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# The role of dopamine in foraging decisions in social insects

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Animals often need to make decisions about whether to confront risks, and climate change is making these decisions even more critical by increasing environmental stress. Biogenic amines are crucial for modulating behavior in all animals and may contribute to behavioral adaptations to changing environments through supporting decision-making involving risk. Our review focuses on the neuromodulator dopamine in insects because of its role in risk-related behavioral choices, particularly in the context of ant foraging activity. In ants, individual decisions contribute to the collective regulation of foraging activity. We consider the role of dopamine in the regulation of collective foraging activity to manage water loss in the desert red harvester ant, *Pogonomyrmex barbatus*, in the southwest US that is undergoing severe drought. We discuss dopaminergic circuitry and its involvement in decisions about foraging risk, drawing from both the vertebrate and invertebrate literature, to outline areas of future research in the role of dopamine in collective decision-making in response to changing environmental conditions.

#### KEYWORDS

decision-making, foraging, insect, dopamine, ant

### **1** Introduction

Animals must make decisions about whether to confront risk in many situations (1) including predation (2-4) and longer-term exposure to environmental stress such as high temperatures (5, 6). Global climate change is altering environmental conditions for many animals, leading them to shift where they may encounter new risks. It is also driving shifts in behavioral strategies (7, 8) that alter species interactions and the ability to obtain resources (9–11). Adaptation to these challenges depends on the neural mechanisms that govern risk-related decision-making. While many neurotransmitters are likely involved in these behavioral adaptations (12, 13), here we will focus on the biogenic amine dopamine (DA), which plays a central role in regulating decision-making under risk.

DA levels in animal brains can change quickly, allowing rapid behavioral adjustment to current conditions (14). DA is synthesized and stored in dopaminergic neurons (DANs) until it is released via  $Ca^{2+}$  induced exocytosis (15), typically within milliseconds of an action potential (16, 17). It acts on DA receptors located on target cells, including downstream neurons associated with behavior (18).

DA plays a key role in evaluating potential reward and punishment, particularly in risky situations. It influences the assessment of discrepancies between expected and actual outcomes in mammals (19–21) and insects (22, 23). When an outcome is better than expected, DA levels increase, reinforcing rewarding actions (24). Conversely, when an outcome is worse than expected, DA levels decrease, discouraging the behavior (24). DA shapes decision-making and motivation by modulating how attractive or aversive different options appear (25): higher DA levels are generally associated with increased motivation to pursue rewards, whereas lower levels reduce the perceived value of potential rewards. Elevated DA levels also promote risk-seeking, while reduced DA activity encourages more cautious decisionmaking (26–31).

This review explores how DA influences risk-related behavioral choices, with a focus on its role in foraging decision-making in social insects. We compare the neuroanatomy of DA circuits related to risk-related decision making in vertebrates and insects. DA circuitry and functional mechanisms have been extensively studied in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Research on DA's role in social insects, including honey bees and ants, remains limited, in part because their biology is not compatible with some advanced genetic tools. We consider similarities between *Drosophila* DA circuits and those of social insects and how these circuits may support behavioral adaptations and resilience to changing environmental conditions.

# 2 DA regulates individual foraging decisions

Foraging behavior is often used as a model to investigate learning processes. In these operational conditioning studies, food serves as a reward to train animals to perform a task, and negative consequences, such as shocks, act as deterrents. Animals must decide whether to engage in foraging behavior or abstain to avoid potential punishment.

Studies involving vertebrates reveal that DA levels significantly affect decisions regarding food rewards and associated risks (26, 32–36). DA release in the nucleus accumbens (NAc), part of the ventral striatum, is particularly important for decisions about whether to engage in risk-taking or risk-averse behavior (27). When the NAc is impaired, rats tend to exhibit risk-averse behavior (37). In rats, the NAc also plays a crucial role in motivation, reward, motor function, and learning (38–41).

In *Drosophila*, DA regulates foraging behavior in response to hunger and satiation through two distinct dopaminergic circuits (42). Both circuits facilitate foraging behavior regardless of hunger state (43) and converge on Kenyon cells in the mushroom body (MB), a region important for learning (44). Increased MB DAN activity causes hungry fruit flies to overcome their aversion and be more motivated to engage in risky foraging behavior (45, 46). DA mediates decisions about food choice based on nutritional value, and DANs in the MB are critical for learning the value of beneficial and harmful food components (47).

### 3 Social decision-making and risk

Many animals use social information in decisions about risk. Vertebrates that live in groups, such as insectivorous bats, starlings and bison use social information, such as visual and vocal cues from members of their group, to evaluate food resources, avoid predators and find nests (48–51). For example, scavengers such as vultures rely on social information, as they forage on patchy resources that can be difficult for an individual to discover and hunt on its own (51). In vertebrates, DA is important for social interactions (52–54), sexual behavior (55), and social hierarchy (56). However, little is known about the role of DA in vertebrate group decision-making.

