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# SKELETAL PARTS: THE SKULL

The art of measuring the skeletal parts differs in many respects from that of measuring the living and is, in fact, to a degree a field of its own. It is, moreover, a particularly attractive field, for we deal here with specimens that are not masked by other tissues, that can be handled cleanly and easily, and that are mostly completely at our disposal for reference or additional observation.

The most interesting and important part of the skeleton is naturally the cranium, and this has received from the beginnings of anthropology the most assiduous attention. The preoccupation of anthropologists with the skull, particularly since the repeated discoveries of the remains of early man, has in fact been such as to overshadow the study of the rest of the skeleton, with the result that methods relating to research on the long and other bones are with some exceptions less developed and standardized than those on the skull. Yet these secondary skeletal parts are a mine of information of anthropological interest, and as time goes on they cannot but receive more and more attention. The time for a selection of the best methods of measuring as well as observation on the more important of these parts is at hand, and in the final section of this series an attempt will be made in this direction. The present section is devoted mainly to the cranium.

#### CRANIOMETRY

Efforts at a development of a scientific system of cranial measurements and observations date from well before the beginning of the nineteenth century. The most serious and at the same time successful steps in this direction were, however, those of Samuel G. Morton in Philadelphia in the late thirties of that century, of Anders Retzius in Sweden (1842–1860), and especially those of Paul Broca in France, from the early sixties onward. Broca's system, which was eventually comprised in the "Instructions craniologiques et craniométriques"

<sup>1</sup> See bibliographies in "International Catalogue of Scientific literature," in Martin's "Lehrbuch d. Anthropologie," in author's "Physical Anthropology in the United States" 8°, Philadelphia, 1919), and in the Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon General, U. S. A.

(8°, Paris, 1875), is, with some modifications and additions, in use to this day.

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The most noteworthy contributions to the subjects of craniometry and craniology since Broca are those of Topinard, Turner, Schmidt, Török, Welcker, and finally, Martin; but due credit belongs to many earlier as well as later well known workers, such as Blumenbach, de Baer, Lucae, Meigs, Soemmering, Wentzel Gruber, Quatrefages, Hamy, Geoffroy St. Hilaire, Flower, Davis, Thurman, Hovelacque, Virchow, and others, not to mention the most recent or still living, such as Hervé, Ranke, Schwalbe, Gustaf Retzius, Sergi, Manouvrier, Matiegka, Le Double, Boule, Giuffrida-Ruggeri, etc.

The total results of all this work on the skull are not only a great mass of data from all parts of the world, but also an elaborate and profuse technique of measurements. Many of these measurements are now, however, of little more than historical value, having been replaced by others or abandoned. Of what remains, the main part has been standardized by the International Anthropometric Convention of Monaco.

The cranial measurements that will be dealt with here are essentially those of the Monaco Agreement; but some of those included in the Agreement have since become quite obsolete, while in a few instances it is now possible to make useful additions, so that a simple reference to the Agreement would not be sufficient. The blanks to be given resemble in essentials those employed on the living (pp. 63-5). For brevity, repetition of definitions, etc., will be avoided, author's notes being restricted to such explanations as will assist the student. A number of measurements included call for special instruments which will be described in that connection. No agreement has yet been attempted as to the relative importance and definition of descriptive characters, and what will here be given in that line is of a more or less tentative nature.

Before beginning with either measurements or descriptive terms, however, it will be necessary to give due consideration to several preliminary procedures, some of which are of considerable importance.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> "Élements d'Anthropologie générale," 8°, Paris, 1885.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Challenger Reports, Part 29, London, 1884.

<sup>3 &</sup>quot;Anthropologische Methoden," 12°, Leipzig, 1888.

<sup>4 &</sup>quot;Grundzüge einer systematischen Kraniometrie," 8°, Stuttgart, 1890.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Valuable contributions in anthropological periodicals, particularly the Archiv ir Anthropologie.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Lehrbuch der Anthropologie," 8°, Jena, 1914.

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Preparation of Specimens.—Before a series of crania (or bones) can be submitted to measurement or examination, the specimens must be not only well cleaned, but also carefully repaired, which is interesting work and at times calling for not a little ingenuity. For repair, about the most suitable cement is a thick paste made from fish glue, or from Page's liquid glue, with plaster-of-paris and pigment. A box of dry sand in which to place the skulls or bones while the cement is setting will also be required.

The specimens, furthermore, must be numbered and catalogued, otherwise there would inevitably be confusion. The method of numbering is immaterial, so long as the numbers do not duplicate others in the collection. The number, tribe, locality, and sex are marked with indelible ink in the most convenient location, which in the skull is perhaps the antero-inferior angle of the left parietal; and all specimens of one kind in the collection are marked in the same place. If the bone is scaly or too rough, a small parallelogram is covered neatly with oil paint and the mark made on this.

Sexing.1—In adults, the determination of sex, from the skull alone, while generally offering few difficulties to the well-trained observer, is not equally easy in all races, or in all individuals.

A typical masculine skull differs in practically every feature from

<sup>1</sup> The most important contributions to this subject (outside of the various text-books on Anatomy and Anthropology) are:

Bartels (P.), "Ueber Geschlechtsunterschiede am Schädel," Thes., Berlin, 1897. Dureau (A.), "Des caractères sexuels du crâne humain," Rev. d'Anthrop., 1873, II, 475.

Ecker (A.), "Ueber eine charakteristische Eigentümlichkeit in der Form des weiblichen Schädels und deren Bedeutung für die vergleichende Anthropologie," Arch f. Anthrop., 1866, I, 81.

Manouvrier (L.), "Sur la grandeur du front et des principales régions du crâne chez l'homme et chez la femme," C. R. Assoc. Franc. p. l'Avanc. d. Sc., 1882.

Mantegazza (P.), "Dei caratteri sessuale del cranio umano," Arch. p. Antrop., 1872, II, 11.—"Studii di craniologia sessuale," Arch. p. Antrop., 1875, V, 200.

