

Differential muscular myosin heavy chain expression of the pectoral and pelvic girdles during early growth in the king penguin (Apetenodytes patagonicus) chick

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Differential muscular myosin heavy chain expression of the pectoral and pelvic girdles during early growth in the king penguin (Aptenodytes patagonicus) chick Erbrech Aude^{1,2*}, Robin Jean-Patrice^{1,2}, Guérin Nathalie^{1,2}, Groscolas René^{1,2}, Gilbert Caroline^{1,2,3}, Martrette Jean-Marc³ ¹ Université de Strasbourg, IPHC, 23 rue Becquerel 67087 Strasbourg, France. ² CNRS, UMR7178, 67037 Strasbourg, France. ³ Nancy – Université, Faculté des Sciences et techniques, BP239 Bld des Aiguillettes 54506 Vandœuvre-lès-Nancy, France. * To whom correspondence should be addressed aude.erbrech@iphc.cnrs.fr running title: Muscular maturation in the king penguin

Summary

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Continuous growth, associated with a steady parental food supply, is a general pattern in offspring development. Growth is usually marked by a fast maturation of muscles during which different myosin heavy chain (MyHC) isoforms are expressed, permitting young chicks to acquire their locomotor autonomy. However, because of seasonal changes in food supply, energy allocation between tissue maturation and other energy demanding processes may be conflicting. To address this trade-off we investigated muscular maturation in both the pectoral and pelvic girdles of the king penguin chick. This species has an exceptionally long growing period (1 year) which is prolonged when parental food provisioning is drastically reduced during the sub-antarctic winter. After approximately one month post hatching, chicks acquire a functional pedestrian locomotion whereas muscles of the pectoral girdle will be required for swimming one year later. We therefore tested the hypothesis that leg muscles reach a mature state in their muscular myosin heavy chain (MyHC) content before pectoral muscles. The composition of MyHCs in leg muscles changed with the progressive acquisition of pedestrian locomotion while in pectoral muscles, fibres reached their mature MyHC profile as early as hatching. Contrary to our predictions, the acquisition of the adult profile in pectoral muscles could be related to an early maturation of the contractile muscular proteins, presumably associated with early thermoregulatory capacities of chicks, necessary for survival in their cold environment. This differential maturation appears to reconcile both the locomotor and environmental constraints of king penguin chicks during growth.

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Keywords: development, bird, king penguin, skeletal muscle, myosin heavy chain

INTRODUCTION

During growth, individuals have to develop capacities such as thermoregulation or locomotion in order to rapidly acquire their independence. A fast post-embryonic development is necessary, linked to the maturation of muscles and skeleton (Ricklefs, 1979; Olson, 2001; de Margerie et al., 2004). However in birds, muscle growth rates differ between altricial and precocial species (Hohtola and Visser, 1998), in relation to variation in the degree of tissue maturation at hatching (Nice, 1962; Ricklefs 1979; Starck and Ricklefs 1998). In precocial species, the early development of the pelvic girdle and the delayed maturation of pectoral muscles allow young birds to perform pedestrian locomotion quickly after hatching and before acquiring flight capability (Starck and Ricklefs 1998; Phillips and Hamer 2000; Bennett 2008). On the contrary, offspring of altricial species are totally reliant on parental care and present a low maturation of leg and pectoral muscles at hatching; they acquire terrestrial and aerial locomotion before fledging (Olson, 2001). As development and maturation of different organs and tissues are energetically costly, growth is generally associated with a steady parental food supply (Ricklefs, 1979). However, when the rearing period is long, parental food supply may show seasonal fluctuation (Cherel et al., 1993) and become a growth limiting factor (Heath and Randall, 1985). Hence, during growth chicks may face periods of low food availability that can delay their development (Schew and Ricklefs 1998). In this context, the specific strategies of energy allocation that are developed to ensure future survival and fledging of the offspring are not fully understood.

