



Obstetric dimensions of the female pelvis are less integrated than locomotor dimensions and show protective scaling patterns: Implications for the obstetrical dilemma

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Title:

Obstetric dimensions of the female pelvis are less integrated than locomotor dimensions and show protective scaling patterns: Implications for the obstetrical dilemma

Running title:

Obstetric and locomotor scaling and integration

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2
3 **1 Abstract:**
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5 2 Objectives: The ‘obstetrical dilemma’ hypothesis assumes that the modern human female pelvis
6
7 3 serves two discrete functions: obstetrics and locomotion. We investigate whether these differing
8
9 4 functions create observable patterns of morphological covariation and whether those patterns
10
11 5 differ by height, weight, age. This allows evaluation of evidence for canalization and phenotypic
12
13 6 plasticity relevant to obstetric and locomotor function among a living female population.
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19 8 Methods: Landmarks (N=86) were collected and inter-landmark distances were calculated
20
21 9 (N=36) on the pelvis and proximal femur of CT scans of living women aged 20 to 90 years
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23 10 (M=93) receiving a routine CT scan. Partial least squares and relative standard deviation of
24
25 11 eigenvalues analyses were used to evaluate integration overall and within locomotor and
26
27 12 obstetric modules, respectively. Ordinary Least Squared regression was used to evaluate scaling
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29 13 relationships between inter-landmark distances and height, weight, and age.
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35 15 Results: The obstetric pelvis was significantly less internally integrated than the locomotor
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37 16 pelvis. Many obstetric measurements were constrained in absolute terms relative to height;
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39 17 shorter women had relatively larger birth canal dimensions, and several key obstetric dimensions
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41 18 showed relative freedom from height. Lower weight women had some relatively larger obstetric
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43 19 and locomotor dimensions. Regarding age, younger women showed a few relatively larger outlet
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45 20 dimensions.
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51 22 Conclusions: This study suggests that the obstetric pelvis and the locomotor pelvis function are
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53 23 morphologically distinct, with the obstetric pelvis showing relatively greater flexibility. These
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1 relationships between relative constraints support the hypothesis that the modern female pelvis
2 shows evidence of both canalization and phenotypic plasticity in obstetric and locomotor
3 structures.

5 **Key words:**

6 Obstetrical dilemma; obstetric; integration; pelvis; phenotypic plasticity

8 **Introduction**

9 Researchers often describe the modern human female pelvis as a compromise between
10 the dimensions required for successful childbirth and those required for upright posture and
11 energetically efficient bipedal locomotion (Fischer & Mitteroecker, 2015; Washburn, 1960).
12 Washburn provided a classic conceptualization of this interaction in his phrase “the obstetric
13 dilemma” (OD), by which women experience difficult childbirth today because postural and
14 obstetrical considerations came into conflict in human evolutionary history (Washburn, 1960).
15 Critics argue that the notion of a uniform human OD across populations fails to satisfactorily
16 explain the relationship between difficult childbirth today and the way the human female pelvis
17 evolved (Dunsworth, Warrener, Deacon, Ellison, & Pontzer, 2012; Gruss, Gruss, & Schmitt,
18 2017; Rosenberg & Trevathan, 1995; Wall-Scheffler & Myers, 2017; Walrath, 2003; Warrener,
19 2017; Warrener, Lewton, Pontzer, & Lieberman, 2015; Wells, DeSilva, & Stock, 2012;
20 Whitcome, Miller, & Burns, 2017). Further, wide variation in pelvic dimensions exists across
21 populations (reviewed in Betti, 2017; Betti & Manica, 2018), and is influenced by many factors
22 (Auerbach, King, Campbell, Campbell, & Sylvester, 2018; Betti, 2017; Betti, von Cramon-
23 Taubadel, Manica, & Lycett, 2014). Indeed, instead of being a static problem brought about

1 during our evolutionary history, the OD may change with ecological factors such as growth
2 during development and current nutritional status (Wells, 2015; Wells et al., 2012; Wells,
3 Wibaek, & Poullas, 2018). For example, pelvic dimensions of nulliparous South Asian women
4 were found to correlate with tibia length (Shirley, Cole, Arthurs, Clark, & Wells, 2019), a marker
5 of environmental conditions in early life (Whitley, Gunnell, Davey Smith, Holly, & Martin,
6 2008).

7 This study contextualizes obstetric and locomotor constraints in the pelvis, the
8 relationship between them, and the factors associated with these patterns in a living sample of
9 human women from a single population. Understanding these relative constraints and freedoms
10 can reveal whether the obstetric and locomotor pelvises form separate functional units and can
11 further reveal whether and under what circumstances obstetric function is protected relative to
12 locomotor function. This study focuses on the pubis, which is highly sexually dimorphic (Bilfeld
13 et al., 2015; Patriquin, Loth, & Steyn, 2003; Scheuer & Black, 2000, p. 349) and changes its
14 form significantly during ontogeny (Bilfeld et al., 2015; Scheuer & Black, 2000, p. 349).

15 To describe pelvic covariation, this study investigates morphological integration and
16 allometry. Integration examines how traits covary, often revealing a shared functional purpose or
17 developmental origin (Willmore, Young, & Richtsmeier, 2007). Individual traits in highly
18 integrated systems have relatively low variation (Pavlicev, Cheverud, & Wagner, 2009).
19 Morphological integration may also be considered in relation to canalization, which buffers the
20 development of traits from environmental and genetic disruptions, and phenotypic plasticity,
21 where changes in response to environmental variation (Willmore et al., 2007) are characterized
22 by increased phenotypic variation (Kurki, 2013, 2017). Canalization and phenotypic plasticity
23 can be evaluated by examining variation in trait integration. Allometric relationships are a form

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3 1 of integration (Armbruster, Pélabon, Bolstad, & Hansen, 2014) and their comparison is
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5 2 appropriate for analyzing pelvic integration.
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8 3 Few previous studies have evaluated human pelvic integration. Those that have compared
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10 4 human and nonhuman primate integration have found conflicting results (Grabowski, 2013;
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12 5 Grabowski, Polk, & Roseman, 2011; Lewton, 2012). Mallard, Savell, and Auerbach (2017) did
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14 6 not examine the effect of height and weight on integration but found moderate pelvic integration
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16 7 in a modern archaeological population, with no difference in integration or variance across age
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18 8 groups. The pubis, which continues to grow into a woman's twenties (Rissech & Malgosa, 2007)
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20 9 and thirties (Tague, 1994), with parts growing until age 35 to 40 (Scheuer & Black, 2000, p. 371;
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22 10 Verbruggen & Nowlan, 2017), does not grow out of proportion to the rest of the pelvis (Mallard
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24 11 et al., 2017). Mallard et al. (2017) found the outlet to be the most integrated part of the pelvis,
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26 12 suggesting higher integration for obstetric measurements. However, since integration reduces
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28 13 variability (Willmore et al., 2007), more highly integrated systems should show lower levels of
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30 14 variation, and the pelvic canal is the most variable region of the pelvis (Candelas González,
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32 15 Rascón Pérez, Chamero, Cambra-Moo, & González Martín, 2017; Kurki, 2013; Kurki &
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34 16 Decrausaz, 2016). Given these non-intuitive results, a comparison of obstetric and locomotor
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36 17 integration is warranted.
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42 18 Studies that have examined pelvic variation with height in humans and non-human
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44 19 primates have presented diverse results in the pelvis. Some studies suggest that pelvic
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46 20 dimensions do not correlate with height (Kurki, 2011a, 2013; Takamuku, 2019; Wood &
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48 21 Chamberlain, 1986), while others found correlations in certain dimensions (Jagesur, Wiid,
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50 22 Pretorius, Bosman, & Oettlé, 2017; Lewton, 2015; Mobb & Wood, 1977; Sharma, Gupta, &
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52 23 Shandilya, 2016; Tague, 2000). Certain pubic measurements did show correlation (Jagesur et al.,
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1 2017) and allometric scaling with height (Mobb & Wood, 1977). Similarly diverse results have
2 been presented regarding the relationship between pelvic obstetric dimensions and weight, with
3 some dimensions showing independence from weight (Tague, 2000), and others, including birth
4 canal size, correlating with weight (Kurki, 2011a; Tague, 2000), body width (Kurki, 2013;
5 Tague, 2000), or body size (Kurki, 2007; Sharma et al., 2016). In addition, correlations between
6 pubic measurements and weight have been documented (Rosenberg, 1988; Young,
7 Johannesdottir, Poole, Shaw, & Stock, 2018). Other analyses have examined the relationship of
8 locomotor measurements such as femoral head diameter (Ruff, Scott, & Liu, 1991; Young et al.,
9 2018) and femoral neck width (Ruff et al., 1991) with weight. Studies that have examined the
10 scaling relationships between pelvic measurements and adult age may suggest that the female
11 pelvis is largest among skeletally mature younger adults (Berger, May, Renner, Viradia, &
12 Dahners, 2011; Huseynov et al., 2016), and obstetric and locomotor regions of the pelvis may
13 grow at different rates (Moerman, 1982; Sharma et al., 2016). The above discussion highlights
14 substantial variation in reported relationships between pelvic and body size measures.

15 Although the studies described above have investigated how pelvis dimensions relate to
16 height, weight, and age, no previous studies have examined how obstetric and locomotor
17 measurements vary with respect to these factors and to each other. This study expands on the
18 work of Mallard et al. (2017), who evaluated integration and allometry in obstetric and
19 locomotor measurements of the pelvis, and evaluating the effects of height, weight, and age.

21 **Materials and Methods**

22 Pelvic CT scans were obtained from a previous study (Poole et al., 2010) evaluating
23 femoral neck structure in (n=100) healthy female volunteers aged 20 to 90 years visiting

1 Addenbrooke's Hospital in Cambridge, UK for a routine clinical CT scan unrelated to skeletal
2 disease. Scans consisted of the lower portion of the pelvis and did not include the full ilium or
3 sacrum. Poole et al. (2010) received ethical approval for their study from the Cambridgeshire
4 Regional Ethics Committee; study participants were recruited according to the Declaration of
5 Helsinki. All images were anonymized, and bone structural analysis was undertaken according to
6 the conditions of participant informed consent via a material transfer agreement between
7 medicine and anthropology. The sample for this study (N=93) was a subset of the sample
8 described by Poole et al. (2010). Although participants' ethnic ancestry information was not
9 available, the sample represents a predominantly white British population.

10 Using Avizo Fire version 6.3.1, landmarks were placed on each of 93 3D surface images
11 reconstructed from DICOM files containing 3D CT scan data. 44 landmarks on the pelvis and
12 proximal femur were chosen (Table S2). Forty-two were collected bilaterally; two (MP4, along
13 the sacrum between the fourth and fifth vertebrae, and STIP, the sacral tip) were midline
14 landmarks. A total of 86 landmarks were collected. 36 inter-landmark distances were calculated
15 (Table 1), which were chosen because of their relevance to obstetrics (landmarks: N = 19 per
16 side, and N = 2 midline; inter-landmark distances: N = 21) and locomotion (landmarks: N = 23
17 per side; inter-landmark distances N = 15). They were selected if they were found in published
18 literature analyzing pelvic morphology, traced musculature related to obstetrics or locomotion, or
19 provided focused analysis of the pubis.

20 The landmarks and inter-landmark distances were divided into two categories, "obstetric"
21 and "locomotor." Obstetric measurements were defined as measurements related to the bony
22 birth canal and measurements following muscle attachments or bony structures impacted by
23 pregnancy and/or childbirth. General internal measurements of the pubis were also taken and

1 classified as obstetric. Some measurements examined general pelvic dimensions without
2 following muscle attachments or the bony birth canal; internal (medial) landmarks or measures
3 related to pubic breadth that may be affected by pregnancy and delivery were classified as
4 obstetric. Locomotor measurements were defined as measurements following or related to
5 muscle attachments of walking, as well as measurements of the acetabulum and proximal femur.
6 Additionally, general ventral measurements of the pubis were taken and classified as locomotor
7 because of their proximity to locomotor muscle attachments. To check whether these divisions
8 were appropriate, a correlation matrix of the inter-landmark distances was constructed, and
9 correlation coefficients analyzed using R version 3.4.2 (R Core Team, 2017) and version 3.6.2
10 (R Core Team, 2019) software package *corrplot* version 0.84 (Wei & Simko, 2017) (Fig. 1)
11 (Olson & Miller, 1958), an R function (STHDA), and Microsoft Excel for Mac version 16.34.
12 The absolute values of the correlations were overall higher among locomotor (mean 0.45;
13 median 0.40; minimum 0.12; maximum 0.88) and obstetric measurements (mean 0.32; median
14 0.26; minimum 0.03; maximum 0.88) than between them (mean 0.31; median 0.31; minimum
15 0.08; maximum 0.59). This suggested that obstetric and locomotor measurements may form two
16 internally integrated units. The divisions into obstetric and locomotor categories therefore
17 represented divisions into two true groups that could then be compared in subsequent analysis.

