

## 1           **Approach to insect wing shape and deformation field measurement**

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### 8   **Key words:**

9 insect flight, wing flexibility, wing shape, wing deformation, laser triangulation, image

10 matching

11

### 12   **Summary Statement**

13 A fine shape and deformation field measurement of insect wing is achieved by a  
14 self-developed setup. This measurement could foster investigation of insect wing  
15 stiffness distribution.

16

### 17   **Abstract**

18 For measuring the shape and deformation of insect wing, a scanning setup adopting line  
19 laser and coaxial LED light is developed. Wing shape can be directly acquired from the  
20 line laser images by triangulation. Yet the wing deformation field can also be obtained  
21 by a self-devised algorithm that processes the images from line laser and coaxial LED  
22 simultaneously. During the experiment, three wing samples from termite and mosquito  
23 under concentrated force are scanned. The venation and corrugation could be  
24 significantly identified from shape measurement result. The deformation field is  
25 sufficiently accurate to demonstrate its variation from wing base to tip. The load  
26 conditions in experiments are also be discussed. For softer wings, local deformation is  
27 apparent if pinhead is employed to impose force. The similarity analysis is better than 5%  
28 deformation ratio as a static criterion, if the wing is simplified as a cantilever beam.  
29 The setup is proved to be effective and versatile. The shape and deformation fields  
30 would give enough details for the measurement of wing stiffness distribution.

31

## 32 **Introduction**

33 Insect wings undergo complex and even large deformation when propelling insects into  
34 the air(Wootton, 1990). The insect wing deformation in flight affects flight control and  
35 lift generation on a big scale. The understanding of wing deformation in flight could  
36 dramatically foster the design of flexible wing for flapping wing micro air vehicle  
37 (FWMAV) in engineering circles. The FWMAV has considerable advantages than  
38 traditional micro air vehicle in size, survivability and controllability. Several FWMAVs  
39 inspired by insects prove to be promising, including the Micromechanical Flying Insect  
40 (Fearing, 2004; Yan et al., 2001), DelFly (de Croon et al., 2009; de Croon et al., 2012;  
41 Lentink et al., 2007) and Harvard Microrobotic Fly (Ma et al., 2013). Remarkable  
42 progress of the FMAV has been achieved on energetics (Karpelson et al., 2010),  
43 actuation (Wood et al., 2005)and aerodynamics (Deng et al., 2014; Nakata et al., 2011;  
44 Wilkins and Knowles, 2009). Yet the flight performance of FWMAV can hardly match  
45 with that of the insects.

46

47 The wing deformation in flight is determined by both load that wing carries and the  
48 wing stiffness. The load could be roughly categorized as aerodynamic force and  
49 inertial-elastic force(Daniel and Combes, 2002). Both these two forces have proved to  
50 be crucial factors for the instantaneous shape of the wing(Ellington, 1984; Ennos, 1988;  
51 Ennos, 1989; Wilkin and Williams, 1993; Zanker and Gotz, 1990). The wing stiffness  
52 distribution is complicated because the wing is a passive structure mainly composed of  
53 veins and membranes (Wootton, 1992) and with no internal muscles inside (Mengesha  
54 et al., 2011). Although several researches focusing on measuring flexural stiffness  
55 distribution of insect wing have been done (Combes and Daniel, 2003; Ganguli et al.,  
56 2010; Lehmann et al., 2011; Mengesha et al., 2011), the wing is simplified as a  
57 one-dimensional beam in these researches, thus the spatial flexural stiffness distribution  
58 was not measured precisely. To acquire fine spatial flexural stiffness distribution  
59 requires an accurate deformation measurement first. Meanwhile, an exact shape  
60 measurement of the wing is the first step in the quest of a precise deformation

61 measurement.

62

63 Several accurate methods have been adopted in measuring insect wing shape, including  
64 interferometry, micro CT and laser triangulation. Based on laser interferometry method,  
65 a three-dimensional shape measurement system was designed to measure surface  
66 roughness of mosquito *Culicidae* wing (Sudo et al., 2005; Sudo et al., 2000). The  
67 measurement accuracy could reach submicron. The dragonfly *Anisoptera* wing shape  
68 was investigated via micro CT (Jongerius and Lentink, 2010). The scanning resolution  
69 is 7.2  $\mu\text{m}$ . Thickness and shape measurement (TSM) method was devised to measure  
70 thickness and shape of dragonfly *Anisoptera* wing simultaneously (Zeng et al., 1996).  
71 The TSM method is composed of heterodyne interferometry and laser triangulation.  
72 The error of their measurement is within 1.8%. Although these researches could obtain  
73 fine shape information, none of them has given a point to point matching deformation  
74 field.

75

76 In the current paper, the laser stripe triangulation and image matching are employed to  
77 measure the shape and deformation of the insect wing under concentrated force. A  
78 setup, based on triangulation, is designed and fabricated to achieve the measurement.  
79 By light stripe center extraction and image matching, the wing shape and deformation  
80 field could be obtained.