Möbius (P. J.), "Ueber die Verschiedenheit männlicher und weiblicher Schädel," Arch. f. Anthrop., 1907, N. F. VI, 1.

Panichi (R.), "Ricerche di craniologia sessuale," Arch. p. Antrop., 1892, XX, 49. Pittard (E.), Les segments crâniens chez l'homme et chez la femme." Arch. d. Sc. Phys. & Nat., 1899, 1900.—"Quelques comparaisons sexuelles de crânes anciens de la vallée du Rhône (Valais)," L'Anthrop., 1900, XI, 179.—"Comparaisons sexuelles dans une série de 795 crânes de brachycéphales alpins," Bull. Soc. d'Anthrop., Lyon, 1910, XXVIII, 119.—"Analyse et comparaisons sexuelles de quelques grandeurs du crâne et de la face chez les Tsiganes," C. R. Acad. Sc. Paris, 1911, T. 152, 208.

Welcker (H.), "Geschlechtseigentümlichkeiten des Schädels," Arch. f. Anthrop., 1866, I, 120 et seg.

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the typical feminine one. It is larger on the whole and in all its components, it is heavier, and all its muscular insertions as well as other features are more strongly marked or developed. But in no human group is there any regular, precise line of demarcation between the male and female characteristics, taken individually or even collectively. In every lot we find male skulls which in some or all of their features are less masculine than the average, and similarly there will be female skulls that in some or all of their parts approach the masculine. Instead of a sharp dividing line we have interdigitation and continuity, as a result of which in certain cases the sexual identification of a specimen with all our efforts remains uncertain. In rare cases, even, a female skull may show more pronounced masculine characteristics than some of the less well developed male crania, and vice versa, which may lead to errors in classification.

On the whole it may be said that an experienced and careful observer will have little if any difficulty in correctly identifying over 80 per cent of the crania, with which there is neither the lower jaw nor any other part of the skeleton to assist him; that this proportion will approximate 90 per cent where a well-preserved lower jaw is present; and that it will reach over 96 per cent where we have the whole skeleton. But out of each hundred there will still remain one or two skeletons which, even though complete, show such indefinite sexual characteristics that it will be impossible to identify them as either male or

female with certainty.

Given a skull for sexual identification, the observer notes first the size of the vault as well as that of the face; a large size speaks normally for a male and a small size for a female. The features observed next, and in the order named, are the supraorbital ridges, the mastoids, the zygomæ, the occipital crests, the lower jaw, the palate and the teeth,

the facial "physiognomy," and the base of the skull.

The supraorbital ridges are on the average decidedly more developed in the males than in the females. If we should characterize them as we do in practice by the terms "traces," "slight," "moderate," "medium," "pronounced," and "excessive," the male skulls will show ridges from moderate to excessive, while the female skulls will be restricted to those of from traces to moderate. Pronounced or excessive ridges do not occur in females, nor are ridges that could be characterized as only "traces" to be found in adult males. But we may have "slight" ridges in a male subadult or even adult.

The mastoids may be "small," "moderate," "medium," "large,"

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or "excessive." Male mastoids generally range from medium to large, female mastoids from small to medium. Small mastoids do not occur in males nor do large or excessive mastoids occur in females.

The zygomæ may be "slender," "moderate," "medium," "strong," or "massive." They range in males from medium to massive, in females from slender to medium.

The occipital crests when well or markedly developed as a rule indicate a male. In females they range from "submedium" to "absent."

The lower jaw in the male shows on the average greater size, thickness, and weight as a whole, a higher body throughout, a higher symphysis especially, a broader ascending branch, an angle less obtuse than in the female, and strong condyles. A lower jaw of moderate size and strength, with a low symphysis, a rounded chin (a square chin points to male sex), a relatively low body, only moderately broad ascending ramus, delicate or but moderately strong condyles, and an angle of more than 125°, may safely be diagnosed as feminine.

The palate in the male skull is usually larger and appreciably broader, and the teeth in the male are on the average perceptibly larger than those in the female.

The "physiognomy" of the face, or the impression that the face with the lower jaw in position makes upon the experienced observer, is a characteristic of considerable importance in sex determination. The average male skull presents a decidedly more masculine physiognomy than does the average female cranium. This is due to a combination of factors which should be briefly enumerated. The forehead in the female skull is usually more vertical than in the male, and smoother; the borders of the orbits in the average male skull are dull, in the aver-14 age female sharp; the nasal process of the frontal, the nasal bones, the malars, and the upper maxillae as a whole, are larger and stouter in the male than in the female; and the height of the upper alveolar process, between the nasal aperture and the front teeth, is greater in the male. The nasal aperture, moreover, is less high, often relatively somewhat broader, and more delicately moulded in the female. All this, together with the sexual characteristics of the lower jaw, when present, gives the face a certain expression which is of great help in identifying the sex of the skull. Unfortunately the lower jaw is often missing, and the upper face damaged or affected by senile changes, all of which diminishes or disturbs the sexual expression.

Thickness of the vault, alone, is of no decisive value in sexual identification, for while the bones of the male are on the average slightly thicker, individual thick and massive vaults are encountered in both sexes, especially among primitive peoples.

The base of the skull presents a complex of structures which as a whole show stronger development and larger dimensions in the male than in the female. The foramina, too, are in general larger in the

male.

Sexual Characteristics of Other Skeletal Parts.—As in the sexual identification of the skull we are often obliged to consult the rest of the skeleton, if at hand, the principal sex determining characteristics of the latter may well be dealt with in this connection.

In detailed examinations we find that every bone in the body offers certain sexual differences. The most important skeletal parts for sexual identification aside from the skull are, however, the pelvis, the long bones, and the larger of the remaining parts.

