

# 1           **The dance of male *Anopheles gambiae* in wild mating swarms**

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## Abstract

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An important element of mating in the malaria vector *Anopheles gambiae* in nature is the crepuscular mating aggregation (swarm) composed almost entirely of males, where most coupling and insemination is generally believed to occur. In this study we mathematically characterize the oscillatory movement of male *An. gambiae* in terms of an established individual-based mechanistic model that parameterizes the attraction of a mosquito towards the center of the swarm using the natural frequency of oscillation and the resistance to its motion, characterized by the damping ratio. Using three-dimensional trajectory data of ten wild mosquito swarms filmed in Mali, Africa, we show two new results for low and moderate wind conditions, and indicate how these results may vary in high wind. First, we show that in low and moderate wind the vertical component of the mosquito motion has a lower frequency of oscillation and higher damping ratio than horizontal motion. In high wind, the vertical and horizontal motions are similar to one another and the natural frequencies are higher than in low and moderate wind. Second, we show that the predicted average disagreement in the direction of motion of swarming mosquitoes moving randomly is greater than the average disagreement we observed between each mosquito and its three closest neighbors, with the smallest level of disagreement occurring for the nearest neighbor in seven out of ten swarms. The alignment of the direction of motion between nearest neighbors is the highest in high wind. This result provides evidence for flight-path coordination between swarming male mosquitoes.

keywords: swarming, *Anopheles gambiae*, autocorrelation



40 Most studies on collective behavior focus on animal aggregations in which the interest of the  
41 constituent individuals are closely aligned; this is the case of anti-predator adaptations in flocks  
42 of starlings (Cavagna et al. 2010) and schooling fish (Ward et al. 2011), or collective transport  
43 for nest building by consensus decision making in ants (Berman et al. 2011). An important  
44 situation where the interests of individuals making up an aggregation may not align completely is  
45 in a mating aggregation or lek. A lek can be usefully defined as a non-resource-based  
46 aggregation where males come together to display and compete for females (Reynolds and Gross  
47 1990).

48 In the malaria vector *Anopheles gambiae*, most coupling and subsequent insemination occurs in a  
49 crepuscular mating swarm, where many males gather and fly together in a collective, but only  
50 very few per night form couples with virgin females. One important and recently discovered  
51 characteristic of these mating aggregations is that they are monotypic: the M and S molecular  
52 forms of *An. gambiae* (Favia et al. 1997) have been found to swarm separately over natural  
53 markers and bare ground, respectively (Diabaté et al. 2009), at least in areas where there is low  
54 gene flow between them (Diabate et al. 2011).

55 In mathematical models of collective behavior, swarming can arise from minimal interactions  
56 between neighboring individuals (Shimoyama et al. 1996). A result of low levels of interaction is  
57 relatively high randomness of motion. Therefore, swarming motion is typically observed as a  
58 decrease in synchronized motion, perhaps due to a reduced tendency of aligning with the nearest  
59 neighbor. This result is common in Lagrangian systems where each member responds to physical  
60 cues or nearest neighbors (Okubo 1986; Grunbaum 1994; Shimoyama et al. 1996; Parrish and  
61 Hammer 1997; Couzin et al. 2002), possibly due in part to time delays (Forgoston and Schwartz  
62 2008). In an Eulerian representation of a swarm, modeled as a discrete probability distribution

63 function, interactions with neighboring individuals may depend on local density (Mogilner and  
64 Edelstein-Keshet 1999; Lee, Hoopes, and Diehl 2001).

65 As far as we are aware, the only model of swarming validated against real data is one where the  
66 individual interacts with the swarm centroid via an acceleration field that depends on the distance  
67 from the centroid (Okubo 1986). In that sense, the swarming individual moves similar to a  
68 harmonic oscillator subject to damping (i.e., resistance to motion such as aerodynamic drag) and  
69 random forcing. This simple model was validated using real data consisting of two-dimensional  
70 trajectories of swarming midges (Okubo 1986), and then again on three-dimensional trajectories  
71 of water fleas (Banas, Wang, and Yen 2004), albeit at low temporal resolution.

72 Equipped with data that is orders of magnitude more extensive than was previously available for  
73 reconstructing mosquito swarms (Gibson 1985; Ikawa et al. 1994; Manoukis et al. 2009), and the  
74 first to contain three-dimensional trajectories (Butail et al. 2012), we present a new  
75 characterization of the dynamics of male swarming in *An. gambiae*. Our analysis begins with  
76 computing the velocity autocorrelation in three separate dimensions: the vertical, the direction of  
77 ambient wind (unless there is no wind, which is rare), and the direction normal to the wind. We  
78 use the average wind direction to break the rotational symmetry in the horizontal plane in order  
79 to capture the effects if any of additional drag from increased airspeed; another option that we  
80 have found has little benefit is to use the direction of the setting sun. A damped harmonic  
81 oscillator model describes the motion of the mosquito as though it were coupled to the swarm  
82 centroid (Okubo 1986).

83 We use an analytical form of the velocity autocorrelation function to quantify the average natural  
84 frequency and damping ratio for each of ten reconstructed swarm sequences. (The damping ratio  
85 is a nondimensional measure for which unity represents critical damping, less than unity is

86 underdamped, and more than unity is overdamped.) The first part of the analysis compares these  
87 values between swarms. The second part of our analysis looks at interactions between  
88 mosquitoes within each swarm. In particular, to compare the degree of alignment in the motion  
89 of neighboring mosquitoes, we use the average angular displacement between their unit  
90 velocities in three dimensions.

