

1 **How often are male mosquitoes attracted to humans?**

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10 **Keywords:** *Aedes*, disease control, host-seeking behaviour, human-bait collection

11

12 **Abstract**

13 Many mosquito species live close to humans where females feed on human blood. While male
14 mosquitoes do not feed on blood, it has long been recognized that males of some species can
15 be attracted to human hosts. To investigate how commonly male mosquitoes are attracted to
16 humans, we review existing literature and performed human-baited field trials. We then
17 undertook further laboratory and tent experiments to examine attraction to humans in males
18 and females of three common *Aedes* species. We find that male attraction to humans is
19 restricted to a handful of species including *Aedes aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*. The presence of
20 male host-seeking behaviour in some species may promote mating success and contribute to
21 these species being globally invasive. Male and female *Ae. aegypti* show similar patterns in
22 preferential attraction between different human subjects. We also demonstrate that mosquito
23 repellents applied to human skin repel male mosquitoes. Our findings provide insights into
24 mosquito evolution and behaviour and have implications for mosquito control programs,
25 particularly those that involve monitoring of the male mosquito population.

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30 1. Introduction

31 Many insect species exhibit distinct behavioural differences between sexes, often as
32 adaptations in behaviour such as mating, foraging, territoriality and feeding that affect the
33 relative contribution of the sexes to their offspring (1–3). For example, foraging in female
34 pollinators is focused on gaining provisions for offspring production whereas male pollinators
35 search resources that help with locating mates (4). Similarly, mate acquisition behaviour in
36 male insects is typically associated with territoriality (5), lekking displays (6), and locating sites
37 where females emerge (7). Females, on the other hand, more rarely actively search for mates
38 but may focus on accepting males following courtship and nuptial gifts (8–10).

39
40 In blood-sucking insects like mosquitoes, males feed on nectar while most females require
41 blood to reproduce and thus have behavioural adaptations for host-seeking and blood-feeding
42 (11,12). The evolution of blood-feeding in insects is believed to have occurred through different
43 routes, such as accidental biting of vertebrates by plant-sucking insects, which then developed
44 the ability to digest and utilize protein-rich blood (13). Another possibility is that blood-feeding
45 evolved through the close association between chewing insects and vertebrates, where insects
46 became accustomed to recognizing and biting vertebrates (14). As blood became crucial for
47 these insects, parallel evolution occurred between insects and their hosts, with the insect
48 developing preference for specific hosts based on cues that optimize reproduction (15).

49 Anthropophilic mosquitoes exhibit a strong drive to seek out human hosts for blood-feeding.
50 They use cues such as CO₂, body-heat, and skin odour to locate their target. Skin odour
51 specifically identifies humans as targets over other warm-blooded animals (16,17).

52
53 The study of host-seeking behaviour in mosquitoes has traditionally focused on females, as they
54 are the primary vectors of disease transmission. However, as the utilization of *Wolbachia*-
55 infected (18) or sterilized males (19) as a control strategy for reducing mosquito populations
56 becomes increasingly prevalent, understanding the behaviour of male mosquitoes is of growing
57 importance. This is because the efficacy of these methods hinges upon the ability of released
58 males to locate and reproduce with wild females. Male mosquitoes have sophisticated auditory

59 and olfactory systems (12) used to locate females (20,21), nectar and other sugar sources (22),
60 and conspecific males (23). Despite their inability to blood feed, field observations report that
61 males of *Aedes aegypti* (24–27) and *Ae. albopictus* (28) are attracted to humans, with males
62 swarming around and landing on humans. Capture rates of males in both species also increase
63 when traps are baited with CO₂ or human odour mimics (29–31). Amos *et al* (32) confirmed the
64 attraction of *Ae. aegypti* to humans experimentally under semi-field conditions. In contrast,
65 studies on other mosquito species frequently report no attraction of males to humans and
66 traps that use human cues. For example, studies on *Ae. notoscriptus* have reported
67 exceptionally low capture rate of males through CO₂-baited BG traps (33,34), indicating that
68 there may be differences in male behaviour between mosquito species. These may be due to
69 species differences in mating strategies and/or sensory abilities, although the inability to detect
70 male attraction in some cases may be a consequence of study designs which fail to detect male
71 attraction (32).

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73 Species differences in male attraction to humans provide a basis for further investigations into
74 the underlying mechanisms governing this behaviour and how they vary across mosquito
75 species. Species differences are also of applied importance as releases of incompatible or sterile
76 male mosquitoes start to be used to suppress mosquito species; public acceptance of this
77 strategy may be problematic if males are attracted to humans. To investigate species
78 differences, we conducted a comprehensive literature review of previous observations from
79 field collections that employ human-baited methods, and we present results of our own
80 human-baited field collections of both male and female mosquitoes from various regions in
81 Australia. We also evaluated the attraction of male and female mosquitoes of three common
82 *Aedes* species to human hosts in laboratory experiments. For species that exhibited human
83 attraction by males, we determined whether preferences for specific human hosts are similar
84 for males and females and tested the effectiveness of mosquito repellents on male mosquitoes.

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88 **2. Methods**

89 **2.1. Literature review**

90 We compiled observations on male mosquito attraction to humans from studies on human-
91 baited field collections. We looked for studies that presented catches of both males and
92 females across any mosquito species. We searched the term “human landing catch mosquito
93 male” as well as “human bait mosquito male” on the Google Scholar platform on September 16,
94 2022. We went through the first 600 results for each search term to identify references and
95 then also searched for relevant references within the articles. Studies retained needed to
96 identify mosquitoes to the species level and present numbers of caught mosquitoes for both
97 sexes. A study must also have collected mosquitoes through Human Landing Catches (HLC),
98 Human Baited Traps (HBT) or Human Baited Collections (HBC) under field conditions. If these
99 criteria were met (Figure S1), we extracted relevant data from the text and tables within the
100 article.

