

# The role of dopamine in learning about effort

Hewitt SRC<sup>1,2</sup>, Habicht J<sup>1,2</sup>, Majewski S<sup>1,2</sup>, Moutoussis M<sup>1,2</sup>, Nour MN<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Dolan RJ<sup>1,2</sup>, Hauser, T.U<sup>1,2,4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Max Planck UCL Centre for Computational Psychiatry and Ageing Research, University College London, London, UK

<sup>2</sup>Wellcome Centre for Human Neuroimaging, University College London, London, UK

<sup>3</sup>Department of Psychiatry, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

<sup>4</sup>Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Medical School and University Hospital, Eberhard Karls University of Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany

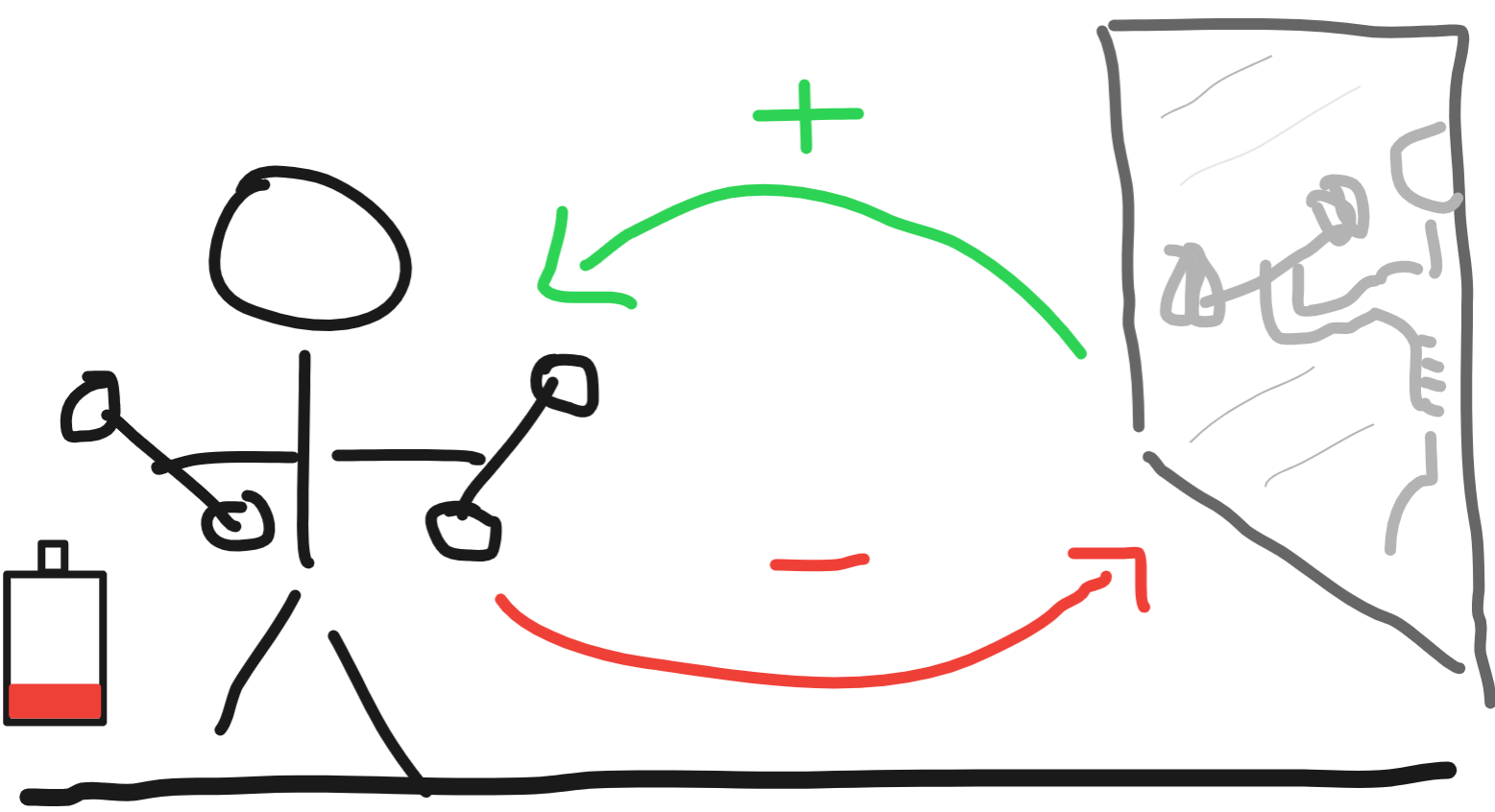


## L-dopa increased effort after failure (not reward)

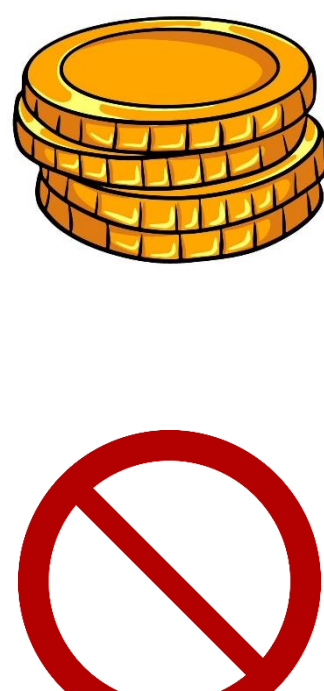
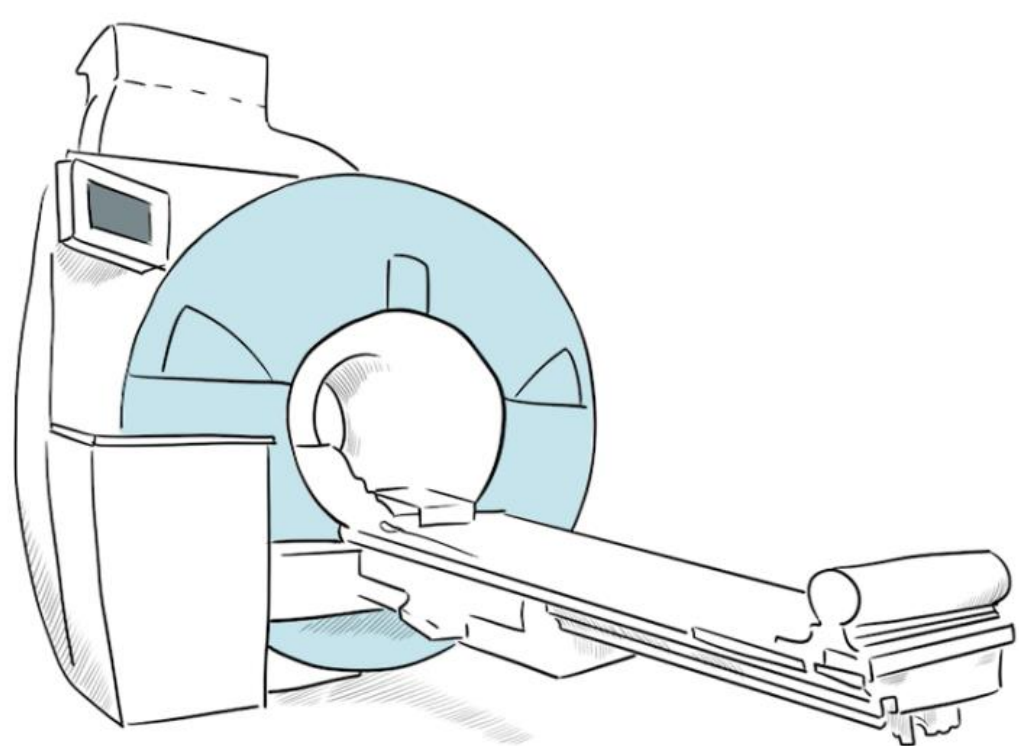
Effort (like rewards) must be learned

