

# No relationship between vertebral column shifts and limb fluctuating asymmetry in human fetuses

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Disturbance from the normal developmental trajectory of a trait during growth – the so-called developmental instability – can be observed morphologically through phenodeviants and subtle deviations from perfect symmetry (fluctuating asymmetry). This study investigates the relationship between phenodeviance in the human vertebral column (as a result of axial patterning defects) and limb fluctuating asymmetry. Since both types of markers of developmental instability have been found associated with congenital abnormalities in humans, we anticipate a relationship between them if the concept of developmental instability, measured through either phenodeviants or asymmetry, would reflect an organism-wide process. Yet, we did not find any support for this hypothesis. We argue that the vast differences in the developmental processes involved in both systems renders these two markers of developmental instability unrelated, in spite of their associations with other congenital abnormalities. Our results thus contribute to the growing awareness that developmental instability is not an organism-wide property.

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9

## 10 Abstract

11 Disturbance from the normal developmental trajectory of a trait during growth – the so-called developmental  
12 instability – can be observed morphologically through phenodeviants and subtle deviations from perfect symmetry  
13 (fluctuating asymmetry). This study investigates the relationship between phenodeviance in the human vertebral  
14 column (as a result of axial patterning defects) and limb fluctuating asymmetry. Since both types of markers of  
15 developmental instability have been found associated with congenital abnormalities in humans, we anticipate a  
16 relationship between them if the concept of developmental instability, measured through either phenodeviants or  
17 asymmetry, would reflect an organism-wide process. Yet, we did not find any support for this hypothesis. We argue  
18 that the vast differences in the developmental processes involved in both systems renders these two markers of  
19 developmental instability unrelated, in spite of their associations with other congenital abnormalities. Our results  
20 thus contribute to the growing awareness that developmental instability is not an organism-wide property.

## 21 Introduction

22 Developmental disturbance experienced during early growth can have important consequences for the morphology,  
23 behavior, and stress tolerance of an individual later in life (e.g. Roseboom et al. 2001; Fujioka et al. 2006;  
24 Weinstock 2008). One type of such developmental disturbances, developmental instability (DI), reflects the  
25 inability of an organism to undergo stable development under given environmental and genetic conditions. It is  
26 increased by (stress induced) developmental perturbations and/or the lack of efficient mechanisms stabilizing  
27 development. Levels of developmental instability (DI) can be assessed in two ways, namely the occurrence of  
28 abnormal morphological deviations and subtle differences between left and right of on average bilateral traits, which  
29 are on average symmetrical. The idea behind the use of directionally random asymmetry (i.e., fluctuating  
30 asymmetry, FA) is that the two sides of an organism represent two replicates of the same developmental process,  
31 and any deviation from symmetry is the outcome of random noise and the inability to buffer development against it  
32 (e.g., Ludwig, 1932, Van Valen, 1962, Palmer & Strobeck, 1986). The occurrence or frequency of morphological  
33 abnormalities – the so-called phenodeviants, a term first coined by Lerner (1954)– were proposed as a measure of DI  
34 by Rasmuson (1960). Phenodeviants are less often used as measure of DI and associations with FA are not always  
35 present (e.g. Bots et al. (2016)), suggesting that both measures of DI do not necessarily reflect similar aspects of DI.