81

## 82 **Materials and Methods**

### 83 *Study specimens*

84 The tested wing specimens are wings from formosan subterranean termite *Coptotermes*  
85 *formosanus* and two kinds of mosquito *Culicidae*. These two *Culicidae* are not  
86 identified the exact species due to limitation of sampling. In this article, the two  
87 *Culicidae* are written as *Culicidae 1* and *Culicidae 2* in short. All these insects are  
88 collected in local garden in summer. They are common flying insects in the vicinity.  
89 These wings are chosen for the significant difference in size or venation.

90

91 *Triangulation and setup*

92 Laser strip triangulation and grayscale square centroid method are used in the wing  
93 shape measurement. Triangulation is based on trigonometry .It is highly flexible, it can  
94 measure large object like the seafloor roughness (Wang and Tang, 2009) and small  
95 object like nano-composite ceramic coatings (Portinha et al., 2003). In this research,  
96 laser stripe triangulation is adopted for its robustness and versatility.

97

98 Based on triangulation, a setup has been designed for the measurement. The setup is  
99 mainly composed of camera, lens, coaxial LED, line laser, linear guide for samples,  
100 motion stage and microforce sensing probe. The coaxial LED light and line laser are all  
101 in 405nm wavelength. The coaxial LED illuminates wing sample at right angle, while  
102 the line laser lightens it with an incidence angle about  $45^{\circ}$ . The linear guide could drive  
103 the whole wing sample pass through the measurement region step by step. A  
104 microforce sensing probe on the adjustable motion stage could impose a precise  
105 concentrated force to the wing sample. Fig. 1 shows the measurement setup.

106

107 During the experiment, the wing fixed on the setup would be scanned twice. In the first  
108 scanning, the wing sample, receiving no concentrated force, would be scanned step by  
109 step under the illumination of coaxial LED and line laser alternately till the end of the  
110 whole wing. Before the second scanning, the microforce sensing probe would carefully  
111 impose a very small concentrate force on the wing sample surface. As a result, the wing  
112 would have a very small deformation. Then the wing would be scanned again like the  
113 first scanning.

114

115 The setup should be accurately calibrated before measurement. The primary calibration  
116 parameters include physical sizes per pixel in each direction, laser stripe width and its  
117 incidence angle. A machine vision chessboard, a low reflection flat plate and a  
118 self-developed 3D step-shaped plate are used to determine the calibration parameters  
119 above. Physical sizes per pixel in each direction and laser incidence angle can be  
120 calculated by scanning the chessboard and 3D step-shaped plate. The laser stripe width

121 can be obtained by measuring the laser strip on the low reflection flat plate.

122

### 123 *Shape measurement*

124 While the laser illuminates the wing, the image with an irregular light strip could be  
125 recorded. By processing this image, three-dimensional coordinates of a series points on  
126 the wing can be calculated. Therefore, the cloud points of the whole wing sample can  
127 be built if enough images for different wing parts are collected and processed. In the  
128 light strip processing, the grayscale centroid method is applied because it could provide  
129 a high quality result. Assuming that  $(cX_j, cY_j)$  is the strip center position in pixel at the  
130 row  $j$  on the image, it could be calculated as:

$$131 \quad cX_j = j \quad cY_j = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N I_{k,j}^m k}{\sum_{k=1}^N I_{k,j}^m}, (1)$$

132 In Eqn.1,  $I_{k,j}$  is the grayscale of the pixel on image position  $(k,j)$ .  $m$  is the grayscale  
133 power weight factor and its value is 2 here.  $N$  is the row size of image. If  $(cX_j, cY_j)$  of  
134 each row  $j$  is ready, its three-dimensional coordinates can be derived from the  
135 calibration results. The generation of NURBS surface from cloud points is a  
136 standardized procedure and would not be described here.

137

### 138 *Deformation measurement*

139 The key of deformation measurement is to find the matching positions of the points  
140 before and after deformation. A combination of triangulation and image matching  
141 method is employed here. Triangulation could provide coordinate of each point and  
142 image matching could find its corresponding matching point after deformation.

143

144 Only triangulation cannot provide the correct matching relationship during the  
145 deformation measurement. The points lightened by laser before deformation will not be  
146 lightened again on the same step after deformation. In fact, the real matching point  
147 would be lightened by laser on another step after deformation, so its position cannot be

148 obtained only by triangulation if the matching step is uncertain. The images illuminated  
149 by LED are gray images which can give the wing surface details around laser strip on  
150 the same step, thus the real matching point can be found by using SIFT algorithm to  
151 analyze these gray images.

152

153 Fig. 2 illustrates the positions of matching points.  $A_0$  is a point lightened by laser in step  
154  $i$  before deformation.  $A_2$  is the point lightened by laser in the same step after  
155 deformation. According to analysis above,  $A_2$  is not the matching point of  $A_0$ . The  
156 matching points for gray images are both  $A_l$  in step  $i$  and  $A^*$  in another step  $j$ .  $A_l$  is the  
157 final right matching point for deformation calculation but it is not lightened by laser in  
158 step  $i$ . Fortunately, the position of  $A^*$  could be calculated by triangulation and from  $A^*$   
159 to  $A_l$  only has a calculable rigid displacement. Finally the position of matching point in  
160 same step  $A_l$  could be easily derived from  $A^*$ .

