Systematics and Biogeography of Burrowing Bryozoans

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Synopsis. Current investigations of the three principal families of ectoproct bryozoan burrowers has shown that while two of the families, the Terebriporidae and the Immergentiidae, belong to the minor Order Ctenostomata, the third family, Penetrantiidae, previously considered a ctenostome, actually belongs to the major Order Cheilostomata. The implications of this are important; we have considered the burrowing bryozoans to be a small obscure group, specialized for the burrowing mode of existence. We must now consider the possibility that there may be many more species of burrowing bryozoans as yet undiscovered, that they occur in at least two of the three bryozoan orders, and that burrowing constitutes an important ecological niche or mode of adaptation for the bryozoans. While such a change may seem to be merely a taxonomic maneuver, it may also serve to emphasize the diversity of the ectoproct bryozoan groups which do burrow, and perhaps encourage research on them. At present we are making progress describing the living species, their anatomy and histology. We still know almost nothing about how they penetrate the substrate, nothing about possible effects upon the host organism, and nothing about their means of geographical distribution, although they seem to occur worldwide, burrowing primarily in molluscan shells.

The ectoproct bryozoans as important burrowing organisms have not received the recognition in study and discussion that some of the larger, more readily recognized groups have enjoyed. Since the ectoprocts have not previously been represented in a major symposium, it seems necessary to consider first the place these burrowers occupy in relation to the Phylum Ectoprocta (=Bryozoa, sensu stricto, Polyzoa) itself.

Ectoprocts are primarily marine colonial organisms which inhabit the seas from brackish waters and the intertidal zone to abyssal depths, and from the tropics to the Arctic and Antarctic. There are soft gelatinous trailing colonies, arborescent chitinous or calcareous colonies, fenestrate and foliaceous colonies, and colonies that form unilaminar or multilaminar calcareous crusts. Substrata occupied include wood, concrete, rock, steel, glass, rope, shell, coral, crustaceans, echinoderms, worm tubes,

brachiopoda, ascidians—in other words virtually any firm surface of living or dead animals, or of inanimate objects, that happens to be in relatively sheltered, relatively silt-free waters will serve. And there are ectoprocts which burrow into calcareous and noncalcareous substrata.

There are perhaps some 4,000 living species of ectoproct bryozoans, with estimates given of up to 15,000 fossil species. We have records on nearly 50 species of burrowers, but of these only 16 have had the anatomy described. At the present time burrowers form only a very small percentage of the total number of ectoproct species.

Current work on burrowing ectoproct bryozoans is directed toward studies of taxonomy, anatomy, and distribution. The burrowing bryozoans constitute a heterogeneous assemblage of species having in common the burrowing habit. They have,

with two or three exceptions, previously been considered to be restricted to three families in one order, the Ctenostomata, in the Phylum Ectoprocta. This study has indicated that while two of the families belong to the less prominent Order Ctenostomata, the third family actually belongs to the major Order Cheilostomata, the most abundant of the living ectoproct bryozoans. Having previously considered the burrowing bryozoans as a small obscure group, specialized for the burrowing mode of life, we must now consider the possibility that there are many more burrowing bryozoan species as yet undiscovered, that they occur in at least two of the three major orders, and that burrowing constitutes a major ecological niche or mode of adaptation for bryozoans just as some of them inhabit harbors as part of the fouling community or encrust the corals as part of the reef community.

There are three principal genera, the Terebripora, Immergentia, and Penetrantia, with a fourth, the genus Spathipora, still of uncertain validity. The genus Terebripora was erected by d'Orbigny in 1847

on the basis of tracings found in molluscan shells collected in the waters off the coast of Chile and Peru. The genus Spathipora was erected by Fischer in 1866 from tracings on molluscan shell also from South American waters, off Chile. However, the anatomical structure of the zoids of these two genera remained unknown until Marcus (1938), working on material from Brazilian waters, described and figured the zoids of Terebripora ramosa d'Orbigny. In addition, using material that was reconstituted. Marcus outlined the superficial structure of what he considered to be Spathipora sertum Fischer. Apertures of his illustrated S. ditrupae resemble penetrantid openings, while his S. sertum apertures resemble terebriporids.

