

Palaeoneurology and the Emergence of Language

Aurélien Mounier, Camille Noûs, Antoine Balzeau

▶ To cite this version:

Aurélien Mounier, Camille Noûs, Antoine Balzeau. Palaeoneurology and the Emergence of Language. Bulletins et Mémoires de la Société d'anthropologie de Paris, 2020, 32 (3-4), pp.147-157. 10.3166/bmsap-2020-0098 . hal-03007732

HAL Id: hal-03007732 https://hal.science/hal-03007732v1

Submitted on 23 Nov 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés. 1 Palaeoneurology and the emergence of language

2 Paléoneurologie et origine du langage

- 3
 4 Aurélien Mounier^{1,2,*}, Camille Noûs³, Antoine Balzeau^{1,4}
- 5
- ¹ Histoire Naturelle de l'Homme Préhistorique (HNHP, UMR 7194), MNHN/CNRS/UPVD, Musée de
 l'Homme, 17 place du Trocadéro et du 11 Novembre, 75016 Paris, France.
- ²Leverhulme Centre for Human Evolutionary Studies, Department of Archaeology, University of
 Cambridge, Fitzwilliam Street, Cambridge CB2 1QH, United Kingdom.
- ³Laboratoire Cogitamus, Musée de l'Homme, 17 place du Trocadéro et du 11 Novembre, 75016 Paris,
- 11 France.
- ⁴Department of African Zoology, Royal Museum for Central Africa, B-3080 Tervuren, Belgium.
- 13
- 14 *Corresponding author: <u>aurelien.mounier@mnhn.fr</u> (A. Mounier)
- 15

16 Abstract

17 The origin of language has been much debated over the years. Recent research has centred the 18 controversies on two main ideas. Language, as defined by the Basic Property formulated by Chomsky, 19 is a characteristic unique to *H. sapiens* that developed in our species in the past 300,000 years. Other 20 scientists argue that the Basic Property is a derived characteristic shared with other hominin species, 21 such as H. neanderthalensis and the last common ancestor of both modern humans and Neandertals, 22 which evolved over a long period of time, perhaps as long as 2 million years. Palaeoneurology, which 23 studies the phenotype of the brain in past populations, may have left this complex topic aside because 24 of the difficulty of deducing brain morphology from endocasts (imprints of the neurocranium) and 25 inferring function from brain morphology. In this manuscript, we review the various hypotheses on the 26 evolution of language, highlighting the potential of palaeoneurology to help understand this complex 27 aspect of human evolution, and provide an updated interpretation of previously published endocranial 28 phenotypic data from fossil populations. This brings additional support to a long chronology framework 29 for the origin of language in the hominin lineage: the basic property for modern language may have 30 been in place from the last common ancestor of *H. sapiens* and *H. neanderthalensis*.

31

32 Résumé

33 L'origine du langage a suscité de nombreuses controverses au fil des ans. Des recherches récentes ont centré les débats sur deux idées principales. Le langage, tel que défini par la propriété de base de 34 Chomsky, serait une caractéristique unique d'H. sapiens qui se serait développée au sein de notre 35 36 espèce durant les derniers 300 000 ans. D'autres scientifiques soutiennent l'idée que la propriété de 37 base serait une caractéristique dérivée partagée avec d'autres espèces d'hominines, telles qu'H. 38 neanderthalensis et le dernier ancêtre commun aux humains modernes et aux Néandertaliens, et qui 39 aurait évolué sur une longue période de temps, potentiellement sur 2 millions d'années. La 40 paléoneurologie, qui étudie le phénotype du cerveau dans les populations passées, peut avoir négligé ce sujet complexe en raison des difficultés à déduire la morphologie du cerveau à partir du moulage 41 42 endocrânien (empreinte du neurocrâne) et à inférer la fonction à partir de la morphologie du cerveau. 43 Dans ce manuscrit, nous passons en revue les différentes hypothèses concernant l'évolution du langage, nous mettons en évidence le potentiel de la paléoneurologie pour aider à comprendre cette 44 45 question complexe dans l'évolution humaine et nous fournissons une interprétation à jour des 46 données phénotypiques endocrâniennes précédemment publiées provenant de populations fossiles. 47 Nous apportons un soutien supplémentaire à un cadre chronologique long pour l'origine du langage 48 dans la lignée humaine : la propriété de base du langage moderne dans les populations d'hominines 49 semble avoir préexister l'apparition de la population ancestrale aux H. sapiens et H. neanderthalensis. 50

51 Keywords: palaeoneurology; Basic Property; Homo neanderthalensis; Homo sapiens; Middle
52 Pleistocene hominins

53 Mots clés : paléoneurologie, propriété de base ; *Homo neanderthalensis*; *Homo sapiens*; hominines
 54 du Pléistocène moyen

- 56 In the evolution of the genus *Homo,* an area of constant debate concerns the classification of fossil
- 57 specimens within much discussed *Homo* taxa [1-4] and the abilities of those hominin species. One of
- 58 the major unresolved questions concerns the emergence and evolution of language faculties.
- 59

60 The only talking hominin

61 There are different hypotheses regarding the evolution of language within the genus Homo. One of 62 the oldest hypotheses argues that language emerged at a late stage in modern humans, perhaps as 63 late as 100,000 years ago (ka) (see, [5-6]). This hypothesis was originally developed from the idea that 64 the production of differentiated vowels would have been impossible without a large pharyngeal cavity. 65 The descent of the larynx was also seen as a unique *H. sapiens* characteristic, which - de facto - limited 66 the emergence of modern language to our species [7]. The ideas of a descended larynx as a 67 prerequisite for producing differentiated vowels and as a unique H. sapiens feature have both been 68 repeatedly contested ever since [8-9]. However, this hypothesis is still strongly supported because it is also rooted in the 'cultural modernity' hypothesis, which holds that modern humans acquired full 69 70 modern human behaviour at least 100 ka after their first appearance [10]. Advanced modern 71 behavioural traits, which include a new techno-complex (Later Stone Age, LSA in Africa and Upper 72 Palaeolithic in Europe) and symbolism, as demontrated by the earliest prehistoric art [11], seem to 73 have been fully acquired by modern humans by 50-40 ka [12]. Before that date there is little in the 74 archaeological record linked to modern humans that shows symbolic behaviour. The earliest trace of 75 symbolic behaviour for the H. sapiens species can be traced back to ca 80 ka in Blombos cave (South 76 Africa) [13] and Taforalt (Morocco) [14]. The presence of this behavioural package is, in turn, often 77 used to infer the emergence of modern language.