As to the pelvis,1 the important sexual characteristics which it

presents may conveniently be shown as follows:

Subpubic archV-shaped	Female Broader (approaching U-shaped) with diverging branches								
Ischio-pubic rami But slightly everted	Markedly and characteristically everted								
SymphysisHigh	Lower								
Obturator foraminaLarge	Smaller, more triangular								
AcetabulaLarge	Smaller								
Greater sciatic notch Rather close and	Wide and shallow								
deep									
IliaHigh, more upright	Lower, more flaring in upper portion								
Sacro-iliac articulationsLarge	Smaller, more oblique								
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<sup>1</sup> See (besides the modern textbooks on Anatomy, and Obstetrics):

Emmons (A. B.), "A study of the variations in the female pelvis," etc. Biometrica, 1912, IX, 33-57.

Hennig (C.), "Das Rassenbecken," Arch. f. Anthrop., 1885, XVI, 161–228 (Bibl.). Runge (G.), "Shape of female pelvis in different races," 8°, St. Petersburg, 1888; pp.

Sergi (G.), "L'indice ilio-pelvico o indice sessuale nel bacino delle raze umane,"

La Clin. Ost., 1899, I; 7pp.

Thompson (A.), "The sexual differences of the feetal pelvis," J. Anat. and Physiol., Lond., 1899, XXXIII, 359–380.

Verneau (R.), "Le bassin dans les sexes et dans les races," 8°, Paris, 1875, 156 pp. Waldeyer (W.), "Das Becken." 8°, Bonn, 1899, 600 pp.

Zaaijer (T.), "Der Sulcus preauricularis ossis ilei," Verh. k. Akad. Wet., Amsterdam, 1893, 23 pp.

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Preauricular sulcus Infrequent Sacrum	More common and better developed Shorter and broader, more obliquely set, less curved in upper portion; sacro-vertebral angle more promi- nent						
Pelvis as a whole Strong, heavy, marked muscular impressions	Less massive, smoother						
Brim Heart-shaped	More circular (or elliptic), more spacious						
True pelvis Relatively smaller	More oblique, shallow and spacious, less encroached upon by ischiac spines						

However, none of the above characteristics are wholly constant, and there are pelves so intermediate that a correct diagnosis of sex from them alone cannot be made with certainty.

As to the <u>long bones</u>, those of the male are generally larger and heavier than those of the female and have more pronounced muscular ridges, tuberosities and impressions; but the most important and striking sexual differences lie in their articular extremities, which in the bones of the male are in general both absolutely and relatively larger than in the female. A femur or a humerus with a small head or condyles cannot be masculine, neither can bones with relatively large heads or condyles be feminine. These differences are of great help in sexing the skeleton or individual bones. However there are also intermediary grades of development which might leave us uncertain if we had the long bone only.<sup>1</sup>

As to the remaining larger bones of the body, the most important for sexual identification are the sternum, scapulæ, ribs, the spine as a whole, some of the vertebrae such as the atlas, axis, and the fifth lumbar, the patella, the calcaneus, and the first phalanx of the great toe. In general they all show larger size, greater weight and stronger development of muscular attachments in the male; and they present various individual features which differ more or less in the two sexes, such as the relatively longer manubrium in the female, a larger glenoid cavity in the male, etc. Their utilization for sexual identification stipulates naturally a special acquaintance with these various bones.

<sup>1</sup> Consult Dwight (Thos.), "Range and Significance of Variation in the human skeleton," Bost. Med. and Surg. J., July, 1894, 73 et seq.—"The size of the articular surfaces of the long bones as characteristic of sex," Am. J. Anat., 1904, IV, 19–31.

Dorsey (Geo. A.), "A sexual study of the size of the articular surfaces of the long bones in aboriginal American skeletons," Bost. Med. and Surg. J., July 22, 1897.

Even the smaller bones, such as those of the tarsus, may help in this connection.

In addition to the differences due to the general development of bones, various parts of the skeleton occasionally present features as for example perforation of the septum in the humerus, third condyle on the femur, a teres major process of the scapula, etc., which do not occur with the same frequency in the males as in the females; but as they may occur in both, their presence or absence in individual cases is not of decisive value. Furthermore, all the bones of the skeleton when studied in lots will show characteristic sexual differences of anthropometric nature, in absolute dimensions as well as indices; but except in extremes these again are of only secondary value in the case of individual bones.<sup>1</sup>

In subadults, determination of sex is mostly hazardous, nevertheless there are a certain proportion of cases in which it is possible. But as the age descends the difficulties of identification rapidly increase, until when we reach puberty and below, it becomes in general very risky, if not impossible.

<u>Estimation of Age.</u>—A correct estimation of the age of a skeleton is of a much greater medico-legal than anthropological importance; but by mastering the details, for which our science is favorably situated, the anthropologist may occasionally be of substantial aid to legal medicine.

For the anthropologist himself it generally suffices to determine whether the skull or skeleton is subadult, adult, or senile, and his main criteria for these purposes are the state of the <u>basilar suture</u>, that of the <u>epiphyses</u> of the long bones, the <u>stage</u> of <u>dentition</u>, the condition of the teeth and <u>alveolar processes</u>, and the <u>state</u> of the <u>sutures</u> of the vault of the <u>skull</u>.

Most handy and reliable is the occlusion of the basilar (basisphenoid) suture; and the value of this sign is furthermore enhanced by the rarity with which abnormal processes affect this articulation. But the basi-sphenoid articulation may be opened mechanically, through posthumous changes in the bones or through violence, and the student must be on the lookout not to mistake such a condition, which to the unaided eye may simulate very closely the normal suture, for the latter.

The epiphyses of the long (and other) bones are normally all united with their diaphyses by the end of the twenty-fifth year. The fol-

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>See author's "Physical Anthropology of the Lenape," etc., Bull. 62, Bur. Amer. Ethnol., Wash., 1916.

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lowing figures give approximations to the exact time of synostosis in the different cases, according to modern Anatomies. They again can be of but a restricted use to the anthropologist.

