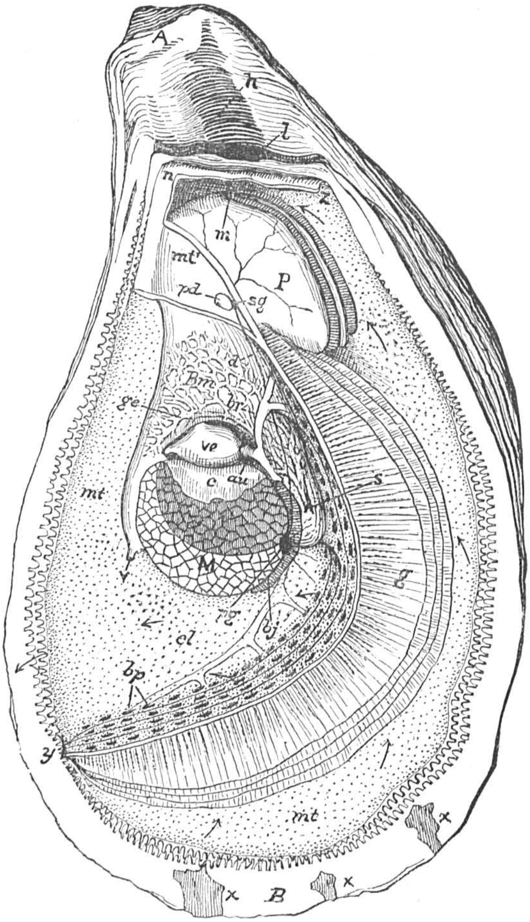

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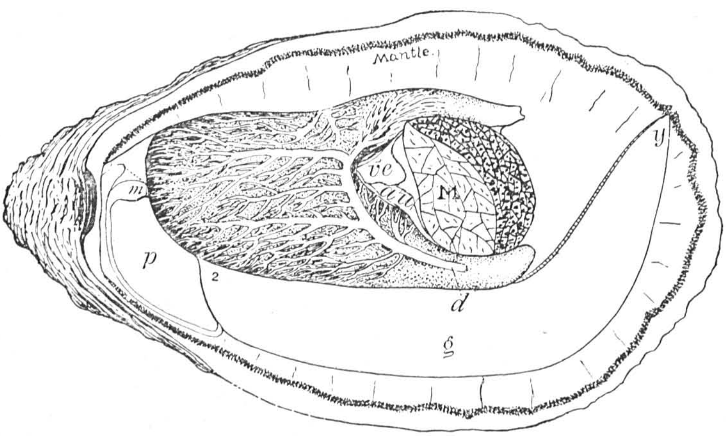

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Fig. 1. Oyster with right shell and mantle removed. *a* and *a*, origin of arteries from the ventricle; *au*, auricle of heart; *br*, vessel carrying blood from the gills to the auricle of the heart; *bj*, outline of organ of Bojanus, the so-called kidney; *bp*, pores from which the water issues into the branchial canals after passing through the gills; *cl*, cloaca; *d*, *pg*. and *sg*, connective and two ganglia of the nervous system; *g*, gills; *gc*, cavity between the two mantle folds; *h*, hinge; *l*, ligament; *M*, adductor muscle; *m*, mouth; *mt*, mantle, the arrows show the direction of currents produced by the cilia; *p*, palps; *p'*, outer end of right pedal muscle; *s*, external opening of sexual and renal organs of right side; *v*, anus; *ve*, ventricle of heart.

Fig. 2. Diagram to show sexual organs of the oyster. *d*, duct of sexual gland. Other letters as above.

ANATOMY, EMBRYOLOGY, AND GROWTH OF THE OYSTER.

By H. F. Moore.[a]

ANATOMY.

The following popular description of the anatomy of the oyster is extracted from the writings of Professors Brooks and Ryder:

The general structure of an oyster may be roughly represented by a long, narrow memorandum book, with the back at one of the narrow ends instead of one of the long ones. The covers of such a book represent the two shells of the oyster, and the back represents the hinge, or the area where the two valves of the shell are fastened together by the hinge ligament. (Plate VII, fig. 1 *l.*) This ligament is an elastic, dark-brown structure, which is placed in such a relation to the valves of the shell that it tends to throw their free ends a little apart. In order to understand its manner of working, open the memorandum book and place between its leaves, close to the back, a small piece of rubber to represent the ligament. If the free ends of the cover are pulled together the rubber will be compressed and will throw the covers apart as soon as they are loosened. The ligament of the oyster shell tends, by its elasticity, to keep the shell open at all times, and while the oyster is lying undisturbed upon the bottom, or when its muscle is cut, or when the animal is dying or dead, the edges of the shell are separated a little.

The shell is lined by a thin membrane, the mantle (plate VII, fig. 1 *mt*), which folds down on each side, and may be compared to the leaf next the cover on each side of the book. The next two leaves of each side roughly represent the four gills, *g*, the so-called "beard" of the oyster, which hang down like leaves into the space inside the two lobes of the mantle. The remaining leaves may be compared to the body or visceral mass of the oyster.

Although the oyster lies upon the bottom, with one shell above and one below, the shells are not upon the top and bottom of the body, but upon the right and left sides. The two shells are symmetrical in the young oyster (plate VIII, fig. 2), but after it becomes attached the lower or attached side grows faster than the other, and becomes deep and spoon-shaped, while the free valve remains nearly flat. In nearly every case the lower or deep valve is the left. As the hinge marks the anterior end of the body, an oyster which is held on edge, with the hinge away from the observer, and the flat valve on the right side, will be placed with its dorsal surface uppermost, its ventral surface below, its anterior end away from the observer, and its posterior end toward him, and its right and left sides on his right and left hands, respectively.