161

## 162 **Results**

### 163 *Setup*

164 The main components of the setup are camera, lens, linear guide and microforce  
165 sensing probe. The adopted camera, MVUB500M, is an industrial camera.  
166 MML08-ST170D is employed as the lens. KR20, by THK Co., Ltd., is chosen as the  
167 linear guide for its high accuracy. FT-S1000 is used as the microforce sensing probe.

168

### 169 *Calibration*

170 Calibrations for physical sizes per pixel and light stripe width are similar to other  
171 triangulation calibration methods. To determine the incidence angle, a step-shaped  
172 template is designed and fabricated. The template is a slim bar with four steps. The step  
173 height is 0.05 mm. In the experiment, when the laser scans the template, there emerges  
174 a convex on laser image. The convex height represents displacement caused by step  
175 height. The incidence angle could be calculated from step height and convex height.  
176 Table 1 shows the calibration result.

177

178 *Shape measurement*

179 Wings from formosan subterranean termite *Coptotermes formosanus* and two kinds of  
180 mosquito *Culicidae* are chosen as the wing samples. These wing samples are different  
181 in shape and size. The wing lengths of *Coptotermes formosanus*, *Culicidae 1*, *Culicidae*  
182 *2* are about 13 mm, 11 mm and 3 mm respectively. Wings from dead body are scanned  
183 for their stability of mechanical property. Fig. 3A-C is the wing sample photograph.

184

185 During the experiment, the wing with a rod is fixed on the sample holder of scanning  
186 system, then it is scanned twice. In the first scanning, both LED and line laser are used  
187 to scan the samples. The scanning step length is 0.01 mm. Before the second time  
188 scanning, the microforce sensing probe imposes a concentrated force to wing tip area.  
189 The white rings in Fig. 3D-F represent force position and probe size. The force position  
190 is near leading edge tip for *Culicidae 2* wing and near to trailing edge for *Coptotermes*  
191 *formosanus* and *Culicidae 1* wings. The force is not measured but the wing deformation  
192 due to this force is limited to a small scale. After two times scanning, the wing shape  
193 and its deformation can be obtained by using methods above. Sometimes, the wing  
194 cannot be perfectly scanned due to the reflecting characteristics of the wing. For  
195 *Coptotermes formosanus* and *Culicidae 2* wing samples here, wing base reflection is  
196 too strong to extract the accurate center, thus the wing base is not shown in the result.

197

198 Fig. 3G-I shows the wing shape contour and NURBS surface from the first scanning.  
199 Significant vein patterns and shape characteristics could be observed. The *Coptotermes*  
200 *formosanus* wing tip is sunken near trailing edge. The wing of *Culicidae 1* is flat. The  
201 trailing edge of *Culicidae 2* wing is arched. The membrane would undergo wrinkling  
202 during natural dehydration, but the spatial distribution of vein is clear enough in the  
203 result.

204

205 *Deformation measurement*

206 Fig. 4-6 summarizes the deformation distribution for all wing samples. Both the  
207 deformation contour and deformation profiles along spanwise and chordwise are shown.

208 The origin of the coordinate system locates near wing base. The x axis is along  
209 spanwise from root to tip while y axis points from leading to trailing edge. The  
210 deformation is filtered by wavelet filter. The matching point correlation coefficient  
211 distribution for its displacement calculation is also filtered and outlined. It is a useful  
212 value to identify the accuracy of deformation measurement. The correlation coefficient  
213 is high enough (few less than 0.75) for all wing samples, so the deformation  
214 measurement is fine. The root and tip are also dropped in correlation and deformation  
215 calculation for the same reflection influence.

216

217 The deformation fields indicate that the wing can be considered as a cantilever beam  
218 with bending and torsion under the concentrated force. According to the results, the  
219 small deformation condition is still valid, and the samples are in elastic status, but the  
220 deformation is more complex than a one dimensional simple beam.

221

222 For *Coptotermes formosanus* wing in Fig. 4, the maximum deformation value can be  
223 found near the probe contact area, the amount of deformation is about 0.30 mm, thus  
224 the deformation ratio is about 2.3%. Two additional high deformation zones near  
225 trailing edge can also be specified, where the deformation values are over 0.11 mm.  
226 The deformations on rest areas are mostly under 0.10 mm. The zones with deformation  
227 over 0.15 mm are all concentrated in the region of probe position.

228

229 Fig. 4A shows the deformation near leading edge. Before 60% spanwise length on  
230 Section A, the amount of deformation is just 0.05 mm and almost no increase. Near the  
231 wing tip on Section A, the deformation mildly increases to 0.1 mm. While the  
232 deformation near trailing edge (Fig. 4B) varies intensively. From wing base to tip along  
233 the Section B, the deformation value goes down to zero from 0.11 mm and then  
234 increases to 0.28 mm. The deformation near wing base (Fig. 4C) changes gradually,  
235 and has peak value at about 0.13 mm near trailing edge. The deformation near load  
236 position (Fig. 4D) emerges an obvious at peak about 0.15 mm in the middle because it  
237 is nearly cross over the probe zone.



