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The foot in forensic human identification - a review

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Dear Editorial Board of The Foot,

On behalf of myself and my colleagues, I hereby submit the revised manuscript titled “The Foot in Forensic Human Identification – A Review” by Catriona Davies *et al.* for consideration for publication as a review article in The Foot. All co-authors were fully involved in the study and preparation of this manuscript. The contents of this paper have not been presented or published anywhere previously. The manuscript has been revised in accordance with the request of the editor.

We present a review of the literature pertaining to forensic human identification from the foot when recovered in isolation and in particular consider the approaches and methods available for the establishment of a biological profile from limited remains.

We believe that the information presented in this article will be of interest to the readers of The Foot as this has the potential to aid forensic anthropologists and podiatrists in their examination of isolated pedal remains and highlights the deficiencies in the current literature.

Yours Sincerely,

Dr Catriona M Davies PhD.

On behalf of:

Dr Lucina Hackman PhD.

Prof. Sue Black PhD.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

No conflict of interest is known to the authors

The foot in forensic human identification – A review

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Response to Reviewer

In response to the reviewer, the abstract for this article has been added to the manuscript as requested.

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SUMMARY

The identification of human remains is a process which can be attempted irrespective of the stage of decomposition in which the remains are found or the anatomical regions recovered. In recent years, the discovery of fragmented human remains has garnered significant attention from the national and international media, particularly the recovery of multiple lower limbs and feet from coastlines in North America. While cases such as these stimulate public curiosity, they present unique challenges to forensic practitioners in relation to the identification of the individual from whom the body part originated. There is a paucity of literature pertaining to the foot in forensic human identification and in particular, in relation to the assessment of the parameters represented by the biological profile. This article presents a review of the literature relating to the role of the foot in forensic human identification and highlights the areas in which greater research is required.

INTRODUCTION

It is incumbent upon forensic practitioners to attempt the identification of any recovered human remains, irrespective of the quantity or the stage of decomposition in which they are found. The process of human identification requires the completion of multiple stages of investigation and the combination of various evidentiary threads which may lead to a putative identity of the deceased. Only once a presumptive identification has been made, can confirmation of identity be sought through the use of DNA or any other primary source of identity. The methods and approaches utilised in this process are, however, dependent on numerous factors including the context in which the remains are found, the anatomical regions recovered and the degree of decomposition or fragmentation of the remains.

In the early stages of the identification process, it is necessary to establish data relating to the four parameters of biological identity, ancestral origin, biological sex, chronological age and living stature (1). From this information, termed a biological profile, the pool of potential identities from documented missing persons may be reduced. While the biological profile may be relatively easy to deduce from remains recovered in a relatively intact state, the absence of certain skeletal elements, particularly the skull, pelvis and long bones increases the complexity of this process.

32 The discovery of human remains, in various states of decomposition, is a relatively
33 regular occurrence; however there appears to be a bias in the anatomical areas
34 recovered, as the lower limb, and in particular the foot, tends to be discovered in
35 isolation, with at least 9 incidents recorded in the United Kingdom (UK) since 2003 (2-
36 5). This is not particular to the UK and the recovery of isolated pedal remains was
37 brought to the attention of the media by a spate of incidents in the Straights of Georgia,
38 located on the border between Canada and the United States of America, where 14 feet
39 were recovered between 2007 and 2012 (6, 7). More recently, two incidents occurred
40 in New Jersey and San Francisco in a four-week period of 2013 (8, 9). The expanse of
41 territories over which these incidents have occurred highlights the prevalence of cases
42 such as these. It should be noted however that the majority of incidents in which a foot
43 has been recovered in isolation, have been found contained within items of footwear
44 and have been associated with either marine or fluvial biomes (2-7, 10). The presence
45 of the foot within a shoe contains the pedal elements, thus preventing disassociation of
46 the individual bones. In addition, the type of shoe in which the foot is encased may alter
47 the buoyancy characteristics of the foot, and thereby affect the likelihood that the foot
48 will become stranded on the tide line. Within terrestrial biomes, the protective nature
49 of footwear may prevent dissociation of the individual tarsal elements, prevent some
50 aspects of taphonomic alteration, such as animal scavenging and add a degree of
51 protection to the remains, thus preserving the integrity of the pedal skeleton (11-13).

