

The trade-off between vocal learning and dexterity: a balancing act

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Abstract

Uncontroversial evidence of vocal production learning, the capacity to modify vocal output on the basis of experience, is sparsely distributed in the animal kingdom. We suggest that this is in large part due to a trade-off between vocal learning complexity and a much more widely distributed trait—non-vocal dexterity. We argue that given some generally required neural and anatomical conditions for vocal production learning, species lacking both the (manual) appendages fine-tuned for grasping, manipulation, etc. and the neural control of those structures are more likely to display complex vocal learning. Conversely, the presence and control of these (manual) structures relegates the vocal apparatus to simpler vocal, feeding, and manipulation behaviors in other species. In other words, vocal learners tend to be flyers or swimmers. We also address the obvious exception to this generalization: humans are both highly dexterous and complex vocal learners. We hypothesize that the degree of bipedalism in land species and its connection with locomotion and breathing control is also a factor that helps shape the distribution of the vocal learning phenotype.

Keywords: vocal learning, dexterity, bipedalism, locomotion

1 A rare trait

¹ Vocal (production) learning is the capacity to modify vocal output on the basis
² of experience (Martins and Boeckx, 2020). Although evidence accumulates in
³ favor of treating vocal learning as a multidimensional ability, where behavior,
⁴ neural circuitry and functional pressures all help shape the phenotype (Lameira,
⁵ 2017; Ghazanfar et al., 2019; Wirthlin et al., 2019; Martins and Boeckx, 2020;
⁶ Fischer et al., 2020), in its popular characterization as vocal imitation subserved
⁷ by a direct cortico-laryngeal/syringeal connection (Petkov and Jarvis, 2012),
⁸ vocal (production) learning remains a rare ability, and has been identified in a
⁹ few species: humans, three orders of birds (songbirds, parrots, hummingbirds)

10 (Petkov and Jarvis, 2012), cetaceans (Janik, 2014), pinnipeds (Ravignani et al.,
11 2016), bats (Vernes and Wilkinson, 2020), and elephants (Stoeger and Manger,
12 2014). Perhaps due to this, vocal learning is often still treated as a binary
13 trait (e.g. Christmas et al., 2023), even if there is promise of vocal learning
14 behavior in more species, including primates (Lameira, 2017; Takahashi et al.,
15 2017; Martins and Boeckx, 2020).

16 In this paper we isolate a property of canonical vocal production learners that
17 we put forward as a heretofore underappreciated constraint on the emergence
18 of the phenotype. After stating the key observation, we formulate a hypothesis
19 that explains the constraint, and examine (potential) exceptions.

20 2 The key observation

21 There is one aspect that connects most canonical vocal learners: they are flyers
22 or swimmers. Species whose vocal learning abilities are typically considered
23 less impressive tend to be neither. This relationship was hinted at in Janik
24 and Slater (1997), who pointed out that by virtue of their being flyers and/or
25 swimmers, vocal learners inhabit and navigate 3D spaces, leading to different
26 pressures that foster the emergence of some kind of vocal learning complexity:
27 an increase in vocal versus visual communication signals, signal noise adding
28 to signal diversity, and mate choice and sexual selection in such open-ended
29 environments.

30 This insight has gone largely unexplored in the vocal learning literature,
31 with the exception of Verpooten (2021), who discussed two key observations
32 regarding selective pressures. One is that sexual selection mechanisms depend
33 on the dimensionality of the mating environment, and monopolization is harder
34 in vast 3D environments (*Dimensionality hypothesis*; Puts, 2010). The three-
35 dimensionality of water, sea, and trees favours mate monopolization methods
36 other than force, with the latter being favored in two-dimensional environments
37 where direct contests are the main method of excluding competitors. The other
38 is that the possibility of escape by females from coercive males fosters orna-
39 mental versus weaponized methods of mate attraction (*Coercion-avoidance hy-*
40 *pothesis*; Pradhan and Van Schaik, 2009). In vast three-dimensional environ-
41 ments, where females have more behavioral freedom and male monopolization
42 is harder, sexually dimorphic ornaments are favored, while terrestrial species
43 in two-dimensional environments are more dependent on dimorphic weaponry,
44 which can be more readily used to fend off male competitors and coerce female
45 mates. Indeed, as Verpooten (2021) points out, the dynamics of sexual selec-
46 tion in 3D environments, where ornamentation and methods other than force
47 are highly advantageous, might be a very important factor in the emergence of
48 vocal learning complexity.