101

102 **2.2. Human-baited field trials**

103 We performed human-baited trials in Victoria (VIC), New South Wales (NSW), Australian Capital
104 Territory (ACT), South Australia (SA) and Queensland (QLD) Australia. Participants ran trials for
105 0.5 to 1 hr duration at a private residence or public space at any time of the day but focused on
106 dusk or dawn. Mosquitoes were collected when landing or hovering around exposed skin, using
107 mechanical aspirators (Spider & Insect Vac, Select IP Australia Pty Ltd), electric rackets (Pestill
108 USB Rechargeable Mosquito & Fly Swatter, Kogan Australia Pty Ltd), or tube collection. Keys
109 from Dobrorwsky (1965) were used to morphologically identify the species and sex of collected
110 mosquitoes. Mosquitoes that could not be confidently identified to species level were excluded
111 from the study. We ran 115 individual trials from 2014-2022.

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117 **2.3. *Aedes* laboratory experiments**

118 **2.3.1. Mosquito strains and maintenance**

119 Laboratory colonies were established from field collections from Cairns, Australia in 2019 (*Ae.*
120 *aegypti*) and Brisbane, Australia in 2014 (*Ae. notoscriptus*) or 2020 (*Ae. vigilax*). *Aedes aegypti*
121 and *Ae. notoscriptus* were reared at 26°C and a 12:12 cycle with a 1 hr dawn and dusk period.
122 Adults were maintained in 30 x 30 x 30 cm BugDorm-1 cages and provided with 70% sucrose
123 solution and females were blood fed using human volunteers (ethics approval from The
124 University of Melbourne 0723847). We collected and partially dried eggs, before hatching them
125 in 3 L of Reverse Osmosis (RO) water containing a total of 0.2 g baker's yeast. Mosquito larvae
126 were reared on fish food (TetraMin Tropical Fish Food, Tetra, Melle, Germany) and pupae
127 allowed to emerge into cages. *Aedes vigilax* were reared under identical conditions but adults
128 were maintained in a BugDorm® M4590 Insect rearing cage (93 x 44 x 32 cm) and larvae were
129 reared in 30% saltwater solution (API Aquarium salt, USA).

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131 **2.3.2. Male attraction to humans – *Aedes* species comparison**

132 We conducted experiments on mosquito attraction to humans using three species: *Ae. aegypti*,
133 *Ae. notoscriptus*, and *Ae. vigilax*. The experiments were conducted in a 3 x 3 m tent under
134 constant light levels and at room temperature. Each trial involved releasing 100 males, aged
135 between 1 and 2 weeks, that had previously been allowed to mate, into the tent. The males
136 were given 30 minutes to acclimate before the experiment began. The experiments were filmed
137 using GoPro Hero 10 cameras placed at either end of the tent, with white panels (84.1 x 118.9
138 cm) as a background. In each trial, one side was baited with a human subject, while the other
139 side was left unbaited as a control. Subjects stood facing the camera with their bare feet and
140 shins in the field of view, with this position remaining consistent across trials. Subjects did not
141 wear any perfume. The side of the baited and unbaited treatment was alternated for each trial.
142 The number of trials, human subjects, and number of days the experiments are summarized in
143 Table S1. The same batch of males was used for multiple trials on the same day but replaced
144 daily. Treatments were recorded for 30 mins using the time-lapse function immediately after
145 the human subject assumed their position inside the tent. The number of mosquitoes in view of

146 the camera was scored every 20 s, distinguishing between males that were in flight and males
147 that landed on the human subject. For data analysis, we calculated the average number of male
148 mosquitoes in each category over the entire trial period.

149

150 **2.3.3. Mosquito preferences for different human subjects**

151 In our experiments we found that *Ae. aegypti* males exhibit preferences towards certain human
152 subjects (see Figure S2). While previous research has demonstrated differential attraction of
153 female *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes to different human hosts (17,35,36), this has not yet been
154 quantitatively reported in males. We conducted additional experiments in which we used a
155 consistent set of five human subjects (coded A-E) who stood in pairs in opposite positions in the
156 tent setup described in 2.3.2. The subjects were filmed for 5 minutes on each side before the
157 sides were swapped and the procedure was repeated. This was done for each pairwise
158 combination of the five subjects (20 combinations in total), with a fresh batch of males being
159 used for each day of four separate days. The footage was scored as described in 2.3.2. For data
160 analysis, we calculated the average number of male mosquitoes in view (combining flight and
161 landed) over the 5 minutes of each trial for each human subject.

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163 We then tested all pairwise combinations of the same five human subjects for their attraction
164 to female *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. notoscriptus*. We used a two-port olfactometer (30 x 30 x 30 cm)
165 similar to those used in previous studies by Ross et al (37) and Amos et al (32). The mosquitoes
166 used in this experiment were 6-7 days post-emergence and had been allowed to mate prior to
167 the experiment. We released approximately 50 females into the set-up and allowed them to
168 acclimatise for approximately one minute. A box fan placed at the opposite end of the cage
169 drew air through two traps into the cage. Pairs of subjects placed one hand each in front of one
170 of the traps. After 5 minutes, we closed the entrance to the traps and counted the number of
171 females in each trap and individuals remaining in the cage. The combinations of subjects and
172 sides were randomized until all 20 pairwise comparisons between subjects and sides were
173 completed. We repeated the experiment using the same 5 subjects for another four days using
174 a fresh batch of females each day for a total of 10 replicates (5 per side). *Aedes vigilax* females

175 were not assessed in this experiment due to relatively low rates of attraction to humans
176 observed in a pilot trial using this olfactometer design.

177

178 Prior to data analysis, we calculated a preference index for each person to reflect the relative
179 attraction of each subject by dividing the number of mosquitoes attracted to one human
180 subject by the number of mosquitoes attracted to both subjects. We determined the average
181 preference index for all replicates of each human subject. Statistical analyses were performed
182 using the preference index averaged across replicates.

183

184 **2.3.4. Effect of mosquito repellent on male mosquitoes that show attraction to** 185 **humans**

186 After we confirmed that male *Ae. aegypti* show attraction to humans in our tent experiments,
187 we tested whether they are repelled by a commercial mosquito repellent (Aerogard tropical
188 strength insect repellent, Reckitt Benckiser, NSW, Australia) containing 191 g/kg
189 Diethyltoluamide and 40 g/kg N-Octyl Bicycloheptene Dicarboximide. We used the same tent
190 setup as described in 2.3.2. The repellent was applied to the knees downwards to one of the
191 two human subjects positioned on either side of the tent within 5 min before the trial began.
192 The number of males in view was recorded every 20 s for 10 minutes. The person wearing the
193 repellent and the sides of the treatment and control were randomized. We ran 20 trials over 5
194 days with a rotation of 9 human subjects, with the batch of 100 *Ae. aegypti* males replaced
195 each day. The footage was scored as described in 2.3.2. For data analysis, we calculated the
196 average number of male mosquitoes in view (combining flight and landed) over the 5 minutes
197 of each trial.

