Burrows, M., \& Sutton, G. P. (2013). Interacting Gears Synchronize Propulsive Leg Movements in a Jumping Insect. Science, 341(6151), 12541256. DOI: $10.1126 /$ science. 1240284

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# Interacting gears synchronise propulsive leg movements in a jumping insect 

by<br>Malcolm Burrows and Gregory Sutton ${ }^{1}$<br>Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 3EJ, England<br>${ }^{1}$ Current address: School of Biological Sciences, University of Bristol, Bristol BS8 1UG, England

With 2 Figures and 3 supplementary movies
Keywords: motor control, joint mechanics, locomotion, planthoppers
Running Title: Gears in jumping planthoppers

Please send correspondence to Prof M Burrows at his Cambridge address
Telephone $\quad+44$ (0)1223 336628
Fax $\quad+44(0) 1223330934$
Email mb135@hermes.cam.ac.uk

Structures that look like intermeshing gears are found rarely in animals and have never been reported to engage and rotate functionally like a set of mechanical gears. We now demonstrate the action of functional gears in the ballistic jumping movements of the flightless planthopper insect, Issus. Synchronous movements of the propulsive hind legs are essential both to propel and to control the direction of a jump. The nymphs, but not adults, have a row of cuticular gear ( $\operatorname{cog}$ ) teeth around the curved medial surfaces of their two hind trochantera. High speed images showed that during both the preparatory cocking and the propulsive phases of jumping, the gear teeth on one trochanter engaged with and sequentially moved past those on the other trochanter. The spacing between the gear teeth and the close registration between the two gears ensured that both hind legs moved at the same angular velocity, ensuring that the body was propelled forwards without yaw rotation. At the final moult to adulthood, this synchronisation mechanism is jettisoned. These gear teeth and their actions therefore represent the first description of an animal gsing a-set of mechanical gears to regulate locomotion. that they provide a stable base about which the trochantera can be rotated to generate the propulsive thrust for jumping. Each hind trochanter of nymphs of all instars is characterised by the presence of a curved strip of gear teeth (Figure 1B), a feature that extends to other nymphal Fulgoroidea (3-4). The gear on one trochanter interdigitated with a corresponding gear on the

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other trochanter (Figure 1C,D). No structures resembling these are present on the front or middle legs nor are they present on the hind legs of adults.

Each strip of gears was 350-400 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ long, contained 10-12 teeth wrapped around the medial surface of the hind trochanter with a radius of curvature ( $\rho$ ) of about $200 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ (Figure 1E,F). The numbers of gear teeth on the left and right hind trochantera were the same, resulting in a gearing ratio of $1: 1$. One tooth occurred for every $8.5 \pm 1.0^{\circ}(\mathrm{N}=9$ nymphs) of rotation of the coxotrochanteral joint. As measured in final instar nymphs, the width of an individual tooth was 80 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ at the anterior end of the curved strip tapering to $30 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ at the posterior end (Figure 1B). Each tooth was $9 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ thick from front to back, was separated from the next tooth by $30 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and projected from the surface of a trochanter by $15-30 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, again tapering from the anterior to the posterior end of the strip. The stiffness and dark colouration of the teeth contrasted with the lighter surface of the underlying cuticle and suggests that these structures are heavily sclerotised (Figure 1B).

The teeth of the gears had only some of the features that characterise man-made gears. A feature in common was the presence of a curved fillet at the base (Figure 1E), which in man-made gears is designed to reduce the likelihood of shearing. In Issus, however, the sides of each tooth were hooked (Figure 1D-F), whereas those of man-made gears have two curvatures, called an involute, that enable contact to remain constant throughout their engagement (5). The involute, however, is a solution for two perfectly circular gears each rotating about their respective centres; the trochanteral gears, by contrast are neither perfectly circular, nor are they rotating about their centres.

To determine the action of the gears in jumping, high speed images were captured of a nymph restrained on its back but with its hind legs free to move. Rapid and synchronous movements of both hind legs in movements that have all the characteristics of natural jumps (0) could then be readily induced in some animals by touching the abdomen with a fine paintbrush. These experiments showed that the gears of one trochanter clearly engaged with those on the other trochanter during both the preparatory movements for a jump and during the rapid depression movements that propel a jump itself (Figure 2A-C). In preparation for a jump, the hind legs were
levated at their coxo-trochanteral joints so that both hind legs were rotated forwards (7) (Figure 2A,B and supplementary material, Movie 2). In the propulsive jumping movements both hind legs were depressed at the coxo-trochanteral joints that rotated with angular velocities as high as $200,000^{\circ} \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ (Figure 2C and supplementary material, Movie 3). With one tooth every $4.3^{\circ}$, the left and right trochantera were mechanically constrained to depress within $21 \mu \mathrm{~s}$ of each other.