49 Valuable as these observations are, we would like to point out that flyers and
50 swimmers have more in common than the vastness and dimensionality of their
51 environment and how they navigate it. In particular, they don't have prehensile
52 forelimbs. Their forelimbs are anatomically and mechanically specialized for
53 swimming and/or flying. We put forth the following generalization: Species
54 that display robust vocal learning abilities tend to lack dexterous forelimbs.

55 Even non-flyers/swimmers who display complex vocal learning behavior tend
56 not to have forelimb dexterity (elephants), while those species whose vocal learn-

57 ing behavior is more elusive tend to have a great deal of prehensile dexterity. In
58 the next sections, we articulate why we think that this relationship holds. We
59 also turn our attention to apparent counter-examples to this correlation, with
60 the most obvious one being humans, who are both complex vocal learners and
61 have high forelimb dexterity.

62 **3 The hypothesis**

63 Dexterity can be understood as the ability to perform fine motor movements: to
64 reach for, grasp and manipulate objects with anatomically suitable appendages
65 such as the hands/paws, digits, or other structures. Much like vocal learning,
66 dexterity has evolved independently in different clades (Nowicki and Searcy,
67 2014; Iwaniuk and Whishaw, 2000), which highlights the existence of selective
68 pressures leading to its emergence. Also like vocal learning, dexterity is not
69 a monolithic ability; there are different ways in which it can be manifested,
70 which involve different degrees of grasping and object manipulation, which can
71 be employed in a variety of behaviors. Anatomical, allometric, biomechanical
72 and functional factors influence the different grasping skills species will display
73 (Iwaniuk et al., 2000). Importantly, dexterity is not limited to forelimbs. For
74 example, forelimbs in birds are not prehensile and are used almost exclusively
75 for flight, forcing dexterous behavior to the tongue and beak, and in several
76 cases the feet (Sustaita et al., 2013; Gutiérrez-Ibáñez et al., 2023). For instance,
77 parrots, which are notable vocal imitators, have specialized tongue muscles that
78 allow them to perform dexterous tasks (Homberger, 2003). In cetaceans, fore-
79 limbs lack dexterity and indeed hand musculature and innervation, and are used
80 chiefly for swimming (Cooper et al., 2007). However, in some cetaceans, the hy-
81 olingual apparatus (hyoid bone and tongue) is highly prehensile and allows for
82 complex feeding behavior in an aquatic environment, in the absence of any other
83 dexterous extremity (Werth, 2007).

84 It seems that, in the absence of available forelimbs, dexterity is to be found in
85 other structures that are anatomically, mechanically and neurally suitable, with
86 the rostrum and adjacent structures taking center-stage. This is also the case for
87 terrestrial species, such as elephants, for example, which have a highly prehensile
88 trunk, which they use for object manipulation and for feeding (Racine, 1980;
89 Kaufmann et al., 2022, 2023).

90 We think that all this is highly relevant for the emergence of vocal learning.
91 Succinctly put: the lack of anatomically suitable forelimbs has the net effect
92 of relegating dexterity (i.e., fine motor control) to the rostral structures. This
93 leads to a higher degree of development and control of these structures, making
94 it easier for them to be recruited for complex behavior characteristic of vocal
95 production learning. That is to say, low forelimb dexterity pushes towards the
96 elaboration of structures that are beneficial for vocal learning. Species that
97 lack dexterous forelimbs rely on their rostral features (mouth, beak, trunk) for
98 dexterity-related duties, whose musculature, innervations and neural control will
99 develop disproportionately and thus (we hypothesize) be more easily available for
100 (complex) vocal learning. Using the image of adaptive landscape, one could say
101 that forelimb dexterity pushes species away from adaptive peaks associated with
102 vocal production learning.

