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# Nutritional inequalities structure worker division of labor in social insects

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Eusocial insect societies are fundamentally non-egalitarian. The reproductive caste 'wins' in terms of resource accumulation, whereas non-reproductive workers 'lose'. Here, we argue that the division of labor among workers is also organized by nutritional inequalities. Across vastly different social systems and a variety of hymenopteran species, there is a recurrent pattern of lean foragers and corpulent nest workers. Experimental manipulations confirm causal associations between nutritional differences, associated molecular pathways, and behavioral roles in insect societies. The comparative and functional genomic data suggest that a conserved toolkit of core metabolic, nutrient storage, and signaling genes has evolved to regulate the social insect division of labor. Thus, the unequal distribution of food resources can be considered a fundamental organizing factor in the social insect division of labor.

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### Introduction

Insect societies are fundamentally non-egalitarian. Among reproductive castes, there are 'haves' and 'have nots' — reproductive 'royal' castes with extremely high reproductive capacity, and non-reproductive worker castes with extremely low reproductive capacity (in some species even being functionally sterile) [1]. Reproductive caste individuals win in the game of resource accumulation. They are generally larger, have higher food intake, higher metabolism, are longer lived, and importantly, generally

have more nutritional reserves (fat and protein) during both juvenile and adult stages. Furthermore, differences in diet quality/quantity can set up cascades of hormonal, metabolic, developmental, epigenetic, and gene expression differences that produce distinct castes [2].

Less recognized is the fact that there are also extensive nutritional inequalities among members of the worker caste [3]. In its most extreme form, nutritional differences during larval development can lead to distinct morphological castes (e.g. soldiers, major, and minor workers [4]). Less obviously, there is emerging evidence that even within morphologically identical worker behavioral subcastes, there are subtler nutritional inequalities that underlie the division of labor [3,5,6]. Here, we explore the generality, adaptive value, and functional consequences of these inequalities and suggest that they are fundamental to how the division of labor is organized in social insects.

Eusociality has evolved multiple times within the eusocial insects, and worker division of labor across species involves a diversity of different forms. Despite these differences, the universal challenge of resource limitation in nature brings up the possibility that there may be fundamental similarities in the physical and structural principles underlying independently evolved systems of the division of labor. For example, Oster & Wilson (1978) applied optimal foraging theory to social insects and predicted that, on a colony level, natural selection should shape group composition in social insect colonies to maximize energy intake and minimize energy loss [7]. One key prediction is that workers, and more specifically foraging workers, can function as a 'disposable caste' for the colony [8]. These individuals, performing tasks with high mortality risk and energy expenditure, can be viewed as more expendable from a colony perspective. Colonies are thus predicted to disinvest energy reserves in these individuals so that they have lower levels of stored nutrient reserves (e.g. lower fat, protein, and carbohydrate stores) than their counterparts that are found inside the nest (nest workers, nurses, and royal caste individuals).

The goal of this article is to explore three interrelated questions concerning the relationship between worker nutrition and division of labor. 1) Are nutritional differences associated with the worker division of labor across a range of eusocial insect taxa? 2) Are nutritional

Order	Family	Species	Citation
Hymenoptera	Vespidae	Polybia occidentalis	O'Donnell and Jeanne,
			1995 [11]
Hymenoptera	Vespidae	Mischocyttarus mastigophorus	Markiewisz and O'Donnell,
			2001 [12]
Hymenoptera	Vespidae	Polistes metricus	Toth et al. 2009 [13]
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Pogonomyrmex montanus,	MacKay, 1983 [14]
		P. subnitidus, P. rugosus	
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Colobus nipponicus	Hasegawa, 1993 [15]
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Pogonomyrmex owyheei	Porter and Jorgensen,
			1981 [8]
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Pogonomyrmex badius	Tschinkel, 1998 [16]
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Prenolepis imparis	Tschinkel, 1987 [17]
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Leptothorax albipennis	Blanchard et al., 2000 [10]
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Formica japonica	Kondoh, 1968 [18]
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Tapinoma erraticum	Meudec and Lenoir,
			1982 [19]
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Myrmica rubra	Brian and Abbott, 1977 [20
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Temnothorax albipennis	E. Robinson et al, 2009 [21
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Dinoponera australis	Smith et al. 2011 [22]
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Pogonomyrmex occidentalis, Po. barbatus, Formica fusca, Atta cephalotes,	Silberman et al. 2016 [5]
		Solenopsis invicta (-), S. geminata, Pheidole spadonia, Nylanderia fulva (+)	
Hymenoptera	Formicidae	Platythyrea punctata	Bernadou et al. 2020 [3]
Hymenoptera	Apidae	Apis mellifera	Toth and Robinson, 2005 [6
Hymenoptera	Apidae	Bombus impatiens (-)	Couvillon et al. 2011 [23]