In order to examine the soft parts, the oyster should be opened by gently working a thin, flat knife-blade under the posterior end of the right valve of the shell, and pushing the blade forward until it strikes and cuts the strong adductor muscle, *M*, which passes from one shell to another and pulls them together. As soon as this

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[a] Reprinted from "Oysters and Methods of Oyster Culture," Report U. S. Fish Commission, 1897, pp. 270-279.

muscle is cut the valves separate a little, and the right valve may be raised up and broken off from the left, thus exposing the right side of the body. The surface of the body is covered by the mantle, a thin membrane which is attached to the body over a great part of its surface, but hangs free like a curtain around nearly the whole circumference. By raising its edge, or gently tearing the whole right half away from the body, the gills, *g*, will be exposed. These are four parallel plates which occupy the ventral half of the mantle cavity and extend from the posterior nearly to the anterior end of the body. Their ventral edges are free, but their dorsal edges are united to each other, to the mantle, and to the body. The space above, or dorsal to the posterior ends of the gills, is occupied by the oval, firm adductor muscle, *M*, the so-called "heart." For some time I was at a loss to know how the muscle came to be called the "heart," but a friend told me that he had always supposed that this was the heart, since the oyster dies when it is injured. The supposed "death" is simply the opening of the shell, when the animal loses the power to keep it shut. Between this muscle and the hinge the space above the gills is occupied by the body, or visceral mass, which is made up mainly of the light-colored reproductive organs and the dark-colored digestive organs, packed together in one continuous mass.

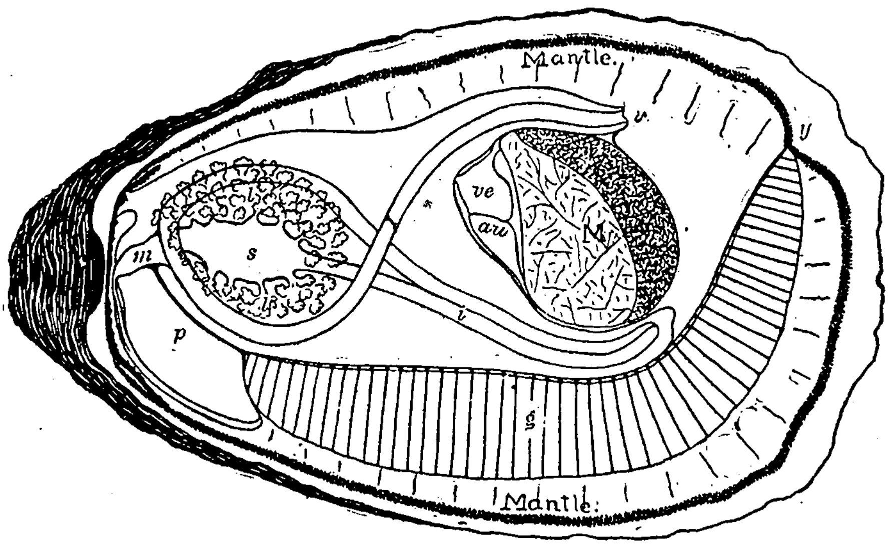
If the oyster has been opened very carefully, a transparent, crescent-shaped space will be seen between the muscle and the visceral mass. This space is the pericardium, and if the delicate membrane which forms its sides be carefully cut away, the heart, *ve* and *au*, may be found without any difficulty lying in this cavity and pulsating slowly. If the oyster has been opened roughly, or if it has been out of water for some time, the rate of beating may be as low as one a minute, or even less, so the heart must be watched attentively for some time in order to see one of the contractions.

*   *   *   *   *   *   *

In front of the gills, that is between them and the hinge, there are four fleshy flaps—the lips, *p*, two on each side of the body. They are much like the gills in appearance, and they are connected with each other by two ridges, which run across the middle of the body close to the anterior end, and between these folds is the large oval mouth, *m*, which is thus seen to be situated, not at the open end of the shell, but as far away from it as possible. As the oyster is immovably fixed upon the bottom, and has no arms or other structures for seizing food and carrying it to the mouth, the question how it obtains its food at once suggests itself. If a fragment of one of the gills is examined with a microscope it will be found to be covered with very small hairs, or cilia, arranged in rows, plate IX, fig. 3, *c*. Each of these cilia is constantly swinging back and forth with a motion something like that of an oar in rowing. The motion is quick and strong in one direction and slower in the other. As all the cilia of a row swing together they act like a line of oars, only they are fastened to the gill, and as this is immovable they do not move forward through the water, but produce a current of water in the opposite direction. This action is not directed by the animal, for it can be observed for hours in a fragment cut out of the gill, and if such a fragment be supplied with fresh sea water the motion will continue until it begins to decay. While the oyster lies undisturbed on the bottom, with its muscle relaxed and its shell open, the sea water is drawn on to the gills by the action of the cilia, for although each cilium is too small to be seen without a microscope, they cover the gills in such great numbers that their united action produces quite a vigorous stream of water, which is drawn through the shell and is then forced through very small openings on the surfaces of the gills into the water tubes inside the gills, and through these tubes into the cavity above them, and so out of the shell again. As the stream of water passes through the gills the blood is aerated by contact with it.