36 Although FA is commonly used in evolutionary studies to measure DI, to date it remains an unpredictable risk  
37 marker in the sense that it does not ubiquitously relate to either environmental or genetic stress (e.g. Møller 1997;  
38 Lens et al. 2002; Van Dongen & Gangestad 2011). Since little is known about the factors that influence the strength  
39 of stress-DI associations when measured through phenodeviants or FA, it is important to gain insights in the  
40 associations between both measures of DI. In addition, when the occurrence or frequency of phenodeviants are used  
41 as indicators of DI, all morphological abnormalities are considered as being equally important or severe. This should  
42 not be true in all cases. More specifically, changes in vertebral identity along the vertebral column provide a good  
43 indicator for the length and extent of disturbed development. The different types of phenodeviance along the  
44 vertebral column indicate different levels of experienced stress or perturbations during development. The more  
45 boundaries between vertebral regions have been shifted (so called homeotic transformations), the longer the  
46 disturbance of axial patterning has lasted and the more congenital abnormalities are found associated in other parts  
47 of the body (ten Broek et al. 2012). Moreover, the extent of vertebral column variation indicates the vulnerability of  
48 developing mammals more general (Varela-Lasheras et al. 2011; Reumer et al. 2014). Thus, morphological  
49 abnormalities of the vertebral column reflect a gradient in severity of phenodeviance, while a vertebral abnormality  
50 in itself poses no immediate functional limitations prenatally (see also below), providing an interesting model  
51 system to study its relation with FA and gain better insights in the link between the two markers of DI.  
52 Formation of the (mesenchymal) vertebral column starts in the fourth week of development with the migration of  
53 sclerotome cells, and it is in this embryonic period (until the end of the fifth week) that the identity of the different  
54 segments of the vertebral column is being determined (e.g. Sadler 2011). This determination happens as part of the  
55 early anterior-posterior patterning of the paraxial mesoderm, mediated by the well-known *Hox*-genes (e.g. Kessel &  
56 Gruss 1991; Kmita & Duboule 2003; Woltering & Durston 2008). At this stage of development, the foetus is  
57 extremely vulnerable to environmental and genetic insults, and disruption of development may not only result in  
58 vertebral column anomalies, but also in other birth defects, because of low effective modularity (Sander 1983; Raff  
59 1994; Galis & Metz 2001; ten Broek et al. 2012), as patterning processes of the three body axes and simultaneously  
60 occurring morphogenetic processes interact strongly (Diez del Corral et al. 2003; Cordes et al. 2004; Aulehla &  
61 Pourquie 2010; Durston et al. 2011). The study for the association between vertebral column variation and limb FA  
62 is particularly interesting because limb formation starts by the end of the fourth week (and thus in the same  
63 embryonic period) when limb buds become visible as outpocketings from the ventrolateral body walls. However, it  
64 is not until the sixth week of development that the hand- and footplates start to form (reviewed in Capdevila &  
65 Belmonte 2001; Moore & Persaud 2003; Sadler 2011). Limbs then continue to grow until the stage in which we took  
66 our measurements, and thus will likely also reflect an accumulated level of developmental perturbations. More  
67 specifically, studying the association between vertebral variations and limb FA will allow us to study to what extent  
68 limb FA can be seen as a general/omnibus measure of DI, like variations in vertebral column are.”

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71 We investigate the relationship between axial patterning abnormalities (here considered as vertebral column  
72 variation, through homeotic transformations) and limb FA in human foetuses. We use a hospital collection of human  
73 deceased foetuses of the VU University Medical Centre in Amsterdam. We determined axial patterning  
74 abnormalities in the vertebral column which can be categorised according to their development (ten Broek et al.  
75 2012) and below.

76 While we have shown earlier that FA and vertebral abnormalities relate to – at least some – congenital abnormalities  
77 in deceased human foetuses (Van Dongen et al. 2009; Bots et al. 2011; ten Broek et al. 2013), the link between FA  
78 and cervical ribs was less clear (Van Dongen et al. 2009).

79 Here we present a more detailed study on the relationship between FA and vertebral column variation focussing on  
80 the severity of phenodeviance in a much larger sample. If both limb FA and vertebral column variation reflect  
81 individual DI, we predict a higher limb FA in foetuses with vertebral column abnormalities, or at least in some of  
82 the abnormalities which are most severe. This increase in limb FA with severity could be either gradual/linear or

83 could follow a threshold type of pattern, both of which will be tested in our analyses. Given the differences in the  
84 underlying developmental processes of the vertebrae and limbs, we study the link of DI in two different systems. If  
85 our hypothesis is confirmed, this can be seen as evidence that DI can be considered to be an organism-wide concept.  
86 If our hypothesis is not supported, this does not refute the whole paradigm that DI could reflect developmental stress  
87 and individual quality, but rather suggests that the link between general developmental processes and the asymmetry  
88 of particular traits is not general, but restricted to specific processes.

## 89 **Material & Methods**

### 90 **Subjects**

91 Since 1980, all deceased infants and foetuses presented for autopsy at the VU University Medical Centre have been  
92 routinely radiographed both ventrally and laterally (23mA, 70–90 kV, 4–12 sec, Agfa [Mortsel, Belgium] Gevaert  
93 D7DW Structurix films). This research was carried out on the anterior-posterior projections of 1389 deceased  
94 foetuses and infants obtained between 1990 and 2009. Not all babygrams were suitable for analysis, therefore we  
95 used the same selection criteria to include foetuses and infants in this research as described in detail in ten Broek et  
96 al. (2012); Bots et al. (2014). In addition, some foetuses were excluded because of missing age information or our  
97 inability to measure limb FA (see below). In total, we examined 528 male and 416 female foetuses and infants (13.7  
98 – 92.1 weeks, mean: 27.9 weeks; standard deviation = 9.9 weeks). The babygrams were digitized using a Canon  
99 30D digital camera in a fixed-distance set-up with a glass plate and a flash underneath.

