

MORPHOLOGICAL VARIATIONS OF THREE-ROOTED MANDIBULAR MOLARS IN ANCIENT ANATOLIAN POPULATIONS (DILKAYA MOUND, VAN, TURKEY): A LITERATURE REVIEW ON WORLD POPULATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This study reports the first recorded discovery of three-rooted mandibular molars (3RM) from a Middle Age archaeological population unearthed in Van, Eastern Anatolia. A historical context is given for the research site, Dilkaya Mound, which has a history of approximately 2500 years. In total 462 permanent first and second teeth, 219 deciduous teeth, and a total of 682 mandibular teeth belonging to 358 individuals from Early Iron Age and Middle Age populations were included in this study. The earliest recorded population on site which dates to the Early Iron Age shows no sign of 3RM1 and 3RM2. The 3RM1 feature first appears in Anatolia at a rate of 1,05% by the Middle Age. The frequency of 3RM2 was found at a rate of 0,67%, and 3RM3 at a rate of 2,44% in the population. Three rooted deciduous lower first molar teeth (3rm1) were observed at a rate of 2,44%; a new feature in the literature. The results of our study support the existing explanation that genetic drift plays a significant role in the distribution of 3RM via the wave of migration to the west from Asia during the Middle Age.

KEYWORDS: 3RM1 (Three-rooted Mandibular First Permanent Molars), 3RM2 (Three-rooted Mandibular Second Permanent Molars), 3RM3 (Three-rooted Mandibular Third Permanent Molars), 3rm1 (Three-rooted Mandibular First Deciduous Molars), Anatolia

INTRODUCTION

The relative durability of teeth and surrounding tissues to other skeletal material makes them more reliable and informative materials in paleoanthropological studies. Also, their properties are more stable than most morphological features. Due to this stability they have central application for examining genetic components, sexual dimorphism, and age. Three-rooted first molar teeth (here after 3RM1) have a high genetic penetrance and are more common in Asian and Asian derived populations (Ming-Gene Tu et al., 2007). Studies have revealed that this morphological feature is more stable than other variations in tooth morphology and has a high genetic component. Mandibular first permanent molar teeth are commonly formed by two different roots; mesial and distal. The most common anomaly is the occurrence of 3RM1. Although its mode of heritance is not known in detail, it is concluded to be the cause of a recessive or dominant mutation. Variational studies concerning the anatomical root numbers of teeth and its genetic distribution from Asia to Europe, Europe to America, and finally from America to the Oceania islands are commonly referenced in scientific literature (Taylor, 1899; Tratman, 1938; Pederson, 1949; Turner, 1971; Ming-Gene Tu et al., 2007; and Drusini and Swindler, 2009).

In order to perform successful clinical tooth extraction and treatment of root channels, dentists sought comprehensive information about root channel morphology and root system variations (Vertucci, 1984). A series of studies on this subject shows the occurrence of differences in tooth root numbers according to geographic variations (Turner II 1971). Discovered variations lead to curiosity and interest in tracing the geographic differences among populations. Literature records generally consist of clinical studies on modern populations, while studies performed on skeletal material of ancient populations are scarce. There are a handful of clinical studies conducted on different groups within the population of Turkey that focus on tooth root morphology. To date there is no anthropological study on tooth root morphology of ancient Anatolian populations. Our study presents the first report of the results from Dilkaya Mound—which with its novel findings—should

contribute considerably to what is known about this under studied archaeological population of Anatolia as well as to paleoanthropological knowledge of the region.