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## 92 **Materials and Methods**

### 93 **Data collection and processing**

94 We filmed twenty-five mosquito swarms in the village of Donéguébougou, Mali (12°48'38"N,  
95 7°59'05" W), during the periods 21-29 August 2010 and 6-9 October 2011 (see Table 1).

96 Donéguébougou is an agricultural village of approximately 1,500 inhabitants about 25 km from  
97 the capital, Bamako. The Sudan Savana habitat of this area includes a highly seasonal rainfall  
98 pattern, with a wet season between May and October. During this time the swarms of *An.*  
99 *gambiae* reach their largest size and form at twilight, often in the same locations as the previous  
100 evening (Diabaté et al. 2009). (For more details on the study area and people, please see  
101 (Manoukis et al. 2009).)

102 The data collection system consisted of a pair of time-synced Hitachi KP-F120CL cameras  
103 (Hitachi-Kokusai, Tokyo, Japan) with HF12.5SA- 1 Fujinon lenses (Fujifilm, Valhalla, NY,  
104 USA) mounted in a parallel, stereo configuration that recorded image streams at 25 frames per  
105 second and 1392 x 1040 pixel resolution. The cameras were mounted approximately 20 cm apart  
106 from each other on a Slik Twin Camera bar (Slik corporation, Tokyo, Japan). The 20 cm baseline

107 was chosen to obtain a balance between large overlap (the cameras had an approximate field of  
108 view of 38 °) and disparity. Each camera was calibrated onsite every day using a checkerboard  
109 and the MATLAB Calibration Toolbox (Bouquet) to get an accurate measure intrinsic camera  
110 properties such as the focal length and the center of the image and extrinsic camera properties  
111 such as the cameras' relative orientation and position. The recording system was initially placed  
112 approximately 5 m away from the swarming location. Once the mosquitoes started swarming, the  
113 cameras were brought closer to the swarm until it was distinctly visible and centered in each  
114 camera view. The majority of swarms were filmed at a distance of 1.5 – 2.5 m. The cameras  
115 were oriented towards the setting sun to get the brightest possible background. After filming, a  
116 multi-target tracking algorithm was run on the stereoscopic video streams to generate three-  
117 dimensional track segments with an average length of 0.6–1s. These segments were verified and  
118 combined under human supervision. (A detailed description of the tracking system is available in  
119 (Butail et al. 2012).)

120 Each swarm was filmed several times in sequences that last up to 90 seconds until it became too  
121 dark to see individual mosquitoes in the captured images. Sequences were selected for  
122 reconstruction based on minimizing the variability in swarm size and the presence of a relatively  
123 clear background. Our Bayesian multi-target tracking system (Butail et al. 2012) is able to  
124 localize and track individual males for periods of time lasting up to 60 seconds. The  
125 reconstructed sequences are of durations 7–47 seconds with swarm sizes in the range 6–24  
126 mosquitoes (see Table 1). A Kestrel 4500 portable weather station (Nielsen-Kellerman,  
127 Boothwyn, PA, USA) mounted at the filming location recorded environmental parameters such  
128 as temperature, wind speed, and wind direction at regular intervals of two seconds during the  
129 filming. The average (respectively, highest) wind speed was 0.57 m/s (respectively, 0.74 m/s).

130 The average height of a swarm is the mean height of all mosquitoes reconstructed during a  
131 particular sequence. Wherever available, we present polymerase chain reaction (PCR) test results  
132 for molecular type of the mosquito. PCR tests were performed on a sample of flying males  
133 caught with a hand net. If no discernible marker was found below the swarm, we note the marker  
134 as bare ground.

### 135 **Modeling motion using a damped harmonic oscillator**

136 Following (Okubo 1986), we model the total three-dimensional force  $\mathbf{F}_i$  on a mosquito  $i$  in a  
137 swarm of  $N$  mosquitoes as a linear combination of an external (to the swarm) force  $\mathbf{F}_i^{(e)}$ , drag  
138 force  $\mathbf{F}_i^{(d)}$ , and an internal force  $\mathbf{F}_{ij}$  due to interaction with mosquito  $j$ . (We remove the bold font  
139 to denote the scalar components of the force.) Given the three-dimensional position  $\mathbf{r}_i$  relative  
140 to the swarm centroid and mass  $m_i$ , and assuming  $\mathbf{F}_{ij} = 0$  for  $i=j$ , we model the forces in each  
141 dimension independently as

$$\begin{aligned} F_i &= F_i^{(e)} + F_i^{(d)} + \sum_{j=1}^N F_{ij} \\ &= \frac{c}{m_i} \dot{r}_i + \frac{k}{m_i} r_i + W, \end{aligned}$$

142 **(1)**  
143 where the noise term  $W$  includes effects from external and internal sources. The first term on the  
144 right-hand side represents a drag force with damping coefficient  $c$  and the second term represents  
145 an attractive spring force towards the centroid with zero rest length spring constant  $k$ . Other  
146 unknown interactions between mosquitoes such as coordinated motion and collision avoidance  
147 are included in  $W$ .

