

## MECHANICAL FACTORS IN THE INITIATION OF ECCENTRIC CONTRACTION-INDUCED INJURY IN RAT SOLEUS MUSCLE

BY GORDON L. WARREN, DEBORAH A. HAYES, DAWN A. LOWE  
AND R. B. ARMSTRONG

*From the Muscle Biology Laboratory, The University of Georgia, Athens,  
GA 30602, USA*

(Received 20 January 1992)

### SUMMARY

1. Mechanical factor(s) associated with the initiation of eccentric contraction-induced muscle injury were investigated in isolated rat soleus muscles ( $n = 180$ ; 42 protocols with 4–6 muscles per protocol). Five eccentric contractions were performed with 4 min between contractions. Three levels of peak eccentric contraction force (100, 125 and 150% of pre-injury maximal isometric tetanic tension,  $P_0$ ), length change (0.1, 0.2 and 0.3 muscle length,  $L_0$ ) and lengthening velocity (0.5, 1.0 and 1.5  $L_0/s$ ) were utilized. Force was varied with stimulation frequency (10–150 Hz). The eccentric contractions were initiated at muscle lengths of 0.85 or 0.90  $L_0$ . Following the fifth eccentric contraction, the muscle was incubated in Krebs–Ringer buffer for 60 min. Peak isometric twitch tension ( $P_T$ ),  $P_0$ , maximal rate of tension development ( $+dP/dt$ ), maximal rate of relaxation ( $-dP/dt$ ), and creatine kinase (CK) release were measured prior to the five eccentric contractions and at 15 min intervals during the incubation period. Total muscle  $[Ca^{2+}]$  was measured after 60 min incubation.

2. The mean ( $\pm$ S.E.M.) initial decline in  $P_0$  for the muscles performing the most injurious protocol was  $13.6 \pm 4.8\%$  ( $n = 6$ );  $P_0$  in control muscles immediately following performance of five isometric contractions was elevated  $1.2 \pm 1.0\%$  ( $n = 8$ ). These means were different at probability,  $p = 0.005$ . Mean [ATP] in muscles immediately following the isometric control and most injurious protocols, respectively, were  $16.30 \pm 1.49$  and  $19.84 \pm 1.38 \mu\text{mol/g dry wt}$  ( $p = 0.229$ ).

3. Decrements in  $P_0$ ,  $P_T$ ,  $+dP/dt$ , and  $-dP/dt$  immediately after the injury protocol were related most closely to the peak forces produced during the eccentric contractions; greater initial declines in  $P_0$ ,  $+dP/dt$  and  $-dP/dt$  were also observed at higher lengthening velocities independent of peak force. Slow declines in  $P_0$  and  $-dP/dt$  during the 60 min incubation following the injury protocol were greatest for muscles performing contractions at the longer initial length. CK release was independent of all mechanical factors with the exception of lengthening velocity. CK activity at 45 and 60 min into the incubation period was greater for muscles lengthened at the highest velocity used (1.5  $L_0/s$ ). Mean total muscle  $[Ca^{2+}]$  for muscles performing the eccentric contractions was elevated by 38% over isometric

control muscles but the elevation was unrelated to any of the four mechanical factors.

4. These data support the hypothesis that eccentric contraction-induced injury is initiated by mechanical factors, with muscle tension playing the dominant role. They also demonstrate that specific mechanical factors differentially affect the various injury criteria, i.e. reductions in contractile performance were most related to produced forces, and CK release was most related to lengthening velocity.

#### INTRODUCTION

Exercise-induced muscle fibre microinjury has been hypothesized to be initiated by disruption of the force-generating and/or -transmitting structures and loss of sarcolemma integrity followed by a calcium overload phase resulting in an influx of extracellular calcium ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) that activates several intrinsic degradative pathways (Armstrong, 1990; Armstrong, Warren & Warren, 1991). The specific event that serves to initiate exercise-induced muscle fibre injury is not known. It is generally recognized that this type of injury is associated with eccentric contractions (for review, see Armstrong, 1984; Ebbeling & Clarkson, 1989; Stauber, 1989); some have hypothesized that one or more mechanical aspects of the eccentric contraction that distinguish it from isometric or concentric contractions may be responsible for initiation of the injury. For example, the degree of eccentric contraction-induced injury has been reported to be related to the specific tension produced during the contraction (Katz, 1939; McCully & Faulkner, 1985, 1986), which can be twice that produced during an isometric or concentric contraction (Wolledge, Curtin & Homsher, 1985). It has also been reported that the degree of injury produced during eccentric contraction is related to the muscle length prior to the contraction (Katz, 1939; Newham, Jones, Ghosh & Aurora, 1988). There are, however, no previous investigations of eccentric contraction-induced injury that have systematically evaluated the role of multiple mechanical factors in inducing damage. Also, it is not clear from the earlier studies whether the produced tension and initial length influence the initiation of the injury process or exert their effects on subsequent stages of the injury process.

The main objective of this study was to determine the mechanical factor(s) associated with the initiation of eccentric contraction-induced muscle injury by manipulating four primary factors (peak eccentric contraction force, initial muscle length, length change, and lengthening velocity). By using an *in vitro* rat soleus muscle model, the confounding effects of phagocytic processes on the initial and early events in the injury process were eliminated. Also, the number of eccentric contractions used in the injury protocol was kept to a minimum in order to minimize metabolic costs and the potential contribution of autogenetic processes to the injury during performance of the injury protocol.

The primary criterion used to quantify injury was a reduction in maximal isometric tension ( $P_0$ ), which has previously been shown to occur in muscles injured by eccentric contractions (McCully & Faulkner, 1985; Warren, Jenkins, Packer, Witt & Armstrong, 1992). Reduction in peak isometric twitch tension ( $P_T$ ) and maximal rates of tetanic tension development ( $+dP/dt$ ) and relaxation ( $-dP/dt$ ) were also measured. Reductions in  $P_0$  also result from metabolic deficiencies, but decreases in

muscle function in the present study were attributed to injury because the muscles did not recover over time following the injury protocol.

A second objective was to provide insight into the site of structural failure. It was hypothesized that the sarcolemma would be a site of failure and that this failure would lead to elevations in muscle  $[Ca^{2+}]$  and loss of creatine kinase (CK) activity. There is evidence to suggest that most of the energy lost during a stretch-shortening cycle is absorbed in the sarcolemma (Tidball, 1986; Tidball & Daniel, 1986) and that most of the passive tension at longer muscle fibre lengths ( $> 140$ – $150\%$  of resting muscle length,  $L_0$ ) is borne by the sarcolemma (Casella, 1951; Higuchi & Umazume, 1986; Rapoport, 1972).

## METHODS

### *Animals*

Untrained female Sprague-Dawley rats were used in this study. The age of the rats was  $28 \pm 4$  (mean  $\pm$  s.d.) days, and their body mass was  $48.2 \pm 3.9$  g. The rats were housed individually at  $23^\circ\text{C}$  with a 12 h dark-light cycle. Food was restricted so as to limit daily body mass gains to 1–2 g; food restriction was begun at 22 days of age. The rats were anaesthetized with sodium pentobarbitone (65 mg/kg i.p.) with supplemental doses administered as required. The animal care procedures and experimental protocol employed met the guidelines set by the American Physiological Society and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at The University of Georgia.

### *Study I: role of mechanical factors*

#### *In vitro muscle preparation*

Gastrocnemius and plantaris muscles were carefully removed exposing the soleus muscle. Soleus muscle length ( $L_0$ ) was measured during maximal dorsi- and plantar flexion of the ankle;  $L_0$  was taken as the average of these two values. Soleus  $L_0$  determined by this procedure coincides with the value determined by maximization of twitch tension. Mean ( $\pm$  s.d.)  $L_0$  for all muscles was  $15.00 \pm 0.69$  mm. Mean blotted dry mass of the muscles at the end of the respective experiments was  $16.87 \pm 2.82$  mg. Muscle mass ranged from 8.91 to 26.01 mg, thus meeting the criterion of Segal & Faulkner (1985) for maintaining viability of an *in vitro* soleus muscle preparation at  $37^\circ\text{C}$ .

