

1 **Social foraging extends associative odor-food memory expression in an**
2 **automated learning assay for *Drosophila***

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8

9 **ABSTRACT**

10 Animals socially interact during foraging and share information about the quality and
11 location of food sources. The mechanisms of social information transfer during foraging have
12 been mostly studied at the behavioral level, and its underlying neural mechanisms are
13 largely unknown. The fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* has become a model for studying the
14 neural bases of social information transfer, as fruit flies show a rich repertoire of social
15 behaviors and provide a well-developed genetic toolbox to monitor and manipulate
16 neuronal activity. Social information transfer has already been characterized for fruit flies'
17 egg laying, mate choice, foraging and aversive associative learning, however the role of
18 social information transfer on associative odor-food learning during foraging are unknown.
19 Here we present an automated learning and memory assay for walking flies that allows
20 studying the effect of group size on social interactions and on the formation and expression
21 of associative odor-food memories. We found that both inter-fly attraction and the duration
22 of odor-food memory expression increase with group size. We discuss possible behavioral
23 and neural mechanisms of this social effect on odor-food memory expression. This study
24 opens up opportunities to investigate how social interactions are relayed in the neural
25 circuitry of learning and memory expression.

26

27

28 INTRODUCTION

29 Vertebrates often forage in groups to get a more accurate estimate of the location and
30 quality of resources (Giraldeau and Caraco, 2000; Templeton and Giraldeau, 1996; Valone,
31 1989; Ward and Zahavi, 1973). Insects also convey information about the location and
32 quality about a food source through social interactions. For example, honey bees signal the
33 direction and distance of food locations to other bees (Frisch, 1965), ants complement their
34 individual memory of a route to food using trail pheromones left by scouts (Czaczkes et al.,
35 2011), and stimulus enhancement and local enhancement at the food source improves
36 foraging efficiency in bumble bees (Alem et al., 2016; Avarguès-Weber and Chittka, 2014;
37 Leadbeater and Dawson, 2017; Worden and Papaj, 2005). These social effects on foraging
38 have been mostly studied at the level of behavioral outcome, and the neural mechanisms of
39 how social information transfer improves foraging are still unknown.

40 The fruit fly, *Drosophila melanogaster*, is a suitable model organism for studying the effects
41 of social interactions on foraging at both the behavioral and the neuronal level. Fruit flies are
42 gregarious (Lefranc et al., 2001; Navarro and del Solar, 1975) and demonstrate a rich
43 repertoire of social behaviors that encompass communication about internal states (Suh et
44 al., 2004), social information spread during odor avoidance (Ramdya et al., 2014), foraging
45 (Abu et al., 2018; Durisko and Dukas, 2013; Golden and Dukas, 2014; Lihoreau et al., 2016;
46 Tinette et al., 2004) and predator-induced egg-retention (Kacsoh et al., 2015). Moreover,
47 fruit flies socially learn, and naïve flies copy mate-choices (Danchin et al., 2018; Germain et
48 al., 2016; Mery et al., 2009) and oviposition site-choices from experienced conspecifics
49 (Battesti et al., 2012; Sarin and Dukas, 2009), and they show increased aversive odor
50 memory retrieval when in groups (Chabaud et al., 2009). However, it is still unknown
51 whether social information transfer affects flies' associative odor-food learning during
52 foraging.

53 The mechanistic understanding of foraging in fruit flies is unparalleled, both in regard to the
54 neural mechanisms of odor-guided search (Galizia, 2014; Haverkamp et al., 2018; Wilson,
55 2013) and feeding (Itskov and Ribeiro, 2013), and of associative odor-food learning (Burke et
56 al., 2012; Huetteroth et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2012; Oswald and Waddell, 2015; Schwaerzel et
57 al., 2003; Tempel et al., 1983; Thum et al., 2007), making the fruit fly a good model for
58 studying the neural mechanisms of social interactions during foraging.

59 Here we investigated whether fruit flies socially interact during foraging and whether group
60 size affects associative odor-food memory expression. We developed an automated assay to
61 study associative odor-food reward learning and memory in single flies and in groups of flies.
62 We found that odor-food memory expression increased in strength and duration with
63 increasing group size, and flies in small or large groups, but not in pairs, were attracted to
64 each other. These data confirm that flies socially interact during foraging (Abu et al., 2018;
65 Durisko and Dukas, 2013; Golden and Dukas, 2014; Lihoreau et al., 2016; Tinette et al.,
66 2004). In addition, these data suggest that social interactions increase the efficiency of odor
67 memory-guided food search.

68

69 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

70 **Animals**

71 *Drosophila melanogaster* wild type *S* were raised on a standard food medium (100 mL
72 contain 6.7 g fructose, 2.4 g dry yeast, 0.7 g agar, 2.1 g sugar beet syrup, 0.282 g ethyl
73 paraben and 0.61 ml propionic acid). Flies were raised in a room with natural day light cycle,
74 with an average temperature of 23.5 °C and 32% relative humidity. One to four days old flies
75 were anesthetized with CO₂ and female flies were collected. Flies were starved for 2-3 days
76 to motivate them to search for food. Flies were starved in a fly vial with filter paper soaked
77 in water.

78 **Learning and memory assay**

79 To condition groups of flies, we used an automated rotating platform with four circular
80 arenas (Figure 1A, B). The arenas were covered with a watch glass (7 cm diameter, 8 mm
81 height in the center) which was coated on the inner side with Sigmacote (Sigma-Aldrich) to
82 prevent flies from walking on the inside of the glass. The floor was made of a Teflon-coated
83 fiberglass fabric (441.33 P, FIBERFLON, Konstanz). Pure odorants (ethyl acetate and 2,3-
84 butanedione, Sigma-Aldrich) were stored in 20 ml vials (Schmidlin Labor and Service). The
85 vials were mounted under the platform and the lid was pierced with a needle (Hypodermic-
86 needle; 0.45 x25 mm, Sterican), allowing the odorant to diffuse through a hole (diameter: 5
87 mm) in the platform through the Teflon fabric and into the arena. Each arena had two
88 odorant sources. One odorant was used as sucrose-paired conditioned stimulus (CS+) and

89 the other odorant was used as unpaired conditioned stimulus (CS-). Each odorant was used
90 equally often as CS+ and CS-. At the location of the CS+, 20 μ l of oversaturated sucrose-
91 ethanol solution was pipetted onto the fiberglass fabric and blow-dried for 20 minutes,
92 producing a thin layer of pure sucrose on a round patch with a diameter of 10 mm. The
93 position of the CS+ and CS- were always switched between the conditioning and the test
94 (e.g. if CS+ was at the inside position during conditioning, it was at the outside position
95 during the test, and in half of the experimental runs the CS+ was at the inside position during
96 conditioning, and in the other half at the outside position). To change the floor between
97 experimental phases, the platform was rotated underneath the arenas; the arenas
98 themselves did not move. The angular rotation speed of the platform was $360^\circ/25$ s which
99 corresponded to a speed of 2.6 cm/s in the center of the arena (the distance between center
100 of the platform and the center of the arena is 10.25 cm). The conditioning apparatus was
101 placed in an air suction hood in order to remove odorants. All experiments were performed
102 in the dark to eliminate visual stimuli. The arena was back-illuminated with infrared light
103 (850 nm, SOLAROX LED Strip), which is not visible to flies, and experiments were video
104 recorded with an infrared sensitive camera (infrared Camera Module v2, Pi NoiR, connected
105 to a Raspberry Pi 3, Model B V1.2) at 15 frames/s. The rotating motor was controlled via TTL
106 pulses through the Raspberry Pi. The rotation of the platform and the video recordings were
107 controlled with custom-written software in Python (Stefanie Neupert).

