

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

Clara MA ten Broek^{1,2}, Jessica Bots², Marianna Bugiani³, Frietson Galis¹, Stefan Van Dongen²

¹ Naturalis Biodiversity Center, Leiden, the Netherlands

² Evolutionary Ecology Group, Department of Biology, Universiteit Antwerpen, Wilrijk, Belgium

³ Department of Pathology, VU Medical Center, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

Abstract

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.

Introduction

Developmental disturbance experienced during early growth can have important consequences for the morphology, behavior, and stress tolerance of an individual later in life (e.g. Roseboom et al. 2001; Fujioka et al. 2006; Weinstock 2008). One type of such developmental disturbances, developmental instability (DI), reflects the inability of an organism to undergo stable development under given environmental and genetic conditions. It is increased by (stress induced) developmental perturbations and/or the lack of efficient mechanisms stabilizing development. Levels of developmental instability (DI) can be assessed in two ways, namely the occurrence of abnormal morphological deviations and subtle differences between left and right of on average bilateral traits, which are on average symmetrical. The idea behind the use of directionally random asymmetry (i.e., fluctuating asymmetry, FA) is that the two sides of an organism represent two replicates of the same developmental process, and any deviation from symmetry is the outcome of random noise and the inability to buffer development against it (e.g., Ludwig, 1932, Van Valen, 1962, Palmer & Strobeck, 1986). The occurrence or frequency of morphological abnormalities – the so-called phenodeviants, a

38 term first coined by Lerner (1954)– were proposed as a measure of DI by Rasmuson (1960).
39 Phenodeviants are less often used as measure of DI and associations with FA are not always present
40 (e.g. Bots et al. (2016)), suggesting that both measures of DI do not necessarily reflect similar aspects
41 of DI. Although FA is commonly used in evolutionary studies to measure DI, to date it remains an
42 unpredictable risk marker in the sense that it does not ubiquitously relate to either environmental or
43 genetic stress (e.g. Møller 1997; Lens et al. 2002; Van Dongen & Gangestad 2011). Since little is
44 known about the factors that influence the strength of stress-DI associations when measured
45 through phenodeviants or FA, it is important to gain insights in the associations between both
46 measures of DI. In addition, when the occurrence or frequency of phenodeviants are used as
47 indicators of DI, all morphological abnormalities are considered as being equally important or severe.
48 This should not be true in all cases. More specifically, changes in vertebral identity along the
49 vertebral column provide a good indicator for the length and extent of disturbed development. The
50 different types of phenodeviance along the vertebral column indicate different levels of experienced
51 stress or perturbations during development. The more boundaries between vertebral regions have
52 been shifted (so called homeotic transformations), the longer the disturbance of axial patterning has
53 lasted and the more congenital abnormalities are found associated in other parts of the body (ten
54 Broek et al. 2012). Moreover, the extent of vertebral column variation indicates the vulnerability of
55 developing mammals more generally (Varela-Lasheras et al. 2011; Reumer et al. 2014). Thus,
56 morphological abnormalities of the vertebral column reflect a gradient in severity of phenodeviance,
57 while a vertebral abnormality in itself poses no immediate functional limitations prenatally (see also
58 below), providing an interesting model system to study its relation with FA and gain better insights in
59 the link between the two markers of DI.

60 Formation of the (mesenchymal) vertebral column starts in the fourth week of development with the
61 migration of sclerotome cells, and it is in this embryonic period (until the end of the fifth week) that
62 the identity of the different segments of the vertebral column is being determined (e.g. Sadler 2011).
63 This determination happens as part of the early anterior-posterior patterning of the paraxial
64 mesoderm, mediated by the well-known *Hox*-genes (e.g. Kessel & Gruss 1991; Kmita & Duboule
65 2003; Woltering & Durston 2008). At this stage of development, the foetus is extremely vulnerable to
66 environmental and genetic insults, and disruption of development may not only result in vertebral
67 column anomalies, but also in other birth defects, because of low effective modularity (Sander 1983;
68 Raff 1994; Galis & Metz 2001; ten Broek et al. 2012), as patterning processes of the three body axes
69 and simultaneously occurring morphogenetic processes interact strongly (Diez del Corral et al. 2003;
70 Cordes et al. 2004; Aulehla & Pourquie 2010; Durston et al. 2011). The study for the association
71 between vertebral column variation and limb FA is particularly interesting because limb formation
72 starts by the end of the fourth week (and thus in the same embryonic period) when limb buds
73 become visible as outpocketings from the ventrolateral body walls. However, it is not until the sixth
74 week of development that the hand- and footplates start to form (reviewed in Capdevila & Belmonte
75 2001; Moore & Persaud 2003; Sadler 2011). Limbs then continue to grow until the stage in which we
76 took our measurements, and thus will likely also reflect an accumulated level of developmental
77 perturbations. More specifically, studying the association between vertebral variations and limb FA
78 will allow us to study to what extent limb FA can be seen as a general/omnibus measure of DI, [similar](#)
79 [to the variations observed in the vertebral column](#).

