Sexual Failure Decreases Sweet Taste Perception in Male *Drosophila* via Dopaminergic Signaling

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Abstract

Sweet taste perception, a critical aspect of the initiation of feeding behavior, is primarily regulated by an animal's internal metabolic state. However, non-metabolic factors, such as motivational and emotional states, can also influence peripheral sensory processing and hence feeding behavior. While mating experience is known to induce motivational and emotional changes, its broader impact on other innate behaviors, such as feeding, remains largely uncharacterized. In this study, we demonstrated that mating failure of male fruit flies suppressed sweet taste perception via dopamine signaling in specific neural circuitry. Upon repetitive failure in courtship, male flies exhibited a sustained yet reversible decline of sweet taste perception, as measured by the proboscis extension reflex (PER) towards sweet tastants as well as the neuronal activity of sweet-sensing $Gr5a^+$ neurons in the proboscis. Mechanistically, we identified a small group of dopaminergic neurons projecting to the subesophageal zone (SEZ) and innervating with $Gr5a^+$ neurons as the key modulator. Repetitive sexual failure decreased the activity of these dopaminergic neurons and in turn suppressed $Gr5a^+$ neurons via Dop1R1 and Dop2R receptors. Our findings revealed a critical role for dopaminergic signaling in integrating reproductive experience with appetitive sensory processing, providing new insights into the complex interactions between different innate behaviors and the role of brain's reward systems in regulating internal motivational and emotional states.

Introduction

As an innate behavior, feeding is essential for the survival and reproduction of all animal species, regulated by a dynamic interplay of internal and external factors such as nutritional status, circadian rhythms, food quality, and emotional states (Atasoy et al., 2012; Hergarden et al., 2012; Lim et al., 2012; Morton et al., 2006; Park et al., 2016; Shiu et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2008; Yapici et al., 2016; Zhan et al., 2016). Beyond nutritive value, palatable food also serves as a powerful reward signal that regulates feeding behavior by influencing various aspects of learning, memory, and motivation (Dayan & Balleine, 2002; Wise, 2004). The function of dopamine system, a key regulator in reward processing, is evolutionarily conserved across species. Studies in both fruit flies and rodents demonstrate that the consumption of sugar or other highly appealing foods triggers a robust dopamine response. The neural substrates of these responses, such as the mushroom bodies in fruit flies and the ventral tegmental area in rodents, underscore the universality of this reward circuit (Burke et al., 2012; Heymann et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2012; Takahashi et al., 2016; Yokel & Wise, 1975).

Mating behavior, as another critical driver of the survival and reproduction of animal species, is also influenced by external stimuli and internal states (Clowney et al., 2015; Kallman et al., 2015; Kohatsu et al., 2011). Failure in mating behavior leads to various behavioral adaptations and even abnormalities. For example, male fruit flies exhibit courtship conditioning, where unsuccessful mating attempts reduce

subsequent courtship toward inappropriate mates, demonstrating behavioral plasticity

aimed at enhancing future reproductive success (Keleman et al., 2012). Meanwhile,

the effect of mating failure extends beyond reproductive behavior. It has been shown

that mating failure increases alcohol consumption in fruit flies (Shohat-Ophir et al.,

2012), a behavior that mirrors reward-seeking tendencies such as substance abuse

seen in higher organisms under stress. Recent studies also demonstrate that

mating-related sensory cues can recalibrate female odor-driven preferences through a

dopamine-gated learning circuit in the mushroom body (Boehm et al., 2022). In males,

dopamine dynamically adjusts the temporal integration window of copulation

decision neurons to regulate mating persistence (Gautham et al., 2024). Additionally,

mating itself has a rewarding nature. In male flies, approaching copulation activates

dopaminergic neurons that suppress visual threat responses, suggesting that the

reward system can override aversive cues to promote mating behavior (Cazale-Debat

et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2016). In male mice, after interaction with females,

chemical signals are detected by the accessory olfactory bulb and transmitted to

neural circuits that regulate mating behavior (Decoster et al., 2024). These signals are

then projected to the ventral tegmental area, where serotonin neurons play a crucial

role in encoding both reward acquisition and anticipation (Hashikawa et al., 2016).

Given the established impact of mating experience on behavioral plasticity, we aimed

to investigate whether it also affected reward perception and processing in fruit flies.

Specifically, we examined how courtship failure influenced sweet sensitivity and

feeding behavior, both of which were tightly linked to reward. In our study, we found

that sexual failure led to decreased sweet sensitivity and feeding behavior in male

fruit flies, highlighting a close link between two important innate behaviors.

Furthermore, we identified a small group of dopaminergic neurons that projected to

the SEZ of the fly brain, modulating the activity of sweet-sensing gustatory neurons in

a manner dependent on sexual experience. These dopaminergic neurons were

functionally epistatic to sweet-sensing neurons and promoted behavioral responses to

appetitive cues, but their activity decreased following courtship failure. As a result,

the activity of Gr5a$^+$ neurons in the proboscis was reduced via signaling through

Dop1R1 and Dop2R receptors, leading to reduced sweet sensitivity. These findings

suggest that courtship failure inhibits the dopamine-mediated reward system in the

brain, directly influencing sweet perception and feeding behavior. This provides key

insights into how reproductive stressors, such as mating failure, can affect broader

behavioral output, expanding our understanding of the complex interplay between

instinctive drives.

Results

Courtship failure reduced sweet sensitivity in male flies.

To investigate whether mating experience influenced feeding behavior in *Drosophila melanogaster*, we employed a modified courtship conditioning paradigm (McBride et al., 1999; Shohat-Ophir et al., 2012) (Figure 1A) and examined three groups of males with different mating experiences *in prior*. In *Drosophila*, mated females typically refuse further copulation, leading males exposed to mated females to experience repeated sexual rejection. In contrast, males paired with multiple virgin females could engage in multiple rounds of successful copulations. In our experiments, virgin males were isolated from females for 4 days, after which they were divided into three groups on the 5th day: the Naïve group (continued isolation for 4.5 hours), the Failed group (each male exposed to 25 mated females for 4.5 hours), and the Satisfied group (each male exposed to 25 virgin females for 4.5 hours). Following the treatment, we measured sucrose intake using the MAFE (MAual FEeding) assay we developed previously (Qi et al., 2015). Despite the fact that the amount of sucrose consumed by individual flies was similar across different groups (Figure 1-figure supplement 1A), the proportion of males ever consuming any sucrose was significantly lower in the Failed group (Figure 1B), suggesting a reduced likelihood of meal initiation among these males. Notably, mating failure also compromised the flies' ability to withstand starvation, as Failed males died significantly faster under food deprivation (Figure 1-figure supplement 1B).