Turner II (1971) in his study of the American Indians, points out that the morphological property of mandibular first molar roots has a more stable character and a high genetic component. Curzon (1974) expands on this idea, suggesting that the prevalence of 3RM1 has a high genetic penetrance, and observation of this trait is more common in Eskimo and Caucasian-Eskimo populations. Most of the studies on Caucasians show that two rooted first and second molars with roots placed on distal and mesial sides are common (Barker et al., 1974; Vertucci, 1984) whereas 3RM1 was observed in lower than 5% of Caucasian (England, Germany and Finland), African (Bantu and Bushmen), Eurasian and Indian populations. However, Mongoloids including Chinese, Eskimo and American Indians, show a prevalence of 3RM1 of over 40% (Gulabivala et al., 2001). Scott and Turner II (1997) state that this anomaly (presence of 3RM1) is observed in as much as 20% to 30% of some Sino-American groups (North and East Asians and Eskimo-Aleuts, 1971). Prevalence of 3RM1 in South Siberians, Jomons and North and South American Indians is lower than 10% while the rate is around 15% in Northwest American Indians in this century. Lower that 5% of the Sahul pacific population shows the anomaly, whereas a more extreme value of 15% is found in the Sunda pacific population (Turner II,1971). This value is more closely related to populations of Southeast Asia and Polynesian Indians compared to North and East Asian populations and North American Indians.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Dilkaya Mound is remarkable among Anatolian historical sites due to its history of inhabitance of over 2500 years, from its settlement during the Early Iron Age through to the Ottoman Empire (Table 1). The area on which the site is located was once under Urartian reign, and is positioned in the eastern part of Anatolia bordered by the Lake Sevan to the north and the Urumia and Van lakes to the south. Intercrossing mountain chains juxtaposed with volcanic mountains make this region the highest in Anatolia (Figure 1). Another important feature of the area is the presence of agricultural fields on lower lands creviced between the bordering mountains. Lack of rivers or other sources of fresh water hindered agricultural productivity in the region, leading to the dependence of some of the population on semi-nomadic animal husbandry. This semi-nomadic lifestyle continued until the dawn of the Iron Age, 1400-1350 B.C., brought on by migrations of people coming from West Iran to the Lake Urumia catchment. Starting from the Early Iron Age, mining was added to husbandry and agriculture as a means of production. People of the catchment began taking advantage of seasonal migration, alternatively leaving their settlements on the plains for grazelands in high altitudes. This region was resettled in the Middle Age after a long hiatus following the Urartian period. Turkish tribes migrating from Asia initiated another settlement period for the area. Bronze Age Byzantine coins obtained from the Dilkaya Mound suggest that this settlement occurred around the 10th century A.D. Middle Age layers in the Mound are divided into some sub levels (Table 1). These layers include a very long period that reaches until the Ottoman Empire. Archeological excavations commenced in 1983 with a surface survey and lasted for 8 years. Dilkaya Mound and necropolis excavations have yielded remarkable results (Figure 2). With its 358 skeleton specimens Dilkaya Necropol formed a rare archeological necropol in Anatolia (Table 2) (Çilingiroğlu, 1993; Belli, 2003; Sevin, 2005).

 Table 1: Chronological Layers of Van Dilkaya Settlements

| LAYER | PERIOD | CHRONOLOGICAL |
|-------|---|---------------------|
| Ι | Middle Age | A.D. 10.Century |
| | Not Settlement | |
| II | Middle Early Iron Age | B.C. 800-600 |
| | (Urartu Kingdom Period) | |
| III | Early Iron Age (Urartu Principalities Period) | B.C. 1100-800 |
| | | |
| | Not Settlement | |
| IV | Early Bronze Age III | B.C. 1900-1400/1300 |
| | (Early Transcaucasia III) | |
| VA | Early Bronze Age II | |
| VB | Early Bronze Age I | |
| | (Early Transcaucasia II) | |
| | Earth (Sand) | |



Figure 1: Location of Dilkaya Mound in Anatolia



Figure 2: Necropolis of Dilkaya in Anatolia

In total 462 permanent first and second teeth, 219 deciduous teeth, and a total of 682 mandibular teeth belonging to 358 individuals from Early Iron Age and Middle Age populations were included in this study (Table 3). For the identifica- _ tion of teeth, the methodologies of Ubelaker -(1984), Bass (1987), Burns (1999), White (2000), Matshes (2005), and Özbek (2007) were used. For the determination of properties, Arizona State University Dental Anthropology System standard (ASUDAS) references were used (Scott and Turner, 1997). Paleodemographic, morphologic, and paleopathological investigations of the reskeletons were performed by Erksin Güleç at the paleoanthropology laboratory of Ankara University (Güleç, 1986, 1989; Ozer, 1999).

