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Title: Jaw kinematics and mandibular morphology in humans

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**1 Abstract**

2

3 Understanding the influence of feeding behavior on mandibular morphology is necessary for  
4 interpreting dietary change in fossil hominins. However, mandibular morphology is also likely to  
5 have an effect on feeding behavior, including jaw kinematics. Here we examine the relationships  
6 between mandibular morphology and jaw kinematics in humans using landmark-based  
7 morphometrics to quantify jaw movement. Three-dimensional movements of reflective markers  
8 coupled to the mandible and cranium were used to capture jaw movements while subjects  
9 chewed cubes of raw and cooked sweet potato. Geometric morphometric methods were adapted  
10 to quantify and analyze gape cycle motion paths. Gape cycles varied significantly across  
11 chewing sequences and between raw and cooked sweet potato. Variation in gape cycle size and  
12 shape is related to the width (intergonial distance) and length of the mandible. These results  
13 underline the fact that jaw kinematic variation within and between taxa is related to and may be  
14 influenced by mandibular morphology. Future studies examining kinematic variation should  
15 assess the influence of morphological differences on movement.

16

17

## 18 **1. Introduction**

19

20 Although diet and mandibular morphology have been widely studied in primates, the  
21 relationships between them remain obscure (Hylander, 1979, 1985, 1988; Bouvier and Hylander,  
22 1981; Smith, 1983; Bouvier, 1986a,b; Daegling, 1992; Cole, 1992; Ravosa, 1996, 2000; Taylor,  
23 2002, 2006; Vinyard et al., 2003). One possible reason may be that diet only influences  
24 mandibular morphology indirectly through variation in gross aspects of feeding behavior (Ross  
25 et al., 2012). In turn, feeding behavior is variably impacted by several aspects of diet, including  
26 food geometric and material properties, as well as by an animal's phylogenetic, ecological and  
27 sociological context (e.g., Hylander 2013). However, there is also evidence that, in humans at  
28 least, the direction of causality may in some cases be the reverse of what is traditionally  
29 assumed: i.e., mandibular morphology may affect various aspects of feeding behavior, including  
30 EMG activity and jaw kinematics (Ahlgren, 1966; Møller 1966, Ingervall and Thilander, 1974;  
31 Ingervall and Helkimo, 1978; Kiliaridis et al., 1985). This paper presents a detailed analysis of  
32 relationships between mandibular morphology and jaw kinematics in humans using a novel  
33 application of geometric morphometric techniques to kinematics.

34 A chewing sequence is the sequence of gape cycles from ingestion to swallow and can be  
35 divided into sequentially numbered cyclic jaw movements or gape cycles (Fig. 1). The  
36 kinematics of the gape cycle are typically measured by tracking vertical and lateral displacement  
37 of the jaw over time (e.g. Reed and Ross, 2010; Iriarte-Diaz et al., 2011; Laird, 2017). Vertical  
38 displacement of the jaw during gape cycles is thought to vary as chewing progresses within a  
39 sequence reflecting the breakdown of food particles, bolus formation, changes in external bolus  
40 properties, and changes in food material properties (Foster et al., 2006; Woda et al., 2006;

41 Vinyard et al., 2008). In this context, decreases in vertical displacements and variation in muscle  
42 activity amplitudes through the chewing sequence reflect the decrease in food fragment sizes and  
43 variation in bolus properties as the sequence progresses (Pruim et al., 1978; Manns et al., 1979;  
44 Hylander and Johnson, 1985; Spencer, 1998; Olmsted et al., 2005; Vinyard et al., 2008; Reed  
45 and Ross, 2010; Laird, 2017). In humans, foods with higher toughness are often associated with  
46 greater vertical and lateral jaw displacements during the gape cycle (Anderson et al., 2002;  
47 Foster et al., 2006; Wintergerst et al., 2008; Laird, 2017; but see Takada et al., 1994; Peyron et  
48 al., 1997; Reed and Ross, 2010).

49         What has seldom been addressed is the possibility that jaw kinematics are also impacted  
50 by the overall shape of the mandible. This is of interest because variation in a suite of features of  
51 human mandibular morphology, particularly differences in symphyseal height, overall  
52 anteroposterior length, mediolateral breadth, and the gonial angle, has been associated with  
53 geographic, climatic, dietary, and feeding performance factors (Kaifu, 1997; Nicholson and  
54 Harvati, 2006; von Cramon-Taubadel, 2011; Katz et al., 2017). When modeled as a constrained  
55 lever, variation in the length of mandible will move the dental functional area relative to the  
56 muscle resultant and change the location of maximum bite force production (Greaves, 1978;  
57 Spencer and Demes, 1993). Large vertical bite forces are associated with a short and broad  
58 mandibular ramus, a low coronoid process/shallow mandibular notch, and large bicondylar  
59 breadth (Herring and Herring, 1974). Humans with longer faces, narrower mandibles, and larger  
60 gonial angles have reduced masseter muscle thickness (Throckmorton et al., 1980, Kiliaridis and  
61 Kålebo, 1991; Van Spronsen et al., 1992). These features are thought to influence the mechanical  
62 advantage of the primary jaw adductors -- the masseter and temporalis muscles.

63           However, there is a well-documented trade-off between mechanical advantage and gape  
64 such that larger gapes require greater muscle stretch and/or posteriorly positioned jaw elevator  
65 muscles, negatively impacting jaw mechanical advantage (Herring and Herring, 1974; Lindauer  
66 et al., 1993; Van Eijden and Turkawski, 2001; Hylander, 2013; Iriarte-Diaz et al., 2017). This  
67 indicates that vertical movements of the jaw that stretch the muscles beyond their optimum  
68 length result in decreased mechanical advantage and lower bite forces. Beyond this, the  
69 ontogeny of the mandible is well known to be strongly influenced by its loading history (Moss  
70 and Salentijn, 1969; Pearson and Lieberman, 2004), hence an association between function and  
71 mandibular size and shape is to be expected.

72 We tested a series of hypotheses to investigate how gape cycle size and shape vary with cycle  
73 number across a chewing sequence, food type, and measures of mandibular morphology. First,  
74 gape cycles were hypothesized to change across the chewing sequence (H1), such that gape  
75 cycles are larger at the beginning of the chewing sequence before the food has been broken  
76 down. Gape cycles were also expected to differ between food types (in this case raw and cooked  
77 sweet potato) within each subject, reflecting differences in food particle breakdown, toughness,  
78 and elastic modulus. We hypothesized that raw sweet potato gape cycles will be larger than  
79 cooked sweet potato gape cycles, reflecting food material property-related differences in rates of  
80 particle breakdown and swallow-safe bolus formation (H2). Next, we compared jaw kinematics  
81 across individuals, assessing the extent to which gape cycle variation with food type and cycle  
82 number is consistent across individuals (H3). Finally, we hypothesized that differences in gape  
83 cycles among individuals covary with measures of mandibular size and shape (H4). Specifically,  
84 we hypothesize that smaller gape cycles are associated with greater mandibular mechanical  
85 advantage and tradeoffs between gape and bite-force tradeoffs. Smaller gape cycles would allow

86 subjects to maximize their mechanical advantage and minimize muscular stretch. As there are  
87 likely three-dimensional complexities of jaw movement that can only be quantified and analyzed  
88 using multivariate techniques, we addressed these hypotheses using a novel application of  
89 geometric morphometric techniques to gape cycles. This allows us to quantify and compare the  
90 three-dimensional size and shape of these motions to better understand how cycle size and shape  
91 vary with cycle number, food, and morphology.

## 92 **2. Materials and Methods**

93 Chewing sequences were recorded from twelve adult human subjects (seven women and  
94 five men) between the ages of 21 and 29. Subjects were free from chronic masticatory problems,  
95 had not had dental work within the last six months, and were not missing any teeth (except for  
96 M<sub>3</sub>'s). Each subject completed chewing trials on 15 mm<sup>3</sup> cubes of cooked and raw sweet potato.  
97 To standardize the start of the chewing sequence, subjects completed two chewing trials in which  
98 they were asked to start chewing with the cube on their right lower first molar. Subjects were  
99 asked to chew at their normal rate only on the right side until all particles were swallowed. Side-  
100 imposed chewing reflects normal unilateral loading during mastication and allowed us to capture  
101 variation in jaw movements without differences in loading side or food movement within the  
102 mouth. The chewing trials took place at the Human Evolution and Energetics Lab at Hunter  
103 College. All subjects were volunteers and gave informed consent before participating in the  
104 study. The New York University Committee on Activities Involving Human Subjects (project  
105 number 11-8561), and the Hunter College Human Research Protection Program (project number  
106 11-08-165-4471) granted approval for the study.

