

1 **Effects of fiber type on force depression after active shortening in**
2 **skeletal muscle**

3 V. Joumaa, G.A. Power, B. Hisey, A. Caicedo, J. Stutz and W. Herzog

4 Human Performance Laboratory, University of Calgary, Alberta, Canada

5
6
7 Running title: Force depression in Type I and Type II fibers

8 Keywords: MHC, Mechanical work, Speed of shortening, Transient forces, Stiffness, History-
9 dependence, Cross-bridge theory, Fast-twitch, Slow-twitch

10
11 Word count (Introduction-Acknowledgements)= 3492

12 Corresponding Author:

13 Dr. Venus Joumaa

14 University of Calgary, 2500 University Dr. N.W., Calgary, AB, Canada, T2N 1N4

15 Phone: 1-403-220-2704

16 Fax: 1-403-220-2070

17 Email: vjoumaa@ucalgary.ca

18 **Abstract**

19 The aim of this study was to investigate force depression in Type I and Type II muscle fibers.
20 Experiments were performed using skinned fibers from rabbit soleus and psoas muscles. Force
21 depression was quantified after active fiber shortening from an average sarcomere length (SL) of
22 $3.2\mu\text{m}$ to an average SL of $2.6\mu\text{m}$ at an absolute speed of 0.115 fiber length/s and at a relative
23 speed corresponding to 17% of the unloaded shortening velocity (V_0) in each type of fibers.
24 Force decay and mechanical work during shortening were also compared between fiber types.
25 After mechanical testing, each fiber was subjected to myosin heavy chain (MHC) analysis in
26 order to confirm its Type (Type I expressing MHC I, and Type II expressing MHC II). Type II
27 fibers showed greater steady-state force depression after active shortening at a speed of 0.115
28 fiber length/s than Type I fibers ($14.5\pm 1.5\%$ versus $7.8\pm 1.7\%$). Moreover, at this absolute
29 shortening speed, Type I fibers showed a significantly greater rate of force decay during
30 shortening and produced less mechanical work than Type II fibers. When active shortening was
31 performed at the same relative speed ($17\% V_0$), the difference in force depression between fiber
32 types was abolished. These results suggest that no intrinsic differences were at the origin of the
33 difference in force depression observed in Type I and Type II fibers when actively shortened at
34 the same speed, but rather their distinct force-velocity relationships.

35 **Introduction**

36 The steady-state isometric force after active shortening of skeletal muscle is smaller than the
37 purely isometric force at the same level of activation and the corresponding length. This
38 phenomenon, referred to as force depression, was first described by Abbott and Aubert in 1952
39 and has been observed consistently in whole and isolated muscle preparations (Rassier and
40 Herzog, 2004). The molecular mechanisms causing force depression remain unknown, but two
41 primary mechanisms have been suggested. First, force depression has been associated with the
42 development of sarcomere length non-uniformities upon active shortening (Morgan et al., 2000).
43 According to this theory, force depression is caused by the development of large dispersions in
44 sarcomere lengths during active shortening. Second, force depression has been associated with a
45 stress-induced inhibition of cross bridges in the newly formed actin-myosin overlap zone
46 following shortening owing to actin angular deformation (Marechal and Plaghki, 1979).
47 According to this theory, active shortening causes a decrease in the probability of cross bridge
48 attachment, thereby leading to a decrease in the proportion of force generating (strongly bound)
49 cross bridges in the force depressed state at the same muscle length and overlap of thick and thin
50 filaments compared to a purely isometric contraction.

51 Despite an abundance of information regarding the characteristics and mechanisms of force
52 depression, there has been no investigation comparing force depression among skeletal muscle
53 fiber types. Fast (Type II) and slow (Type I) muscle fibers have distinctly different force-velocity
54 properties (Bottinelli et al., 1991), and thus force and work for shortening at a given speed differs
55 substantially between fiber types. It has been shown that the magnitude of force depression is
56 directly related to force and work performed during shortening (Corr and Herzog, 2005;
57 Dargeviciute et al., 2013; Leonard and Herzog, 2005; Minozzo and Rassier, 2013).

