## **Supplementary Information for**

# **Towards a Unifying Account of Dopamine's Role in Cost-Benefit Decision Making**

#### *Mathematical formulation of the proposed framework*

We propose that dopamine affects different components of the choice process, which can be modelled as a drift diffusion-style process. Drift diffusion models assume that, after a non-decision time τ, evidence is accumulated with a velocity (drift rate) ν from a starting bias ζ until a decision threshold  $\alpha$  is reached. Following the assumptions of the OpAL or accelerator/brake models (1), we assume that the drift rate towards the boundaries depends on the linear combination of the differences in reward magnitude (Magnitude<sub>diff</sub>) and action costs (Cost<sub>diff</sub>) between two choice options:

 $v = \beta_{\text{magnitude}} \times \text{Magnitude}_{\text{diff}} - \beta_{\text{cost}} \times \text{Cost}_{\text{diff}}$ 

According to the proximity account (2), the starting bias parameter is sensitive to the proximity advantage of one option over the other (Proximity $_{diff}$ ), which can be formalized as follows:

 $\zeta = \beta_0 - \beta_{\text{proximity}} \times \text{Proximity}_{\text{diff}}$ 

We posit that dopaminergic D1R and D2R activity affects different subcomponents of this choice process, making clear predictions regarding which aspect of the choice process should be affected by a drug as a function of its effects on D1R and D2R family activation. D1R activation determines the weight assigned to rewards in the evidence accumulation process (βmagnitude). In contrast, D2R activation affects the weight assigned to both action costs during evidence accumulation (with higher D2R activation reducing  $\beta_{cost}$ ) and to proximity effects on the starting bias (with higher D2R activation increasing  $\beta_{proximity}$ ). Analyzing existing or novel

datasets with drift diffusion models allows empirically testing these assumptions and modifying the proposed framework according to the empirical findings.

We note that another model of the authors of the proximity account assumes that D1 mediated benefit processing is weighed against D2-mediated cost processing ((3); see also equation 1 in (2)), but in the formulation of the proximity account the idea that D2R activation computes the acceptable costs appears to have been crowded out by the focus on proximity. In their normative account of how manipulating dopamine levels affects value-based choice, the authors of the proximity account do not explicitly assume distinct roles for D1R and D2R neurotransmission. Given the evidence for dissociable influences of D1R and D2R activation on decision making, we propose that combining the assumptions of a D2-mediated cost control with proximity-dependent dopaminergic effects may provide the best explanation for the role of dopamine in cost-benefit decision making, as we describe in the main text.

#### *Disentangling proximity and action costs*

In most situations, action costs and proximity differences are strongly correlated. In intertemporal decision making, for example, immediate rewards are also perceived as more proximate than delayed rewards. However, it is possible to experimentally disentangle proximity and action costs by manipulating the concreteness of the delayed reward, e.g. via episodic event cues. In some previous experiments, a reward in the future was presented either with or without an episodic cue for an event occurring at the time of reward delivery (e.g., "vacation in Paris in 180 days"; Figure S1A/B) (4-6). These episodic event cues increased the proportion of larger-later choices, which was explained by the assumption that the event cues make the future rewards more concrete. In other words, these event cues reduced the proximity advantage of the immediate over the delayed reward without affecting the action costs (as the waiting time stayed the same). If this assumption is correct, then from the perspective of process models the more patient choices in conditions with compared to without episodic event cues

should result from a shift in the starting bias towards the delayed reward. In contrast, the weighted influences of rewards and delay costs on the evidence accumulation process per se should be unaffected. Thus, episodic events cues, which render future or also risky outcomes more concrete (5), provide a tool for disentangling proximity and action costs. Manipulations like these may even allow assigning a proximity advantage to the costlier option if the difference in action costs between the options is small (Figure S1C).



*Figure S1*. Experimentally manipulating proximity bias. (A) In most experimental paradigms less costly (e.g., immediate) rewards have a proximity advantage over costlier (e.g., delayed) rewards. However (B), this proximity advantage can be reduced by making the delayed option more concrete, for example via episodic event cues. (C) If differences in action costs are sufficiently small (e.g., slightly less reward in 150 days versus in 180 days), such event cues may even allow reversing the proximity bias and assigning a proximity advantage to the costlier over the less costly reward.