107 The cooked sweet potato was prepared by boiling the cubes for five minutes at 100° C.  
108 Raw and cooked sweet potato appear to differ in food toughness (the work needed to propagate a

109 crack through an object: Cooked:  $57.15 \pm 18.8$ ; Raw:  $841.0 \pm 75.63$ ), and elastic modulus (the  
110 ratio of stress to strain within the elastic region of the food: Cooked:  $0.03 \pm 0.02$ ; Raw:  
111  $3.65 \pm 0.99$ )

## 112 *2.1 Distinguishing gape cycles*

113 A Vicon motion capture system ([www.vicon.com](http://www.vicon.com)) recording at 200 Hz was used to  
114 capture the three-dimensional coordinates of a series of six reflective markers adhered to each  
115 subject's face using double-sided tape directly above the following osteological landmarks:  
116 pogonion, nasion, right and left condyilion laterale, and right and left gonion (Fig. 2; Table 1).  
117 Reflectors were placed on three subjects on two separate occasions to test intra-observer error in  
118 marker placement. There were no significant differences in the pairwise distances between the  
119 markers (using a Student T-Test,  $p = 0.72$ ). Unless noted, all data formatting and analyses were  
120 run in R (R Core Team, 2017).

121 Gape cycles within a chewing sequence were identified using the change in distance  
122 between the three-dimensional coordinates at nasion and pogonion, which changes over time  
123 with jaw opening and closing. Gape cycles were specifically defined as the sequential departure  
124 from- and return to the point of minimum gape (Hiiemae, 1978; Bramble and Wake, 1985).  
125 Local minima were found using the R package 'quantmod,' and the time points of these minima  
126 were used to distinguish individual gape cycles throughout the chewing sequence. Jaw  
127 movements with longer durations or atypical movement patterns were attributed to swallows or  
128 food positioning within the mouth and were excluded. Gape cycles throughout the chewing  
129 sequence were sequentially numbered (cycle number). All analyses were restricted to the first 20  
130 gape cycles in the chewing sequence in order to capture the greatest change in jaw movement  
131 relating to particle breakdown and bolus formation. Gape cycles beyond cycle number 20 are



132 likely to be primarily for bolus formation and positioning before swallowing, and jaw  
133 movements are less likely to reflect differences in food material properties. Included gape cycles  
134 were also restricted to those starting and ending in the same position (maximum occlusion). The  
135 resulting data consisted of x, y, z coordinate data for each of the six landmarks for individual  
136 gape cycles throughout the chewing sequence.

137         Varying gape cycle durations resulted in differences in the number of equally temporally  
138 spaced frames in each cycle, and it was necessary to standardize the number of frames per cycle  
139 in order to make comparisons of homologous landmarks. The coordinates for each landmark  
140 were resampled and interpolated to obtain a total of 99 frames per cycle. This resulted in each  
141 gape cycle being represented as a motion path of 99 temporally evenly spaced three-dimensional  
142 marker coordinates for each of the six markers. To remove the effects of head movement during  
143 chewing, the 99 frame gape cycles were translated and rotated to three fixed facial landmarks  
144 averaged across all subjects (nasion, left and right condylion laterale). The first point of  
145 pogonion in each gape cycle was then translated to the coordinates 0, 0, 0. This registers the  
146 cycles among subjects such that pogonion with the mouth closed is coincident and the planes  
147 defined by the upper facial landmarks are parallel. This 'biomechanical space' registration  
148 preserves information about cycle size, shape, and orientation. We focused on movement of the  
149 pogonion point because it is furthest from the axis of rotation, although rigid-body motion of the  
150 mandible also resulted in associated movements at the right and left gonial landmarks.  
151 Landmarks were also extracted for each subject at the point of maximum occlusion (mouth  
152 closed). Three Euclidean distances and one angle were calculated from these landmarks:  
153 intergonial distance, pogonion to gonion, gonion to condylion laterale, and the gonial angle  
154 (Table 2).

## 155 2.2 Application of geometric morphometrics to kinematics

156 Previous multivariate approaches to kinematics have either been restricted to motions at a  
157 joint (Park et al., 2005), or have utilized a Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA), thereby  
158 removing biomechanically relevant differences in scale, position, and orientation (Slice 1999,  
159 2002, 2003; Adams and Cerney, 2007; Pearson and Zumwalt, 2014). We adapt the geometric  
160 morphometric toolkit to quantify and analyze whole motion paths (kinematics) in the Euclidean  
161 space in which musculoskeletal mechanics operate, here called biomechanical space.

162 Biomechanical space is defined as the size and shape of a three-dimensional motion path for a  
163 single point translated to a common fixed point (the point pogonion with jaws closed is taken as  
164 the common start point for registration without scaling or rotation). Importantly, motion paths in  
165 biomechanical space retain size, shape, and orientation and other biomechanically relevant  
166 information such as velocity or posture.

## 167 2.3 Within subject analyses (H1 and H2)

168 In order to analyze how gape cycle size and shape varied across the chewing sequence  
169 within each subject and food type, the coordinates of pogonion were averaged across the two  
170 repeated chewing sequences for each cycle and food item (e.g., average of the two raw sweet  
171 potato gape cycles for cycle number five). The resulting mean 1<sup>st</sup> to 20<sup>th</sup> gape cycles for raw  
172 sweet potato and cooked sweet potato in each subject were used to test H1 and H2.

173 To test if gape cycles vary with cycle order across gapes 1-20 (H1), a multivariate  
174 regression was used to regress averaged gape cycle coordinates on cycle number within each  
175 subject. Significance of the regression was estimated using a permutation test (999  
176 permutations). All multivariate regressions were carried out using the R package ‘geomorph’  
177 (Adams and Otárola-Castillo, 2013). To test whether the relationship between gape cycles and

178 cycle number varies between food types within each subject, we calculated the angle between the  
179 regression vectors for each food type using a permutation test (999 permutations) in the R  
180 package ‘morpho’ (Schlager, 2017).

181 We assess the pattern of variation of gape cycles within the sample by carrying out a  
182 principal component analysis (PCA) (performed in “Geomorph,” Adams and Otárola-Castillo,  
183 2013). We visualize the variation in registered gape cycle coordinates between either extreme of  
184 the first principal component (PC1) and its relationship with cycle order. Importantly, the  
185 resulting principal components were only used as a visualization tool and not used to statistically  
186 compare cycle changes with order and food types. The eigenvalues, proportion of variance, and  
187 cumulative proportion of variance are listed in the Supplemental Online Material (SOM Table  
188 S1).

#### 189 *2.4 Among subject analyses (H3 and H4)*

190 When registered to common points across individuals, gape cycle motion paths in  
191 biomechanical space also reflect differences in mid-facial form and gape cycle orientation.  
192 Although these differences were likely small within humans, we carried out a second set of  
193 analyses in Procrustes space to focus on differences in cycle size and shape alone. In order to  
194 transform the gape cycles from biomechanical space to Procrustes space we carried out a  
195 generalized Procrustes analysis (GPA) of gape cycle landmark coordinates and rescaled the  
196 resulting cycle shape coordinates by their centroid sizes. In the resulting Procrustes size and  
197 shape space, distances directly relate to relative landmark displacements between configurations.  
198 After pooling all individuals, gape cycle coordinates in biomechanical space and Procrustes size  
199 and shape space were separately averaged at each cycle number (1-20) for both raw and cooked  
200 sweet potato. This resulted in four datasets used to test H3 and H4: raw sweet potato in

201 biomechanical space, cooked sweet potato in biomechanical space, raw sweet potato in  
202 Procrustes space, and cooked sweet potato in Procrustes space.