58 The aim of the present study was to investigate force depression in Type I and Type II muscle
59 fibers. Based on the acknowledged differences in force-velocity properties and transient forces
60 between fiber types (Bottinelli et al., 1991), we hypothesized that force depression following
61 active shortening at a given absolute speed is greater in Type II than Type I fibers but would be
62 similar between fiber types for similar relative speed of shortening.

63 **Materials and methods**

64 New Zealand white rabbits were euthanized according to a protocol approved by the University
65 of Calgary's Animal Care and Ethics Committee. Strips of soleus and psoas muscles were
66 skinned and fibers were isolated and mounted between a force transducer and a length controller
67 as previously described (Joumaa and Herzog, 2013; Tournel et al., 2000). SLs were measured
68 using optical diffraction of a He-Ne laser beam. Fiber cross sectional area and volume were
69 calculated assuming the fiber has a cylindrical shape. Experiments were performed at 15°C.

70 *Maximal stress at an average SL of 2.6μm*

71 Soleus (n=15) and psoas (n=22) fibers were activated at an average SL of 2.6μm in order to
72 measure their maximal force at this length. Force was normalized to the fiber cross sectional area
73 to obtain the maximal stress.

74 *Active shortening contractions at a shortening speed of 0.115 fiber length/s*

75 Soleus (n=15) and psoas (n=15) fibers were set at an average SL of 2.6μm and then passively
76 stretched to an average SL of 3.2μm, held for 20 seconds and activated by changing the relaxing
77 solution to a high calcium activating solution (Joumaa and Herzog, 2013). Fibers were then
78 actively shortened to an average SL of 2.6μm at a speed of 0.115 fiber length/s, held
79 isometrically until steady-state isometric force was reached, and then deactivated (Figure 1).
80 After a rest period of 5 minutes, fibers were activated at an average SL of 2.6μm in order to
81 measure their purely isometric reference force.

82 *Active shortening contractions at the same relative speed between Type I and Type II fibers*

83 In order to perform active shortening at the same relative speed between Type I and Type II
84 fibers, we measured the unloaded shortening velocity (V_0) for psoas (n=5) and soleus (n=5)
85 fibers using the slack test method proposed by Edman (1979). Then we tested an additional
86 group of psoas fibers in which we performed active shortening at the same relative speed ($\%V_0$)
87 as in soleus fibers. The unloaded shortening velocities were (mean \pm SEM) 0.67 ± 0.09 fiber
88 length/s and 1.77 ± 0.03 fiber length/s in soleus and psoas fibers, respectively. The initial active
89 shortening experiments were performed at a shortening speed of 0.115 fiber length/s
90 corresponding to a relative shortening speed of 17% of V_0 in Type I fibers. Thus, seven
91 additional psoas fibers were actively shortened at a relative speed of 17% of their V_0
92 corresponding to 0.3 fiber length/s.

93 *Stiffness measurements*

94 Fiber stiffness was obtained using a quick stretch-release protocol of 0.2% fiber length (Ford et
95 al., 1981; Joumaa et al., 2012; Mansson, 1989; Rassier and Herzog, 2005) at a speed of 1 fiber
96 length/s. Stiffness was measured once the isometric steady-state had been reached after active
97 shortening, and during the purely isometric reference contraction.

98 *MHC content*

99 The MHC content was determined in each fiber after mechanical testing using SDS-PAGE gel
100 electrophoresis on 4.5% and 7.5% acrylamide stacking and separating gels respectively (Toursel
101 et al., 2000). The gels were run in a Biorad Mini-Protean III unit at a constant voltage of 73V for
102 40 hours at 4°C, stained with Coomassie Blue and scanned. Following electrophoresis, fibers
103 were divided into two groups: Type I fibers expressing MHC I and Type II fibers expressing
104 MHC II.

105 *Data analysis*

106 *Force depression:* Force depression was determined as the percent difference between the
107 steady-state isometric force following active shortening and the purely isometric reference force
108 at 2.6 μ m average SL.

109 *Stiffness (instantaneous stiffness):* Stiffness was measured as the difference between the peak
110 force reached after the quick stretch and the force immediately before the stretch divided by the
111 amplitude of the stretch.

