1	A comparative histological study of the osteoderms in the lizards Heloderma suspectum				
2	(Squamata: Helodermatidae) and Varanus komodoensis (Squamata: Varanidae)				
3					
4	Alexander Kirby1, Matt Vickaryous2, Alan Boyde3, Alessandro Olivo1, Mehran Moazen4, Sergio				
5	Bertazzo1, Susan Evans5*				
6					
7	1Department of Medical Physics & Biomedical Engineering, University College London, London				
8	WC1E 6BT, UK				
9	² Department of Biomedical Sciences, University of Guelph 50 Stone Road East, Guelph, ON, N1G				
10	2W1, CANADA				
11	3Dental Physical Sciences, Barts and The London School of Medicine and Dentistry, Queen Mary				
12	University of London, Mile End campus, London E1 4NS, UK				
13	4Department of Mechanical Engineering, University College London, London WC1E 6BT, UK				
14	⁵ Department of Cell & Developmental Biology, University College London, London WC1E 6BT,				
15	UK				
16					
17					
18	Running title: Osteoderm histology				
19					
20					
21	*To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: <u>s.e.evans@ucl.ac.uk</u>				
22					
23					
24 25					
26					
27					

28 Abstract

We describe the histological appearance of the osteoderms (ODs) of Heloderma suspectum and Varanus komodoensis using multiple staining and microscopy techniques to yield information about their morphology and development. Histological analysis showed that the ODs of *H. suspectum* are composed of three main tissue types, a superficial layer herein identified as osteodermine, capping a base composed of Sharpey-fibre bone and lamellar bone rich in secondary osteons (Haversian bone tissue). In contrast, ODs in V. komodoensis are composed of a core of woven bone surrounded by parallel-fibred bone without a capping tissue. Thus, between these two species, ODs differ both in terms of their structural composition and in details of their skeletogenesis. The histology of the mineralised tissues observed in these two reptile taxa provides insights into the mechanism of formation of lizard ODs and presents a direct comparison of the histological properties between the ODs of the two species. These data allow for greater understanding of the comparative histological appearance of the dermal bones of lizards and highlights their structural diversity. **Key words** "osteoderms", "histology", "polarised light", "lizard", "osteodermine", "Gila monster", "Komodo dragon"

55 Introduction

56 Osteoderms (ODs), which literally means "bone in the skin", are hard tissue organs 57 embedded into the dermis of vertebrates (Moss, 1972), forming part of the dermal 58 (integumentary) skeleton of tetrapods (Vickaryous & Sire, 2009). They are often referred to as 59 "ossicles", "bony plates" or "dermal armour" among other synonyms. The histological 60 organisation of skeletally mature ODs provides information about their mode of development 61 (Moss, 1972; de Buffrénil et al., 2010; de Buffrénil et al., 2011), evolutionary origin and 62 homology across species (de Buffrénil et al., 2010). Previous work has shown that OD 63 development is not homogenous across vertebrates (Vickaryous & Sire, 2009); the mode of 64 development of some ODs in mammals, e.g. in Dasypus novemcinctus Linnaeus 1758, the nine-65 banded armadillo, is comparable with intramembranously derived elements of the human skull 66 (Vickaryous & Sire, 2009). However, in reptiles including dinosaurs (e.g. Horner et al., 2016), 67 alligators (Vickaryous & Hall, 2008) and lizards (Zylberberg & Castanet, 1985; Levrat-Calviac & 68 Zylberberg, 1986; Vickaryous et al., 2015), ODs have been postulated to arise via spontaneous 69 mineralisation that forms within pre-existing dermal collagen arrangements, much like tendon 70 ossification (Hall, 2015).

71 Among living tetrapods, lizards (exclusive of snakes) include the largest number of OD-72 bearing taxa. In this group, ODs are considered to represent a primitive trait of the basal 73 tetrapods, lost in some later lineages (Levrat-Calviac and Zylberberg, 1986), and related to the 74 latent ability of the dermis to generate a mineralised tissue (Main et al., 2005). OD expression 75 within a clade is often variable, even within a single genus (Campbell, 1982). Lizard ODs have a 76 heterogeneous tissue composition and have been described as containing woven bone 77 (Zylberberg and Castanet, 1985), parallel-fibred bone (Vickaryous & Hall, 2008), lamellar bone 78 (Zylberberg & Castanet, 1985; de Buffrénil et al., 2010) and Sharpey-fibre bone (Vickaryous & 79 Hall, 2008; Vickaryous et al., 2015). This diversity in OD composition, morphology, arrangement 80 and distribution makes lizards an ideal group in which to examine the differences in OD 81 histology.

82 A recently discovered highly-mineralised OD component, osteodermine, was first 83 named in a fossil squamate (Glyptosaurinae) from the late Cretaceous (de Buffrénil et al., 2011). 84 Since then, this material has been observed on the superficial surface of extant Tarentola 85 annularis (Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire 1827) (Vickaryous et al., 2015) and Tarentola mauritanica 86 (Linnaeus 1758) (Levrat-Calviac & Zylberberg, 1986) ODs. However, relatively little has been 87 done to characterise osteodermine histologically, nor has there been much research as to the 88 latent ability of squamates to mineralise dermal components (Haines and Mohuiddin, 1968). 89 Indeed, the most recent review of tetrapod ODs (Vickaryous & Sire, 2009) highlighted the gaps 90 in our current knowledge of the skeletogenesis and subsequent material composition of 91 squamate ODs and called for further investigation into these. A recent study compared cell-92 mediated mineralisation of ODs to that of heterotopic ossification in humans (Dubansky and 93 Dubansky, 2018), emphasising the importance of understanding the ontogeny of ODs in the 94 context of creating models for human disease.