All species listed showed lower nutrient stores in foragers compared to non-foragers, except (-) indicates no significant difference between foragers and non-foragers in nutrient stores, (+) indicates a non-significant trend toward lower nutrient stores in foragers.

differences causally associated with different behavioral roles within societies? 3) Are core molecular mechanisms related to nutrient storage, mobilization, food searching, and hunger regulators of the worker division of labor? We conclude that strong support for all three questions reveals nutritional inequality is a core part of how the division of labor is organized in insect societies.

### Part 1: are nutritional asymmetries associated with worker division of labor?

Within hymenopteran social insects, the division of labor between foragers and non-foragers is a near-universal feature. Despite the fact that foragers are collecting food and thus have ready access to it, we predict foragers to be nutritionally deprived compared to non-foragers, relying on rapidly metabolized carbohydrates for flight energy rather than lipid stores. Why? Colonies that distribute nutrient resources away from foragers and into non-foraging nest workers stand to benefit energetically for several reasons. First, lean foragers can be more efficient with less weight to carry around on foraging trips, even small amounts of extra weight during locomotion are energetically costly, especially for flying species [9]. Second, the reduction of nutritional reserves in the abdomen, for example, limiting the volume of the fat body, leaves more room for foragers to store liquid food in the crop [10]. Finally, since foragers have high mortality, the death of lean foragers minimizes the amount of energy lost at a colony level [8].

In reviewing the literature, we found evidence from three families of Hymenoptera (Table 1): 3 species of wasps in the Vespidae, 22 species of ants in the Formicidae, and 2 species of bees in the Apidae, that support the lean forager prediction. In honey bees, the lipid in the fat body of nurses was 2x that of foragers, and lipid stores declined before the onset of foraging [6]. Among wasps, *Polybia occidentalis* foragers have low lipid levels, and this also declines before the onset of foraging [11]. Mischocyttarus mastigophorus female fat body condition is negatively correlated with outside performance and positively correlated with time spent on the nest [12] (Table 2).

In ants, Pogonomyrmex montanus, P. subnitidus, and P. rugosus foragers die more quickly under starvation and have lower fat content than the nest workers [14]. The foraging workers are 40% leaner than the nest workers in Pogonomyrmex owyheei [8], and the young workers P. badius at the bottom of the nest have 30% fat, the older workers near the top of the nest have less than ~23% fat, foragers always have less than 10% [16]. In Prenolepis imparis, the callow workers act as 'corpulents', with 60% fat stores, lose this fat after brood rearing, and then become foragers [17]. In Leptothorax albipennis, the foraging tendency is negatively correlated with the amount of lipid storage [10]. Kondoh (1968) found two distinct subtypes of Formica japonica workers exist: lean and corpulent; only lean workers are found outside of the

Table 2				
Studies demo	nstrating tha	Studies demonstrating that experimentally altering the	ring the worker's nutritional state results in changes in behavior and/or division of labor.	
Order	Family Species		Finding	Citation
Hymenoptera Vespidae Hymenoptera Vespidae Hymenoptera Formicidae Hymenoptera Apidae Hymenoptera Apidae	Vespidae Vespidae Vespidae Formicidae Apidae	Ropalidia marginata Polistes metricus Polistes fuscatus Linepithema humile Apis mellifera Ceratina calcarata	Hymenoptera         Pospidae         Popalidia marginata         Low food increases foraging and aggression directed at foragers         Lamba et al. 2001 [Lamba et al. 2001]           Hymenoptera         Vespidae         Polistes metricus         Starvation causes increased foraging           Hymenoptera         Polistes fuscatus         Starvation causes reduced aggression           Hymenoptera         Polistes fuscatus         Starvation causes reduced aggression           Hymenoptera         Apis mellifera         Experimentally reduced lipid stores cause increased foraging           Hymenoptera         Apidae           Apis mellifera         Experimentally reduced lipid stores cause increased foraging           Hymenoptera         Apidae           Food stress affects queen pheromone response         Food stress affects queen pheromone response           Hymenoptera         Apidae	Lamba et al. 2008 [24] Daugherry et al. 2011 [25] Walton and Toth 2021 [26] Grover et al. 2007 [27] Toth et al. 2005 [28] Walton et al. 2018 [29] Lawson et al. 2017 [30]

