

Day Three

Day 1: Where they were

Day 2: Where they went

Day 3: How they spoke

Original utterance: Chimps, dolphins and early humans

As historical linguists trace the world's languages back to their earliest sources of diction and syntax, other researchers are taking on the deep mystery of how and when humans started to talk in the first place. In the forthcoming book *Uniquely Human: The Evolution of Speech, Thought and Selfless Behavior* (Harvard University Press, \$27.95), linguist Philip Liebenman of Brown University argues that ancient hominids lacked the modern human's elongated vocal tract, which he contends is essential for the wide range of sounds characteristic of language. Fossil evidence suggests that fully developed language may have arisen only with the appearance of anatomically modern humans some 200,000 years ago, and that their sophisticated powers of communication may have been a key to the species' migration around the globe.

But some crude form of language may have existed long before the evolution of language as we know it. Studies of fossil skulls indicate that a part of the brain crucial to language production in modern humans existed in hominids millions of years ago, suggesting that our ancient ancestors may have had at least rudimentary linguistic abilities. In his new book, *Language and Species* (University of Chicago Press, \$24.95), linguist Derek Bickerton of the University of Hawaii contends that primi-



Kanzi. Crude way with language?

tive language may have arisen not so much from the need to communicate as from the mind's effort to grasp the world around it. Vestiges of this language remain with us, he says, in the form of the single, one- and two-word utterances of toddlers and adults who speak to each other in pidgin.

Apes and other intelligent animals may also share this rudimentary form of language. Studies of chimpanzees

have shown that animals can communicate with signs or symbols only in a very limited fashion. But just last month, researchers from the University of California at Los Angeles and Emory University's Yerkes Regional Primate Research Center reported that a 5½-year-old pygmy chimp named Kanzi spontaneously learned to use grammatical rules similar to those of a 2-year-old child. UCLA psychologist Patricia Marks Greenfield and Yerkes biologist Sue Savage-Rumbaugh found that the order in which Kanzi used symbols was an integral part of their meaning. Recent studies with dolphins and sea lions demonstrate that these creatures can learn to understand word order as well.

Whether the utterances of animals represent true humanlike language abilities remains a matter of intense scientific debate, however. Critics of animal-language studies argue that the animals are only using rote behavior to get food or are responding to unconscious cues from their trainers. "All the evidence suggests that the animals are merely using sophisticated ways to request things," says Columbia University psychologist Herbert Terrace, whose ape research convinced him that animals could not learn to communicate in a humanlike language. Evidence that language may be a uniquely human trait, say some researchers, ultimately lies not in animals' language abilities but in how they use that ability. In animals, language appears to be just one more way to fulfill physical desires; in humans, language reflects not only our earthly needs but our heavenly desires, thoughts and emotions.



SIBERIA

ATLANTIC
SEA

EUROPE

UKRAINE

CENTRAL
ASIA

BALKANS

ANATOLIA

IRAN

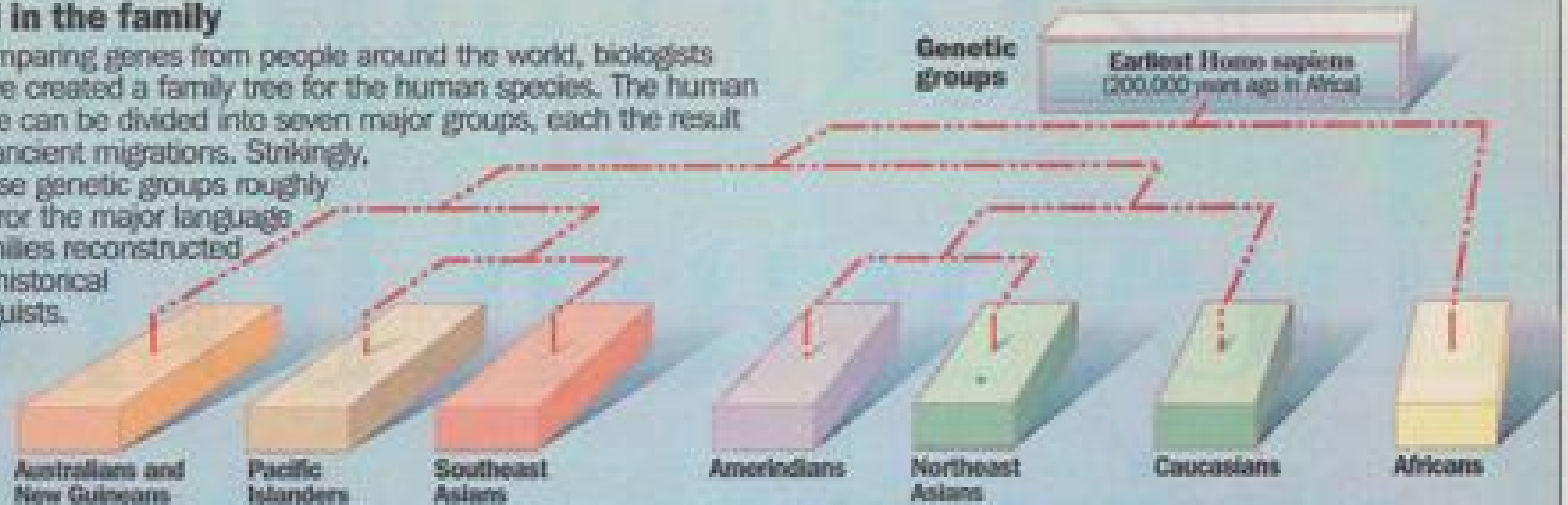
AFRICA

ARABIA

INDIA

All in the family

Comparing genes from people around the world, biologists have created a family tree for the human species. The human race can be divided into seven major groups, each the result of ancient migrations. Strikingly, these genetic groups roughly mirror the major language families reconstructed by historical linguists.



Major language families

- Australian and Indo-Pacific
- Austic
- Dene-Caucasian
- Amerind
- Nostratic
- Khoisan and Congo-Saharan



USNS/NR—Basic data: "Reconstruction of Human Evolution: Bringing Together Genetic, Archaeological, and Linguistic Data," L.L. Cavalli-Sforza, "Evolution of Language: A Global Perspective," *World Journal*, 2018

Spreading the word

New research suggests that the ancestral tongue from which most modern European languages are descended was spread throughout the Continent by farmers. According to British archaeologist Colin Renfrew, this language, called Indo-European, arose in Anatolia—part of modern-day Turkey—some 8,000 years ago, and over the following millennia gave rise to the precursors of English, French and dozens of other modern tongues.



