

**A RADIATION-INDUCED VARIANT OF THE CESTODE,
HYMENOLEPIS DIMINUTA, WITH TWO-HOOKED ONCOSPHERES***

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Cestodes, being at all times, even in the adult stage, embryonic, may be expected to give rise to anomalies. The literature of anomaly in cestodes is considerable (Dobrovolsky and Dobrovolsky, 1935; Wardle and McLeod, 1952), and there would be little point in adding another description of an anomalous worm to that literature unless some light would be shed thereby on the nature of anomalies and their possible importance. The present paper describes a cestode which by inheritance is a member of the common species, *Hymenolepis diminuta*, but by structure is unique, differing in one respect, its 2-hooked oncospheres, from all other members of the species. This unique cestode resulted from an experiment in radiation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Beginning in 1959, infective larvae (cysticercoids) of the rat tapeworm, *Hymenolepis diminuta*, were given heavy doses of radiation (15,000 roentgens at about 500 r per minute, from a cobalt 60 source at the University of Tennessee-Atomic Energy Commission Agricultural Research Laboratories at Oak Ridge, Tennessee) and were then introduced by stomach tube into white rats. The eggs of the tapeworms which developed in the rats were fed to grain beetles (*Tribolium* spp.), and after 15 days the beetles, containing cestode larvae, were irradiated with 15,000 r; the larvae were removed and fed to rats just as before. Eventually eight generations of tapeworms were obtained, the last of which may be said to have received, through its ancestors, 105,000 r of gamma radiation, and, directly, 15,000 r. Eight successive generations had received 15,000 r each.

Adult worms of various generations were fixed in Carnoy's fluid (6 parts absolute alcohol, 3 parts chloroform, 1 part glacial acetic acid) for one hour, and stored in the refrigerator. Then the whole worms were hydrolyzed 12 minutes at 60°C in 1 Normal HCl, rinsed in cold 1 Normal HCl, and transferred to the Feulgen reagent (prepared according to the method given by Gray, 1954) for one hour. The worms were stored in distilled water until needed. Each worm was measured.

For cytological study a portion about 10 mm. long, from the appropriate regions of the strobila, was removed to 45% acetic acid, and small pieces were teased apart on a slide, under a dissecting microscope. Body wall, fragments of muscle, the

cirrus pouch, seminal receptacle and ovary were removed, leaving testes, oviduct, and the developing uterus with oocytes in meiosis and embryos in early cleavage. A cover-glass was applied and gently pressed down, under folded filter paper. The clear finger-nail polish was applied to the edges of the cover, sealing the slide. Such slides could be kept without deterioration in the refrigerator several weeks for chromosome study and analysis.

A second portion of each worm, 3 to 5 proglottids, was taken from the posterior region, and these gravid segments were teased in a drop of glycerine jelly until they had discharged most of their eggs. The fragments of proglottid were removed, and a cover-glass was applied, making near permanent preparations of the oncospheres with their membranes.

The remainder of each worm was cut into pieces and the pieces straightened upon a slide, while a long cover-glass (22 x 60 mm.) was applied and gently pressed down. Then the slide was flooded with equal parts of glacial acetic acid and 95% ethanol, a solution which hardened the pieces in their straightened, flattened condition. Dehydration and clearing were carried out while the worm was under cover-glass pressure; then the cover was removed, mounting resin was allowed to cover the specimen, and the cover-glass was replaced. A drawing rack in the paraffin oven (58°C) provided rather rapid hardening of the preparations.

Study of the unique cestode with 2-hooked oncospheres involved the following techniques. Chromosome observation of the chromosome squashes with ribbon-filament lamp adjusted to give critical illumination and immersion oil on both slide and condenser (N. A. 1.30) of an American Optical Company research microscope, with camera lucida for drawing, yielded records of chromosome number and morphology. The oncosphere preparation and the whole mounts were studied with a Wild microscope equipped with drawing tube. The entire worm was drawn at low (16 mm.) magnification, and the drawings were used for morphological analysis. The embryos were drawn under the oil immersion objective of the Wild microscope. A survey of the entire embryo preparation was carried out to determine the relative numbers of 2-hooked and other kinds of embryos in the sample.