We addressed this question in the king penguin (*Aptenodytes patagonicus*) chick, a semi-altricial species showing an exceptionally long rearing cycle (c.a. one year) in the sub-antarctic and interrupted by a period of severe food restriction during the 2-3 winter months (Stonehouse 1960; Barrat 1976). At hatching in summer, the chick totally depends on its parents for warmth and food. When one month old, thermogenic processes become sufficiently mature and chicks are then able to walk. Parents continue to forage intensively at sea to allow them to store sufficient amounts of body reserves before winter. From May to August, chicks mainly rely on their fat stores as an energy source and can lose half of their body mass and stop growing (Stonehouse 1960; Barré 1978). From September onwards, parental feeding rate increases allowing chicks to grow and moult before departing to sea and becoming independent (Barrat, 1976). The locomotor capacity and activity of the king penguin chick continuously changes throughout its growth until its independence. During the first weeks after hatching, chicks remain hidden in the parental brood patch and show limited locomotor activity. At one month old they use exclusively pedestrian locomotion. Thereafter,

one year later, king penguin chicks switch from an exclusively terrestrial locomotion to a mixed terrestrial and aquatic locomotion. During their aquatic life, muscles of the pectoral girdle power the flippers, which allow king penguins to forage and dive to depths of 200-300 meters (Barrat, 1976). In this way, the king penguin chick with this distinctive growth cycle is a useful model to investigate the impact of environmental conditions on skeletal muscle development.

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In birds, each mode of locomotion (flapping flight, aquatic propulsion or terrestrial locomotion) and postural maintenance corresponds to different metabolic and contractile properties of muscles that are determined by their fibre types (Torrella et al., 1998). Fasttwitch oxidative-glycolytic (FOG) fibres permit a sustained rapid contraction while fasttwitch glycolytic (FG) fibres contract more powerfully and fatigue rapidly (Sokoloff et al., 1998). In contrast, slow fibres are adapted for slow sustained contraction and are therefore numerous in postural muscles (Meyers and Mathias, 1997). In addition to the activities of their energy-generating enzymes, contractile properties of the muscle fibres also depend on their myosin heavy chain (MyHC) isoforms (Rosser et al., 1996). During muscular growth, a sequence of different MyHC isoforms is expressed in each avian fibre type (Bandman and Rosser, 2000) as shown in the FG fibres of gallineous birds such as the chicken (Gallus gallus, Hofmann et al., 1988; Tidyman et al., 1997), the turkey (Meleagris gallopavo, Maruyama et al., 1993) or the Japanese quail (Coturnix japonica, Merrifield et al., 1989). Moreover, a differential expression of MyHCs in the FOG and FG fibres during the development of the pectoral muscle has been demonstrated in the domestic pigeon (Columba livia, Rosser et al., 1998). Effective muscular contractions need an optimal myofibrillar ATPase activity which has been related to myosin heavy chain composition (Rivero et al., 1996). Moreover, recent studies on king penguin chicks indicate that the developmental pattern of muscles and bones in the pectoral and pelvic limb are markedly different during the first weeks after hatching. High rates of periosteal bone tissue growth (de Margerie et al., 2004) and protein accretion (Erbrech et al., 2008) in the pelvic muscles allow nestlings to rapidly acquire an effective pedestrian locomotion that is essential for their survival. Conversely, the development of the pectoral girdle, that is required for aquatic locomotion, is delayed. Together with the acquisition of locomotion, muscular development has also been shown to be of a major importance in the ontogeny of thermogenic processes in penguin chicks (Duchamp et al., 2002).

In the present work, we therefore focused on muscular development during the first two months of growth of king penguin chicks, i.e. from hatching to the period when pedestrian locomotion and thermoregulation capacities are sufficiently developed. To validate the MyHC composition in king penguin muscles we first compared MyHC isoforms with the domestic chicken (*Gallus gallus*). Then, we tested the hypothesis that muscles of the pelvic girdle (*Gastrocnemius lateralis* and *Iliotibialis cranialis*) reach a mature state in their MyHC content before the pectoral girdle (*Pectoralis major*), given that chicks acquire terrestrial locomotion far in advance of aquatic locomotion.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

Study area and specimens

Field work was conducted in the colony of the Baie du Marin, Possession Island, Crozet Archipelago (46°26'S, 51°52'E; Indian Ocean) during the sub-antarctic summer, from January to April 2006. About 25,000 breeding pairs of king penguins are habituated to human presence due to its proximity to the Alfred Faure Scientific Station. The study protocol was approved by the French Ethic Committee of the Institut Polaire Paul-Emile Victor (IPEV) and by the Polar Environment Committee of the Terres Australes et Antarctiques Françaises (TAAF).