Indo-European

Nostratic

Afro-Asiatic

Dravidian

Soviet linguists have found that Indo-European is itself a descendant of a more ancient tongue. Dubbed Nostratic, this proto-language arose some 14,000 years ago, spawning several language families that spread into Africa, India and Europe.

Development of Language

PHONEMES

CONATES

VOWEL SHIFT

CONSONANT SHIFT

ARTICLES AND PREPOSITIONS

POLITE AND FAMILIAR

COGNATES

• b & p

• d & t

• f & v

• g & k

• s & sh

• l & r

• m

• n

• kw/qua

• w

• j

• ch

VOWEL SHIFT

- **A** as in fat, fate, fawn
- **E** as in each, etch, seem
- **I** as in it, kite, (**I** as in ee)
- **O** as in old, cot, boom
- **U** as in us, use, sun

CONSONANT SHIFT

S to **K**

D to **dh**

V to **B**

T to **stop**

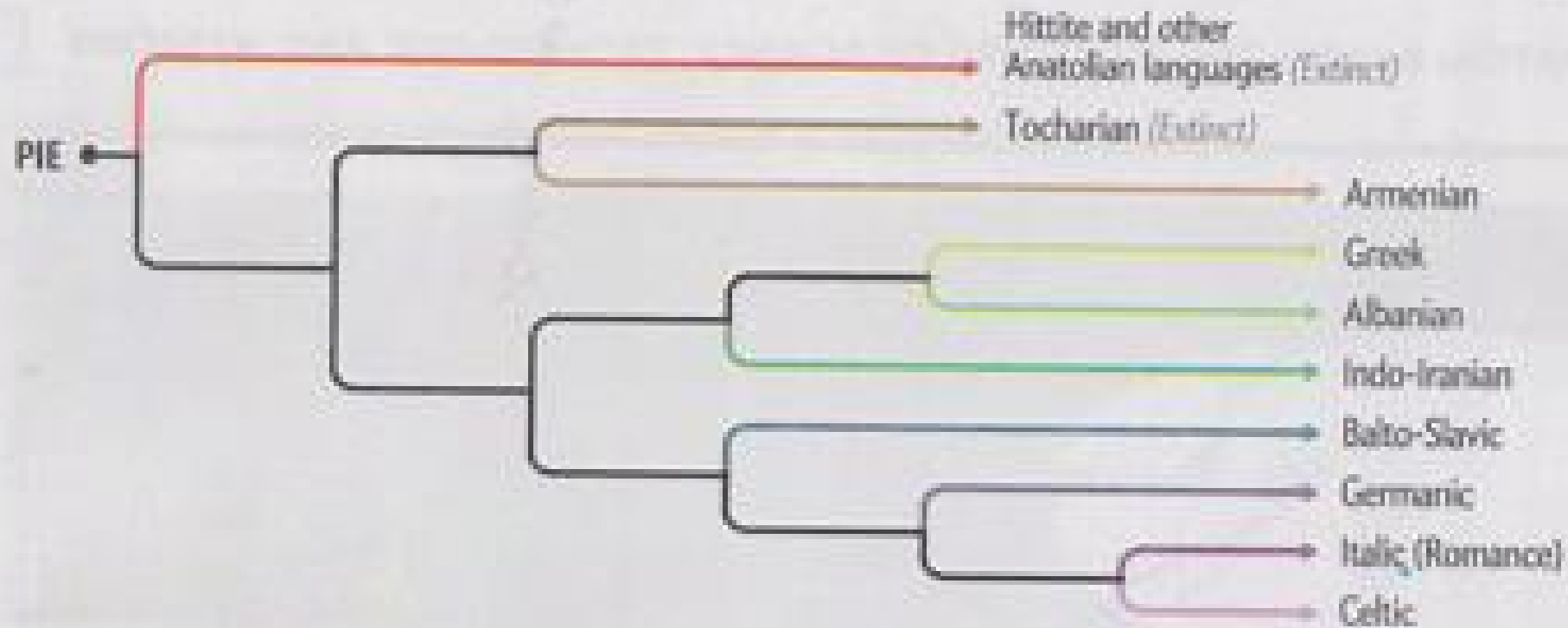
W to **V**

Add R

V to **W**



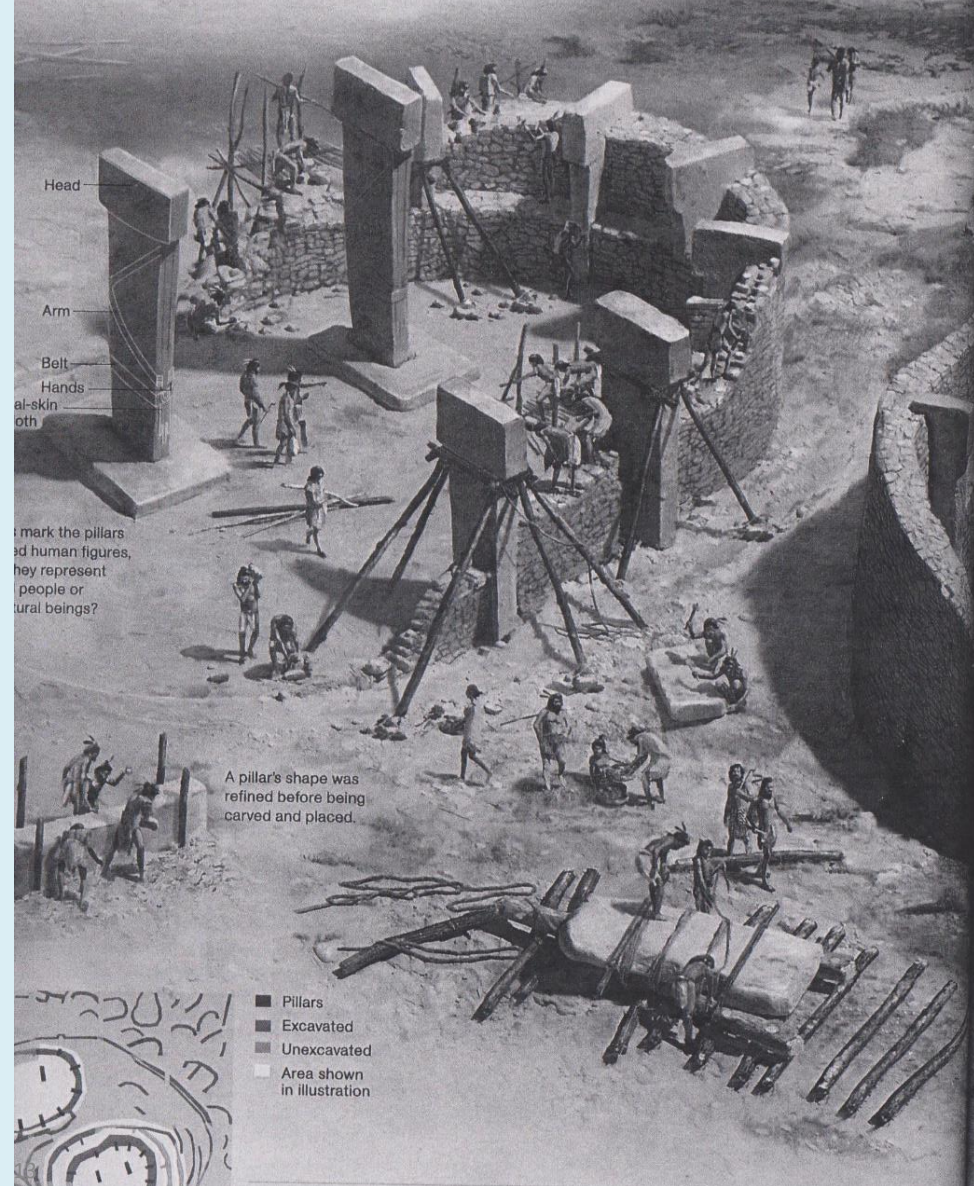
ADVANCES



