

1 **Hidden limbs in the “limbless skink” *Brachymeles lukbani*: developmental observations**

2

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## 1    Abstract

2    Reduced limbs and limblessness have evolved independently in many lizard clades. Skinks  
3    exhibit a wide range of limb-reduced morphologies, but only some species have been used to  
4    study the embryology of limb reduction (i.g., digit reduction in *Chalcides* and limb reduction in  
5    *Scelotes*). The genus *Brachymeles*, a Southeast Asian clade of skinks, includes species with a  
6    range of limb morphologies, from pentadactyl to functionally as well as structurally limbless  
7    species. Adults of the small, snake-like species *Brachymeles lukbani* show no sign of external  
8    limbs in the adult except for small depressions where they might be expected to occur. Embryos  
9    of *B. lukbani* in early stages of development, on the other hand, show a truncated but well-  
10   developed limb with a stylopod and a zeugopod, but no signs of an autopod. As development  
11   proceeds, the limb's small size persists even while the embryo elongates. These observations are  
12   made based on external morphology. We used florescent whole-mount immunofluorescence to  
13   visualize the morphology of skeletal elements and muscles within the embryonic limb of *B.*  
14   *lukabni*. Early stages have a humerus and separated ulna and radius cartilages; associated with  
15   these structures are dorsal and ventral muscle masses as those found in the embryos of other  
16   limbed species. While the limb remains small, the pectoral girdle grows in proportion to the rest  
17   of the body, with well-developed skeletal elements and their associated muscles. In later stages  
18   of development, the small limb is still present under the skin but there are few indications of its  
19   presence, save for the morphology of the scale covering it. The adult morphology consists of a  
20   well-developed pectoral girdle, small humerus, extremely reduced ulna and radius, and well-  
21   developed limb musculature connected to the pectoral girdle. These muscles form in association  
22   with a developing limb during embryonic stages, a hint that “limbless” lizards that possesses  
23   these muscles may have or have had at least transient developing limbs, as we find in *B. lukbani*.

24 Overall, the observed pattern of ontogenetic reduction, leading to an externally limbless adult in  
25 which a limb rudiment is hidden and covered under the trunk skin, is a situation called  
26 cryptomelia. The results of this work add to our growing understanding of clade-specific patterns  
27 of limb reduction and the convergent evolution of limbless phenotypes through different  
28 developmental processes.

29

30 **KEYWORDS**

31 limb development, limb reduction, lizard evolution, musculoskeletal evolution

32

33 **1 | INTRODUCTION**

34

35 Limb reduction and limblessness have evolved many times independently within squamate  
36 reptiles (Gans, 1975; Greer, 1991). Snakes are easily the most recognizable limbless clade.  
37 Although some groups of snakes (Aniliidae, Boidae, Leptotyphlopidae, Pythonidae,  
38 Typhlopidae; List, 1966) possess rudimental hindlimbs, with pelvic and proximal limb skeletal  
39 elements, forelimbs and pectoral girdles are not present in any extant species. Similarly, almost  
40 every large clade of lizards has, in fact, evolved its own snake-like morphotype at least once,  
41 including Amphisbaenidae, Anguidae, Cordylidae, Dibamidae, Gekkota, Gymnophthalmidae,  
42 Gerrhosauridae, and Scincidae (Greer, 1991; Leal and Cohn, 2018). Limbs could, in theory, be  
43 reduced or absent as a consequence of a variety of developmental mechanisms such as extreme  
44 allometry, degeneration and agenesis. Among the various cases of convergence towards limbless  
45 body plans among clades of lizards, embryonic development has been investigated in only a  
46 handful of lineages, all of which are species of snakes or anguid and scincid lizards (Raynaud,

47 1985; Infante *et al.*, 2018), and as a consequence our understanding of similarities and  
48 differences in the ontogeny of limb loss is limited. In python embryos, hindlimbs develop but  
49 have no apical ectodermal ridge (AER), nor expression of genes normally associated with  
50 maintenance of limb growth (Cohn and Tickle, 1999). Hindlimb development becomes truncated  
51 and at least some distal skeletal elements fail to form. In contrast, forelimb development is never  
52 initiated (Cohn and Tickle, 1999). In snakes lacking hindlimb remnants that have been studied  
53 (Zehr, 1962; Raynaud, 1985; Jackson, 2002), neither fore- nor hindlimbs initiate development.  
54 The developmental pattern of the reduced hindlimb of python embryos differs from that of other  
55 limbless lizards (Raynaud, 1985). In comparison, in a study of the limbless anguid genus *Anguis*,  
56 fore- and hindlimb rudiments appear in early stages; however, development soon ceases and  
57 regression and sequential disappearance of the forelimb and then the hindlimb occurs (Raynaud,  
58 1985). This pattern is similar to observations made in another extremely limb reduced anguid,  
59 *Pseudopus* (referred to as *Ophisaurus* in the references), in which fore- and hindlimb buds also  
60 start to develop before subsequent degeneration and disappearance occurs (Rahmanl, 1974;  
61 Raynaud, 1985).

62 Skinks of the genus *Scelotes* show different degrees of limb reduction, including limbless  
63 forms (Lande, 1978; Wiens and Slingluff, 2001; Siler and Brown, 2011). Embryos of different  
64 species form both fore- and hindlimb buds, which stop developing and regress to different  
65 degrees (Raynaud *et al.*, 1975; Raynaud and Van den Elzen, 1976; Raynaud, 1985). For  
66 example, embryos of *Scelotes inornata* form a rudimentary AER which later degenerates  
67 differentially among the fore- and hindlimbs (Raynaud, 1985). In the forelimb, regression occurs  
68 rapidly, while in the hindlimb it does so more slowly, resulting in an adult with a rudimentary  
69 hindlimb possessing a proximal portion of the femur (Raynaud, 1985). In *S. brevipes*, limb

70 development follows a similar pattern; however, the hindlimb develops further and the adult  
71 retains an ossified femur and fused cartilaginous tibia and fibula (Raynaud, 1985). Finally, *S.*  
72 *gronovii* embryos have a well-developed AER in the hindlimb, and the adult hindlimb has an  
73 ossified femur, tibia, fibula, and one finger with three phalanges, while the AER is not well  
74 developed in the forelimb, and degenerates early in development (Raynaud, 1985).

75 Among squamate clades, by far the greatest diversity of independent origins of limb  
76 reduction and limblessness occurs in skinks (family Scincidae), which have evolved limb  
77 reduced forms more times than any other lizard group (Greer, 1991; Russell and Bauer, 2008).