Social insects, such as honey bees and ants, live in colonies that work collectively. Individuals respond to social cues, mostly olfactory (57, 58), that in the aggregate adjust the activity of the colony (59, 60). Social information influences decisions about activity outside the nest, which entails exposure to risks such as predation and environmental stressors. Individual decisions about foraging contribute to the collective regulation of foraging in social insect colonies, in which food is not directly consumed by foragers. Thus, foraging does not provide an immediate reward to the individual forager. Instead, food is brought back to the nest to be shared with the rest of the colony.

In honey bees, DA acts on neural circuits and receptors associated with both rewarding stimuli and the avoidance of risk. Increased DA is associated with increased motivation for foraging activity, and brain DA levels drop sharply, within seconds, when food is obtained (22). Predation risk, assessed as an encounter with a predator or a nestmate that experienced predation stress, reduces both foraging activity and brain DA levels (61, 62). A pharmacological increase in DA decreases the fear response, rescues foraging activity (61, 62), and decreases aggressiveness in response to aversive stimuli (63). In contrast, DA can increase during avoidance learning (64) and punishment (65).

In ants, there have been few studies of the role of DA in decisions related to risk (72, 73), although the conserved functions of biogenic amines in insects suggest that DA is involved (66). In some species, brain DA levels are highest in foragers, who must decide whether to risk exposure to hazardous conditions outside the nest (67-70). Starvation also reduces DA levels, which in turn reduces the likelihood that an ant will distribute food to its nestmates (71); however, social feeding from other ants can restore brain DA levels. DA is also involved in an ant's decision whether to defend or retreat when facing danger (72). DA supports learning the cuticular hydrocarbon profiles of other ants (73), which are used in nestmate recognition. DA increases threatening behavior and aggression towards both other ants (74) and prey (76) while reducing affiliatory behavior toward nestmates (74). The decision whether to attack or accept another individual is associated with the risk of injury in fighting or harm if a colony is invaded.

# 4 Function of DA in foraging decision of harvester ants

In red harvester ants (*Pogonomyrmex barbatus*), DA plays a role in decisions about the risk of water loss (74). In the desert, colonies

face a trade-off between water loss and foraging (75). A forager loses water to evaporation when outside the nest searching for seeds, while colonies obtain water by metabolizing the fats from the seeds they eat (76). Thus, a colony must spend water to obtain water and food. Colonies manage this tradeoff using feedback from olfactory interactions inside the nest. An outgoing forager decides to leave the nest on its next trip using simple olfactory interactions: antennal contact with returning foragers bringing in food (77-79). During antennal contact, the outgoing forager assesses the task-specific cuticular hydrocarbon profile of the returning forager as well as the odor of the food the returning forager is carrying (80-82). A forager's decision whether to leave the nest depends on the rate of encounter with returning foragers, which relies on excitable dynamics analogous to leaky integration by neurons (83). The rate of forager return, and thus the rate of encounter with returning foragers, provides positive feedback from food availability, because higher food availability leads foragers to find food faster (84), resulting in a higher rate of forager return.

A forager's decision whether to leave the nest to search for food also depends on the humidity the forager experienced on its last trip (85). In humid conditions, foraging tends to be high in all colonies (86). In dry conditions, colonies differ in forager decisions about whether to leave the nest on the next trip (87). Colonies show characteristic, consistent behavior across a gradient (86). At one extreme are the Risk Averse (RA) colonies, with foragers unlikely to leave the nest on the next trip in hot, dry conditions. These colonies sacrifice food intake to conserve water. At the other extreme are the Risk Tolerant (RT) colonies, where foragers continue to leave the nest on the next trip in hot, dry conditions.

Colony differences in risk aversion of foragers persist from year to year. In this long-lived species, the queen or reproductive female in the colony produces all the workers and reproductives over her 20-30-year lifetime while the workers live only a year (88). Within a colony, the foragers show similar responses to current humidity, sharing the threshold low humidity at which they will not leave the nest (89). These results, showing consistent behavior in successive cohorts of workers of a particular colony, indicate that forager decisions about the risk of low humidity are associated with heritable traits passed down from the queen and her mates. Heritable variation among colonies can be shaped by natural selection. Early in the current drought, natural selection was favoring the RA colonies that conserve water (87), but this may change as the drought intensifies and the food supply declines (75).