The muscle was mounted in a 7 ml glass chamber and maintained at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  with a thermoregulated water-jacket. The glass chamber contained a Krebs-Ringer bicarbonate buffer (pH 7.5) with 144 mM  $\text{Na}^+$ , 129 mM  $\text{Cl}^-$ , 6 mM  $\text{K}^+$ , 1 mM  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , 1 mM  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , 1 mM  $\text{PO}_4^{2-}$ , 25 mM  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , 2.5 mM  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , 10 mM glucose, and 0.10 U/ml insulin and was equilibrated with a 95%  $\text{O}_2$  5%  $\text{CO}_2$  gas. The distal tendon was attached by silk suture to a stainless-steel support, while the proximal tendon was attached by suture to the lever arm of a position feedback servomotor (Cambridge Technology model 300B; Cambridge, MA, USA). Length and force outputs from the Cambridge Technology unit were sampled at 500–1000 Hz using a Metrabyte DAS-16 interface board (Taunton, MA, USA) and a 80286-16 MHz or 80386-33 MHz microcomputer. Muscle length in the glass chamber was set using a micrometer and a sighting telescope mounted to a micrometer stage.

The isolated muscles were stimulated with 36 gauge platinum wire electrodes using a Grass S48 stimulator and SIU5 isolation unit (Quincy, MA, USA). The electrodes ran parallel to the muscle and were located  $\sim 1$  mm from the muscle surface. Isometric twitch stimulation was performed using a 0.5 ms 150 V square-wave pulse. Isometric tetanic stimulation was performed using a 400 ms train of 0.5 ms 150 V pulses at 130 Hz.

#### *Pre-injury measurements*

The general experimental protocol, including set-up and pre-injury measurements, injury protocol, and incubation period, is presented in Fig. 1. Within 15 min of entering the Krebs-Ringer buffer, the muscle performed two isometric twitches, separated by 1 min. Mean ( $\pm$  s.d.) peak tension ( $P_T$ ) on the second twitch was  $86.7 \pm 14.8$  mN. One minute after the second twitch, the muscle performed an isometric tetanus;  $P_0$ ,  $+dP/dt$ , and  $-dP/dt$  were measured. The mean  $P_0$  was  $328.8 \pm 48.4$  mN. Mean  $P_0$  normalized to muscle fibre cross-sectional area was  $22.19 \pm 2.53$  N/cm<sup>2</sup>. This normalization assumed that muscle fibre length was 71% of  $L_0$  (Claffin & Faulkner, 1985). The mean  $+dP/dt$  and  $-dP/dt$  were  $7.141 \pm 1.231$  and  $6.320 \pm 1.109$  N/s, respectively.

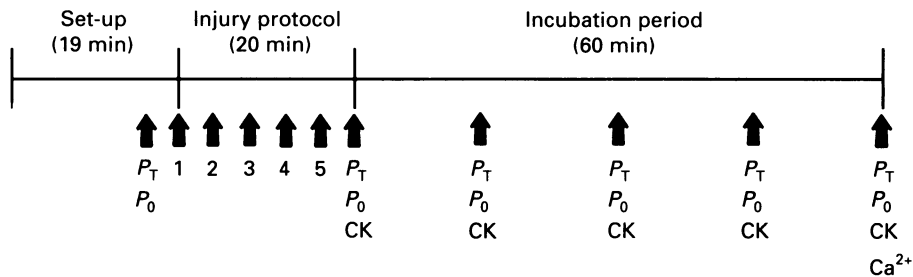


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram indicating the ordering of the protocol and experimental measurements (isometric twitch,  $P_T$ ; isometric tetanus,  $P_0$ ; creatine kinase assay, CK; and total muscle  $[Ca^{2+}]$  assay,  $Ca^{2+}$ ).

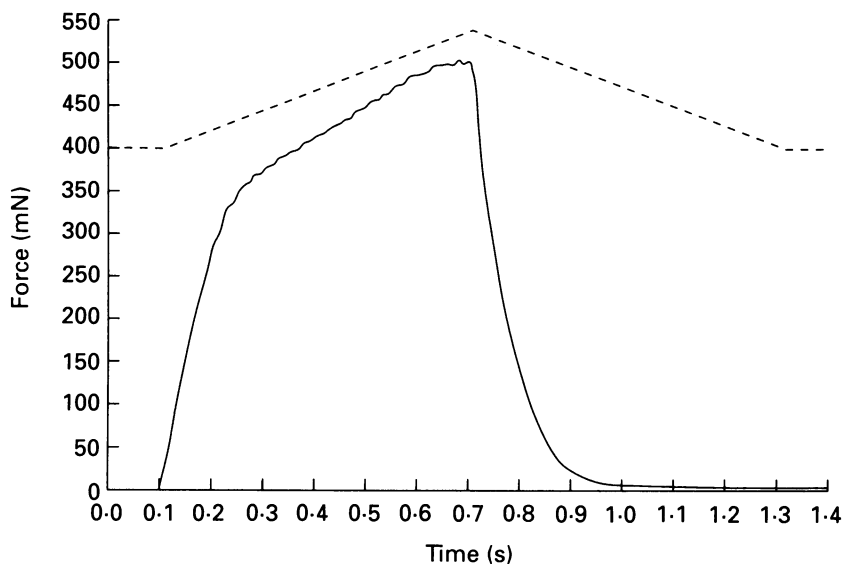


Fig. 2. Representative force and muscle length tracing from one eccentric contraction in a typical injury protocol. The top dashed curve is unitless with respect to the  $y$ -axis and shows the muscle length change (velocity =  $0.5 L_0/s$ ; length change =  $0.30 L_0$ ; initial length =  $0.90 L_0$ ). The continuous curve is muscle force (peak force =  $150\% P_0$ ) attained with a stimulation frequency of 60 Hz. In this contraction, stimulation commenced at 0.1 s and ended at 0.7 s.

#### Muscle injury protocol

Immediately following the isometric tetanus, muscle length was adjusted to the eccentric contraction starting length. The muscle was then stretched passively using the same length change and lengthening velocity as used during the following eccentric contractions. Peak passive tension ranged from 2.4 to 273.6 mN (0.7–111.3% of pre-injury  $P_0$ ). Length change and lengthening velocity were controlled by computer using Laboratory Technologies Notebook data acquisition/process control software (Wilmington, MA, USA) and the Metrabyte DAS-16 interface board. A constant velocity movement was achieved by applying a ramping DC voltage change into the length input port of the Cambridge Technology unit.

The injury protocol, which consisted of five eccentric contractions, was then performed; the first began 4 min after the isometric tetanus. Figure 2 shows a typical force tracing obtained during an eccentric contraction. The muscle was stimulated only during the lengthening phase of the

contraction. At the end of the stimulation, the muscle was allowed to shorten to the starting length at the same velocity used in the lengthening phase of the contraction. There was a 4 min rest interval between contractions. The 4 min interval was estimated to be more than adequate for complete  $O_2$  consumption recovery using a  $Q_{10}$  (temperature coefficient) of 2.0 and the rate constant determined for mouse soleus (0.6 min at 20 °C) (Crow & Kushmerick, 1982). Mechanical measures

TABLE 1. Range of eccentric contraction mechanical measures for individual muscles ( $n = 180$ )

Negative work	56.6–694.7	mJ/g protein
Work absorbed by muscle	18.7–597.7	mJ/g protein
Negative power	0.259–3.100	W/g protein
Tension–time integral	70.6–1620.6	mN m s/g protein
Passive tension	0.7–111.3	% pre-injury $P_0$
Peak active tension	15.3–148.6	% pre-injury $P_0$
Peak active tension (normalized to fraction of maximal thick–thin filament overlap)	47.7–428.7	% pre-injury $P_0$ per fraction of maximal overlap

Values are means of the five eccentric contractions for an individual muscle. Negative work equals total force integrated over length change during the lengthening phase. Work absorbed by muscle equals negative work minus total force integrated over length change during the passive shortening phase. Negative power equals negative work divided by stimulus duration. To convert from protein mass to muscle mass, multiply by 5.87 (s.d. = 0.88).

acquired during the eccentric contractions include work done on the muscle (i.e. negative work), work absorbed by the muscle (i.e. negative work minus the work done by the muscle on the lever arm during the subsequent shortening phase), negative power (i.e. negative work divided by stimulus duration), tension–time integral, and peak active tension (i.e. peak tension attained during the first eccentric contraction minus the peak tension attained during the preceding passive stretch). Work was calculated from total force integrated over length change. In addition, the peak active tension normalized to the fraction of maximal thick–thin filament overlap at the final muscle length was estimated. Thick–thin filament overlap was estimated from the soleus length–active tension curve determined in preliminary experiments. Table 1 provides the range of these six mechanical measures observed in this study.