The food of the oyster consists entirely of minute animal and vegetable organisms and small particles of organized matter. Ordinary sea water contains an abundance of this sort of food, which is drawn into the gills with the water, but as the water strains through the pores into the water tubes the food particles are caught on the surface of the gills by a layer of adhesive slime, which covers all the soft parts of the body. As soon as they are entangled the cilia strike against them in such a way as to roll or slide them along the gills toward the mouth. When they reach the anterior ends of the gills they are pushed off and fall between the lips, and these again are covered with cilia, which carry the particles forward until they slide into the mouth, which is always wide open and ciliated, so as to draw the food through the œsophagus into the stomach. Whenever the shell is open these cilia are in action, and as long as the oyster is breathing a current of food is sliding into its mouth.

The cilia and particles of food are too small to be seen without a microscope, but if finely powdered carmine be sprinkled over the gills of a fresh oyster, which has been carefully opened and placed in a shallow dish of sea water, careful observation will show that as soon as the colored particles touch the gills they begin to slide along with a motion which is quite uniform, but not much faster than that of the



minute-hand of a watch. This slow, steady, gliding motion, without any visible cause, is a very striking sight, and with a little care the particles may be followed up to and into the mouth.

In order to trace the course of the digestive organs the visceral mass may be split with a sharp knife or razor. If the split is pretty near the middle of the body, each half will show sections of the short, folded œsophagus, running upward from the mouth and the irregular stomach, *s* (see cut) with thick, semitransparent walls, surrounded by the compact, dark-greenish liver, *l l*. Back of the liver and stomach the convoluted intestine, *i*, will be seen, cut irregularly at several points by the section.

There are no accessory organs of reproduction, and the position, form, and general appearance of the reproductive organ, plate VII, fig. 2, is the same in both sexes. As the reproductive organ has an opening on each side of the body, it is usually spoken of as double, but in the adult oyster it forms one continuous mass, with no trace of a division into halves, and extends entirely across the body and (against) the bends and folds of the digestive tract.[a]

* * * * * * *

The stomach is pretty definitely marked off from the other portions of the digestive tract. It may be said to be that portion of the latter which is surrounded by the liver. The portion of the intestine immediately following the short, widened region which we regarded as the stomach is the most spacious portion of the gut, and in it is lodged a very singular organ, which has been called the "crystalline style." This is an opalescent rod of a glass-like transparency and gelatinous consistence, which measures, according to the size of the oyster, from half an inch up to one and a half inches in length. Its anterior end is the largest, and in a large specimen measures nearly an eighth of an inch in diameter, but at its posterior end is scarcely half as thick; both ends are bluntly rounded. I fell into an error in supposing that this style was lodged in a special pouch or sac, as described in my report to the Maryland commissioner in 1880. The "crystalline style" really lies in the first portion of the intestine and extends from the pyloric end of the stomach to the first bend of the intestine, where there is a marked constriction of the alimentary canal. It appears, therefore, to be a sort of loose valve in the cavity of the gut; its function may be to prevent coarse particles of food from passing, or it may in some way assist digestion. In specimens hardened in acid or alcohol this rod is destroyed, or at least disappears, so that I have been unable to find it. The greater portion of its substance is apparently made up of water.

The peculiar double induplication of the wall of the intestine is described in another place. The fecal matters are extruded in the form of a demicylinder, with one side excavated in a groove-like manner. This shape of the fecal matters is due to the presence of the double fold. The feces themselves are composed of extremely fine particles of quartz or sand grains, the tests of diatoms, organic matter, humus, cellulose, fragments of the chitinous coverings of some of the minute worms and articulates, etc., which have been swallowed and digested by the animal. The a
is situated on the dorsal side of the great adductor muscle where the intestine

The organs of sensation of the oyster, though not very highly developed, a
sufficient importance to merit attention. The auditory sense, although I have never been able to dissect out the auditory vesicles, I am satisfied exists, because one can not noisily approach an oyster bank where the oysters are feeding without their hearing so that instantly every shell is closed. The tentacles of the mantle are often extended until their tips reach beyond the edges of the valves. If the animal in this condition is exposed to a strong light, the shadow of the hand passing over it is a sufficient stimulus to cause it to retract the mantle and tentacles and to close its parted valves. The mantle incloses, like a curtain, the internal organs of the creature on either side, and lies next the shell, and, as already stated, secretes and deposits the layers of calcic carbonate composing the latter. The free edges of the mantle, which are purplish, are garnished with small, highly sensitive tentacles of the same color. These tentacles are ciliated and serve as organs of touch, and also appear to be to some extent sensitive to light.

The nervous system of the oyster is very simple, and, as elsewhere stated, is to some extent degenerate in character. It is composed of a pair of ganglia or knots of nervous matter, plate VII, fig. 1, *sg*, which lie just over the gullet, and from these a pair of nervous cords, *d*, pass backward, one on each side, to join the hinder pair which lie just beneath the adductor muscle, *pg*. The mantle receives nerve branches from the hindmost ganglia or knots of nervous matter; these, as their centers, control the contraction and elongation of the radiating bundle of muscular fibers, as well as those which lie lengthwise along the margin; the former contract and withdraw the

[a] Brooks, W. K.: Studies from the Biological Laboratory of Johns Hopkins University, No. IV, 1888, pp. 5-10 in part.

