# RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WING LOADING, WINGBEAT FREQUENCY AND BODY MASS IN HOMOPTEROUS INSECTS 

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## SUMMARY

Several biophysical properties of members of Aleyrodidae and Aphididae were examined in order to explore how homopterous insects fly. Five species of aphids were found to weigh significantly more than five whitefly species (range $1 \cdot 14-7.02 \times 10^{-4} \mathrm{~g}$ for aphids $v s 3.3-8.0 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{~g}$ for whiteflies) and to have significantly larger wing surface areas (range $0.0103-0.1106 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}$ vs $0.0096-$ $0.0264 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}$ ). As a consequence whiteflies and aphids can be partitioned into two groups with respect to wing loading (range $0.00633-0.01412 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~cm}^{-2}$ for aphids, $1.74-5.23 \times 10^{-3} \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~cm}^{-2}$ for whiteflies). Members of the two families are also separated in terms of wingbeat frequency (range $81 \cdot 1-123 \cdot 4 \mathrm{~Hz}$ for aphids, $165 \cdot 6-224 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~Hz}$ for whiteflies). Since our animals were much smaller than any insects examined previously for these parameters, values were compared with the same parameters for 149 insect species recorded in the literature. Using these data, we found wingbeat frequency to be significantly correlated with wing loading only in insects weighing more than 0.03 g . Larger insects seem to employ a strategy similar to other flying animals, by compensating for high wing loading with higher wingbeat frequencies. The lack of correlation for these two parameters in insects weighing less than 0.03 g probably results from the use of different flying strategies. These include employment of a clap and fling mechanism and the possession by some of exceedingly low wing loading. Also, small insects may have reduced settling velocities because they possess high drag coefficients. Previous studies which failed to establish a relationship between wing loading and wingbeat frequency in larger insects may have considered too few subjects or too great a range of body masses. The mass range is important because smaller insects which employ increased wingbeat frequency must use rates exponentially higher than those of larger insects utilizing the same strategy.

## INTRODUCTION

Whiteflies do not as readily engage in vertical flight as other homopterous insects, such as aphids. This was discovered when Byrne, von Bretzel \& Hoffman (1986)

Key words: wing loading, wingbeat frequency, body mass, insects.
placed traps at heights of $0-15 \mathrm{~cm}, 50-65 \mathrm{~cm}$ and $100-115 \mathrm{~cm}$ to catch sweetpotato whiteflies, Bemisia tabaci (Gennadius) and bandedwinged whiteflies, Trialeurodes abutilonea (Haldeman). During two growing seasons, $81 \%$ of the whiteflies were captured in the lowest traps, $12 \%$ in the midlevel traps and $7 \%$ in the highest traps. In a previous survey of alate aphids, Broadbent (1948) placed traps at heights of $5-36 \mathrm{~cm}, 81-118 \mathrm{~cm}$ and $157-188 \mathrm{~cm}$. Over a 24 -week period in his study, $14 \%$ of the aphids were caught in the lowest traps, $34 \%$ in the midlevel traps and $52 \%$ in the highest traps. These findings led us to examine how members of these two homopterous families might differ in their flight mechanisms, particularly with regard to wing loading and wingbeat frequency.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

The members of Aleyrodidae we examined were Aleurothrixus floccosus (Maskell), Bemisia tabaci, Dialeurodes citri (Ashmead), Trialeurodes abutilonea and Trialeurodes vaporarionum (Westwood). Members of Aphididae were Aphis fabae Scopoli, Aphis gossypii Glover, Aphis nerii Fonscolombe, Acyrthosiphon kondoi Shinji and Myzus persicae (Sulzer). All species were reared in greenhouses or on research plots at agricultural experimental stations maintained by the University of Arizona at Tucson and the University of California at Riverside. Italian honeybees, Apis mellifera L., from the USDA Carl Hayden Bee Research Center in Tucson, AZ , were also measured to compare our data with those in the literature.

Using a Datamate 100 Microfiche Reader, we determined wing surface areas for all species by projecting images of their wings onto transparent acetate sheets. Templates of images were cut from the sheets and weighed. A linear regression equation, relating template masses of known dimensions to their surface areas, was developed. Surface areas for wings were calculated by inserting the masses of their templates into this equation. Wing lengths were determined using an ocular micrometer in a dissecting microscope. Fresh whole masses were obtained by immobilizing the insects with carbon dioxide and weighing them with either a Cahn 25 or Cahn 29 Microbalance.

Wing loadings for these insects were calculated in $\mathrm{g} \mathrm{cm}^{-2}$ by dividing mass by total wing surface area. Total wing surface area was determined by summing twice the mean of the forewing area with twice the mean of the hindwing area.