238

239 For *Culicidae 1* wing in Fig. 5, the spanwise deformation trend increases gradually.  
240 There is no significant different between spanwise deformation near leading edge  
241 (Section A) and that near trailing edge (Section B). As chordwise deformation near  
242 wing base (Section C) is small and flat, torsion contributes little to the whole  
243 deformation.

244

245 The maximum deformation value of *Culicidae 1* wing is about 0.30 mm, so the  
246 deformation ratio is about 2.7%. The peak deformation near leading edge (Fig. 5A) is  
247 around 0.22 mm, with no flat or decrease from wing base to tip. Correspondingly, the  
248 peak is about 0.29 mm near trailing edge (Fig. 5B). The deformation near wing base  
249 (Fig. 5C) has no obvious peak and the value is below 0.05 mm, while on profile near  
250 load position (Fig. 5D), there is a small peak value at about 0.16 mm. The *Culicidae 1*  
251 wing deformation is more regular than *Coptotermes formosanus* wing despite they have  
252 similar load condition.

253

254 As shown in Fig. 6, the maximum deformation value of *Culicidae 2* wing is about 0.1  
255 mm, the deformation ratio is still just about 3.3% even wing size is only 3.0 mm.  
256 Similar to the *Coptotermes formosanus* wing deformation, the zone with greater  
257 deformation is in the same region of the probe position. Different with *Coptotermes*  
258 *formosanus* wing deformation, *Culicidae 2* wing only has one high deformation zone.

259

260 Fig. 6A-D shows the deformation profiles of *Culicidae 2* along sections A-D. The peak  
261 deformation near leading edge (Section A) is around 0.07 mm. The deformation trend  
262 resembles section A of *Culicidae 1* wing, but with more volatility from wing base to tip.  
263 The deformation variation near trailing edge (Section B) is similar with that near  
264 leading edge (Section A), but the peak value is 50% lower because section A is closer to  
265 the probe zone. The deformation near wing base (Section C) is similar to the section C  
266 of *Culicidae 1* wing as well, and its peak value is about 0.05 mm at trailing edge point.  
267 The deformation near load position (Section D) has a peak value at about 0.1 mm in the

268 middle because it locates in the probe zone center. From the section comparison, it is  
269 clear that *Culicidae 2* wing deformation is more like that of *Culicidae 1* wing although  
270 there is concentrated deformation near the probe zone.

271

## 272 **Discussion**

273 Insect wing shape and deformation measurement method presented in this article has  
274 been proved. The scanning can provide fine shape and deformation results for wings  
275 with from spanwise length (3 mm) to large one (13 mm). The uneven shape and vein  
276 pattern could be observed clearly. The wing deformation could be found precisely. It  
277 has been confirmed that the illumination by 405nm wavelength light is suitable for  
278 insect wing scanning, despite the images near the wing base is still imperfect. In fact,  
279 not like single or multiple point measurement before, it is a practical and convenient  
280 way to obtain deformation field. Therefore, it provides us a possibility to analyze the  
281 stiffness distribution more precisely by using methods like finite element analysis to  
282 matching the deformation field result.

283

284 By comparing the wing deformation results of *Coptotermes formosanus* and *Culicidae*  
285 *1*, it could be found that the load condition should be carefully chosen. There are two  
286 typical loading methods for insect wing deformation and stiffness research, one is using  
287 a pinhead to impose a concentrated force on the wing surface(Combes and Daniel,  
288 2003), and the other is using a knife edge to impose line load and restrict torsion in the  
289 wing bending(Ganguli et al., 2010). *Coptotermes formosanus* wing is relatively softer  
290 than *Culicidae 1* wing due to its material and structure, so it has a large deformation  
291 zone at the position of the probe. The *Culicidae 1* wing sample has almost the same  
292 spanwise length, aspect ratio, and it is also under the same load condition (0.3 mm  
293 maximum deformation), but its deformation is not concentrated. Thus if softer wing has  
294 been investigated, pinhead loading may results in local deformation. Correspondingly,  
295 for more rigid wing like *Culicidae 1* wing, both pinhead and knife edge loading may  
296 not induce any local deformation when small deformation assumption is satisfied. The  
297 deformation field is a valuable tool for checking whether the load condition is suitable

298 or not.

299

300 By comparing the wing deformation measurement results of *Culicidae 1* and *Culicidae*  
301 2, it could also be found that the load condition should be carefully chosen. The  
302 deformation changing trend and vein structure of *Culicidae 1* wing are basically similar  
303 with those of *Culicidae 2* wing sample. The mainly difference is that *Culicidae 2* wing  
304 sample shows concentrated deformation. The difference is determined primarily by the  
305 load condition. Here a model of one dimensional cantilever beam with concentrated  
306 force at free end and similarity analysis are employed to explain this phenomenon.  
307 First of all, an equation of slope for cantilever beam can be given as below:

308 
$$\theta = \frac{PL^2}{2EI}, (2)$$

309 Where, P is the concentrated force, L is the beam length, I is the moment of inertia, and  
310 E is Young's Modulus. If the wings of *Culicidae 1* and *Culicidae 2* have similar  
311 deformation distribution, they should have same slope value, so that:

312 
$$\frac{P_1L_1^2}{2E_1I_1} = \frac{P_2L_2^2}{2E_2I_2}, (3)$$

313 In Eqn. 3, the variables with suffix '1' refer to *Culicidae 1* wing and the variables with  
314 suffix '2' refer to *Culicidae 2* wing. The maximum deflection of such a cantilever beam  
315 can also be directly given as below:

316 
$$W = \frac{PL^3}{3EI}, (4)$$

317 The maximum deflection of both *Culicidae 1* wing and *Culicidae 2* wing can be solved  
318 by Eqn. 4. The maximum deflection ratio between these two wings is derived as:

319 
$$\frac{W_1}{L_1} = \frac{W_2}{L_2}, (5)$$

320 The meaning of Eqn. 5 is quite simple: only if wings have the same deformation ratio,  
321 they would have similar deformation distribution. In this case, the deformation ratio of  
322 *Culicidae 2* wing is a little bigger than that of *Culicidae 1* wing, so it may lead to  
323 different distribution. The discussion here is under the assumption that both geometry

324 and material property are similar. Similarity analysis can be applied to wings of  
325 *Culicidae 1* and *Culicidae 2*, as they are both in *Diptera* order. The *Coptotermes*  
326 *formosanus* wing has similar deformation ratio as the *Culicidae 1* wing, but it doesn't  
327 fulfil the similarity requirement because it is in the order of *Isoptera*. Normally, the  
328 deformation or stiffness experiments of insect wings use 5% small deformation  
329 assumption as the criterion. In fact, it is not enough if a regular deformation is required  
330 to satisfy the beam bending model. Similarity analysis should be considered when the  
331 load condition is changing.

332

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336 methods.

337

### 338 **Competing interests**

339 No competing interests declared

340

### 341 **Author contributions**

342 Zhen Wei and Duo Yin devised the measurement setup. Zeyu Wang and Duo Yin  
343 obtained the insect samples from local garden. Duo Yin and Zeyu Wang performed the  
344 experiment and analyzed the experiment results. Duo Yin and Zhen Wei wrote the  
345 manuscript.

346

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### 352 **Data availability**

353 None

354

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## 432 **Tables**

433 **Table 1: Calibration result.** Light stripe width, physical sizes per pixel and incidence  
434 angle are calibrated.

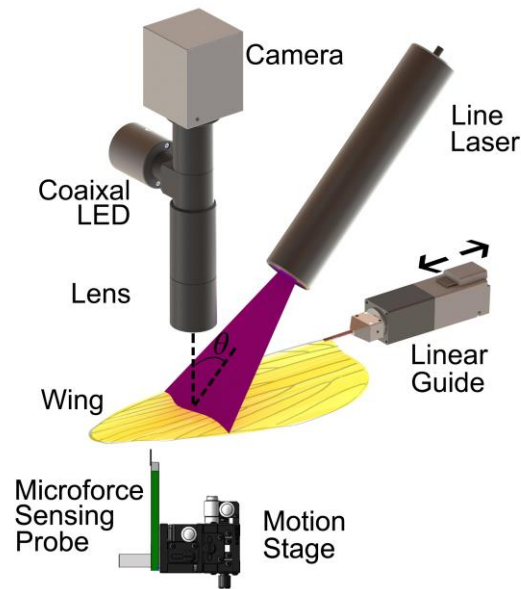
Light stripe width ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Physical sizes per pixel (mm)	Incidence angle ( $^{\circ}$ )
$25.6 \pm 11$	$3.53e^{-3}$	43.86

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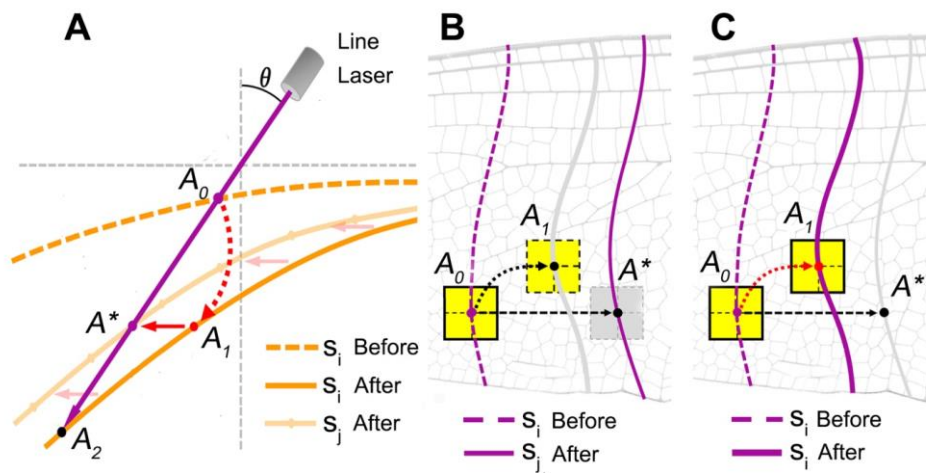


437 **Figures.**



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439 **Fig. 1. Measurement setup.** Main components of the setup are shown, including  
 440 camera, line laser, coaxial LED, lens, linear guide, motion stage and microforce  
 441 sensing probe.

