

Neuromodulation and aging: implications of aging neuronal gain control on cognition

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The efficacy of various transmitter systems declines with advancing age. Of particular interest, various pre-synaptic and post-synaptic components of the dopaminergic system change across the human lifespan; impairments in these components play important roles in cognitive deficits commonly observed in the elderly. Here, we review evidence from recent multimodal neuroimaging, pharmacological and genetic studies that have provided new insights for the associations among dopamine functions, aging, functional brain activations and behavioral performance across key cognitive functions, ranging from working memory and episodic memory to goal-directed learning and decision making. Specifically, we discuss these empirical findings in the context of an established neurocomputational theory of aging neuronal gain control. We also highlight gaps in the current understanding of dopamine neuromodulation and aging brain functions and suggest avenues for future research.

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Global aging

According to the United Nation's 2011 report on world population prospects, the number of people aged 65 or older will outnumber children under age 5 before 2020 [1]. This unprecedented demographic shift is jointly driven by reduced fertility rates and an increase in life expectancy. In most developed countries the average life expectancy at birth has increased from about 45 years in 1840 to above 75 years in 2000 [2,3]. This remarkable

30-year gain in physical health is, however, not necessarily accompanied by cognitive fitness and mental well-being into old age. Faced with the rapid growth of aging populations worldwide and an ever-expanding prevalence of dementia, understanding brain aging and aging-related cognitive declines has become a key challenge for neuroscience and psychology in the 21st century.

Brain aging is characterized by multiple neurobiological changes including losses of white matter integrity, cortical thickness and grey matter volumes, metabolic activity, and neurotransmitter functions (e.g. see [4] for an overview). The focus of the current review will be on aging-related declines in neurotransmitter functions and the associated implications for cognitive functioning. The emphasis will be on recent studies that have linked declines in various markers of the dopamine system to information processing fidelity, memory functions as well as reward-based learning and decision-making in old age.

Aging-related declines of neurotransmitter systems

Neurons contain and release a large number of neurotransmitters, which regulate signal transmissions between neurons [5]. Several transmitter systems, such as the catecholamines — dopamine, serotonin, and norepinephrine — and acetylcholine, originate from the brain stem (e.g. substantia nigra, ventral tegmental area, raphe nucleus) and broadly innervate various neural circuitries throughout the brain. In contrast to faster transient effects on local synaptic neurotransmission, these transmitter systems also exert lasting long-range neuromodulatory effects in various brain regions throughout striatum and the cortex that play central roles in key aspects of cognition and behavior.

Primate and human positron emission tomography (PET) studies in the 1980s [6–9] first suggested aging-related losses of neurotransmitter functions. By now, there is general consensus that brain aging takes tolls on these transmitter systems, and a large number of studies have started to explore the functional implications of neurotransmitter losses, in particular those of the neurotransmitter dopamine.