148 Equation (1) has the form of a standard harmonic oscillator with natural frequency  $\omega_0$  and  
 149 damping ratio  $\xi$  subject to random disturbance  $W$ : i.e.,  $\ddot{r}_i + 2\xi\omega_0 \dot{r}_i - \omega_0^2 r_i = W$ , which can be  
 150 rewritten in terms of the inertial velocity component  $v_i$  as

$$\dot{v}_i + 2\xi\omega_0 v_i - \omega_0^2 \int_0^t v_i(T) dT = W.$$

151 **(2)**

152 The velocity autocorrelation coefficient  $R_v(\tau)$  of the system in Eq. (2) is a time-independent  
 153 function of time lag  $\tau$  defined as  $R_v(\tau) = E[v(t)v(t + \tau)] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (v_i^T(t)v_i(t + \tau))$ . A large  
 154 value of  $N$  is obtained through multiple realizations of the same mosquito from different points  
 155 in its trajectory; we justify this approach by observing that the statistics of a single mosquito  
 156 trajectory resembles that of every other mosquito in the swarm. (We also verified that the value  
 157 of  $R_v(\tau)$  is independent of sampling time  $t$  by computing  $R_v(\tau)$  at different times in each  
 158 sequence.)

159 Note, the integral of  $R_v(\tau)$  is proportional to the spatial size of the swarm. In a diffusion process  
 160 for which the spatial size grows with time, the velocity autocorrelation coefficient decorrelates  
 161 with its initial value exponentially with time, resulting in a positive value. On the other hand, in a  
 162 swarming process, the velocity autocorrelation coefficient is characterized by multiple zero  
 163 crossings that ultimately result in little or no change in the swarm size (Okubo 1986).

164 In order to obtain an analytical form of  $R_v(\tau)$ , we assume that the disturbance  $W$  is uncorrelated  
 165 in time and that its autocorrelation can be represented as  $R_w(\tau) = A\delta(\tau)$ . The velocity  
 166 autocorrelation  $R_v(\tau)$  can be found using the Wiener-Kinchin theorem [28] and the impulse  
 167 response of a deterministic second order system, given by  $R_v(\tau) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}(G(s)G(-s)S_w(s))$ ,

168 where  $G(s) = s/(s^2 + 2\xi\omega_0s + \omega_0^2)$  is the Laplace transform of the system described by Eq.  
 169 (2),  $\mathcal{L}^{-1}$  is the two-sided inverse Laplace transform, and  $S_W(s) = \mathcal{L}(R_W(\tau))$  is the power  
 170 spectral density of the input. The velocity autocorrelation function is

$$R_v(\tau) = A(\alpha_1 \exp(p_1\tau) + \alpha_2 \exp(p_2\tau)),$$

171 (3)

172 where  $\alpha_{1,2} = \frac{1}{4c(\xi^2 - 1 \pm \xi\sqrt{\xi^2 - 1})}$  and  $p_{1,2} = \omega_0\xi \pm \omega_0\sqrt{\xi^2 - 1}$  are the roots of the characteristic

173 equation  $s^2 + 2\xi\omega_0s + \omega_0^2 = 0$ . For an underdamped system ( $\xi < 1$ ), Eq. (2) simplifies to

174  $R_v(\tau) = \frac{A}{2c} \exp(-\omega_0\xi\tau) (\cos(\omega_1\tau) - \frac{c}{2\omega_1} \sin(\omega_1\tau))$ , where  $\omega_1 = \omega_0\sqrt{1 - \xi^2}$  (Okubo 1986).

175 The limiting case of  $\tau = 0$  for which  $R_v(0) = \frac{A}{2c}$  captures the kinetic energy of the swarm per

176 unit mass.  $A$  has units of power per unit mass and represents the overall level of motion in the

177 swarm. We used the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm (Nocedal and Wright 1999) to minimize

178 the sum of square errors between empirical data and the model function to estimate the values of

179  $\xi$  and  $\omega_0$ .

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## 181 **Measuring coordination between neighbors**

182 The three-dimensional orientation of mosquito velocity is represented by a point on the unit

183 sphere with azimuth  $\theta$  and elevation  $\phi$ . To identify the mean separation between two vectors on

184 a unit sphere we sample  $u, v \sim U(0,1)$  such that  $\theta = 2\pi u$  and  $\phi = \cos^{-1}(2v - 1) - \frac{\pi}{2}$ . (A

185 uniform distribution of points on a sphere equally populates each area element  $d\Omega =$

186  $\sin(\phi) d\phi d\theta$ ). We define the average velocity disagreement  $v_d^n$  between each mosquito and its

187  $n$ th nearest neighbor as

$$v_d^n = 2 \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1, j \in i^n}^N \|\hat{v}_i - \hat{v}_j\| \right),$$

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(4)

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where  $\hat{v}_i \in R^3$  is the unit vector in the direction of motion of mosquito  $i$ ,  $i^n$  is the  $n$ th nearest

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neighbor of  $i$ , and  $N$  is the number of data points within a particular sequence. We computed this

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value for all mosquitoes in the reconstructed sequences to find the level of disagreement between

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successive neighbors within the swarm. For example, the average disagreement of parallel (with

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respect to anti-parallel) velocities is  $0^\circ$  (with respect to  $180^\circ$ ). Note that the average pair-wise

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disagreement in a uniformly distributed set of random points is  $83.6^\circ$ .

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## Results

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### Three-dimensional position and velocity

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The average difference in position between the automated tracker and manually generated

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solutions (generated for comparison by selecting the mosquito center manually in each frame)

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was  $1.74 \pm 0.56$  cm in a swarm of ten mosquitoes. There were ten swarming sequences analyzed

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for this paper (see Table 1). The sequences are labeled according to the date of filming and the

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swarm number for that day.