103 If correct, our hypothesis adds to our understanding of the relation between

104 neural structures for vocal learning and those used for skilled movement. [Feen-](#)
105 [ders et al. \(2008\)](#) already pointed out that in vocal learning birds, the cerebral
106 vocal learning nuclei are adjacent to discrete brain areas active during limb and
107 body movements, and hypothesized that the brain areas specialized for vocal
108 learning evolved as a specialization of a pre-existing motor pathway that con-
109 trols movement (possibly via a mechanism of duplication and divergence, [Jarvis](#)
110 [\(2019\)](#)). Indeed, anatomically, areas relevant for the control of vocal learning
111 structures are adjacent to portions of the motor cortex devoted to other as-
112 pects of dexterity ([Simonyan, 2014](#)). And molecular mechanisms underlying
113 the circuit formation of critical forebrain to muscle pathways for vocal learning
114 ([Wang et al., 2015](#)) exploit the very same molecular toolkit as the one leading
115 to the fine-motor control of hand movements ([Lemon, 2008](#)). Our hypothesis
116 is that the very structures that may be recruited for the development of the
117 neurobiology required for vocal learning skills could act as a constraint on the
118 development of these skills if they themselves require behavioral elaborations,
119 as is the case among non-flyers/swimmers, particularly those species occupying
120 an arboreal niche, where selective pressures for forelimb manipulation, in-
121 cluding arboreal locomotion, digging and prey handling are strong ([Iwaniuk and](#)
122 [Whishaw, 2000](#); [Whishaw, 2003](#); [Sustaita et al., 2013](#); [Gutiérrez-Ibáñez et al.,](#)
123 [2023](#); [Schwartz et al., 2023](#)).

124 4 Necessary refinements

125 An important consideration is that lack of forelimb dexterity alone does not
126 immediately confer vocal learning ability. After all, although they collectively
127 represent more than half of all bird species, only 3 of about almost 30 bird orders
128 are canonical vocal learners ([Petkov and Jarvis, 2012](#)). Also, in mammalian
129 orders and families canonically considered to be vocal learners, not all members
130 have been possess this ability. For example, about half of the bat families are
131 consistent with vocal learning, with around a quarter showing direct evidence
132 ([Vernes and Wilkinson, 2020](#)). Similarly, only some cetaceans and pinnipeds
133 have shown vocal learning ability or promise ([Janik and Knörnschild, 2021](#);
134 [Ravignani et al., 2016](#)). The case of mammals can, however, more easily be
135 attributed to difficulty in both direct observation and experimental testing, and
136 it is reasonable to assume that the list of accepted vocal learning species will
137 increase for these orders and families. Still, something more than lack of forelimb
138 dexterity must be at work.

139 Although the absence of forelimb dexterity lifts off an important neurobi-
140 ological barrier against the evolution of vocal learning, the latter phenotype
141 constitutes a complex behavior that imposes additional demands on the organ-
142 ism, which species are likely to meet in non-uniform ways. Here we list some
143 conditions that facilitate the development and manifestation of the vocal learn-
144 ing phenotype in those flyers and swimmers considered canonical vocal learners.
145 One is the availability of superfast muscles, which in songbirds allow for the
146 syringeal control required for rapid and precise calls ([Elemans et al., 2008](#)), and
147 in bats for the laryngeal control required for their extremely high-frequency
148 echolocating calls ([Elemans et al., 2011](#)). Though work is still underway in
149 determining bat echolocation ontology ([Nojiri et al., 2021](#)), it could be that
150 all bat species are predisposed to develop echolocating abilities ([Wang et al.,](#)

151 2017). Hummingbirds also possess superfast muscles, which not only allow for
152 their impressive flight and hover abilities (Reiser et al., 2013), but are also likely
153 at the level of songbirds for syringeal control (Monte et al., 2020). Cetaceans
154 are also echolocating (Janik and Sayigh, 2013), and use their sound production
155 apparatuses for dynamically to modulate both vocal communication signals and
156 echolocation (Madsen et al., 2023). Furthermore, they have functional aspects
157 of their breathing under voluntary control, much more so than other mam-
158 mals (Fahlman et al., 2017). And while pinnipeds do not echolocate, they have
159 evolved whisker control to accomplish the same goal. They orient, retract and
160 protract their mouth-adjacent whiskers in a rhythmic fashion to sense, locate,
161 and even coerce small prey (Milne et al., 2020; Adachi et al., 2022).