78 Furthermore, a number of skink genera include suites of closely related species that display the  
79 full spectrum of body forms, from pentadactyl to limbless, including *Brachymeles* (Wagner *et*  
80 *al.*, 2018; Siler and Brown, 2011), *Chalcides* (Carranza *et al.*, 2008; Young *et al.*, 2009), *Lerista*  
81 (Skinner *et al.*, 2008; Skinner and Lee, 2009) and *Scelotes* (Raynaud, 1985), making them  
82 attractive model clades for studying evolutionary convergence in phenotype and major  
83 transitions in body form. In this study, we investigate the anatomy of embryos of *Brachymeles*  
84 *lukbani*, a recently described, elongated, slender skink without any trace of external limbs in  
85 adults, except for a small depression where the limb could be expected to be found (Siler *et al.*,  
86 2010). Our results provide new information on the developmental patterns leading to the origin  
87 of limblessness and clues into the sequence of evolutionary events behind the evolution of  
88 repeated limb reduction and loss in lizards.

89

90 **2 | METHODS**

91

92 Embryos of *Brachymeles lukbani* were collected in the field during an expedition to the  
93 Philippines in May and June 2016. Surveys for individuals of *B. lukbani* were conducted at Mt.  
94 Labo, Barangay Tulay Na Lupa, Municipality of Labo, Camarines Norte Province, Luzon Island,  
95 in coordination with local community partners. Animals were captured by hand raking leaf litter  
96 and loose soil surrounding tree root networks and rotting logs along the forest floor (Siler and  
97 Brown, 2011). Pregnant female individuals were euthanized and prepared as vouchered  
98 specimens after embryos were extracted for subsequent preparation (Simmons, 2015).  
99 Vouchered specimens were deposited in the National Museum of the Philippines and the Sam  
100 Noble Oklahoma Museum of Natural History.

101 Corn snake (*Pantherophis guttatus*) eggs were obtained from a colony housed at Trinity  
102 College. Embryos were staged according to (Zehr, 1962), collected and dissected in cold PBS,  
103 then fixed in 4% PFA in a shaker at 4°C for 7 days, then dehydrated 3–4 times with 15 minutes  
104 washes of Methanol 100% and stored at -20°C until further processing.

105 Dehydrated embryos were bleached overnight in a solution of Methanol:DMSO:H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>  
106 4:1:1 under light. After bleaching they were washed with Methanol 100% two times for ten  
107 minutes and then rehydrated in increasing concentrations of PBS:Methanol  
108 (25%,50%,75%,100%). After two extra washes in PBS, embryos were placed in a solution of 4%  
109 Acrylamide in PBS, with 0.25% VG44 as initiator al left at 4°C overnight. Next day, embryos  
110 were placed in a 50 mL falcon tube with a special adaptor, and O<sub>2</sub> was replaced by N<sub>2</sub> by taking  
111 out air with a vacuum chamber and pumping N<sub>2</sub> from a tank. Embryos were incubated at 37°C  
112 for 4 hours to allow acrylamide to polymerize, and later were washed in a solution of 200mM  
113 SDS 200mM Boric Acid in distilled water until they became transparent. When transparent,  
114 embryos were washed for an hour six times in PBS with 1% TritonX-100 (PBSt).

115 Immunostaining was performed using two antibodies targeting myosin heavy chain (MF-20,  
116 DSHB) and the transcription factor Sox9 (Sox9, AB5535, Abcam) in concentrations 1:50 and  
117 1:1000 respectively, in a solution with 5% DMSO, 5% normal horse serum in PBSt. Antibodies  
118 were incubated overnight, washed six times for one hour in PBSt, and incubated with secondary  
119 antibodies (Goat anti-mouse 555, Goat anti-rabbit 647 Invitrogen) overnight. Embryos were then  
120 washed in PBSt three times and stored in RIMS (Refractive Index Matching Solution; Yang *et*  
121 *al.*, 2014).

122 Embryos stored in RIMS were either photographed directly in RIMS or accommodated in  
123 liquid agarose + RIMS (1% low temperature melt Agarose GPG/LMP, AmericanBio, dissolved  
124 in RIMS). Embryos were imaged with a Zeiss Axio Zoom.V16 fluorescent scope or with a Zeiss  
125 LSM880 Confocal Microscope collecting multiple tiles of Z-stacks, according to the size of the  
126 embryo. 3D projections of images were reconstructed using Fiji software (Schindelin *et al.*,  
127 2012).

128 Two adult *B. lukbani* specimens were stained in 5% I<sub>2</sub>KI for 15 days, fixed in agarose  
129 1%, and mounted for scanning in a 50 mL tube. The specimens were scanned on a high-  
130 resolution Nikon H225 ST  $\mu$ CT-scanner at Yale University. Scan parameters included  
131 0.00967746 mm voxel size resolution, 105 kV, 64  $\mu$ A, and centered at a region focused on the  
132 head and forelimb. The scan image stacks were imported into in-house Nikon post-scanning  
133 image processing software, where they were reconstructed with dual high-resolution centers of  
134 rotation and 3<sup>rd</sup> level beam hardening. Resulting image stacks were imported into VGStudio Max  
135 v. 3.4.1 for segmentation.

136

137 **3 | RESULTS**

138

139 **3.1 | External embryonic morphology of *Brachymeles lukbani***

140

141 The youngest embryo of *B. lukbani* (Figure 1, OMNH 45693) has a slightly elongated  
142 morphology, with a long body coiled once. The heart lies still outside of the thoracic cavity. The  
143 forelimb is small but almost complete, with a bent elbow between the stylopod and zeugopod.  
144 No autopod seems to be present, as there is no evident digital paddle. In the second embryo  
145 (Figure 1, OMNH 45709), differential growth has resulted in a more elongated body shape, and a  
146 smaller looking limb. The heart is now enclosed in the thoracic cavity. The limb looks  
147 proportionally smaller, in relation to the rest of the body and the bent elbow is less obvious. In  
148 later stage embryos (Figure 1, OMNH 45717, 45760), eyelids have started to cover the eye,  
149 scales have developed and are pigmented, and the limb is limited to a small protuberance on the  
150 side of the body, covered by a small, rounded scale.

151

152 **3.2 | Skeletal embryonic development of *Brachymeles lukbani***

153

154 The youngest of the *Brachymeles lukbani* embryos is in an early stage of skeletal development.  
155 As revealed by immunostaining against Sox9 protein, to label pre-cartilaginous and early  
156 cartilaginous condensations, vertebrae and chondrocranial components have already started to  
157 develop (Figure 2, OMNH 45693). In the pectoral region, the developing scapulocoracoid plate  
158 can be seen as a continuous structure, and a small humerus, ulna, and radius are present in the  
159 arm.