78 More recently the 'Why Only Us' hypothesis [15] uses the 'Basic Property' of human language as a 79 landmark to infer the origin of language in hominin populations. Basic Property is described by 80 Chomsky [16] as the 'Merge' operation, which builds a "discrete infinity of structured expressions that 81 are interpretable in a definite way by the conceptual-intentional system of thought and action, and by 82 a sensory-motor system for externalisation" (p. 201). In other words, the Basic Property refers to the 83 way thoughts are linked with sounds and signs. For Berwick and Chomsky (15), language – as defined by the Basic Property, is also restricted to H. sapiens, but it must have arisen within its clade earlier 84 85 than previously thought. The San populations split from the other modern human populations around 86 160 ka [17] and were mostly genetically isolated until 3000 years ago. Despite this genetic isolation, 87 the modern Sans possess a fully modern human language faculty. Therefore, the Basic Property for 88 modern language had to have appeared between the origin of the first modern humans, which by the 89 time of Berwick and Chomsky's publication (2017) was thought to be around 200 ka, but can now be 90 placed at around 300 ka (see, [18-20]), and the first identified split within H. sapiens populations at 91 around 160 ka [17].

The 'Why Only Us' hypothesis relies first on the scarcity of archaeological evidence of symbolic behaviour within the Denisovan/Neandertal lineage to infer that the Basic Property must have developed within the modern human clade only after the split between the two lineages. The new date estimates for the time of the split between those lineages, 700-500 ka instead of the traditional 400 ka (see, [21-22]), supports this hypothesis by allowing enough time to the *H. sapiens* lineage to develop genetic innovations that would ultimately lead to the acquisition of the Basic Property, and hence, of a fully modern human language faculty [23]. Additionally, the genetic differences identified
between the Denisovan/Neandertal lineage and the modern human ones, notably in the *FOXP2*

- 100 genomic region [24-25] are also seen, in the 'Why Only Us' hypothesis, as evidence of the different
- 101 language faculties between the two clades. While Berwick and Chomsky [23] acknowledge that it is
- 102 unclear whether FOXP2 plays a role in the emergence of the Basic Property, they rely on the fact that
- some segments of the FOXP2 transcription factor gene of an Altaic Neandertal individual appears to
- 104 have introgressed from modern humans [25], supporting the idea that both lineages accumulated
- 105 genetic differences in a key part of the genome concerning language faculties and language acquisition.
- 106

107 A long chronology for the development of modern language faculties

108 At the other end of the spectrum, researchers argue for a much longer chronology in the development 109 of modern language faculties (i.e. Basic Property). This 'Gradual Hypothesis' is, yet again, primarily based on the interpretation of hints of symbolic behaviour in the archaeological record, which in the 110 view of the supporters of a more gradual evolution of language, does not support cultural modernity. 111 112 A number of recent studies have indeed modified the paradigm regarding the appearance of symbolic 113 behaviour by demonstrating that hominins within the H. neanderthalensis lineage were capable of 114 expressing advanced modern behavioural traits as defined by Klein [12]. The most spectacular 115 discovery is the dating to ~176 ka of annular constructions of broken stalagmites which were made 116 336 metres deep into the Bruniquel Cave (Southwest France) [26]. Similarly, the debated [27-28] dating 117 of cave art in the Iberian Peninsula to ~64 ka [29] points to Neandertal authorship. This new chronology 118 establishes that before the arrival of *H. sapiens* in Europe, hominins had already developed advanced 119 symbolic behaviour. Symbolic behavioural faculties in *H. neanderthalensis* are also demonstrated by 120 funerary practices [30], although the evidence has been heavily criticised [31], and the new direct 121 dating of Neandertal hominin remains at the Grotte du Renne [32] demonstrates that the Neandertal 122 occupation was indeed contemporary with the Châtelperronian Upper Palaeolithic techno-complex 123 found at the site. Given this new archaeological evidence, it seems possible that symbolism was not 124 limited to the *H. sapiens* clade alone, and that the Neandertals and possibly the common ancestor of 125 both lineages may have been capable of similar behaviour. If these advanced behaviours are used as proxies for the Basic Property for modern language, then both the Neandertals and their ancestors 126 127 would have had a language faculty that "involves a cognitive architecture that maps sounds (or 128 gestures) into meaning through a series of combinatorial structures" [33], p. 52). One should 129 nevertheless keep in mind that the evidence describing advanced symbolic behaviour in Neandertals 130 remains sparse and cannot compare quantitatively with later archaeological evidence associated with 131 Upper Palaeolithic humans.

132 The Gradual Hypothesis also uses the most recent genomic studies to strengthen its theoretical claim. 133 First, it stresses the fact that both lineages interbred at least three times during their isolated genomic 134 history. The mitochondrial DNA (i.e. mtDNA) retrieved from 'classic' (i.e. 130-40 ka) Neandertal 135 specimens is closer to that of modern humans than it is to the mtDNA sequenced from Denisovan and 136 Middle Pleistocene fossils from Europe that are widely considered to be early Neandertals (i.e. Sima 137 de los Huesos), indicating some gene flow between the two lineages during the mid-Middle Pleistocene 138 [34]. Neandertals and *H. sapiens* interbred when the latter first came into the Levant around 100-120 139 ka [25, 35] and the modern human fossils from Pestera cu Oase in Romania, which date back to 42-37 140 ka, probably had a recent Neandertal ancestor (i.e. 4 to 6 generations [36]). Moreover, while the 141 Neandertal and modern human clades show genetic distinctiveness, the actual number of differences 142 appears to be relatively small. Prüfer and colleagues [37] showed that only 31,389 single nucleotide 143 substitutions and 4,113 short insertions or deletions distinguished modern humans from their nearest 144 extinct relatives, among which only about three thousand of those fixed changes could have potentially 145 influenced gene expression [37]. Therefore, one could consider that with such an intricate genetic 146 history between the two lineages, it is less likely that the two would have had completely distinct 147 language faculties.

148 The final idea put forward by supporters of the Gradual Hypothesis is co-evolution of tool-knapping 149 and language faculties [38-39]. This implies that the evolution of the Basic Property for modern 150 language could have originated within the genus Homo with the Mode 2 technology (i.e. Acheulean) 151 whose earlier appearance in the African archaeological record is documented at 1.75 million years ago 152 [40]. This idea relies on the assumption that the transmission of skills necessary to master elaborate 153 lithic technology demands language [33]. Experimental studies have given contrasting results when 154 testing this hypothesis. In 2013 Uomini and Meyer showed that the pattern of cerebral blood flow 155 lateralization was similar when participants were asked to knap Acheulean tools and to generate cued 156 words [41]. Another study, focusing on the Oldowayen techno-complex, which appeared around 2.5 million years ago in the archaeological record, gives further support to Uomini and Meyer's results. It 157 158 shows that reliance on stone tools would have triggered selection for teaching and language. One of 159 the outcomes of this selection would have been the appearance of Acheulean, the Mode 2 technology 160 being the first techno-complex requiring more advanced faculties in both language and teaching for its 161 transmission [42]. However, Putt and colleagues [43] in a similar study suggest that selection from reliance on stone tools favoured the development of the prefrontal and temporal cortices, which 162 163 offered a more complex toolkit to the hominins but did not play a significant role in the evolution of 164 language.