108 **Experimental protocol**

109 All experiments were done between 10:00 and 12:00 or after 15:00 during periods when
110 flies show higher foraging activity (Breugel et al., 2017). Each experimental run contained 4
111 differently sized groups (“single”, “pair”, “small group”, “large group”), and the positions of
112 the 4 arenas used for the 4 differently sized groups were balanced across experimental runs.

113 One experimental run consisted of four phases:

114 1) Acclimatization (Figure 1B, solid arcs): Flies were sucked out from the starvation vials
115 using a tube aspirator and placed into an arena that had no odorant source and were
116 allowed to acclimatize for 10 minutes.

117 2) Conditioning (Figure 1B, dotted arcs): The floor was rotated counterclockwise by 22.5° and
118 the CS+ paired with sucrose and the CS- without sucrose were presented for 7 minutes.

119 3) Pause (Figure 1B, dashed arcs): The floor was rotated by 22.5° and replaced by a new floor
120 without odorants or sucrose. The pause lasted for 5 seconds.

121 4) Memory test: The floor was rotated by 22.5° and replaced by a floor which had the CS+
122 and CS- but without sucrose. CS+ and CS- positions were switched from conditioning. The
123 test phase lasted for 7 minutes.

124 Videos were recorded during the conditioning and test. After each experimental run, all flies
125 were discarded and the Teflon fabric floor was rinsed with hot water and soap (Buzil G 530)
126 using a sponge and dried over night to remove the odorants and the sucrose patch.

127 **Fly tracking**

128 Video recordings were analyzed using the software Fiji (ImageJ 1.51s Wayne Rasband NIH,
129 USA). We removed the first 30 frames due to compression artifacts and converted the video
130 to grayscale. Then we did a Z projection to get the maximum intensity projection over the
131 whole video, and calculated the difference per frame between the maximum intensity
132 projection and the original video. This gave us a clear image of flies moving around the arena
133 for tracking. We used this output to track flies using the plugin TrackMate (Version: 3.5.3,
134 Tinevez et al., (2017)). We used a Downsample LoG detector to identify flies (blob diameter
135 = 13 pixels, downsampling = 3, threshold = 6-8). To generate the tracks, we used the Simple
136 LAP Tracker, with the following parameters: linking distance = 150 pixels, max gap closing =
137 150 pixels and maximal frame gap = 3 frames. For the conditioning data, we only extracted
138 the x and y coordinates of each fly per frame. For the test data, we extracted the x and y
139 coordinates per frame as well as the identity of the fly throughout the recording. We
140 inspected all tracking results visually and corrected the tracks manually to connect the
141 missing links and afterwards we extracted the x and y coordinates for the analysis.

142 **Data analysis**

143 Normalizing arenas for comparison

144 For both the conditioning and the test datasets, we centralized each arena so that the center
145 point of the circular arena was at (0, 0). The center point was determined by taking the
146 midpoint between the CS+ and CS- locations; the x and y coordinates of the CS+ and CS-
147 were recorded manually. We then converted each Cartesian coordinate to polar
148 coordinates, in order to rotate each arena so that the CS+ location was at the top of the

149 arena and the CS- was at the bottom. We took the distance of the CS+ to the center as a
150 reference radius of 1, and normalized all coordinates to this radius. We then filtered out any
151 points that had a radius equal to or greater than 1.3 to remove tracking errors. Note that for
152 the conditioning dataset, only the x and y coordinates of a fly per frame were recorded. For
153 the test dataset, the x and y coordinates per frame were recorded, but also the identity of
154 the fly across frames.

155 Visit probability maps

156 Visit probability maps were generated only for the test dataset. For every individual fly, we
157 divided the arena into 20 x 20 pixel bins. For each frame, we gave the pixel bin that
158 contained the coordinate of the fly a score of 1, and gave all of the other bins a score of 0.
159 We summed the scores of each pixel bin over all frames and then normalized by the number
160 of frames that the individual was tracked for. For each group size, we then took the mean of
161 each pixel bin over all individual fly tracks. We used the same analysis for the time-binned
162 visit probability maps by looking only at the frames that occurred during the time bin.

163 Distance to the CS+ and CS-

164 We calculated the distance of each fly to the CS+ and to the CS- in every frame using:

$$165 \textit{Euclidean distance} = \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}$$

166 Where x and y are the Cartesian coordinates of the fly, and x_0 and y_0 are the Cartesian
167 coordinates of either the CS+ or the CS-.

168 Relative distance to the CS+

169 For both the conditioning and test data, we calculated the relative distance to the odorant-
170 sucrose patch (CS+ during test) of each fly per frame using:

$$171 \textit{Relative distance} = \frac{(\textit{distance to CS -}) - (\textit{distance to CS+})}{(\textit{distance to CS -}) + (\textit{distance to CS+})}$$

172 We then took the mean relative distance for the entire experimental run and for 1-minute
173 time bins.

174 Preference index/Conditioned preference index

175 For both the conditioning and memory test data, the coordinates of the flies were tracked
176 for each frame. For every frame of the experiment, we counted the number of flies in the
177 arena half containing the odorant (CS+)-sucrose patch (during conditioning) or the CS+
178 (during memory test) and in the arena half containing the unrewarded odorant (CS-). We
179 then calculated a preference index for each frame using:

$$180 \text{ (Conditioned)Preference index} = \frac{(\text{No. of flies at CS+}) - (\text{No. of flies at CS-})}{\text{total no. of flies tracked}}$$

181 “Preference index” refers to the conditioning phase and “Conditioned preference index”
182 refers to the memory test phase. We calculated the mean index for the entire experimental
183 run and for 1-minute time bins. A preference index of 0 indicates that an equal number of
184 flies were at the CS+ and the CS-, whereas a value of 1 indicates that all of the flies were in
185 the half of the arena containing the CS+ and a value of 0 indicates that all of the flies were in
186 the half of the arena containing the CS-.

187 Relative latency to the CS+

188 For the memory test dataset, we identified for each individual the time of the first frame
189 that the individual was 0.5 cm or closer to the center of the CS+ and the center of the CS-.
190 We then calculated the relative latency to reach the CS+ using:

$$191 \text{ Relative latency} = (\text{Latency to the CS-}) - (\text{Latency to the CS+})$$

192 We calculated the mean relative latency per experimental run.

193 Distance between flies

194 For the memory test dataset, we used the rotated Cartesian coordinates to calculate the
195 Euclidean distance between every fly in each frame of the experiment. We divided the
196 distances into bins of 5 mm and counted the occurrences of each distance per experimental
197 run.

198 Simulating distances between flies due to chance

199 For the test dataset, we selected flies according to their group size, and randomly sampled
200 entire fly tracks from different experimental runs. We simulated as many experimental runs
201 as there were real experimental runs, and we also simulated as many flies as were in each

202 experimental run. We then overlaid these tracks and calculated the Euclidean distance
203 between flies for the simulated experiments as we did for the real experiments.