THE CHROMOSOMES

Analysis of many oocytes and spermatocytes in the first meiotic metaphase confirmed a chromosome

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DESCRIPTION OF FIGURES 1-10

Figures 1-7 drawn with the camera lucida at the magnification indicated.

Figures 8-10 drawn with the Wild drawing tube at the magnification indicated.

Fig. 1. Early anaphase, second cleavage, showing chromosomes beginning to split at the centromeres, and with two very small supernumerary chromosomes or fragments.

Fig. 2. Metaphase of a cleavage division, showing six larger and six smaller chromosomes.

Fig. 3. Anomalous metaphase of the second cleavage division, or possibly telophase of first cleavage. The chromosomes of the macromere are scattered, but condensed. There are six feulgen-positive spherules in the peripheral cytoplasm.

Fig. 4. A first peripheral division in which only nine chromosomes are present, and there are nine feulgen-positive masses scattered throughout the cell. This condition may actually be a late anaphase of first cleavage in which the chromosomes of the micromere remain scattered, while those of the macromere have already entered a telophase-interphase condition in nine separate masses.

Fig. 5. Metaphase I of meiosis in an oocyte, showing the spiral sperm nucleus and four chromosomal masses, one of which (at right) is an association of four partially homologous chromosomes.

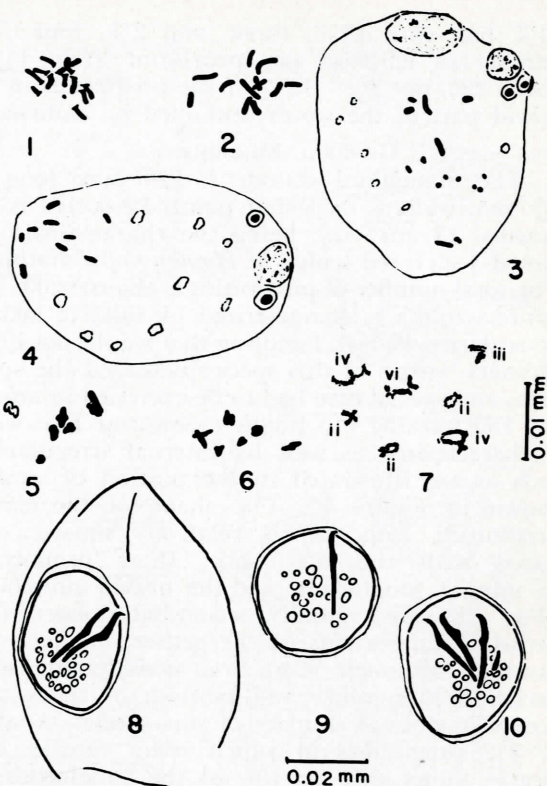
Fig. 6. Six tetrads at early diakinesis of the first meiotic division of an oocyte. The two sizes of chromosomes can be observed.

Fig. 7. Seven pachytene associations drawn from several spermatocytes. The Roman numerals indicate the number of chromosomes thought to be in synapsis in each group.

Fig. 8. Egg from glycerine jelly mount, with shell collapsed and wrinkled, thin embryonic membrane, group of nuclei at base of hooks, and two embryonic hooks typical in size and shape of 80% of the developed embryos.

Fig. 9. Embryo with one hook only. Its shell is not drawn.

Fig. 10. Embryo with three fully developed hooks and a small fragment of a fourth hook.



seemed incomplete, with the chromosomes of one or both daughter nuclei scattered widely (Figs. 3, 4).

