

Immunohistochemical identification of prevalent right ventricular ischemia causing right heart failure in cases of pulmonary fat embolism

Tony Fracasso · Bernd Karger · Heidi Pfeiffer ·
Cristina Sauerland · Andreas Schmeling

Received: 30 July 2009 / Accepted: 30 September 2009 / Published online: 6 November 2009
© Springer-Verlag 2009

Abstract Pulmonary fat embolism is a life-threatening event that may result to potentially determining right ventricular failure. Even if the pathophysiology of this phenomenon has been widely investigated, no immunohistochemical demonstration of right ventricular failure following pulmonary fat embolism has been reported till now. We performed an immunohistochemical investigation with the markers fibronectin and C5b-9 in 21 cases of polytrauma with bone fractures (study group—nine females and 12 males; mean age 64.6 years) compared to a control group of 21 forensic cases with various causes of death (nine females and 12 males; mean age 68.6 years). In each case at least one tissue slide from both cardiac ventricles (free wall of the right ventricle, anterior and/or posterior wall of the left ventricle) was available. The reactions were semi-quantitatively classified, and the two groups were compared. In the study group, the occurrence of ischemic changes at the right

ventricle was significantly higher than in controls. The determining aspect, however, seems to be the prevalent ischemic lesion at the right ventricle compared to the left one. This may indicate the primary involvement of the right ventricle, thus, demonstrating a right ventricular failure.

Keywords Ischemic damage · Pulmonary fat embolism · Right ventricular failure · Acute cor pulmonale · Immunohistochemistry

Introduction

Fat embolism (FE) is a known and common complication of blunt force injuries, which occurs in at least 90% of major traumas, especially if fractures of long bones are present [1, 2]. In the majority of the cases FE occurs without clinical manifestations [3].

In case of symptomatic FE, clinicians distinguish two different forms: the fulminant FE syndrome and FE syndrome [4–6]. The clinical course is strongly dependent on the quantity and rapidity of fat droplets occupying the pulmonary vessels. In the first case, the sudden massive obstruction of the pulmonary circle determines a rapid and often lethal increase in the impedance to right ventricular ejection [7–9]. At echocardiography, pulmonary and right heart dilatations are detected [8]. Death usually occurs in the first 12 h because of acute right ventricular failure [4, 6, 10]. At autopsy, the right side of the heart is dilated with thinning of the wall of the ventricle; the lungs are moist and anaemic [4]. The FE syndrome is, instead, a more complex clinical entity, which usual occurs after a free interval of

This work is dedicated to Prof. Dr. Drs. h. c. Stefan Pollak on the occasion of his 60th birthday.

T. Fracasso · B. Karger · H. Pfeiffer · A. Schmeling
Institute of Legal Medicine, University Hospital Münster,
Münster, Germany

C. Sauerland
Institute of Medical Informatics and Biomathematics,
University Hospital Münster,
Münster, Germany

T. Fracasso (✉)
Institut für Rechtsmedizin, Universitätsklinikum Münster,
Roentgenstr. 23,
48149 Münster, Germany
e-mail: Tony.Fracasso@ukmuenster.de