A large number of languages spoken today—including English, Hindi and Persian—descended from a single root tongue, Proto-Indo-European. New genetic evidence supports the idea this language was spread by Ukrainian steppe nomads on horseback. This diagram is highly stylized and is meant to show only general relations among language groups, not actual dates of divergence.

JILDING GOBEKLI TEPE

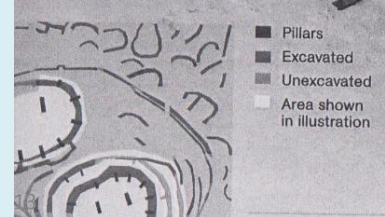
le must have gathered from far-flung settlements to erect the first
n temples. Using flint tools, they carved pillars and shaped blocks
alls mortared with clay. When a new temple was completed, the
ne was buried. How the temples were used is unknown.



Head
Arm
Belt
Hands
Loincloth

mark the pillars
and human figures,
they represent
people or
animal beings?

A pillar's shape was
refined before being
carved and placed.



Sanctuary grounds
Geomagnetic surveys of

Quarrying a pillar
The Tepe was incised

Spectator access?

Human muscle moved the
limestone pillars, weighing up
to 16 tons, from quarries as
far as a quarter mile away.



Offerings

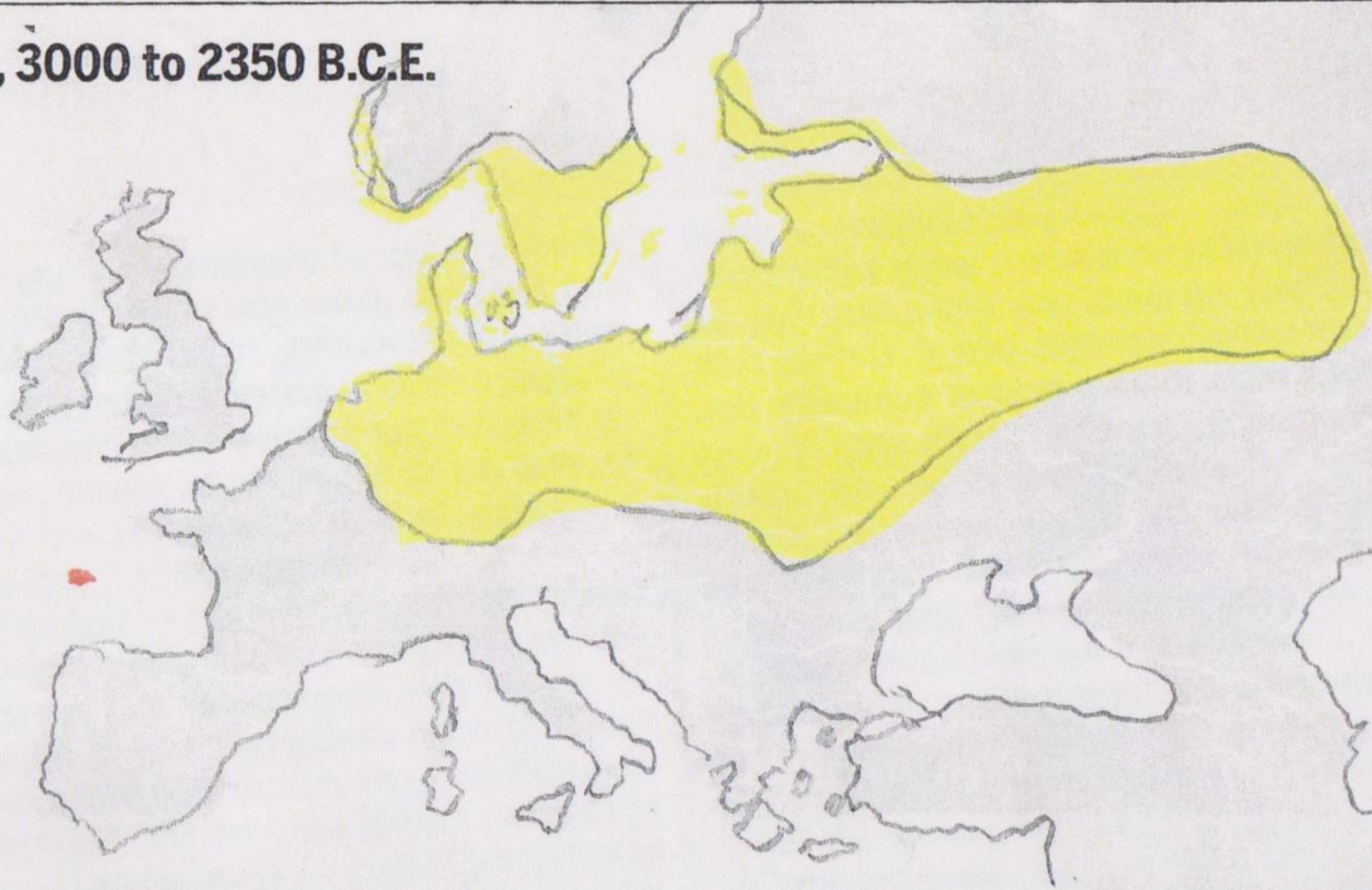
A sunken U-shaped
block formed the
entry pillars.