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### 101 **Vertebral Variations**

102 We examined the vertebral column of the foetuses for variation in both identity (i.e. cervical, thoracic, lumbar and  
103 sacral) and number of vertebrae. When ribs were present on the seventh vertebra, it was considered a transitional  
104 cervico-thoracic vertebra. Transverse processes of the seventh cervical vertebra exceeding those of the first thoracic  
105 vertebra (also known as apophysomegaly) were considered to be rudimentary cervical ribs fused with the transverse  
106 processes (e.g. Pionnier & Depraz 1956; Bots et al. 2011). Ribs on the most caudal or most anterior thoracic vertebra  
107 were considered to be rudimentary and the vertebra to be transitional when the ribs were half the size of the  
108 preceding or subsequent rib, respectively (ten Broek et al. 2012). We counted the number of vertebrae per vertebral  
109 region (i.e. cervical, thoracic, lumbar, and sacral) and classified transitional vertebra as having half the identity of  
110 both neighbouring regions, e.g. a transitional cervico-thoracic vertebra was scored as half cervical and half thoracic.  
111 Transitional vertebrae on the lumbo-sacral boundary were more difficult to score, because in most individuals the  
112 sacral vertebrae were not yet fused with each other or with the ilium. However, shape and position of the vertebrae  
113 in the caudal region often provided adequate information, but still the presence of transitional lumbo-sacral  
114 vertebrae could have been underestimated.

115 Changes of the vertebral formula were expressed on a severity scale from 0-9 that reflected our estimations of the  
116 seriousness of the vertebral antero-posterior (A-P) patterning disturbances, based on both the A-P position of the  
117 changes (i.e. the boundary) and the extent of the changes along the A-P axis (i.e. the number of boundaries, see for a  
118 detailed description ten Broek et al. (2012)). We have scored a regular (R) vertebral column with 7 cervical, 12  
119 thoracic and 5 lumbar vertebrae as 0; a change of the number of lumbar vertebrae and, hence of the number of 24  
120 presacral vertebrae, without other changes (lumbosacral: LS) as 1, lumbar ribs and absent or rudimentary twelfth  
121 ribs (thoracolumbar: TL) as 3, lumbar ribs and absent or rudimentary twelfth ribs with a changed number of  
122 presacral vertebrae (TL\_LS) as 4, a cervical rib or rudimentary or absent first rib (cervicothoracal: CT) as 6, a  
123 cervical rib or rudimentary or absent first rib with a changed number of presacral vertebrae (CT\_LS) as 7, a cervical  
124 rib or rudimentary or absent first rib with in addition an absent or rudimentary twelfth rib, or lumbar rib (CT\_TL) as  
125 8 and a cervical rib or rudimentary or absent first rib with an absent or rudimentary twelfth rib, or lumbar rib and  
126 with a changed number of presacral vertebrae (CT\_TL\_LS) as 9, ten Broek et al. (2012).

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128 **Asymmetry Measurements and Measurement Error**

129 We measured the length of the left and right femur, fibula, radius, ulna and tibia from the midpoint of the proximal  
130 end of the bone to the midpoint of the distal end of the bone. We also measured the left and right second and fourth  
131 digits by taking the length from the proximal end of the proximal phalanx to the distal end of the distal phalanx. We  
132 excluded all foetuses that had abnormally developed limbs from analyses, because otherwise the possibly higher  
133 measured FA could have been an artefact of the abnormalities directly. Four different investigators carried out all  
134 measurements without prior knowledge of the autopsy reports. Measurements were made in Image J version 1.42q.  
135 The images were spatially calibrated using a ruler that was present in the babygram. Thirty-one foetuses were re-  
136 measured independently by all examiners to ensure the accuracy of the measurements. Spearman's correlation tests  
137 showed that the left-right differences were highly comparable between the examiners (all  $r > 0.30$  and all  $P <$   
138  $0.001$ ). In addition, the entire procedure of positioning and making the babygram was repeated for 147 individuals.  
139 A second independent digital photograph was made for 49 individuals and for 30 individuals the digital image was  
140 measured twice. These extra procedural steps allowed us to determine measurement error (ME) and directional  
141 asymmetry (DA) with a mixed model regression analysis using our measured bone lengths as response variable, side  
142 as a continuous covariate and both individual and the side-by-individual interaction as random effects (Van Dongen  
143 1999). Measurement error was smaller for all traits than the levels of fluctuating asymmetry and we found no  
144 directional asymmetry for all studied traits using F-tests, except for the femur and ulna (see appendix 1 for values of  
145 measurement error, DA and FA). We obtained individual and trait specific asymmetry values after correction for  
146 DA and ME using the same mixed model regression analyses, as the best linear unbiased predictors (BLUPS) of the  
147 random slopes (Van Dongen et al., 1999). The unsigned asymmetry (i.e., the absolute value of these signed  
148 asymmetry values from the mixed regression models) correlated significantly with trait size for all traits (all  $r > 0.20$   
149 and all  $P < 0.001$ ). Therefore we corrected FA measurements by dividing them by trait size, expressing trait-specific  
150 FA as a percentage. In a final step, we calculated the average asymmetry of the limbs for each individual. To make  
151 sure that each trait contributed an equal amount of information to this average FA, we first standardised each trait-  
152 specific asymmetry and then calculated the average across traits. In all analyses below we used this mean  
153 standardised FA as measure of individual developmental instability (ten Broek et al. 2013 and Bots et al. 2014).

