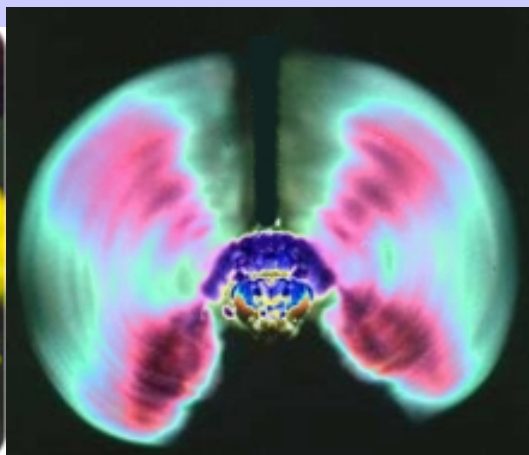
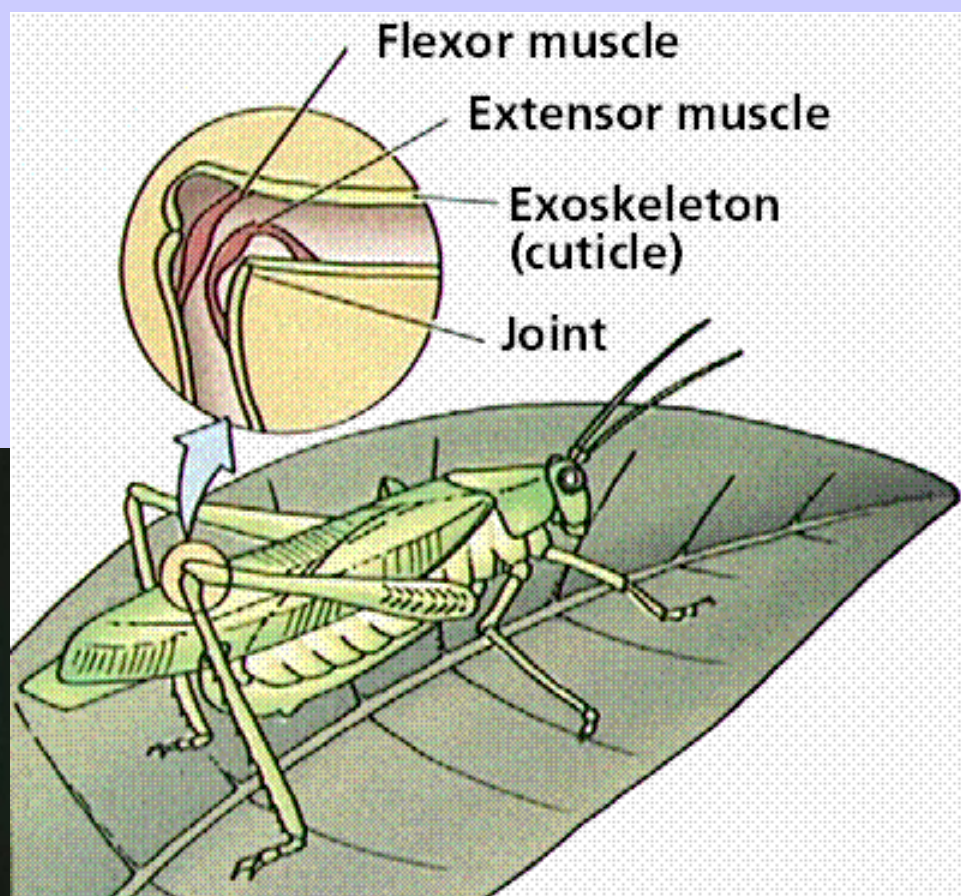
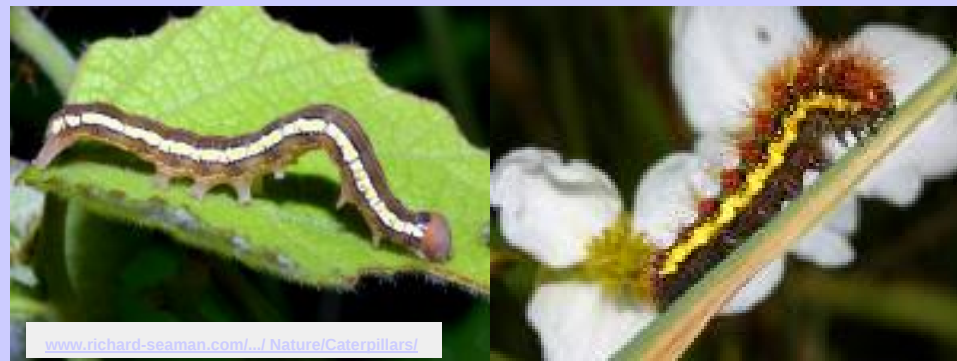


Insect Locomotion and Wing Evolution



INSECT MUSCLES

All muscles are striated (intracellular bands)

Muscles w/ few striae/ cell = slow rhythmic contraction
w/ a lot = vigorous contractions

All insect muscles possess striae (vs humans)

Adult Acrididae - ~900

Caterpillar (imm Lepidoptera) - ~ 4000

Humans ~800

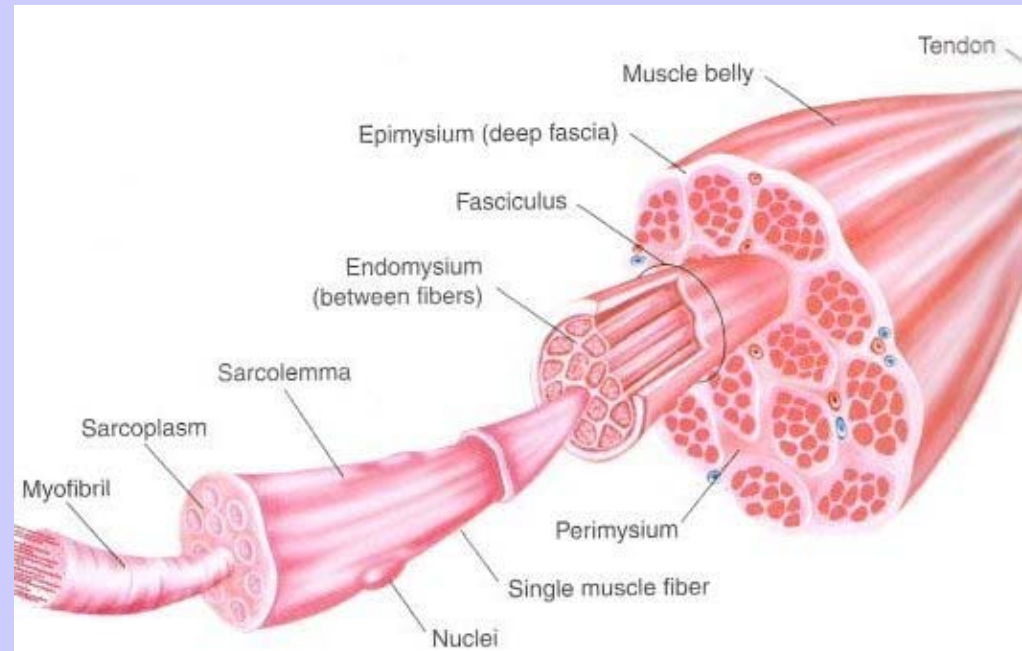
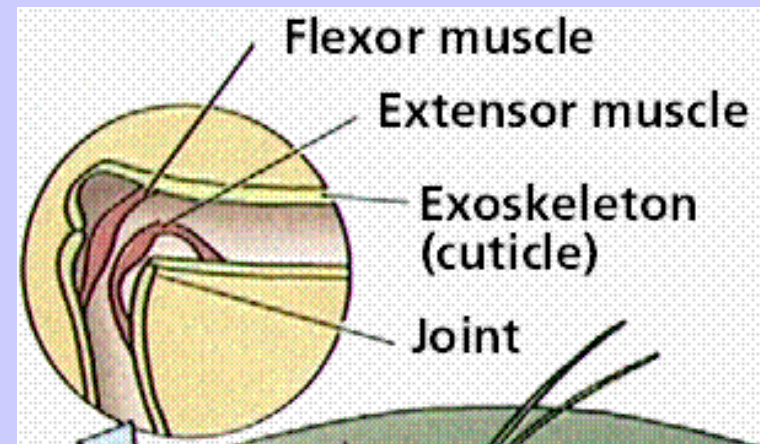


Figure 1: Muscle belly split into various component parts (from Essentials of Strength Training & Conditioning, National Strength & Conditioning Association)

INSECT MUSCLES

FOUR BASIC TYPES (artificial groupings, rather – functional groupings)

1. Visceral – surrounds ducts and tubes produce directional waves /peristalsis for moving “products”
2. Segmental – necessary for contraction of segments (molting, breathing, locomotion, increase body temp etc)
3. Appendicular - Appendages moved (as unit) by muscles originating either on tergum or sternum and inserted on the coxae.
4. Flight – direct and indirect



Each Segment operated by muscles originating in the previous segment (anterior)

