

Title: Does the unusual phenomenon of sustained force circumvent the speed-endurance trade off in the jaw muscle of the southern alligator lizard (*Elgaria multicarinata*)?

Running title: Force-velocity properties of the jaw and thigh muscle of the southern alligator lizard.

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Keywords: trade-off, circumvent, speed-endurance, contractile properties, lizard, feeding, locomotion, bite force

SUMMARY STATEMENT

Here we examine the contractile properties of the jaw muscle of the southern alligator lizard used in long-lasting mate-holding behaviors and show that while it generally has slow contractile properties, in accordance with the speed-endurance trade-off, it retains somewhat faster activation kinetics potentially allow it to meet the conflicting demand of the capture of fast prey.

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The jaw muscles of the southern alligator lizard, *Elgaria multicarinata*, are used in prolonged
3 mate-holding behavior, and also to catch fast prey. In both males and females, these muscles
4 exhibit an unusual type of high endurance known as sustained force in which contractile force does
5 not return to baseline between subsequent contractions. This phenomenon is assumed to facilitate
6 the prolonged mate-holding observed in this species. Skeletal muscle is often subject to a speed-
7 endurance trade off. Here we determine the isometric twitch, tetanic, and isotonic force-velocity
8 properties of the jaw muscles at ~24°C as metrics of contractile speed and compare these properties
9 to a more typical thigh locomotory muscle, to determine whether endurance by sustained force
10 allows for circumvention of the speed-endurance trade-off. The specialized jaw muscle is generally
11 slower than the more typical thigh muscle; time to peak twitch force, twitch 90% relaxation time
12 ($p<0.01$), and tetanic 90% and 50% relaxation times ($p<0.001$) are significantly longer, and force-
13 velocity properties are significantly slower ($p<0.001$), in the jaw than the thigh muscle. However,
14 there seem to be greater effects on relaxation rates and shortening velocity than on force rise times;
15 there was no effect of muscle on time to peak, or 50% of tetanic force. Hence, the jaw muscle of
16 the southern alligator lizard does not seem to circumvent the speed-endurance trade-off. However,
17 the maintenance of force rise times despite slow relaxation, potentially enabled by the presence of
18 hybrid fibers, may allow this muscle to meet the functional demand of prey capture.

19

20 **INTRODUCTION**

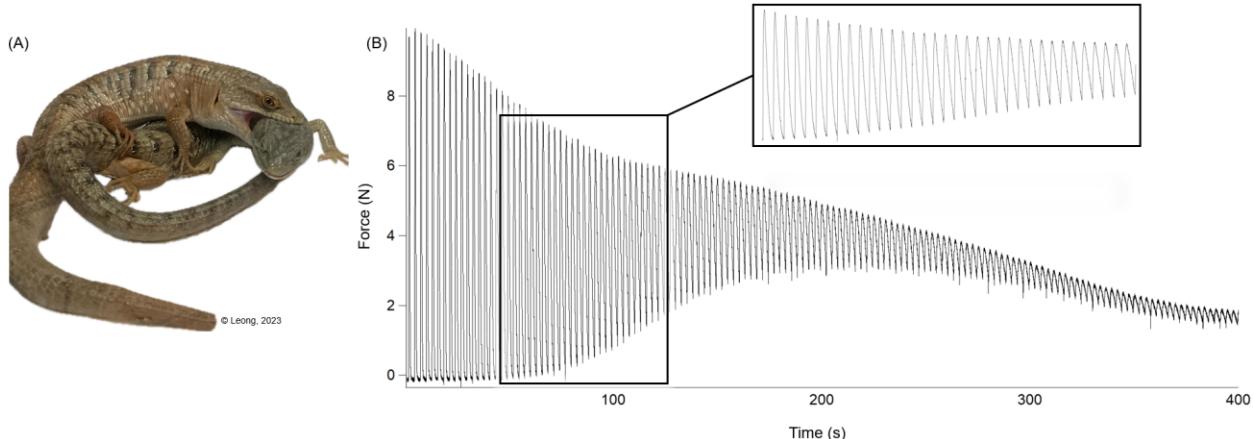
21 Skeletal muscles produce the mechanical output required for organisms to interact with their
22 environment, and thus are an important determinant of fitness (Husak *et al.*, 2006; Lappin and
23 Husak, 2005). This mechanical output is achieved through the calcium-mediated interactions
24 between the contractile proteins: actin, myosin (Gordon *et al.*, 2000; Kuo and Ehrlick, 2015) and
25 titin (Dutta *et al.*, 2018; Nishikawa *et al.*, 2019). However, despite this common mechanism of
26 contraction, considerable variation in muscle and organismal performance is observed across
27 muscles and species (Hoyle, 1967; Rome *et al.*, 1988; Biewener, 1998; Wilson and Lichtwark,
28 2011; Mendoza *et al.* 2023). The long pectoralis muscle fibers of birds allows them to meet the
29 substantial work demands of flight (Biewener, 1998), the slow red and fast white myotomal muscle
30 of fish allows for both endurance and sprint swimming (Rome *et al.*, 1988), and the sustained force
31 produced by the amplexus muscle of frogs (Peters and Aulner, 2000; Navas and James, 2007) and
32 the jaw muscles of the southern alligator lizard (*Elgaria multicarinata*) (Nguyen *et al.*, 2020) is
33 thought to facilitate prolonged mating-holding. However, this variation in muscle performance
34 may be constrained by trade-offs, particularly the speed-endurance trade-off (Schmidt-Nielsen
35 1984; Garland, 2014; Castro *et al.*, 2022; Garland *et al.*, 2022).

36 Much of the variation in skeletal muscle performance (Rome *et al.*, 1988; William *et al.*, 1997;
37 Hyatt *et al.*, 2009; Kohn *et al.*, 2011; Spainhower *et al.*, 2018), and the often-observed speed-
38 endurance trade-off (Vanhooijdonck *et al.*, 2001; Bonine *et al.*, 2005), is attributed to variation in
39 the proportion of muscle fiber types (Schiaffino and Reggiani, 2011). Muscle fiber types are
40 defined as the stereotyped covariation of myosin isoforms, sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR)
41 morphology, and metabolic enzymes (Schiaffino and Reggiani, 2011). Typical vertebrate twitch
42 muscle fibers are categorized as type I, IIa, IIb or IIx. Type I fibers have slow myosin isoforms, a
43 less-developed SR, and oxidative metabolism. Type IIb or IIx fibers have faster myosin isoforms,
44 a more developed SR, and glycolytic metabolism. And type IIa fibers are intermediate between
45 type I and IIb/x. The forelimb of slow-moving sloths contains many I fibers while fast moving
46 cheetahs have more type IIb fibers. The stereotyped covariation of myosin isoforms, SR
47 morphology, and metabolic enzymes is thought to underpin the speed-endurance trade-off
48 (Garland, 1988; Vanhooydonck *et al.*, 2001; Bonine *et al.*, 2005).