A limited survey of available literature documented records of 11 Recent species of *Terebripora* and 16 species from the fossil record, a total of 27 species described between 1847 and 1968 (Tables 1 and 2). Of the 27 species of *Terebripora*, anatomical details are known only on 4 of them. The genus *Spathipora* contains some 5 species (Table 3). The anatomy is not known

TABLE 1. Geographic locations and hosts of Recent Terebripora.

Family Terebriporidae d'Orbigny, 1847

Genus Terebripora d'Orbigny, 1847

Species	Citation	Location	Host
T. ramosa	d'Orbigny, 1847:23 Fischer, 1866:299 *Marcus, 1938:281-	Peru Chile, Peru Brazil	Calyptraea Calyptraea, Crepidula molluscs
$T.\ irregular is$	d'Orbigny, 1847 : 23 Fischer, 1866 : 299	Falkland Isls. Falkland Isls.	$egin{array}{c} ext{molluses} \ ext{\it Pecten} \end{array}$
$T.\ antillarum$	Fischer, 1866:300	Antilles Seas	Strombus, Fasciolaria
$T.\ pusilla$	Fischer, 1866:300	China Seas	Pectinidae, Peignes
$T.\ reticulum$	Fischer, 1866:301	Indian Ocean	Septifer
$T.\ orbignyana$	Fischer, 1866:301 Marcus, 1938:284	Mediterranean Brazil	Ostrca, Conus, Triton Fissurellidae
T. fischeri	Jullien, 1880:142 Marcus, 1938:286-	Cape Verde Isls. Brazil	Buccin (operculum) mollusc
$T.\ ditrupae$	Norman, 1907:208-	Shetland Isls.	†Ditrupa (serpulid)
$(S.\ ditrupae)$	Marcus, 1938:291-	Brazil	Cardiidae, Pectinidae
T. comma	*Soule, 1950:380– *Bobin & Prenant, 1954:130– Gautier, 1956:336– Soule, 1963:21	California Mediterranean Mediterranean West Mexico	Polinices, Epitonium Nassa Nassa, Murex, Fusus, etc. molluse
$T.\ eltaninae$	*Soule & Soule, 1968:178-	Palmer Penin., Antarctica	†Cephalodiscus sps. (hemichordate)
$T.\ varians$	*Soule & Soule, 1969	Hawaiian Isls.	Conus

^{*} Anatomy figured

TABLE 2. Geographic locations and hosts of fossil Terebripora.

Family Terebriporidae d'Orbigny, 1847

Genus Terebripora d'Orbigny, 1847

Fossil Species	Citation	Location	Host
T. orbignyana	Fischer, 1866:301	Pliocene: Italy, France	cones, shell marl
$T.\ falunica$	Fischer, 1866:301-	Tertiary: France	Conus, Cypraea, Voluta, Calyptraea, Terebra, et
$T.\ eocenica$	Fischer, 1866:302	Eocene: England	Fusus
T. arachiaci	Fischer, 1866:302	Eocene: France	Ostrea, †Serpula tube
$T.\ contorta$	Fischer, 1866:302	Eocene: France	Rostellaria -
$T.\ producta$	Fischer, 1866:303	Jurassic:France	Ostrea
T. arachne	Fischer, 1866:303	Jurassic:France	Lima, Ostrea
T. propinqua	Fischer, 1866:304	Jurassic : France	Belemnites, Arca, etc.
T. antiqua	d'Orbigny, 1850:394	— :France	
_	Haime, 1854:217	Jurassie : France	
	Fischer, 1866:304-	Jurassic : France	Helcion
(V. michelini)	Terquem, 1855:344	Luxembourg, Fr.	Lima
T. michelini	Fischer, 1866:305	Jurassic : Lux., Fr.	Lima, Ammonites
$T.\ quenstedti$	Fischer, 1866:306	Jurassie : France	Plagiostoma, Ammonites
T. ? $portlocki$	Fischer, 1866:307	Silurian:Ireland	†trilobites
$T.\ parvicella$	Canu & Bassler, 1923:15	Miocene: Virginia	
$T.\ sine filum$	Canu & Bassler, 1923:15	Miocene : Jamaica	
$T.\ elongata$	Canu & Bassler, 1923:15	Miocene:Jamaica	
T. pacifica	Canu & Bassler, 1923:15	Pleistocene: Calif.	