Table 2: Paleodemographic structure of DilkayaMound

| | Babies and Children | Adults | Total |
|----------------|------------------------|--------|-------|
| Early Iron Age | 9 | 30 | 39 |
| Middle Age | 163 | 156 | 319 |
| Total | 172 | 186 | 358 |

RESULTS

Rates for the Middle Age Dilkaya population were found as 1,05% for 3RM1, respectively

0,67% for 3RM2 and 2,13% for 3RM3 and 2,44% for 3rm1. Such dental features were not observed in the Early Iron Age population (Table 3).

| Гable 3: The root | findings of | f Dilkaya | population |
|-------------------|-------------|-----------|------------|
|-------------------|-------------|-----------|------------|

| | 3RM1 | 3RM2 | 3RM3 | 3rm 1 | 3rm ₂ |
|---------------|------|------|------|--------------|------------------|
| Middle Age | | | | | |
| Observation | 191 | 150 | 94 | 82 | 122 |
| Determination | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| Ratio (%) | 1,05 | 0,67 | 2,13 | 2,44 | 0 |
| Early Iron | | | | | |
| Age | | | | | |
| Observation | 66 | 55 | 23 | 8 | 7 |
| Determination | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Ratio (%) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |



Figure 3: LM3 (approximately 65 years old male)



Figure 4: a- RM3 (approximately 60 years old male) b-LM1 (approximately 40 years old male) c- LM1 (approximately 30 years old woman) d- RM2 (approximately 40 years old male).



Figure 5: a- lm1 (approximately 8 years old child) blm1 (approximately 6 years old child).

THE HISTORY OF THREE-ROOTED MANDIBULAR FIRST MOLARS SURVEY OF AVAILABLE STUDIES

The first described study of tooth root variation was concerned with counting the number of roots in teeth by a dentist (Taylor, 1899). Since this study was performed at Cambridge Downing College in England, teeth were presumably of English origin. However, the rate of 3RM1 as 3.4% was considered to be very high for English people by Turner II (1971), and he therefore stated that this calculation, attributable to Taylor's misidentification of first molars, was in error. Tratman's (1938) study on 3RM in different Asiatic populations is the first comprehensive and reliable study available in the literature. Tratman also calculated root numbers of mandibular first molars when he was a practitioner dentist in Singapore. However, his findings were found to have a low percentage according to more recent studies. Pedersen (1949) determines the ratio of 3RM1 as 12.5% (8/64) in Greenland Eskimos. It is noticeable that this value is also lower than further studies in later periods (Table 4). This situation probably arose due to different calculation techniques and the fact that three rooted teeth are more resistant to extraction in clinical applications. Another important study includes Gabriel's (1966) calculation of bilateral symmetrical root numbers of white Australian monozygotic twins.

Among clinical radiographic studies, Ferraz and Pecora's (1992) research on Asian, white, and black populations in the Ribeira Preto region of Sao Paulo, Brazil is remarkable. Their findings identify the third root in the first big mandibular molar in the Mongolian (15.2%), African (7.5%) and Caucasian originated populations (6.8%) in Brasil. Rou (1994) reports the presence of a third root in the mandibular molars of the Chinese population at a rate of 20%. Lucaine, in his morphological study (1996) on mandibular permanent big molars obtained from the Brazilian population, found three roots at a rate of 5% over 232 lower permanent big molars and three roots at second molars at a rate of 1% over 396 lower second molars.

Pucci and Reig (1944) report 3RM1 rate as 5.5% for Uruguay population. De Deus (1960) found 2 this as 5% in southeastern living Brasilian patients. Teixeira (1963) notes 10% of the extra roots appear smaller than normal roots in the distal-lingual position. Using radiographic methods, Sousa-Freitas (1971) determines 3RM1 as 17.8% in patients with Japanese origin and as 4.3% in patients with European origin. Al-Nazhan's (1999) study, following treatment of channels, reports 6% of 251 mandibular lower first permanent molar teeth with three roots in his Saudi Arabian patient group. Fabra-Campos (1989) determines three roots in 13 over 760 (1.71%) of first lower molar teeth in Spain. Gulabivala's (2001) results show 3RM1 at a rate of 10.1% (14/139) in Burmanian patients. Additionally, his study points out potential endodontic effects when compared to Donnison's (1970) earlier study that argues the composition of Burmanian population has Chinese and Indian origin with their Mongoloid features showing 70% dominancy. Rashid (2006) finds 3RM1 at 8.1% (121/1483) in his clinical study conducted in Mosul, Iraq. One of the most important skeletal studies is Lukacs's (1983; 1988) research on the dental morphology of Neolithic and Iron Age populations in Pakistan. Lukacs reports 3RM1 from the Neolithic period (5.6%) and from the Iron Age (5%). In Turner II's (1990) investigation of 3275 teeth from 42 series of East Asian skeletons from the Late Pleistocene and Holocene he notes that the presence of 3RM1 is common in Aleuts, found at a rate of 40.7%. Lovell (2006) does not detect any 3RM1 (0/4) in his study of Bronze Age populations from Tell Leilan, Syria.