112 *Rate of force decline during shortening:* Force during shortening is characterized by a steep
113 initial phase and a slow final phase. The initial and final phases were fitted by two linear least-
114 squares regression functions. The slope of the initial steep phase of shortening, S1, was taken as
115 an estimate of the rate of force decline during shortening. The slope of the final slow phase of
116 shortening, S2, was taken as an estimate of the behaviour of the non-contractile (passive)
117 element during shortening (Roots et al., 2007). S1 and S2 were normalized to the maximal
118 isometric fiber force and compared between Type I and Type II fibers.

119 *Mechanical work:* Mechanical work during shortening was calculated by trapezoidal numerical
120 integration of the force-length curve during the shortening phase. To compare work performed
121 between fibers, the mechanical work was normalized to fiber volume.

122 *Statistical analysis:* All data reported are means \pm SEM. The Student's *t test* ($p < 0.05$) was used to
123 compare data between Type I and Type II fibers.

124 **Results**

125 Fibers were analysed for MHC composition (Figure 2). Thirteen fibers isolated from the soleus
126 muscle and tested for force depression expressed MHC I and were grouped as Type I fibers. The
127 remaining two soleus fibers expressed MHC IIa and were excluded from the analysis. Three
128 psoas fibers were excluded from analysis because they co-expressed MHCs IId/IIb. The
129 remaining psoas fibers tested for force depression (n=12 shortened at a speed of 0.115 fiber
130 length/s, n=7 shortened at a relative speed of 17% V_0) expressed MHC IId and were labelled
131 Type II fibers and analyzed.

132 The maximal stress at an average SL of 2.6 μ m for Type I fibers (151 ± 14 kN/m²) was not
133 different from that of Type II fibers (159 ± 13 kN/m²).

134 *Active shortening contractions at a shortening speed of 0.115 fiber length/s*

135 Force depression in Type II fibers was higher than that of Type I fibers ($14.5\pm 1.5\%$ versus
136 $7.8\pm 1.7\%$) when fibers were shortened at the same absolute speed of 0.115 fiber length/s. Type I
137 fibers showed a steeper decay in force during shortening (Table 1, Figure 3), performed less
138 mechanical work during shortening and showed smaller S2 than Type II fibers (Table 1).

139 *Active shortening contractions at the same relative speed between Type I and Type II fibers*

140 When Type II fibers were shortened at the same relative speed as Type I fibers (17% V_0), the
141 difference in force depression between fiber types was abolished ($4.1\pm 1.8\%$ in Type II versus
142 $7.8\pm 1.7\%$ in Type I). Furthermore, the mechanical work and S1 were not different between fiber
143 types (Table 1), but S2 was still smaller in Type I fibers compared to Type II

144 Force depression was correlated with stiffness depression ($R^2=0.6$, $p<0.05$, Figure 4) and S1
145 ($R^2=0.4$, $p<0.05$, Figure 5) across all fibers.

146 **Discussion**

147 Our main finding in this study is that Type II fibers when actively shortened at the same absolute
148 speed showed greater isometric steady-state force depression after active shortening compared to
149 Type I fibers. However, the difference in force depression between fiber types was abolished
150 when active shortening was performed at the same relative speed suggesting that no intrinsic
151 differences were at the origin of the different force depression in Type I and Type II fibers, but
152 rather their different force-velocity relationships.

153 The force-velocity relationship is markedly different between muscle fiber types (Bottinelli et al.,
154 1991). Type I fibers have lower maximal shortening velocities (V_{\max}) and a greater curvature of
155 their force-velocity relationship compared to Type II fibers. When active shortening in the
156 present study was performed at the same absolute speed (relative to fiber length) in Type I and
157 Type II fibers, Type I fibers were shortening at a higher speed relative to their V_{\max} , and thus
158 produced less force during shortening than Type II fibers. A decreased force over the given
159 displacement results in a lower mechanical work performed during shortening in Type I fibers as
160 compared with Type II fibers. The increased rate of force decay in conjunction with the
161 decreased mechanical work performed during shortening observed for Type I fibers provide
162 quantitative support for the rationale that force and work during shortening are reduced in Type I
163 compared with Type II fibers owing to their intrinsic force-velocity properties.

