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THE ORIGIN AND EARLY PHYLOGENY OF THE CHEILOSTOMATOUS BRYOZOA

Abstract. — The phylogenetic development of the Cheilostomata has tentatively been reconstructed from the oldest, Upper Jurassic forms, not developing heterozoecia, through the successive formation of ovicells, peristomial spines and avicularia, up to the formation of a secondary frontal wall by the development of cryptocyste or by the fusion of spines. Significant similarities in the structure of the zoecial wall of primitive Cheilostomata and Cyclostomata are stated. The hypothesis has been formed that primitive, stomatoporoidal Cyclostomata were the ancestors of the Cheilostomata. The Ctenostomata evolved also from the same forms as the Cheilostomata. A tentative biological interpretation of polymorphism and morphological gradient in a bryozoan colony has also been conducted. Seven species of the Cheilostomata have been described from the Cretaceous of Poland and a new genus, Wawalia gen.n. and a new family, Wawaliidae fam.n. have been erected.

INTRODUCTION

Silen's (1942) hypothesis, almost unanimously accepted by other bryozoologists, assumes the evolution of the Cheilostomata from the Ctenostomata through the mediation of forms of the Labiostomella type, by forming ovicells and transforming vertically growing branches of colony into peristomial spines. In this sense, the Calloporidae s.s. are the most primitive Cheilostomata. In the times when this hypothesis was formed, it was impossible to correlate it with palaeontological data, since those on the Lower Cretaceous bryozoan faunas were scarce. In addition, an inappropriate determination of the age of some of them was misleading. Thus, Voigt (1942, 1968a) proved that part of the bryozoans, described by Reuss (1872, see Voigt, 1942) as Cenomanian, were Danian and those, described by Gregory (1894) as Middle Jurassic, were Maastrichtian. As shown by new data on the early Cheilostomata (Cheetham, 1954; Thomas & Larwood, 1960; Boardman & Cheetham, 1969, 1973; Scott, 1970; Pohowsky, 1973), typical Calloporidae do not occur earlier than in the Cenomanian and all older forms are considerably simpler in structure and not related to the Labiostomella.

The findings of new Cheilostomatous Bryozoa from the Lower and Middle Cretaceous of Poland and the comparative materials from the Upper Cretaceous of Poland have served me as a basis for a tentative reconstruction of the early phylogenetic stages of the Cheilostomata and explanation of their origin.

The abbreviations used for marking collections:

JD — the writer's collection, housed in the Palaeozoological Institute of the Polish Academy of Science, Warsaw.

MZ-Museum of the Earth, Polish Academy of Science, Warsaw.

ZPAL UW --- Palaeozoological Laboratory, Institute of Geology of the University of Warsaw.

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PHYLOGENY OF THE CHEILOSTOMATA

Of all Cheilostomata, the phylogeny of the suborder Cribrimorpha only has so far been described preliminarily (Lang, 1921; Larwood, 1962). Due to the erroneous determination of the age of the faunas important phylogenetically, as well as to the scarcity of the paleontological records of the early stages of their evolutionary development, the remaining Cheilostomata have never been studied from this viewpoint. New data on forms from the Uppermost Jurassic of England (Pohowsky, 1973) and Middle Cretaceous of Texas (Cheetham, 1954; Thomas & Larwood, 1960; Boardman & Cheetham, 1969, 1973; Scott, 1970), along from those on the materials from the Lower and Middle Cretaceous of Poland may already serve as a basis for phylogenetic considerations (text-fig. 1).

Evolution of Cheilostomata Anasca

Pyriporopsis portlandensis Pohowsky, 1973 from the Upper Portlandian of England is the oldest known and probably the most primitive species of the cheilostomatous Bryozoa. It does not display specialization in the structure of zoecia, has a long gymnocyst and a crenulate margin of opesium, without peristomial spines, ovicells and avicularia. Its disorderly system of astogeny may be considered as transitional between the types of astogeny characteristic of the genera Stomatopora and Wilbertopora (Text-fig. 2c). A similar system of astogeny and the morphology of zoecia is recorded in the Albian species Pyripora texana Thomas & Larwood, 1956 and in the Santonian species Herpetopora parvicauda Voigt, 1930. The uniserial stage also occurs in the early development of the Albian colony of a form illustrated by Boardman & Cheetham (1973, Fig. 39c), as Wilbertopora mutabilis. Colonies of the Albian bryozoans with a similar astogenetic development are described by Scott (1970, Pl. 1, Fig. 2) as Membranipora kiowana Scott, 1970. A considerable elongation of gymnocyste (cauda) and a full passage to a triadic proliferation occurred in the Albian and later species of the genera Pyripora and Rhammatopora. Other development trends were started by Wawalia sp. from the Middle Valanginian. In Wawalia crenulata gen. et sp.n. from the boundary between the Valanginian and Hauterivian crenulate opesial margin was considerably extended. The boundaries of the zone of crenulation undoubtedly correspond to the margin of soft tissues secreting the skeleton. In the Maastrichtian Fissuricella Voigt, 1959 they surround the entire zoecium.

Ovicells first appear in the Middle Albian species Wilbertopora mutabilis Cheetham, 1954 and, in the family Alderinidae s.s. derived from it, they make up the only differentiation of zoecia. Avicularia, that is, zooids with operculum transformed into a movable jaw, probably appeared later. The evolutionarily oldest avicularia, differ neither in size nor in the manner of budding from autozoecia (Boardman & Cheetham, 1973, Fig. 40c). Thus, the specialization of operculum probably preceded a decrease in the dimensions of avicularia. In the later, Upper Albian (Text-fig. 7) and Cenomanian (Lang, 1915; Boardman & Cheetham, 1973, Fig. 40b) representatives of the genus Mystriopora, avicularia are smaller and more specialized.

The formation of peristomial spines opened new evolutionary prospects to the Cheilostomata, Incipient, small spines were already observed in the Middle Albian forms (Boardman & Cheetham, 1973) and were considerably developed in the Cenomanian genus *Anaptopora* (Text-fig. 8). Their medial fusion led to the formation, in the Lower Cenomanian, of the order Cribrimorpha (Lang, 1921; Larwood, 1969) (Text-fig. 11).