95 Varanus komodoensis Ouwens 1912 (Komodo Dragon) and Heloderma suspectum Cope 96 1869 (Gila Monster) are two relatively closely related (Varanidae and Helodermatidae 97 respectively) anguimorph squamates known to possess ODs. These ODs are distinctive among 98 lizards, in that they are separated from one another by soft tissue, rather than forming a dense 99 protective sheet of overlapping 'tiles' as in most scincoid and anguid lizards. Nonetheless, there 100 are differences in the gross morphology and arrangement of the ODs in *H. suspectum* and *V.* 101 komodoensis. In the former, the ODs form a stud-like body covering of isolated, rounded 102 mounds, and in the latter, slender, vermiform cylinders, as well as rosette and dendritic shaped 103 ODs mesh into an arrangement that is more like 'chain mail' (Maisano et al., 2019). This may 104 reflect the contrasting activity patterns of the two species; the Komodo Dragon is an active 105 predator of large mammals, whereas the Gila Monster is sluggish and spends most of its time 106 underground.

107 The ODs of *H. suspectum* have been described as being composed of a basal layer of
108 bone, but having a capping tissue of unknown composition and origin (Moss, 1972; Vickaryous

109 & Sire, 2009). Our objectives were firstly to provide a detailed histological characterisation of

110 ODs from the anguimorphs *H. suspectum and V. komodoensis* and secondly, to characterise the

111 unknown capping tissue in *H. suspectum* to test if it is osteodermine and to determine whether it

112 is present in the ODS of *V. komodoensis*, the histology of which is currently undescribed.

113 Methodology

114 Skin Samples:

For the purposes of this study, samples of skin measuring roughly 10cm₂, were
dissected from the post-cranial dorsum of *H. suspectum* and *V. komodoensis* and frozen at -20_oC.
The lizard samples were provided by Zoological Society of London, London Zoo Pathology
Department (to author Evans).

119 *Histology:*

120 Dissected skin samples were defrosted and fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin for 121 24 hours then placed in decalcification solution (1.9% glutaraldehyde, 0.15M EDTA, in 0.06M 122 sodium cacodylate buffer, adj. 7.4pH) at 4_oC, changing to fresh solution every 7 days, for 4 123 weeks. Further decalcification was performed prior to embedding using a Sakura TDE™30 124 Electrolysis Decalcifier System (Item Code 1427) and Sakura TDE™30 Decalcifier Solution (Item 125 Code 1428) on default settings. Samples were embedded in paraffin wax and then sectioned 126 either coronally or parasagittally, at 5µm thickness, with a HM Microm 355S automatic rotary 127 microtome (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA.). These sections were stained with 128 Haematoxylin and Eosin (H&E; Kiernan et al., 2010), Alcian blue (Klymkowsky and Hanken, 129 1991), Masson's trichrome (Calvi et al., 2012) or Elastic/Verhoeff Van Gieson (E.V.G./V.V.G.; 130 Puchtler & Waldrop, 1979) (Supplementary Table 1). The slides were scanned using a Leica 131 SCN400 scanner to create a digital image.

132 Cross-Polarised Light Microscopy (CPLM):

For cross-polarised light microscopy, samples were prepared as above for histology but prior to
staining procedures, the dewaxed, unstained sections collected on glass slides were stained
with 0.5% aqueous toluidine blue on a heated stage for 15s and the result observed through

136 crossed polars on a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta Laser scanning microscope.

137 Multi-rotation Polarised Light Microscopy:

138 Multi-rotation PLM was achieved by rotating crossed-polarising filters around a stationary 139 sample – a new approach to increase the information content in polarised light microscopy of all 140 tissues, introduced by Boyde et al. (2019). In the present study, the overwhelming PLM signal 141 was attributable to the positive form birefringence of collagen. By sampling at close rotation 142 intervals of 15^o, the signal due to collagen fibre orientation was constant (to within 96.7%: cos 143 $15^{\circ} = 0.9659$) irrespective of its axis in the plane of section. For the present study, we used 144 automated rotation of the polarising and analysing filters at six 15° intervals with Linearly 145 Polarised Light (LPL) images recorded at each orientation. For reference, the objectives used 146 were 4/0.13, 10/0.30, 20/0.50 and 40/0.75. The images were merged using Image] in the 147 colour circular sequence Red, Yellow, Green, Cyan, Blue, Magenta (importantly, ensuring that 148 the intensities generated by the intermediate Y, C, M colours match those of the three primary 149 colours, RGB). Colour in the composite image shows the orientation within the section plane, 150 with 4 repeat cycles in 360°. Brightness was proportional to the cosine of the strike angle with 151 respect to section plane, being brightest in plane, and black when perpendicular to that plane, 152 i.e., parallel to the optic axis. For this study, we used H&E and Masson's Trichrome stained 153 sections. The prior staining makes some difference to the light absorption, but did not 154 contribute to the output colour in the combined images.