Other important studies include more recent ones on American Indian and Eskimo dental morphology. Nelson (1938) doesn't notice any third roots in American Indians (0/72) whereas Turner (1971) reports a rate of 6.27% (88/1402). Pedersen (1949) finds a rate of 12.5% (8/64) in his dental study on Greenland Eskimo skeletons. Irish (2005) finds the presence of third root to range between 0 to 2.6% in his study of five populations from ancient Nubia, situated in areas between south of Ancient Egypt and north of Sudan and dating three to two thousand millennia B.C.

| Study | | Year | Origin | Total | Number of | Percen- |
|-------------------------|-----------|------|-----------------------|----------|-------------|-----------|
| | | | - | number | teeth with | tage of |
| | | | | of teeth | three roots | total (%) |
| Tylor | Recent | 1899 | United Kingdom | 119 | 4 | 3,4 |
| Bolk | Recent | 1915 | Netherlands | 1713 | 18 | 1,05 |
| Cambell | Recent | 1925 | Australian Aborgines | 176 | 0 | 0 |
| Fabian | Recent | 1928 | Germany | - | - | 1,6 |
| Hjeimman | Recent | 1929 | Finland | - | - | 0,9 |
| Drennan | Recent | 1929 | South Africa Bushmann | 23 | 0 | 0 |
| Leigh | Recent | 1929 | Guam-Prehistoric | 83 | 2 | 2,41 |
| Shaw | Recent | 1931 | African Bantu | 68 | 0 | 0 |
| Nelson | Historic | 1938 | American Indian | 72 | 0 | 0 |
| Tratman | Recent | 1938 | Chinese | 853 | 74 | 8,67 |
| | Recent | | Malay | 271 | 32 | 11,81 |
| | Recent | | Javanese | 55 | 11 | 20 |
| | Recent | | İndians | 453 | 1 | 0,2 |
| | Recent | | Eurasian | 141 | 8 | 5,67 |
| | Recent | | Asiatic Indians | 302 | 1 | 0,33 |
| Laband | Recent | 1941 | Malay in N.Borneo | 134 | 11 | 8,2 |
| Pucci & Reig | Recent | 1944 | Uruguay | - | - | 5,5 |
| Pedersen | Historic | 1949 | Greenland Eskimo | 64 | 8 | 12,5 |
| Dr Deus | Recent | 1960 | Southeastern Brazil | - | - | 2,5 |
| Merbs | Recent | 1969 | Huston's Bay Eskimo | 60 | 15 | 25 |
| Somogyi-Csizmazia | Recent | 1971 | Canadian Indians | 250 | 39 | 16 |
| et.al | | | | | | |
| De Souza-Freitas et al. | Recent | 1971 | European | 422 | 27 | 3,2 |
| | Recent | | Japanese | 233 | 83 | 17,8 |
| Skidmore &Bjorndahi | Recent | 1971 | Caucasian | 45 | 1 | 2,2 |
| Turner II | Recent | 1971 | Aleut | 87 | 38 | 43,68 |
| | Recent | | Alaska Eskimo | 116 | 31 | 26,72 |
| | Recent | | American Indian | 582 | 28 | 4,81 |
| | Historic | | American Indian | 1402 | 88 | 6,27 |
| Curzon &Curzon | Recent | 1971 | Keewatin Eskimo | 98 | 28 | 27 |
| Skidmore and Bjorndal | Recent | 1972 | Caucasians | - | - | 2,2 |
| Curzon | Recent | 1973 | United Kingdom | 377 | 13 | 3,4 |
| Curzon | Recent | 1974 | Baffin Eskimo | 69 | 15 | 21,7 |
| Curzon | Recent | 1974 | Greenland Eskimo | 29 | 4 | 13,8 |
| Vertucci & Williams | Recent | 1974 | Not stated | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Hochstetter | Recent | 1975 | Guam | 400 | 52 | 13 |
| Jones | Recent | 1980 | Chinese | 52 | 7 | 13,4 |
| | Recent | | Malaysian | 149 | 25 | 16 |
| Reichart & Metah | Recent | 1981 | Thai | 364 | 70 | 19 |
| Lukacs | Neolitik | 1983 | Pakistan | - | - | 5,6 |
| Walker & Quakenbush | Recent | 1985 | Hong Kong Chinese | 213 | 70 | 19 |
| Lukacs | Neolithic | 1988 | Pakistan | - | - | 5 |
| Walker | Recent | 1988 | Hong Kong Chinese | 100 | 15 | 15 |