18 Using R version 3.4.2 (R Core Team, 2017) software package *geomorph* version 3.0.6
19 (Adams, Collyer, & Kaliontzopoulou, 2018), inter-landmark distances were calculated (32
20 bilaterally, four represented distances from left to right); a total of 68 distances were calculated.
21 For bilateral inter-landmark distances, the average of left- and right-side measurements were
22 calculated to produce a final set of 36 inter-landmark distances. Estimates of missing landmarks
23 were not used to calculate inter-landmark distances. R code is available upon request.

1 A full set of landmarks was collected twice by the same investigator (SJR) on ten
2 randomly chosen CT scans. To evaluate error in landmark coordinate collection, landmarks were
3 processed as described below (with 17 total missing landmarks) paired t-tests were performed on
4 landmark coordinate data (based on Barbeito-Andrés, Anzelmo, Ventrice, & Sardi, 2012).
5 Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests were used when normality assumptions were not met based on
6 Shapiro-Wilk tests. If only one variable of a pair showed a non-parametric distribution, both
7 paired t-tests and Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests were performed. These results were compared,
8 and a decision was made about the error. To check error in inter-landmark distance calculation,
9 the full set of inter-landmark distances was calculated using the landmarks that were collected
10 for a second time. A total of 46 inter-landmark distances were unable to be calculated due to
11 missing landmarks. Paired t-tests were used to evaluate whether there was a difference in means
12 between the original inter-landmark distance measurements and the new measurements
13 (Decrausaz, 2014). Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests were used as above.

14 15 *Integration*

16 To evaluate integration between obstetric and locomotor measurements using landmarks,
17 the R version 3.4.2 (R Core Team, 2017) software package *geomorph* version 3.0.6 (Adams et
18 al., 2018) was used. The Thin-Plate Spline method (Fischer & Mitteroecker, 2015, 2017), was
19 used, with a complete reference specimen, to estimate missing landmarks (137 missing
20 landmarks in the whole pelvis, all but two specimens with 6 or fewer missing landmarks; one
21 specimen had 20 and another had 33 missing landmarks) (Gunz, Mitteroecker, Neubauer, Weber,
22 & Bookstein, 2009). A Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA) was then performed to
23 standardize the landmarks. An integration test using a two-block partial least squares analysis

1 was performed (reviewed in Klingenberg, 2014) comparing obstetric and locomotor landmarks
2 for left and right sides independently (each including midline landmarks MP4 and STIP), as well
3 as for the whole pelvis. The same analysis was performed for landmarks contained in the pubis
4 alone (obstetric: N = 11 per side, locomotor: N = 8 per side; 16 missing landmarks in the whole
5 pubis, one specimen with 2 missing and 1 with 14 missing).

6 Following Mallard et al. (2017), patterns of integration among inter-landmark distances
7 were analyzed, first analyzing overall pelvic integration among all inter-landmark distances and
8 then integration among inter-landmark distances related to obstetrics and integration among
9 inter-landmark distances related to locomotion. To standardize the data, inter-landmark distances
10 were transformed using natural logarithms. Individuals with one or more missing inter-landmark
11 distance were omitted, leaving 66 complete measurement sets. The method proposed by Pavlicev
12 et al. (2009) was used. A correlation matrix was constructed, and eigenvalues were calculated for
13 the matrix. Each eigenvalue represents the amount of variance in its eigenvector, and a larger
14 difference between eigenvalues represents a higher level of integration (Pavlicev et al., 2009).
15 When positive, negative, and mixed-sign correlations appear in a correlation matrix, the relative
16 standard deviation of the eigenvalues ($SD_{rel}(\lambda)$) is an appropriate measure of the differences
17 between them, and therefore is a measure of integration (Pavlicev et al., 2009). This method
18 accounts for the number of measurements (inter-landmark distances) used to construct each
19 correlation matrix, so integration can be compared regardless of matrix size (Pavlicev et al.,
20 2009).

21 Following Mallard et al. (2017) and Pavlicev et al. (2009), relative standard deviation of
22 eigenvalues was calculated using the following equation:

23
$$SD_{rel}(\lambda) = \frac{\sqrt{Var(\lambda)}}{\sqrt{N-1}},$$

1 where λ equals the eigenvalue and N equals the number of inter-landmark distances. $\text{Var}(\lambda)$ was
 2 calculated using the following equation:

$$3 \quad \text{Var}(\lambda) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (\lambda_i - 1)^2}{N},$$

4 where N is the number of inter-landmark distances, and λ_i is the i th eigenvalue. Using the *boot*
 5 library version 1.3-20 (Canty & Ripley, 2017; Davison & Hinkley, 1997) in R version 3.4.2 (R
 6 Core Team, 2017), and following Mallard et al. (2017), an adjusted bootstrap 95% confidence
 7 interval for $\text{SD}_{\text{rel}}(\lambda)$ was calculated using the normal approximation using bootstrapping with
 8 replacement over 10,000 iterations. This method of bootstrapping assumes a normal distribution.
 9 This method corrects for bias between the bootstrapped mean and the calculated value, and it
 10 centers the confidence interval around $(2 \times \text{SD}_{\text{rel}}(\lambda) - \text{mean}(t))$, where t represents the
 11 bootstrapped estimates. Calculated $\text{SD}_{\text{rel}}(\lambda)$ values were compared to the conservative estimate
 12 of $\text{SD}_{\text{rel}}(\lambda)$ without integration that Mallard et al. (2017) use, $\sqrt{\frac{1}{M}}$, where M is the sample size.

13 Deviating from Mallard et al. (2017), to compare between groups with different values of
 14 $\sqrt{\frac{1}{M}}$, $\text{SD}_{\text{rel}}(\lambda)$ and bootstrapped confidence intervals were scaled by dividing $\text{SD}_{\text{rel}}(\lambda)$ and
 15 confidence intervals by the $\sqrt{\frac{1}{M}}$ values for that group. By doing this, an unintegrated scaled
 16 $\text{SD}_{\text{rel}}(\lambda)$ was always equal to one. Calculated $\text{SD}_{\text{rel}}(\lambda)$ and confidence intervals could then be
 17 compared in relation to this value.

18 The above procedure was repeated to evaluate the association of height, weight, and age
 19 with integration by examining the differences in $\text{SD}_{\text{rel}}(\lambda)$ between women below the median and
 20 above the median height (1.62 m), weight (69.9 kg), and age (54.5 years), respectively. The

1 above analyses were also performed for those inter-landmark distances contained only in the
2 pubis (total: N=11; obstetric: N = 5; locomotor: N = 6).

3 Some $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ values fell outside of their bootstrapped confidence intervals. This can
4 occur when the bootstrapped estimates show a bias relative to the calculated estimate, such that
5 the calculated estimate is offset from the bootstrapped mean. This is possible because the
6 calculated $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ is only an estimate, and it is statistically possible for a bootstrapped mean to
7 differ from it. While the bootstrap method accounts for this bias, it does not always fully
8 compensate for it. When this occurs, one can center the bootstrap mean at the calculated $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$,
9 but this was not performed in this study because failure to include the calculated $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ was not
10 considered problematic. The bias may also exist because $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ is always positive (Haber,
11 2011). In several cases, $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ was higher than the unintegrated threshold, but this was not the
12 case if 95% confidence intervals were taken into account. Mallard et al. (2017) did not use
13 confidence intervals but compared the magnitude of $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ to the unintegrated threshold. In
14 this study, all results will be reported.

15 In division into smaller groups, confidence intervals sometimes included the unintegrated
16 threshold. The difference between the calculated $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ and the mean calculated by the
17 bootstrap determines the point about which the confidence interval is centered. When there is a
18 bias between the calculated $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ and the mean calculated by the bootstrap, the bootstrapped
19 confidence intervals can be centered either above or below $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$, depending on the direction
20 of the bias. If the bias is large enough, the confidence intervals can include the unintegrated
21 threshold. This may have occurred in these smaller group divisions.

22
23 *Allometric and scaling relationships*

1 Allometric and scaling relationships were evaluated using the R version 3.4.2 (R Core
2 Team, 2017) software package *smatr* version 3.4-8 (Warton, Duursma, Falster, & Taskinen,
3 2012). Following (Lewton, 2015), the natural logarithms of inter-landmark distances, height,
4 weight, and age were calculated. To correct for the association of height with weight, the same
5 allometric analysis was performed using body mass index (BMI). This was performed using the
6 R version 3.6.2 (R Core Team, 2019), *geomorph* version 3.2.1 (Adams, Collyer, &
7 Kaliontzopoulou, 2020), and *smart* version 3.4-8 (Warton et al., 2012).

8 Allometric relationships can be calculated using an Ordinary Least Squared (OLS)
9 regression or a Reduced or Standardized Major Axis (SMA) regression (Lewton, 2015). In this
10 study, both methods were performed and were corrected for multiple tests, but only OLS results
11 were interpreted (Lewton, 2015; Smith, 2009; Warton, Wright, Falster, & Westoby, 2006). The
12 regression lines for those variables that correlated significantly with one another were examined
13 to determine whether their slopes were significantly different from one (isometry). Outliers may
14 have weighted the regression analysis, but they were not removed because they represented
15 biological variation in the sample.

17 Results

18 Demographic information about study participants can be found in Table S1. Outliers
19 were not excluded.

20 We first tested for intra-observer error. Results showing significant intra-observer error
21 are displayed in Table S3. Integration tests involving landmark analysis were run again
22 excluding landmarks that showed significant intra-observer error in two dimensions on the same
23 side. Only results excluding these landmarks are discussed. Three inter-landmark distances were

1 measured with significant intra-observer error: two measurements following the levator ani, ISP
2 to BISPA ($p = 0.014$) and ISP to LSCI ($p = 0.008$), and the proximal-distal femoral head
3 diameter, FHPROX to FHD ($p = 0.021$). To include as many inter-landmark distances as
4 possible, the differences in means between measuring bouts of individual sides (rather than the
5 average of left and right sides) were evaluated for these three measurements. The right-side
6 measurement of ISP to LSCI did not show intra-observer error ($p = 0.075$), and so was included
7 in analysis. Because one set of measures showed a normal distribution and the other did not, both
8 a paired t-test and a Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test were used to evaluate the difference between the
9 left-side measurements of ISP to LSCI. The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test showed no intra-
10 observer error ($p = 0.064$), but the measurement was excluded because the paired t-test showed
11 intra-observer error ($p = 0.040$).

12 Next, we tested obstetric and locomotor integration overall. Only results from scaled
13 integration analysis will be discussed. The pelvis overall was integrated ($SD_{rel}(\lambda) = 1.454$, where
14 unintegrated $SD_{rel}(\lambda) = 1$) (Table 2), as was the pubis (Table 4). Looking at obstetric and
15 locomotor measurements separately, a partial least squares integration test suggested that the two
16 sets of measurements were integrated with each other within the pelvis (whole pelvis: $rPLS =$
17 0.955 , $p = 0.007$; right: $rPLS = 0.773$, $p = 1 \times 10^{-4}$; left: $rPLS = 0.798$, $p = 2 \times 10^{-4}$). Within the
18 pubis, a partial least squared test suggested that obstetric and locomotor landmarks were
19 integrated with each other (both sides: $rPLS = 0.954$, $p = 2 \times 10^{-4}$; right: $rPLS = 0.965$, $p = 1 \times$
20 10^{-4} ; left: $rPLS = 0.972$, $p = 1 \times 10^{-4}$).

21 In the overall sample, obstetric ($SD_{rel}(\lambda) = 1.523$ CI 1.241 to 1.546) and locomotor
22 ($SD_{rel}(\lambda) = 1.987$ CI 1.705 to 2.060) measurements were integrated (Table 3). Locomotor
23 measurements were more highly integrated than obstetric measurements, and their confidence

1 intervals did not overlap (Figure 2a). Pubic locomotor measurements were integrated, but
2 although obstetric $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ was higher than it would have been if unintegrated, the lower
3 boundary of the 95% confidence interval was lower. Pubic locomotor measurements were more
4 highly integrated than obstetric measurements (Table 5, Figure 2b). In summary, locomotor
5 measurements were significantly more highly integrated than were obstetric measurements.

6 We then examined integration within subsets of the data. Importantly, integration was
7 lower in the subsets than it was in the larger sample. This may be caused by bias between the
8 bootstrapped estimate and the calculated estimate when groups were analyzed separately, as
9 confidence intervals widen with smaller sample sizes. This suggests that the integration results
10 derived from the subsets may be less reliable than those from the whole sample.