Muscle Attachment

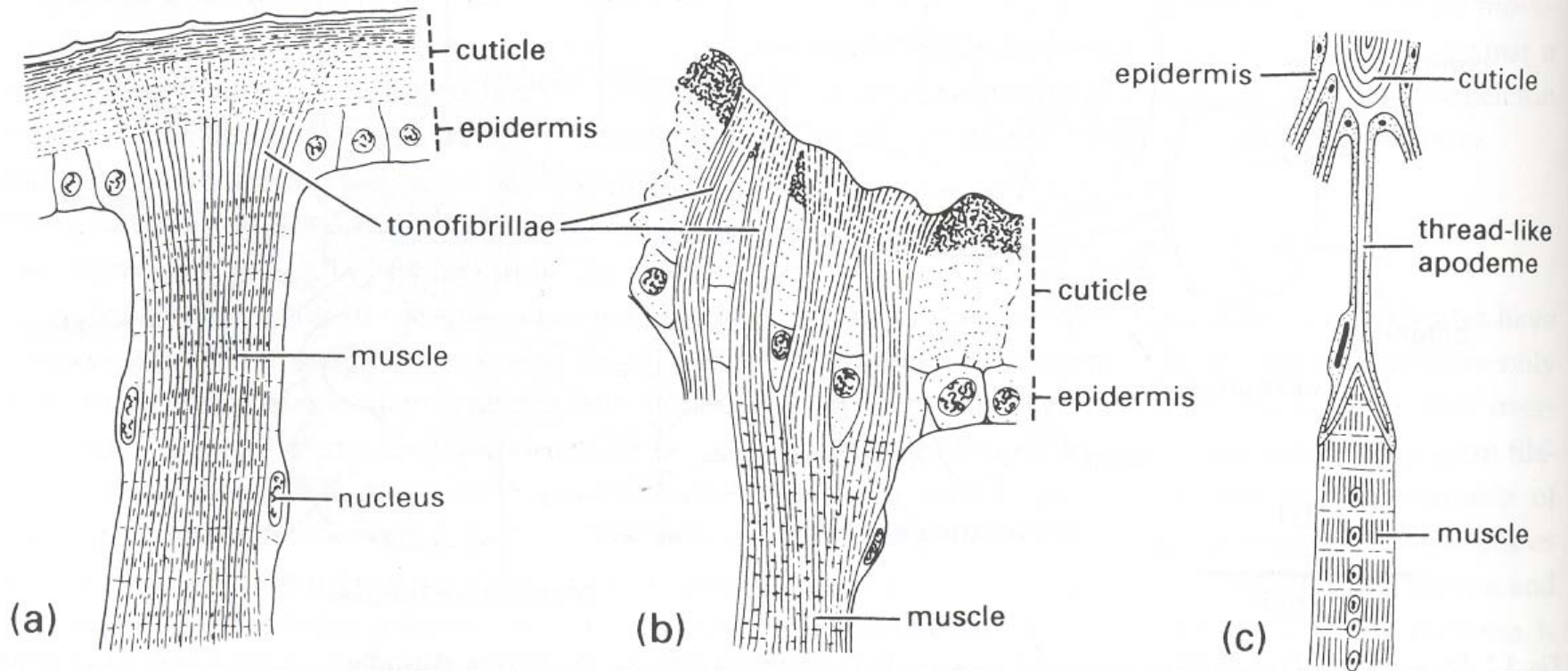


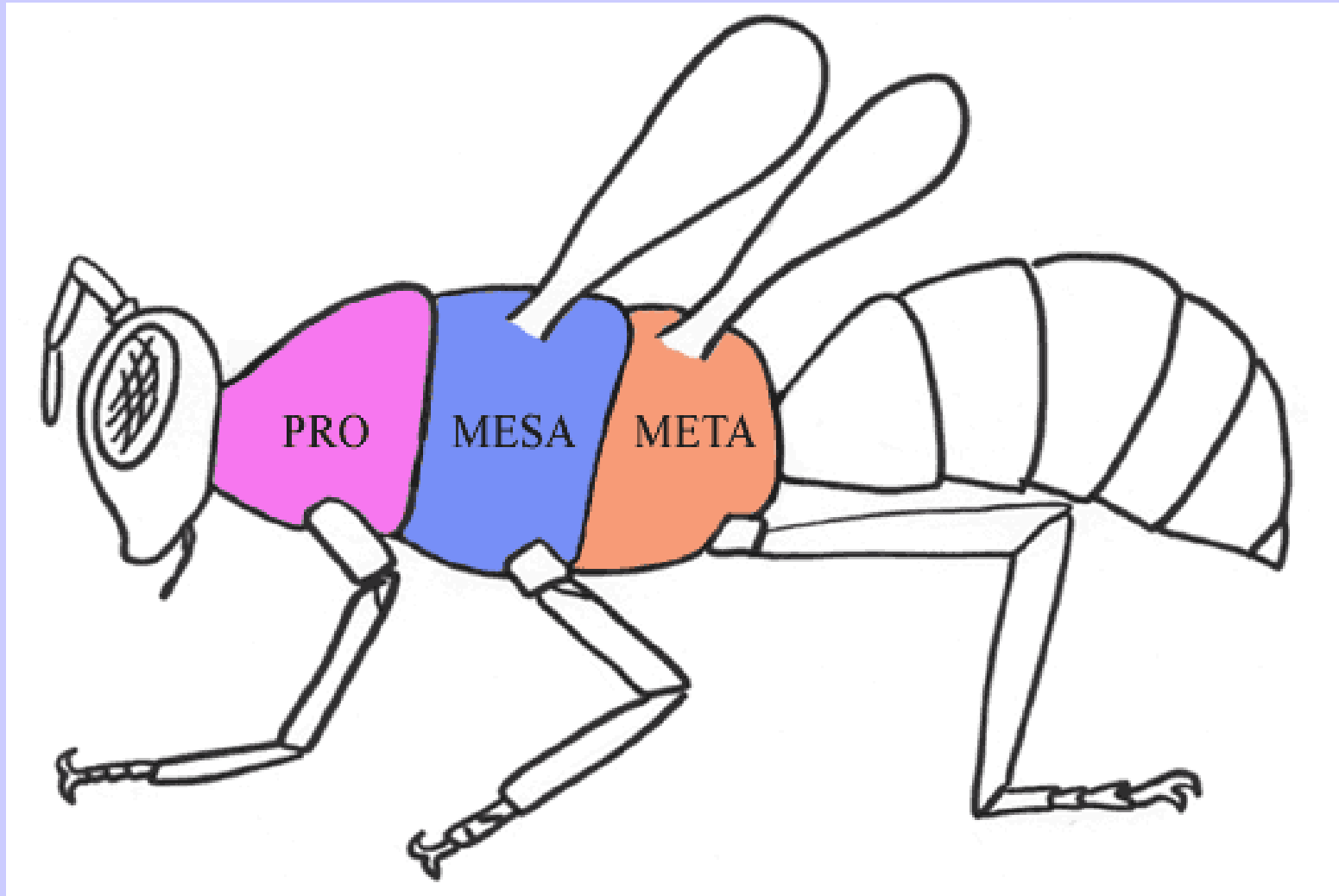
Fig. 3.2 Muscle attachments to body wall: (a) tonofibrillae traversing the epidermis from the muscle to the cuticle; (b) a muscle attachment in an adult beetle of *Chrysobothrus femorata* (Coleoptera: Buprestidae); (c) a multicellular apodeme with a muscle attached to one of its thread-like, cuticular 'tendons' or apophyses. (After Snodgrass, 1935.)