203         Multivariate regressions and the angles between the food type regression vectors  
204 (described above) were used to assess the relationships between gape cycles and cycle number  
205 among individuals in biomechanical and Procrustes space (H3). Multivariate regressions with  
206 permutation tests (999 permutations, run in Geomorph) were used to test whether measures of  
207 mandibular morphology were correlated with gape cycle size and shape in biomechanical and  
208 Procrustes space. Gape cycle variation with cycle number and measures of mandibular  
209 morphology was visualized using a PCA (described above).

### 210 **3. Results**

#### 211 *3.1 Within subjects, gape cycles change across the chewing sequence (H1)*

212         For both foods, gape cycles vary in form and orientation throughout the chewing  
213 sequence (Table 3). In six of the subjects, gape cycles for raw sweet potato covaried significantly  
214 with cycle number (Table 3). When chewing cooked sweet potatoes, gape cycles were  
215 significantly associated with cycle number in one of the subjects (Table 3).

#### 216 *3.2 Within subjects, cycles will vary with cycle number for raw and cooked sweet potato (H2)*

217         Gape cycles, in biomechanical space, vary more for raw than cooked sweet potato across  
218 the chewing sequence. Half of the subjects had significantly different angles between the vectors  
219 of the regressions between cycle number and raw and cooked sweet potato gape cycles (Table 3).  
220 This indicates that gape cycles differ over time, between food types.

#### 221 *3.3 Among subjects, gape cycle variation with food type and cycle number is consistent (H3)*

222         With all subjects combined, a multivariate regression of the average gape cycle sizes  
223 shapes and orientations (for cycle orders 1-20, in biomechanical space) on cycle number was

224 significant for cooked sweet potatoes ( $p = 0.01$ ), but not raw sweet potatoes ( $p = 0.55$ ). For  
225 cooked sweet potato, gape cycles are larger at the beginning of the chewing sequence and  
226 become narrower with increasing cycle number (Fig. 3A). The angle between the regression  
227 vectors for each food type is significant ( $p = 0.05$ ). A multivariate regression of the average  
228 Procrustes aligned gape cycle sizes and shapes (1-20) on cycle number was significant for  
229 cooked sweet potato ( $p < 0.01$ ) but not for raw sweet potato ( $p = 0.18$ ). Similar to biomechanical  
230 space, cooked sweet potato gape cycles were wider at the beginning of the chewing sequence  
231 (Fig. 3B). A permutation test on the angle between the regression vectors using the Procrustes  
232 aligned coordinates was not significant ( $p = 0.29$ ).

233 *3.4 Among subjects, gape cycles will covary with measures of mandibular size and shape (H4)*

234 Multivariate regressions with permutation tests of average raw and cooked sweet potato  
235 gape cycles in biomechanical space on the distance between the right gonion to right condylion  
236 laterale were not significant (Table 4). However, gape cycles significantly varied with intergonial  
237 distance and the distance from pogonion to gonion for raw and cooked sweet potato (Fig. 4A-D).  
238 Gape cycles also significantly varied with gonial angle for raw sweet potato (Fig. 4E). In all of  
239 these relationships, narrower gape cycles were associated with larger pogonion to gonion and  
240 intergonial distances when visualized along PC1. In multivariate regressions of Procrustes size  
241 and shape variables with permutation tests on mandibular measurements, only the distance  
242 between pogonion and gonion and intergonial distance achieved significance when chewing raw  
243 sweet potato (Fig. 5A-B; Table 4). Longer pogonion to gonion and intergonial distances were  
244 associated with narrower gape cycles (Fig. 5A-B).

245

## 246 **4. Discussion**

247 Studies relating variation in diet to mandibular morphology in primates have had varying  
248 success. Ross et al. (2012) propose that this is because diet influences mandibular morphology  
249 through other hierarchically-arranged variables such as ingestive behavior and jaw kinematics,  
250 along with their associated loading, stress, and strain regimes. Here we have addressed part of  
251 this relationship by examining how gape cycle variation differs between food types and across  
252 the gape cycle across and within individuals, and by evaluating the relationship between jaw  
253 kinematics and mandibular morphology. Our results reveal that mandibular morphology relates  
254 to differences in jaw movements, suggesting that investigations of diet and feeding behavior  
255 should consider possible impacts of mandibular morphology on behavioral variation. Future  
256 studies examining kinematic variation across individuals or taxa should also evaluate the  
257 influence of mandibular morphology on kinematic variation.

#### 258 *4.1 Within individuals, gape cycles vary with cycle number and food type (H1)*

259 The results in Table 3 support the hypothesis that gape cycles vary across the chewing  
260 sequence in most subjects for raw sweet potato. This is consistent with previous studies  
261 suggesting that vertical displacement of the jaw and masticatory muscle activation decrease  
262 across a chewing sequence (Pruim et al., 1978; Manns et al., 1979; Hylander and Johnson, 1985;  
263 Spencer, 1998; Olmsted et al., 2005; Vinyard et al., 2008; Reed and Ross, 2010). Greater vertical  
264 jaw displacement at the beginning of the chewing sequence is thought to reflect the period of  
265 greatest food particle breakdown (Plesh et al., 1986; Foster et al., 2006; Woda et al., 2006;  
266 Vinyard et al., 2008; Reed and Ross, 2010; Laird et al., 2016). The lack of significant changes in  
267 gape cycle size and shape with cycle number in cooked sweet potato likely relates to the  
268 relatively soft food material properties of cooked sweet potato. Cooked sweet potato did not

269 require multiple chewing cycles in order to break the food into particles -- rather gape cycles  
270 were likely related to bolus formation.

271 *4.2 Within individuals, gape cycle variation with cycle number differs for raw and cooked sweet*  
272 *potato (H2)*

273         The regressions between cycle number and gape cycle size and shape differed between  
274 raw and cooked sweet potato in most individuals (H2, Table 3). Because the size and shape of  
275 the ingested food objects was uniform, gape cycle variation reflects differences in food material  
276 properties and bolus formation between raw and cooked sweet potato. Larger jaw vertical  
277 displacements have previously been associated with foods of higher toughness (Anderson et al.,  
278 2002; Foster et al., 2006; Wintergerst et al., 2008; but see Takada et al., 1994; Peyron et al.,  
279 1997). Additionally, the raw and cooked sweet potato regressions did not converge as cycle  
280 number progressed. This implies that preparation of a swallow-safe bolus from foods of different  
281 initial properties does not impose a common pattern of jaw kinematics after the initial food  
282 breakdown and bolus formation. It is possible that this result reflects our experimental setup as  
283 subjects generally swallowed the cooked sweet potato before the raw sweet potato. However, our  
284 results suggest that food material properties influence jaw movements and that these motions are  
285 incompletely described by vertical or lateral linear displacements (e.g., Reed and Ross, 2010;  
286 Laird, 2017). The consistency of covariation between gape cycles and food material properties  
287 requires further testing over a large range of food items.

288 *4.2 Among individuals, gape cycle variation with cycle number and food type is consistent across*  
289 *subjects (H3)*

290         We assessed the relationships between gape cycles and cycle number across all subjects.  
291 Gape cycles significantly varied with cycle number across subjects in cooked sweet potato and

292 there was a significant difference between the raw and cooked sweet potato vectors. This result  
293 differs from the within subject analyses in that cooked sweet potato was only correlated with  
294 cycle order in one subject (Table 3). This difference may reflect differences in bite conditions  
295 across subjects that are beyond experimental control. For example, food positioning, food  
296 fracture, and bite forces are unlikely to be consistent across subjects for a particular gape cycle  
297 number. Regardless, the analyses both within and across subjects consistently showed diverging  
298 regressions between raw and cooked sweet potatoes. Results from the Procrustes aligned  
299 coordinates also significantly differed with chew number; however, the angle between the  
300 vectors was not significantly different, suggesting that orientation and registration of cycles at  
301 the pogonion with jaw closed account for the differences found in the among-subject between-  
302 food cycles in biomechanical space.

#### 303 *4.3 Among individuals, gape cycles covary with the size and shape of the face (H4)*

304 We explored covariation between mandibular size, shape, and orientation and gape cycles  
305 using linear measures of mandibular morphology. We found that intergonial distance and the  
306 distance from pogonion to gonion were related to gape cycle size and shape in both cooked and  
307 raw sweet potatoes, and differences in the gonial angle were associated with gape cycle size and  
308 shape in raw sweet potato. The gape cycles visualized on PC1 suggests subjects with longer  
309 intergonial and pogonion to gonion distances and larger gonial angles have wider gape cycles.  
310 Together, results from the biomechanical and Procrustes analyses suggest that gape cycle  
311 variation with chewing sequence order and food material properties is mediated by differences in  
312 the length and width of the mandible. When Procrustes size and shape variables were used to  
313 describe motion cycles, a similar relationship was found for intergonial distance and the distance  
314 from pogonion to gonion in raw sweet potatoes.