nest foraging [18]. Similarly, in Temnothorax albipennis, lean individuals are more likely to exit the nest (forage) [21]. In *Dinoponera australis*, the probability of foraging and foraging effort is associated with decreased fat storage in workers [22]. In morphologically distinct workers of the ant *Colobopis nipponicus*, the majors (which do not forage) had higher fat content than the minors[15]. Comparing eight ant species (Pogonomyrmex occidentalis, P. barbatus, F. fusca, A. cephalotes, S. invicta, S. geminata. Pheidole spadonia, and Nylanderia fulva), foragers from six of these species had a lower lipid and/or carbohydrate levels (and another had a non-significant trend in the same direction) compared to brood workers [5]. In Platythyrea punctata, lipid stores change with the division of labor from corpulent to lean and, in reverted nurses, back to corpulent [3].

We also note that although the nutrient-depleted forager pattern is supported by 27 species, there are two exceptions. Silberman (2016) found no correlation between the behavior and nutrient stores in Solenopsis invicta ants [5]. In the bumble bee *Bombus impatiens*, there was no difference in the nutritional state between nest workers and foragers [23]. However, we note that both species have large variations in worker body size, which itself still stems from differences in larval nutritional state [31]. Thus, it is possible that in systems with the sizebased division of labor, early life nutritional differences, which are manifested as differences in adult size, are stronger determinants of adult behavioral task performance than adult nutritional differences.

How worker nutritional inequalities come about is an important question. Multiple different mechanisms may be in play, including dietary shifts over the lifetime (e.g. worker honey bees cease eating pollen when they begin foraging [32]), metabolic demands of work causing depletion of nutrient stores (e.g. metabolism of fat in honey bee workers to produce wax and brood food) and in some species, differential food sharing and/or transfer. For example, in Tapinoma erraticum, old ants (which tend to be foragers) are donors of food, whereas young ants (which work in the nest) are recipients [19]. Myrmica rubra ants inside the nest are more well-nourished and draw food stores away from nutrient-depleted foragers [20].

### Part 2: do nutritional differences cause behavioral differences in societies?

Despite the large number of correlative studies cited above, there have been far fewer studies that address causality (Table 2). For those that do, there is accumulating evidence that across multiple, independently evolved lineages, diet and nutritional manipulations cause individuals to fill different roles in insect societies. However, the specific type of behaviors and the direction of influence of nutritional state can vary between and within species (e.g. life stage).

In the paper wasps of the family *Vespidae*, where a worker's behavioral caste is often flexible and may shift or regress throughout her lifetime [33], nutritional inequalities are proving to be a major organizer of labor [34]. In *Polistes metricus*, starvation caused a reduction in lipid stores and an increase in foraging behavior [25]. Similarly, in the sister taxa *P. fuscatus*, nutritional deprivation decreased dominance-related aggressive interactions between nest-mates [26]. A causal relationship between nutritional state and worker behavior is also evident, though not necessarily in the same direction, in the paper wasp *Ropalidia marginata* where starvation increased foraging activity and aggression directed at foragers [24]. Conversely, a surplus of food led to a decrease in intranidal aggression [35].

In social bees, nourishment also causally influences behavioral variation. In the subsocial carpenter bee Ceratina calcarata, depriving daughters of pollen induced worker phenotypes (small, non-aggressive subordinates), whereas pollen supplementation caused daughters to behave like solitary bees [30,36]. In the honey bee Apis mellifera, lipid depletion is a proximate causal determinant of foraging onset [28]. Honey bees reared as larvae in pollen-stressed colonies initiated foraging earlier as adults (though less successfully than their counterparts from unstressed colonies) [37]. Moreover, worker larval nutritional deprivation caused an increase in retinue behavior (i.e. responsiveness to queen mandibular pheromone) [29]. However, an in vitro manipulation of honey bee larval diet quantity did not affect the likeliness to perform nursing or foraging (possibly due to compensatory food intake as adults) [38]. As with social wasps and bees, the nutritional state can determine worker social behavior in some ant groups. For example, a reduction in available sucrose food resources caused a significant decrease in aggression and overall activity in Argentine ant (Linepithema humile) workers though reducing their access to insect prey (i.e. protein) did not affect aggression [27]. Further research, across life stages and lineages with various forms of sociality, is necessary to elucidate the relationship between nutritional inequality and behavioral organization in insect societies.

