An Osteological Perspective on the Origins of the Modern Thai

Supaporn Nakbunlung

The controversy surrounding Thai origins and movements has continued for many decades. The debate can be summarized in two hypotheses: the "immigrant" and "endogenous" hypotheses. Statistical analyses of multiple comparison tests reveal that craniofacial metric traits of the modern Thai sample differ more significantly from archaeological and modern Chinese samples than they do from the archaeological Thai sample.

his paper focuses on the assessment of population affinities based on craniofacial skeletal data. The main objective of this research is to test two hypotheses, i.e. the "immigrant" and "endogenous" hypotheses. The former proposes that the main stream of the Thai migrated from China, while the latter favors the concept that the modern Thais are descended from prehistoric inhabitants of present day Thailand. Although there is much research in East and Southeast Asia using historical and linguistic data¹ regarding the two hypotheses, the use of skeletal morphology to solve the problem of Thai origins has been almost entirely excluded.²

The argument for Thai migration is based largely on historical records. Thai history prior to the thirteenth century A.D. has been distorted since Borihanthepthani (1968) claimed that after the movement of Thai from the Altai Mountain (7,000 years B.P.), the last mass migration was from Yunnan, China (1,300 A.D.). This information has been supported by Thai authority until the present (Tourism Authrority of Thailand n.d.). There is no direct evidence of any major population movement from China to Thailand during the early second millennium A.D. (Tu and Chen 1978).

The problems of Thai origins and migration are reflected in linguistic taxonomy. Tai languages have been categorized under the different language phyla: Austroasiatic, Sino-Tibetan, and Austro-Tai (Thurgood 1985; Edmonson and Solnit 1988). The Austro-Tai hypothesis proposed by Benedict (1942) is widely accepted by most linguists working in the area today (Reid 1988). Modern Thai or Siamese is included in the Tai language family (see Figure 1).

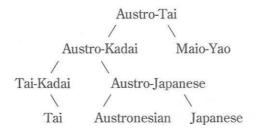


Figure 1 The Austro-Tai language family-tree (Adapted from Thurgood 1985).

Although linguistic data suggest that the greatest linguistic diversity of Tai-Kadai was in Southeast China (Edmonson and Solnit 1988), it is not always true that the most diverse area is the point of origin (Lehman 1963). Benedict (1975) postulates the direction of cultural influence from Southeast Asia to China based on linguistic evidence; and his viewpoint has been supported by human dental remains (Turner 1989). Mainland Southeast Asia is, therefore, another possible homeland for Austro-Tai.

The archaeological evidence in Thailand also shows gradual cultural change; there is no sign of a sharp-break or evidence of intruders between 3,600 B.C. and 300 A.D. (see Table 1). The cultural and physical remains reveal continuous occupation of the area for many millennia.

 ${\it Table~1}$ Archaeological Evidence from Selected Sites in Thailand

Age	Location	Cultural Remains	Sources		
A.D. 1,400	North & Central	Stone inscriptions	(5)		
A.D. 600–700	Northeast & Central	Iron, Salt, Fortified mound	(8); (9)		
2,000–1,400 B.C.	Kok Panom Di	Grave goods, Rice	(4)		
3,600 B.CA.D. 300	Ban Chiang Non Nok Tha Ban Na Di	Pottery, Rice, Copper base metallurgy	(3); (11) (2) (4)		
6,290–5,705 B.C.	Ban Chiang	Hearth (?)	(11)		
3,600 B.CA.D. 700 5,500-3,600 B.C. 9,000-5,500 B.C.	Banyan Cave Pah Chan Cave Spirit Cave	Rice husks Pottery Core stone tools	(3) (3) (3)		
0.03–0.04 mya 0.8±0.3/0.6±0.2 mya	Lang Rongrien Cave Moh-Khiew Cave Mae Tha	Flake stone tools Core stone tools	(1) (6) (7); (10)		

Sources: (1)Anderson (1987); (2)Bayard (1979); (3)Gorman (1969); (4)Higham (1989); (5)Chit (1981); (6)Pookajorn, et al. (1991); (7)Pope, et al. (1986); (8)Smith (1979); (9)Solheim & Ayres (1979); (10)Sorensen (1985); (11)White (1986).