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155 **Statistical Analyses**

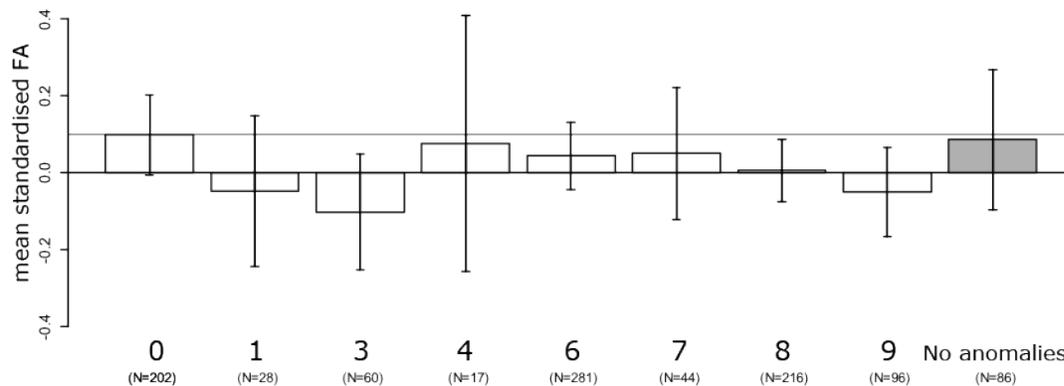
156 We used linear models to explore the relationships between variations of the vertebral column and mean  
157 standardised FA, where standardised FA was used as dependent variable, and severity of variation of the vertebral  
158 column as explanatory variable. We added age (log-transformed) to the model as FA correlates negatively with age  
159 (Van Dongen et al. 2009; ten Broek et al. 2013). We controlled for possible effects on FA in cases with deficient  
160 amniotic fluid volume by adding the presence or absence of sufficient amniotic fluid volume as factor in the model  
161 (ten Broek et al. 2013). Severity of variation in the vertebral column was tested as continuous independent variable  
162 (assuming linearity) and in a separate model as factor (non-linear effects) Average mean standardised FA was  
163 plotted for each of the 8 categories. In addition, because foetuses with a regular vertebral column can have other  
164 congenital abnormalities we also provide the mean standardised FA of foetuses without any congenital abnormality  
165 as a second reference group (but did not use this in any of the linear models). All analyses were performed in R  
166 version 3.0.2 (R Core Team 2013).

167

168 **Results**

169 No linear increase of FA with severity of variation in the vertebral column was detected (slope:  $-0.007 \pm 0.007$ ,  $F_{1,939}$   
170  $= 1.38$ ,  $P = 0.24$ ), after correction for age ( $F_{1,939} = 2.1$ ,  $P = 0.14$ ), amniotic fluid volume ( $F_{1,939} = 6.9$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ), and  
171 the interaction between age and amniotic fluid volume ( $F_{1,939} = 7.3$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ). In addition, limb FA did not differ  
172 between the 8 indices of severity of variation in the vertebral column ( $F_{7,933} = 1.03$ ,  $P = 0.41$ ). Furthermore,