11 We then examined integration with respect to height, weight, and age, and found similar
12 results. There were no significant differences in overall pelvic, obstetric, or locomotor
13 integration among the height, weight, and age groups (Table 2). Among height groups,
14 locomotor measurements were not more integrated than obstetric measurements (Table 3, Fig.
15 3a). With respect to weight groups, the pattern of integration differed slightly. In lower weight
16 women, the confidence intervals of obstetric and locomotor measurements barely overlapped
17 (obstetric CI 0.768 to 1.060; locomotor CI 1.058 to 1.429) (Table 3, Fig. 5a), while in higher
18 weight women, the confidence intervals overlapped (obstetric CI 0.902 to 1.232; locomotor CI
19 1.090 to 1.517). Similarly, with regard to age groups, although there was no difference in
20 obstetric or locomotor integration between the groups, the pattern differed slightly. In younger
21 women, the confidence intervals of obstetric and locomotor integration overlapped (Table 3, Fig.
22 7a), but in older women, locomotor measurements were more highly integrated than obstetric
23 measurements. There was no difference in pubic integration among height, weight, or age groups

1 (Table 4, 5, Fig. 3b, Fig. 5b, Fig. 7b). Pubic locomotor measurements were more highly
2 integrated than pubic obstetric measurements in both height and weight groups. Among age
3 groups, pubic locomotor measurements were more highly integrated than pubic obstetric
4 measurements in older but not younger women.

5 Significant negative allometric and isometric relationships between inter-landmark
6 distances and height are shown in Table 6, and some relationships between inter-landmark
7 distances and height are displayed in Figure 4. Of 21 obstetric inter-landmark distances, 13
8 correlated significantly with height. Of these, seven were measures of the birth canal, and these
9 seven scaled with negative allometry. Three of five pubic obstetric measurements correlated with
10 height, while no pubic locomotor measurements correlated with height. The birth canal
11 measurements failing to correlate significantly with height were midplane mediolateral width
12 (ISP to ISP), mid-plane posterior (ISP to MP4), and transverse outlet (INFT to INFT).

13 Significant negative allometric relationships between inter-landmark distances and
14 weight are shown in Table 7, and some of the relationships between inter-landmark distances and
15 weight are displayed in Figure 6. Of 21 obstetric inter-landmark distances, nine correlated
16 significantly with weight. Three of these were related to the birth canal, while six were unrelated
17 to the birth canal. All obstetric measurements that correlated with weight scaled with negative
18 allometry. Four of five pubic obstetric measurements correlated with weight, and all scaled with
19 negative allometry. The only obstetric pubic inter-landmark distance that did not correlate with
20 weight was PUBR to PUBT. One pubic locomotor measurement correlated with weight.

21 To account for the association of height with weight in allometric relationships, scaling
22 with BMI was evaluated. Only two measurements scaled with BMI. The pelvic outlet antero-
23 posterior diameter, IPS to STIP, scaled with negative allometry with a slope of 0.078 (CI 0.007

1 to 0.148) and R^2 of 0.056. This measurement also scaled with negative allometry with height and
2 weight. A measure of the medial inferior pubic ramus, MSIPR to MIIPR, scaled with negative
3 allometry with a slope of 0.154 (CI 0.004 to 0.303) and R^2 of 0.047. This measurement scaled
4 isometrically with height and with negative allometry with weight.

5 Significant scaling relationships found between inter-landmark distances and age are
6 shown in Table 8, and some are shown in Figure 8. Of 21 obstetric inter-landmark distances, five
7 correlated significantly with age. Three of these were birth canal measurements. One of five
8 pubic obstetric measurements correlated with age (pubic symphysis height, SPS to IPS), and it
9 scaled negatively. No locomotor measurements in the pubis correlated with age.

11 Discussion

12 This study examined whether the covariation between the obstetric and the locomotor
13 pelvis in a living female population showed patterns of canalization, patterns of phenotypic
14 plasticity, or both. Canalization and plasticity are opposites but may co-occur within a system
15 such as the pelvis. For further evaluation, we studied the variables associated with this
16 covariation. We accomplished this through a study of integration and allometry (Figures 9 and
17 10) in the pelvis.

18 Our key finding was that, although the pelvis as a whole represented an integrated unit,
19 the obstetric pelvis was less internally constrained than the locomotor pelvis. This assertion is
20 consistent with findings showing that obstetric measurements, in particular dimensions of the
21 pelvic canal, showed high variability and consequently low constraints (Kurki, 2013; Kurki &
22 Decrausaz, 2016). Additionally, obstetric measurements in the pubis showed a high degree of
23 relative internal freedom and related more strongly to external parameters of growth and

1 nutritional status than did pubic locomotor measurements. A limitation of this study, however, is
2 that the data does not include the entire pelvis but rather only a portion of it. This limitation may
3 affect integration results, particularly with respect to locomotion.

4 The extent to which obstetric and locomotor integration and measurements are associated
5 with other biometric variables such as height, weight, and age remains an important
6 consideration. Importantly, integration results among subsets of women were less reliable than
7 results for the sample as a whole. Obstetric dimensions were slightly although not significantly
8 less constrained internally in shorter women, suggesting protective flexibility in obstetric
9 dimensions. In other words, obstetric measurements may be allowed to expand more freely in
10 shorter women (Kurki, 2011a) to compensate for an otherwise small skeletal size. In addition,
11 shorter women had relatively larger birth canals and locomotor dimensions, while non-canal
12 obstetric measurements increased in constant proportion with height. These findings carry
13 implications for modern obstetric ease. At an individual level, most obstetric evidence suggests
14 that shorter women experience a higher frequency of cephalopelvic disproportion (Liselele,
15 Boulvain, Tshibangu, & Meuris, 2000; Mahmood, Campbell, & Wilson, 1988; Tsu, 1992) and
16 caesarean section (Mahmood et al., 1988; Sheiner, Levy, Katz, & Mazor, 2005; Toh-Adam,
17 Srisupundit, & Tongsong, 2012; Wells, 2017), even if secular trends of increasing height are
18 associated with greater frequency of caesarean section worldwide (Zaffarini & Mitteroecker,
19 2019). Since height factors into obstetric ease, allometric patterns, too, should account for height,
20 especially among populations with small-statured mothers (Takamuku, 2019).

21 However, the nature of these allometric patterns is not straightforward. We found that
22 most birth canal dimensions, including all antero-posterior and anterior birth canal
23 measurements, scaled with negative allometry with respect to height (Figure 9). This suggests

1 that shorter women had larger birth canal dimensions relative to their stature compared to taller
2 women. Of all the obstetric dimensions to correlate with height, midplane anterior (IPS to ISP)
3 showed the highest correlation, scaling with negative allometry. However, three dimensions of
4 the birth canal did not correlate with height: midplane medio-lateral width (ISP to ISP), mid-
5 plane posterior (ISP to MP4), and transverse outlet (INFT to INFT). Another measure of outlet
6 mediolateral width, INN to INN, correlated with height, but weakly compared to other birth
7 canal dimensions.

8 Our results suggest that the midplane and outlet face a combination of relative constraints
9 in antero-posterior and anterior dimensions and relative freedom in mediolateral and posterior
10 dimensions relative to height. This may allow for greater flexibility, or ability to change, in the
11 latter dimensions (Kurki, 2011a). The midplane, particularly midplane medio-lateral width (ISP
12 to ISP), is the narrowest portion of the birth canal, and is therefore considered the most
13 obstetrically critical dimension (reviewed in Kurki, 2011a). Indeed, in modern obstetrics, women
14 who experienced obstructed labor had narrower midplane medio-lateral dimensions than women
15 with unobstructed labor (Frémondrière, Thollon, Adalian, Delotte, & Marchal, 2017; Zaretsky et
16 al., 2005). Additionally, women with obstructed labor showed contraction in the anterior-
17 posterior dimension (Frémondrière et al., 2017; Zaretsky et al., 2005), the longest dimension of
18 the midplane (Rosenberg, 1992). Turning now to the outlet, another key measure of pelvic
19 contraction is outlet medio-lateral width (Kurki, 2011a). Transverse outlet diameter may
20 correlate with obstructed labor, as may contraction in the anterior-posterior outlet (Frémondrière
21 et al., 2017). Therefore, some but not all of the tightest dimensions of the midplane and outlet
22 showed relative freedom from height, while those that are more accommodating to the fetal head
23 and shoulders showed greater constraints.

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3 1 There was a weak relationship between weight and integration. Lower weight women had
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5 2 slightly but not significantly lower obstetric and locomotor integration than did higher weight
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7 3 women. In the pubis, lower weight women showed a magnitude of integration suggesting a lack
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9 4 of integration, while higher weight women did not; while not significant, this might point to
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11 5 relatively greater freedom in the pubis in lower weight women. Measurements were less
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13 6 constrained allometrically relative to weight than they were to height, but lower weight women
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15 7 had relatively larger obstetric and locomotor dimensions (Figure 10). Few measurements
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17 8 correlated with weight, supporting Ruff et al. (1991) and Young et al. (2018), including only
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19 9 three birth canal measurements, suggesting that these dimensions were relatively larger in lower
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21 10 weight women. Regarding non-canal measurements, while only the height of the pubic
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23 11 symphysis correlated with body height, both the width and the height of the pubic symphysis
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25 12 scaled with negative allometry with weight, suggesting that lighter women had relatively larger
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27 13 pubic symphyseal dimensions. Similarly, within the pubis, almost all obstetric measurements
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29 14 scaled with negative allometry with weight, in contrast to Rosenberg (1988), who found that
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31 15 heavier populations had relatively longer pubic bones.

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33 16 To evaluate whether our weight and height findings influenced each other, since shorter
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35 17 women may also have had lower weights, we examined scaling with BMI. However, only two
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37 18 measurements, both obstetric, correlated with BMI, and both did so weakly. This suggests that
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39 19 the study participant's current physique or nutrition explains little of the variability found in this
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41 20 study. It further suggests that the allometric relationships we found with weight may actually be
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43 21 driven by relationships with height. However, the large age range we studied is a limitation to
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45 22 this conclusion. In contrast, pelvic dimensions have been shown to be correlated to maternal
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1 BMI in a Brazilian cohort, and explained the association of BMI with neonatal size (Wells,
2 Figueiroa, & Alves, 2017).

3 Our findings regarding age support Mallard et al. (2017), who found that integration did
4 not change across age groups. In the pubis, however, while obstetric measurements were slightly
5 integrated in younger women, the magnitude of integration in older women suggests a lack of
6 integration. Further, there was a significant difference in integration between obstetric and
7 locomotor measurements in older women but not in younger women. These findings may
8 suggest that pubic obstetric developmental coordination may relax once growth is complete, as
9 some parts of the pubis grow until age 35 to 40 (Scheuer & Black, 2000, p. 371; Verbruggen &
10 Nowlan, 2017). Most measurements were comparatively unconstrained relative to age. Some
11 outlet measures scaled with age, suggesting that younger women had relatively larger outlet
12 dimensions. This may represent secular trends or changes over a lifetime as proposed by
13 Huseynov et al. (2016), who reported that female obstetric measurements, particularly in the
14 outlet, were smaller and more male-like in older compared to younger women. In terms of
15 modern obstetrics, high maternal age has been associated with greater risk of cephalopelvic
16 disproportion (Tsu, 1992). This obstetrical finding might be explained in part by decreasing
17 obstetric dimensions with age, although increasing BMI with age as well as increased infant size
18 with maternal age and parity may play a larger role. In addition, non-birth canal obstetric
19 measurements also showed a decrease in proportional relationship with age. In particular, pubic
20 symphysis height showed the highest correlation, aligning well with developmental evidence that
21 the pubic symphysis continues to grow into early mid-life (Scheuer & Black, 2000, p. 371;
22 Verbruggen & Nowlan, 2017). It further suggests that this relative growth decreases with age.