204 Encounters between flies

205 We defined an encounter as the center of one fly being maximum two fly lengths (5 mm)
206 away from the center of another fly. We calculated the Euclidean distance between all flies
207 as before. We selected the distances that were less than or equal to 5 mm (the encounter
208 distances). Since we had the identity of every fly per experimental run, we could calculate
209 the number of encounters for every fly and the length of these encounters.

210 For the mean encounter number per fly per experimental run, we calculated the total
211 number of encounters for one experimental run, multiplied it by two as there were two flies
212 involved in each encounter, and then divided it by the number of flies in the arena. For the
213 mean encounter length per experimental run, we summed the length of all encounters and
214 divided by the total number of encounters per experimental run. We repeated this analysis
215 for the simulated data.

216 **Statistical analysis**

217 For all data analysis, R version 3.5.0 was used (R Core Team, 2018). All statistics were
218 performed using Bayesian data analysis, based on Korner-Nievergelt et al., (2015). We chose
219 Bayesian analysis over frequentist statistics as it allows us to a) estimate the probability with
220 which the means of two groups differ, and b) determine the 95 % credible intervals within
221 which the true mean of a group lies. Note that the frequentist confidence interval does not
222 allow such a straightforward interpretation.

223 To investigate the effect of group size on behavioral performance (preference index (Fig. 1D,
224 2A, 2B), distance to the CS+ (Fig. S1A, S1B, S1C, S1D) and relative distance (Fig. S1E, S1F, S1G,
225 S1H), we fitted a linear model (LM). The group size (“single”, “pair”, “small group” and “large
226 group”) was used as the explanatory variable, with the large group as the reference level.
227 The mean value per experimental run was used as the response variable. We used an
228 improper prior distribution (flat prior) and simulated 100 000 values from the posterior
229 distribution of the model parameters using the function “sim” from the package “arm”. The
230 means of the simulated values from the posterior distributions of the model parameters
231 were used as estimates, and the 2.5 % and 97.5 % quantiles as the lower and upper limits of

232 the 95 % credible intervals. We used this linear model to compare the values of each group
233 size against chance. For each group size, we calculated the proportion of simulated values
234 from the posterior distribution that were larger than 0. If the proportion of simulated values
235 was greater than 0, flies preferred the arena half containing the CS+ over the arena half
236 containing the CS- (represented by filled circles in plots).

237 To test for differences between different group sizes, we calculated the proportion of
238 simulated values from the posterior distribution that were larger for one group compared to
239 another group. We declared an effect to be significant if the proportion was greater than or
240 equal to 0.95 (*). Proportions greater than or equal to 0.99 are marked “***” and greater
241 than or equal to 0.999 marked “****”. We performed this analysis for the whole recording:
242 for the different time bins, and we compared the preference index and conditioned
243 preference index of the different group sizes within a single time bin, not between them.

244 To test whether the relative latency (Fig. S1I) depends on group size, we used a LM as
245 before. The relative latency was the response variable, and the group size was used as the
246 explanatory variable. We used the same methodology as previously to simulate values from
247 the posterior distribution and generate the means and the 95 % credible intervals. To test
248 for differences, we calculated the proportion of draws from the posterior distribution for
249 which the mean of each draw was smaller in the experimental dataset than the mean of
250 each draw of the simulated dataset.

251 Inter-fly encounters

252 To investigate whether grouped flies differ in the number of their inter-fly encounters from
253 random (simulated data), we used a LM for each distance bin. The number of occurrences of
254 that distance was the response variable, and the type of data (experimental or simulated
255 data) was used as the explanatory variable. We used the same method as specified above to
256 test for differences.

257 To investigate whether the encounter number and lengths were different to random
258 (simulated data), we used an LM with either encounter number or encounter length as the
259 response variable, and the type of data (experimental or simulated data) as the explanatory
260 variables. We used the same method as specified above to test for differences.

261 To determine whether the mean encounter number per fly differed between group sizes, we
262 randomly assigned pairs of experimental and simulated encounter numbers from different
263 experimental runs for each group size (Figure 2F). For each pair, we then subtracted the
264 simulated encounter number value from the real encounter number value (difference
265 between encounters). This allowed us to compare between group sizes as by removing the
266 simulated value, we remove the number of encounters that could be due to chance, which is
267 positively correlated with group size. To test for differences between group sizes, we used a
268 LM. The response variable was the “difference between encounters”. The explanatory
269 variable was the different group size (“pair”, “small group” and “large group”). The large
270 group was used as the reference level. We used the same method as specified above to
271 draw inferences about the differences between the large group and the other two group
272 sizes.