Since taste perception is closely linked to the initiation of feeding behavior, we next examined whether sexual experience affected sweet sensitivity using the PER assay. This well-established method quantified the tendency to initiate feeding behavior towards different gustatory stimuli (Scott, 2005, 2018). While three groups of male flies all exhibited dose-dependent responses to varying sucrose concentrations, males in the Failed group demonstrated a rightward shift of the concentration-response curve, indicating significantly reduced sweet sensitivity (Figure 1C and Figure 1-figure supplement 1C). Consistently, the Mean Acceptance Threshold (MAT), the sucrose concentration at which 50% of the population displayed a PER response, was significantly elevated in the Failed group (Figure 1C and Figure 1-figure supplement 1C right). Furthermore, we found that diminished sweet sensitivity extended to other sweet compounds such as fructose and glucose (Figure 1-figure supplement 1D-E), indicating a general reduction in sweet sensitivity and an overall elevation in the threshold to initiate feeding upon appetitive cues.

To determine the time course of this effect, we monitored PER responses in male flies at 24, 48, and 72 hours post-treatment. Sweet sensitivity remained suppressed for up to 48 hours in Failed males but returned to baseline levels by 72 hours (Figure 1D). To explore the mechanisms underlying this lasting change, we examined whether it could be attributed to the exposure to cis-vaccenyl acetate (cVA), a pheromone present on

the cuticle of mated females but absent from virgin females (Ejima et al., 2007).

Conditioning males with either mated females or decapitated virgin females produced

similar reductions in sweet sensitivity (Figure 1E), suggesting that cVA is not

essential for this behavioral effect. We then tested whether the reduced sweet

sensitivity was a result of failed copulation. Failed males were then divided into two

groups for additional treatments: one group remained untreated, while the other was

allowed to copulate with virgin females. We found that the reduction in sweet

sensitivity caused by sexual failure could be reversed through subsequent successful

copulation. Such males showed significantly increased sugar sensitivity compared to

those that did not have a chance to copulate at all (Figure 1F). In contrast, when

previously mated flies experienced courtship failure, their sweet sensitivity was also

significantly decreased, indicating that prior successful mating did not prevent the

alteration in sweet sensitivity induced by subsequent courtship failure (Figure 1-figure

supplement 1F). Overall, our findings reveal that sexual failure exerted a long-lasting

yet reversible effect to reduce sweet sensitivity in male flies.

Dopamine signaling mediated the suppression of sweet sensitivity

following sexual failure.

The long-lasting and reversible effect of sexual failure hinted certain changes in flies'

internal motivational state. Dopamine was reported to regulate PER behavior in a

metabolic state-dependent manner (Inagaki et al., 2012; Marella et al., 2012). We thus

hypothesized that dopamine might also play a key role in the taste plasticity triggered

by sexual failure. To test this, we first used a pharmacological approach to reduce

dopamine signaling in male flies by feeding them 3-iodotyrosine (3IY), a tyrosine

hydroxylase-specific inhibitor that blocked dopamine synthesis (Inagaki et al., 2012)

and then measured their PER responses. Flies treated with 3IY showed comparable

sweet responses across all three experimental groups, with an overall reduction in

sweet sensitivity compared to the control group, effectively abolishing the changes

induced by sexual failure (Figure 2A). To further confirm the necessity of dopamine

in modulating sexual experience-dependent sweet sensitivity, we employed a genetic

approach by using $Th^{-/-}$ mutant flies, in which tyrosine hydroxylase, the rate-limiting

enzyme in dopamine synthesis, was eliminated (Deng et al., 2019; Friggi-Grelin et al.,

2003; Marella et al., 2012). As expected, $Th^{-/-}$ mutant flies in the Failed group

exhibited sweet sensitivity indistinguishable from those in the Naïve and Satisfied

groups (Figure 2 -figure supplement 1A).

Next, we investigated whether elevating dopamine levels could restore diminished

sweet sensitivity in males from the Failed group. We first tested the effect of

exogenous dopamine on sweet sensitivity by injecting dopamine into the base of the

flies' proboscis. Consistent with previous findings (Inagaki et al., 2012; Marella et al.,

2012), increasing dopamine levels enhanced sweet sensitivity (Figure 2 -figure

supplement 1B). We then measured PER behavior in Naïve, Failed, and Satisfied flies

injected with either dopamine or ddH$_2$O (control). While ddH$_2$O-treated males from

the Failed group displayed reduced sweet sensitivity compared to Naïve and Satisfied

males, dopamine-treated Failed flies did not show such reduction (Figure 2B), further

suggesting that dopamine signaling is necessary for sexual failure to suppress sweet

sensitivity.

Besides dopamine, serotonin, another important biogenic amine, has been reported to

modulate motivational states and influence feeding behavior (Owald & Waddell, 2015;

Ries et al., 2017; Srinivasan et al., 2008). Therefore, we examined whether serotonin

also played a role in the sexual experience-dependent changes in sweet sensitivity.

Feeding male flies with DL-p-chlorophenylalanine (pCPA) or methysergide, both

blocking serotonin signaling (Engelman et al., 1967; McCorvy et al., 2018) , did not

affect the reduction in sweet sensitivity upon sexual failure (Figure 2 -figure

supplement 1C-D).

To further validate the involvement of dopamine signaling in sexual failure-induced

behavioral changes, we used *TH-Gal4* to drive *UAS-dTRPA1* or *UAS-Shibire^{ts}* (*Shi^{ts}*)

to transiently activate or inhibit dopaminergic neurons, respectively (Deng et al.,

2019). Activation of dopaminergic neurons through the temperature-sensitive cation

channel dTRPA1 (Pulver et al., 2009) increased sugar sensitivity in all male flies and

eliminated differences among groups with different sexual experiences. Meanwhile,

control genotypes expressing only *TH-Gal4* or *UAS-dTRPA1* still showed

significantly reduced sugar sensitivity in the Failed group (Figure 2C). Additionally,

males from the Failed group showed decreased sweet sensitivity across all genotypes

at the permissive temperature (20 °C) (Figure 2 -figure supplement 1E). In contrast,

blocking dopaminergic neurons via the temperature-sensitive dominant-negative

Dynamin *Shibire*[ts] (*Shi*[ts]) (Kitamoto, 2001) decreased sugar sensitivity across all three

groups and also completely suppressed the differences among groups (Figure 2D). In

comparison, in the two control genotypes and under permissive temperature (20 °C),

sexual failure could still suppress sweet sensitivity (Figure 2D, Figure 2 -figure

supplement 1F). These findings demonstrate that reduced sweet sensitivity in sexually

failed males is mediated by dopaminergic neurons.