Wingbeat frequencies were obtained with an optical tachometer, in a manner similar to that of Unwin \& Ellington (1979), and a Nicolet 206 digital oscilloscope. Insects were allowed to fly freely inside a covered greenhouse at $24 \pm 3^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. A wingbeat frequency was obtained for the sexually dimorphic $D$. citri but, since separate values could not be determined for the two sexes, this species was not considered in statistical comparisons of wingbeat frequencies.

The number of animals measured for each variable was determined by examining coefficients of variation as data sets were accumulated. The data were tested for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk statistic (Shapiro \& Wilk, 1965). If samples were normally distributed, a $t$-test or Student $F$-test was used to compare sample means.

Otherwise, Ansari-Bradley (Ansari \& Bradley, 1960) and Mann-Whitney (Mann \& Whitney, 1947) nonparametric tests for equality of dispersion were used. Statistical analysis was done using the RS/1 software system on a Digital Equipment Corporation Professional 350 microcomputer.

To compare aphids and whiteflies with other insects, we compiled data from the literature for 149 insect species with known values for wing loading, wingbeat frequency and wing surface area. Certain data were corrected to match our selected format for presentation. Only species with known values for all three variables were used.

## RESULTS

Morphometrics for our homopterans appear in Table 1 as numbers 1-11. Table 1 also provides rankings of the animals measured in this study with respect to values in the literature for the same parameters. These are shown parenthetically in the columns for mass, wing area, wing loading and wingbeat frequency. For example, B. tabaci wingbeat frequency ranked as the 134th highest of 158 recorded frequencies.

The data for the honeybees we measured appear as number 54 in Table 1. Our results compare favourably with those reported earlier by Magnan (1934) and Sotavalta (1952) which are shown as numbers 49 and 50.

All wing area and wing length measurements had low coefficients of variation (c.v.),$<15 \%$, indicating that 20 individuals would constitute an adequate sample size. Wingbeat frequencies also had low c.v. $(<10 \%)$, and only 10 individuals were measured. Body masses were more variable, and 40 individuals were weighed (c.v. $<40 \%$ ). Unlike the other insects we measured, $D$. citri males and females were significantly different in terms of the two important flight-associated parameters: body mass and wing surface area ( $P<0.05$ ). Consequently, all values for the measured variables, with the exception of wingbeat frequency (not given), are listed separately for $D$. citri males and females.

## Wing surface areas and lengths

The forewing surface areas of the measured animals were significantly larger than those of their hindwings $(P<0 \cdot 01)$. Generally, aphids had significantly larger forewings and hindwings than whiteflies, although Ap. gossypii was an exception ( $P<0 \cdot 01$ ). Aphid forewings and hindwings were also longer than the forewings and hindwings of whiteflies $(P<0.01)$ (Table 2).

## Body masses

Body masses are given in Table 1. Aphids were significantly larger than whiteflies; ranges were $1.14-7.02 \times 10^{-4} \mathrm{~g}$ for aphids and $3.3-8.0 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{~g}$ for whiteflies ( $P<0 \cdot 01$ ). Almost all body masses of the measured animals were significantly different from one another $(P<0 \cdot 01)$. The exceptions were two whiteflies, $D$. citri males and T. vaporarionm $(P>0.01)$.
Table 1. Insect fight-associated morphometrics