165

166 Towards a new paradigm?

167 The lack of scientific consensus, which may be explained by the difficulties of evaluating traits that can 168 only be studied through proxies (anatomical or symbolic), has led to a situation where the study of 169 language evolution is often considered as out of reach for current research capacities. The first aim of 170 the Globularity hypothesis (i.e. Globularization Leads to our Brain's Language-Readiness) developed 171 by Boeckx [44], is to offer an updated framework for the study of language evolution. The globularity 172 hypothesis distinguishes between language and language-readiness, in other words, the anatomical 173 and physiological prerequisites for language acquisition and use are not sufficient and inputs from 174 cultural evolution studies are necessary to understand the complexity of grammatical systems that 175 need to be learned by children. The Globularity hypothesis aims to focus on the neurobiological 176 properties that would need to be linked to the anatomical and physiological preconditions for a 177 'language-ready brain'. This hypothesis sets out to investigate the phenotypes of both brain and 178 braincase, given their tightly correlated developmental trajectories, in order to draw inferences from 179 skull size and shape changes about the organ that generates language. For instance, Boeckx [44] links 180 the formation of a fronto-parietal-temporal loop that would provide an indirect pathway for language 181 (see, [45-46]) to the expansion of the parietal region, which could have had an impact on the 182 connection between areas of the brain believed to be part of this language loop (i.e. Broca's and 183 Wernicke's regions, see below). The expansion of the parietal region is part of the globularization 184 process within the hominin lineage [47-48] that may have played a role in the formation of a language 185 network. The Globularity hypothesis supports a rather late evolution of the Basic Property within the 186 modern human lineage, as one of its components relies on the hypothesis of self-domestication [49-187 50] which would have led to the appearance of the modern human phenotype. This is congruent with morphometric studies on encephalization trajectories within the Homo lineage, where H. sapiens 188 appears to present a different globularization trajectory, possibly triggered by the expansion of the 189 190 parietals [47], which may have happened late in the evolution of modern humans [51]. However, the 191 unique approach to language evolution consisting of linking the study of brain and neurocranium 192 phenotypes is important for any advances in the field.

193

194 Language evolution and palaeoneurology

195 Palaeoanthropology has long been studying the phenotypes of the calvarium and the brain, through 196 the study of casts of the inner surface of the neurocranium (i.e. endocasts) of fossil specimens (e.g. 197 [52-55]). However, apart from a few exceptions (e.g. [56-58]), the implications of specific anatomical 198 features for language evolution are often overlooked. First, the object of the study in palaeoneurology, 199 the endocast, is a schematic representation of the brain's anatomy, and may not be regarded as a 200 reliable source of information. Its morphology must be considered carefully, especially when discussing 201 function. Secondly, there are few studies combining data on the morphology of the endocast and of 202 the neurocranium. To address the former, Kochiyama and colleagues [59] estimated the possible shape 203 of the actual brain of fossil Neandertals and Early H. sapiens in order to compare it with the brain 204 morphology of living populations. Their results confirmed that both Early and extant H. sapiens 205 presented a larger cerebellum than the Neandertals [60]. The cerebellum is linked to higher cognition, 206 including language [61-62], and the morphological differences identified between the two species may 207 indicate distinct language faculties. Gunz and colleagues [63] went further by deriving an index of 208 endocranial shape based on the actual morphologies of living people's brains using MRI scans. They 209 then estimated this shape index in fossil specimens and compared it with the shape of the 210 neurocranium and with gene expression data. Their results show that introgressed Neandertal alleles 211 correlate with reduced globularity of the endocranium shape in modern humans, thus demonstrating 212 the potential of their approach. Nevertheless, clarifying the correlation between morphology and 213 function will require further work, and traditional approaches in palaeoneurology should also be 214 considered as they can bring interesting insights regarding language evolution.

215 These approaches rely on the study of areas of the brain that are traditionally identified as playing a 216 part in the classic language loop: the Wernicke-Geschwind model [64-65]. This model describes how 217 different areas of the brain are involved in language comprehension and in language production [66]. 218 One of the major issues regarding the Wernicke-Geshwind model lies in the fact that the definitions of 219 the regions involved in this language loop are still much debated and the usefulness of the model itself 220 is sometimes questioned. For instance, Tremblay and Dick [67] showed that scientists did not agree on 221 the actual anatomical definition of the Broca and Wernicke areas. They conducted a survey in which 222 scientists were asked to choose between seven different definitions for each area. While 73% of the 223 scientists recognised Broca's area in two similar definitions, four definitions of the Wernicke area were

224 needed to reach a similar percentage (i.e. 70%, see Fig. 1). Alternatives to this model are, however, 225 not easy to implement (see, for instance, the fronto-parietal-temporal loop discussed by Boeckx [44]), 226 while the anatomical regions referred to in the Wernicke-Geschwind model can be linked to well-227 known areas of the brain as defined by Brodmann [68]. Broca's area generally encompasses areas 44 228 and 45, while Wernicke's area most often refers to area 39, part of areas 40 and 22. In 229 palaeoneurology, Broca's area may cover approximately the morphology of the third frontal 230 convolution (i.e. 3Fc), which encompasses areas 44 and 45 as part of area 10. Wernicke's area is more 231 difficult to define on endocasts, but part of it, the angular and supramarginal gyri, correspond to 232 Brodmann's areas 39 and 40 respectively and can be identified (see, Fig. 1 and [54, 56, 69]). The 233 development and definition of the 3Fc and of the angular and supramarginal gyri as observed in 234 palaeoneurology correspond to a certain extent to the most common definitions of the Broca and 235 Wernicke areas (see Fig 1 and [67]). Therefore, and despite the current debates on the Wernicke-236 Geschwind model [67], those anatomical regions and their bilateral variations as observed on 237 endocasts remain the most direct source of anatomical information for palaeoanthropologists 238 discussing language evolution in fossil populations.

Figure 1

239

240

241

242 Mounier and colleagues [70] used parsimony to analyse a coded morphological database of fossil 243 hominins from the genus Homo which considered both ecto and endocranial morphologies. The aim 244 of the analysis was to test whether the anatomy of the endocast contributed to the phylogenetic differential definition of *H. neanderthalensis* from *H. sapiens*. However, the morphological features 245 246 identified as responsible for the separation of the two species are mostly located on the ectocranial 247 and not on the endocranial surface. Amongst the 35 endocranial features considered in the study, 10 248 are related to either Broca (characters #14 -Definition and development of the relief of the head of 249 3Fc, #15 -Definition and development of the relief of the foot of the 3Fc, #16 -Orientation of the 250 anterior and posterior ramus of the Sylvian valley, #17 -Lateral development of the pars triangularis, 251 #18 -Sagittal development of the pars triangularis, #19 -Maximum length position between pars 252 triangularis, and #20 -Position of the base of the pars triangularis relative to the temporal pole) or 253 Wernicke areas (#22 -Definition and projection of the supra-marginal gyrus, #23 -Form of the supra-254 marginal gyrus, #24 -Definition of the lobule of the angular gyrus). None of the endocranial characters 255 considered in the cladistic analysis were identified as a full apomorphy for the Neandertal and H. 256 sapiens clades, but four, #1 (cranial capacity), #16, #22 and #30 (position of the occipital lobes), are 257 apomorphies for both clades. Focusing on the 10 characters that describe morphologies linked to the 258 language loop, we note that some are variable within and outside taxa of the genus Homo, but others 259 mark the emergence of important clades. For instance, three characters describing the 3Fc, hence 260 Broca's area (i.e. #14 well-developed head of the third frontal convolution, #16 upward and frontward 261 orientation of the anterior and posterior ramus of the Sylvian valley, and #17 well-developed pars 262 triangularis), are newly emerged morphological features that separate Neandertals, modern humans 263 and their last common ancestor from H. erectus sensu lato and most of the Middle Pleistocene fossils 264 (Fig. 2). This is also true for Wernicke's area: both the lobule of the angular gyrus (#24) and the 265 supramarginal gyrus (#22) become strongly developed and well defined just before the split between