A factorial experimental design was employed in this study. Four factors (peak tension on the first eccentric contraction, lengthening velocity, length change, and initial length) were used. Three levels of peak tension (100, 125 and 150% of pre-injury  $P_0$ ), lengthening velocity (0.5, 1.0 and 1.5  $L_0/s$ ), and length change (0.1, 0.2 and 0.3  $L_0$ ) were used. Contractions were initiated at a muscle length of 0.85 or 0.90  $L_0$ . Peak force during the first eccentric contraction was controlled by varying stimulation frequency (range, 10–150 Hz). Actual peak force values closely approximated target values; the mean ( $\pm$  s.e.m.) actual peak force values for the three levels were  $100.4 \pm 1.3$ ,  $125.9 \pm 0.9$  and  $152.4 \pm 1.3$  %  $P_0$ . Because we were not aware of data for *in vivo* lengthening velocities in rat soleus muscle, lengthening velocities were chosen to be comparable to those reported for cat soleus muscle during treadmill running (0.9–1.7  $L_0/s$ ) (Goslow, Reinking & Stuart, 1973; Walmsley, Hodgson & Burke, 1978). The levels of initial length and length change were chosen to maintain muscle length within the normal anatomical range (78–122% of  $L_0$  as determined in preliminary experiments).

Because a peak eccentric contraction force of 150%  $P_0$  could only be attained during length changes of 0.30  $L_0$ , the experimental design was not completely balanced. Thus, there were forty-two protocols with four experimental muscles per protocol except for the protocols requiring peak eccentric contraction tensions of 150%  $P_0$ . In these six protocols, there were six experimental muscles per protocol. The total number of muscles used in Study I was 180. The order in which the protocols were performed was completely randomized with respect to peak eccentric contraction force, lengthening velocity, and length change but not with respect to initial length. All protocols utilizing an initial length of 0.85  $L_0$  were performed first.

*Incubation period*

Immediately following the fifth eccentric contraction, muscle length was reset to  $L_0$ . The muscle performed an isometric twitch 4 min after the fifth contraction. One minute later, an isometric tetanus was performed. In between the twitch and tetanus, a 50–100  $\mu$ l sample of the Krebs–Ringer buffer was taken and assayed for CK activity at 25 °C using a commercial kit (Sigma 45-5; St Louis, MO, USA). This sequence of events (twitch, buffer sampling and tetanus) was repeated four more times at 15 min intervals and constituted the incubation period. At the end of the 60 min incubation period, the muscle was freed from visible fat and connective tissue, blotted dry, weighed, and then frozen in liquid nitrogen. The muscle was stored at  $-80$  °C until protein and total muscle  $[Ca^{2+}]$  analyses were performed.

*Muscle analyses*

Each muscle was homogenized in 2 ml of ice-cold 0.033 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) using 2 ml glass tissue grinders or a mechanical homogenizer (Biospec Tissue Tearor; Bartlesville, OK, USA). Total protein content was measured using the Lowry method (Sigma Protein Assay Kit, procedure No. P5656). Total muscle  $[Ca^{2+}]$  was determined using a  $Ca^{2+}$  analyser (Precision Systems Calcette; Natick, MA, USA). This analyser incorporates a fluorometric titration method to measure  $[Ca^{2+}]$  in aqueous solutions. A 0.5 ml sample of the muscle homogenate was adjusted to pH 5 using 10% acetic acid. The sample was then centrifuged at 11 600  $g$  for 5 min and the supernatant assayed in triplicate for  $[Ca^{2+}]$ . Total muscle  $[Ca^{2+}]$  values were not obtained on the protocols using an initial muscle length of  $0.85 L_0$  because of  $Ca^{2+}$  contamination occurring in the homogenization of muscles when using the glass tissue grinders.

The test–retest reliability of the  $Ca^{2+}$  analyser was determined on six muscle homogenates on three separate days. The muscle homogenate  $[Ca^{2+}]$  values spanned the range previously seen in this laboratory (0.4–2.2 p.p.m.). The intraclass correlation coefficient for the three trials was 0.99. In addition, the six samples were assayed using plasma emission analysis (Mark II Jarrell-Ash 965; Franklin, MA, USA). The mean ( $\pm$  s.d.) difference between the two  $[Ca^{2+}]$  measurement techniques was  $0.05 \pm 0.04$  p.p.m. with the Calcette giving the higher value on average.

Two muscles that performed the most injurious protocol (i.e. defined as the protocol eliciting the greatest decrement in  $P_0$ ; peak eccentric contraction force = 150%  $P_0$ ; lengthening velocity =  $1.5 L_0/s$ ; length change =  $0.30 L_0$ , initial length =  $0.90 L_0$ ; stimulus duration = 200 ms; stimulation frequency = 35 Hz) and two unstimulated muscles were prepared for transmission electron microscopic analysis. Following the 60 min incubation period, the muscles were placed in one-half strength Karnovsky's fixative for 20 min at room temperature. Each of the muscles was then teased into eight fibre bundles and fixed for another 2.5 h at room temperature. The fibre bundles were then postfixed in 1% osmium tetroxide for 1 h, dehydrated in a graded ethanol series, and embedded in Epon/Araldite. Thin sections were cut on a microtome (Sorvall MT-2; Norwalk, CT, USA), stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate, and viewed under an electron microscope (JEOL 100CX II; Tokyo, Japan); thirty to fifty sections from each muscle were examined.

*Study II: assessment of metabolic status*

The purpose of this study was to determine if the decrements in muscle function following the muscle injury protocol were associated with a reduction in [ATP]. An attenuation in muscle [ATP] immediately after the injury protocol would support a possible metabolic rather than mechanical etiology for the reduction in  $P_0$ . The most injurious protocol was performed on eight muscles. Four minutes after the fifth eccentric contraction, the muscles were quickly frozen using tongs cooled to the temperature of liquid nitrogen and then stored at  $-80$  °C. The muscles were freeze-dried overnight and then assayed for [ATP] using the technique of Lowry & Passonneau (1972).

Muscles performing the most injurious protocol were compared against sixteen control muscles that performed five isometric contractions (initial length =  $0.90 L_0$ ; stimulus duration = 200 ms; stimulation frequency = 130 Hz) instead of the five eccentric contractions. Eight of the sixteen control muscles were quick frozen 4 min after the fifth isometric contraction and assayed for [ATP]. The other eight control muscles performed the isometric contraction protocol and were incubated for 60 min. The measurements (mechanical measurements, CK release, and total muscle  $[Ca^{2+}]$ ) made on these control muscles were the same as described in Study I. Unstimulated contralateral muscles for each of the experimental muscles (both eccentric and isometric control) were quick frozen *in situ* and assayed for [ATP].

*Statistical analyses*

Stepwise regression analyses were employed to determine which combination of mechanical factors accounted for the most variance in each of the muscle function measures. The  $\alpha$ -levels selected for a factor to be entered into and removed from a regression equation were 0.10 and 0.05, respectively. The independent variables included in the analyses were peak tension on the first eccentric contraction, lengthening velocity, length change, initial length, final length, negative work, work absorbed by the muscle, negative power, and tension-time integral. The values used for negative work, work absorbed by the muscle, negative power, and tension-time integral were the means of the five eccentric contractions. First- and second-order terms for peak tension on the first eccentric contraction, lengthening velocity, length change, and final length were used.

The significance of differences among mechanical factor level means for the muscle function measures was evaluated using one-way ANOVA. When significant differences were found, Student-Neuman-Keuls *post hoc* tests were performed to determine means that were significantly different. CK release over the incubation period and the change in the muscle function measures from 15 to 60 min during the incubation period were evaluated using one-way ANOVA with repeated measures and polynomial transformation. Means of experimental measures for muscles performing the most injurious protocol were compared against means for the isometric control muscles using Student *t* tests. Change score values (i.e. value at one point in time minus value at second point in time divided by the pre-injury value) were utilized for the stepwise regression, one-way ANOVA without repeated measures, *post hoc* tests, and *t* tests.