Cavalli-Sforza and colleagues (1988) and Poolsuwan (1991) report a closer genetic relationship between Thai and Austroasiatic Khmer than between Thai and Chinese migrants (see Sirijaraya 1988).

Therefore, an alternate possibility, that the Thai derive from aboriginal tribes or native people of the area, has been proposed to counter the traditional viewpoint that Thais originated from China. While the previous debates are based heavily on cultural remains, I think the question "Who are the ancestors of the modern Thai?" cannot be properly addressed without the direct evidence of the populations themselves. Skeletal remains are, therefore, my choice in reconstructing the relationships of the past and present populations.

The main focus of this study is to test the hypothesis that modern Thais are more closely related to early people in China than early people in Thailand. If early Thais migrated from China to settle within the contemporary boundary of Thailand, modern Thais should be more similar morphologically to archaeological Chinese. On the other hand, if modern Thais derived from early indigenous people in Thailand, modern Thais should be more similar to archaeological Thais than to archaeological Chinese.

This study, therefore, uses skeletal morphological methods for measuring population migration. The skull is considered the best skeletal portion in measuring the biological relationships of human populations (Gill 1986; Pietrusewsky 1981). The facial portion, especially, is considered to have a stronger genetic component than other parts of the skull — base and calvaria (Hershkovitz, et al. 1990). For this reason, more facial traits were selected for this study than other cranial traits. They are referred to as craniofacial traits throughout the paper.

This paper focuses on Anthropometry as a reliable method for measuring population affinities. Since only metric traits have been known to give similar results of biological distance as serological indicators (i.e. the ABO, MN, Rh series, taste reaction and color blindness factors) (Sanghvi 1953), I have thus selected the method of metric traits to present here. Many measurements could not be taken from the archaeological skeletal populations, however, due to the incompleteness and fragility of long buried bones.

Material & Method

The sample drawn consists of 307 cases, including 125 modern Thai (37 females, 72 males, and 16 unknown sex)³, 70 modern Chinese (20 females and 50 males), 46 prehistoric Thai (17 females and 28 males), and 66 prehistoric Chinese (25 females and 41 males)⁴ (see Table 2). Only adults are used for the analyses.

Fourteen craniofacial metric traits were finally selected to use in this study. They were selected for different reasons. Most of the selected metric traits are traditional measurements that were reported as conveying meaningful variation in phylogenetic studies (Giles 1976) and as major variants with geographic variation among closely related populations (Hanihara 1985a, b).

The fourteen metric traits are maximum cranial length, maximum cranial breadth, bizygomatic breadth, facial height, facial breadth, nasal height, nasal breadth, orbital height, orbital breadth, biorbital breadth, interorbital breadth, and the three malar bone measurements (frontomalare orbitale to superior zygomaxillare, frontomalare orbitale to inferior zygomaxillare, and superior zygomaxillare to inferior zygomaxillare) (see Figures 2, and 3).

Table 2
Thai and Chinese Skeletal Population Samples

No. of Population Female		No. of Male	No. of Unknown Sex	Total	Sources		
Modern							
Thai	5	10	0	15	AMNH		
	24	28	0	52	Siriraj Hospital		
	8	<u>34</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>58</u>	Suan Dok Hospital		
Total	37	72	16	<u>125</u>			
Chinese	5	12	0	17	Siriraj Hospital		
	1	4	0	5	Field Museum		
	<u>14</u>	<u>34</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>48</u>	AMNH		
Total	20	50	0	<u>70</u>			
Prehistoric							
Thai	8	11	1	20	Siriraj Hospital		
	9	<u>17</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>26</u>	UNLV		
Total	17	28	<u>0</u> 1	<u>46</u>			
Chinese (N.)	21	36	0	57	(1); (2); (3); (4)		
Chinese (S.)	_4	_5	<u>0</u>	9	(5)		
Total	25	41	0	<u>66</u>			

Note: AMNH is abbreviated from American Museum of Natural History, New York, USA. Siriraj Hospital is located in Bangkok, Thailand. Suan Dok Hospital is located in Chiang Mai, Thailand. Field Museum of Natural History is located in Chicago, Illinois, USA. UNLV is abbreviated from University of Nevada, Las Vegas, USA.

Sources: (1) Yan, et al. 1960a, 1960b; (2) Yan 1962; (3) Yan 1972; (4) Yan 1973; and (5) Zhang, et al. 1977.