Recent species of the genus *Electra* are devoid of ovicells and avicularia, but, despite this fact, their spines are well developed. Forms marked by such a structure are unknown from the Cretaceous. The presumable spine bases in the Middle Cretaceous *Rhammatopora* (Thomas & Larwood, 1960) are so small that they may make up crenulae of the opesial margin. After all, the genus *Rhammatopora* is sufficiently specialized for the assumption that its relationship to the *Electra* is rather unlikely. The Recent *Electra*, *Flustra* and *Membranipora* s.s., along with other, related genera, seem to make up a uniform group marked by a progressive reduction in gymnocyste and in the polymorphism of a colony. Until the phylogeny of this group is studied more accurately, I assume a secondary simplification of forms belonging here as compared with the Calloporidae.

Forms with a strongly developed cryptocyste appear in the Lower Cenomanian. They include both the species having peristomial spines (for example, *Hapsidopora*) and devoid of them (*Rhagasostoma*). This may be interpreted by assuming an independent origin of cryptocyste in various phylogenetical lines, some of them derived from the species of the Calloporidae, not yet having spines and some others from the species which are more advanced evolutionary. We may also assume a secondary reduction of spines occurring together with the development of cryptocyste. Regardless of which of these interpretations is correct, it seems advisable to separate the forms having spines and a large cryptocyste as an independent taxon. In the most primitive Aspidostomatidae, the cryptocyste is porous also in avicularia (reticulocellaria). The muscles which pull the frontal membrane occupy, in the Aspidostomatidae, the corners of opesium, while the Microporidae have separate apertures in cryptocyste.

According to Banta (1970), *Anasca* "appears to be equally artificial" and should be divided into a few suborders. However, as follows from the phylogenetic considerations presented above, the *Anasca* are a monophyletic group. The same is probably true of the *Asciophora* if we exclude from them and transfer to the *Cribrimorpha* the forms having frontal wall of the costal origin. The replacement of the clear division of the Cheilostomata, into three suborders, so far accepted with a more involved one seems to be, therefore unnecessary.

Origin of the Ctenostomata

The oldest Ctenostomata are known from the Ordovician (Pohowsky, 1974). These forms are penetrating in the calcareous substrate. They have been found also in the Devonian (Richards, 1974), Upper Jurassic (Pohowsky, 1974) and in Lower Cretaceous (Voigt, 1973). Forms, developing colonies creeping on the substrate, are known from the Barremian (*Arachnidium brandesi* Voigt, 1968). All these forms are very similar in mode of astogeny and in the morphology of zoecia to primitive Cheilostomata (*Pyriporopsis, Rhammatopora*) and to *Corynotrypa*. They do not display any similarities to Calloporidae nor *Labiostomella*, which does confirm the Silen's hypothesis. Species of Ctenostomata with a long stolon and probably erect zooids are known beginning from the Turonian (*Stolonicella westfalica* Voigt, 1966).

The Paleozoic fossils from the families Ascodictyidae, and Vinellidae

were traditionally assigned to the Ctenostomata. This view was fixed by Condra & Ellias (1944). The forms assigned to these families, develop porous, calcareous tubes creeping on the surface of hard objects. Sometimes, fusiform nodi form stellar assemblages. The Recent Ctenostomata do not secrete a mineral skeleton, this fact being a diagnostic character of this order. The Ascodictyon was compared by Condra & Ellias (1944) with Recent genera Walkeria, Farella and Aetea. The first two have erect stolons with bundles of zooids, while the Aetea has a creeping stolon and erect zooids. Thus, in the case of Ascodictyon stellatum and Walkeria tuberosa, they compared fusiform nodi with zoecia and, in the case of Ascodictyon fusiforme and Aetea anguina, similarly fusiform nodi with a stolon. None of these interpretations can be considered satisfactory. Although the nodi of Ascodictyon are porous, these fine pores cannot be considered as the traces of the budding of zoecia and all the more so as opesia.

Thus, the presence of calcareous walls without apertures which might be homologized with opesium or with traces of budding of zooids and, finally, the irregular manner of forming a colony (or, rather pseudocolony) indicate that the Ascodictyidae and Vinellidae are not related with the Ctenostomata. The calcareous, porous walls and the formation of branched, creeping pseudocolony make these organisms (in particular the genus *Allonema*) similar to the Paleozoic foraminiferes Tuberitininae and Ptychocladiidae (see Rich, 1970).

Relationships between the Ctenostomata and Cheilostomata are undoubtedly close (Silen, 1942). If we however accept Silen's hypothesis of the origin of the Cheilostomata from the Ctenostomata, thus the similarities in the microstructure and morphology of zoecia between the Cyclostomata and primitive Cheilostomata would become incomprehensible.

I postulate derivation both the Ctenostomata and Cheilostomata from a common ancestor of similar morphology and microstructure of zoecia and mode of astogeny. These conditions are to be found in *Corynotrypa*. The primitive Ctenostomata (*Arachnidium*) show more similarities to *Corynotrypa* than oldest Cheilostomata. This concerns the round aperture without operculum and the shape of zooids with "cauda". Ctenostomata originated from the *Corynotrypa* line probably in Ordovician.

Origin of the Cheilostomata

The structure of zoecia and the manner of forming zoaria in primitive Cheilostomata display a considerable similarity to those in primitive Ctenostomata and some of the Cyclostomata. The detailed comparisons presented below allow one to draw the conclusion that the Cheilostomata are most likely to descend from primitive, stomatoporoidal Cyclostomata of the *Corynotrypa* type.



Fig. 1. Early phylogeny of the Cheilostomata.

Microstructure of zoecial walls

As shown by Tavener-Smith & Williams (1972), there are no essential differences in the microstructure of zoecia between the Cheilostomata and Cyclostomata. In the two groups, the wall of zoecium is composed of an avicular primary layer, easily recrystallizable in the process of fossilization, and a lamellar secondary layer. The predominance of the primary over the secondary layer (Pl. XV Fig. 3) occured in the Jurassic Stomatopora while the primary layer only occurs in the zoecian walls of the primitive Cheilostomata.