273

274 **RESULTS**

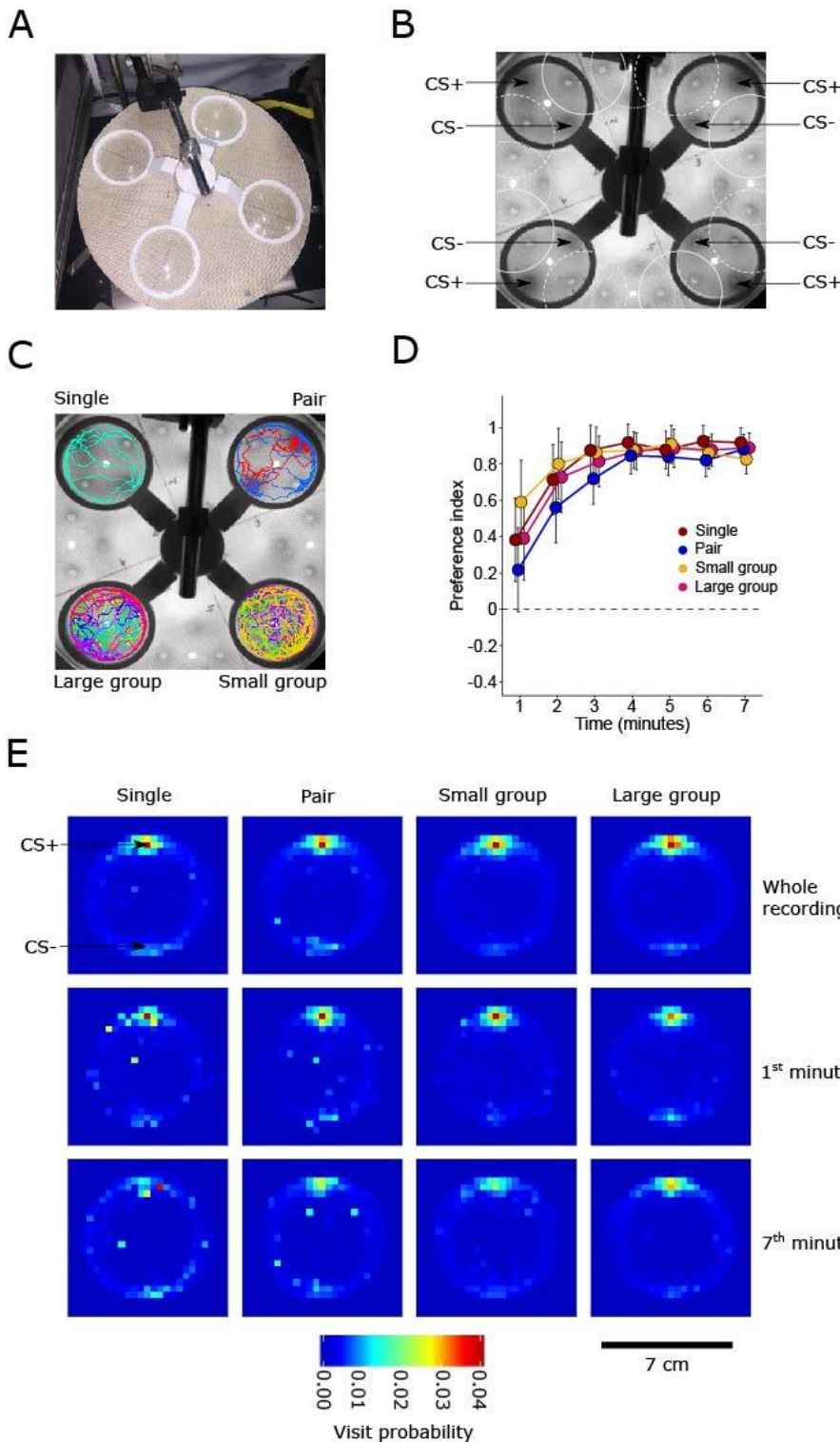
275 To investigate whether group size affects associative odor-food memory in flies, we
276 developed an automated assay to condition four groups of flies simultaneously (Figure 1A,
277 B). The learning assay consisted of a computer-controlled rotating platform with four circular
278 arenas. This design allowed us to transfer flies from one experimental phase to another
279 without anesthesia and with minimal mechanical disturbance, which can alter fruit flies’
280 behavior (Barron, 2000; Bartholomew et al., 2015; Trannoy et al., 2015). We compared four
281 different sized groups of flies: one fly (single), two flies (pair), three or four flies (small group)
282 and seven or eight flies (large group) (Figure 1C). Both the training phase and test phase
283 lasted for 7 minutes. During the 7-minutes long conditioning, two odorants (2,3-butanedione
284 and ethyl acetate) were presented at opposite sides of the arena; one odorant (conditioned
285 stimulus, CS+) was paired with dried sucrose and the other odorant was not (CS-). Each
286 odorant was used equally often as CS+ and CS- and the data were pooled. This procedure
287 minimizes non-associative effects of the conditioning, such as odorant-specific changes in
288 hedonic value, generalization or sensitization (Quinn et al., 1974). During conditioning, flies
289 were allowed to forage around the arena and find the food and odorant source.

290 **Flies aggregate on the odorant-sucrose patch during conditioning and learn to associate**
291 **the odorant with sucrose**

292 To determine whether flies approached the odorant-sucrose patch, we counted the number
293 of flies in the half of the arena containing the odorant-sucrose patch, in order to calculate a
294 mean preference index for each experimental run (see Materials and Methods). Flies of all
295 group sizes showed a higher preference for the arena half containing the odorant (CS+)-
296 sucrose patch than for the arena half containing the CS- (Figure 1D). From the second minute
297 to the end of the conditioning, the probability that flies preferred the arena half containing
298 the odorant (CS+)-sucrose patch over the arena half containing the CS- was above 0.999
299 across all groups, implying that they were feeding on the sucrose (see Table S1 for the
300 Bayesian probabilities comparing between groups). To confirm that the preference index
301 reliably measures flies' preference, we additionally calculated the mean distance to the CS+
302 per experimental run (Figure S1A, S1B and Table S1) and the distance to the CS+ relative to
303 the distance to the CS- (relative distance, Figure S1E, S1F and Table S1). Both measures
304 revealed similar behaviors as the preference index, showing that flies of all group sizes
305 approached the CS+ and remained within 10 mm of its center from the 4th minute onwards
306 (Figure S1B). Flies in pairs remained at larger distance from the CS+ than single flies or flies in
307 the small group (Figure S1A, S1B, S1E, S1F). A possible explanation for the larger distance
308 from the CS+ in pairs could be a higher aggression rate, as aggression between female flies
309 depends on group size and flies exhibit less aggression when kept in groups as compared to
310 kept in isolation (Ueda and Kidokoro, 2002).

311 Flies were transferred from the conditioning to the test by rotating the platform (Figure 1B).
312 In between conditioning and test there was a pause, where the platform was rotated to a
313 neutral segment where there were no odorants or sucrose present. The pause lasted 5 s,
314 and then platform was rotated to the test segment. During the test, the positions of the CS+
315 and the CS- were switched and there was no sucrose, thus flies could not rely on
316 remembering the location of the sucrose patch (Kim and Dickinson, 2017) and had to follow
317 the olfactory CS+ to search for the expected food. To visualize the conditioned preference
318 index during the test, we projected the flies' trajectories on a plane and calculated the
319 probability across flies to visit a particular pixel bin (Figure 1E). The increased visit

320 probabilities around the CS+ persisted over the entire 7 minutes of the test, confirming that
 321 flies learned to associate the CS+ with food (Figure 1E).



368 minute of recording and the seventh minute of recording (rows). Each bin shows the mean binary value across
 369 all individuals of all 30 experimental runs (Single flies: N = 30 individuals; Pairs: N = 60 individuals; Small group:
 370 N = 118 individuals; Large group: N = 229 individuals).

371 **Associative odor-food memory expression increases with group size**

372 We next asked whether group size affects the expression of associative odor-food memory
373 during the test and determined the conditioned preference index for the CS+ (Figure 2A).
374 During the test, flies of all group sizes preferred the arena half containing the CS+ over the
375 arena half containing the CS- ($p(\text{all group sizes} > 0) > 0.999$), showing that flies had formed
376 an associative odor-food memory (Figure 2A). Flies of the large group showed a higher
377 conditioned preference for the CS+ than the pair and the single fly ($p(\text{large group} > \text{pair}) =$
378 0.95 , $p(\text{large group} > \text{single}) = 0.99$), and the small group showed a higher conditioned
379 preference than the single fly ($p(\text{small group} > \text{single}) = 0.95$) (see Table S1). Flies showed a
380 similar group size-dependence of their conditioned responses when we measured the
381 distance to the CS+ (Figure S1C, S1D and Table S1) or the relative distance to the CS+ (Figure
382 S1G, S1H, Table S1). There were no differences between groups in the latency to arrive at
383 the CS+ relative to the latency to arrive at the CS- (Figure S1I).

384 To investigate the time course of memory expression, we calculated the conditioned
385 preference index over one-minute time bins (Figure 2B). During the first minute, there were
386 no differences of the conditioned preference between any of the group sizes (Table S1).
387 Between the 2nd and 7th minutes, flies from the large group showed higher conditioned
388 preference than single or paired flies throughout most bins tested (Table S1). In all minute
389 bins, the conditioned preference was higher than chance for all group sizes, except for the
390 single flies in the 7th minute ($p(\text{preference index} > 0) = 0.861$). The distance to the CS+
391 (Figure S1D, Table S1) and the relative distance (Figure S1H, Table S1) revealed similar group
392 size-dependent differences in the conditioned approach behavior. These results suggest that
393 the expression of an associative odor-food memory increases in strength and duration with
394 increasing group size.