	Ossification	(COMPLETED)
T	Year	Year
Basilar su	ture20-25	Scapula
Humerus:	: upper20 <u>–2</u> 5	Clavicle, sternal end
	lower	Sternum
Femur:	upper18–20	
	lower20-22	Ribs 25
Tibia:	upper20–24	Vertebrae
	lower	•
Ulna:	100	Atlas
oma.	upper	
	lower	Sacrum (union of uppermost seg-
D - 15		ments)25-30
Radius:	upper	
	lower	Ossa innominata
Fibula:	upper22–25	Phalanges
	lower	-

The eruption of deciduous teeth among Whites is generally completed before the end of the third, that of the permanent teeth before the thirtieth year of life. Among primitive peoples (possibly even primitive Whites), the process, at least so far as the permanent teeth are concerned, is somewhat speedier, being with some exceptions accomplished by or even before the twenty second year.¹ A full set of teeth in a skull is therefore a good sign that adult life has been reached, or nearly reached; but an absence of one or two third molars may exist in the white, and more rarely even in a primitive man, well into the adult stage, and such teeth may fail to appear altogether. The following table gives the periods of eruption of both sets of teeth among civilized Whites. On account of the length of the period of eruption of the individual teeth the data will be also of but limited use.

# ERUPTION OF TEETH, IN WHITES<sup>2</sup> 1st Dentition Permanent Dentition<sup>3</sup>

	MOUTUS		Years
Median Incisor, lower	4-8	First Molar, lower	4-7
Median Incisor, upper	8-11	First Molar, upper	5-8

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Suk (V.), "Eruption and decay of permanent teeth in Whites and Negroes, with comparative remarks on other races," Am. J. Phys. Anthrop., 1919, II, No. 4, 352.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> After Bean, Bednář, Cherot, Gray, Matiegka and Suk, Roese, Steiner, Vogel, Welcker, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Exact order of eruption of permanent canines and premolars is still slightly uncertain.

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Months   8-11   Lateral Incisor, upper   8-11   Lateral Incisor, lower   12-15   First Molar, upper   9-21   First Molar, upper   16-24   Canine, upper   16-24   Canine, lower   16-25   Second Molar, upper   20-36   Second Molar, lower   20-36	Median Incisor, lower         5-8           Median Incisor, upper         5-8           Median Incisor, upper         6-10           Lateral Incisor, lower         6-10           Anterior Premolar, upper         7-14           Canine, lower         8-14           Anterior Premolar, lower         8-15           Posterior Premolar, upper         9-15           Canine, upper         9-15           Second Molar, lower         10-17           Second Molar, upper         10-17           Third Molar, lower         15-30           Third Molar, upper         17-30
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The pubic articulation shows important changes with age.1

A valuable indication as to advancing age is furnished to us by the wear of the teeth.<sup>2</sup> In Whites this seldom commences before the thirty-fifth or is marked before the fiftieth year of age, and in many individuals of the more cultured classes it may remain slight up to old age; but among grain-eating, primitive peoples, such as the American Indians, wear may commence even before the adult life has been reached, be very marked at fifty, and reach an extreme grade after sixty-five. Partial wearing, due to peculiar habits, has of course but little value in this connection.

The obliteration of the cranial sutures has long been relied upon as a help in estimating the age of the subject, and is useful when taken conjointly with other characters. Under normal conditions, i. e. in subjects who have not been affected by rickets or other generalized pathological processes, synostosis of the bones of the vault does not commence until well after adult life has been reached, and in some individuals some or all of the bones of the vault may remain free until advanced age. On the average, however, we may expect to find some traces of synostosis ventrally about the thirtieth, and dorsally about the fortieth year of life. In view of the difficulties of a proper endoscopic examination, the dorsal signs of obliteration are the only ones with which the anthropologist under ordinary circumstances needs to concern himself. The obliteration here may begin in the posterior

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Todd (T. Wingate), "Age changes in the Pubic Bone," Am. J. Phys. Anthrop., 1920, III, No. 3, 285.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Broca (P.), Bull. Soc. d'Anthrop. Paris, 1879, S. 3, II, 342; Instructions craniolog., etc., 1875, 132.

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third of the sagittal suture, or in the distal portions (below the temporal crests) of the coronal—there are some racial as well as individual differences in this respect. A complete obliteration of the coronal, sagittal, and lambdoid sutures under ordinary conditions is reached only in advanced age, after seventy, and in fact is seldom fully accomplished even then. The temporal articulations, with the exception of that with the occipital, are the last to ossify. A complete synostosis of all the articulations of the bones of the vault at any age would justify a suspicion of some abnormality. With ample experience, and taking the condition of the sutures and teeth together, we may correctly estimate the age of the adult subject to within, perhaps, ten years.

As signs of advanced sensity, may be named a diminution in weight of the skull and bones, with more or less rarefaction of the bone structure (particularly in the long bones of the lower limbs and the spine); extensive loss of teeth and marked absorption of the alveolar processes; and disseminated marginal exostoses of the lumbar and other vertebrae. This latter condition, although usually looked upon as pathological, is so common in senile skeletons of all races that it may well be regarded as a part of the process of skeletal senile involution, becoming only secondarily, or through its irregularities and complications, pathological.

In addition to the above the vault of the skull may in advanced age occasionally show a more or less marked absorption of the bony tissue (diploë) of the parietals above the temporal ridges, with a consequent bilateral, antero-posterior depression. The lower jaw may in instances be reduced to a mere frail shell, with greatly widened angles; while the upper alveolar process may be completely absorbed and the loss involve even a part of the nasal floor. But these extreme mani-

<sup>1</sup> See in this connection, Dwight (Thos.), "The closure of the cranial sutures as a sign of age," Bost. Med. and Surg. J., 1890, 389.

Frederic (J.), "Untersuchungen ti. d. normale Obliteration der Schädelnähte," Z. f. Morph. and Anthrop., 1906, IX, 273; 1909, XII, 371.