| Family | Species | Mass <br> (g) | Wing area ( $\mathrm{cm}^{2}$ ) | Wing loading $\left(\mathrm{g} \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\right)$ | Wingbeat frequency (Hz) | Citation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Neyrodidae | Bemisia tabaci | $3.3 \times 10^{-5}(1)^{*}$ | 0.0134 (3) | $2.45 \times 10^{-3}(3)$ | $168 \cdot 6$ (134) | Present study |
| 2. Alcyrodidae | Trialeurodes z'aporariorum | $3.5 \times 10^{-5}(2)$ | $0 \cdot 0165$ (4) | $2.12 \times 10^{-3}(2)$ | $180 \cdot 0$ (139) | Present study |
| 3. Alcyrodidae | Dialeurodes citri (male) | $3.6 \times 10^{-5}(3)$ | 0.0207 (6) | $1.74 \times 10^{-3}(1)$ | - | Present study |
| 4. Mleyrodidae | Trialeurodes abutilonea | $5.0 \times 10^{-5}(4)$ | $9.6 \times 10^{-3}(1)$ | $5.23 \times 10^{-3}(7)$ | $224 \cdot 2$ (152) | Present study |
| 5. Alcyrodidae | Aleurothrixus floccosus | $6.5 \times 10^{-5}(5)$ | 0.194 (5) | $3.36 \times 10^{-3}(5)$ | $165 \cdot 6$ (133) | Present study |
| 6. Aleyrodidae | Dialeurodes citri (female) | $8.0 \times 10^{-5}(6)$ | 0.0264 (8) | $3.03 \times 10^{-3}(4)$ | - | Present study |
| 7. Aphididac | Aphis gossypii | $1.14 \times 10^{-4}(7)$ | 0.0103 (2) | 0.01106 (18) | $123 \cdot 4$ (110) | Present study |
| 8. Aphididac | Myzus persicae | $3.34 \times 10^{-4}(8)$ | 0.0237 (7) | 0.01412 (22) | $90 \cdot 9$ (94) | Present study |
| 9. Aphididac | Aphis fabae | $4.11 \times 10^{-4}(9)$ | 0.0526 (10) | $7.8 \times 10^{-3}$ (13) | $104 \cdot 7$ (101) | Present study |
| 10. Aphididae | Aphis nerii | $4.67 \times 10^{-4}(10)$ | 0.0663 (13) | $7.5 \times 10^{-3}$ (12) | $118 \cdot 1$ (104) | Present study |
| 11. Aphididae | Acyrthosiphon kondoi | $7.02 \times 10^{-4}(11)$ | $0 \cdot 1106$ (14) | $6.33 \times 10^{-3}(10)$ | $81 \cdot 1$ (89) | Present study |
| 12. Trichoceridac $\text { (2) } \dagger$ | Trichocera sp. | $1.2 \times 10^{-3}$ | 0.200 | $6.00 \times 10^{-3}$ | 74 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 13. Culicidae (2) | Aedes aegypti | $1.5 \times 10^{-3}$ | 0.037 | 0.039 | 480 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 14. Drosophilidae | Drosophila virilis | $2.0 \times 10^{-3}$ | 0.058 | 0.04 | 240 | Weis-Fogh, 1972 |
| 15. Drosophilidae | Drosophila virilis | $2.0 \times 10^{-3}$ | 0.058 | 0.034 | 195 | Vogel, 1966 |
| 16. Culicidae | Culicidae sp. | $5.8 \times 10^{-3}$ | 0.150 | 0.039 | 277 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 17. Culicidae | Theobaldia anmulata | $9.9 \times 10^{-3}$ | $0 \cdot 169$ | 0.059 | 262 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 18. Anthomyiidae | Fanmia scalaris | 0.010 | $0 \cdot 196$ | $0 \cdot 051$ | 210 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 19. Muscidae | Masca domestica | 0.012 | $0 \cdot 200$ | 0.060 | 190 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 20. Syrphidae | Platychirus peltatus | 0.0128 | $0 \cdot 230$ | 0.056 | 147 | Weis-Fogh, 1973 |
| 21. Syrphidat (3) | Sphaemphoria scripta | $0 \cdot 0193$ | 0.200 | 0.094 | 308 | Weis-Fogh, 1973 |
| 22. Syrphidae | Syrphus grossulariae | $0 \cdot 0200$ | $0 \cdot 480$ | 0.042 | 114 | Weis-Fogh, 1973 |
| 23. Noctuidac | Venilia macularia | 0.021 | $3 \cdot 400$ | $0 \cdot 006$ | 25 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 24. Apidae | Apis sp. | 0.0213 | $0 \cdot 20$ | $0 \cdot 11$ | 130 | Ahmad, 1984 |
| 25. Syrphidac (3) | Syrphus comollae | 0.0213 | $0 \cdot 350$ | 0.061 | 174 | Weis-Fogh, 1973 |
| 26. Syrphidae | Syphus nitens | 0.022 | $0 \cdot 300$ | 0.073 | 172 | Weis-Fogh, 1973 |
| 27. Calliphoridae | Calliphora erythrocephala | 0.023 | $0 \cdot 240$ | 0.096 | 160 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 28. Syrphidac (7) | Syrohus balteatus | 0.0232 | 0.490 | 0.047 | 138 | Weis-Fogh, 1973 |
| 29. Panorpidac | Panorpa communis | 0.030 | 1.750 | 0.017 | 28 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 30. Tipulidae (12) | Tipula sp. | 0.030 | $1 \cdot 110$ | 0.027 | 52 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 31. Ichneumonidae | Ophion luteus | 0.033 | 1.5501 | 0.021 | 62 | Sotavalta, 1952 |