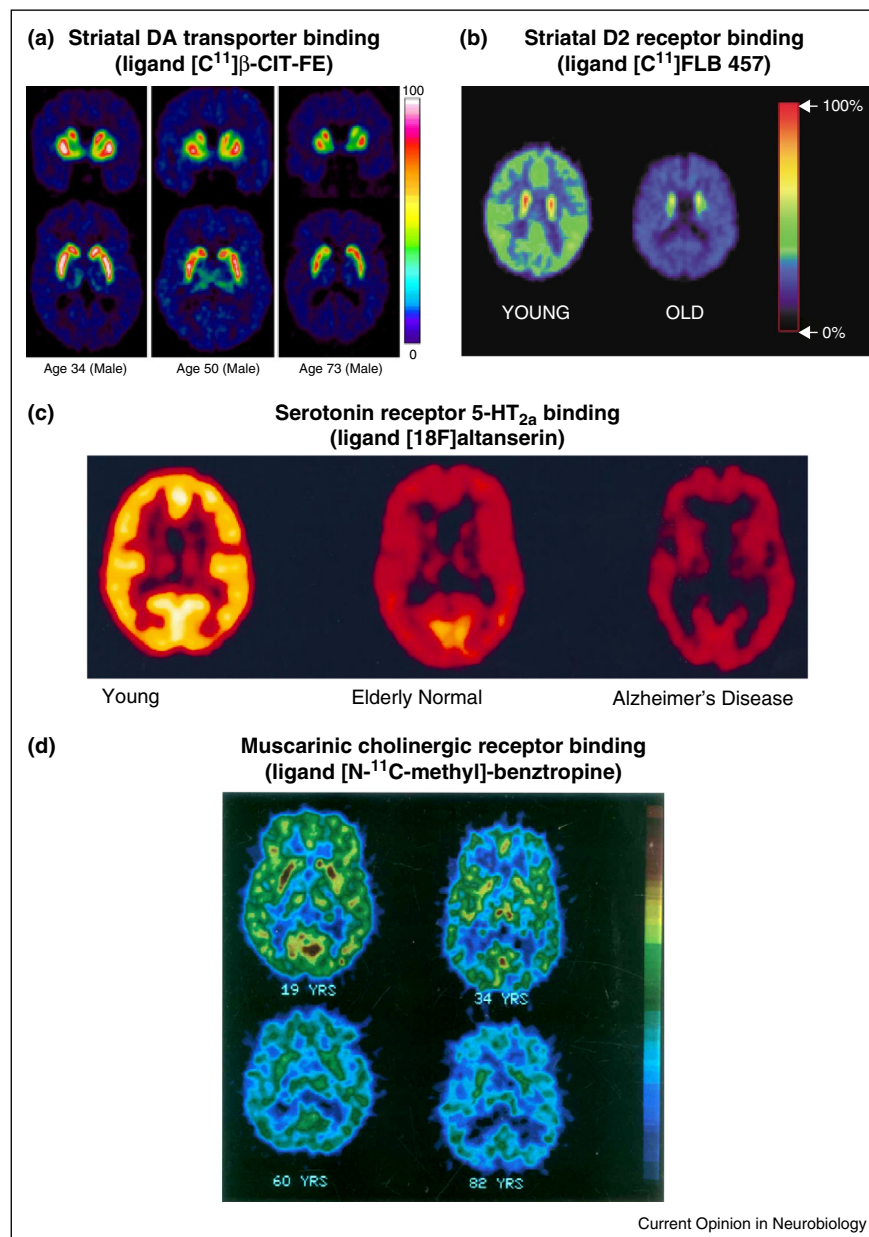
In vivo PET receptor imaging studies in healthy elderly populations show extensive evidence for gradual but pervasive declines in different markers of the dopamine system: the binding potential of pre-synaptic dopamine transporter [10] and D2 [11] receptor in the striatum show

clear aging-related declines (Figure 1a, b). The binding potential of a PET ligand is an index of the density of receptors or transporters in the given region of interest. Similar to striatal receptor densities, D1 [12] and D2 [13^{*}] receptor densities in the frontal regions are negatively affected by aging. Collectively, the evidence based on cross-sectional imaging studies in humans indicates density losses in extrastriatal and striatal presynaptic and postsynaptic markers of the dopamine system of

up to 10% per decade, starting around the beginning of the third decade of life [13^{*},14,15,16^{*}].

Although a large portion of the literature on neurotransmitter functions in old age has focused on dopamine, it should be noted that cross-sectional estimates of serotonin receptor availability (e.g. 5-HT_{2a} in Figure 1c; [8,17–19]) as well as markers of the acetylcholine system, including muscarinic receptors (Figure 1d, [20]) and the

Figure 1



Evidence from PET receptor imaging studies showing aging-related declines in receptor binding potentials in three transmitter systems. **(a)** Striatal dopamine transporter binding potential (data adapted from [10] with permission, copyright 2005 Elsevier). **(b)** Striatal D2 receptor binding potential (data adapted from [11] with permission, copyright 2002 Elsevier). **(c)** Serotonin receptor 5-HT_{2a} binding potential (data adapted from [18] with permission, copyright 1998 Elsevier). **(d)** Muscarinic cholinergic receptor binding potential (data adapted from [20] with permission, copyright 1990 Wiley).