198

199 **2.4. Data analysis**

200 All statistical analyses were conducted using R (v. 4.1.2) (38). Wilcoxon-signed-rank tests were
201 used to assess differences in male attraction between three *Aedes* species. The influence of
202 human subject on the number of male and female *Ae. aegypti* and female *Ae. notoscriptus*
203 attracted to humans were assessed by first calculating a preference index for each person to

204 reflect their relative attraction. This involved dividing the number of mosquitoes attracted to
205 one human subject by the number of mosquitoes attracted to both subjects, which was then
206 averaged across the replicates. We then performed an ANOVA, followed by Tukey's post-hoc
207 tests using this averaged index to test for differences between human subjects. Using the
208 preference indexes (without averaging), we applied Jonckheere-Terpstra tests to determine
209 whether mosquito attraction to one subject was affected by the attractiveness of the other
210 human subject used in a pairwise comparison (ranked apriori by their overall attractiveness).
211 We also ran Mantel tests were run to compare the matrices of preferences obtained with
212 different groups of mosquitoes to assess whether patterns of preferences differed between
213 species and sexes. Finally, we used a t-test to determine whether the application of mosquito
214 repellent significantly reduced the attraction of male *Ae. aegypti* to humans.

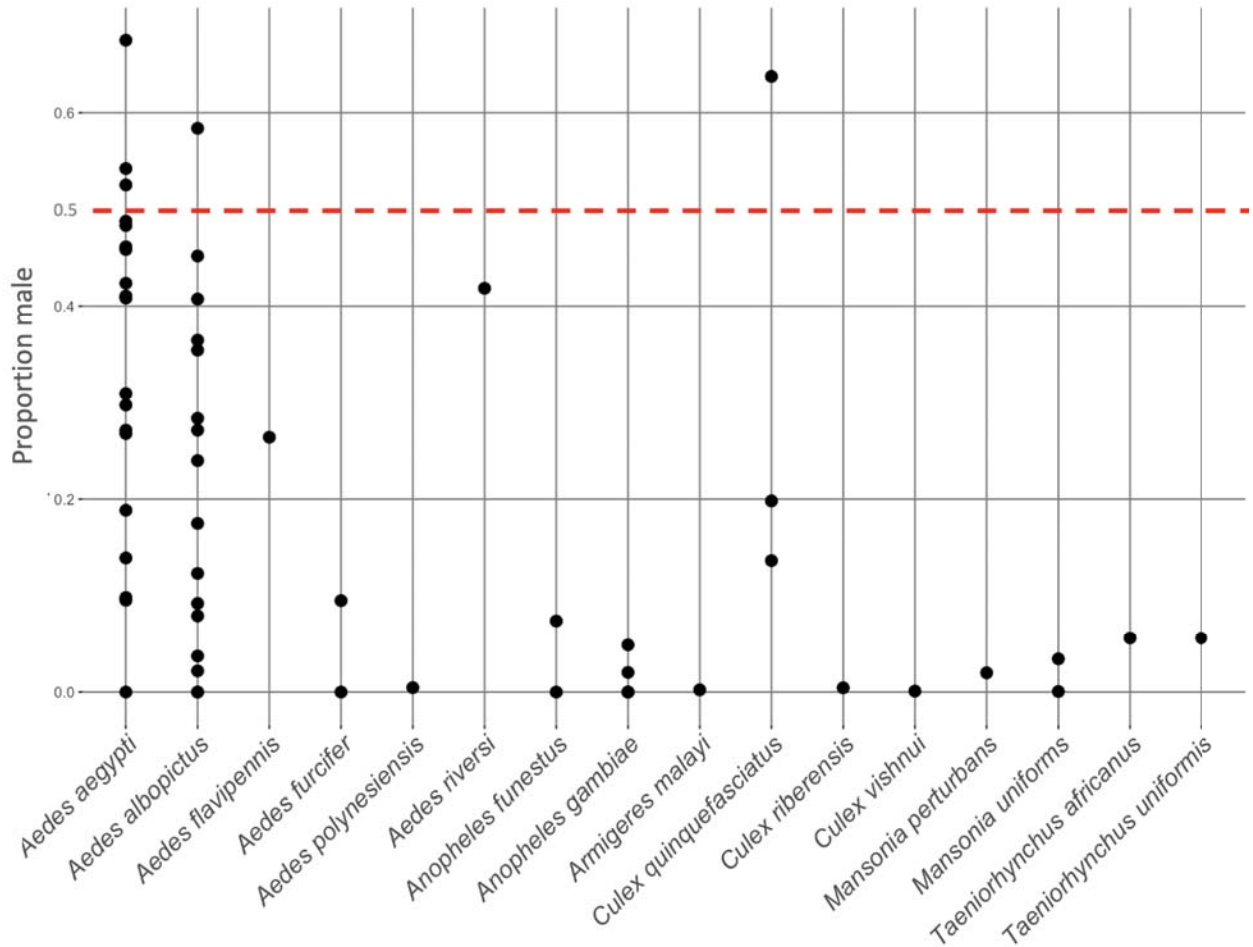
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216 **3. Results**

217 **3.1. Literature review**

218 Our literature search identified 46 studies containing evidence of male mosquito attraction to
219 humans across species using human-baited field collections. A further 355 studies did not meet
220 all our inclusion criteria (Figure S1), including 179 studies that were excluded because they did
221 not specify the sex of the collected mosquitoes.

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223

224 **Figure 1. Proportion of males collected across mosquito species from the literature search of**

225 **human-baited field collections.** Dots show the proportion of males collected out of the total

226 catch, with each dot representing a single study. The red dashed line indicates an equal ratio

227 between male and female catches (0.5 proportion). Data are only presented for species with

228 catches having $n > 50$ individuals and where males were collected. See table S4 for the

229 complete dataset.