| Table 4: Prevalence of | f three-rooted mandibu | ılar first molars—s | survey of available studie |
|------------------------|------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| ruble in richalence of | three rooted manualse | | all tey of available static |

| Yones et al | Recent | 1990 | Saudi | - | - | 2,92 |
|-------------------|----------------------|------|-----------------------------|------|-----|-------|
| Loh | Recent | 1990 | Chinese (Singapore) | - | - | 7.9 |
| Turner II | BC 4000 to AD 200 | 1990 | Early Thailand | 237 | | 9.3 |
| | Neolithic- Mesolith- | | Early Laos and Vietnam | 21 | | 9,5 |
| | ic | | 5 | | | |
| | Historic | | Cambodia and Laos | 42 | | 9 |
| | Mesolithic | | Early Malay | 50 | | 6 |
| | BC 4000 | | Leang Tjadang | 92 | | 6,5 |
| | BC3000 | | Philippines | 121 | | 17,4 |
| | BC2000 | | Taiwan | 25 | | 4 |
| | BC 2500 to 300 | | Jomon | 100 | | 5 |
| | BC 3000 | | Borneo | 94 | | 13,8 |
| | AD 1750 to AD 1900 | | Ainu Hokkaido | 96 | | 11,5 |
| | Neolithic | | Lake Baikal | 30 | | 23,3 |
| | AD 1200 to AD 1300 | | Japan Kamakura | 85 | | 21,2 |
| | AD 1910 to AD 1920 | | Japan Kanto | 45 | | 24,4 |
| | BC 200 | | Northeast Siberia | 164 | | 23,2 |
| | BC 1000 to recent | | Aleut | 273 | | 40,7 |
| | Earliest Jomon | | Jomon Hokkaido | 103 | | 5,8 |
| | Historic | | Japan Hiogo | 85 | | 23,5 |
| | Historic | | Japan | 119 | | 26,9 |
| | Recent | | Japan | 95 | | 24,2 |
| | Historic and Recent | | Eskimo and Greenland | 598 | | 26,9 |
| | BC1000 | | An-yang China | 172 | | 38,4 |
| | Recent | | Hong Kong | 95 | | 18,9 |
| Ferraz & Pecora | Recent | 1992 | Japanese (Living in Brasil) | 105 | 12 | 11,4 |
| | Recent | | Negroid | 106 | 3 | 2,8 |
| | Recent | | Caucasian | 117 | 5 | 4,2 |
| Yew & Chan | Recent | 1993 | Chinese | 832 | 179 | 21,5 |
| Rou et al. | Recent | 1994 | Chinese | - | - | 20 |
| Sperber & Moreau | Recent | 1998 | Senegalese | 480 | 15 | 3 |
| Gulabivala et al | Recent | 2001 | Burmese | 139 | 14 | 10,1 |
| Irish et.al. | BC2500-1750 | 2005 | Kawa Nubia | 25 | 0 | 0 |
| | BC2000-1650 | | C-Group Nubia | 39 | 1 | 2,6 |
| | BC1750-1500 | | Kerma Nubia | 49 | 1 | 2 |
| | BC1650-1350 | | Pharanic Nubia | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| | BC1550-1380 | | Soleb Nubia | 16 | 0 | 0 |
| Rashid et al. | Recent | 2006 | Iraq | 1483 | 121 | 8,1 |
| Lovell et.al. | Bronze Age | 2006 | Tell Leian (Syria) | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Tu et al. | Recent | 2007 | Taiwanese | - | - | 21,1 |
| Jayasinghe et al. | Recent | 2007 | Hong Kong | 203 | 44 | 21,67 |
| Ming et al. | Recent | 2010 | Taiwanese | 121 | 6 | 5,00 |
| Garg et al. | Recent | 2010 | Indian | 1054 | 48 | 4,55 |
| Present study | Early Iron Age | | Turkey | 66 | 0 | 0 |
| Present study | Middle Age | | Turkey | 191 | 2 | 1,05 |