49 Some muscles and species exhibit a broader range of muscle fiber types than this typical I/I_a/I_b
50 system including tonic fibers, masticatory fibers (Philippi and Sillau, 1994; Hoh, 2002; Schiaffino
51 and Reggiani, 2011; Talbot and Maves, 2016), and hybrid fibers in which more than one myosin
52 isoform is expressed (Larsson and Moss, 1993; Bottinelli and Reggiani, 2000; Korfage *et al.*, 2005;
53 Curry *et al.*, 2012; Medler, 2019; Kohn, 2014; Nguyen *et al.*, 2020). Masticatory fibers are twitch
54 fibers that have rapid calcium sequestration from the SR and contain fast masticatory myosin
55 isoforms (IIm) (Taylor *et al.*, 1973; Hoh, 2002; Rowlerson *et al.*, 1981; Bárány, 1967; Toniolo *et*
56 *al.*, 2008). Tonic fibers are a categorically different type of muscle fiber than twitch fibers. They
57 have a minimal SR morphology (Hess, 1965; Franzini-Armstrong, 1984), are metabolically similar
58 to slow twitch fibers (Wilkinson and Nemeth, 1989), and can produce sustained contracture
59 (Guttman, 1966; Millman, 1967; Hess, 1970; Cochrane *et al.*, 1972; Bormioli *et al.*, 1979;
60 Bormioli *et al.*, 1980; Walrond and Reese, 1985; Fisher, 2010). These more specialized fibers and
61 hybrid fibers may expand the function range of muscles and could allow for the circumvention of
62 trade-offs.

63 The sustained force produced by the amplexus muscle of various frog species (Eberstein and
64 Sandow; 1961; Rubenstein *et al.*, 1983; Peters, 1994; Peters and Aulner, 2000; Peters, 2001; Clark
65 and Peters; 2006; Navas and James, 2007; Ishii and Tsuchiya; 2010; Bowcock *et al.*, 2019) and the
66 jaw muscles of the southern alligator lizard (Nguyen *et al.*, 2020) may be explained by the presence
67 of these less commonly considered fiber types, and the properties of these fibers and the presence
68 of hybrid fibers may allow for the circumvention of trade-offs (Larsson and Moss, 1993; Bottinelli
69 and Reggiani, 2000; Korfage *et al.*, 2005; Curry *et al.*, 2012; Medler, 2019; Kohn, 2014; Nguyen
70 *et al.*, 2020). In sustained force, active muscle force stops returning to baseline between repeated
71 contractions (Shamarina, 1962; Kirby, 1983; Rubenstein *et al.*, 1983; Peters, 1994; Peters and
72 Aulner, 2000; Peters, 2001; Clark and Peters; 2006; Navas and James, 2007; Ishii and Tsuchiya;
73 2010; Nguyen *et al.*, 2020). In the frog forelimb muscles, this production of sustained force is
74 sexually dimorphic and seasonal, observed only by the males during the breeding season where it
75 likely functions as a form of high endurance when constant rather than cyclical force is required
76 and enables male frogs to grasp onto the female with their forelimbs for up to two weeks (Eberstein
77 and Sandow; 1961; Rubenstein *et al.*, 1983; Peters, 1994; Peters and Aulner, 2000; Peters, 2001;
78 Clark and Peters; 2006; Navas and James, 2007; Ishii and Tsuchiya; 2010; Bowcock *et al.*, 2019).
79 Prolonged mating behavior (Pauly, 2019) and sustained force (Figure 1; Nguyen *et al.*, 2020) has

80 also been demonstrated in the jaw muscles of the southern alligator lizard (*Elgaria multicarinata*)
81 however its function here is a little less clear as sustained force is exhibited both by the jaw muscles
82 of both males and females year-round. Regardless, in addition to high-endurance mate-holding the
83 jaw muscles are also involved in faster behaviors such as prey capture and so may need to
84 circumvent the speed-endurance trade-off. The amplexus muscles of male frogs have been shown
85 to contain both fast and tonic fibers (Melichna *et al.*, 1972; Oka *et al.*, 1984), and the jaw muscle
86 of the southern alligator lizard are made up of hybrid fibers containing both tonic and masticatory
87 myosins (Nguyen *et al.*, 2020). Hence, it seems plausible that tonic fibers or myosins produce
88 sustained force while faster fibers or myosins allow for more rapid movements (Peters and Aulner,
89 2000).



90
91 Figure 1. (A) Image of *E. multicarinata* performing mating behavior. (B) Representative fatigue
92 profile from Nguyen *et al.* (2020) showing zoomed in portion of rising baseline force in black box
93 from 60 to 120 seconds.

94 In more typical muscles, contractile speed and endurance would simply reflect the balance of fiber
95 types, and a speed-endurance trade-off would likely be visible under strong selection for speed or
96 endurance (Andersen and Henriksson, 1977; Rivero *et al.*, 1993; Bonine *et al.*, 2005; Lacerda de
97 Albuquerque *et al.*, 2015; Scales and Butler 2016; Castro *et al.*, 2024). However, sustained force
98 is an unusual form of endurance whereby, rather than relying on oxidative metabolism to allow for
99 many repeated contractions, force is instead maintained between contractions. Hence, it may be
100 that a relatively low fraction of tonic myosins are able to sustain some force while masticatory
101 myosins may allow for rapid contraction so circumventing the speed-endurance trade-off and
102 potentially allowing organisms to fulfil other functions such as the processing of fast prey. To

103 address this question, we examined the rates of isometric force development and relaxation, and
104 force-velocity (FV) properties, of the jaw muscles of *E. multicarinata* as metrics of contractile
105 speed (Hill, 1983; Alcazar et al 2019; Mendoza et al 2023) and compared these to a more typical
106 locomotor muscle in the thigh, the iliobibialis 2 (IT2). If the jaw muscles of *E. multicarinata* are
107 subject to the speed-endurance trade-off, we expect that they would have much slower velocities
108 than the thigh muscle. However, if sustained force and hybrid fiber types allow these muscles to
109 circumvent this speed-endurance trade-off we expect to see more broadly similar contractile speeds
110 in *E. multicarinata* jaw and thigh muscles, as has been observed across species of anoles (Anderson
111 and Roberts, 2020), despite the high endurance conferred by sustained force in the jaw muscle.

112

113 MATERIALS AND METHODS

114 Study animals

115 Adult *E. multicarinata* from various counties across the state of California were wild-caught and
116 used in these experiments (n=8, jaw; n=8, thigh; Specific Use Permit ID: S-203040004-20328-
117 001). Lizards were maintained in the vivarium at the University of California, Riverside, kept in
118 terraria under controlled temperature and light conditions (24±2°C; 12h:12h light:dark) with cover
119 objects for hiding, fed calcium-dusted and vitamin-supplemented crickets three days per week, and
120 provided with water *ad libitum*. All procedures in the study were approved by the Institutional
121 Animal Care and Use Committees at the University of California, Riverside.

122 Muscle preparations

123 Before beginning experiments, animals were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane (SomnoSuite
124 Low-flow Anesthesia System, Kent Scientific, Torrington, CT, USA), followed by euthanasia
125 using a double-pithing protocol (Gebhart *et al.*, 1992). Then either the jaw adductor complex or
126 the thigh, IT2, muscle was isolated and subjected to *in situ* or *in vitro* testing, respectively.