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### Oscillatory motion

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Figure 1 shows the position and velocity of a randomly chosen mosquito from the Sep. 1 (2)

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sequence. The oscillations along each dimension are representative of mosquito motion within

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the swarm (see Java-enabled visualizations of select swarms at

207 [http://cdcl.umd.edu/mosquito/maleonly\\_SI](http://cdcl.umd.edu/mosquito/maleonly_SI)). The primary component of oscillation is about the  
208 swarm centroid, which itself exhibits little motion.

209 The instantaneous size of the swarm (represented by three standard deviations of the positions of  
210 all mosquitoes in the swarm) shows that the swarm expands and contracts periodically along  
211 each dimension. We fit the average velocity autocorrelation to the model of a damped, noise-  
212 driven harmonic oscillator coupled to the swarm centroid (see Materials and Methods). Figures  
213 2a and 2b show the velocity-autocorrelation model fits in each dimension for the sequences on  
214 Aug. 21 and Aug. 28, respectively, with the corresponding residual errors. Figure 2c shows the  
215 estimated values of  $\omega_0$ ,  $\xi$ ,  $A$ , and residual fitting error for each reconstructed sequence.

216 Figure 3 illustrates the difference between the horizontal and vertical movement of the  
217 mosquitoes using the average damping ratio  $\xi$  and natural frequency  $\omega_0$  of the velocity  
218 autocorrelation model. Horizontal motion is distinguished from vertical motion by relatively  
219 lower damping and higher natural frequency, except the Aug. 28 sequence, which had the  
220 highest wind speed recorded during filming. On Aug. 28, the damping ratio was low and the  
221 natural frequency was high for both horizontal and vertical motion. Non-parametric Kruskal-  
222 Wallis tests show that the horizontal motion parameters are significantly different ( $p < 0.01$ ) than  
223 the vertical motion parameters. Including the high-wind sequence, the maximum  $p$ -value  
224 between either of the horizontal dimensions and the vertical is 0.0025 for  $\omega_0$  and 0.0032 for  $\xi$ ,  
225 whereas the maximum  $p$ -value between the horizontal dimensions is 0.22 for  $\omega_0$  and 0.76 for  $\xi$ .  
226 The average value of  $\omega_0$  across all swarms was 1.02 Hz, 0.83 Hz, and 0.41 Hz along the  
227 downwind, crosswind and vertical directions respectively. The average values of  $\xi$  for the same  
228 directions were 0.48, 0.48, and 1.4, respectively. We see no discernible difference between M  
229 and S types, though PCR data were not available for the putative M types.

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### 231 **Coordination between neighbors**

232 To quantify the degree of coordination between neighboring mosquitoes we compute the average  
233 angle between their velocities in three dimensions. The disagreement value for random motion  
234 ( $83.6^\circ$ ) was greater than the average level of disagreement between each mosquito and its three  
235 closest neighbors in every swarm sequence. Further, the level of disagreement was lowest for the  
236 first nearest neighbor and increased with each successive neighbor in seven out of ten sequences.  
237 The average distance to the first nearest-neighbor across all swarms was  $13 \pm 2.4$  cm. Figure 4  
238 shows the disagreement in direction of motion versus nearest-neighbor distance for each  
239 sequence. The average disagreement in the direction of motion of a mosquito with the first,  
240 second, and third nearest neighbor across all swarms was  $74.5^\circ$ ,  $75.6^\circ$ , and  $76.1^\circ$  respectively.  
241 The sequence with the lowest level of disagreement ( $64.8^\circ$ ) in the direction of motion had the  
242 highest wind speed (Aug. 28). In three-dimensional reconstructions of the Aug. 28 sequence it is  
243 evident that the mosquitoes were flying in a synchronized, cyclic pattern (see supplementary  
244 video S1 of Aug. 28 swarm). We did not find any correlation between the level of disagreement  
245 and ambient wind-speed. In a separate experiment conducted on Oct 07, 2011, we subjected the  
246 swarm to artificial wind at 0.7 m/s using a calibrated window fan. The fan was positioned next to  
247 the cameras at a distance of approximately 1.5 m aimed directly at the swarm. We observed a  
248 drop in level of disagreement of approximately  $6^\circ$ . (Further analysis of these results is ongoing,  
249 so they are not included here.)

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## Discussion

253 We characterized the oscillatory dance of the malaria mosquito *An. gambiae* in natural mating  
254 swarms, finding divergent characteristic frequency and damping of motion the vertical direction  
255 as compared to the horizontal plane. We have also found possible evidence of coordination in  
256 movement between individual males and their nearest neighbors. These results were enabled by  
257 the large volume of three-dimensional tracking data on individual swarming males, previously  
258 unavailable.

259 We see a significant difference in the horizontal and vertical motion of *An. gambiae* across  
260 swarms, but no consistent differences between those composed of M-form and S-form males.  
261 The value of  $\omega_0$ , an indicator of the stiffness of the attractive force towards the swarm centroid,  
262 is nearly two times larger in the horizontal plane than the vertical direction, indicating a greater  
263 tendency to pass through the approximate region of the centroid in the horizontal plane than the  
264 vertical direction. The presence of high wind changes this tendency, however, in that the vertical  
265 motion under those conditions also has high oscillatory frequency. We did not observe a similar  
266 pattern at the next highest wind speed recorded of 0.67 m/s, which points to a phase shift in the  
267 motion at certain value of ambient wind speed. The average natural frequency of 0.85 Hz along  
268 the horizontal plane means that the mosquitoes make one trip around the swarm in approximately  
269 one second, performing at the same time secondary oscillations at higher frequencies.