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festations of senile resorption are of little value as indices of the age of the individual in years.1

Identification of Parts.—Given a series of crania, and perhaps other bones, for examination, we frequently find that some of the lower jaws have become detached from the skulls, and various bones separated from the skeletons to which they belong. We may further find individual crania, or even larger admixture, of a different type from that of the rest of the collection. Our object naturally will be to properly fit the stray parts, and segregate the heterogeneous specimens.

This once more demands considerable care and experience.

The fitting of the lower jaw to its skull is fairly easy if we have to deal with only a few specimens; but in larger collections, and even in some individual cases where more or less warping of the lower jaw has taken place, the task may be quite difficult. The main guidance of the student will be the fit of the teeth, the fit of the condyles, the color and mottling of the specimens, and various conditions and peculiarities of the teeth. He will find a similar or compensatory wear of the teeth in the two jaws of the same individual; a correspondence of more or less extruded or unworn teeth (especially the third molar) in one jaw, to absence of opposite tooth in the other; a similar staining of or concretions about the teeth; etc. But there may be anomalies in one (especially the upper) jaw for the counterparts of which he would vainly look in the other.

As to other parts of the skeleton, which may be touched upon in this place, we can only hope to establish whether or not a certain bone

<sup>1</sup> Consult: Allen (Harrison), "On the effects of disease and senility as illustrated in the bones and teeth of mammals," Science, 1897, V, 289-294.

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1870, S. 2, V, 576. Also sep., Paris, 1870, 132 pp.

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Proc. Sci. Meetings Zoöl. Soc., London, 1886, P. I, 125 pp.

Virchow (R.), "Ueber die Involutionskrankheit (Malum senile) der platten Knochen, namentlich des Schädels," Ges. Abh., 1856.

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belongs to a skeleton in question by its fit with other bones in articulation, and by resemblances in color, size, shape, muscular insertions, processes, and peculiarities, with the corresponding bone of the opposite side of the body. With the exception of the atlas we are never in a position to absolutely identify a given stray bone, or even a whole skeleton, with a given skull. Occasionally we find it difficult to even pair or place individual bones; but special features and measurements

help greatly in this direction.

Recognition of distinct racial types in a collection, demands especially careful procedure. The skull of a typical White, a typical Negro, a typical Eskimo, or a typical American Indian, may be readily and reliably identified, wherever found by the expert student; and in a smaller measure this is also true of some other parts of the skeleton. But when it comes to a recognition of crania or bones of mixed-bloods, or of closely related racial types, we face considerable uncertainties. The safest rule in all cases is for the observer to set aside from his series any skull or skeleton concerning the anthropological identity of which he is in serious doubt. He will bear in mind, of course, that among all peoples there exists in every feature a wide range of normal variation.

Determination of Normality.—A normal skull (or a normal bone) is that which has not been modified in shape, size, or any other manner, mechanically or through disease.

Mechanically a skull may be modified through injury, artificial

or accidental deformation in life, or posthumous deformation.

Deformations through injury are readily recognizable, and in general are of small importance to anthropology. But extensive injuries of the vault and especially of the face, or injuries followed by serious alterations in the bone, may spoil the specimen more or less for study.

Artificial and accidental deformations in life have been dealt with previously (pp. 47-8), and the observations made in that connection apply essentially also to the skull. The best way to appreciate lesser grades of deformations is to pass the hand snugly over the top of the skull from before backwards; the practiced sense of touch is even more reliable in these cases than the sense of sight, and will be of much assistance.

Posthumous deformations are fortunately not frequent, but must nevertheless be reckoned with, and that above all in imperfect skulls and with the lower jaw. The degree of such deformation, with or even without fracture, is sometimes remarkable. As a result the vault of a skull may assume extreme steno-dolichocephalic or plagiocephalic appearance, and the arch of the lower jaw be considerably compressed—conditions which could easily deceive the inexperienced.¹ Posthumous deformations of the long bones may simulate curvatures; in other parts they are immaterial.

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Deformations caused by disease<sup>2</sup> are most commonly those of rickets, or hydrocephalus. Microcephaly, akromegaly, diffuse osteoporosis, and leontiasis ossea, each represent or may produce marked alterations in the shape, size, weight, and individual features of the skull. But recognition of these conditions when well developed offers no difficulties. The bones of the skeleton may be altered through dwarfism, cretinism, giantism, acromegaly, syphilis, inflammations, tumors, osteomalacia, tuberculosis, and above all, as already mentioned, by rachitis.

### MEASUREMENTS OF THE SKULL

As for measurements on the living, so for those on the skull, the observer needs a well-lighted place and one where he will be least disturbed. He will need ample table space, which, however, may in part be improvised with boards. He should have at hand a camera, a

<sup>1</sup> See Tarenetzky (A. J.), Postmortem alterations and damage of skulls (in Russian) *Proc. Anthrop. Sect. Milit.-Med. Acad.* St. Petersb., 1895, I, 19.

<sup>2</sup> See Backman (G.), "Ueber die Scaphocephalie," Anat. Hefte, H. 112, Wiesbaden, 1908, 219–270 (with extensive bibliography).—"Ueber Bathro- und Clinocephalie," Ibid., H. 140, 1912, 495–571 (Bibl.).

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Virchow (R.), Gesam. Abh., 1856.

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e an point èse, Paris, stereograph or some other form of large drawing apparatus, and a mounted prism ("camera lucida"). He will need a suitable stuffed leather or canvas ring as skull support. And, as in work on the living, he will need properly prepared blanks (fig. 18, p. 119).

The specimens to be examined are separated first according to kind, then according to sex, and are then arranged by numbers. All of

this facilitates work.

The blanks should be based on the same general principles as those for measurements and observations on the living (see p. 63 et seq.). Separate blanks are required for the skulls and for each kind of bone. To save work these blanks may be printed; or they may be prepared on good sized sheets marked in squares large enough to readily accommodate the records either in figures or in abbreviations. Sample blanks are given on the following page.