315           Our data suggest that gape cycle size and shape vary with size of the gonial angle,  
316 intergonial distance, and anteroposterior mandibular length (measured as pogonion to gonion),  
317 and covariation between gape cycles and mandibular morphology is consistent with previous  
318 proposals relating morphological variation to mechanical advantage. Subjects with acute gonial  
319 angles and broader mandibular breadth presumably have masseter and temporalis muscles that  
320 are positioned more anteriorly relative to the tooth row resulting in increased mechanical  
321 advantage and increased muscle activation (Herring and Herring, 1974; Throckmorton et al.,  
322 1980; Lindauer et al., 1993; Van Eijden and Turkawski, 2001; Hylander, 2013). We propose that  
323 smaller gape cycles were used in these subjects in order to maximize their mechanical advantage  
324 and minimize muscular stretch. Subjects with an obtuse gonial angle, smaller intergonial  
325 distance, and anteroposteriorly shorter mandibles may have had lower mechanical advantage, but  
326 they used larger gape cycles potentially allowing greater intraoral bolus manipulation. Further  
327 investigation of the morphological influences on jaw motions and bite force production is needed  
328 using taxa with varying mandibular morphology and data on individual variation in muscle  
329 mechanics (cf. Iriarte-Diaz et al., 2017).

330           Alternatively, changes in mechanical advantage may not be driving variation in jaw  
331 kinematics in modern humans. The magnitude of variation in jaw kinematics during normal  
332 chewing and mandibular morphology in modern humans may be small enough to not result in  
333 significant biomechanical differences in gape, muscle stretch, and mechanical advantage. This is  
334 consistent with suggestions that masticatory biomechanical constraints do not direct facial  
335 variation in *Homo sapiens* (Demes and Creel., 1988; O’Conner et al., 2005; Eng et al., 2013).  
336 Differences in gape cycle size and shape with mandibular morphology may instead reflect other  
337 factors such as relative differences in facial retraction, occlusal topography, or variation in

338 tongue manipulation of a food item. In order to assess whether mechanical advantage is an  
339 important factor driving jaw kinematics, additional tests are needed using taxa with large  
340 differences in facial prognathism and gape. Tests are also needed to examine the influence of  
341 craniofacial morphology on aspects of feeding biomechanics outside of jaw kinematics, such as  
342 chewing sequence duration, gape cycle length, or opening and closing length and velocity.

343 *4.4 Geometric morphometrics, kinematics, and application to fossil hominin form-function*  
344 *relationships*

345         The development and application of geometric morphometric methods has transformed  
346 quantitative approaches to comparative morphology. However, application of a geometric toolkit  
347 to complex kinematic forms is less common and raises important questions regarding appropriate  
348 methods. Here we present a novel application of geometric morphometric methods to the  
349 quantification of kinematic variation. Our approach differs from previous methods in that the  
350 orientations of the gape cycles are retained in biomechanical space, and the size and shape of the  
351 whole gape cycle is treated as a single object, the motion cycle. This approach allows variation in  
352 motion size and shape to be related to important variables in biomechanical space, including  
353 muscular and bony morphology.

354         Previous studies on gape cycle kinematics have focused on maximum horizontal and  
355 vertical displacement of the jaw (Reed and Ross, 2009; Iriarte-Diaz et al., 2010; Laird, 2017), but  
356 our analyses suggest that the gape cycles undergo size and shape changes not captured by  
357 maximum linear displacements. The position of maximum vertical and horizontal displacement  
358 differed among subjects and across chew number. For example, maximum horizontal  
359 displacement may occur closest to maximum gape in some subjects or closer to minimum gape  
360 in others. This variation suggests maximum kinematic displacements may not be homologous

361 aspects of motion size and shape across individuals. Gape cycles also underwent size and shape  
362 changes outside of maximum displacement. Some gape cycles narrowed at maximum and  
363 minimum gape, whereas others maintained greater horizontal dimensions. This implies that  
364 displacements may not capture the subtleties of size and shape differences of three-dimensional  
365 kinematics. Our approach also compared among individual results in both biomechanical and  
366 Procrustes space. Overall, the results from biomechanical and Procrustes space were similar, but  
367 the angles between regression vectors of raw and cooked sweet potato gape cycle and chew  
368 number significantly differed in (H3), and fewer measures of mandibular morphology were  
369 significantly correlated with gape cycle size and shape in Procrustes space compared to  
370 biomechanical space (H4). This difference implies that gape cycle orientation influences some  
371 aspects of gape cycle variation.

372         This study demonstrates the utility and importance of employing a geometric  
373 morphometric toolkit to analyzing three-dimensional movements and its applicability to  
374 questions relevant to paleoanthropology. In particular, this approach allows a direct examination  
375 of covariation between movement and morphology that can be used to understand morphological  
376 and functional variation. For example, this approach can test how pelvic morphology covaries  
377 with locomotor gait in order to address the functional implications of pelvic variation in fossil  
378 hominins. This approach may potentially allow future studies to examine how complex  
379 movements relate to a range of variables including morphology, kinetics, and energetics.  
380

381 **Figure Captions**

382 **Figure 1.** A sample chewing sequence with gapes 1-10 numbered. The x-axis is frames per  
383 second (FPS). The y-axis is jaw displacement such that 0 is maximum jaw closure. A single gape  
384 cycle, chew number 5, is demarcated by the gray area.

385

386 **Figure 2.** Six osteometric landmarks (A) and the location of the reflectors placed on the  
387 overlying skin (B). Euclidean distances of mandibular morphology calculated from the marker  
388 locations.

389

390 **Figure 3.** Visualization of the relationships between cooked sweet potatoes gape cycles in  
391 biomechanical space (A) and Procrustes space (C and D) and chew number. Gape cycle size and  
392 shape variation captured by the first principal component (PC1) are shown along the y-axes.

393

394 **Figure 4.** Visualization of correlations between gape cycles in biomechanical space and  
395 measures of mandibular morphology. Gape cycle size and shape variation for raw sweet  
396 potatoes (A, C, and E) or cooked sweet potatoes (B and D) are shown for the first principal  
397 component (PC1) along the y-axes. Only significant relationships are shown.

398

399 **Figure 5.** Visualization of correlations between gape cycles in Procrustes space and measures of  
400 mandibular morphology. Only significant relationships are shown. Gape cycle size and shape  
401 variation for raw sweet potatoes are shown for the first principal component (PC1) on the y-axes.