230

231 In the 46 studies involving 136 different mosquito species meeting the inclusion criteria, male

232 catches were reported for 16 species. Among these, only five species (*Ae. aegypti*, *Ae.*

233 *albopictus*, *Ae. flavipennis*, *Ae. riversi* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*) reported greater than 10% male

234 catches. The evidence for male attraction to humans by *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus* was

235 robust, with male catches recorded in 18 (out of 19) and 15 (out of 17) studies respectively

236 (Figure 1, Table 1).

237

238 **Table 1. Numbers of females and males collected across mosquito species from the literature**

239 **search of human-baited field collections.** HLC = Human landing catch, HBT = Human baited

240 trap, HBC = Human baited collection. We only present data for species with catches $n > 50$

241 individuals. Average proportion males was calculated by determining the proportion of males

242 out of the total catch for each study, then averaging this proportion across studies. See table S4

243 for the complete dataset which includes proportions for each individual study.

| | collected | collected | males | method | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-------|------------------|----|
| Species with male catches | | | | | |
| <i>Aedes aegypti</i> | 5796 | 11929 | 0.34 | HLC, HBT | 19 |
| <i>Aedes albopictus</i> | 7417 | 18630 | 0.21 | HLC, HBT, HBC | 17 |
| <i>Aedes flavipennis</i> | 14 | 39 | 0.26 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Aedes furcifer</i> | 2 | 1987 | 0.05 | HLC | 2 |
| <i>Aedes polynesiensis</i> | 43 | 9225 | 0.005 | HBC | 1 |
| <i>Aedes riversi</i> | 90 | 125 | 0.42 | HBC | 1 |
| <i>Anopheles fuenstus</i> | 278 | 3703 | 0.025 | HLC, HBT | 3 |
| <i>Anopheles gambiae</i> | 115 | 15819 | 0.01 | HLC, HBT | 5 |
| <i>Armigeres malayi</i> | 2 | 869 | 0.002 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> | 711 | 1267 | 0.23 | HLC, HBT | 4 |
| <i>Culex riberensis</i> | 1 | 226 | 0.004 | HBC | 1 |
| <i>Culex vishnui</i> | 3 | 2983 | 0.001 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Mansonia perturbans</i> | 246 | 12056 | 0.02 | HLC, HBT | 1 |
| <i>Mansonia uniformis</i> | 3 | 1747 | 0.03 | HLC | 2 |
| <i>Taeniorhynchus africanus</i> | 17 | 185 | 0.06 | HBT | 1 |
| <i>Taeniorhynchus uniformis</i> | 144 | 2418 | 0.06 | HBT | 1 |
| Species without male catches | | | | | |
| <i>Aedes africanus</i> | 0 | 98 | | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Aedes apicoargenteus</i> | 0 | 33 | | HLC | 2 |
| <i>Aedes poicilius</i> | 0 | 125 | | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Aedes serratus</i> | 0 | 125 | | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Anopheles albimanus</i> | 0 | 4474 | | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Anopheles aquasalis</i> | 0 | 5175 | | HLC | 2 |
| <i>Anopheles darling</i> | 0 | 631 | | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Anopheles flavirostris</i> | 0 | 61 | | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Anopheles implexus</i> | 0 | 108 | | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Anopheles pharoensis</i> | 0 | 1803 | | HLC, HBT | 2 |
| <i>Anopheles ziemanni</i> | 0 | 191 | | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex annulioris</i> | 0 | 410 | | HLC | 2 |
| <i>Culex atratus</i> | 0 | 465 | | HLC | 1 |

| | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|------|----------|---|
| <i>Culex bastagarius</i> | 0 | 320 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex clastrieri</i> | 0 | 2541 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex eastor</i> | 0 | 1085 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex pedroi</i> | 0 | 65 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex scsettiae</i> | 0 | 532 | HBC | 1 |
| <i>Culex taeniopus</i> | 0 | 335 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex theobaldi</i> | 0 | 127 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex vaxus</i> | 0 | 182 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex vomerifer</i> | 0 | 2366 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Culex ybarmis</i> | 0 | 248 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Downsiomyia Ganapathi</i> | 0 | 199 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Mansonia africana</i> | 0 | 5644 | HLC, HBT | 3 |
| <i>Mansonia fucopennata</i> | 0 | 2154 | HLC | 2 |
| <i>Psorophora amazonia</i> | 0 | 350 | HLC | 1 |
| <i>Psorophora ferox</i> | 0 | 59 | HLC, HBT | 2 |

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256 **3.2. Human baited field collections**

257 We conducted human-baited field trials in Australia in both temperate and tropical regions
258 between 2014 and 2022. Over this period, we collected 13 mosquito species as shown in Table
259 2.

260

261 **Table 2. Summary of human-baited field collections targeting male mosquitoes in Australia.**

262 Detailed information about collections can be found in Table S5. Köppen climate-zone codes:

263 Am = Tropical Monsoon; Cfa = Humid subtropical; Cfb = Marina west coast; Csb:

264 Mediterranean.

| Species | Males collected | Females collected | State | Köppen climate-zone |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------|---------------------|
| <i>Aedes aegypti</i> | 89 | 140 | QLD | Am |
| <i>Aedes notoscriptus</i> | 0 | 441 | NSW | Cfa |
| | 0 | 1501 | ACT | Cfb |
| | 0 | 223 | VIC | Cfb |
| | 0 | 1 | SA | Csb |
| | 0 | 94 | QLD | Am |
| <i>Aedes alboannulatus</i> | 0 | 5 | ACT | Cfb |
| | 0 | 5 | NSW | Cfa |
| | 0 | 1 | VIC | Cfb |
| <i>Aedes vigilax</i> | 0 | 19 | NSW | Cfa |
| | 0 | 2 | QLD | Am |
| <i>Aedes vittiger</i> | 0 | 3 | ACT | Cfb |
| | 0 | 3 | QLD | Am |
| <i>Aedes procax</i> | 0 | 16 | NSW | Cfa |
| <i>Aedes rubrithorax</i> | 0 | 1 | ACT | Cfb |
| | 0 | 21 | VIC | Cfb |
| <i>Culex orbostiensis</i> | 0 | 2 | NSW | Cfa |
| | 0 | 5 | QLD | Am |
| <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> | 5 | 11 | VIC | Cfb |
| <i>Culex molestus</i> | 0 | 2 | VIC | Cfb |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|----|-----|-----|
| | 0 | 9 | NSW | Cfa |
| <i>Culex annulirostris</i> | 0 | 5 | ACT | Cfb |
| | 0 | 34 | NSW | Cfa |
| | 2 | 38 | VIC | Cfb |
| | 1 | 24 | VIC | Cfb |
| | 0 | 1 | SA | Csb |
| | 0 | 2 | ACT | Cfb |
| <i>Anopheles annulipes</i> | 1 | 1 | VIC | Cfb |
| | 0 | 2 | ACT | Cfb |
| <i>Coquillettidia lienalis</i> | 0 | 2 | ACT | Cfb |