Double-blind placebo-controlled fMRI study of effort learning

L-dopa invigorated response after failure

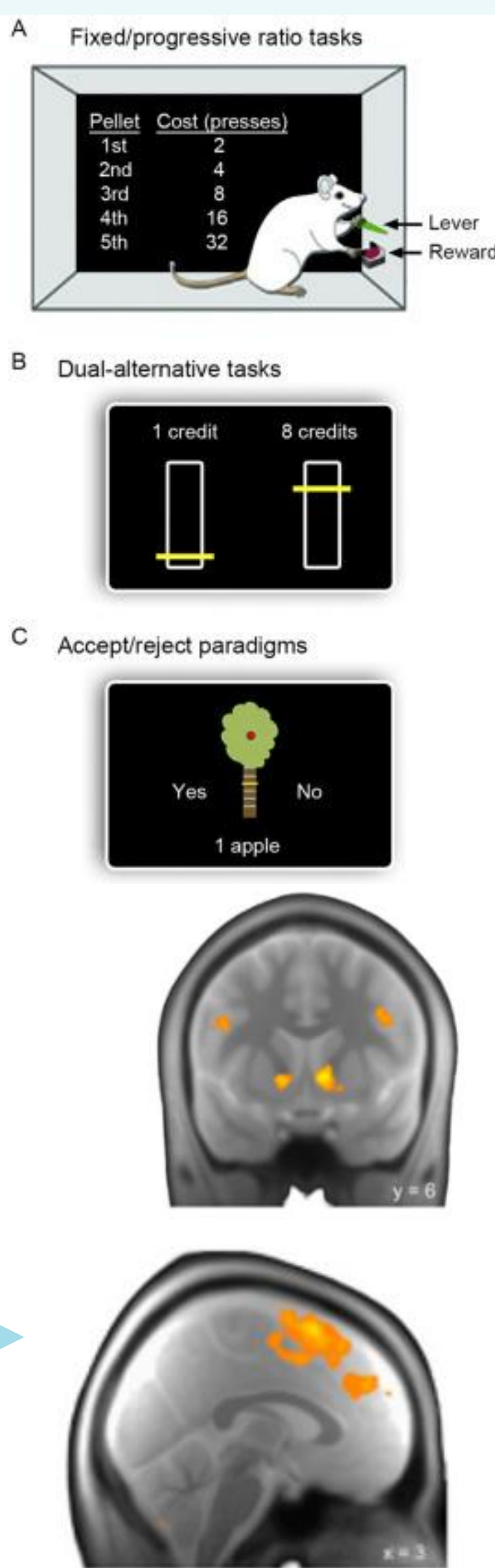


"Gosh, this was a breeze"



## Background

- Dopamine enhances willingness to exert effort for reward (Chong et al., 2015; Bogdanov et al., 2022) and response vigour (Niv et al., 2007; Zenon et al., 2016)
- Tetrabenazine (VMAT2 inhibitor) depletes dopamine, causes fatigue/apathy in humans (Frank, 2009) and reduces work for reward in animals (Salamone, *unpublished*)
- Reward learning is implemented with prediction-error signals which are encoded by dopaminergic neurons (Glimcher, 2011)
- Previous work (with this task) found dissociable mesolimbic and mesocortical learning (PE) signals during reward-effort learning which strongly implicates dopamine (Hauser et al., 2017)
- How does increased dopamine transmission (L-dopa) impact human learning about effort?



## Behavioural results

No effect of L-dopa on mean effort exertion  $t(58) = -0.61, p = 0.54$  (Fig. 4 & 5).

Fig 4. Groups matched for overall performance (effort, success and reward).

### Linear mixed effects model:

$$\text{Effort}(t) \sim \text{effort}(t-1) * \text{drug} + \text{reward}(t-1) * \text{drug} + \text{failure}(t-1) * \text{drug} + (1 | \text{subject})$$