52 The dissociation of the foot from the remainder of the body may occur through a variety
53 of scenarios, including the normal sequence of post-mortem disarticulation which
54 occurs in terrestrial or aqueous environments; scavenging behaviours of carnivorous
55 fauna; and traumatic amputation, such as may occur during aviation or road traffic
56 accidents or as a result of collision with a ship's propeller (14). Although the
57 mechanisms by which feet may become dissociated from the remainder of the lower
58 limb may be diverse, a factor common to almost all recorded incidents of isolated
59 recovery of a foot in the UK since 2003 is the presence of the foot within an article of
60 footwear, for example training shoes or work boots (2, 4-7, 10). In addition, the robust
61 nature of the tarsal bones makes them more likely to survive inhumation and other
62 taphonomic influences than other, more fragile, elements of the skeleton (13, 15, 16).

63 Despite the apparent frequency of the discovery of isolated feet, there is a paucity of
64 literature relating to the role of the foot and ankle in forensic human identification. The
65 disarticulation of human remains presents certain challenges relating to establishing
66 the identity of an individual including a reduction in the quantity of information
67 pertaining to identification that can be deduced (17). It is therefore imperative that the
68 method chosen is appropriate to the context and the anatomical region under
69 examination (18). This short communication will present a review of the current trends
70 in the examination of the foot in the context of forensic human identification.

71 CHOICE OF METHODS

72 The methods used in the examination of the foot for the purposes of identification will
73 vary depending on whether presumptive identification of the remains has already taken
74 place, such as may have occurred during a closed mass disaster incident where the
75 identities of the individuals involved is known. In such circumstances, the comparison
76 of ante-mortem and post-mortem radiographs of the foot has been used in attempt to
77 support the suspected identification (14). This approach to identification however is
78 contingent upon the presence of recent ante-mortem records relating to the foot and
79 ankle; a source of information which may not be present for every individual. In
80 addition, the comparison of ante-mortem podiatric records with lesions or pathological
81 changes noted in recovered feet may be used to support an identification (19). In the
82 case of a mass disaster where fragmentation of remains has occurred, it may also be
83 possible to re-associate isolated feet with their corresponding limb through anatomical
84 matching with a leg or body with a pedal amputation (20). This approach was used
85 during the triage phase of the identification process that followed the attacks on the
86 World Trade Centre in 2001 and resulted in a reduction in the number of DNA tests
87 required as without anatomical matching of fragmented remains, protocol would have
88 dictated that each fragment be subject to DNA testing (20).

89 DNA

90 In the absence of a presumptive identification it may be necessary to establish a
91 biological profile, which, when compared with ante-mortem information may narrow
92 the pool of potential identifications, making the use of alternative primary identifiers
93 such as DNA testing feasible. The current recommendations pertaining to DNA analysis

94 include obtaining a mid-shaft femoral bone sample; however this site is secondary in
95 preference to an intact, multi-root tooth (21). There is however some evidence that
96 certain tarsal elements, in particular the talus, calcaneus and cuneiforms may provide a
97 higher yield of genetic material than may be extracted from other skeletal elements,
98 including the long bones of the upper and lower limbs (21, 22). As a result of this
99 research, the bones of the foot should be considered as a source of genetic material for
100 the purposes of DNA analysis of unidentified remains and may facilitate the
101 reconciliation of disassociated anatomical regions. The ability to recover useable DNA
102 is however dependent on a number of factors including the bone structure, the post-
103 mortem interval, the biome(s) in which the remains have existed since death (i.e.
104 marine, fluvial or terrestrial) and other taphonomic influences (22).

105 Although the successful use of DNA analysis in human identification is largely restricted
106 to cases where a putative identity is suspected, it may be a useful tool in the re-
107 association of remains recovered in different temporal and spatial locations. This
108 approach has been utilised in both North America and Europe in cases where individual
109 feet, which became disassociated through natural post-mortem disarticulation, were
110 recovered in similar footwear and were subsequently re-united through DNA matching
111 (23, 24). The use of DNA matching in the re-association of human remains has been of
112 particular use in scenarios where substantial fragmentation and commingling of
113 remains has occurred (25). The importance of DNA analysis from the foot and ankle is
114 also highlighted by the use of Improvised Explosive Devices (IEDs) in modern theatres
115 of warfare. As a result of the technologies involved in the manufacture of tactical
116 footwear, the potential recovery of an intact foot may be greater than that of other
117 anatomical areas in the aftermath of an explosive incident (26).