402

403

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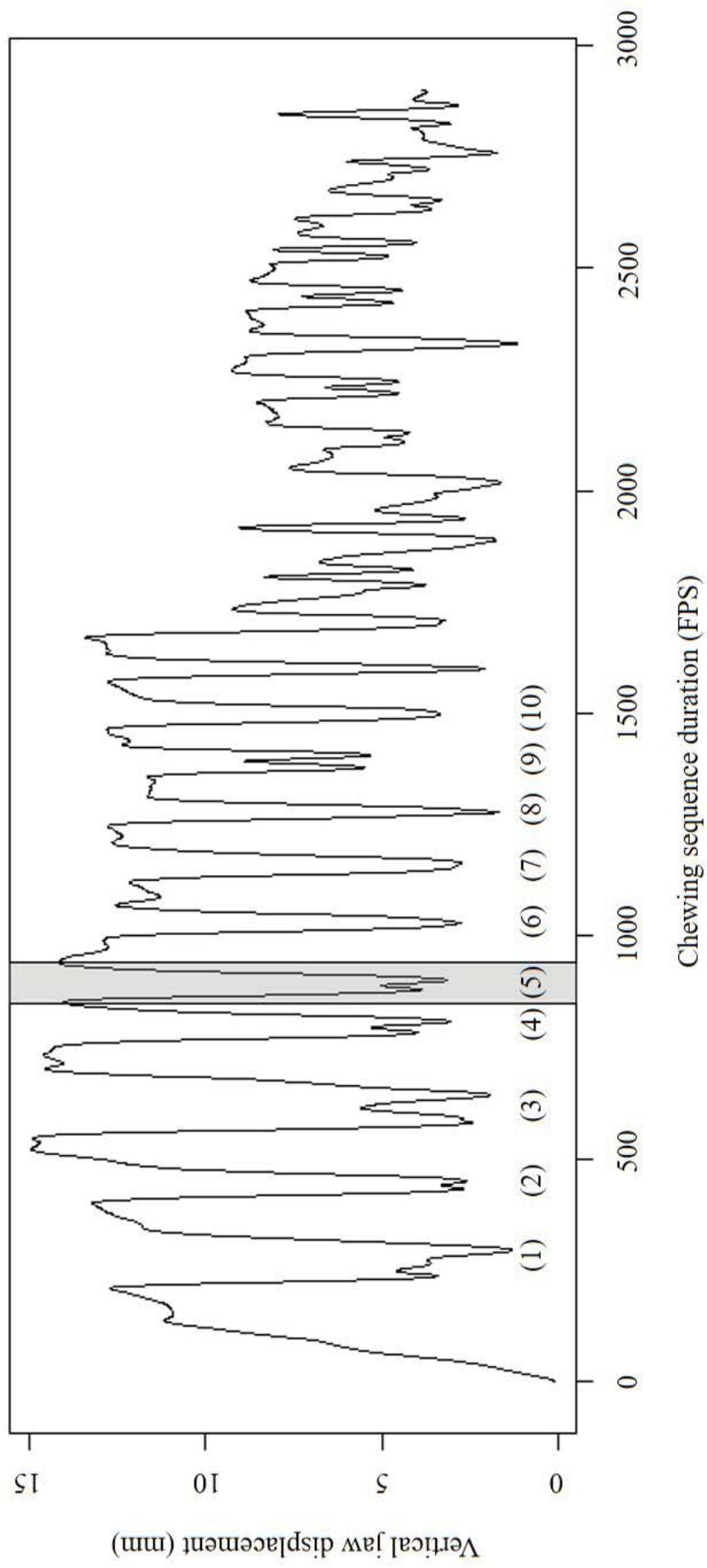
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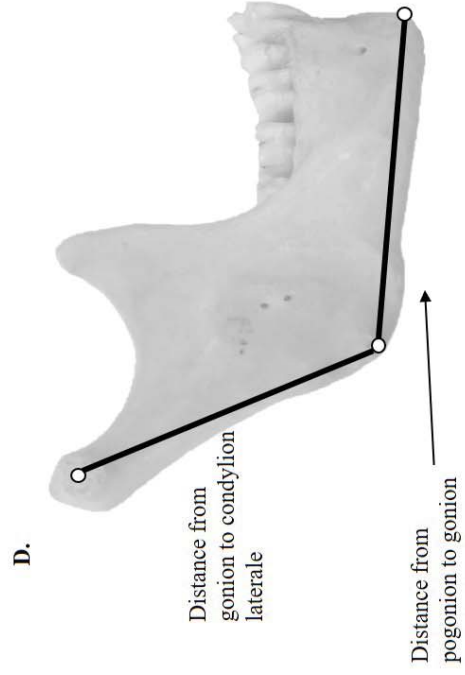
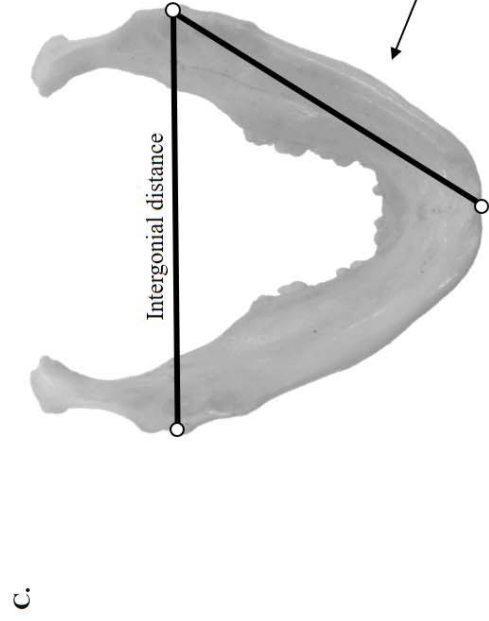
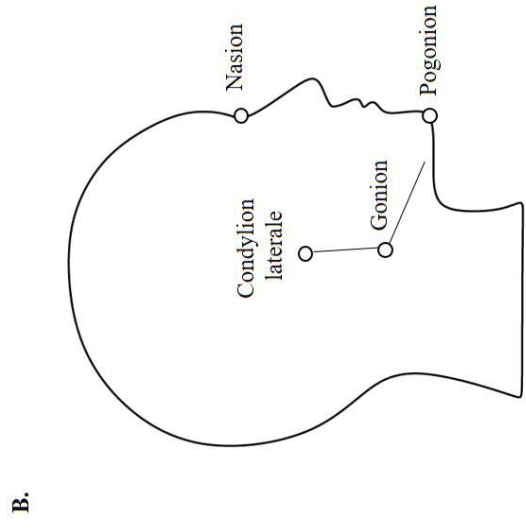
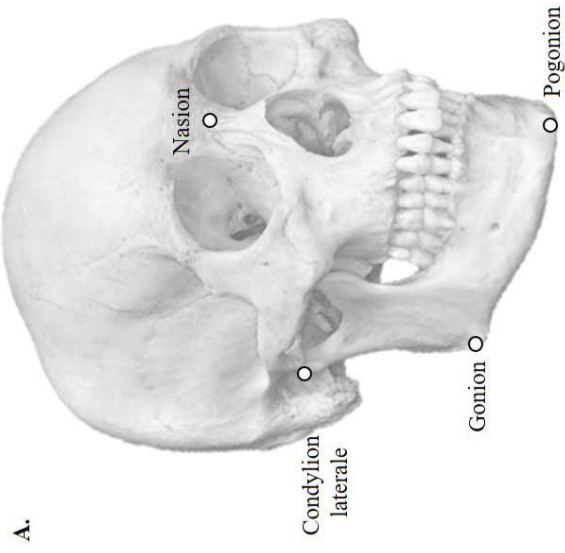