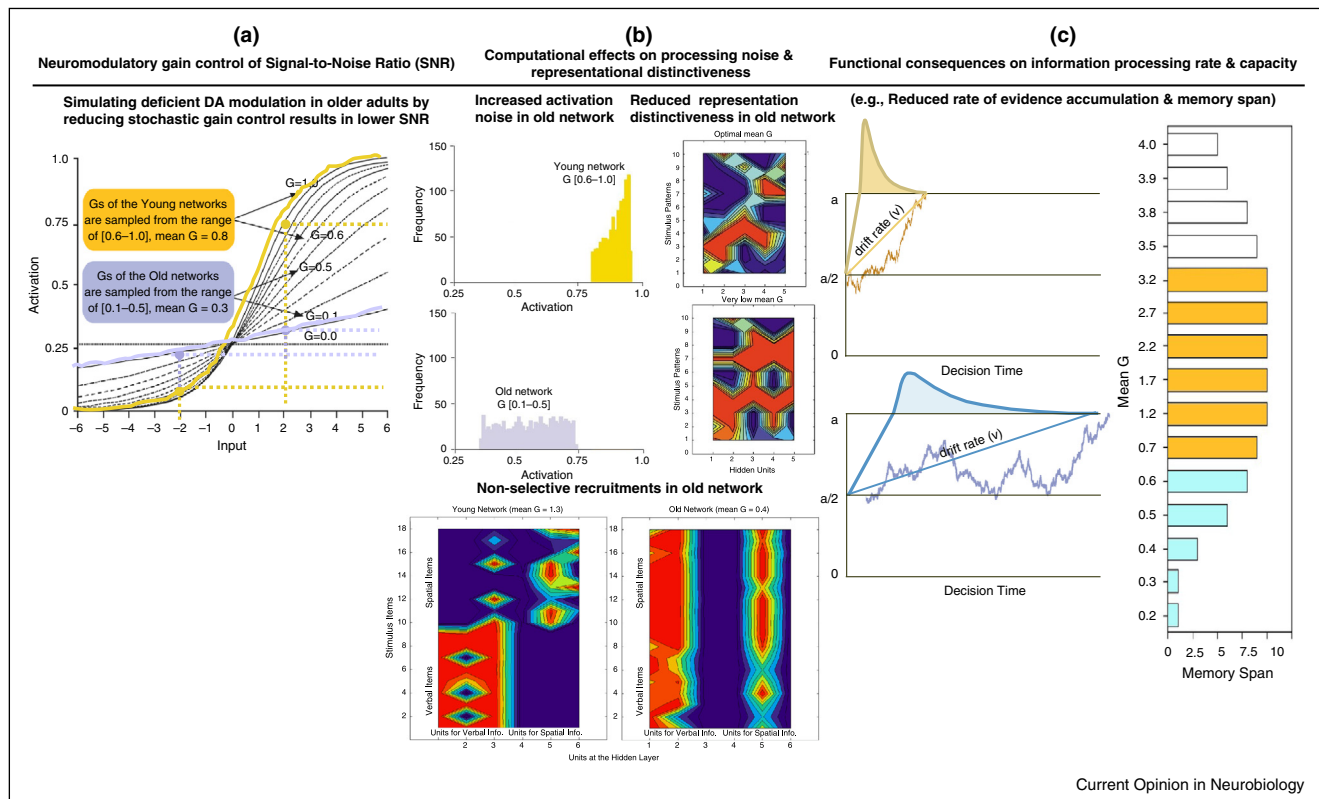
nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (β_2 -nAChR), also show significant declines with advancing age in various brain regions, including the striatum, parietal, frontal, and temporal regions [21] (see also [22,23]).

Aging neuronal gain control

Over the past two decades, computational neuroscience has contributed to understanding the mechanisms through which dopamine [24–27], serotonin [28], norepinephrine [29] and acetylcholine [30] regulate the dynamics of neural information propagation within and between brain circuitries. The roles of neuromodulators have been modeled at different levels of analysis as well as with respect to different functionalities (e.g. attention, memory as well as reward and affective processing). Diversities in the specifics of modeling aside, a key role of neuromodulation that is subscribed by most computational approaches is neuronal gain control, be it in the forms of tuning the signal-noise-ratio (SNR) of synaptic signal transmission or gating information transfers between cortical networks [24–32].

Extending an early computational model of cognitive symptoms in schizophrenia that implicated suboptimal dopamine modulation of the SNR of neural information processing in the prefrontal cortex [25], over a decade ago the stochastic gain tuning model of aging [31] explicated a sequence of computational effects that link deficient dopamine modulation in the aging brain with impairments in cognitive processes and behavior. Specifically, this model captures aging-related decline in dopaminergic neuromodulation by stochastically attenuating the gain (G) parameter of the sigmoidal activation function, which models presynaptic to postsynaptic input-response transfer (Figure 2a). Reducing gain control reduces the slope of the activation function and the SNR of information transmission, which yields a sequence of subsequent effects that are suboptimal for neurocomputation in the simulated ‘old’ network (Figure 2b): increased random processing activations (noise), reduced representation distinctiveness of activation patterns, non-selective recruitment of presumably independent processing modules [32]. In terms of functional consequences,