Previous work indicates that DA may play a role in foraging decisions about the risk of water loss. First, transcriptomic analysis shows that the expression of genes related to DA metabolism is lower in RA colonies, which tend to reduce foraging in dry conditions (90). Second, pharmacological experiments demonstrate that ants fed with DA were more likely to increase their foraging trips, and the effect was most pronounced in RA colonies (74). These results suggest that DA can override risk aversion (Figure 1). Current research is investigating whether DA is lower in RA colonies, asking how DANs differ in the brains of foragers from RA and RT colonies, and how DA levels are influenced by current humidity conditions.

# 5 Neuroanatomy of dopaminergic neurons in relation to risk

One of the challenges in investigating the role of DA in riskrelated decisions in social insects is that it is difficult to manipulate gene expression because many species do not reproduce in the lab. Other tools for mapping the anatomy and function of specific neurons in ants, such as immunohistochemistry, make it possible to



#### FIGURE 1

A harvester ant forager decides whether to leave the nest on another foraging trip by using its rate of antennal contact with returning foragers with food. During antennal contact, the forager assesses the odor of the cuticular hydrocarbons of the other ant, and the odor of the food it is carrying. Foragers lose water to evaporation when outside the nest. Dry conditions and desiccation experienced on previous foraging trips inhibit the decision to leave on another foraging trip. Dopamine (DA) overrides the forager's assessment of the risk due to dry conditions.

compare the DA circuits in *D. melanogaster*, where genetic techniques are well-developed, with those in honey bees and ants.

Mapping of DAN populations in the Drosophila brain reveals DA circuits that modulate learning in response to reward or punishment (Figure 2A). The Drosophila brain contains 130-140 DANs distributed across 13 distinct clusters in each hemisphere (91-93). Heterogeneous populations of DANs work together to influence risk-based decisions (94, 95). DAN clusters in the anterior medial part of the brain (PAM), which project to the MB, are required for reward learning (96-98) and resolving conflict between aversive and rewarding stimuli (45, 99, 100). Short-term memory formation associated with aversive and reward-seeking behavior is mediated by PAM DANs through MB compartments  $\beta$ '2 and  $\gamma$ 4, while the signals necessary for long-term memory formation regarding reward, such as the nutritional value of sugar, are relayed by DANs projecting to MB compartments  $\gamma 5$ ,  $\beta 1$ ,  $\beta 2$ ,  $\alpha 1$ , and y1pedc (97, 101-105). Certain clusters within the MB are critical for promoting food search efforts in response to food odor, while inactivation of specific DAN subsets within the protocerebral posterior lateral (PPL) region, clusters PPL1 and PPL2, significantly impair odor-tracking behavior (97). A particular group of DANs in one of the protocerebral posterior medial (PPM) clusters (PPM2), is connected to wedge neurons in the central complex and influences state-dependent decisions to consume protein-rich food (106), while the PPM3 cluster is responsible for food-seeking in fed flies (42).

MB DANs control temperature preference and mediate avoidance responses to both low and high temperatures (107, 108). Gene expression related to DA synthesis and release is regulated in MB DAN clusters in response to temperature (109). DAN clusters in the MB (PPL1- $\alpha$ 3/ $\alpha$ '3, PPL1- $\alpha$ 2 $\alpha$ '2, PPL1- $\gamma$ 2 $\alpha$ '1, and PPL1- $\gamma$ 1pedc) respond when the temperature is lower than the optimum (110), and the MB clusters PAM- $\beta$ '2 and PAM- $\beta$ 2 are also involved in avoiding low temperatures (111).

DAN clusters identified in honey bee brains have shown patterns similar to those in *Drosophila*. Several clusters in the MB have been identified as homologous to those in *Drosophila* that support foraging decisions and sense environmental signals (Figure 2B). In honey bees, the C1 and C2 clusters may be homologous to the *Drosophila* PAM cluster, used in foraging (112). Neurons in the C3 cluster may be the homologues of PPL1, PPL2 and PPM3, which are important for odortracking (112).

In ants, DAN clusters have dendritic and axonal projections in most regions of the brain (Figure 2C). For example, in the brains of Indian jumping ants, *Harpegnathos saltator*, there are clusters in the MB and antennal lobes, the primary olfactory processing regions, with scattered cell bodies in the optic lobe, the primary visual processing region, and the subesophageal zone, a region involved in feeding behavior and learning (113). However, it is not yet known whether any of these neurons are homologous to the DANs in *Drosophila*.

## 6 DA receptors

DA receptors are similar in vertebrates and insects. In vertebrates, there are two classes of DA G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs): D1 and D2. The D1 class, which includes two types of DA receptors, D1 and D5, increases intracellular cAMP levels, leading to excitatory actions in the brain that facilitate neurotransmitter release and trigger behavioral responses (114). The receptors in the D1 class are involved in memory, attention, motivation, and movement (115). In contrast, the D2 class, which includes the other three types, D2, D3, and D4, mediates the reduction of cAMP, often resulting in inhibitory effects that modulate neurotransmitter release (116). D2 class receptors are involved in mood and motor regulation (117). D1, D2, and D3 types are the most abundant receptors in the central nervous system (18).