164 It has been found that force during the active shortening phase is highly correlated with the
165 steady-state isometric force reached after shortening (Dargeviciute et al., 2013; Leonard and
166 Herzog, 2005). Leonard and Herzog (2005) showed that force depression was the same when
167 force during shortening was kept constant, even though the speed of shortening was changed
168 substantially. Conversely, they found that force depression varied greatly when force during

169 shortening was altered while shortening speed was kept constant (Herzog and Leonard, 1997).
170 Furthermore, since force depression is associated with the magnitude of shortening and force
171 during shortening, it has been demonstrated that force depression is directly proportional to the
172 mechanical work performed during shortening (Dargeviciute et al., 2013; Herzog and Leonard,
173 1997; Leonard and Herzog, 2005). Therefore, the lower force along with the decreased
174 mechanical work performed by Type I compared with Type II fibers explains the decreased force
175 depression in Type I compared to Type II fibers.

176 It has been hypothesized that since thin and thick filaments are slightly compliant (Goldman and
177 Huxley, 1994; Kojima et al., 1994), when muscle is activated, mechanical stress causes a small
178 elongation of the thin filament, possibly resulting in an angular distortion of the myosin binding
179 sites on actin. This distortion may cause a decrease in the attachment rate of cross bridges and
180 thus an inhibition of their formation in the newly formed overlap zone when muscle is then
181 shortened and the stress in thin filaments is maintained. A decreased speed of shortening is
182 associated with increased force, thus a potential increase in the deformation of actin and
183 increased force depression. According to Marechal and Plaghki (1979), force depression “is
184 precisely controlled by the mechanical parameters of the release”, when the load - tetanic stress –
185 is light, cross bridges are slightly inhibited and when the load is heavy, cross bridges are partially
186 or completely inhibited. The relationship between force depression and stiffness depression
187 found here (Figure 4) and by others (Minozzo and Rassier, 2013; Rassier and Herzog, 2004)
188 supports the stress induced inhibition of cross bridge theory.

189 The sarcomere length non-uniformity theory could potentially explain the difference in force
190 depression between fiber types when actively shortened at the same absolute speed. Because
191 sarcomeres are assumed to be unstable on the descending limb of the force length relationship

192 (Hill, 1953) regardless of the fiber type, we suggest that sarcomere length non-uniformities
193 develop in Type I and Type II fibers. To our knowledge, the amount of sarcomere length non-
194 uniformities has not been compared between fast and slow fibers. However, if we assume that
195 the development of sarcomere length non-uniformities increases during length changes when
196 force is high, we might expect greater non-uniformities in sarcomere lengths in fast compared to
197 slow fibers and thus a greater amount of force depression when shortening at the same absolute
198 speed. However, experiments in single myofibrils and sarcomeres have shown that the
199 development of sarcomere length non-uniformities is likely not the mechanism for force
200 depression (Joumaa and Herzog, 2010; Trecarten et al., 2015).

201 Passive properties are different between Type I and type II fibers. Rabbit psoas muscle has
202 shorter titin isoforms (two isoforms of molecular weights of ~ 3.3 and 3.4 MDa) compared to
203 titin isoform in the rabbit soleus muscle (one titin isoform of a molecular weight of ~ 3.6 MDa)
204 (Prado et al., 2005). Could this difference in titin isoforms be responsible for the difference in
205 force depression observed at an average sarcomere length of 2.6 μm between Type I and Type II
206 fibers? According to the primary mechanisms of force depression (i.e. the stress induced
207 inhibition of cross bridges and the non-uniformity theory), passive force is not involved in force
208 depression. However, Leonard and Herzog (2010) proposed a mechanism for residual force
209 enhancement based on the interaction between (binding of) titin and actin upon
210 muscle/fiber/myofibril activation. When the myofibril is stretched, its passive force is increased
211 because the strain on titin is higher compared to a purely isometric contraction. Could titin's role
212 in force depression mirror that of force enhancement? Indeed, Rode et al. (2009) suggested,
213 based on a theoretical model using Hill-type muscle and incorporating titin as a "sticky spring",
214 that titin might play a major role in force depression. Rode et al. (Rode et al., 2009) proposed