Table 1. Continued

| Family | Species | Mass <br> (g) | Wing area ( $\mathrm{cm}^{2}$ ) | $\begin{gathered} \text { Wing } \\ \text { loading } \\ \left(\mathrm{g} \mathrm{~cm}^{-2}\right) \end{gathered}$ | Wingbeat frequency ( Hz ) | Citation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 66. Noctuidae | Agrostis exclamationis | 0.133 | $3 \cdot 20$ | 0.04 | 41 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 67. Nymphalidae | l'anessa atalanta | 0.134 | $10 \cdot 800$ | 0.012 | 10 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 68. Cerambycidac | Cerambycidae sp. | 0.142 | $1 \cdot 33$ | $0 \cdot 107$ | 80 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 69. Pieridac | Pieris brassicae | 0.144 | 17.200 | 0.08 | $10 \cdot 5$ | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 70. Noctuidae | Plusia gamma | 0.144 | $4 \cdot 400$ | 0.033 | 48 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 71. Apidac | Bombus hortorum | $0 \cdot 159$ | 0.900 | $0 \cdot 177$ | 135 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 72. Sphingidae | Chelonia villica | $0 \cdot 165$ | $8 \cdot 000$ | 0.021 | 20 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 73. Corduliidac | Tetragoneuria cynosura | $0 \cdot 165$ | $7 \cdot 500$ | 0.022 | $27 \cdot 6$ | May, 1981 |
| 74. Saturniidac (5) | Hylesia spp. | 0.168 | 2.334 | 0.072 | $32 \cdot 4$ | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |
| 75. Apidae (6) | Euglossa imperialis | 0.169 | 0.79 | 0.21 | 179 | Casey et al. 1985 |
| 76. Nymphalidae | l'anesa cardui | 0.173 | $10 \cdot 400$ | 0.017 | 20 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 77. Libellulidae | Erythemis simplicicollis | 0.176 | $8 \cdot 38$ | 0.021 | 28 | May, 1981 |
| 78. Libellulidae | Pachydiplax longipennis | 0.178 | 8.476 | 0.021 | $24 \cdot 3$ | May, 1981 |
| 79. Vespidae | lespa germanica | 0.187 | 0.980 | 0.191 | 110 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 80. Sphingidae | Macroglossa bombyliformis | $0 \cdot 189$ | $2 \cdot 620$ | 0.072 | 80 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 81. Nymphalidae | Vanessa io | 0.195 | $14 \cdot 000$ | 0.0147 | 18 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 82. Saturniidac (2) | Hyperchirica nausica | 0.200 | 3.950 | 0.051 | 21.6 | Bartholomew \& Cascy, 1978 |
| 83. Notodontidac | Notodonta dictaea | 0.201 | $5 \cdot 000$ | 0.040 | 22 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 84. Apidae | Bombus muscorum | 0.226 | 0.900 | 0.251 | 128 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 85. Diptera | Dassramphis atra | 0.233 | 1.500 | 0.155 | 100 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 86. Lymantriidae | Dasichyra pudibunda | 0.237 | 8.000 | 0.030 | 28 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 87. Vespidae | Vespa germanica | $0 \cdot 240$ | $1 \cdot 330$ | 0.180 | 139 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 88. Libellulidae | Libellula depressa | 0.245 | 13.200 | 0.019 | 20 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 89. Libellulidae | Orthetrum coervlescens | 0.248 | $10 \cdot 800$ | 0.023 | 20 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 90. Scutellcridae | (huysocoris purpurus | 0.264 | 1.50 | $0 \cdot 18$ | 100 | Ahmad, 1984 |
| 91. Tabanidae | Tabanus bozinus | 0.276 | 1.840 | $0 \cdot 150$ | 96 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 92. Nymphalidae | Argymis pandora | 0.278 | 18.00 | 0.015 | 10 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 93. Libellulidae | Sympetrum meridionale | 0.281 | 10.000 | 0.028 | 21 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 94. Sphingidac | Macroglossa stelatorum | $0 \cdot 282$ | 3.790 | 0.074 | 73 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 95. Melolonthidac | Amphimallon solstitiolis | $0 \cdot 291$ | $2 \cdot 290$ | 0.127 | 78 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 96. Saturnidae (4) | Automeris jacunda | 0.298 | $7 \cdot 572$ | 0.039 | 17.1 | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |

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Noctuidae
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Apidae
Libellulidae
Aeshnidae
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Apidae (6)
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Sphingidae
Saturniidae
Vespidae
Apidae (2)
Sphingidae
Bombycidae
Melolonthidae
Vespidae
Saturniidae