During daily surveys in the breeding colony, eggs with embryos close to hatching (n=4), chicks (n=25) and adult (n=5) king penguins (*Aptenodytes patagonicus*) were collected immediately after being stolen and/or killed by predators (subantarctic skuas *Catharacta lonnbergi* for eggs and chicks or giant petrels *Macronectes* sp. for chicks and adults). In a shelter close to the colony, embryos and birds were weighed to the nearest 0.1g or 1g, depending on their absolute body mass. Within minutes after death muscle samples from the pelvic and pectoral girdles were excised (c.a. 200mg) and kept in crushed ice (less than 4 hours) until myosin extraction. The length (accuracy \pm 0.5mm) of beak, foot, and flipper was measured according to Stonehouse (1960) and the age of the embryo was determined from flipper length (Stonehouse, 1960). Chick age was estimated according to down appearance, body mass and behaviour (Verrier, 2003). In addition to adults, six developmental stages were considered for chicks (Table 1). To limit the impact of the experiments on the predator populations, the remaining parts of the carcasses were returned to the colony.

Muscle sampling

Three muscles were selected for the study: *Pectoralis major* (PM) from the pectoral girdle, which is involved in aquatic locomotion, *Gastrocnemius lateralis* (GL) and *Iliotibialis cranialis* (ITC) from the pelvic girdle that is essential for pedestrian locomotion. PM inserts on the deltoid crest of the humerus (George and Berger, 1966) and is recruited for the movement of flippers, allowing propulsion underwater. ITC arises from the anterior iliac crest and inserts on the patellar ligament (George and Berger, 1966). It is recruited for the hip flexion and knee extension (Smith et al., 2006). GL takes its origin on the proximal surface of the fibular condyle of the femur and ends on the most lateral part of the *tendo achilis* (George and Berger, 1966). This muscle is mainly recruited for ankle extension and knee flexion (Smith et al., 2006).

151 Myosin extraction and electrophoresis of MyHC analysis

Each muscle sample was weighed (\pm 0.1mg) and myosin was extracted in a specific high ionic strength buffer according to D'Albis et al. (1979). The extracts were kept at -80°C until analysis. Protein concentrations in the extracts were determined using the method described by Bradford (1976). Isoform separations were performed according to the method of Talmadge and Roy (1993). The stacking and separating gels were respectively composed of 4 and 8% acrylamide-N,N'-methylene-bis-acrylamide (bis) (50:1). Mini-gels (0.75mm thickness) were used in the Bio-Rad Mini-protean II Dual Slab Cell. Electrophoreses were carried out at a constant 70V voltage for 28 hours in a cold room (\pm 4°C). The amount of protein run on the gel was of approximately \pm 5µg of total protein per lane. The gels were stained with Coomassie blue R-250. The relative amounts of the different MyHCs were measured using an integration densitometer Bio-Rad GS-800, and analysed with the Quantity one 4.2.1 Program. Only bands representing more than 1% of total MyHCs were taken into account. Moreover, muscle samples obtained from an adult chicken (*Gallus gallus*) were used to compare the composition in MyHC isoforms of this species with the one of adult king penguins and to validate our extraction procedure.

Statistical analysis

Means \pm s.e.m are provided. Multiple comparisons were made using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis ANOVAs, followed by Dunn's post-hoc tests. Relative percentages were analysed after transformation to arcsin square roots. All statistical analyses were carried out using Statview 5.0. Statistical significance was set at P<0.05.

RESULTS

174 Validation of the extraction procedure (Fig.1)

175 Pectoralis major (PM)

A single MyHC isoform could be observed in the PM for both the domestic chicken and the adult king penguin. However, the PM isoform content was of a lower mobility in the king penguin than in the domestic chicken.

Gastrocnemius lateralis (GL)

GL of the adult king penguin contained two MyHCs (bands 1 and 4), whereas three isoforms could be observed in the domestic chicken. In the two species, the slowest isoform presented a similar electrophoretic mobility whereas other MyHCs displayed a different mobility.