In most Cyclostomata, the wall of zoecium is punctured by many punctae, which sometimes form canals. The gymnocyste of the primitive Cheilostomata displays identical punctae (Pl. XVI, Fig. 2a, b; Textfig. 4a, b). This punctation is observed only in non-crenulate parts, which are not covered with epithelial folds. The disappearance of the primary punctation from the wall of zoecium in evolutionary process of the Cheilostomata was connected with the reduction in gymnocyste. The Ctenostomata are devoid of a calcareous skeleton.

Morphology of zoecia

Both the stomatoporoidal Cyclostomata and primitive Cheilostomata have opesia situated perpendicularly to the axis of the creeping zoecia. The differences between the stomatoporoids and the primitive Cheilostomata are expressed in the presence in the former of a narrow neck instead of a wide opesium, covered with frontal membrane. We can assume a progressing reduction in the calcareous frontal wall which took place in the evolutionary line from the *Stomatopora* and *Corynotrypa* to *Pyriporopsis*. Under such an assumption, there would take place a shifting and extension of the area of activity of the system of hydrostatic muscles. The Cheilostomata may be directly related with the Paleozoic *Corynotrypa* (as indicated also by similarities in astogeny), but they may be also a continuation of the evolutionary line of the Jurassic stomatoporoids, in which the zoecia become more and more pyriporoidal (Lang, 1907).

The system of communication canals between zoecia is known in considerable part of the Cretaceous Cheilostomata (Canu, 1900), such as species of the genera *Pyriporopsis* (Pohowsky, 1973), *Wawalia* gen.n. (Textfig, 3a), *Fissuricella* (Voigt, 1959) and ?*Rhagasostoma* (Text-fig. 3b). Characteristically enough, all of them have the system of canals of the *Beania* type (Silen, 1944). This reflects a manner of budding ancestral for Cheilostomata. The communication organs were probably formed by the transformation of stolons and they preserved in part their primitive functions performed during budding (Silen, 1944). The communication organs of the *Callopora* type were formed in connection with the reduction in the thickness of the walls of zoecia and gymnocyste.

Astogeny

The triadic proliferation is typical of the primitive Cheilostomata, which results from the system of communication canals in zoecia. However, in the *Pyriporopsis*, predominant is a uniserial proliferation, with a new row of zoecia sometimes proliferating laterally, while triads are rare (Text-fig. 2c). No regular budding system occurs in the *Pyriporopsis*.[•] The *Stomatopora* and *Voigtopora* (Cyclostomata) mostly display an alternate proliferation of single zoecia and a dichotomy (Lang, 1904; Illies, 1971). Sometimes, it may happen, however, that dichotomies occur considerably more frequently (Text-fig. 2b). In the Paleozoic *Corynotrypa*, closely related to the *Stomatopora* as I believe, triadic proliferation is recorded sometimes (Text-fig. 2a; Bassler, 1911, Text-fig. 10). This represents a full analogy to the *Pyriporopsis*.



Fig. 2. Hirmer's diagrams of astogeny. a — Corynotrypa schucherti Bassler, 1911;
a colony encrusting the inside of a trilobite carapace, Uppermost Llanvirnian, erratic boulder, JD 1056-E-085 b — Stomatopora sp.; a colony encrusting the shell of Alectryonia, Lower Kimmeridgian, Wierzbica, ZPAL. UW. No V. IV/5, a specimen illustrated by Pugaczewska (1970, Pl. 1, Fig. 6) c — Pyriporopsis portlandensis Pohowsky, 1973; a fragmentary zoarium with a particularly cheilostomatous way of budding (Pohowsky, 1973, Pl. 2, Fig. 2). Upper Portlandian, Isle of Portland.

A TENTATIVE BIOLOGICAL INTERPRETATION OF THE MORPHOLOGICAL GRADIENT IN A COLONY AND OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF POLYMORPHISM IN THE BRYOZOA

The system of forming a zooid of three stolons and a further triadic proliferation makes a colony of cheilostomatous Bryozoa fully integrated not only along zoecia, but also transversally. In this connection, Hirmer's diagram only incompletely reflects the connections between zooids and, therefore, it should be treated conventionally. This is the reason why in the present paper such diagrams are used only for depicting the formation of primitive Cheilostomata and not for that of later forms.

The gradient of the size of zoecia (Boardman, Cheetham & Cook, 1969) generally occurs in the astogeny of the Cheilostomata. Frequently, the proportions of zoecia change with the development of a colony. In the astogeny of the ? *Rhagasostoma* sp. from the Cenomanian of Poland, described in the present paper, the zoecia of initial generations have gy-mnocyste better developed than that of later generations. The ancestrula and zoecia of the first generation of *Sarsiflustra japonica* Silen (Silen, 1938) have a long gymnocyste, which later disappears completely. Generally, the ancestrula has a considerably more primitive morphology than the zoecia formed later. This is a specific recapitulation of phylogeny in astogeny.

Analogous phenomena of the morphological gradient in the graptolites are interpreted by Urbanek (1960, 1973) on the basis of the theory of the morphophysiological gradient. Urbanek's conception assumes the existence of the siculozooid-blastozooid physiological dimorphism and the control of growth and morphology of thecae by a specific physiological agent produced only by the siculozooid. The formation of such a mechanism would require an adaptative character of the morphological gradient in a colony. The suggestion that a juvenile colony exists under different external conditions than those of a mature stage is inapplicable to the sessile colony of the Bryozoa. Since, in the bryozoan colonies, proximal zooids expose evolutionary delay in their characters this implies that they are less adapted to the living conditions of the entire colony than the distal zoids.

According to van Valen (*in* Urbanek, 1963, p. 231), the growth and structure of zooids are controlled by substances active morphogenetically produced by all zoids and accumulated in the colony.