Table 1. Continued

| Family | Species | Mass <br> (g) | Wing area ( $\mathrm{cm}^{2}$ ) | Wing loading $\left(\mathrm{g} \mathrm{~cm}^{-2}\right)$ | Wingbeat frequency ( Hz ) | Citation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 132. Aeshnidae | Aeschna mfescens | 0.611 | 17.80 | 0.03 | 20 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 133. Xylocopidac | Nilocopa violacea | 0.614 | 1.720 | $0 \cdot 357$ | 130 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 134. Sphingidae (2) | Perigonia lusca | 0.638 | $2 \cdot 470$ | $0 \cdot 258$ | $62 \cdot 9$ | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |
| 135. Apidae (4) | Exaerete frontalis | 0.644 | $3 \cdot 48$ | 0.19 | 87 | Cascy et al. 1985 |
| 136. Saturniidae | Automeris belti | 0.665 | 10.960 | 0.061 | 14.4 | Bartholomew \& Cascy, 1978 |
| 137. Sphingidae | Pachygonia drucei | 0.702 | 4.770 | 0.147 | $48 \cdot 4$ | Bartholomew \& Cascy, 1978 |
| 138. Saturniidac | Automerina auletes | 0.720 | 8.090 | 0.089 | $23 \cdot 4$ | Bartholomew \& Cascy, 1978 |
| 139. Cicadidae | Cicada sp. | 0.752 | $7 \cdot 64$ | $0 \cdot 10$ | 42 | Ahmad, 1984 |
| 140. Aeshnidae | Anax jumius | $0 \cdot 820$ | 21.02 | 0.039 | $20 \cdot 5$ | May, 1981 |
| 141. Sphingidae (2) | XVlophanes pluto | 0.829 | $4 \cdot 430$ | $0 \cdot 187$ | $45 \cdot 0$ | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |
| 142. Saturniidac (3) | Adeloneivaia boisduvalii | 0.839 | $5 \cdot 564$ | $0 \cdot 151$ | 24.9 | Bartholomew \& Cascy, 1978 |
| 143. Apidac | Bombus terrestris | 0.880 | 1.970 | 0.447 | 156 | Sotavalta, 1952 |
| 144. Hemiptera | Tesseratoma javanica | 0.926 | $3 \cdot 88$ | 0.239 | 66 | Ahmad, 1984 |
| 145. Macromiidae | Macromia taeniolata | 0.930 | 20.217 | 0.046 | $25 \cdot 5$ | May, 1981 |
| 146. Apidae (7) | Eulaema meriana | 0.940 | $3 \cdot 46$ | 0.270 | 98 | Casey et al. 1985 |
| 147. Melolonthidae | Melolontha vulgaris | 0.961 | 4.020 | 0.239 | 46 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 148. Saturniidae (3) | Eacles imperialis | $1 \cdot 105$ | $12 \cdot 600$ | 0.088 | 17.9 | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |
| 149. Aeschnidac | Anax formosus | $1 \cdot 200$ | $22 \cdot 80$ | 0.053 | 22 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 150. Sphingidae | Erimyls ello | 1.210 | 5.480 | 0.221 | $23 \cdot 7$ | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |
| 151. Blattidae | Periplaneta americana | 1.555 | $10 \cdot 44$ | $0 \cdot 148$ | 26 | Ahmad, 1984 |
| 152. Sphingidae | Acherontia atmpos | 1.600 | $20 \cdot 500$ | 0.078 | 22 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 153. Apidae | Bombus sp. | 1.600 | $3 \cdot 50$ | $0 \cdot 46$ | 125 | Ahmad, 1984 |
| 154. Sphingidae (4) | Manduca corallina | 1.618 | $10 \cdot 270$ | $0 \cdot 158$ | 28.0 | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |
| 155. Saturniidae | Syssphinx molina | 1.630 | 9.700 | $0 \cdot 168$ | $22 \cdot 9$ | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |
| 156. Sphingidae (2) | Madorvx oeclus | 1.699 | 4.715 | $0 \cdot 360$ | $41 \cdot 8$ | Bartholomew \& Cascy, 1978 |
| 157. Saturniidac | Saturnia pyri | 1.890 | $120 \cdot 000$ | 0.016 | 8 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 158. Lucanidae | Lucanus cervas | $2 \cdot 600$ | 8.000 | $0 \cdot 325$ | 33 | Magnan, 1934 |
| 159. Sphingidae | Manduca rustica | 2.704 | $10 \cdot 720$ | $0 \cdot 252$ | $29 \cdot 5$ | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |
| 160. Sphingidac (2) | Oryba achemenides | 2.809 | $10 \cdot 200$ | $0 \cdot 275$ | $39 \cdot 9$ | Bartholomew \& Casey, 1978 |
| * Numbers presented parenthetically in columns 3-6 indicate the levels of ranking, within the 160 insects tabulated, of the Homo <br> $\dagger$ Where a number is presented parenthetically in column 1, the values tabulated are means from several individuals in the literatu indicates from how many individuals the data are derived. |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 2. Wing length (in mm) of measured homopterous insects