Because the variance in peak eccentric contraction tension and work absorbed by the muscle explained a significant proportion of the variance in several muscle function measures, change-point linear regression (Jones & Molitoris, 1984) was employed to determine the levels of these two factors above which a marked decrement in muscle function occurred. With the exception of the change-point linear regression, all analyses were performed using PC-SAS (SAS Institute; Cary, NC, USA). Change-point linear regression was performed using a BASIC program provided by Jones & Molitoris (1984). An  $\alpha$ -level of 0.05 was used for all tests of significance. Values reported in the results are means  $\pm$  standard errors.

## RESULTS

*Mechanical injury markers*

There were three relatively distinct phases in the response of the mechanical injury markers ( $P_0$ ,  $P_T$ ,  $-dP/dt$  and  $+dP/dt$ ) over the 60 min incubation period. The first phase, termed the initial decline, refers to the change in muscle function from pre-injury to 0 min into the incubation. From 0 to 15 min into the incubation, there was a partial recovery in several measures of muscle function; this phase is termed the recovery phase. From 15 to 60 min into the incubation, muscle function deteriorated at a relatively slow rate; this phase is termed the slow decline. Figure 3 illustrates the three phases observed for  $P_0$ . The response of the injury markers in each of the three phases was independent of muscle mass, rat age or body mass.

*Initial decline*

Table 2 contains the results of the stepwise regression analyses for the initial declines in  $P_0$ ,  $P_T$ ,  $+dP/dt$  and  $-dP/dt$ . The factors negative work, negative power and final length did not explain a significant proportion of the variance in the initial decline of  $P_0$ ,  $P_T$ ,  $+dP/dt$  or  $-dP/dt$  in this phase or any other phase, so they are not included in the table.

Peak total tension during the first eccentric contraction was the dominant factor in explaining the initial declines in the four measures (Table 2). As shown in Fig. 3,

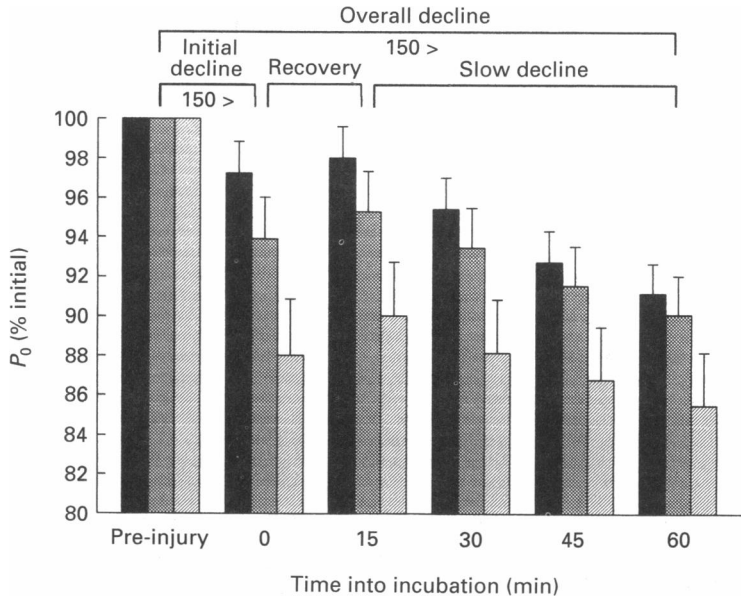


Fig. 3. The effect of altering peak eccentric contraction force on the percentage changes in maximal isometric tetanic force ( $P_0$ ) following the injury protocol. Mean initial pre-injury values were: 100%  $P_0$  (filled bar), 336.1 mN; 125%  $P_0$  (cross-hatched bar), 327.1 mN; 150%  $P_0$  (hatched bar), 318.0 mN. Error bars are equal to 1 s.e.m. The subdivision of the overall decline in  $P_0$  into three phases is indicated above the graph. The numbers below the horizontal lines (i.e. '150 >') represent factor levels that were significantly different from other factor levels for percentage changes in  $P_0$  (e.g. the reduction in  $P_0$  from pre-injury to 0 min into the incubation was greater for muscles performing different contractions eliciting 150%  $P_0$  than for muscles performing 100% or 125%  $P_0$  contractions).

TABLE 2. Results of the stepwise regression analyses on the percentage initial decline (pre-injury to 0 min post-injury) of the measured variables

Partial coefficients of determination for

Variable	Peak total tension	Initial length	Length change	Lengthening velocity	Work absorbed by muscle	Tension-time integral	Model $r^2$	$p$
$P_0$	0.1112*	—	—	0.0763*	—	—	0.1875	0.0001
$P_T$	0.3003*	—	0.0304*	—	—	0.0229	0.3536	0.0001
+dP/dt	0.1391*	—	—	0.0176	0.0534	0.0408	0.2509	0.0001
-dP/dt	0.0358*	—	—	0.0429*	—	—	0.0787	0.0007

\* Values are partial coefficients of determination for second-order terms. Dashes indicate that the given factor did not significantly contribute to the variance in initial declines for the respective variables.

muscles performing 150%  $P_0$  eccentric contractions exhibited a greater  $P_0$  initial decline in  $P_0$  (12.1% vs. 2.5–5.9%). The results from the change-point regression analyses indicate that the initial decline in  $P_0$  was independent of the peak eccentric contraction force level for peak eccentric contraction forces eliciting less than



112.9% of pre-injury  $P_0$ . For peak eccentric contraction forces exceeding 112.9% of pre-injury  $P_0$ , the initial decline in  $P_0$  was linearly related to the peak eccentric contraction force; above the threshold,  $P_0$  declined by 2.7% for every 10%  $P_0$  increase in peak eccentric contraction force. The peak active tension (total tension – passive

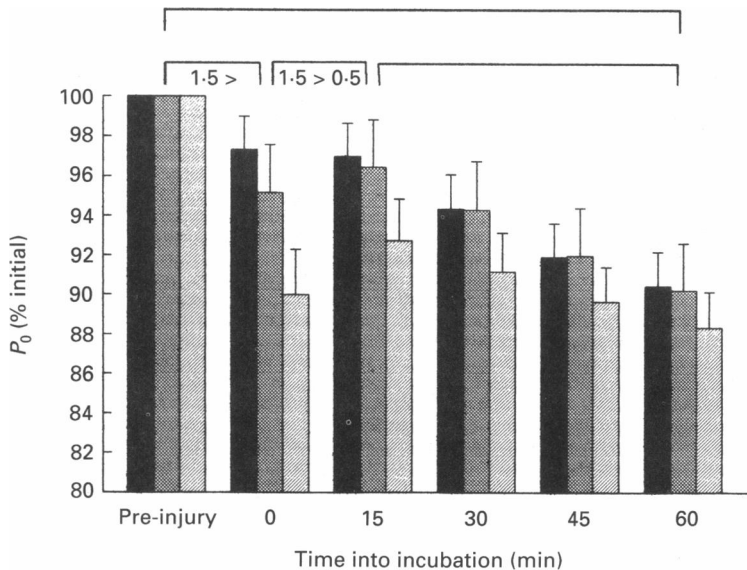


Fig. 4. The effect of altering lengthening velocity on the percentage changes in maximal isometric tetanic force ( $P_0$ ) following the injury protocol. Mean initial pre-injury values were: 0.5  $L_0/s$  (filled bar), 335.3 mN; 1.0  $L_0/s$  (cross-hatched bar), 318.6 mN; 1.5  $L_0/s$  (hatched bar), 332.5 mN. Numbers below horizontal lines are the same as described for Fig. 3.

tension) produced in the first eccentric contraction was unrelated to the reduction in  $P_0$  ( $r^2 = 0.019$ ,  $p = 0.063$ ). However, when peak active tension was normalized to the degree of overlap at the final muscle length, the relationship was significant ( $r^2 = 0.063$ ,  $p = 0.0007$ ). There was also a weak relation between the peak tension elicited during the passive stretch and the initial decline in  $P_0$  ( $r^2 = 0.027$ ,  $p = 0.028$ ).

The initial declines in  $P_T$  for muscles performing 150, 125 and 100%  $P_0$  eccentric contractions were 21.5, 8.0 and 0.9%, respectively (all significantly different from each other). The initial decline in  $+dP/dt$  for the muscles performing 150%  $P_0$  contractions (11.7%) was significantly greater than that for the lower two force levels (0.2–4.1%). The initial decline in  $-dP/dt$  for the muscles performing 150%  $P_0$  contractions (10.4%) was significantly greater than that for the muscles performing the 100%  $P_0$  contractions (4.3%).