215 that titin attaches to the actin filament upon muscle activation. As a result, the length of titin's
216 free spring length is dramatically reduced. This leads to an increased passive force when the
217 sarcomere is stretched and a decreased passive force when the sarcomere is shortened. Based on
218 this model, one might suggest that the shorter the titin isoform, the higher the reduction in force
219 at steady-state following sarcomere shortening. Although many aspects of the “sticky-spring”
220 mechanism should be carefully considered (i.e. the (non-) selective binding of titin to actin in
221 long and short isoforms, the region of titin that binds to actin, the behaviour of titin during
222 shortening, etc.), this mechanism could potentially explain the greater force depression observed
223 in psoas Type II fibers compared to soleus Type I fibers. Titin contributions to force depression
224 have also been proposed by Nishikawa et al. (2012) who suggested that titin might be
225 responsible for force depression by a mechanism of winding and unwinding of titin onto the
226 rotating actin filament. According to Roots et al. (2007), the contribution of the non-contractile
227 (passive) element to force during shortening can be determined by S2 phase during shortening.
228 S2 in Type I fibers was lower than that in Type II fibers suggesting that the passive element
229 behaviour is different during shortening between fiber types. Passive force decreased at a higher
230 rate during shortening in the Type II compared to Type I fibers. This finding agrees with the
231 “sticky-spring” mechanism (Rode et al., 2009) for force depression in that short titin isoforms
232 would be predicted to show increased rates of force reduction during shortening compared to
233 long titin isoforms. Therefore, the diversity in titin isoforms between fiber types could
234 potentially account for their differences in force depression.

235 In addition to their diversity in myosin heavy chain and titin isoforms, skeletal muscle fiber types
236 also show numerous differences in protein structures (actin, troponin, tropomyosin, etc.) and
237 functional properties (ATPase hydrolysis rate, cross bridge cycling rate, etc.). Therefore, it is not

238 clear whether force depression is independently related to structural differences between fiber
239 types, or if fiber types show different force depressions exclusively because of the difference in
240 their force-velocity relationships. In our tests at a fixed absolute speed of shortening, we found
241 that force depression was greater in Type II compared to Type I fibers. Shortening at the same
242 absolute speed resulted in Type I fibers shortening at a higher speed relative to their V_{\max} and
243 correspondingly a lower force than Type II fibers. In order to test if the difference in force
244 depression between Type I and Type II fibers was an intrinsic property of fiber types, we
245 determined the unloaded shortening velocity for each fiber type and force depression was then
246 determined for conditions of the same relative speed of shortening for both fiber types. When the
247 shortening speed relative to V_0 was the same for the two fiber types, the differences in force
248 depression were abolished, suggesting that no intrinsic fiber type differences were the cause for
249 the differences in force depressions observed when shortening at the same absolute speed. In the
250 experiments performed at the same relative speed, S_2 was lower in Type I fibers compared to
251 Type II fibers, suggesting that the behaviour of the passive element during shortening is not
252 responsible for force depression at the steady-state after shortening.

253 According to the stress-induced inhibition of cross bridge theory (Marechal and Plaghki, 1979),
254 force production prior to active shortening is assumed to cause extension and distortion of the
255 thin filaments. Thin filament distortion is thought to be proportional to its compliance; the higher
256 the compliance, the higher the distortion (Herzog and Leonard, 1997; Kojima et al., 1994). When
257 shortening occurred with similar forces between Type I and Type II fibers, force depression was
258 also similar between fiber types. Thus it appears that the compliance of thin filaments of Type II
259 fibers is similar to that of Type I fibers. This speculation is in accordance with previous findings
260 (Galler and Hilber, 1998) showing that the variations in the structure of proteins between fiber

261 types are not sufficient to produce different compliances of the network of proteins within
262 sarcomeres.

