

Hardgrounds and the Flood: the need for a re-evaluation

John Woodmorappe

Hardgrounds are claimed to be a challenge to Flood geology because of the long time alleged necessary for their formation. However, I show that this challenge is not valid because some hardgrounds have been misidentified, and that for others, the recycling of the constituents of antediluvian hardgrounds accounts for hardground cobbles, some 'in situ' fossils, as well as entire 'in situ' hardgrounds. Furthermore, when the reported geological evidence is stripped of its conventional hardground-related thinking, hardgrounds could have formed during the Flood by 'normal' geologic processes. The development of hardgrounds in time and space needs more research within creationist geoscience and to be properly reviewed and formalised.

Hardgrounds, those purported ancient lithified seafloor horizons¹ (figure 1), are found throughout most of the Phanerozoic sedimentary record, and are perceived to be a challenge to Flood geology. This is because of the long time alleged necessary for their formation, including the time required for the faunal 'communities' to establish, and the time for the surface to harden.² This work explains hardgrounds in a Flood context, and is a sequel to the July 2004 field study of Ordovician hardgrounds.³ Additional fieldwork was completed at the Caesar Creek site (figures 2 and 3) in August 2005 by a team that included this author and Dr Whitmore.

In all geologic interpretation there is an element of subjective inference. For example, a 'Were you there?' (Job 38:4) mode of thinking is exhibited by two bryozoan researchers,⁴ who comment:

'In the narrowest sense, all paleoecologic studies are suspect because they involve inferences from skeletal morphologies and sedimentary structures rather than direct environmental observation, measurement or experiment. Consequently, the difficulties inherent in paleoecologic studies often yield caveats, but they are not likely to deter paleontologists from their efforts to decipher the paleoenvironments of the geologic record.'⁷

Most hardground studies also seem to blur the line between interpretation and observation, leaving little room for alternative interpretations even within uniformitarianism, let alone beyond it. Investigations of ancient hardgrounds confessedly 'depend heavily on actualistic comparisons with hardgrounds from recent environments, particularly those of the Persian Gulf'.⁵ This means that hardgrounds are 'read into' the sedimentary record in part because they are expected to be there, and non-hardground interpretations are implicitly discouraged. Moreover, much thinking surrounding ancient hardgrounds suffers from overgeneralization,⁶ and the possibility of fortuitous coincidences⁷ of inferred hardground phenomena is usually overlooked.

Ironically, hardgrounds pose no less a time challenge to uniformitarianism than to diluvialism (interpretations based on the Genesis Flood):

'It cannot be postulated, however, that these complex hardgrounds were exposed at the seafloor for geologically significant periods, despite the presence of hiatuses which must amount to several million years. Each hardground contains a distinct assemblage of borings and other biological erosion and displays evidence of physical abrasion. It is difficult to envisage how the characteristics of earlier surfaces would be preserved if they were exposed to physical and biological erosion at the seafloor for extended periods.'⁸

The focus, from a creationist perspective, should be on the processes that created hardgrounds during the Flood year itself. These include actual *in situ* hardgrounds formed in a matter of months during lulls in Flood action, as well as 'hardgrounds' that are actually the accumulations of allochthonous organisms. The development of post-Flood hardgrounds is also an issue that needs to be fully considered. Although not otherwise considered in this paper, the encrusting and/or boring of siliclastic rocks,⁹ termed rockgrounds, also needs further analysis.

Rethinking hardground phenomena in general

The student of hardgrounds is struck by their spatial and temporal variability. Both boring-only hardgrounds,^{10,11} and those that lack borings exist.^{12,13} Often, borings predominate statistically on topographic high spots while encrustings predominate on topographic low spots.¹⁴ In other hardgrounds, no such dichotomy exists.¹⁵ Encrusting faunal content, when present at all, can differ considerably from hardground to hardground even within the same geologic period.^{16,17} Surficial hardground topography varies greatly, ranging from highly-convoluted surfaces, as shown in hardground #4 in figure 2, to extremely smooth ones.¹⁸

Hardgrounds also vary greatly in complexity as can be seen by comparing figures 1 and 2. While some hardgrounds

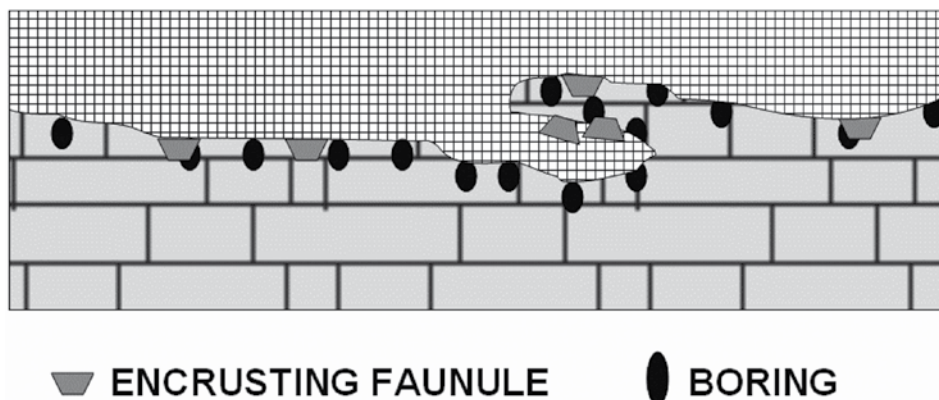


Figure 1. A schematized simple hardground in profile. It includes an overhang with cavity-dwelling (cryptobiontic) fauna and a sharp lithologic difference (facies change) above the hardground.