162 These traits, presumably evolved independently of vocal learning, can be
163 thought of as extremely valuable precursors that can be recruited for complex
164 vocal learning. There are likely to be additional neurobiological requirements for
165 the establishment of complex vocal learning behavior, such as overall encephal-
166 ization (which may have taken different routes among birds, Ksepka et al. (2020),
167 and which app fears to leave molecular footprints in the motor cortex, Kaplow
168 et al. (2023)), or regional expansion of motor-relevant regions such as the cere-
169 bellum (Smaers et al., 2018; Ströckens et al., 2022; Sol et al., 2022), or increase
170 in sheer neuron numbers (Olkowicz et al., 2016). Incidentally, and in line with
171 our hypothesis, manual dexterity appears to impose similar “encephalization”-
172 related requirements (Heldstab et al., 2020).

173 5 The obvious exception(s)

174 *Homo sapiens* doesn’t seem to easily fit the picture presented so far: we are
175 land mammals (i.e., neither flyers nor swimmers), but unlike elephants, we have
176 highly dexterous forelimbs *and* display complex vocal learning behavior. How-
177 ever, there is one key feature that we contend is key in understanding how
178 humans fit in the context of our hypothesis, related to the mode of locomotion:
179 bipedalism. In virtue of our being obligatory bipeds, and having reduced the
180 engagement of the thorax in locomotion, our species has evolved a decoupling of
181 respiratory and locomotive rhythms, with several possible phase ratios depend-
182 ing on the activity (Raßler and Kohl, 2000). This freeing of respiratory rhythm
183 from gait rhythm allows for vocalizations that are mechanically independent
184 from locomotion and the phase ratios it imposes (e.g. Provine, 2017). This in-
185 dependence is a requirement for volitional vocalizations, which functionally rely
186 on controlled modification of acoustic aspects such as frequency, amplitude and
187 duration. Indeed, there is work showing that the human laryngeal motor cor-
188 tex integrates both laryngeal and respiratory motor control (Belyk and Brown,
189 2017; Belyk et al., 2021), as opposed to it being strictly laryngeal. Moreover,
190 work on regulatory regions of mammalian genomes showing convergent evolu-
191 tion associated with vocal learning has highlighted the role of genes like *TSHZ3*
192 (Wirthlin et al., 2022) (avian vocal learners display signals of accelerated evo-
193 lution around the same gene, Zhang et al. (2014)). As Wirthlin et al. (2022)
194 observes, disruptive mutations affecting *TSHZ3* in humans impacts respiratory
195 rhythms and cortico-striatal circuits, critical for learned motor behavior (Caubit
196 et al., 2010, 2016).

197 A rigid 1:1 coupling between breathing and locomotion as usually observed

198 in quadrupeds (Bramble and Carrier, 1983) would either not allow this inte-
199 gration between larynx and respiration, or lead to much more limited vocal
200 production ability. Interestingly, this kind of locomotive-respiratory decoupling
201 has an analog in avian species: non-vocal learning birds have phase-locked wing
202 and respiratory (and concomitantly vocalization) cycles, while the vocalizations
203 of vocal-learning birds are “emancipated” from respiratory constraints (Berg
204 et al., 2019). While motor control has been highlighted as a plausible neces-
205 sary evolutionary step towards vocal learning, it seems that, after this system
206 is place, decoupling from the constraints it imposes on vocal behavior might be
207 important to expand vocal learning complexity. Of note, the locomotor devel-
208 opmental program appears to promote vocal learning in juvenile zebra finches
209 (Liu et al., 2022).

210 These observations suggest that increased breathing control in our lineage as
211 a consequence of bipedalism may have played a major role in the evolution of our
212 vocal production learning capacity, in line with the suggestions in Maclarnon
213 and Hewitt (2004).