While the aforementioned studies demonstrate causality on a broad scale (i.e. diet or nutritional manipulations influence worker behavior), more work is needed to better elucidate the physiological, molecular, and neurological pathways that connect nutritional state and worker behavior. While a large number of social insect studies show nutritional differences correlating with the division of labor, and show that diet/food manipulations affect behavior, in general, the field lacks studies that identify and manipulate these candidate genetic and

physiological pathways to test their role in regulating behavior via nutritional input (causatively).

## Part 3: do core nutrition/feeding-related genes regulate social traits?

There is mounting evidence that conserved insect nutrient-sensing genes have been co-opted in social insect evolution to regulate social behavior [39,40]. Insulin-like peptides (Ilps) are well known to be associated with feeding regulation in solitary species [41,42], and a growing number of studies implicate them in the regulation of the forager division of labor. Ilp expression varies between foragers and nurses in honey bee brains, where insulin-like peptide 1 (Ilp1) expression is higher in foragers whereas insulin-like peptide 2 (Ilp2) expression is higher in nurse bees [43]. Similarly, in *Polistes* metricus wasps, Ilp2 brain gene expression is higher in satiated non-foragers than in starved foragers [25]. In Diacamma ants, where colonies consist of monomorphic individuals and reproduction is performed by dominant gamergates, fat body *Ilp1* expression is higher in dominant ants [44]. Causality has been demonstrated only in the honey bee system in which inhibition of the insulinrelated target of rapamycin delayed the onset of foraging behavior [43].

In addition to Ilps, several other neuropeptides are associated with the regulation of social food-seeking and forager division of labor. *Neuropeptide F* (NPF) was shown to be associated with honey bee foraging [45]. Another neuropeptide, tachykinin has been associated with honey bee response thresholds to task-related stimuli [46] and *Acromyrmex* ant worker aggression [47]. Additionally, *tachykinin* and NPF brain gene expression were positively correlated with an increase in aggression within satiated *Polistes fuscatus* paper wasp nests [26]. Moreover, the neuropeptide *Corazonin*, which contributes to the regulation of metabolism in *Drosophila* [48], stimulates hunting behavior and inhibits ovary activation in *Harpegnathos saltator* worker ants [49].

Storage proteins and their genetic regulation are important to the organization of social traits. The egg-yolk precursor vitellogenin is a major regulator of insect physiology and has been well-studied in social insects for its role in behavioral ontogeny [50,51]. In honey bees, RNAi-mediated knockdown of vitellogenin gene expression causes rapid onset of foraging and a bias for nectar foraging [52,53]. In a currently unpublished study from *Polistes fuscatus* paper wasps, knockdown of vitellogenin expression in worker head fat body decreased aggression toward conspecifics (Walton et al., *in prep*), reinforcing the role of vitellogenin in the regulation of social behavior in multiple lineages of social Hymenoptera. In addition to vitellogenin, hexamerins are some of the most abundant storage proteins in insects,

commonly associated with diapause phenotypes [54,55]. In social insects, they are also likely important regulators of the division of labor. Hexamerins have been implicated in reproductive caste bias during larval development in *Polistes* wasps [56,57]. In *Reticulitermes* and Macrotermes termites, hexamerins are also causally related to soldier caste differences, and show differential expression between forager and builder castes [58,59].

In summary, these studies suggest a common theme of core nutrient-sensing, storage, and feeding-related genes being associated with worker subcaste differentiation and the division of labor; we note; however, that outside of honey bees, there have been few studies testing causality. Across lineages of social insects, some of the same genes and pathways (e.g. insulin pathway, feeding neuropeptides, storage proteins) are associated with social behaviors, including foraging, aggression, and nest construction. This suggests that genes with ancestral roles related to nourishment and food-seeking may have been co-opted in social contexts for the regulation of both food-related (foraging) and non-food-related (aggression and building) worker behaviors.

### Part 4: synthesis and conclusions

We find supportive evidence from over 30 different hymenopteran social insect species representing multiple origins of sociality of a strong pattern in which differences in the worker behavioral role are associated with differences in individual nutritional state. We note that across these diverse systems, nutritional inequalities are found in multiple different systems of the division of labor (reproductive, morphologically-based, dominancebased, age-based). Thus, with a few possible exceptions (two genera with morphologically distinct workers, Bombus and Solenopsis), there is a widely shared pattern in which worker division of labor is structured along nutritional lines, specifically, in which nutritionally deprived individuals engage in foraging behavior. We suggest the 'lean forager syndrome' is more robust for systems with morphologically identical workers; other regulating mechanisms may be more important for species with morphologically distinct workers.