Figure 2



Dopamine’s computational role as neuronal gain control with computational effects on processing noise and representational distinctiveness as well as functional consequences on processing rate and capacity. **(a)** Simulating deficient dopamine modulation in older adults by reducing stochastic gain control reduces the signal-to-noise ratio of information processing. **(b)** Attenuated gain control increases random activation noise as well as reduces representational distinctiveness and processing specificity of different processing modules (e.g. greater co-activation of the simulated spatial and verbal processing modules). **(c)** Less distinctive representations reduces processing rate and memory capacity (adapted from [31,32] with permission. Copyright 2001, 2002 Elsevier).

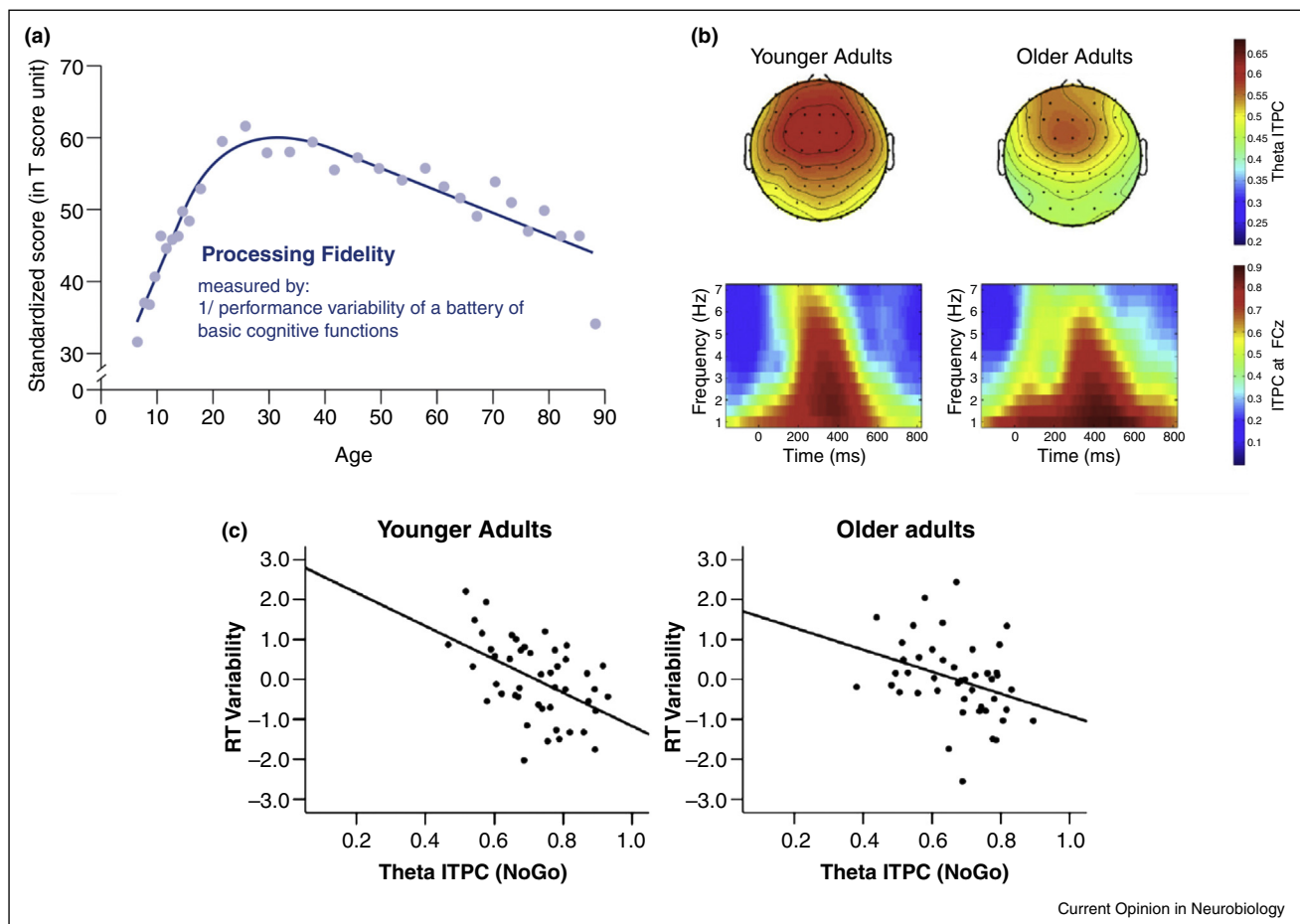
these suboptimal neurocomputational properties have negative implications for information processing (Figure 2c), for instance in terms of reduced rate of evidence accumulation (i.e. slower drift rate as modeled in diffusion/sequential sampling models [33]) and memory capacity [32]. The stochastic gain tuning model also yields an inverted-U function that relates DA signaling and cognition ([32], Figure 2c), which is in good agreement with empirical findings from animal [34] and clinical [35] research (see also [36,37] for reviews).