155 X-ray Plate Imaging:

Dissected samples were placed onto the plate detector of a Nomad Pro 2 X-ray system and
exposed to X-rays from 30cm of distance with a tube voltage of 60KV and a minimum current of
2.5mA, for a duration of 0.2 seconds. The digital file was scaled using ImageJ with a control
image of a radiopaque ruler.

160 **Results**



Figure 1: Histological overview of *H. suspectum* OD in (A, D, G) parasagittal and (C, F, I) coronal sections stained with (A) Alcian blue, (B, C) H&E, (D-F) Masson's trichrome and (G-I) Verhoeff van Gieson. Also (B, E, H) coronal sections of unmineralised dermis for comparison. S.F.B. = Sharpey-fibre bone, L.B. = lamellar bone, OST. = osteodermine, S.C. = stratum compactum, S.S. = stratum superficiale, Asterisks = growth lines. Scale bars: All 200µm.

161	Selected histological stains (Supplementary Table 1) were implemented to aid the
162	visualisation of the structural morphology of the ODs from both species. When viewed in the
163	dorsoventral plane using X-ray plate imaging, ODs of <i>H. suspectum</i> appeared as non-
164	overlapping, circular shapes, roughly 2-4mm in diameter, regularly tessellated with hexagonal
165	symmetry and displayed a rough, ornamented superficial surface (Supp. Fig. 1A). In parasagittal
166	section (Fig. 1A), ODs of <i>H. suspectum</i> appeared lozenge-shaped with a vermiculate superficial
167	surface, and a smooth deep surface, situated at the interface between the deep dermis (stratum
168	compactum) and the superficial dermis (stratum superficiale) (Fig. 1B). In places, the apical
169	surface of the OD resided in close contact (<20 μ m) with the stratum germinativum of the
170	epidermis (Fig. 1A), while the basal surfaces were located at a greater distance from the

epidermis (Fig. 1C). Each OD was overlain by a single keratinised "scale" or "scute" (not to be
confused with mineralised scales of fish), which stained bright red with Masson's trichrome
staining (Fig. 1D, outer most layer).

174 In *H. suspectum*, each OD was composed of three distinct mineralised tissues: (1) 175 osteodermine (OST.), (2) Sharpey-fibre bone (S.F.B.) and (3) lamellar bone (L.B.) The base of 176 each OD was composed of an ossified tissue that incorporates numerous thick collagen bundles 177 passing from the adjacent stratum compactum. Based on comparisons of similar ossified tissues 178 rich in large collagenous fibres (e.g., Witten and Hall, 2002; Vickaryous et al., 2015), we 179 interpret this as Sharpey-fibre bone (S.F.B.). Weak staining with Alcian blue (Fig. 1A) indicated 180 the presence of acid mucosubstances within the S.F.B., although no evidence of cartilage was 181 observed. Masson's trichrome staining (Fig. 1D, E, F) revealed the characteristic presence of 182 numerous large bundles of collagen fibres with the S.F.B., some of which were under tension 183 (i.e., stained red; as shown under experimental tension by Flint and Merrilees, 1976), while 184 E.V.G. staining (Fig. 1G, H, I) showed that few elastic fibres were present. S.F.B. was cellular, as 185 evidenced by various osteocytes, and showed evidence of repeating darkly stained lines, 186 indicative of growth and/or mineralisation fronts (Fig. 1A, D, Asterisks). 187 Invested within the S.F.B. were deposits of concentrically organised L.B. around 188 endosteal surfaces of the medullary cavities and neurovascular canals, creating Haversian 189 systems or secondary osteons (Fig. 1, L.B.). Unlike S.F.B., lamellar bone (L.B.) failed to stain with 190 Alcian blue (Fig. 1A), but did show evidence of collagen bundles in tension (with Masson's 191 trichrome; Fig. 1C) and the presence of elastin fibres in the lumen of the canal (E.V.G. staining; 192 Fig 1G).

Capping each *H. suspectum* OD, residing in the non-mineralised stratum superficiale, was
an unusual tissue herein identified as osteodermine (Fig. 1A, D, G, OST.). Matching previous
reports (de Buffrénil et al., 2011; Vickaryous et al., 2015), *H. suspectum* osteodermine is
collagen-poor, essentially acellular, and demonstrates evidence of periodic growth. *H. suspectum*osteodermine stained weakly for Alcian blue (Fig. 1A), indicating the presence of acid

198 mucosubstances, lacked intrinsic collagen (as revealed by Masson's trichrome; Fig. 1D) and 199 elastin (using E.V.G.; Fig. 1G), and showed evidence of periodic growth (Fig. 1, Asterisks). 200 In contrast to the robust, bead-shaped ODs of *H. suspectum*, those of *V. komodoensis* 201 resembled smooth, slightly bent cylinders, roughly 2-4mm in length and partially overlapping 202 one another (Supp. Fig. 1B). Accordingly, the morphology of these elements has been described 203 as vermiform (e.g., Erickson et al., 2003). In addition to gross morphology, ODs in V. 204 komodoensis also differ from those of *H. suspectum* at the level of serial histology. For example, 205 in *V. komodoensis*, ODs were found invested within the deep dermis (stratum compactum) (Fig. 206 2A, SC), while those of *H. suspectum* were located at the interface between the superficial



Figure 2: Histological overview of *V. komodoensis* OD stained with Alcian blue in (A) parasagittal and (B) coronal section, stained with Masson's trichrome in (C) parasagittal and (D) coronal section; and stained with Haematoxylin and Eosin in (E) parasagittal section and (F) coronal section. L.B. = lamellar bone, W.B. = woven bone, P.F.B. = parallel-fibred bone, S.C. = stratum compactum, S.S. = stratum superficiale, Asterisks = growth lines. Scale bars: (A) = $200\mu m$, (B and C) = $100\mu m$, (D) = $200\mu m$, (E) = $100\mu m$, (F) = $200\mu m$.