In the Bryozoa, zooids of the formed generation are supplied with food substances by the zooids of parent generation up to the completion of organogeny (Stach, 1938; Boardman & Cheetham, 1969; Cook, 1973). The development of zooids takes place under the conditions of dynamic equilibrium between the stimulation of budding and food resources. An initial depression in alimentary conditions between particular generations disappears with the development of colony first due to a larger number of parent zooids and, second, due to a relative decrease in the number of descendent zooids (a rare triadic proliferation resulting from a limited area and the predominance of uniserial rows and dichotomies). In my opinion, the size of the formed zoecia is limited by food resources of the zooids of parent generations and, indirectly, by the intensity of the stimulation of proliferation. There occurs the supposition that the processes of organogeny taking place under less favourable alimentary conditions are incomplete. The termination of organogeny and formation of a mineral skeleton occur in somewhat earlier stages of ontogeny than in the later generations. This produces an effect of the reflection of ontogeny (and, consequently, sometimes also phylogeny) in astogeny. The evolutionary changes are simultaneusly introduced to onto- and astogeny mostly beginning with earlier developmental stages (Urbanek, 1966). The cases of rejuvenescence (the second zone of astogenetic change - Boardman, Cheetham & Cook, 1969), accompanied by the morphological gradient, may also be explained by an excessive production of the stimulant of proliferation (probably, a non-specific one). Among the Cretaceous Cheilostomata, this phenomenon is rare and abnormal in the development of colony. It is connected with speeding-up of the proliferation of a zooid, which, rapidly forming a fanlike assemblage of descendant individuals, inhibits the proliferation of adjoining zooids of the same generation. It is not unlikely that in such a case there act some physiological mechanisms which inhibit the development of the remaining zooids. The causal nexus between the speeding-up of proliferation and decrease in the size of descendant zoids is here distincly visible.

Polymorphism in the Cheilostomata

The earliest Cheilostomata (*Pyriporopsis*, *Wawalia*, *Pyripora*, *Rham-matcpora*) do not produce heterozoecia, which limits the possibilities of tracing their direct origin back to the Ctenostomata and the most primitive Cyclostomata which do not yet form oecia (see Walter, 1969).

Polymorphism appears not before the Middle Albian forms. The occurrence of zooids with ovicells (the type of polymorphism connected with sexual process) is its earliest form. Colonies of Cheilostomatous Bryozoans, having both ovicells and avicularia (Boardman & Cheetham, 1973, Fig. 40c), are known from these same Middle Albian beds. My conclusion is that avicularia are evolutionarily later than ovicells, because so early reduction of avicularia or independent origin of ovicells in both are unlikely.

The evolution of avicularia is only partly related with that of autozoecia, although, for example, the development of cryptocyste is sometimes observed in both autozoecia and avicularia. A considerable evolutionary autonomy of avicularia suggests that their structure is to a considerable extent encoded in a different set of genetic information (as a result of gene duplication), than that concerning autozoecia. The mechanism controlling the realization of one of the two genetic systems (and, consequently, of a separate system of embryonal induction) operates stochastically, which is indicated by a disorderly distribution of avicularia in primitive zoaria (Silen, 1938; Medd, 1966). Its operation requires a certain degree of advancement in astogeny, since in the primitive encrusting Cheilostomata (see Text-figs. 6, 8 and 10c) avicularia appear only in the second, third or even later generation. There occurs the supposition that a certain metabolite may serve here as a sort of a "change-over". The activity of this factor may be expressed only as a lack or presence of fully formed avicularia. Such is the case of all the Cretaceous Cheilostomata I studied. The differentiated expression of the genetic system responsible for the structure of avicularia (as postulated by Cheetham, 1974) would require an additional mechanism. This should be proved by a description, in one and the same population, of a continuous series from the lack of avicularia, through transitional stages of the modification of zoecia, up to normal avicularia. However, the colonies, included by Cheetham in Wilbertopora mutabilis, form three distinct groups which, in my opinion, represent different evolutionary stages. A distinct morphological advancement of avicularia in a colony, illustrated by Cheetham (1974) in Pl. 3, Fig. 4 are, as compared with those from his Fig. 2 in the same plate, in conformity with the stratigraphic sequence, that is, the former comes from the Cenomanian and the latter from the Albian.

I think, therefore, that Cheetham's view on the possibility of a differentiated expression of the genotype of avicularia within the range of one and the same species is unfounded. The sporadic occurence of avicularia (Boardman & Cheetham, 1973) cannot be considered as a primitive character. Under the conditions of such a scattered occurrence, in the population, of the phenotypic expression of a set of genus responsible for the organization of avicularia, the selection pressure would be too small to cause the evolution of these structures taking place at the rate observed. The sporadic occurrence of avicularia in some Cheilostomata seems to be a particular atavism, that is, the setting in operation of a normally switched-off set of genes, which has not yet been subject to complete destruction.

Colonies with avicularia appearing as early as the zone of morphological gradient and which occur together with those of *Wilbertopora mutablis*, not having avicularia even in the zones advanced astogenetically (Boardman & Cheetham, 1973, Fig. 40c), should be perhaps assigned to a separate species. The similar structure of autozoecia (according to Cheetham, the colonies with avicularia have peristomial spines, which do not occur in the holotype of *Wilbertopora*) cannot be considered as a specific character. Species from Bohemia, England, Poland and Texas, almost identical in the structure of autozoecia, have, however, quite different heterozoecia, different systems of astogeny and undoubtedly are real, biological species.

DESCRIPTIONS

Class **Bryozoa** Ehrenberg, 1826 Order **Cheilostomata** Busk, 1852 Suborder **Anasca** Levinsen, 1909 Family **Wawaliidae** fam.n.

Diagnosis. — Zoecia with a porous gymnocyste and crenulate opesial margin. Zoaria encrusting. Primary lack of ovicells, spines and avicularia.

Genera assigned: Wawalia gen.n., Pyriporopsis Pohowsky, 1973, Charixa Lang, 1915. Pyripora d'Orbigny, 1849, Fissuricella Voigt, 1959 and ?Rhammatopora Lang, 1915.

Remarks. — The family Wawaliidae differs from the Alderinidae s.s. in the lack of ovicells, from the Electridae in the lack of spines and from the remaining Anasca in the lack of ovicells and avicularia. The genera Wawalia, Pyriporopsis, Charixa, Pyripora and Fissuricella are most likely to be related directly neither to the Electra, nor to the Membranipora s.s. Structures suggesting its considerable evolutionary advancement (spines and, probably, vibracularia) occur in the Electra, while the Membranipora, closely related to it, displays characters of the secondary simplification, that is, a reduction in skeleton (in particular in gymnocyste) and polymorphism.