214 Bipedalism also has implications for manual dexterity. As humans became
215 bipedal species, expanding on arboreal locomotive behavior that is still found
216 in living apes (Thorpe et al., 2007), the forelimbs, well developed owing to that
217 same earlier arboreal niche (Crompton et al., 2010; Sustaita et al., 2013), became
218 available for more dexterous behaviors, in line with Falótico and Ottoni (2023).
219 It is this privileged position that we think has allowed humans to be capable
220 of elaborate vocal learning while possessing dexterous forelimbs, circumventing
221 the ecological and anatomical pressures that we claim here place vocal learning
222 and dexterity at odds. The higher the degree of bipedalism, or the more varied
223 the scenarios in which bipedal locomotion or stance can be employed, the higher
224 the potential for more complex dexterous behavior.

225 It is quite likely that this privileged position went hand-in-hand with the
226 well-attested encephalization trend in the *Homo* lineage (Püschel et al., 2021),
227 allowing for the maintenance of multiple parallel circuits rooted in the motor
228 cortex (Gavrilov and Nieder, 2021), and the expansion of “Broca’s” region (Gal-
229 lardo et al., 2023). The implications of this for multi-modal communication, and
230 the entanglement (Pouw and Fuchs, 2022) of gestures and speech is an important
231 topic for future research.

232 In light of its purported role in the decoupling of respiration and locomotion
233 and facilitator of forelimb dexterity, we suspect that some degree of bipedalism
234 might be relevant in understanding why other species, besides humans, show
235 some degree of vocal learning. Non-human primates occasionally walk, and
236 while this is done in specific scenarios, (Duarte et al., 2012), with gibbons being
237 the most proficient biped (Vereecke et al., 2006), it seems to be the case that
238 primates that show promise of vocal learning ability also show some non-trivial
239 degree of bipedalism. We believe this could help explain why non-human pri-
240 mates show potential for vocal learning (Lameira, 2017) even though they are
241 dexterous species, on the one hand, but also why this vocal learning behavior
242 is harder to elicit in these species than in humans, on the other.

243 Likewise, rodents that show some degree of theoretical probability of vocal
244 learning ability also have some degree of bipedalism/bipedal stance. For exam-
245 ple, in their study of the relationship between vocal learning acoustic allometry,
246 Ravignani and Garcia (2022) performed phylogenetic regressions and as one of
247 their results identified a handful of rodent species as promising vocal learners

248 (yet unstudied as such). As far as we can tell, all of them show some degree
249 of biped locomotion or stance. Interestingly, many rodents are also dexterous
250 species (e.g., [Whishaw and Coles, 1996](#)), though to a lesser extent compared to
251 other mammals such as primates ([Gu et al., 2017](#)).

252 6 Conclusion

253 To sum up, we have highlighted a relationship between forelimb dexterity and
254 vocal production learning and put forward the claim that because of their sim-
255 ilar ecological and neurobiological requirements one acts as a constraint on the
256 emergence of the other. Curiously, then, the very same neurobiological resources
257 recruited for vocal learning ([Feenders et al., 2008](#)) may act as a developmental
258 barrier if ecological factors impose pressure leading to the elaboration of manual
259 dexterity.

260 The intuition behind our explanation is reminiscent of the “neurobiological”
261 real-estate conflict (neural Darwinism) put forward by [Deacon \(1997\)](#) to account
262 for the origins of learned vocal behavior. Whereas Deacon posited a competition
263 between the circuits responsible for innate and learned vocalizations (a conflict
264 that he claimed is mitigated by encephalization), we claim that the conflict
265 lies rather in the neurobiological requirements imposed for fine-grained motor
266 control with the hands or with the vocal apparatus.

267 To be very clear, this is only one of the constraints that make canonical
268 vocal learners so rare in the animal kingdom. We have listed other conditions
269 important for vocal learning, and given the very nature of biology, where com-
270 plexity reigns ([Lewontin, 2000](#); [Wimsatt, 2007](#)), we do not expect a uniform
271 way in which all attested vocal production learners meet them. In the case of
272 humans, and with implications for non-human mammals, we have argued that
273 bipedalism and attendant breathing control was a major factor.

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