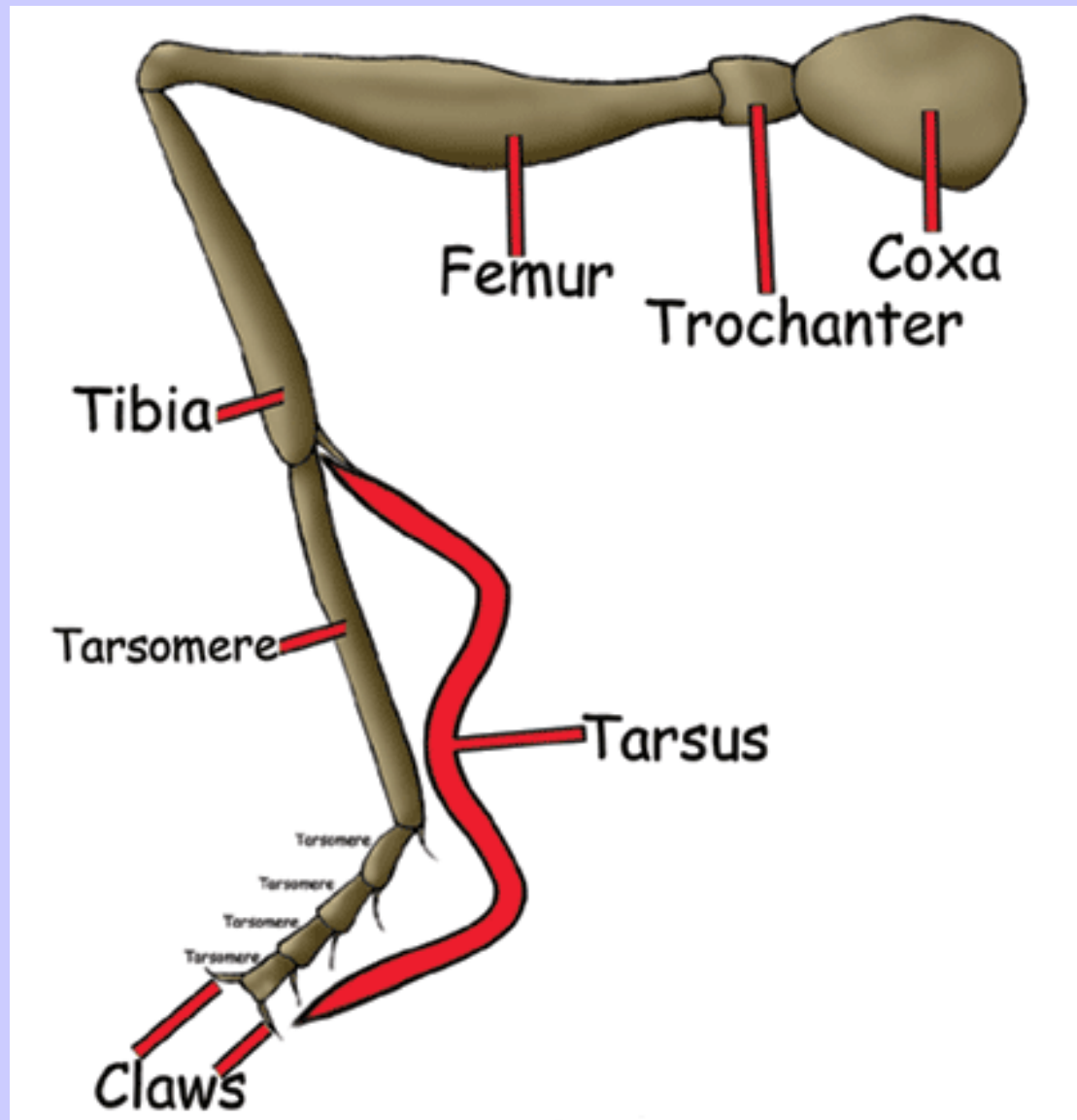
Fascinating Facts about Insect Locomotion

- Cockroaches (Blattodea) can run 2.9 mph (=70 mph if scaled to size of lion)
- Fly (Diptera) wings can beat 200x/s
- Bumble bee (Hymenoptera) wings can beat 160x/s
- Average flight speed of a fly is 4.5 mph
- Houseflies move 300x their body length/s; a jet at the speed of sound moves 100x its length/s
- Fastest flier is the desert locust (*Schistocerca gregaria*) @ 33 km/h
- Fastest runner is the tiger beetle (*Cicindela hudsoni*) @ 5.57 mph

Walking & Running

External leg morphology



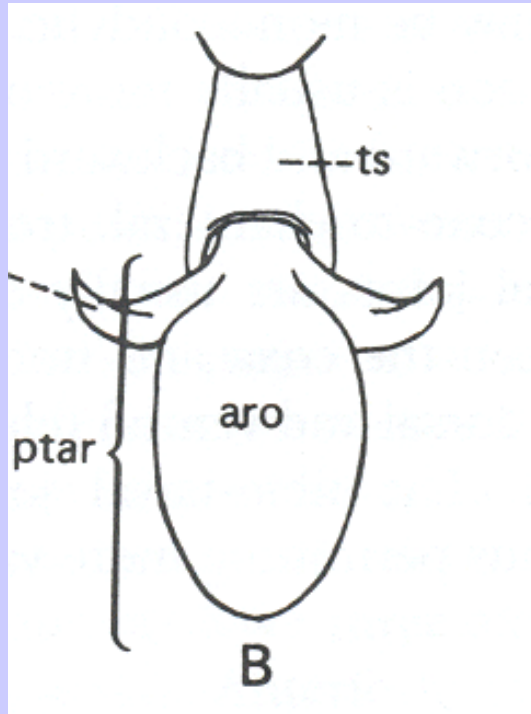


Motion

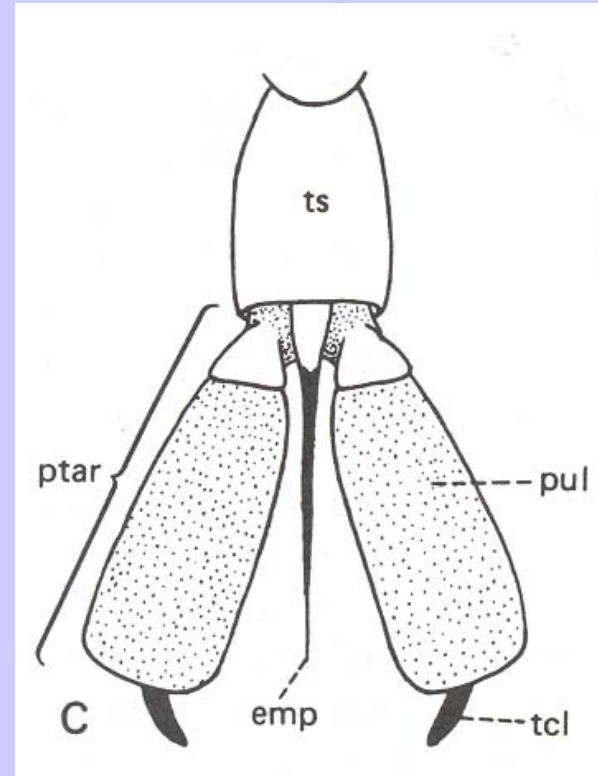
- Contractions/relaxations of pairs of agonistic/antagonistic muscles attached to cuticle allow walking
- Tripod motion at low-moderate speed
- Tripod maintains center of gravity/stability
- To go faster: 1) shorten retraction period to increase frequency of movement
- 2) quadrupedy
- 3) hind-leg bipedality



Friction and Leverage



- Claws
- Arolium/Pulvilli (flies)
- Lubricated hairs



- Empodium
- Pulvilliform empodium

Jumping

Common mechanism:

- Slow contraction of femoral muscles

Adaptations:

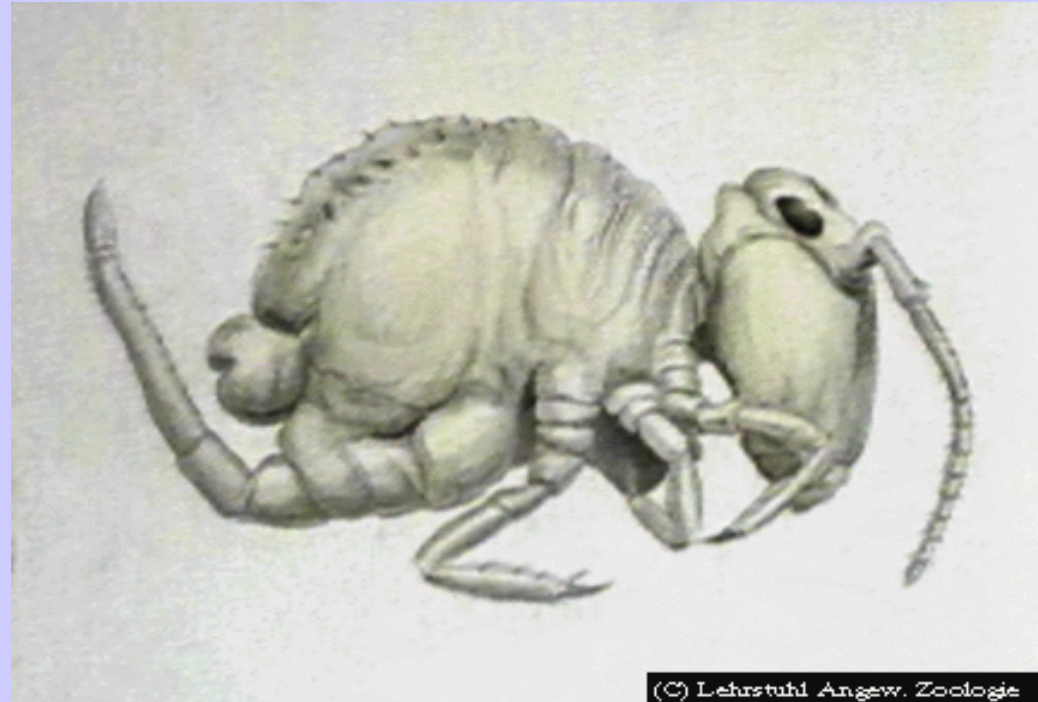
- Enlarged hind femora
- Cuticular elasticity (high resilin content)

Examples:

- Fleas (Siphonaptera) jump 33 cm high=200x the length of flea
- Locusts (Acrididae) jump 30 cm high and 70 cm forward
- Grasshopper jump: <http://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/~wjh/jumping/perform.htm>

Specialized Examples:

- Collembola (Springtails): jump w/ fucula-tenaculum mechanism
- Elateridae (Click beetles): right themselves w/ prosternal spine, flexible union of pro and mesothorax



(C) Lehrstuhl Angew. Zoologie

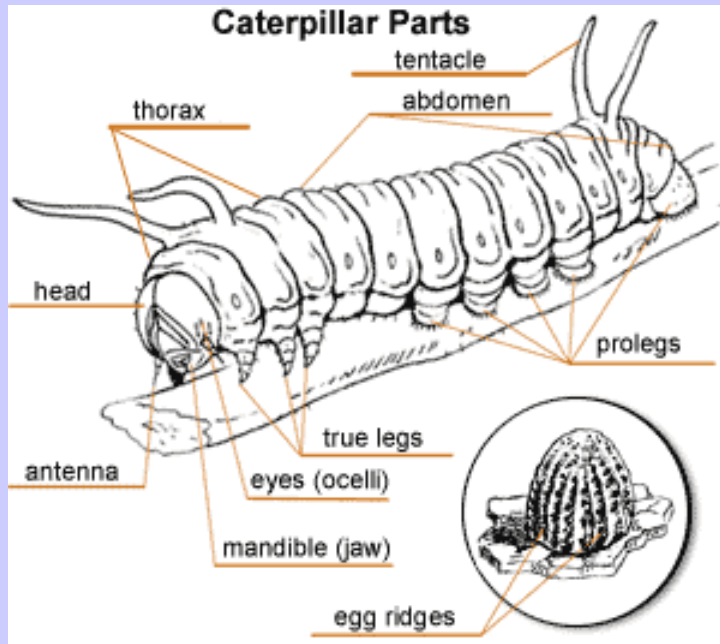
Link to Flight...