118 The recovery of isolated feet, particularly in fluvial or marine biomes, may require the
119 origin of the foot to be established as the remains be transported a considerable
120 distance from the point at which they entered the specific environment (27). Although
121 estimation of the point of origin of remains may be possible to some extent in riverine
122 systems, the effect of ocean currents on the path of disarticulated remains is less
123 predictable. It may therefore be necessary to use alternative methods, such as stable
124 isotope analysis, to determine those geographical areas in which the decedent resided
125 prior to their death. The protective nature of footwear in such circumstances renders

126 stable isotope analysis of keratinised tissue from the toenails a viable option (28). As a
127 result of the relationship between diet, geographical location and the isotopic
128 composition of certain tissue types, e.g. keratin; the analysis of specific isotopes
129 including hydrogen, oxygen, carbon and nitrogen within the toenail may provide
130 information relating to the point of origin of the decedent (29). Although this may not
131 lead directly to the identification of the individual to whom the remains belong, the
132 identification of a potential location with which the individual was recently associated
133 may provide information that is vital to the investigation.

134 Although the use of techniques such as DNA and stable isotope analysis may enable the
135 re-association of fragmented remains or provide information relating to the
136 geographical history of the individual, without a presumptive identity, the successful
137 identification of remains is unlikely. It is therefore necessary to establish information
138 relating to the biological characteristics that may facilitate a reduction in the pool of
139 potential identities.

140 **Biological Identity**

141 Analysis of the bones of the foot in relation to aspects of the biological identity has been
142 conducted for many years, with particular reference being paid to the assessment of
143 biological sex and living stature (12, 15, 17, 30-40). Although some consideration has
144 been given to skeletal age assessment from the juvenile foot and ankle, literature
145 pertaining to this topic is much more limited (41-45). This is also true for the
146 determination of ancestral origin (46, 47).

147 Sex determination from the foot

148 It is widely considered that the most sexually dimorphic regions of the adult skeleton
149 are the skull and the pelvic complex, the analysis of which, when considered together,
150 may result in approximately a 90-98% correct classification of biological sex (48). This,
151 however, is dependent on the degree of dimorphism present within the population (12,
152 49). In the absence of these anatomical regions however, it is necessary to consider
153 alternative approaches to the determination of biological sex.

154 The examination of the foot in the context of establishing the biological sex of the
155 individual has received some attention from multiple research groups (17, 34, 40).

156 Within this research there is variation both in the methodological approach taken and
157 the feature(s) of the foot examined. Consequently, not all methods may be applicable to
158 all scenarios. Although a significant body of work has been published relating to the
159 determination of biological sex from the foot, many of these studies are based on the
160 overall morphology and size of the feet of living individuals (17, 34, 39, 40, 50). A
161 number of problems exist pertaining to this method when viewed in the context of its
162 applicability to forensic scenarios as the use of living individuals ensures that the
163 measurements taken are reflective, not of the underlying skeletal structure, but the soft
164 tissue which surrounds it. Consequently, the standards developed from such analyses
165 may only be applicable to cases in which the soft tissue of the foot is preserved in its
166 entirety. In addition, it appears to be relatively common practice for data relating to the
167 size of the foot to be collected in a weight-bearing stance (17, 50). As a result of the
168 forces acting on the foot from body weight and gravity, the size and shape of the foot is
169 altered during weight-bearing compared to that of the unloaded foot. The data derived
170 from analyses conducted in this manner are therefore only applicable to cases in which
171 full body weight (i.e. mass+ gravity) is applied to the foot during forensic examination. It
172 is clear that values generated through these approaches are unlikely to be applicable in
173 the assessment of sex from the disarticulated foot of a deceased individual and it is
174 therefore necessary to consider the potential utility of individual skeletal elements in
175 the determination of biological sex.