[†] Non-molluscan host

with any certainty, and the tracings are quite varied as reported.

In 1946, virtually 100 years after d'Orbigny's description of *Terebripora*, Silén erected two new genera, *Penetrantia* and *Immergentia*, based upon anatomical studies of the zoids of newly discovered species. At the present time, 7 species of *Penetrantia* and 6 species of *Immergentia* have been described, with the anatomy known on all (Tables 4 and 5).

Altogether at least 48 species of burrowing ectoproct bryozoans have been de-

scribed and assigned to the three genera. Of these, 31 cannot be identified with certainty as they are known only by tracings on the molluscan shells made by the zoid openings and the stolonal meshwork. The folly of trying to identify the species solely on the basis of surface tracings has been pointed out by Silén (1946, 1947) and Soule (1950). There are probably many other citations in the fossil literature that refer to bryozoan tracings but are of unrecognized affinities.

Several other genera of burrowing

TABLE 3. Geographic locations and hosts of Recent and Fossil Spathipora.

Family Terebriporidae d'Orbigny, 1847

Genus Spathipora Fischer, 1866

Recent Species	Citation	Location	\mathbf{Host}
S. clegans	Fischer, 1866:309	Chile	Calyptraea
S. sertum	Fischer, 1866:309-	France,	Lutraria, Cardium, Pectunculus
	Marcus, 1938:288	Mediterranean Brazil	Triton shells
Fossil Species			
S. sertum	Fischer, 1866:309-	Tertiary: France	Voluta, Conus, Terebra, Calyptraea, etc.
S. incerta	Fischer, 1866:310	Jurassic: France	Lima
S. longicauda	Canu & Bassler, 1923:16	Miocene: Virginia	shell
S. longirima	Canu & Bassler, 1923:16	Pliocene:So. Carolina	shell
S. cucullata	Canu & Bassler, 1923:16	Miocene: Virginia	shell

Species	Citation	Location	Host
P. densa	*Silén, 1946:2-; 1947:4-	S. W. Africa Panama?	Burnupena sp. Lathyrus
	*Soule, 1950:360-	So. California	Tegula, Olivella, Acmea, Haliotis Acanthina, Fissurella
	Soule, 1963:22-	W. Mexico	molluses
P. parva	*Silén, 1946:4-; 1947:4-	New Zealand	Northia
	*Soule & Soule, 1969	Hawaiian Isls.	Conus
$P.\ brevis$	*Silén, 1946 : 4 ; 1947 : 4–	Mediterranean; Madeira	Gibbula, Pisania, Cantharus ; Gibbula
			•
P. concharum	*Silén, 1946:5–; 1947:4–	Sweden; Norway	Buccinum, Littorina; Neptunea, Turritella, Anomia, Astarte, Cardia, Mytilus, Pec- ten sp., †Balanus (barnacle)
	*Soule, 1950:360-	So. California; W. Mexico	Tegula, Haliotis; Mytilus
$P.\ sileni$	*Soule, 1950:361-	W. Mexico	Dentalium
P. irregularis	*Silén, 1956:93-	New Zealand	Mytilus
P. operculata	*Soule & Soule, 1969	Hawaiian Isls.	Conus

^{*} Anatomy figured

† Non-molluscan host

bryozoans with uncertain affinities have been described in the literature (Table 6). Watersiana paessleri Calvet, 1912 was reported once, from an ascidian collected off Tierra del Fuego. The anatomy of its zoids was detailed very poorly; we know only that it had 9 tentacles, a gizzard, and that its point of stolonal attachment was near the basal extremity. Unfortunately, no illustrations of this species were ever published. It seems possible that it is a species of Terebripora.