207 (stratum superficiale) and deep dermal compartments. In addition, V. komodoensis ODs lacked 208 Sharpey-fibre bone and osteodermine. Instead, they were primarily composed of: (1) woven 209 bone (2) lamellar bone and (3) parallel-fibred bone. In section, V. komodoensis ODs had a 210 conspicuous concentric arrangement of outer rings and an inner core (Fig. 2). The inner core 211 region was composed of woven bone, exhibiting a densely packed arrangement of interlacing, 212 randomly arranged mineralised collagen fibres. The woven bone core was negative for acid 213 mucosubstances (Fig. 2A, B) and showed evidence of collagen fibres in tension (Fig. 2C, D). The 214 outer rings were composed of parallel-fibred bone, with closely packed and regularly arranged 215 collagen fibres. The periphery of each OD is surrounded by a thin layer of Alcian blue-positive 216 osteoid (unmineralised bone; Fig. 2A, B). We also observed evidence of remodeling, with 217 deposits of lamellar bone (L.B.) contributing the formation of an osteon (Fig 2E), as well as 218 concentric lines of growth (Fig. 2F, Asterisks).

219 To further investigate the relationship between ODs and the dermis, we used polarised 220 light microscopy (Fig. 3). In *H. suspectum* ODs, the boundary between the mineralised (S.F.B.) 221 and the non-mineralised stratum compactum (S.C.) was almost indistinguishable, with regularly 222 interspaced bundles of collagen fibres of the dermis passing uninterrupted into the mineralised 223 OD (Fig. 3A). In contrast, for V. komodoensis ODs there was a sharp boundary between bone and 224 dermis, with only occasional Sharpey's fibres anchoring the skeletal element into the 225 surrounding skin (Fig. 3B white arrows). The same circumstances were observed in coronal 226 sections of both species (Fig. 3C, D).



Figure 3: (A) Parasagittal section of *H. suspectum* OD, (B) parasagittal section of *V. komodoensis* OD, (C) coronal section of *H. suspectum* OD, and (D) coronal section of *V. komodoensis* OD. (A-D) All stained with H&E and visualised with multi-rotation polarised light microscopy. S.F.B. = Sharpey-fibre bone, P.F.B. = parallel-fibred bone, W.B. = woven bone, S.C. = stratum compactum, white arrows = Sharpey's fibres. Scale bars: (A) = $50\mu m$, (B) = $50\mu m$, (C) = $250\mu m$, (D) = $50\mu m$.

- 227 In *H. suspectum*, osteodermine failed to stain with toluidine blue and displayed 228 monorefringence when viewed using polarised light, with evidence of concentrically arranged 229 lines of arrested growth (Fig. 4A-D, OST.). As revealed by staining with Masson's trichrome, 230 intrinsic collagen fibres appeared to be virtually absent from the osteodermine matrix, whereas 231 penetrating Sharpey's fibres were observed passing radially through the otherwise vitreous 232 matrix (Fig. 4C, D, white arrows). A "Maltese cross" indicative of a secondary osteon following 233 bone remodeling (Stump, 1925), was observed in the L.B. region across multiple sections as a 234 cross shaped, dark formation in transmitted light (Fig. 4A, B L.B., red arrows). Occasionally, we 235 were able to identify vascular channels that were not encased by this L.B. and therefore did not 236 produce a "Maltese cross" (Fig 4A, B). We were not able to identify a "Maltese cross" in any V.
- 237 *komodoensis* sections.



Figure 4: (A and B) Parasagittal sections of *H. suspectum* OD stained with toluidine blue visualised with cross-polarised light microscopy. (C) *H. suspectum* OD, parasagittal section stained with Masson's Trichrome, visualised with multi-rotation polarised light microscopy and (D) same section as (C), visualised with light microscopy. S.F.B. = Sharpey-fibre bone, L.B. and red arrows = lamellar bone, OST. = osteodermine, S.C. = stratum compactum, S.S. = stratum superficiale, white arrows = Sharpey's fibres. Scale bars: All 100µm.