266 Neandertals and modern humans. A recent study [71] found that the area of the endocast where both 267 features can be observed appears slightly more spread out in *H. sapiens*. However, they did not study 268 the angular and supramarginal gyri in detail but focused instead on the shape of the parietal lobe. 269 Moreover, a well-defined and projected supramarginal gyrus constitutes a true synapomorphy for 270 both the Neandertal and modern human clades (Fig. 2). The definition and development of the relief 271 of the head of 3Fc (#14), the lateral development of the pars triangularis (#17), the maximum length 272 position between pars triangularis (#19) and the definition of the lobule of the angular gyrus (#24) are 273 not true synapomorphies in this analysis, as they undergo reversion in individual specimens within the 274 Neandertal (i.e. Gibraltar 1, Spy 1 and Saccopastore 1) and H. sapiens (i.e. Hofmeyr) clades. Those 275 reversions prevent morphologies that could yield information regarding the language loop from 276 appearing as derived features common to Neandertals and modern humans. However, it should be 277 noted that the study did not focus on these particular anatomical traits, and that the endocast sample 278 was not chosen for this purpose. More specimens could have been added to the study if it had focused on morphologies linked to the language loop. Instead, the state of preservation of the endocasts 279 280 considered by Mounier and colleagues [70] is sometimes unsatisfactory, for instance the left side of 281 the calvarium of Hofmeyr and Gibraltar 1 is virtually absent, and the reported observations of 282 characters #14 (definition and development of the relief of the head of 3Fc), #17 (lateral development 283 of the pars triangularis), #19 (maximum length position between pars triangularis) and #24 (definition 284 of the lobule of the angular gyrus) are necessarily based on some degree of interpolation. Therefore, 285 these reversions should not prevent us from highlighting the underlying patterns, which show the 286 appearance, throughout the Middle Pleistocene hominin fossil record, of anatomical features related 287 to areas of the brain which have been described as playing a role in language [66]. Finally, Mounier 288 and colleagues [70] identify an additional character which is not a true synapomorphy, but which plays 289 a role in the definition of the modern human and the Neandertal clades. Character #33 defines the size 290 of the sulcus separating the cerebellar lobes, and in most Neandertals the sulcus is wider than in most 291 modern humans. It is linked to higher cognition, including language [61-62], in spite of not being part 292 of the classic language loop. This indicates a possible increase in the size of the cerebellar lobes in 293 modern humans [59-60], which could have had an impact on H. sapiens language faculties (see, [59, 294 72]).

- 295
- 296
- 297

Figure 2

298 It is interesting to note that many of the characters identified in the sequence of appearance, during 299 the Middle Pleistocene, of anatomical features related to the language loop on hominin endocasts are 300 focused on the 3Fc (i.e. #14, 16, 17 and 19). In 2014, Balzeau and colleagues [56] quantified and 301 analysed the bilateral variation in size and shape of the 3Fc within Pan, Australopithecus and Homo 302 specimens (including an expanded Neandertal sample, see Fig. 3): the study demonstrated that the 303 'Broca's cap' identified in hominins was due to a size reduction of the 3Fc in the left hemisphere when 304 compared to the right one. The left 3Fc is indeed shorter but presents a similar width making its shape 305 more compact, hence increasing its morphological distinctiveness. We have expanded our Neandertal 306 samples since our original study [56]. Figure 3 presents the comparison of the size of the third frontal convolution and the endocranial volume, expressed respectively as their square-root and their cube-307

308 root. In addition, the mean surface (in mm²) of this anatomical area in the Neandertal sample (167.7, 309 SD=32.7, N=11) is larger than the ones observed in both fossil Homo sapiens (133.5, SD=30.6, n=8) and 310 in the Homo erectus sample (110.6, SD=24.4, N=12). The small sample sizes of the groups analysed 311 make it difficult to identify statistical correlations within our data. Nevertheless, the observed global 312 variation throughout human evolution, as illustrated by these mean values and by the distribution of 313 the specimens for each sample in Figure 3, appears to show a size gradient for this anatomical area 314 between hominin species. When only the hominin sample is considered, there is a significant 315 correlation between 3Fc and the endocranial volume (RMA regression, r=0.19, p=0.008). Moreover, 316 the gradient of the degree of asymmetry as seen directly on the endocasts and partly observed through 317 morphometric data on small fossil samples [56], i.e. the distinctiveness of the morphology of the 3Fc 318 on the left hemisphere, sets Neandertals and modern humans apart from the rest of the sample. The 319 sparseness of the fossil record prevents us from performing a more detailed comparative 320 morphometric analysis of the departure from symmetry of the third frontal convolution in hominin 321 species. Nevertheless, our morphometric data showing the increase in size of this anatomical area in 322 recent hominin species concords with the repeated observation of a well-defined Broca's area in H. 323 sapiens, Neandertals and a few Middle Pleistocene fossils (i.e. H. heidelbergensis sensu lato) when 324 compared to other fossil hominins and Pan specimens [56]. Although these results should not be 325 interpreted as directly inferring speech capacities, nor as a direct characterisation of the functional 326 area related to speech, they are nevertheless based on morphological observations which constitute 327 the best available proxy for analysing Broca's cap in fossil hominins [56, 69]. Similarly, and as we 328 demonstrated above, other anatomical features of the endocast appear to be poorly delimited in 329 hominins or even absent in great apes [54-55]. In particular, the reliefs of the angular and 330 supramarginal gyri are only identifiable in Neandertals, modern humans and some Middle Pleistocene 331 fossils [54, 70]. Their definition is too faint to allow any reproducible quantification on endocasts and 332 these characters were not considered by Balzeau and colleagues [56].