1 The contrast in relative constraints and freedoms between obstetric and locomotor
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4 1 The contrast in relative constraints and freedoms between obstetric and locomotor
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6 2 measurements is notable, and our findings validate the hypothesis that the obstetric and
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8 3 locomotor pelves can be considered two functional units that also interact and overlap. The
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10 4 combination of relative freedom and constraints acting differently on the obstetric and locomotor
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12 5 pelves may be approached through a lens of phenotypic plasticity and canalization. Integration,
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14 6 and therefore allometry, can be understood as a constraining force (reviewed in Armbruster et
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16 7 al., 2014) because it limits the amount of possible variation (Willmore et al., 2007) and thus
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18 8 limits the potential for change. In a similar way, canalization limits the amount of variation in a
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20 9 system (Willmore et al., 2007). While integration and canalization are not identical, they can
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22 10 both act on the same system to similar effect (Willmore et al., 2007).
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26 Our results suggest that obstetric traits show plasticity; however, it is important to
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28 12 recognize that canalization of some traits may also explain these results. The variation found
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30 13 between obstetric dimensions and between key obstetric measurements and height could be
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32 14 interpreted as a result of developmental canalization to compensate for more plastic biometric
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34 15 traits such as linear growth and nutritional status. In this light, it would be informative to
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36 16 determine whether obstetric measurements are indeed canalized throughout development to
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38 17 allow for a minimum obstetric pelvic size to facilitate childbirth regardless of other biometry, or
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40 18 whether these key obstetric measurements in fact change relatively freely with respect to body
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42 19 size.
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46 This study does not reveal whether the forces acting upon the pelvis are environmental or
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48 21 genetic, if either, but environmental influences may be substantial. In this light, the environment
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50 22 can influence pelvic measurements through mechanisms of phenotypic plasticity. Wells et al.
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52 23 (2012) have suggested that such environmental, particularly nutritional, effects have exacerbated
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3 1 childbirth difficulties by simultaneously reducing maternal pelvic dimensions and increasing
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5 2 fetal dimensions. They argue that neonatal body mass and maternal height show phenotypic
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7 3 plasticity, although the mother may buffer neonatal body mass against external environmental
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9 4 stresses (Wells, 2015; Wells et al., 2012), as neonatal size shows a correlation with maternal
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11 5 pelvic dimensions (Wells et al., 2017). If phenotypic plasticity is characterized by increased
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13 6 variation (Kurki, 2013, 2017), as is lack of integration (Willmore et al., 2007), the lack of
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15 7 integration we found with respect to obstetric measurements may represent underlying
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17 8 phenotypic plasticity.
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22 9 Biometric patterns can expand our understanding of the relationship between body size
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24 10 and pelvic plasticity. We found that some of the tightest birth canal measurements were
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26 11 relatively unconstrained relative to height. Phenotypic plasticity, as represented by the lack of
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28 12 constraint relative to height, would be particularly favorable in shorter women. However, our
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30 13 results also suggest that many dimensions of the obstetric pelvis may be canalized with respect to
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32 14 height, suggestive of common regulatory mechanism in skeletal growth. Further, as discussed
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34 15 above, the lack of allometric relationships and integration may actually represent some
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36 16 developmental canalization to ensure adequate pelvic size. Similarly, with respect to weight,
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38 17 while few obstetric measurements were constrained in association with this variable, those that
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40 18 were scaled with negative allometry, such that lower weight women had larger obstetric
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42 19 dimensions, suggesting possible canalization in these metrics with potential for plasticity in
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44 20 others. Integration may also be lower in lower weight women, particularly in the pubis. These
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46 21 patterns suggest that lower weight women might also benefit from phenotypic plasticity in
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48 22 certain obstetric regions. In the modern era, however, rising obesity produces larger neonates,
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50 23 exacerbating difficulty in childbirth (Wells, 2017). Today, women of higher weights may benefit
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1 more from phenotypic plasticity than would women of lower weights. The pattern of relative
2 freedoms and constraints we found may further exacerbate modern obstetric complications
3 (sensu Wells, 2017). Since short stature and increased weight may be risk factors (both
4 independently and taken together) (Wells et al., 2018), the interplay between freedoms and
5 constraints should be further elucidated to understand the modern obstetric dilemma.

6 Our study strongly suggests that there are differences between the obstetric pelvis and the
7 locomotor pelvis. The obstetric dilemma model has provided a useful suggestion that may carry
8 implications for medical policy: obstetric and locomotor dimensions serve as two functional
9 modules within the pelvis. Even if the modern human female pelvis does not represent a
10 compromise between the obstetric and locomotor pelvis, the obstetric and locomotor modules of
11 the pelvis are individually identifiable. Understanding the dynamics of pelvic constraint and
12 freedom can reveal how modern female pregnancy and parturition can change in the long- and
13 the short-term.

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20 21 **Author contributions:**

22 SJR collected and analyzed the data and drafted the manuscript. SJR, SLD, JCKW and JTS
23 designed the study and revised the manuscript.

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For Peer Review

1 Tables

Table 1: Inter-landmark distances calculated		
Landmark 1	Landmark 2	Rationale [†]
PEC	LSSPR [‡]	following pectineus
SPEC	LSSPR [‡]	following pectineus
PUBR	PUBT [§]	general pubic breadth measurement that may be affected by pregnancy and parturition (reviewed in Decrausaz, 2014)
PUBC	AIIS [§]	following rectus abdominus
PMPS	AMPS [§]	width of pubic symphysis
SPS	IPS [§]	length of pubic symphysis (Jagesur et al., 2017; Kurki, 2017; Lewton, 2015; Williams, 2014)
IPS	ISP [§]	midplane anterior (Kurki, 2017)
IPS	INN [§]	outlet anterior (Kurki, 2017)
IPS	INFT [§]	outlet anterior (Jagesur et al., 2017; Kurki, 2017)
IPS	MP4 [§]	midplane antero-posterior (Decrausaz, 2014)
IPS	STIP [§]	pelvic outlet antero-posterior diameter (Decrausaz, 2014; Jagesur et al., 2017; Mallard et al., 2017)
LSSPR	LMSPR [‡]	following pectineus
LSSPR	LISPR [‡]	measure of superior pubic ramus
LSIPR	LMIPR [‡]	following obturator externus
LSIPR	LIIPR [‡]	measure of inferior pubic ramus
LSIPR	AOF [‡]	following obturator externus
MSSPR	MISPR [§]	measure of superior pubic ramus
MSIPR	MIIPR [§]	measure of inferior pubic ramus
BISPP	ISP [§]	following levator ani
BISPP	BISPA [§]	following levator ani
ISP	ISP [§]	interspinous (midpelvis) diameter; midplane mediolateral width (Decrausaz, 2014; Jagesur et al., 2017; Mallard et al., 2017)
ISP	BISPA [§]	following levator ani
ISP	LSCI [§]	following levator ani
ISP	SCI [§]	after Betti, von Cramon-Taubadel, Manica, and Lycett (2013)
ISP	MP4 [§]	midplane posterior (Decrausaz, 2014; Kurki, 2017; Mallard et al., 2017)
INN	INN [§]	outlet mediolateral (Decrausaz, 2014; Kurki, 2011a, 2011b; Mallard et al., 2017)
INN	MP4 [§]	outlet posterior (Decrausaz, 2014; Kurki, 2017)
INFT	INFT [§]	transverse outlet (Jagesur et al., 2017)
POF	AOF [‡]	obturator antero-posterior diameter (Betti et al., 2013)
ACP	ACA [‡]	acetabulum antero-posterior diameter (adapted from Lewton, 2015; Williams, 2014)
ACS	ACI [‡]	acetabulum superior-inferior diameter (adapted from Lewton, 2015; Williams, 2014)

FHPROX	FHD [‡]	femoral head proximo-distal diameter (adapted from Decrausaz, 2014; Kurki, 2017)
FHA	FHPOS [‡]	femoral head antero-posterior diameter (adapted from Decrausaz, 2014; Kurki, 2017)
GTT	GTT [‡]	bitrochanteric breadth (Williams, 2014)
TFD	TFP [‡]	following obturator externus
NA	NP [‡]	femoral neck antero-posterior diameter (Williams, 2014)

† Inter-landmark distances related to muscle attachments were defined based on Gray (1918). All other measurements without citations were defined for this study.

‡ Inter-landmark distances classified as locomotor measurements.

§ Inter-landmark distances classified as obstetric measurements.

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Table 2. Scaled integration of inter-landmark distances among height, weight, and age groups[†]

Group	M	Scaled SD _{rel} (λ)	Scaled 95% CI	Scaled $\sqrt{\frac{1}{M}}$
All	66	1.454	1.161, 1.471	1
Shorter	25	1.032	0.661, 1.039	1
Taller	36	1.085	0.780, 1.034	1
Lower weight	28	1.101	0.775, 1.090	1
Higher weight	33	1.089	0.772, 1.045	1
Younger	29	1.099	0.741, 1.106	1
Older	34	1.140	0.831, 1.111	1

† The first line represents integration in the whole sample. Each subsequent set of results divides the whole sample into height, weight, and age groups, respectively.

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Table 3. Scaled integration of obstetric and locomotor measurements among height, weight, and age groups[†]

Group	Category [‡]	M	Scaled SD _{rel} (λ)	Scaled 95% CI	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{M}}$
All	Obst.	66	1.523	1.241, 1.546	1
	Loc.	90	1.987	1.705, 2.060	1
Shorter	Obst.	25	1.085	0.721, 1.100	1
	Loc.	40	1.223	0.871, 1.246	1
Taller	Obst.	36	1.182	0.890, 1.157	1
	Loc.	45	1.374	1.076, 1.408	1
Lower weight	Obst.	28	1.086	0.768, 1.060	1
	Loc.	40	1.379	1.058, 1.429	1
Higher weight	Obst.	33	1.215	0.902, 1.232	1
	Loc.	45	1.445	1.090, 1.517	1
Younger	Obst.	29	1.152	0.837, 1.141	1

	Loc.	44	1.437	1.080, 1.502	1
Older	Obst.	34	1.160	0.848, 1.156	1
	Loc.	43	1.509	1.208, 1.569	1

† The first line represents integration in the whole sample. Each subsequent set of results divides the whole sample into height, weight, and age groups, respectively.

‡ Obst. and Loc. represent values calculated after accounting for intra-observer error.

Table 4. Scaled integration of pubic inter-landmark distances among height, weight, and age groups[†]

Group	M	Scaled SD _{rel} (λ)	Scaled 95% CI	Scaled $\sqrt{\frac{1}{M}}$
All	91	1.804	1.473, 1.892	1
Shorter	45	1.258	0.900, 1.276	1
Taller	41	1.332	0.995, 1.403	1
Lower weight	40	1.228	0.871, 1.268	1
Higher weight	46	1.368	1.005, 1.435	1
Younger	44	1.296	0.920, 1.352	1
Older	44	1.357	0.995, 1.432	1

† The first line represents integration in the whole sample. Each subsequent set of results divides the whole sample into height, weight, and age groups, respectively.

Table 5. Scaled integration of pubic obstetric and locomotor measurements among height, weight, and age groups[†]

Group	Category	M	Scaled SD _{rel} (λ)	Scaled 95% CI	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{M}}$
All	Obst.	91	1.392	0.784, 1.716	1
	Loc.	92	2.408	2.109, 2.544	1
Shorter	Obst.	41	0.982	0.303, 1.208	1
	Loc.	41	1.602	1.231, 1.683	1
Taller	Obst.	45	0.976	0.417, 1.194	1
	Loc.	46	1.684	1.349, 1.828	1
Lower weight	Obst.	40	0.857	0.214, 1.098	1
	Loc.	40	1.643	1.246, 1.804	1
Higher weight	Obst.	46	1.048	0.517, 1.234	1
	Loc.	47	1.801	1.393, 2.000	1
Younger	Obst.	44	1.108	0.531, 1.352	1
	Loc.	44	1.658	1.289, 1.758	1
Older	Obst.	44	0.930	0.268, 1.155	1
	Loc.	43	1.761	1.390, 1.953	1

† The first line represents integration in the whole sample. Each subsequent set of results divides the whole sample into height, weight, and age groups, respectively.

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Measurement	R^2	Relationship [†]	Slope (95% CI)
PUBC to AIIS (n=80)	0.216	-	0.578 (0.330, 0.826)
PMPS to AMPS (n=88)	0.048	isometry	0.846 (0.042, 1.650)
IPS to ISP (n=87)	0.273	-	0.580 (0.376, 0.784)
IPS to INN (n=87)	0.115	-	0.543 (0.218, 0.867)
IPS to INFT (n=87)	0.099	-	0.505 (0.176, 0.835)
IPS to MP4 (n=72)	0.094	-	0.404 (0.105, 0.702)
IPS to STIP (n=83)	0.060	-	0.328 (0.042, 0.614)
MSSPR to MISPR (n=87)	0.107	isometry	0.894 (0.336, 1.452)
MSIPR to MIIPR (n=87)	0.086	isometry	0.860 (0.256, 1.465)
ISP to LSCI (n=87)	0.114	isometry	1.634 (0.650, 2.618)
ISP to SCI (n=67)	0.132	isometry	0.774 (0.283, 1.266)
INN to INN (n=87)	0.063	-	0.519 (0.086, 0.952)
INN to MP4 (n=72)	0.129	-	0.571 (0.218, 0.923)
POF to AOF (n=88)	0.086	-	0.468 (0.140, 0.796)
ACP to ACA (n=87)	0.201	-	0.533 (0.304, 0.762)
ACS to ACI (n=86)	0.290	-	0.615 (0.406, 0.824)
FHPROX to FHD (n=87)	0.330	-	0.723 (0.500, 0.945)
FHA to FHPOS (n=87)	0.306	-	0.729 (0.492, 0.966)
GTT to GTT (n=86)	0.191	-	0.585 (0.324, 0.847)
NA to NP (n=88)	0.180	-	0.633 (0.343, 0.923)

[†] - : negative allometric relationship; + : positive allometric relationship

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Measurement	R^2	Relationship [†]	Slope (95% CI)
PUBC to AIIS (n=80)	0.051	-	0.064 (0.002, 0.125)
PMPS to AMPS (n=88)	0.050	-	0.199 (0.014, 0.385)
SPS to IPS (n=88)	0.059	-	0.128 (0.018, 0.237)
IPS to MP4 (n=72)	0.072	-	0.079 (0.011, 0.146)
IPS to STIP (n=83)	0.114	-	0.105 (0.040, 0.169)
LSSPR to LISPR (n=87)	0.065	-	0.219 (0.041, 0.398)
MSSPR to MISPR (n=87)	0.075	-	0.173 (0.042, 0.304)
MSIPR to MIIPR (n=87)	0.115	-	0.227 (0.091, 0.362)

ISP to SCI (n=67)	0.066	-	0.125 (0.008, 0.242)
INN to MP4 (n=72)	0.057	-	0.085 (0.003, 0.167)
FHPROX to FHD (n=87)	0.048	-	0.064 (0.003, 0.125)
† - : negative allometric relationship; + : positive allometric relationship			

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Table 8. Scaling relationships with age

Measurement	R^2	Relationship [†]	Slope (95% CI)
SPS to IPS (n=90)	0.180	-	0.120 (0.066, 0.174)
IPS to INFT (n=89)	0.052	-	-0.045 (-0.085, -0.004)
BISPP to BISPA (n=89)	0.065	-	0.145 (0.027, 0.263)
INN to INN (n=89)	0.084	-	-0.075 (-0.127, -0.022)
INFT to INFT (n=89)	0.083	-	-0.068 (-0.116, -0.020)
ACP to ACA (n=89)	0.103	-	0.047 (0.017, 0.076)
ACS to ACI (n=88)	0.052	-	0.032 (0.003, 0.061)
FHPROX to FHD (n=89)	0.044	-	0.033 (0.000, 0.065)
† - : decreasing proportional relationship; + : increasing proportional relationship			

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Figure legends

Figure 1.