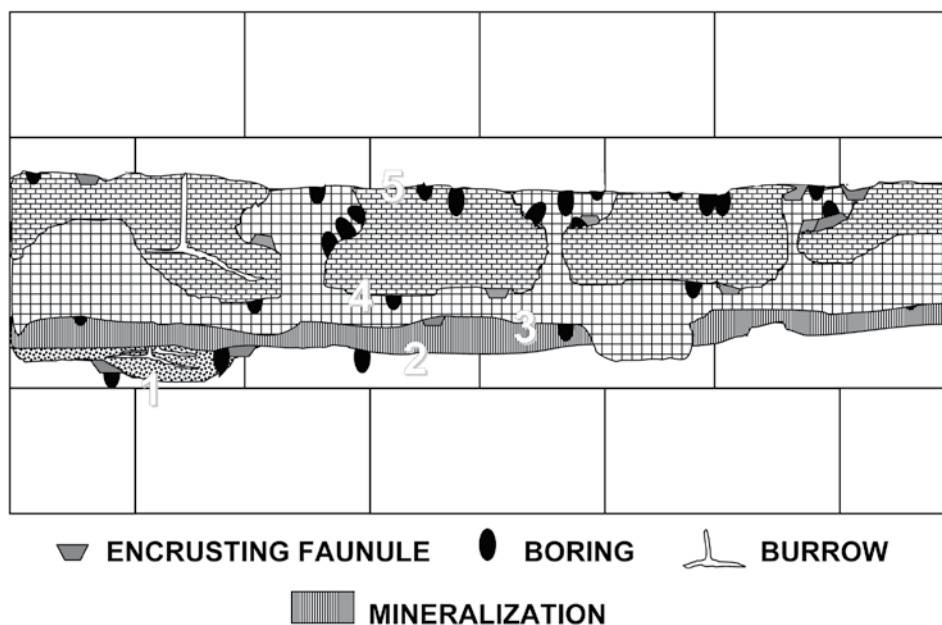


Figure 2. A schematization of a composite hardground,⁸⁹ with repeated deposition, lithification, encrustation, boring, erosion and mineralization. There are five superposed hardground surfaces shown, each one prominently delineated by an erosionally-truncated set of borings and encrustations.

can supposedly be traced long distances, others peter out over tens to hundreds of meters.¹⁹ Out of 36 European Jurassic hardgrounds surveyed,²⁰ only one-third is described as having a rich fauna of body fossils,²¹ and only about 30% of inferred shallow-shelf ones are mineralized.²² Composite hardgrounds such as that shown in figure 2 are ‘rather limited’ in frequency, at least in the English Cretaceous.²³ Hardground cobbles that show multiple generations of boring and encrusting are relatively uncommon,²⁴ at least in the Jurassic of India. The degree or even reality of ecological succession encountered on hardground clasts and ‘*in situ*’ hardground surfaces is debatable.²⁵

As for the cryptobiontic (cavity-dwelling, sometimes

called coelobiontic) hardground faunas that sometimes are found in the crevices of overhangs (see figures 1 and 2), there is only a weak polarization of upper and under-ledge faunas in Ordovician hardgrounds compared with those of the Jurassic.²⁶ Most overhangs lack coelobionts, and when they do occur, the colonization of the undersides can be partial.²⁷ Only 13 of the 36 aforementioned surveyed Jurassic hardgrounds have cavities, and only some of their encrusting faunules exhibit polarization, which, to the extent it is real, points to the encrusters growing on the underside of a hardground ledge being somewhat different from those that grow on the upper side of the hardground surface.²⁸

Cryptobiontic faunas are admittedly difficult to diagnose:

‘No single criterion, not even downward oriented skeletal growth, is definitive on its own of a coelobiontic habitat.’²⁹

Instead, a coincidence of clearly-defined cavities and upside-down organisms and borings is utilized. However, once one recognizes the fact that only a vanishingly tiny fraction of Phanerozoic sedimentary rock contains cryptobionts as deduced from two or more ostensibly independent lines of evidence, fortuitous coincidences⁸ of supposedly-diagnostic cryptobiontic features assume major importance. One cannot

help but wonder how many so-called overhangs and cryptobiontic faunas are misinterpretations of other phenomena.³⁰