270 The damping ratio—which for a generic second-order system is independent from natural  
271 frequency—is representative of the resistance to motion in a particular direction. The damping  
272 ratio in the vertical direction was greater than one (overdamped) and more than twice the value  
273 in the horizontal plane, which was less than one (underdamped). There was no difference in the  
274 pattern of these two variables across dimensions between swarms composed of M-form versus S-

275 form males, even though in the village of Donéguébougou the latter is known to swarm over bare  
276 ground and the former over a contrasting marker on the ground (Diabaté et al. 2009). With a  
277 ground marker, the observed difference between vertical and horizontal motion indicates a  
278 column-like region of attraction directly above the marker. However, in the case of swarms over  
279 bare ground the difference is still present. This indicates that, while attraction to the swarming  
280 site may be mediated by a marker for the M swarms (Charlwood et al. 2002) and is a currently  
281 unknown factor for the S swarms, the actual vertical and horizontal movement patterns of  
282 individuals within each swarm are probably driven separately. It is likely that the location and  
283 movement of other males impacts individual oscillations.

284 Interaction between neighboring mosquitoes, quantified as the level of disagreement in the  
285 direction of motion, shows that the nearest mosquitoes have the least disagreement in the  
286 majority of the cases. The lowest disagreement takes place in high wind when the whole swarm  
287 moves in a cyclic pattern. A possible explanation for this is that, beyond a given wind speed, the  
288 mosquitoes are subjected to a drag force that is nearly as large as their flight thrust force, thereby  
289 forcing them into an ordered pattern by bunching them together on the upwind leg of their  
290 circuit. This balancing of flight thrust force due to wind may justify the absence of correlation  
291 between wind-speed and level of disagreement. It also confirms the drop in the lowest level of  
292 disagreement within the same swarm we observed when a calibrated fan directed artificial wind  
293 towards the swarm with nearly the same speed as the highest wind speed.

294 Low levels of movement coordination, except for an exceptional windy circumstance, contrasts  
295 with other studies tracking individual movement in three dimensions over time where  
296 coordination can be seen out to the sixth nearest neighbor (Ballerini et al. 2008). Low  
297 coordination is, however, consistent with the biological role of the swarm as a lek, where

298 constituent male evolutionary interests are aligned for bringing females to the aggregation, but at  
299 odds once she enters the swarm. Finally, the average distance between neighboring males  
300 (approximately 8 times the body length) is much larger than the 2 cm reported in male-female  
301 auditory interactions during flight (Pennetier et al. 2010). Indeed, the number of instances when  
302 two males were within an auditory range of each other of 2 cm was less than 1 percent across all  
303 swarms.

304

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## Tables

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**Table 1: Reconstructed swarming sequences**

Date & Time (Swarm no.)	Track duration (s)	Swarm size	Temp. (°C)	Wind sp. (m/s)	Wind dir. (mag.)	Avg. height (m)	Marker	Type
Aug. 21, 2010 7:02 PM (1)	47.0	12±5	26.6	N/A	160.5	1.9±0.1	Bare ground	S
Aug. 25, 2010 7:00 PM (1)	16.0	6±1	26.6	0.50	187.5	1.8±0.1	Bare ground	S
Aug. 25, 2010 7:04 PM (2)	8.4	24±6	26.0	0.43	337.8	1.8±0.0	Bare ground	S
Aug. 26, 2010 6:58 PM (1)	25.6	7±4	28.8	0.55	292.1	1.8±0.1	Bare ground	S
Aug. 28, 2010 7:01 PM (1)	30.5	12±4	28.1	0.74	299.2	2.0±0.1	Bare ground	S
Aug. 29, 2010 7:00 PM (1)	32.4	18±3	24.1	0.50	192.3	1.9±0.1	Bare ground	S
Aug. 30, 2010 7:02 PM (2)	9.2	20±3	24.9	0.61	136.4	1.6±0.1	Bare ground	S
Sep. 01, 2010 6:53 PM (2)	16.0	13±1	24.4	0.67	252.1	2.0±0.1	Grass patch	S
Oct. 06, 2011 6:31 PM (2)	8.2	12±3	27.0	0.54	N/A	2.1±0.0	Bundle of wood	M*
Oct. 07, 2011 6:32 PM (2)	7.0	9±2	26.8	0.48	N/A	2.2±0.0	Bundle of wood	M*

391 \*PCR data was not available for the putative M types

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## Figure captions

394 Figure 1. Three-dimensional position (a) and velocity (b) of a single mosquito (solid line)  
395 from Sep. 1, 2010 sequence that had a wind speed of 0.67 m/s in the compass direction 252°.  
396 The shaded region corresponds to  $3\sigma$  bounds for position and velocity of all mosquitoes in  
397 the swarm, and the broken line is the mean. The origin of the inertial frame is located at the  
398 ground level under the camera rig.

399 Figure 2. Velocity autocorrelation along downwind, crosswind, and vertical dimensions  
400 (solid black) and the respective function fits (dashed) for sequences from (a) Aug. 21 and (b)  
401 Aug. 28. The residual measure is the sum of the square error in the function fit. (c) Natural  
402 frequency ( $\omega_0$ ), damping ratio ( $\xi$ ), overall level of motion ( $A$ ) and residual fitting error for  
403 ten mosquito swarms sorted left to right in the order of wind speed. The inertial frame is  
404 oriented along downwind (black), crosswind (grey), and vertical (white), except for Aug. 21  
405 for which the inertial frame is oriented north-south and east-west, wind speed was not  
406 available.