127 Jaw muscle

128 The jaw-adductor complex was exposed by removing the integument overlying the lateral
129 temporal fenestration on one side of the head. The mandible was cut, freeing the insertion of this
130 muscle complex, and tied with Kevlar. The trigeminal nerve was exposed ventrally by reflecting

131 jaw-adductor complex (Robison and Tanner; 1962; Haas, 1973). Nerve branches were freed from
132 the musculature using fine tip forceps and the nerve was tied off with 6-0 silk proximally. A bipolar
133 hook electrode was place on the nerve to allow for stimulation. Nerve, rather than plate electrode,
134 stimulation was chosen to avoid potential issues with tonic fibers not conducting action potentials
135 (Miledi *et al.*, 1971). The lizard's head and neck were clamped in a customized stereotaxic platform
136 to anchor the origin of the muscle complex, and the distal end of the muscle was connected to the
137 force and length transducer with Kevlar thread (Aurora Scientific 305C-LR Dual Mode Lever
138 System, Aurora, ON, Canada), allowing for measurements of muscle force, length, and velocity
139 (Castro *et al.*, 2022). The exposed muscles were frequently irrigated with Ringer's solution (NaCl
140 6.545g, KCl 0.246g, CaCl₂ 0.277g, MgCl₂ 0.095g, HEPES 4.766g, glucose 0.901g per 1L of DI
141 water) during the experiments (Jayasinghe and Launikonis, 2013). All experiments were
142 conducted at ~24°C. The complex architecture of this muscle, the need for nerve rather than plate
143 stimulation, and preliminary experiments suggesting that fiber bundles extracted from this muscle
144 are relatively fragile and do not survive well *in vitro* necessitated the use of *in situ* muscle
145 preparation in which the whole muscle and nerve could be kept intact and a blood supply
146 maintained. At the end of the *in situ* experiments the thoracic cavity was exposed to confirm that
147 the heart was still beating and a blood supply to the muscle had been maintained. Amphibian and
148 reptilian hearts can beat for hours after brain death, much longer than mammalian hearts (Leary *et*
149 *al.*, 2013).

150 *Thigh muscle*

151 The IT2 muscle, a knee extensor (Anzai *et al.*, 2015; James *et al.*, 2015), was isolated, the proximal
152 tendon tied tightly with Kevlar thread, and the tendon cut proximally. The tibia and femur were
153 cut, freeing the distal end of the muscle and a small piece of bone. The distal bone was clamped,
154 and the proximal end of the muscle connected to the force and length transducer with Kevlar thread
155 (Aurora Scientific 305C-LR Dual Mode Lever System, Aurora, ON, Canada), allowing for
156 measurements of muscle force, length, and velocity (Castro *et al.*, 2022). The muscle was then
157 immersed in a bath containing oxygenated Ringer's solution (as described previously) with
158 platinum plate electrodes on either side of the muscle to allow for stimulation. All experiments
159 were conducted at ~24°C.

160 **Determination of contractile properties**

161 *Muscle stimulation*

162 For the jaw muscle, square wave pulses of pulse duration 0.1 ms and sufficient amplitude to elicit
163 maximum muscle force were delivered (IgorPro 9, WaveMetric, Lake Oswego, OR, USA) to the
164 trigeminal nerve via hook electrodes (CompactDAQ, National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA; A-
165 M Systems Isolated Pules Stimulator Model 2100, Carlsborg, WA, USA). Single pulses were used
166 for all twitch contractions, whereas 400ms trains of pulses were delivered at 50Hz to elicit tetanic
167 contractions. Preliminary experiments indicated that this was the lowest stimulation frequency that
168 reliably resulted in fused contractions and so, maximum force.

169 For the thigh muscle, square wave pulses of pulse duration 0.1 ms and sufficient amplitude to elicit
170 maximum muscle force delivered (IgorPro 9, WaveMetric, Lake Oswego, OR, USA) to the muscle
171 via plate electrodes (CompactDAQ, National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA; High-Power, Biphase
172 Stimulator, Aurora Scientific). The use of plate electrodes required the use of a stimulator that
173 could deliver a higher voltage/current than used for nerve stimulation. Single pulses were used for
174 all twitch contractions, whereas 400ms trains of pulses were delivered at 80Hz to elicit tetanic
175 contractions. Preliminary experiments indicated that this was the lowest stimulation frequency that
176 reliably resulted in fused contractions and so, maximum force.

177 *Muscle isometric contractile properties*

178 Muscle force and length during contractions were logged at 1000Hz for the jaw muscle and
179 10,000Hz for the thigh muscle (IgorPro 9, WaveMetric, Lake Oswego, OR, USA; CompactDAQ,
180 National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA). The need to construct stimulus outputs for the high-
181 power stimulator used for the thigh muscle *in vitro* necessitated this higher sampling frequency.
182 We began each experimental session with a series of twitch contractions at increasing voltages to
183 establish maximal voltage. The lowest stimulus voltage giving peak twitch force was used for all
184 subsequent contractions (1-3V for jaw and 7-20V for thigh). Twitch contractions were then
185 performed at varying lengths to establish the muscle length resulting in the maximum force output.
186 This length was defined as optimum length (L_0), and all subsequent contractions were performed
187 at this length. While twitch and tetanic optimum lengths vary slightly (Askew and Marsh, 1997;
188 Holt and Azizi, 2014), twitch contractions were used in order to preserve the integrity of the muscle
189 while allowing measurements to be made at consistent relative lengths across individuals and
190 muscles. Twitch optimum length is typically slightly longer than tetanic optimum length, hence

191 the use of this length means that the muscle shortens across the plateau of the tetanic force-length
192 relationship during shortening (Askew and Marsh, 1997; Holt and Askew, 2012).

193 An additional twitch contraction was performed at L_0 to allow for determination of twitch times at
194 a comparable length and point in the experiment across subjects. Isometric tetanic contractions
195 were then performed, first to establish peak force and later to check the viability of the muscle
196 throughout the experiment. Isometric tetanic contractions were performed after every three to four
197 isotonic contractions during the FV protocol, and the maximum force output was compared to the
198 original isometric tetanus contraction (Holt and Azizi, 2014). If force had dropped by ~30% of the
199 first control isometric tetani, the experiment was terminated. This permitted force drop is greater
200 than is typical (10-20%) (Cairns *et al.*, 2008; Nocella *et al.*, 2011). The jaw muscle appears to be
201 unusually fragile, and it has previously been demonstrated that there is no effect of allowing more
202 fatigue provided the declining maximum performance is accounted for (Bahlman *et al.*, 2020), and
203 so this approach may allow for the study of these more fragile muscles. To account for fatigue,
204 predicted isometric force was calculated for each isotonic contraction assuming a linear decline
205 between control tetanic contractions, and normalized isotonic force was calculated relative to this
206 predicted isometric force.

207 *Muscle force-velocity properties*

208 Isotonic tetanic contractions were performed in which the resistive force the muscle experience
209 was varied (~0.05-0.8% of maximum isometric force) and the muscle allowed to shorten. The
210 shortening velocity that could be achieved at these forces was then determined from muscle length
211 recordings.

