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1 **Title:** Expression of myosin heavy chain isoforms mRNA transcripts in the temporalis
2 muscle of common chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*)

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25 **ABSTRACT**

26 **Purpose:** The common chimpanzee (*Pan troglodytes*) is the primate that is
27 phylogenetically most closely related to humans (*Homo sapiens*). In order to shed light
28 on the anatomy and function of the temporalis muscle in the chimpanzee, we have
29 analyzed the expression patterns of the mRNA transcripts of the myosin heavy chain
30 (MyHC) isoforms in different parts of the muscle.

31 **Basic procedures:** We dissected the superficial, deep and sphenomandibularis portions
32 of the temporalis muscle in five adult *Pan troglodytes* and quantified by real-time
33 quantitative polymerase chain reaction the expression of the mRNA transcripts of the
34 MyHC isoforms in each portion.

35 **Main findings:** We observed significant differences in the patterns of expression of the
36 mRNA transcripts of the MyHC-IIM isoform between the sphenomandibularis portion
37 and the anterior superficial temporalis (33.6% vs 47.0%; $P=0.032$) and between the
38 sphenomandibularis portion and the anterior deep temporalis (33.6% vs 43.0; $P=0.016$).
39 We also observed non-significant differences between the patterns of expression in the
40 anterior and posterior superficial temporalis.

41 **Principal conclusions:** The differential expression patterns of the mRNA transcripts of
42 the MyHC isoforms in the temporalis muscle in *Pan troglodytes* may be related to the
43 functional differences that have been observed in electromyographic studies in other
44 species of primates. Our findings can be applicable to the fields of comparative
45 anatomy, evolutionary anatomy, and anthropology.

46 **Keywords:** temporalis muscle, *Pan troglodytes*, myosin heavy chain, RT-qPCR,
47 sphenomandibularis

48

49 **1. INTRODUCTION**

50 The temporalis, masseter, and medial pterygoid muscles are the jaw-closing
51 muscles that produce the occlusion of the mandible and other movements associated
52 with chewing and biting (Taylor and Vinyard, 2013). The temporalis arises from the
53 side of the skull and inserts onto the coronoid process of the mandible and the anterior
54 edge of the mandibular ramus (Aiello and Dean, 1990). In the common chimpanzee
55 (*Pan troglodytes*), the temporalis comprises a superficial and a deep portion that can be
56 easily separated (Aiello and Dean, 1990; Oxnard and Franklin, 2008). In contrast, in
57 humans (*Homo sapiens*), the temporalis has the equivalent of the deep temporalis in
58 *Pan troglodytes*, while the superficial temporalis is either completely lacking or only
59 vestigially present (Oxnard and Franklin, 2008; Lee et al., 2012). This loss of the
60 superficial temporalis in humans is a result of the general reduction of the masticatory
61 apparatus that occurred in the evolution of the genus *Homo* (Aiello and Dean, 1990),
62 which may in turn be due to a relatively soft diet (Oxnard and Franklin, 2008).

63 Some authors make a distinction between the sphenomandibularis and the
64 temporalis muscles in humans and consider the sphenomandibularis to be a separate
65 muscle arising from the maxillary surface of the sphenoid bone and inserting on the
66 temporal crest of the mandible (Dunn et al., 1996). Others, however, consider the
67 sphenomandibularis to be a part of the temporalis, without its own specific
68 vascularization and innervation (Türp et al., 1997; Shimokawa et al., 1998; Schön-
69 Ybarra and Bauer, 2001; Geers et al., 2005; Sedlmayr et al., 2009). In non-human
70 primates, such as the *Macaca mulatta*, the sphenomandibularis has been described as
71 part of the deep temporalis (Skinner and Aziz, 2003).

