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and ‘model-free’ learning have not thus far been clearly revealed by human fMRI studies. Some of the main issues for future research on habits will be how executive control is devolved among structures during behavior and how flexible (or plastic) top-down control can avoid competition between the goal-directed and habit systems, to promote their optimal cooperation and integration in determining successful behavioral outputs.

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¹Department of Psychology and Behavioural and Clinical Neuroscience Institute, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 3EB, UK.

²Department of Neuroscience, Zuckerman Mind Brain Behavior Institute, Columbia University, New York NY 10032, USA.
E-mail: twr2@cam.ac.uk; ruimcosta@gmail.com

Correspondence

Context-dependent lateralized feeding strategies in blue whales

Ari S. Friedlaender^{1,2,3,*}, James E. Herbert-Read⁴, Elliott L. Hazen⁵, David E. Cade⁶, John Calambokidis⁷, Brandon L. Southall², Alison K. Stimpert⁸, and Jeremy A. Goldbogen⁶

Lateralized behaviors benefit individuals by increasing task efficiency in foraging and anti-predator behaviors [1–4]. The conventional lateralization paradigm suggests individuals are left or right lateralized, although the direction of this laterality can vary for different tasks (e.g. foraging or predator inspection/avoidance). By fitting tri-axial movement sensors to blue whales (*Balaenoptera musculus*), and by recording the direction and size of their rolls during lunge feeding events, we show how these animals differ from such a paradigm. The strength and direction of individuals’ lateralization were related to where and how the whales were feeding in the water column. Smaller rolls ($\leq 180^\circ$) predominantly occurred at depth (> 70 m), with whales being more likely to rotate clockwise around their longest axis (right lateralized). Larger rolls ($> 180^\circ$), conversely, occurred more often at shallower depths (< 70 m) and were more likely to be performed anti-clockwise (left lateralized). More acrobatic rolls are typically used to target small, less dense krill patches near the water’s surface [5,6], and we posit that the specialization of lateralized feeding strategies may enhance foraging efficiency in environments with heterogeneous prey distributions.

Blue whales ($n = 63$ individuals) exhibited stereotyped maneuvers during lunge feeding events ($n = 2,863$ lunges in total; 45 ± 5.3 (mean \pm SE) lunges from each individual, [Figure S1A](#) in Supplemental Information, published with this article online). Immediately before a whale opened its mouth to

capture prey, it made a rolling movement around its longest axis ([Figure 1A](#)).

Two types of rolling behavior were associated with these lunges — ‘side-rolls’ and ‘barrel-rolls’. Smaller side-rolls consisted of the whale rotating $\leq 180^\circ$ in one direction during the feeding lunge, followed by a rotation in the opposite direction to its initial rotation (i.e. non-complete rotation) ([Figure 1A](#)). In contrast, larger, more acrobatic ‘barrel-rolls’ consisted of a uni-directional roll past the horizontal (i.e. $> 180^\circ$ rotation) ([Figure 1A,B](#)). While the majority of side-rolls were performed deeper than 70 m, the majority of barrel-rolls were performed in the upper 70 m of the water column ([Figure 1C](#)).

These rolls also have directionality, occurring when a whale initially rolls to the left or right. To assess whether rolls were lateralized at the population and individual levels, we calculated a laterality index (LI) for each individual that made 10 or more rolls ($n = 49$ individuals). The LI of each individual

was calculated as $LI = \frac{R_r - L_r}{R_r + L_r}$ where R_r

and L_r are the numbers of rolls that an individual made to the right and left, respectively. At the population level, the distribution of laterality indices differed significantly from what would have been expected assuming no individual-level lateralization ($\chi^2 = 38.9$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$; [Figure 1D](#)). There were both more individuals that were left and right lateralized in the population than would be expected by chance ([Figure 1D](#)). At the individual level, 28 of the 49 individuals we measured had absolute laterality indices that differed significantly from chance ([Figure S2](#)). Of these, there were significantly more right-lateralized individuals than left-lateralized individuals (binomial test, $n = 21$, $N = 28$, $P = 0.006$; [Figure 1D](#)).