160 In the next stage of development (Figure 2, OMNH 45709), rib precursors are visible as  
161 extended projections off of the vertebral condensations. In the skull, the chondrocranial elements  
162 are more differentiated, with distinct quadrate, optic and nasal capsules, and a well-defined hyoid  
163 apparatus. The scapular plate and the coracoid plate are differentiated, including the excavations  
164 that will form the margin of the fenestrae typical of lizard primary girdles. The humerus is much  
165 longer than the ulna and radius, and the label seems to be interrupted in the diaphysis, which  
166 could be a sign of cartilage maturation. The ulna and radius are in close contact and no other  
167 skeletal element has developed distally.

168 In later stages (Figure 2, OMNH 45717) maturation of cartilage has proceeded, as  
169 evidenced by the weak or absent Sox9 signal in portions of the ribs, vertebrae, and elements of  
170 the chondrocranium and Meckel's cartilage. Ribs and tracheal rings are still Sox9 positive, as are  
171 portions of the suprascapular, coracoids, and presternum. There is no evidence of Sox9 positive  
172 cells in the forelimb skeleton.

173

174 **3.3 | Muscular embryonic development in the forelimb of *Brachymeles lukbani***

175

176 In amniotes, premuscular cells of somitic origin invade the limb and form dorsal and ventral  
177 muscle masses, flanking the skeletal condensations. These masses later divide into individual  
178 muscles of the chest, shoulder, arm, and hand (Romer, 1944; Christ and Brand-Saberi, 2004). In  
179 the earliest embryo observed (Figure 2, OMNH 45693), the division of these muscle masses has  
180 already started. The dorsal mass is split into identifiable Deltoid, Latissimus, Triceps, and  
181 forelimb Extensor divisions, while ventrally a Pectoral, Supracoracoideus, Biceps, and forelimb  
182 Flexor divisions are apparent. In the next stage (Figures 2 and 3, OMNH 45709), the shoulder

183 and chest muscle masses, extrinsic to the arm, have divided into identifiable individual muscles,  
184 although they are small in comparison to the axial muscles in the region. The intrinsic muscles of  
185 the arm seem to be much less developed, possibly even degenerating. Later stages (Figure 2,  
186 OMNH 45717) do not show any evidence of intrinsic arm musculature, but small extrinsic arm  
187 muscles (Deltoid, Latissimus, Pectoral, Supracoracoid musculature) remain.

188

189 **3.4 | Comparison to embryos of the snake *Pantherophis guttatus***

190

191 In Stage 29 corn snake embryos, most of the skeleton development seems to correspond to the  
192 degree of development observed in *Brachymeles lukbani* embryo OMNH 45709, however, the  
193 postcranial skeleton shows no trace of pectoral girdle elements or limb skeleton (Figure 3). Axial  
194 musculature, in contrast to limb muscles, derives from muscles that develop first within the  
195 boundaries of the somite and then extend towards their specific attachments (Burke and Nowicki,  
196 2003). None of the well-developed girdle axial muscles (see below) present in *B. lukbani*  
197 embryos can be observed in *Pantherophis*. Additionally, as expected in snakes, no trace of limb  
198 musculature, intrinsic or extrinsic, is observed in *Pantherophis* either.

199

200 **3.5 | Adult morphology of *Brachymeles lukbani***

201

202 Adult *B. lukbani* preserve a fairly well-developed, albeit thin and poorly ossified, pectoral girdle,  
203 a small and curved humerus, and extremely reduced radius and ulna (Figure 4 A, B). The  
204 pectoral girdle consists of a well-developed but undivided scapulocoracoid. The coracoid portion  
205 presents a well-defined metacoracoid only, with a primary and secondary coracoid ray

206 delineating a primary coracoid fenestra (Russell and Bauer, 2008). The suprascapula is broad in  
207 its dorsal border, and probably calcified, as evidenced by the granular texture observed in the  
208 CTscan. The lateral two-thirds of the clavicles are heavily curved, and the medial ends are  
209 fenestrated. The interclavicle is arrow shaped, with an anterior process longer than the posterior  
210 process and lateral processes arching anteriorly. The sternum is calcified and bears a sternal  
211 fontanelle on its posterior end. The humerus is short and curved, with a pronounced humeral  
212 crest (Figure 4 A, B, E). Both the radius and ulna are extremely reduced, each a tiny splint of  
213 bone bone a few tens of microns in diameter (Figure 4 C, D). We confirmed that adult *B. lukbani*  
214 still possess well developed limb musculature associated with the pectoral girdle (Figure 4 F, G),  
215 such as broad latissimus dorsi and pectoralis muscles. The Deltoid musculature, on the other  
216 hand, while easily divisible into its scapular and clavicular portions in the embryos, is not so  
217 readily separated in the adult. The supracoracoid muscle, as in the embryos, has two, well  
218 defined portions originating from the coracoids and clavicles. A coracobrachialis muscle was  
219 identified, however other muscles deriving from the biceps, triceps, or more distal subdivisions  
220 were not observed.

221

222 **4 | DISCUSSION**

223

224 It has been an enduring question is to what extent convergent limb reduction is achieved by  
225 employing the same developmental mechanisms. Limbs can be lost without losing the  
226 corresponding girdle, which probably indicates limbs are easier to lose or truncate during  
227 embryonic development than girdles. Across most clades of lizards, absence or reduction of  
228 forelimbs and/or pectoral girdles is not tied to reduction or loss of hindlimbs and/or pelvic

229 girdles (Stephenson, 1962; Rodrigues, 1991; Nussbaum and Raxworthy, 1995; Pellegrino *et al.*,  
230 2001; Andreone and Greer, 2002; Sakata and Hikida, 2003a; Sakata and Hikida, 2003b;  
231 Rodrigues *et al.*, 2008; Miralles *et al.*, 2012). The prominent exception is of course the absence  
232 of forelimb elements in snakes. Otherwise, all “limbless” lizards for which embryonic  
233 development has been investigated develop limbs in early developmental stages, which later  
234 shrink, reabsorb or degenerate (Raynaud, 1985). As such, snakes are the only group of squamates  
235 studied in which adult true limblessness (fore- and hindlimbs absent in most snakes, only  
236 forelimbs absent in Aniliidae, Boidae, Leptotyphlopidae, Pythonidae and Typhlopidae,) reflects  
237 total absence of limb development in embryonic stages (Zehr, 1962; Raynaud, 1985; Jackson,  
238 2002). Although the exact developmental mechanisms of each studied case are not completely  
239 understood, all seem to involve absent, reduced, or degenerated AER development or activity. In  
240 *Brachymeles lukbani*, the earliest forelimb observed displays a bent elbow and, although the  
241 autopod portion does not look properly developed, appears to be at a stage of development  
242 similar to when digit rays begin to develop in other lizards (Sanger *et al.*, 2008; Wise *et al.*,  
243 2009; Rapp Py□Daniel *et al.*, 2017; Griffing *et al.*, 2019). It was not possible to determine  
244 whether or not the AER of the limbs is normal in *B. lukbani* given available material; however,  
245 the earliest embryo seems to be around the temporal frame when the AER begins to become  
246 reduced in typical pentadactyl lizards, such as is observed in *Lacerta* (Raynaud, 2003) or  
247 *Paroedura* (Noro *et al.*, 2009).