72 Electromyographic studies of the temporalis in *Homo sapiens* and in the non-
73 human primates *Macaca fuscata* and *Papio anubis* have found that the temporalis acts
74 in the occlusal phase of the masticatory cycle, with different fibers acting at different
75 points of the cycle (Blanksma et al., 1997; Hylander et al., 2005; Wall et al., 2008). The
76 contraction of the anterior fibers, which run vertically, results in elevation of the
77 mandible, closing the mouth. The anterior fibers reach their peak of maximum activity
78 during the power stroke (Blanksma et al., 1997; Hylander et al., 2005; Vinyard et al.,
79 2008; Vinyard and Taylor, 2010). The posterior fibers run horizontally and their
80 contraction retracts the mandible, pulling the jaw posteriorly. The posterior fibers act
81 during a later phase of the power stroke in which the mandible moves laterally to
82 reposition the molar teeth (Ahlgren et al., 1985; Blanksma et al., 1997; Hylander et al.,
83 2005; Wall et al., 2008; Williams et al., 2011). The consistency of the food being
84 chewed also influences which muscle fibers are called into play (Grünheid et al., 2009).
85 In *Macaca fuscata*, *Papio anubis*, and *Homo sapiens*, more muscle fibers in the anterior
86 than in the posterior temporalis are used when chewing tough food (Blanksma et al.,
87 1997; Ross and Hylander, 2000; Hylander et al., 2005; Vinyard et al., 2008). In *Papio*
88 *anubis*, the increase in electromyographic activity in the anterior region of the
89 temporalis occurred primarily in the superficial temporalis, which has a greater capacity
90 to produce force (Wall et al., 2008). However, when chewing relatively softer food,
91 there was greater electromyographic activity in the posterior temporalis in *Macaca*
92 *fuscata* and *Papio anubis* (Hylander et al., 2005; Vinyard et al., 2008). In
93 electromyographic studies in *Homo sapiens*, the sphenomandibularis portion of the deep
94 temporalis worked together with the lateral pterygoid muscle to produce lateral
95 movements of the mandible and also helped maintain the mandible in a stable position
96 (Wood, 1986; Fuentes et al., 2012).

97 The functional characteristics of the temporalis can also be analyzed in terms of
98 the expression of the myosin heavy chain (MyHC) isoforms (Bottinelli and Reggiani,
99 2000). Different types of muscle fibers have different contractile properties (force,
100 contraction velocity, and resistance to fatigue) that are related to the expression patterns
101 of MyHC isoforms (Pette and Staron, 2000; Bottinelli et al., 1996; Harridge et al.,
102 1996). The main MyHC isoforms expressed in the skeletal muscles of mammals are
103 MyHC-I, MyHC-IIA, and MyHC-IIX (Sciote and Morris, 2000). The MyHC-I isoform
104 is mainly expressed in slow-twitch oxidative fibers and is the predominant isoform in
105 slow-twitch (type I) muscles (Schiaffino and Reggiani, 2011), which are characterized
106 by low force production and high resistance to fatigue. The MyHC-IIA and MyHC-IIX
107 isoforms are primarily expressed in fast-twitch oxidative glycolytic fibers and fast-
108 twitch glycolytic fibers, respectively, and are the predominant isoforms in fast-twitch
109 (type II) muscles (Schiaffino and Reggiani, 2011). Type IIX fibers are characterized by
110 very high force production and low resistance to fatigue, while type IIA fibers fall in
111 between the type I and type IIX fibers. In addition to the MyHC-I, MyHC-IIA, and
112 MyHC-IIX isoforms, the masticatory muscles of non-human primates also express the
113 MyHC-IIM isoform in type IIM muscle fibers (Rowlerson et al., 1983), which have a
114 moderate contraction velocity, similar to that of the type IIA fibers, and a high force
115 production, greater than that of the type IIX fibers (Hoh, 2002; Toniolo et al., 2008).

116 The composition of muscle fibers and the expression patterns of the MyHC
117 isoforms in the temporalis muscle of non-human primates have been studied by
118 histochemistry in *Macaca mulatta* (Maxwell et al., 1979; Miller and Farias, 1988) and
119 *Cebus apella* (Andreo et al., 2002), by immunohistochemistry in *Macaca irus*
120 (Rowlerson et al., 1983), and by sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel
121 electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) in *Papio anubis* (Wall et al., 2013). Using ATPase