Potential alternatives to ancient hardground lithification

All inferences of Phanerozoic hardgrounds rest on the premise that the surface in question was lithified at the time of inferred boring and/or inferred encrustation. Criteria for this diagnosis are not agreed.³¹ The conventionally-believed submarine cementation of alleged ancient seafloors is acknowledged to rely on circumstantial and negative evidence³² (and that within the narrow scope of

uniformitarianism) that, moreover, is not unique to any specific microenvironment.³³

With regard to the commonly-mentioned ‘sculpted’ hardground surfaces,³⁴ once pre-hardground geologic interpretations allowed for firm, but not lithified, surfaces being sufficiently stiff for the generation of the ‘sculpted’ surfaces during erosion.³⁵ In view of the fact that a large range of substrate stiffnesses are known to exist between compacted lime mud and fully-lithified material,³⁶ one must ask if hard objects such as fossils, bioclasts or large carbonate grains found truncated flush with inferred hardground surfaces *necessarily* required a lithified, as opposed to firm, matrix in order to be cleanly cut by erosion. The flush truncation of the inferred hardground surface and its embedded fossils is thought to imply an equality of hardness of all constituents at the erosional surface.³⁷ This premise should be tested experimentally, not assumed.³⁸ Flume experiments need to be conducted involving the rapid flow of water along carbonate surfaces of varying degrees of lithification, and in which objects of various hardnesses are embedded.

Just as soft-sediment ichnofossils can be misdiagnosed inorganic or body-fossils,³⁹ so also can hardground ones, specifically borings.⁴⁰ In fact, a precedent exists for questioning the boring and even organic origin of some ostensible *Trypanites*.⁴¹ Otherwise, the existence of distinctive and unique, sharp-edged, tapering, tube-shaped



Figure 3. A *Petroxestes*-bearing hardground from the Cincinnati (Ordovician) of Ohio, USA, occurring on top of a storm-deposited decimeter-thick limestone-shale couplet. The subjacent thin shale layer had been eroded away, and a brachiopod coquina occurs on top of the subjacent couplet.

rohrenkarren⁴² (the product of condensation corrosion within air pockets in carbonates) is problematic. The product of condensation corrosion within air pockets in carbonates disproves the common contention⁴³ that inorganic structures, in contradistinction to biogenic ones, necessarily lack a self-consistent geometry. Under the high-pressure and short-duration conditions of the Flood, many rohrenkarren could potentially have formed that fit the dimensions of *Trypanites*,⁴⁴ and this would be most applicable to encruster-rare or *Trypanites*-only hardgrounds.⁴⁵ Extending potential abiotic processes, one must ask if the diverse manifestations of apparent encrustation of *Trypanites* by bryozoan colonies⁴⁶ could ever have a mechanical rather than a biological origin.⁴⁷

Burrows in soft sediment are almost always constructed much more rapidly than borings in lithified sediment. So how many burrowed horizons have been mistaken for bored ones? At least some *Petroxestes*, as shown in figure 3 are probably burrows rather than borings, as they have lips of material at their margins, proving that the carbonate material was soft at the time of their construction.⁴⁸ Following accepted burrow-boring distinctions, the lithified state of many inferred ancient hardgrounds is impossible to prove.⁴⁹ Furthermore, it is now acknowledged that sharp margins of ichnofossils do not necessarily imply the lithified state of the penecontemporaneous surface.⁵⁰ Moreover, any straightforward dichotomy between burrowing and boring activities is contradicted by the fact that some organisms can switch from burrowing to boring as they proceed downward.⁵¹ Hence the same modern organism can excavate a similar burrow and boring structure.⁵² One must ask if the clean truncation of hard objects such as large carbonate grains, intraclasts or fossils at the holes’ margins necessarily proves that the entire holed limestone layer was lithified at the time of the excavation of the holes or if the hardness of the object itself is a sufficient explanation for this observation.⁵³

Ironically, one of the criteria claimed to discriminate burrows from borings implies that some *Trypanites*, notably those that hole bryozoans, as shown in figure 4, are actually burrows and not borings. Only burrows are supposed to show changes in direction that imply the tracemaker’s avoidance of a hard obstruction.⁵⁴ Yet there is an intriguing *Trypanites* that holes a bryozoan and then turns 90° to avoid a subjacent intraclast.⁵⁵ Perhaps the tracemaker probed for a weak spot⁵⁶ in the bryozoan’s skeleton, and then burrowed rather than bored through it.

We now turn our attention to alleged obligate hard-surface encrusting organisms. Assuming that they are actually *in situ* and self-cemented to the substrate, how can one be certain that fossil encrusters necessarily required a hard substrate? Smith⁵⁷ raises cautions about inferences of the habits of extinct bryozoans that rest on comparison with their modern counterparts, and warns that interpretations are



Figure 4. A hardground from the Cincinnati (Ordovician) of Ohio, USA, that includes an encrusting bryozoan riddled with the boring *Trypanites* (US penny is 19 mm diameter).

especially tenuous for the Paleozoic fauna. Parenthetically, the recommended practice of using multiple criteria to justify interpretations does not consider the problem of fortuitous coincidences,⁸ leading to at least an element of reinforced circular reasoning.⁵⁸ Interestingly, Hageman *et al.*⁵⁹ refuse to include the type of substrate as a formal bryozoan character class because:

‘First, it is not a morphological characteristic and therefore invites circularity in ecological interpretations. Secondly, this character can usually only be determined with confidence by direct observation from live material.’