248 In amniote embryos, induction of early limb buds is, at least in part, dependent on  
249 signaling between the somites and the lateral plate mesoderm (LPM; Duester, 2008; Zhao *et al.*,  
250 2009; Zeller *et al.*, 2009; Duboc and Logan, 2011), while the maintenance of limb development  
251 depends on the activity of the AER (Mahmood *et al.*, 1995). The forelimb skeleton develops

252 from the mesoderm within the limb bud, derived from the LPM, while the pectoral girdle derives  
253 from the LPM and an additional component of somitic origin (McGonnell, 2001). The  
254 musculature of the forelimb and that connecting the limb skeleton to the pectoral girdle, and the  
255 girdle to the vertebral column, derives from the somites. During development, some cells migrate  
256 out of the somite and invade the limb buds where they differentiate into muscle cells and arrange  
257 forming two opposing muscle masses that give rise to the muscles of the arm (intrinsic limb  
258 muscles) and some major muscles originating on the pectoral girdle and extending to attachment  
259 points within the arm or on the axial column (extrinsic limb muscles) (i.e. pectoralis,  
260 supracoracoideus, latissimus, deltoideus, scapulohumeral, subscapular muscles). Other muscles  
261 form within the somite boundaries and extend into the girdles from their origin sites at the  
262 vertebrae or ribs (i.e. levator scapulae, trapezius, serratus, episternocleidomastoid muscles). The  
263 former group of muscles correspond to proper limb muscles, irrespective of their origin or  
264 attachments, as developmentally they derive from the limb muscle masses, while the latter group  
265 corresponds to axial musculature, as they originate developmentally from the somitic primaxial  
266 musculature (Romer, 1944; Russell and Bauer, 2008; Valasek *et al.*, 2011).

267 In the *limbless* chicken mutant, small limb buds start development but grow very little  
268 and soon after shrink and disappear (Prahlad *et al.*, 1979). In these mutant embryos, both the  
269 pectoral and pelvic girdles develop normally, however the limb skeletal elements and the limb  
270 musculature do not (Prahlad *et al.*, 1979). Furthermore, there is no sign of the humerus or more  
271 distal elements, nor of extrinsic limb muscles like the pectoralis, although axial girdle  
272 musculature appears to be normal (Prahlad *et al.*, 1979; Lanser and Fallon, 1984). This  
273 demonstrates that the maintenance of a developing limb bud is necessary for the formation and  
274 development of the limb skeleton and limb intrinsic and extrinsic musculature, at least up to a

275 certain point, but is not needed for the development of the girdles nor the axial girdle  
276 musculature. In *Brachymeles lukani*, although development of the limb is truncated, its early  
277 presence seems to be sufficient to enable the development of the limb musculature. Subsequent  
278 limb reduction to the point of near-disappearance does not seem to affect the later development  
279 of extrinsic limb musculature associated with the normally developed pectoral girdle. This  
280 observation suggests that in other limbless clades, the presence of limb musculature in adults  
281 implies the presence of transient limbs during embryonic development.

282 As mentioned before, most lizard clades have evolved extremely limb-reduced or  
283 limbless forms. In fact; gekkotans, gerrhosaurids, cordylids, gymnophthalmids and anguimorphs  
284 display both limbed and limb-reduced or limbless species, and only in iguanians, lacertids, teiids  
285 and xantusids is limb loss not observed. Dibamids, amphisbaenians, and snakes are composed  
286 entirely of limb-reduced or limbless species (Figure 5). However, information on the  
287 developmental patterns and adult muscle anatomy of limbs and girdles remains scarce.  
288 Amphisbaenians form a highly specialized fossorial clade of lizards, composed by five families  
289 characterized by limblessness (Kearney, 2002). Only members of the genera *Blanus* and *Bipes*  
290 retain a reduced femur, and only species of *Bipes* have forelimbs, which are well developed and  
291 include humerus, ulna, radius, carpals, and four or five digits (Kearney, 2002). In stark contrast  
292 to *Bipes*, all other amphisbaenians lack any trace of forelimb skeletal elements. However, with  
293 the exception of the family Rhineuridae, all have been reported recently to retain the ancestral  
294 number of forelimb girdle muscles, although these muscles show somewhat modified  
295 arrangements, and origin and attachment points, associated with their variably developed  
296 pectoral girdles (Westphal *et al.*, 2019). Interestingly, Rhineuridae also lacks any pectoral girdle  
297 skeletal element, but does possess highly modified strand-like muscles that are similar to those of

298 other amphisbaenians and lizards in position and number (Westphal *et al.*, 2019). The presence  
299 of axial pectoral and limb girdle musculature in amphisbaenians suggests they may retain a  
300 developing forelimb, at least during early embryonic stages. The retention of an early forelimb  
301 during development may explain the apparent re-evolution of forelimbs or digits without the  
302 necessity of invoking novel re-evolution of limb development mechanisms and processes in an  
303 ancestrally limbless clade, not only in the case of *Bipes biporus* (Kearney and Stuart, 2004;  
304 Brändle *et al.*, 2008), but also in analogous cases within Gymnophthalmidae (Kohlsdorf and  
305 Wagner, 2006) and Scincidae (Wagner *et al.*, 2018).

306 Skinks are without a doubt the best clade to study the evolution of limb reduction and  
307 loss among squamates. Extreme limb reduction and limblessness is observed in species in more  
308 than 30 different genera representing an even larger number of independent transitions from the  
309 pentadactyl ancestral state. As in many skink clades, instances of limb reduction and loss occur  
310 independently in lineages of the same genus, as is observed in *Brachymeles* (Figure 5).  
311 *Brachymeles lukbani* has at least externally limbless sister species, *B. minimus*, and both are  
312 nested in a clade of seven species with reduced limb but digitized lineages (Figure 5; Wagner *et*  
313 *al.*, 2018; Bergmann *et al.*, 2020). Within this clade, the two-digit forms are more closely  
314 related to *B. lukbani* and *B. minimus*, sister to the three-digit species (Figure 5). This pattern  
315 suggests a progressive loss of digits and more proximal limb structures in the *lukbani + minimus*  
316 clade. Based on a dated phylogeny (Wagner *et al.*, 2018; Bergmann *et al.*, 2020) limb loss in  
317 these animals is relatively recent, probably less than 12 million years ago. This phylogenetic  
318 history is consistent with a developmental pattern that still includes the embryonic appearance of  
319 stylo and zeugopodium and shoulder girdle and associated muscles, and retention of a reduced  
320 limb covered under a scale, a condition called *cryptomelia* (Windle, 1898).