Table 1 Study group

ID	Sex (female/ male)	Age	Cause of death	Main pathological findings	FE	RV Fib	RV C5b-9	LV fib	LV C5b-9	Δ fib	Δ C5b- 9
1	f	86	Fat embolism	Multiple fractures, fresh bleedings	3	3	1	1	0	2	1
2	f	12	Polytrauma	Multiple fractures	3	2	0	1	0	1	0
3	f	86	Fat embolism	Multiple fractures, arteriosclerosis	3	2	1	0	0	2	1
4	f	84	Fat embolism	Pelvis fracture, arteriosclerosis	3	0	0	1	0	-1	0
5	m	72	Fat embolism	Leg fracture, chronic hepatic congestion	3	3	0	0	0	3	0
6	m	58	Polytrauma	Multiple fractures, arteriosclerosis	3	3	0	0	0	3	0
7	f	48	Polytrauma	Multiple fractures	2	2	0	1	0	1	0
8	m	44	Polytrauma	Multiple fractures, fatty liver	2	1	0	2	0	-1	0
9	m	23	Polytrauma	Multiple fractures	2	3	2	3	1	0	1
10	m	75	Cardiac death	Multiple fractures, fresh bleedings	2	3	0	1	0	2	0
11	m	79	Polytrauma	Multiple fractures, arteriosclerosis	2	2	0	0	0	2	0
12	f	66	Fat embolism, acute haemorrhage	Multiple fractures, erosive esophagitis	2	1	0	0	0	1	0
13	m	54	Polytrauma	Multiple fractures, portal fibrosis	2	1	0	0	0	1	0
14	m	75	Polytrauma	Multiple fractures, chronic hepatic congestion	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	m	74	Shock	Multiple fractures, shock lungs	2	2	0	2	0	0	0
16	f	90	Fat embolism	Multiple fractures, arteriosclerosis	2	2	2	0	0	2	2
17	f	84	Fat embolism	Multiple fractures, cardiac hypertrophy	2	1	0	1	2	0	-2
18	m	18	Polytrauma	Multiple fractures, blood aspiration	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
19	f	81	Fat embolism	Multiple fractures, chronic hepatic congestion	1	1	0	2	0	-1	0
20	m	91	Shock	Multiple fractures, arteriosclerosis	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
21	m	56	Myocarditis	Humerus fracture, hepatic cirrhosis	1	0	0	1	0	-1	0

24–72 h [4–6, 10] and involves the respiratory tract and the nervous system with the classical triad of cerebral symptoms, respiratory distress, and petechiae of the skin and mucosae [11, 12]. In lethal cases, the FE is responsible for multiple organ failure. At external examination, petechial bleedings are usually observed at the anterior axillary fold, the root of the neck, the mucosa of the mouth, and the conjunctiva [3]. At autopsy, cerebral purpura is a characteristic [13]; the lungs are edematous; and the visceral pleura has a speckled appearance with bloody foamy fluid in the bronchi [4, 14].

If the clinical and pathophysiological aspects of the FE have been widely described and debated, its pathology has still not been completely elucidated. Many authors have intensively investigated the morphology and extension of the FE in different organs with special interest in the lungs, brain, heart, and kidney [i.e., 15, 16].

From a medico-legal point of view, the most important investigated matter is the effective lethality of FE [17–21], and the question is still debated [22]. The most accepted cause of death in cases of pulmonary FE is an acute cor pulmonale with subsequent right ventricular failure [23, 24]. In cases of massive fat embolism, the fat droplets occupy the pulmonary circle rapidly, which determines increasing pulmonary pressure directly by obstruction [7,

25] and indirectly due to reactive vasoconstriction following hypoxemia [26, 27]. A transitory increase of the pulmonary pressure is well tolerated by the heart that reacts with a double inotropic compensative mechanism: from one side an acute dilatation of the right ventricle occurs (Anrep's effect) [28, 29], while from the other side, a better perfusion of the myocytes is determined by increased coronary flow [7]. However, if the pulmonary hypertension persists, the compensative mechanisms will fail contributing to ischemia [30, 31]. In fact, at normal intra-ventricular pressures, the right coronary artery flow is continuous (occurs equally during systole and diastole), which is different from the left ventricle where the coronary perfusion only occurs during diastole [32]. When the right ventricular pressure is severely increased, the right coronary artery flow mainly occurs also in diastole: the combination of increased demand and decreasing blood flow determines ischemic damage [31], primarily occurring at the sub-endocardial regions [32, 33]. Ischemic changes at the right ventricle in cases of fat embolism were demonstrated in animal experiments [34–37]. Moreover, Friedberg [38] described leukocyte infiltration and late necrotic changes at the right ventricle in four of eight cases of post-traumatic FE in the man.