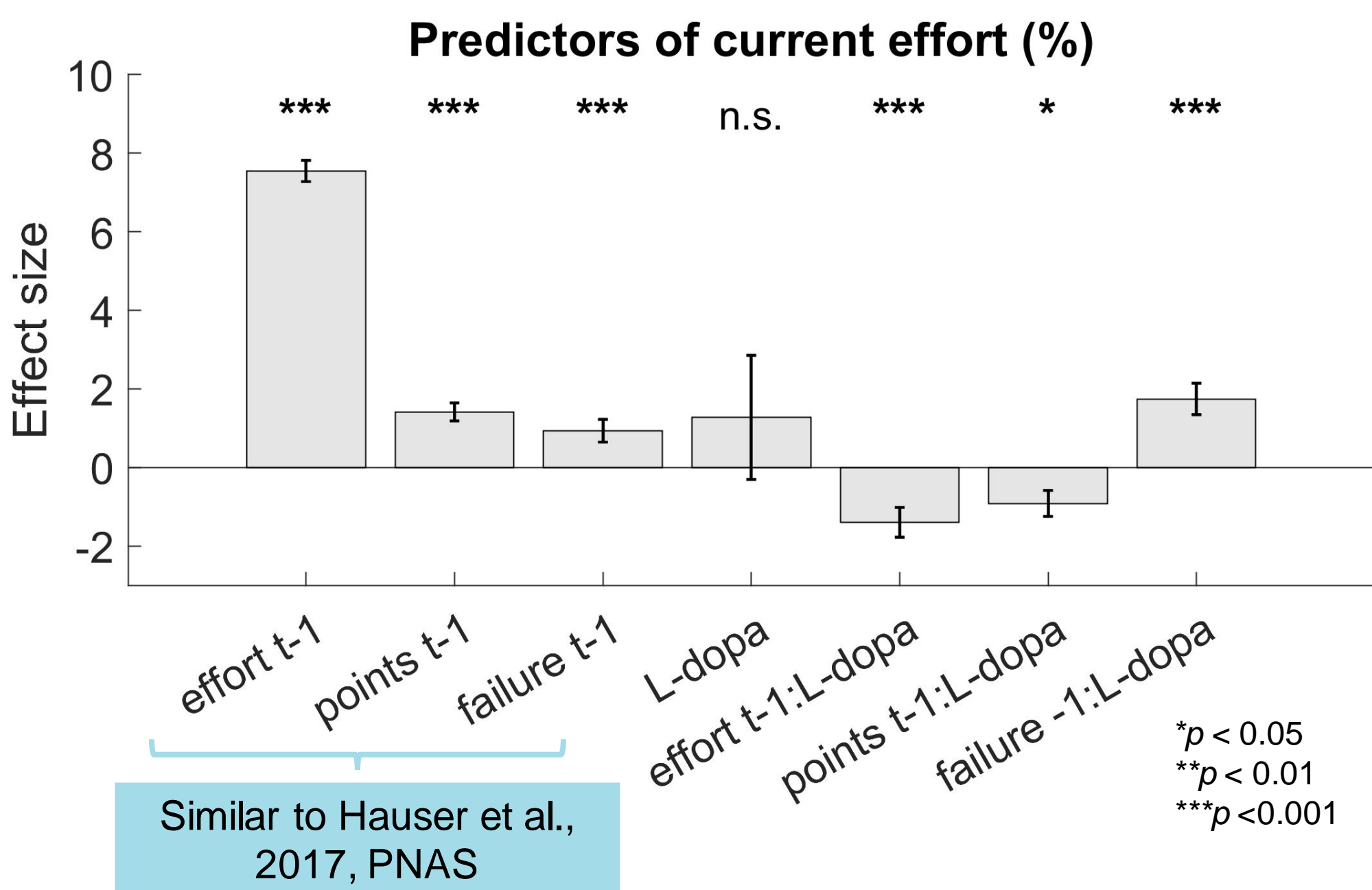


Fig 5. Effort on a given trial was predicted by previous effort, previous points (reward) and previous failure (for that stimulus).

L-dopa **increased** the impact of **failure** and **decreased** the impact of **reward**

## Methods

- 60 healthy men included (mean age:  $25.6 \pm 0.88$ )
- Double-blind placebo-controlled between-subjects study
- Task-based fMRI and structural imaging (not included here)
- Bespoke reward-effort learning task (Hauser et al., 2017, PNAS)