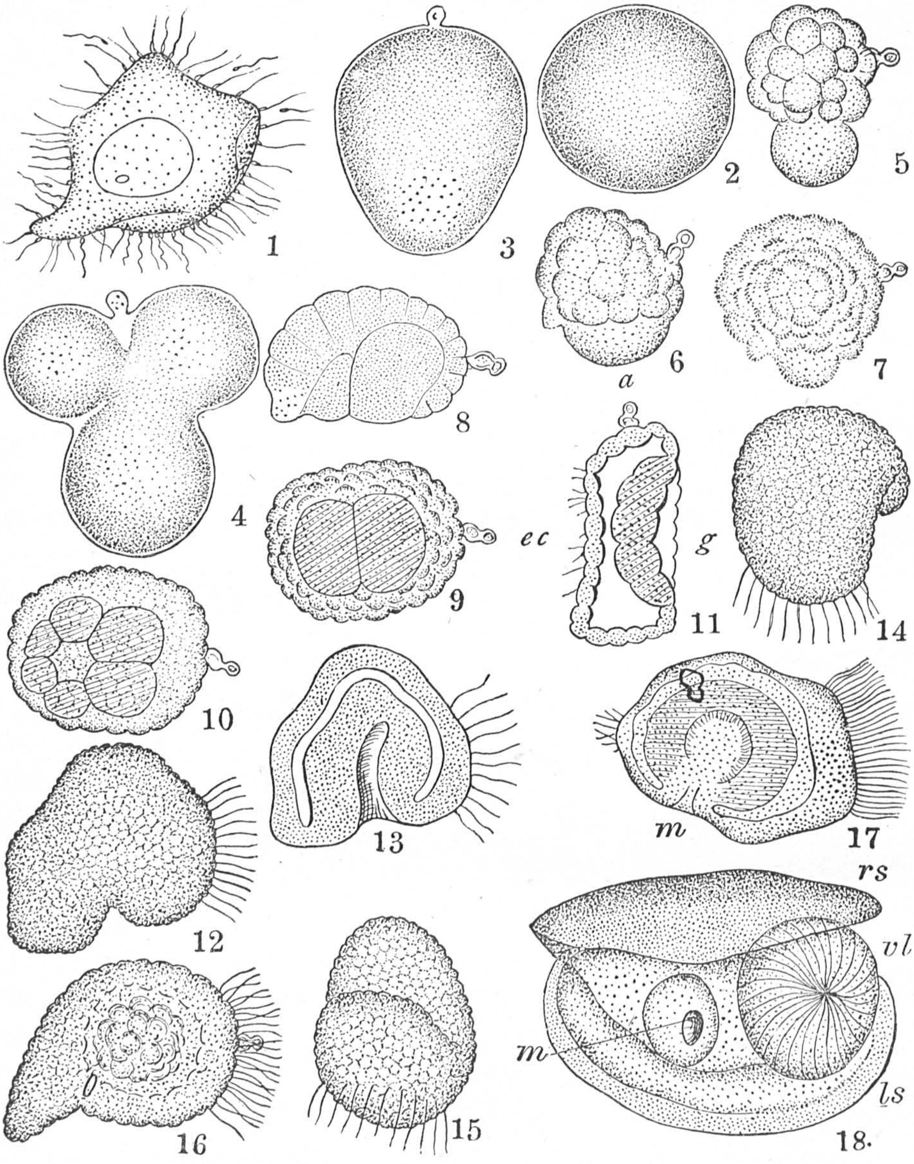


FIG. 1. Unfertilized egg shortly after mixture of spawn and milt; spermatozoa are adhering to the surface.
FIG. 2. Egg after fertilization.
FIG. 3. Same egg 2 minutes later. Polar body at broad end.
FIG. 4. Same egg 6 minutes later.
FIG. 5. About 6½ hours later.
FIG. 6. Another egg at about the same stage. Mass of small cells growing over large cell or macromere *a*.
FIG. 7. Egg 55 minutes later. Macromere almost covered by small cells of ectoderm.
FIG. 8. Optical section of egg 27 hours after impregnation, showing two large cells, derived from *a* in fig 6, covered by a layer of small ectodermal cells.
FIG. 9. Egg a few hours older, showing large cells viewed from below.
FIG. 10. An egg somewhat older viewed from above, showing further subdivision of large cells as seen through cells of upper layer.
FIG. 11. An older egg, now become flattened from above downward. Viewed in optical section.
FIG. 12. Surface view of an embryo just beginning to swim.
FIG. 13. Optical section of same.
FIG. 14. Surface view of same from another position.
FIG. 15. Surface view of same from another position.
FIG. 16. An older embryo in same position as in fig 12.
FIG. 17. A still older embryo showing spherical ciliated digestive cavity opening by mouth, *m*.
FIG. 18. An embryo with well-developed larval shells, older than fig. 1, Plate VIII. *rs*, right shell; *ls*, left shell; *vl*, velum; *m*, mouth.

After W. K. Brooks.

edges of the mantle from the margin of the shell, while the latter in contracting tend to crimp or fold its edges. The tentacles are mainly innervated by fibers emanating from the hindmost ganglia, while the internal organs are innervated from the head or cephalic ganglia. The hind ganglia also preside over the contraction of the great adductor muscle. The nerve threads which radiate outward from it to the tentacles dispatch the warnings when intruders are at hand that it must contract and close the shells.[a]

EMBRYONIC DEVELOPMENT.

The following popular account of the early stages in the development of the oyster is slightly modified from the description by Dr. W. K. Brooks:

The ovarian eggs are simply the cells of an organ of the body, the ovary, and they differ from the ordinary cells only in being much larger and more distinct from each other, and they have the power, when detached from the body, of growing and dividing up into cells, which shall shape themselves into a new organism like that from whose body the egg came. Most of the steps in this wonderful process may be watched under the microscope, and, owing to the ease with which the eggs of the oyster may be obtained, this is a very good egg to study.