- Wings may have 1st evolved on jumping insects as a gliding mechanism**
- Flying jumpers may benefit by getting into the air before opening wings to avoid damage fr/ surrounding substrate**

Crawling/Larval Locomotion

Morphology:

- Thin, flexible cuticle w/o necessary rigidity to anchor muscles
- Hemolymph forms **hydrostatic skeleton**
- Turgidity maintained by criss-crossed body wall 'turgor' muscles
- Turgor muscles contract against incompressible **haemocoel**



- Caterpillar legs on thoracic segments and **prolegs** on abdominal segments
- Abdominal prolegs have **crochets** (sclerotized hooks)

Larval Locomotion:

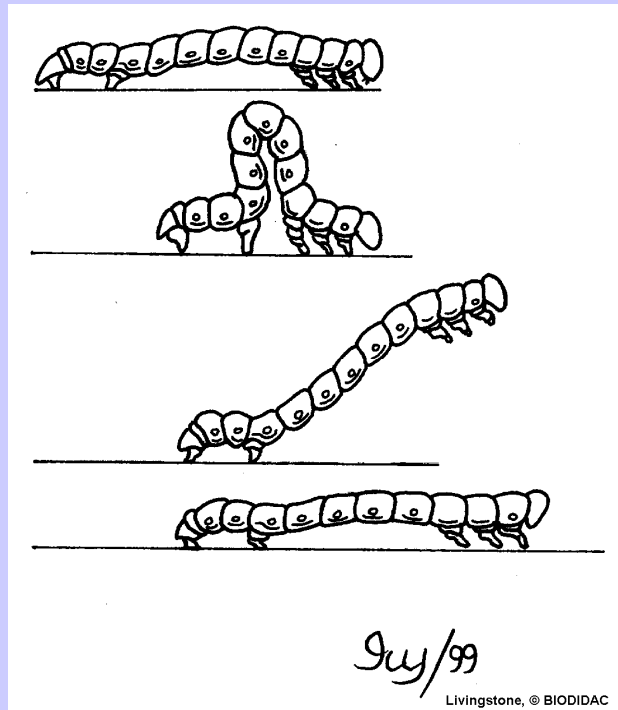
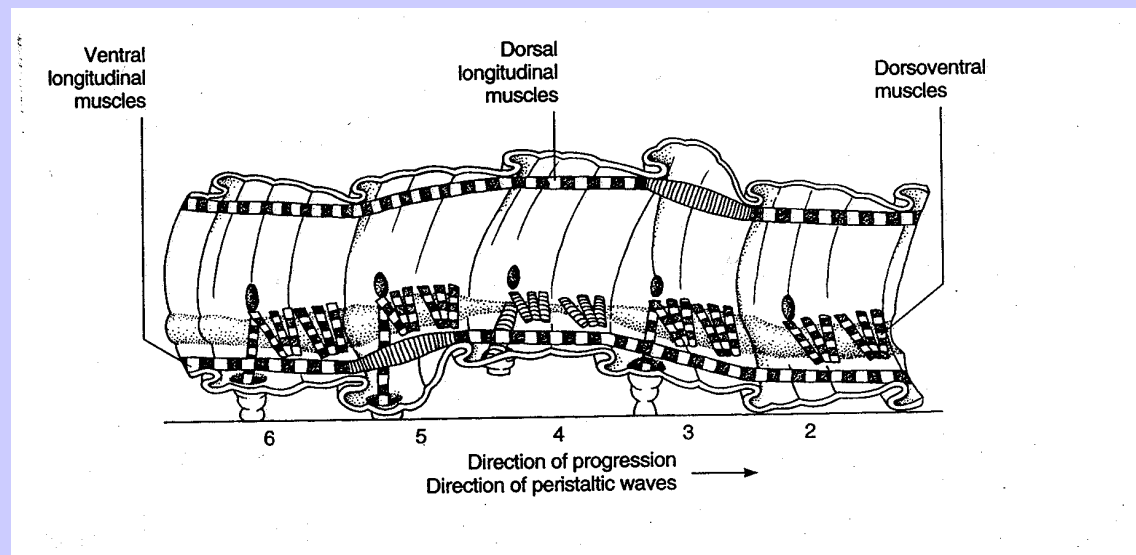
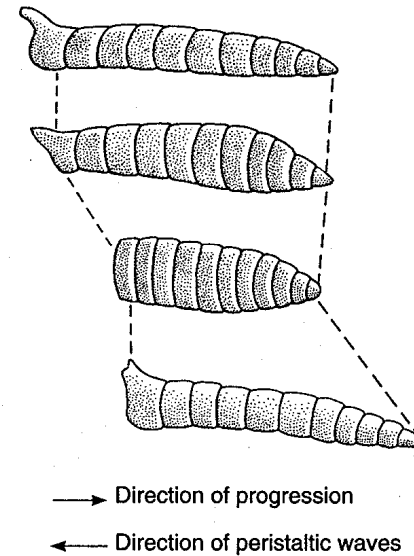


Figure 7.6 Locomotion in a crane fly larva.
Redrawn with modifications from Kevan, 1962, after Gilyarov.