Harmeriella terebrans Borg, 1940, was

described from the Marshall Islands and has never been found elsewhere. Both are distinctly different from other burrowing bryozoans. Harmeriella bears a rasp-like organ in the aperture. It inhabits the cavities of an incrusting bryozoan, Tubiporella, boring through adjacent zooecial walls. Hypophorella expansa Ehlers, 1876, has been collected a number of times from cool temperate European waters. Hypophorella, which has chitinous plates in the apertural lips, burrows in the walls of polychaete worm tubes composed of sand

TABLE 5. Geographic locations and hosts of Immergentia.

Family Immergentiidae Silén, 1946

Genus Immergentia Silén, 1946

Species	Citation	Location	Host
I. californica	*Silén, 1946:6-; 1947:40- *Soule, 1950:364	No. California So. California	Tegula Tegula, Littorina, Acanthina, Haliotis
	Soule, 1963:22	W. Mexico	gastropods, pelecypods
I. zelandica	*Silén, 1946:6-; 1947:40-	New Zealand	Euthria
I. zelandica, var. minuta	*Soule, 1950:367 *Soule & Soule, 1969	Philippine Isls. Hawaiian Isls.	Gena Conus, Cypraea
I. suecica	*Silén, 1947:46-	W. Sweden	Pecten
I. philippinensis	*Soule, 1950:366-	Philippine Isls.	Gena
I. angulata	*Soule & Soule, 1969	Hawaiian Isls.	Pisania

^{*} Anatomy figured

TABLE 6. Geographic locations and hosts of miscellaneous burrowing bryozoans of uncertain affinities.

Species	Citation	Location	Host
Hypophorella expansa	*Ehlers, 1876:1-	North sea	† Terebella tube
	*Prouho, 1892:594-	France	†Chactopterus tube
	Harmer, 1897:51-	Britain	,,,
	Nichols, 1906:87	Ireland	",
	*Marcus, 1940:321-	Denmark	"
	Dons, 1940:14	Norway	"
	*Prenant & Bobin, 1956:272-	France	. " "
(Delagia chaetopteri), $\equiv H.$ expansa	*Joyeux-Laffuie, 1888 <i>a</i> : 623–, 1888 <i>b</i> : 135–	France	",
Harmeriella terebrans	*Borg, 1940:427-	Marshall Isls., W. Pacific	†Tubiporella (Bryozoa
Watersiana paessleri	Calvet, $1912a:1-1912b:395$	Tierra del Fuego	†Polyzoa (Ascidian)
$Bulbella\ abscondita$	*Braem, 1951:34-	North Sea	†Coniferous twigs in brackish water
Fossil species			
Ropalonaria venosa	Ulrich, 1879:16	Silurian: Ohio	$\dagger Streptelasma$

^{*} Anatomy figured

† Non-molluscan host

and organic matter. The *Hypophorella* apertures open into the interior of the worm tubes where they can take advantage of the water circulated by the worm for feeding.

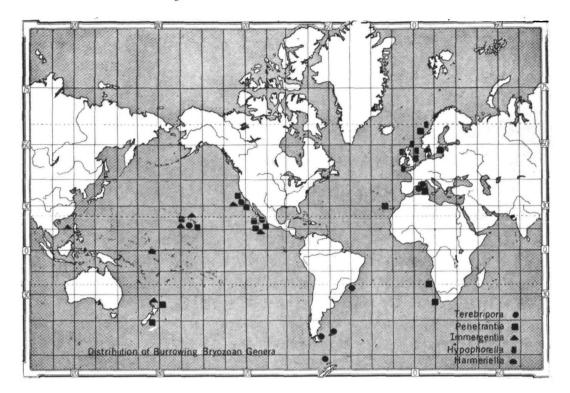
An odd species, Bulbella abscondita Braem, 1951, burrows in coniferous twigs in brackish waters of the North Sea.

DISTRIBUTION

Despite a rather scanty literature (approximately 20 papers since 1847), the geographical distribution of the three main genera of burrowing bryozoans is surprisingly wide. This is due largely to the work of Silén (1946, 1947, 1956), whose species of Penetrantia and Immergentia came from the Scandinavian area (Sweden, Norway), northern California, New Zealand, the Mediterranean, and South Africa, and to Soule (1950a,b, 1963, 1968, 1969) who described species of Terebripora, Immergentia, and Penetrantia from southern California, Baja California, and the Gulf of California, Mexico, the Philippine Islands, Antarctica, and the Hawaiian Islands. The distribution map (below), however, reflects the distribution of workers and collections as much as, or more than, it represents the distribution of species at this point.