407 Figure 3. The plot of natural frequency ( $\omega_0$ ) versus damping ratio ( $\xi$ ) for all swarms shows  
408 that the motion of the swarm is underdamped in the horizontal plane (square=downwind,  
409 triangle=crosswind) and overdamped in the vertical (circle). PCR results wherever available  
410 show the swarm molecular form. Solid markers are for Aug. 28, 2010 sequence with high  
411 wind.

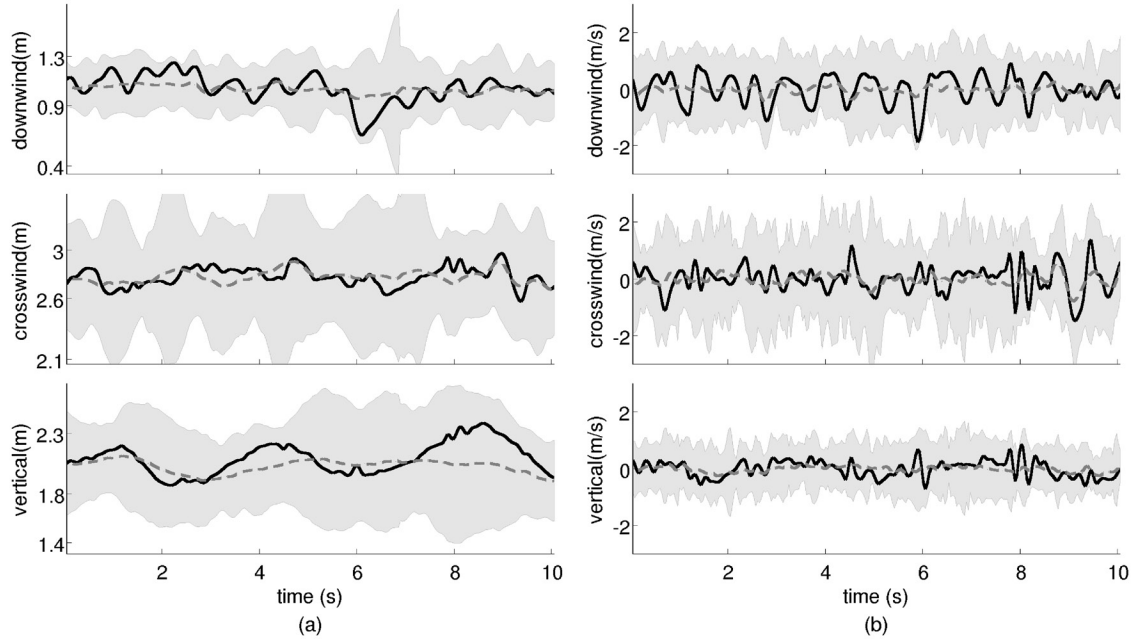
412 Figure 4. Mean first (circle), second (triangle), and third (square) nearest-neighbor distance  
413 versus average velocity disagreement for all swarms. Solid markers are for Aug. 28, 2010  
414 sequence with high wind. Velocity disagreement for random motion (dashed) at 83.6° is  
415 shown for reference.