212 **Morphological measurements**

213 At the conclusion of the experiments, muscle length, body mass, and muscle mass were
214 recorded. The muscle was pinned at optimal length on an agar coated Petri dish and placed under
215 a dissection scope (Leica MZ125 Dissection Stereomicroscope) to measure muscle fiber length
216 with calipers (Kynup Digital Caliper). Data are mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). Once
217 the mass and muscle fiber length were obtained, the physiological cross-sectional area
218 ($PCSA = \frac{M}{\rho \cdot L_f}$; M =muscle mass, ρ =muscle density, L_f =fiber length) was calculated assuming a
219 density of 1,060 kg m⁻³ (Mendez and Keys, 1960). For the jaw experiments, the lizard's thoracic

220 girdle region was exposed to confirm that the heart was still beating to ensure that the jaw
221 muscles were supplied with blood for the duration of the experiment. Lastly, to determine the sex
222 of the animal, a midline laparotomy was performed to reveal the reproductive organs (oviducts
223 and testes).

224 **Data analysis**

225 Twitch and tetanic rise and relaxation times were recorded from the representative isometric twitch
226 and tetanic contractions performed. Peak force was determined and time series data were used to
227 calculate the time from onset of muscle force production to peak tension, the time from onset of
228 muscle force production to 90% of peak tension, the time from peak tension to 50% relaxation,
229 and the time from peak tension to 90% relaxation (Marsh and Bennett, 1986; Bennett *et al.*, 1989;
230 Askew and Marsh, 1997; Syme *et al.*, 2005; Nguyen *et al.*, 2020; Castro *et al.*, 2022). We
231 calculated the peak isometric, tetanic stress (stress=F₀/PCSA) of the muscles (Askew and Marsh,
232 1997; Zhan *et al.*, 1999; Syme *et al.*, 2005; Holt *et al.*, 2016). Twitch/tetanic force ratios were
233 calculated for jaw and thigh muscles (Celichowski and Grottel, 1993; Askew and Marsh, 1997).

234 For isotonic FV contractions, velocity (V) was normalized to L₀ to yield relative velocity (L₀ s⁻¹).
235 Force (F) was normalized to peak isometric, tetanic force of the muscle (F₀) to yield relative
236 isometric force F/F₀ (Castro *et al.*, 2022). Fatigue was determined as the decline in force between
237 subsequent isometric control contractions and only data points before the muscle reached 30%
238 fatigue were included (Bahlman *et al.*, 2020). The fragility of this muscle meant that sufficient
239 number of points to construct a complete FV curve could not be obtained on all individuals. Hence,
240 the normalized FV data points from all individuals were collated (Holt *et al.*, 2014) and fit with a
241 Marsh-Bennett hyperbolic-linear equation (1986) (equation 1; constants B and C have dimensions
242 of velocity, and constant A is dimensionless), and predicted maximum unloaded shortening
243 velocity (V_{max}) was obtained (Marsh and Bennett, 1986; Bennett *et al.*, 1989; Askew and Marsh,
244 1997; Zhan *et al.*, 1999; Syme *et al.*, 2005; Holt *et al.*, 2016; Alcazar *et al.*, 2019; Javidi *et al.*,
245 2020; Castro *et al.*, 2022).

246

$$V = \frac{B \left(1 - \frac{F}{F_0}\right)}{A + \frac{F}{F_0}} + C \left(1 - \frac{F}{F_0}\right) \quad (1)$$

248 Power curves were calculated from the force and velocity points from the FV data fit with the
249 Marsh-Bennett equation (Power=F*V; F=force (N); V=velocity (m/s)). Peak power was collected
250 for each of the curves. The power ratio defined in Marsh and Bennett (1896) was used to determine
251 curvature of the FV relationships ($V = \frac{W_{max}}{V_{max}F_0}$; W_{max} = maximum power output). Faster muscles
252 are associated with higher power ratios and greater curvature and vice versa for slower muscles
253 (Marsh and Bennett, 1896; Mendoza *et al.*, 2023).

254 **Statistical analysis**

255 All analyses were performed in RStudio (Integrated Development Environment for R Posit
256 Software, PBC, Boston, MA). The significance levels used to test for differences between the jaw
257 and thigh muscle contractile times was 0.05.

258 Data were tested for normality using Shapiro-Wilk's test and for equal variances using F-tests.
259 Twitch time from onset of muscle force production to 90% of peak tension and time from peak
260 tension to 90% relaxation and tetanic time from onset of muscle force production to 90% of peak
261 tension were normally distributed, and so a parametric, unpaired two sample t-test was used to
262 compare these variables between the jaw and thigh muscles. Twitch time from onset of muscle
263 force production to peak tension and time from peak tension to 50% relaxation and tetanic time
264 from onset of muscle force production to peak tension, time from peak tension to 50% relaxation,
265 and time from peak tension to 90% relaxation data, in contrast, were non-normally distributed.
266 Box cox, logarithmic, and square root transformations were attempted to normalize these data.
267 However, the transformed data remained non-normally distributed and the nonparametric, Mann-
268 Whitney U test was used to compare these variables between the jaw and thigh muscles.

269 The FV data were modeled with a mixed effects model using a gamma distribution and a log-link
270 function with a 95% confidence interval (see supplemental materials, Figure S1). Our study
271 contains multiple measurements per individual thus a mixed model analysis was necessary.
272 Relative velocity was the dependent variable as it was measured at different set forces, and the
273 independent variables were relative force and muscle type (fixed effects) and individual (random
274 effect).

275

276 **RESULTS**277 *Body size and muscle dimensions*

278 The average body mass for individuals used for the jaw and thigh measurements, and muscle fiber
 279 length, muscle mass, PCSA for the jaw and thigh muscles used in the experiments are summarized
 280 in Table 1.

281 Table 1. Mean \pm SEM of body metrics and muscle dimensions.

	Jaw (n=8)	Thigh (n=8)
Body mass (g)	39.72 \pm 3.72	49.72 \pm 3.43
Muscle fiber length (mm)	11.5 \pm 0.26	6.17 \pm 0.55
Muscle mass (g)	0.44 \pm 0.043	0.08 \pm 0.014
PCSA (cm ²)	0.37 \pm 0.039	0.12 \pm 0.025

282

283 *Isometric properties*

284 The average stress value for the tetanic contractions for the jaw muscle was 7.43 \pm 1.32N/m² (n=8)
 285 and for the thigh muscle was 16.2 \pm 3.67N/m² (n=8), and stress was significantly different between
 286 the jaw and the thigh muscle (p=0.04163, t=-2.2426, df=14). The twitch/tetanus force ratio was
 287 lower for the jaw muscle (0.157 \pm 0.378) than for the thigh muscle (0.213 \pm 0.165), but there was no
 288 significant difference (p=0.708, t=-0.383, df=14).