Dopamine signaling directly modulated the activity of Gr5a^{+} gustatory

neurons upon sexual failure.

We next asked how dopamine signaling modulated taste sensitivity. Gustatory

receptor neurons (GRNs) respond to specific taste stimuli, with Gr5a^{+} neurons, which

express sweet taste receptors, playing a key role in sweet perception (Dahanukar et al.,

2007; Thorne et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2004). We hypothesized that behavioral

changes following sexual failure might be linked to altered activities of sweet-sensing

GRNs. To test this, we expressed calcium indicator GCaMP6m (Chen et al., 2013) in

Gr5a^{+} neurons and conducted *in vivo* calcium imaging. Gr5a^{+} neurons project to SEZ

in the fly brain, where we recorded calcium signals in response to sucrose stimulation.

Sexual failure significantly reduced the responsiveness of Gr5a$^+$ neurons to sucrose,

consistent with our behavioral observations (Figure 3A-D).

Given that dopamine signaling has been shown to modulate sweet sensitivity (Inagaki

et al., 2012; Marella et al., 2012), it was plausible that dopamine signaling directly

modulated the activity of Gr5a$^+$ neurons upon sexual failure. We thus examined

projection patterns of dopaminergic neurons relative to those of Gr5a$^+$ neurons. Using

TH-Gal4 and *Gr5a-LexA*, we expressed *UAS-mCD8GFP* and *LexAop-rCD2RFP* in

the same fly brains, respectively. The brain imaging data revealed that dopaminergic

projections were closely aligned with Gr5a$^+$ GRNs in the SEZ (Figure 3-figure

supplement 1A), suggesting possible synaptic connections of Gr5a$^+$ neurons and

dopaminergic neurons.

We confirmed this idea using enhanced trans-synaptic reconstruction (nSyb-GRASP)

(Feinberg et al., 2008; Gordon & Scott, 2009; Macpherson et al., 2015), which could

visualize direct and active synaptic innervations between two groups of neurons. The

nSyb-GRASP system relies on the expression of two split-GFP fragments on

membranes of two neuronal populations, which fluoresce only upon the reassembly of

these two fragments at active synapses. By employing the nSyb-GRASP system in

Gr5a$^+$ neurons and dopaminergic neurons, we observed GFP signals in the SEZ

(Figure 3-figure supplement 1B). Furthermore, in males that experienced mating

failure, synaptic connections between dopaminergic neurons and Gr5a$^+$ GRNs were

significantly weakened (Figure 3E-F). These results suggest that dopaminergic

neurons directly innervate Gr5a$^+$ neurons and modulate their activity upon sexual

failure.

This idea was further assessed by other complementary approaches. We expressed the

photosensitive protein CsChrimson (Klapoetke et al., 2014) in dopaminergic neurons

and GCaMP6m in Gr5a$^+$ neurons. Light activation of dopaminergic neurons

significantly enhanced the calcium responses of Gr5a$^+$ neurons to sugar stimuli both

in Naïve and Failed groups (Figure 3-figure supplement 1C-D). Furthermore, by using

a CaLexA reporter system (Masuyama et al., 2012), we assessed the impact of sexual

experience on neural activity in male fruit flies. The results showed that sexual failure

led to a significant reduction in CaLexA-mediated GFP signals in dopaminergic

neurons in the SEZ but not in the antennal lobes (AL) (Figure 3G-I). In summary,

these findings indicate that mating experience modulates sweet taste perception in

flies by inhibiting the activity of specific dopamine neurons in the SEZ and reducing

synaptic transmission between dopaminergic neurons and sweet-sensing Gr5a$^+$ GRNs.

Two dopamine receptors, Dop1R1 and Dop2R, mediated the effect of

sexual failure.

We next explored the molecular mechanisms involved in the reduction of sweet

sensitivity upon sexual failure. Four dopamine receptors (Dop1R1, Dop1R2, Dop2R,

and DopEcR) have been identified in *Drosophila* (Deng et al., 2019; Feng et al., 1996;

Hearn et al., 2002; Srivastava et al., 2005; Sugamori et al., 1995). Through screening

of these receptors, we found that mutations in *Dop1R1* or *Dop2R* abolished the effect

of sexual failure on sweet sensitivity, while mutations in *Dop1R2* or *DopEcR* did not

prevent the decline in sweet sensitivity following sexual failure (Figure 4A-F).

Intriguingly, although Dop2R and DopEcR are both required for starvation⬚driven

enhancement of sugar sensitivity (Inagaki et al., 2012; Marella et al., 2012), Dop2R

and Dop1R1 (but not DopEcR) were necessary for the suppression of sweet

sensitivity after courtship failure. This dissociation implies that reproductive

experience and metabolic state engage distinct dopaminergic circuits, possibly via

different neuronal subsets, dopamine release dynamics, or receptor recruitment, to

modulate peripheral sensitivity.

To further confirm the roles of Dop1R1 and Dop2R, we used RNA interference

(RNAi) to knock down these receptors in flies' nervous system. In line with the above

results, knockdown of Dop1R1 or Dop2R blocked the influence of sexual experience

on sweet sensitivity, while knockdown of Dop1R2 or DopEcR had no significant

effect (Figure 4-figure supplement 1A-D). These results suggest that reductions in

sweet sensitivity induced by sexual failure are mediated by dopamine signaling acting

on Dop1R1 and Dop2R receptors.

Next, we activated the neurons expressing Dop1R1 or Dop2R by expressing the

bacterial sodium channel NaChBac (Nitabach et al., 2006). Constitutive activation via

NaChBac not only prevented courtship failure-induced decline in sucrose

responsiveness but also enhanced PER in Naïve flies compared to the GAL4/+

controls (Figure 5A-B). Meanwhile, activating Dop1R2$^+$ or DopEcR$^+$ neurons did

exhibit such effect (Figure 5-figure supplement 1A-C).

We also tried to silence Dop1R1$^+$ or Dop2R$^+$ neurons using the hyperpolarizing

potassium channel (Kir2.1) (Baines et al., 2001). Kir2.1‑mediated inhibition

suppressed sweet sensitivity across Naïve, Satisfied, and Failed groups and abolished

any additional reduction in the Failed cohort (Figure 5C-D). These findings

demonstrate that dopaminergic input through Dop1R1/Dop2R acts as a positive drive

to Gr5a☐ sweet☐sensing neurons and that sexual failure suppresses sweet sensitivity

by attenuating this dopaminergic tone.