Individuals were consistent in the size of their rolls to the left or right (Spearman Rank Correlation: $r_s = 0.78$, $n = 55$, $p < 0.001$; [Figure S2B](#)); some whales made consistently larger rolls whereas some made consistently smaller rolls. Individuals that made larger rolls were more likely to be left lateralized, whereas individuals that made smaller rolls were more likely to be right lateralized (Spearman Correlation, $r_s = -0.40$, $n = 49$, $p = 0.005$; [Figure 1E](#)). Further, individuals’ laterality indexes were related to the mean depth at

which feeding occurred (Pearson Correlation, $R = 0.37$, $n = 49$, $p = 0.009$; Figure 1F). The shallower the depth at which individuals fed, the more likely individuals were to have a negative laterality index. There was no evidence, however, that individual whales made consistently the same sized rolls above or below 70 m (see Supplemental Information).

Why should individuals show different lateralized feeding strategies depending on where and how that behavior is performed? Blue whales feed exclusively on krill and the abundance and distribution of krill influences their foraging behavior [6,7]. Krill patches are generally smaller and less dense near the water's surface, and more acrobatic maneuvers, such as barrel rolls, may be required to capture these evasive prey [6,7]. Blue whales' eyes are laterally positioned, and thus rolling maneuvers may be required in order to see prey above them. At shallow depths, whales lunged at steeper pitch angles and rolled more often to the left, providing visual input of the prey to the whale's right eye (Figure 1A). In vertebrates, the optic nerves innervate the brain's hemispheres contra-laterally, and the left hemisphere of the brain controls kinematic coordination, predictive motor control and the ability to plan and coordinate actions [8]. Using these types of movements may be important at this body size where movements take considerably longer to complete due to mechanical scaling effects and physical limitations of sensory transduction. Acrobatic, albeit stereotypical movements, coordinated through the brain's left hemisphere, may be required to target small patches of prey that are easily visible, and hence manifest as a left-sided rolling behavior. It is unclear, however, why whales predominantly show right-sided lateralized feeding behavior at depth, making it important for these findings to be compared across other populations of blue whales and other species of whale. While fin whales (*Balaenoptera physalus*) and humpback whales (*Megaptera novaeangliae*), for example, appear to only exhibit lateralized behaviors in one direction [9,10], these studies did not account for feeding depth. Our results show that this context-dependence is important to consider.