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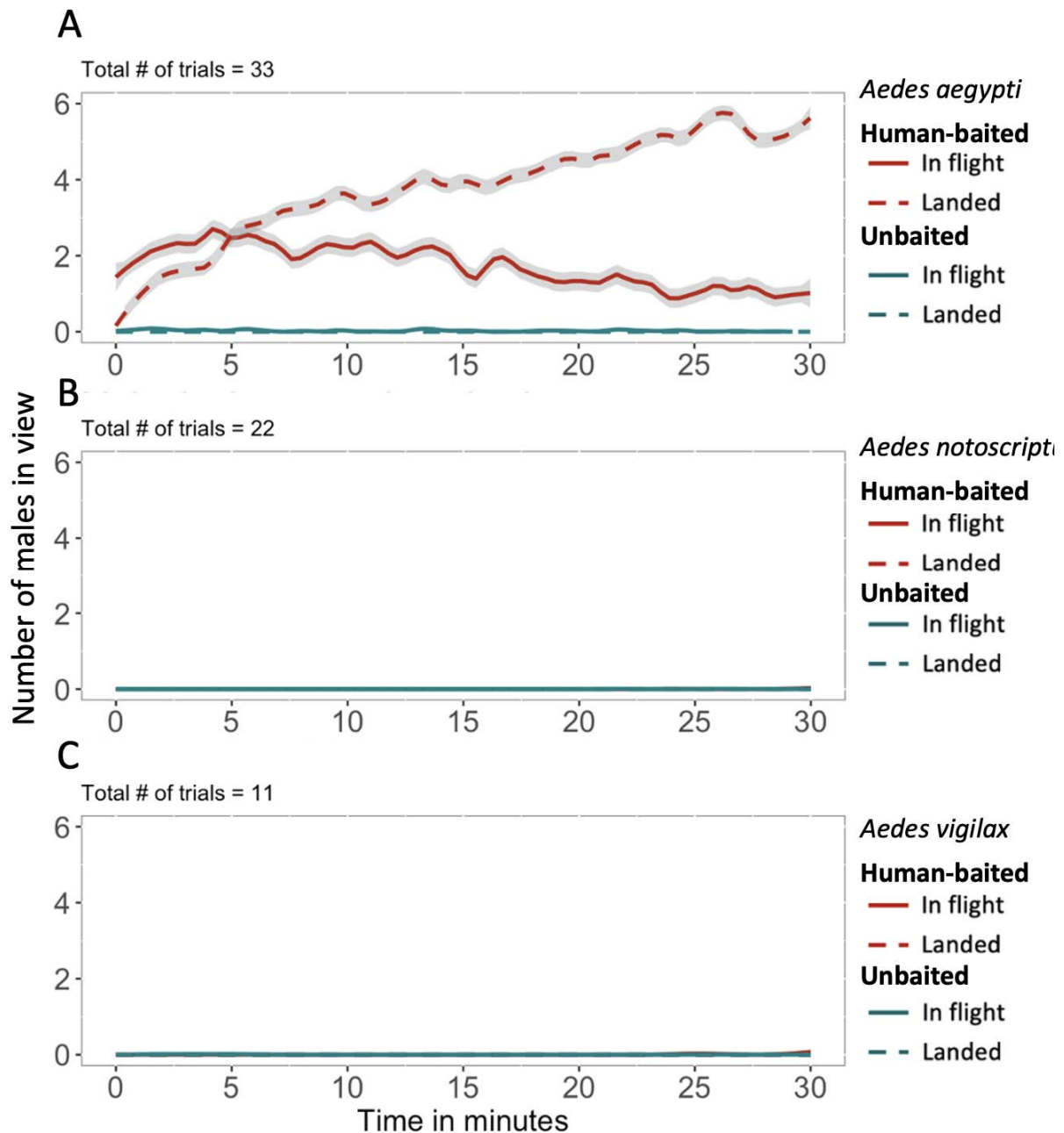
266 We found evidence of male attraction of *Ae. aegypti* to humans in our field collections, with
267 males collected in 16/22 catches. We also collected males from three other species (*Cx.*
268 *quinquefasciatus*, *Cx. annulirostris*, and *An. annulipes*) but overall numbers were low. *Aedes*
269 *notoscriptus* was by far the most prevalent mosquito captured, but no male individuals were
270 collected despite recording thousands of females of this species.

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272 **3.3. Species-specific attraction of male *Aedes* mosquitoes to humans under laboratory** 273 **conditions**

274 In human-baited tent trials, we found no convincing evidence of attraction to humans in male
275 *Ae. notoscriptus* or *Ae. vigilax*, with 5 or fewer observations of mosquitoes across all trials in
276 each of the human-baited and unbaited treatments (Figure 2). Males of both species were
277 inactive in the presence of human subjects and typically rested on the walls of the tent.
278 However, we observed consistent attraction to humans in *Ae. aegypti* (Figure 2). The number of
279 males observed in human-baited treatments after 30 min was significantly higher than in
280 unbaited treatments across all tested human subjects (Wilcoxon signed-rank test: landed: $z =$
281 1.072 , $p < 0.001$; in flight: $z = 7.755$, $p < 0.001$; total: $z = 1.056$, $p < 0.001$). Attraction was
282 persistent, with males observed in flight around human subjects for the entire 30 minutes.
283 Additionally, we observed an increasing number of males that had landed on the subject
284 throughout the trials (Figure 2). While human subjects were not compared directly in this

285 experiment, mosquito observations were much higher for some subjects, suggesting
286 differential attraction (Figure S2).
287



288
289 **Figure 2. Comparison of male attraction to humans for three *Aedes* species in tent trials.** The
290 number of male mosquitoes of *Aedes aegypti* (A), *Aedes notoscriptus* (B) and *Aedes vigilax* (C)
291 observed in view of a camera every 20 s. Mosquitoes that were in-flight and landed are shown

292 with solid and dashed lines respectively. Human-baited treatments are indicated in red, with
293 unbaited controls shown in blue. 95% confidence intervals are shown in grey. Data were
294 averaged across all human subjects, with data for *Ae. aegypti* males presented separately for
295 each human volunteer in Figure S2.