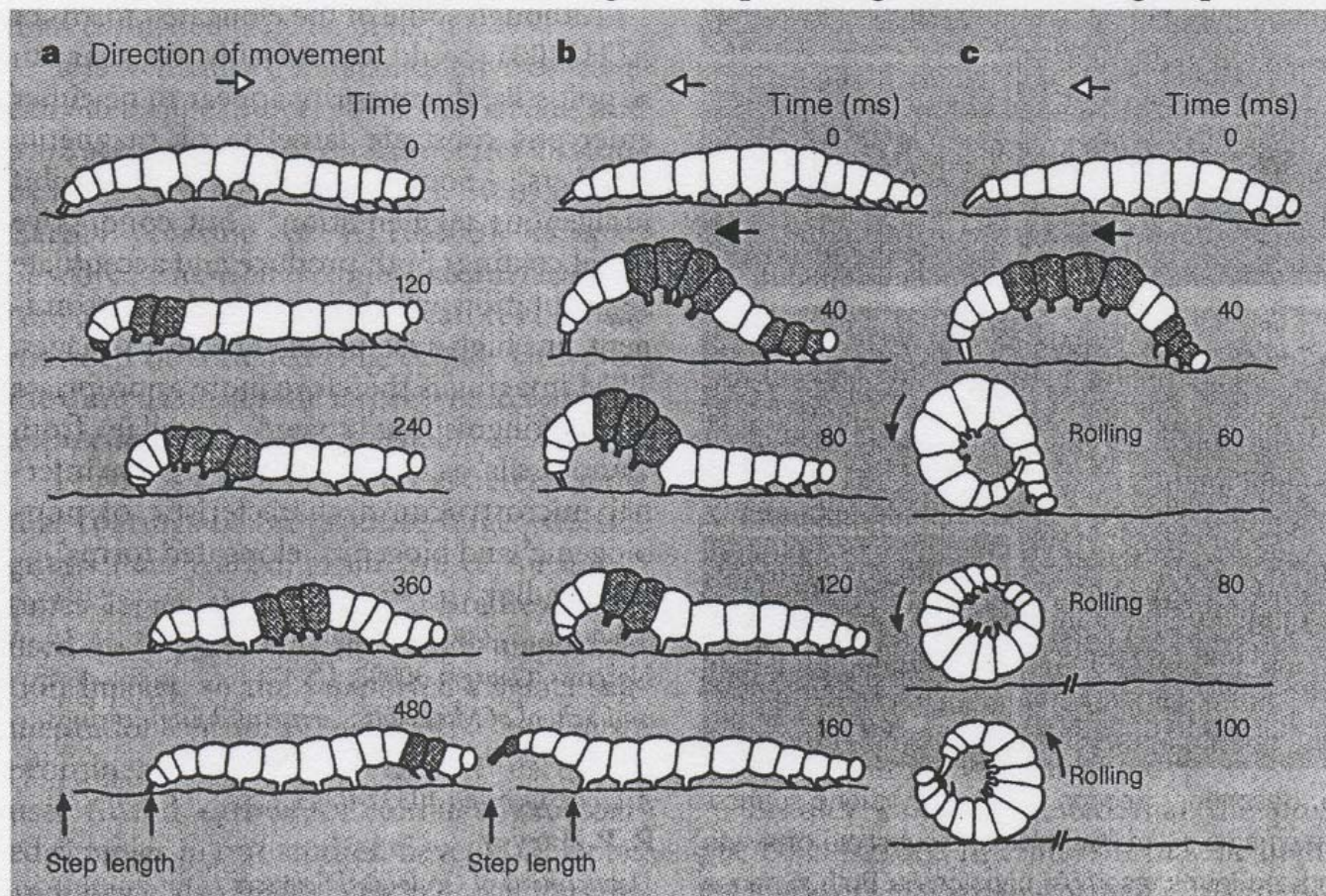


Figure 1 Main locomotory gaits in *Pleurotya* caterpillar. In **a** the insect is walking from left to right; in **b** and **c** it is retreating from right to left. Stippling indicates when leg-bearing segments (6–9, 13) are off the ground. The black arrow in **b** and **c** signifies the rapid recoil stage of locomotion. Speed, stride frequency and stride length during normal forward walking were $1.0 \pm 0.2 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$, $1.7 \pm 0.2 \text{ Hz}$ and 0.6 cm , respectively. Measurements were made from video images (Panasonic, 50 frames per second, shutter speed 0.001 s , and NAC200, 200 frames per second with strobe synchronization).

NATURE | VOL 390 | 4 DECEMBER 1997

Brakenbury, J. 1997. Caterpillar kinematics. *Nature* 390:453.

Swimming--surface

Cohesion and surface tension important

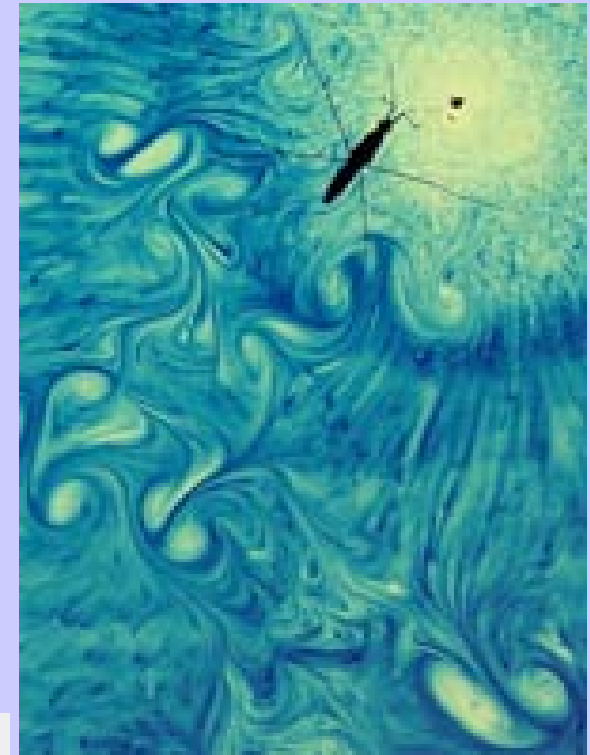
Morphology and Motion:

- Contact w/ water maintained during protraction**
- So, more thrust put into retraction by expanding the leg area w/ fringes of hair and spines**
- Hair/spines collapse onto leg during recovery stroke**



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www.cirrusimage.com

http://www.cirrusimage.com/bugs_water_strider.htm



web.mit.edu/newsoffice/nr/2003/robostrider.html

Swimming--sub-surface

Air stores increase buoyancy

Motion:

- undulate body**
- jets of water through anus (Odonata nymphs push water out @ 50 cm/s)**
- walk on underwater substrate**



Examples:

- Dytiscidae (predaceous diving beetles, p 405):** submerge w/ air in chamber under elytra, swim by moving opposite legs simultaneously, like frog
- Hydrophilidae (water scavenger beetles, p 406):** swim by moving opposite legs alternately, carry air in silvery film over ventral surface
- Notonectidae (Hemiptera, backswimmer, p 291):** swim upside down
- Corixidae (Hemiptera, water boatmen, p 290):** use ground eggs in flour, front tarsi scooped
- Belostomatidae (giant water bug, p 289):** largest Hemiptera
- Trichoptera (caddisflies, p 558):** caterpillar-like larvae, gills, some make cases w/ silk or cement

Flight



-Evolved 330-40 mya

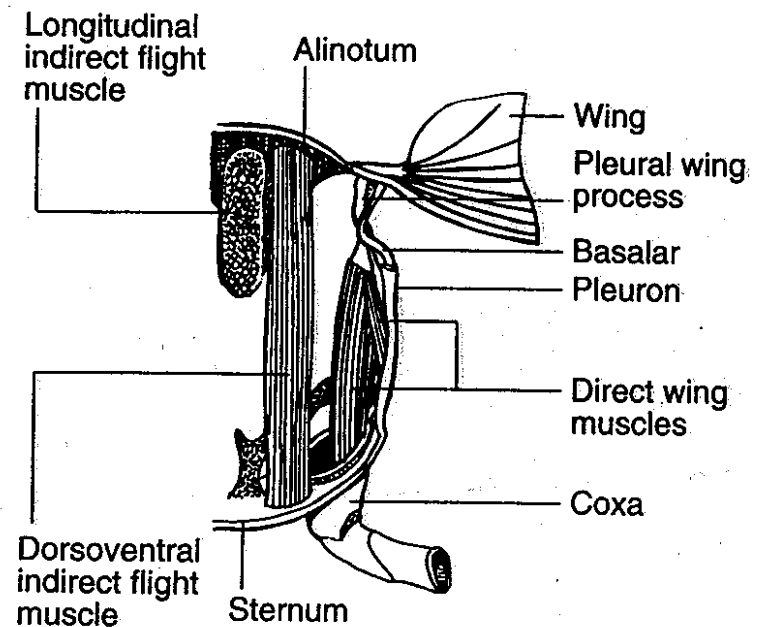
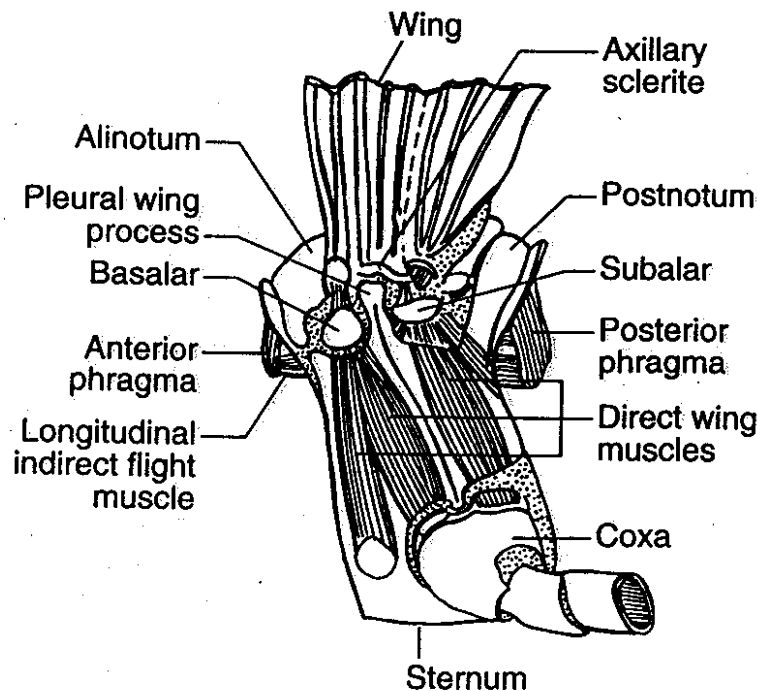
-Pterygotes are now the most species rich group on Earth—60% of all described spp

-Gravity and drag (air resistance) must be overcome for flight



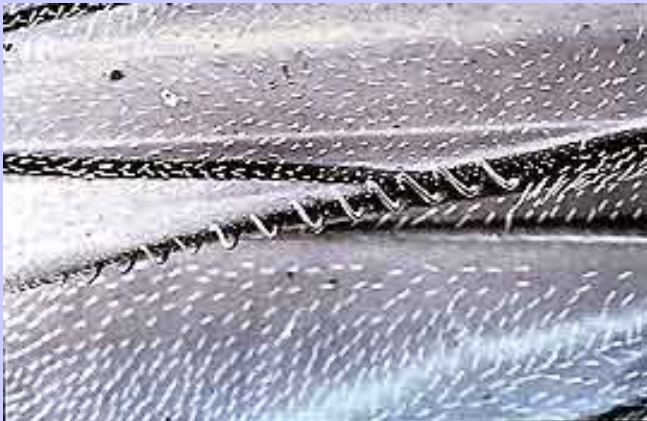
Morphology:

- Wings are outgrowths of body wall located dorsolaterally between nota and pleura
- Arise as saclike outgrowths, when fully developed are flaplike w/ sclerotized veins
- Most pterygotes have 2 pairs of wings, one on mesothoracic and one on metathoracic segment



Morphological Problem:

- Turbulence created by forewings hinders hindwings (makes Orthoptera, Neuroptera, Isoptera poor fliers)
- In many Odonata, hindwings move before forewings
- In some Odonata and most Orthoptera, only slight phase difference w/ front wings moving a little ahead
- Pairs of wings may be overlapped at base or hooked together so they move as one (Lepidoptera, Hymenoptera, Trichoptera, Hemiptera)
- Hindwings may be reduced (Diptera—halteres)



Mechanisms:

- Direct and indirect flight muscles present**

- Direct: connected to wings**

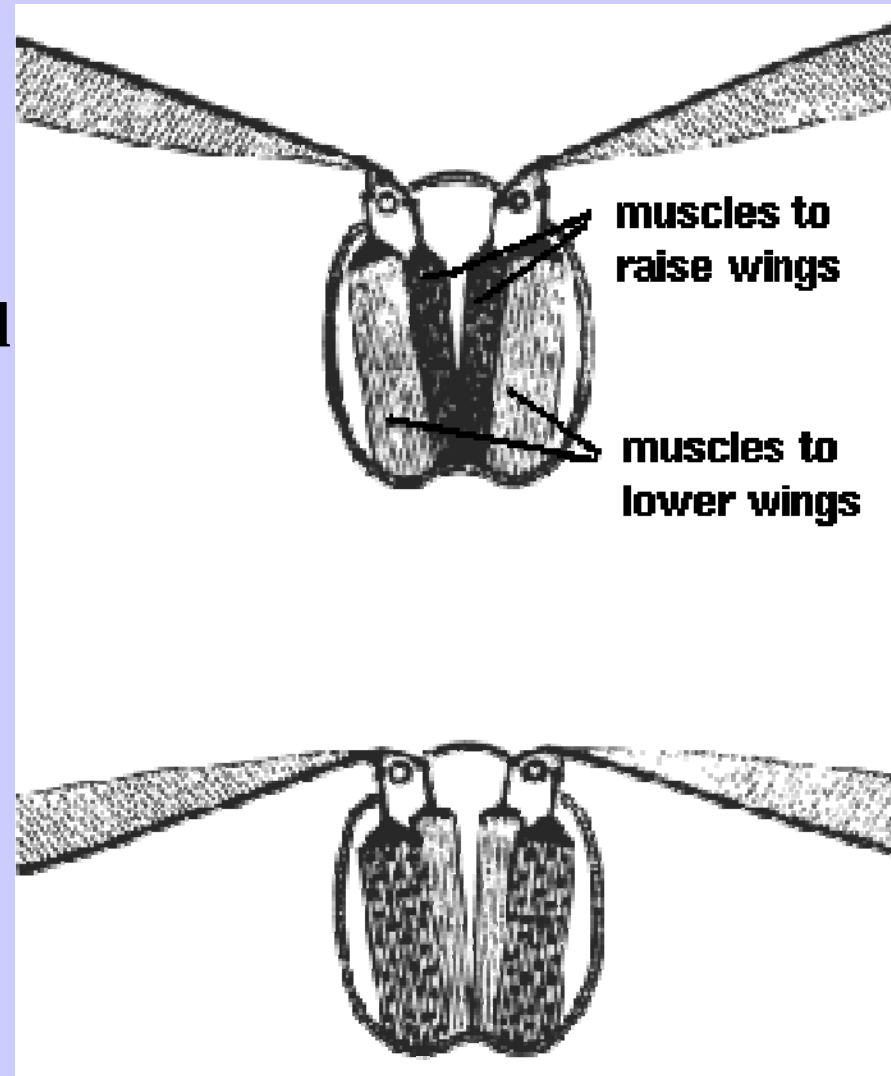
- Indirect: no muscle-wing connection. Muscles deform thoracic box to move wings.**

- Direct used in old groups: Odonata and Blattodea. Some recovery muscles still indirect.**

- Indirect used in advanced groups, and direct used just for wing orientation.**

Direct flight:

- Muscles are attached to 2 sclerites at wing base (basalare and subalare) and the axillary sclerite and coxa and sternum**
- Upward stroke by contraction of muscles attached to wing base inside pivotal point.**
- Downward stroke by contraction of muscles that extend fr/ the sternum to wing base outside pivotal point.**



Indirect flight:

-Flight muscles attached to tergum and sternum

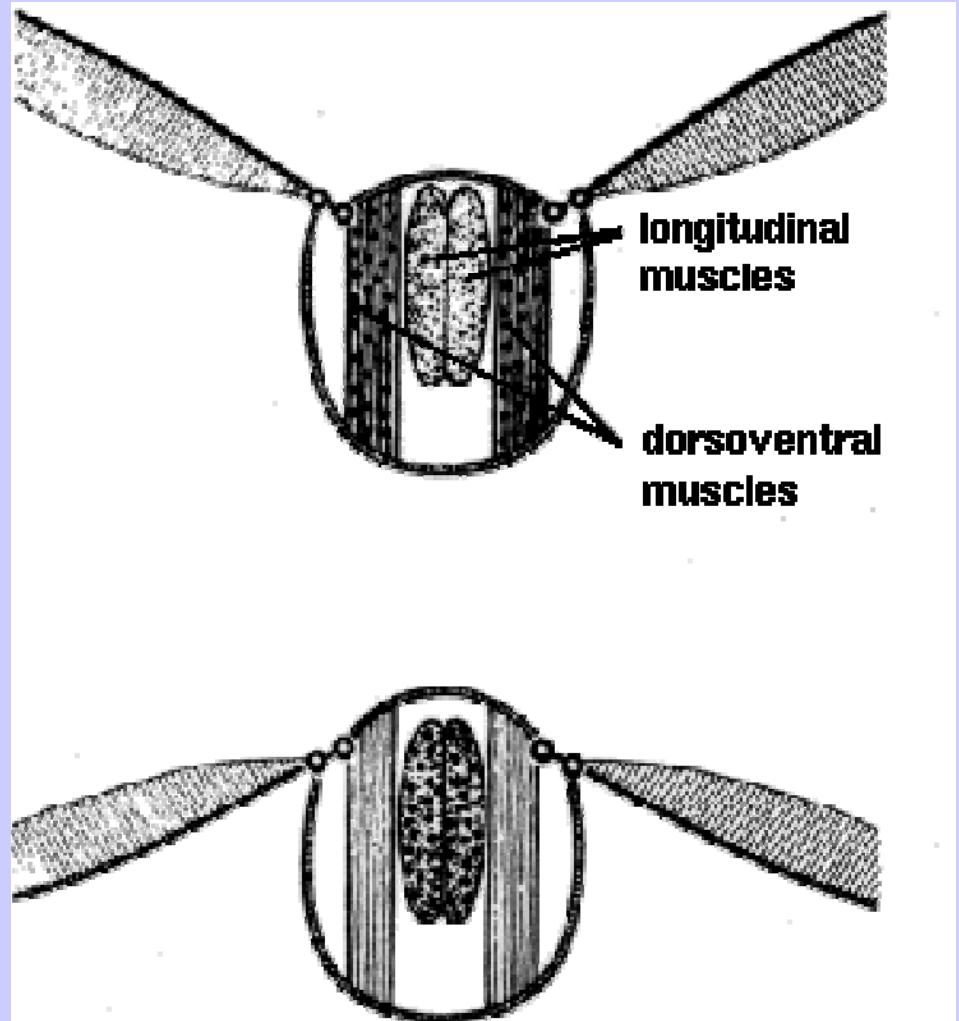
-Wing depression process:

1) Dorsal longitudinal muscles cause notum to bow;

2) raising notal wing processes in relation to pleural wing processes;

3) causing depression of wing.

Indirect



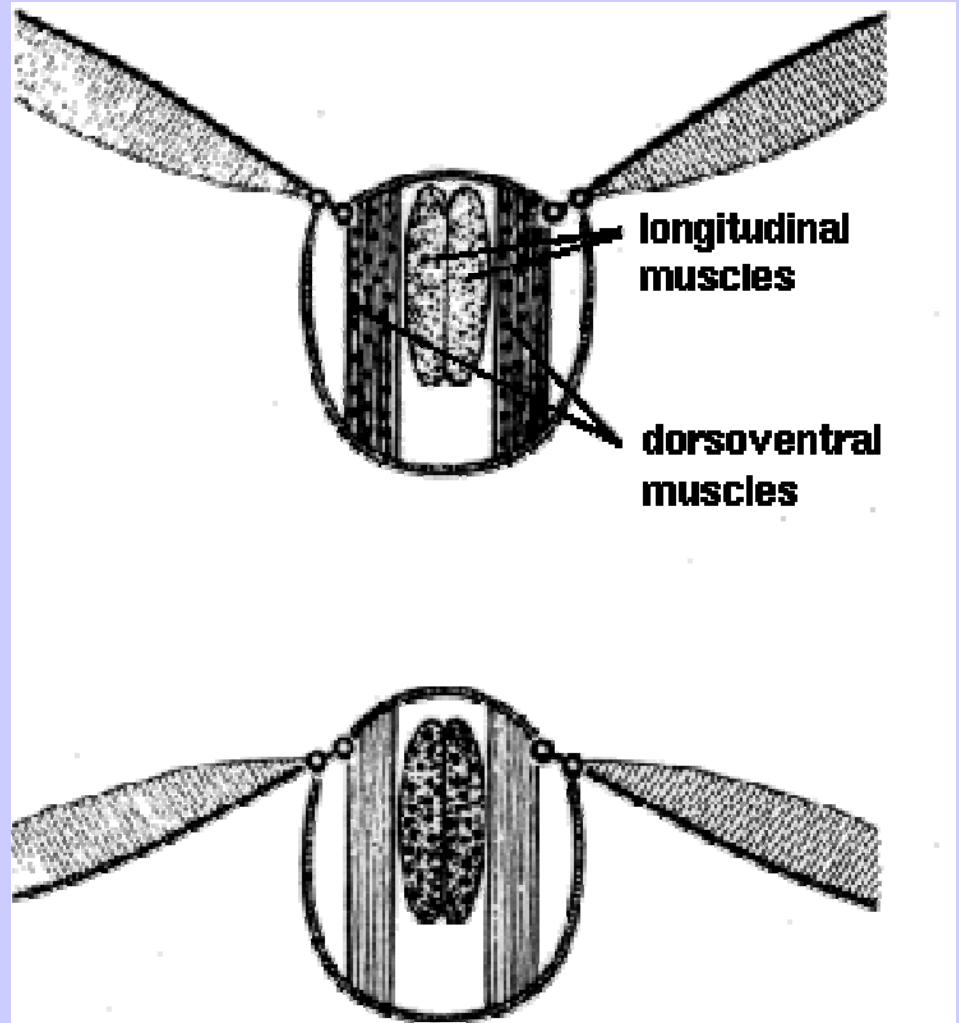
-Wing elevation process:

- 1) Tergosternal muscles contract;**
- 2) pulling down on notum;**
- 3) notal wing processes move down in relation to pleural wing processes;**
- 4) wing is elevated.**

-In addition:

Direct wing muscles used for controlling angle of flight and wing flexion (folding wings back in neopterygotes).

Indirect



-Flight is:

- 1) elevation and depression**
- 2) fore (promotion) and aft (remotion) movement**
- 3) twisting w/ direct muscles--pronation (leading edge down) and supination (trailing edge down)**
- 4) changes in shape by folding and buckling**

-Wing traces out a figure 8 relative to the body at its base.



Table 7.2 Average Speed of Sustained Flight
in Various Insects^a

Insect	Speed, km/h
Mayflies, small field grasshoppers	1.8
Bumble bees, rose chafers	3.0
Malaria mosquitoes	3.2
Stag beetle, damselfly, <i>Ammophila</i> (a fossorial wasp)	5.4
House fly	6.4
Cockchafer, cabbage white butterfly, garden wasp	9.0
Blow fly	11.0
Desert locust	16.0
Hummingbird hawk moth	18.0
Honeybee, horse fly	22.4
<i>Aeschna</i> (a big dragonfly), hornet	25.2
<i>Anax</i> (one of the biggest of European dragonflies)	30.0
Deer bot fly	40.0

^aData from Nachtigall (1974b) based on various sources.

Neural control of flight:

- 1 nerve impulse/wing beat = **synchronous muscles** in slow fliers (Odonata)
- In fast fliers, there is not a 1:1 neural impulse:muscle contraction = **asynchronous muscles**
- Click mechanism:** wings have 2 stable positions, up and down. As wing moves fr/ one extreme to other, passes through intermediate unstable position = **click point**. At click, thoracic elasticity snaps the wing through to the alternate stable position.
- Release of muscle tension at click causes next muscle contraction.
- Allows muscles to oscillate, contracting much faster than neural impulses

Wing Evolution

- Several competing theories attempt to explain evolution of wings
- All hyp have common assumption that winglets originally had a non-flight function
- Insects evolved after hexapod ancestors were terrestrial, but bc/ primitive pterygote orders have aquatic nymphs, primitive condition for pterygotes may have been immature development in fresh water
- Wings likely evolved only once bc/ veins and articulated sclerites at wing base are homologous and imply monophyly
- Wings likely evolved in Devonian

Preadaptive functions of protowings:

- protection of legs**
- covers for spiracles**
- thermoregulation**
- sexual display**
- aids in concealment by breaking-up outline**
- predator avoidance by extension of escape jump w/ gliding**



Aerodynamic function gained only after enlargement.



Advantages of flight:

- Sexual outcrossing among unrelated mates
- Dispersing to new habitats
- Escaping enemies
- Locating specific feeding and oviposition sites
- Dispersal by wind



Routes to flight:

- Floating**

- Paragliding**

- Running-jumping to flying**

- Surface sailing**

 - requires articulated winglets

 - accounts for loss of abdominal winglets, which would be downwind of thoracic ones

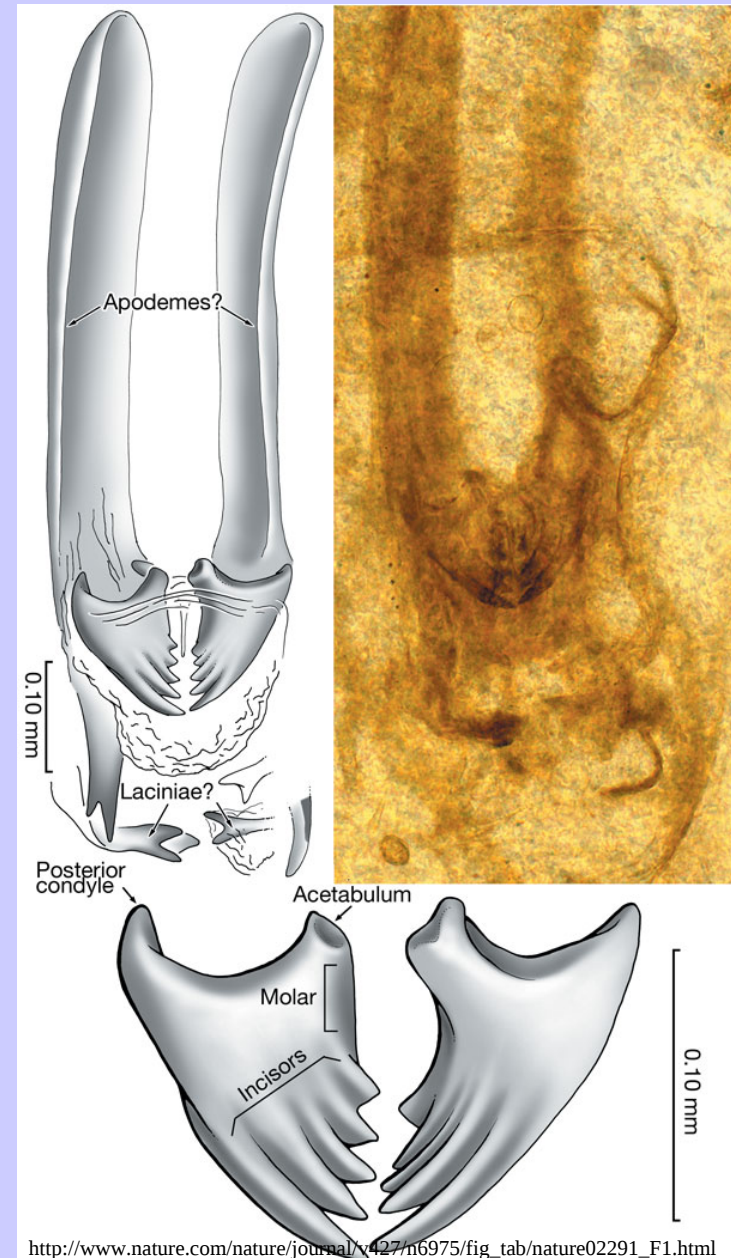
 - occurs in some Plecoptera

 - could have driven evolution of wing length

Hypotheses for the origin of wings/flight

Paranotal Lobe Hypothesis:

- Long-standing hypothesis
- Wings derived fr/ postulated lobes, outgrowths of thoracic terga called paranota
- Lobes not articulated, so tracheation, innervation, venation, and musculature were of secondary origin
- Posits gliding origin for flight
- Similar extensions widespread in non-hexapod arthropods. Lateral lobes present in trilobites, even articulated in crustaceans and myriapods



Exite-endite Hypothesis:

- Displaces PLH
- Wing origination fr/ serially repeated, pre-existing mobile structures on pleuron
- Likely from outer appendage, **exite**, and inner appendage, **endite**, of basal leg segment, the **expicoxa**
- Each 'proto-wing' was formed by fusion of exite and endite lobes of ancestral leg
- Exites and endites had tracheation and articulation
- Fossil and molecular development studies support articulated winglets on all body segments, best developed on thorax

Gills to Wings Hypothesis/Exite Origin of Wings:

- Fits w/ above hypothesis
- Earliest pterygotes had aquatic immatures
- Wings as derivations fr/ tracheal gills in ancestral aquatic 'protopterygote'
- Winglets postulated to be used in gas exchange and swimming, w/ terrestrial adult co-opting them for aerodynamic function
- Unknown whether proto-wings originally used for aerodynamic or thermoregulatory function
- Fossil, neurological, and developmental support for hyp

-Marden J.H., and M.G. Kramer. 1994. Surface-skimming stoneflies: a possible intermediate stage in insect flight evolution. Science 266: 427-430.