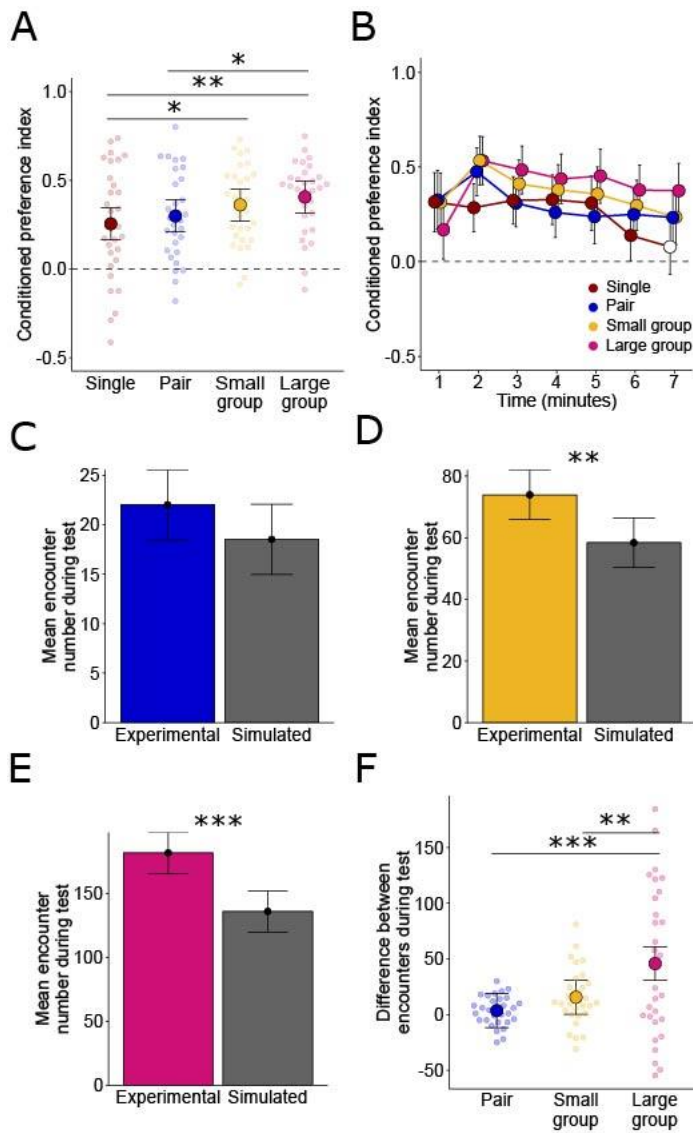


Figure 2: Group size affects associative odor-food memory expression and inter-fly encounters during the memory test.

(A) Conditioned preference index for the different group sizes during the test. Large points represent the mean conditioned preference index per group size. Whiskers represent the 95 % credible intervals. Small points represent the mean conditioned preference index per experimental run. The dashed line indicates the conditioned preference index due to chance (0). Stars represent differences with Bayesian probabilities equal to or greater than 0.95 (*) or 0.99 (**) (N= 30 experimental runs).

(B) Same data as in (A) but conditioned preference index over one-minute time bins during the test. Colors, dashed line and whiskers are the same as in (A). The points represent the mean conditioned preference index across all experimental runs within a time bin. Filled points are conditioned preference scores that are significantly different to chance. All groups preferred the arena half containing the CS+ patch than the arena half containing the CS- during all time bins ($p(\text{preference index} > 0) \geq 0.967$), except for the single flies during the 7th minute. For statistical comparisons between groups, see Table S1.

(C) Mean inter-fly encounter number per fly per experimental run for the pair (blue) and the simulated pair (grey). Bars represent the mean across experimental runs (N= 30 experimental runs). Vertical lines represent the 95 % credible intervals.

(D) Same as (C) for the small group (yellow) and the simulated small group (grey).

(E) Same as (C) for the large group (pink) and the simulated large group (grey). Stars represent differences with Bayesian probabilities equal or greater 0.99 (**) or 0.999 (***) between the real and simulated group.

(F) Paired differences between mean encounter numbers across experimental runs (N= 30 experimental runs). Large points represent the mean difference in encounter number between experimental runs. Small points represent the difference between the mean encounter numbers for each randomly assigned pair of real and simulated experimental runs. Colors and whiskers are the same as in A.

437

438 **Flies tested in groups – but not in pairs – exhibit more inter-fly encounters than random**

439 The extended associative memory expression in flies of the small and large group indicates
 440 that flies socially interact to share information about the location of the predicted food
 441 source, as has previously been found during foraging (Abu et al., 2018; Lihoreau et al., 2016;
 442 Tinette et al., 2004). If the extended memory expression in the small and large group
 443 depends on social interactions, then the group size should affect the frequency of social
 444 interactions. To assess whether group size affects the frequency of social interactions we

445 measured the number of inter-fly distances and compared it with the number of expected
446 random distances. We calculated the distances between all flies conditioned in groups in
447 each video frame during conditioning to see if they approached each other. To determine
448 whether these distance distributions could be explained due to flies randomly encountering
449 each other in the arena, we simulated 30 new experimental runs by randomly sampling fly
450 locations from all experimental runs for each video frame. We then calculated the distances
451 between these simulated groups of flies in each video frame (Figure S2A). For the large
452 group there were more short inter-fly distances (0-5 and 5-10 mm) than for the simulated
453 group.

454 We chose a distance of 5 mm between fly centers as a threshold for inter-fly encounters
455 where flies could potentially socially interact. Flies in the small and large group made more
456 encounters (approached each other by 5 mm or less) than the simulated groups of flies, but
457 not the pair ($p(\text{large group} > \text{simulated large group}) > 0.999$, $p(\text{small group} > \text{simulated small}$
458 $\text{group}) = 0.996$, $p(\text{pair} > \text{simulated pair}) = 0.917$) (Figure 2C-E).

459 To compare encounter number across group sizes, we needed to correct for trivial
460 differences in encounters that are just due to differences in the group sizes (in larger groups
461 there is a higher chance for random inter-fly encounters). We corrected for these differences
462 in encounter number by the following procedure: We randomly took an experimental run
463 from the experimental and simulated datasets and subtracted the number of encounters
464 between the two experimental runs (Figure 2F). By subtracting the number of encounters in
465 the simulated runs, we removed the number of encounters per experimental run that could
466 be due to random encounters. The encounter number was higher for the large group
467 compared to the small group and the pair ($p(\text{large group} > \text{pair}) > 0.999$, $p(\text{large group} >$
468 $\text{small group}) = 0.996$). There were no differences in encounter length between any group
469 size and their simulated groups (Figure S2B).

470 The increased number of encounters in the larger group indicates that flies are more
471 attracted to each other when they are in large groups than when they are in small groups or
472 pairs. More encounters allow more opportunities for social interactions between flies, which
473 in turn could underlie the longer associative memory expression of the large group as
474 compared to smaller groups or single flies.