Stratigraphical and geographical range. — Known from the Upper Jurassic through the Recent (?). America and Eurasia.

Genus Wawalia gen.n.

Type species: Wawalia crenulata gen. et sp.n.

Derivation of the name: After the village Wawał, where the type species was found.

Diagnosis. — Proliferation triadic. Gymnocyste strongly developed, but not forming "cauda".

Spiecies assigned: W. crenulata sp.n., Membranipora kiowana Scott, 1970, and non-described species from Middle Valanginian of Poland.

Remarks. — Wawalia gen.n. differs from the Pyriporopsis in the type of astogeny, a short gymnocyste and the number of communication canals. It belongs to a different evolutionary line than the Pyriporopsis-Pyripora group.

Stratigraphical and geographical range. — The Valanginian of Poland, Albian of Texas.

Wawalia crenulata sp.n.

(Pls. XV, Fig. 1a, b and XVI, Figs 1, 2; Text-figs 3a, 4a, b, 5a-d, 6)

Holotype: JD 3004--268; Pl. XV, Fig. 1a, Text-fig. 4a. Type locality: Wawał near Tomaszów Mazowiecki, Central Poland. Type horizon: Uppermost Valanginian. Derivation of the name: After a crenulate opesial margin.

Diagnosis. — Opesial margin wide, crenulate, flattened. Gymnocyste perforate. Colony with closely spaced zoecia.



Fig. 3. System of communication canals visible in natural casts of the inside of zoecia. *a*-Wawalia crenulata gen. et sp.n., JD 3006-268; *b*-Rhagasostoma (?) sp., MZ VIII/Bry-99.



Fig. 4. Wawalia crenulata gen. et. sp.n. Uppermost Valanginian and Lower Hauterivian, Wawał near Tomaszów Mazowiecki, Central Poland. a — two zoecia of holotype JD 3004-268; b — inner view of a biomurate partly damaged zoecium, the porosity of gymnocyst and morphology of frontal membrane are visible, JD 3007-268.

Dimensions. — Depending on the stage of astogeny, zoecia 0.17 to 0.80 mm long.

Material. — More than 32 colonies encrusting the shells of the oysters Exogyra (Aetostreon) latissima (Lamarck) and Dichotomites sp., including five colonies with the ancestrula preserved. Two colonies, biomurated by oysters, display the morphology of the soft parts of body.

Description. — Ancestrula with an elongate gymnocyste and opesial margin having few crenulae. It originates three zoecia, provided that a rapid development of one of the rows does not block the remaining ones. Triadic proliferation maintained if not stopped by area limitation (Text-fig. 5a-d). With a regular development of zoecium, eight communication canals, more or less uniform in transverse section (Text-fig. 3), detach from it. The occurrence of porous plates is suggested by changes in the color of calcite, which fills canals on the boundary between zoecia. Each zoecium contacts other, adjoining zoecia through two lateral canals. It also contacts three zoecia of the next generation and receives the canals of three zoecia of the preceding generation. In drawing Hirmer's diagrams of astogeny, I assumed that the zoecium. The length of zo-



Fig. 5. Wawalia crenulata gen. et. sp.n., outlines of the early astogenetic stages and Hirmer's diagrams of: a — holotype JD 3004-268; b — JD 3005-268; c — JD 3003-268; d — JD 3002-268.

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ecia increases with astogeny (Text-fig. 6). The rate of growth gradually drops, but it is at least up to the ninth generation that no distinct stabilization is visible in the dimensions of zoecia. The microstructure of zoecial walls is typically cheilostomatous – acicular. Gymnocyste is perforated by thin canals, identical with those in the Cyclostomata (Pl. XVI, Figs. 2, 3; Text- fig 4a, b). These pores occur only on the rough and noncrenulate surface of gymnocyste. The wide, crenulate opesial margin is smooth and lustrous, which indicates that at the animal's life-time it was covered with a fold of soft tissues. On the biomurated zoecia, the mold of a soft membrane encircles a wide opesial margin (Text-fig. 4b). Operculum semicircular, rather indistinct.



Fig. 6. Wawalia crenulata gen. et sp.n., a change in the size of zoecia in the ostogeny of four colonies: JD 3004-268, JD 3005-268, JD 3003-268 and JD 3002-268.

Occurrence. — Wąwał, Central Poland. In this locality, W. crenulata has been found in the upper part of the zone of occurrence of Neohoploceras arnoldi (Pictel & Campiche) above the bed containing Saynoceras verrucosum (d'Orbigny), Valanginites nucleus (Roemer), Dobrodgeiceras wilfridi (Karakasch). D. ventrituberculatum (Nikolov), D. perinflatus (Matheron), Neocraspedites complanatus (Koenen), and Bochianites neocomiensis d'Orbigny (Kokoszyńska, 1956; Dimitrova, 1967) (Upper Valanginian, Saynoceras verrucosum Zone) and, finally, in the beds with *Dichotomites* sp. The last-named beds are assigned to the Lower Hauterivian (Witkowski, 1969) but this assignment is not sufficiently documented.

Family Calloporidae Norman, 1903 emend.

Diagnosis. — Avicularia, peristomial spines and ovicells occurring primarily.

Remarks. — The genera Wilbertopora Cheetham, 1954, Alderina Norman, 1903 and Aplousina Canu & Bassler, 1927, having a well-developed gymnocyst, but primarily without avicularia and spines, have here been assigned to the family Alderinidae Canu & Bassler, 1927 emend.

Numerous species of the Bryozoa with well-developed avicularia, but without spines (of the genera *Ramphonotus* Norman, 1894, *Pyriporella* Canu, 1911, *Ellisina* Norman, 1903, *Cranosina* Canu & Bassler, 1933) occur in the Cretaceous. Thus, the necessity arises to separate a taxa which would include the genera, which originally have not spines. This should be, however, preceded by detailed phylogenetic studies. Despite its depressed ovicell, *Cranosina praecursor* (Brydone), considered to be the earliest representative of the Hincksinidae (Shaw, 1967) cannot be an ancestor of the genus *Hincksina*, since it is devoid of spines. The depression of ovicell occurred independently of each other in various evolutionary lines of the Calloporidae, much the same as in the Onychocellidae and Microporidae. The separation of the polyphyletic family Hincksinidae should be given up.