Correlation plot of all measurements. Correlations outlined in red are correlations between locomotor measurements, while correlations outlined in blue are correlations between obstetric measurements. Most strong correlations occur within these subsets. The cluster of weak correlations outlined in purple are correlations between obstetric and locomotor measurements. Only statistically significant correlations are shown. This correlation plot was constructed using R version 3.4.2 (R Core Team, 2017) software package *corrplot* version 0.84 (Wei & Simko, 2017).

Figure 2.

(a) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric (1.523 [1.241, 1.546]) and locomotor (1.987 [1.705, 2.060]) measurements in the whole sample, excluding measurements associated with intra-observer error. Locomotor measurements are more highly integrated than obstetric measurements, and the confidence intervals do not overlap.

(b) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric (1.392 [0.784, 1.716]) and locomotor (2.408 [2.109, 2.544]) measurements in the pubis in the whole sample. Locomotor measurements were more highly integrated than obstetric measurements, and the confidence intervals do not overlap. Pubic obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1.

1 Filled circles represent scaled $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$, lines and bars represent 95% confidence intervals
 2 calculated using a bootstrap method, and unfilled circles represent expected values of scaled
 3 $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ if measurements were unintegrated, which equals one.

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 5 Figure 3.

6 (a) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in
 7 shorter (obstetric: 1.085 [0.721, 1.100] locomotor: 1.223 [0.871, 1.246]) and taller (obstetric:
 8 1.182 [0.890, 1.157] locomotor: 1.374 [1.076, 1.408]) women, excluding measurements
 9 associated with intra-observer error. Obstetric and locomotor confidence intervals overlap within
 10 and between both groups. Obstetric and locomotor confidence intervals fall below 1 in shorter
 11 women, and obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1 in taller women.

12 (b) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in
 13 the pubis in shorter (obstetric: 0.982 [0.303, 1.208] locomotor: 1.602 [1.231, 1.683]) and taller
 14 (obstetric: 0.976 [0.417, 1.194] locomotor: 1.684 [1.349, 1.828]) women. Locomotor integration
 15 is higher than obstetric integration in both groups, with no confidence interval overlap. There is
 16 no significant difference between groups. Obstetric integration falls below 1 in both groups, but
 17 confidence intervals include 1.

18 Filled circles represent scaled $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$, lines and bars represent 95% confidence intervals
 19 calculated using a bootstrap method, and unfilled circles represent expected values of scaled
 20 $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ if measurements were unintegrated, which equals one.

21
 22 Figure 4.

23 Scatterplots of allometric relationships with height. In (a), as height increases, IPS to ISP
 24 increases as well. The proportional relationship between IPS to ISP and height decreases, such
 25 that IPS to ISP is relatively larger at shorter heights. In (b), as height increases, ISP to SCI
 26 increases, and ISP to SCI increases in constant proportion with height. In (c), the scaling is the
 27 same as in (a). Allometry scatter plots were constructed using an R function published by (Raviv,
 28 2015).

29 (a) The negative allometric relationship between IPS to ISP and height ($R^2 = 0.273$, slope =
 30 0.580 [0.376, 0.784]).

31 (b) The isometric relationship between ISP to SCI and height ($R^2 = 0.132$, slope = 0.774 [0.283,
 32 1.266]).

33 (c) The negative allometric relationship between FHA to FHPOS and height $R^2 = 0.306$, slope =
 34 0.729 [0.492, 0.966]).

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 36 Figure 5.

37 (a) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in
 38 lower weight (obstetric: 1.086 [0.768, 1.060] locomotor: 1.379 [1.058, 1.429]) and higher weight
 39 (obstetric: 1.215 [0.902, 1.232] locomotor: 1.445 [1.090, 1.517]) women, excluding
 40 measurements associated with intra-observer error. Locomotor confidence intervals just overlap
 41 with obstetric confidence intervals in lower weight women and overlap in higher weight women.
 42 There is no significant difference between the groups. Obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1
 43 in both groups.

44 (b) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in
 45 the pubis in lower weight (obstetric: 0.857 [0.214, 1.098] locomotor: 1.643 [1.246, 1.804]) and
 46 higher weight (obstetric: 1.048 [0.517, 1.234] locomotor: 1.801 [1.393, 2.000]). Locomotor

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3 1 measurements are more integrated than obstetric measurements in both groups, with no overlap
4 2 in confidence intervals. There is no significant difference between the groups. Obstetric
5 3 integration falls below 1 in lower weight women. Obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1 in
6 4 both groups, but their confidence intervals include 1.
7 5 Filled circles represent scaled $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$, lines and bars represent 95% confidence intervals
8 6 calculated using a bootstrap method, and unfilled circles represent expected values of scaled
9 7 $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ if measurements were unintegrated, which equals one.
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12 9 Figure 6.

13 10 Scatterplots of allometric relationships with weight. In (a), as weight increases, IPS to STIP
14 11 increases as well. The proportional relationship between IPS to STIP and weight decreases, such
15 12 that IPS to STIP is relatively larger at lower weights. In (b) and (c), the scaling is the same as in
16 13 (a). Allometry scatter plots were constructed using an R function published by (Raviv, 2015).
17 14 (a) The negative allometric relationship between IPS to STIP and weight ($R^2 = 0.114$, slope =
18 15 $0.105 [0.040, 0.169]$)
19 16 (b) The negative allometric relationship between MSSPR to MISPR and weight ($R^2 = 0.075$,
20 17 slope = $0.173 [0.042, 0.304]$)
21 18 (c) The negative allometric relationship between LSSPR to LISPR and weight ($R^2 = 0.065$, slope
22 19 = $0.219 [0.041, 0.398]$)
23 20
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25 20
26 21 Figure 7.

27 22 (a) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in
28 23 younger (obstetric: $1.152 [0.837, 1.141]$ locomotor: $1.437 [1.080, 1.502]$) and older (obstetric:
29 24 $1.160 [0.848, 1.156]$ locomotor: $1.509 [1.208, 1.569]$) women excluding measurements
30 25 associated with intra-observer error. Obstetric and locomotor integration overlap in younger
31 26 women but not older women. There was no difference between groups. Obstetric confidence
32 27 intervals fall below 1 in both groups.
33 28 (b) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in
34 29 the pubis in younger (obstetric: $1.108 [0.531, 1.352]$ locomotor: $1.658 [1.289, 1.758]$) and older
35 30 (obstetric: $0.930 [0.268, 1.155]$ locomotor: $1.761 [1.390, 1.953]$) women. Obstetric and
36 31 locomotor integration overlap in younger but not older women. There was no difference between
37 32 the groups. Obstetric integration falls below 1 in older women, and obstetric confidence intervals
38 33 fall below 1 and include 1 in both groups.
39 34 Filled circles represent scaled $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$, lines and bars represent 95% confidence intervals
40 35 calculated using a bootstrap method, and unfilled circles represent expected values of scaled
41 36 $SD_{rel}(\lambda)$ if measurements were unintegrated, which equals one.
42 37
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44 37
45 38 Figure 8.

46 39 Scatterplots of scaling relationships with age. In (a), as age increases, SPS to IPS increases as
47 40 well. The proportional relationship between SPS to IPS and age decreases, such that SPS to IPS
48 41 is relatively larger at lower ages. In (b), the correlation is negative. The proportional
49 42 relationship between INN to INN and age decreases, such that INN to INN is relatively larger at
50 43 lower ages. Allometry scatter plots were constructed using an R function published by (Raviv,
51 44 2015).
52 45 (a) The negative scaling relationship between SPS to IPS and age ($R^2 = 0.180$, slope = 0.120
53 46 $[0.066, 0.174]$)
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3 1 (b) The negative scaling relationship between INN to INN and age ($R^2 = 0.084$, slope = -0.075 [-
4 2 0.127, -0.022])
5 3

6 4 Figure 9.

7 5 Allometric relationships with height. Dashed lines represent negative allometry. Solid lines
8 6 represent isometry. Lines and landmarks in blue represent obstetric measurements, while those in
9 7 red represent locomotor measurements. Note that not all allometric relationships with height are
10 8 represented in this figure.

11 9 (a) Anterior view

12 10 (b) Posterior view
13 11

14 12 Figure 10.

15 13 Allometric relationships with weight. Dashed lines represent negative allometry. Lines and
16 14 landmarks in blue represent obstetric measurements, while those in red represent locomotor
17 15 measurements. Note that not all allometric relationships with weight are represented in this
18 16 figure.

19 17 (a) Anterior view

20 18 (b) Posterior view
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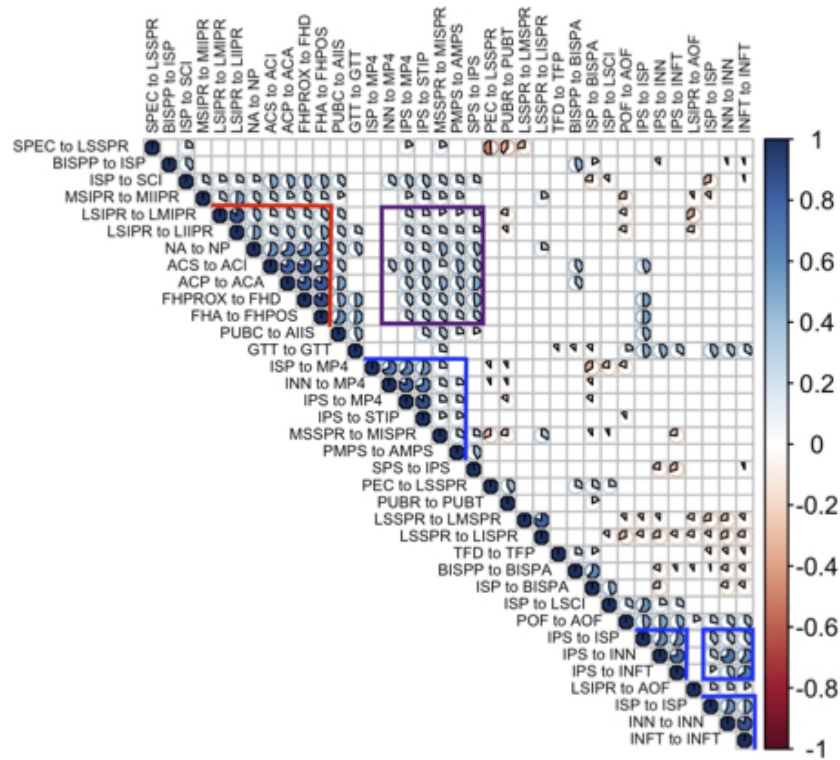


Figure 1.

Correlation plot of all measurements. Correlations outlined in red are correlations between locomotor measurements, while correlations outlined in blue are correlations between obstetric measurements. Most strong correlations occur within these subsets. The cluster of weak correlations outlined in purple are correlations between obstetric and locomotor measurements. Only statistically significant correlations are shown. This correlation plot was constructed using R version 3.4.2 (R Core Team, 2017) software package *corrplot* version 0.84 (Wei & Simko, 2017).