About 15 minutes after the eggs are fertilized they will be found to be covered with male cells, as shown in plate VIII, fig. 1.[b] In about an hour the egg will be found to have changed its shape and appearance. It is now nearly spherical, as shown in plate VIII, fig. 2, and the germinative vesicle is no longer visible. The male cells may or may not still be visible upon the outer surface. In a short time a little transparent point makes its appearance on the surface of the egg and increases in size and soon forms a little projecting transparent knob—the *polar globule*—which is shown in fig. 3, plate VIII, and in succeeding figures.

Recent investigations tend to show that while these changes are taking place one of the male cells penetrates the protoplasm of the egg and unites with the germinative vesicle, which does not disappear but divides into two parts, one of which is pushed out of the egg and becomes the polar globule, while the other remains behind and becomes the nucleus of the developing egg, but changes its appearance so that it is no longer conspicuous. The egg now becomes pear-shaped, with the polar globule at the broad end of the pear, and this end soon divides into two parts, so that the egg (fig. 4, plate VIII) is now made of one large mass and two slightly smaller ones, with the polar globule between them.

The later history of the egg shows that at this early stage the egg is not perfectly homogeneous, but that the protoplasm which is to give rise to certain organs of the body has separated from that which is to give rise to others.

The upper portion of the egg soon divides up into smaller and smaller spherules, until at the stage shown in figs. 5, 6, and 7, plate VIII, we have a layer of small cells wrapped around the greater part of the surface of a single large spherule, and the series of figures shows that the latter is the spherule which is below in fig. 4, plate VIII. This spherule now divides up into a layer of cells, and at the same time the egg, or rather the embryo, becomes flattened from above downward and assumes the shape of a flat oval disk. Figs. 10 and 9, plate VIII, are views of the upper and lower surface of the embryo at about this time. In a sectional view, fig. 11, plate VIII, it is seen to be made of two layers of cells, an upper layer of small transparent cells, *e c*, which are

[a] Ryder, John A.: Fishery Industries of the United States, pp. 714-715.
[b] References to figures in quoted portions of this paper do not correspond with the originals, being altered to accord with their sequence in the present article.

to form the outer wall of the body and which have been formed by the division of the spherules which occupy the upper end of the egg in fig. 6, plate VIII, and a lower layer of much larger, more opaque cells, *g*, which are to become the walls of the stomach, and which have been formed by the division of the large spherule, *a*, of fig. 6, plate VIII.

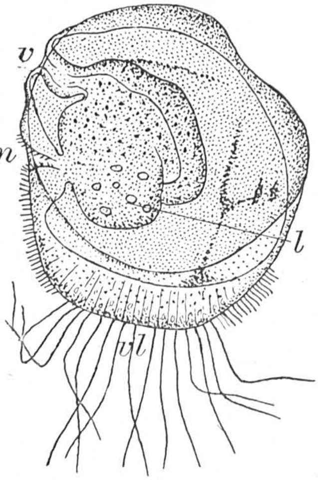
This layer is seen in the section to be pushed in a little toward the upper layer, so that the lower surface of the disk-shaped embryo is not flat, but very slightly concave. This concavity is destined to grow deeper until its edges almost meet, and it is the rudimentary digestive cavity. A very short time after this stage has been reached, and usually within from two to four hours after the eggs were fertilized, the embryo undergoes a great change of shape and assumes the form which is shown in three different views in figs. 12, 13, 14, and 15, plate VIII.

A circular tuft of long hairs or cilia has now made at its appearance at what is thus marked as the anterior end of the body, and as soon as these hairs are formed they begin to swing backward and forward in such a way as to constitute a swimming organ, which rows the little animal up from the bottom to the surface of the water, where it swims around very actively by the aid of its cilia. This stage of development, fig. 12, plate VIII, which is of short duration, is of great importance in raising the young oysters, for it is the time when they can best be siphoned off into a separate vessel and freed from the danger of being killed by the decay of any eggs which may fail to develop. On one surface of the body at this stage, the dorsal surface, there is a well-marked groôve, and when a specimen is found in a proper position for examination the opening into the digestive tract is found at the bottom of this groove. Fig. 13, plate VIII, is a sectional view of such an embryo. It is seen to consist of a central cavity, the digestive cavity, which opens externally on the dorsal surface of the body by a small orifice, the primitive mouth, and which is surrounded at all points, except at the mouth, by a wall which is distinct from the outer wall of the body. Around the primitive mouth these two layers are continuous with each other.

The way in which this cavity, with its wall and external opening, has been formed will be understood by a comparison of fig. 13, plate VIII, with fig. 8, plate VIII. The layer which is below in fig. 8, plate VIII, has been pushed upward in such a way as to convert it into a long tube, and at the same time the outer layer has grown downward and inward around it, and has thus constricted the opening. The layer of cells which is below in fig. 8, plate VIII, thus becomes converted into the walls of the digestive tract, and the space which is outside and below the embryo, in fig. 8, plate VIII, becomes converted into an inclosed digestive cavity, which opens externally by the primitive mouth.

This stage of development, in which the embryo consists of two layers, an inner layer surrounding a cavity which opens externally by a mouth-like opening, and an outer layer which is continuous with the inner around the margins of the opening, is of very frequent occurrence, and it has been found, with modifications, in the most widely separated groups of animals, such as the starfish, the oyster, and the frog; and some representatives of all the larger groups of animals, except the protozoa, appear to pass during their development through a form which may be regarded as a more or less considerable modification of that presented by our embryo oyster. This stage of development is known as the *gastrula* stage.