321 Within individual genera, the morphology of reduced limbs and the degree of reduction  
322 can be highly variable (Greer, 1970; Andreone and Greer, 2002; Sakata and Hikida, 2003a;  
323 Sakata and Hikida, 2003b; Carranza *et al.*, 2008; Siler *et al.*, 2011a; Davis *et al.*, 2014; Miralles  
324 *et al.*, 2015; Andrade *et al.*, 2016; Wagner *et al.*, 2018). The persistence of intermediate forms  
325 between the fully pentadactyl and fully limbless represents a mystery, that has been interpreted  
326 as evidence that these species represent different adaptive optima (Brandley *et al.*, 2008;  
327 Bergmann and Morinaga, 2019; Skinner *et al.*, 2008; Bergmann and Morinaga, 2019), although  
328 optimal for what is not known. The extent to which extremely reduced rudimentary limbs and  
329 their associated muscles participate actively in locomotion is largely unknown (Bergmann *et al.*,  
330 2020). There are indications that different morphologies do not affect locomotor performance  
331 (Morinaga and Bergmann, 2020), further conflicting with the notion that intermediate forms are  
332 adaptive (but see Bergmann *et al.*, 2020). The high variability in digit number and degree of  
333 reduction seen at the interspecific level mirrored even within some individual species (Siler *et*  
334 *al.*, 2011b; Davis *et al.*, 2014; Andrade *et al.*, 2016). This parallel of morphological variability  
335 between species in a genus and among individuals within a species suggests that drift,  
336 constrained by population sizes and isolation, rather than that active adaptation plays an  
337 important role in the maintenance of intermediate limb-reduced morphologies. Meanwhile, the  
338 apparent progression from moderate to extreme limb reduction observed in different limb  
339 reduced lineages might hint at cumulative developmental effects behind the initial evolution and  
340 persistence of reduced limb morphologies.

341 It is worth noting that the situation in *B. lukbani* is unusual as this species is externally  
342 limbless but retains a hidden limb rudiment, a condition that has been called *cryptomelia* in the  
343 medical literature (Windle, 1898). It is not clear how common this form of limbless phenotype is,

344 as it requires special techniques to detect. Cryptic limbs like these may have gone undetected in  
345 many other apparently limbless lizard species. The results of this study provide a reasonable  
346 scenario linking the transient existence of a developing limb with the presence of limb derived  
347 girdle muscles in adults. Nevertheless, studies on other limb reduced taxa are needed to establish  
348 whether transient embryonic limbs or cryptic adult limbs are regularly present in species where  
349 these muscles are well developed but show no traces of limb skeleton. Further studies comparing  
350 the adult musculoskeletal anatomy, embryonic development, and phylogenetic evolutionary  
351 patterns of limb reduction in other skinks in the genus *Brachymeles*, as well as in the many other  
352 limb-reduced lineages, are required to understand the recurrent evolution of limb reduced forms  
353 in squamates and whether these similar phenotypes are the result of similar mechanisms evolving  
354 in parallel.

355

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363

## 364 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

365 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

366

367 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

368 Oliver Griffith, Cameron D. Siler and Gunter P. Wagner collected the *Brachymeles lukbani*  
369 embryos and adults on the field. Matteo Fabbri and Laurel Yohe mounted and CT-scanned the  
370 adult specimens. Daniel Blackburn provided corn snake eggs from his colony at Trinity College.  
371 Bhart-Anjan S. Bhullar provided logistical and financial support for the immunostaining and  
372 microscopic imaging of the embryos. Daniel Smith-Paredes conceived the study, photographed  
373 *B. lukbani* embryos, collected corn snake embryos, performed the immunostaining experiments,  
374 imaged the immunostained embryos, created the figures and wrote manuscript with the  
375 assistance of Cameron D. Siler and Gunter P. Wagner.

376

377 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

378 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon  
379 reasonable request

380

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633

634 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

635

636 **FIGURE 1** The external morphology of a series of embryos of *Brachymeles lukbani*. Left  
637 column shows the whole embryo, middle column shows a close up on the forelimb, right column  
638 shows a line drawing of the shape of the forelimb. From earlier to later stages, the limb does not  
639 grow considerably and gets covered with small scales. Scale bar: 500 µm

640

641 **FIGURE 2** Musculoskeletal anatomy of the developing embryos of *Brachymeles lukbani*  
642 visualized with immunofluorescence. Left and middle columns show Sox9 labelled in yellow,  
643 right column shows Myosin heavy chain labelled in red. br: brachial musculature, co: coracoid  
644 plate, cd: clavicular deltoid muscle, cm: cleidomastoid muscle, dm: deltoid musculature, fl:  
645 forelimb, h: humerus, he: heart, hl: hindlimb, pe: pectoral muscle, sc: scapular plate, scc:  
646 supracoracoid muscle, sd: scapular deltoid muscle, st: sternum, t: triceps musculature, tr:  
647 trapezius muscle, u: ulna

648

649 **FIGURE 3** Comparison of the true limbless embryo of the corn snake, *Pantherophis guttatus*,  
650 with that of the limbed *Brachymeles lukbani*. Whereas *B. lukbani* develops both skeleton and  
651 muscles associated and dependent on the development of a limb bud, snakes show no trace of  
652 neither forelimb skeleton, girdles or musculature. Both the axial and the limb musculature of the  
653 skink, although reduced distally, develop in association with the pectoral girdle in the limb  
654 region, while the axial musculature of the snake remains undifferentiated along the  
655 anteroposterior axis

656

657 **FIGURE 4** Adult morphology of *Brachymeles lukbani* obtained from  $\mu$ CT-scan imaging. A:  
658 Lateral view of the neck and thoracic region. B: Ventral view of the neck and thoracic region.  
659 The girdle elements are colored in yellow, humerus in orange, extremely reduced ulna and radius  
660 in red. C, D: CTscan raw data slices showing the humerus and the extremely reduced ulna and  
661 radius. E: Detail of the limb elements; humerus in orange, ulna and radius in red, pointed by the  
662 red arrow. F, G: Some of the muscles of the pectoral region, with limb muscles colored in green,  
663 red and yellow colors, and axial muscles in blue and purple colors. cb: coracobrachialis, dm:  
664 deltoid musculature, ld: latissimus dorsi, ls: levator scapulae, pe: pectoralis, r: radius, sc:  
665 supracoracoideus, u: ulna. White scale bars: 500  $\mu$ m. Scale bar in C and D: 350  $\mu$ m