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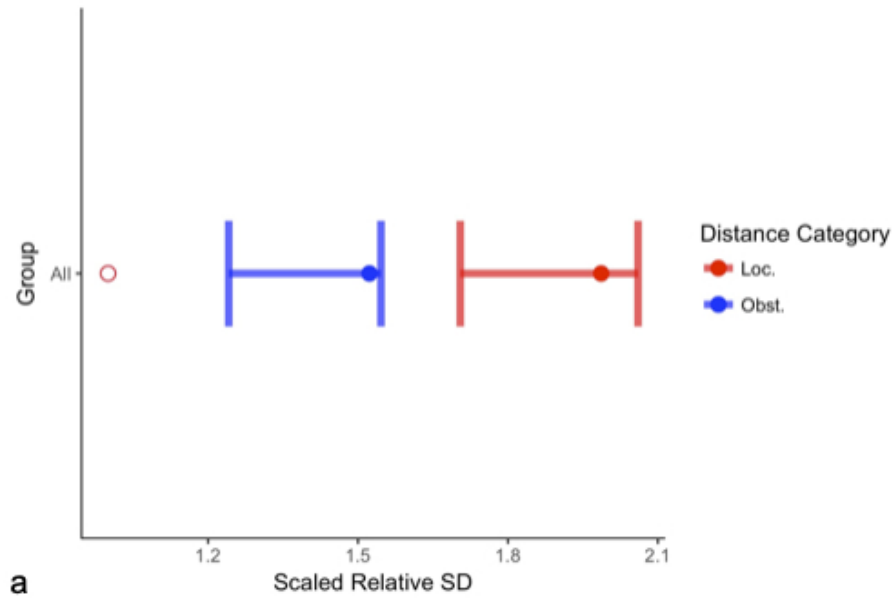
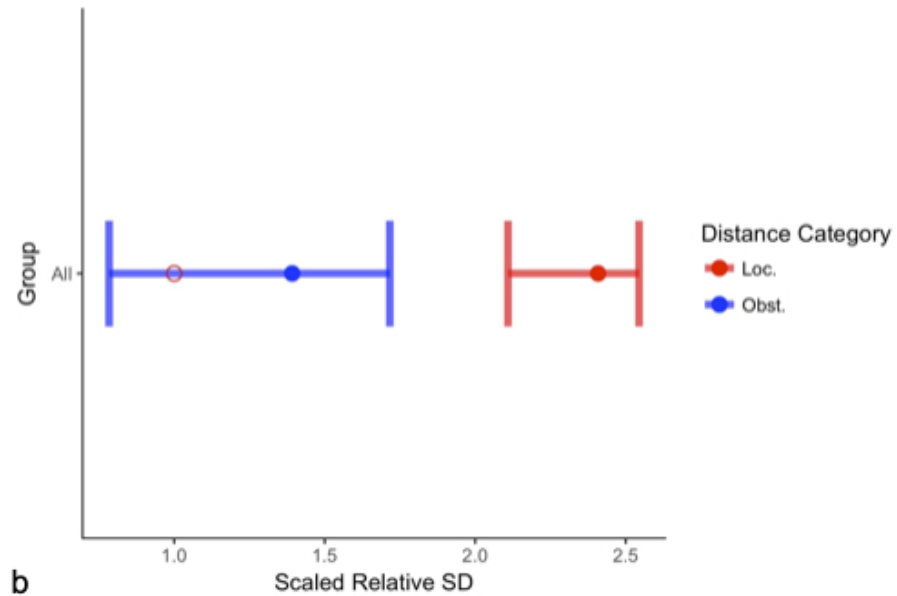


Figure 2.

(a) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric (1.523 [1.241, 1.546]) and locomotor (1.987 [1.705, 2.060]) measurements in the whole sample, excluding measurements associated with intra-observer error. Locomotor measurements are more highly integrated than obstetric measurements, and the confidence intervals do not overlap.

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31 Figure 2. (b) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric (1.392 [0.784, 1.716]) and
 32 locomotor (2.408 [2.109, 2.544]) measurements in the pubis in the whole sample. Locomotor
 33 measurements were more highly integrated than obstetric measurements, and the confidence intervals do
 34 not overlap. Pubic obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1. Filled circles represent scaled $SD_{rel}(\diamond\diamond)$, lines
 35 and bars represent 95% confidence intervals calculated using a bootstrap method, and unfilled circles
 36 represent expected values of scaled $SD_{rel}(\diamond\diamond)$ if measurements were unintegrated, which equals one.
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38 279x215mm (50 x 50 DPI)

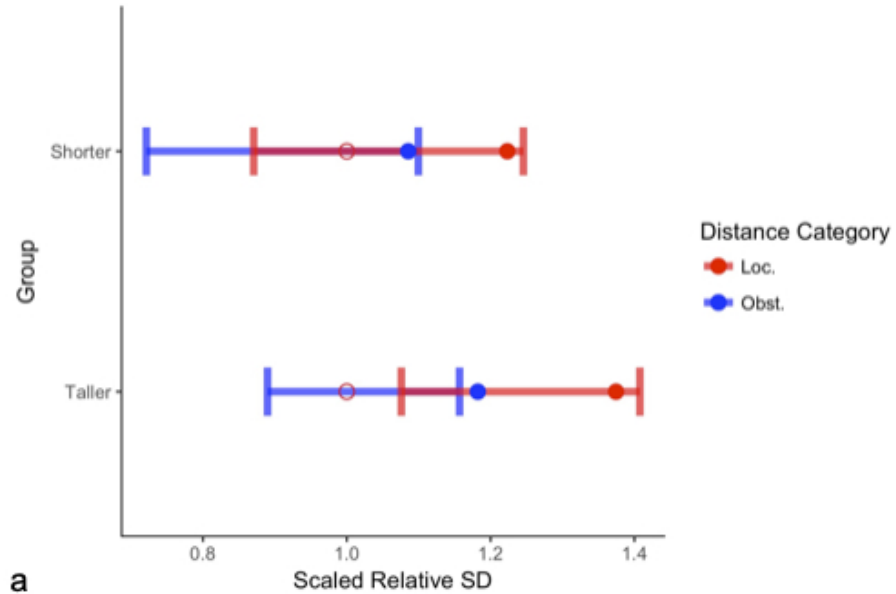


Figure 3.

(a) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in shorter (obstetric: 1.085 [0.721, 1.100] locomotor: 1.223 [0.871, 1.246]) and taller (obstetric: 1.182 [0.890, 1.157] locomotor: 1.374 [1.076, 1.408]) women, excluding measurements associated with intra-observer error. Obstetric and locomotor confidence intervals overlap within and between both groups. Obstetric and locomotor confidence intervals fall below 1 in shorter women, and obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1 in taller women.

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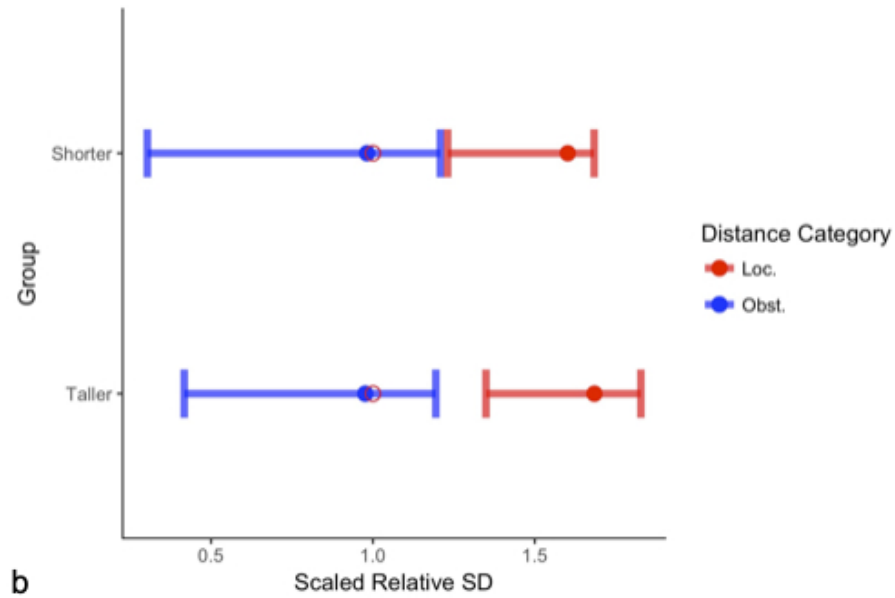
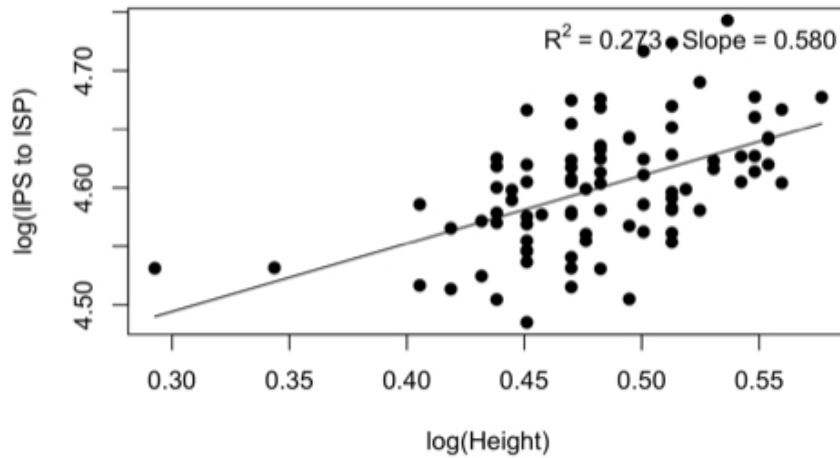


Figure 3.(b) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in the pubis in shorter (obstetric: 0.982 [0.303, 1.208] locomotor: 1.602 [1.231, 1.683]) and taller (obstetric: 0.976 [0.417, 1.194] locomotor: 1.684 [1.349, 1.828]) women. Locomotor integration is higher than obstetric integration in both groups, with no confidence interval overlap. There is no significant difference between groups. Obstetric integration falls below 1 in both groups, but confidence intervals include 1. Filled circles represent scaled SD_{rel} (◆◆), lines and bars represent 95% confidence intervals calculated using a bootstrap method, and unfilled circles represent expected values of scaled SD_{rel} (◆◆) if measurements were unintegrated, which equals one.

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Figure 4. Scatterplots of allometric relationships with height. In (a), as height increases, IPS to ISP increases as well. The proportional relationship between IPS to ISP and height decreases, such that IPS to ISP is relatively larger at shorter heights. In (b), as height increases, ISP to SCI increases, and ISP to SCI increases in constant proportion with height. In (c), the scaling is the same as in (a). (a) The negative allometric relationship between IPS to ISP and height ($R^2 = 0.273$, slope = 0.580 [0.376, 0.784]).

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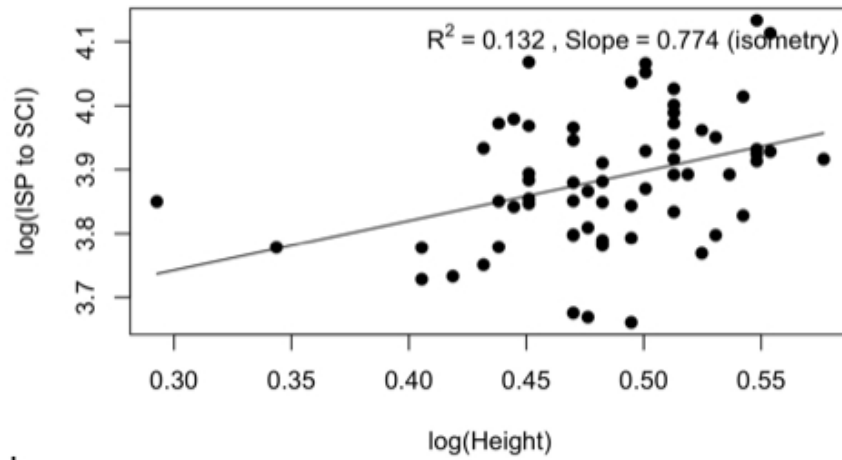


Figure 4. (b) The isometric relationship between ISP to SCI and height ($R^2 = 0.132$, slope = 0.774 [0.283, 1.266]).

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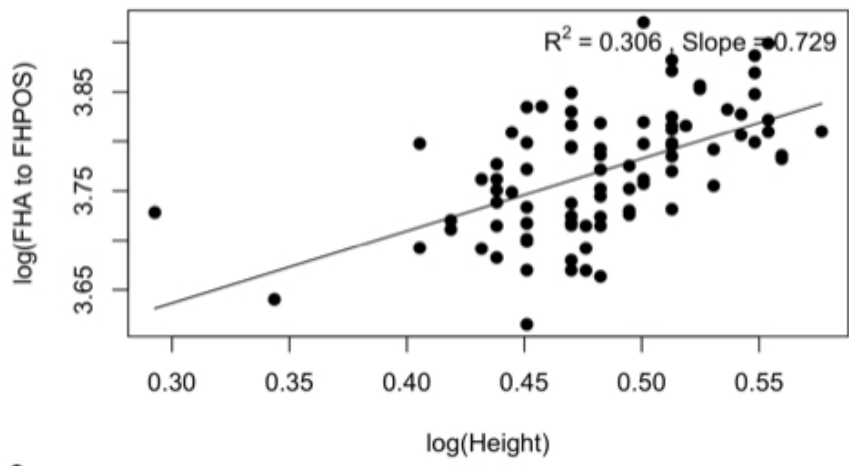


Figure 4. (c) The negative allometric relationship between FHA to FHPOS and height $R^2 = 0.306$, slope = 0.729 [0.492, 0.966]).