Some ‘Were you there?’ (Job 38:4) thinking is evident here!

Let us move beyond hardground cementation to the subject of mineralization. Are mineralizations that are found on many hardground surfaces *necessarily* limited to previously lithified surfaces, subaqueous conditions and long periods of time? The ferruginous crusts found in certain hardgrounds have an origin from nonphotosynthetic bacteria.⁶⁰ By contrast bacterial precipitation of iron and manganese accounts for other hardground mineralization.⁶¹ To put this in perspective, our understanding of the bacterial role in mineralization is in its infancy.⁶² Finally, considering the fact that some iron-stained silicified hardground rinds formed diagenetically,⁶³ one must ask if there is any firm line between symsedimentary and diagenetic processes.

‘Instant’ hardgrounds

Some hardgrounds could have formed during the Flood year itself by ‘normal’ processes. Initial lithification of hardground crusts, at least those typical of oolitic hardgrounds, is known to take *a few months or less*.⁶⁴ The rapidity of ancient hardground lithification is acknowledged to be indicated by the preservation of ephemeral features such as preserved ripple marks⁶⁵ and soft-sediment burrows.⁶⁶ To the extent that modern encrusting bryozoans

are any guide, extinct encrusters needed little time to overgrow appreciable areas of carbonate surfaces during the Flood year. *Steginoporella* can grow laterally up to 11 cm annually,⁶⁷ while some smaller bryozoans have quoted growth rates of up to 0.5 cm per day⁶⁸ (sic), at least for brief periods of time. A community consisting of numerous epibionts that overgrow each other (on plastic bottles, in the cited instance) formed in only 10 months.⁶⁹ Moreover, successive encrustation that exhibits faunal polarity reminiscent of that which occurs around inferred hardground overhangs has developed in a matter of several months on experimental substrates.⁷⁰

Let us consider some modern rates of boring that occur in a variety of carbonates, beginning with boring echinoids. *Echinus* can bore at least 1 cm deep in limestone per year and even deeper into granite in one year⁷¹ while *Eucidaris* can bore even faster over brief periods of time.⁷² Some members of the boring clam *Penitella*⁷³ and the boring bivalve *Lithophaga*⁷⁴ can bore up to 3–5 cm deep into carbonate rock in one year, and comparable rates sometimes hold for the boring sponge *Cliona*,⁷⁵ which has otherwise been known to bore an astonishing 2–8 cm in less than 220 days!⁷⁶ Otherwise, *Lithophaga*, a known borer of inferred ancient hardgrounds,⁷⁷ can produce a visible mark on a shell, and presumably other relatively soft limestone, in a matter of days.⁷⁸ Other borers can hole shells at a rate of 0.2–0.5 mm/day.⁷⁹ It appears that boring rates generally tend to be atypically high at the commencement of boring upon a surface,⁸⁰ and to increase when the environment is disturbed^{81,82} or when the boring organism is injured.⁸³ All have obvious relevance to Flood conditions.

In situations where encrusting organisms overgrow boreholes, it is unclear whether the boring and the overgrowth must necessarily occur successively. A modern sponge was observed overgrowing some boring bivalves, yet the latter were still alive one year later.⁸⁴ Based on the results of field experiments in the modern reef environment, Davies and Hutchings⁸⁵ doubt the conventional premise that encrusting organisms necessarily inhibit or smother nearby borers.

In general, the biology of bioerosional processes is not well understood.⁸⁶ Moreover, the entire foregoing discussion is necessarily limited, as very few boring organisms have been studied for individual ‘borehole-drilling’ rate.⁸⁷ Finally, we must remember that the extant biosphere is an impoverished remnant of the antediluvian biosphere. In all likelihood, the world at the time of the Flood included organisms that could bore faster, and do so under more adverse conditions, than any extant carbonate borer.

Interestingly, some hardgrounds contain a profusion of small and narrow *Trypanites* recognizably indicative of time constraints on the boring action.⁸⁸ I would argue that hardgrounds should be systematically surveyed and catalogued for the frequency of such occurrences.

Conclusions

Conventional hardground-related thinking is so profoundly steeped in uniformitarianism that it takes a great deal of mental effort to free oneself from these mind-squeezing boxes. There are too many unsubstantiated premises behind conventional hardground thinking, and much paleoecological ‘folk wisdom’ has already been proven incorrect. Clearly identifying hardgrounds within the Phanerozoic sedimentary rock is a rather subjective task, given the lack of clear criteria to define them and the large variability observed in the criteria used. The traditional long-age assumption that hardgrounds were lithified at the time of the supposed boring and/or encrusting is found wanting. There is insufficient evidence to assume that lithification is a necessary requirement for producing hardground features, there is evidence that suggests at least some supposed ‘borings’ were either inorganically produced or sediment burrowings. The assumptions that lithification, boring and encrusting themselves require long periods to occur are problematic as well. There are many examples where all three of these are contradicted in several instances. Therefore, actualistic interpretations of hardgrounds fail to rule out diluvial explanations, but there remain many unsolved puzzles associated with hardgrounds. Thus, far from being an insuperable obstacle to Flood Geology, one must recognize the existence of a wide-open field of research initiatives that could reconcile Phanerozoic hardgrounds with the Universal Deluge.