In some cocking and jumping movements the gears would disengage at the end of a movement. For example, during the cocking part of a jump the two hind legs would sometimes be levated beyond the last engagement point of the most anterior tooth, or the hind legs would be pulled apart laterally so that a gap opened up medially between the two strips of teeth. Movements of the trochantera then led to re-engagement of the teeth before the start of the next propulsive movement of a jump. Similarly, at the end of a jump the depression would sometimes go beyond the last engagement point of the most posterior tooth. Re-engagement was then restored during the first part of a subsequent levation movement. On other rarer occasions, the gears failed to engage immediately at the start of the propulsive phase of a jump and one hind leg then depressed fractionally in advance of the other so that some teeth span past each other. After these few misses, one tooth made contact with and engaged with a tooth on the other hind leg which then began its rapid depression, delayed only by a few microseconds relative to the first hind leg. This emphasises that it was critical for the gear on the hind leg moving first to engage with the gear on the other leg so as to nudge it to start its movement and thus maintain close synchrony.

The torque generated in a jump was calculated to be about 0.7 mN mm from the measured body mass and from the ground reaction force determined from the kinematics of natural jumping. Each hind leg and hence each gear is controlled by separate sets of trochanteral levator and depressor muscles so that not all the torque goes through each tooth. If, however, one leg moves first at the start of a jump, its gear teeth will engage with and transmit power to the other stationary leg inducing it to move. The power producing muscles of the two legs are innervated by different sets of two motor neurons each, but all four motor neurons carry highly synchronised spike patterns that should help to ensure that the same amount of force is generated in both legs (7). This neural mechanism assists with the synchrony of the leg movements, but one which is unable to deliver the level of synchrony measured during jumping. Thus the primary
role fulfilled by the gears is to ensure the hind legs move synchronously within microseconds of each other. Smaller nymphs have shorter hind legs and hence will have a correspondingly briefer time to accelerate a jump. This will in turn result in a greater need to ensure that the legs move synchronously if body spin is to be avoided. This mechanically coupled movement means that azimuth direction cannot be controlled by altering the timing of movement by the two hind legs, and modelling has independently shown that this would not be effective at maintaining a controlled trajectory (2). The required azimuth angle of a jump is instead controlled by varying the angles of the two hind femoro-tibial joints.

The gear teeth are present through all nymphal stages but are abandoned at the final moult into adulthood. Adults are, nevertheless, even better jumpers than the nymphs; they reach take-off velocities of more than $5 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ (adult males fastest velocity $5.5 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$; mean $3.2 \pm 0.2 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ for 10 males) in less than 1 ms (best time to take-off 0.8 ms , mean $1.5 \pm 0.04 \mathrm{~ms}$ ), and experience forces of $700 g(8)$. They now ensure synchronous movements of the two hind legs through frictional contact between the more proximal coxae (1). Their improved performance may be due to many factors rather than a consequence of abandoning the gear mechanism. An inherent limitation of gears in general and for their particular role in Issus is that if one tooth breaks, their synchronising function is lost. In nymphs that live for only a short time before moulting, a possible breakage can perhaps be tolerated because a repair can be effected shortly at the next moult. For the longer lifespan of the adults during which repair is not possible, the risk of losing directional control in jumping must be too great. Alternatively, the larger size of the adult body may mean that friction between stiffer body parts is a more effective synchronisation mechanism.

Gears occur rarely in the animal kingdom and none have been described to act like those analysed here, or those in many man-made machines. The cog wheel turtle Heosemys spinosa is named after the spines arranged around the edge of its shell. Similarly, the wheel bug Arilus cristatus (Hemiptera, Reduviidae) has tooth-like protrusions from the edges of its pronotum, but again these appear to act as ornaments and are not used as mechanical gears. The hearts of crocodilians have a cog wheel valve (9-11) that closes during each heart beat and can increase the resistance in the pulmonary outflow (12). In some insects and some crustaceans, rows of
regularly spaced protrusions are found (13) that have a similar appearance to the rows of teeth in Issus. They are, however, used in sound production when each protrusion is struck in turn by another structure; they do not interdigitate to assist a movement. The clear actions during jumping of the gears analysed here, emphasise the role played by the mechanics of the skeleton in generating rapid and powerful movements and their importance for the survival of the animal. The gears in Issus, like the screw in the femora of beetles (14) demonstrate that mechanisms previously thought only to be used in man-made machines have evolved in nature. Nymphal planthoppers possess the only known example of gears that have evolved to play an essential functional role in a natural behaviour.

## Figure 1

Structure of the gears on the hind trochantera of nymphs of Issus. (A) A nymph viewed from the side. (B) The gears on the left and right hind trochantera viewed posteriorly. (C) Scanning electron micrograph of the articulation between the hind trochantera and coxae, and the engagement of the gears on the two sides as viewed ventrally. The trochantera of both hind legs are partially levated about the coxae. (D) Higher magnification to show the interdigitation of the gears. (E). Diagram to show the radius of curvature of the surface ( $\rho_{\text {gear }}$ ), the angular placement of the gear teeth, and how the teeth of the two gears enmesh. (F) Drawing of the profile of a gear tooth in Issus (left) compared with a man-made involute gear tooth (right). The radius of curvature of the fillet $\left(\rho_{\text {fillet }}\right)$ is indicated.