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298 3.4 Mosquito preferences for different human subjects

299 We observed significant host preferences among male and female *Ae. aegypti* and female *Ae.*
300 *notoscriptus* in pairwise comparisons between five human subjects (ANOVA: *Ae. aegypti* males:
301 $F = 5.019$, $df = 4, 15$, $p = 0.008$; *Ae. aegypti* females: $F = 5.81$, $df = 4, 15$, $p = 0.005$; *Ae*
302 *notoscriptus* females: $F = 4.137$, $df = 4, 15$, $p = 0.018$). Although less pronounced, male *Ae.*
303 *aegypti* showed a preference for the same human subjects as female *Ae. aegypti* (Figure 3).
304 Tukey's posthoc tests showed that significantly more mosquitoes were attracted to certain
305 human subjects over others (*Ae. aegypti* males: Subject A vs Subject E: $p = 0.009$; Subject B vs
306 Subject E: $p = 0.017$; *Ae. aegypti* females: Subject A vs Subject D: $p = 0.025$; Subject A vs Subject
307 E: $p = 0.04$; *Ae notoscriptus* females: Subject B vs Subject D: $p = 0.035$; Subject B vs. Subject E: p
308 $= 0.03$) (Figure 3). Jonckheere-Terpstra tests comparing preference index values for the focus
309 subject against the other subjects ranked in order of overall attractiveness showed that the
310 attractiveness to one subject was not influenced by the other human subject present in the
311 pairwise comparison; this lack of dependence on the other subject was found for *Ae. aegypti*
312 females and males as well as for *Ae. notoscriptus* females (Table S3). Mantel tests on
313 preference index matrices between *Ae. aegypti* males and females as well as *Ae. notoscriptus*
314 females were positive but not significant (Table S2), suggesting a similar pattern of preferences
315 for human subjects among the three groups.

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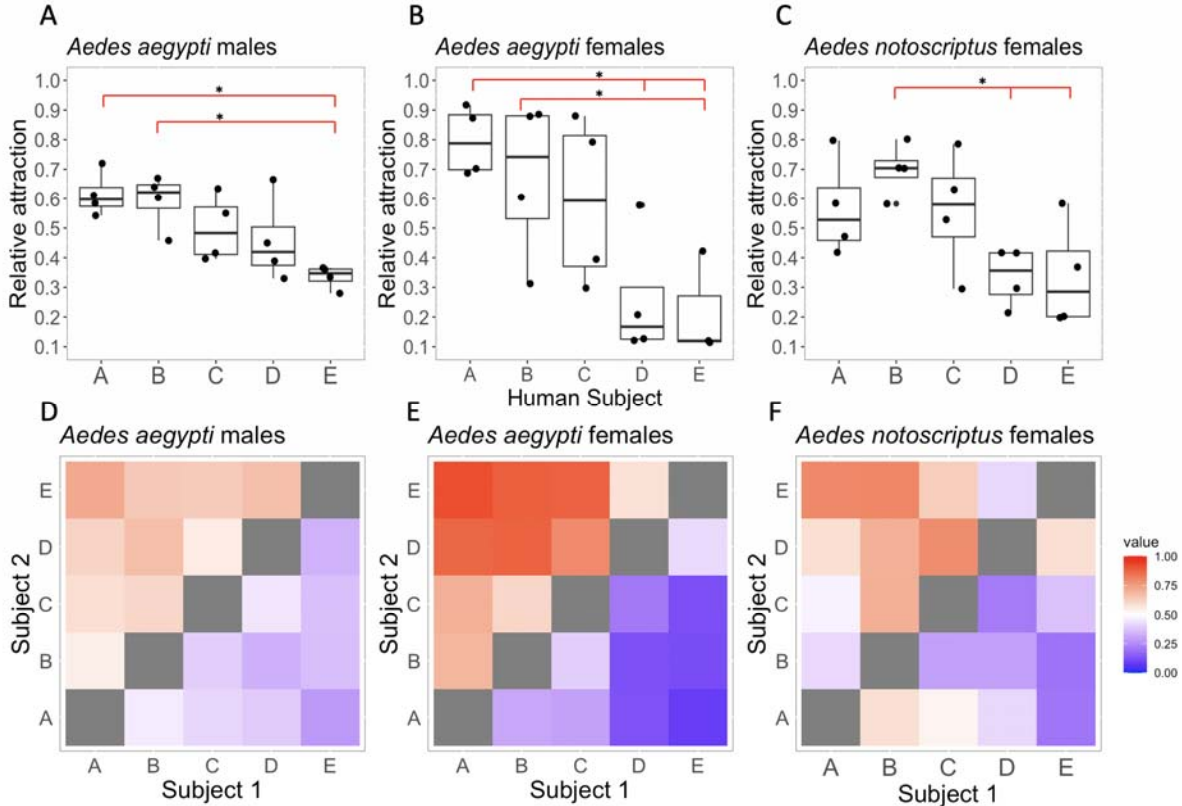
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323 **Figure 3. Relative attraction of female *Ae. notoscriptus* and male and female *Ae. aegypti* to**

324 **different human subjects in pairwise comparisons.** The upper row (A-C) shows boxplots of

325 relative attraction between the five human subjects across *Ae. aegypti* males (A) and females

326 (*B*) and *Ae. notoscriptus* males (C). The preference index was calculated by dividing the number

327 of mosquitoes attracted to one human subject over the number of mosquitoes attracted to

328 both subjects. Dots represent the mean attraction of the relevant subject to the other four

329 subjects across 8 replicate trials. Stars above red bars indicate comparisons with significant (P <

330 0.05) pairwise differences. The lower row (D-F) presents heat maps displaying the preference

331 index in pairwise comparisons between human subjects. Preference indices are shown on a 0-1

332 scale, with higher values (red) indicating stronger attraction to subject 1, lower values (blue)

333 indicating stronger attraction to subject 2, and 0.5 (white) indicating no preferential attraction

334 between pairs of human subjects.