Over the last decade, genetic, psychophysiological, and brain imaging studies have shown that dopamine functions in the aging brain contribute to the elderly's impairments in various aspects of cognitions and behavior. The following sections will review recent studies that have implicated suboptimal dopamine modulation in the aging of information processing fidelity, memory functions and goal-directed learning and decision making.

Aging of information processing fidelity

At the behavioral level, information processing fidelity can be indexed by the inverse of within-person trial-to-trial reaction time (RT) variability. Higher levels of within-person behavioral variability when performing sensorimotor, perceptual, and cognitive tasks reflect a lack of processing fidelity and is indicative of suboptimal processing associated with pathology or aging [38]. Across the lifespan, information processing fidelity increases substantially during childhood in a various cognitive functions, reaches a maximum in early adulthood and then declines considerably with advancing age [39] (Figure 3a). When cognitive processes are modeled as a diffusion process, decreased information processing fidelity in older adults is reflected in increased trial-to-trial variability in the rate of evidence accumulation (drift rate) and reduced drift rates for performance in source memory [40], semantic and perceptual discrimination tasks [41]. Of particular clinical relevance, older adults

Figure 3



(a) Lifespan differences in processing robustness/fidelity (indexed by the inverse of within-person trial-by-trial variability; data adapted from [39] with permission, copyright 2004, Association for Psychological Science/Sage Journals). (b) Adult age differences in EEG inter-trial phase coherence. Lower inter-trial phase coherence reflects greater trial-by-trial variability of EEG signals in the theta range in older adults. (c) Theta inter-trial coherence correlates negatively with intraindividual trial-by-trial RT variability in young and older adults (data adapted from [44] with permission, copyright 2013 Elsevier).

who exhibited more short-term moment-to-moment RT fluctuations showed steeper longitudinal declines over 13 years in the category fluency task that, in part, demands executive control [42]. Moreover, psychophysiological measures of neuronal variability during executive control that are derived from electroencephalogram (EEG), such as greater amplitude variability of the P300 evoked brain potential [43] or lower theta inter-trial phase coherence [44], showed increased variability in older adults and AD patients as compared to healthy controls. A lower level of EEG phase coherence across trials partly reflects temporal ‘jitters’ in neuronal activity, which is in turn associated with higher trial-to-trial RT fluctuation at the performance level (Figure 3c).

Of interest to the current review is the effect of deficient dopamine modulation on random performance and neuronal variability. An early animal study had shown that dopamine receptor reductions as observed during aging not only slow down the animal’s performance but also increase performance variability [45]. Prefrontal broadband noise derived from EEG is also increased in patients with schizophrenia, a pathological condition marked by dysfunctional dopaminergic neuromodulation [46]. Furthermore, recent neuroimaging studies indicate that individual and aging-related differences in dopamine receptor density are associated with cognitive processing fidelity. Lower dopamine receptor binding potentials (measured by PET) in the cortex have been found to be associated with lower processing fidelity (higher within-person trial-by-trial RT fluctuations) in middle aged adults during episodic memory and executive control task [47,48^{••},49]. These studies are in line with the theoretical link between dopaminergic modulation of SNR of synaptic signal transmission, neuronal noise, and fluctuations in performance.

Aging of memory functions

In his autobiography (1924, Haper & Brothers Publishers), Mark Twain wrote about his memory problems at old age: “When I was younger, I could remember anything, whether it had happened or not; but my faculties are decaying now and soon I shall be so that I cannot remember any but the things that never happened.” Twain’s personal lamentation voiced a core issue of human conditions that most people experience with advancing age: the problem of less reliable memory. Aging-related declines in the anatomical, neurochemical, and functional integrities of the frontal-hippocampal-striatal circuitry contribute to age-related impairments in memory functions, including working memory, episodic memory and source memory [49]. Here, we will selectively highlight recent evidence from behavioral genetic and brain imaging studies that have suggested associations between deficient dopamine modulation and memory functions supported by the frontal-hippocampal-striatal circuitry.