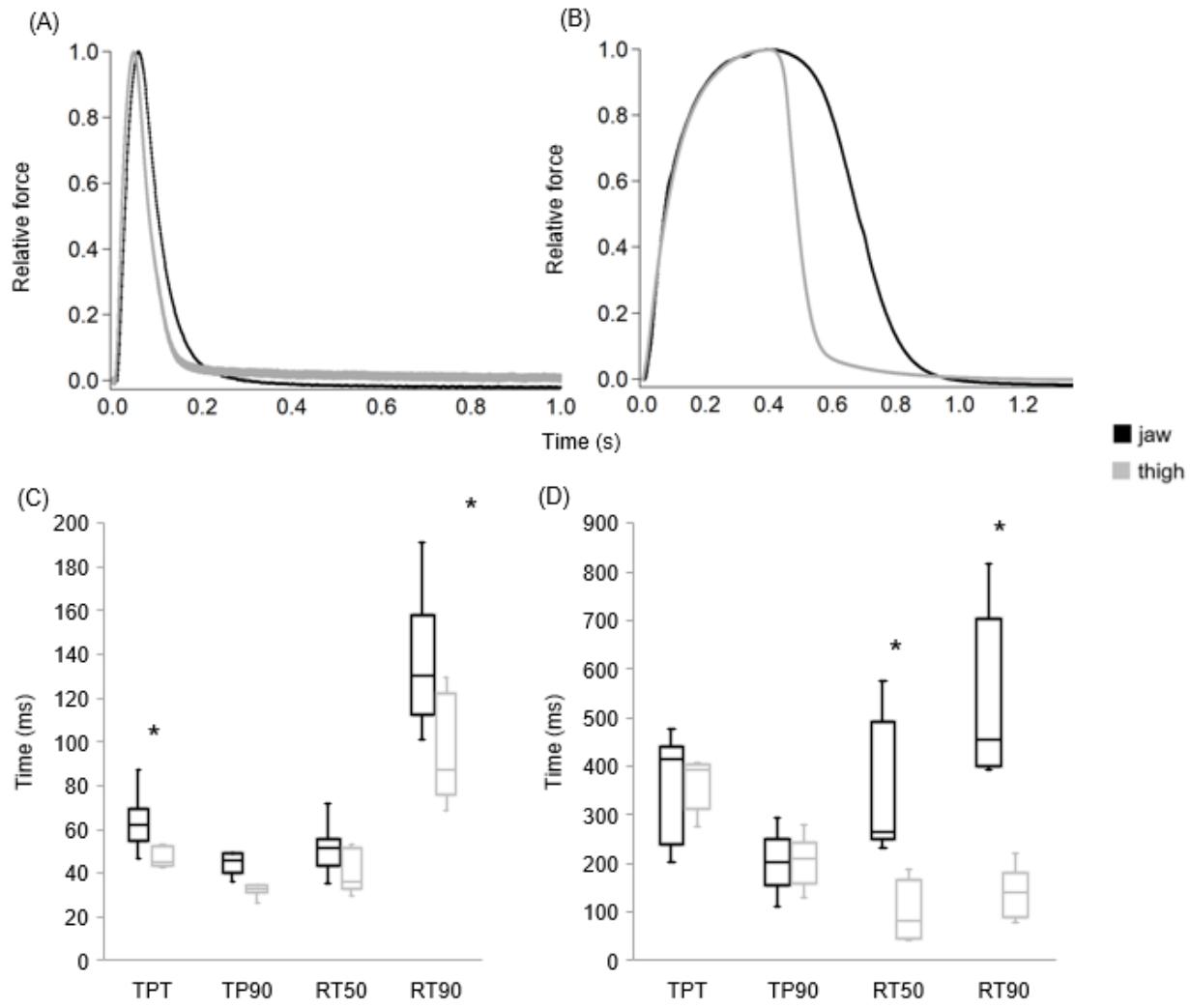
289 Representative normalized isometric twitch and tetanic contractions time courses are shown
 290 (Figure 2A and 2B). Twitch contraction times for the jaw muscle show that time from onset of
 291 muscle force production to peak tension was 63.3 \pm 4.32ms, time from onset of muscle force
 292 production to 90% of peak tension was 46.4 \pm 3.28ms, time from peak tension to 50% relaxation
 293 was 51 \pm 3.85ms, and the time from peak tension to 90% relaxation was 136.1 \pm 10.5ms (Figure 2C;
 294 n=8). For the thigh muscle, twitch time from onset of muscle force production to peak tension was
 295 48.5 \pm 2.97ms, twitch time from onset of muscle force production to 90% of peak tension was
 296 33.7 \pm 2.03ms, twitch time from peak tension to 50% relaxation was 40.7 \pm 3.48ms, and twitch time
 297 from peak tension to 90% relaxation was 95.7 \pm 8.2ms (Figure 2C; n=8). Twitch time from onset of
 298 muscle force production to peak tension was significantly longer in the jaw than the thigh muscle

299 (p=0.01359, W=56), but twitch time from onset of muscle force production to 90% of peak tension
300 was not significantly different between the two muscles (p=0.2589, t=1.1767, df=14). Twitch time
301 from peak tension to 90% relaxation was significantly longer in the jaw than the thigh (p=0.009,
302 t=3.0293, df =14), but twitch time from peak tension to 50% relaxation was not significantly
303 different between the two muscles (p=0.1036, W=48).

304 Tetanic contraction times for the jaw show that time from onset of muscle force production to peak
305 tension was 363.8 ± 37.5 ms, time from onset of muscle force production to 90% of peak tension
306 was 203.6 ± 20.9 ms, time from peak tension to 50% relaxation was 348.3 ± 48.6 ms, and time from
307 peak tension to 90% relaxation was 536.5 ± 59.2 ms (Figure 2D; n=8). For the thigh muscle, tetanic
308 time from onset of muscle force production to peak tension was 364.2 ± 128.8 ms, tetanic time from
309 onset of muscle force production to 90% of peak tension was 206.7 ± 17.6 ms, tetanic time from
310 peak tension to 50% relaxation was 98.2 ± 34.7 ms, and tetanic the time from peak tension to 90%
311 relaxation was 139.6 ± 19.1 ms (Figure 2D; n=8). The tetanic time from onset of muscle force
312 production to peak tension (p=0.3184, W=42) and tetanic time from onset of muscle force
313 production to 90% of peak tension (p=0.9116, t=-0.11302, df=14) were not significantly different
314 between the jaw and thigh muscles. Tetanic RT50 (p=0.0009391, W=64) and tetanic the time from
315 peak tension to 90% relaxation (p=0.000931, W=64) were significantly longer in the jaw than the
316 thigh muscle.