While obviously our information will be modified by additional records, we have noted species of Terebripora in waters ranging from arctic/subarctic temperatures (T. eltaninae), to cool temperate and warm temperate waters (T. ramosa, T. comma) and in subtropical waters (T. varians). The majority of the records are from cool and warm temperate waters. Species of the genus Penetrantia have been reported from temperate waters, (P. concharam, P. irregularis, P. densa, P. brevis, P. parva, P. sileni), and tropical/subtropical waters (P. densa, P. parva, P. operculata). Species of Immergentia are known from cool temperate waters (I. californica, I. suecia), warm temperate (I. zelandica, I. californica), and tropical/subtropical (I. zelandica minuta, I. philippinensis, I. angulata). Bathymetric data are equally sparse, with Penetrantia and Immergentia recorded from shallow tidepools to over 400 m; Terebripora has been recorded from 20 m to over 400 m.

Our knowledge of the mechanism of larval transport of the burrowing bryozoans is non-existent. Nothing is known of the larval type or its span of pelagic life or of the nature of the ancestrula of the colony. Some of the burrowing ectoprocts inhabit



molluscs (Conus and Cyprea) known for long distance larval transport (Thorson, 1961; Hertlein and Emerson, 1953). Possibly the ancestrula of the burrower could adhere to the shell of the molluscan larva, and thus be carried some distance from its original point of origin before starting colonies in the growing shell.

BURROWING MECHANISMS

Since Silén's work (1947) no one, apparently, has investigated the burrowing mechanism of bryozoans. Silén found that quantitative analysis of dry shell invaded by *Penetrantia densa* showed a higher content of phosphate ions compared to that of an uninvaded shell. No other differences were found. He reported similar results from comparative microanalysis of invaded and non-invaded parts of the same mollusc. From this, Silén concluded that phosphoric acid was utilized by the bryozoan. He also found a relatively high concentration of phosphate ions associated with the growing tips of the stolons. Efforts to iden-

tify specific secretory cells in the stolonal tips were not successful. No boring organs are present in the penetrantids, terebriporids, or immergentids. The small size of the zoids (under 1 mm) and of the stolonal tips, only $10-15~\mu$ in diameter, plus their complete immersion in the molluscan shell, tends to discourage histochemical studies of enzymatic activity.

ANATOMY

Marcus (1938) was the first to describe and figure the anatomy of the burrowing bryozoans, and his work on Terebripora ramosa d'Orbigny served as the basis for all subsequent studies on Terebripora, Immergentia, and Penetrantia. Species of the genus Terebripora show a single main stolonal attachment on the side of the body about midway between the distal (apertural) and proximal (caudal) extremities. The zoids are cylindrical, range from 300 μ to slightly over 600 μ in length, and are non-calcareous with a thin chitinous cuticle. The apertural opening on

the free surface is rounded to irregularly square. Short, thin, filamentous bristles of the setigerous collar may extend from the vestibular membrane which closes the opening. Contained within the zoid is the polypide consisting of the tentacles, alimentary canal, musculature, nerve meshwork, and reproductive organs (Fig. 1).

The aperture leads into a vestibular region that is provided with two sets of muscles that serve as dilators, opening the vestibule for the passage of the tentacular bundle through the orifice. In the four species of Terebripora for which the anatomy is known, the number of tentacles is relatively constant for the species (8, T. comma; 10, T. eltaninae; 11, T. varians; and 12, T. ramosa). The musculature of the apertural region is typical of that seen in ctenostome bryozoans, (m. parieto vaginales and m. parieto diaphragmati). The tentacle-bundle is invested in a thin tentacle-sheath. The "U"-shaped digestive tract opens at the base of the tentacles and is composed of foregut, stomach, and intestine. The foregut consists of the mouth, pharynx, and esophagus; the stomach is made up of a cardia, gizzard, caecum, and pylorus. In the Terebripora the gizzard is often a large conspicuous structure. The intestine terminates in an anal opening adjacent to the crown of tentacles. Histologically, the digestive tract is similar in all respects to that of other bryozoans.