Table 2 Control group

ID	Sex (female/ male)	Age	Cause of death	Main pathological findings	FE	RV Fib	RV C5b-9	LV fib	LV C5b-9	Δ fib	Δ C5b- 9
1	m	78	Sudden cardiac death	Severe coronarosclerosis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	f	55	Hyperglycemic coma	Moderate arteriosclerosis	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
3	m	53	Asphyxia, inhalation injury	Minor burns, airway obstruction	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
4	m	68	Bleeding	Carotid bleeding, arteriosclerosis	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
5	f	81	Bleeding	Suicidal incised wrist wounds, chronic hepatic congestion	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
6	f	56	Bleeding	Hepatic cirrhosis, ruptured esophageal varices	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
7	f	82	Ileus	Intestinal obstruction, arteriosclerosis	0	2	0	2	0	-1	0
8	m	75	Myocardial infarction	Cardiac hypertrophy, fresh infarction	0	2	2	2	1	0	1
9	f	88	Rec. myocardial infarction	Old ischemic myocardial scars, fresh infarction	0	2	0	2	0	-1	-1
10	m	60	Rec. myocardial infarction	Old ischemic myocardial scars, fresh infarction	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
11	m	41	Rec. myocardial infarction	Old ischemic myocardial scars, fresh infarction	0	3	0	3	2	0	-2
12	f	68	Hemolysis and shock after hemotransfusion	Breast cancer, signs of shock	0	1	0	2	2	-1	-2
13	m	61	Esophageal carcinoma	Metastatic carcinoma	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
14	m	62	Rec. myocardial infarction	Old ischemic myocardial scars, fresh infarction	0	2	0	3	3	-1	-3
15	m	48	Terminal hepatic cirrhosis	Hepatic cirrhosis	0	1	0	2	1	-1	-1
16	f	80	Myocardial infarction	Coronarosclerosis, fresh infarction	0	2	1	3	1	-1	0
17	m	86	Myocardial infarction	Coronarosclerosis, fresh infarction	0	1	2	2	2	-1	0
18	m	87	Myocardial infarction	Coronarosclerosis, fresh infarction	0	2	2	2	2	0	0
19	f	87	Heart infarction, hypothermia	Coronarosclerosis, fresh infarction	0	2	0	0	2	2	-2
20	f	59	Sudden cardiac death	Coronarosclerosis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
21	m	66	Rec. myocardial infarction	Old ischemic myocardial scars, fresh infarction	0	2	0	2	0	0	0

The scope of the present investigation was to evaluate whether the occurrence of right ventricular failure is morphologically detectable at immunohistochemistry in cases of FE compared to controls.

Materials and methods

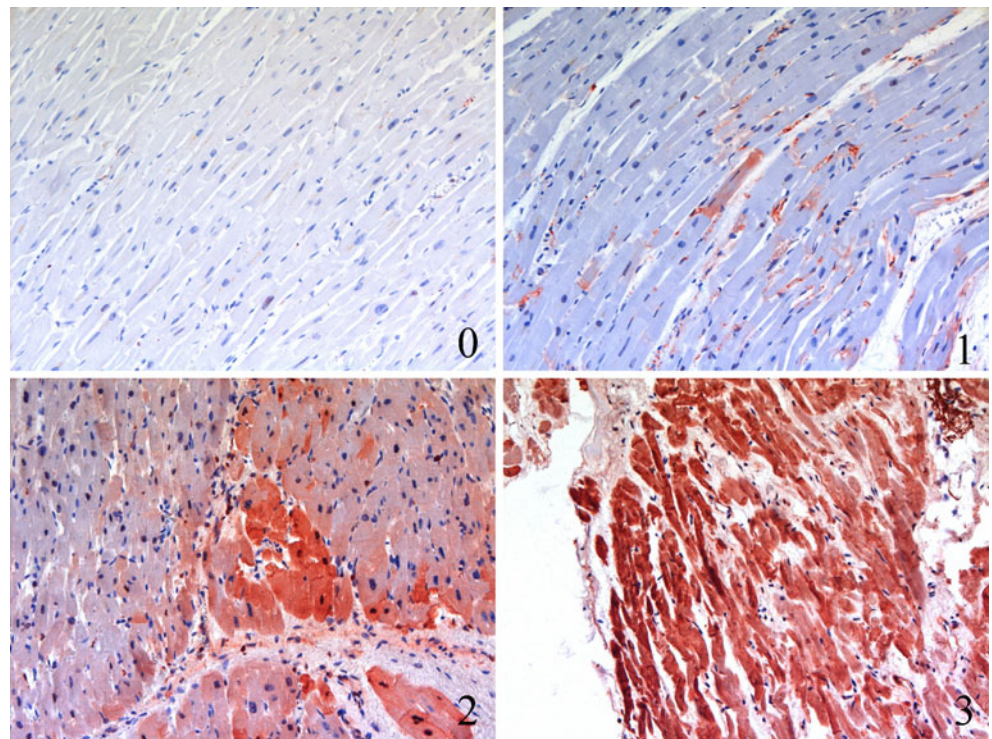
We compared 21 cases of polytrauma with bone fractures (study group—nine females and 12 males; mean age 64.6 years) to a control group of 21 forensic cases with various causes of death (nine females and 12 males; mean age 68.6 years). All the cases were collected at the Institute of Legal Medicine of the University Hospital in Münster, Germany. In every case, information about circumstances of death as well as autopsy record was available. An overview of the investigated cases is given in Tables 1 and 2. Histological investigation of the heart, lung, liver, brain, kidney, pancreas, and spleen with haematoxylin and eosin was performed according to standard medico-legal investigation [39]. In each case, immunohistochem-