263 Why do Type I fibers exhibit less force than Type II fibers during shortening, while the opposite
264 happens at the steady-state after shortening? Different mechanisms control transient muscle force
265 during shortening and isometric force after shortening. Force decreases during active isokinetic
266 shortening because of a decrease in the number of attached cross bridges and in the amount of
267 force produced per cross bridge (Huxley, 1957). It is known that fast fibers have high rates of
268 ATP hydrolysis and cross bridge attachment and therefore as filaments slide past one another at
269 the same speed for fast and slow fibers, fewer cross bridges have the time to attach in slow fibers
270 and thus force decreases more in slow compared to fast fibers (Barany et al., 1965). Force per
271 cross bridge decreases during shortening because the distance “x” (Huxley, 1957) decreases
272 when the filaments slide past one another. Since it has been suggested that the stiffness of the
273 elastic region of the cross bridge might be higher in Type I compared to Type II fibers (Goubel
274 and Marini, 1987; Pousson et al., 1991), the decrease in force for the same decrease in “x”
275 distance would be higher in Type I compared to Type II fibers. Accordingly, the relatively lesser
276 decrease in force during isokinetic shortening of Type II fibers compared to Type I fibers is
277 likely due to a smaller decrease in the number of attached cross bridges and a smaller decrease in
278 the force produced per cross bridge. On the other hand, in the isometric force depressed state, the
279 primary mechanisms are, as discussed earlier, the stress induced inhibition of cross bridges
280 (Marechal and Plaghki, 1979) and the non-uniformity theory (Morgan et al., 2000).

281 The biomechanical role of force depression during everyday movement is still unknown (Tilp et
282 al., 2009). However, it has been speculated that active shortening and force reduction during
283 shortening could reduce the work required to induce active lengthening (negative work) and thus,

284 increase the net work performed by a muscle over a full cyclic shortening/lengthening movement
285 (Josephson and Stokes, 1999).

286 In line with the stress-induced theory of force depression, we show for the first time greater force
287 depression in Type II fast muscle fibers compared with Type I slow muscle fibers when
288 shortening was performed at the same absolute speed. When shortening speed was controlled and
289 Type II and Type I shortened at the same relative speed, no difference in force depression was
290 observed.

291

292 **Acknowledgements**

293 CIHR, NSERC, Canada Research Chair Programme. G.A. Power is supported by a Banting
294 postdoctoral fellowship (CIHR) and Alberta Innovates Health Solutions (AIHS).

295 **References**

- 296 Barany, M., Barany, K., Reckard, T., Volpe, A., 1965. Myosin of Fast and Slow Muscles of the
297 Rabbit. Arch Biochem Biophys 109, 185-91.
- 298 Bottinelli, R., Schiaffino, S., Reggiani, C., 1991. Force-velocity relations and myosin heavy
299 chain isoform compositions of skinned fibres from rat skeletal muscle. J Physiol 437,
300 655-72.
- 301 Corr, D.T., Herzog, W., 2005. Force recovery after activated shortening in whole skeletal
302 muscle: transient and steady-state aspects of force depression. J Appl Physiol (1985) 99,
303 252-60.
- 304 Dargeviciute, G., Masiulis, N., Kamandulis, S., Skurvydas, A., Westerblad, H., 2013. Residual
305 force depression following muscle shortening is exaggerated by prior eccentric drop jump
306 exercise. J Appl Physiol (1985) 115, 1191-5.
- 307 Edman, K.A., 1979. The velocity of unloaded shortening and its relation to sarcomere length and
308 isometric force in vertebrate muscle fibres. J Physiol 291, 143-59.
- 309 Ford, L.E., Huxley, A.F., Simmons, R.M., 1981. The relation between stiffness and filament
310 overlap in stimulated frog muscle fibres. J Physiol 311, 219-49.
- 311 Galler, S., Hilber, K., 1998. Tension/stiffness ratio of skinned rat skeletal muscle fibre types at
312 various temperatures. Acta Physiol Scand 162, 119-26.
- 313 Goldman, Y.E., Huxley, A.F., 1994. Actin compliance: are you pulling my chain? Biophys J 67,
314 2131-3.
- 315 Goubel, F., Marini, J.F., 1987. Fibre type transition and stiffness modification of soleus muscle
316 of trained rats. Pflugers Arch 410, 321-5.