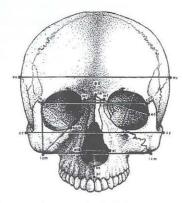


Figure 2 Morphological landmarks for the cranio-facial metric traits (frontal view).

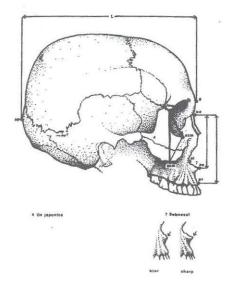


Figure 3 Morphological landmarks for the cranio-facial metric traits (Lateral view).

Results

Paired-sample t-tests between measurements of left and right anatomical sides of Thai and Chinese skulls were performed to determine the data set to be used. Statistical analyses of the metric data include univariate analysis of the mean and standard deviation. Skewness was determined using stem and leaf plots as well as boxplots to check on the normal distribution and to check for clerical errors.

The descriptive statistics are summarized in Tables 3 and 4. The craniofacial metric traits were analysed by different statistical methods, i.e. the Tukey HSD multiple comparison test, principal components analysis, and path analysis. The results of this study support the model indicating the closest relation between modern Thai and archaeological Thai (see Table 4).

Archaeological Thai appear more closely related to modern Chinese than modern Thai (see Table 4). This result supports Benedict's linguistic hypothesis of cultural influence from Southeast Asia to China (Benedict 1975). It also gives further support to Turner's dental hypothesis proposing that Sundadonts (Southeast Asian dental characteristics) gave rise to Sinodonts (Chinese dental characteristics) (Turner 1989).

Finally, craniofacial skeletal patterns change through time, as revealed through principal components analyses (see Figure 4). The trend is toward a smaller version of the modern populations as compared to larger craniofacial elements of the archaeological populations.

Discussion and Conclusion

Different statistical analyses of craniofacial metric data in this study indicate that modern Thais show the closest relationship to archaeological Thais. However, Path analysis indicates that the potential ancestral groups of modern Thai are not all included in the hypothetical groups in this study (see Figure 5). Only speculation, based on other sources (Pietrusewsky 1978), supports the possibility that ancestral groups for modern Thais include other archaeological Southeast Asians.

 ${\it Table~3} \\ {\it Summary~Descriptions~of~Craniofacial~Metric~Traits~for~Male~and~Female~Modern~and} \\ {\it Archaeological~Thai~and~Chinese~Groups} \\$

			Thai						Chinese	?		
	modern		archa	archaeological		modern			archa	archaeological		
	\boldsymbol{x}	SD	n	\boldsymbol{x}	SD	n	X	SD	n	\boldsymbol{x}	SD	n
							74					
Cranio-												
Facial trait												
G-OP	169.69	8.16	106	178.38	10.93	29	174.46	0.16	65	173.59	11 97	54
							174.46	8.16			11.27	
EU-EU	140.94	6.77	90	139.40	5.85	30	138.55	5.39	65	144.71	6.71	56
NA-PR	66.51	5.35	88	68.35	4.72	17	69.34	4.98	65	71.40	5.43	61
ZY-ZY	130.10	7.56	108	135.22	6.97	9	131.74	6.43	65	136.01	5.56	36
FMO-FMO	95.47	5.04	108	96.72	4.42	27	95.42	4.58	65	97.73	3.67	51
FMO-SZM	31.04	1.90	105	32.84	2.48	32	32.32	1.94	65	-	-	0
FMO-IZM	43.20	3.41	105	45.88	2.65	30	45.06	3.19	65	-	-	0
SZM-IZM	32.12	4.01	103	30.28	3.61	30	34.29	3.77	65	-	-	0
NA-NS	50.20	3.73	109	51.06	3.00	16	52.55	3.52	65	53.49	3.75	59
AL-AL	25.63	2.32	109	27.97	2.11	17	25.47	1.86	65	27.04	2.24	58
ORB-H	33.25	1.93	109	33.63	2.33	19	34.29	2.02	65	33.88	1.95	63
ORB-B	40.59	2.51	108	40.41	3.24	16	40.26	2.22	65	42.53	2.09	64
INT-OR	18.42	2.08	109	21.52	2.11	23	19.87	1.92	65	18.58	2.27	61
MAX-MAX	99.25	6.08	30	98.80	5.17	5	98.72	4.86	60	104.48		52
IATUV-IATUV	33.40	0.00	30	30.00	0.17	J	30.12	4.00	00	104.40	6.04	04