Lengthening velocity, tension–time integral, length change, and work absorbed by the muscle explained a lesser proportion of the variance in the initial decline of the mechanical measures (Table 2). Initial length had no effect on the initial decline of any of the four variables. Figure 4 depicts the effect of lengthening velocity on the initial decline in  $P_0$ . Muscles lengthened at a velocity of 1.5  $L_0/s$  exhibited a greater

initial decline in  $P_0$  than did muscles lengthened at the two slower velocities (9.6 *vs.* 2.7–5.0%). The highest lengthening velocity also elicited a greater initial decline in  $-dP/dt$  (9.8 *vs.* 4.1–5.0%). The initial declines in  $+dP/dt$  for muscles lengthened at 1.0 and 1.5  $L_0/s$  (5.4–5.7%) were significantly greater than that for muscles lengthened at 0.5  $L_0/s$  (1.2%).

TABLE 3. Results of the stepwise regression analyses on the percentage recovery (0–15 min incubation) of the measured variables

Variable	Partial coefficients of determination for							Model $r^2$	$p$
	Peak total tension	Initial length	Length change	Lengthening velocity	Work absorbed by muscle	Tension-time integral			
$P_0$	—	0.0940	—	0.0650	—	—	0.1589	0.0001	
$P_T$	—	—	0.0568	—	—	—	0.0568	0.0013	
$+dP/dt$	—	0.0328	—	0.0484	—	—	0.0812	0.0006	
$-dP/dt$	—	0.1379	—	0.0235*	—	—	0.1614	0.0001	

\* Values are partial coefficients of determination for second-order terms. Dashes indicate that the given factor did not significantly contribute to the variance in recovery for the respective variables.

The initial decline in  $P_T$  and  $+dP/dt$  was less for the eccentric contractions with the highest tension-time integrals. If all other variables in the regression equation were held constant, the protocol eliciting the lowest mean tension-time integral (0.094 N m s/g protein) would be predicted to have a 10.5% greater reduction in  $P_T$  than that predicted for the protocol eliciting the highest mean tension-time integral (1.376 N m s/g protein). For  $+dP/dt$ , the reduction would be predicted to be 36.2% greater for the lower mean tension-time integral.

Greater initial declines in  $+dP/dt$  were observed in protocols with greater amounts of work absorption by the muscle. If all other variables in the regression equation were held constant, the protocol eliciting the highest mean work absorption (0.502 J/g protein) would be predicted to have a 24.8% greater reduction in  $+dP/dt$  than that predicted for the protocol eliciting the lowest mean work absorption (0.030 J/g protein).

### Recovery

Initial length and lengthening velocity were the dominant factors in explaining the recovery (from 0 to 15 min of the incubation period) of muscle function (Table 3). Figure 4 illustrates the effect of lengthening velocity on  $P_0$  during the recovery phase. The recovery in  $P_0$  for muscles lengthened at 1.5  $L_0/s$  was 2.7%. Muscles lengthened at 0.5  $L_0/s$  experienced a slight decrease in  $P_0$  (0.1%). The recovery in  $-dP/dt$  was greater for the muscles lengthened at 1.5  $L_0/s$  (3.2 to 93% of pre-injury levels) compared to the two slower velocities (0.2–0.9 to 95–96% of pre-injury levels). The recovery in  $+dP/dt$  was smaller for the muscles lengthened at 0.5  $L_0/s$  (4.8 to 103% of pre-injury levels) compared to the two faster velocities (7.5–8.2 to 101–103% of pre-injury levels).

Muscles that performed eccentric contractions at an initial muscle length of  $0.85 L_0$  exhibited a 2.7% increase in  $P_0$  during this phase while muscles that performed contractions at  $0.90 L_0$  exhibited a 0.1% decrease in  $P_0$  (Fig. 5). The muscles that began contractions at the shorter muscle length exhibited a 4.0% increase (to 98%

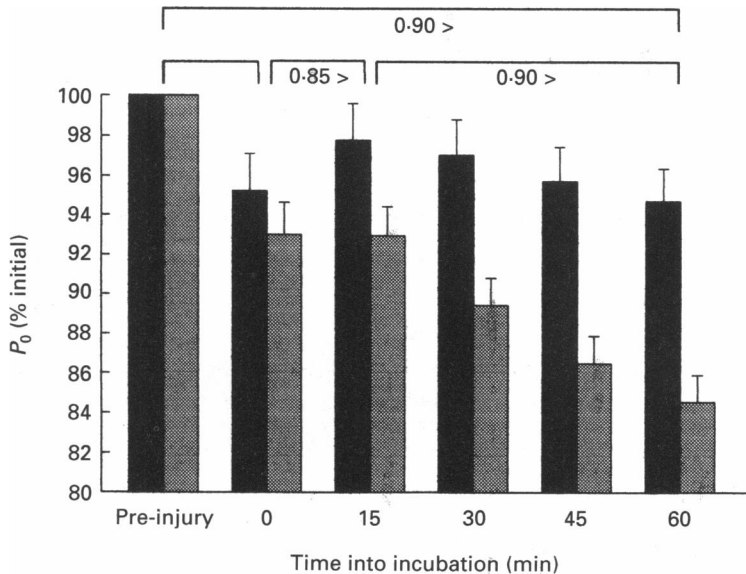


Fig. 5. The effect of altering initial muscle length on the percentage changes in maximal isometric tetanic force ( $P_0$ ) following the injury protocol. Mean initial pre-injury values were:  $0.85 L_0$  (filled bar), 325.4 mN;  $0.90 L_0$  (cross-hatched bar), 325.9 mN. Numbers below horizontal lines are the same as described for Fig. 3.

of pre-injury levels) in  $-dP/dt$ , while muscles performing contractions at the longer length exhibited a 1.1% decrease (to 91% of pre-injury levels). For  $+dP/dt$ , the increases were 8.0% (to 105% of pre-injury levels) and 5.7% (to 104% of pre-injury levels) for muscles beginning contractions at  $0.85$  and  $0.90 L_0$ , respectively.

Length change played a minor role in accounting for the recovery in  $P_T$ . Muscles performing length changes of  $0.1 L_0$  exhibited increases in  $P_T$  of 3.2% (to 101% of pre-injury levels) compared with increases of 6.3–6.5% (to 93–99% of pre-injury levels) for the  $0.2$  and  $0.3 L_0$  length changes.

#### Slow decline

The factor that accounted for most of the variance in the slow decline (i.e. change from 15 to 60 min into the incubation) in  $P_0$  and  $-dP/dt$  was initial length. As shown in Fig. 5, the slow decline in  $P_0$  for muscles with initial lengths of  $0.90 L_0$  was 2.7-fold greater than for muscles with initial lengths of  $0.85 L_0$  (8.4% vs. 3.1%). The slow decline in  $-dP/dt$  was greater for muscles with initial lengths of  $0.90 L_0$  (10.9 to 81% of pre-injury levels) compared with that for muscles with initial lengths of  $0.85 L_0$  (4.9 to 93% of pre-injury levels). The slow decline observed in  $P_T$  and  $+dP/dt$  was independent of any mechanical factor.