Iliotibialis cranialis (ITC)

Two MyHC isoforms were delineated in the adult king penguin (bands 1 and 4) and in the domestic chicken. The slowest migrating isoform presented also a similar electrophoretic mobility in both species, but the second band detected in the chicken was slower than band 4 in the king penguin.

These results of isoform separations in PM and GL muscles in the domestic chicken are in accordance with previous studies which used immunoblot and gene expression analyses (Hofmann et al., 1988; Tidyman et al., 1997), therefore validating our extraction protocol.

Differential foot and flipper growth in king penguin chicks (Fig. 2)

The foot and flipper lengths of king penguin chicks significantly increased during the first two months of post-hatching life ($P \le 0.001$). From stages A to F (within the first week of growth), they increased from 44.1 ± 1.9 and 49.4 ± 0.4 mm to 117.5 ± 4.5 and 117.6 ± 7.8 mm, respectively. In emancipated chicks (stage F), feet and flippers had reached 76.2% and 43.1% of their adult size, respectively.

Developmental expression of MyHCs in the pelvic and pectoral girdles of king penguin chicks

A total of six different MyHC isoforms could be detected (Fig.3). They were noted band 1 to 6 according to their electrophoretic mobilities: bands 1 and 6 were respectively the slowest and the fastest migrating isoforms. However, only four MyHC isoforms (bands 1, 3, 4 and 6), representing more than 1 % of total MyHC, could be detected by the densitometric analysis. We therefore focused on these four isoforms (Fig.3 and Table 2).

207 Developmental expression of MyHCs in Pectoralis major

Band 1 could be observed in PM at the growth stages A to F and in adults (Fig. 3).

Band 3 was only detected ($5.6 \pm 1.7 \%$) at stage E (3-4 weeks old chicks; table 2).

Developmental expression of MyHCs in Gastrocnemius lateralis

From stage A to D (up to 2 weeks old chicks), the expression of three isoforms (bands 1, 4 and 6) was observed in the GL muscle (Fig. 3). Band 1 was the most predominant isoform and its relative percentage (67-76 %) did not vary significantly within this period (P=0.100; Table 2). The relative percentages of bands 4 and 6 were lower than band 1, and did not change significantly from stage A to C (P=0.087 and 0.350, respectively). At stage D (1-2 weeks old chicks), the expression of band 4 was similar to stage A, while band 6 decreased significantly (P=0.001; Fig. 3, Table 2).

At stages E and F (3-4 weeks and 1-2 months old chicks), only bands 1 and 4 were detected. Their relative percentages were similar to those of the adult group (P>0.195). However, when the chicks were 1-2 months old, band 1 expression increased and reached its highest contribution among chick groups (92.9 \pm 2.5 %), while the variations of band 4 expression were not significantly different.

Developmental expression of MyHCs in Iliotibialis cranialis

At stages A and B (1 week before hatching and 3 days post-hatching), three MyHC isoforms (bands 1, 4 and 6) were detected (Fig. 3). Band 1 was the most predominant isoform (about 72 %) while the relative proportions of bands 4 and 6 were lower (12-16%, Table 2).

At stage C (6-7 days old), band 3 was detected (16.2 \pm 4.7 %; Fig. 3, Table 2). The relative contribution of bands 1 and 4 were not significantly different from the previous two stages (P>0.118), but band 6 decreased significantly by 1.6 fold in stage C compared with stages A and B (P=0.002) (Table 2).

From stages D to F (1 week to 2 months old), the expression of band 1 and 3 did not change significantly (P>0.359) whereas bands 4 and 6 disappeared (Table 2). In the adult group, the contribution of band 1 did not vary significantly compared with the chick groups (P=0.380). Band 4 was however observed, but its expression (16.9 \pm 0.7%) was not significantly different compared to stages A, B and C (up to 1 week old chicks; Table 2).

DISCUSSION

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During the early life of king penguin chicks, their feet and flippers increased in size and reached respectively 76.2 % and 43.1 % of their average adult size at two months of age. At the end of the first period of growth, feet practically reached their adult size, while on the contrary flippers reach their adult length later, at the end of the fledging period (Cherel et al., 2004). In parallel, de Margerie et al. (2004) showed that the pelvic girdle of king penguin chicks possessed the highest bone tissue growth rate during the first month after hatching. The fast structural development of the lower limb thus allows chicks to rapidly acquire a bipedal posture and pedestrian locomotion (Verrier, 2003). The survival of chicks at the beginning of, full emancipation, is indeed linked to their ability to escape predators and to chase their parents for food when they return from foraging trips.