666

667 **FIGURE 5** Phylogenetic relationships among skinks in the genus *Brachymeles* in the context of  
668 lizard phylogeny and limb reduction. Extreme limb-reduction has evolved independently within  
669 most clades of squamates, with the exception of Xantusidae, Lacertidae, Teiidae and Iguania,  
670 while Dibamidae, Amphisbaenia and Serpentes are composed exclusively by extremely limb-  
671 reduced or limbless species. Within Scincidae (Right), Acontinae is composed exclusively of  
672 extremely limb-reduced or limbless forms, and limbs have been reduced or lost many times within  
673 Lygosominae and Scincinae. Nested within Scincinae (orange branches of the tree, the genus  
674 *Brachymeles* (light orange branches, node marked by a star) displays an interesting pattern of  
675 multiple independent events of extreme limb reduction, exemplified by the number of digits  
676 retained in the forelimb (colored squares). Orange colored triangles represent a *Brachymeles*  
677 lineage composed of 17 pentadactyl species. White colored triangles represent lineages of  
678 *Brachymeles* with three species of similar degrees of limb reduction (2 or 3 digits retained), and  
679 the yellow colored triangles represent the rest of genera within Scincinae, including at least 20

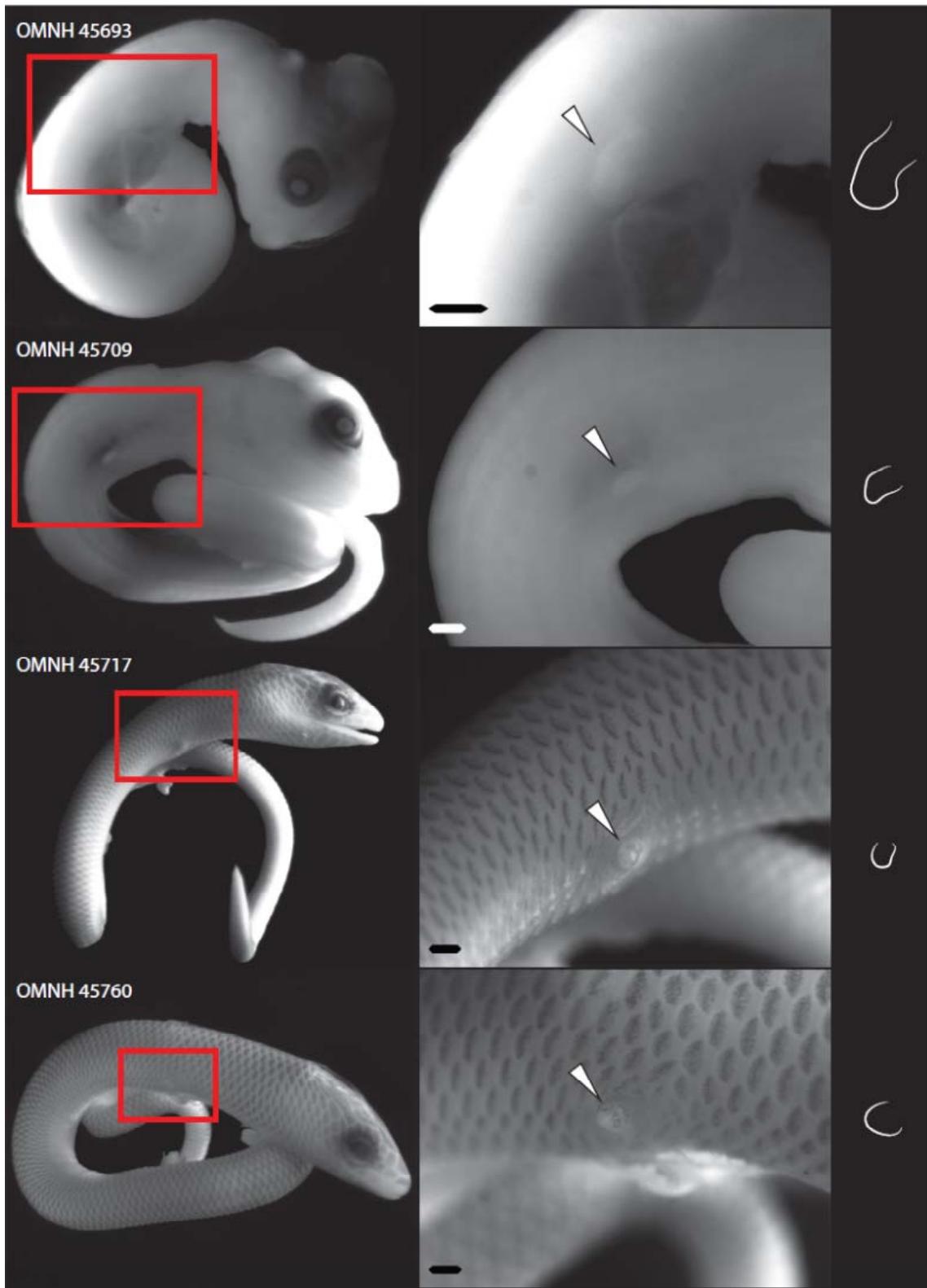
680 genera with extremely limb reduced species (*Chalcides*, *Scelotes*, *Feylinia*, *Jarujinia*,

681 *Pygomeles*, among others, for example). Squamate tree modified from Leal and Cohn, 2018.