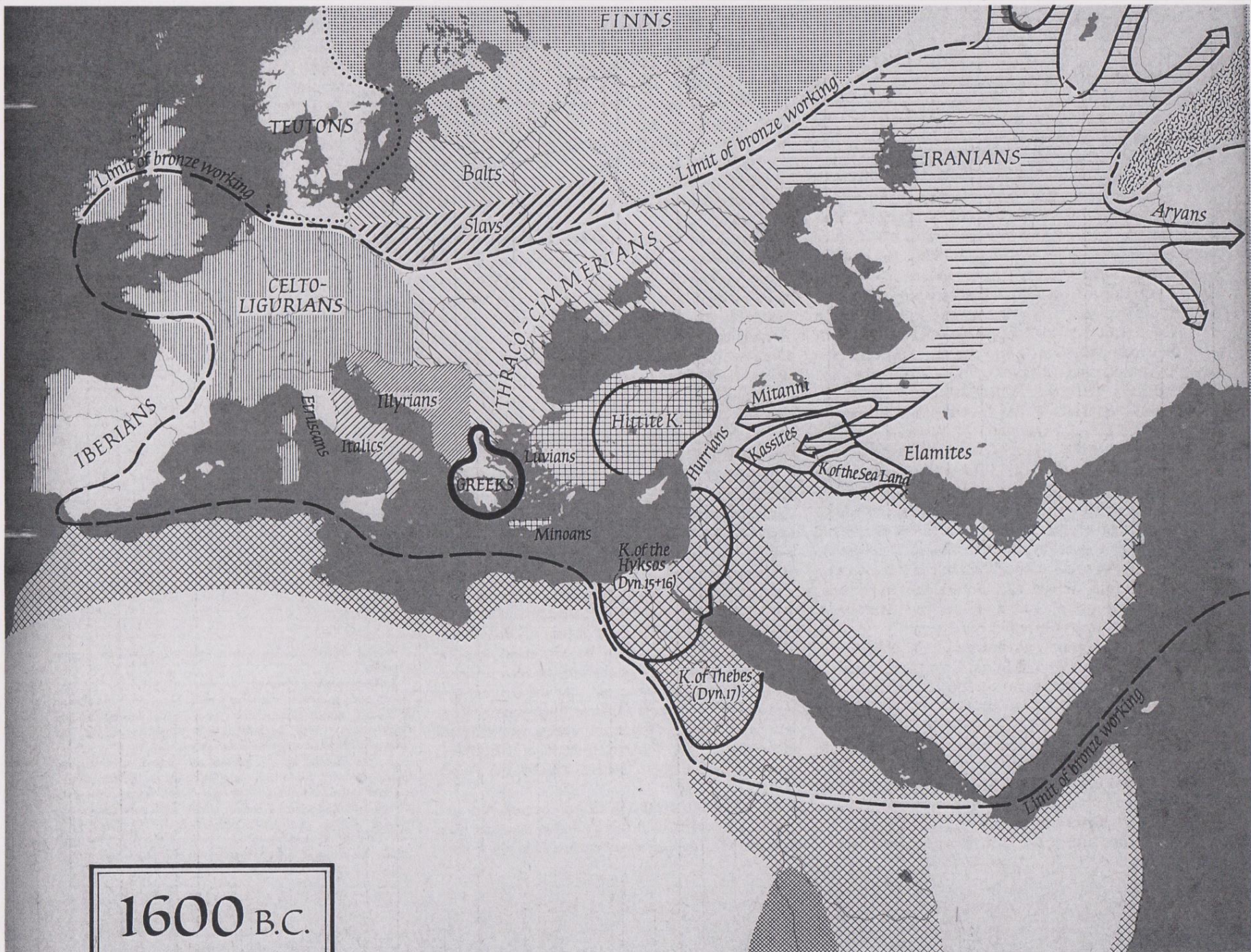


Extent of the Corded Ware culture, 3000 to 2350 B.C.E.