Meiosis in both oocytes and spermatocytes showed evidence that the chromosomes in this cestode have become altered by translocation. Thus in Figure 5 two of the six tetrads are fused into a multivalent association; apparently some portion of one or both of a pair of long chromosomes is homologous to some part of a pair of medium chromosomes, causing the synapsis between these homologous regions to hold together all four chromosomes involved. In spermatocytes, pachytene is often quite clear; Figure 7 shows a number of associations drawn from several spermatocytes, illustrating normal pairs (ii) as well as combinations of more than two (iii, iv, vi) chromosomes. Nearly every spermatocyte at pachytene showed evidence of structural change in the chromosomes.

THE EMBRYOS

Departures from the usual six-hooked condition are so rare as to have been seldom noted (Jones, 1962); yet six-hooked embryos could not be found in this worm, and 2 was the commonest number of hooks observed. In a sample of 342 embryos examined, 61 or 18% had no hooks whatsoever, 10 or 5% had one hook only (Fig. 9), 225 or 66% had 2 hooks only (Fig. 8), 32 or 9% had 3 hooks, and 6 or 2% had 4 hooks. Figure 10 shows an embryo with 3 hooks plus a rudimentary 4th. None had 5 or 6 hooks. If the embryos without hooks are not counted, as may be proper since these were in other ways deficient as well, often lacking membranes or cellular structure, then about 6% had one hook;

number of 6 haploid. The chromosomes of this worm exist in two main groups, three pairs being larger than the other three. Thus the morphology is distinctly different from that described by Kisner (1957), who found that normal specimens of *Hymenolepis diminuta* possess one pair of large chromosomes, one pair of small chromosomes, and four pairs of medium chromosomes. Two of the medium-sized chromosomes are somewhat larger and two somewhat smaller than the others in this group. The number, 6 haploid, is the same as that possessed by normal specimens of this species. Metaphases of early cleavage stages confirmed the chromosome number and morphology derived from meiosis. (The latter is more reliable than mitosis, in irradiated material, since it represents the karyotype of the somatic tissues of the worm, while the embryos are the result of fertilization, and their chromosomes have passed through two separate reductions, with opportunity for inversion-fragmentation, non-disjunction, and other meiotic irregularities to occur.) A feature of the cleavage stages studied was the presence of a number of Feulgen-positive masses, somewhat larger than chromosomes, and more diffuse than the latter in staining, scattered throughout the cytoplasm of the cells. Anaphase and telophase of early cleavage stages often

80% had two; 10%, three; and 2%, four. The number of embryos per proglottid (Fig. 14) is about 200, but 20–40% of the proglottids in the gravid part of the worm contained no embryos.

GENERAL MORPHOLOGY

The anomalous cestode is 220 mm. long by 1.3 mm. wide at its widest point. Its scolex is not unusual in any way, being the characteristic unarmed 4-suckered scolex of *Hymenolepis diminuta*. The total number of proglottids is about 1,200. The entire strobila is characterized by relative lack of muscularity. In fact, handling that would not break ordinary worms of this species damaged the specimen, and special care had to be exercised in mounting and staining this fragile tapeworm. This worm is characterized as well by internal irregularities such as are illustrated in the portion of strobila shown in Figure 12. The shape of the mature proglottids (Fig. 13) is relatively square, compared with the every wide, short proportions of normal proglottids, and the gravid proglottids (Fig. 14) are actually somewhat longer than broad. Arrangements of the genital organs is not unusual, although there was considerably more variation in number and position of testes than occurs in normal cestodes of this species. Analysis of 432 proglottids in which testes can be seen clearly shows that in 1% of the proglottids no testes occur; in 10%, 1 testis only is found; in 25%, 2 testes occur; in 55%, 3 testes (the number characteristic of the genus) occur; in 7%, 4 testes are found; while in 1%, 5 testes occur and in less than 1%, 6 testes can be found. Proglottid reversal (left to right), however, occurs only once in this specimen, although other observers of *H. diminuta* (Kisner, 1961; Job *et. al.*, 1962; Palais, 1933) have recorded this phenomenon as not uncommon. Out of about 600 proglottids observable for the following defect, there are 30 cases of fusion of two genital ducts to form one genital atrium, this frequency of 5% being higher than the frequency (about 0.3%) found by Job (1962) in a population of 25 unirradiated cestodes.