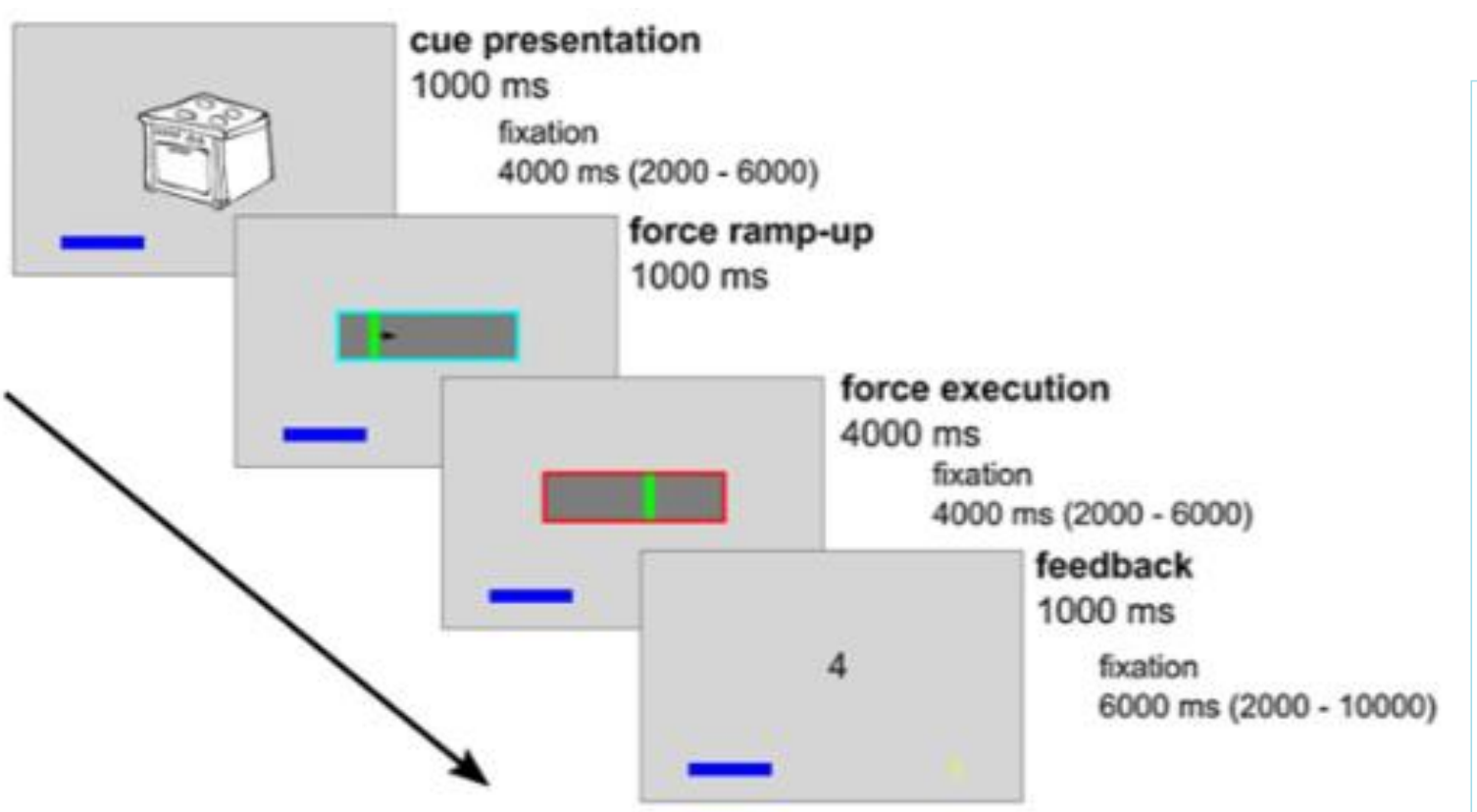


Fig 1. Participants learn fluctuating reward and effort contingencies by exerting effort and receiving feedback.

- 4 blocks of 40 trials
- 2 stimuli with fluctuating reward and effort
- Effort calibrated to participant maximum voluntary contraction during practice (and updated after blocks)
- reward and effort decorrelated (mean  $\rho = 0.01, p = 0.55$ )

Successful blinding: medication guesses not better than chance ( $\chi^2 = 1.67, p = 0.24$ )