333

334

Figure 3

335

336 Therefore, both analyses of the endocast morphology – through different methodological approaches 337 - identify a clear separation of modern humans and Neandertals from other hominid species, despite known differences between these taxa (e.g. the relative contribution of the frontal, parieto-temporal 338 339 and occipital lobes [73]). In this context, the morphologies responsible for such a split in the hominid 340 clade are linked to the classic Wernicke-Geschwind model and it could be argued that they form a 341 morphological substrate of characteristics present in both Neandertals and modern humans that are possibly linked to Chomsky's Basic Property for language. Indeed, the 3Fc and the angular gyrus have 342 343 been repeatedly associated with language processing, one controlling for muscles related to speech 344 [74] and the other having a role in the transformation of visual representations into an auditory code [75]. The function of the supramarginal gyrus, and despite its position on the brain (Brodmann's area 345 346 40), is less clear; it has nevertheless been described as being involved with language comprehension 347 [76]. The only highlighted difference between Neandertals and modern humans concerns the 348 cerebellum which, from about 100,000 years ago, gradually became larger in H. sapiens [51, 59, 70, 349 72]. The cerebellum plays a role in higher cognition and possibly language, but is not part of the classic

- 350 language loop and it is unclear whether it influenced language faculties. Nevertheless, the 351 development of these anatomical features throughout the Middle Pleistocene and their presence in 352 both *H. sapiens* and *H. neanderthalensis* suggest that both species would have had similar language 353 faculties despite the fact that their general brain structure presents anatomical differences.
- 354

355 Origin of language – more questions than answers

The literature review presented in this paper shows a complex picture of the evolution of language. It 356 357 remains difficult to decipher which hominin population developed the Basic Property which gave 358 hominins modern language, and when. The study of endocasts, which is often overlooked when 359 discussing the evolution of language, may nevertheless bring new insights to the debate. The identification of an endocranial anatomical substrate possibly linked to language and common to H. 360 361 neanderthalensis, H. sapiens and their ancestor [56, 70] must be discussed within the wider debate 362 surrounding the origin of language. In recent years, palaeogenomics has profoundly transformed the 363 status of H. neanderthalensis, which now stands much closer to modern humans, given the 364 accumulating evidence regarding interbreeding between the modern and Neandertal lineages [25, 34-365 36]. Moreover, evidence of complex behaviour (e.g. advanced modern behaviour [12]) outside of the 366 modern human clade [26, 29-30], along with experimental studies showing possible co-evolution of 367 tool-knapping and language faculties [41-42], supports the possibility of common, or at least close, 368 language faculties between both lineages.

- 369 However, one should keep in mind that the same evidence is sometimes used to demonstrate the 370 exact opposite: genomics data, despite interbreeding, show that the lineages were separated [23], 371 evidence of advanced modern behaviour outside of the modern clade is much discussed [31] and 372 experimental studies on tool-knapping may reach a different conclusion [43]. This is also why 373 palaeoneurology can be of importance in helping to resolve the debate surrounding the origin of 374 language, even though demonstrating the presence of the morphological traits required to develop the Basic Property for modern language does not demonstrate the presence of the ability itself, as it 375 376 cannot be observed in the fossil record (see for instance [77]).
- The origin of language remains a difficult topic, but new approaches [59, 63], and the study of both the
- 378 calvarium and endocranial morphologies, as advocated by Boeckx [44] may bring a more robust answer
- in the near future, and palaeoneurology through the study of endocasts will certainly play a role in
- 380 this.
- 381

382 Acknowledgments.

383 For permission to study specimens in their care we thank the directors and curators of the following 384 institutions: Aristotle University of Thessaloniki (Thessaloniki, Greece); Campus Gasthuisberg (Leuven, 385 Belgium); CHNO des XV-XX, (Paris, France); Indonesian Centre for Archaeology (Jakarta, Indonesia); 386 Institut de Paléontologie Humaine (Paris, France); Mpu Tantular Museeum (Surabaya, Indonesia); 387 Musée de l'Homme (Paris, France); Museo di Antropologia G. Sergi (Sapienza Universitá di Roma, Italy); 388 Museo Nacional de Ciencas Naturales (Madrid, Spain); Museo preistorico-etonografico L. Pigorini 389 (Rome, Italy); National Museum (Bloemfontein, Republic of South Africa); National Museums of Kenya 390 (Nairobi, Kenya); Natural History Museum (London, UK); Duckworth Collection (University of 391 Cambridge); NESPOS Society; Royal Belgian Institute of Natural Sciences (Brussels, Belgium); Royal 392 Museum for Central Africa (Tervuren, Belgium); Soprintendenza Archeologia del Lazio (Rome, Italy); 393 Staatliches Museum für Naturkunde (Stuttgart, Germany); University of Edinburgh (Edinburgh, UK); 394 University of Vienna (Vienna, Austria); University of Wollongong (Wollongong, Australia). We thank I. 395 Crevecoeur, P. Gunz, S. Neubauer and F. Grine for providing CT scans of specimens in their care. We 396 are also grateful to M. Caparros, E. Gilissen, D. Grimaud-Hervé, R. Holloway and S. Prima. The study 397 was funded in part by the Fyssen Foundation (postdoctoral grant for AM) and by the Paul Broca II 398 project, 6th European Community Framework Programme (CT scanning of apes). Finally, we thank the 399 Editor of the BMSAP (S. Kacki), and two anonymous reviewers for valuable comments and criticisms of 400 earlier drafts that contributed to the improvement of this study. 401

402 References

4031.Argue D, Groves CP, Lee MSY, et al (2017) The affinities of Homo floresiensis based on404phylogenetic analyses of cranial, dental, and postcranial characters. J Hum Evol 107:107-33

Dembo M, Matzke NJ, Mooers AØ, et al (2015) Bayesian analysis of a morphological
 supermatrix sheds light on controversial fossil hominin relationships. Proc R Soc B 282(1812):20150943
 Wood B, Lonergan N (2008) The homini fossil record: taxa, grades and clades. J Anat 212:354 76

- 4. Mounier A, Caparros M (2015) The phylogenetic status of *Homo heidelbergensis* a cladistic
 study of Middle Pleistocene hominins. BMSAP 27:110-34
- 411 5. Berwick R, Hauser M, Tattersall I (2013) Neanderthal language? Just-so stories take center 412 stage. Front Psychol 4:671
- 4136.Bolhuis JJ, Tattersall I, Chomsky N, et al (2014) How Could Language Have Evolved? PLOS Biol41412(8):e1001934

415 7. Lieberman PH, Klatt DH, Wilson WH (1969) Vocal Tract Limitations on the Vowel Repertoires
416 of Rhesus Monkey and other Nonhuman Primates. Science 164(3884):1185-87

- 417 8. Fitch WT, Reby D (2001) The descended larynx is not uniquely human. Proc Biol Sci 418 268(1477):1669-75
- Boë L-J, Sawallis TR, Fagot J, et al (2019) Which way to the dawn of speech?: Reanalyzing half
 a century of debates and data in light of speech science. Sci Adv 5(12):eaaw3916
- 421 10. Conard N (2010) Cultural modernity: Consensu or conundrum? Proc Natl Acad Sci USA
 422 107(17):7621-22
- 423 11. Aubert M, Lebe R, Oktaviana AA, et al (2019) Earliest hunting scene in prehistoric art. Nature
 424 576:442-445