475 **DISCUSSION**

476 We developed an automated learning and memory assay for walking fruit flies that allows
477 analyzing the behavior of individual flies while they forage, learn and memorize odor-food
478 associations alone or in groups. The strength and duration of odor-food memory expression
479 increased with group size, and flies in larger groups were more attracted to each other than
480 flies in smaller groups. These data suggest that foraging in groups facilitates social
481 information transfer about the quality of a food source (during odor-food learning) or about
482 the location of the predicted food source (during olfactory memory-guided food search).

483 **Social information transfer during foraging**

484 Fruit flies accumulate on fermenting fruit which they find by following both odorants
485 released by fermenting fruit (Becher et al., 2012; Kellogg et al., 1962; Semmelhack and
486 Wang, 2009) and aggregation pheromones released by male (Bartelt et al., 1985; Lin et al.,
487 2015; Mercier et al., 2018) and female conspecifics (Lebreton et al., 2017). During foraging,
488 primer flies explore the environment and appear to signal the location of favorable food
489 patches to other flies (Tinette et al., 2004). Besides sharing information about food sources,
490 fruit flies also share information about their internal state, such as stress (Suh et al., 2004),
491 and about the location and quality of resources during mate choice (Danchin et al., 2018;
492 Mery et al., 2009) and egg-laying sites (Battesti et al., 2012; Durisko and Dukas, 2013; Lin et
493 al., 2015; Sarin and Dukas, 2009).

494 Our finding of extended expression of associative odor-food memories in groups, together
495 with the positive correlation between group size and inter-fly attraction, suggests that
496 associative odor-food learning or memory expression also benefits from social information
497 transfer during aggregation. The positive correlation between group size and inter-fly
498 attraction that we found is in line with a previous study where inter-fly attraction was higher
499 in larger than in smaller groups (20-40 versus 10 flies) (Simon et al., 2012). To our
500 knowledge, such an increase in inter-animal attraction with increasing group size has not yet
501 been reported in vertebrates (Miller and Stephen, 1966).

502 **Social effects on odor-food learning**

503 The increased associative odor-food memory with increasing group size could be a result of
504 social information transfer during the learning of the odor-food association (during

505 conditioning) or during the retrieval of the odor-food memory (during the memory test).
506 Since our experiments were performed in the dark, flies could have transferred information
507 socially via olfactory stimuli (Jallon, 1984; Keeseey et al., 2016; Lebreton et al., 2017; Lin et al.,
508 2015), gustatory stimuli (Schneider et al., 2012) sound (Tauber and Eberl, 2003), substrate-
509 borne vibration (Fabre et al., 2012) and touch (Ramdya et al., 2014), but not via visual cues
510 (Danchin et al., 2018; Ferreira and Moita, 2019; Golden and Dukas, 2014; Kim et al., 2012;
511 Mery et al., 2009; Sarin and Dukas, 2009).

512 During conditioning, the presence of other flies at the sucrose patch could increase the
513 reinforcing strength of the sucrose since the presence of other flies indicates that the food
514 patch is good. Indeed, flies prefer food sources with other flies present over food sources
515 without any flies (Lihoreau et al., 2016; Tinette et al., 2004). Alternatively, the presence of
516 other flies at the sucrose patch may be an additional appetitive reinforcing stimulus. The role
517 of conspecifics as a positive reinforcer has been previously demonstrated in honey bees,
518 where antennal touching of a nestmate acts as positive reinforcer during odor conditioning
519 (Cholé et al., 2019). The fact that fruit flies are attracted to each other (Lefranc et al., 2001;
520 Simon et al., 2012; Tinette et al., 2004) makes it plausible to assume that flies could also act
521 as an additional positive reinforcer at the sucrose patch.

522 The reinforcing function of other flies could be mediated by dopaminergic neurons, because
523 dopaminergic neurons mediate the reinforcing function of sucrose (Liu et al., 2012) and
524 because dopamine itself has an effect on the sociality of flies: inter-fly attraction decreases
525 in flies that have a deficiency in dopamine released from neurons and hypodermal cells
526 (Fernandez et al., 2017).

527 **Social effects on odor-food memory expression**

528 Besides a learning effect, the extended odor-food memory expression could be a memory
529 retrieval effect. Memory retrieval could be affected by the social interactions during the
530 memory test, as flies that had learned the association between CS+ and sucrose could
531 transfer information about the location of the predicted sucrose patch to flies that have
532 failed to learn. Information transfer from experienced to naïve flies can affect group level
533 behavior during odor avoidance (Ramdya et al., 2014), aversive memory retrieval (Chabaud
534 et al., 2009), mate choice (Danchin et al., 2018; Mery et al., 2009), oviposition site choice
535 (Battesti et al., 2012; Sarin and Dukas, 2009) and predator-induced egg-retention (Kacsoh et

536 al., 2015). Moreover, a theoretical study predicted that social interactions can increase
537 performance during odor-guided foraging (Torney et al., 2009).

538 Alternatively, flies that located the CS+ first during the test could serve as an attractive
539 reinforcing stimulus (see discussion above and (Lihoreau et al., 2016; Tinette et al., 2004)),
540 thus appetitive learning of the CS+ could continue throughout the test. This ongoing
541 appetitive learning of the CS+ during the test would appear as extended associative memory
542 expression in our study.

543 Another possible explanation for the extended memory expression could be reduced
544 memory extinction due to social interactions at the location of the CS+. Memories can be
545 extinguished when the CS+ is presented without reinforcement (Lagasse et al., 2009;
546 Schwaerzel et al., 2002), which is effectively what occurs throughout the test in our study. In
547 flies, extinction of odor-sucrose memories is mediated by dopaminergic neurons that encode
548 punishment (Felsenberg et al., 2017): lack of reward during CS+ induced memory retrieval
549 activates punishment-encoding dopaminergic neurons, and this activation counteracts the
550 associative odor-food memory. The presence of other flies at the CS+ could provide an
551 appetitive stimulus and thereby prevent the activation of these extinction mediating
552 dopaminergic neurons.

553 **Limitations of the study and outlook**

554 We found a positive relationship between group size and the strength and duration of odor-
555 food memory expression. However, our experimental design does not allow conclusions on
556 whether this extended memory expression results from being in the group during odor-food
557 learning (conditioning) or during olfactory memory-guided search (memory test). To
558 discriminate between these two possibilities one could test whether flies conditioned in a
559 group and tested alone (or conditioned alone and tested in a group) still show extended
560 memory expression as compared to control flies that were conditioned and tested alone.

561 We analyzed the walking behavior of individual flies during the memory test, but not during
562 the conditioning because we could not separate flies from each other when they clustered at
563 the sucrose patch due to a lack of spatial resolution. By using cameras with higher spatial
564 resolution, this assay can be extended to a high-throughput assay for tracking individuals in
565 multiple parallel fly groups, allowing classification of pairwise and higher-order interactions

566 between individuals, as well as stereotyped behaviors in individuals (Berman et al., 2016;
567 Branson et al., 2009; Onodera et al., 2019).