239

240 Discussion

- 241 The primary objective of this study was to provide a detailed histological
- 242 characterisation of ODs from the anguimorphs *H. suspectum* and *V. komodoensis*. The second
- 243 objective was to characterise the histological appearance of osteodermine and to confirm its
- 244 presence in *Heloderma suspectum* ODs.
- 245 Objective one: comparison of the OD histology between *Heloderma suspectum* and *Varanus*
- 246 komodoensis
- 247 Histological results demonstrated several important differences in the staining and

248 structure of the mineralised materials present in the ODs of the two species. Whereas ODs of 249 both *H. suspectum* and *V. komodoensis* are present within the dermis and are primarily 250 composed of bone, their relative placement within the dermis and the structural organisation of 251 the ossified matrix differs notably between the two species. In addition, *H. suspectum* develops a 252 conspicuous capping tissue (herein identified as osteodermine) whereas V. komodoensis does 253 not. Taken together, these data suggest that disparity in OD structure reflects fundamental 254 differences in the functional role and evolutionary history of these elements. As explained in the 255 introduction, Gila monsters are understood to be lethargic hunters, whereas Komodo dragons 256 are active hunters. Therefore, it seems likely that differences in OD structural composition 257 reflect the different ecological environments of the dermis within the distinct predatorial niches 258 that these two species occupy. Accordingly, future studies are welcomed that attempt to 259 elucidate a clear correlation between ecological environment and the histology of lizard ODs.

260 Whereas the dermis represents the structural milieu of OD formation, there are 261 differences across species in the relative position of the skeletally mature elements. As is the 262 case seen in Varanus salvator (Erickson et al., 2003), the ODs of V. komodoensis were situated 263 comparatively deep within the stratum compactum of the dermis, whereas those of *H*. 264 suspectum were located at or near the interface between the stratum superficiale and 265 compactum. A similar position has also been described for the OD (and osteodermine)-bearing 266 geckos T. mauritanica and T. annularis (Vickaryous, et al., 2015). This raises the possibility that 267 the formation of osteodermine may require proximity to the stratum superficiale (and possibly 268 even the adjacent epidermis; de Buffrénil et al., 2011). For now, however, the developmental 269 origins of osteodermine remain uncertain.

Mineralised collagen was found to be present throughout the ODs of *V. komodoensis*, but whereas it stained green in Masson's trichrome in the outer region, the inner region stained red indicating that the collagen is under tension within the core (Fig. 2D). *H. suspectum* ODs showed the reverse condition, where more green staining occurred within the base and core of OD compared to more red staining in the periphery and the complete lack of stain in the superficial

osteodermine regions (Fig. 1D). These differences in the distribution and tension of collagen
within the osteoderms of the two species may affect the mechanical properties of the
osteoderms under load and may be related to differences in the ecology of the two species.

278 Both *H. suspectum* and *V. komodoensis* demonstrate a comparable orthogonal 279 arrangement of large collagen bundles within the dermis (Fig. 1 and 2, S.C., S.S.), and ODs from 280 both species demonstrate a conspicuous basophilic line demarcating the limit of mineralisation, 281 similar to that reported for *H. horridum* (Moss, 1969). Both species of *Heloderma*, but not 282 *Varanus*, preserve the same herringbone organisation of collagen within the matrix of the tissue 283 we identify as Sharpey-fibre bone (Fig. 1C, F, I; Moss 1969). S.F.B. in *Heloderma* exhibited 284 multiple lacunae, and occasionally horizontal repeating darker lines of growth towards the 285 basal layers of the OD (Fig. 1A, D, Asterisks), indicating mineralisation may occur radially from 286 an initial central point, as reported in alligator ODs (Vickaryous & Hall, 2008). Both squamate 287 and crocodilian ODs (de Buffrénil et al., 2010, 2015) have been hypothesised to originate via the 288 formation of an initial nucleus of mineralisation, the developmental origins of which are 289 currently uncertain, followed by remodeling to yield lamellar bone of osteoblastic origin. This 290 could also be the path of development followed in helodermatid ODs, but further developmental 291 studies are required to determine whether this is the case.

292 Unlike ODs in *Heloderma*, those of *V. komodoensis* did not demonstrate S.F.B. suggesting 293 that the original arrangement of collagen fibres from the dermis of varanids were replaced 294 and/or remodelled by newly laid fibres of parallel-fibred bone (Fig. 2E). Indeed, the mineralised 295 collagen fibres of parallel-fibred bone were seen to be arranged in rings around a central core, 296 with disruption to this lamellar orientation in the inner core where the collagen fibres became 297 more woven and randomly orientated (Fig. 2D, F). When the parallel-fibred bone was compared 298 to the mineralised mesh of orthogonal fibres observed in the S.F.B. region of *H. suspectum* (Fig. 299 1C, F, I) it was evident that V. komodoensis ODs exhibit different mineralised collagen structures 300 (Fig. 2D, F). Lamellar bone was identified surrounding internal vasculature in V. komodoensis 301 ODs (Fig. 2E), but the ODs of *V. komodoensis* were rarely seen to be vascularised in comparison

302 to *H. suspectum* ODs.

303 The results presented here provide evidence that the collagen structure of the dermis is 304 not mirrored in the mineralised collagen observed within V. komodoensis ODs, as is the case in 305 *H. suspectum* ODs. We observed a similarity between the radial concentric lines of arrested 306 growth in the ODs of *V. komodoensis* (Fig. 2, Asterisks) and those of *H. suspectum* ODs (Fig. 1, 307 Asterisks). These also resemble OD growth lines previously documented and used to estimate 308 the age of specimens of Varanus salvator (Erickson et al., 2003). We showed that growth lines 309 were also visible in osteodermine of *H. suspectum* ODs, as in *Tarentola mauritanica* ODs, where 310 previous authors regarded them as an artefact of spheritic (globular) mineralisation (Levrat-311 Calviac and Zylberberg, 1986).