| Species |  | $\overline{\mathrm{X}}$ | $N$ | Coefficient of variation (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Acyrthosiphon kondoi | forewing | $3 \cdot 39$ | 20 | $3 \cdot 5$ |
|  | hindwing | 1.93 | 20 | 5.8 |
| Aleurothrixus floccosus | forewing | 1.52 | 20 | $4 \cdot 3$ |
|  | hindwing | 0.94 | 20 | $8 \cdot 3$ |
| Aphis fabae | forewing | $2 \cdot 66$ | 20 | $6 \cdot 1$ |
|  | hindwing | 1.62 | 20 | $8 \cdot 1$ |
| Aphis gossypii | forewing | 2.18 | 20 | 7.9 |
|  | hindwing | $1 \cdot 37$ | 20 | $9 \cdot 5$ |
| Aphis nerii | forewing | 2.94 | 20 | 6.6 |
|  | hindwing | 1.75 | 20 | 7.0 |
| Bemisia tabaci | forewing | 0.84 | 20 | $5 \cdot 6$ |
|  | hindwing | 0.69 | 20 | 7.2 |
| Dialeurodes citn (female) | forewing | 1.37 | 20 | $3 \cdot 6$ |
|  | hindwing | $1 \cdot 16$ | 20 | $4 \cdot 3$ |
| Dialeurodes citri (male) | forewing | $1 \cdot 16$ | 20 | 8.9 |
|  | hindwing | 0.93 | 20 | 4.0 |
| Myzus persicae | forewing | 3.08 | 20 | $5 \cdot 2$ |
|  | hindwing | 1.89 | 20 | $8 \cdot 5$ |
| Trialeurodes abutilonea | forewing | 0.98 | 20 | $11 \cdot 3$ |
|  | hindwing | 0.78 | 20 | $13 \cdot 1$ |
| Trialeurodes vaporarionum | forewing | 0.99 | 20 | $5 \cdot 4$ |
|  | hindwing | 0.84 | 20 | $10 \cdot 1$ |

Wingbeat frequency
The two families could also be separated by wingbeat frequency (Table 1). Aphids had significantly lower wingbeat frequencies than whiteflies (range $81 \cdot 1-123 \cdot 4 \mathrm{~Hz}$ for aphids, $165 \cdot 6-224 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~Hz}$ for whiteflies) ( $P<0.01$ ). Within the groups, only two aphids, Ap. nerii and Ap.gossypii, and two whiteflies, Al. floccosus and B. tabaci, had wingbeat frequencies not significantly different from one another ( $P>0.05$ ).

## Wing loading

Calculated wing loadings for aphids $\left(6.33 \times 10^{-3}\right.$ to $\left.0.01412 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~cm}^{-2}\right)$ were all larger than those of whiteflies $\left(1.74-5.23 \times 10^{-3} \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~cm}^{-2}\right.$; Table 1).

## Relationships between wingbeat frequency and morphometrics

Relationships between wingbeat frequency and various body morphometrics, such as wing area and length, body mass and wing loading, were evaluated for all measured insect species (exclusive of $D$. citri) (Table 3 ). Coefficients of determination $\left(r^{2}\right)$ revealed that wingbeat frequency was most closely linked with body mass

Table 3. Relationships between wingbeat frequency and body morphometrics for selected members of Aleyrodidae and Aphididae

|  | Coefficient <br> of determination <br> $r^{2}$ | $F$ value | Significance <br> $P<$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Body characteristic | 0.6939 | 7.43 | 0.05 |
| Forewing area | 0.5569 | 3.60 | NS |
| Hindwing area | 0.6651 | 6.35 | NS |
| Total area | 0.9261 | 48.23 | 0.001 |
| Forewing length | 0.9160 | 41.69 | 0.001 |
| Hindwing length | 0.8275 | 17.37 | 0.005 |
| Body mass | 0.6680 | 6.45 | 0.05 |
| Wing loading |  |  |  |
| NS, not significant. |  |  |  |

and fore- and hindwing length: $68 \%$ of the variation in wingbeat frequency was attributable to body mass, and $>80 \%$ to length of both the forewings and hindwings. Compared with whiteflies, aphids generally have lower wingbeat frequencies and higher wing loading.

## Relationships with other insects

Our homopterans weighed less than all the insects whose flight-associated morphometrics were measured in previous studies. Masses ranged from $3.3 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{~g}$ (B. tabaci) to $2 \cdot 809 \mathrm{~g}$ (Oryba achemenides) (Table 1). Using total wing surface area as a criterion for size, our homopterans are among the smallest insects for whom wing loading and wingbeat frequencies have been calculated. The range of wing surface areas was from $9 \cdot 6 \times 10^{-3} \mathrm{~cm}^{2}$ (T. abutilonea) to $120 \cdot 00 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}$ (Saturnia pyri). Our largest homopteran ranked only fourteenth out of 160 .

The ratio of body mass to wing surface area was also low in the 11 homopterans, with five having wing loading values lower than any in the literature. The 160 insects ranged from $1.74 \times 10^{-3} \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~cm}^{-2}$ for male D. citri to $0.460 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~cm}^{-2}$ for Bombus spp. None of those we measured exhibited a wing loading that ranked higher than 22nd out of 160 (Table 1). For wingbeat frequencies, our homopterans exhibited some of the highest values within the recorded range of $8-480 \mathrm{~Hz}$ (Table 1). Rankings for whiteflies and aphids ranged from 89th to 152nd of 158.