The polypide is extended as the dilator muscles of the vestibule contract allowing the tentacles to protrude from the zoid. The force extruding the tentacles is an increase in hydrostatic pressure of the fluid-filled coelomic cavity caused by the contraction of the laterally placed parietal muscles which decrease the volume of the body cavity. Retraction of the polypide is accomplished by the retractor muscles that are attached to the polypide in the region of the esophagus and are anchored to the body wall at the proximal tip of the zoid.

In Terebripora, zoids are also seen which contain embryos developing within the body cavity, *i.e.*, intracoelomic development (Fig. 2). In these the polypides

are in varying stages of degeneration, a fairly common phenomenon among the ctenostome bryozoans. In both feeding zoids and reproductive zoids variable numbers of irregular structures termed "brown bodies" are often found; these are composed of polypides which have previously degenerated and been replaced by new ones generated at the apertural area of the coelomic lining.

Silén (1946) erected the genus Immergentia for a group of small, burrowing, ctenostomatous bryozoans, characterized by having noncalcareous zoids whose paired stolonal attachments are on either side of the aperture-like arms. Protruding from the aperture is a delicate setigerous collar. Of the six known species, the range in length is from 180 μ (I. angulata) to about 350 μ (I. californica). The zoids are cylindrical, some tapering to a pointed proximal extremity. Anatomically, the immergentids show a polypide structure similar to that of Terebripora and other stolonate ctenostomes except that the digestive tract is devoid of a gizzard (Fig. 3). Occasional individuals with ova and embryos in various stages of development in the coelomic cavity are seen. In these zoids the polypide is often degenerated and brown bodies are present (Fig. 4).

Silén (1946) erected the genus *Penetrantia* for a group of burrowing bryozoans with very distinctive characteristics which set this group apart from both *Terebripora* and *Immergentia*. The feeding zoids (autozoids) of the species of *Penetrantia* are relatively large, ranging from 360μ (*P. sileni*) to more than 600μ in length (*P. densa*, *P. brevis*, *P. irregularis*).

Anatomically, the species of the genus *Penetrantia* bear a single stolonal attachment on the side of the zoid, near the apertural extremity. The autozoids are elongated, cylindrical, and noncalcareous, and their caudal extremity is either blunt or tapering. Sections show the body to be double-walled in contrast to that of *Terebripora* and *Immergentia*. The aperture is provided with a chitinous operculum that is closed by occlusor muscles. The

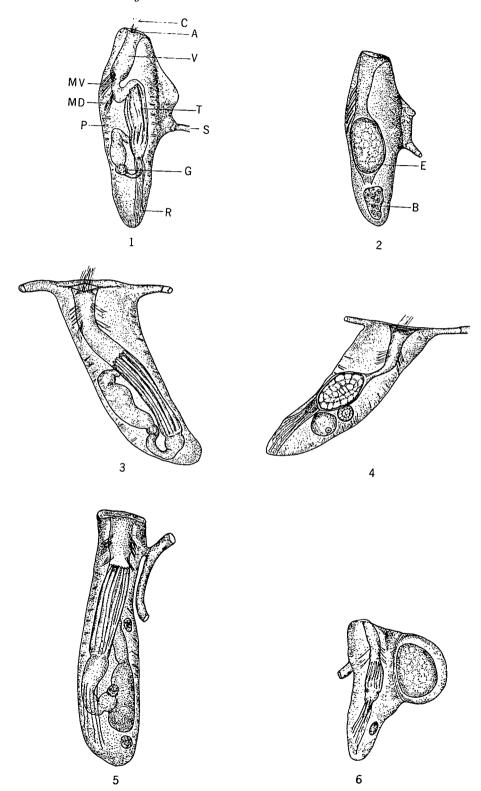


FIG. 1. Terebripora, feeding zoid, showing musculature, polypide anatomy, and stolonal attachment. FIG. 2. Terebripora, in reproduction, with embryo and brown bodies.