The genera Callopora Gray, 1848, Mystriopora Lang, 1915, Anaptopora Lang, 1916 and (?) Hincksina Norman, 1903, having strongly developed spines and a faint cryptocyst, make up a group of typical Calloporidae.

In my opinion, the calloporids having zoecia with a strongly developed cryptocyst and with simultaneously occurring peristomial spines (the genera Hoplitaechmella Voigt, 1949, Hapsidopora Lang, 1917, Tylopora Lang and (?) Distelopora Lang, 1915) should be distinguished as a separate subfamily.

Genus Mystriopora Lang, 1915

Type species: M. moeckleri Lang, 1915.

Remarks. — In addition to M. moeckleri Lang, 1915 and M. perforata (Reuss, 1846), mentioned by Lang, I include in this genus primitive species having avicularia with a well-developed gymnocyst and proliferations as one of the zooids of a triad. They are: Mystriopora sp. and the species, which were illustrated in Boardman & Cheetham, (1973) as Wilbertopora mutabilis (Fig. 40c) and Wilbertopora sp. (Fig. 40b).

? Mystriopora sp. (Pl. XVI, Fig. 2; Text-fig. 7)

Material. — A fragmentary colony encrusting the shell of Aucellina gryphaeoides (Sowerby).

Dimensions. — Lengths of fifteen zoecia: mean — 0.55 mm, max. — 0.65 mm., min. — 0.46 mm. Lengths of six avicularia: mean — 0.33 mm, max. — 0.38 mm, min. — 0.30 mm.



Fig. 7. Mystriopora ? sp., Upper Albian (or Lower Cenomanian), Annopol near Sandomierz, a frontal view of a autozoecium of a zoecium with a damaged ovicell and an avicularium. JD 3010-374.

Description. — Zoecia with a well-developed gymnocyst and poorly visible crenulation of opesial margin. Avicularia (zoeciulae) without specialization characters, with a round opesium and large gymnocyst, differing from autozoecia in small dimensions only. Presumed traces of a hyperstomial ovicell occur on a zoecium.

Remarks. — In the outline of gymnocyste and avicularia this species is similar to some representatives of the genus *Mystriopora*, especially an oval opesium of avicularia makes it similar to a form illustrated by Cheetham (Boardman & Cheetham, 1973, Fig. 40a), from which it differs, however, in considerably smaller dimensions of avicularia. It remains to be solved if the lack of spines is here original or secondary. It is not unlikely that small spine bases, characteristic of primitive species of *Mystriopora*, were destroyed as a result of the corrosion of the surfaces of zoecia. Type species of *Mystriopora* is more evolutionary advanced.

Occurrence. — Upper Albian (or Lower Cenomanian) of Annopol near Sandomierz (Cieśliński, 1960).

Genus Anaptopora Lang, 1916

Type species: A. disjuncta Lang, 1916

Remarks. — The genus *Anaptopora* was assigned by Lang (1921) to the family Otoporidae (Cribrimorpha). Since, however, its spines are not fused together, I transfer it to the family Calloporidae despite its undoubtedly close relationship to the Cribrimorpha. It differs from the genus *Dionella* Medd, 1965 in the presence of avicularia of one type only.

Anaptopora sp. (Pl. XVII, Fig. 1; Text-fig. 8a, b)

Material. — A colony encrusting echinoid test.

Dimensions: Lengths of zoecia varying within limits of 0.33 and 0.90 mm, depending on the stage of astogeny.

Description. — Zoecia with a well-developed gymnocyst, opesial margin with large bases of about 16 spines. Opesium small, oval with a tu-



Fig. 8. Anaptopora sp., Lower (or Middle) Cenomanian, Korzkiew near Cracow. MZ VIII/Bry-101. a - a frontal view of a zoecium and an avicularium of the sixth generation; b - astogenetic changes in the size of zoecia and avicularia (bottom part of the diagram).

berculate margin and interzoecial avicularia usually situated distally of zoecia. An astogenetic increase in the size of zoecia and avicularia is shown in Text-fig. 8b.

Remarks. — It differs from the remaining species of the genus *Anap-topora* in the shape of avicularia.

Occurrence. — Lower (or Middle) Cenomanian of Korzkiew near Cracow (Marcinowski, 1974).

Family Aspidostomatidae Jullien, 1888

Remarks. — The families Onychocellidae, Microporidae and Aspidostomatidae are so similar to each other that assigning the most primitive Middle Cretaceous forms to any of them is arbitrary. It would be advisable to limit the range of the Microporidae to forms having distinctly separated opesiulae.

Genus Rhagasostoma Koschinsky, 1885

Type species: R. hexagona Koschinsky, 1885

Rhagasostoma acmon (d'Orbigny, 1851) (Pl. XVIII, Fig. 1; Text-fig. 9)

1852. Eschara acmon d'Orbigny; A. d'Orbigny, p. 115, Pl. 662, Fig. 13-14.

1900. Rhagasostoma acmon d'Orbigny; F. Canu, p. 431, Pl. 7, Fig. 27.

1930. Onychocella acmon d'Orbigny; E. Voigt, p. 462, Pl. 18, Fig. 10.

Material. — Two fragmentary colonies encrusting echinoid test.

Dimensions (in mm); Length of 15 zoecia of specimen M. Z. VIII/Bry-102: mean — 0.48, max. — 0.57, min. — 0.35; of 13 zoecia of specimen M. Z. VIII/Bry-100: mean — 0.42, max. — 0.57, min. — 0.35. Two avicularia of the last-named specimen are 0.44 mm long.

Description. — Gymnocyste margin wide, descending distally, finecrenulate. Cryptocyst porous, opesium with small opesial indentations. Zoecia polygonal in outline, gymnocyst nearly invisible. Avicularia large, asymmetric, with a long troughlike distal part. Avicular cryptocyste porous.

Occurrence. — Poland: Lower (or Middle) Cenomanian of Korzkiew near Cracow (Marcinowski, 1974); western Germany and France: Santonian through Campanian.