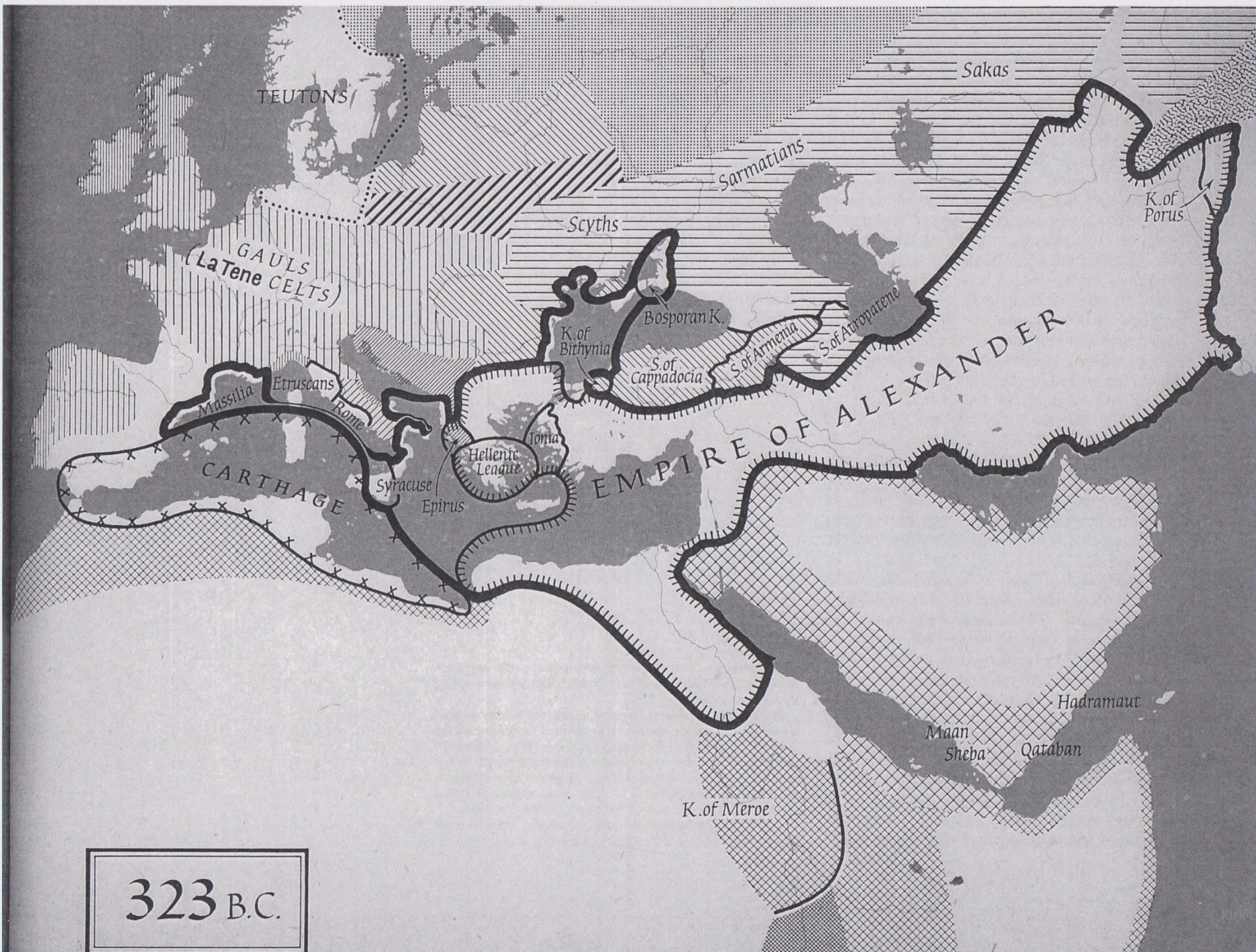


Spreading out. The Corded Ware people, known for distinctive pottery with cord impressions, began to expand their reach starting about 5000 years ago, and may have brought Eurasian genes to Europe.