## Figure 2

Engagement of the two gears during jumping movements of the hind legs. (A) Levation of the hind legs into their cocked position in preparation for a jump. Three images, at the times indicated, and captured at a rate of $5000 \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ of the hind trochantera and proximal femora (see Movie 2 in Supplementary Material for the full sequence). The first movement of a trochanter starts at time 0 ms and cocking is completed 80 ms later. (B) Drawings of the progressive movements of the gears and joints during cocking. The horizontal black arrows indicate the correspondence between the frames in (A) and the drawings here. (C) Rapid and synchronised depression of the two hind legs that power a jump (see Movie 3 in Supplementary material for the full sequence). Four images starting from the first detectable depression movement of the hind trochantera (time 0 ms ). Full depression was completed 1.8 ms later. The curved, black arrows show the direction of movement of each hind leg, and the curved, open arrows the direction of rotation of the two gears.

## Acknowledgements

Experimental work at the Institut fur Biologie II (Zoologie), RWTH Aachen University, Germany was supported by a grant to MB from the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation, Germany. Gregory Sutton was supported by the Human Frontiers Research Program. MB is
especially grateful to Dr Peter Bräunig for the hospitality of his laboratory. We also thank our Cambridge colleagues for their many helpful suggestions during the course of this work and for their comments on the manuscript.

## Supplementary Material

## Material and Methods

Issus coleoptratus (Fabricius 1781) was found living on ivy (Hedera helix) in Aachen Germany and Cambridge, England. It has some 5 nymphal instars that progressively increase in size and all live freely in the same habitat as the adults. Issus belongs to the order Hemiptera, sub-order Auchenorrhyncha, super-family Fulgoroidea and family Issidae. The nymphs analysed in this study were of different instars as indicated by: 1 . differences in the number of circular pit sense organs on the notum of the mesothorax; 2. body mass, which ranged from 3.4 to 10 mg (average $6.6 \pm 0.76 \mathrm{mg}, \mathrm{N}=9$ ); 3. body length which ranged from 2.8 to 5.1 mm (average $4.1 \pm 0.25 \mathrm{~mm}$, $\mathrm{N}=9$ ). The hind legs were $35 \pm 0.2 \%$ ( 7 nymphs) longer than the front legs so that the ratio of the lengths of the front, middle and hind legs was 1:1:1.35. The hind legs of nymphs were $81.1 \pm 4.5$ \% (7 nymphs) of the body length.

Sequential images of natural jumps by nymphs were captured at a rate of $5000 \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ and an exposure time of 0.03 ms , with a single Photron Fastcam 512PCI camera (Photron (Europe) Ltd, West Wycombe, Bucks., UK). Jumps occurred within a chamber made of optical quality glass (width 80 mm , height 80 mm , depth 10 mm at floor level expanding to 25 mm at the ceiling). The floor was made of high density foam (Plastazote) that gave good purchase for the tarsi. Images of restrained jumps to analyse the movements of the gears were made with nymphs held in Plasticene under a Leica MZ16 microscope (Wetzlar, Germany) to which the high speed Photron camera was attached through a trinocular head. Frame rates of $30000 \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ were used to determine the synchrony of the leg movements and $5000 \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ to reveal the movements of the gears. Temperatures ranged from $24-30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

The anatomy of the hind legs and metathorax was examined in intact insects and in those preserved in $70 \%$ alcohol. Dried specimens were also mounted on specimen holders, sputter coated with gold and then examined in a Philips XL-30 Scanning Electron Microscope (Eindhoven, The Netherlands). Body masses were determined to an accuracy of 0.1 mg with a Mettler Toledo AB104 balance (Beaumont Leys, Leicester, UK).

## Movie 1

Spontaneous jump of a nymph viewed from the side. The images were captured at a rate of 5000 images s ${ }^{-1}$ and with an exposure time of 0.03 ms and are replayed at 30 frames $\mathrm{s}^{-1}$.

## Movie 2

Movements of the gears during cocking of the hind legs in preparation for a jump by a nymph restrained on its back in Plasticene. Images were captured at a rate of 5000 images s $^{-1}$ and with an exposure time of 0.03 ms and are replayed at 30 frames s ${ }^{-1}$.

## Movie 3

Movements of the gears during a restrained jump by a nymph fixed on its back in Plasticene.
 replayed at 30 frames $\mathrm{s}^{-1}$. The hind legs pushed against the flexible hairs of a small brush that slowed the velocity of their propulsive movements.

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Figure 1


E


## F

## Issus gear tooth <br> Involute gear tooth

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\rho_{\text {fillet }}=2.6 \mu \mathrm{~m}
$$


$20 \mu \mathrm{~m}$

Figure 2



## Additional material

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