Considering the pectoral muscle (PM), two isoforms could be detected from hatching to the full emancipation of king penguin chicks. Band 1 was the most predominant isoform at each stage, while band 3 only appeared with a low relative percentage for chicks aged 3-4 weeks old. These results diverge from those found in the domestic chicken, for which the expression of five MyHCs has been detected in the developing pectoral muscle (Tidyman et al., 1997): three embryonic MyHC isoforms are supplanted after hatching by a neonatal isoform that is in turn replaced by an adult isoform. In the domestic chicken, PM has been reported to contain almost FG fibres (Rosser et al., 1996); whereas only FOG fibres were found in king penguin chicks PM (Erbrech et al., unpublished data). As these two fibre types are linked to the expression of different MyHC isoforms during development (Rosser et al., 1996), the variation in MyHC content between chicken and king penguins could result from differences in the composition of the fibre types in this muscle. Surprisingly, muscle fibres of the pectoral muscle of king penguin chicks expressed a MyHC profile similar to adults as early as hatching. This result reveals an early maturation of the pectoral muscle contractile proteins, although in king penguin chicks of 3-4 weeks old, the cross-sectional area of the fast-twitch fibres is 30 times lower than in adults (Erbrech et al., 2008). These results contrast with those found in the domestic pigeon (Rosser et al., 1998), where PM fibres reach their adult MyHC composition and adult size after fledging. As fibre size is a major determinant for the production of the mechanical force essential to locomotor activity (Olson, 2001), we suggest that despite king penguin chicks PM expressed a mature MyHC profile, its muscle fibres had not yet acquired the morphological characteristics necessary for the development of an efficient locomotor activity. Thus, in king penguin chicks, the delayed development of PM

fibres compared to that found in leg muscles (Erbrech et al., 2008) is not linked to the MyHC isoform type content.

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Considering the pelvic girdle, we revealed a MyHC polymorphism in the GL and ITC muscles of king penguin chicks, from hatching to about two weeks of age. Composition of MyHC isoforms differentially changed in GL and ITC with the progressive acquisition of terrestrial locomotion, in agreement with the fact that contractile activity is essential for the maturation of avian skeletal muscle fibres (Bandman and Rosser, 2000). Changes in the activity of muscle fibres are indeed linked to the expression of myosin isoforms, which can be delayed or induced as a function of the intensity of muscle solicitation (Salmons and Sreter, 1976; Brown et al., 1983; Cerny and Bandman, 1987a). In the ITC muscle, bands 4 and 6 disappeared and were replaced by band 3 when the chick was 7-15 days old, corresponding to the time when chicks are emerging from the brood patch and are standing in front of their parents (Stonehouse, 1960; Barrat, 1976; Verrier, 2003; personal observations). In the GL muscle, the proportion of band 6 decreased slightly until it disappeared at c.a. three weeks of age, when chicks are starting to walk actively. As the principal function of ITC is to protract the femur (Torrella et al., 1998), this muscle should be recruited early to maintain a bipedal posture and to support the chick's body mass. In contrast, the GL muscle, involved in ankle extension and knee flexion, is essentially recruited for bipedal locomotion (Smith et al., 2006). At the time of emancipation (3-4 weeks), the GL muscle appeared to be already mature, containing similar MyHC isoforms to adults. On the contrary, the ITC muscle had not reached this state at the end of the brooding period: band 3, present in the emancipated chick, was replaced by band 4 in adults. This switch can possibly be explained by the less intensive use of this muscle in adults, in relation to their marine life. During the chick-rearing period, young birds possess an exclusively terrestrial locomotion and therefore use more intensively ITC muscles than adults that spend 75% of their time at sea, alternating travels at sea and sojourns on land to moult and breed (Stonehouse, 1960; Barrat, 1976). However, to test this hypothesis, it would be necessary to evaluate the MyHC isoform composition in older chicks, particularly at the end of the second growth period, at approx. 1 year of age.