122 staining, Miller and Farias (1988) found that the temporalis muscle of *Macaca mulatta*
123 had 47.9-58.5% of type IIX fibers, 27.3-42.6% of type IIA fibers, and 6.6-21.3% of type
124 I fibers. When they compared the anterior and posterior superficial temporalis, they
125 found no significant differences in the percentage of type IIA and IIX fibers, while the
126 percentage of type I fibers was greater in the anterior than in the posterior superficial
127 temporalis (13.1% vs 6.6%). They also found that the posterior superficial temporalis
128 had a lower proportion of type I and IIA fibers (6.6% and 34.9%, respectively) than the
129 posterior deep temporalis (9.5% and 42.6%, respectively). Maxwell et al. (1979) also
130 used ATPase staining to study the temporalis muscle in *Macaca mulatta* and found a
131 higher proportion of type I fibers in the anterior than in the posterior superficial
132 temporalis (49.95% vs 20.65%). In contrast, Andreo et al. (2002), using ATPase
133 staining to study the *Cebus apella*, found no significant differences between the anterior
134 and posterior superficial temporalis. Importantly, none of these studies examined type
135 IIM fibers, which are the most frequent type in the temporalis of non-human primates
136 (Rowlerson et al., 1983). Using ATPase staining together with indirect
137 immunoperoxidase staining, Rowlerson et al. (1983) found that the central temporalis in
138 *Macaca irus* had 86% of type IIM fibers and 14% of type I fibers. A study using SDS-
139 PAGE to analyze the temporalis in *Papio anubis* found 87-88.7% expression of the
140 MyHC-IIM isoform in the anterior and 85.2-90.8% expression in the posterior
141 superficial temporalis, while the MyHC-I isoform was the only other isoform expressed
142 (Wall et al., 2013). In the deep temporalis, the MyHC-IIM isoform was expressed at
143 60.7% in males and 14.4% in females, while the MyHC-IIA isoform was expressed at
144 less than 5% and the MyHC-I isoform at 38.1% in males and 83.3% in females (Wall et
145 al., 2013).

146 To the best of our knowledge, no electromyographic or molecular studies have
147 examined the temporalis muscle in *Pan troglodytes*, which together with *Pan paniscus*,
148 is the primate that is phylogenetically most closely related to *Homo sapiens*. In order to
149 shed further light on the anatomy and function of the temporalis muscle in the common
150 chimpanzee, we have dissected the temporalis muscles of five adult chimpanzees and
151 quantified the mRNA transcripts of the MyHC-I, MyHC-IIA, MyHC-IIX, and MyHC-
152 IIM isoforms by real time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) in the
153 anterior and posterior portions of the superficial and deep temporalis as well as in the
154 sphenomandibularis portion of the temporalis. Our primary objective was to identify
155 differences in the expression patterns of the MyHC isoforms among the different parts
156 of the temporalis muscle, especially in the sphenomandibularis portion, which could be
157 associated with the functional differences identified by electromyographic studies in
158 humans and other primates.

159 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

160 **2.1 Muscle samples**

161 A total of five adult *Pan troglodytes* were included in the study – two males and
162 three females. All five chimpanzees came from Spanish zoos and had died from causes
163 unrelated to the present study. All bodies had been cryopreserved without chemical
164 fixation within 24-48 hours after death. We dissected the right temporalis muscles of
165 four of the chimpanzees and the left temporalis muscle of one female chimpanzee
166 (specimen 03), since the right temporalis of this female had been damaged in a prior
167 necroscopy. All dissections were performed by the same investigator at the Anatomy
168 Museum of the University of Valladolid (Valladolid, Spain) (Table 1).

169 The investigator removed the adipose and conjunctive tissue to identify and
170 isolate the superficial, deep, and sphenomandibularis portions of the temporalis muscle
171 (Figures 1 and 2). He then weighed each of these portions on a precision scale, with the
172 exception of specimen 03, in which it was not possible to weigh the different portions.
173 In all five specimens, the investigator also obtained 0.5-cm³ samples of the anterior and
174 posterior regions of the superficial and deep portions of the temporalis and of the
175 sphenomandibularis portion, which were cryopreserved in physiological saline solution
176 for later molecular analysis at the Unit of Human Anatomy and Embryology of the
177 University of Barcelona (Barcelona, Spain).

178 **2.2 RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis**

179 We extracted the RNA from the muscle samples using the commercial RNeasy
180 mini kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. We used a
181 NanoDrop 1000 Spectrophotometer to determine the concentration, purity and amount
182 of RNA.

183 We used TaqMan Reverse Transcription Reagent Kit (Applied Biosystems,
184 Foster City, CA) to synthesize cDNA. We performed reverse transcription using 330 ng
185 of total RNA in 10 µl of RT Buffer, 22 ml of 25 mM magnesium chloride, 20 µl dNTPs,
186 5 µl Random Hexamers, 2 µl RNase Inhibitor, 2.5 µl MultiScribe Reverse
187 Transcription and RNA sample plus RNase-free water, for a final volume of 100 µl, in
188 the following thermal cycler conditions: 10 min 25°C, 48 min 30 °C and 5 min 95 °C.