References

- Hardgrounds typically consist of borings, truncated fossils, encrusting organisms, and other purported evidences of pencontemporaneous lithified seafloor conditions. For an online tutorial on hardgrounds, see: <www.wooster.edu/geology/bioerosion/Washhdgd.html>, 18 August 2006.
- Walker, T., Are hardgrounds really a challenge to the global Flood? <www.creationontheweb.com/content/view/2069/31/>, 15 August 2006.
- Woodmorappe, J. and Whitmore, J., Field study of purported hardgrounds of the Cincinnati (Ohio, USA), *Journal of Creation* **18**:82–92, 2004.
- Kelly, S.M. and Horowitz, A.S., Growth forms and paleoecology of Mississippian bryozoans; in: Ross, J.R.P. (Ed.), *Bryozoa: Present and Past*, Western Washington University, p. 137, 1987.
- Brett, C.E. and Brookfield, M.E., Morphology, faunas, and genesis of Ordovician hardgrounds from southern Ontario, Canada, *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* **46**:234, 1984.
- If a structure (X) contains features believed to compel a hardground interpretation, other structure (X)’s, though lacking these features, are nevertheless summarily attributed to hardground origins.
- For instance, the co-occurrence of (A) with (B) is taken as support for a hardground interpretation. But the vast numbers of instances where (A) and (B) each occur alone in the Phanerozoic sedimentary record is not factored. Nor is group probability taken into account. For example, a group of fossils fortuitously deposited mostly in life orientation is very unlikely when considered in isolation. However, encountering an occasional suite of fossils deposited in apparent life orientation may not be so unlikely when one also factors the existence of large numbers of fossil assemblages whose members are not in life orientation.
- Jarvis, I. and Woodroof, P.B., Stratigraphy of the Cenomanian and basal Turonian (Upper Cretaceous) between Branscombe and Seaton, SE Devon, England, *Proceedings of the Geologists’ Association* **95**:211, 1984. To attempt to get around this long-term preservation problem, the authors conjecture that each hardground was covered by sediment for most of its history, only for each hardground to be episodically exposed for further ‘overprinting’ with a successive hardground.
- Zitt, J. and Nekvasilova, O., Orientation of *Spondylus* valves cemented to the hard-rock substrates (Bivalvia, Upper Cretaceous, Bohemia), *Journal of the Czech Geological Society* **39**:281–295, 1994.
- Brett, C.E. and Liddell, W.D., Preservation and paleoecology of a Middle Ordovician hardground community, *Palaeobiology* **4**:346, 1978.
- Olszewska-Nejbert, D., Development of the Turonian/Coniacian hardground boundary in the Cracow Swell area (Wielkanoc Quarry, southern Poland), *Kwartalnik Geologiczny (Geological Quarterly)* **48**:165, 2004.
- Cornell, S.R., Brett, C.E. and Sumrall, C.D., Paleoecology and taphonomy of an edriasteroid-dominated hardground association from tentaculitid limestones in the Early Devonian of New York, *Palaios* **18**: 217, 2003.
- Wilson, M.A., Palmer, T.J., Guensburg, T.E. *et al.*, The development of an Early Ordovician hardground community in response to rapid sea-floor calcite, *Lethaia* **25**:30, 1992.
- Brett and Brookfield, ref. 5, pp. 280–281.
- Fursich, F.T., Oschmann, W., Singh, I.B. and Jaitly, A.K., Hardgrounds, reworked concretion levels and condensed horizons in the Jurassic of western India, *Journal of the Geological Society of London* **149**: 321, 1992.
- Wilson, M.A. and Palmer, T.J., A carbonate hardground in the Carmel Formation (Middle Jurassic, SW Utah, USA) and its associated encrusters, borers and nestlers, *Ichnos* **3**: 85, 1994.
- Cornell, *et al.*, ref. 12, pp. 212–224.
- Dronov, A.V., Milulas, R. and Logvinova, M., Trace fossils and ichnofabrics across the Volkhov depositional sequence (Ordovician, Arenigian of St. Petersburg region, Russia), *Journal of the Czech Geological Society* **47**:136, 2002.
- Wilson, M.A. and Palmer, R.J., *Hardgrounds and Hardground Faunas*, Aberystwyth: University of Wales Institute of Earth Science Publications **9**, pp. 9–10, 1992.
- Fursich, F.T., Genesis, environments, and ecology of Jurassic hardgrounds, *Neues Jahrbuch für Geologie und Palaeontologie Abhandlungen* **158**: 4–8, 1979.
- Fursich, ref 20, p. 29.
- Fursich, ref 20, p. 16.
- Kennedy, W.J. and Garrison, R.E., Morphology and genesis of nodular cherts and hardgrounds in the Upper Cretaceous of southern England, *Sedimentology* **22**:341, 1975.
- Fursich *et al.*, ref. 15, p. 314.
- Gruszczynski, M., Hardgrounds and ecological succession in the light of early diagenesis (Jurassic, Holy Cross Mts., Poland), *Acta Palaeontologica Polonica* **31**:163–168, 1986.
- Taylor, P.D. and Wilson, M.A., Palaeoecology and evolution of marine hard substrate communities, *Earth-Science Reviews* **62**:45, 56, 2003.
- Wilson, M.A., Succession in a Jurassic marine cavity community and the evolution of cryptic marine faunas, *Geology* **26**:380, 1998. In this instance, nearly 50% of the cavity ceiling is not encrusted.
- Fursich, ref. 20, pp. 4–8, 34–36. Polarization refers to a preference of an encruster for either the upper or the underside of a ledge in a cavity-bearing hardground.
- Kobluk, D.R., The record of cavity-dwelling (coelobiontic) organisms in the Paleozoic, *Canadian Journal of Earth Sciences* **18**:188, 1981.