> ?Rhagasostoma sp. (Pl. XVIII, Fig. 2; Text-figs 3b and 10a-c)

Material. — A colony encrusting an echinoid test.

Dimensions: Lengths of zoecia varying within limits of 0.23 and 0.65 mm, depending on the stage of astogeny.



Fig. 9. Rhagasostoma acmon (d'Orbigny), Lower (or Middle) Cenomanian, Korzkiew near Cracow, a frontal view of zoecia and an avicularium, both advanced astogenetically. MZ VIII/Bry-100.

Description. — In early astogenetic stages, zoecia have a distinctly separated, rounded gymnocyste with its margin encircling an oval aperture (Text-fig. 10a). In later astogenetic stages, zoecia assume a polygonal shape, gymnocyst decreases and appertural margin extends proximally (Text-fig. 10b). Zoecia contact each other by communication canals more or less uniform in transverse section (Text-fig. 3b). Cryptocyste and, probably, zoecial walls porous. Autozoecial opesia semicircular, slightly convex proximally.

Avicularia, appearing in the second generation, are nearly symmetrical, with a tapering, troughlike distal end. Ovicells probably hyperstomial, semicircular in transverse section, appearing from the seventh generation. Only their basal parts are preserved (Text-fig. 10b).

Remarks. — It is not unlikely that the colony described may be assigned to the species R. acmon (d'Orbigny). The differences, consisting in the presence of gymnocyst, lack of opesiular indentations and a smaller specialization of avicularia may be ascribed to the interspecific variability, astogenetic changes and state of preservation. The specimen differs from the species R. turonica Canu, 1900 (Canu, 1897) from the Turonian of France in the lack of opesiular indentations.

Occurrence. — Lower (or Middle) Cenomanian of Iwanowice near Cracow.





Fig. 10. (?) Rhagasostoma sp., Lower (or Middle) Cenomanian, Iwanowice near Cracow, MZ VIII/Bry-99, a, b frontal views of zoecia with a damaged ovicell of the seventh generation; c astogenetic changes in the size of autozoecia, avicularia (bottom part of the diagram) and zoecia with ovicells (top part of the diagram).

Suborder Cribrimorpha Lang, 1916 Family Otoporidae Lang, 1916

Diagnosis. — Spines fused medially, avicularia "somewhat or decidedly elongate and pointed, and where decidedly so, with curved rostra" (Lang, 1921).

Genus Otopora Lang, 1916

Type species: O. auricula Lang, 1916

Otopora sp. (Text-fig. 11)

Material. — A colony encrusting, together with Rhagasostoma acmon, an echinoid test.

Remarks. — Small avicularia, pointed distally and distally fused spines make this specimen similar to the only species of this genus, that is, *O. auricula*, from which it, however, differs in the number of spines (costae), having about eleven while *O. auricula* has 15 to 20 of them. Zoecia about 0.46 mm long. A strongly corroded surface of colony precludes more accurate measurements.

Occurrence. — Lower (or Middle) Cenomanian of Korzkiew near Cracow (Marcinowski, 1974).



Fig. 11. Otopora sp., Lower (or Middle) Cenomanian, Korzkiew near Cracow, a frontal view of an avicularium and zoecium, probably with remains of an ovicell. MZ VIII/Bry-102.

> Suborder Ascophora Levinsen, 1909 Family Exochellidae Bassler, 1935 Genus Homalostega Marsson, 1887 Homalostega cf. inflata Henning, 1894 (Text-fig. 12a-b)

1959. Aechmella inflata (Henning); E. Voigt, Abb. 4f.

1965. Homalostega sp.; H. Pugaczewska, p. 88, Pl. 11, Fig. 2a, b.

Material. — Two colonies encrusting the shell of Pycnodonta vesicularis (Lamarck).

Description. — Ancestrula differing from the remaining zoecia in a larger opesium. Zoecia of early generations less slender. Gymnocyst redu-



Fig. 12. Homalostega cf. inflata Henning, Lower Maastrichtian, Nasiłów near Puławy, a — a frontal view of zoecia of the fifth generation, ZPAL. UW. V/I.40a; b — an astogenetic change in the size of zoecia in two colonies, ZPAL, UW. V/I.40a and b.

ced and forming tuberculate lists separating zoecia. Cryptocyst strongly convex (covering ascus?) with tubercles arranged in rows crossing each other obliquely. A spiny process (or perhaps an ascoporus?) occurs below opesium. Opesium semicircular, with a concave proximal margin. Avicularia small with a pointed and erect distal end. They appear in the third generation parallel to zoecia.

Occurrence. — Upper Campanian of Nasiłów, Poland, and Senonian, Sweden.

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POCHODZENIE I WCZESNA FILOGENEZA MSZYWIOŁÓW Z RZĘDU CHEILOSTOMATA

Streszczenie

W ściankach zoeciów prymitywnych Cheilostomata (Wawalia, górny walanżyn) stwierdzono występowanie porowatości identycznej jak u Cyclostomata. Wcześniej Tavener-Smith & Williams (1972) wykazali brak istotnych różnic w mikrostrukturze zoeciów między Cyclostomata i Cheilostomata. Najprymitywniejsze Cheilostomata (Pyriporopsis, górny portland) mają system pączkowania pośredni między Cyclostomata (szeregi jednorzędowe i diady) i Cheilostomata (triady). Prostopadłe do osi płożących się zoeciów ustawienie apertury zbliża Cheilostomata najbardziej do *Stomatopora* i *Corynotrypa* z Cyclostomata. Powstanie Cheilostomata było prawdopodobnie związane z rozszerzeniem opesium a tym samym pola działania mięśni hydrostatycznych.

Koncepcje postulujące powstanie Chellostomata z Ctenostomata (Silen, 1942) nie znajdują potwierdzenia w dokumentacji paleontologicznej. Postuluje się wyprowadzenie Ctenostomata z prymitywnych Cheilostomata drogą pełnej redukcji szkieletu wapiennego. Najpierwotniejsze Ctenostomata (*Arachnidium*, od barremu) wykazują daleko idące podobieństwo w morfologii zoeciów i systemie pączkowania do wczesnych Cheilostomata (*Pyripora*).