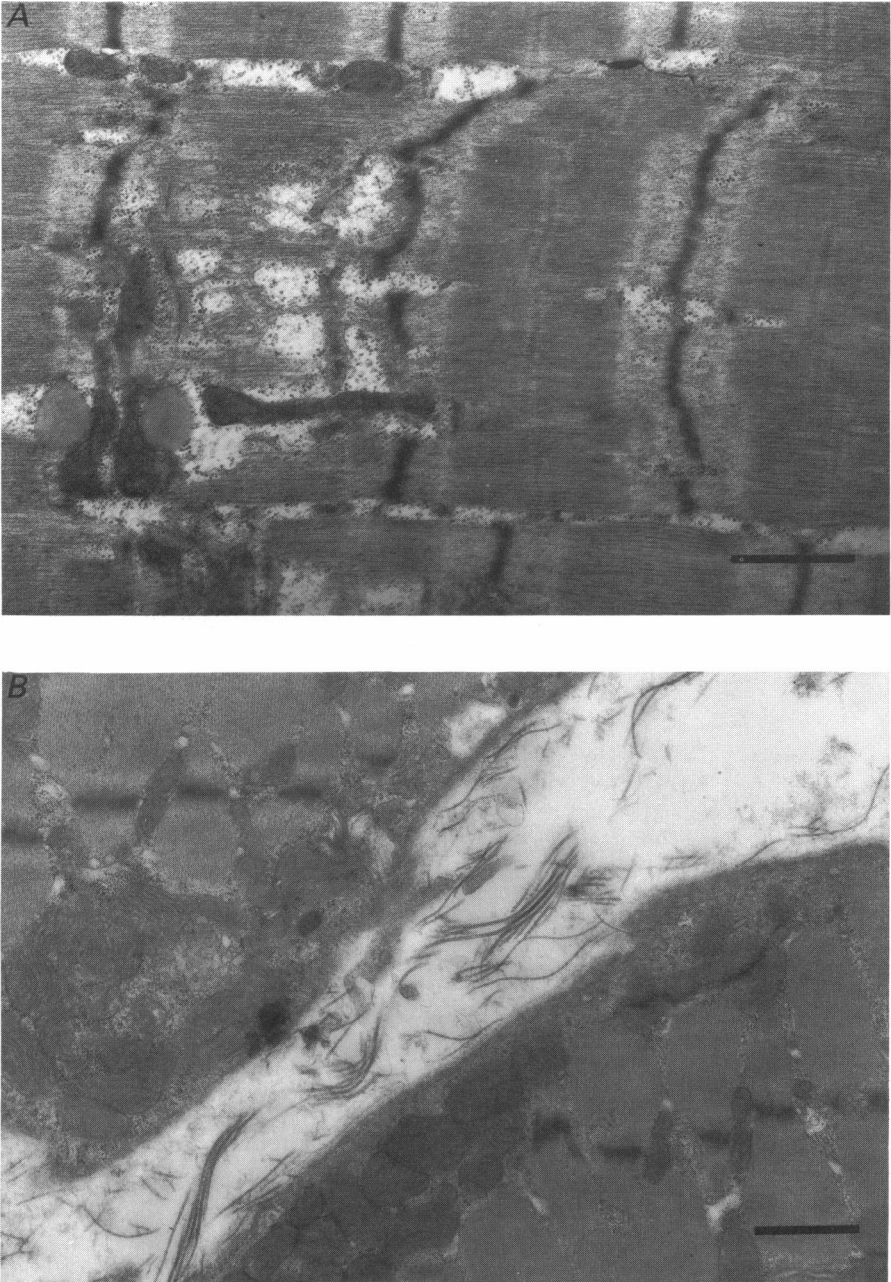


Fig. 6. *A*, transmission electron micrograph illustrating sarcomeric dissolution and Z-line streaming in a muscle that performed the most injurious protocol. The scale bar represents  $1\ \mu\text{m}$ . *B*, transmission electron micrograph illustrating basement membrane disruption in a muscle that performed the most injurious protocol. The scale bar represents  $1\ \mu\text{m}$ .

### *Comparison against isometric control muscles*

The mean initial decline in  $P_0$  for the six muscles performing the most injurious protocol equalled  $13.6 \pm 4.8\%$ . For the eight control muscles that performed isometric contractions, the mean  $P_0$  at 0 min into the incubation period was elevated by  $1.2 \pm 1.0\%$  over the mean baseline  $P_0$ . The difference in the means was significant at  $p = 0.005$ . The overall decline in  $P_0$  after the 60 min incubation was also greater ( $p = 0.007$ ) for the muscles performing the most injurious protocol ( $18.3 \pm 1.8\%$ ) than for the control muscles ( $7.2 \pm 2.2\%$ ).

The greater initial decline in  $P_0$  for the most injurious protocol could not be explained by a lower [ATP]. The mean [ATP] for the muscles performing the most injurious protocol and the isometric control muscles were  $19.84 \pm 1.38$  and  $16.30 \pm 1.49 \mu\text{mol/g}$  dry weight, respectively. These means were not significantly different ( $p = 0.229$ ). The mean [ATP] differences (i.e. experimental muscle [ATP] minus unstimulated contralateral muscle [ATP]) for the muscles performing the most injurious protocol and the isometric control muscles were  $+2.21 \pm 0.73$  and  $-0.55 \pm 1.12 \mu\text{mol/g}$  dry weight, respectively. These two means were not significantly different at  $p = 0.063$ .

The greater initial and overall decline in  $P_0$  for the muscles performing the most injurious protocol can most likely be attributed to structural defects occurring in the muscles. The electron micrographs in Fig. 6 show the loss of force-generating (i.e. sarcomere dissolution) and force-transmitting (i.e. Z-line streaming and disruption of the basement membrane) structures. These lesions could be found in each of the thirty to fifty thin sections cut from the two injured muscles, although there were regions that appeared normal. Such defects were not observed in two unstimulated muscles.

### *CK release*

CK release was independent of all mechanical factors with the exception of lengthening velocity. Figure 7 depicts the effect of lengthening velocity on CK release during the incubation period. The downward trend in CK activity from 0 to 30 min is attributed to inactivation of the enzyme in the Krebs–Ringer buffer; in separate experiments we have found the rate of CK inactivation to be  $\sim 30\%$  per hour. The CK activity at 45 and 60 min was significantly higher for muscles lengthening at  $1.5 L_0/\text{s}$  compared to the muscles lengthening at  $0.5 L_0/\text{s}$ . An unexpected finding was that the slow decline in  $P_0$  was inversely related to the CK activity at 60 min ( $p = 0.001$ ). Mean CK activity for the muscles performing the most injurious protocol was 39–145% higher than that for the isometric control muscles, but the difference was not statistically significant at any time during the incubation ( $p \geq 0.102$ ).

### *Total muscle $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$*

Negative power was the only mechanical factor that could account for a significant proportion of the variance in total muscle  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  ( $r^2 = 0.063$ ,  $p = 0.018$ ). The injury protocol eliciting the lowest mean negative power ( $0.425 \text{ W/g}$  protein) would be predicted to have a 37.2% lower  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  than that predicted for the protocol eliciting the highest mean negative power ( $2.349 \text{ W/g}$  protein), if all other variables in the regression equation were held constant. No relation was found between total muscle

[Ca<sup>2+</sup>] and the slow decline in any of the mechanical injury markers or between total muscle [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] and CK release.

The mean total muscle [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] for the muscles performing the most injurious protocol and the isometric control muscles were  $15.24 \pm 1.48$  and  $13.23 \pm 1.74$   $\mu\text{mol/g}$

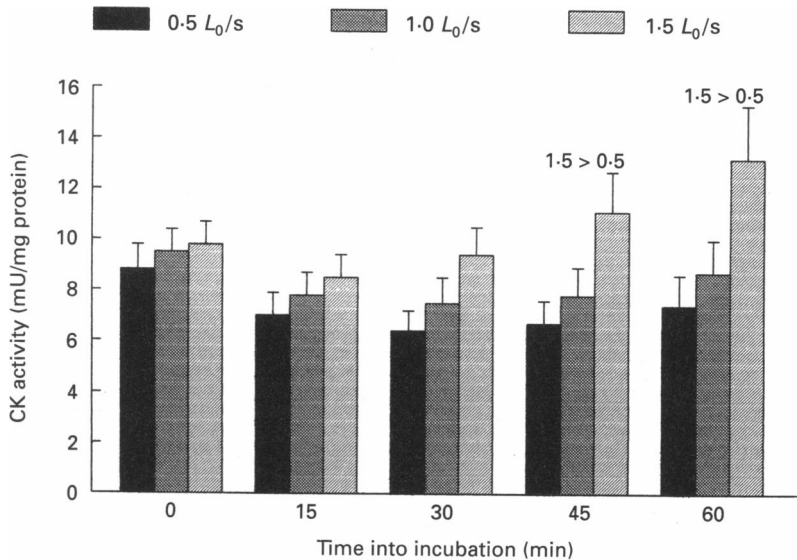


Fig. 7. The effect of altering lengthening velocity on the creatine kinase (CK) activity in the incubation medium. Error bars are equal to 1 s.e.m. Muscles lengthened at  $1.5 L_0/s$  had significantly greater mean CK activity at 45 and 60 min than did muscles lengthened at  $0.5 L_0$ .

protein, respectively. The difference in the two means was not statistically significant ( $p = 0.208$ ). The mean total muscle [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] for the ninety Study I muscles in which [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] measurements were made was  $18.20 \pm 0.71$   $\mu\text{mol/g}$  protein and was significantly higher than the control muscle mean ( $p = 0.022$ ). This difference in total muscle [Ca<sup>2+</sup>] could not be attributed to a greater extracellular volume in the Study I muscles since the protein content-to-wet weight ratios were identical for the Study I and isometric control muscles.