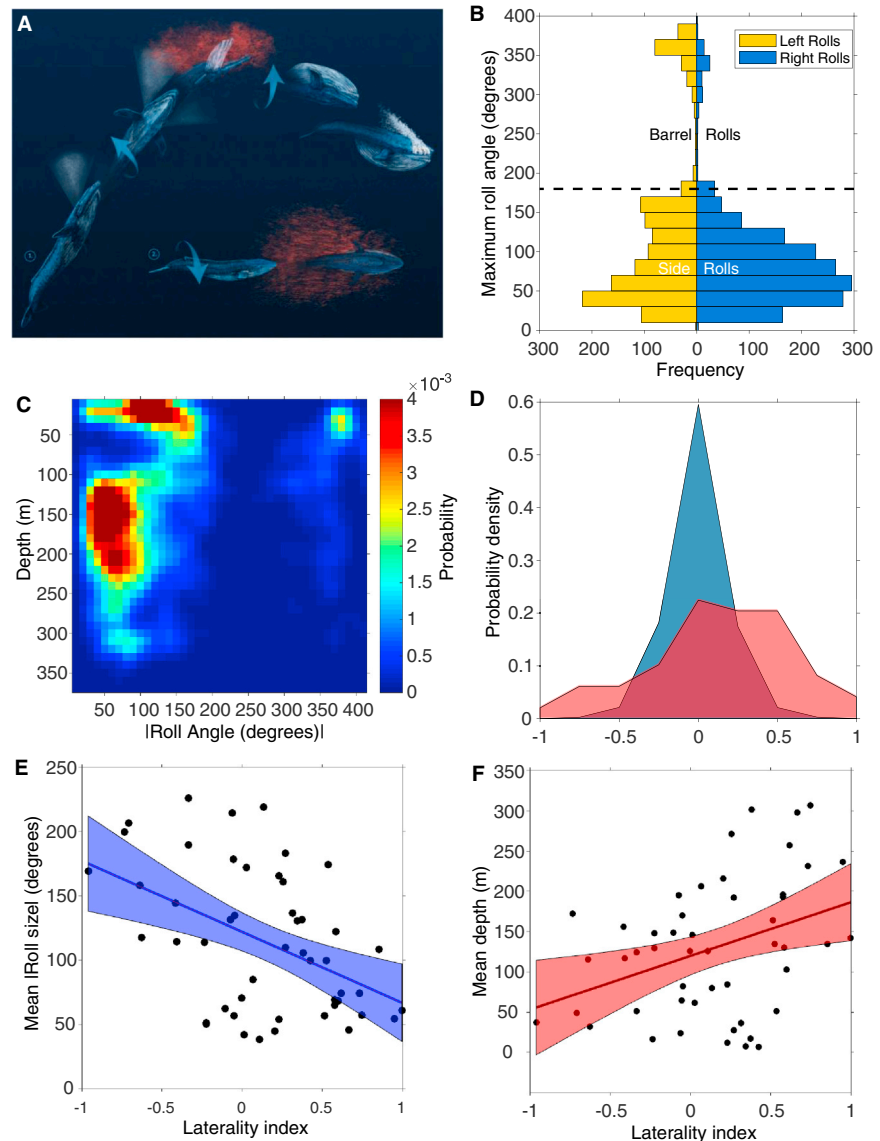


Figure 1. Lateralized feeding in blue whales.

(A) Artist rendition of the two types of lunge feeding strategies from side-on orientation (i.e. X-Z plane) — barrel and side-rolls. The top schematic (1) shows a left-sided barrel roll where the whale rotates a full 360° during prey capture. The bottom graphic (2) shows a right-sided roll, where the whale rotates less than 180° during the feeding event. The estimated angle of visual range is shown as a white cone and demonstrates that during the left-side roll, the whale's right eye is directed towards the prey until the lunge (mouth opening) is initiated. (B) Distributions of the maximum roll angles for left (yellow) and right (blue) roll directions. The dashed line at 180° represents the separation of classification of roll types (barrel rolls above, and side rolls below 180°, respectively). (C) Heat-plot showing the size of individual whales' rolls as a function of depth. The majority of side rolls (≤ 180 degrees) are performed deeper than 70 m, whereas larger barrel rolls usually occur in the top 70 meters of the water column. Three rolls greater than 400° were excluded from (B) and (C) for clarity. (D) Distribution of the observed laterality indexes of individuals (red) ($n = 49$) and expected laterality indexes assuming no individual-level lateralisation (blue) (see Supplementary Information). These two distributions differ significantly from one another ($\chi^2 = 38.9$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$). (E) Relationship between the laterality index of an individual and the mean size of its rolls. The larger the size of an individual's rolls, the more likely it was to be left lateralized. (F) Relationship between the mean depth an individual was feeding at and its laterality index. Individuals feeding at shallower depths were more likely to be left lateralized. In (E) and (F), shaded regions represent the 95% confidence intervals for the fitted regression lines.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information contains experimental procedures and two figures and can be found with this article online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2017.10.023>.

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¹Marine Mammal Institute, Department of Fisheries and Wildlife, Oregon State University, Newport OR 95060, USA. ²Southall Environmental Associates, Aptos CA 95003, USA. ³Present address: Institute of Marine Sciences, University of California Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz CA 95064, USA. ⁴Department of Zoology, Stockholm University, Stockholm SE-106 91, Sweden. ⁵NOAA SWFSC Environmental Research Division, Monterey CA 93950, USA. ⁶Hopkins Marine Station, Stanford University, Pacific Grove CA 93950, USA. ⁷Cascadia Research Collective, Olympia WA 98501, USA. ⁸Moss Landing Marine Laboratory, Moss Landing CA 95039, USA. *E-mail: ari.friedlaender@ucsc.edu

Correspondence

Emergent acoustic order in arrays of mosquitoes

Andrew Aldersley^{1,5,*}, Alan Champneys², Martin Homer², Nikolai W. F. Bode², and Daniel Robert^{3,4}