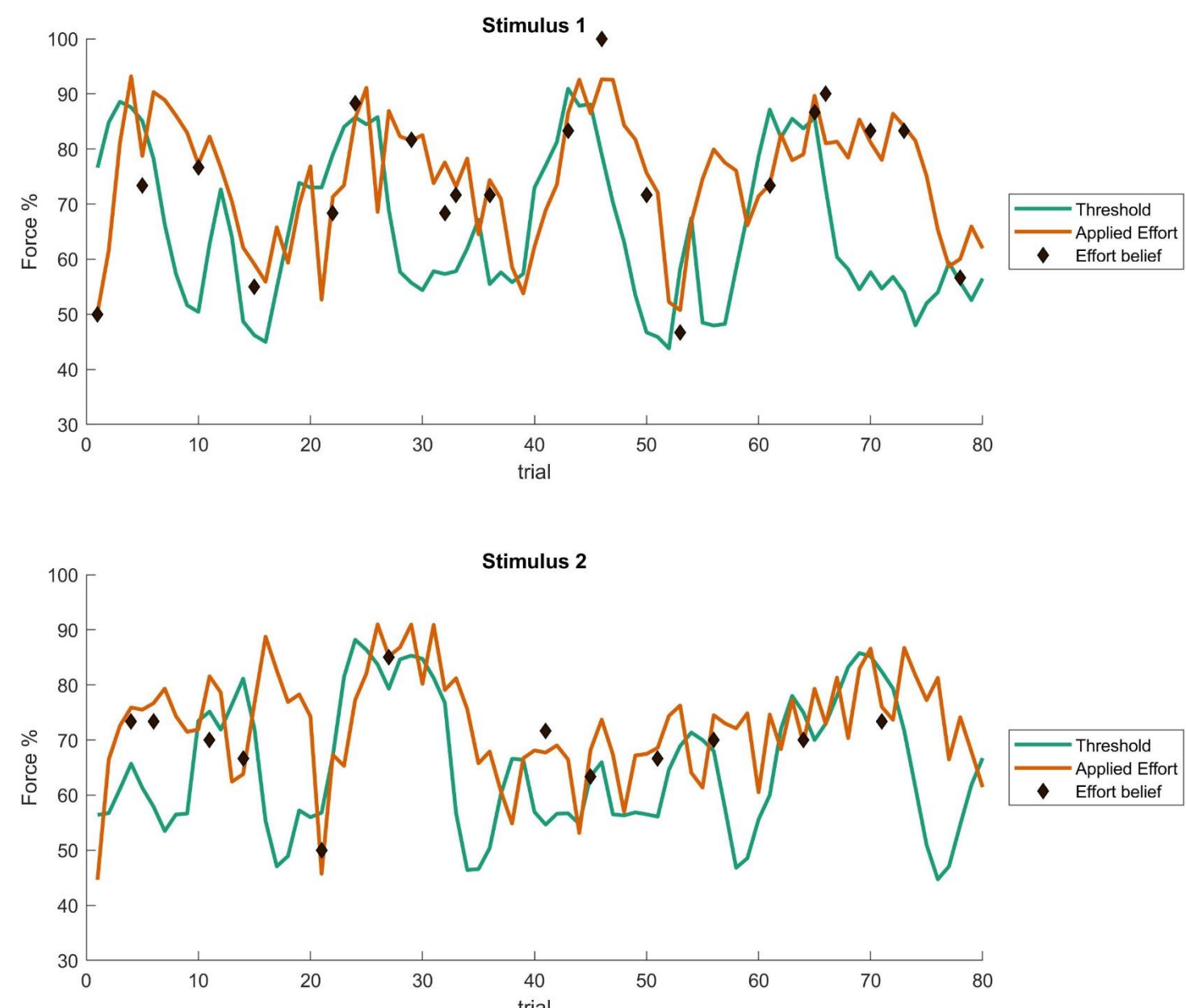


Fig 2. Example participant attempting to approximate force (orange) minimally greater than the required threshold (green).