189 **2.3 Gene expression and quantification by RT-qPCR**

190 Applied Biosystems supplied primers and probes. Primers are labeled at the 5'
191 end with the reporter dye molecule FAM. MYH-I (Hs00165276_m1), MYH-IIA
192 (Hs00430042_m1), MYH-IIX (Hs00428600_m1) and MYH-IIM (Hs01385213_m1)

193 genes were analyzed. We used human ACTB (Beta Actin) gene probe labeled at the 5'
194 end with the reporter dye molecule FAM (Hs99999903_m1) as endogenous control.

195 We performed RT-qPCR in a total volume of 20 μ l in the ABI Prism 7700
196 Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems) using the following master mix
197 conditions: 10 μ l of the TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix, 1 μ l of the primers and
198 probes, 2 μ l of the cDNA and 7 μ l of the RNase-free water. We ran all samples for
199 each gene in duplicate using this thermal cycler conditions: two min 50 °C, 40x (10 min
200 95 °C, 15 s 95 °C) and 1 min 60 °C. We used genomic DNA as negative control in each
201 run. We captured fluorescent emission data and quantified mRNA concentrations by
202 using the critical threshold value and $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$. In order to avoid any possible effects of
203 post-mortem mRNA degradation, the mRNA values for each of the MyHC isoforms
204 were normalized using the endogenous gene human ACTB.

205 Finally, we calculated the percentage of expression of the mRNA transcript of
206 each of the MyHC isoforms relative to the mRNA transcript of all the MyHC isoforms
207 (%MyHC-I, %MyHC-IIA, %MyHC-IIX and %MyHC-IIM).

208 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

209 We used the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test to compare the expression
210 patterns of the MyHC isoforms mRNA in the regions analyzed of the temporalis. We
211 used PASW Statistics 18 for all statistical analyses and set statistical significance at
212 $P < 0.05$.

213 **3. RESULTS**

214 In the four specimens in which it was possible to weigh the different portions of
215 the temporalis, the average total weight of the temporalis was 120.5 ± 45.9 grams. On

216 average, the superficial temporalis accounted for $33.1\pm 9.2\%$ of the total weight, the
217 deep temporalis $57.0\pm 6.1\%$, and the sphenomandibularis $9.9\pm 3.5\%$. In all four
218 specimens, the sphenomandibularis portion was clearly separate from the deep
219 temporalis, arising from the temporal surface of the greater wing of the sphenoid bone
220 and inserting in the temporal crest of the internal surface of the coronoid process of the
221 mandible (Figures 2 and 3).

222 The expression of the mRNA transcripts of the MyHC isoforms followed the
223 pattern MyHC-IIM > MyHC-IIA > MyHC-I > MyHC-IIX in all the portions of the
224 temporalis except the posterior superficial temporalis, where the pattern was slightly
225 different, with a higher percentage of the MyHC-I isoform and a lower percentage of
226 the MyHC-IIA isoform: MyHC-IIM > MyHC-I > MyHC-IIA > MyHC-IIX. Although
227 the expression of the MyHC isoforms in the sphenomandibularis followed the general
228 pattern, the actual percentage of expression of the MyHC-IIM isoform was lower than
229 in other portions of the temporalis. This difference was significant when comparing the
230 sphenomandibularis with the anterior superficial temporalis ($33.6\pm 3.2\%$ vs $47.0\pm 10.4\%$;
231 $P=0.032$) and with the anterior deep temporalis ($33.6\pm 3.2\%$ vs $43.0\pm 4.9\%$; $P=0.016$). In
232 addition, the percentage of expression of the MyHC-IIA isoform in the
233 sphenomandibularis was higher than in other portions of the temporalis and showed a
234 trend towards significance when comparing the sphenomandibularis with the anterior
235 superficial temporalis ($31.5\pm 8.0\%$ vs $22.5\pm 5.6\%$; $P=0.056$) and with the posterior
236 superficial temporalis ($31.5\pm 8.0\%$ vs $18.6\pm 7.5\%$; $P=0.056$). Although there were no
237 significant differences between the anterior and posterior superficial temporalis in the
238 expression pattern of the mRNA transcripts of the MyHC isoforms, interestingly, the
239 percentage of expression of the MyHC-IIM isoform was higher in the anterior than in
240 the posterior superficial temporalis (47.0% vs 40.5%), while the percentage of

241 expression of the MyHC-I isoform was lower in the anterior than in the posterior
242 superficial temporalis (19.9% vs 26.9%) (Tables 2 and 3).

