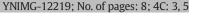
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Subjective illusion of control modulates striatal reward anticipation in adolescence

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ABSTRACT

The perception of control over the environment constitutes a fundamental biological adaptive mechanism espe-20 cially during development. Previous studies using an active choice condition compared to a passive no-choice 21 condition showed that the neural basis of this mechanism is associated with increased activity within the striatum and the prefrontal cortex. In the current study, we aimed to investigate whether subjective belief of control 23 in an uncertain gambling situation induces elevated activation in a cortico-striatal network. 24We investigated 79 adolescents (age range: 13-16 years) during reward anticipation with a slot machine task 25 using functional magnetic resonance imaging. We assessed post-experimentally whether the participants expe-26 rienced a subjective illusion of control on winning or losing in this task, which was objectively not given. 27 Nineteen adolescents experienced an illusion of control during slot machine gambling. This illusion of control 28 group showed an increased neural activity during reward anticipation within a cortico-striatal network including 29 ventral striatum (VS) as well as right inferior frontal gyrus (rIFG) compared to the group showing no illusion of 30 control. The rIFG activity was inversely associated with impulsivity in the no illusion of control group. The subjective belief about control led to an elevated ventral striatal activity, which is known to be involved in the 32 processing of reward. This finding strengthens the notion that the subjectively perceived control, not necessarily 33 the objective presence of control, affects striatal reward-related processing. 34

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Introduction

Self-determination and autonomy are essential concepts in many political, philosophical and psychological theories (Ryan and Deci, 2006; Taylor and Ntoumanis, 2007). Grawe defined in his "consistency theory" about the psychological function of human beings (Grawe, 452007) that the feeling of control is one of the four basic needs (besides need for attachment, need for self-esteem enhancement, and need for pleasure). Thus, the perception of control may constitute a fundamental psychological mechanism strongly related to the individual well-being (Bandura et al., 2003; Ryan and Deci, 2006; Shapiro et al., 1996). A lack of perceived control could evoke feelings of helplessness and has been shown to be associated with depression (Mineka and Hendersen, 521985), whereas strong perceived self-efficacy (Bandura et al., 2003) 53seems to be adaptive, in striving for academic achievement e.g. (Leotti

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et al., 2010). However, in situations of uncertainty, perceived control 54 might lead to false beliefs: in gambling situations like playing a slot ma- 55 chine it is evident that no true control is possible. Nevertheless, many 56 people do perceive control in these situations. This phenomenon was 57 termed illusion of control (Langer, 1975) and is mostly pronounced in 58 problem gamblers (Goodie, 2005). The illusion of control is character- 59 ized by the erroneous belief that skill is involved in gambling. For exam- 60 ple slot machine gamblers reported that their "specialist play features 61 (e.g. "nudge", "hold" and "gamble" buttons, etc.)" are perceived as 62 learned skills and lead to an overestimation of personal chance of win- 63 ning and therefore to an illusion of control (Griffiths, 1994).

Leotti et al. (2010) showed in their review about the neurobiological 65 basis of perceived control that it is associated with cortico-striatal net- 66 works including the basal ganglia and prefrontal cortex (PFC, Leotti 67 et al., 2010). The striatum is known to be involved in reward processing 68 and goal-directed behavior, whereas the PFC is involved in the top- 69 down regulation of emotional and motivational processes (Kouneiher 70 et al., 2009; Ochsner and Gross, 2005). A study of Tricomi et al. (2004) 71 has shown that this cortico-striatal network is also involved in the per-72 ception of control. Both the striatum and the prefrontal cortex respond 73

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more strongly when a choice (decision between two options) is follow-74 75ed by a reward or punishment in comparison to the situation when no choice (only one button press possible) is followed by the same rein-76 77 forcement. In this experiment, participants were instructed that their decision has an influence on reward probability. Indeed, an increased 78 79activation was observed in a risk taking task during active choice (again a decision between two options) compared to a passive no-80 choice condition (again, only one option available) within the striatum 81 82 and the PFC (Rao et al., 2008). Leotti and Delgado (2011) demonstrated 83 that the anticipation of having a choice (compared to having no choice) 84 followed by a reward, revealed a stronger striatal response. The authors concluded that having a choice between options has an inherently 85 rewarding value itself (Leotti and Delgado, 2011). Taken together, an ac-86 87 tive choice that increases the perception of control seems to be associated with an increased neural response within a cortico-striatal network 88 during decision making or reward anticipation. However, all reported 89 studies used within-group designs investigating one sample in different 90 91 conditions including active control and a no-choice condition and manipulated the perception of control objectively. To our best knowledge, 92no study so far investigated the subjective feeling of control in an uncer-93 tain situation. Thus, the aim of the present study is to investigate how 94 95reward anticipation is modulated by the subjective false belief of the il-96 lusion of control

Overestimation of control in gambling situations can lead to risk tak-97 ing behavior, which has been associated with problem gambling 98 (Goodie, 2005). Increased risk taking behavior is observed in particular 99 during adolescence-a period in life, which is characterized by elevated 100 101 drug and alcohol use, as well as to behavior endangering self- and others in traffic and sexual interactions (Steinberg, 2008). Interestingly, higher 102rates of problem gambling and pathological gambling are observed in 103 adolescents in comparison to adults (Chambers and Potenza, 2003; 03 04 Dell'Osso et al., 2006). A possible neurobiological explanation for this in-106 creased risk taking behavior is provided by a neurobiological concept of brain development. In particular, during adolescence, striatal and pre-107frontal development is characterized by an asymmetry. While the stria-108 tum develops very early, the prefrontal cortex develops more slowly. 109This protracted development of the frontal cortex is probably accompa-110 111 nied by a not yet efficient top-down regulation (Casey et al., 2008; Galvan, 2010). Indeed, functional neuroimaging studies show that the 112 striatal activation during reward processing is elevated in adolescence 113 compared to adulthood (Galvan et al., 2006, 2007; Lorenz et al., 2014; 114 115 Van Leijenhorst et al., 2010).