80

81

82 We investigate the relationship between axial patterning abnormalities (here considered as vertebral
83 column variation, through homeotic transformations) and limb FA in human foetuses. We use a
84 hospital collection of human deceased foetuses of the VU University Medical Centre in Amsterdam.

Deleted: like

Deleted: are

Deleted: "

88 We determined axial patterning abnormalities in the vertebral column which can be categorised
89 according to their development (ten Broek et al. 2012 and below).

Deleted:)

90
91 While we have shown earlier that FA and vertebral abnormalities relate to – at least some –
92 congenital abnormalities in deceased human foetuses (Van Dongen et al. 2009; Bots et al. 2011; ten
93 Broek et al. 2013), the link between FA and cervical ribs was less clear (Van Dongen et al. 2009).

94
95 Here we present a more detailed study on the relationship between FA and vertebral column
96 variation focussing on the severity of phenodeviance in a much larger sample. If both limb FA and
97 vertebral column variation reflect individual DI, we predict a higher limb FA in foetuses with vertebral
98 column abnormalities, or at least in some of the abnormalities which are most severe. This increase
99 in limb FA with severity could be either gradual/linear or could follow a threshold type of pattern,
100 both of which will be tested in our analyses. Given the differences in the underlying developmental
101 processes of the vertebrae and limbs, we study the link of DI in two different systems. If our
102 hypothesis is confirmed, this can be seen as evidence that DI can be considered to be an organism-
103 wide concept. If our hypothesis is not supported, this does not refute the whole paradigm that DI
104 could reflect developmental stress and individual quality, but rather suggests that the link between
105 general developmental processes and the asymmetry of particular traits is not general, but restricted
106 to specific processes.

107 **Material & Methods**

108 **Subjects**

109 Since 1980, all deceased infants and foetuses presented for autopsy at the VU University Medical
110 Centre have been routinely radiographed both ventrally and laterally (23mA, 70–90 kV, 4–12 sec,
111 Agfa [Mortsel, Belgium] Gevaert D7DW Structurix films). This research was carried out on the
112 anterior-posterior projections of 1389 deceased foetuses and infants obtained between 1990 and
113 2009. Not all babygrams were suitable for analysis, therefore we used the same selection criteria to
114 include foetuses and infants in this research as described in detail in ten Broek et al. (2012) and Bots
115 et al. (2014). In addition, some foetuses were excluded because of missing age information or our
116 inability to measure limb FA (see below). In total, we examined 528 male and 416 female foetuses
117 and infants (13.7 – 92.1 weeks, mean: 27.9 weeks; standard deviation = 9.9 weeks). The babygrams
118 were digitized using a Canon 30D digital camera in a fixed-distance set-up with a glass plate and a
119 flash underneath.

Deleted: ;

121 **Vertebral Variations**

122 We examined the vertebral column of the foetuses for variation in both identity (i.e. cervical,
123 thoracic, lumbar and sacral) and number of vertebrae. When ribs were present on the seventh
124 vertebra, it was considered a transitional cervico-thoracic vertebra. Transverse processes of the
125 seventh cervical vertebra exceeding those of the first thoracic vertebra (also known as
126 apophysomegaly) were considered to be rudimentary cervical ribs fused with the transverse
127 processes (e.g. Pionnier & Depraz 1956; Bots et al. 2011). Ribs on the most caudal or most anterior
128 thoracic vertebra were considered to be rudimentary and the vertebra to be transitional when the
129 ribs were half the size of the preceding or subsequent rib, respectively (ten Broek et al. 2012). We
130 counted the number of vertebrae per vertebral region (i.e. cervical, thoracic, lumbar, and sacral) and
131 classified transitional vertebra as having half the identity of both neighbouring regions, e.g. a
132 transitional cervico-thoracic vertebra was scored as half cervical and half thoracic. Transitional
133 vertebrae on the lumbo-sacral boundary were more difficult to score, because in most individuals the

136 sacral vertebrae were not yet fused with each other or with the ilium. However, shape and position of
137 the vertebrae in the caudal region often provided adequate information, but still the presence of
138 transitional lumbo-sacral vertebrae could have been underestimated.