#### DISCUSSION

This study supports the hypothesis that eccentric contraction-induced muscle injury has a mechanical etiology. Systematically varying four primary mechanical factors during the eccentric contractions (i.e. peak force, initial length, length change, and lengthening velocity) resulted in graded levels of injury in the muscles. The primary injury criteria used in this study were measures of muscle performance immediately after the injury protocol ( $P_0$ ,  $P_T$ ,  $+dP/dt$  and  $-dP/dt$ ). The mechanical factor that most affected muscle performance was peak total force produced in the muscles during the eccentric contractions. Katz (1939) and McCully & Faulkner

(1986) previously reported that the degree of injury resulting from eccentric contractions was directly related to the forces produced during the contractions; the present findings extend those observations by demonstrating that peak eccentric force, independent of lengthening velocity, initial (or final) length or length change, is associated with initiating the injury process.

These results have important practical implications. They demonstrate that a relatively small number of high force eccentric contractions can cause significant reductions in muscle performance. The reductions are immediate and the muscles do not recover over the short term. These are important considerations for muscular performance in the workplace and sports field. In this study, the highest forces produced during the eccentric contraction protocol were 150%  $P_0$ . Muscles are capable of producing up to 200%  $P_0$  during lengthening contractions (Woledge *et al.* 1985; Armstrong *et al.* 1991), however, and the present results would suggest contractions producing these higher tensions may cause even greater damage to the muscles.

Although the present findings provide compelling evidence that the initial event in the injury process is mechanical in nature, they do not prove the hypothesis. For example, it is possible that during the first eccentric contraction of the five contraction injury protocol, some metabolic event (e.g. elevated  $[H^+]$ ,  $[P_i]$ ) initiated the injury sequence and the mechanical factors simply modulated subsequent autogenetic processes during the remaining 20 min of the injury protocol. However, indirect evidence indicates that the initiating event and the mechanisms underlying the decrements in muscle function were not metabolic in nature. First, it has been firmly established that eccentric contractions require lower energy expenditure than isometric or concentric contractions (Woledge *et al.* 1985; Armstrong *et al.* 1991). In this study, there were immediate reductions in  $P_0$  (and other mechanical variables) following eccentric contractions, but not after isometric contractions. Furthermore, the reduction in muscle function immediately after completion of the injury protocol was not associated with reduction in  $[ATP]$ . In this study, the absolute  $[ATP]$  was lower following the control isometric contraction protocol than after the eccentric contraction protocol. Finally, and perhaps most importantly,  $P_0$  did not recover in the 60 min following the injury protocol, which would have been expected if the initial reductions in muscle function resulted from metabolic fatigue.

The initial decrements in  $P_0$ ,  $P_T$ ,  $+dP/dt$  and  $-dP/dt$  are consistent with the hypothesis that the first event in the injury sequence was a loss of contractile and/or of non-contractile components common to both the series and parallel elastic elements. This interpretation is based on the observation that the initial decrease in  $P_0$  was related to both the active force normalized for thick-thin filament overlap produced during the first eccentric contraction and to the passive tension produced during the stretch, respectively. From the present results, it is not possible to distinguish between loss of contractile elements and loss of series elements involved in transmission of forces produced by the contractile structures. The electron microscopic observations support both possibilities, i.e. there is evidence of loss of sarcomeres and series components (e.g. Z-lines and basal laminar structures).

Because the initial decline in  $P_0$  became progressively greater as peak eccentric contraction tension exceeded 113%  $P_0$ , it is feasible that the failure of a critical

component (contractile or series) was due to excessive tensile stress in accordance with the normal stress theory mechanism of failure. This theory states that a component will fail when it is subjected to tensile stress that surpasses its yield strength. According to this postulate, the yield or tensile strength of the weakest component in the soleus muscles in this study was 113%  $P_0$ . This force threshold for failure is in congruence with the findings of Tidball & Chan (1989). They reported that the breaking stress of a muscle fibre is  $\sim 20\%$  greater than that produced in a maximally activated fibre during an isometric contraction. In their study, the site of failure was found to be the myotendinous junction. Whether or not the myotendinous junction was the site of failure in the present study is unknown, although the abundant evidence of disruption of sarcomeres in the belly of the muscle does not seem compatible with this hypothesis. Failure of the component by a materials fatigue mechanism, as opposed to the normal stress mechanism discussed above, cannot be ruled out. The protocol in this study used five eccentric contractions, and it is not known after which contraction the injury was initiated. During performance of the most injurious injury protocol ( $n = 6$  muscles), there was a relatively steady decline in the force produced in each of the five eccentric contractions (first,  $151 \pm 3.6\%$   $P_0$ ; second,  $149.9 \pm 3.8\%$   $P_0$ ; third,  $145.7 \pm 2.8\%$   $P_0$ ; fourth,  $141.9 \pm 3.9\%$   $P_0$ ; fifth,  $139.6 \pm 5.4\%$   $P_0$ ), suggesting the injury was progressively manifested through the protocol.

Higher lengthening velocities in this study were associated with greater initial declines in  $P_0$ ,  $+dP/dt$  and  $-dP/dt$  and the recovery (change from 0 to 15 min into the incubation) for these three mechanical measures was greatest for the same muscles. The recovery was complete for  $+dP/dt$  but not for  $-dP/dt$  or  $P_0$ . This transient effect of lengthening velocity on  $+dP/dt$ ,  $-dP/dt$  and  $P_0$  is consistent with a temporary reduction in the rate of cross-bridge turnover and/or force production per cross-bridge. This proposed transient effect of velocity on cross-bridge properties is analogous to that proposed to explain the effect of velocity on isometric force production immediately following shortening or lengthening (Woledge *et al.* 1985).

Although the initial declines in  $+dP/dt$  and  $-dP/dt$  are consistent with an alteration in cross-bridge properties, they could also be attributed to a temporary disturbance in muscle fibre  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis. A temporary decrement in the rate of SR (sarcoplasmic reticulum)  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release could explain the velocity-induced transient reduction in  $+dP/dt$ . Similarly, the lengthening velocity-dependent reduction in  $-dP/dt$  could be caused by a reduction in the rate of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  reuptake by the SR. However, if this was so, one would expect an increase in  $P_T$  and not a decrease (Taylor, Abresch, Lieberman, Fowler & Portwood, 1984). A decrease in  $P_T$  while there was a reduction in the rate of SR  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  reuptake is plausible only if there was a concomitant large reduction in muscle stiffness.

The slow decline phase that occurred during the 60 min incubation was consistent with the hypothesis that there is a focal loss of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis at the site of fibre injury. The mechanical factor most closely associated with the slow decline in muscle performance was initial muscle length. Morgan (1990) hypothesized that a greater degree of sarcomere length inhomogeneity exists in a fibre beginning an eccentric contraction at longer fibre lengths. He predicted that under these conditions there is a greater chance for extreme lengthening occurring in the longer, weaker sarcomeres,



and that parallel structures (e.g. sarcolemma and SR) adjacent to these overlengthened sarcomeres may be disrupted. In the present study, the effect of initial muscle length on contractile performance was not evident until  $\geq 15$  min into the incubation. The delayed effect of initial length is not inconsistent with the predictions of Morgan (1990), or with the hypothesis that a focal loss of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis follows initiation of injury, because it would take a finite time for elevations in cytosolic  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  to exceed the fibre's  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  buffering capacity and activate lipolytic and proteolytic pathways.