FIG. 3. Immergentia, showing zoid anatomy and stolonal placement.

FIG. 4. Immergentia, zoid in reproduction, showing the position of the embryo.

FIG. 5. Penetrantia, the autozoid, with polypide

anatomy and point of stolonal attachment. FIG. 6. Penetrantia, a gonozoid, showing the swollen embryo chamber and reduced polypide.

Legend, all figures: A, aperture; B, brown body; C, setigerous bristles of collar; E, embryo; G, gizzard; MV, vestibular dilator muscle; MD, diaphragm-dilator muscle; P, parietal muscle; R, retractor muscle; S, stolon; T, tentacles; V, vestibule.

"U"-shaped digestive tract is provided with a small gizzard. Brown bodies are often found in the coelomic cavity (Fig. 5). Tentacle-counts vary with species, from 10 to 14.

Reproductive activity in *Penetrantia* involves the formation of distinctive, two-chambered gonozoids; each has a large bulbous embryo chamber and a reduced polypide chamber, separated by a septum (Fig. 6). The septum apparently is resorbed when the embryo is fully developed, allowing the embryo to pass out through the aperture. Among the various species, the morphology of the gonozoid varies sufficiently that it furnishes an important diagnostic characteristic. The gonozoids with embryos show polypides in varying stages of degeneration.

Little is known about the structure of *Spathipora* other than the orientation of its single stolonal connection at or near the caudal end of the zoid (Marcus, 1938). It is really a presumption to say that the anatomical relations place them near or with *Terebripora* and *Immergentia*.

Tracings of the burrowing bryozoans found on the surface of molluscan shells are produced by the stolonal meshwork and the apertures of the cavities occupied by the zoids. Generally, the apertures of the immergentids form elongated fusiform markings due to the attachment of the stolons on either side of the aperture while those of the terebriporids are usually an irregular ("teardrop") shape. The zoid openings of the penetrantids often are circular or subcircular. Silén (1947) noted the presence of a superficial "calcareous tooth" projecting from the rim of the shell openings of P. concharum and P. brevis. Examination of the deeper aspects of the

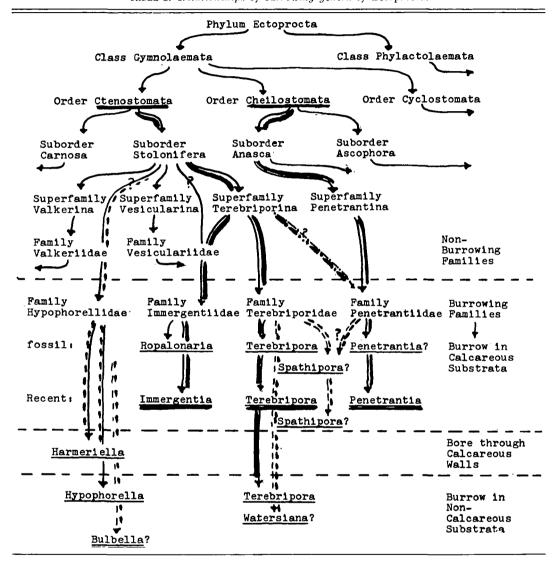
zoid openings reveals a central denticle and a pair of lateral pointed projections which are analogous to the "lyrula" and the "lateral cardelles" seen in the apertural openings of cheilostome genera such as *Parasmittina*. This, no doubt, is an adaptation to the presence of the operculum in the penetrantids.

In worn fossil material the zooecial cavities themselves may be exposed. Immergentid zoids grow in a curve beneath the shell surface and so tend to leave ovoid holes. Terebriporids leave elongate subovoid holes due to the "shoulder" to which the stolon is attached. Penetrantid zooecia leave round holes, but the gonozoids, having two chambers separated by a septum, show double holes.