In general, the morphology of the specimen described above differs both qualitatively and quantitatively from that of normal *Hymenolepis diminuta*. As the discussion which follows will emphasize, the specimen, had it been recovered from a wild host, would create a problem for the taxonomist which the word "anomaly" could not solve.

DISCUSSION

Anomalies in tapeworms have long interested the cestode taxonomists, because they are a possible factor in speciation. Many anomalies should be considered mere induced irregularities in growth. Such are the polyradiate cestodes described and reviewed by Dobrovolny and Dobrovolny (1935), and conditions such as Jones (1946) noted (a 3-suckered scolex) or Goodchild (1958) actually produced by mutilation and transfaunation of tapeworms. Most of the radiation-induced anomalies reported by

Schiller (1959) as well as those analysed statistically by Palais (1933), Kisner (1961), Kuhlman (1961) and Job *et. al.* (1962) fall into the same class of induced irregularities. Nothing is known of the genetic basis, if any, for such changes as the reversal of direction of segmentation, displacement or absence of testes, fusion of genital ducts, or incomplete separation of proglottids reported by many of the above workers.

Some anomalies, on the other hand, appear to have been significant in cestode speciation. Bae (1951) discusses the "double" forms of such well known genera as *Oochoristica* (with its double form, *Pancerina*), *Andrya* (with *Diandrya*) *Paranolocephala* (with *Cittoteania*), and *Dibothriocephalus*, the "fish tapeworms" of man and other mammals, with its double form *Diplogonoporus*. These are examples of tapeworms which resulted from permanent or genetically determined occurrence of an extra set of reproductive organs in each proglottid. The anatomy of the double worms in all other respects resembles quite closely that of the single worm which, one assumes, represents the ancestral type. (The latter assumption is reasonable, of course, since the great majority of tapeworms are single, not double, in their reproductive structure.) It is interesting to note that polyradiate strobilas have been frequently recorded in both *Dipylidium* (which is a double, or "biradiate" form) and *Taenia* (which has no double form in nature).

It appears that while most anomalies may be chance occurrences, with no possibility of genetic transmission, and hence of no significance as sources of speciation, some anomalies (in particular the doubling of reproductive organs) have been the source of new genera. Therefore anomalies will continue to be of interest, especially those which affect the whole strobila of a tapeworm.

Tapeworm anomalies induced by ionizing radiation were discussed by Schiller (1957), who suggested that radiation increases the frequency of the variations that occur rarely in nature, and that therefore radiation might be useful as a tool to study the differences (among species, genera, etc.) in number and kinds of anomalies, these differences having been increased by radiation to measurable frequencies. Schiller, of course, was making the reasonable assumption that most anomalies are non-genetic, and that their occurrence has taxonomic value only as a measure of variability in form or structure. Some anomalies induced by radiation are conceivably genetic. When chromosomal changes occur in combination with extensive morphological differences between the anomalous specimen and its parent stock, the likelihood of genetic, hence taxonomic, significance should not be discounted.

The specimen of *Hymenolepis diminuta* described in the present paper shows changes in both chromosomes and general morphology that distin-

DESCRIPTION OF FIGURES 11-14

All drawn with the Wild drawing tube, at the indicated magnification. The width of the portion shown in Fig. 13 is over 2 mm.; this is an exaggeration of the observed width due to flattening of the worm during mounting. The actual width of this region when fixed was 1.3 mm.

- Fig. 11. Scolex, showing three of its four suckers and an unarmed rostellum.
- Fig. 12. Twenty-one proglottids from the region of developing gonads, showing typical variation as well as two examples of bifurcated or fused female genital canals.
- Fig. 13. Two proglottids from the region of sexual maturity, illustrating variation in position of testes as well as in position of genital atrium. The stippled object is the yolk gland, and the lobed structure, the ovary.
- Fig. 14. Gravid proglottid with all of its eggs outlined. The remnant of the genital ducts (probably seminal receptacle) appears in upper left corner of the proglottid.