The edges of the primitive mouth of the oyster continue to approach each other and finally meet and unite, thus closing up the opening, as shown in fig. 16, plate VIII, and leaving the digestive tract without any communication with the outside of the body, and entirely surrounded by the outer layer. The embryo shown in figs. 12 and 16, plate VIII, are represented with the dorsal surface below, in order to facilitate comparison with the adult, but in fig. 17, plate VIII, and most of the following figures, the dorsal surface is uppermost, for more ready comparison with the adult.



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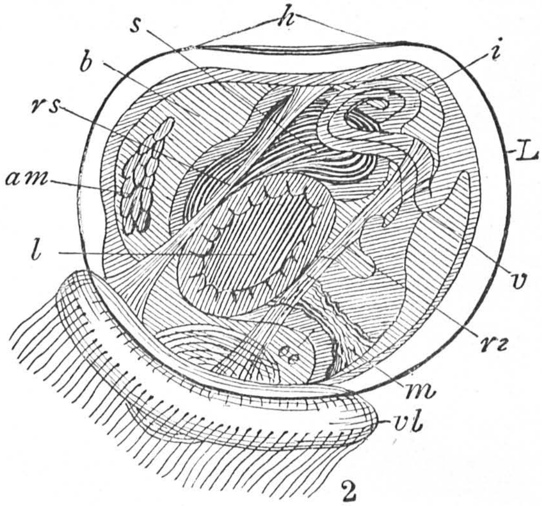

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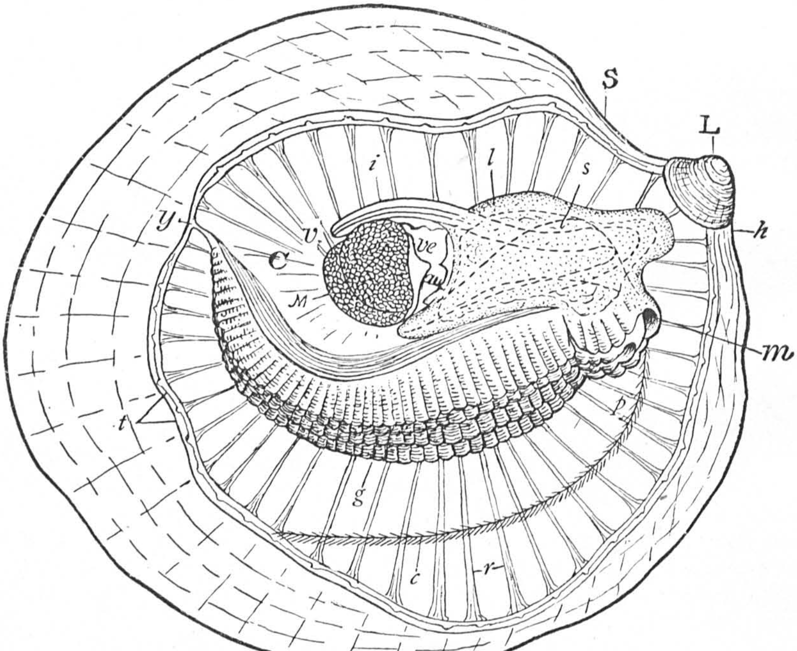

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FIG. 1. View of right side of embryo about 6 days old. *m*, mouth; *v*, vent; *l*, right lobe of liver; *vl*, velum.

FIG. 2. Older larva of European oyster, *Ostrea lurida*. *L*, shell; *h*, hinge; *rs* and *ri*, retractor muscles of the velum, *vl*; *s*, stomach; *i*, intestine; *am*, larval adductor muscle; *b*, body cavity. Other letters as in the preceding.

FIG. 3. Attached spat of *Ostrea virginica*. *S*, shell of spat with larval shell, *L*, at the beak or umbo; *p*, palps; *g*, gills; *c*, diagrammatic representation of a single row of cillia extending from the mantle border to the mouth *m*; *r*, radiating muscle fibres of mantle; *t*, rudimentary tentacles of mantle border; *M*, permanent adductor muscle; *C*, cloaca; *ve* and *au*, ventricle and auricle of the heart; *y*, posterior extremity of the gills and junction of the mantle folds. Other figures as above. Compare this figure with Pl. I, fig. 1.

Fig. 1 after W. K. Brooks. Fig. 2 after Thomas H. Huxley. Fig. 3 after John A. Ryder.

In other lamellibranchs, and doubtless also in the oyster, the shell begins as a deposit in an invagination or pocket on the dorsal side of the body. In its manner of formation this shell gland resembles the primitive mouth for which it has been more than once mistaken by investigators. In some forms the shell is at first single, but in the oyster the two are said to be separated from each other from the beginning, and appear independently. Doctor Brooks says further:

Soon after they make their appearance, the embryos cease to crowd to the surface of the water and sink to various depths, although they continue to swim actively in all directions, and may still be found occasionally close to the surface. The region of the body which carries the cilia now becomes sharply defined, as a circular projecting pad, the *velum*, and this is present and is the organ of locomotion at a much later stage of development. It is shown at the right side of the figure in plate VIII, fig. 17, and in fig. 18, plate VIII, it is seen in surface view, drawn in between the shells, and with its cilia folded down and at rest, as they are seen when the little oyster lies upon the bottom.