312 We observed L.B. in structures that resemble osteons and that display a "Maltese cross" 313 formation when observed with polarised light microscopy and a "scalloped border" (Vickaryous 314 & Hall, 2008) in histological staining. This suggests remodelling of the *H. suspectum* OD may 315 occur. The presence of osteons as Haversian structures, in direct association and contact with 316 S.F.B., suggests multiple mechanisms of formation in the ontogenesis of *H. suspectum* ODs – an 317 initial mineralisation (not vet understood), then remodeling to form secondary Haversian 318 structures (de Buffrénil et al., 2011), followed by the deposition of the osteodermine cap 319 (Vickaryous et al., 2015).

320 Objective two: the histology of osteodermine and its distribution in *Heloderma suspectum*

321 Based on the below criteria, we identify the capping material on the ODs of *H. suspectum* 322 as osteodermine. Histologically, osteodermine is characterised as a vitreous, highly mineralised 323 and cell-poor tissue that lacks intrinsic collagen (de Buffrénil et al., 2011; Vickaryous et al., 324 2015). Osteodermine demonstrates weak staining for Alcian blue, indicating the presence of 325 acid mucosubstances, but is not metachromatic with Toluidine blue; in addition, H. suspectum 326 osteodermine is not birefringent under polarised light. As of the time of publication, 327 osteodermine has now been identified in species of two distantly related genera: Heloderma 328 suspectum (this study), Heloderma horridum (Moss, 1969), Tarentola mauritanica and Tarentola

annularis (Vickaryous et al., 2015), suggesting that the taxonomic distribution of this tissue
remains to be recorded. Considering the homology of osteodermine across species, we were
able to identify all the features previously used to define osteodermine in the sampled skin *H. suspectum*, and did not identify any additional, novel features in *H. suspectum* osteodermine. The
ODs of *H. suspectum* are relatively large and are shown here as having very thick cap of
osteodermine, thicker than in previously studied species (Vickaryous et al., 2015). *H. suspectum*is therefore a prime candidate species any for further research into this material.

336 Conclusions

337 The basal regions of *H. suspectum* ODs were found to be composed of Sharpey-fibre bone 338 containing mineralised dermal collagen fibres, with lamellar bone sometimes found 339 surrounding internal vasculature. Osteodermine was identified as the previously unnamed 340 capping material (Moss, 1969). The ODs of *V. komodoensis* were found to be primarily composed 341 of outer rings of parallel-fibred bone, with an inner core of woven bone, without evidence of 342 osteodermine or Sharpey-fibre bone. Lamellar bone surrounding internal vasculature was 343 observed once in *V. komodoensis* ODs but they are rarely vascularised in comparison to *H.* 344 suspectum. The results presented here underscore the histological variability observed in ODs 345 within lizards and suggest that the formation of ODs in *Varanus spp.* and *Heloderma spp.* may 346 follow different developmental paths despite being relatively closely related.

347 Acknowledgements

348The authors gratefully acknowledge funding from the Engineering and Physical Sciences349Research Council (EP/1789616) and Human Frontier Science Program (RGP0039/2019). We350would also like to thank the histology department at the UCL Institute of Neurology, the imaging351suite at UCL Institute of Ophthalmology and the Zoological Society of London, London Zoo352Pathology Department. The authors declare no conflict of interest.

353 Author Contributions

354 S.E., M.M. and S.B. conceived the project. S.E. provided the biological samples and aided
355 in dissection. A.K. and A.B. performed experimental work. A.K. drafted the manuscript. A.K.,

- 356 M.V., A.B., A.O., M.M., S.B. and S.E edited and finalised the manuscript.
- 357 Data Availability Statement
- 358 All relevant data is presented in the results section and figures.
- 359 **References**
- Boyde A, Felder A, Mills D (2019) New approach to increase information content in polarised
- 361 light microscopy of skeletal and dental tissues. *Proc Microscience Microscopy Congress,*
- 362 online abstract
- 363 (https://www5.shocklogic.com/scripts/jmevent/programme.php?Client_Id=%27RMS%2
- 364 7&Project_Id=%27MMC2019%27&System_Id=1) accessed: 10/10/19
- Calvi EN, Nahas FX, Barbosa MV, et al. (2012) An experimental model for the study of collagen
- 366 fibers in skeletal muscle. *Acta Cir Bras* **27**, 681–686.
- 367 Campbell JA (1982) A new species of *Abronia* (Sauria, Anguidae) from the Sierra Juárez, Oaxaca,
 368 México. *Herpetologica* 38, 355–361.
- Cope ED (1869) [Protocol of the March 9, 1869 meeting]. *Proc Acad Nat Sci Philadelphia* **21**, 5
- de Buffrénil V, Clarac F, Fau M, et al. (2015) Differentiation and growth of bone ornamentation
- in vertebrates: A comparative histological study among the Crocodylomorpha. *J Morphol*276, 425–445.
- de Buffrénil V, Dauphin Y, Rage JC et al. (2011) An enamel-like tissue, osteodermine, on the
- 374 osteoderms of a fossil anguid (Glyptosaurinae) lizard. *C R Palevol* **10**, 427–437.
- de Buffrénil V, Sire JY, Rage JC (2010) The histological structure of glyptosaurine osteoderms
- 376 (Squamata: Anguidae), and the problem of osteoderm development in squamates. J
- 377 *Morphol* **271**, 729–737.
- 378 Dubansky BH, Dubansky BD (2018) Natural development of dermal ectopic bone in the
- 379 American alligator (*Alligator mississippiensis*) resembles heterotopic ossification disorders
- in humans. *Anat Rec* **301**, 56–76.
- 381 Erickson, GM, de Ricqles A, de Buffrénil V, et al. (2003) Vermiform bones and the evolution of
- 382 gigantism in *Megalania* : how a reptilian fox became a lion. J *Vertebr Paleontol* **23**, 966–970.