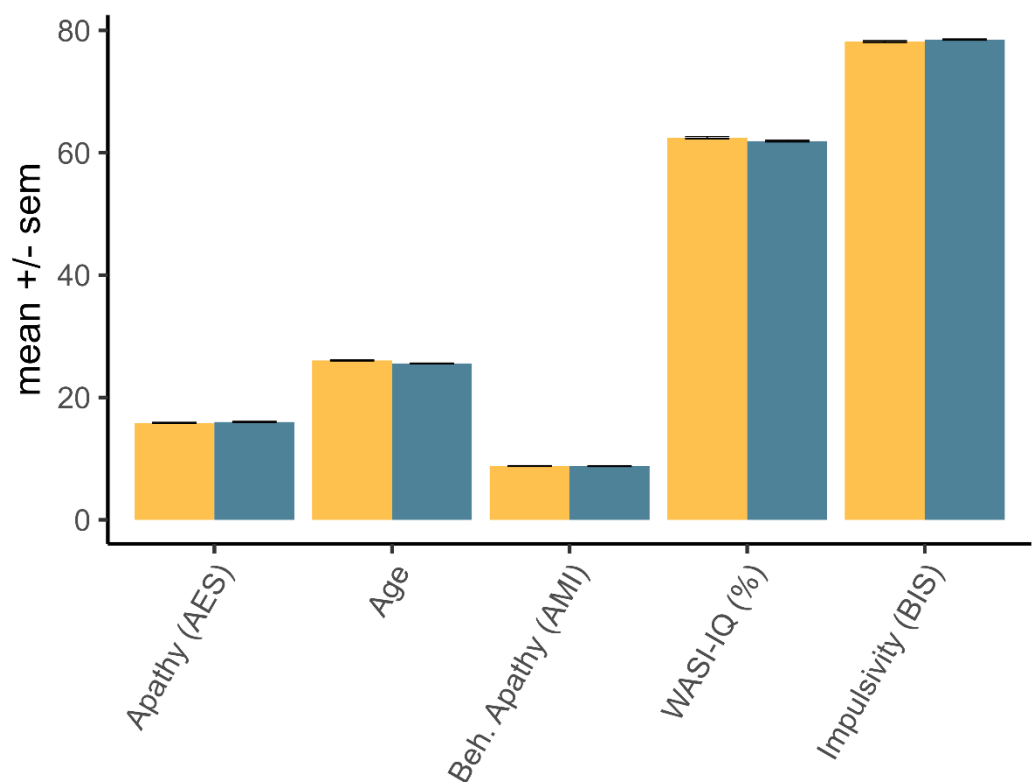


Fig 3. Groups matched for age, IQ and trait psychopathology.