335

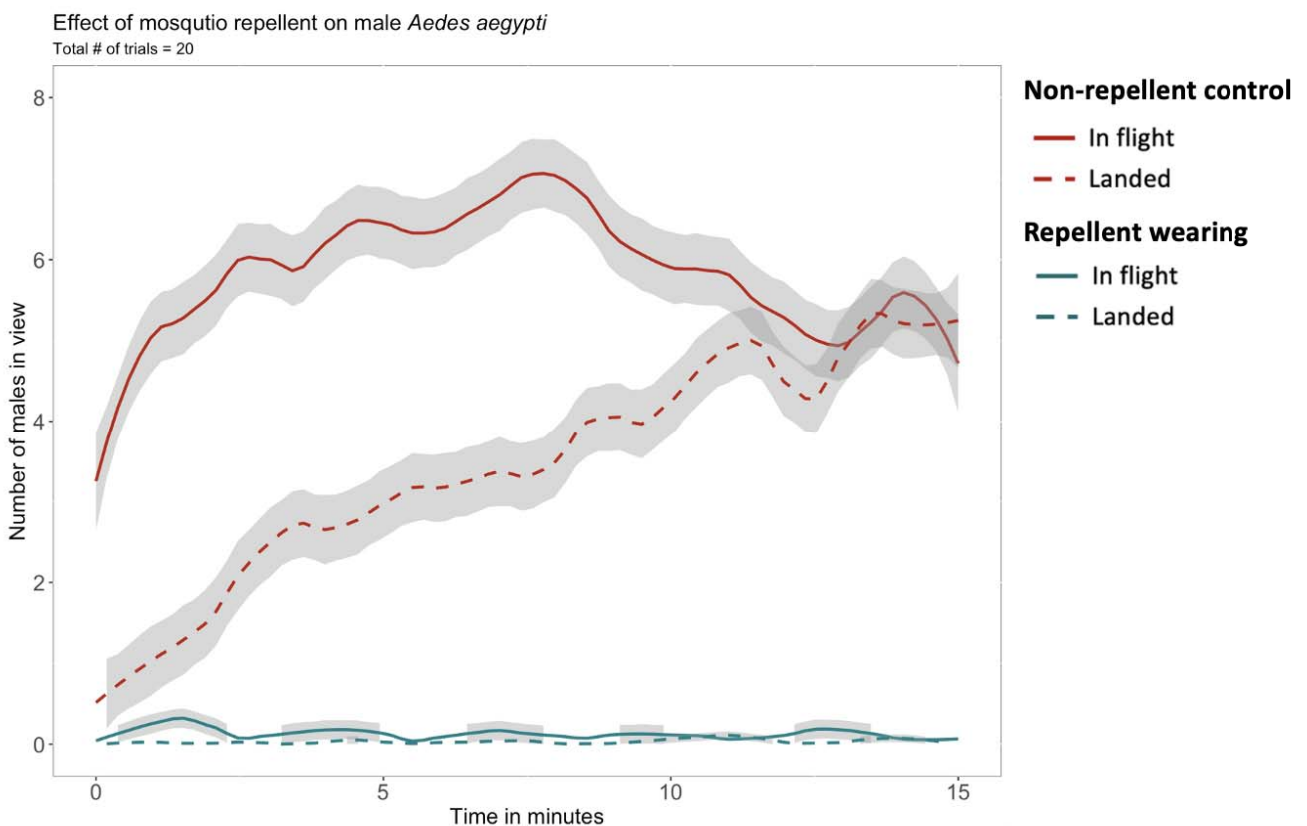
336

337

338 3.5 Effect of mosquito repellent on male mosquitoes that show attraction to humans

339 Commercial mosquito repellent applied to exposed skin was effective in reducing the attraction
340 of male *Ae. aegypti* to human subjects (Figure 4). Significantly fewer mosquitoes landed on the
341 exposed skin of human subjects wearing repellent (t-test: $t = 6.51$, $df = 8$, $p < 0.001$).

342 Furthermore, fewer male *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes were observed flying in field of view of the
343 camera towards humans wearing repellent compared to untreated subjects (t-test: $t = 8.18$, df
344 $= 8$, $p < 0.001$).



345

346 **Figure 4. Effect of mosquito repellent applied to exposed skin on swarming and landing by**
347 **male *Aedes aegypti*.** the number of male *Ae. aegypti* in view of a camera was recorded every
348 20 s. Mosquitoes that were in-flight and landed are shown with solid and dashed lines
349 respectively. Repellent-wearing treatments are indicated in red, with non-repellent controls

350 shown in blue. 95% confidence intervals are shown in grey. Data were pooled across all human
351 subjects.

352 **Discussion**

353

354 We present a thorough examination of existing literature and our own field collections to
355 determine the attraction of male mosquitoes towards human hosts. Our laboratory
356 experiments focused on evaluating the attraction of male mosquitoes of three common *Aedes*
357 species to a human host, as well as the preferences of males and females to different human
358 hosts for two species, *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. notoscriptus*. We also evaluated the effectiveness of
359 mosquito repellents on male mosquitoes that exhibited attraction to humans. In this work, our
360 study provides important information that can improve public support for mosquito control
361 measures by demonstrating the effectiveness of mosquito repellent against male mosquitoes
362 (Figure 4). Importantly, we found that repellent not only reduces mosquito landing but also
363 decreases swarming behaviour. Even though males do not bite, they can still be regarded as a
364 nuisance, as reported in some communities ([https://www.todayonline.com/voices/project-
365 wolbachia-residents-are-killing-helpfulmosquitoes-which-can-be-nuisance](https://www.todayonline.com/voices/project-wolbachia-residents-are-killing-helpfulmosquitoes-which-can-be-nuisance)).