682 Skink phylogeny modified from Pyron *et al.*, 2013; Andrade *et al.*, 2016; Wagner *et al.*, 2018

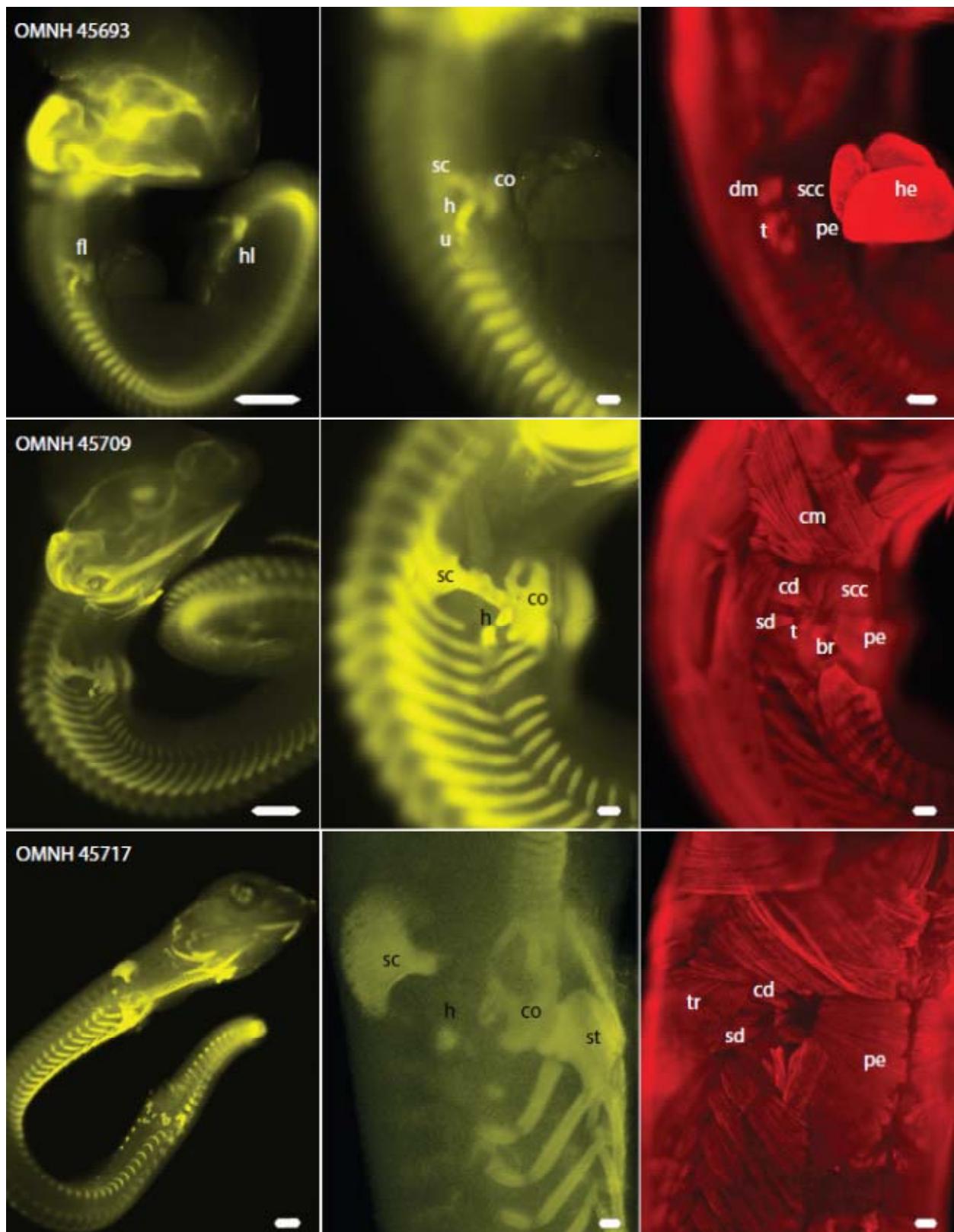
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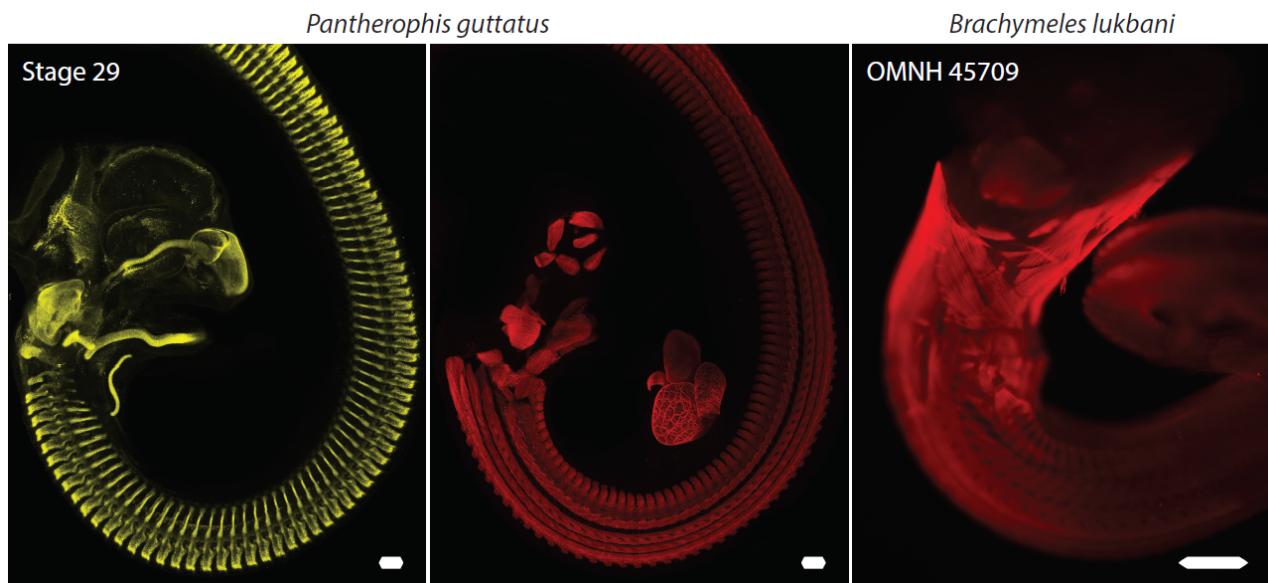
686 **FIGURE 1**