Taken together, adolescence is a vulnerable period in life character-116 ized by increased risk taking behavior and increased rates of problem 117 gambling. These vulnerabilities are probably related to an asymmetry 118 in striatal-cortical brain development. Therefore in the current study, 119120we investigated a sample of adolescents, because this population might be more prone to phenomena like overestimation of control in 121 uncertain situation. Thus, we believe that the number of adolescents 122showing an illusion of control in gambling situations is relatively high. 123We therefore hypothesized that adolescents show an elevated response 124125within the cortico-striatal network in an uncertain situation such as a 126gambling task when experiencing an illusion of control compared to adolescents who show no such illusion of control in the same task. We fur-127ther explored the relationship of such activation differences with 128impulsive personality trait. 129

130 Material and methods

131 Participants

Eighty-six physically and mentally healthy adolescents were recruited in schools in the provinces Brandenburg, Germany. Seven participants had to be excluded: Five due to excessive head movements (more than 3 mm translation or 3° rotation), one due to neurological abnormalities and one due to psycho-pharmacological medication. The remaining 79 participants (mean age = 15.1 years, SD = 0.51, age 137 range: 13–16 years, 42 female) were included in the analysis. Three 138 out of 79 participants were left-handed (Edinburgh Handedness Inven-139 tory Score, Oldfield, 1971: M = -79.6; SD = 18.6), while the remaining 140 were all right-handed (Edinburgh Handedness Inventory Score, 141 Oldfield, 1971: M = 79.8; SD = 16.8). All data has also been analyzed 142 without left-handed participants, but equivalent results were obtained 143 when left handed participants were included (data not shown). There-144 fore, we report results including left-handed participants. Functional 145 imaging data of 34 of the 79 participants has been published before in 146 an article about age-related changes in reward processing (Lorenz 147 et al., 2014).

Before the beginning of the study, participants were screened for149MRI exclusion criteria (e.g. non-removable ferromagnetic material)150and participants themselves as well as one parent of the participants151or a person who has care and custody of the child gave written informed152consent. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Ger-153man Psychological Society, Münster, Germany.154

Slot machine paradigm

A virtual slot machine (Lorenz et al., 2014) was programmed using 156 Presentation software (Version 14.9, Neurobehavioral Systems Inc., 157 Albany, CA, USA). The slot machine consisted of three wheels displaying 158 two different types of fruits (alternating cherries (C) and lemons (L)). 159 Above and below the slot machine were two horizontal color bars indicating the commands for start (blue color) and stop (green color) of the 161 machine. 162

The structure of a trial was realized in the following way: At the be- 163 ginning of each trial the wheels did not move and the bars were colored 164 gray. When these bars turned blue (indicating the start of a trial), the 165 participant was able to start the machine by pressing a button with 166 the right hand. After the button press, the bars turned gray again (inac- 167 tive state) and the three wheels started to rotate vertically with differ- 168 ent accelerations (exponentially increasing from left to right wheel, 169 respectively). When the wheels reached their maximum velocity 170 (1.66 s after button press) the color of the bars turned green. This 171 color change indicated that the participant could stop the machine by 172 pressing the button again. After the button press the three wheels suc- 173 cessively stopped to rotate from the left to the right side. The left 174 wheel stopped after a variable delay of 0.48 and 0.62 s after the button 175 press, while the middle and right wheel were still rotating. The second 176 wheel stopped after an additional variable delay of 0.73 and 1.18 s. 177 The right wheel stopped rotating after the middle wheel with a variable 178 delay of 2.64 and 3.25 s. The stop of the third wheel terminated the trial 179 and a feedback about the current win and the total amount was 180 displayed above the slot machine. After a variable delay the button 181 changed from gray to blue again and the next trial started. The delay be- 182 tween the end of a trial and the start of a new trial ranged between 4.0 183 and 7.68 s and was characterized by an exponentially decreasing func- 184 tion (see Fig. 1). 185

Participants gained 10 cents, in the case that all wheels displayed the 186 same fruit (LLL or CCC) and did not win in any other case (LLC, CCL, LCL, 187 CLC, LCC, CLL). The experiment contained 60 trials in total. In order to 188 guarantee a sufficient amount of win trials the slot machine was determined. Thus, the trial sequence was determined with 20 win trials (CCC 190 or LLL) and a pseudo-randomized distribution of loss (LLC or CCL) or 191 early loss (LCL, CLC, LCC or CLL) trials. In other words, the course of 192 win and loss was fixed before the experiment and participants had no influence on winning or losing. Each participant won the amount of 194 200 cents at the end of the task. 195

Scanning procedure

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) was conducted at the Berlin Cen- 197 ter for Advanced Neuroimaging at the Charité — Universitätsmedizin 198

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