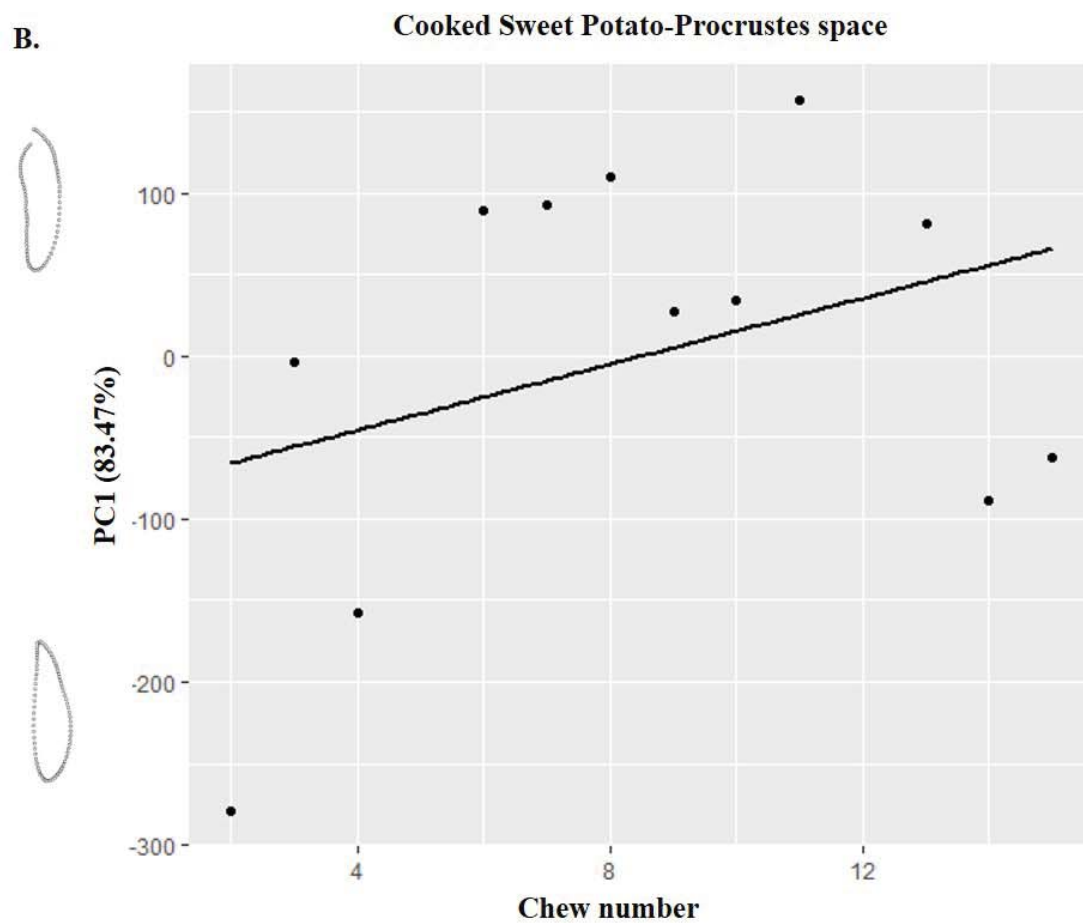
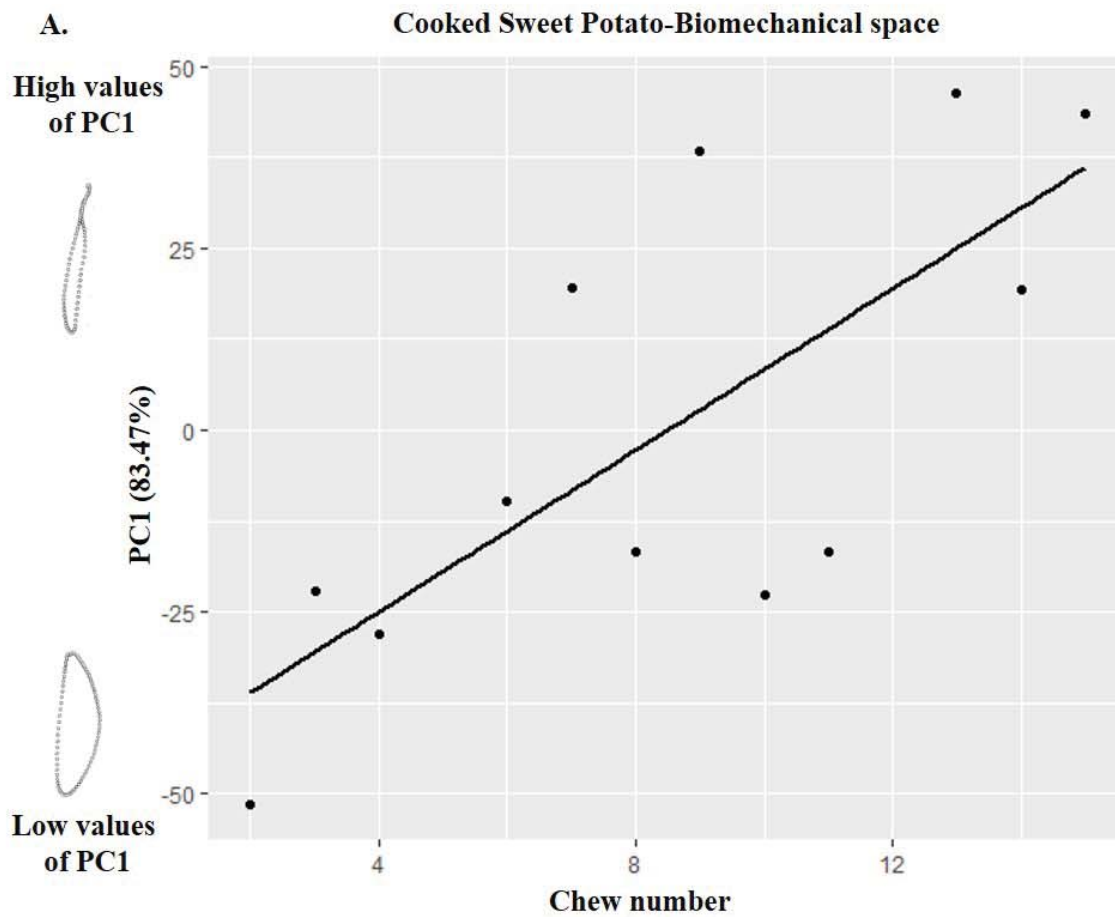
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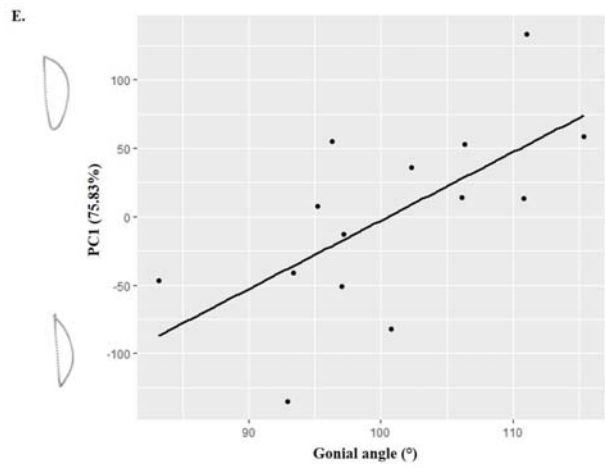
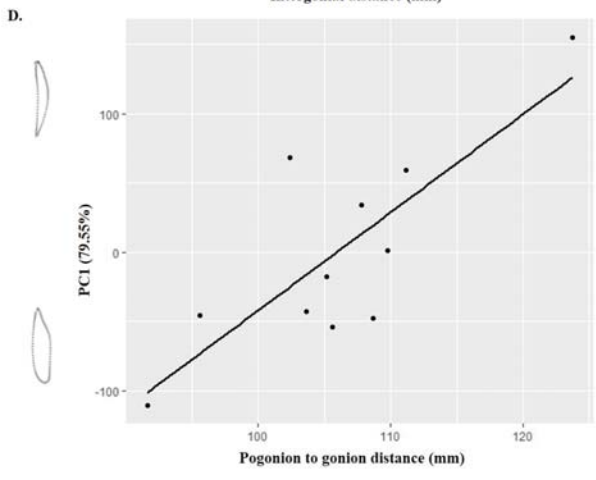
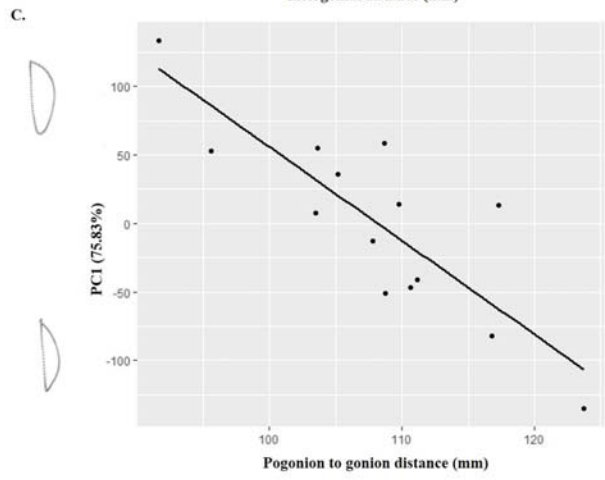