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## Figures

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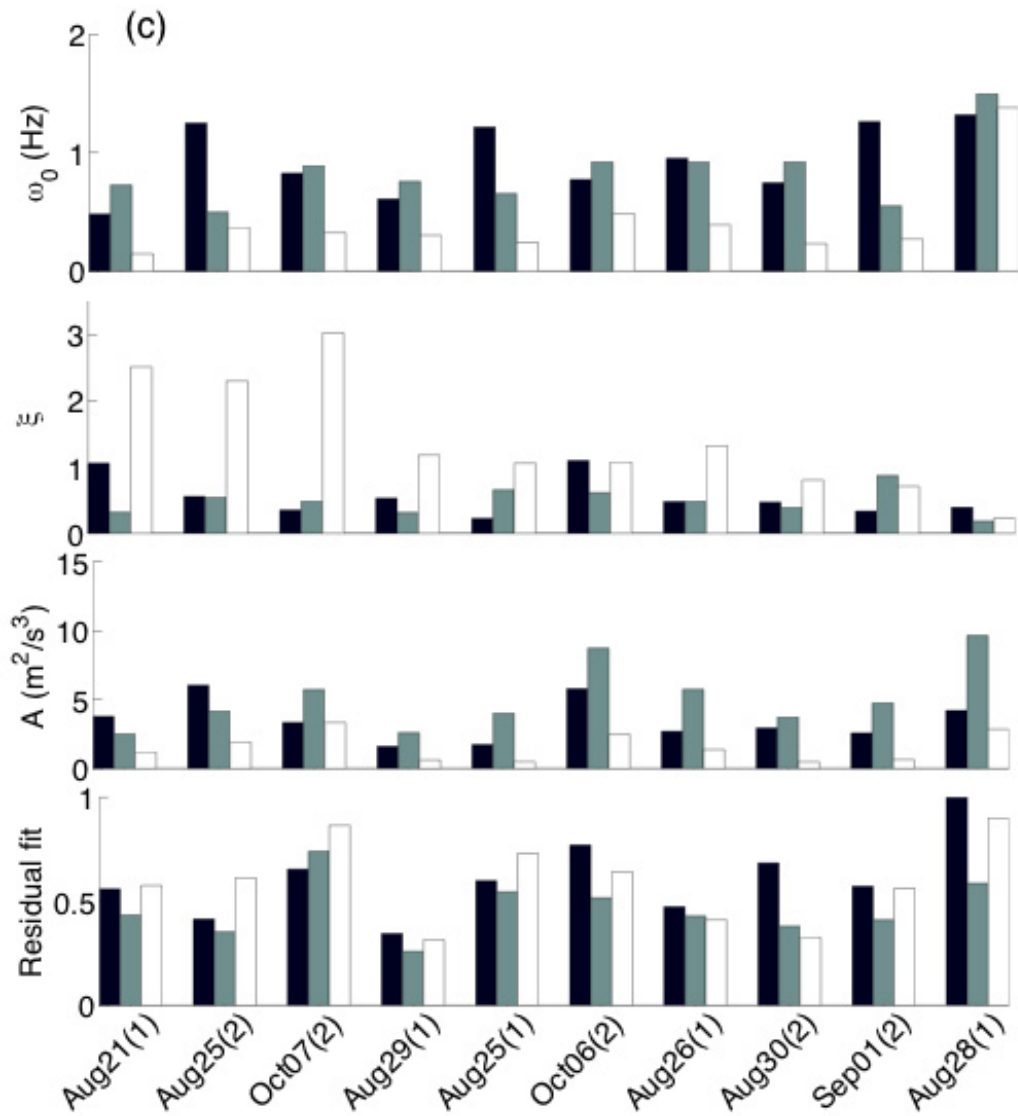
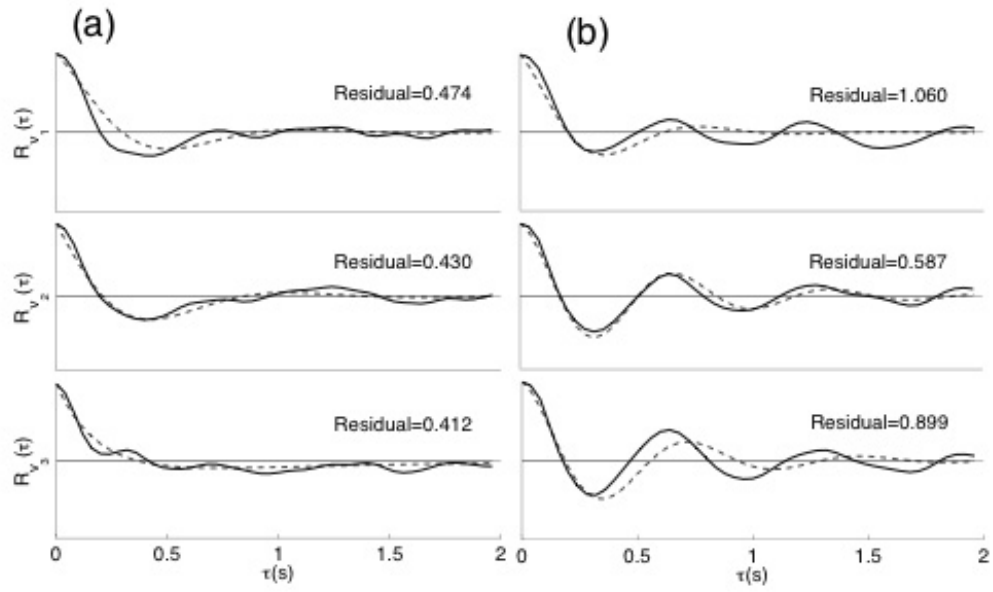


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Figure 1

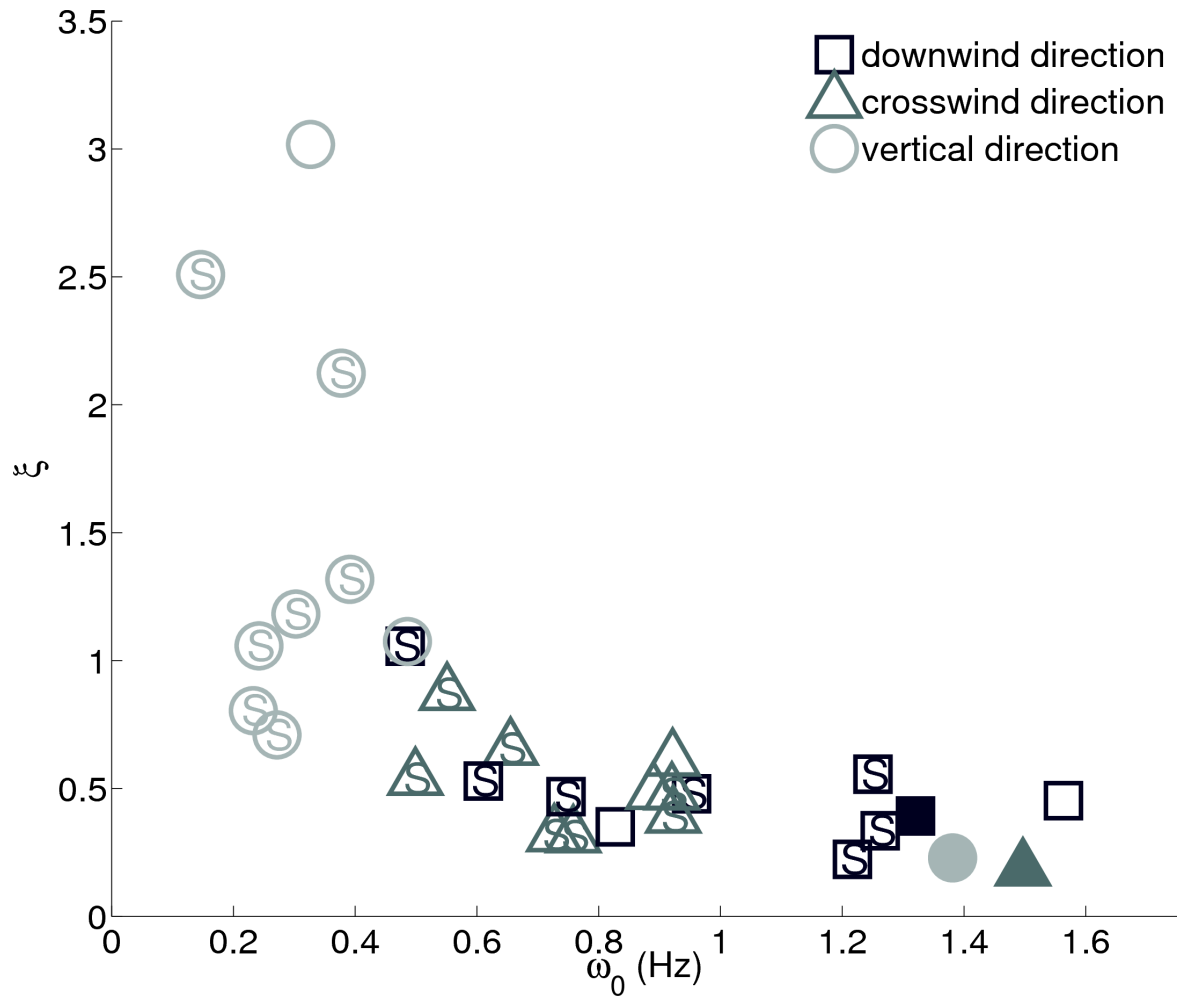
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Figure 2