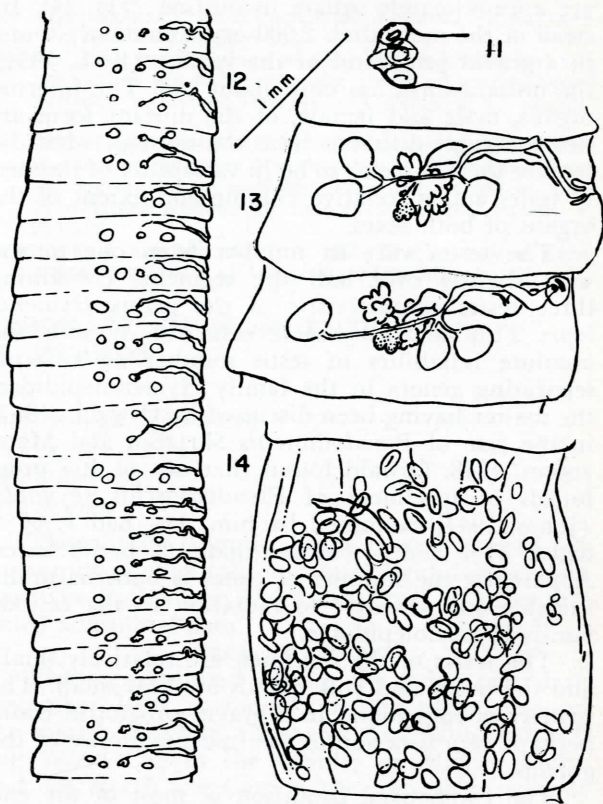
uish it qualitatively from the standard (parent) species, *H. diminuta*.

The latter has 12 chromosomes, occurring as one pair of large, 4 pairs of medium-sized, and 1 pair of small chromosomes (Kisner, 1957). The mutant form has the same number, 12, as the parent species, but its complement of chromosomes lacks the distinctly largest pair, there being only two recognizably different sizes. Moreover, the number 12 is augmented, at least in some of the embryos, by fragments or very small chromosomes.

Aberration in mitosis was observed. As shown in Figures 3 and 4, some cleavage anaphases or telophases seemed irregular, the chromosomes of one daughter nucleus alone being typically aggregated, and the chromosomes of the other nucleus being either scattered, as if the spindle had failed (Fig. 3) or presumably forming separate nuclear fragments, the DNA-containing bodies illustrated in Figure 4. The latter are not yolk masses such as Ogren (1953), Kisner (1961) and others have observed in the early cestode embryo. The above aberrations resemble those observed by Kisner (1961) in cestodes that had been subjected to moderate doses of gamma radiation a few hours before being fixed, and attributed by him to direct disruption of the spindle mechanism, a rather familiar immediate effect of several mitotic poisons such as colchicine. The mitotic aberrations reported by us, however, occurred many cell generations after the radiation had been administered, and must be considered at least partly genetic, rather than toxic, in origin.

In meiosis, the parent species exhibits synaptic regularity, with no evidence of translocated or inverted segments of chromosomes; 6 tetrads regularly form. The mutant specimen, however, rarely shows 6 tetrads in either primary spermatocyte or oocyte; there are usually less than 6 groups, with one or two of the associations involving more than two chromosomes.

The nature of some of the multivalent groups can be seen at pachytene in spermatogenesis (Fig. 7), where chromosomes of different lengths are partially paired, and where three, four and six chromosomes may be in synapsis with parts of each



other. Thus it is apparent that the mutant specimen contains genes in different arrangements from that found in normal specimens. It is more than likely, although not demonstrable, that duplications and deletions of genetic material also occur.