317 *Force-velocity properties*

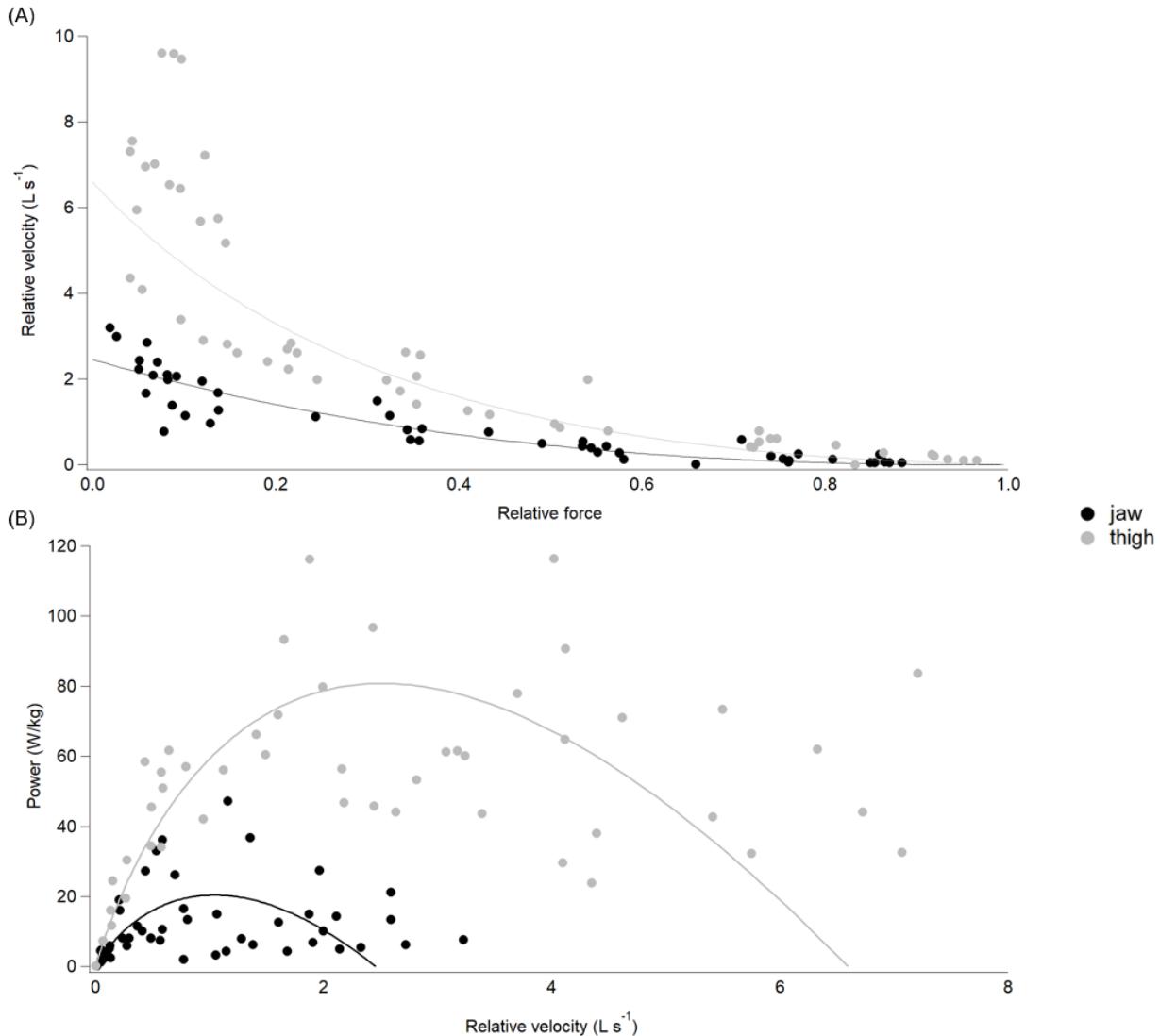
318 There is a significant effect of muscle type (*i.e.*, jaw vs. thigh) on velocity (Figures 3 + S1;
319 p=9.661343e-07), with the jaw muscle (n=8; $V_{max}=2.44 \pm 0.24$ L s⁻¹; peak power=20.4W/kg; power
320 ratio=0.12) being slower than the thigh (n=8; $V_{max}=6.95 \pm 1.03$ L s⁻¹; peak power=80.8W/kg; power
321 ratio=0.11). However, while there was an effect of muscle type on shortening velocity, it does not
322 appear as though there is an effect on the shape of the force-velocity relationship as there is no
323 significant interactive effect of force and muscle type on velocity (Figures 3 + S1; p=3.683). This
324 is reflected in the very similar power ratios for the two muscle types.



325

326 Figure 2. Representative twitch (A) and tetanic (B) contraction traces and corresponding summary
 327 boxplots of twitch (C) and tetanic (D) contraction times of the jaw (black; n=8) and thigh muscle
 328 (grey; n=8) of *Elgaria multicarinata*. (TPT: time to peak tension; TP90: time to 90% of peak
 329 tension; RT50: time to 50% relaxation, measured from peak to 50% relaxation; RT90: time to 90%
 330 relaxation, measured from peak to 90% relaxation). *Indicates statistically significant difference
 331 (p<0.05). There was a significant effect of muscle on twitch TPT (p=0.01359, W=56), twitch
 332 RT90 (p=0.009012, t=3.0293, df=14) (C), tetanic RT50 (p=0.0009391, W=64), and tetanic RT90
 333 (p=0.000931, W=64) (D).

334



335
 336 Figure 3. (A) Force-velocity data points normalized to muscle length fitted with Marsh-Bennett
 337 curve fit for the jaw (n=8; black markers; $V_{\text{max}}=2.44\pm0.24 \text{ L s}^{-1}$) and thigh (n=8; grey markers;
 338 $V_{\text{max}}=6.95\pm1.03 \text{ L s}^{-1}$) muscle of *Elgaria multicarinata*. (B) Power-velocity curves and fits
 339 constructed using raw force and velocity points and Marsh Bennett curve fit for jaw (peak
 340 power=20.4W/kg; power ratio=0.12; black) and thigh (peak power=80.8W/kg; peak ratio=0.11;
 341 grey).

342

343 **DISCUSSION**

344 This study addresses the question of whether the sustained force developed by the “specialized”
 345 jaw muscle of *E. multicarinata*, potentially to facilitate the long-lasting mate-holding behavior,
 346 represents a means by which the speed-endurance trade-off commonly thought to occur in skeletal
 347 muscle (Komi, 1984; Esbjörnsson *et al.* 1993; Wilson *et al.*, 2002; Castro *et al.*, 2022; Garland *et*

348 *al.*, 2022) can be circumvented. We determined the contractile speed of these jaw muscles, both in
349 terms of their rate of force development and relaxation and their shortening velocity, then
350 compared these properties to a more typical thigh muscle used in locomotion (James *et al.*, 2015).
351 If these muscles are subject to the typical speed-endurance trade-off, the jaw muscles would exhibit
352 slow contractile properties compared to the thigh muscle. Twitch time to peak twitch tension,
353 twitch time to 90% relaxation, tetanic time to 50% relaxation, and tetanic time to 90% relaxation
354 were significantly slower in the jaw muscle than the thigh (Figure 2). However, tetanic force rise
355 times were not significantly different between these muscles and in general, the two muscles
356 appear to be less different in force rise than force relaxation times (Figure 2). The jaw muscle also
357 had a significantly lower maximum relative shortening velocity ($V_{max}=2.44\pm0.24\text{ L s}^{-1}$) and peak
358 power (peak power=20.4W/kg) (Figure 3). However, there did not appear to be any interactive
359 effect of force and muscle type ($p=3.683$) and the power ratios, a metric of the shape of the force-
360 velocity relationship (Marsh and Bennet, 1986), were very similar in the two muscle being 0.12 in
361 the jaw and 0.11 in the thigh. This is slightly surprising as slower muscles are often though to
362 exhibit a greater degree of curvature in their force-velocity relationship (Schiaffino and Reggiani,
363 2011). However, the factors determining this shape in whole muscles and *in situ* preparations, as
364 opposed to single fibers, are poorly understood and likely to be multifactorial (Holt *et al.*, 2014;
365 Alcazar *et al.*, 2019).