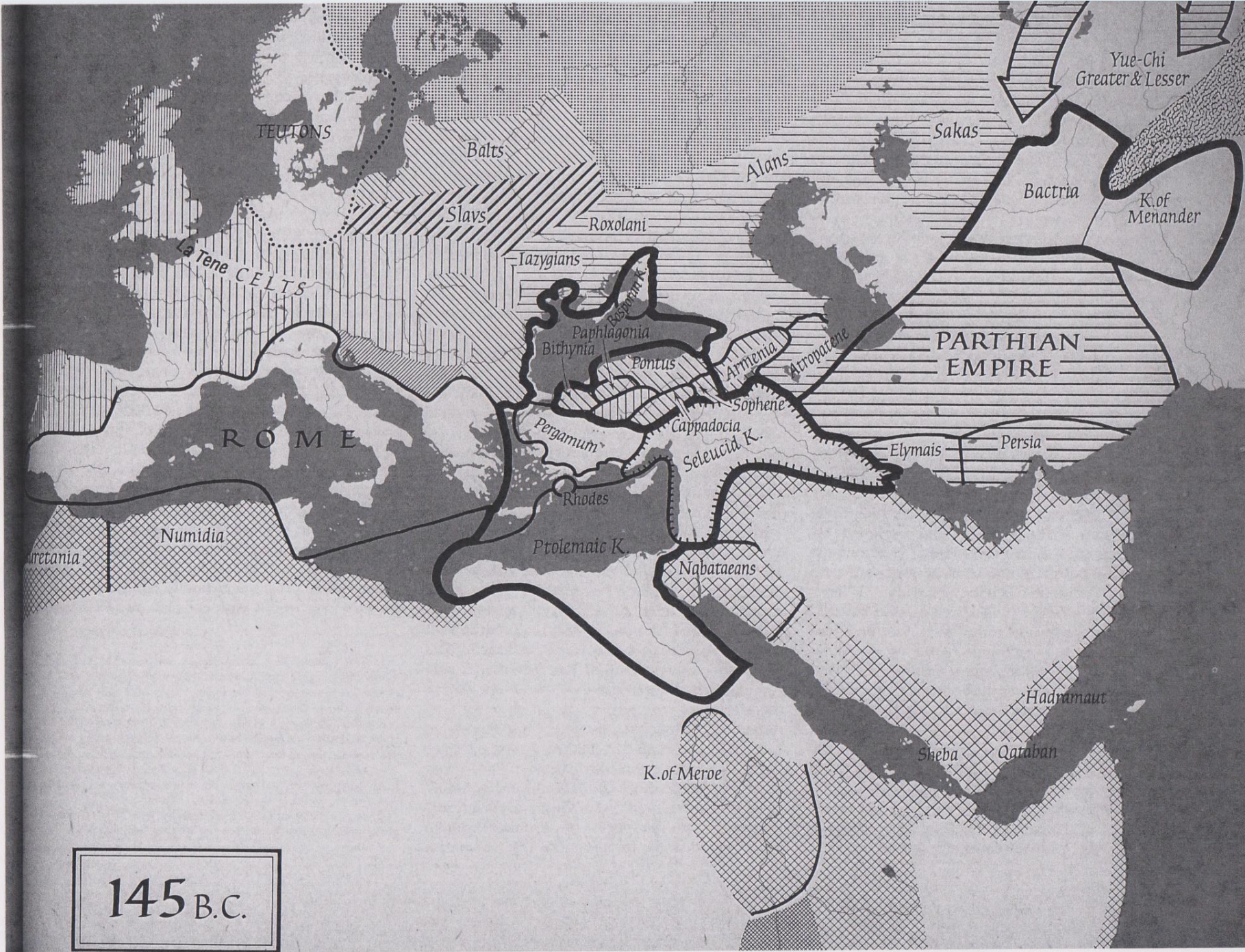




1600 B.C.



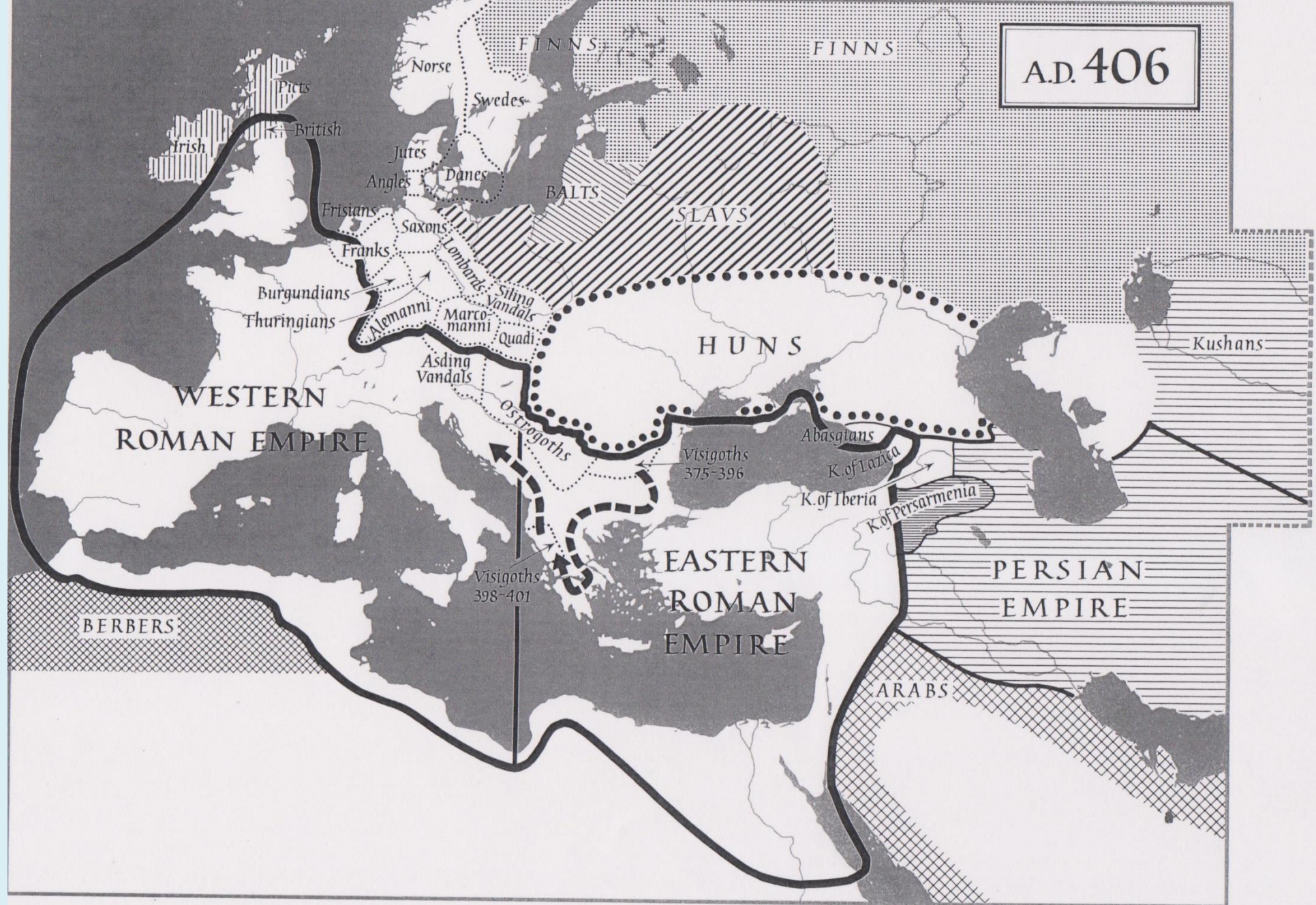
323 B.C.