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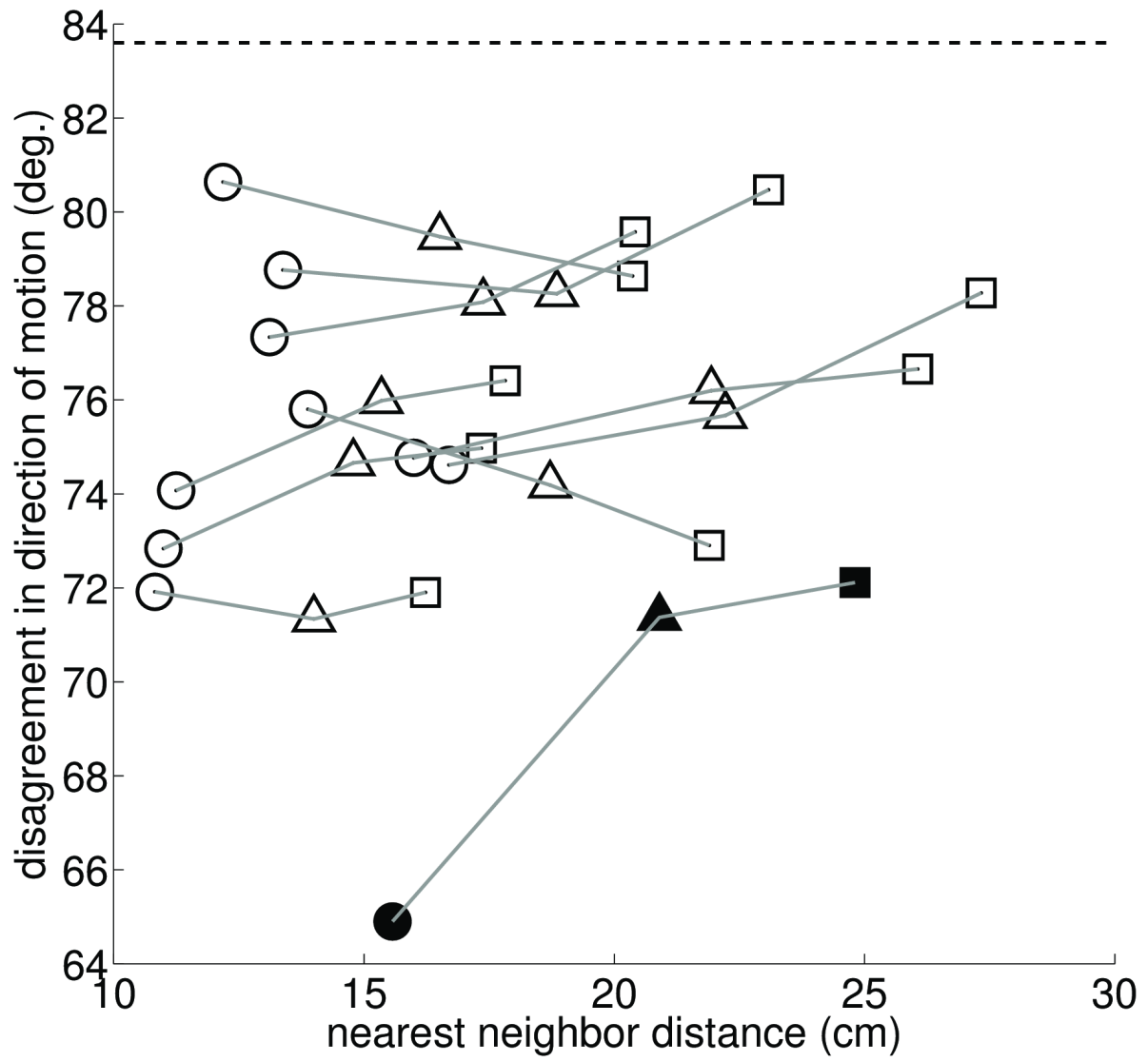


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Figure 3

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Figure 4