TAXONOMY

It would appear from the foregoing discussion that, in terms of polypide anatomy and reproduction, the genera Terebripora and Immergentia are best classified in the Order Ctenostomata (Table 7). These genera are placed in families of the Suborder Stolonifera, one of the two major categories of ctenostome bryozoans, as part of a superfamily level specialized for burrowing, the Terebriporina (Soule, 1953). They have the typical ctenostome aperture, the setigerous collar, the thin, singlelayered, body wall, and coelomic brooding for reproduction. It has also been shown that during post-larval development the zoids of the Terebripora and the Immergentia exhibit the same developmental sequence of groups of muscles as other members of the Stolonifera (Soule, 1954). That is, the apertural muscles form first, followed by the retractors, and finally the

TABLE 8. Relationships of burrowing genera of Ectoprocta.



parietals. (For comparison, in the other suborder of the Ctenostomata, the Carnosa, the sequence is: parietals, first; retractors, second; and aperturals, third).

Most of the species of the Order Cheilostomata have calcified body walls but some are chitinous. Characteristically, the zoids have an operculum and a double body wall. A high degree of polymorphism occurs in cheilostomes; in addition to the feeding autozoids, there are gonozoids for reproduction and other specialized zoids (kenozoids) such as avicularia. Some

cheilostomes have stolons, tubes of body wall divided into internodes by septa, (seen as rootlets or rhizoids in *Scrupocellaria*, *Bugula*, *Flustra*, or as lateral connections in *Beania* or *Stolonella*). Stolons are regarded as highly modified zoids.

Penetrantia has a double body wall, an operculum, gonozoids, and broods outside the coelom containing the polypide (extra-coelomic brooding). The apertural denticles are similar to those found in cheilostomes. Soule (1954) showed that the sequence of formation of muscle groups in

TABLE 7. Partial classification of ectoproct bryozoans showing position of burrowing superfamilies.

Phylum Ectoprocta Class Gymnolaemata Order Cheilostomata Busk, 1852 Suborder Anasca Levinsen, 1909 Superfamilies (Division) Inovicellata Jullien, 1888 TT Penetrantina, Soulé & Soule, new super-Family Penetrantiidae Silén, 1946 IIIScrupariina Silén 1942 Malacostega Levinsen, 1909 IV V Coilostega Levinsen, 1909 VΙ Pseudostega Levinsen, 1909 Cellularina Smitt, 1868 VIII Cribimorpha Harmer, 1926 Order Ctenostomata Busk, 1852 Suborder Stolonifera Ehlers, 1876 Superfamilies Vesicularina Waters, 1910 Valkerina Silén, 1942 Terebriporina Soule, 1953 Family Terebriporiidae d'Orbigny, 1847 Immergentiidae Silén, 1946

Penetrantia was distinctly different from that of any of the ctenostome bryozoans in that the retractors appeared first, the apertural group second, and the parietals last.

Since the Penetrantia possess a number of important characteristics of the Order Cheilostomata, and, in the light of present evidence, show only tenuous affinities with the Order Ctenostomata, it is proposed to move the genus from the Terebriporina grouping of the stoloniferan ctenostomes into the Cheilostomata, Anasca. Because of their distinctive structure and burrowing mode of existence, which differs from all other cheilostomes, the superfamily Penetrantina is proposed for these burrowers with the following characteristics: Zoaria (colonies) burrowing; zoids, cylindrical, separate, joined by branching stolons arising near the distal extremity; aperture closed by a movable operculum. Gonozoids with expanded, bulbous embryo chamber separated from polypide coelom.

While such a change may seem to be merely a taxonomic maneuver, it serves to emphasize the diversity of the ectoproct groups which do burrow. From the foregoing discussions we may infer that the burrowing species are polyphyletic in derivation (Table 8). Burrowing, then, is considered to constitute one type of adaptation to an ecological niche comparable to other bryozoan adaptations such as encrusting forms found on many substrata, arborescent forms found in quiet waters, and fenestrate forms found in deep waters. At present we are in the 19th century as far as knowledge of the number of burrowing species that exist. We also know almost nothing about the mechanisms of penetration; consequently we have limited the use of the term "boring" to the rare species, Harmeriella, which has a rasping organ for mechanical penetration, either by enlarging existing holes or making new ones. The three species known to inhabit noncalcareous substrata may simply push through the interstices of the hosts, but the great majority of burrowing bryozoans probably penetrate by chemical means, as yet unknown.

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