30. For example, sheet cavities can develop in carbonates as a result of processes such as differential lithification of layers of carbonate mud. The roofs of these cavities may contain fossils. See Tucker, M.E. and Kendall, A.C., The diagenesis and low-grade metamorphism of Devonian styliolinid-rich pelagic carbonates from West Germany, *Journal of Sedimentary Petrology* **43**:685, 1973. Is it ever possible for such sheet cavities to form without telltale signs of this process (e.g. secondary mineralization) and to be mistaken for at least some overhangs? If so, can fossils found in the roof of sheet cavities ever be mistaken for cryptobionts that have ‘colonized’ the undersides of these ‘overhangs’?
31. Sarkar, S., Bhattacharya, A. and Chanda, S.K., Recognition of hardgrounds and emersion surfaces: A new criterion, *Journal of Sedimentary Petrology* **50**:83–84, 1980.
32. Garrison, R.E., Kennedy, W.J. and Palmer, T.J., Early lithification and hardgrounds in Upper Albian and Cenomanian calcarenites, southwest England. *Cretaceous Research* **8**:134, 1987.
33. Gruszczynski, ref. 25, p. 192.
34. The left side of figure 13 of Woodmorappe and Whitmore (ref. 3, p. 87) shows part of an inferred rolling hardground ‘sculpture’ surface.
35. Weiss, M.P., Corrosion zones in carbonate rocks, *Ohio Journal of Science* **54**:290, 1954.
36. Gingras, M.K., Pemberton, S.G. and Saunders, T., Firmness profiles associated with tidal-creek deposits, *Journal of Sedimentary Research* **70**:1017–1025, 2000.
37. Delgado, D.J., Deposition and diagenesis of the Galena Group in the upper Mississippi Valley; in: (Anon., Ed.), *Ordovician Galena Group, Guidebook for the 13th Annual Field Conference*, SEPM (Society of Economic Paleontologists and Mineralogists), p. A9, 1983.
38. Would not the very act of protrusion of an object tend to make it attract greater erosive forces against it, especially if the currents are powerful, as expected during much of the Flood? If so, this would tend to create a level surface during erosion regardless of the hardness of the respective constituents.
39. Woodmorappe, J., Are soft-sediment trace fossils (ichnofossils) a time problem for the Flood? *Journal of Creation* **20**(2):113–122, 2006.
40. To avoid the usual overgeneralization (see ref. 7), note that proof of the boring origin of a specific individual hole-shaped feature does not constitute proof that all features that resemble it were bored by the same organism or are even necessarily borings at all.
41. Martinell, J., Domenech, R. and Bromley, R.G., Mysterious boring hidden within the hinge plates of heterodont bivalves, *Bulletin of the Geological Society of Denmark* **45**:163, 1999.
42. Simms, M.J. The origin of enigmatic, tubular, lake-shore karren: A mechanism for rapid dissolution of limestone in carbonate-saturated waters, *Physical Geography* **23**:1–20, 2002.
43. Goldring, R. *Field Palaeontology*, 2nd Edition, Pearson Education Ltd, UK, p. 66, 1999.
44. Rohrenkarren, like *Trypanites*, commonly intersect each other. Under the high-pressure conditions within strata, the L/D ratios would be greater than those of contemporary surficial rohrenkarren because the diameters would tend to be small, matching that of *Trypanites*, as a result of the substratal overpressures acting on the gas bubbles. The clavate shape of such inorganic *Trypanites* could come from the prolonged accumulation of gas in each bubble causing the gas bubbles to get slightly larger as they and their contained solutions work downward. The pouched bottom could form by a gradual exhaustion of the aggressivity of the solutions, manifested as water film at the boundaries of the bubbles, that are responsible for the dissolution of the limestone. The obtuse angles of inflection observed in many *Trypanites*, relatively to the horizontal surface, could stem from the bubbles tending towards horizontality as they encounter resistant micro-horizons of carbonate on their downward courses.