There is indirect evidence for an association between initial length and elevations in cytosolic  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  in the present study. First, the slow decline in  $-dP/dt$  during the post-injury incubation was much greater for muscles beginning eccentric contractions at the longer initial muscle length ( $0.90 L_0$ ). This suggests that the effective resequestration of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  by SR (or transport through sarcolemma) became progressively impaired over time in these muscles. Secondly, there was a rise in resting tension over time, peaking at 15 min into the incubation. Pre-injury resting tension for all muscles that performed eccentric contractions was  $4.80 \pm 0.10$  mN; resting tensions at 0, 15, 30 and 60 min following eccentric contractions were  $6.38 \pm 0.29$ ,  $6.97 \pm 0.39$ ,  $6.38 \pm 0.29$  and  $4.02 \pm 0.20$  mN. These observations also imply a loss of free intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis. The greater slow decline in  $P_0$  observed for muscles beginning contractions at  $0.90 L_0$  may then have resulted from greater activation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -mediated proteolytic pathways leading to degradation of contractile and non-contractile proteins (Baracos, Greenberg & Goldberg, 1984).

The findings do not support the hypothesis that the longer initial length elicited a greater loss of sarcolemma integrity. Neither elevations in total muscle  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  nor losses of CK from the muscles were related to initial length. Arguing for the disruption of sarcolemma is the sarcolemmal damage evident in electron micrographs (Fig. 6) and the observation that total muscle  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  was elevated in muscles performing eccentric contractions. Also, others have reported a dissociation of CK release from the histological evidence of injury (Manfredi, Fielding, O'Reilly, Meredith, Lee & Evans, 1991; Van Der Meulen, Kuippers & Drukker, 1991). Sarcolemmal disruptions could be varied in size and/or smaller than the CK molecule (MW 88000).

Finally, some caution must be exercised in interpreting the findings on initial length effects. First, the order in which the forty-two injury protocols was performed may have confounded the effect of initial muscle length on the injury sequence. Second, there was a slow decline in  $P_0$  during the incubation period even for the control muscles that performed the isometric contraction protocol. The rate of the slow decline in these muscles was only slightly less than that observed in those performing the eccentric contraction protocols yielding the least amount of injury. This was probably due to a greater than normal extracellular-to-intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  gradient in the preparation that was used, leading to a high baseline influx of extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and to a subsequent activation of autogenetic degradative pathways. The ionic  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  in the Krebs-Ringer buffer was 2.5 mM compared with a normal serum ionic  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  value of 1.1–1.3 mM. In subsequent experiments using a buffer with 1.25 mM  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , the slow decline in muscle function during the incubation has been eliminated in both control and injured muscles.

The authors express their appreciation to Richard Simpson and Melinda Brewer for their assistance in preparation of this manuscript.

## REFERENCES

- ARMSTRONG, R. B. (1984). Mechanisms of exercise-induced delayed onset muscular soreness: a brief review. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise* **16**, 529–538.
- ARMSTRONG, R. B. (1990). Initial events in exercise-induced muscular injury. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise* **22**, 429–435.
- ARMSTRONG, R. B., WARREN, G. L. & WARREN, J. A. (1991). Mechanisms of exercise-induced muscle fibre injury. *Sports Medicine* **12**, 184–207.
- ASHBY, M. F. & JONES, D. R. H. (1980). *Engineering Materials – An Introduction to Their Properties and Applications*, pp. 135–142. Pergamon Press, Oxford.
- BARACOS, V. E., GREENBERG, R. E. & GOLDBERG, A. L. (1984). Calcium ions and the regulation of intracellular protein breakdown in muscle. In *Calcium Regulation in Biological Systems*, ed. EBASHI, S., ENDO, M., IMAHORI, K., KAKIUCHI, S. & NISHIZUKA, Y., pp. 227–242. Academic Press, Tokyo.
- CASELLA, C. (1951). Tensile force in total striated muscle, isolated fiber and sarcolemma. *Acta Physiologica Scandinavica* **21**, 380–401.
- CLAFLIN, D. R. & FAULKNER, J. A. (1985). Shortening velocity extrapolated to zero load and unloaded shortening velocity of whole rat skeletal muscle. *Journal of Physiology* **359**, 357–363.
- CROW, M. T. & KUSHMERICK, M. J. (1982). Chemical energetics of slow- and fast-twitch muscles of the mouse. *Journal of General Physiology* **79**, 147–166.
- EBBELING, C. B. & CLARKSON, P. M. (1989). Exercise-induced muscle damage and adaptation. *Sports Medicine* **7**, 207–234.
- GOSLOW, G. E., REINKING, R. M. & STUART, D. G. (1973). The cat step cycle: hind limb joint angles and muscle lengths during unrestrained locomotion. *Journal of Morphology* **141**, 1–41.
- HIGUCHI, H. & UMAYUME, Y. (1986). Lattice shrinkage with increasing resting tension in stretched, single skinned fibers of frog muscle. *Biophysical Journal* **50**, 385–389.
- JONES, R. H. & MOLITORIS, B. A. (1984). A statistical method for determining the breakpoint of two lines. *Analytical Biochemistry* **141**, 287–290.
- KATZ, B. (1939). The relation between force and speed in muscular contraction. *Journal of Physiology* **96**, 45–64.
- LOWRY, O. H. & PASSONNEAU, J. V. (1972). *A Flexible System of Enzymatic Analysis*, p. 153. Academic Press, Inc., New York.
- MCCULLY, K. K. & FAULKNER, J. A. (1985). Injury to skeletal muscle fibers of mice following lengthening contractions. *Journal of Applied Physiology* **59**, 119–126.
- MCCULLY, K. K. & FAULKNER, J. A. (1986). Characteristics of lengthening contractions associated with injury to skeletal muscle fibers. *Journal of Applied Physiology* **61**, 293–299.
- MANFREDI, T. G., FIELDING, R. A., O'REILLY, K. P., MEREDITH, C. N., LEE, H. Y. & EVANS, W. J. (1991). Serum creatine kinase activity and exercise-induced muscle damage in older men. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise* **23**, 1028–1034.
- MORGAN, D. L. (1990). New insights into the behavior of muscle during active lengthening. *Biophysical Journal* **57**, 209–221.
- NEWHAM, D. J., JONES, D. A., GHOSH, G. & AURORA, P. (1988). Muscle fatigue and pain after eccentric contractions at long and short length. *Clinical Science* **74**, 553–557.
- RAPOPORT, S. I. (1972). Mechanical properties of the sarcolemma and myoplasm in frog muscle as a function of sarcomere length. *Journal of General Physiology* **59**, 559–585.
- SEGAL, S. S. & FAULKNER, J. A. (1985). Temperature-dependent physiological stability of rat skeletal muscle in vitro. *American Journal of Physiology* **248**, C265–270.
- STAUBER, W. T. (1989). Eccentric action of muscles: physiology, injury, and adaptations. *Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews* **17**, 157–185.
- TAYLOR, R. G., ABRESCH, R. T., LIEBERMAN, J. S., FOWLER, W. M. & PORTWOOD, M. M. (1984). Effect of pentobarbital on contractility of mouse skeletal muscle. *Experimental Neurology* **83**, 254–263.
- TIDBALL, J. G. (1986). Energy stored and dissipated in skeletal muscle basement membranes during sinusoidal oscillations. *Biophysical Journal* **50**, 1127–1138.

- TIDBALL, J. G. & CHAN, M. (1989). Adhesive strength of single muscle cells to basement membrane at myotendinous junctions. *Journal of Applied Physiology* **67**, 1063–1069.
- TIDBALL, J. G. & DANIEL, T. L. (1986). Elastic energy storage in rigored skeletal muscle cells under physiological loading conditions. *American Journal of Physiology* **250**, R56–64.
- VAN DER MEULEN, J. H., KUIPERS, H. & DRUKKER, J. (1991). Relationship between exercise-induced muscle damage and enzyme release in rats. *Journal of Applied Physiology* **71**, 999–1004.
- WALMSLEY, B., HODGSON, J. A. & BURKE, R. E. (1978). Forces produced by medial gastrocnemius and soleus muscles during locomotion in freely moving cats. *Journal of Neurophysiology* **41**, 1203–1216.
- WARREN, J. A., JENKINS, R. R., PACKER, L., WITT, E. H. & ARMSTRONG, R. B. (1992). Elevated muscle vitamin E does not attenuate eccentric exercise-induced muscle injury. *Journal of Applied Physiology* **72**, 2168–2175.
- WLEDGE, R. C., CURTIN, N. A. & HOMSHER, E. (1985). *Energetic Aspects of Muscle Contraction*, pp. 27–117. Academic Press Ltd, London.