139
140 Changes of the vertebral formula were expressed on a severity scale from 0-9 that reflected our
141 estimations of the seriousness of the vertebral antero-posterior (A-P) patterning disturbances,
142 based on both the A-P position of the changes (i.e. the boundary) and the extent of the changes
143 along the A-P axis (i.e. the number of boundaries, see for a detailed description ten Broek et al.
144 (2012)). We have scored a regular (R) vertebral column with 7 cervical, 12 thoracic and 5 lumbar
145 vertebrae as 0; a change of the number of lumbar vertebrae and, hence of the number of 24 presacral
146 vertebrae, without other changes (lumbosacral: LS) as 1, lumbar ribs and absent or rudimentary
147 twelfth ribs (thoracolumbar: TL) as 3, lumbar ribs and absent or rudimentary twelfth ribs with a
148 changed number of presacral vertebrae (TL_LS) as 4, a cervical rib or rudimentary or absent first rib
149 (cervicothoracic: CT) as 6, a cervical rib or rudimentary or absent first rib with a changed number of
150 presacral vertebrae (CT_LS) as 7, a cervical rib or rudimentary or absent first rib with in addition an
151 absent or rudimentary twelfth rib, or lumbar rib (CT_TL) as 8 and a cervical rib or rudimentary or
152 absent first rib with an absent or rudimentary twelfth rib, or lumbar rib and with a changed number
153 of presacral vertebrae (CT_TL_LS) as 9 (ten Broek et al., 2012).

154 Asymmetry Measurements and Measurement Error

155
156 We measured the length of the left and right femur, fibula, radius, ulna and tibia from the midpoint
157 of the proximal end of the bone to the midpoint of the distal end of the bone. We also measured the
158 left and right second and fourth digits by taking the length from the proximal end of the proximal
159 phalanx to the distal end of the distal phalanx. We excluded all foetuses that had abnormally
160 developed limbs from analyses, because otherwise the possibly higher measured FA could have been
161 an artefact of the abnormalities directly. Four different investigators carried out all measurements
162 without prior knowledge of the autopsy reports. Measurements were made in Image J version 1.42q.
163 The images were spatially calibrated using a ruler that was present in the babygram. Thirty-one
164 foetuses were re-measured independently by all examiners to ensure the accuracy of the
165 measurements. Spearman's correlation tests showed that the left-right differences were highly
166 comparable between the examiners (all $r > 0.30$ and all $P < 0.001$). In addition, the entire procedure of
167 positioning and making the babygram was repeated for 147 individuals. A second independent digital
168 photograph was made for 49 individuals and for 30 individuals the digital image was measured twice.
169 These extra procedural steps allowed us to determine measurement error (ME) and directional
170 asymmetry (DA) with a mixed model regression analysis using our measured bone lengths as
171 response variable, side as a continuous covariate and both individual and the side-by-individual
172 interaction as random effects (Van Dongen 1999). Measurement error was smaller for all traits than
173 the levels of fluctuating asymmetry and we found no directional asymmetry for all studied traits
174 using F-tests, except for the femur and ulna (see appendix 1 for values of measurement error, DA and
175 FA). We obtained individual and trait specific asymmetry values after correction for DA and ME using
176 the same mixed model regression analyses, as the best linear unbiased predictors (BLUPS) of the
177 random slopes (Van Dongen et al., 1999). The unsigned asymmetry (i.e., the absolute value of these
178 signed asymmetry values from the mixed regression models) correlated significantly with trait size
179 for all traits (all $r > 0.20$ and all $P < 0.001$). Therefore we corrected FA measurements by dividing them
180 by trait size, expressing trait-specific FA as a percentage. In a final step, we calculated the average
181 asymmetry of the limbs for each individual. To make sure that each trait contributed an equal
182 amount of information to this average FA, we first standardised each trait-specific asymmetry and

Deleted: (

Deleted:)

Deleted: ,

Deleted: (

Deleted: ,

188 then calculated the average across traits. In all analyses below, we used this mean standardised FA as
189 measure of individual developmental instability (ten Broek et al. 2013 and Bots et al. 2014).