The yellow fever mosquito *Aedes aegypti* forms aerial swarms that serve as mating aggregations [1]. Despite lacking the remarkable collective order of other animal ensembles, such as fish and birds [2], the kinematic properties of these swarms bear the hallmarks of local interaction and global cohesion [3,4]. However, the mechanisms responsible for collective behaviour in mosquitoes are not well understood. Mosquitoes use their antennae as hearing organs to locate and interact with one another via the frequencies of sounds generated by their beating wings [5]. Acoustic detection and recognition are known to mediate copula formation in opposite-sex pairs [6], but have not been investigated in larger groups. By recording the flight tones of multiple, tethered, male *Ae. aegypti*, we test the hypothesis that acoustic signalling is a determinant of swarm morphology and present the first compelling evidence that flight tone interactions between males drive observed group coherence in the frequency domain. We find that group size critically affects collective and individual acoustic traits: cohesive acoustic behaviours emerge in groups of more than six male mosquitoes, occurring to a greater degree than predicted in the absence of interaction. Importantly, acoustic interactions between multiple males differ from those reported previously for same-sex pairs [7,8]. Our findings enable future research targeting key behavioural and reproductive aspects of the biology of mosquitoes of epidemiological importance.

We simultaneously recorded the individual flight tones of up to $N = 8$ tethered male *A. aegypti* in a linear arrangement using a custom-built microphone array (Figure 1A and Supplemental Information). Extraction of each mosquito's fundamental wing beat frequency was performed using

Hilbert spectral analysis [9], yielding high-resolution spectra in both time and frequency (Figure 1B).

To test whether the mosquitoes' acoustic emissions changed with the number of males present, we calculated the differences between the flight tones of all pairs of males. Sorting these frequency differences for each male according to their closest, second closest, etc. flight tone match at each time point yielded a series of distributions that became progressively sharper, left-skewed and clearly separated with increasing group size (Figure 1C, left column and Figure S1A). Consequently, as groups became larger, individuals' wing-beat frequencies were more regularly spaced, and the average flight tone separation between them decreased (Figure 1D, black line). The instantaneous standard deviation of the group's collective wing-beat frequencies (the 'group spread', Supplemental Information) also varied with ensemble size. Small- and intermediate-sized groups exhibited a broader range of flight tone dispersals than larger arrays, for which the group spread was narrowly distributed (Figure 1C, right column, grey-shaded area). In larger groups ($N = 7-8$), individuals were tightly bound to the acoustic average: the median spread of flight tones in these arrays was comparable to the smallest ($N = 3$), and was much lower than at intermediate sizes ($N = 4-6$; Figure 1E, black line).

We hypothesise that acoustic interactions between males drive emergent phenomena in the frequency domain. To test this, we used permutation sampling to construct arrays of non-interacting individuals selected at random from recordings of different groups, or from recordings of males flying alone (labelled respectively 'random group' and 'random lone', detail in Supplemental Information). For all group sizes, both the median frequency separation and group spread were always lower for mosquitoes flown together than in the non-interactive arrays (Figure 1D,E), but only significantly so (in >95% permutations) in the largest groups ($N = 7-8$). The summary statistics of non-interactive groups also changed with their size: for combinations of lone males this relationship was roughly linear, whereas the properties of randomly sampled,

Supplemental Information: Context-dependent lateralized feeding strategies in blue whales

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Supplemental Experimental Procedures

Behavioral and kinematic analyses: We used motion-sensor archival suction-cup attached DTAGs [S1] to measure the underwater feeding behavior and associated kinematics of foraging blue whales between 2010-2014 in the Southern California Bight using previously described methods [S2-S4]. Whales were approached from oblique angles from rigid-hulled inflatable boats and tags were deployed using a 24-foot carbon fiber pole [S5]. Tags were placed on the dorsal surface of the whales generally halfway between the blow-hole and dorsal fin, along the mid-line of the animal [S6]. Tags are designed to remain on the whale for a pre-determined period of time, after which a release mechanism relieves suction and the tags detach from the whale, float to the surface and are recovered (with the aid of a VHF transmitter) for data offload. In general deployments ranged from 4-8 hours. A portion of these deployments occurred during a period when behavioral response studies were being conducted [S7], but the data for our study occurred outside of any sound exposure periods. The DTAGs contain hydrophones (sampling rates up to 242 kHz), motion sensors (3-axis accelerometers and magnetometers sampled at 50 Hz), and a pressure sensor (sampled at 50 Hz). The latter sensors were down-sampled to 5 Hz in post-processing. Tag data were calibrated using customized Matlab scripts so that the angles of rotation, pitch, and heading are all set relative to that of the whale. Feeding lunges were determined using a combination of kinematic signatures that are known to characterize a lunge-feeding event [S3,S8-S10]. For each feeding lunge, from the acceleration phase to the end of the filtering process, we measured the time of the lunge, the lunge depth, the degree of roll around the body axis, and the direction (left or right) of the off-axis roll. Rolls that were less than or equal to 180 degrees were categorized as smaller 'side rolls' whereas rolls that were larger than 180 degrees were categorized as larger 'barrel rolls'. We note that a whale can return to a horizontal orientation through a combination of lateral rotation and movement in the forward plane. Therefore, a roll of more than 180 degrees but less than 360 degrees does not necessarily indicate that the whale returned to the horizontal by rolling in the direction opposite direction to which it initially rolled. We documented 2558 lunges \leq 180 degrees, and 305 rolls $>$ 180 degrees (Fig. 1B).