45. Perhaps the commonly occurring congregations of *Trypanites* in elevated portions of inferred hardground surfaces reflect a tendency for gas to rise to the highest spots of substratal carbonate discontinuities.
46. Palmer, T.J. and Palmer, C.D., Faunal distribution and colonization strategy in a Middle Ordovician hardground community, *Lethaia* **10**: 194–195, 1977. For specifics of these manifestations and their proposed alternative origins, see the next reference.
47. To begin with, could a bryozoan colony situated near a borehole ever be mechanically moved over the borehole with the appearance of the bryozoan overgrowing the boring? Could a release of gas from the real or apparent boring sometimes cause part of the overlying bryozoan colony to be divided in a manner that passes for its halves ‘growing around’ the boring? Would milder instances of positive gas pressure cause the bryozoan colony to be partly lifted (‘arched’) over the boring? Could negative gas pressure cause a soft part of the bryozoan colony to be partly sucked into the hole in a manner consistent with the appearance of the bryozoan growing partly down into the borehole?
48. St John, J., *Cincinnatian (Upper Ordovician) Hardgrounds and Hardground Communities from Caesar Creek Reservoir, Warren County, Ohio*, Unpublished B.A. Thesis. Ohio: The College of Wooster, p. 66, 1991
49. Woodmorappe and Whitmore, ref. 3, p. 85. Many inferred ancient hardgrounds are too fine-grained and sparsely fossiliferous to yield information on truncated grains or within-limestone bored fossils.
50. Ekdale, A.E. and Bromley, R.G., Bioerosion and innovation for living in carbonate hardgrounds in the Early Ordovician of Sweden, *Lethaia* **34**:8, 2001.
51. This fact is documented and elaborated in a planned ensuing paper on hardgrounds.
52. Asgaard, U., Bromley, R.G. and Hanken, N.-M., Recent firmground burrows produced by a upogebiid crustacean, *Courier Forschung Institut Senckenberg* **201**:27, 1997. This also disproves the premise that a burrowing organism will necessarily stop or divert its course in the face of a hard object in its path.
53. If the latter holds, the organism would burrow through the soft carbonate layer, switch to boring upon encountering the hard object (large carbonate grain, intraclast, fossil organism—assuming that it is lithified), and then revert to burrowing upon encountering soft sediment once again.
54. Ekdale and Bromley, ref. 50, p. 7.
55. Kobluk, D.R. and Nemscok, S., The macroboring ichnofossil *Trypanites* in colonies of the Middle Ordovician bryozoan *Prasopora*, *Canadian Journal of Earth Sciences* **19**:680, 1982.
56. Modern bryozoans show a large range of puncture and compression resistance, from species to species, and according to different parts of the individual bryozoan’s skeleton. Best, B.A. and Winston, J.E., Skeletal strength of encrusting cheilostome bryozoans, *Biological Bulletin* **167**:390, 403, 1984.
57. Smith, A.M., Palaeoenvironmental interpretation using bryozoans: a review; in: Bosenice, D.W.J. and Allison, P.A., (Eds.), *Marine Palaeoenvironmental Analysis from Fossils*, Geological Society (of London) Special Publication No. 83, p. 232, 238–239, 1995.
58. Thus, for example, certain extinct bryozoans are inferred to have been obligate hard-substrate encrusters because they are often found associated with what are believed to be obligate hard-substrate ichnofossils (borings). The circle of reasoning is then closed by citing the presence of these bryozoans as evidence of an ancient hardground even when there are no borings or other local putative evidences for a penecontemporaneous hard substrate.
59. Hageman, S.J., Bock, P.E., Bone, Y. and McGowran, B., Bryozoan growth habits: Classification and Analysis, *Journal of Paleontology* **72**: 430, 1998. Identical considerations, of course, apply to other extinct supposed obligatory hard-substrate encrusters.