In general, the frequency of 3RM1 varies among populations, but is typically higher in Asian populations. In particular, Aleut, Eskimo, and Japanese series have higher and more continuous polymorphisms in 3RM1. Dental studies on primates demonstrate many variations, but no sample is known with 3RM (Turner II, 1990). Such a feature is not present in the literature concerning *Australopithecus*, *Homo erectus*, *Neanderthal*, or similar fossil humans (Turner II, 1990). The presence of three-rooted mandibular first molar teeth is an anatomically unique characteristic of modern *Homo sapiens*. Evidence suggests that these supernumerary features have arisen since the late Pleistocene (Turner & Bird, 1981). Present data reiterates that this feature is the result of mutation.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Recent advances in genetics provide better understanding of hereditary anomalies and gene mutations responsible for tooth development. Different teeth malformations can be seen because of products synthesized by detective genes in key time periods of teeth development. Although the exact mode of inheritance is not fully understood it is considered to be the result of a recessive or dominant mutation. Supernumerary roots may be related with the differences in developmental genes themselves or their products during root growth period of teeth development. Research indicates that genes on the sex chromosomes are involved in various facets of dental ontogeny (Scott &Turner II, 1997). For example, the structural gene for amelogenin is located on the X and Y chromosomes (Lau *et al.*,1989). Their properties are even more stable than most morphological characteristics. They have a high genetic component that attenuates effects of environmental differences, sexual dimorphism, and age.

Alvesolo (1997) hypothesized that observed differences in teeth morphology, as males have larger and robust teeth, may arise due to sexual dimorphism. In addition, he concluded that this situation occurs because of "Y" chromosome in males or "X" chromosome in females. The "Y" chromosome in males causes more dentin production compared to females, whereas "X" chromosome in females cause more enamel production (Alvesolo, 1997; Varrela 1988). In addition to such differences caused by sexual base, alterations in number of "X" and "Y" chromosomes would be related with teeth anomalies, such as, supernumery in teeth number, taurodontism, amelogenesis imperfecta, dentinogenesis imperfecta, and supernumery in root number. Moreover, hereditary anomalies that arise due to chromosomal defects could also explain such disorders. Apart from all such cases, genes producing three rooted teeth may be evolved from the duplication of gene producing two rooted teeth as in the case of hemoglobin producing genes have evolved from myoglobin producing genes by duplication.

Migrating human populations bring their biological properties with them, which are dispersed according to frequency, population size, spreading time, or isolation. Such features including number of roots show variability, especially according to population size or spreading time. Homogenic 3RM1 prevalence in Dilkaya Middle Age population should be a least adapted feature. Although, the 1.05% 3RM1 gene frequencies were affected by the sporadic immigration waves of Asian populations, genetic drift of 3RM1 in the Dilkaya population was probably not this high. Specimens seen in Middle Age Dilkaya population are important samples demonstrating the introduction of 3RM1 feature by a migration wave from Asia to west with pioneer groups to Turkey. There exists no study in the literature about the root number of deciduous teeth -attributable to the insufficiency of materials both from clinical studies and archeological excavations. High mortality rates of infants and children within the Middle Age Dilkaya population increased the number of deciduous teeth. Observed 2.41 % of 3rm1 frequency is remarkable for Middle Age.

The number and shape of the human teeth root has a complex structure that exceeds genetic or simple environmental explanations. Limited knowledge or studies based on assumptions further hinder consensus. Inter and intra population relationships, geographic alterations, and microevolution are important factors to include in assessing biological relationships between populations. It can be reasoned that data from future studies with the help of mathematical modeling and ontogenic knowledge will lead to a more developed understanding of this anomaly and its implications.

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