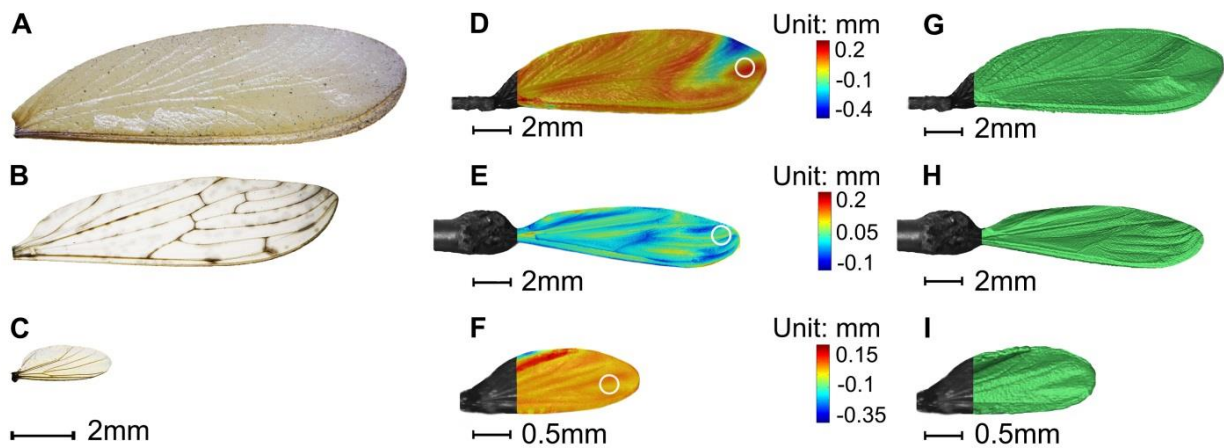


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443 **Fig. 2. Matching point acquisition.** (A) Relationship of matching points. The dotted and solid orange lines are wing shape in step  $i$  before and after deformation.  
 444 dotted and solid orange lines are wing shape in step  $i$  before and after deformation.  
 445 Solid light orange line is wing shape in another step  $j$  after deformation.  
 446  $A_0$  and matching point  $A^*$  are on dotted orange line and solid light orange line respectively.  
 447  $A_2$  and matching point  $A_1$  are on solid orange line. (B) Position determination of matching points  $A_0$  and  $A^*$ . Dotted purple line is laser stripe in step  
 448  $i$ . (C) Position determination of matching points  $A_0$  and  $A^*$ . Solid purple line is laser stripe in step  $j$ .



449 p  $i$  before deformation. The solid purple line is laser stripe in another step  $j$  aft  
450 er deformation. The blocks in yellow and gray are gray image blocks centered i  
451 n matching points. (C) Position determination of matching point  $A_0$  and  $A_1$ . The  
452 dotted and solid purple lines are laser stripe in step  $i$  before and after deforma  
453 tion. The yellow blocks are gray image blocks centered in matching points.  
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456 **Fig. 3. Real wing shape and measured wing shape.** (A-C) Photographs of  
457 *Coptotermes formosanus*, *Culicidae 1* and *2* wings. These insect samples are obtained  
458 in the local garden. (D-F) Shape contours of *Coptotermes formosanus*, *Culicidae 1* and  
459 *2* wings. The contours are superimposed on the corresponding gray images. The white  
460 ring represents the probe. Its size and position reflect probe size and load position. (G-I)  
461 NURBS surfaces of *Coptotermes formosanus*, *Culicidae 1* and *2* wings. The NURBS  
462 surfaces are also superimposed on the gray images.