-Kramer, M.G., and Marden, J.H. 1997. Almost airborne. Nature 385: 403-404

-Showed ancestral aquatic insects w/ small wings, rudimentary thoracic muscles, low muscle power could have been effective surface skimmers and evolved flight via selection for faster skimming ('94)

-Support w/ intermediate flying form of *Leuctra* spp (Plecoptera) = **surface skimming w/ hind legs** ('97)

Thermoregulatory Hypothesis:

-Kingsolver, J.G. and M.A.R. Koehl. 1985.

Aerodynamics, thermoregulation, and the evolution of insect wings: differential scaling and evolutionary change. *Evolution* 39:488-504.

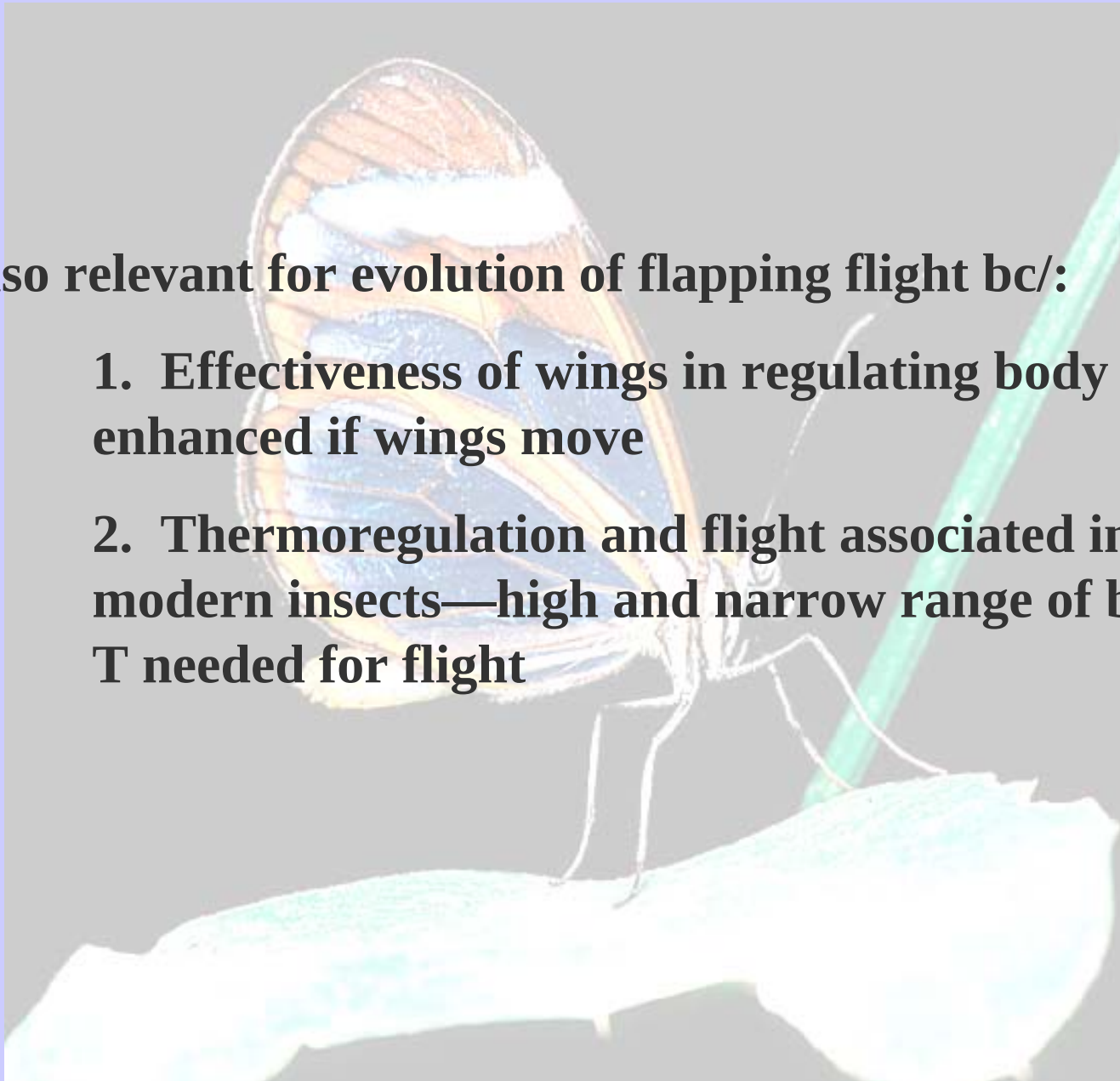
-Used models of Paleozoic insects to measure aerodynamic and heat transfer characteristics of these models as functions of physical characteristics of wings.

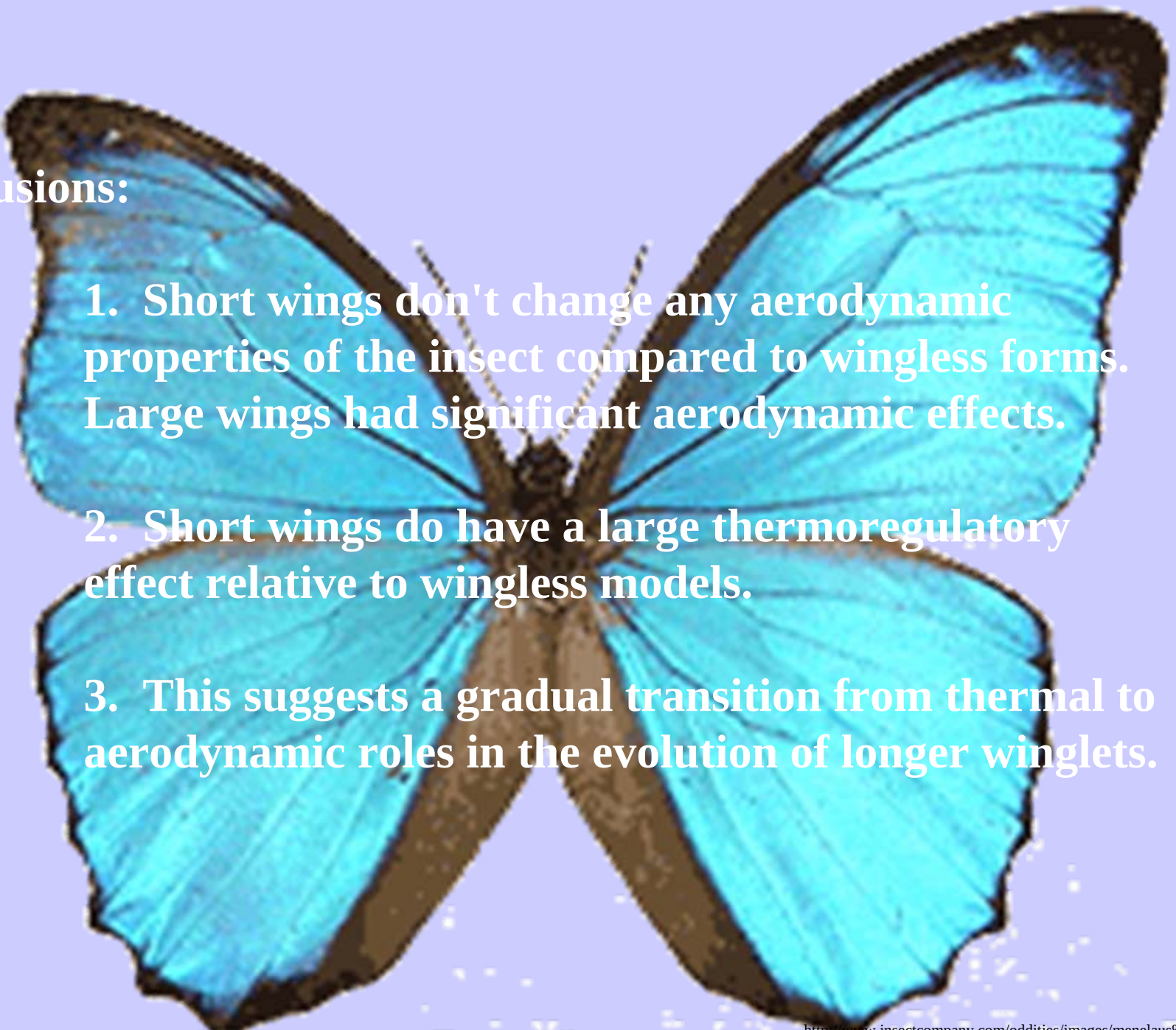
-Wings evolved fr/ ancestor w/ small winglets related to selection for increased thermoregulatory capacity (preadaptation for flight)

-After this initial selection, selection could act for increased aerodynamic capacity

-Also relevant for evolution of flapping flight bc/:

- 1. Effectiveness of wings in regulating body T enhanced if wings move**
- 2. Thermoregulation and flight associated in modern insects—high and narrow range of body T needed for flight**





Conclusions:

1. Short wings don't change any aerodynamic properties of the insect compared to wingless forms. Large wings had significant aerodynamic effects.
2. Short wings do have a large thermoregulatory effect relative to wingless models.
3. This suggests a gradual transition from thermal to aerodynamic roles in the evolution of longer winglets.