ical reactions with the antibodies fibronectin (polyclonal rabbit anti-human, DAKO Deutschland GmbH, Hamburg, Germany) and C5b-9 (monoclonal mouse anti-human, DAKO Deutschland GmbH, Hamburg, Germany) of at least one tissue slide from both cardiac ventricles (free wall of the right ventricle, RV; anterior and/or posterior wall of the left ventricle, LV) were prepared as described elsewhere [40, 41]; in every staining procedure, negative controls were used to exclude artefacts. A blind investigation of the slides was performed by two different observers with final consensual evaluation. The positive reactions were semi-quantitatively classified as follows (Figs. 1 and 2):

- Grade 0. Negative;
- Grade 1. Single cells necrosis;
- Grade 2. Group cells necrosis; and
- Grade 3. Diffuse necrosis.

For the evaluation of the pulmonary FE at least two frozen sections of the lungs stained with Sudan III were available for

Fig. 1 Different grades of necrosis with the antibody fibronectin ($\times 200$). 0 no necrosis, 1 single cells necrosis, 2 group cell necrosis and, and three different: diffuse necrosis

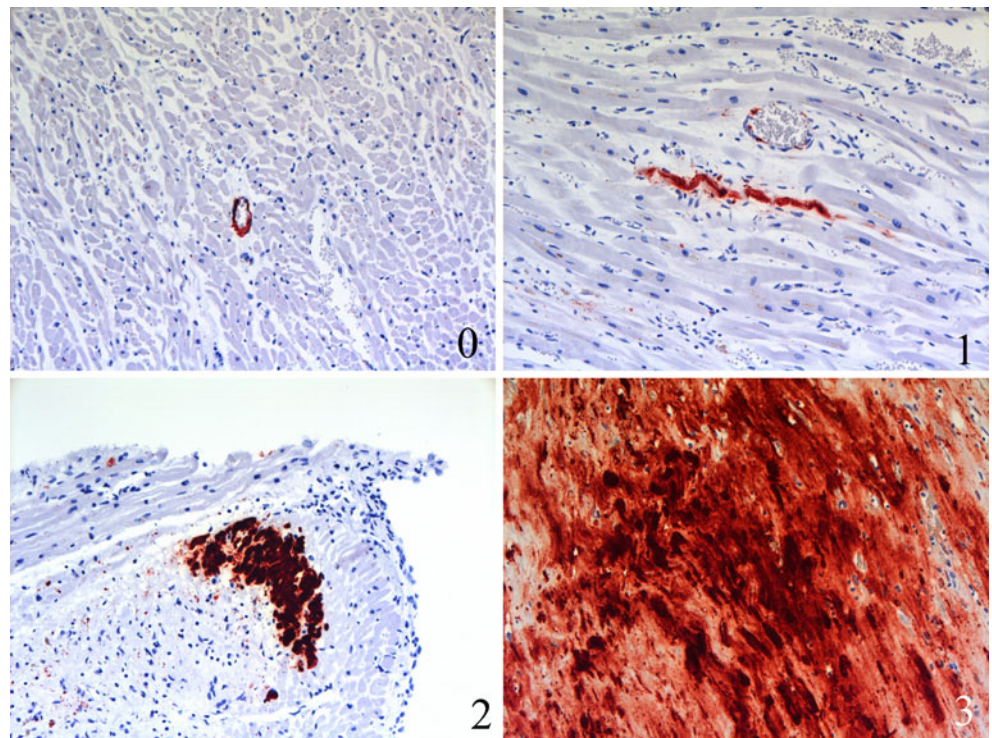


each case in both groups. The grade of FE was consensually determined by two pathologists on a scale from 0 to 3, according to the classification proposed by Falzi et al. [20, 21].

