section of three gill laminae, along the line shown in fig. 37, near the tip of the lamina, showing the inter-laminar functions on one side. x 360.

Fig. 41. Section of the three posterior gill elements at the side of the "hood". The one to the left is only a half filament. The letters are placed in the epibranchial canal. x 360.

Fig. 42. Group of cells from the branchial groove at the base of the gill, showing the character of the cells and the

unit of the glandular structure. x 1390.

Fig. 47. Section of the glandular structure of the gill lamina of the two parts of the gill. x 1390.

Fig. 48. Section of the duct of the glandular structure of the two parts of the gill. The epithelial cells are shown to the left and the afferent branchial vessels to the right. The great variety in the cells in the duct, is represented in x 1390.

Fig. 49. Section of two tubes of the gland of the gill lamina from a gill lamina. In the walls of the gill lamina are shown sections of the dendritic processes which penetrate along all portions of the glandular structures. x 1390.

Fig. 47. Coarser and Fig. 48, finer portions of the dendritic processes from the gill lamina of *T. navalis* represented in Fig. 47. The distribution and contents of these structures are represented in detail. x 1390.

Figs. 49-52. Four stages in the development of the structures of the glandular factor of the gland of the gill lamina. x 1390.

Fig. 53. Part of specimen 3. x 1390, dorsal view. The particles are visible through the walls of the glandular cells. x 1390.

Fig. 54. Section of the glandular structure of the gill lamina. The particles are visible through the walls of the glandular cells. x 1390.

ular valves allow blood to reach the vessels of the ventricle, and out to.

Fig. 54. Longitudinal section of the ventricle and vessels of a specimen 4 cm. long. The arrows indicate the course of the blood. The posterior constrictor muscle, and the wall of the stomach represented in part. x 44.

Fig. 55. Longitudinal section of the anterior part of the ventricle and vessels of a specimen 10 cm. long. x 44.

Fig. 57 A, group of cells from the main portion of the style sheath, and 57 B, from the tubular portion. x 1150.

Fig. 58 A, group of cells from the liver which show the usual liver structure, and 58 B, from its modified portion. x 1150.

Fig. 59. Nervous system of newly-attached larva, showing the cerebral ganglion still separate from the cerebral, and the visceral ganglia still wide apart. x 560.

Fig. 60. Nervous system of adult, dorsal view, except that the cerebral ganglia are now more fused. x 560.

Fig. 61. Section of the ospiranium, vertical to the surface, to show the structure of the ospiranium and the two types of sensory cells, with their sustentacular filaments. x 440.

Fig. 62. Horizontal section of the ospiranium, to show

the epithelium of the processes of the ovary, and the nucleus of the epithelial layer. x 174.

Fig. 53. Lateral section of the genital duct, to show the connection between the retro-visceral connective and anterior ganglion; and the origin of the sensory nerve and its distribution to the genital duct. Only a part of the sense organ was included in the section, which is from *T. navalis*, though it might represent *X. timpiata* equally well. x 544.

Fig. 54. Longitudinal Section of the genital duct, to show its extent and character, and the sense organ of the genital duct. The end of the ovary is shown, as also the related kidney near its pericardial opening. x 174.

Figs. 55 and 56. *Via rana* to show the relations of the ends of the kidneys, genital duct, pericardial cavity and visceral ganglion. Fig. 55 lateral, and Fig. 56 dorsal view.

VITA.

Charles Edgar Sierroos, son of C. O. W. and Marie Sierroos, was born the 8th of May, 1897, near Arcadia, Ohio, and has lived in that town since he was born. In 1922 to 1928. The Fall of 1927 he entered the Ohio State University, where he spent two years in preparation, and four years in college, graduating in 1931 as B.S. Since graduation he has been occupied as follows: During the fall of years 1930-31, he was Assistant in Zoology and Comparative Anatomy in the Ohio State University; 1931-2, Instructor in Biology in the University of Virginia; 1932-3, Graduate student, and 1933-4, Assistant in Zoology and Embryology, in the Johns Hopkins University. During the summer of 1933, he was with the Johns Hopkins Marine Laboratory in Jamaica; and during the summers of 1934-5, at Beaufort, North Carolina. His chief researches are in Zoology, and his other main subjects are Animal Physiology and Animal Morphology.

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