173 exploring the average asymmetries, fetuses with a regular vertebral column had relatively high FA compared to  
 174 fetuses with cervical ribs (CT) and additional abnormalities at other boundaries (TL and / or LS) though not  
 175 statistically significant so (Figure 1). This also suggests that it is unlikely that we have missed a significant higher  
 176 FA especially in these groups by chance. On average, FA was higher in the group of fetuses with a regular  
 177 vertebral column even so when considering only fetuses without developmental abnormalities (Figure 1).  
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Figure 1. Average fluctuating asymmetry (mean standardised limb FA) in human fetuses and infants for the different groups of vertebral variation with increasing indices on the severity scale. 0: Regular vertebral pattern, 1: Changes in the lumbosacral region, 3: Changes in the thoracolumbar and lumbosacral region, 6: Changes in the cervicothoracic region, 7: Changes in the cervicothoracic and lumbosacral region, 8: Changes in the cervicothoracic and thoracolumbar region, 9: Changes on all three boundaries of the vertebral column. For comparison, the horizontal line represents the control group (Regular). In addition, the last (grey) bar represents the average for all fetuses without vertebral abnormalities and no other major abnormalities. There were no significant differences among the different groups (see text).

## 191 Discussion

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193 We tested for an association between two markers of developmental instability (DI) in human fetuses, by studying  
 194 associations between phenodeviance of the vertebral column and limb fluctuating asymmetry (FA). Unlike in other  
 195 studies, we were able to score the severity of the abnormalities of the vertebral column on the basis of their  
 196 associations with other congenital abnormalities (see ten Broek et al. 2012 for details). Therefore – if both  
 197 phenodeviance and FA would measure individual DI, we not only predicted higher limb FA in fetuses with  
 198 abnormalities in the vertebral column, but also an increase in FA with severity of these abnormalities. However, no  
 199 such differences or association were detected, indicating that our two measures of DI – albeit both being related to  
 200 other congenital abnormalities – reflect different aspects of developmental perturbations. We argue that both the  
 201 differential timing of limb development and the patterning of the vertebral column possibly are involved. Growth  
 202 and differentiation during later development may well be more relevant for FA than the early patterning processes.  
 203 Continued growth during the pregnancy and accumulation of effects of different sequential perturbations may blur  
 204 relationships with specific disturbed developmental events earlier in life, in spite of the fact that the early  
 205 perturbations have long lasting effects on other developmental processes like the vertebral variations do.

206 Furthermore, the amount of buffering and possibilities for stabilising mechanisms to act, may differ considerably.  
207 With respect to the vertebral axis, the identity of each element remains fixed after the anterior-posterior patterning of  
208 the paraxial mesoderm, while the continuous growth of limbs would allow to stabilise early asymmetric  
209 development at later stages. In sum, the development of the vertebral column and that of the limbs differ in so many  
210 aspects, with respect to timing and tissues and genes involved, that if developmental perturbations occur in either  
211 one of them, they do not seem to be interconnected genetically or developmentally. Limb FA and vertebral  
212 variations in human foetuses, thus, likely both reflect developmental disturbances and are both positively correlated  
213 with the presence of some congenital abnormalities, yet, do not signal individual wide DI. Our results thus  
214 contribute to the growing knowledge based on both empirical and theoretical work (for example recently reviewed  
215 in Klingenberg 2015) that developmental perturbations in different developmental systems, are not generally  
216 connected, or at least not in this case.

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219 of the VU University Medical Centre (VUMC Amsterdam) for the high-quality radiographs.

221 **Appendix 1**

Trait	FA	ME-Radio	ME-Digit.	ME-Meas.	test for DA	DA p-value
<b>Digit 2</b>	0.60	0.35	0.00	0.00	$\chi^2=0.93$	0.3361
<b>Digit 4</b>	1.52	1.41	0.00	0.03	$\chi^2=0.74$	0.3885
<b>Femur</b>	2.18	0.80	0.10	0.19	$\chi^2=39.0$	<0.001
<b>Fibula</b>	2.75	1.16	0.05	0.10	$\chi^2=2.96$	0.09
<b>Radius</b>	1.17	0.51	0.29	0.14	$\chi^2=2.97$	0.09
<b>Tibia</b>	4.95	0.36	0.08	0.08	$\chi^2=0.00$	0.99
<b>Ulna</b>	1.43	0.71	0.00	0.24	$\chi^2=4.03$	0.04

222

223 **Appendix 1. Overview of levels of measurement error.**

224 Measurement errors are the result of positioning the foetus, making the radiograph (ME-Radio), digitizing the  
 225 radiograph (ME-Digitizing) and measuring on a single radiograph (ME-measurement) and are relative to FA and  
 226 levels of directional asymmetry (DA) in the different limb bones of the fetuses. The variance components were  
 227 multiplied by 1000.

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