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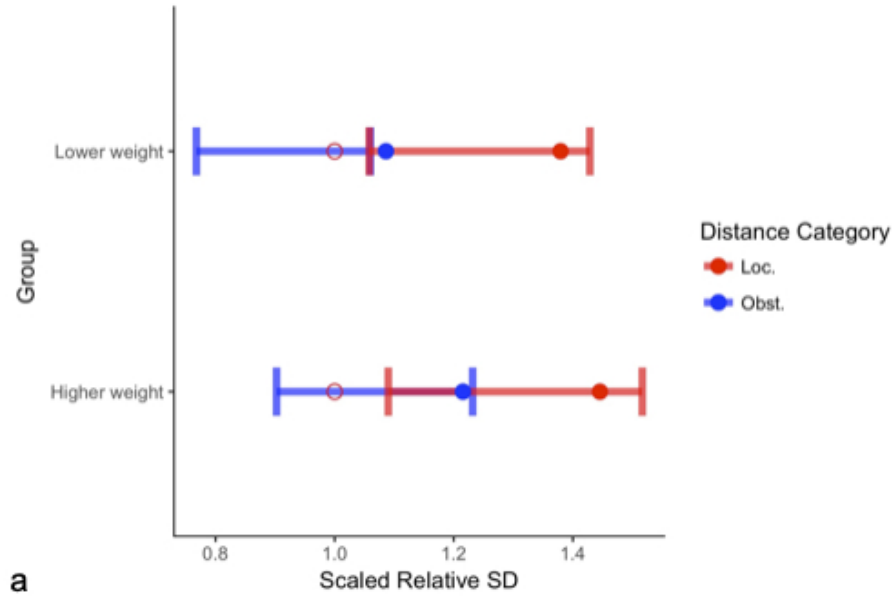
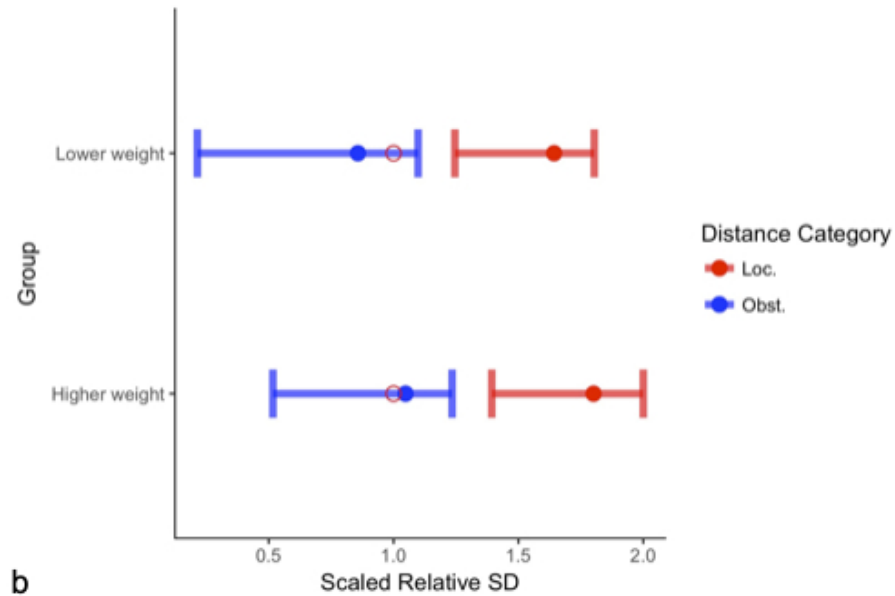


Figure 5.

(a) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in lower weight (obstetric: 1.086 [0.768, 1.060] locomotor: 1.379 [1.058, 1.429]) and higher weight (obstetric: 1.215 [0.902, 1.232] locomotor: 1.445 [1.090, 1.517]) women, excluding measurements associated with intra-observer error. Locomotor confidence intervals just overlap with obstetric confidence intervals in lower weight women and overlap in higher weight women. There is no significant difference between the groups. Obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1 in both groups.

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(b) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in the pubis in lower weight (obstetric: 0.857 [0.214, 1.098] locomotor: 1.643 [1.246, 1.804]) and higher weight (obstetric: 1.048 [0.517, 1.234] locomotor: 1.801 [1.393, 2.000]). Locomotor measurements are more integrated than obstetric measurements in both groups, with no overlap in confidence intervals. There is no significant difference between the groups. Obstetric integration falls below 1 in lower weight women. Obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1 in both groups, but their confidence intervals include 1. Filled circles represent scaled SD_{rel} (◆◆), lines and bars represent 95% confidence intervals calculated using a bootstrap method, and unfilled circles represent expected values of scaled SD_{rel} (◆◆) if measurements were unintegrated, which equals one.

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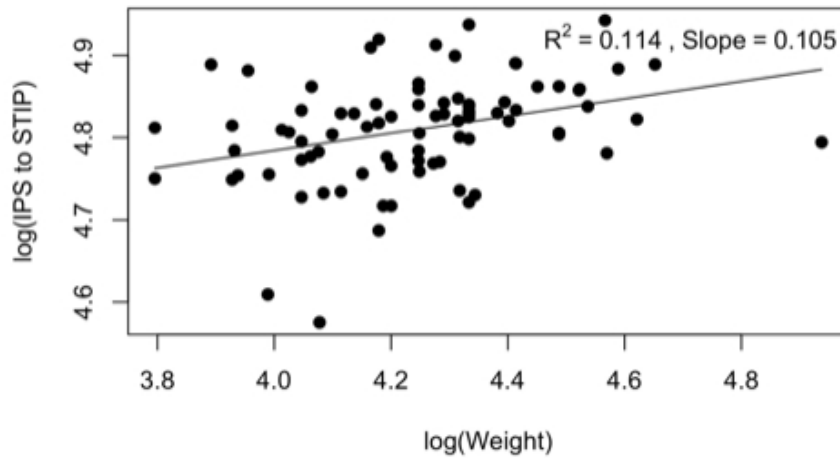
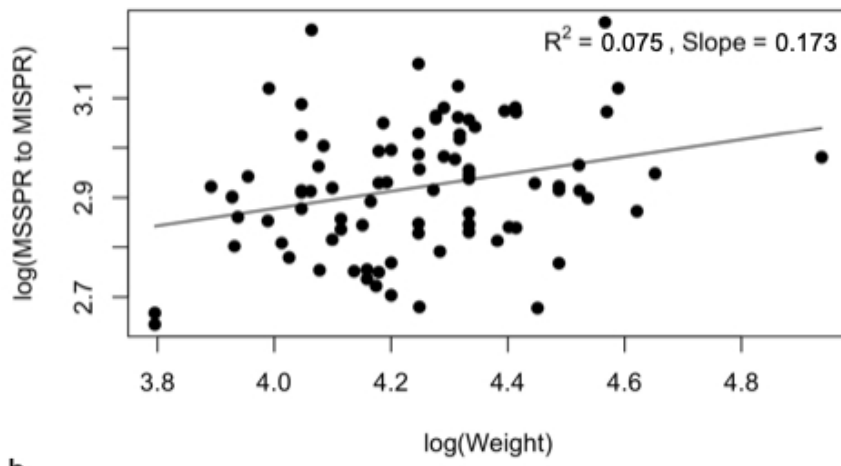
**a**

Figure 6. Scatterplots of allometric relationships with weight. In (a), as weight increases, IPS to STIP increases as well. The proportional relationship between IPS to STIP and weight decreases, such that IPS to STIP is relatively larger at lower weights. In (b) and (c), the scaling is the same as in (a). (a) The negative allometric relationship between IPS to STIP and weight ($R^2 = 0.114$, slope = 0.105 [0.040, 0.169])

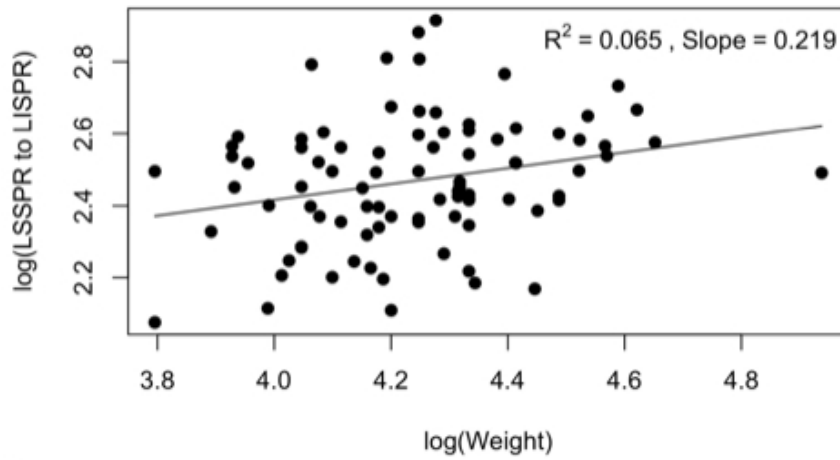
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Figure 6. (b) The negative allometric relationship between MSSPR to MISPR and weight ($R^2 = 0.075$, slope = 0.173 [0.042, 0.304])

279x215mm (50 x 50 DPI)



c

Figure 6. (c) The negative allometric relationship between LSSPR to LISPR and weight ($R^2 = 0.065$, slope = 0.219 [0.041, 0.398])

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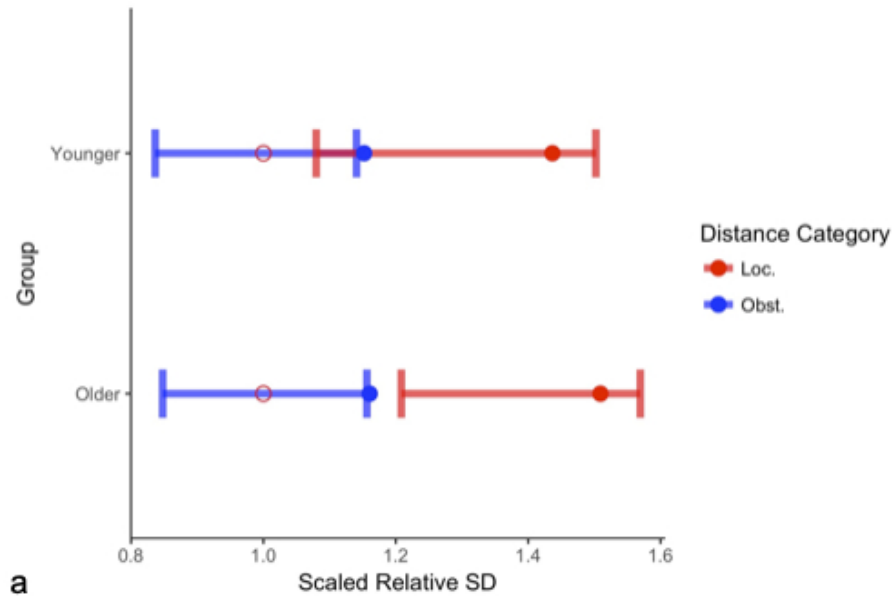


Figure 7.

(a) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in younger (obstetric: 1.152 [0.837, 1.141] locomotor: 1.437 [1.080, 1.502]) and older (obstetric: 1.160 [0.848, 1.156] locomotor: 1.509 [1.208, 1.569]) women excluding measurements associated with intra-observer error. Obstetric and locomotor integration overlap in younger women but not older women. There was no difference between groups. Obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1 in both groups.

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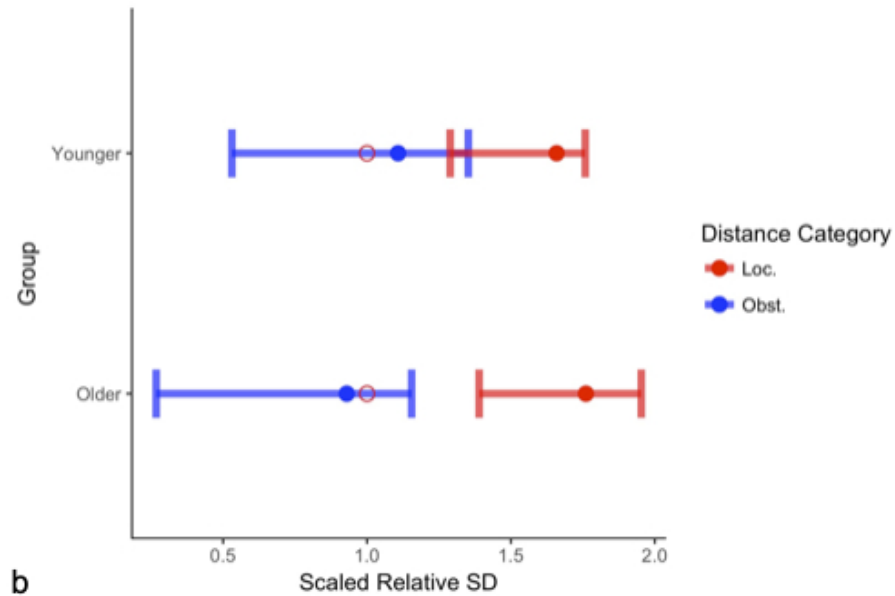
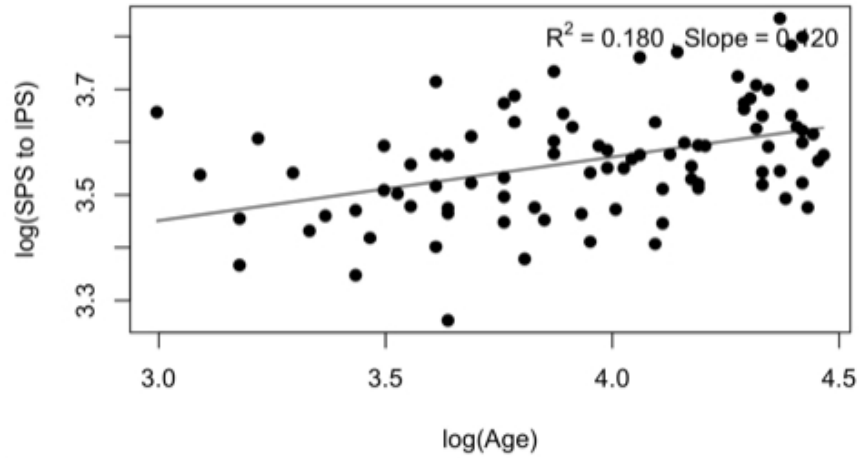


Figure 7. (b) Plot showing the scaled magnitude of integration in obstetric and locomotor measurements in the pubis in younger (obstetric: 1.108 [0.531, 1.352] locomotor: 1.658 [1.289, 1.758]) and older (obstetric: 0.930 [0.268, 1.155] locomotor: 1.761 [1.390, 1.953]) women. Obstetric and locomotor integration overlap in younger but not older women. There was no difference between the groups. Obstetric integration falls below 1 in older women, and obstetric confidence intervals fall below 1 and include 1 in both groups. Filled circles represent scaled SD_{rel} , lines and bars represent 95% confidence intervals calculated using a bootstrap method, and unfilled circles represent expected values of scaled SD_{rel} if measurements were unintegrated, which equals one.