366

367 Our literature review revealed a paucity of observational data of male mosquito attraction to
368 humans. This is largely because many field studies did not report on male catches, limiting the
369 number of studies included in our analysis (e.g., 39–41). Additionally, human landing catches
370 are a commonly used technique for collecting mosquitoes in the field (42). These approaches
371 can introduce bias because, even if males are attracted to humans, they may fly around the
372 subject without landing, resulting in a higher collection rate of females compared to males. It is
373 worth noting that most studies screened were focused on collecting female mosquitoes or
374 testing the attraction of female mosquitoes to different traps or hosts. Relatively few studies
375 considered males in their design or did not report data on male catches. Thus, the findings
376 presented in our literature review should be interpreted with caution. Despite these limitations,
377 we found a clear distinction in male attraction to humans between species that are highly or
378 mostly anthropophilic that are also highly invasive (e.g., *Ae. aegypti*, *Ae. albopictus*, *Cx.*

379 *quinquefasciatus*) and species with a broader range of preferred host species and lower
380 invasiveness (Figure 1, Table 1). Our own field collections targeting males support these
381 findings, as we only found consistent male attraction in *Ae. aegypti*, while other species
382 presented no male attraction, or very low numbers (Table 2).

383

384 Our laboratory experiments comparing different *Aedes* species provide clear evidence that
385 male attraction to humans is a species-specific phenomenon. Male *Ae. aegypti* persistently
386 swarmed and landed on humans, while *Ae. notoscriptus* and *Ae. vigilax* displayed no attraction
387 (Figure 2). Our results also indicate that male *Ae. aegypti* exhibit varying levels of attraction
388 towards different human participants (Figure 3; Figure S2), a phenomenon well documented in
389 female mosquitoes of different species (43,44), including *Ae. aegypti* (16,35,36,45,46).

390 Consistent preferences for specific human subjects were found across females of *Ae. aegypti*
391 and *Ae. notoscriptus*, indicating that these species respond to similar host-specific cues. These
392 findings are noteworthy as *Ae. notoscriptus* feeds on a broader range of hosts (47) compared to
393 *Ae. aegypti*, and it is important to acknowledge that blood feeding patterns may not necessarily
394 reflect host preferences as they could also be influenced by host availability (48).

395

396 Male *Ae. aegypti* demonstrated similar individual host preferences as female *Ae. aegypti*
397 (Figure 3). Mosquito genome studies have identified several receptor families that detect
398 volatile chemicals (49–51). Studies investigating the *Ae. gambiae* inotropic receptor family have
399 revealed that the expression of receptors was largely similar between the sexes, but males
400 generally have a lower expression level of all receptors (52), suggesting that they may be
401 responsive to the same chemical compounds as females, but at a reduced sensitivity. This view
402 aligns with Amos et al (32) who described long-range attraction of *Ae. aegypti* males but no
403 detectable short-range attraction, indicating that males respond to some cues but not all, or
404 that the response to cues is less sensitive and additional circumstances need to be met (e.g.,
405 room for swarming). Recent research revealed that preferences in female *Ae. aegypti* for
406 specific humans is influenced by their skin-derived carboxylic acid levels (36), which implies that
407 males may also detect this odour cue since they show a similar preference to different humans

408 in our experiments (Figure 3). While our results show a similar preference pattern between
409 male and female *Ae. aegypti*, it is important to note that male and female attraction were
410 measured in different ways (tent trials vs. a two-port olfactometer) which could have
411 introduced differences in overall preference levels.

412
413 The presence of species-specific attraction to humans in male mosquitoes raises intriguing
414 questions about the evolution of this behaviour and the underlying reasons for differences
415 between species. Different factors could influence male attraction to humans, such as mating
416 and feeding behaviour. Males of several species, including *Ae. albopictus* and *Ae. aegypti* have
417 been observed aggregating near hosts in nature (25,27,28,53). Females entering these swarms
418 were engaged by males, leading to copulation (28), which suggests that males swarm around
419 hosts to find mates. These observations are consistent with the results of our literature review
420 (for *Ae. aegypti* and *Ae. albopictus*) and our own field collections (*Ae. aegypti*). Both species are
421 known to be active and bite during the day, which might reduce the distinction between host
422 seeking and mating behaviour (53,54). Males of *Ma. uniformis* and *Ma. africana* also reportedly
423 orient towards non-human animals in search of females to mate with (55,56). Although we
424 focused on humans in this study, it would certainly be worthwhile broadening these
425 investigations to other non-human hosts.

426
427 Observations in *Anopheline* and *Culicine* have shown swarming behaviour that does not require
428 hosts (57,58). *Anopheles gambiae* forms large swarms in the absence of host animals, likely
429 relying on visual cues (58). This species also exhibits nocturnal feeding and crepuscular mating
430 patterns, which may factor into the lack of male attraction to hosts as feeding and mating
431 occurs at different times. In species such as *Ae. communis* and *Ae. stimulans*, swarming is a pre-
432 requisite for mating and has been observed in large walk-in cages, with mating pairs forming in
433 flight (59). In previous investigations of insemination rates in mosquitoes, it was found that
434 *Ae. polynesiensis* mates near larval habitats and exhibits higher insemination rates than *Ae.*
435 *aegypti* (60). These observations may explain the lack of males collected for many of the
436 species in our literature review and field collections.

437

438 Developing an understanding of male mating behaviour is important because successful mating
439 with wild females is critical for mass-reared male mosquitoes released for disease control
440 efforts (61–63). However, being able to facilitate the right circumstances for this when planning
441 releases is a challenge without knowing the factors that influence mating behaviour. Male
442 mosquito release programs need to consider what species-specific mating and host-seeking
443 behaviour their target species displays. For example, releases with mosquitoes including *Ae.*
444 *aegypti* should consider that the presence of humans may be important for inducing mating,
445 while releases of *An. gambiae* should focus on other factors and areas away from humans that
446 induce this behaviour. Finding the right species-specific swarming marker or cues will be useful
447 for the development of efficient male trap techniques to benefit surveillance.

448

449 Mating behaviour is also important in the establishment and maintenance of laboratory
450 colonies. For example, Watson et al (64) argued that difficulties to establish *Ae. notoscriptus*
451 colonies in the laboratory stems from mating behaviour that cannot easily be facilitated in
452 cages. Understanding these behaviours can help researchers to identify the best methods for
453 maintaining colonies, such as using bigger cages with larger numbers of males to induce
454 swarming, adding swarm markers such as plants or providing host odours if the species shows
455 male attraction to hosts. Furthermore, understanding the mating behaviour of mosquitoes can
456 help researchers to investigate the evolution of different mating strategies and how they
457 influence the population dynamics of mosquitoes, as well as the underlying genetic and
458 physiological mechanisms that drive these behaviours.

459

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461

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472

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