We were also interested in the statistical relationship between body mass, wing loading and wingbeat frequency for all insects either in the literature or measured herein. Since $D$. citri was not included (for reasons discussed previously) the statistical comparisons involve 158 species. Using wing loading as the independent variable and calculating coefficients of determination for all 158 insects, we found that wing loading accounted for only $5.5 \%$ of the variation in wingbeat frequency $\left(r^{2}=0 \cdot 0550, F\right.$ value $\left.=9 \cdot 08\right)$. Similar calculations using body mass as the independent variable indicate that this parameter accounted for $14 \%$ of the variation in wingbeat frequency ( $r^{2}=0.1378, F$ value $=24.92$ ). Considering both mass (first
entry) and wing loading (second entry) as independent variables in a stepwise regression, we found that $34 \%$ of the variation in wingbeat frequency was attributable to these two parameters ( $r^{2}=0 \cdot 344, F$ value $=40 \cdot 58$ ).

Relationships between body mass, wing loading and wingbeat frequency became clearer after data had been sorted according to mass. The 158 species were divided into six groups of roughly equal size. Insects weighing more than 0.03 g had to be separated into groups because slopes for regression lines for wingbeat frequency and wing loading were significantly different $(P<0.015)$ (Table 4). The slope for animals weighing $0 \cdot 030-0 \cdot 104 \mathrm{~g}$ was $1050 \cdot 0$, whereas the slope for insects weighing $0 \cdot 720-2 \cdot 809 \mathrm{~g}$ was $221 \cdot 8$. Coefficients of determination were calculated for the species within each mass group (Table 4). Examination of the $F$ values indicated that the linear relationship between wingbeat frequency and wing loading was highly significant for all mass groups with the exception of the lightest animals (i.e. $<0.03 \mathrm{~g}$ ) $(P<0 \cdot 001)$.

The importance of excluding the smaller insects from considerations of the relationships between wingbeat frequency and wing loading became more apparent when coefficients of determination were calculated for all insect species weighing $>0.03 \mathrm{~g}$ (Table 5). A log transformation of the independent variable, wing loading, and a $\log / \log$ transformation of both the independent variable and the dependent variable, wingbeat frequency, improved the goodness-of-fit as shown by an increase in $F$ values from 43.96 to 135.88 . Similar transformation of data for insects weighing $<0.03 \mathrm{~g}$ did little to improve the goodness-of-fit, as $F$ values increased from 2.87 to 3.72. Log and $\log / \log$ transformation for insect species in the larger mass groups decreased $F$ values, indicating a clearly linear relationship.

We attempted to identify the relationship between wingbeat frequency and wing loading for the various taxa shown in Table 1. Although a few cases, e.g. members of Sphingidae, showed significant correlations, the majority did not. The lack of significant correlations may have been due to small sample sizes or situations where animals were arbitrarily selected because of a taxonomic relationship from groups with different slopes.

## DISCUSSION

In terms of flight-associated morphometrics, the two measured families differed from one another in all important parameters considered: body mass, wingbeat frequency and wing loading. These data support the earlier observation concerning distribution of whiteflies and aphids in air columns. Our data also demonstrate that, although closely related, these insects employ different methods of flight.

The relationship between wingbeat frequency and wing loading is of special significance. The finding that whiteflies had a higher wingbeat frequency and a lower wing loading than aphids was unexpected. Other authors have argued that insects with heavy bodies in relation to total wing surface area should beat their wings more rapidly than insects of similar mass, but with larger wing surface areas (Dorsett, 1962; Bartholomew \& Heinrich, 1973). This seems to be theoretically correct as well

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Table 4. Coefficients of determination for the regression equation $y=a+b x$ where $y=$ wingbeat frequency and $x=$ wing loading for all insects

as agreeing with other authors' (Ahmad, 1984; Greenewalt, 1962) statements about birds and bats, which apparently also employ an increased wingbeat frequency tactic.

This study of wingbeat frequency and wing loading in our measured homopterans (as well as other small insects) has helped shed some light on these relationships among insects in general, about which differing conclusions have been drawn. Certain authors have concluded that wing loading and wingbeat frequency are significantly correlated, especially if wing lengths are part of the equation (e.g. May, 1981). Others, such as Bartholomew \& Casey (1978), are less certain of such a relationship and suggest that it is variable. Finally, others (Casey, May \& Morgan, 1985) state no such relationship could be established for insect species they studied.

Our data demonstrate that among groups of larger insects wingbeat frequency and wing loading are significantly correlated, conforming to the hypothesis that animals with high wing loading compensate by using higher wingbeat frequencies. The differences in the steepness of the slopes of regression lines for each group indicate that smaller insects employ increased wingbeat tactic at rates exponentially higher than for larger insects.