The grade of necrosis in each ventricle for each antibody was compared to the corresponding value of the control

group (grade of necrosis RV fibronectin study group versus grade of necrosis RV fibronectin control; grade of necrosis RV C5b-9 study group versus grade of necrosis RV C5b-9 control; grade of necrosis LV fibronectin study group versus grade of necrosis LV fibronectin control; and grade

Fig. 2 Different grades of necrosis with the antibody Cb-9 ($\times 200$). 0 no necrosis, 1 single cells necrosis, two group cell necrosis and three: diffuse necrosis



of necrosis LV C5b-9 study group versus grade of necrosis RV C5b-9 control).

The difference of the grade of the necrosis between right and left ventricle was calculated in each case with both antibodies (Δ =grade necrosis RV—grade necrosis LV). A comparison of these differences between study and control group was performed.

Statistical analyses were performed using SAS 9.2 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, North Carolina, USA). Fisher's exact test was used for all comparisons between the study and the control group. The result was considered significant in case of the two-sided $p < 0.05$.

Results

The comparison of the grade of necrosis in the right ventricles showed a prevalent ischemic damage in the FE group with the antibody fibronectin ($p = 0.0014$). No statistically significant difference between the two groups with the antibody C5b-9 could be detected ($p = 0.1301$).

The comparison of the grade of necrosis in the left ventricles showed a prevalent involvement of this ventricle in the control group with both antibodies. These results are statistically significant (fibronectin, $p < 0.0001$; C5b-9, $p = 0.0063$).

The comparison of the difference of the grade of the necrosis between right and left ventricle (Δ fibronectin and Δ C5b-9) in the two groups showed a statistically significant difference between study and control group with both antibodies (fibronectin, $p < 0.0001$; C5b-9, $p < 0.0095$).

Discussion

In the investigated groups, the expression of the immunohistochemical markers is very different. In the cases of FE, the ischemic damage is prevalently localised at the right ventricle as detected with the antibody fibronectin, while the expression of the terminal complement complex C5b-9 is similar in both groups. This is not surprising. Fibronectin is a well-known marker of very early ischemic damage [41]; C5b-9 is, instead, known to react later [41, 42]. The possibility of detecting necrosis only with a very early marker probably indicates a very rapid evolution from the occurrence of the ischemic damage to death. Inflammatory changes at the sub-endocardial region were reported in cases of pulmonary embolism [43, 44] and may represent a late reaction to ischemia in cases of non-fatal embolism.

The discriminating element for the diagnosis of the occurred right ventricular failure is the evaluation of the difference between ischemic damage at the right and the left ventricle. This parameter allows the identification of the

localisation of the prevalent ischemic damage. The simple detection of ischemic lesions at the right ventricle is, in fact, not indicative of primary affection of this ventricle since the main cause of right ventricular failure is the failure of the left ventricle [45]. In the control group, we could identify ischemic damage at the right ventricle in 90% of the cases with fibronectin and in 19%, with C5b-9. These results indicate an important impairment of the right ventricle, which is the consequence of the primary impairment of the left ventricle, as the prevalent localisation of the ischemic damage at this ventricle in this group demonstrates.

In the study group, the more evident is the primary involvement of the right ventricle, the higher the degree of the FE. A positive value of Δ fibronectin was observed in five of six cases with FE grade 3, in six of eleven with grade 2, and in one of four with grade 1. The low number of investigated cases does not allow us to draw any definitive conclusion, but a tendency is evident. We think that a routine application of this method in cases of FE would facilitate the interpretation of the effective role played by FE in the determination of death. The FE should be considered as the primary cause of death only in cases with demonstrated prevalent ischemic damage at the right ventricle. In the other cases, the identified FE probably plays a concomitant role with other factors such as multiple fractures or major bleeding.

Similarly to other recent publications [46–49], this manuscript confirms the importance of the histological and immunohistochemical investigations in the routinely medico-legal practise.