425 12. Klein RG (2008) Out of Africa and the Evolution of Human Behavior. Evol Anthropol 17:267-81

- 426 13. Errico (d') F, Henshilwoodc C, Vanhaerend M, et al (2005) Nassarius kraussianus shell beads
 427 from Blombos Cave: evidence for symbolic behaviour in the Middle Stone Age. J Hum Evol 48(1):3-24
 428 14. Bouzouggar A, Barton N, Vanhaeren M, et al (2007) 82,000-year-old shell beads from North
- 429 Africa and implications for the origins of modern human behavior. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 430 104(24):9964-69
- 431 15. Berwick RC, Chomsky N (2016) Why only us. . MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 224 p
- 432 16. Chomsky N (2017) The language capacity: architecture and evolution. Psycho Bull Rev433 24(1):200-03
- 434 17. Mallick S, Li H, Lipson M, et al (2016) The Simons Genome Diversity Project: 300 genomes from
 435 142 diverse populations. Nature 538:201-06
- 436 18. Mounier A, Mirazón Lahr M (2019) Deciphering African late middle Pleistocene hominin
 437 diversity and the origin of our species. Nat Commun 10(1):3406
- 43819.Schlebusch CM, Malmström H, Günther T, et al (2017) Southern African ancient genomes439estimate modern human divergence to 350,000 to 260,000 years ago. Science 358(6363):652-55

440 20. Hublin J-J, Ben-Ncer A, Bailey SE, et al (2017) New fossils from Jebel Irhoud, Morocco and the 441 pan-African origin of *Homo sapiens*. Nature 546(7657):289-92

442 21. Meyer M, Arsuaga J-L, de Filippo C, et al (2016) Nuclear DNA sequences from the Middle
443 Pleistocene Sima de los Huesos hominins. Nature 531(7595):504-07

444 22. Mounier A, Mirazón Lahr M (2016) Virtual Ancestor Reconstruction: revealing the ancestor of 445 modern humans and Neandertals. J Hum Evol 91:57-72

446 23. Berwick RC, Chomsky N (2017) Why only us: Recent questions and answers. J Neurolinguist447 43:166-77

Sankararaman S, Mallick S, Patterson N, et al (2016) The Combined Landscape of Denisovan
and Neanderthal Ancestry in Present-Day Humans. Curr Biol 26 (9):1241-47

450 25. Kuhlwilm M, Gronau I, Hubisz MJ, et al (2016) Ancient gene flow from early modern humans451 into Eastern Neanderthals. Nature 530:429

452 26. Jaubert J, Verheyden S, Genty D, et al (2016) Early Neanderthal constructions deep in Bruniquel
453 Cave in southwestern France. Nature 534 (7605):111-14

454 27. White R, Bosinski G, Bourrillon R, et al (2020) Still no archaeological evidence that 455 Neanderthals created Iberian cave art. J Hum Evol 144:102640

456 28. Hoffmann DL, Standish CD, García-Diez M, et al (2020) Response to White et al.'s reply: 'Still
457 no archaeological evidence that Neanderthals created Iberian cave art'. J Hum Evol 144:102810

458 29. Hoffmann DL, Standish CD, García-Diez M, et al (2018) U-Th dating of carbonate crusts reveals
459 Neandertal origin of Iberian cave art. Science 359(6378):912-15

30. Rendu W, Beauval C, Crevecoeur I, et al (2013) Evidence supporting an intentional Neandertal
burial at La Chapelle-aux-Saints. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 111(1):81-86

462 31. Dibble HL, Aldeias V, Goldberg P, et al (2015) A critical look at evidence from La Chapelle-aux463 Saints supporting an intentional Neandertal burial. J Archaeol Sci 53(Supplement C):649-57

Welker F, Hajdinjak M, Talamo S, et al (2016) Palaeoproteomic evidence identifies archaic
hominins associated with the Châtelperronian at the Grotte du Renne. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA
113(40):11162-67

467 33. Dediu D, Levinson SC (2018) Neanderthal language revisited: not only us. Curr Opin Behavi Sci468 21:49-55

469 34. Posth C, Wißing C, Kitagawa K, et al (2017) Deeply divergent archaic mitochondrial genome
470 provides lower time boundary for African gene flow into Neanderthals. Nat Commun 8:16046

471 35. Vernot B, Tucci S, Kelso J, et al (2016) Excavating Neandertal and Denisovan DNA from the 472 genomes of Melanesian individuals. Science 352(6282):235-39

47336.Fu Q, Hajdinjak M, Moldovan OT, et al (2015) An early modern human from Romania with a474recent Neanderthal ancestor. Nature 524:216-19

475 37. Prüfer K, Racimo F, Patterson N, et al (2014) The complete genome sequence of a Neanderthal
476 from the Altai Mountains. Nature 505(7481):43-49

477 38. Corballis MC (2014) The gradual evolution of language. HumanaMente J Philos S 27:39-60

478 39. Stout D, Toth N, Schick K, et al (2008) Neural correlates of Early Stone Age toolmaking:
479 technology, language and cognition in human evolution. Philos T R Soc B 363(1499):1939-49

480 40. Lepre CJ, Roche H, Kent DV, et al (2011) An earlier origin for the Acheulian. Nature 481 477(7362):82-85

482 41. Uomini NT, Meyer GF (2013) Shared Brain Lateralization Patterns in Language and Acheulean
483 Stone Tool Production: A Functional Transcranial Doppler Ultrasound Study. PLOS ONE 8(8):e72693

484 42. Morgan TJH, Uomini NT, Rendell LE, et al (2015) Experimental evidence for the co-evolution of 485 hominin tool-making teaching and language. Nat Commun 6:6029

43. Putt SS, Wijeakumar S, Franciscus RG, et al (2017) The functional brain networks that underlie
Early Stone Age tool manufacture. Nat Hum Behav 1(6):0102

488 44. Boeckx C (2017) The language-ready head: Evolutionary considerations. Psychon Bull Rev 489 24(1):194-99

490 45. Friederici AD (2012) The cortical language circuit: from auditory perception to sentence491 comprehension. Trends Cogn Sci 16(5):262-68

492 46. de Diego-Balaguer R, Martinez-Alvarez A, Pons F (2016) Temporal attention as a scaffold for 493 language development. Front Psychol 7:44

47. Bruner E, Manzi G, Arsuaga JL (2003) Encephalization and allometric trajectories in the genus
Homo: Evidence from the Neandertal and modern lineages. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 100(26):15335–40
48. Neubauer S, Gunz P, Hublin J-J (2010) Endocranial shape changes during growth in
chimpanzees and humans: A morphometric analysis of unique and shared aspects. J Hum Evol
59(5):555-66