Gr5a$^+$ neurons received dopaminergic modulation through Dop1R1 and

Dop2R.

The above discoveries raised a possibility that sweet-sensing Gr5a$^+$ neurons might

receive direct dopaminergic modulation via Dop1R1 and Dop2R receptors, and that

such mechanism might be critical for the modulation of sweet sensitivity upon sexual

failure. To investigate this possibility, we first examined the expression of Dop1R1

and Dop2R in Gr5a$^+$ neurons. Immunostaining confirmed that both receptors were

expressed in the labellum (Figure 6-figure supplement 1A). Moreover, co-labeling

experiments revealed a significant overlap of Dop1R1/Dop2R expression in Gr5a$^+$

neurons (Figure 6A-B).

Next, we assessed whether the expression of Dop1R1 and Dop2R in Gr5a$^+$ neurons

was functionally important for the reduction of sweet sensitivity upon sexual failure.

By using RNAi to reduce Dop1R1 or Dop2R expression in Gr5a$^+$ neurons, we found

that males experiencing sexual failure no longer exhibited a reduction in sweet

sensitivity compared to Naïve or successfully mated males (Figures 6C-D). In contrast,

reducing the expression of another dopamine receptor, DopEcR, which was also

partially expressed in Gr5a$^+$ neurons (Figure 6-figure supplement 1B), did not prevent

the reduction of sweet sensitivity upon sexual failure (Figure 6-figure supplement 1C).

These data suggest that Dop1R1 and Dop2R in Gr5a$^+$ neurons are indeed essential for

the observed behavioral changes.

We then investigated whether Dop1R1 and Dop2R were required for the modulation

of neuronal activity of Gr5a$^+$ neurons. Following sexual failure, the calcium responses

of Gr5a$^+$ neurons to sugar stimuli were suppressed (Figure 3C). But this effect was

eliminated when Dop1R1 or Dop2R expression was knocked down in Gr5a$^+$ neurons

(Figures 6E). In summary, our results indicate that Dop1R1 and Dop2R in

sweet-sensing Gr5a$^+$ neurons mediate the sexual experience-dependent regulation of

sweet sensation by modulating the activity of these neurons.

Discussion

Various innate behaviors are crucial for the survival and reproduction of animals, such as feeding, mating, aggression, sleep, and running away from predators (Amir et al., 2015; Decoster et al., 2024; Hall, 1994; Hashikawa et al., 2016; Hergarden et al., 2012; Nair et al., 2023; Weber & Dan, 2016; Yapici et al., 2016). However, when animals are exposed to competing and even conflicting needs of these innate behaviors, they have to adjust their behavioral output to balance these needs in a timely and precise manner. In the present study, we explored the potential link between two innate behaviors, mating and feeding. We found that failed experiences in sexual interactions suppressed sweet taste perception and hence feeding behavior in male fruit flies (Figure 7). The evolutionary significance of this behavioral plasticity remains unclear. It may represent an adaptive response where reproductive failure shifts time allocation away from feeding to conserve resources or seek alternative mating opportunities. Alternatively, it may indicate a maladaptive state of disrupted reward processing. Previous research has demonstrated that mating failure diminishes animals' motivational state, leading to widespread behavioral changes (Beckwith et al., 2017; Jung et al., 2020; Ryvkin et al., 2024; Shen et al., 2023; Shohat-Ophir et al., 2012). Our study extended this knowledge by showing that mating failure could also affect reward-related feeding behavior. This suggests that different instinctive behaviors might share a common reward mechanism, which exerts broader effects to influence animals' behavioral choices and physiological states.

Feeding provides energy critical for animals' survival and it is not surprising that

feeding is under tight and complex regulations (Atasoy et al., 2012; Morton et al.,

2006; Xu et al., 2008; Yapici et al., 2016; Zhan et al., 2016). While a high volume of

studies focus on mechanisms of how metabolic states modulate feeding behavior

(Ganguly et al., 2021; Inagaki et al., 2012; Marella et al., 2012; Pool & Scott, 2014;

Shiu et al., 2022), our study suggests the motivational drive of feeding, especially that

influenced by mating experience. Previous investigations have shown that males

failed in sexual behaviors increase their ethanol preference (Shohat-Ophir et al., 2012),

have an accelerated aging process (Gendron et al., 2014), and exhibit a sexual

experience-induced preference behavior (Shen et al., 2023). Here we demonstrated

that sexual failure suppressed feeding behavior, one of the most basic homeostatic

systems critical for animal fitness. These results collectively suggest that there may be

a common neural mechanism that underlies the crosslink between mating failure and

other innate behaviors.

Notably, we found that this behavioral coordination persisted for an extended duration

and gradually faded over time, yet could be quickly reversed by successful mating.

This suggests that the regulatory mechanism may modulate the internal state of the

animal. A likely mechanism for this is through the reward system, as both successful

mating and feeding are known to activate the reward system (Burke et al., 2012; Dai

et al., 2022; Schultz, 2010; Stuber & Wise, 2016; Zer-Krispil et al., 2018). To support

this idea, our study demonstrated that dopamine, a key neurotransmitter associated

with reward (Peters et al., 2021; Wise, 2004), plays an integral role in mediating this

behavioral regulation. Dopamine plays a central role in regulating internal

motivational states. It has been shown that factors like social interactions, mating,

hunger, and vigilance influence behavioral output through dopamine signaling (Dai et

al., 2022; de Jong et al., 2019; Inagaki et al., 2012; Marella et al., 2012; Schultz, 2010;

Watabe-Uchida & Uchida, 2018). Dopamine has been implicated in coding the

valence of mating and feeding experiences (Burke et al., 2012; Dai et al., 2022; Stuber

& Wise, 2016; Zhang et al., 2019). Thus, it is possible that dopamine system acts as a

motivation/reward center, allocating limited energy toward different behaviors in an

internal state-dependent manner. This raises a critical question: does dopamine also

mediate interactions among various innate behaviors, such as sleep, aggression,

courtship, fear, and feeding, especially when these behaviors are in conflict?

Additionally, it remains to be determined whether a single group of dopamine neurons

mediates the crosslink amongst these behaviors, or whether distinct neuronal

populations regulate separate behavioral interactions, and the mechanisms by which

sexual failure selectively impacts different dopaminergic subgroups warrant further

investigation.