243 **4. DISCUSSION**

244 The average weight of the temporalis muscle in our Pan troglodytes specimens
245 (120.5 grams) is similar to that reported by other authors (111 grams) (Taylor and
246 Vinyard, 2013). Interestingly, the deep temporalis accounted for 57.0% of the total
247 weight, while the superficial temporalis accounted for only 33.1%. In Homo sapiens,
248 the temporalis has only the equivalent of the deep temporalis in Pan troglodytes without
249 the superficial portion (Oxnard and Franklin, 2008; Lee et al., 2012), and it is much
250 smaller than in Pan troglodytes, with an average weight of only 34.79 grams (Taylor
251 and Vinyard, 2013). This reduced size is the result of a generalized process of reduction
252 of the masticatory apparatus during the evolution of the genus Homo (Aiello and Dean,
253 1990). Stedman et al. (2004) attribute this reduction in size to a frameshifting mutation
254 in the MYH16 gene that inactivated the gene, causing it to lose its ability to encode the
255 MyHC-IIIM protein isoform. The loss of this protein is associated with a marked
256 reduction in the size of type II fibers and in the overall size of the masticatory muscles
257 (Stedman et al., 2004).

258 We observed a clear predominance of the mRNA transcripts of the MyHC-II
259 isoforms (>70%) in the temporalis muscle of our Pan troglodytes specimens. This
260 expression pattern is to be expected in a muscle that produces the force necessary for
261 the chimpanzee to chew food. The muscular force needed for the dietary habits and life
262 style of Pan troglodytes is reflected in the high percentage of expression of the MyHC-
263 IIM isoform, especially in the anterior superficial temporalis (47.0%). The MyHC-IIM
264 isoform has been shown to have a high ATPase activity, which is related to the capacity

265 of type IIM muscle fibers to produce a contractile force greater than that produced by
266 type IIX fibers (Hoh, 2002; Toniolo et al., 2008).

267 The functional differences between the anterior and posterior temporalis
268 observed in electromyographic studies of humans and other primates (Blanksma et al.,
269 1997; Ross and Hylander, 2000; Hylander et al., 2005; Vinyard et al., 2008; Wall et al.,
270 2008) are reflected in the mRNA transcripts of the MyHC isoforms in our Pan
271 troglodytes specimens. Although the differences were not significant, the MyHC-IIM
272 isoform was expressed at a higher percentage in the anterior than in the posterior
273 superficial temporalis (47.0% vs. 40.5%), while the MyHC-I isoform was expressed at a
274 higher percentage in the posterior than in the anterior superficial temporalis (26.9% vs.
275 19.9%). While the MyHC-IIM isoform is related to greater muscle force, the MyHC-I
276 isoform is related to a lesser degree of muscle force, a slower contraction velocity and a
277 greater resistance to fatigue. These characteristics are in line with the function of the
278 posterior superficial temporalis in recentering the mandible that has been observed in
279 electromyographic studies (Hylander et al., 2005). The functional differences observed
280 in electromyographic studies may also be related to structural differences between the
281 anterior and posterior temporalis identified in humans. The anterior temporalis has a
282 greater physiological cross sectional area than the posterior temporalis, which is related
283 to its greater capacity of force production (Van Eijden et al., 1997). Interestingly, there
284 were no differences between the anterior and posterior deep temporalis in the expression
285 patterns of the MyHC isoforms.

286 The sphenomandibularis is considered by some authors to be an independent
287 muscle in humans (Dunn et al., 1996), while others consider it to be the deep bundle of
288 the temporalis (Türp et al., 1997; Shimokawa et al., 1998; Schön-Ybarra and Bauer,
289 2001; Geers et al., 2005; Sedlmayr et al., 2009). In our five chimpanzees, we were able

290 to identify a clearly differentiated sphenomandibularis separate from the deep
291 temporalis. However, the innervation of the sphenomandibularis in our specimens was
292 not separate from the anterior temporalis; rather, it was innervated by a branch of the
293 anterior deep temporal nerve (Figure 4). The mRNA transcripts of the MyHC-IIM
294 isoform was significantly lower in the sphenomandibularis than in the anterior
295 superficial temporalis (33.6% vs. 47.0%, $P=0.032$) and in the anterior deep temporalis
296 (33.6% vs. 43.0%, $P=0.016$). This expression pattern suggests that the
297 sphenomandibularis has less capacity of force production, which may be related to its
298 role in the lateral movement and stabilization of the mandible observed in
299 electromyographic studies in *Homo sapiens* (Wood, 1986; Fuentes et al., 2012).