The mutant tapeworm does not fit the taxonomically defined *Hymenolepis diminuta* (Rudolphi, 1819) in several respects. Although the scolex (Fig. 11) is typical, the strobila and proglottids are not. Instead of the approximately 2,000 proglottids characteristic of *H. diminuta*, our specimen has only 1,200, although in length it lies within the range, 200-400 mm., generally given for this species (Wardle and McLeod, 1952). It is noteworthy that in twenty-five worms of the standard strain of *H. diminuta* from which the present specimen was derived, Job (1962) found an average number of 1,830 proglottids per worm (range, 1,400-2,200), and an average length of 420 mm. (range 260-540); the parent stock consisted of relatively large worms. The specimen is much more slender (1.3 mm. instead of 3-4 mm.) than the typical form, appearing superficially more like the rodent anoplocephalid, *Oorchocistica ratti*, than like *H. diminuta*. As mentioned under "observations," the strobila of this specimen was remarkably fragile, and lacked normal muscularity. The proglottids show several differences from proglottids typical of the species. The typical mature proglottid is about 6-8 times as wide as long, whereas the mutant proglottid (Fig. 13) is only about twice as wide as long. The gravid proglottids, unlike those of typical *H. diminuta*,

are approximately square in outline (Fig. 14). Instead of the more than 2,000 eggs commonly found in a gravid proglottid of the species (Beck, 1951), the mutant form has only about 200. The internal organs, male and female, of the mutant form are not strikingly different from the normal; what difference there is seems to be in variability of number of testes and in relative volume and extent of the organs of both sexes.

The testes vary in number from one to six, with slightly over half the segments containing three testes characteristic of the genus *Hymenolepis*. This variability again calls into question the absolute reliability of testis number as a factor separating genera in the family Hymenolepididae, the matter having been discussed by Oswald (1957) in the case of *Pseudodiorchis* Skrjabin and Matevosian, 1948. Oswald found that out of 465 proglottids of specimens of *Pseudodiorchis reynoldsi* (Jones, 1944) examined by him, 1% had 1, 60% had 2, 37% had 3, and less than 1% had 4 testes. Apparently the number of testes is both naturally variable and sensitive to radiation in the cestode family Hymenolepididae.

The testes of the specimen are relatively small, and the ovary and yolk glands are also small. The paucity of eggs found in a gravid proglottid could perhaps be a function of the inadequate size of the gonads.

The two-hooked condition of most of the embryos is perhaps the most remarkable feature of the mutant specimen. Nearly all cestodes of the sub-class Eucestoda have six-hooked embryos. The single known exception is the genus *Anonchotaenia*, the wormlike embryos of which lack hooks. Considerable variation exists among members of the sub-class in respect to embryonic membranes, shell structure, etc., but only the above exception has been noted concerning embryonic hooks. In the sub-class Cestodaria, containing such rare or aberrant forms as *Amphilina* and *Gyrocotyle*, the embryo possesses a different number of hooks, ten rather than six, and is called a lycophore instead of an oncosphere. In the present specimen, as noted above, about 80% of the embryos had only two hooks. Thus a unique variation has occurred, one that departs not only from species or family characteristics, but from a basic taxonomic character of the sub-class itself.

If the present specimens had been recovered during a survey or biological exploration, the taxonomic questions raised would be puzzling. But because the mutant specimen has no future, so to speak, it cannot have any sort of taxonomic status. That is the reason why no complete description of it has been given here, other than the above noted differences from its parent stock.

We believe, however, that there is significance in the variations reported here. Schiller (1957), as noted earlier, suggested radiation as a way to increase the frequency of naturally occurring variation. The present study reports the use of radi-

ation to produce a new variant, not found in nature. The fact that this variant has characteristics that would make it a new species of a new genus perhaps belonging in a new family or even higher category, if the variant were viable and could produce its kind, raises the question, not for the first time, of the naming and classification of artificially produced organisms. Because we are rearing seven different mutant strains of *Hymenolepis diminuta*, and are studying the biological characteristics of these strains, we are directly interested in such a taxonomic problem. At present, however, we do not consider it proper or convenient to place a new name in the literature. Yet the existence of a form such as we have here described is a warning of difficult taxonomic problems to come.

SUMMARY

A tapeworm which differed consistently from normal worms of the same species was one result of treating eight generations of *Hymenolepis diminuta* with large doses of gamma radiation.