The two shells grow rapidly, and soon become quite regular in outline, as shown in plate VIII, fig. 17, and plate IX, fig. 1, but for some time they are much smaller than the body, which projects from between their edges around their whole circumference, except that along a short area, the area of the hinge upon the dorsal surface, where the two valves are in contact.

The two shells continue to grow at their edges, and soon become large enough to cover up and project a little beyond the surface of the body, as shown in plate IX, fig. 1, and at the same time muscular fibers make their appearance and are so arranged that they can draw the edge of the body and the velum in between the edges of the shells in the manner shown in plate VIII, fig. 18. In this way that surface of the body which lines the shell becomes converted into the two lobes of the mantle, and between them a mantle cavity is formed, into which the velum can be drawn when the animal is at rest. While these changes have been going on over the outer surface of the body other important internal modifications have taken place. We left the digestive tract at the stage shown in plate VIII, fig. 16, without any communication with the exterior.

Soon the outer wall of the body becomes pushed inward to form the true mouth, at a point (plate VIII, fig. 17) which is upon the ventral surface and almost directly opposite the point where the primitive mouth was situated at an earlier stage. The digestive cavity now becomes greatly enlarged and cilia make their appearance upon its walls, the mouth becomes connected with the chamber which is thus formed and which becomes the stomach, and minute particles of food are drawn in by the cilia and can now be seen inside the stomach, where the vibration of the cilia keep them in constant motion. Up to this time the animal has developed without growing, and at the stage shown in plate VIII, fig. 16, it is scarcely larger than the unfertilized egg, but it now begins to increase in size. The stages shown in plate IX, fig. 1, and plate VIII, fig. 18, agree pretty closely with the figures which the European embryologists give of the oyster embryo at the time when it escapes from the mantle chamber of its parent. The American oyster reaches this stage in from twenty-four hours to six days after the egg is fertilized, the rate of development being determined mainly by the temperature of the water.

Soon after the mantle has become connected with the stomach this becomes united to the body wall at another point a little behind the mantle, and a second opening, the anus, is formed. The tract, which connects the anus with the stomach, lengthens and forms the intestine, and soon after the sides of the stomach become folded off to form the two halves of the liver, as shown in plate IX, fig. 1 Various muscular fibers now make their appearance within the body, and the animal assumes the form shown in plate IX, fig. 1, and plate VIII, fig. 18.[a]

What follows this stage may be best told in the words of Professor Huxley, who speaks of the European oyster, in which the metamorphosis from the free-swimming fry to the fixed spat and finally the adult oyster is essentially the same as in our species:

The young animal which is hatched out of the egg of the oyster is extremely unlike the adult, and it will be worth while to consider its character more closely than we have hitherto done.

Under a tolerably high magnifying power the body is observed to be inclosed in a transparent but rather thick shell (plate IX, fig. 2, *L*), composed, as in the parent, of two valves united by a straight hinge, *h*. But these valves are symmetrical and similar in size and shape, so that the shell resembles that of a cockle more than it does that of an adult oyster. In the adult the shell is composed of two substances of different character, the outer brownish, with a friable prismatic structure, the inner dense and nacreous. In the larva there is no such distinction, and the whole shell consists of a glassy substance devoid of any definite structure.

The hinge line answers, as in the adult, to the dorsal side of the body. On the opposite or ventral side the wide mouth *m* and the minute vent *v* are seen at no great distance from one another. Projecting from the front part of the aperture of the shell there is a sort of outgrowth of the integument of what we may call the back of the neck into a large oval thick-rimmed disk termed the *velum*, *vl*, the middle of which presents a more or less marked prominence. The rim of the disk is lined with long vibratile cilia, and it is the lashing of these cilia which propels the animal, and, in the absence of gills, probably subserves respiration. The funnel-shaped mouth has no palps; it leads into a wide gullet, and this into a capacious stomach. A sac-like process of the stomach on either side (the left one, *l*, only is shown in fig. 2) represents the "liver." The narrow intestine is already partially coiled on itself, and this is the only departure from perfect bilateral symmetry in the whole body of the animal. The alimentary canal is lined throughout with ciliated cells, and the vibration of these cilia is the means by which the minute bodies which serve the larva for food are drawn into the digestive cavity.

There are two pairs of delicate longitudinal muscles, *rs ri*, which are competent to draw back the ciliated velum into the cavity of the shell, when the animal at once sinks. The complete closure of the valves is effected, as in the adult, by an adductor muscle, *am*, the fibers of which pass from one valve to the other. But it is a very curious circumstance that this adductor muscle is not the same as that which exists in the adult. It lies, in fact, in the fore part of the body and on the dorsal side of the alimentary canal. The great muscle of the adult, fig. 3, *M*, on the other hand, lies on the ventral side of the alimentary canal and in the hinder part of the body. And as the muscles, respectively, lie on opposite sides of the alimentary canal, that of the adult can not be that of the larva, which has merely shifted its position; for in order to get from one side of the alimentary canal to the other it must needs cut through that organ; but as in the adult no adductor muscle is discoverable in the position occupied by that of the larva or anywhere on the dorsal side of the alimentary canal, while on the other hand there is no trace of any adductor on the ventral side in the larva, it follows that the dorsal or anterior adductor of the larva must vanish in the course of development, and that a new ventral or posterior adductor must be developed to play the same part and replace the original muscle functionally, though not morphologically.

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[a] Report Maryland Fish Commission, Annapolis, 1880, pp. 19-25, in part.