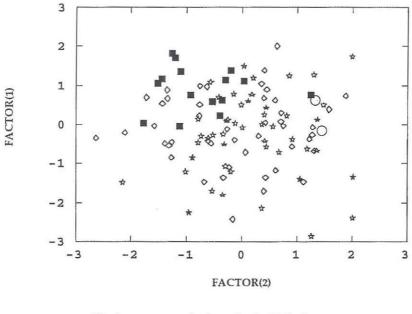
Note: See Nakbunlung (1994) for a detailed description of each craniofacial trait.

Table 4
Summary Comparisons of Craniofacial Metric Traits for Modern and Archaeological Thai and Chinese Groups
Using the Tukey HSD Multiple Comparison Tests

	AC/ m	MT f	AC/ M	MC f	AT/ I	MT f	AT/ M m	<u>IC</u> f
Cranio- Facial trait								
raciai trait								
G-OP	66	"	46	"	*	*	"	"
EU-EU	"	*	*	*	"	"	"	"
NA-PR	*	*	*	"	66	u	u	a
ZY-ZY	*	*	**	*	66	*	u	"
FMO-FMO	66	*	44	*	66	u	"	"
NA-NS	*	*	44	и	**	"	"	66
AL-AL	*	"	*	"	*	*	*	66
ORB-H	44	u	"	"	"	ű	"	44
ORB-B	*	*	*	*	"	"	"	"
INT-OR	44	u	"	*	*	*	*	"
MAX-MAX	*	*	*	*	"	~	"	~
FMO-SZM	~	~	~	~	*	*	"	"
FMO-IZM	~	~	~	~	*	*	"	44
SZM-IZM	~	~	~	~	"	"	*	*

Note: AC = Archaeological Chinese, AT = Archaeological Thai, MC = Modern Chinese, MT = Modern Thai, and m = male, f = female (male and female are tested separately).

- all comparisons tested are insignificant.
- * the statistical significance level is less than 0.05.
- comparisons are not made due to insufficient cases.



Circle = Archaeological Thai

Star = Modern Thai

Square = Archaeological Chinese
Diamond = Modern Chinese

Figure 4 First and Second Component Scores Plots for Male Groups.

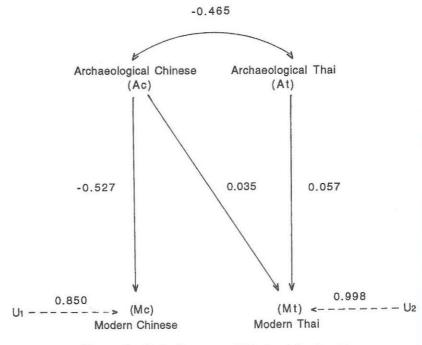


Figure 5 Path diagram of Thai origin (male).

The osteological perspective has significant implications for the study of past and present population relationships because it provides direct evidence to add to the indirect evidence from cultural sources. The studies of Thai population movements have been based solely on cultural remains. The studies of this study is to call attention to the fact that skeletal remains should not be treated as a standard items. Skeletal attributes contain abundant information if one knows how to access that information.

However, this study is limited to only four groups, modern and Archaeological Thai and Chinese. The result refutes the hypothesis that modern Thais have descended from populations which had immigrated to Thailand from China, but fail to clearly support the hypothesis that modern Thais are descended from indigenous groups in Thailand. In other words, the results of this study indicate that the immigrant hypothesis and the endogenous hypothesis are not mutually exclusive. Therefore, samples of neighbouring populations are needed for further analysis of the origins of the modern Thai.

Acknowledgement

This paper is a summary of my dissertation research submitted to the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign in 1994. I would like to thank all of my committee as well as financial support from UIUC, Sigma-xi, and AMNH grant. I gratefully acknowledge American Museum of Natural History, Field Museum of Natural History, Medical schools of Chiang Mai and Mahidol Universities, as well as Drs. Brook at University of Nevada, Las Vegas for access to specimens used in this research.

Notes

¹Please see details in many papers presented at the Thai Studies International Conference which was held in the Republic of China during May 11-13, 1990.