Previous authors whose data failed to indicate a correlation between these two parameters may have considered either too few subjects or mixed insect species whose body masses were dramatically different. Casey et al. (1985) measured euglossine bees and showed that their wingbeat frequencies were inversely correlated with wing length and mass, but not with wing loading. We incorporated their data on bees into our larger data set, selecting groups of the same size as those used in our calculations (i.e. $26 \pm 2$ ), which included their insects. The correlation between wing loading and wingbeat frequency for the groups was highly significant for each ( $P<0 \cdot 001$ ) (Table 6). Similar incorporations and recalculations were made using the data for members of the Sphingidae and Saturniidae generated by Bartholomew

Table 5. Coefficient of determination for $\log$ transformations where $y=$ wingbeat frequency and $x=$ wing loading

|  | Coefficient of <br> determination <br> $r^{2}$ | $F$ value | Significance <br> $P<$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mass range (g) |  |  |  |
| $3.3 \times 10^{-5}$ to 2.809 (all insects) | 0.0550 | 9.08 | 0.003 |
| no transformation | 0.0623 | 10.36 | 0.002 |
| $\log$ transformation of x | 0.3831 | 26.68 | 0.001 |
| $\log / \log$ transformation |  |  |  |
| $0.03-2.809$ (without smallest insects) | 0.2542 | 43.96 | 0.001 |
| no transformation | 0.3498 | 69.41 | 0.001 |
| $\log$ transformation of x | 0.6489 | 135.87 | 0.001 |
| $\log / \log$ transformation |  |  |  |
| $3.3 \times 10^{-5}$ to 0.03 (smallest insects) | 0.1030 | 2.87 | 0.1 |
| no transformation | 0.1227 | 3.49 | 0.073 |
| $\log$ transformation of x | 0.1294 | 3.72 | 0.065 |
| $\log / \log$ transformation |  |  |  |

Table 6. Relationship between wingbeat frequency and wing loading among members of Apidae, Saturniidae and Sphingidae determined after combining referenced data

| Family | $N$ | Mass range* <br> (g) | Coefficient of determination $r^{2}$ | $F$ value | Significance $P<$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Apidae | 26 | 0.071-0.144 | 0.8369 | $123 \cdot 11$ | $0 \cdot 001$ |
|  | 26 | 0.144-0.291 | 0.8836 | $182 \cdot 16$ | $0 \cdot 001$ |
|  | 26 | 0.298-0.547 | 0.7212 | 62.09 | 0.001 |
|  | 25 | 0.557-0.940 | 0.8392 | $120 \cdot 04$ | 0.001 |
| Saturniidae | 28 | 0.168-0.318 | $0 \cdot 8879$ | $205 \cdot 86$ | $0 \cdot 001$ |
|  | 27 | 0.345-0.595 | 0.7159 | $62 \cdot 99$ | $0 \cdot 001$ |
|  | 27 | 0.597-1.631 | 0.7573 | 78.07 | $0 \cdot 001$ |
| Sphingidae | 27 | 0.388-0.638 | 0.7280 | 66.93 | 0.001 |
|  | 26 | 0.644-2.809 | 0.5712 | $31 \cdot 37$ | $0 \cdot 001$ |

\& Casey (1978). Results were the same, i.e. correlations between wingbeat frequency and wing loading were highly significant $(P<0 \cdot 001)$ (Table 6).

For very small insects, the lack of relationship may be explained by the fact that some minute species solve the problem of staying aloft in unique ways. Some, like whiteflies (Wootton \& Newman, 1979) and Drosophila (Weis-Fogh, 1972), employ a clap and fling mechanism to generate extra lift. This reduces the need for exceptionally high wingbeat frequencies, and agrees with the data presented here. Our data also support Pringle's (1976) correct prediction that, because they have exceptionally low wing loadings, whiteflies would not have the high wingbeat frequencies commonly associated with small insects (e.g. 480 Hz for Aedes aegypti; Table 1). Whitefly wingbeat frequencies are rather more correctly characterized as being mid-range (here $165 \cdot 6-224 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~Hz}$; Table 1). The same strategy may be employed by other insects weighing $<0.03 \mathrm{~g}$. A third possibility is that many small insects accomplish flight in a manner similar to that reported for aphids (Haine, 1955), i.e. by relying to a large extent on an ability to use wind currents passively. Being small, they have low settling velocities because of high drag coefficients. Any of these strategies would help explain why small insects may not conform to the generalization that animals with high wing loading have a high wingbeat frequency (e.g. members of Hymenoptera) and that insects with low wing loading have a low wingbeat frequency (e.g. members of Lepidoptera). Any group of small insects may contain several statistical 'outliers', resulting in a lack of relationship between wingbeat frequency and wing loading.

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