Disturbances in innate behaviors have widespread and lasting effects on animals'

overall behavioral patterns and physiological states (Goldstein et al., 2018; Grzelka et

al., 2023; Jourjine et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2023). This cross-behavioral influence is

likely connected to the concept of primal emotions. Emotions are a fundamental

mechanism for behavioral regulation across species, not exclusive to more complex

animals. In *Drosophila*, previous studies have shown that the flies have emotion-like

states such as stress and fear (Anderson & Adolphs, 2014; Gu et al., 2019). Our

research suggests that mating failure may act as a trigger for negative emotions,

affecting other behaviors like feeding and reward responses. This finding provides a

new perspective on how emotions influence behavioral adaptation through neural

mechanisms and offers a model for future research on emotion and behavior.

In summary, this study reveals the neural mechanisms through which mating failure

suppresses sweet taste perception in *Drosophila* and establishes a foundation for

investigating the complex interactions between emotions and the regulation of innate

behaviors. Future research will explore how the dopamine system modulates the

output of various innate behaviors under different emotional states and whether such

regulatory mechanism is conserved across species.

Materials and methods

Key resources table

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	TH-GAL4	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-dTRPA1	other		Gift from David Anderson
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-Shi^{ts}	other		Gift from David Anderson
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	Gr5a-GAL4	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #57592	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-GCaMP6m	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #42748	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	Gr5a-LexA	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #93014	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-nSyb-spGFP1-10, lexAop-CD4-spGFP11	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #64314	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-CalexA	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #66542	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	Dop1R1-/- mutant	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	Dop2R-/- mutant	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao
Genetic reagent (D.	Dop1R2-/- mutant	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao

melanogaster)				
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	DopEcR-/- mutant	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	Dop1R1-GAL4	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	Dop2R-GAL4	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-NaChBac	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #9469	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-Kir2.1	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #6595	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	10×UAS-IVS-mCD8::RFP, 13×LexAop2-mCD8::GFP	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #32229	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-GCaMP6m	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #42750	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-Dop1R1 RNAi	Tsinghua Fly Center	Cat: #4278	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-Dop2R RNAi	Tsinghua Fly Center	Cat: #2141	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	Th-/- mutant	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	LexAop-rCD2RFP, UAS-mCD8GFP	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #67093	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	LexAop-GCaMP6m	other		Gift from Yufeng Pan
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-CsChrimson	other		Gift from Yufeng Pan
Genetic reagent	elav-GAL4	Bloomington	Cat: #25750	

(D. melanogaster)		Drosophila Stock Center		
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-Dop1R2 RNAi	Tsinghua Fly Center	Cat: #5285	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-DopEcR RNAi	Tsinghua Fly Center	Cat: #3275	
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	Dop1R2-GAL4	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	DopEcR-GAL4	PMID: 30799021		Gift from Yi Rao
Genetic reagent (D. melanogaster)	UAS-mCD8::GFP	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	Cat: #5137	
Antibody	anti-GFP (mouse)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: # G6539	
Antibody	anti-GFP (mouse)	Abcam	Cat: #ab1218	
Antibody	anti-DsRed (rabbit)	Takara Bio	Cat: # 632496	
Antibody	anti-GFP (rabbit)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat: #A11122	
Antibody	Goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat: #A11029	
Antibody	Goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 546	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat: # A11010	
Antibody	Goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat: # A11034	
Chemical compound	Sucrose	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #S0389	
Chemical compound	3-Iodo-L-tyrosine	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #I8250	
Chemical compound	Dopamine	Aladdin	Cat: #A303863	
Chemical compound	NaCl	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #S3014	
Chemical	$MgCl_2$	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat:	

			#M4880	
Chemical compound	NaHCO$_3$	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #S5761	
Chemical compound	NaH$_2$PO$_4$	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #S3139	
Chemical compound	KCl	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #P9541	
Chemical compound	CaCl$_2$	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #C5670	
Chemical compound	HEPES	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #54457	
Chemical compound	Paraformaldehyde	Electron Microscopy	Cat: #15713	
Chemical compound	Calf serum	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat: #16010159	
Chemical compound	Triton X-100	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #T8787	
Chemical compound	D-Fructose	Tokyo Chemical Industry	Cat: #F0060	
Chemical compound	D-Glucose	Tokyo Chemical Industry	Cat: #G0048	
Chemical compound	DL-p-chlorophenylalanine	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: # c6506	
Chemical compound	Methysergide maleate	Abcam	Cat: #ab120530	
Chemical compound	All trans-retinal	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat: #R2500	
Commercial assay or kit	Graduated glass capillary	VWR	Cat: #53432-604	
Software, algorithm	Fiji/ImageJ	NIH		
Software, algorithm	GraphPad Prism 9	GraphPad Software		

Flies

Flies were maintained in vials with standard cornmeal food at 25°C and 60% humidity in a 12 h:12 h light: dark cycle unless otherwise indicated. For temperature-sensitive flies (Shibire^{ts} and dTRPA1), male flies were kept at 20°C before the behavioral tests. Fly strains used in the manuscript:

elav-GAL4 (#25750), *UAS-mCD8::GFP* (#5137), *LexAop-rCD2RFP*, *UAS-mCD8GFP* (#67093), *10×UAS-IVS-mCD8::RFP, 13×LexAop2-mCD8::GFP* (#32229), *UAS-GCaMP6m* (#42748), *UAS-GCaMP6m* (#42750), *UAS-CalexA* (#66542), *UAS-NaChBac* (#9469), *UAS-Kir2.1*(#6595), *Gr5a-GAL4* (#57592), *Gr5a-LexA* (#93014), *UAS-nSyb-spGFP1-10, lexAop-CD4-spGFP11*(#64314) were obtained from the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center at Indiana University. *UAS-Shi^{ts}* and *UAS-dTRPA1* were kindly shared by David Anderson (California Institute of Technology). *Dop1R1$^{-/-}$* mutant, *Dop1R2$^{-/-}$* mutant, *Dop2R$^{-/-}$* mutant, *DopEcR$^{-/-}$* mutant, *Th$^{-/-}$* mutant, *Dop1R1-GAL4*, *Dop1R2-GAL4*, *Dop2R-GAL4*, *DopEcR-GAL4*, *TH-GAL4* were kindly shared by Yi Rao (Peking University). *LexAop-GCaMP6m* and *UAS-CsChrimson* were kindly shared by Yufeng Pan (Southeast University). *UAS-Dop1R1 RNAi* (#4278), *UAS-Dop1R2 RNAi* (#5285), *UAS-Dop2R RNAi* (#2141), and *UAS-DopEcR RNAi* (#3275) were obtained from the Tsinghua Fly Center.