176 Among the tarsal skeleton, the greatest degree of sexual dimorphism has been found in
177 the talus and calcaneus (12, 13, 34, 51). Gualdi-Russo (34) found that calcanei and tali
178 from male individuals exhibited greater osteometric measurements than female
179 individuals in all measurement parameters examined. Through the application of
180 discriminant function analyses, this study observed that when tested on a similar
181 population, cross-validation resulted in between a 94.5% and 97.4% correct
182 classification for males and females respectively according to talar measurements. In
183 contrast, examination of the discriminant functions relating to the calcaneus, cross
184 validation resulted in 89.8% and 88.4% correct classification of females and males
185 respectively. When compared with data obtained from the analysis of an alternative
186 population sample however, the percentage of male individuals for whom biological sex
187 was correctly assigned based on examination of these skeletal elements decreased to

188 48.2% and 31.9% in the talus and calcaneus respectively. This reduction in the
189 percentage correct classification was not observed in female individuals. The variation
190 in the percentage classification of biological sex according to measurement of the
191 calcaneus and talus observed between male individuals of different population groups
192 may suggest that the relationship between size of these bones and biological sex is
193 affected by additional factors. The results obtained by Gualdi-Russo (34) are supported
194 by those of Harris and Case (12), who observed that measurement of the talus (length
195 and height) yielded the strongest individual measures by which the sex of the individual
196 could be distinguished. It was noted however that the measurements pertaining to each
197 individual tarsal bone yielded correct classification of biological sex in at least 80% of
198 individuals (12).

199 The findings of the research pertaining to sex determination from the tarsal skeleton
200 suggest that although sexual dimorphism is present within population groups, there is
201 significant overlap in the size and morphology of adult tarsal bones between individuals
202 of either sex from multiple populations. Consequently, it is imperative that this method
203 should only be used where appropriate standards have been developed using a modern
204 sample population specific to the group on which it is to be applied. It must be
205 concluded therefore that although steps have been taken in the determination of sex
206 from the bones of the foot, further research is required in this field.

207 In addition to the morphological and metric methods of sex determination discussed,
208 the sex of an individual can be identified from analysis of the homologous gene
209 amelogenin, present on chromosome 23 of the human karyotype (52-56). As previously
210 discussed however, the environment to which the foot has been exposed may alter the
211 viability of this approach (57). The application of this time consuming and expensive
212 process must therefore be assessed on a case-by-case basis.

213 Age estimation from the foot

214 The process of skeletal age estimation is dependent on the strength of the relationship
215 between chronological age and the stage of development or deterioration of specific
216 skeletal elements or regions (58). The precision with which an estimation of age can be
217 made is therefore dependent on the degree of age related change observed. The
218 developing skeleton therefore presents a greater quantity of information on which to

219 base an estimation of age and therefore may be more accurate and precise than those
220 conducted on individuals who have attained skeletal maturity. To date, no methods
221 have been published for estimating age from the foot in adult individuals. Skeletal age
222 estimation from the bones of the foot is largely restricted to the examination of remains
223 from sub-adult individuals in whom skeletal development is yet to be completed.
224 Despite the relative frequency with which isolated remains of the foot and ankle are
225 recovered, there is a distinct paucity of literature relating to the estimation of age from
226 this anatomical region.

227 *Fetal and neonatal individuals*

228 Although finding isolated juvenile feet is very rare, there may be a requirement to
229 establish the age of fetal or neonatal individuals as part of the DVI process. The
230 techniques used in the estimation of age from fetal remains are dependent on the
231 condition of the remains (i.e. fleshed or skeletal). As with other regions of the
232 developing skeleton, radiographic examination of the foot and ankle may yield
233 information relating to the ossification of the pedal skeleton and therefore the
234 gestational age of the individual. In cases where complete skeletonisation of the
235 remains has occurred, the estimation of age in fetal and neonatal individuals is often
236 determined through the calculation of the maximum length of long bones, including the
237 metatarsals, and the subsequent correlation between this measurement, crown-rump
238 length (CRL) and gestational age (1). Several methods have been produced which
239 facilitate an estimation of age from the fetal foot (59, 60).

240 Although it is possible to estimate age through the correlation between total length
241 (base of the metatarsal to the articular surface of the head of the metatarsal) or
242 diaphyseal length (base of the metatarsal to the metaphyseal surface) of the metatarsals
243 and gestational age or CRL, a study by de Vasconcellos and Ferreira (59) suggested that
244 the relationship between total length and gestational age was stronger than the
245 reciprocal relationships (i.e. total length v CRL; diaphyseal length v gestational length;
246 or diaphyseal length v CRL). It should be considered however that in a forensic context,
247 diaphyseal length may be a more appropriate measurement due to the absence of
248 secondary centres of ossification. The study of de Vasconcellos and Ferreira (59) also
249 found that with the exception of the fifth metatarsal, the regression of diaphyseal length

250 against gestational age yielded R^2 values greater than 0.8. This indicates that diaphyseal
251 length may be a viable approach to age estimation in fetal remains. The approach used
252 in this method is however dependent on the presence of the metatarsal epiphyses
253 which, depending on the taphonomic influences to which the remains have been
254 exposed, may not be present or recovered. This methodological approach is therefore
255 limited to cases where the metatarsal, though devoid of soft tissue, is found to have
256 retained its epiphysis.