#### **Supplementary References**

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- 4. Peters J, Buchel C (2010): Episodic future thinking reduces reward delay discounting through an enhancement of prefrontal-mediotemporal interactions. *Neuron*. 66:138-148.
- 5. Mok JN, Kwan D, Green L, Myerson J, Craver CF, Rosenbaum RS (2020): Is it time? Episodic imagining and the discounting of delayed and probabilistic rewards in young and older adults. *Cognition*. 199:104222.
- 6. Bulley A, Gullo MJ (2017): The influence of episodic foresight on delay discounting and demand for alcohol. *Addictive behaviors*. 66:1-6.

### **Supplementary Tables**



*Table S1*. Effects of dopaminergic manipulations on decisions involving trade-offs between rewards and delay costs.

Action can be direct (through binding at receptors) or indirect, e.g. by blocking reuptake.

\*The study included an additional group of 40 participants who received the opioid receptor antagonist naltrexone.

APTD: acute phenylalanine/tyrosine depletion method.

<b>First author</b>	Year	$\mathbf N$	<b>Design</b>	<b>Drug</b>	dose	Receptor	<b>Action</b>	Outcome
De Wit	2002	36	Within	d-amphetamine	$10 \text{ mg}$	D1/D2	agonist	no effect
					$20 \text{ mg}$			
Rigoli	2016	32	Within	l-dopa	$150 \text{ mg}$	D1/D2	agonist	more risky decisions
Acheson	2008	32	Within	d-amphetamine	$20 \text{ mg}$	D1/D2	agonist	no effect
				bupropion	$150 \text{ mg}$	D1/D2	agonist	no effect
					$300$ mg			
Soutschek	2020	120	Between	PF-06412562	6 <sub>mg</sub>	D <sub>1</sub>	agonist	fewer risky choices with increasing dose
					$15 \text{ mg}$			
					$30 \text{ mg}$			
Rutledge	2015	30	Within	$l$ -dopa	$150$ mg	D1/D2	agonist	more risky decisions for gains
Evers	2017	24	Within	methylphenidate	$40 \text{ mg}$	D1/D2	agonist	no effects
Symmonds	2013	20	Within	l-dopa	$100$ mg	D1/D2	agonist	no effect
Hamidovic	2008	10	Within	pramipexole	$0.25$ mg	D <sub>2</sub>	agonist	no effect
					$0.5$ mg			
Arrondo	2015	14	Within	metoclopramide	$10 \text{ mg}$	D <sub>2</sub>	antagonist	no effect
<b>Burke</b>	2018	93	Between	amisulpride	$400$ mg	D <sub>2</sub>	antagonist	less risk aversion and probability distortion
Ojala	2018	21	Within	sulpiride	$400$ mg	D <sub>2</sub>	antagonist	less probability distortion
Riba	2008	15	Within	pramipexole	$0.5 \text{ mg}$	D2	agonist	more risky choices
Petzold	2019	87	Within	l-dopa	$150 \text{ mg}$	D1/D2	agonist	fewer risky choices in impulsive individuals
White	2007	37	Within	d-amphetamine	$20 \text{ mg}$	D1/D2	agonist	more risky choices in individuals with high
								reward sensitivity
Campbell-	2012	40	Between	methylphenidate	$20 \text{ mg}$	D1/D2	agonist	increased sensitivity to high rewards
Meiklejohn								
Campbell-	2011	40	Between	pramipexole	$0.176$ mg	D <sub>2</sub>	antagonist	reduced loss chasing
Meiklejohn								
Norbury	2013	20	Within	cabergoline	$1.5 \text{ mg}$	D <sub>2</sub>	agonist	higher sensitivity to probability of winning
Zack	2007	18	Within	haloperidol	$3 \text{ mg}$	D2	antagonist	no effect
Gross	2021	154	Between	methylphenidate	$30 \text{ mg}$	D1/D2	agonist	more risky choices

*Table S2*. Effects of dopaminergic manipulations on risky decision making.

Action can be direct (through binding at receptors) or indirect, e.g. by blocking reuptake.





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