- 383 Flint MH, Merrilees MJ (1976) Relationship between the axial periodicity and staining of
- 384 collagen by the Masson trichrome procedure. *Histochem J* **9**, 1–13.
- 385 Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire, E (1827). Description des Reptiles. In: *Description de l'Égypte ou recueil*
- des observations et des recherches qui ont été faites en Égypte pendant l'expedition de
- 387 l'Armée Française, publié par les ordres de sa Majesté l'Empere (ed Savigny, MJCL). pp. 121–
- 388 160 Paris, France: L'imprimerie impériale.
- Haines RW, Mohuiddin A (1968) Sharpey-fibred bone. *J Anat* **103**, 527–538.
- Hall BK (2015). *Bones and Cartilage: Developmental and Evolutionary Skeletal Biology.* London,
 UK: Elsevier.
- 392 Horner JR, Woodward HN, Bailleul AM (2016) Mineralised tissues in dinosaurs interpreted as
- having formed through metaplasia: a preliminary evaluation. *C R Palevol*, **15**, 183–203.
- 394 Kiernan J, Lillie R, Pizzolato P et al. (2010) Haematoxylin Eosin (H&E) Staining Protocols Online.
- 395 https://www.protocolsonline.com/histology/dyes-and-stains/haematoxylin-eosin-he396 staining/ accessed: 05/06/19.
- Klymkowsky MW Hanken J (1991) Whole-mount staining of *Xenopus* and other vertebrates. In:
 Xenopus laevis: Practical Uses in Cell and Molecular Biology. Methods in Cell Biology 36

399 (eds Kay BK, Peng HB), pp. 419–428. London, UK: Elsevier.

- 400 Levrat-Calviac V, Zylberberg L (1986) The structure of the osteoderms in the gekko: *Tarentola*401 *mauritanica*. *Am J Anat* **176**, 437–46.
- 402 Linnaeus C (1766) *Systema naturae per regna tria natura*. 10th ed.,Tomus I: 1–4 Stockholm,
 403 Sweden: Laurentii Salvii.
- 404 Main RP, de Ricqlès A, Horner JR et al. (2005) The evolution and function of thyreophoran
- 405 dinosaur scutes: implications for plate function in stegosaurs. *Paleobiology* **31**, 291–314.
- 406 Maisano JA, Laduc TJ, Bell CJ et al. (2019) The cephalic osteoderms of *Varanus komodoensis* as
- 407 revealed by high-resolution X-ray computed tomography. *Anat Rec* **302**, 1675–1680.
- 408 Moss ML (1969) Comparative histology of dermal sclerifications in reptiles. *Cells Tissues Organs*
- **4**09 **73**, 510–533.

410 Moss ML (1972) The vertebrate dermis and the integumental skeleton. *Integr Comp Biol* **12**, 27–

411 34.

412 Ouwens PA (1912) On a large *Varanus* species from the island of Komodo. *Bull Jard Bo.*

413 *Buitenzorg* **6**, 1–3.

- Puchtler H, Waldrop FS (1979) On the mechanism of Verhoeff's elastica stain: a convenient stain
- for myelin sheaths. *Histochemistry* **62**, 233–247.
- 416 Stump CW, (1925) The histogenesis of bone. *J Anat* **59** (Pt 2) 136–154.
- 417 Vickaryous, MK, Meldrum G, Russell, AP (2015) Armored geckos: a histological investigation of
- 418 osteoderm development in *Tarentola* (Phyllodactylidae) and *Gekko* (Gekkonidae) with
- 419 comments on their regeneration and inferred function. *J Morphol* **276**, 1345–1357.
- 420 Vickaryous MK, Hall BK (2008) Development of the dermal skeleton in *Alligator mississippiensis*
- 421 (Archosauria, Crocodylia) with comments on the homology of osteoderms. *J Morphol* **269**,
- 422 398-422.
- 423 Vickaryous MK, Sire JY (2009) The integumentary skeleton of tetrapods: origin, evolution, and
- 424 development. *J Anat* **214**, 441–464.
- 425 Witten PE, Hall BK (2002) Differentiation and growth of kype skeletal tissues in anadromous
- 426 male Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*) Int. *J Dev Biol* **46**:719–730.
- 427 Zylberberg L, Castanet J (1985) New data on the structure and the growth of the osteoderms in
- 428 the reptile *Anguis fragilis* (Anguidae, Squamata) *J Morphol* **186**, 327–342.
- 429