300 Our findings on the mRNA transcripts of the MyHC isoforms in *Pan troglodytes*
301 are markedly different from those of other investigators analyzing the percentages of
302 different types of muscle fibers by histochemistry and immunohistochemistry in
303 *Macaca mulatta* (Maxwell et al., 1979; Miller and Farias, 1988), *Macaca irus*
304 (Rowlerson et al., 1983), *Cebus apella* (Andreo et al., 2002), and *Papio anubis* (Wall et
305 al., 2013). These differences may be due to the presence of hybrid fibers expressing
306 more than one MyHC isoform, which can hinder the determination and quantification of
307 each type of fiber (Pette and Staron, 2000; Korfage and Van Eijden, 2003). Moreover,
308 the studies using ATPase staining did not identify or quantify type IIM fibers (Maxwell
309 et al., 1979; Miller and Farias, 1988; Andreo et al., 2002), while in the study by Wall et
310 al. (2013) using SDS-PAGE, the MyHC-IIX isoform was not detected. The MyHC-IIX
311 isoform had the lowest percentage of expression in our specimens, which may have
312 limited the capacity of SDS-PAGE to detect it.

313 In summary, when comparing the sphenomandibularis with the anterior
314 superficial and deep temporalis, we found significant differences in the mRNA

315 transcripts of the MyHC-IIM isoform, which may be related to the specific functional
316 role of the sphenomandibularis observed in electromyographic studies of other species
317 of primates. Moreover, we identified differences in the pattern of the mRNA transcripts
318 of the MyHC isoforms between the anterior and posterior superficial temporalis that
319 may also be related to the functional differences observed in electromyographic studies
320 of other species of primates. The fact that the differences we observed are not
321 statistically significant may be due to the small number of specimens included in our
322 study, which in turn is the result of the difficulty inherent in obtaining cadavers of
323 chimpanzees with undamaged temporalis muscles. Further studies with larger samples
324 and other analytical techniques are warranted to determine if the functional differences
325 between the anterior and posterior superficial temporalis are due to molecular or
326 structural factors or both.

327 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

328 The use of RT-qPCR to quantify the mRNA transcripts of the MyHC isoforms
329 has enabled us to identify differences between the portions of the temporalis muscle in
330 *Pan troglodytes* that may be related to functional differences observed in other species
331 of primates in electromyographic studies. These findings provide further knowledge of
332 the anatomical and functional characteristics of this muscle in the primate that is
333 phylogenetically most closely related to *Homo sapiens*. Our results can thus be
334 applicable to the fields of comparative anatomy, evolutionary anatomy, and
335 anthropology.

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345 **ETHICAL NOTE**

346 The research complied with protocols approved by the Ethical Committee for
347 Animal Experimentation of the University of Barcelona and adhered to the legal
348 requirements of Spain.

349 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

350 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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457

458 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

459 **Figure 1.** Dissection of the superficial (a) and deep (b) temporalis muscle in a male Pan
460 troglodytes.

461 **Figure 2.** Dissection of the sphenomandibularis portion of the temporalis in a female
462 Pan troglodytes.

463 **Figure 3.** Detailed image of the origin and insertion point of the sphenomandibularis.
464 The origin is in the temporal surface of the greater wing of the sphenoid bone (a) and
465 the insertion is in the temporal crest of the mandible (b).

466 **Figure 4.** Dissection of a female Pan troglodytes showing the innervation of the
467 sphenomandibularis by a branch of the anterior deep temporal nerve. (a)
468 sphenomandibularis; (b) medial pterygoid muscle; (*) anterior deep temporal nerve.

469

470 **TABLE LEGENDS**

471 **Table 1.** Characteristics and sources of specimens included in the study.

472 **Table 2.** Means and standard deviations (SD) of the expression of the MyHC isoforms
473 mRNA transcripts in the different portions of the temporalis muscle of Pan troglodytes
474 (AST=anterior superficial temporalis; PST=posterior superficial temporalis;
475 ADT=anterior deep temporalis; PDT=posterior deep temporalis;
476 SMP=sphenomandibularis portion).

477 **Table 3.** Statistical significance (P) of the expression of the MyHC isoforms mRNA
478 transcripts in the different portions of the temporalis muscle of Pan troglodytes
479 (AST=anterior superficial temporalis; PST=posterior superficial temporalis;
480 ADT=anterior deep temporalis; PDT=posterior deep temporalis;
481 SMP=sphenomandibularis portion). * Statistical significance at $P < 0.05$

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