Selection of Measurements.—The same general rules that apply in this respect to the living (p. 61) apply also to the skull and rest of the skeleton and need not be repeated here. The skeletal collections, however, are for the most part fully and continuously at our disposal, so that they may be used again and again, serving for a series of studies besides that the object of which was a general description. The student may thus in cases require but a single measurement, or a special observation on a single feature of a skull or a bone, and he will

prepare his scheme to suit the occasion.

When the object is a general description of a series of crania (or skeletons), the observer will naturally endeavor to show first those features which are of the greatest importance from the standpoint of race or group; and these are usually the size, shape, and peculiarities of the specimen as a whole, and in its main parts. In the case of the skull, he will therefore measure the principal dimensions of the vault, with its capacity; the main dimensions of the face, lower jaw, palate and teeth; and take notes on the form of the vault, face, nose and orbits. He will add such visual observations as may complete in all essential points the picture of the specimen which he wishes to transmit so that this may be properly conveyed to his fellow workers and used in comparison. The concrete object of the work, as here touched upon, should not be forgotten in the maze of details. A list of measurements and observations used for these purposes by the author, is here given:

Instruments.—Craniometry, as well as osteometry, has a series of its own instruments. The small sliding compass (c. glissière), the regular spreading calipers (c. d'épaisseur), and the anthropometric

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BregmDacryn Glabel Goniob Gnath tape, are the same as for measurements on the living; but in addition the student will need an outfit for measuring the skull capacity; one for drawing; a Broca's mandibular goniometer; a transparent goniometer; and instruments for special purposes, such as the occipital goniometer, small sharp pointed calipers, an endocompass, curved brass probe, etc. For measurements on other bones of the skeleton he will need, in addition, the standard osteometric board with a block, a pelviphore, and apparatus for measuring the torsion of the humerus. With a few exceptions, these appliances are described and illustrated in Broca's "Instructions Craniologiques et Craniométriques" (Paris, 1875); in Topinard's "Éléments d'Anthropologie Générale" (Paris, 1885); in Martin's "Lehrbuch der Anthropologie" (Jena, 1914); and in Mathieu's, Collin's, and Hermann's Catalogues of anthropometric instruments. As far as additional description or remarks may be called for, they will be made most suitably in connection with the individual measurements.

Landmarks.—Before proceeding to the description of methods, it will be useful to give a list of the landmarks on the skull and their definitions. We may here conveniently draw on Topinard's and Martin's textbooks and on Cunningham's and other modern Anatomies, which include lists of this nature; but it may be of some advantage to give the terms in alphabetical order, and in a few instances to supplement the definitions.

Alveolar Point (or Prosthion).—The term "alveolar point" has a long priority of usage and no valid reason is apparent why it should be changed. It is the lowest point of the upper alveolar arch, between the median incisors. Broca defined it as the lower extremity of the intermaxillary suture, but occasionally the bone on one side or the other projects slightly beyond the suture, so that the above definition is preferable.

Asterion.—The point of meeting of the temporo-parietal, temporo-

occipital and lambdoid sutures.

Basion.—The middle of the anterior margin of the foramen magnum. Bregma.—The point of junction of the coronal and sagittal sutures.

Dacryon.—The point of junction of the lachrymo-maxillary, fronto-maxillary and fronto-lachrymal sutures.

Glabella.—A point midway between the two supraorbital ridges.

Gonion.—Point of the angle formed by the ascending branch with the body of the lower jaw.

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Gnathion.—See Menton.

Inion.—The most prominent point of the external occipital protuberance. (Now of secondary importance. In some specimens the protuberance may be absent; rarely it may be double with a depression between; and in instances it may be wholly replaced by a depression.)

Lambda.—The meeting point of the sagittal and lambdoid sutures.

(Often displaced by Wormian or other intercalated bones.)

Maximum Occipital Point.—The point on the squamous part of the occipital most distant from the glabella.

Menton ("Point mentonnière," "Gnathion").—The lowest point in the middle of the bony chin.

Nasion.—The median point of the naso-frontal suture.

Obelion.—A point on the sagittal suture on a line with the parietal foramina. (When both foramina are absent, the point may be estimated by comparison with other skulls.)

Ophryon.—The central point of the smallest transverse diameter of the forehead, measured from on temporal line to the other. (Obsolete.)

Opisthion.—The middle of the posterior margin of the foramen magnum.

Pogonion.—The most prominent point of the bony chin.

Pterion.—The spheno-parietal (or fronto-temporal, when that form exists) articulation.

Subnasal Points.—The lowest point, on each side, on the lower border of the nasal aperture, i. e., the lowest points anteriorly of the two nasal fossae. (If simian gutters are present, the subnasal points may be located on the lines limiting anteriorly the floor of the nasal cavity, or their location may be impossible.)

Stephanion.—The point where the coronal suture crosses the temporal line. (Obsolete.)

Vertex.—The summit of the cranial vault.

## METHODS.

As with measurements on the living, so with the skull and the rest of the skeleton, our foremost and most binding authority are the International Agreements (q. v., p. 50 et seq.). But as in that case so here the directions may in places be amplified so as to aid the student and prevent misconceptions. More or less obsolete measurements, on the other hand, may well be excluded, for the object of this treatise is to deal with the essential parts, rather than with the entire large field, of anthropometry.

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#### THE VAULT

Maximum length: The maximum glabello-occipital diameter of the vault. Instrument: c.e., any pattern.

Method: As specified by International Agreements (p. 14) and on the

living (p. 68).

Maximum breadth: The greatest transverse diameter of the vault above the mastoids and roots of zygomae. Instrument: c. e.

Method: As specified by I. A. (p. 14) and on living (p. 69).

Basion-bregma height.—c. e.

Method: Place left forefinger in foramen magnum, press ball of finger lightly against anterior border of the foramen, apply one point of compass so that it rests on the lowermost point of the border in the middle and against the finger, apply other point to bregma, and read measurement. Or, apply point of right branch of compass to bregma and bring point of left branch to basion.