Both D1 and D2 type receptors are important for making foraging decisions in rats (33). After treatment with a D1 or D2 antagonist, rats showed a greater tendency to choose a smaller but



#### FIGURE 2

Main dopaminergic clusters mapped in (A) the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster*, (B) the honey bee *Apis mellifera*, and (C) the Indian jumping ant *Harpegnathos saltator*. Only one hemisphere of the brain is labeled. Expected homologous clusters are shown in the same color across species in (A, B). Clusters are indicated with black letters and arrows, while functionally distinct brain regions are labeled in grey. In (C), a confocal micrograph shows dopamine immunoreactivity in green, with brain regions visualized using propidium iodide-labeled nuclei in magenta. MB, Mushroom body; CC, central complex; AL, antennal lobe; OL, optic lobe and SEZ, subesophageal zone. Scale bars: 200 µm (A, B); 500 µm (C). Source: (A, B) adapted from Tedjakumala et al. (112), published under CC BY 4.0; (C) adapted with permission from Hoyer et al. (113), © 2005 Elsevier Ltd.

certain reward. Conversely, administration of a DA agonist increased the likelihood of selecting a large but risky reward option and mitigated the effects of both antagonists. Treatment with a D3 receptor antagonist did not significantly affect choice behavior.

Drosophila have four types of DA receptors, which are widely expressed in the brain. These receptors include Dop1R1 and Dop1R2, both of which are homologous to vertebrate D1 class receptors and are implicated in motivation-related behavior such as arousal, drug reward, and learning and memory (42, 118, 119). Activation of Dop1R1 in the MB increases the activity of MB output neurons and encodes long-term memory (120). Mechanistic studies on aversive memory suggest that as DA levels decline over time, Dop1R2 acts within the same neurons as Dop1R1 to facilitate forgetting (121). Additionally, Dop1R2 receptor signaling in  $\alpha/\beta$ Kenyon cells (KCs) has been implicated in modulating motivated search behavior (46). Dop2R, analogous to vertebrate D2 class receptors, seems to play an opposing role to D1-like receptors (42). Dop2R activation in GABAergic anterior paired lateral (APL) neurons, which innervate the MB, plays a critical role in aversive conditioning by restraining GABAergic inhibition (122). The fourth receptor, DopEcR, is unique to D. melanogaster. When activated by DA it leads to neuronal excitation (123), though its role in foraging and reward-seeking behavior is not yet understood.

As in *Drosophila*, honey bees have both the D1 class-like and D2 class-like receptors (124): AmDop1 and AmDop2 (125) are homologues of DopR1 and DopR2 in *Drosophila*. AmDop2 regulates worker movement (126), but it is not known whether these DA receptors regulate foraging or reward learning behavior. AmDop3, a homolog of Dop2R and D2 class receptors in vertebrates, has been confirmed to be a third DA receptor in honey bee because its expression pattern in the honey bee brain is different from that of either Amdop1or Amdop2 (127).

In ants, no DA receptors have been identified or categorized yet. However, DA receptor antagonists, such as flupentixol, a general D1- and D2-like receptor antagonist (128), have been used to study the function of DA in foraging preferences. *Lasius niger* workers treated with flupentixol initially learned an odor linked to a reward but failed to retrieve this memory 24 hours later (73). This suggests that DA in ants acts on similar DA receptors as in other insects and is essential for long-term memory in ants.

To date, no mapping of DANs or DA receptors has been conducted in harvester ant brains. Future research will focus on identifying the types and distribution of DA receptors in ants and mapping their dopaminergic circuitry. By comparing these findings with existing data from *Drosophila* and honey bees, we can gain valuable insight into the evolutionary conservation and functional roles of DA in regulating foraging decisions in social insects. Understanding how dopaminergic pathways influence foraging behavior in ants will provide a broader perspective on the neuromodulatory mechanisms underlying collective decisionmaking in eusocial species.

# 7 Conclusions

DA plays a crucial role in risk-based decision-making across diverse animal species and influences individual decisions that lead to the collective regulation of foraging activity in social insect colonies. Research in vertebrates and *Drosophila* has revealed well-defined dopaminergic circuits that regulate reward perception, motivation, and risk assessment.

Integrating pharmacological manipulations and behavioral analyses with neuroanatomical comparisons of dopaminergic cell expression and receptor distributions across *Drosophila*, honey bees, and ants will show whether neural pathways involved in decision-making are evolutionarily conserved. This can elucidate the mechanisms of decision-making in collective behavior, and predict the possibilities for the adaptation of social organisms to changing environmental conditions.

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