- 317 Herzog, W., Leonard, T.R., 1997. Depression of cat soleus-forces following isokinetic
318 shortening. *J Biomech* 30, 865-72.
- 319 Hill, A.V., 1953. The mechanics of active muscle. *Proc R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 141, 104-17.
- 320 Horowitz, R., 1992. Passive force generation and titin isoforms in mammalian skeletal muscle.
321 *Biophys J* 61, 392-8.
- 322 Huxley, A.F., 1957. Muscle structure and theories of contraction. *Prog Biophys Biophys Chem*
323 7, 255-318.
- 324 Josephson, R.K., Stokes, D.R., 1999. Work-dependent deactivation of a crustacean muscle. *J Exp*
325 *Biol* 202, 2551-2565.
- 326 Joumaa, V., Herzog, W., 2010. Force depression in single myofibrils. *J Appl Physiol* 108, 356-
327 62.
- 328 Joumaa, V., Herzog, W., 2013. Energy cost of force production is reduced after active stretch in
329 skinned muscle fibres. *J Biomech* 46, 1135-9.
- 330 Joumaa, V., Macintosh, B.R., Herzog, W., 2012. New insights into force depression in skeletal
331 muscle. *J Exp Biol* 215, 2135-40.
- 332 Kojima, H., Ishijima, A., Yanagida, T., 1994. Direct measurement of stiffness of single actin
333 filaments with and without tropomyosin by in vitro nanomanipulation. *Proc Natl Acad*
334 *Sci U S A* 91, 12962-6.
- 335 Leonard, T.R., Herzog, W., 2005. Does the speed of shortening affect steady-state force
336 depression in cat soleus muscle? *J Biomech* 38, 2190-7.
- 337 Leonard, T.R., Herzog, W., 2010. Regulation of muscle force in the absence of actin-myosin-
338 based cross-bridge interaction. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol* 299, C14-20.

- 339 Mansson, A., 1989. Changes in force and stiffness during stretch of skeletal muscle fibers,
340 effects of hypertonicity. *Biophys J* 56, 429-33.
- 341 Marechal, G., Plaghki, L., 1979. The deficit of the isometric tetanic tension redeveloped after a
342 release of frog muscle at a constant velocity. *J Gen Physiol* 73, 453-67.
- 343 Minozzo, F.C., Rassier, D.E., 2013. The effects of Ca²⁺ and MgADP on force development
344 during and after muscle length changes. *PLoS One* 8, e68866.
- 345 Morgan, D.L., Whitehead, N.P., Wise, A.K., Gregory, J.E., Proske, U., 2000. Tension changes in
346 the cat soleus muscle following slow stretch or shortening of the contracting muscle. *J*
347 *Physiol* 522 Pt 3, 503-13.
- 348 Nishikawa, K.C., Monroy, J.A., Uyeno, T.E., Yeo, S.H., Pai, D.K., Lindstedt, S.L., 2012. Is titin
349 a 'winding filament'? A new twist on muscle contraction. *Proc Biol Sci* 279, 981-90.
- 350 Pousson, M., Perot, C., Goubel, F., 1991. Stiffness changes and fibre type transitions in rat
351 soleus muscle produced by jumping training. *Pflugers Arch* 419, 127-30.
- 352 Prado, L.G., Makarenko, I., Andresen, C., Kruger, M., Opitz, C.A., Linke, W.A., 2005. Isoform
353 diversity of giant proteins in relation to passive and active contractile properties of rabbit
354 skeletal muscles. *J Gen Physiol* 126, 461-80.
- 355 Rassier, D.E., Herzog, W., 2004. Considerations on the history dependence of muscle
356 contraction. *J Appl Physiol* 96, 419-27.
- 357 Rassier, D.E., Herzog, W., 2005. Relationship between force and stiffness in muscle fibers after
358 stretch. *J Appl Physiol* 99, 1769-75.
- 359 Rode, C., Siebert, T., Blickhan, R., 2009. Titin-induced force enhancement and force depression:
360 a 'sticky-spring' mechanism in muscle contractions? *J Theor Biol* 259, 350-60.