Remark.—The maximum height of the vault is less desirable than the basio-bregmatic, because used by fewer observers, and on account of the not infrequent thickening and ridging of the bone in the sagittal

region. Thickness: Thickness of left parietal, 1 cm. above and along the

squamous suture.—c. e.

Method: Introduce one branch of compass into the cranial cavity, apply to anterior part of the lower portion of the parietal approximately 1 cm. above the squamous suture, bring other branch in contact with the bone externally, and pass backwards at about the same distance from the sutures, watching the scale of the instrument. Record observed minimum and maximum. These give a mean which is useful for comparison, and which must be taken account of in estimates of skull capacity from external dimensions.

Landmarks and method Minimum frontal diameter.—c. e. or c. g.

as given by the I. A. (p. 16).

Capacity.—This measurement, corresponding closely to the volume of the brain, is one of considerable importance, and as it is also beset

with difficulties it demands special attention.

An ideal method of obtaining the capacity would be by some liquid, water or mercury, which could be easily and directly measured; but attempts at such a procedure have met thus far with unsurmounted difficulties due to the porosity of the bones, the numerous canals and foramina, and the sharp processes on the inside of the skull.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compas d'épaisseur.

The various older methods of measuring cranial capacity may be segregated into five groups, namely:

1. The skull is made impermeable and after that filled with some liquid, preferably water, which is then weighed or measured; or the water is forced into a thin rubber bag until it fills with this the entire skull cavity, after which the liquid is measured. These methods, employed by Broca, Schmidt, Matthews, etc., yield good results, but are too complicated or tedious for ordinary use.

2. The skull is filled with sand or other substances, and this is weighed, the result giving a basis for calculating the capacity. This method, used especially by some American anthropologists of the last century, was not sufficiently accurate, and soon became obsolete.

3. The skull is filled with small, rounded seeds, beads, shot or other substances, and the contents are then measured (Tiedemann, Busk, Flower, etc.). The filling or the measuring (or both) is aided by certain manipulations (tilting, tapping, etc.), but, except the measuring vessels, no implements are required. The method in its numerous modifications is comparatively easy and has other advantages, but the results are mostly not as accurate as desirable.

4. The method invented and regulated by and named after Broca. In this procedure the skull is packed with shot, which is then measured; but both the filling and measuring are aided by certain implements, and every step of the procedure follows definite rules. Among the implements used appears a funnel of certain dimensions, which controls the flow of the shot. The method gives steady results, but can not be used with frail skulls, and the capacity obtained is always larger than actual, the proportion growing with the size of the skull.

5. Welcker's method.¹ In this procedure, which is the outgrowth of the majority of those mentioned, but more directly of that of Broca, the most important part is delegated to the funnel, which, by its size, controls the measuring of the contents of the skull. The mode of filling the skull, so long as efficient and uniform, is immaterial; all that is required is that each worker should, with the aid of a standard skull, find the exact size of the funnel necessary to give him, in measuring, the correct result with his particular method and substance used for the filling of the skull. Any rounded seed or substance can be em-

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Arch. f. Anthrop., Bd. XVI, S. 1 et seq. E. Schmidt, "Anthropologische Methoden," pp. 217–219. A modification of the instruments with a form of a funnel stopper has been proposed independently of the author by E. Landau, Intern. Centralbl. f. Anthrop., etc., 1903, I, pp. 3–7.

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ployed for the filling, as it is possible to completely fill the cranial cavity without using the process of jamming, such as that used by Broca; this allows the most fragile skull to be measured without any injury. Welcker advocated a funnel large enough to receive all the contents of the skull. The contents of the properly filled skull are emptied into a separate vessel and then "with one movement is versed into the funnel," which is open (not provided with any stopper) and held in position vertically and centrally above the graduated receiving vessel. Each new series of measurements is controlled by the standard skull.

The author's method, in use since 1901, is a modification of Welcker's. It is based on the observations, that: (a) The same substance poured through the same funnel with the same rapidity will always give the same, but with different rapidity will give differing, measures; (b) each different substance that can be utilized for the measurement of cranial capacity, flowing through a definite size of funnel and with regulated rapidity, will give different results from those given by any other substance flowing through the same funnel and with equally regulated rapidity. (c) Given the same regulation of rapidity of the flow, there can be obtained, through the proper selection of funnels of different diameter, any measurement, ranging between the minimum and maximum of a substance of medium weight and size, by all the solid substances employable for filling the cranial cavity.

Efficient regulation of the flow of the substance used was obtained by adding to the funnel a movable stopper. By doing this, it becomes immaterial as to with what rapidity, or in what manner, the funnel is filled before opening the stopper. This removes at once all source of error connected with the emptying of the cranial contents, and allows us to dispense with the extra vessel used in measuring the cranial contents in Welcker's procedure. With the funnel closed, the cranial contents are poured into it entirely at the convenience of the measurer.

The apparatus used is shown in Fig. 17. The mode of filling the skull is that used by Flower. To measure the contents, they are emptied directly, in any way desired, into a combination of a zinc vessel (higher than, but otherwise similar to, the standard Broca's double liter) and a removable funnel of 45° dip, with 15 mm. high vertical section, which, for my purpose (using old, dry mustard seed) is 20 mm. in diameter. Immediately below the funnel is a movable disk which acts as its stopper. The disk is attached to a rod which rises along the side of the vessel and above its border, and ends in a lever; by using

Described in Science, 1903, 1011-14.
Published originally in Science, 1903, 1011.

this lever the disk closes or opens the funnel. A number of extra funnels, of the same dip but of different sizes, are provided, from which to choose if another substance than mustard seed is used for the filling. The vessel with the cranial contents is placed on the top of a 2,000-c.c. graduated glass tube (such as used by Ranke), which is fixed in a vertical position. The zinc vessel is provided with a groove in its bottom which