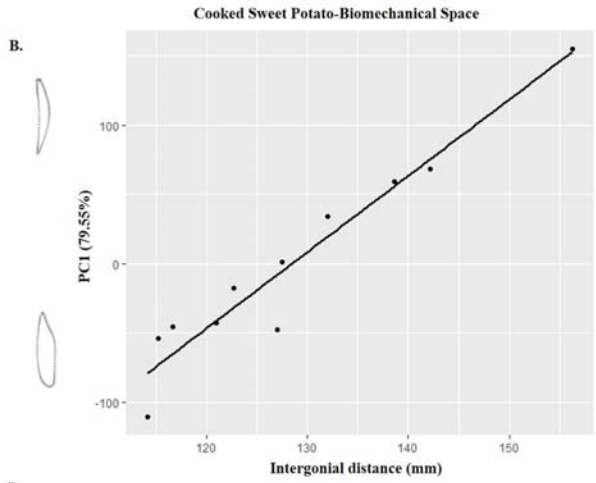
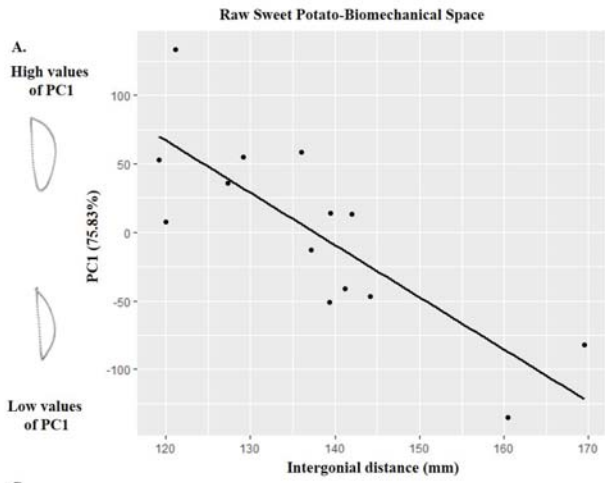
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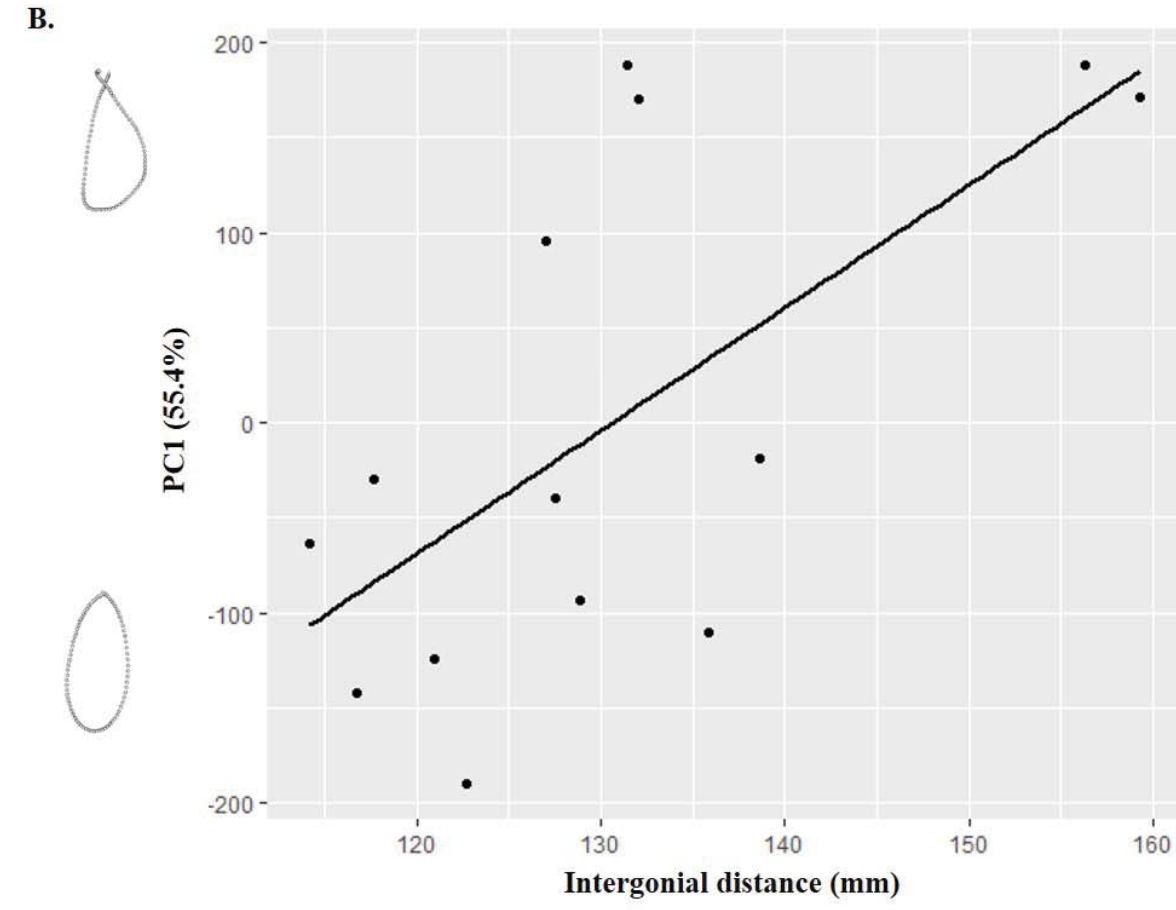
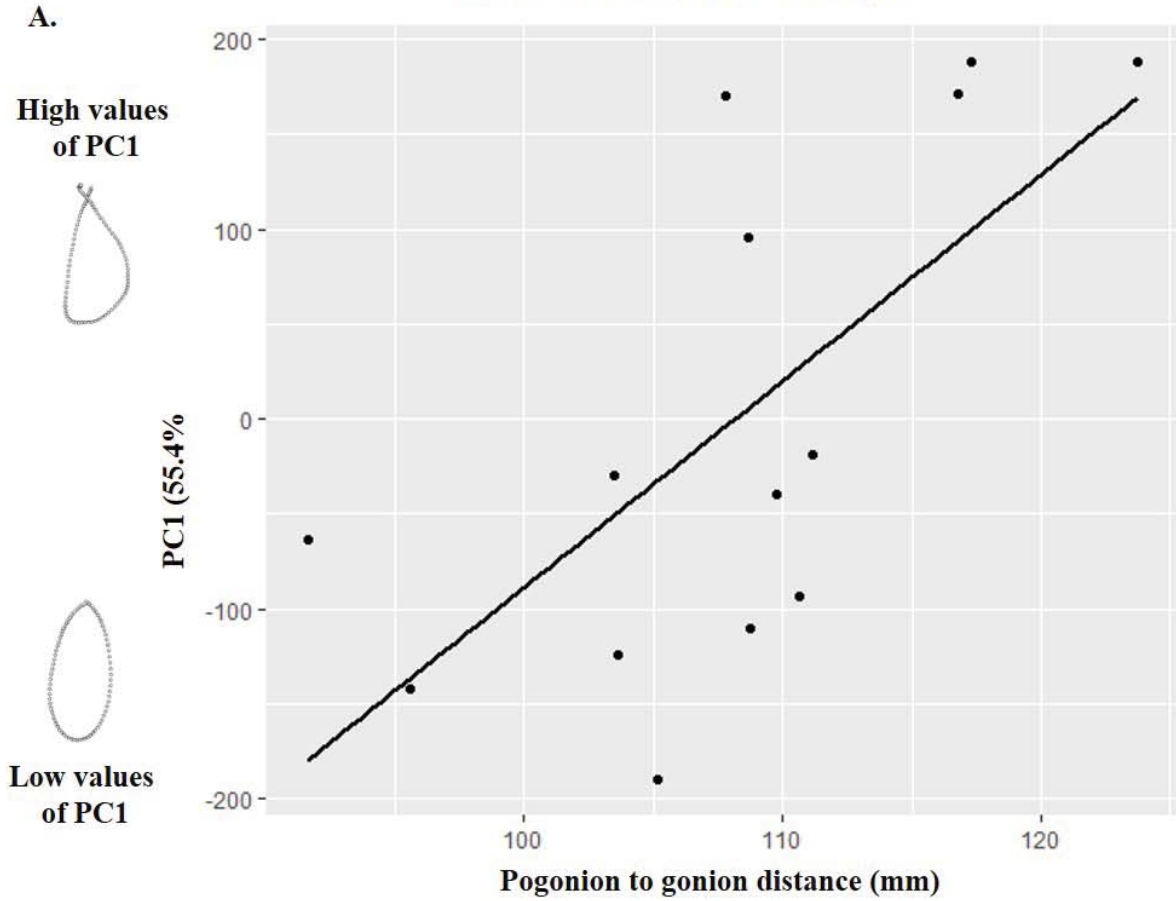