- 361 Roots, H., Offer, G.W., Ranatunga, K.W., 2007. Comparison of the tension responses to ramp
362 shortening and lengthening in intact mammalian muscle fibres: crossbridge and non-
363 crossbridge contributions. *J Muscle Res Cell Motil* 28, 123-39.
- 364 Tilp, M., Steib, S., Herzog, W., 2009. Force-time history effects in voluntary contractions of
365 human tibialis anterior. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 106, 159-66.
- 366 Tournel, T., Bastide, B., Stevens, L., Rieger, F., Mounier, Y., 2000. Alterations in contractile
367 properties and expression of myofibrillar proteins in wobbler mouse muscles. *Exp Neurol*
368 162, 311-20.
- 369 Trecarten, N., Minozzo, F.C., Leite, F.S., Rassier, D.E., 2015. Shortening-induced force
370 depression in single sarcomeres is abolished by MgADP-activation. *Biophys J* 108, 338a.
- 371

372 **Table 1**373
374

	Type I (n=13)	Type II (n=12)	Type II (n=7)
Absolute active shortening speed (fiber length/s)	0.115	0.115	0.3
Relative active shortening speed (% V_0)	17%	6.5%	17%
S1 (s^{-1})	$-4.58 \pm 0.46^*$	-2.18 ± 0.27	-4.01 ± 0.18
S2 (s^{-1})	$-0.06 \pm 0.01^{*\parallel}$	-0.09 ± 0.01	-0.20 ± 0.01
Mechanical work (kJ/m^3)	$3.70 \pm 0.25^*$	6.28 ± 0.87	3.99 ± 0.20

378

379 Mean values \pm SEM for S1, S2 and the mechanical work performed during shortening at the
 380 absolute and relative speeds. * indicates a significant difference of Type I fibers compared to
 381 Type II fibers shortened at the same absolute speed of 0.115 fiber length/s ($p < 0.05$), \parallel indicates a
 382 significant difference of Type I fibers compared to Type II fibers shortened at the same relative
 383 speed of 17% V_0 ($p < 0.05$).

384

385 **Figure captions**

386 Figure 1

387 Typical fiber response when passively stretched from an average SL of 2.6 μ m to an average SL
388 of 3.2 μ m, activated, shortened to an average SL of 2.6 μ m and then deactivated. The noise
389 indicates the time when the fiber was transferred between solutions. The sudden change in stress
390 indicates the stretch-release cycle performed to measure stiffness. The grey force trace indicates
391 the stress produced by the reference isometric contraction performed at the average SL of 2.6 μ m.
392 (A stiffness test was also performed before active shortening but not used in the analysis).

393 Figure 2

394 Electrophoresis of MHCs. Lanes 1-3: fibers on which the mechanical measurements were
395 performed. Lane 4: rabbit psoas muscle. Lane 5: rabbit muscles used as an electrophoretic
396 marker. Fibers in lanes 1 and 3 expressed MHC II_d and were identified as Type II. The fiber in
397 lane 4 expressed MHC I and was identified as Type I.

398

399 Figure 3

400 Representative traces of the transient force changes during shortening of Type I and Type II
401 fibers. Force decreases during shortening in two phases characterized by a steep initial decrease
402 followed by a slower decrease in force fitted by two linear regressions (red and blue lines). The
403 slopes of the steep and slow phases are respectively S1 and S2. Type I fibers showed a
404 significantly steeper decay in force during the initial phase of shortening and lower S2 and force

405 depression ($p < 0.05$) than Type II fibers. Force depression was respectively 2 and 9% in Type I
406 and Type II fibers shown in this figure.

407

408 Figure 4

409 Force depression as a function of stiffness depression. There is a statistically significant
410 correlation between force depression and stiffness depression. Type II-0.115 and Type II-17%
411 V_0 refers to Type II fibers shortened at a constant speed of 0.115 fiber/s and 17% V_0
412 respectively.

413 Figure 5

414 Force depression as a function of S1. There is a statistically significant correlation between force
415 depression and stiffness depression. Type II-0.115 and Type II-17% V_0 refers to Type II fibers
416 shortened at a constant speed of 0.115 fiber/s and 17% V_0 respectively.

417

418