145 B.C.



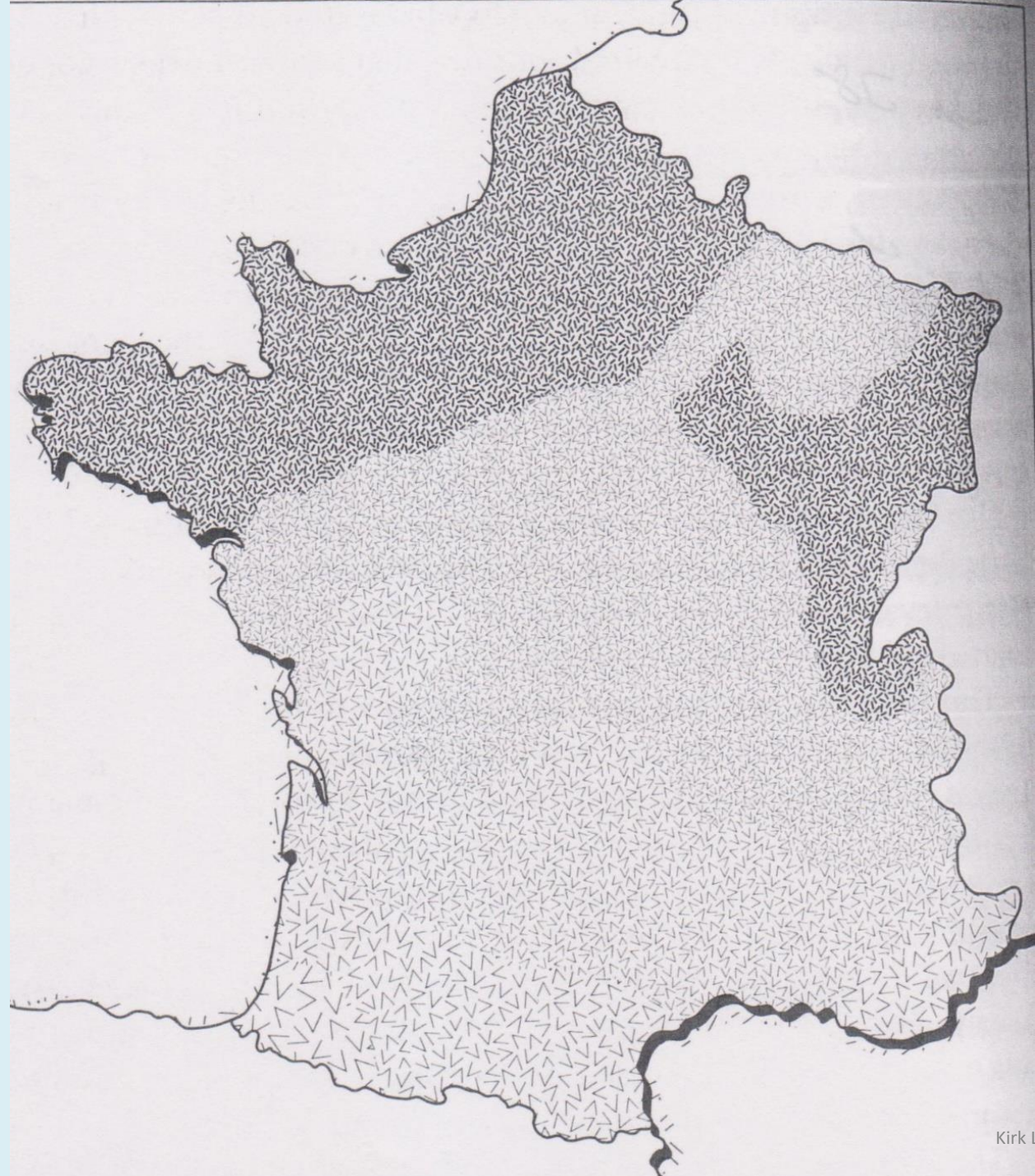
A.D. 362



A.D. 650



FRANCE



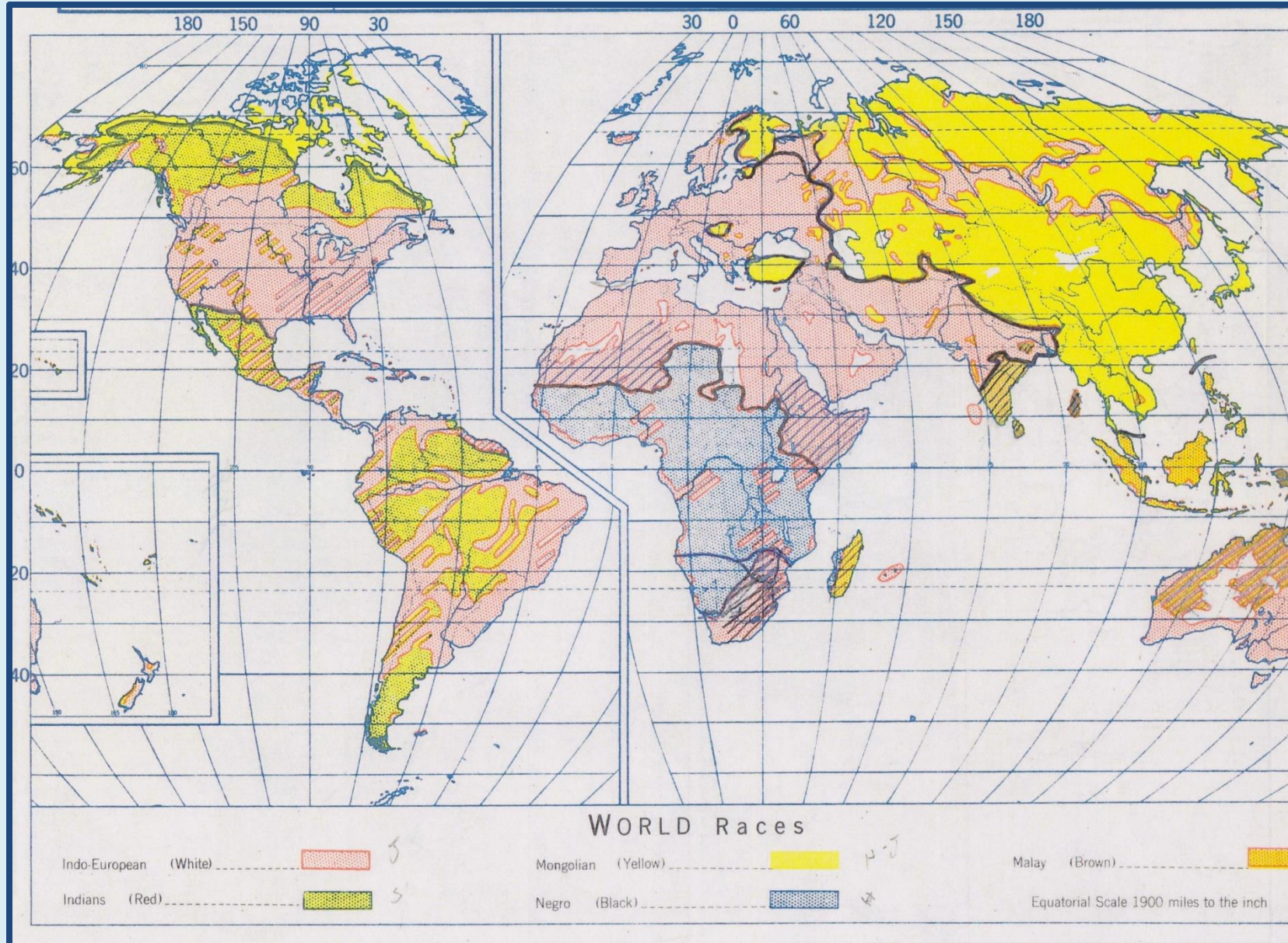
A.D. 1278



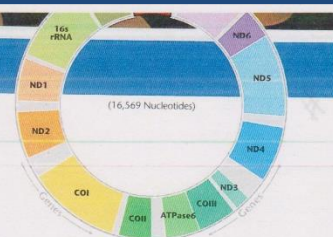
Mongol campaigns 1237-42

A Angevin possessions

World Races



Genetic Signposts



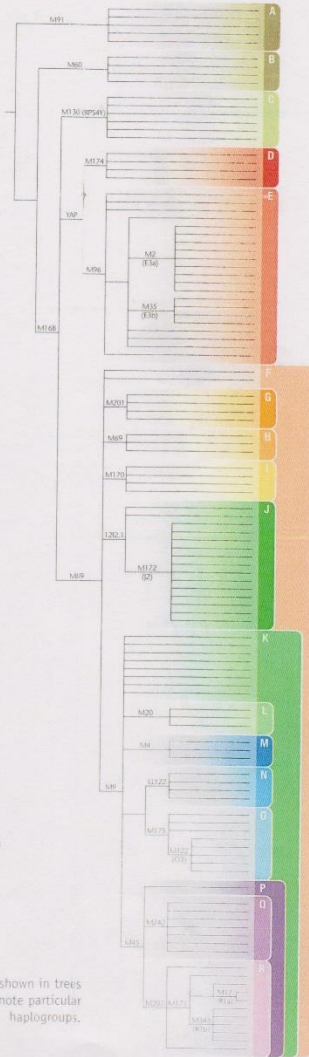
LINEAGE

Y Chromosome

chromosome is the sex-determining chromosome in humans. Unlike all other chromosomes, it is found in pairs, it is the mismatch of the chromosomes from its partner, the X chromosome, that determines gender—men have a matched pair (Y and X), while women have two X chromosomes. Because the Y chromosome does not have a matching chromosome, it (the non-recombining region, NRY) escapes the shuffling process of recombination that occurs in the rest of the genome. This allows the Y to be passed through a purely male line, and only by random mutational events. These mutations have given rise to useful genetic markers, such as those shown on the tree diagram to the left (e.g., M91, M60, etc.), with varying geographic distributions in men from around the world.