²Professor Dr. Sood Sangvichian (1978) introduced the osteological comparative studies for studying the problems of 'The Origin of the Thai' in his book: *The Problem of Thai Migration*.

³It is not an easy task to do sex estimation from only the skull, therefore some of them were marked *unidentified.'

⁴Data for 66 Neolithic skulls were taken from published accounts (Yan et al. 1960a, b; Yan 1962, 1972, 1973; Zhang et al. 1977).

Reference cited

Anderson, D.

1987. A Pleistocene-Early Holocene Rock Shelter in Peninsular Thailand. National Geographic Research 3: 184-198.

Bayard, D.T.

1979 The Chronology of Prehistoric Metallurgy in North-East Thailand: Silabhumi or Samrddhabhumi? *In* R.B. Smith and W. Watson (eds.), *Early South Asia*, pp. 3-14. New York: Oxford University Press.

Benedict, P.

1942 Thai, Kadai, and Indonesian. American Anthropologist 44: 576-601.

1975 Austro-Thai Language and Culture. New Haven: Human Relations Area Files Press.

Borihanthepthani, Phra

Pra Wat Chat Thai: Kwam Pen Ma Khong Chat Thai Tang Tae Yuk Deuk Dum Bun (ประวัติชาติไทย : ความเป็นมาของชาติไทยตั้งแต่ยุคดึกดำบรรพ์)
[History of Thai Nation.]). Bangkok: Sinlapabannakhan.

Cavalli-Sforza, L.L., A. Piazza, P. Menozzi, and J. Mountain

1988 Reconstruction of Human Evolution: Bringing Together Genetic, Archaeological, and Linguistic Data. *Proceedings National Academy of Sciences* 85: 6002-6006.

Chit Phumisak

1981 Kwam Pen Ma Khaung Kham Sayam, Thai, Lao, Lee Khom Lee Laksana Thang Sangkhom Khuang Chue Chon Chat (ความเป็นมาของคำสยาม, ไทย, ลาว และ ขอม และลักษณะทางสังคมของชื่อชนชาติ) [The origins of the words Siam, Thai, Lao and Khmer: the social characteristics of ethnic names]). Bangkok: Duang Kamol.

Edmonson, J. A. and D.B. Solnit

1988 Comparative Kadai: Linguistic Studies Beyond Tai. Summer Institute of Linguistics, Arlington: University of Texas.

Giles, E.

1976 Cranial Variation in Australia and Neighbouring Areas. *In R.L. Kirk and A.G. Thorne (eds.)*, *The Origins of the Australians*, Pp. 161-172.

Canberra: Austalian Institute of Aboriginal Studies, Human Biology Series No. 6.

Gill, G.W.

1986 Craniofacial Criteria in Forensic Race Identification. In K.J. Reichs (ed.), Forensic Osteology: Advances in the Identification of Human Remains, Pp.143-159. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas.

Gorman, C. F.

1969 Hoabinhian: A Pebble-Tool Complex with Early Plant Associations in Southeast Asia. *Science* 163: 671-673.

Hanihara, K.

1985 a Geographic Variation of Modern Japanese Crania and Its Relationship to the Origin of Japanese. *Homo* 36:1-10.

1985 b Origins and Affinities of Japanese Viewed from Cranial Measurements. In R.L. Kirk and E. Szathmary (eds.): Out of Asia: Peopling the Americas and the Pacific, Pp.105-112. Canberra: Australian National University Press.

Hershkovitz, I., B. Ring, and E. Kobyliansky

1990 Measurements in Separating Human Populations. *American Journal of Physical Anthropology* 83: 307-319.

Higham, C.

1989 The Archaeology of Mainland Southeast Asia. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lehman, F.K.

1963 The Structure of Chin Society. Urbana: The University of Illinois Press. Illinois Studies in Anthropology, No.3.

Nakbunlung, Supaporn

1994 Origins and Biological Affinities of the Modern Thai Population: An Osteological Perspective. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Illinois Ubana-Champaign

Pietrusewsky, M.

1978 A Study of Early Metal Age Crania from Ban Chiang, Northeast Thailand. *Journal of Human Evolution* 7: 383-392.

1981 Cranial Variation in Early Metal Age Thailand and Southeast Asia Studied by Multivariate Procedures. *Homo* 32: 1-26.