References

1. Levy DL (1990) The fat embolism syndrome. *Clin Orthop* 261:281–286
2. Talbot M, Schemitsch EH (2006) Fat embolism syndrome: history, definition, epidemiology. *Injury* 37S:S3–S7
3. Gurd AR, Wilson RI (1974) The fat embolism syndrome. *J Bone Jt Surg* 56B:408–416
4. Peltier LF (1984) Fat embolism an appraisal to the problem of. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 187:3–17
5. Peltier LF (1988) Fat embolism a perspective. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 232:263–270
6. Glover P, Worthley LIG (1999) Fat embolis. *Criti Care Resusc* 1:276–284
7. Hurford WE, Zapol WM (1988) The right ventricle and critical illness: a review of anatomy, physiology, and clinical evaluation of its functions. *Intensive Care Med* 14:448–457
8. Pitto RP, Blunk J, Köbler M (2000) Transesophageal echocardiography and clinical features of fat embolism during cemented total hip arthroplasty. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg* 120:53–58
9. Tanus-Santos JE, Theodorakis MJ (2002) Is there a place for inhaled nitric oxide in the therapy of acute pulmonary embolism? *Am J Resp Med* 1:167–176
10. Mellor A, Soni N (2001) Fat embolism. *Anaesthesia* 56:145–154