Conditioning protocols

We used a modified courtship conditioning protocol (McBride et al., 1999; Shohat-Ophir et al., 2012) to generate Naïve, Failed, and Satisfied males. The Failed group was generated by exposing virgin males to either mated females or decapitated virgin females. Individual virgin males were placed with either 25 mated females or 25 decapitated virgin females in a food vial for 4.5 h. To generate mated females for the conditioning, 50 males were added to the 25 virgin females for 16 h before the conditioning. The decapitated female flies were prepared freshly before assays. The Satisfied group was generated by exposing virgin males to virgin females. Individual virgin males were placed with 25 virgin females in a food vial for 4.5 h. The Naïve group consisted of the age-matched virgin males kept isolated from females until the assays.

The MAFE assay

The MAFE assay was carried out as described previously (Qi et al., 2015). Briefly, individual male flies were gently introduced and immobilized in a 200 μl pipette tip. The end of each pipette tip was shaped to expose the fly's proboscis. Flies were first sated with sterile water and then presented with 400 mM sucrose filled in a graduated glass capillary (VWR, #53432-604). The sucrose was presented until the flies no longer responded to a series of 10 sucrose stimuli. The ingested volume was calculated based on the volume change before and after the feeding.

PER assay

PER was assayed as described previously (Qi et al., 2015). Individual male flies were

mounted into a 200 µl pipette tip. Flies were first sated with sterile water and then

subjected to different sugar solutions, each tested 3 times. Flies showing PER

responses to at least 1 of 3 trials were considered positive to that sugar concentration.

For drug treatment experiments, flies were maintained on food containing a drug for 2

days. Drugs used for treatment included 3-Iodo-L-tyrosine (3IY) (Sigma-Aldrich, 10

mg/ml), DL-p-chlorophenylalanine (pCPA) (Sigma-Aldrich, 10 mg/ml), Methysergide

maleate (Abcam, 25mg/ml). For the dopamine injection experiment, Dopamine

(Aladdin 0.1-10 ng/µl) was injected into the proboscis of each male fly using a glass

micropipette. The standard PER assay was carried out at 25°C. For Shibire^{ts} and

dTRPA1 experiments, flies were raised at 20°C, and assays were performed at either

20°C or 30°C. For PER assays performed at 24, 48, and 72 hours post-treatment, male

flies were conditioned and then transferred into vials containing standard food before

the behavioral assays. For Failed-re-copulated experiments, individual Failed male

flies (within 30 minutes post-treatment) were allowed to mate with 25 virgin females

in a food vial for 4.5 h. For Satisfied-Failed experiments, individual Satisfied male

flies (72 hours post-treatment) were exposed to 25 mated females for 4.5 h. All PER

assays had n>4 replicates with 10-15 flies per replicate unless otherwise stated.

MAT calculation

The method to calculate MAT has been thoroughly described in previous papers (Inagaki et al., 2012; Inagaki et al., 2014). In general, sigmoid interpolation was performed to fit the results into sigmoidal curves. The sigmoid curves for sugar were defined as follows:

$$F_S = \frac{1}{1 + e\left(-\alpha_s \, log_2 \frac{S_{con}}{S_{50}}\right)}$$

F_S: Fraction of flies showing the PER on different sugar concentrations.

Scon: Sugar concentration.

S_{50}: Sucrose concentration where 50% of flies show PER

α_S: Slope of the sigmoid curve

Based on the experimentally obtained results (F_S, Scon), S_{50} and α_S were chosen to fit the results. For all experimental results, fitting based on nonlinear regression was calculated with Python.

Starvation resistance assay

Starvation resistance of individual flies was monitored using DAMS (Trikinetics). Briefly, individual male flies were lightly anesthetized and introduced into 5×65 mm polycarbonate tubes (Trikinetics). One end of these tubes was filled with 2% agar or 5% sucrose, and the other end was blocked with cotton wool. These polycarbonate tubes

were then inserted into DAMS monitors and kept in fly incubators during the course

of the experiments.

Immunohistochemistry

Fly brains or labella were dissected in PBS on ice and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde

at room temperature for 60 min. To examine GRASP signals, the fly brains were

dissected 20 hours post-treatment. After rinsing with PBS for 3 times, the fixed brains

or labella were blocked in Penetration/Blocking Buffer (10% Calf Serum and 0.5%

Triton X-100 in PBS) at room temperature for 90 min and incubated with primary

antibodies at 4□ for 24 h. The samples were then rinsed with Washing Buffer (0.5%

Triton X-100 in PBS) at room temperature for 3×30 min and incubated with

secondary antibodies at 4°C for 24 h. After another 3 rinses with Washing Buffer, the

brains or labella were mounted in Fluoroshield (Sigma-Aldrich) for imaging. Images

were acquired with Nikon C2 confocal microscope ($40 \times /0.80$w DIC N2).

The antibodies were used as follows: rabbit anti-GFP (1:1000, Thermo Fisher

Scientific), mouse anti-GFP (1: 1000, Abcam), mouse anti-GFP (1: 500,

Sigma-Aldrich), rabbit anti-DsRed (1:1000, Takara Bio), Goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor

488 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific), Goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488 (1:1000,

Thermo Fisher Scientific), Goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 546 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher

Scientific).

Calcium imaging

The in vivo calcium imaging experiment was performed as previously described (Qi et al., 2021). Flies were briefly anesthetized on ice and mounted onto transparent plastic tape. The cuticle part around the Gr5a$^+$ region of the brain was gently removed with forceps, and the brain was bathed in sugar-free adult hemolymph-like solution (AHL, 108 mM NaCl, 8.2 mM MgCl$_2$, 26 mM NaHCO$_3$, 1 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl$_2$, 5 mM HEPES, pH7.3). A micro manipulator delivered sucrose to the proboscis of the fly, and the actual feeding bouts were imaged by a digital camera (FLIR USB 2.0, Point Gray). The calcium signals of Gr5a$^+$ neurons were collected by a Nikon C2 confocal microscope, with a water immersion objective lens (40 $\times$ /0.80w DIC N2).

For CsChrimson experiments, newly enclosed flies were maintained in vials with standard cornmeal food for 3 days and transferred to standard cornmeal food supplemented with 400 μM all-trans-retinal (Sigma-Aldrich) for 2 days before experiments. CsChrimson activation was provided by a fiber-coupled 625 nm LED (M625L3, Thorlabs). Image analyses were performed in ImageJ and plotted in GraphPad Prism6 or MATLAB. The ratio changes were calculated using the following formula: $\Delta F/F = [F - F_0]/F_0$, where F was the peak intensity, and F_0 was the average intensity at baseline.