190 Statistical Analyses

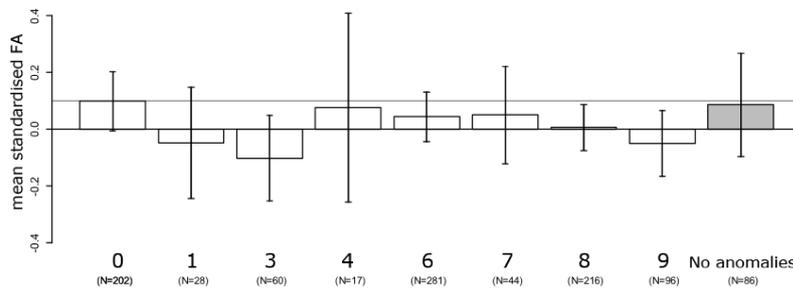
192 We used linear models to explore the relationships between variations of the vertebral column and
193 mean standardised FA, where standardised FA was used as dependent variable, and severity of
194 variation of the vertebral column as explanatory variable. We added age (log-transformed) to the
195 model as FA correlates negatively with age (Van Dongen et al. 2009; ten Broek et al. 2013). We
196 controlled for possible effects on FA in cases with deficient amniotic fluid volume by adding the
197 presence or absence of sufficient amniotic fluid volume as factor in the model (ten Broek et al. 2013).

198 Severity of variation in the vertebral column was tested as continuous independent variable
199 (assuming linearity) and in a separate model as factor (non-linear effects). Average mean
200 standardised FA was plotted for each of the 8 categories. In addition, because fetuses with a regular
201 vertebral column can have other congenital abnormalities, we also provide the mean standardised
202 FA of fetuses without any congenital abnormality as a second reference group (but did not use this
203 in any of the linear models). All analyses were performed in R version 3.0.2 (R Core Team 2013).

204 Results

206 No linear increase of FA with severity of variation in the vertebral column was detected (slope: -0.007
207 ± 0.007 , $F_{1,939} = 1.38$, $P = 0.24$), after correction for age ($F_{1,939} = 2.1$, $P = 0.14$), amniotic fluid volume
208 ($F_{1,939} = 6.9$, $P < 0.01$), and the interaction between age and amniotic fluid volume ($F_{1,939} = 7.3$, $P <$
209 0.01). In addition, limb FA did not differ between the 8 indices of severity of variation in the vertebral
210 column ($F_{7,933} = 1.03$, $P = 0.41$). Furthermore, exploring the average asymmetries, fetuses with a
211 regular vertebral column had relatively high FA compared to fetuses with cervical ribs (CT) and
212 additional abnormalities at other boundaries (TL and / or LS) though not statistically significant so
213 (Figure 1). This also suggests that it is unlikely that we have missed a significant higher FA especially
214 in these groups by chance. On average, FA was higher in the group of fetuses with a regular
215 vertebral column even when considering only fetuses without developmental abnormalities (Figure
216 1).

217



218

219

220 Figure 1. Average fluctuating asymmetry (mean standardised limb FA) in human fetuses and infants for the different
221 groups of vertebral variation with increasing indices on the severity scale. 0: Regular vertebral pattern, 1: Changes in the
222 lumbosacral region, 3: Changes in the thoracolumbar and lumbosacral region, 6: Changes in the cervicothoracic region,

Comment [Office1]:

Comment [Office2R1]: This sentence is seems to be missing a word and punctuation.

Deleted: so

224 7: Changes in the cervicothoracic and lumbosacral region, 8: Changes in the cervicothoracic and thoracolumbar region, 9:
225 Changes on all three boundaries of the vertebral column. For comparison, the horizontal line represents the control
226 group (Regular). In addition, the last (grey) bar represents the average for all fetuses without vertebral abnormalities
227 and no other major abnormalities. There were no significant differences among the different groups (see text).
228
229
230