60. Fursich *et al.*, ref. 15, p. 319
61. Kadiri, K.E., Jurassic ferruginous hardgrounds of the 'DORSAILE CALCAIRE' and the Jbel Moussa Group (Internal Rif, Morocco), *Geologica Romana* **36**:46, 2002.
62. Barton, H.A., Spear, J. R. and Pace, N.R., Microbial life in the underworld: biogenicity of secondary mineral formations, *Geomicrobiological Journal* **18**:366, 2001.
63. Dattilo, B.F., The Lower Ordovician Fillmore Formation of Western Utah: storm-dominated sedimentation on a passive margin, *Brigham Young University Geology Studies* **39**:87, 1993.
64. Dravis, J., Rapid and widespread generation of recent oolitic hardgrounds on a high energy Bahamian platform, Eleuthera Bank, Bahamas, *Journal of Sedimentary Petrology* **49**:195–208, 1979.
65. Wilson *et al.*, ref. 13, p. 23.
66. Bromley, R.G., Some observations on burrows of thalassinidean crustacea in Chalk hardgrounds, *Journal of the Geological Society of London* **123**:181, 1967.
67. Jackson, J.B.C. and Hughes, T.P., Adaptive strategies of coral-reef invertebrates, *American Scientist* **73**:269, 1985.
68. McKinney, F.K., A faster-paced world? Contrasts in biovolume and life-process rates in cyclostome (Class Stenolaemata) and cheilostome (Class Gymnolaemata) bryozoans, *Paleobiology* **19**:339, 1993.
69. Winston, J.E., Gregory, M.R. and Stevens, L.M., Encrusters, epibionts, and other biota associated with pelagic plastics; in: Coe, J.M. and Rogers, D.B. (Eds.), *Marine Debris*, Springer-Verlag, New York, pp. 90–91, 1997.
70. Withers, R.G. and Thorp, C.H., Studies on the shallow, sublittoral epibenthos of Langstone Harbour, Hampshire, using Settlement Panels; in: Keegan, B.F., Ceidigh, P.O. and Boaden P.J.S. (Eds.), *Biology of Benthic Organisms*, Pergamon Press, Oxford, New York, pp. 595–602, 1977. Apart from the encrusting of 'permanent' lithified carbonate surfaces, the obvious adaptability of encrusters, vividly illustrated by this experiment, would have facilitated the encrusting (or re-encrusting) of floating carbonate slabs (discussed later), including those which would eventually be interpreted as overhangs with their polarized encrusting fauna.
71. Otter, G.W., Rock-burrowing echinoids, *Biological Reviews* **7**:96, 1932.
72. Glynn, P.W., El Nino warming, coral mortality and reef framework destruction by echinoid bioerosion in the eastern Pacific, *Galaxea* **7**:147, 1988.
73. Evans, J.W., Growth rate of the rock-boring clam *Penitella penita* (Conrad 1837) in relation to hardness of rock and other factors, *Ecology* **49**:619, 626, 1968.
74. Kleeman, K., Biocorrosion by bivalves, *Marine Ecology* **17**:149, 1996.
75. Neumann, A.C., Observations of coastal erosion in Bermuda and measurements of the boring rate of the sponge, *Cliona lampa*, *Limnology and Oceanography* **11**:105, 1966.
76. Rutzler, K., The role of burrowing sponges in bioerosion, *Oecologia* **19**:210, 1975.
77. Gruszczynski, M., Coleman, M.L., Marcinowski, R., Walaszczyk, I. and Isaacs, M.C.P., Palaeoenvironmental conditions of hardgrounds formation in the Late Turonian-Coniacian of Mangyshlak Mountains, western Kazakhstan, *Acta Geologica Polonica* **52**:428–430, 2002.
78. Hodgkin, N.M., Limestone boring by the mytilid *Lithophaga*, *The Veliger* **4**:124, 1962.
79. Carriker, M.R. and Yochelson, E.L., Recent gastropod boreholes and Ordovician cylindrical borings, *United States Geological Survey Professional Paper* **593-B**, p. B6, 1968.
80. Highsmith, R.C., Coral bioerosion at Enewetak: agents and dynamics, *Internationale Revue der Gesamten Hydrobiologie* **66**: 362, 1981.
81. Kleeman, ref. 74, p. 150.
82. Pari, N., Peyrot-Clausade, M. and Hutchings, P.A., Bioerosion of experimental substrates on high islands and atoll lagoons (French Polynesia) during 5 years of exposure, *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* **276**:125, 2002.
83. Rutzler, ref. 76, p. 211.
84. Scott, P.J.B., Distribution, habitat and morphology of the Caribbean coral- and rock-boring bivalve, *Lithophaga bisulcata* (d'Orbigny) (*Mytilidae: Lithophaginae*), *Journal of Molluscan Studies* **54**:93, 1988.
85. Davies, P.J. and Hutchings, P.A., Initial colonization, erosion, and accretion on coral substrate: experimental results, Lizard Island, Great Barrier Reef, *Coral Reefs* **2**:34, 1983.
86. Bromley, R.G., Hanken, N.-M. and Asgaard, U., Shallow marine bioerosion, *Bulletin of the Geological Society of Denmark* **38**:85, 1990.
87. There are numerous studies on rates of bioerosion, but they are usually expressed in terms of collective mass of carbonate removed per unit area per unit time, not depth of borehole excavation per time.
88. Bertling, M. Taphonomy of trace fossil omission surfaces (Middle Triassic, East Germany), *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* **149**:P35–36, 1999.
89. Bromley, R.G., Trace fossils at omission surfaces; in: Frey, R.W. (Ed.), *The Study of Trace Fossils*, Berlin: Springer Verlag, pp. 399–428, 1975.

John Woodmorappe has an M.A. in geology and a B.A. in biology, from a Midwestern US state university. He is a science educator by profession and has done extensive research related to creation science in the last 25 years. He is the author of numerous articles, as well as *Studies in Flood Geology*, *Noah's Ark: A Feasibility Study* and *The Mythology of Modern Dating Methods*.