In addition to these hypotheses considering mechanical factors to explain changes in myosin profiles, hormonal and thermal factors are likely to be involved. Thyroid hormones (T3 and T4) in particular have been shown to induce changes in MyHCs during the development of muscle fibres (Maruyama et al., 1993; Gardahaut et al., 1992). In the domestic turkey, Maruyama et al. (1993) showed that the increase in thyroxine plasmatic level (T4) could support the transition from embryonic to neonatal MyHCs during the

development of the breast muscle. Thus, in king penguin chicks, the progressive disappearance of band 6 in the GL muscle, the disappearance of bands 6 and 4 followed by the appearance of band 3 in the ITC muscle, together with the detection of band 3 in the PM muscle, may be related to the increase in T4 plasma level also observed by Cherel et al. (2004) in the same species during early growth. Moreover, at hatching, king penguin chicks are essentially heterothermic, while the rapid improvement of thermoregulatory processes and thermal insulation during the first two to three weeks of life allows them to acquire thermal emancipation (Duchamp et al., 2002). Changes in plasma T4 levels (the major thermogenesis regulating hormone) also correspond to the period when chicks gain independent thermoregulation. Thermoregulatory capacity is critical for chicks survival during the subantarctic winter when weather conditions deteriorate and parental food supply is restricted. Studies undertaken by Duchamp et al. (2002) on GL and PM muscles indicate that muscular shivering is the main thermogenic mechanism in growing chicks. Production of heat by repetitive muscular contraction therefore requires a rapid maturation of skeletal muscles. The development of endothermy in young birds requires the maturation of the neuromuscular system, an increased muscular oxidative capacity, as well as the development of myofibrillar ATPase in muscle fibres (Hohtola and Visser, 1998). Moreover, myofibrillar ATPase activity is linked to myosin heavy chain composition (Rivero et al., 1996). In the pectoral muscle of the domestic chicken, embryonic fast MyHCs were shown to possess less contraction velocity than the neonatal isoform (Lowey et al., 1993a). In this context, changes in MyHC content occurring in king penguin chick leg muscles could be related to the progressive acquisition of homeothermy from their second week of life. Moreover, Duchamp et al. (2002) showed that shivering in king penguin chicks PM, assessed by integrated electromyographic activity, was revealed immediately after hatching, even though thermal insulation was not fully developed. The MyHC adult profile in PM of young chicks could therefore indicate an early maturation of the contractile muscular proteins that would allow shivering as early as hatching. Furthermore, this muscle is known to be the major source of shivering and non-shivering thermogenesis in adults (Duchamp et al., 1989).

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In order to rapidly acquire an effective pedestrian locomotion essential to their survival, chicks during early growth invest energy in the development of the pelvic girdle at the expense of the pectoral girdle (de Margerie et al., 2004; Erbrech et al., 2008). Considering the immature fibres size (Erbrech et al., 2008) and the mature MyHC content (this study) of PM in young chicks, we also suggest that pectoral muscles are essential for thermoregulatory

functions at this stage of development while their locomotor function will be developed several months later before departing to sea. Together, these results from king penguin chicks illustrate the trade-off between muscle growth rate and functional capacity, as suggested for several bird species (reviewed in Krijgsveld et al., 2001). At the end of these first weeks of growth, king penguin chicks have acquired a functional pedestrian locomotion and are thermally emancipated. However, their growth will still last several months where they have to face a period of severe and prolonged under-nutrition during the sub-antarctic winter, before finally departing to sea where they can forage independently. Throughout their winter fast, together with their locomotor and thermoregulatory functions, skeletal muscles may act as important protein reserves. One major task in future studies should therefore be to investigate the effect of this winter energy restriction on muscle development (fibre size and types, MyHC content) in both the pelvic and pectoral girdles when chicks are fully grown.

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Table 1: Muscle sampling schedule of king penguin chicks in relation to age, thermoregulatory capacity, locomotor activity and plumage (following Barrat, 1976; Stonehouse, 1960; Verrier, 2003).