For each individual, we determined the mean size (magnitude) of its roll to the left and separately, the mean size of its rolls to the right. To create the heat map demonstrating the depth at which rolls of different size were made, we created a matrix, where each cell in the matrix represented the number of times a roll in the range [0: 10: 400 degrees] occurred at depths in the range [0: 10: 360 m]. Each cell of the resultant matrix was divided by the total number of rolls (sum of the matrix) to calculate the probability of a roll occurring at each size and depth combination.

For visual clarity, this heat map (Fig. 1C) was smoothed with a Gaussian filter, $\sigma = 1$ with MATLABs intrinsic *imgaussfilt* function.

Laterality Analyses:

We calculated the lateralization index (*LI*) of each whale that made 10 or more rolls. *LI* ranges from -1 to 1, with values of -1 or 1 indicating that an individual always performed rolls to the left or right, respectively. A *LI* index of 0 indicates that a whale performed equal numbers of rolls to the left or right, and was therefore not considered lateralized in its rolling behavior. We also calculated the absolute laterality index of each individual (i.e. $|LI|$). An individual's absolute laterality index was not related to the number rolls made during tag deployment (Spearman Correlation: $r_s = -0.16$, $n = 49$, $p = 0.26$; Fig. S2C).

To determine the expected frequency distributions of laterality indexes assuming no individual-level lateralization (blue curve in Fig. 1D), we simulated the number of left or right rolls whales would have been expected to make assuming they were not lateralized. To do this, for each individual whale ($n = 49$) in turn, we first counted how many rolls a whale made in total, and then determined the number of left or right rolls it would have been expected to make assuming the probability of it making a left or right roll was 0.5, sampled from a binomial distribution (i.e. no lateralisation). We then calculated the expected laterality index of each simulated, non-lateralized whale using the same formula as described in the main text. We repeated this process 1000 times to generate the expected distribution of laterality indexes, and compared this distribution to the observed distribution of laterality indexes using a chi-squared test. Note the chi-squared test was performed on the raw counts of the expected and observed laterality indexes, although probability densities are depicted in Fig. 1D.

The observed correlation between individuals' laterality index and the size of their rolls (see main text) could be driven by differences between individuals' feeding strategies, for example, if different individuals were more likely to perform side or barrel rolls. Alternatively, differences in foraging strategies could be related to where individuals were feeding (i.e. the depth), and not be specific to an individual. To separate these competing hypotheses, we identified individuals ($n = 14$) that made feeding lunges both above and below 70 m (separating the two clear regions of feeding activity observed in Fig. 1C). We then tested whether the magnitude of an individual's feeding lunges was consistent between these different feeding locations. There was no evidence that the size of individuals' rolls above 70 meters was related to the size of their rolls below 70 meters (Spearman Correlation: $r_s = 0.32$, $n = 14$, $p = 0.26$). Hence it is unlikely that individual whales have different lateralized feeding strategies.

Additional Statistics

For each individual whale, we tested whether that individual made significantly more rolls to the left or right than what would be expected by chance, using binomial

tests. For other analyses, we tested response variables for normality using Shapiro-Wilks tests, and wherever normality requirements were not met, we performed Spearman Rank correlations (for correlational analyses). If normality requirements were met, we used Pearson Correlations. All statistical analyses were performed in MATLAB 2016a.