568 This assay could help reveal external factors (e.g., fly density, the ratio of informed to
569 uninformed flies) and internal factors (e.g., sex, metabolic, genetic, or circadian states) that
570 influence learning and memory expression in social contexts. Importantly, this assay would
571 allow studying the neural basis of social effects on foraging, by disentangling sensory
572 processing and memory formation. To identify the sensory bases of information
573 transmission between flies, one could test the effect of temporarily perturbing their ability
574 to smell, see and mechanosense by expressing a temperature-sensitive switch for synaptic
575 transmission in defined neuron populations (Kim et al., 2012; Kitamoto, 2001; Ramdya et al.,
576 2014). Likewise, neuronal perturbation experiments would help identifying the neurons that
577 encode the valence of social information and reveal how these neurons integrate with the
578 neurons known to encode the hedonic and caloric value of food (Huetteroth et al., 2015).
579 Moreover, to investigate whether information transmission during foraging is affected by
580 the fly's predisposition to forage, one could use the two naturally occurring *foraging* gene
581 *Drosophila* mutants. "Rovers" move more during foraging and demonstrate improved short
582 term memory, whereas "sitters" move less and show an improved long term memory (Mery
583 et al., 2007; Osborne et al., 1997). Since both foraging and aversive memory expression are
584 affected by social context (Kohn et al., 2013), experiments using these morphs would help to
585 assess the genetic bases of social effects on odor-food learning and memory expression.

586 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

587 We thank C. Giovanni Galizia for discussions initiating this research, Stefanie Neupert for
588 programming the acquisition software and comments on the manuscript, Jana Hörsch for
589 contributing to pilot experiments and comments on the manuscript, Charles Ellen for
590 comments on the manuscript, FIBERFLON (Konstanz) for donating Teflon-coated fiberglass
591 fabric.

592 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

593 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
594 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

595 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

596 PS conceptualized and designed the study. CT performed the data collection. CT and YM
597 performed the pilot experiments. AS, CT and YM prepared the video data for analysis. AS
598 performed the statistical analysis. AS, PS and YM wrote the manuscript. PS supervised the
599 study.

600 **FUNDING**

601 This project was funded by the Human Frontier Science Program (RGP0053/2015) to PS and
602 by the IMPRS Organismal Biology, University of Konstanz to AS and YM.

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778 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS**

779 **Table S1: Bayesian probabilities comparing the preference index, distance and relative distance between**
 780 **groups. Related to Figure 1D, 2A, 2B and S1.** Bayesian probability with which the mean of a group in the
 781 column “Pair >”, “Small group >” or “Large group >” is larger than the mean of a group in the column “Group”.
 782 Red values indicate probabilities equal to or greater than 0.95 or equal to or smaller than 0.05.

Experi- mental Phase	Time (minute)	Group	Preference index (Figure 1D, 2A, 2B)			Distance (Figure S1A-D)			Relative distance (Figure S1E-H)		
			Pair >	Small group >	Large group >	Pair >	Small group >	Large group >	Pair >	Small group >	Large group >
Conditioning	Whole conditioning	Single	0.087	0.579	0.378	0.953	0.459	0.724	0.049	0.561	0.273
		Pair		0.941	0.856		0.037	0.137		0.964	0.853
		Small			0.307			0.755			0.225
	1 st	Single	0.16	0.895	0.517	0.783	0.074	0.467	0.21	0.923	0.535
		Pair		0.987	0.851		0.013	0.192		0.986	0.813
		Small			0.112			0.912			0.089
	2 nd	Single	0.134	0.733	0.534	0.893	0.292	0.51	0.107	0.704	0.49
		Pair		0.957	0.882		0.037	0.111		0.962	0.892
		Small			0.295			0.717			0.289
	3 rd	Single	0.059	0.455	0.27	0.943	0.512	0.738	0.049	0.476	0.253
		Pair		0.928	0.833		0.06	0.17		0.945	0.838
		Small			0.31			0.73			0.27
	4 th	Single	0.16	0.289	0.254	0.929	0.796	0.836	0.077	0.209	0.162
		Pair		0.67	0.634		0.257	0.311		0.733	0.672
		Small			0.46			0.562			0.429
	5 th	Single	0.306	0.658	0.551	0.827	0.467	0.637	0.216	0.577	0.395
		Pair		0.822	0.738		0.153	0.278		0.837	0.7
		Small			0.387			0.665			0.323
	6 th	Single	0.049	0.152	0.221	0.981	0.878	0.838	0.02	0.123	0.136
		Pair		0.733	0.817		0.181	0.138		0.815	0.834
		Small			0.609			0.432			0.527
7 th	Single	0.268	0.061	0.315	0.881	0.925	0.802	0.122	0.067	0.156	
	Pair		0.175	0.555		0.607	0.373		0.369	0.563	
	Small			0.855			0.275			0.689	
Memory test	Whole test	Single	0.753	0.95	0.99	0.299	0.035	0.012	0.598	0.939	0.981
		Pair		0.833	0.95		0.098	0.04		0.903	0.966
		Small			0.753			0.32			0.702
	1 st	Single	0.535	0.49	0.094	0.405	0.259	0.794	0.545	0.716	0.182
		Pair		0.452	0.079		0.345	0.857		0.676	0.153
		Small			0.098			0.929			0.07
	2 nd	Single	0.98	0.997	0.996	0.035	0.003	0.006	0.959	0.996	0.993
		Pair		0.741	0.737		0.171	0.227		0.842	0.772
		Small			0.495			0.58			0.399
	3 rd	Single	0.436	0.834	0.961	0.566	0.09	0.015	0.339	0.836	0.973
		Pair		0.871	0.973		0.066	0.01		0.918	0.99
		Small			0.792			0.201			0.832
	4 th	Single	0.238	0.711	0.877	0.83	0.269	0.163	0.11	0.642	0.772
		Pair		0.898	0.969		0.059	0.028		0.943	0.975
		Small			0.728			0.358			0.651
	5 th	Single	0.243	0.674	0.917	0.664	0.268	0.052	0.236	0.673	0.932
		Pair		0.875	0.981		0.149	0.021		0.876	0.985
		Small			0.824			0.157			0.85
	6 th	Single	0.879	0.952	0.994	0.187	0.059	0.014	0.811	0.926	0.984
		Pair		0.692	0.913		0.25	0.093		0.718	0.899
		Small			0.807			0.261			0.759
7 th	Single	0.932	0.934	0.998	0.107	0.088	0.006	0.821	0.819	0.992	
	Pair		0.504	0.914		0.457	0.092		0.496	0.933	
	Small			0.911			0.11			0.934	