Statistical analysis

Data presented in this study were all verified for normal distribution by D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus test. In one-way ANOVA (for comparisons among three or more groups) tests, statistical significance was corrected using post hoc Tukey's test. The two-way ANOVA (for comparisons with more than one variant) tests use post hoc Bonferroni correction.

Competing interest

544   The authors declare that they have no competing interests exist.

Acknowledgements

We thank all Wang Lab members for helpful discussions and technical assistance. Ye Wu and Tingting Song provided scientific and administrative support in the laboratory. We thank the Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center at Indiana University and the Tsinghua Fly Center for fly stocks and reagents. This study was funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (32071006 for L.W. and No. 32271008 for R.H.), startup funds from Shenzhen Bay Laboratory and Chinese Institutes for Medical Research.

Author contributions

Gaohang Wang, Resources, Data curation, Formal analysis, Validation, Investigation, Methodology, Writing -original draft; Wei Qi, Investigation; Rui Huang, Resources, Formal analysis, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Writing - original draft, Project administration, Writing - review and editing; Liming Wang, Conceptualization, Resources, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Writing - original draft, Project administration, Writing - review and Editing.

 Figure Legends

 Figure1 Sexual failure decreased sweet sensitivity.

(A) Schematic illustrating courtship conditioning strategy. (B) Percentage of males

that performed feeding to 400 mM sucrose. (C) Fraction of Naïve, Failed and

Satisfied male flies showing PER responses to different concentrations of sucrose

(n=60-90). The PER experiment was performed immediately after conditioning unless

otherwise indicated. Left: average PER responses of Naïve (blue), Failed (black), and

Satisfied (red) flies. Right: MAT (mean acceptance threshold; the sucrose

concentration where 50% of the flies show PER), plotted as a function of sexual state.

(D) Fraction of male flies showing PER responses to different concentrations of

sucrose (n=48-60). The PER experiment was performed immediately, 24 h, 48 h, and

72 h after conditioning. Naïve and Satisfied showed pooled data from 0 to 72 hours

post-treatment (E) Fraction of male flies showing PER responses to different

concentrations of sucrose (n=48-60). Failed male flies were generated by two

methods: one group was subjected to mated females (with cVA), and the other was

subjected to decapitated virgin females (without cVA). (F) Fraction of male flies

showing PER responses to different concentrations of sucrose (n=48-60).

Failed-re-copulated males were generated by placing individual failed males (within

30 minutes post-treatment) with 25 virgin females in a food vial for 4.5 h.   Data are

shown as means ± SEM. Error bars represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p <$

0.01; ***p $<$ 0.001, ****p $<$ 0.0001. One-way ANOVA (B, C-F MAT data) and

two-way ANOVA (C-F PER data) were applied for statistical analysis.

Figure 2 Dopamine signaling modulated the effect of sexual experience

on sweet sensation.

(A) PER responses in male flies fed with 3IY, compared to male flies fed with vehicle

(n=48-60). (B) PER responses in male flies with dopamine injection, compared to

male flies injected with vehicle (n=48-60). (C-D) PER responses in male flies with

indicated genotypes at 30°C (n=48-60). Data are shown as means ± SEM. Error bars

represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$.

Two-way ANOVA (A-D PER data) and one-way ANOVA (A-D MAT data) were

applied for statistical analysis.

 Figure 3 Dopamine neurons modulated the activity of Gr5a$^+$ neurons

upon sexual failure.

(A) Schematic diagram of *in vivo* calcium imaging paradigm. (B) Quantification of

the *in vivo* calcium responses of Gr5a$^+$ neurons to the indicated concentrations of

sucrose (n=6-22). (C) Averaged traces of the calcium responses to 200 mM sucrose.

The horizontal black bar represents sucrose application. The solid lines represent the

average trace, and shaded regions represent ±SEM. (D) Representative pseudocolor

images of the calcium responses to 200mM sucrose. The dashed area was quantified

to measure the response. (E) Top: Representative images from the GRASP experiment

between dopaminergic neurons and sweet GRNs. Bottom: Enlarged images of the

SEZ region seen on the top. Scale bars, 20 μm. (F) Average fluorescence reported by

TH>nsyb-spGFP1-10, Gr5a>CD4-spGFP11 (normalized to Naive) in the SEZ.

Regions of interest (ROIs) are circled by dashed lines in (E). Lines represent mean ±

SEM, and dots indicate values for individual flies. (G) Top: Representative images of

CaLexA-induced GFP reporter in dopaminergic neurons. Bottom: Enlarged images of

the SEZ region was shown on top. Scale bars, 20 μm. (H-I) Average fluorescence

reported by *TH-GAL4/UAS-mLexA-NFAT, LexAop-CD2-GFP* (normalized to Naive)

in the SEZ(H), in the AL (I). Regions of interest (ROIs) are circled by dashed lines in

(G). Lines represent mean ± SEM, and dots indicate values for individual flies. Data

are shown as means ± SEM. Error bars represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **p

< 0.01; ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001. Two-way ANOVA (B) and one-way ANOVA

(F, H, and I) were applied for statistical analysis.

Figure 4 The effect of sexual failure was modulated through two

dopamine receptors, Dop1R1 and Dop2R.

(A-E) PER responses in male flies with indicated genotypes (n=48-75). (F) MAT

calculation for the PER data from (A-E), plotted as a function of sexual state and type

of flies. Data are shown as means ± SEM. Error bars represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *p

< 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001. Two-way ANOVA (A-E) and

one-way ANOVA (F) were applied for statistical analysis.

Figure 5 Dop1R1$^+$ and Dop2R$^+$ neurons regulated sexual

experience-dependent sweet sensitivity.

(A-D) PER responses in male flies with indicated genotypes (n=48-60). Data are

shown as means ± SEM. Error bars represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p <$

0.01; ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$. Two-way ANOVA (A-D PER data) and one-way

ANOVA (A-D MAT data) were applied for statistical analysis.

Figure 6 Gr5a$^+$ neurons received dopaminergic modulation through

Dop1R1 and Dop2R.