279x215mm (50 x 50 DPI)



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Figure 8. Scatterplots of scaling relationships with age. In (a), as age increases, SPS to IPS increases as well. The proportional relationship between SPS to IPS and age decreases, such that SPS to IPS is relatively larger at lower ages. In (b), the correlation is negative. The proportional relationship between INN to INN and age decreases, such that INN to INN is relatively larger at lower ages. (a) The negative scaling relationship between SPS to IPS and age ($R^2 = 0.180$, slope = 0.120 [0.066, 0.174])

279x215mm (50 x 50 DPI)

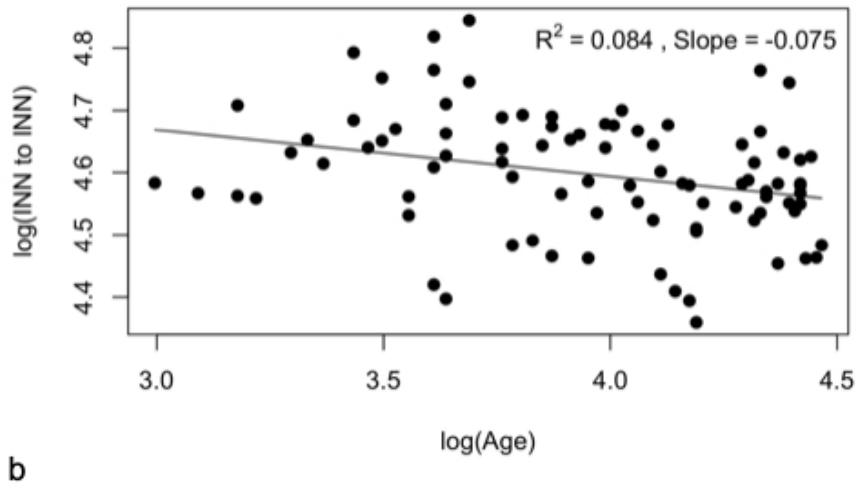
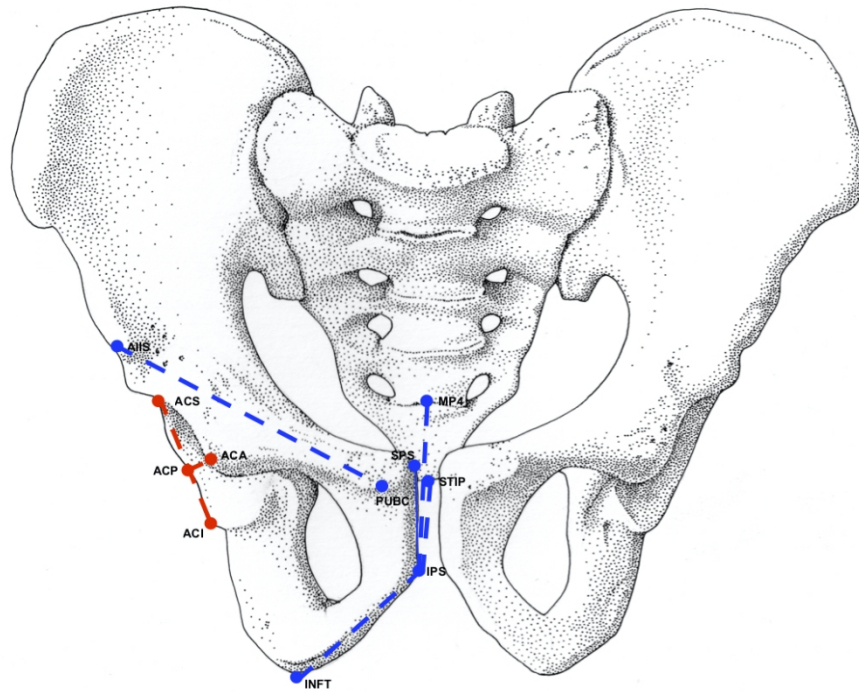


Figure 8. (b) The negative scaling relationship between INN to INN and age ($R^2 = 0.084$, slope = -0.075 [$-0.127, -0.022$])

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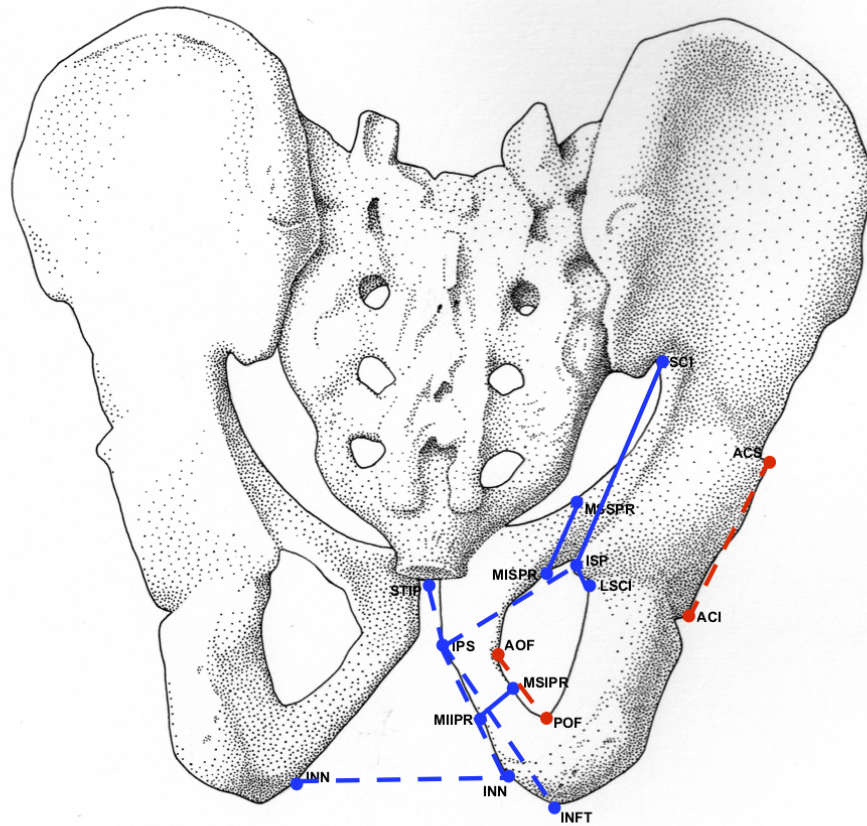
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Figure 9.

Allometric relationships with height. Dashed lines represent negative allometry. Solid lines represent isometry. Lines and landmarks in blue represent obstetric measurements, while those in red represent locomotor measurements. Note that not all allometric relationships with height are represented in this figure.

(a) Anterior view

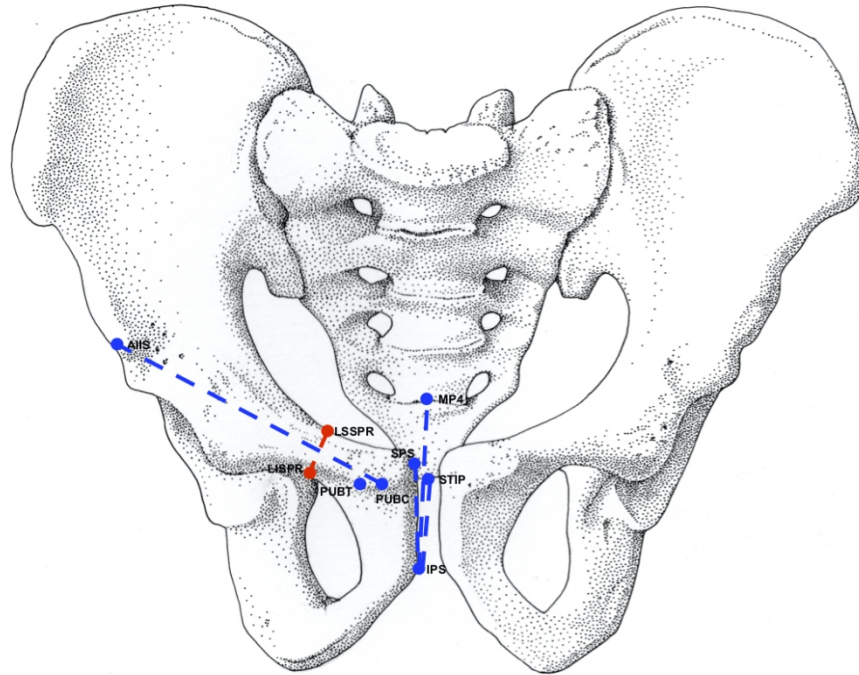
200x154mm (150 x 150 DPI)



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Figure 9.
(b) Posterior view

168x161mm (150 x 150 DPI)



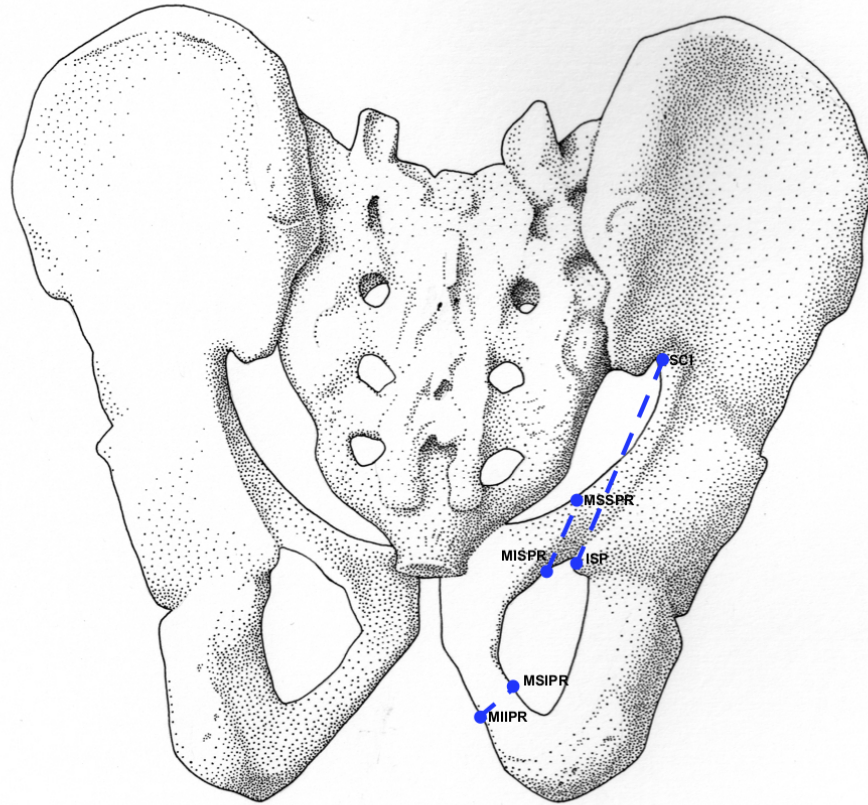
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Figure 10.

Allometric relationships with weight. Dashed lines represent negative allometry. Lines and landmarks in blue represent obstetric measurements, while those in red represent locomotor measurements. Note that not all allometric relationships with weight are represented in this figure.

(a) Anterior view

200x154mm (150 x 150 DPI)



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Figure 10.
(b) Posterior view

168x161mm (150 x 150 DPI)