When the free larva of the oyster settles down into the fixed state, the left lobe of the mantle stretches beyond its valve, and, applying itself to the surface of the stone or shell to which the valve is to adhere, secretes shelly matter, which serves to cement the valve to its support. As the animal grows the mantle deposits new layers of shell over its whole surface, so that the larval shell valves become separated from the mantle by the new layers (plate IX, fig. 3, *S*), which crop out beyond their margins and acquire the characteristic prismatic and nacreous structure. The summits of the outer faces of the umbones thus correspond with the places of the larval valves, which soon cease to be discernible. After a time the body becomes convex on the left side and flat on the right; the successively added new layers of shell mold themselves upon it, and the animal acquires the asymmetry characteristic of the adult.[a]

The horny convex shell of the fry (plate IX, fig. 3, *L*) may be seen, for a considerable time after attachment, at the umbo or beak of the developing shell of the spat (plate IX, fig. 3, *S*). The under or attached valve of the latter at first conforms closely to the surface to which it has become attached, being usually flat, but afterwards, as a rule, becoming deep and strongly concave, through an upgrowing along the edges.

FIXATION, SET, OR SPATTING.

At the time of fixation the fry will, under proper conditions, attach itself by its left valve to any hard or firm body with which it may come in contact.

The first essential is that the surface should be clean and that it should remain so a sufficient length of time to enable the young oyster to establish itself firmly. So long as this condition obtains, the nature of the material seems to matter but little. In most bodies of water the spat fixes itself at all levels from the surface to the bottom, but in certain parts of the coast its place of attachment is confined to the zone between high and low water, the mid-tide mark being the place of maximum fixation. It has been suggested that this was due to the density of the water preventing the sinking of the fry. There are a number of objections to this theory, but no better one has been offered, and it may receive provisional acceptance.

GROWTH.

At the time of its attachment the oyster fry measures about one-eightieth or one-ninetieth of an inch in diameter. The valves of the shell are strongly convex and symmetrical, and are composed of a horny material quite different from the finished shell of the adult.

The mantle, a thin flap of tissue which envelops the body of the oyster on each side, projects freely from between the lips of the valves and is the organ which secretes the shell. Upon its outer surface suc-

[a] Huxley, Thomas H.: Oysters and the Oyster Question. The English Illustrated Magazine, London, Oct., 1883, and Nov., 1883, vol. 1, pp. 47-55 and 112-121.

cessive layers of horny material are laid down, these becoming impregnated with calcareous matter arranged in a prismatic manner, and thus forming the stony shell which characterizes the adult.

The mantle increases *pari passu* with the growth of the soft parts in general, and as it is always capable of protrusion a little beyond the lips of the valves, it follows that each successive layer of shell is slightly larger than that which preceded it, and the shell increases in length and breadth as well as in thickness. From the nature of its growth, therefore, the youngest or newest part of the shell is on the inner face and at the edges, the latter always being sharp and thin in a growing oyster. The shell of the young oyster is always thin and delicate, and is generally more rounded than in the adult. The lower valve at first adheres closely to the body to which it is attached, but later its edge grows free and the valve, as a whole, becomes deeper and more capacious than its fellow. The small larval or fry shell remains visible at the beak of the spat shell for a considerable time, but becomes eroded away before the oyster reaches the adult condition.

The soft parts of the oyster assume their adult form in general soon after attachment, although the genital glands do not become functional until a much later period.

The rate of growth varies with locality and conditions. It is more rapid when food is abundant and at seasons when the oyster is feeding most vigorously, these conditions being filled most thoroughly in summer and fall, when the warm water increases the vital activities of both oyster and food.

In South Carolina oysters not more than six or seven months old were found to have reached a length of 2½ inches, and in the warm sounds of North Carolina they reach a length of 1½ inches in from two to three months. In the coves and creeks of Chesapeake Bay they attain about the same size by the end of the first season's active growth, and by the time they are 2 years old they measure from 2½ to 3¾ inches long and from 2 to 3 inches wide. On the south side of Long Island the growth of the planted oysters is much more rapid than in Connecticut, it being stated that "two-year plants" set out in spring are ready for use in the following fall, while upon the Connecticut shore it would require two or three years to make the same growth. On the south side of Long Island oysters 1⅝ inches long in May have increased to 3 inches by November of the same year.

The amount of lime in the water is a factor in determining the character of the shell, and oysters growing in waters deficient in that respect have thinner shells than those which are well supplied, and are therefore more susceptible to the attacks of the drill.

The shape of the oyster to a certain extent determines its value in the market. Single oysters of regular shape with deep shells and plump bodies will bring a better price than those which are irregular and clustered. The shape depends largely upon the degree of crowding to which the oyster has been subject. When numerous spat become attached to a single piece of cultch, such as an oyster shell, there is often insufficient room for the development of all. Many will be crowded out and suffocated, while the survivors will be distorted through the necessity of conforming to the irregular spaces between the valves of their fellows. Sometimes the pressure exerted between the rapidly growing shells is sufficient to break up the more fragile forms of cultch, and the separated oysters then usually improve somewhat in shape.

The crowding of oysters reaches its climax upon the "raccoon" oyster beds. Raccoon oysters are usually found in localities where the bottom is soft and the only firm place which offers itself for the attachment of the spat is upon the shells of its ancestors. Temperature and other conditions are favorable, growth is rapid, the young oysters are crowded into the most irregular shapes, the shells are long, thin, and sharp edged, and eventually the mass of young is so dense that it crowds out and smothers the preceding generations which produced it and offered means for its attachment. Oysters crowded in this excessive manner are poor flavored as well as ill shaped, but both defects are corrected if they be broken apart, as may be readily done, and planted elsewhere.