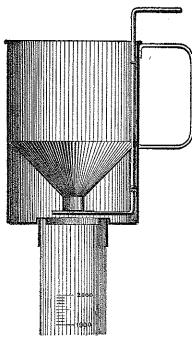


Fig. 17. Hrdlička's apparatus for measuring cranial capacity.

exactly fits the border of the glass, the opening of the funnel being central. Then the lever is rapidly pushed to either side, opening the funnel at once and completely, and the flow left to itself; the level which the seed reaches (determined simply by the eye or, preferably, the careful aid, without any shocks or pressure, of a niveau finder, such as comes with Ranke's tube) is the skull capacity. The measuring part of the capacity determination is thus reduced to a mechanical procedure, which not only makes it easy, but eliminates from it practically all source of error due to personal equation. What the student needs to learn is some method by which a complete and uniform filling of the skull can be effected, and then, working with the aid of standard

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skulls, choose the proper funnel; the rest is controlled. The results, always with the condition that the proper use is made of the standard skulls, are as uniform and as near the reality as can be reasonably hoped for.1

Menton-nasion height (or "nasion-menton diameter").-C. e., or c. g. The distance from menton to nasion, with the lower jaw in place and the teeth in apposition. Note condition of teeth, especially as to wear.2

Alveolar point—nasion height (or "naso-alveolar diameter").—C. g., or c. e.

Landmarks.—See I. A. (p. 16).

Maximum bizygomatic diameter.—C. e., or c. g.

Landmarks, etc.—See I. A. (p. 16).

#### BASE

Basio-alveolar diameter.—C. e. or c. g.

Distance between basion and the alveolar point.

Basion-subnasal point diameter.—C. e.

Distance between basion and the left subnasal point.

The triangle basion-alveolar point—subnasal point-basion gives the // measure of alveolar prognathism, which it is useful to show separately from the facial prognathism.

Basion-nasion.—C. e.

Distance between basion and nasion. The angle between the basion-alveolar point line and that from the alveolar point to nasion, gives the facial angle, which is the expression of the combined alveolar and facial prognathism.

#### Nose

Nasal height.—C. g.

Landmarks: As given by I. A. (p. 16).

Method: Measure to base of spine, or separately to each subnasal point and record the mean.

Nasal breadth.—C.g.

Landmarks and Method: As given by I. A. (p. 17).

<sup>1</sup> The apparatus is not made for the market, but it should not be difficult for any

one to have it constructed by following the given directions.

<sup>2</sup> The question as to whether to allow for the wear of the teeth, when this is present, or not, has not as yet been decided. Until a definite international rule is established, it seems best to record both the actual measurement, and an estimate of what the latter would be with teeth in normal condition.

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#### ORBITS

Orbital breadth.—C. g.

Landmarks and Method: As given by I. A. (p. 17).

Orbital height.—C. g.

Landmarks and Method: As given by I. A. (p. 17).

UPPER ALVEOLAR PROCESS ("PALATE")

 $Breadth.--C.\ g.$ 

Length.—C. g.

Landmarks and Methods: Follow I. A. (pp. 17, 18).

# LOWER JAW

Bigoniac breadth.—C. g.

The diameter between the most distal points on the external surface

of the angles of the jaw.

Method: Use stub branches of the compass. Apply instrument so that the rod rests on each side against the ramus ascendens, while the branches are brought to the most prominent points about the angles of the jaw.

Angle of lower jaw.—Broca's mandibular goniometer.

Method: See I. A. (p. 21).

Note: The angle differs in general on the two sides of the jaw. The logical procedure is to measure the angle on both sides and record the mean.

Height of symphysis.—C. g.

Height of the body of the lower jaw.—C. g.

Maximum thickness of the body of the lower jaw.—C. g.

Landmarks and Method: As given by the I. A. (p. 20).

Note: To obtain the thickness, measure same on both sides and record the mean (if marked difference is found, individual measurements may also be given). The instrument should be held so that the midline of the teeth (antero-posteriorly) corresponds to the midpoint of the rod of the compass between the two branches.

#### Miscellaneous

Maximum Circumference.—A. t.

Landmarks and Method: As given by the I. A. (p. 19).

Sagittal arc.—A. t.

Landmarks and Method: As given by the I. A. (p. 18).

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or ma bulgin Metop Note: If subdivisions of the arc are to be recorded, include only those specimens in which there are no intercalated bones at bregma or lambda.

# VISUAL OBSERVATIONS

As in the case of measurements, so in that of visual observations. only those will be included in the scheme presented here which are of more than casual importance, and which are needed if the observer is to transmit, or the student receive, a well-rounded impression of the specimen or series examined. On special occasions other observations may become of importance and may then be included in the general scheme, or be carried out separately.

A well organized system of observations renders work easier, more rapid, and more accurate. The main care to be exercised by the student in this connection is that his standards correspond as closely as possible to those generally accepted or understood; and in the report on his work he should invariably include brief but clear explanatory statements as to his use of terms and standards. In recording, all unnecessary details should be avoided. Observation blanks are given below.

The subsequent notes will be of assistance in recording the visual observations. They are given in the same order as followed in the blanks. In recording, for "average," "medium," "ordinary," "normal," use always the sign+; for other characters use abbreviations. Rare features deserve separate and comprehensive description.

# Notes

Pathological: Under this term are included injuries, signs of disease, and pathological exostoses, but no morphological abnormalities.

VAULT: Form from above (Norma superior)—Main types: Ovoid, // pentagonal, elliptical—short, medium or long; rotund.

Supraorbital ridges: Traces, slight, moderate; medium (+, feminine, masculine); pronounced; excessive; neanderthaloid arch.

Mastoids: Small, moderate or submedium, medium (+), large,

excessive: peculiarities.

Forehead: High, medium (+), or low; vertical, slightly, moderately or markedly sloping; eminences reduced to one central, or unduly bulging; assymetry (slight or marked); overhanging (hydrocephalus). Metopic suture; metopic ridge.

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