257 The use of the maximum lengths of the metatarsal bones in skeletal age estimation of
258 fetal individuals has also been applied by Fazekas and Kosa (60) who provided data
259 relating to the mean, maximum and minimum length the metatarsals observed in
260 autopsy specimens. Although believed to be applicable in forensic settings, the data
261 obtained in this study has not been revised since its original publication and may not
262 therefore be applicable to all populations. In addition, the development of the
263 standards produced by Fazekas and Kosa included the estimation of age from crown-
264 heel length from autopsied fetal remains (61). As such, the viability of this approach to
265 age estimation is contingent on the accuracy of the original estimations of age against
266 which metatarsal length was compared and may therefore be liable to error from the
267 inaccurate assessment of CRL (1, 62). It is also necessary to consider the sample
268 population on which the standards of Fazekas and Kosa (60) were developed. As these
269 data were obtained from the analysis of autopsied fetal remains, it is possible that the
270 skeletal growth rate of some individuals included in this sample was not representative
271 of the normal development of a healthy foetus. Consequently, the standards derived
272 from the analysis of this population may include a degree of error related to abnormal
273 skeletal growth or fetal development (58).

274 *Infants, children and adolescents*

275 In the case of the analysis of the skeletonised remains of post-natal juvenile individuals,
276 the numbers of centres of ossification present, in addition to the overall size and
277 morphology of the bones of the foot, may present information pertaining to the age of
278 the individual. Several texts present the summarised timings of appearance and fusion
279 of the bones of the foot (61, 63, 64).

280 Only two radiographic approaches to skeletal age estimation from the foot and ankle in
281 the post-natal period have been produced in the past fifty years, of which only the
282 Radiographic Atlas of Skeletal Development of the Foot and Ankle (41) has been shown
283 to be of sufficient accuracy to be applicable to skeletal age estimation in the forensic
284 context (41-44). This radiographic atlas, although originally intended as a means of
285 monitoring the skeletal development of children in a clinical setting, may be applied as a
286 standard of radiographic skeletal age assessment in both male and female juvenile
287 individuals until the ages of 15.2 years and 18.2 years in females and males respectively
288 (42).

289 In addition to the holistic examination of the bones of the foot and ankle in relation to
290 skeletal age estimation in juvenile individuals, it is necessary to consider the potential
291 information that may be gained from the examination of specific elements of the pedal
292 skeleton, for example the proximal epiphysis of the fifth metatarsal or the fusion of the
293 calcaneal epiphysis (45, 65). Although these bones should not be considered
294 independently if other skeletal elements are present, the values presented in these
295 standards suggest that if recovered individually, these skeletal elements may provide
296 some information relating to skeletal age.

297 Stature estimation from the foot

298 The calculation of living stature is an established concept in human identification and
299 may be achieved through a variety of methods including the use of linear regression
300 analyses based on long bone lengths, also termed the “mathematical method” and the
301 “anatomical method”, which requires the calculation of the total skeletal height plus the
302 addition of a soft tissue correction factor (66-68). These approaches however are
303 limited to occasions when intact long bones or full skeletons are recovered (68). Due to
304 the relative robusticity of the tarsal skeleton, it is likely that these elements may survive
305 inhumation and their applicability in stature estimation should therefore be considered
306 (32).

307 The calculation of living stature has been attempted through the use of linear and
308 multiple regression analyses based on various measurements of the calcaneus, talus and
309 metatarsals (16, 30, 32, 51, 68-71). Although many of these studies report the presence
310 of statistically significant relationships between metatarsal length and stature, the