430 Figure Legends

- Figure 1: Histological overview of *H. suspectum* OD in (A, D, G) parasagittal and (C, F, I) coronal
 sections stained with (A) Alcian blue, (B, C) H&E, (D-F) Masson's trichrome and (G-I) Verhoeff
 van Gieson. Also (B, E, H) coronal sections of unmineralised dermis for comparison. S.F.B. =
- 434 Sharpey-fibre bone, L.B. = lamellar bone, OST. = osteodermine, S.C. = stratum compactum, S.S. =
- 435 stratum superficiale, Asterisks = growth lines. Scale bars: All 200μm.
- 436
- Figure 2: Histological overview of *V. komodoensis* OD stained with Alcian blue in (A)
 parasagittal and (B) coronal section, stained with Masson's trichrome in (C) parasagittal and (D)
 coronal section; and stained with Haematoxylin and Eosin in (E) parasagittal section and (F)
- 440 coronal section. L.B. = lamellar bone, W.B. = woven bone, P.F.B. = parallel-fibred bone, S.C. =
- 441 stratum compactum, S.S. = stratum superficiale, Asterisks = growth lines. Scale bars: (A) =
- 442 $200\mu m$, (B and C) = $100\mu m$, (D) = $200\mu m$, (E) = $100\mu m$, (F) = $200\mu m$.
- 443

- Figure 3: (A) Parasagittal section of *H. suspectum* OD, (B) parasagittal section of *V. komodoensis*OD, (C) coronal section of *H. suspectum* OD, and (D) coronal section of *V. komodoensis* OD. (A-D)
 All stained with H&E and visualised with multi-rotation polarised light microscopy. S.F.B. =
 Sharpey-fibre bone, P.F.B. = parallel-fibred bone, W.B. = woven bone, S.C. = stratum compactum,
 white arrows = Sharpey's fibres. Scale bars: (A) = 50µm, (B) = 50µm, (C) = 250µm, (D) = 50µm.
- 449
- **Figure 4:** (A and B) Parasagittal sections of *H. suspectum* OD stained with toluidine blue visualised with cross-polarised light microscopy. (C) *H. suspectum* OD, parasagittal section stained with Masson's Trichrome, visualised with multi-rotation polarised light microscopy and (D) same section as (C), visualised with light microscopy. S.F.B. = Sharpey-fibre bone, L.B. and red arrows = lamellar bone, OST. = osteodermine, S.C. = stratum compactum, S.S. = stratum superficiale, white arrows = Sharpey's fibres. Scale bars: All 100μm.
- 456

457 **Supplementary Figure 1**:

- X-ray plate imaging of the dorsal skin of (A) *Heloderma suspectum* and (B) *Varanus komodoensis.*White indicates a denser material, black indicates a less dense material. The mineralised
 osteoderms thus appear white in comparison to the non-mineralised surrounding tissue. There
 are substantial differences in the overall shape and degree of tessellation between the two
 species. Scale bars: 5mm
- 463

464 **Suggested Cover Image:** An uncropped version of the image shown in Figure 3C. Polarised

- light micrograph of a coronal section of *H. suspectum* osteoderm and surrounding dermis. False
- 466 colour composite created from six images taken with crossed linearly polarising filters at 15°
- rotation intervals, merged in the colour circle sequence Red, Yellow, Green, Cyan, Blue, Magenta.
- 468 Colour shows the orientation within the section plane, with four repeat cycles in 360° .
- Brightness is proportional to the cosine of the strike angle with respect to section plane, beingbrightest in plane, and black when perpendicular to that plane, i.e., parallel to the optic axis.
- 471 Dark central patch corresponds to the region that was mineralised. Width of field = 3.04mm
- 472473 Table legends
- 474
- 475 Supplementary Table 1: A list of included histological stains, a description of their general
 476 characteristics and colour interpretation of the results.
- 477
- 478
- 479 **Supplementary Material:**

Histochemical stain	Utility	Colour results	
H&E (Haematoxylin and eosin)	Shows general nuclear and cytoplasmic morphology.	Nuclei: Blue Cytoplasm, collagen: Pink Bone, osteoid: Pink-Purple	
Masson's Trichrome	Shows collagen and keratin	Collagen: Green/Blue Nuclei: Black Muscle, cytoplasm, keratin: Red	
E.V.G./V.V.G. (Elastic/Verhoeff Van Gieson)	Shows elastic fibres	Collagen: Red Elastic fibres: Black	
Alcian Blue	Shows acid mucosubstances/ carboxylated glycosaminoglycans and acid mucins	Acid mucosubstances: Blue Nuclei: Red Cytoplasm: Pink	
Toluidine Blue	Standard Light: Shows general morphology/ mineralisation of bone matrix	Acidic tissue compounds (incl. DNA, RNA): Blue	
	Polarised light: Arrangement, orientation of collagen	Collagen: Birefringent blue/orange	

Supplementary Table 1: A list of included histological stains, a description of their general characteristics and colour interpretation of the results.

481			
482			
483			
484			
485			
486			
487			
488			
489			





Suggested Cover Image: An uncropped version of the image shown in Figure 3C. Polarised light micrograph of a coronal section of *H. suspectum* osteoderm and surrounding dermis. False colour composite created from six images taken with crossed linearly polarising filters at 15° rotation intervals, merged in the colour circle sequence Red, Yellow, Green, Cyan, Blue, Magenta. Colour shows the orientation within the section plane, with four repeat cycles in 360°. Brightness is proportional to the cosine of the strike angle with respect to section plane, being brightest in plane, and black when perpendicular to that plane, i.e., parallel to the optic axis. Dark central patch corresponds to the region that was mineralised. Width of field = 3.04mm