366 Our data suggest that the jaw muscle of *E. multicarinata* is slow compared to the thigh muscle.
367 However, a range of contractile velocities has been observed across the phylogeny and with
368 ecology (Mendoza *et al.*, 2023). Here we compare the jaw muscle of *E. multicarinata* both to the
369 classic model of fast and slow muscles, mouse (*Mus musculus*) soleus and extensor digitorum
370 longus (EDL), as well as representative literature for a comparison between a feeding muscle and
371 locomotor in *Anolis* (Anderson and Roberts, 2020), to other “specialized” slow muscles used in
372 mating behavior and known to exhibit sustained force, and the most extreme slow muscles found
373 in the literature. However, this comparison is complicated by the effects of temperature, with
374 experimental temperature varying widely and having a major effect on contraction speed. To
375 account for this, we give both values as reported in the literature and corrected to match our
376 experimental temperature of 24°C assuming a Q_{10} of 2 (Bennett, 1985; Woledge and Rall, 1990;
377 Anderson and Deban, 2010). Any comparisons discussed throughout will be between the data
378 presented here and the values converted to 24°C.

379 The twitch rise time of the jaw muscle (TPT=63.3±4.32ms at 24°C) is at least three-times slower
380 than the fast mammalian *M. musculus* EDL muscle (TPT=7.3±0.2ms at 37°C; TPT≈18.42ms at
381 24°C) and at least one and a half-times slower than the slow mammalian *M. musculus* soleus
382 muscle (TPT=16.2±0.4ms at 37°C; TPT≈40.8ms at 24°C). Twitch half relaxation time for *E.*
383 *multicarinata*'s jaw muscle (RT50=51±3.85ms at 24°C) is more than two-times slower than the *M.*
384 *musculus* EDL (RT50=9.1±0.4ms at 37°C; RT50≈22.9ms at 24°C) but slightly faster than the *M.*
385 *musculus* soleus (RT50=23.0±1.0ms at 37°C; RT50≈58ms at 24°C). The tetanic half relaxation
386 time for the jaw muscle of *E. multicarinata* (RT50=348.3±48.6ms at 24°C) was at least eleven-
387 times slower than the mouse EDL muscle (RT50=12.5±4ms at 37°C; RT50≈31.5ms at 24°C) and
388 at least three-times slower than that of the *M. musculus* soleus (RT50=41.6±2.3ms at 37°C;
389 RT50≈104.9ms at 24°C) (Askew and Marsh, 1997). *E. multicarinata*'s jaw V_{max} value (Figure 3;
390 V_{max}=2.4±0.24 L s⁻¹ at 24°C) was at least two-times lower than the mouse EDL muscle
391 (V_{max}=14.1±0.8 L s⁻¹ at 37°C; V_{max}≈5.6 L s⁻¹ at 24°C) and the same as the soleus muscle of the *M.*
392 *musculus* (V_{max} of 6.0±0.3 L s⁻¹ at 37°C; V_{max}≈2.4 L s⁻¹ at 24°C) (Askew and Marsh, 1997). If
393 compared to *Anolis* species, the jaw muscle of *E. multicarinata* is slower than the jaw and thigh
394 muscles measured at 28.2–33.4°C depending on the species (TPT=19.8±0.7ms–55.6±1.5ms;
395 V_{max}=6.0±0.5 L s⁻¹–14.2±1.0 L s⁻¹) (Anderson and Roberts, 2020). This study wanted to compare
396 muscles with different functional demands, similarly to our study.

397 The “specialized” slow jaw muscle of *E. multicarinata* is slow in comparison to the locomotor
398 muscles used as representative comparisons in the previous paragraphs, with the exception of for
399 some metrics of speed in comparison to the slow soleus. If compared to more specialized slow
400 muscles it does not appear to be exceptionally slow. For example, when comparing to the
401 iliofibularis (IF) hindlimb muscle of the slow-moving chameleon (*Chamaeleo senegalensis*)
402 (TPT=122±35ms at 23°C; TPT≈113ms at 24°C), the twitch rise times of *E. multicarinata*'s jaw
403 muscles (TPT=63.3±4.32ms at 24°C; V_{max}=2.4±0.24 L s⁻¹ at 24°C) are almost two-times faster, but
404 the V_{max} values are similar (V_{max} of 2.5±1.1 L s⁻¹ at 23°C; V_{max}≈2.68 L s⁻¹ at 24°C) (Abu-Ghalyun
405 *et al.*, 1988). The twitch rise time of the *E. multicarinata*'s jaw muscles (TPT=63.3±4.32ms at
406 24°C) is at least twelve-times faster, and its V_{max} is at least two-times higher, than the slowest
407 muscle measured, that of the tortoise (*Testudo graeca* or *T. hermanni*) rectus femoris (RF) hindlimb
408 muscle (TPT=4000ms at 0°C; TPT≈757ms at 24°C; V_{max}=0.23±0.03 L s⁻¹ at 0°C; V_{max}≈1.2 L s⁻¹ at
409 24°C) (Woledge *et al.*, 1968).

410 This slow phenotype of the jaw muscle of *E. multicarinata* is comparable to other muscles that are
411 used in mate-holding behavior and exhibit sustained force. The flexor carpi radialis muscle
412 (FCRM) of the frog (*Rana temporaria*), which is used in amplexus (Thibert and Nicolet, 1975)
413 and also exhibits the sustained force observed in *E. multicarinata*'s jaw muscle (Nguyen *et al.*,
414 2020). The FCRM twitch rise time (TPT=44.2±1.40ms at 20°C; TPT≈33.4ms at 24°C) is about
415 two-times faster than *E. multicarinata*'s jaw muscle (TPT=63.3±4.32ms at 24°C) and the twitch
416 half relaxation time is a fraction faster (RT50=60.6±3.4ms; RT50≈45.7ms at 24°C) than *E.*
417 *multicarinata*'s jaw muscle (RT50=51±3.85ms at 24°C). Both the forelimb muscles of frogs and
418 the jaw muscles of *E. multicarinata* contain both tonic fibers and twitch fibers (Eberstein and
419 Sandow; 1961; Thibert and Nicolet, 1974; Kirby, 1983, Rubenstein *et al.*, 1983; Peters and Aulner,
420 2000; Nguyen and Stephenson, 2002; Navas and James, 2007; Ishii and Tsuchiya; 2010; Nguyen
421 *et al.*, 2020), with the jaw muscles of *E. multicarinata* (Nguyen *et al.*, 2020) and various frog limb
422 muscles (Thibert and Nicolet, 1975; Nguyen and Stephenson, 2002) having been demonstrated to
423 have “hybrid” fiber types containing both slow tonic and fast masticatory myosin heavy chain
424 isoforms. This combination of slow tonic and fast masticatory myosin heavy chain isoforms likely
425 results in the slow, but not exceptionally slow, contractile properties observed here. The relatively
426 fast rise times compared to very slow relaxation times seen in the jaw muscle of *E. multicarinata*
427 (Figure 2) might be interpreted as force initially rising relatively rapidly due to the rapid force
428 generation by masticatory myosin and the slower force generation of tonic myosin that then remain
429 active and sustain force (Figure 2A and 2B) (Thibert and Nicolet, 1975; Kirby, 1983). Moreover,
430 if the fast masticatory myosins are driving the fast rise in force development, and tonic fibers are
431 not activating in response to a single twitch stimulus, then we would predict the lower
432 twitch/tetanic force ratio that we observed in the jaw muscle (0.157±0.378) compared to the thigh
433 muscle (0.213±0.165) (Thibert and Nicolet, 1975; Celichowski and Grottel, 1993).