The mutant form was smaller and more slender than the normal and had relatively longer and fewer proglottids and fewer eggs.

The chromosomes differed from normal chromosomes in morphology but not in number, this being evidence of translocation of chromosome segments.

The embryos were 2-hooked instead of 6-hooked.

The mutant form is considered an example of a genetically significant anomaly, potentially a taxonomic problem, since experiments in radiation will probably produce morphologically and physiologically unique organisms which are, unlike the present specimen, able to reproduce.

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OBSERVATIONS OF PRESENT-DAY CARBONATE ENVIRONMENTS IN THE BAHAMA ISLANDS

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INTRODUCTION

During the fall and winter of 1958 the writers began a detailed study of the limestones of Mississippian age on Lookout Mountain near Chattanooga, Tennessee. Marked lateral and vertical changes were noted in these ancient oolitic limestones. In order to better understand the environments and sedimentary processes responsible, it was believed advantageous to visit an area of recent carbonate formation.

The Bahama Islands, located south and east of Miami, Florida (Fig. 1), are considered to be one of the classic areas for the study of marine carbonate deposition. Since Louis Agassiz's study of 1851, this outdoor laboratory has been of major importance to geologists.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writers wish to thank Mr. George Clark, Chairman of the Board of Pioneer Bank, Chattanooga, for his interest in this study. Mr. Clark made available the necessary funds and volunteered the use of his yacht, Pioneer, which served as the main base of operations in the Bahamas.

Sincere appreciation goes to Dr. Leon Johnson, of the Pennsylvania State University, who provided X-ray analyses of carbonate mud samples. The assistance and advice of Dr. Cesare Emiliani of the International Oceanographic Foundation of Miami and Rear Admiral Karo, Director of the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, also is gratefully acknowledged.

Local assistance was provided by Col. Peter Wilson, retired British army officer of Fresh Creek, Andros Town, Bahama Islands. The crew of the yacht, Captain Bob Lackey and Sam Lowe, helped in collecting samples and taking photographs.

METHODS OF STUDY

Owing to the limiting time factor, a relatively small number of rock and sediment samples were taken. The unconsolidated sands and muds on beaches, lagoon floors, and river bottoms were spot-sampled for mechanical, X-ray, and spectrographic

analyses. These field samples were supplemented by numerous photographs and brief field descriptions. Airplane flights over the Fresh Creek vicinity provided additional data.

AREAS OF STUDY

The areas studied during the 8-day period in December 1959, included: (1) the region around the mouth of Fresh Creek on Andros Island, (2) Big Wood Cay in the vicinity of Middle Bight, and (3) North Cat Cay on the western margin of the Bahama Island group (Fig. 1).

The major portion of this brief investigation centered about Andros Town on Fresh Creek (Fig. 2) because of the relatively large number of closely-spaced environments of carbonate formation and accumulation. These environments include: (1) reef, (2) cay (island), (3) lagoon, (4) beach, and (5) stream. The Middle Bight area displayed characteristics of (1) beach and (2) lagoon. North Cat Cay showed (1) beach and (2) lagoonal environments to advantage.

Fresh Creek Area

The narrow barrier reef off the eastern coast of Andros Island extends a short distance seaward (toward the Tongue of the Ocean) from the exposed cays. It is not continuous and through one of the breaks it is possible to gain access to the Andros Town harbor. The area visited is located off the northernmost island of the Goat Cay group (Fig. 2).

This reef is a living community covered by 7 to 10 feet of water at high tide and only 4 to 5 feet at low tide. The water was very clear and had a temperature of 71° to 75°F. The "rock" consists principally of sand-sized skeletal material held in place by growing coral colonies. Sea fans are the most common. Others include: (1) *Acropora palmata* (Elkhorn coral), (2) *Acropora cervicornis* (Staghorn coral), (3) *Goniolithon strictum*, and (4) several species of *Porites*. Sharp-spined sea urchins were abundant.

Of the many islands in the area, Long Cay was chosen primarily because of its accessibility. It is