Abbreviations	Age	Body mass	Thermoregulatory capacity	Locomotor activity	Plumage
		range			
Chicks					
Stage A	Embryonic	125-160g			Unfeathered
	< 1 week				
	before hatching				
Stage B	Post hatching	< 300g	Heterotherm	Brooding phase: no locomotor activity	Unfeathered
	1-3 days				
Stage C	6 – 7 days	300-500g	Acquisition of homeothermy	Brooding phase: no locomotor activity	Brown down
Stage D	7 – 15 days	0.5-1kg	Homeotherm	Chicks sitting upright in front of their parent	Brown down
Stage E	3 – 4 weeks	1-2kg	Homeotherm	End of brooding phase: chicks begin to move	Brown down
				away from adults	
Stage F	1-2 months	2-3kg	Homeotherm	Terrestrial locomotion: emancipated chicks	Brown down
				wander alone on the colony	
Adults	> 4 years	10-12kg	Homeotherm	Aquatic locomotion: adults forage at sea and	Feathers
				come on land to moult and breed	

Table 2: Distribution of myosin heavy chain (MyHC) isoforms in three muscles (*Pectoralis major*, *Gastrocnemius lateralis*, *Iliotibialis cranialis*) of king penguin chicks from hatching to emancipation (A: < 1 week before hatching, B: 1-3 days, C: 6-7 days, D: 7-15 days, E: 3-4 weeks, F: 1-2 months) and adults.

484 N.D: not detected.

485

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487

Ped. locomotion: pedestrian locomotion

Values are mean percentages of total myosin heavy chain \pm s.e.m

For a given muscle and MyHC band, different letters indicate significant differences between

488 groups (*P*<0.05).

	Groups	MyHC				
		Band 1	Band 3	Band 4	Band 6	
Pectoralis major						
	Stage A	100.0	N.D	N.D	N.D	
	Stage B	100.0	N.D	N.D	N.D	
	Stage C	100.0	N.D	N.D	N.D	
Homeothermy →	Stage D	100.0	N.D	N.D	N.D	
	Stage E	94.4 ± 1.7	5.6 ± 1.7	N.D	N.D	
Ped. locomotion →	Stage F	100.0	N.D	N.D	N.D	
	Adults	100.0	N.D	N.D	N.D	
Gastrocnemius lateral	is					
	Stage A	67.0 ± 3.5 a	N.D	15.9 ± 1.5 ^a	17.1 ± 2.1 ^a	
	Stage B	72.5 ± 1.5 a,b	N.D	14.0 ± 0.7 ^a	13.5 ± 1.1 ^{a,b}	
	Stage C	67.1 ± 1.9 ^a	N.D	18.3 ± 1.0 ^a	$14.6 \pm 1.2^{a,b}$	
Homeothermy →	Stage D	$75.6 \pm 2.6^{a,b}$	N.D	17.4 ± 1.1 ^a	7.1 ± 1.8 ^b	
	Stage E	84.9 ± 2.4 b,c	N.D	15.1 ± 2.4 ^a	N.D	
Ped. locomotion →	Stage F	92.9 ± 2.5 $^{\circ}$	N.D	7.1 ± 2.5 ^a	N.D	
	Adults	$90.0 \pm 4.2^{\circ}$	N.D	10.0 ± 4.2 ^a	N.D	
lliotibialis cranialis						
	Stage A	71.9 ± 5.1 ^a	N.D	12.4 ± 4.4 ^a	15.7 ± 1.3 ^a	
	Stage B	72.5 ± 1.6 ^a	N.D	15.0 ± 1.0 ^a	12.5 ± 0.7^{a}	
	Stage C	69.5 ± 2.1 ^a	16.2 ± 4.7 ^a	6.4 ± 3.2^{a}	7.9 ± 0.3 b	
Homeothermy →	Stage D	69.9 ± 6.1 ^a	30.1 ± 6.1 ^a	N.D	N.D	
	Stage E	77.5 ± 3.5 ^a	22.5 ± 3.5^{a}	N.D	N.D	
Ped. locomotion →	Stage F	76.4 ± 1.8 ^a	23.6 ± 1.8 ^a	N.D	N.D	
	Adults	83.1 ± 0.7 ^a	N.D	16.9 ± 0.7 ^a	N.D	