311 strengths of these interactions, as described by the values obtained as the relative co-
312 efficient of determination (R^2) suggest that the relationship between metatarsal length
313 and stature is of insufficient strength for this approach to be utilised in a forensic
314 context (32, 68). While the majority of studies concerning the use of metatarsals in
315 stature estimation include the examination of dry bone, a recent study by Rodríguez *et*
316 *al.* (72) attempted to determine stature through measuring the length of the metatarsals
317 in radiographic images, the results of which were then compared with the living stature
318 of the individual from whom the radiographs were obtained. The results of these
319 analyses further illustrated the positive correlation between metatarsal length and
320 overall stature, however this study also suggested that the relationship between these
321 factors was too weak to be of forensic relevance (72). Despite the poor R^2 values
322 observed in this study ($R^2 = 0.534-0.613$ for the first metatarsal and $R^2 = 0.498-0.505$ in
323 the second metatarsal), the results of this study were consistent with those obtained by
324 Cordeiro *et al.* (32). This may indicate that measurements of the metatarsals for the
325 purpose of stature estimation may be obtained from either radiographic images or post-
326 mortem specimens without significant alteration to the accuracy of the technique. This
327 may of particular importance during disaster victim identification (DVI) incidents as the
328 examination of the physical remains may not always be possible and the use of medical
329 imaging may be required during the anthropological examination (73).

330 As is the case in many aspects of the biological identification of human remains, inter-
331 population variation in certain osteometric values has been found (68, 72).
332 Consequently, it is necessary for population specific standards to be developed and
333 applied where appropriate. To further assess the validity of stature estimation from the
334 bones of the foot, further research using samples including individuals for whom living
335 stature is known, is required.

336 Ancestry determination from the foot

337 While this assessment of ancestry is relatively straight forward if there are certain
338 skeletal regions present, for example the skull, assessment of ancestry from the bones of
339 the foot has not received the same degree of attention in the literature (47). Several
340 studies have however attempted to determine population affinity from morphological
341 features of the calcaneus, including the number of articular facets for the talus (46, 47,

342 74). It has been suggested that individuals of Caucasoid ancestry are more likely to
343 exhibit three articular facets on the calcaneus (Type A); while individuals of Negroid
344 ancestry are more likely to exhibit two articular facets on the calcaneus (Type B) (47).
345 There is however conflation between individuals of different ancestry and those of
346 different population groups, for example, similarities have been observed in the number
347 of articular facets for the talus in Indian and Nigerian groups, thereby reducing the
348 potential use of this approach (47, 74).

349 In addition to the morphological approach to ancestry determination from the
350 calcaneus, some authors have attempted to establish parameters for the separation of
351 ancestral groups based on variations in a set of measurements including calcaneal
352 length and breadth (47). Through the application of discriminant function analyses, it
353 has been determined that although variation does exist in metric measurements of the
354 calcaneus, the percentage correct classification is insufficient to establish ancestral
355 origin with accuracy (47).

356

357

358

CONCLUSION

359 Through anecdotal reports of feet and lower limbs being recovered in isolation, it is
360 clear that there is a requirement for appropriate standards of analysis to be developed
361 for the purpose of forensic human identification. Although the foot and ankle has been
362 examined in respect of some aspects of human identification, there is a general paucity
363 of methods relating to the determination of a biological profile that may be considered
364 applicable to forensic casework. The examination of the foot in living individuals in
365 relation to the estimation of stature and biological sex, though informative, is of limited
366 value in the assessment of the characteristics of a biological profile from skeletal or
367 decomposed remains, particularly in relation to those methods derived from
368 measurements taken in a weight-bearing stance. As the application of force, in the
369 context of weight bearing, affects the size and shape of the foot, the accuracy of methods
370 derived from this approach are influenced by the weight of the individual and the
371 degree of soft tissue present in the foot. In contrast, the radiographic examination of the
372 foot in living individuals may provide reliable, repeatable and accurate information

373 relating to the chronological age of the individual. As an examination of the skeletal
374 maturity, this approach is applicable to the estimation of age individuals in whom
375 skeletonisation is complete or decomposition is advanced.

376 While some approaches and standards related to certain aspects of the biological profile
377 (age) have been shown to be of sufficient accuracy to be applied in a forensic context,
378 the low percentage correct classification observed in the determination of biological sex
379 and ancestral origin indicate that these methods should be employed with caution and
380 in full cognisance of their limitations. In the context of the assessment of stature, the
381 low R^2 values repeatedly obtained from the relationship between living stature and
382 metatarsal length indicate that this method should be used only in the absence of other
383 sources of information relating to this characteristic. It is clear from this review of the
384 literature pertaining to the examination of the forensic significance of the foot that
385 further research is required in areas related to the determination of a biological profile,
386 DNA analysis from the bones of the foot and the specific effects of footwear on the
387 process of decomposition and disarticulation.

388

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