(A-B) The expression of membrane-bound GFP (mCD8GFP, Green) in Gr5a$^+$ neurons

driven by *Gr5a-LexA* and membrane-bound RFP (mCD8RFP, Red) in dopamine

receptor neurons driven by *Dop1R1-Gal4* (A), and *Dop2R-Gal4* (B). Scale bars, 20

μm. (C-D) PER responses in male flies with indicated genotypes (n=60-75). (E)

Averaged traces of the calcium responses to 200mM sucrose in male flies with

indicated genotypes was shown on top. Quantification of the calcium responses was

shown on the bottom (n=6-10). The horizontal black bars represent sucrose

application. The solid lines represent the average trace, and shaded regions represent

±SEM. Data are shown as means ± SEM. Error bars represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *p

< 0.05; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$. Two-way ANOVA (C-D PER data)

and one-way ANOVA (C-D MAT data, E) were applied for statistical analysis.

Figure 7 Working model for the sexual failure-dependent modulation of
sweet perception.

In the SEZ of the fly brain, dopaminergic neurons form synaptic connections with

sweet-sensing Gr5a$^+$ neurons, which express the dopamine receptors Dop1R1 and

Dop2R. This connectivity enables Gr5a$^+$ neurons to receive dopaminergic modulation,

enhancing the flies' sweet sensitivity. However, after mating failure, the activity of

these SEZ dopaminergic neurons is selectively inhibited, and their synaptic

connections with Gr5a$^+$ neurons are weakened. This reduction in dopaminergic

signaling ultimately decreases the flies' sweet taste perception. This mechanism

highlights a specific pathway by which unsuccessful mating experiences influence

sensory processing through neural plasticity in dopamine-associated circuits.

Figure 1-supplement 1 Sexual failure decreased sweet sensitivity.

(A) Volume of 400mM sucrose (left) and 800mM (right) consumed by males fed *ad libitum* (n = 35-60). (B) Starvation resistance of males was assayed in the presence of 5% sucrose (Fed) or 2% agar (Starved) (n = 32-64). Yellow bars represent 12 hr light-on period. (C) Fraction of starved Naïve, Failed, and Satisfied male flies showing PER responses to different concentrations of sucrose (n=40-60). (D) Fraction of Naïve, Failed, and Satisfied male flies showing PER responses to different concentrations of D-Fructose (n=48-60). (E) Fraction of male flies showing PER responses to different concentrations of D-Glucose (n=48-60). (F) Fraction of male flies showing PER responses to different concentrations of sucrose (n=48-60). Satisfied-Failed males were generated by placing individual Satisfied males (72 hours post-treatment) with 25 mated females in a food vial for 4.5 h. Data are shown as means ± SEM. Error bars represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$. One-way ANOVA (A, and C, F MAT data) and two-way ANOVA (B, D, E, and C, F PER data) were applied for statistical analysis.

Figure 2-supplement 1 Dopamine but not serotonin signaling modulated sexual experience-dependent sweet sensitivity.

(A) PER responses in *Th* mutant male flies (n=48-60). (B) PER responses in male

flies injected with various doses of dopamine (n=48-60). (C) PER responses in male

flies fed with DL-p-chlorophenylalanine (pCPA) (n=48-60). (D) PER responses in

male flies fed with methysergide (n=48-60). (E-F) PER responses in male flies with

indicated genotypes at 20°C(n=48-60). Data are shown as means ± SEM. Error bars

represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$.

Two-way ANOVA (A-F PER data) and one-way ANOVA (A-F MAT data) were

applied for statistical analysis.

Figure 3-supplement 1 Dopaminergic neurons had functional connections

with sweet GRNs.

(A) The expression of membrane-bound GFP (mCD8GFP, Green) in dopaminergic

neurons driven by *TH-Gal4* and membrane-bound RFP (rCD2RFP, Red) in Gr5a^{+}

neurons driven by *Gr5a-LexA*. Scale bars, 20 μm. (B) Representative image of the

GRASP experiment to show connections between dopaminergic neurons and sweet

GRNs in *TH>nsyb-spGFP1-10, Gr5a>CD4-spGFP11* flies (left). Genetic controls of

GRASP experiments were shown on the center and right. Scale bars, 20 μm. (C-D)

Averaged traces of the calcium responses to 200mM sucrose in male flies with

indicated genotypes was shown on the left. Quantification of the calcium responses

was shown on the right (n=6-13). Top: Naïve. Bottom: Failed. The horizontal black

bars represent sucrose application. The solid lines represent the average trace, and

shaded regions represent ±SEM. One-way ANOVA (C and D) was applied for

statistical analysis.

Figure 4-supplement 1 Dop1R1 and Dop2R were necessary for sexual

failure-induced change in sweet sensitivity.

(A-D) PER responses in male flies with indicated genotypes (n=48-60). Data are

shown as means ± SEM. Error bars represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p <$

0.01; ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$. Two-way ANOVA (A-D PER data) and one-way

ANOVA (A-D MAT data) were applied for statistical analysis.

Figure 5-supplement 1 Dop1R2$^+$ or DopEcR$^+$ neurons did not affect

sweet sensitivity following sexual failure.

(A-B) PER responses in male flies with indicated genotypes (n=48-60). (C) MAT,

plotted as a function of sexual state and type of flies. Data are shown as means ± SEM.

Error bars represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$, ****p

< 0.0001. Two-way ANOVA (A and B) and one-way ANOVA (C) were applied for

statistical analysis.

Figure 6-supplement 1 Dopaminergic modulation of $Gr5a^+$ neurons

following sexual failure did not require DopEcR.

(A) The expression of membrane-bound GFP (mCD8GFP) in dopamine receptor

neurons driven by *Dop1R1-Gal4* (left), *Dop2R-Gal4* (center), and *DopEcR-Gal4*

(right). Scale bars, 20 μm. (B) The expression of membrane-bound GFP (mCD8GFP,

Green) in $Gr5a^+$ neurons driven by *Gr5a-LexA* (left) and membrane-bound RFP

(mCD8RFP, Red) in dopamine receptor neurons driven by *DopEcR-Gal4*. Scale bars,

20 μm. (C) PER responses in male flies with indicated genotypes (n=60-75). Data are

shown as means ± SEM. Error bars represent SEM. n.s., $p > 0.05$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p <$

0.01; ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$. Two-way ANOVA (C PER data) and one-way

ANOVA (C MAT data) were applied for statistical analysis.

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Figure 1

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

State | Neural plasticity | Behavioral modulation

Naive

Failed

Satisfied

Dopaminergic neuron

Sweet GRN

Dop1R1 & Dop2R

Figure 1-supplement 1

Figure 2-supplement 1

Figure 3-supplement 1

Figure 5-supplement 1

Figure 6-supplement 1