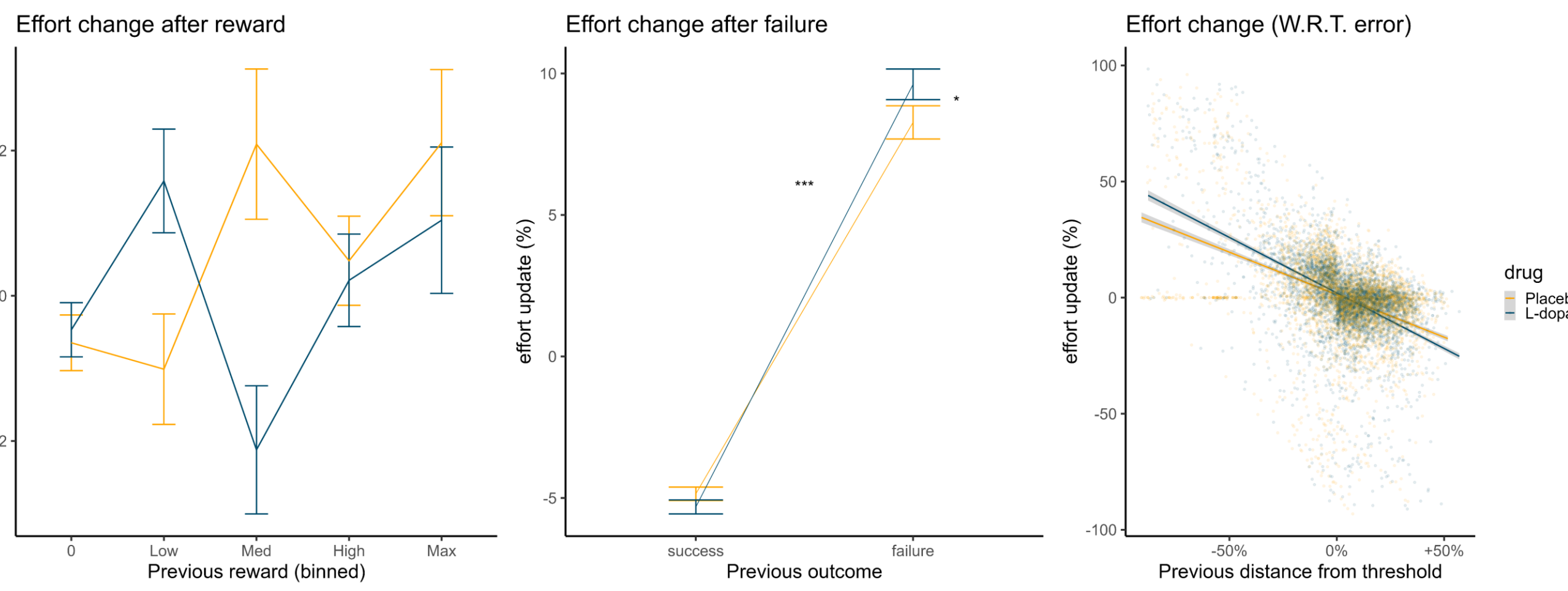


Fig 6. Effort change (mean  $\pm$  SEM) after feedback and change relative to distance from required effort (threshold)

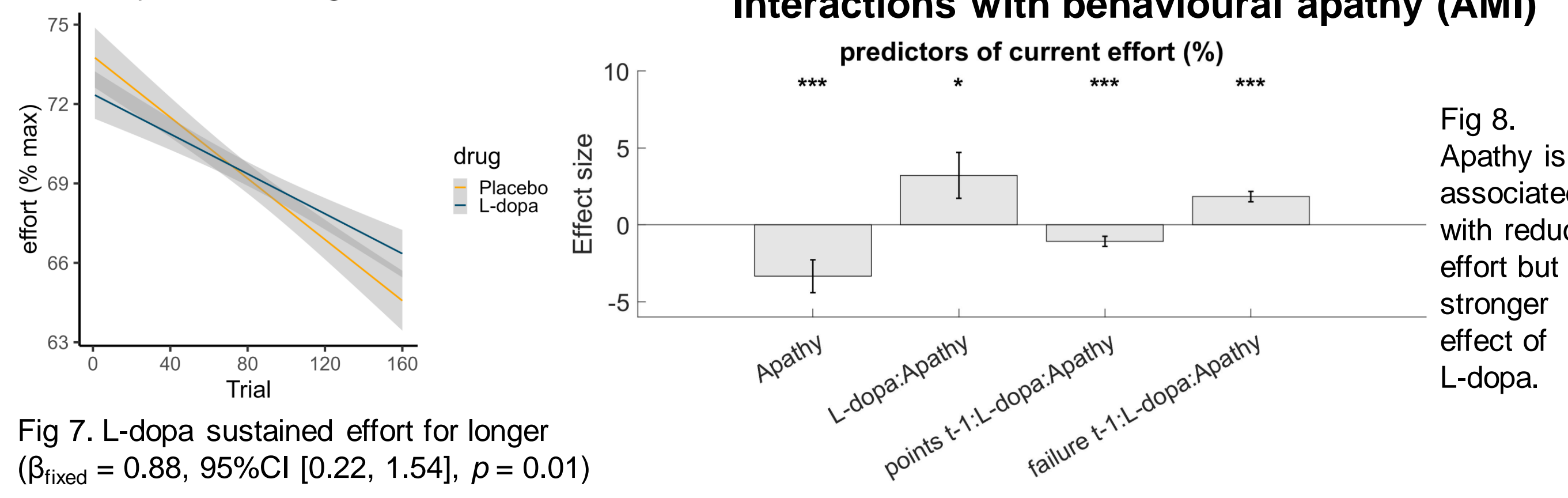


Fig 7. L-dopa sustained effort for longer ( $\beta_{\text{fixed}} = 0.88, 95\% \text{CI} [0.22, 1.54], p = 0.01$ )

Fig 8. Apathy is associated with reduced effort but a stronger effect of L-dopa.

## Next

- Learning model fitting and selection
- fMRI analysis with parametric modulation by learning parameters
- Model derived reward and effort-learning PEs underlined by similar or distinct circuitry? How does L-dopa modulate?