Dominacja pączkowania triadami, charakterystyczna dla większości Cheilostomata tworzących inkrustujące kolonie, występuje już u form z górnego walanżynu (Wawalia). Brak polimorfizmu kolonijnego jest tu pierwotny. Owicelle znane są dopiero od środkowego albu (Wilbertopora) i wtedy też pojawiły się formy z awikulariami – zooidami o rozrośniętym, tworzącym szczękę operculum (Mystriopora). Początkowo niewielkie kolce otaczające opesium rozrastają się (Anaptopora, dolny cenoman) i zlewają się tworząc wtórną przednią ścianę (Otopora, dolny cenoman). W innej linii ewolucyjnej wtórna ściana frontalna powstaje przez rozrost blaszkowatej tylnej krawędzi opesium – kryptocystu (Rhagasostoma, dolny cenoman). Kompensujące zmniejszenie pola opesium, wpuklenie pod kryptocyst membrany frontalnej i uwypuklenie kryptocystu prowadzi do powstania worka kompensacyjnego (Homalostega, Balantiostoma, ?Escharoides, dolny kampan).

Wysunięto przypuszczenie, że powstanie polimorfizmu było poprzedzone przez rozdzielenie systemów informacji genetycznej odpowiedzialnych za końcowe etapy organogenezy różnych typów zooidów. Realizacja jednego z tych niezależnie ewoluujących systemów indukcji embrionalnej zależy od zadziałania odpowiedniego mechanizmu przełącznikowego.

Zmiany morfologii i rozmiarów zoeciów w rozwoju kolonii (gradient morfologiczny) interpretuje się jako wynik zmian stanu równowagi między stymulacją pączkowania a kumulującymi się zasobami pokarmowymi kolonii.

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ПРОИСХОЖДЕНИЕ И РАННИЙ ФИЛОГЕНЕЗ МШАНОК ОТРЯДА СНЕІLOSTOMATA

Резюме

В стенках цистидов примитивных Cheilostomata (Wawalia, верхний валанжин) наблюдалась пористость аналогичная пористости у Cyclostomata. Ранее Тавенер--Смис и Уильямс (1972) констатировали, что в микроструктуре ячеек Cyclostomata и Cheilostomata не наблюдается существенных различий. Самые примитивные Cheilostomata (*Pyriporopsis*, верхний портланд) обладают промежуточной системой почкования между Cyclostomata (однорядное и диадное) и Cheilostomata (триадное). Положение апертуры перпендикулярно осям стелющихся учеек больше всего приближает Cheilostomata к *Stomatopora* и *Corynotrypa* из Cyclostomata. Возникновение Cheilostomata было, вероятно, обусловлено расширением опезия и, следовательно, площади действия гидростатических мускулов.

Предположения о развитии Cheilostomata из Ctenostomata (Силен, 1942) не находят обоснования в палеонтологических данных. Выдвигается взгляд о происхождении Ctenostomata за счет примитивных Cheilostomata путем полного редуцирования известкового скелета. Самые простые Ctenostomata (*Arachnidium*, с баррема) проявляют значительное сходство в морфологии цистидов и системе почкования с ранними Cheilostomata (*Pyripora*).

Преобладание триадного почкования, характерное у большинства Cheilostomata образующих инкрустационные колонии, наблюдается уже в формах из верхнего валанжина (Wawalia). Отсутствие колониального полиморфизма представляет здесь первичное явление. Овицеллы известны только лишь со среднего альба (Wilbertopora). Тогда же появились формы с авикуляриями — зооидами с разросшимся и образующим челюсть оперкулюм (Mystriopora). Первоначально небольшие шипы, окаймляющие опезий, разрастаются (Anaptopora, нижний сеноман) и соединяются, образуя вторичную переднюю стенку (Otopora, нижний сеноман). В другой эволюционной линии вторичная фронтальная стенка образуется за счет разрастания пластинчатой задней грани опезия — криптоциста (Rhagasostoma, нижний сеноман). Компенсирующее сокращение площади опезия, погряжение под криптоцист фронтальной мембраны и выгибание криптоциста ведет к образованию компенсационной сумки (Homalostega, Balantiostoma, Escharoides, нижний кампан). Предполагается, что появлению полиморфизма предшествовало разделение систем генетической информации, управляющей завершительной стадией развития разных видов зооидов. Выполнение одной из развивающихся независимо систем эмбриональной индукции стимулируется импульсами соответствующего переключающего механизма.

Изменения морфологии и величины цистидов в эволюции колонии (морфологический градиент) рассматривается в качестве результата изменения состояния равновесия между стимуляцией почкования и накопляющимися пищевыми запасами колонии.

EXPLANATION OF PLATES

Plate XV

Wawalia crenulata gen. et sp.n. Uppermost Valanginian, Wąwał

Fig. 1. Holotype, JD 3004-268; $\times 50.$ Fig. 2. Paratype, JD 3009-268; scanning electron micrograph, appr. $\times 400$

Stomatopora dichotoma Lamouroux Vesulian, Łęczyca

Fig. 3. Longitudinal section of zoecium, JD 3013-002, pl primary layer. sl secondary layer; $\times 400$.

Plate XVI

Wawalia crenulata gen. et sp.n. Uppermost Valanginian, Wawał

- Fig. 1. a and b fragments of paratype specimen, JD 3009-268; scanning electron micrograph, $\times 600$.
- Fig. 2. Tangential section of gymnocyste, JD 3011-268; ×400.
- Fig. 3. Longitudinal section of gymnocyste, JD 3012-268; ×400.

Plate XVI

Anaptopora sp. Cenomanian, Korzkiew

Fig. 1. Specimen MZ VIII/Bry 101; ×50.

? Mystriopora sp.

Upper Albian or Lower Cenomanian, Annopol

Fig. 2. Specimen JD 3010-254; ×50.

Plate XVIII

Rhagasostoma acmon (d'Orbigny) Cenomanian, Korzkiew

Fig. 1. Specimen MZ VIII/Bry-100; ×50.

?Rhagasostoma sp. Cenomanian, Iwanowice

Fig. 2. Specimen MZ VIII/Bry-99; ×50.





Fig. 1a, b phot: G. & P. Mierzejewscy