231 Discussion

232
233 We tested for an association between two markers of developmental instability (DI) in human
234 fetuses, by studying associations between phenodeviance of the vertebral column and limb
235 fluctuating asymmetry (FA). Unlike in other studies, we were able to score the severity of the
236 abnormalities of the vertebral column on the basis of their associations with other congenital
237 abnormalities (see ten Broek et al. 2012 for details). Therefore, if both phenodeviance and FA would
238 measure individual DI, we not only predicted higher limb FA in fetuses with abnormalities in the
239 vertebral column, but also an increase in FA with severity of these abnormalities. However, no such
240 differences or association were detected, indicating that our two measures of DI – albeit both being
241 related to other congenital abnormalities – reflect different aspects of developmental perturbations.
242 We argue that both the differential timing of limb development and the patterning of the vertebral
243 column possibly are involved. Growth and differentiation during later development may well be
244 more relevant for FA than the early patterning processes. Continued growth during the pregnancy
245 and accumulation of effects of different sequential perturbations may blur relationships with specific
246 disturbed developmental events earlier in life, in spite of the fact that the early perturbations have
247 long lasting effects on other developmental processes like the vertebral variations do. Furthermore,
248 the amount of buffering and possibilities for stabilising mechanisms to act, may differ considerably.
249 With respect to the vertebral axis, the identity of each element remains fixed after the anterior-
250 posterior patterning of the paraxial mesoderm, while the continuous growth of limbs would allow to
251 stabilise early asymmetric development at later stages. In sum, the development of the vertebral
252 column and that of the limbs differ in so many aspects, with respect to timing, tissues and genes
253 involved, that if developmental perturbations occur in either one of them, they do not seem to be
254 interconnected genetically or developmentally. Limb FA and vertebral variations in human fetuses,
255 thus, likely reflect developmental disturbances and are both positively correlated with the presence
256 of some congenital abnormalities, yet, do not signal individual wide DI. Our results thus contribute to
257 the growing knowledge based on both empirical and theoretical work (for example recently reviewed
258 in Klingenberg 2015) that developmental perturbations in different developmental systems, are not
259 generally connected, or at least not in this case.

260 Acknowledgements

261 We are grateful to Jaap van Veldhuisen and Ron Otsen of the photography division of the
262 Department of Pathology of the VU University Medical Centre (VUMC Amsterdam) for the high-
263 quality radiographs.
264

Deleted: –

Deleted: ,

Deleted: and

Deleted: both

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

270
271 **Appendix 1. Overview of levels of measurement error.**
272 Measurement errors are the result of positioning the foetus, making the radiograph (ME-Radio),
273 digitizing the radiograph (ME-Digitizing) and measuring on a single radiograph (ME-measurement)
274 and are relative to FA and levels of directional asymmetry (DA) in the different limb bones of the
275 fetuses. The variance components were multiplied by 1000.
276
277
278 Aulehla A, and Pourquie O (2010) Signaling gradients during paraxial mesoderm development. *Cold*
279 *Spring Harb Perspect Biol* 2:a000869.
280 Bots J, Breno M, De Schaepdrijver L, and Van Dongen S (2016) Maternal Stress Affects Fetal Growth
281 but Not Developmental Instability in Rabbits. *Symmetry* 8:101.
282 Bots J, ten Broek CMA, Belien JAM, Bugiani M, Galis F, and Van Dongen S (2014) Higher limb
283 asymmetry in deceased human fetuses and infants with aneuploidy. *Scientific reports* 4.
284 Bots J, Wijnaendts LC, Delen S, Van Dongen S, Heikinheimo K, and Galis F (2011) Analysis of cervical
285 ribs in a series of human fetuses. *J Anat* 219:403-409.
286 Capdevila J, and Belmonte JCI (2001) Patterning mechanisms controlling vertebrate limb
287 development. *Annual Review of Cell and Developmental Biology* 17:87-132.
288 Cordes R, Schuster-Gossler K, Serth K, and Gossler A (2004) Specification of vertebral identity is
289 coupled to Notch signalling and the segmentation clock. *Development* 131:1221-1233.
290 Diez del Corral R, Olivera-Martinez I, Goriely A, Gale E, Maden M, and Storey K (2003) Opposing FGF
291 and retinoid pathways control ventral neural pattern, neuronal differentiation, and
292 segmentation during body axis extension. *Neuron* 40:65-79.
293 Durston AJ, Jansen HJ, In der Rieden P, and Hooiveld MH (2011) Hox collinearity - a new perspective.
294 *Int J Dev Biol* 55:899-908.
295 Fujioka A, Fujioka T, Ishida Y, Maekawa T, and Nakamura S (2006) Differential effects of prenatal
296 stress on the morphological maturation of hippocampal neurons. *Neuroscience* 141:907-915.
297 Galis F, and Metz JAJ (2001) Testing the vulnerability of the phylotypic stage: On modularity and
298 evolutionary conservation. *Journal of Experimental Zoology* 291:195-204.
299 Kessel M, and Gruss P (1991) Homeotic transformations of murine vertebrae and concomitant
300 alteration of Hox codes induced by retinoic acid. *Cell* 67:89-104.
301 Klingenberg CP (2015) Analyzing fluctuating asymmetry with geometric morphometrics: concepts,
302 methods, and applications. *Symmetry* 7:843-934.
303 Kmita M, and Duboule D (2003) Organizing axes in time and space; 25 years of colinear tinkering.
304 *Science* 301:331-333.
305 Lens L, Van Dongen S, Kark S, and Matthysen E (2002) Fluctuating asymmetry as an indicator of
306 fitness: can we bridge the gap between studies? *Biological Reviews* 77:27-38.
307 Lerner IM (1954) *Genetic homeostasis*. New York: Wiley.
308 Møller AP (1997) Developmental stability and fitness: a review. *The American Naturalist* 149:916-932.