Pookajorn, S., and anonymous

1991 Preliminary Report of Excavation at Moh-Khiew Cave, Krabi Province, Sakai Cave, Trang Province and Ethno-archaeological Research of Hunter-Gatherer Group, socall "Sakai" or "Semang" at Trang Province. Bangkok: The Hoabinnian Research Project in Thailand.

Poolsuwan, S.

1991 Malaria and the Evolution of Human B-Globin Poly-morphisms in Southeastern Asia. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Michigan.

Pope, G.G., S. Barr, A. Macdonald, and S. Nakbunlung

1986 Earliest Radiometrically Dated Artifacts from Southeast Asia. *Current Anthropology* 27: 275-270.

Reids, L. R.

1988 Benedict's Austro-Tai Hypothesis: An evaluation. *Asian Perspectives* 26: 19-34.

Sanghvi, L.D.

1953 Comparison of Genetical and Morphological Methods for a Study of Biological Differences. *American Journal of Physical Anthropology* 11: 385-404.

Sirijaraya, S.

1988 Dermatoglyphic Genetics of Five Populations in Thailand. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Kansas.

Smith, R. B.

1979 Mainland South East Asia in the Seventh and Eighth Centuries. In R.B. Smith and W. Watson (eds.), *Early South East Asia*, pp.443-456. New York: Oxford University Press.

Solheim, W.G. II and M. Ayres

1979 The Late Prehistoric and Early Historic Pottery of the Khorat Plateau with Special Reference to Phimai. *In* R.B. Smith and W. Watson (eds.), *Early South East Asia*, pp. 63-77.

Sorensen, P.

1985 The Prehistory of Thailand. In C. Flon (ed.), The World Atlas of Archaeology, pp. 250-251. Boston: G.K. Hall & Co.

Thurgood, G.

Benedict's Work: Past and Present, *In G.* Thurgood, J. A. Matisoff, and D. Bradley (eds), *Linguistics of the Sino-Tibetan Area: the State of the Art.*Canberra: The Australian National University.

Tourism Authority of Thailand

n.d. *Thailand: A Golden Wonderland*. Bangkok: Tourism Authority of Thailand. Tu, Y.T. and Chen, L.F.

1978 Did the Conquest of Ta-Li-Kuo by Qubilai (Kublai Khan) Cause a Mass of the Tai Race to Migrate Southward? English Translation from Chinese. In S. Sangvichian, The problem of Thai migration, Pp. 57-77. Bangkok: Roong Ruang Tham.

Turner, C.G., II

1989 Teeth and Prehistory in Asia. Scientific American (February): 88-96.

White, J.C.

1986 A Revision of the Chronology of Ban Chiang and Its Implications for the Prehistory of Northeast Thailand. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania. Ann Arbor: University Microfilms International, Inc.

Yan, Y.

1962 A Study of the Neolithic Human Skeletons from Huaxian, Shaanxi. *Acta Archaeologica Sinica* 2: 85-104.

1972 The Neolithic Human Skeletons from the Dawenkou Site, Shandong. *Acta Archaeologica Sinica* 1:91-122.

1973 The Neolithic Human Skeletal Remains from Xixiahou. *Kao Ku Hsuen Pao* 2: 91-126.

Yan, Y., C. Liu, and Y. Gu

1960a Study of the Neolithic Human Skeletons from the Baoji Site, Shaanxi. *Gu Jizhuidongwu yu Gu Renlei (Palaeo-vertebrata et Palaeoanthropologia)* 2: 33-43.

Yan, Y., X.Z. Wu, C.Z. Liu, and Y.M. Gu

1960b A Study of Human Skeletons from Banpo, Xi'an, Shaanxi. Kaogu 9: 36-47.

Zhang, Y.Y., L.H. Wang, and X. Dong

1977 The Human Skulls from the Zhenpiyan Neolithic Site at Guilin, Guangxi. *Vertebrata Pal-Asiatica* 15: 4-13.

Dr. Supaporn Nakbunlung had been involved in the archaeological field project at Ban Chiang, Northern Thailand, as a volunteer researcher. Between 1990 and 1994, she was a research assistant in a laboratory training for the analysis of archaeological botanical remains at Resource Investigation Programme, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Presently, Dr. Supaporn teaches at Chiang Mai University, Thailand.