434 Here we show that the jaw muscle of *E. multicarinata*, which exhibits unusual endurance in the
435 form of sustained force, has slow contractile properties relative to the more typical thigh muscle
436 of this species, and other common locomotor muscles. It is important to note that there is a general
437 lack of published data on the jaw musculature, and that the different developmental origins of the
438 jaw and locomotor muscles raise questions about whether observed differences are developmental
439 or are adaptive or due to physiological constraints to adaptation (English, 1985; Tokita and
440 Schneider, 2009; Woronowicz and Schneider, 2019; Granatosky and Ross, 2020). Hence the jaw

441 musculature in general is an area that would benefit from further study. However, when compared
442 to the similarity in the contractile speed of the jaw and the thigh across several species of anoles
443 (Anderson and Roberts, 2020), the differences observed between the jaw and thigh here suggests
444 that the relatively slow contractile properties of the jaw muscle we observe are due to a speed-
445 endurance trade-off.

446 Despite the apparent inability to entirely circumvent the speed-endurance trade-off, it is possible
447 that the combination of slow tonic and fast masticatory myosin may enable the jaw muscles of *E.*
448 *multicarinata*, and the forelimb muscles of frogs used in amplexus, to meet the conflicting physical
449 demands placed on these muscles. In general, there seems to be less of an effect on activation
450 compared to deactivation, especially in tetanic contractions. This relatively rapid rise in force,
451 presumably due to the activation of masticatory myosin, may allow for them to quickly grasp onto
452 their targets, whether it be prey or their mates, while the prolonged force production, presumably
453 due to tonic myosins, may give rise to sustained force and the ability to perform this long-lasting
454 mating holding behaviors.

455 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

456 We thank Dr. Stefano Nembrini for his aid and expertise with the mixed-effects modeling of the
457 force-velocity data, Dr. Rory Telemeco, Dr. Alan Brelsford, Dr. Kieran Samuk, Dr. Daniel Moen,
458 Dr. Emily Taylor, Dr. Kris Lappin, Dr. Stephen Adolph, Dr. Chris Cosma, Dr. Raul Diaz, Dr. Robert
459 Prather, John Taylor, Andrés Hernandez, Amanda Leos, and Kelly Read for help with finding
460 lizards for the experiments and to Karen Mullens and the staff at the UCR Vivarium for helping
461 take care for our animals.

462 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

463 No competing interests declared.

464 **FUNDING**

465 This work was supported by the National Science Foundation grant IOS-2038528 to N.C.H.,
466 Human Frontier Science Program Young Investigator Award (RGY0073/2020) to N.C.H., and
467 the University of California. Riverside EEOB Department Vaughan H. Shoemaker Graduate

468 Fellowship, Rodolfo Ruibal Endowment Award, Lance and Maureen Loomer Endowed Award in
469 Biology and Herman T. and Evelyn Spieth Memorial Graduate Award in Biology to A.N.

470 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

471 The Dryad data repository will be used for data accessibility.

472

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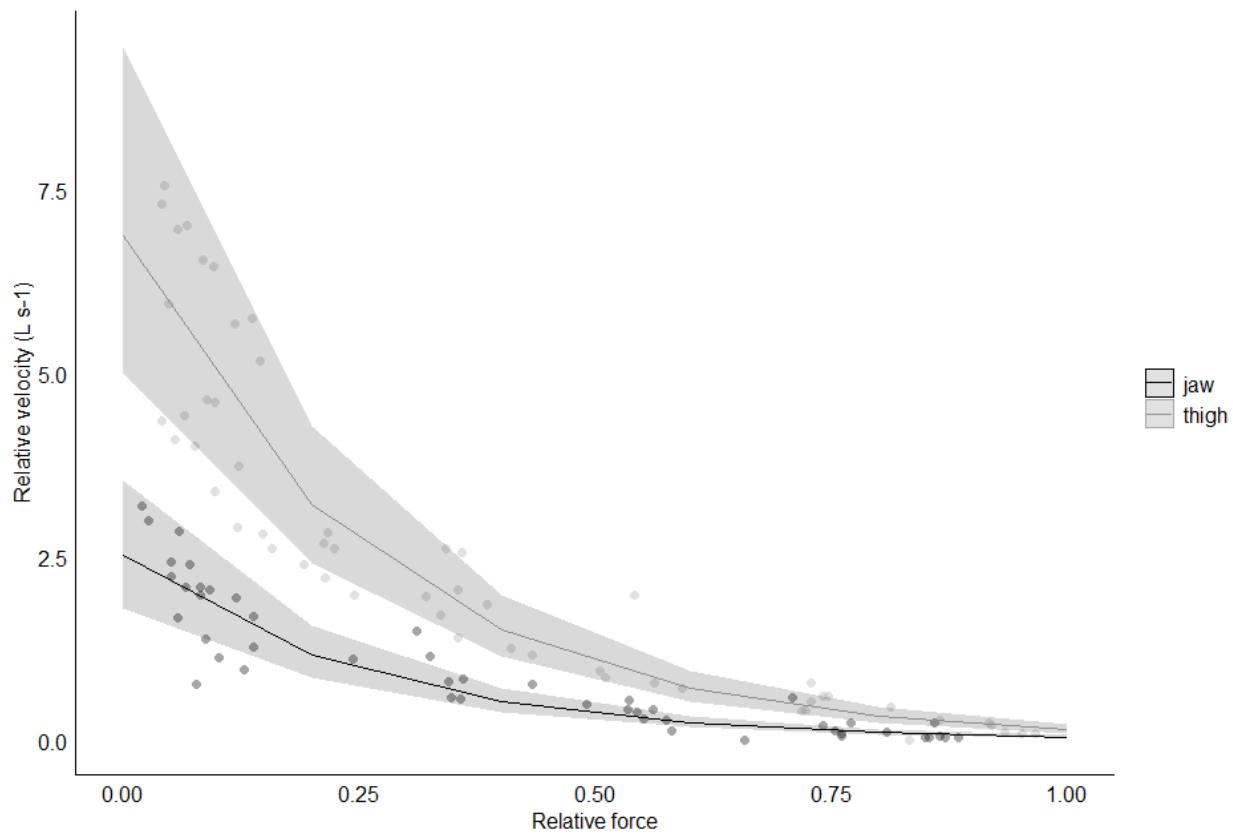
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717 **SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS**



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719 Figure S1. Predicted values of relative velocities using a mixed-effects model with Gamma
720 distribution and log-link function based off 95% confidence interval of the force-velocity data
721 between jaw (n=8) and thigh (n=8) of the *E. multicarinata*.

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