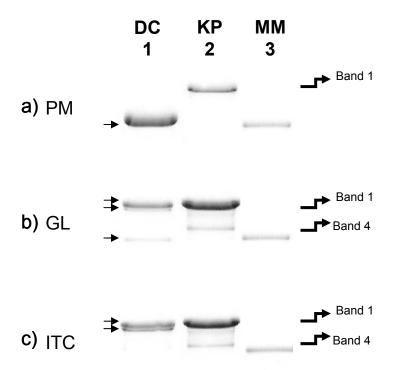


Figure 1: Electrophoretic mobilities of myosin heavy chain (MyHC) isoforms found in *Pectoralis major* (a, PM), *Gastrocnemius lateralis* (b, GL) and *Iliotibialis cranialis* (c, ITC) in the domestic chicken (DC, lane 1) and the king penguin (KP, lane 2). Line 3 (MM) indicates the mobility of porcine myosin heavy chain of a standard molecular mass (200kDa; Laemmli 1970).

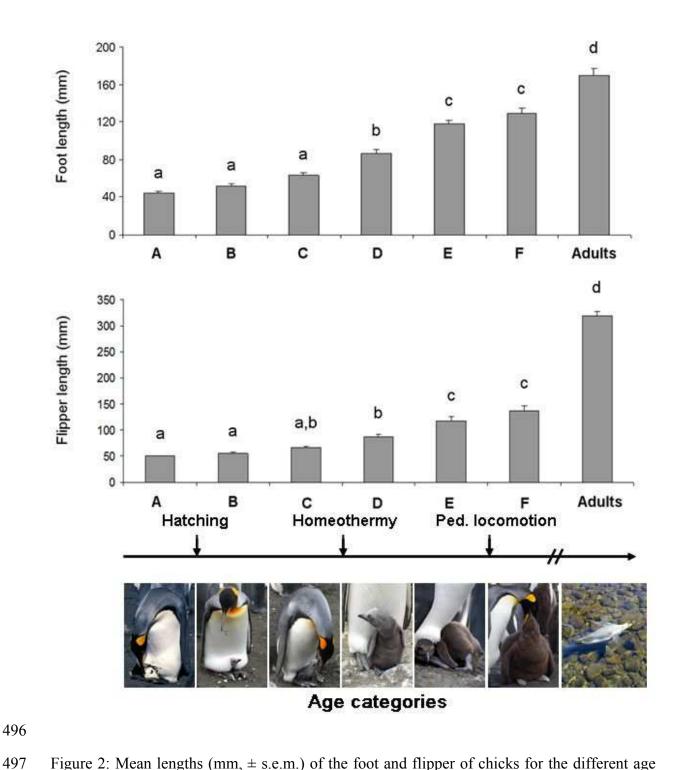
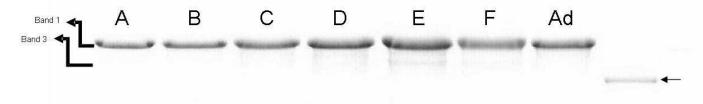
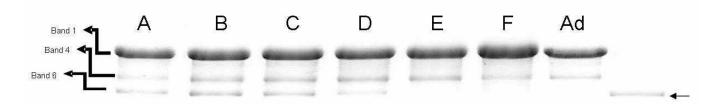


Figure 2: Mean lengths (mm, \pm s.e.m.) of the foot and flipper of chicks for the different age categories (A: < 1 week before hatching, B: 1-3 days, C: 6-7 days, D: 7-15 days, E: 3-4 weeks, F: 1-2 months), and of adults. Different letters indicate significant differences between categories (P < 0.05).

501 a) Pectoralis major



b) Gastrocnemius lateralis



c) Iliotibialis cranialis

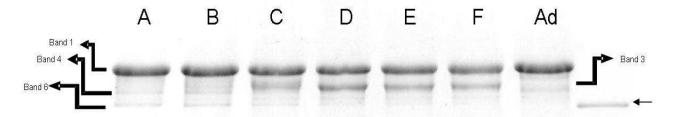


Figure 3: Myosin heavy chain isoforms of three different muscles (a, b, c) of king penguin chicks at different ages and of adults revealed by SDS-PAGE electrophoresis. A, < 1 week before hatching; B, 1-3 days; C, 6-7 days; D, 7-15 days; E, 3-4 weeks; F, 1-2 months; Ad, adults. Small arrows represent porcine myosin heavy chain of a standard molecular mass (200kDa; Laemmli 1970).