mtDNA GENOME

Y CHROMOSOME TREE

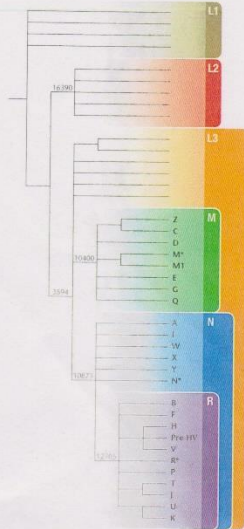


FEMALE LINEAGE

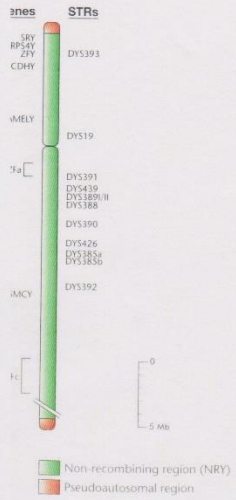
Mitochondrial DNA

If the Y chromosome traces the male lineage back through history, then the mitochondrial genome (mtDNA) can be considered its female counterpart. Mitochondria are self-reproducing structures found inside the cells of all higher organisms, typically present in hundreds of copies per cell. They are responsible for generating most of the energy used by the cell. Because there are no mitochondria in the head of a mature sperm, they are passed down solely from mother to offspring. One region of particular importance in mtDNA is the hypervariable region (HVR 1&2), where the rate of mutation has been shown to be up to 100 times greater than that of the nuclear genome. Because of its much shorter length (several hundred nucleotides, versus millions for the Y), the HVR can be quickly scanned to reveal many informative mutational events that have been passed down through the maternal line.

mtDNA TREE



CHROMOSOME

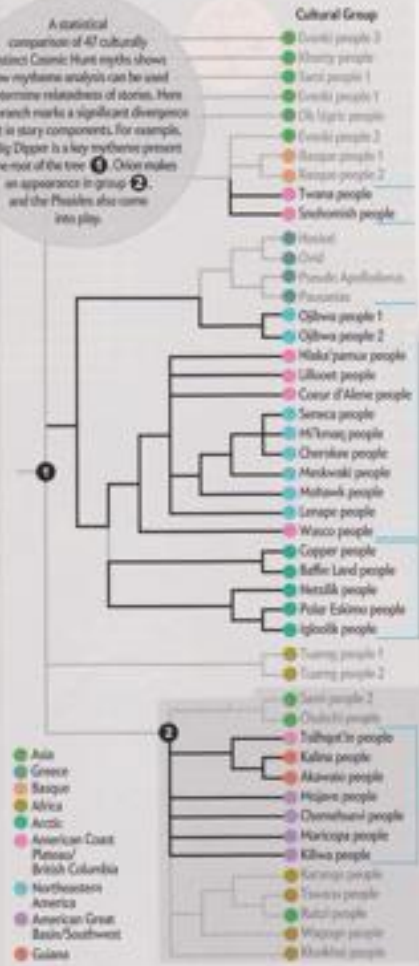


Colors shown in trees denote particular haplogroups.

Family Tree

Analysis of variations in Cosmic Hunt myths using several different statistical models reveals that the humans who first populated the Americas brought the stories with them when they crossed the Bering Strait land bridge from Siberia more than 15,000 years ago. Branches in this model indicate how versions of the myth passed from generation to generation and to different cultural groups during four successive waves of migration.

A statistical comparison of 47 culturally distinct Cosmic Hunt myths shows how mythic analysis can be used to determine relationships of stories. Here each branch marks a significant divergence point in story components. For example, the Big Dipper is a key mythic element at the root of the tree. 1. Orion makes an appearance in group 2, and the Pleiades also come into play.



L e o n a r d o

WISDOM TEETH
Early humans had to chew a lot of plants to get enough calories to survive, making another row of molars helpful. **Only about 5 percent of the population has a healthy set of these third molars.**

VOMERONASAL ORGAN
A tiny pit on each side of the septum is lined with nonfunctioning chemoreceptors. They may be all that remains of a once extensive pheromone-detecting ability.

EXTRINSIC EAR MUSCLES
This trio of muscles most likely made it possible for prehumans to move their ears independently of their heads, as rabbits and dogs do. We still have them, which is why most people can learn to wiggle their ears.

NECK RIB
A set of cervical ribs—possibly leftovers from the age of reptiles—still appear in **less than 1 percent of the population.** They often cause nerve and artery problems.

DARWIN'S POINT
A small folded point of skin toward the top of each ear is **occasionally found in modern humans.** It may be a remnant of a larger shape that helped focus distant sounds.

PALMARIS MUSCLE
This long, narrow muscle runs from the elbow to the wrist and is **missing in 11 percent of modern humans.** It may once have been important for hanging and climbing. Surgeons harvest it for reconstructive surgery.

ERECTOR PILI
Bundles of smooth muscle fibers allow animals to puff up their fur for insulation or to intimidate others. Humans retain this ability (goose bumps are the indicator) but have obviously lost most of the fur.

BODY HAIR
Brows help keep sweat from the eyes, and male facial hair may play a role in sexual selection, but apparently most of the hair left on the human body serves no function.

THIRTEENTH RIB
Our closest cousins, chimpanzees and gorillas, have an extra set of ribs. **Most of us have 12, but 8 percent of adults have the extras.**

PYRAMIDALIS MUSCLE
More than 20 percent of us lack this tiny, triangular pouchlike muscle that attaches to the pubic bone. It may be a relic from pouched marsupials.

FEMALE VAS DEFERENS
What might become sperm ducts in males become the epoophoron in females, a cluster of useless dead-end tubules near the ovaries.

MALE UTERUS
A remnant of an undeveloped female reproductive organ hangs off the male prostate gland.

FIFTH TOE
Lesser apes use all their toes for grasping or clinging to branches. Humans need mainly the big toe for balance while walking upright.

PLANTARIS MUSCLE
Often mistaken for a nerve by freshman medical students, the muscle was useful to other primates for grasping with their feet. **It has disappeared altogether in 9 percent of the population.**

APPENDIX
This narrow, muscular tube attached to the large intestine served as a special area to digest cellulose when the human diet consisted more of plant matter than animal protein. It also produces some white blood cells. Annually, more than 300,000 Americans have an appendectomy.

MALE NIPPLES
Lactiferous ducts form well before testosterone causes sex differentiation in a fetus. Men have mammary tissue that can be stimulated to produce milk.

SUBCLAVIUS MUSCLE
This small muscle stretching under the shoulder from the first rib to the collarbone would be useful if humans still walked on all fours. **Some people have one, some have none, and a few have two.**

THIRD EYELID
A common ancestor of birds and mammals may have had a membrane for protecting the eye and sweeping out debris. Humans retain only a tiny fold in the inner corner of the eye.

DA VINCI ILLUSTRATION FROM BETTMANN/CORBIS.

The End

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اختتام

پایان

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結束

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