11. Fabian TC (1993) Unraveling the fat embolism syndrome. *N Engl J Med* 329:961–963
12. Hulman G (1995) The pathogenesis of fat embolism. *J Pathol* 176:3–9
13. Sevitt S (1962) Pathology of systemic embolism—the brain. In: *Fat embolism*, Butterworths, London, pp 129–158
14. Wyatt JP, Khoo P (1950) Fat embolism in trauma. *Am J Clin Pathol* 20:637–640
15. Alexander-Katz A (1924) Über die Fettembolie in den Lungen. *Dtsch Z ges Gerichtl Med* 1:466–480
16. Brandt G, Sasse P, Gunselmann W (1976) Mineralgehalt und Morphologie bei unterschiedlicher Todesursache. *Virchows Arch A Path Anat Histopathol* 369:335–345
17. Wintritz E (1896) Ueber die gerichtsarztliche Beurtheilung von Fettembolien. *Vierteljahresschrift gerichtl öffentl Med* 11:44–62
18. Stuelp (1903) Ueber den Tod durch Embolie und den Nachweis desselben an der Leiche vom gerichtsarztlichen Standpunkt aus. *Vierteljahresschrift gerichtl öffentl Med* 25:330–352
19. Strassmann G (1933) Über Fettembolie nach Verletzungen durch stumpfe Gewalt und nach Verbrennung. *Dtsch Zschr ges Rechtmed* 22:272–298
20. Falzi G, Henn R, Spann W (1964) Über pulmonale fettembolien nach traumen mit verschieden langer Überlebenszeit. *Münch Med Wochenschr* 106:978–981
21. Brinkmann B, Borgner M, von Bülow M (1976) Die Fettembolie der Lungen als Todeseursache. Ätiologie, pathogenese, beweisführung. *Z Rechtsmedizin* 78:255–272
22. Turillazzi E, Riezzi I, Neri M, Pomara C, Cecchi R, Fineschi V (2008) The diagnosis of fatal pulmonary embolism using quantitative morphometry and confocal laser scanning microscopy. *Pathol Res Pract* 204:259–266
23. Wehner W (1968) Fettembolisches Geschehen im kleinen Kreislauf. In: *Die Fettembolie*, Veb Verlag Volk und Gesundheit, Berlin, pp 57–70
24. Klosterhalfen B, Mittermayer C, Bajanowski T (2004) Sekundärfolgen mechanischer Gewalteinwirkung – Fettembolie. In: Brinkmann B, Madea B, Hrgbs. *Handbuch gerichtliche Medizin*, Springer Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, Band 1, p 276
25. Arai F, Kita T, Nakai T, Hori T, Maki N, Kakiuchi M, Sasaki S (2007) Histopathologic features of fat embolism in fulminant fat embolism syndrome. *Anesthesiol* 107:509–511
26. Von Euler US, Liljestrang G (1946) Observations on the pulmonary arterial blood pressure in the cat. *Acta Physiol Scand* 12:301–320
27. Ward JPT, Aaronson PI (1999) Mechanism of hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction: can anyone be right? *Resp Physiol* 115:261–271
28. Anrep G (1912) On the part played by the suprarenals in the normal vascular reactions of the body. *J Physiol* 45:307–317
29. Hurford WE, Barlai-Kovach M, Strauss HW, Zapol WM (1987) Canine biventricular performance during acute progressive pulmonary microembolisation: regional myocardial perfusion and fatty acid uptake. *J Crit Care* 2:270–281
30. Fineberg MH, Wiggers CJ (1936) Compensation and failure of the right ventricle. *Am Heart J* 11:255–263
31. Laver MB, Strauss W, Pohost GM (1979) Right and left ventricular geometry: adjustments during acute respiratory failure. *Crit Care Med* 7:509–519
32. Lowensohn HS, Khouri EM, Gregg DE, Pyle RL, Patterson RE (1976) Phasic right coronary artery blood flow in conscious dogs with normal and elevated right ventricular pressures. *Circ Res* 39:760–766
33. Gold FL, Bache RJ (1982) Transmural right ventricular blood flow during acute pulmonary artery hypertension in sedated dog. Evidence for subendocardial ischemia despite residual vasodilator reserve. *Circ Res* 51:196–204
34. Walder R (1939) Elektrokardiographische und histologische Untersuchungen des Herzens bei experimenteller Luft- und Fettembolie sowie bei Embolie durch Stärkesuspension. *Beitr path Anat* 102:485–511
35. Hecht A, Korb G (1960) Über die Drückverhältnisse im rechten Ventrikel bei der Fettembolie als ein Beitrag zum akuten Cor pulmonale. *Z ges inn Med* 2:51–56
36. Hecht A, Korb G (1960) b) Über Beziehungen zwischen rechtsseitigem intracardialen Druck und dem Auftreten von Herzmuskelnekrosen sowie Fettdurchtritt durch die Lungenkapillaren bei der experimentellen Fettembolie. *Beitr path Anat* 123:383–397
37. Harman JW, Ragaz FJ (1950) The pathogenesis of fat embolism. *Am J Pathol* 26:551–560
38. Friedberg J (1942) Anatomische Untersuchungen des Herzmuskels bei Fettembolie. *Dtsch Zschr Chir* 255:239–248
39. Brinkmann B (1999) Harmonisation of medico-legal autopsy rules. Committee of Ministers. Council of Europe. *Int J Leg Med* 113:1–14
40. Brinkmann B, Sepulchre MA, Fechner G (1993) The application of selected histochemical and immunohistochemical markers and procedures to the diagnosis of early myocardial damage. *Int J Legal Med* 106:135–141
41. Ortmann C, Pfeiffer H, Brinkmann B (2000) A comparative study on the immunohistochemical detection of early myocardial damage. *Int J Legal Med* 113:215–220
42. Thomsen H, Held H (1994) Susceptibility of C5b9 to post-mortem changes. *Int J Legal Med* 106:291–293
43. Iwadata K, Doi M, Tanno K, Katsumura S, Ito H, Sato K, Yonemura I, Ito Y (2003) Right ventricular damage due to pulmonary embolism: examination of the number of infiltrating macrophages. *For Sci Int* 134:147–153
44. Bogieneman MPV, van de Goot FRW, van der Bilt IAC, Vonk Noordegraaf A, Speeuwenberg MD, Paulus WJ, van Hinsbergh VWM, Visser FC, Niessen HWM (2008) Pulmonary embolism causes endomyocarditis in the human heart. *Heart* 94:450–456
45. Barnard D, Alpert JS (1987) Right ventricular function in health and disease. *Curr Probl Cardiol* 12:423–449
46. Hayashi T, Ishida Y, Mizunuma S, Kimura A, Kondo T (2009) Differential diagnosis between freshwater drowning and saltwater drowning based on intrapulmonary aquaporin-5 expression. *Int J Legal Med* 123:7–13
47. Matschke J, Püschel K, Glatzel M (2009) Ocular pathology in shaken baby syndrome and other forms of infantile non-accidental head injury. *Int J Legal Med* 123:189–197
48. Nosaka S, Ishida Y, Kimura A, Kondo K (2009) Time-dependent appearance of intrathrombus neutrophils and macrophages in a stasis-induced deep vein thrombosis model and its application to thrombus age determination. *Int J Legal Med* 123:235–240
49. Sinicina I, Pankratz H, Bise K, Matevossian E (2009) Forensic aspects of post-mortem histological detection of amniotic fluid embolism. *Int J Legal Med*. doi:10.1007/s00414-009-0351-x