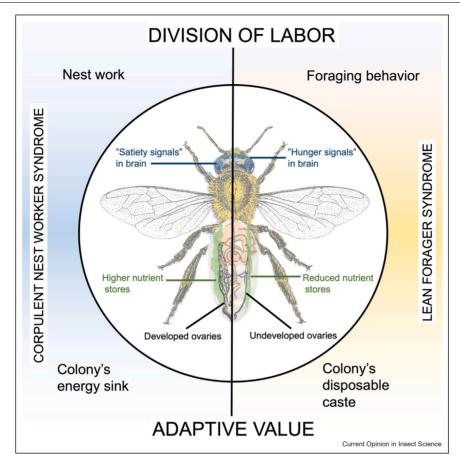
The existence of nutrient-depleted foragers was consistent across most species examined. In some species, foragers not only have depleted nutrient stores, but this depletion occurs (at least partly) before the onset of foraging behavior. For example, in *Prenolepis imparis*, corpulent workers lose massive amounts of their energy stores during a period of brood rearing before becoming foragers [17]. This may be so extreme that foragers can be seen as 'running on empty'. Lipid stores can be so depleted that workers of some species must depend entirely on circulating carbohydrates to fuel locomotion [60]; however, this may not apply equally to all taxa [11,16].

An equally important part of the lean forager syndrome is the implied converse, the corpulent nest worker. Because nest workers have a higher nutritional state, they may function as living vessels for the storage of colony energy. This is seen to an extreme degree in the ants, in which replete workers remain in the nest and store liquid food in their crops [61]. Recent work has identified the existence of 'fat body repletes' in several species of ants, in which lipid stores in the fat body are hypertrophied to an extreme degree (Monomorium pharaonis: [62]; Prenolepis imparis: [17]; Myrmecocystus mexicanus: [63]).

Several lines of evidence suggest the lean forager-corpulent nest worker pattern is adaptive (Figure 1). First, this pattern has convergently evolved multiple times. The lean syndrome may be another manifestation of the 'disposable caste' phenomenon [8]. While this has been invoked to explain patterns of age-related division of labor (e.g. sending out the oldest workers to die), it applies equally well to understand nutritional asymmetries. Colonies should send out the most nutrient-depleted individuals to die so that the colony loses less of its precious energy reserves. Finally, the lean foragers may also be more energetically efficient. Studies have documented up to a 2x difference between nest workers and foragers in weight/lipid weight [6]. When multiplied over many foraging trips and many workers, lean foragers carrying less body weight on foraging trips could indeed save their colonysubstantial energy [9]. Furthermore, the corpulent nest workers could serve as a valuable sink of colony energy. Energy stored in (often) young, well-protected workers can safeguard a substantial part of colony energy stores during nest evacuation or relocation.

This adaptive pattern may have another evolutionary function to orchestrate behavioral maturation. Studies suggest that 'hunger signals' in the brain may be the important regulators of social foraging across multiple independent origins of eusociality. Nutrient depletion before the onset of foraging could act as a cue to the individual to leave the nest and begin foraging behavior [6]. Although foraging by hungry animals may seem obvious, the interesting twist is that social insect foragers are generally eating very little of the food they collect; the vast majority is brought back to the colony to feed colony mates or contribute to colony food caches. In support of this, studies reviewed above from ants, bees, and wasps suggest canonical feeding regulation genes including the insulin pathway, neuropeptides such as tachykinin, NPF, and corazonin, and the storage proteins vitellogenin and hexamerins, as well as others are associated with different forms of foraging division of labor. This suggests that a core part of the 'toolkit' for the division of labor in eusocial insects is based on core feeding and nutrition genes found in solitary insects [40].

Figure 1



Schematic summary of the skinny forager/corpulent nest worker pattern, which is underlain by differences in physiology (fat and carbohydrate stores, ovary development), and brain gene expression and chemistry (e.g. expression of hunger signals such as NPF). This nutritional inequality not only structures the division of labor among nestmates within a social insect colony but can also have an adaptive value for colonies in terms of storing energy and saving on energy costs.

The influence of nutrient stores on the organization of the division of labor promises to be a fruitful line of inquiry for future investigations. However, the field could benefit from more work addressing causal associations between specific physiological and molecular mechanisms and worker behavior. In addition, we urge further considerations of evolutionary scenarios on resource availability and the evolution of sociality, especially comparing mechanisms from related solitary and social species (across a social spectrum) within a phylogenetic context. This can help tie in how nutritional asymmetries may have contributed to the evolution of sociality. Along those lines, more work on the potential importance of resource limitation in driving the evolution of cooperation among social insects may be informative.

### **Data Availability**

No data was used for the research described in the article.

### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

None.

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