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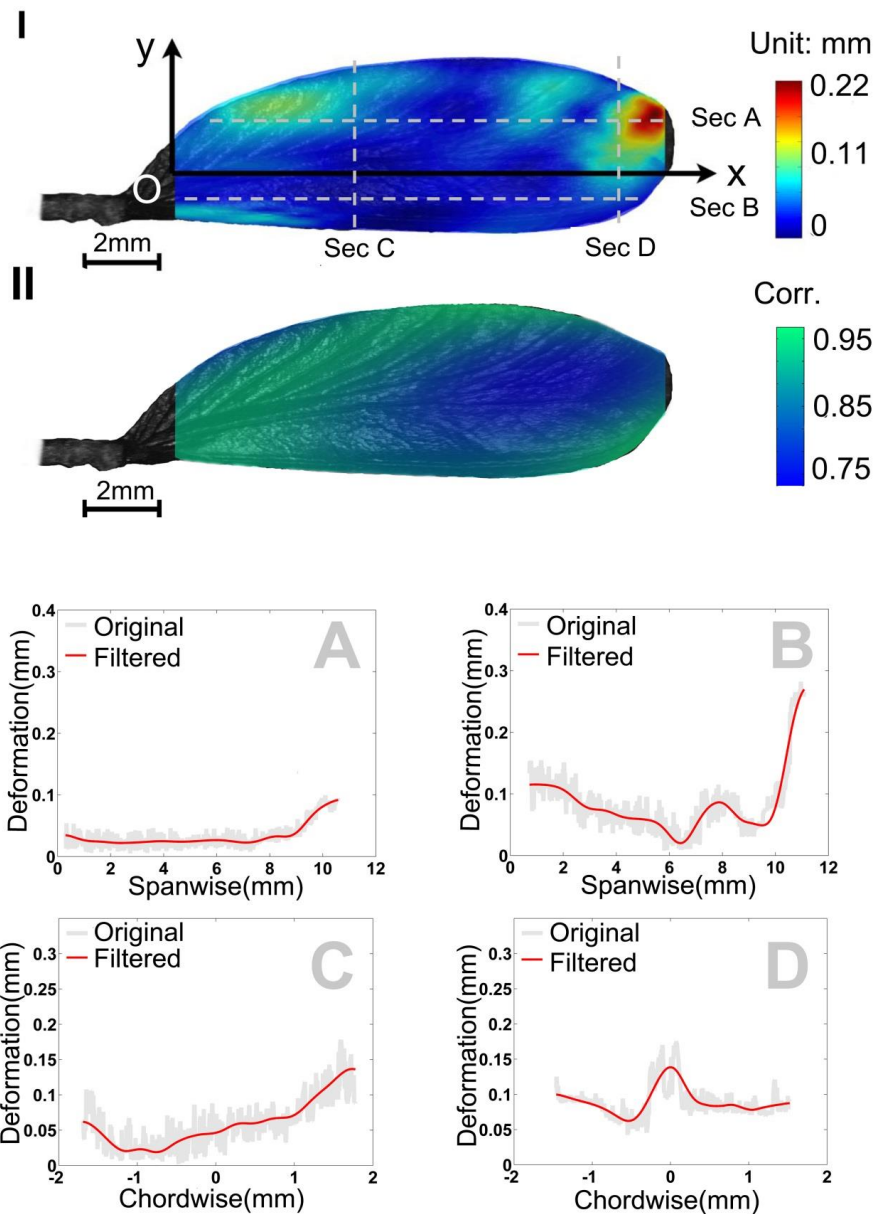
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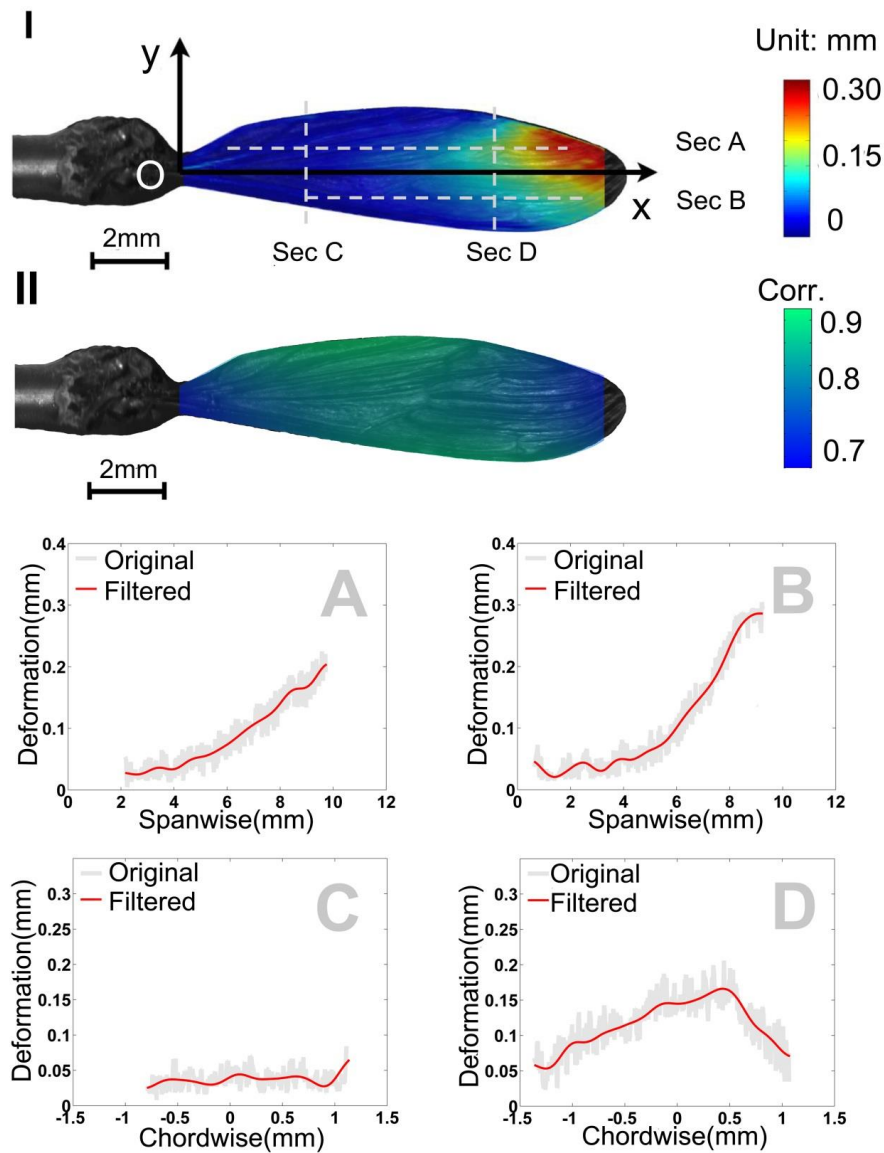
472