Supplemental Figures

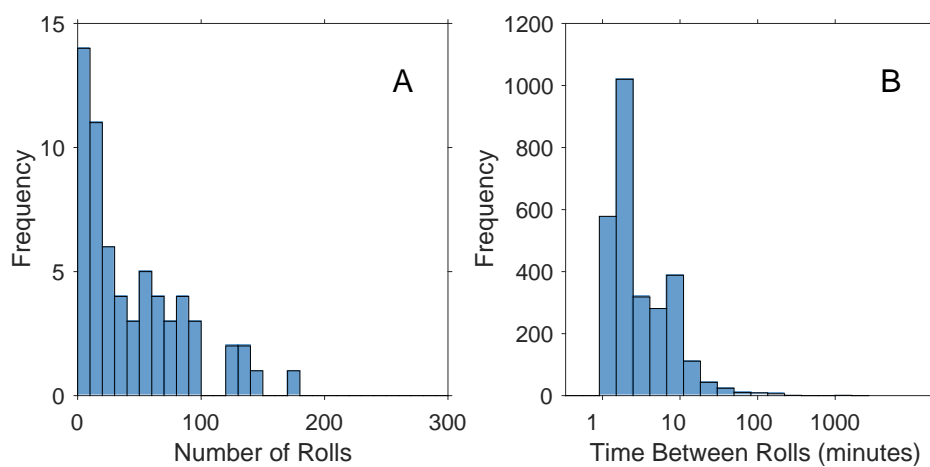


Figure S1: Basic roll numbers. (A) Histogram of the number of rolls recorded for each individual whale ($n = 63$). On average, whales made 45 ± 5.3 (mean \pm SE) feeding lunges. 14 individuals made less than 10 rolls, and these individuals were excluded from laterality analyses, as the reliability of the laterality index calculated at low numbers of observations is necessarily low. (B) Time between individuals' successive feeding lunges across all individuals. Note the log scale on the x-axis. The majority of rolls are followed by another roll within the next 10 minutes.

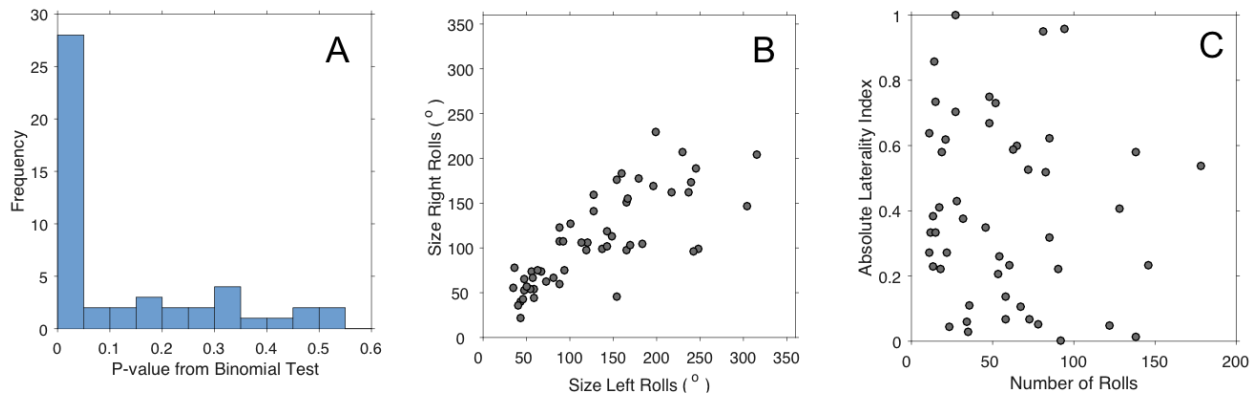


Figure S2: (A) P-values associated with each whale's laterality index. Of the 49 whales that made 10 or more rolls, 28 of these individuals had laterality indices that differed significantly from chance. (B) Mean size of an individual's left rolls versus right rolls. Each point represents an individual animal. Individuals are consistent in the mean size of their left and right rolls. Spearman Rank Correlation: $r_s = 0.78$, $n = 55$, $p < 0.001$. (C) There was no relationship between the number of rolls an individual made versus its absolute laterality index. Spearman Correlation: $r_s = -0.16$, $n = 49$, $p = 0.26$

Author Contributions

A.S.F., E.L.H., D.E.C., J.H.R., and J.A.G. conceived the ideas for the manuscript. A.S.F., J.C., B.L.S., A.K.S., and J.A.G. collected tag data, J.H.R., E.L.H., D.E.C., A.K.S., J.A.G., and A.S.F. conducted data analysis, A.S.F., J.H.R., D.E.C., and J.A.G. wrote the manuscript, and E.L.H., J.C., B.L.S., and A.K.S. edited the manuscript.

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