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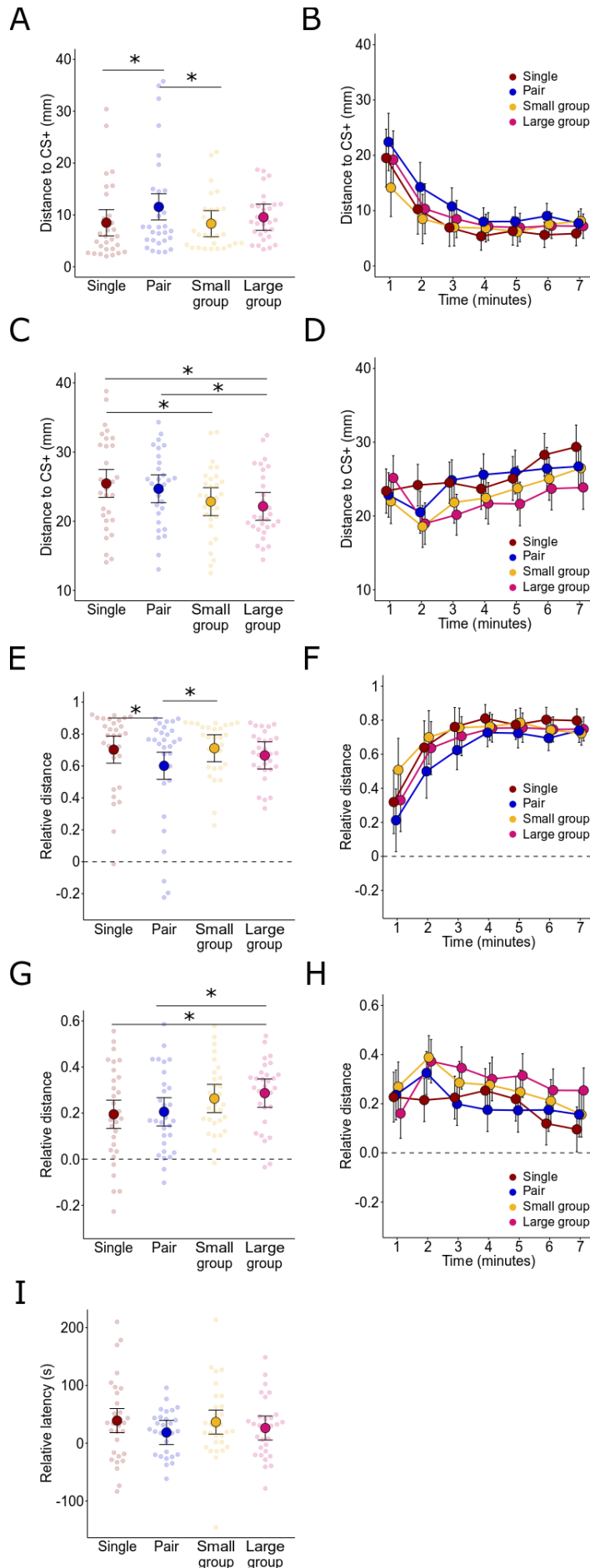


Figure S1: Flies' behavioral performance during conditioning and memory test. Related to Figure 1D, 2A and 2B.

(A) Distance to the CS+ of flies in the different groups during conditioning. Large points represent the mean distance to the CS+ per group size. Whiskers represent the 95 % credible intervals. Small points represent the mean distance to the CS+ per experimental run (N= 30 experimental runs). Stars represent differences with probabilities equal to or greater than 0.95.

(B) Same data as in (A) but for one-minute time bins. Points represent the mean distance to the CS+ per group size. Colors and whiskers are the same as in (A). For statistical comparisons between groups, see Table S1 (applies to all figure panels).

(C) Distance to the CS+ during the memory test.

(D) Same data as in (C) but for one-minute time bins.

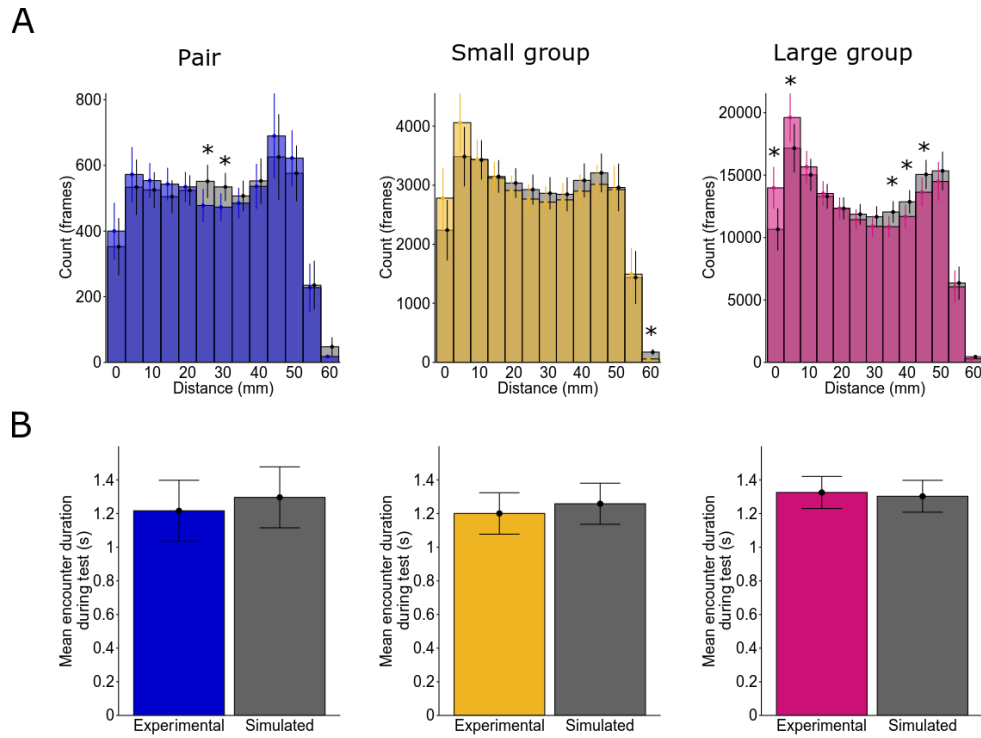
(E) Relative distance of flies in the different groups during conditioning. The dashed line indicates the relative distance due to chance (0).

(F) Same data as in (E) but for one-minute time bins. In all time bins, all groups were closer to the CS+-sucrose patch than to the CS- ($p(\text{relative distance} > 0) \geq 0.988$).

(G) Relative distance during the memory test.

(H) Same data as in (G) but for one-minute time bins. In all time bins, all groups were closer to the CS+ than to the CS- ($p(\text{relative distance} > 0) \geq 0.98$).

(I) Relative latencies of flies to reach CS+ ([latency to the CS-] - [latency to the CS+]) for the different groups during the memory test. The Bayesian probabilities for intergroup-differences were below 0.92.



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834 **Figure S2: Inter-fly encounters during the test. Related to Figure 2C – E.**

835 (A) The number of inter-fly distances during the test for flies conditioned in pairs (left), small groups (middle)
836 and large groups (right). The first bin ranges from 0 mm to 2.5 mm, and the following bins represent a range of
837 5 mm i.e. the 10 mm bin ranges from 7.5 mm to 12.5 mm. Bars represent the mean number of distances per
838 bin between real groups of flies (pair: blue, small group: yellow, large group: pink) and between simulated
839 groups of flies (grey). Vertical lines represent the 95 % credible intervals. Videos were recorded at 15 frames/s.
840 Bars of the experimental and simulated number of distances within the same bin were compared to each
841 other. Stars indicate differences with probabilities equal to or greater than 0.95 between the experimental and
842 simulated data within a bin (N = 30 real or simulated experimental runs).

843 (B) Mean encounter length per experimental run for the pair (blue, left), small group (yellow, middle) and large
844 group (pink, right). The corresponding simulated groups of flies are shown in grey. Bars represent the mean
845 across experimental runs. Whiskers represent the 95 % credible intervals. Stars represent differences with
846 probabilities equal to or greater than 0.95 between the real and simulated groups.

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