49. Theofanopoulou C, Gastaldon S, O'Rourke T, et al (2017) Self-domestication in Homo sapiens:
500 Insights from comparative genomics. PLOS ONE 12(10):e0185306

- 50. Zanella M, Vitriolo A, Andirko A, et al (2019) Dosage analysis of the 7q11.23 Williams region 502 identifies BAZ1B as a major human gene patterning the modern human face and underlying self-503 domestication. Sci Adv 5(12):eaaw7908
- 504 51. Neubauer S, Hublin J-J, Gunz P (2018) The evolution of modern human brain shape. Sci Adv 505 4(1):eaao5961
- 506 52. Bruner E (2018) Human paleoneurology: Shaping cortical evolution in fossil hominids. J Comp 507 Neurol 527(10):1753-65
- 508 53. Holloway RL (2008) The Human Brain Evolving: A Personal Retrospective. Annu Rev Anthrop 509 37(1):1-19
- 510 54. Grimaud-Hervé D (1997) L'évolution de l'encéphale chez *Homo erectus* et *Homo sapiens*.
 511 Exemples de l'Asie et de l'Europe. CNRS Editions, Paris, 405 p
- 512 55. Holloway RL, Broadfield DC, Yuan MS (2004) The Human Fossil Record. Brain Endocasts: The 513 Paleoneurological Evidence. Wiley, Hoboken, New Jersey, 315 p
- 56. Balzeau A, Gilissen E, Holloway RL, et al (2014) Variations in size, shape and asymmetries of the third frontal convolution in hominids: Paleoneurological implications for hominin evolution and the origin of language. J Hum Evol 76:116-28
- 517 57. Albessard-Ball L, Balzeau A (2018) Of Tongues and Men: A Review of Morphological Evidence 518 for the Evolution of Language. J Lang Evol 3(1):79-89
- 519 58. Beaudet A (2017) The Emergence of Language in the Hominin Lineage: Perspectives from Fossil
 520 Endocasts. Front Hum Neurosci 11:427
- 521 59. Kochiyama T, Ogihara N, Tanabe HC, et al (2018) Reconstructing the Neanderthal brain using 522 computational anatomy. Sci Rep 8(1):6296
- 52360.Bruner E (2008) Comparing Endocranial Form and Shape Differences in Modern Humans and524Neandertals: a Geometric Approach. PaleoAnthropology 2008:93-106
- 525 61. Schmahmann JD, Sherman JC (1998) The cerebellar cognitive affective syndrome. Brain 121 526 (4):561-79
- 527 62. Stoodley CJ, Schmahmann JD (2009) Functional topography in the human cerebellum: A meta-528 analysis of neuroimaging studies. NeuroImage 44(2):489-501
- 52963.Gunz P, Tilot AK, Wittfeld K, et al (2019) Neandertal Introgression Sheds Light on Modern530Human Endocranial Globularity. Curr Biol 29(1):120-27.e5
- 531 64. Geschwind N (1970) The Organization of Language and the Brain. Science 170(3961):940-44
- 532 65. Wernicke C (1908) The symptom-complex of aphasia. In: Church A (ed) Diseases of the Nervous
 533 System, Appleton, New York, pp 265-324
- 534 66. Toga AW, Thompson PM (2003) Mapping brain asymmetry. Nat Rev Neurosci 4:37
- 53567.Tremblay P, Dick AS (2016) Broca and Wernicke are dead, or moving past the classic model of536language neurobiology. Brain Lang 162(Supplement C):60-71
- 537 68. Brodmann K (1909) Vergleichende Lokalisationslehre der Großhirnrinde : in ihren Prinzipien
 538 dargestellt auf Grund des Zellenbaues. Barth, Leipzig, Germany, 324 p
- 53969.Keller SS, Crow T, Foundas A, et al (2009) Broca's area: Nomenclature, anatomy, typology and540asymmetry. Brain Lang 109(1):29-48
- 54170.Mounier A, Balzeau A, Caparros M, et al (2016) Brain, calvarium, cladistics: A new approach to542an old question, who are modern humans and Neandertals? J Hum Evol 92:22-36

- 543 71. Pereira-Pedro AS, Bruner E, Gunz P, et al (2020) A morphometric comparison of the parietal
 544 lobe in modern humans and Neanderthals. J Hum Evol 142:102770
- 545 72. Weaver AH (2005) Reciprocal evolution of the cerebellum and neocortex in fossil humans. Proc
 546 Natl Acad Sci USA 102(10):3576-80
- 54773.Balzeau A, Holloway RL, Grimaud-Hervé D (2012) Variations and asymmetries in regional brain548surface in the genus *Homo*. J Hum Evol 62(6):696-706
- 549 74. Binder J (2000) The new neuroanatomy of speech perception. Brain 123(12):2371-72
- 550 75. Price CJ (2000) The anatomy of language: contributions from functional neuroimaging. J Anat 197(3):335-59
- 552 76. Leichnetz GR (2011) Supramarginal Gyrus. In: Kreutzer JS, DeLuca J, Caplan B (eds) 553 Encyclopedia of Clinical Neuropsychology. Springer New York, New York, pp 2439-40
- 554 77. Bruner E, Bondioli L, Coppa A, et al (2016) The endocast of the one-million-year-old human 555 cranium from Buia (UA 31), Danakil Eritrea. Am J Phys Anthropol 160(3):458-68

557 Figure legends

558

559 Figure 1. (2 columns)

560 (a to f) Most common anatomical definitions of Wernicke's area (a to d) and Broca's area (e and f) on the brain. 561 These definitions of each area have been endorsed by 70% (Wernicke, respectively 26%, 23%, 12% and 9%) and 562 73% (Broca, respectively 50% and 23%) of the respondents to the Tremblay and Dick survey [67]. (g) Anatomical 563 region of the endocast linked with Broca's area (green): 3Fc (third frontal convolution) and Wernicke's area (violet): 564 A. gyrus (angular gyrus) and S. gyrus (supramarginal gyrus) on the endocast of a modern Australian (AUS047, 565 Duckworth Collection). Despite the uncertainties regarding the definitions of both areas on the brain, the use of the 566 3Fc, angular and supramarginal gyri appears as the most reasonable proxy to observe changes related to those 567 areas in palaeoneurology. / (a à f) Définitions anatomiques les plus courantes de la zone de Wernicke (a à d) et de 568 la zone de Broca (e et f) sur le cerveau. Ces définitions de chaque zone ont été approuvées par 70% (Wernicke, 569 respectivement 26%, 23%, 12 % et 9%) et 73% (Broca, respectivement 50% et 23%) des répondants à l'enquête 570 de [67]. (g) Région anatomique de l'endocrâne liée à la zone de Broca (vert) : 3Fc (troisième circonvolution frontale) 571 et région de Wernicke (violet) : A. gyrus (gyrus angulaire) et S. gyrus (gyrus supramarginal) sur l'endocrâne d'un 572 Australien moderne (AUS047, Duckworth Collection). Malgré les incertitudes concernant les définitions des deux 573 zones du cerveau, l'utilisation de la 3Fc, des gyri angulaire et supramarginal apparaît comme le proxy le plus 574 raisonnable pour observer les changements liés à ces zones en paléoneurologie.