Raw Sweet Potato-Procrustes Space





**Supplementary Online Material (SOM):**

Title page information (Removed for review).

**SOM Table S1**

Eigenvalues, Percentage of total variance explained, and cumulative variance from each of the principal component analyses used for visualization (Figure 3 and 4).

<b>H3: RSP biomechanical space</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Percentage of total variance explained</b>	<b>Cumulative variance explained</b>
PC1	152.0388	0.7254	0.7254
PC2	41.94376	0.2001	0.9256
PC3	6.484204	0.03094	0.95651
PC4	3.636153	0.01735	0.97386
PC5	2.08895	0.00997	0.98383
PC6	0.916615	0.00437	0.9882
PC7	0.614844	0.00293	0.99114
PC8	0.56181	0.00268	0.99382
PC9	0.475245	0.00227	0.99609
PC10	0.2468	0.00118	0.99726
PC11	0.213435	0.00102	0.99828
PC12	0.196843	0.00094	0.99922
PC13	0.090222	0.00043	0.99965
PC14	0.039133	0.00019	0.99984
PC15	0.018692	0.00009	0.99993
PC16	0.010539	0.00005	0.99998
PC17	0.004772	0.00002	1

<b>H3: CSP biomechanical space</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Percentage of total variance explained</b>	<b>Cumulative variance explained</b>
PC1	5518.93	0.7955	0.7955
PC2	1031.553	0.1487	0.9442
PC3	322.0342	0.04642	0.9906
PC4	40.66702	0.00586	0.99646
PC5	9.752504	0.00141	0.99787
PC6	8.529671	0.00123	0.9991
PC7	3.153998	0.00045	0.99955
PC8	1.883811	0.00027	0.99982
PC9	0.808057	0.00012	0.99994
PC10	0.406585	0.00006	1

<b>H3: RSP Procrustes space</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Percentage of total variance explained</b>	<b>Cumulative variance explained</b>
PC1	2995.001	0.6937	0.6937

PC2	674.6383	0.1563	0.85
PC3	253.1268	0.05863	0.90864
PC4	161.4729	0.0374	0.946
PC5	79.17547	0.01834	0.96438
PC6	68.51403	0.01587	0.98025
PC7	29.17858	0.00676	0.98701
PC8	23.73346	0.0055	0.9925
PC9	9.28555	0.00215	0.99466
PC10	8.232768	0.00191	0.99657
PC11	4.418908	0.00102	0.99759
PC12	4.106581	0.00095	0.99854
PC13	2.742303	0.00064	0.99918
PC14	1.360676	0.00032	0.99949
PC15	1.060509	0.00025	0.99974
PC16	0.730615	0.00017	0.99991
PC17	0.405361	0.00009	1

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<b>H3: CSP Procrustes space</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Percentage of total variance explained</b>	<b>Cumulative variance explained</b>
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PC1	16025.89	0.5853	0.5853
PC2	10116.44	0.3695	0.9548
PC3	630.2424	0.02302	0.97777
PC4	289.9633	0.01059	0.98836
PC5	170.8908	0.00624	0.99461
PC6	54.58978	0.00199	0.9966
PC7	44.27851	0.00162	0.99822
PC8	21.93986	0.0008	0.999
PC9	16.75298	0.00061	0.99963
PC10	6.56287	0.00024	0.99987
PC11	3.57331	0.00013	1

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<b>H4: RSP biomechanical space</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Percentage of total variance explained</b>	<b>Cumulative variance explained</b>
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PC1	4643.1	0.7583	0.7583
PC2	1163.929	0.1901	0.9484
PC3	235.4313	0.03845	0.98688
PC4	35.46655	0.00579	0.99268
PC5	23.60162	0.00385	0.99653
PC6	8.572013	0.0014	0.9979
PC7	4.791984	0.00078	0.99871
PC8	3.113813	0.00051	0.99922

PC9	2.616242	0.00043	0.99965
PC10	1.086577	0.00018	0.99983
PC11	0.651766	0.00011	0.99993
PC12	0.274335	0.00004	0.99998
PC13	0.126323	0.00002	1

<b>H4: CSP biomechanical space</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Percentage of total variance explained</b>	<b>Cumulative variance explained</b>
PC1	5518.93	0.7955	0.7955
PC2	1031.553	0.1487	0.9442
PC3	322.0342	0.04642	0.9906
PC4	40.66702	0.00586	0.99646
PC5	9.752504	0.00141	0.99787
PC6	8.529671	0.00123	0.9991
PC7	3.153998	0.00045	0.99955
PC8	1.883811	0.00027	0.99982
PC9	0.808057	0.00012	0.99994
PC10	0.406585	0.00006	1

**Table 1.** Reflective marker locations, landmark definitions (White and Folkens, 2000), and operational definitions applied here.

Marker location	Landmark Definition	Operational definition
Right and left condylion laterale	Most lateral point on the mandibular condyle at minimum gape	Subjects asked to repeatedly open and close their mouth; marker placed over condylion laterale at minimum gape.
Right and left gonion	Most posteroinferior point where the mandibular ramus meets the corpus	Marker placed over palpable gonion at minimum gape
Nasion	The intersection of the two nasal bones and frontal bone	Marker placed at the most posteroinferior midline point below glabella
Pogonion	The most anterior midline point on the chin	Marker placed over palpable pogonion point at minimum gape.

**Table 2.** Mandibular measurements from each subject taken when the jaw was in maximum occlusion.

	Pogonion to right gonion (mm)	Intergonial distance (mm)	Right gonion to right condylion laterale (mm)	Gonial angle (°)
Subject 1	103.48	117.68	71.80	95.16
Subject 2	108.70	126.98	73.27	115.40
Subject 3	116.82	159.30	72.81	100.75
Subject 4	91.62	114.17	55.48	111.08
Subject 5	111.15	138.64	56.50	93.33
Subject 6	123.76	156.28	58.39	92.93
Subject 7	103.62	120.95	61.66	96.32
Subject 8	109.77	127.53	62.87	106.12
Subject 9	95.61	116.71	61.12	106.36
Subject 10	110.65	128.89	73.06	83.15
Subject 11	102.41	142.18	69.55	111.65
Subject 12	107.78	132.02	67.52	97.19
Minimum	91.62	114.17	55.48	83.15
Maximum	123.76	159.30	73.27	115.40
Average	107.11	131.78	65.34	100.79
SD	8.69	14.82	6.77	9.49

**Table 3.** The results for H1 are *p*-values from permutation tests on the regression of gape cycles on gape cycle order and for raw sweet potato (RSP) and cooked sweet potato (CSP).

	Within-individuals: Gape cycle order~RSP (H1)	Within-individuals: Gape cycle order~CSP (H1)	Within-individuals: Angles between RSP and CSP regression (H2) <sup>a</sup>
Subject 1	0.81	-	-
Subject 2	<b>&lt;0.01<sup>b</sup></b>	<b>&lt;0.01</b>	<b>0.04</b>
Subject 3	0.08	-	-
Subject 4	<b>&lt;0.01</b>	0.08	<b>0.05</b>
Subject 5	<b>&lt;0.01</b>	0.56	<b>0.03</b>
Subject 6	0.19	0.24	0.24
Subject 7	0.21	0.64	0.64
Subject 8	0.81	0.12	0.08
Subject 9	<b>&lt;0.01</b>	0.50	0.06
Subject 10	0.22	-	-
Subject 11	<b>&lt;0.01</b>	0.52	-
Subject 12	<b>0.02</b>	0.14	<b>0.03</b>

<sup>a</sup>The results for H2 are *p*-values from permutation tests on the angle between these regression vectors (CSP vs RSP).

<sup>b</sup>Significant results are shown in bold.

**Table 4.** Multivariate regressions  $p$ -values from permutation tests for gape cycles in biomechanical and Procrustes space and measures of mandibular morphology (H4).<sup>a</sup>

<b>Biomechanical space</b>	Raw sweet potato	Cooked sweet potato
Pogonion to right gonion	<b>&lt;0.01</b>	<b>&lt;0.01</b>
Intergonial distance	<b>&lt;0.01</b>	<b>&lt;0.01</b>
Right gonion to right condylion laterale	0.84	0.88
Gonial angle	<b>0.02</b>	0.21
<b>Procrustes space</b>	Raw sweet potato	Cooked sweet potato
Pogonion to right gonion	<b>0.01</b>	0.64
Intergonial distance	<b>0.02</b>	0.16
Right gonion to right condylion laterale	0.80	0.21
Gonial angle	0.85	0.73

<sup>a</sup>Significant values are shown in bold.