473 **Fig. 4. *Coptotermes formosanus* wing deformation.** (I) Deformation contour. The  
474 deformation value is wavelet filtered. (II) Correlation coefficient contour. The  
475 coefficient value is wavelet filtered. (A-D) Deformation profiles along sections A-D in  
476 Fig. 4I. The gray and red lines represent original deformation value and wavelet filtered  
477 one respectively.

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482 **Fig. 5. *Culicidae I* wing deformation.** (I) Deformation contour. The deformation value

483 is wavelet filtered. (II) Correlation coefficient contour. The coefficient value is wavelet

484 filtered. (A-D) Deformation profiles along sections A-D in Fig. 5I. The gray and red

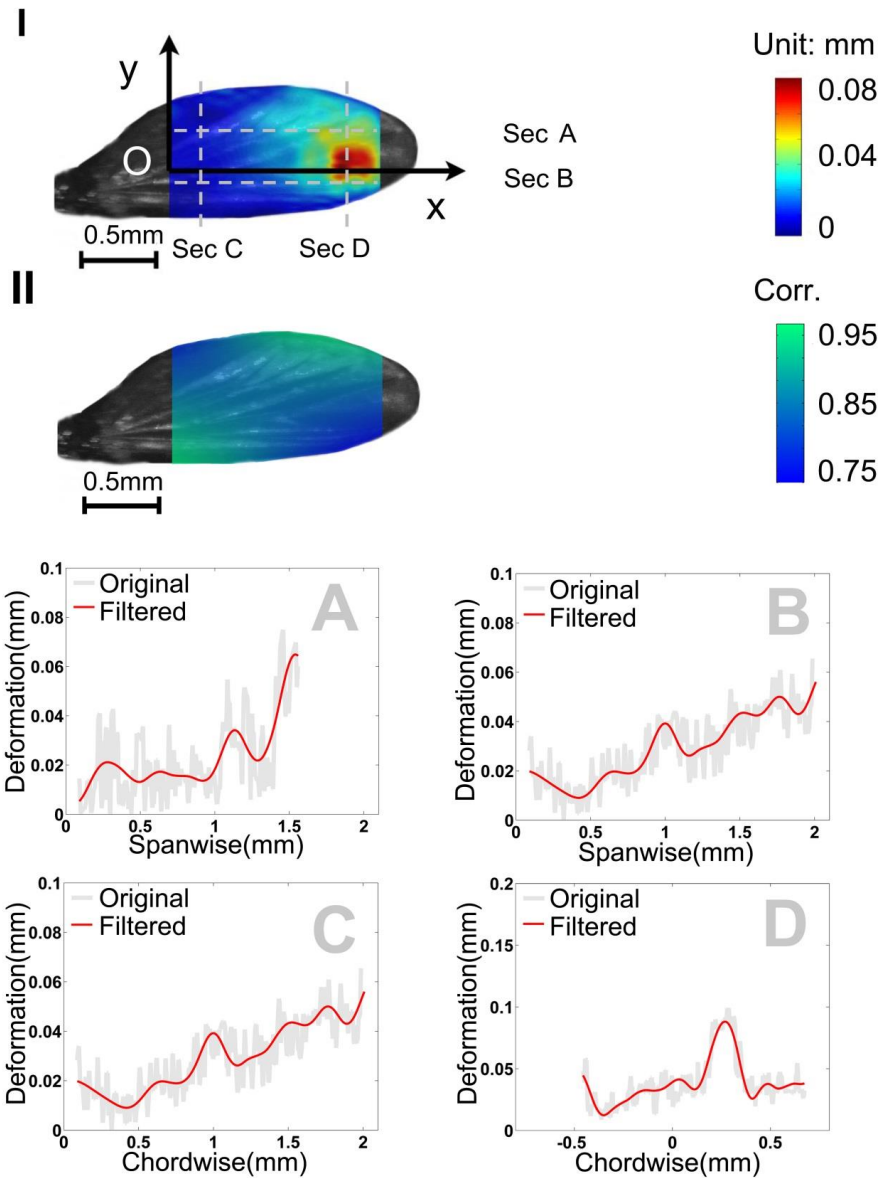
485 lines represent original deformation value and wavelet filtered one respectively.

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491 **Fig. 6. *Culicidae* 2 wing deformation.** (I) Deformation contour. The deformation value  
492 is wavelet filtered. (II) Correlation coefficient contour. The coefficient value is wavelet  
493 filtered. (A-D) Deformation profile along sections A-D in Fig. 6I. The gray and red  
494 lines represent original deformation value and wavelet filtered one respectively.