575

576 Figure 2. (2 columns)

577 Cladogram of the genus Homo modified from Mounier and colleagues [70] presenting the most important changes 578 along the branch of the tree (true synapomorphies -RI=1, and characters with RI>0.8) along with the appearance 579 of derived features related to the classic Wernicke-Geschwind model throughout the Middle Pleistocene and before 580 the split between the modern and Neandertal lineages (#14 and 17 respectively RI = 0.667 and RI = 0.75 due to 581 reversions). #33 is not linked to the language loop but has been linked to the evolution of language (e.g. [59]). The 582 endocast used to display the morphological features are, from top to bottom: Kabwe 1 (oblique view, left side), 583 Kabwe 1 (norma lateralis), Irhoud 2 (norma lateralis) and AUS 047. Character descriptions: #1, Cranial capacity; 584 #7, Number of ramifications of the middle meningeal system; #14, Definition and development of the relief of the 585 head of 3Fc; #16, Orientation of the anterior and posterior ramus of the Sylvian valley; #17, Lateral development of 586 the pars triangularis; #19, Maximum length position between pars triangularis; #20, Position of the base of the pars 587 triangularis relative to the temporal pole; #22, Definition and projection of the supra-marginal gyrus; #24, Definition 588 of the lobule of the angular gyrus; #30, Position of the occipital lobes; #33, Width of the sulcus separating the 589 cerebellar lobes; #50, Presence of a tuber parietale; #55, Form of the outline of the planum occipital in norma 590 occipitalis; # 56, Presence of a suprainiac fossa; #57, Definition of the torus occipitalis transversus; #60, Form of 591 the outline of the superior border of the temporal squama. / Cladogramme du genre Homo modifié de Mounier et 592 collaborateurs [70] présentant les changements les plus importants le long de la branche de l'arbre (vraies 593 synapomorphies -RI = 1, et caractères avec RI > 0,8) ainsi que l'apparition de caractéristiques dérivées liées au 594 classique Modèle de Wernicke-Geschwind tout au long du Pléistocène moyen et avant la scission entre les lignées 595 modernes et néandertaliennes (# 14 et 17 respectivement RI = 0,667 et RI = 0,75 en raison des inversions). # 33 596 n'est pas lié à la boucle linguistique mais a été lié à l'évolution du langage (e.g. [59]). L'endocrâne utilisé pour 597 afficher les caractéristiques morphologiques est de haut en bas: Kabwe 1 (vue oblique, côté gauche), Kabwe 1 598 (norma lateralis), Irhoud 2 (norma lateralis), et AUS 047. Descriptions des caractères : # 1, Capacité crânienne; # 599 7, Nombre de ramifications du système méningé moyen; # 14, Définition et développement du relief de la tête de 600 la troisième circonvolution centrale ; # 16, Orientation du ramus antérieur et postérieur de la scissure de Sylvius; # 601 17, Développement latéral de la pars triangularis; # 19, Position de la longueur maximale entre les pars triangularis; 602 # 20, Position de la base de la pars triangularis par rapport au pôle du lobe temporal ; # 22, Définition et projection 603 de la supra- gyrus marginal ; # 24, Définition du lobule du gyrus angulaire ; # 30, Position des lobes occipitaux ; # 604 33, Largeur du sulcus séparant les lobes cérébelleux ; # 50, Présence d'un tuber parietale ; # 55, Forme du contour 605 du planum occipital in norma occipitalis ; # 56, Présence d'une fosse suprainiaque ; # 57, Définition du torus 606 occipitalis transversus ; # 60, Forme du contour du bord supérieur de l'écaille de l'os temporal.

608 Figure 3. (1.5 columns)

609 Bivariate plot of the size of the third frontal convolution (square root, noted 3Fc, in mm) and of the endocranial 610 volume (cube root, noted Endo V, in mm) in Pan paniscus (triangles), Pan troglodytes (inverted triangles), H. 611 sapiens (circles), fossil H. sapiens (black circles), fossil hominins (black diamonds: T: Taung, 17k: KNM-WT 17000, 612 1470: KNM-ER 1470, 1813: KNM-ER 1813, 3733: KNM-ER 3733, 3883: KNM-ER 3883, 15k: KNM-WT 15000, OH 613 9, D: Dmanisi 9002, T2: Trinil 2, S2: Sangiran 2, S17: Sangiran 17, M: Mojokerto, Ng7: Ngandong 7, Ng12: 614 Ngandong 12, Sm3: Sambungmacan 3, S3: Zhoukoudian Ckn.E 1.PA.16, S12: Zhoukoudian Ckn.L 2.PA.100, LB 615 1: Liang Bua 1, SV: Skhūl V, Ar: Arago, B: Bodo, K: Kabwe 1, JB1: Jebel Irhoud 1, P: Petralona, S: Salé) and 616 Neandertals (red circle, F: Feldhofer, LC: LaChapelle-aux-Saints 1, LF1: La Ferrassie 1, Gu: Guattari, Gi: Gibraltar, 617 K3: Krapina 3, Q5:La Quina H5, Sa: Saccopastore, TC1: Tabun C1, TT: Teshik Tash, , SII: Spy 10). Modified from 618 [56]. / Graphique bivarié de la taille de la troisième circonvolution frontale (racine carrée, noté 3Fc) et du volume 619 endocrânien (racine cubique, noté Endo V) chez Pan paniscus (triangles), Pan troglodytes (triangles inversés), H. 620 sapiens (cercles), H. sapiens fossiles (cercles noirs), hominines fossiles (diamants noirs : T : Taung, 17k : KNM-621 WT 17000, 1470 : KNM-ER 1470, 1813 : KNM-ER 1813, 3733 : KNM-ER 3733, 3883 : KNM-ER 3883, 15k : KNM-622 WT 15000, OH 9, D: Dmanisi 9002, T2: Trinil 2, S2: Sangiran 2, S17: Sangiran 17, M: Mojokerto, Ng7: 623 Ngandong 7, Ng12 : Ngandong 12, Sm3 : Sambungmacan 3, S3 : Zhoukoudian Ckn.E 1.PA.16, S12 : Zhoukoudian 624 Ckn.L 2.PA.100, LB 1 : Liang Bua 1, SV : Skhūl V, Ar : Arago, B : Bodo, K : Kabwe 1, JB1 : Jebel Irhoud 1, P : 625 Petralona, S: Salé) et Néandertaliens (cercle rouge, F: Feldhofer, LC: La Chapelle-aux-Saints 1, LF1: La 626 Ferrassie 1, Gu : Guattari, Gi : Gibraltar, K3 : Krapina 3, Q5 : La Quina H5, Sa : Saccopastore, TC1 : Tabun C1,

627 TT : Teshik Tash, SII : Spy 10). Modifié à partir de [56].