687

688 **FIGURE 2**

689

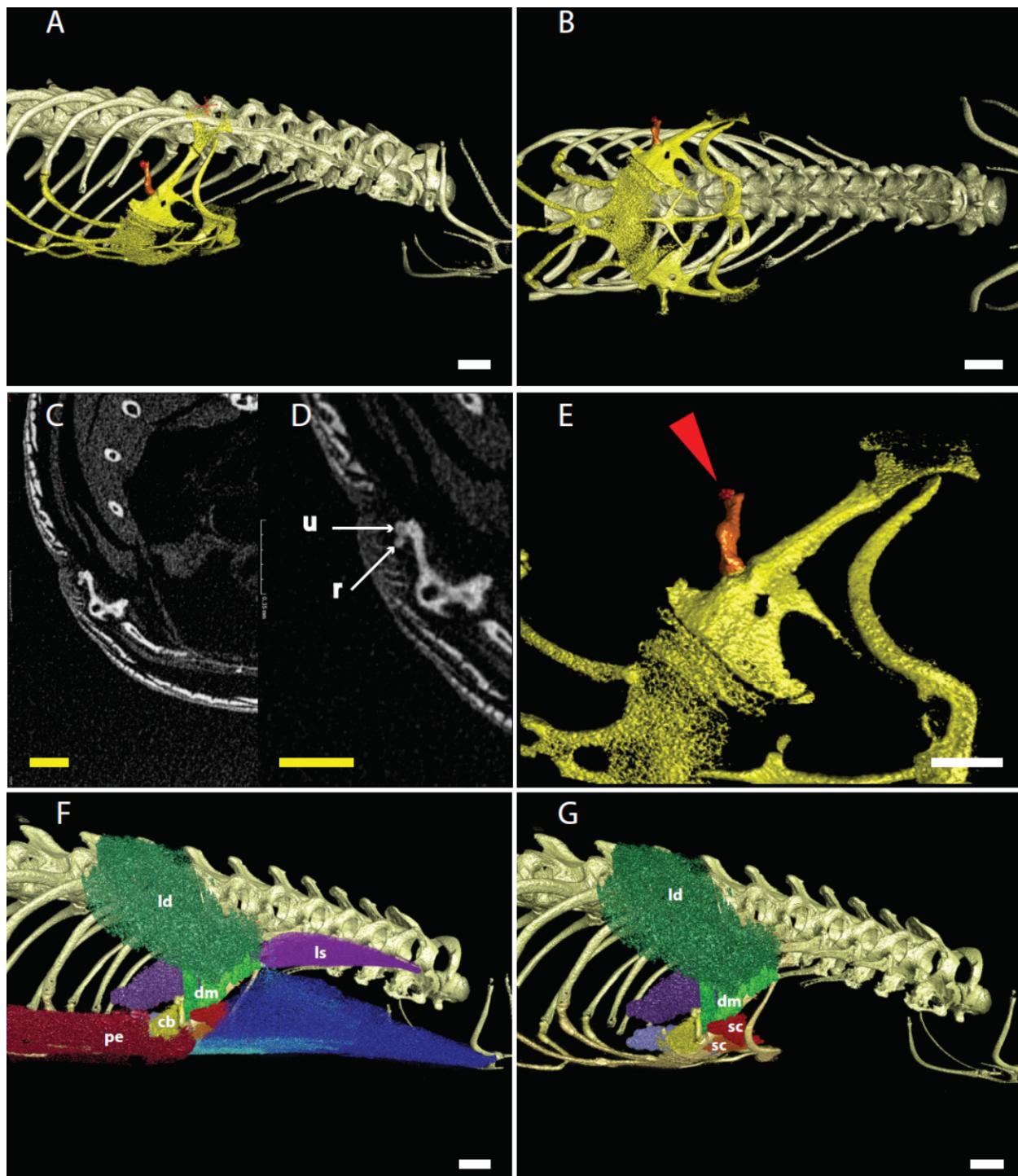


690

691 **FIGURE 3**

692

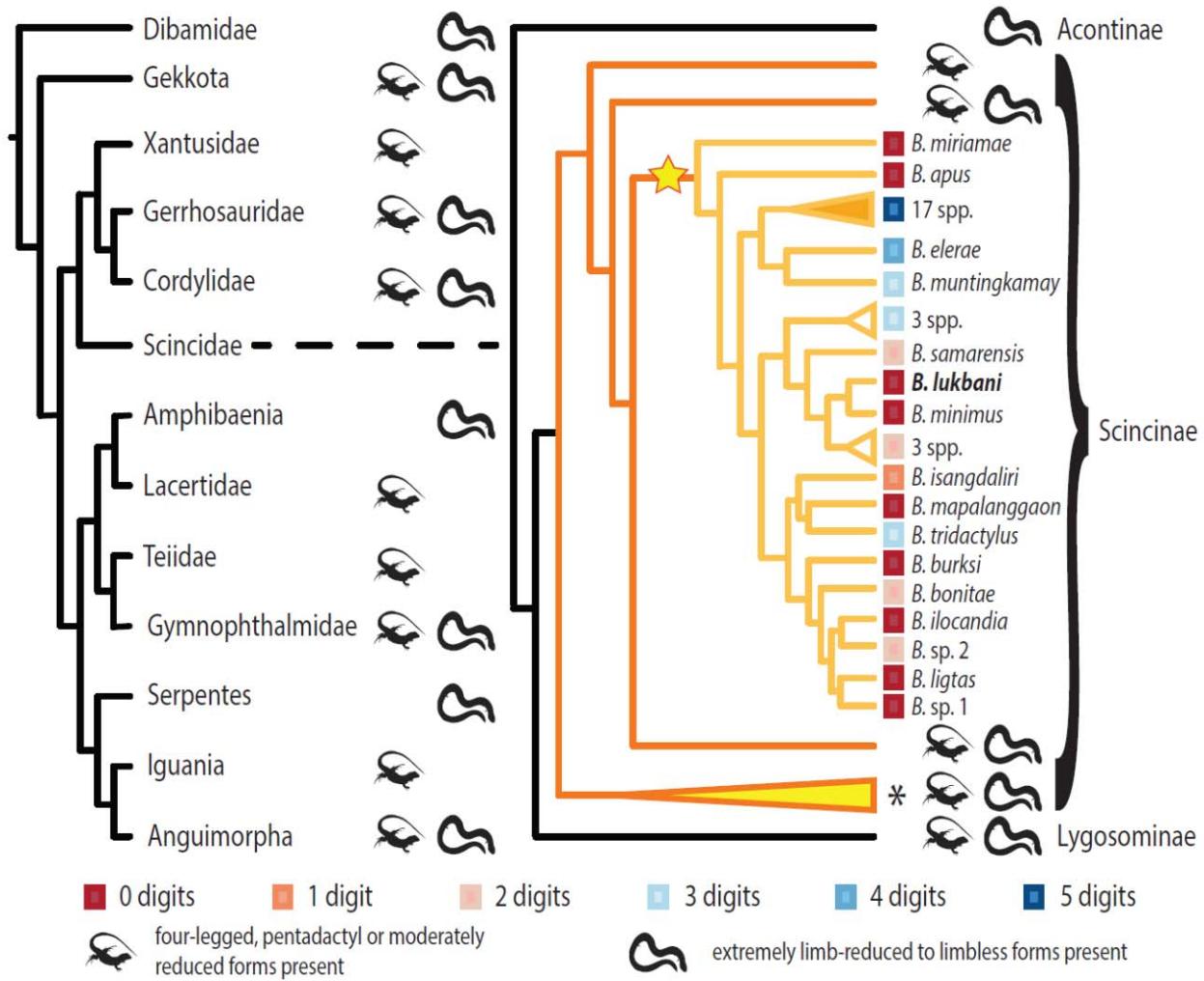
693



694

695 **FIGURE 4**

696



697

698 **FIGURE 5**