309 Moore KL, and Persaud T (2003) *The developing human: clinically oriented embryology*: Saunders.
310 Pionnier R, and Depraz A (1956) Congenital rib abnormalities; statistical study of 10,000 radiographs.
311 *Radiol Clin* 25:170-186.
312 R Core Team (2013) R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing.
313 Raff R (1994) Developmental mechanisms in the evolution of animal form: origins and evolvability of
314 body plans. *Early Life on Earth* 84:489-500.
315 Rasmuson M (1960) Frequency of morphological deviants as a criterion of developmental stability.
316 *Hereditas* 46:511-535.
317 Reumer JWF, ten Broek CMA, and Galis F (2014) Extraordinary incidence of cervical ribs indicates
318 vulnerable condition in Late Pleistocene mammoths. *PeerJ*:e318.
319 Roseboom TJ, Van Der Meulen JH, Ravelli AC, Osmond C, Barker DJ, and Bleker OP (2001) Effects of
320 prenatal exposure to the Dutch famine on adult disease in later life: an overview. *Molecular*
321 *and Cellular Endocrinology* 185:93-98.
322 Sadler TW (2011) *Langman's medical embryology*: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
323 Sander K (1983) The evolution of patterning mechanisms: gleanings from insect embryogenesis and
324 spermatogenesis. In: Goodwin BC, Holder N, and Wylie CC, eds. *Evolution and Development*
325 Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 137-159.
326 ten Broek CMA, Bakker AJ, Varela-Lasheras I, Bugiani M, Van Dongen S, and Galis F (2012) Evo-Devo
327 of the Human Vertebral Column: On Homeotic Transformations, Pathologies and Prenatal
328 Selection. *Evolutionary biology* 39:456-471.
329 ten Broek CMA, Bots J, Varela-Lasheras I, Bugiani M, Galis F, and Van Dongen S (2013) Amniotic fluid
330 deficiency and congenital abnormalities both influence fluctuating asymmetry in developing
331 limbs of human deceased fetuses. *PLoS ONE* 8:e81824.
332 Van Dongen S (1999) The statistical analysis of fluctuating asymmetry: REML estimation of a mixed
333 regression model. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* 12:94-102.
334 Van Dongen S, and Gangestad SW (2011) Human fluctuating asymmetry in relation to health and
335 quality: a meta-analysis. *Evolution and Human Behavior* 32:380-398.
336 Van Dongen S, Wijnaendts LCD, ten Broek CMA, and Galis F (2009) Fluctuating asymmetry does not
337 consistently reflect severe developmental disorders in human fetuses. *Evolution* 63:1832-
338 1844.
339 Varela-Lasheras I, Bakker A, van der Mije S, Metz J, van Alphen J, and Galis F (2011) Breaking
340 evolutionary and pleiotropic constraints in mammals: on sloths, manatees and homeotic
341 mutations. *EvoDevo* 2:11.
342 Weinstock M (2008) The long-term behavioural consequences of prenatal stress. *Neuroscience and*
343 *Biobehavioral Reviews* 32:1073-1086.
344 Woltering JM, and Durston AJ (2008) MiR-10 represses HoxB1a and HoxB3a in zebrafish. *PLoS ONE*
345 3:e1396.
346
347
348
349