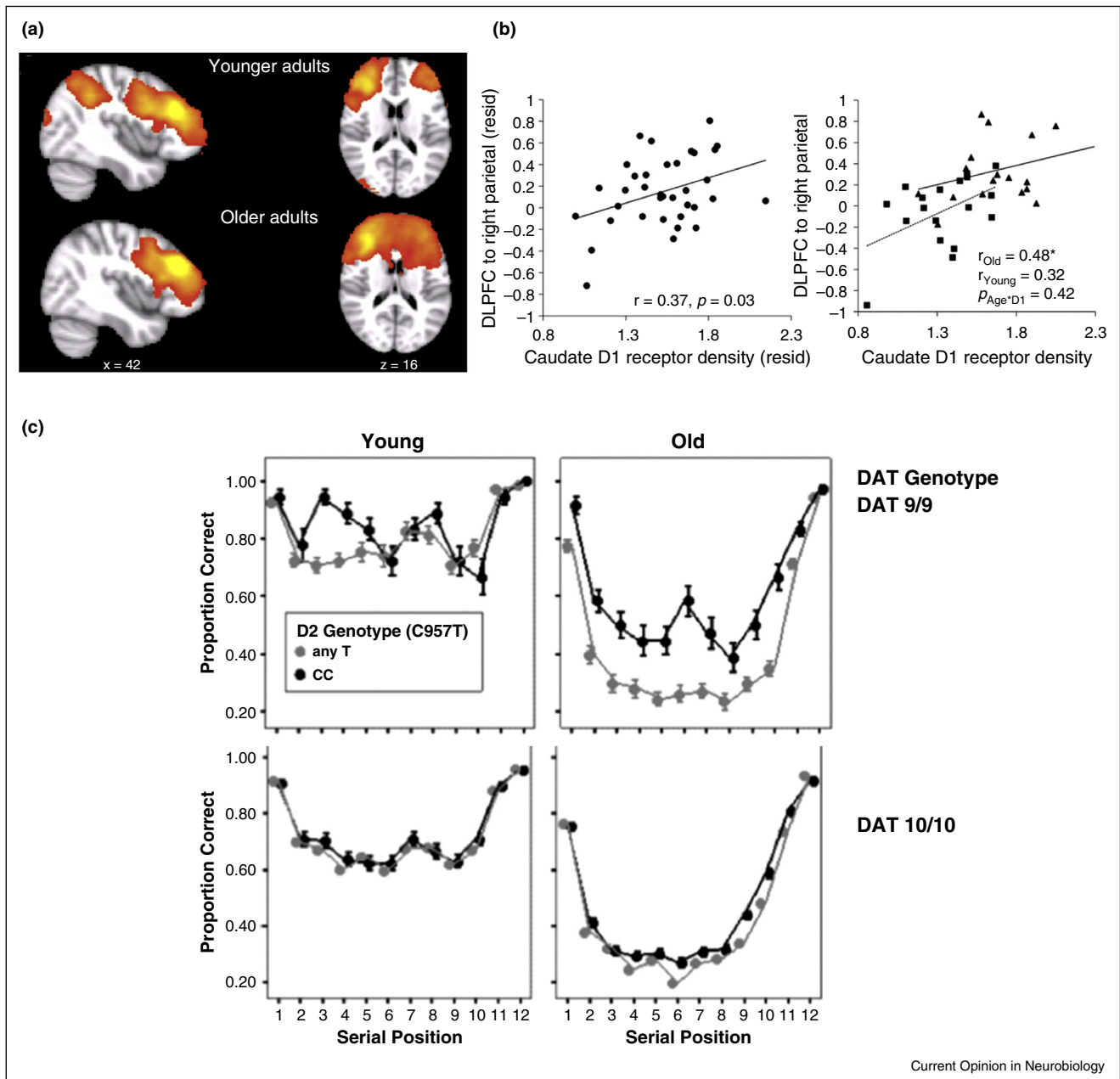
PET studies in healthy young adults suggest that better working memory performance is associated with higher capacity of dopamine synthesis in caudate [50] and greater extrastriatal dopamine release [51]. Extending this line of research, evidence from multimodal imaging studies combining MRI and PET show that in older adults PET markers of the DA system are associated with fMRI activity in prefrontal and parietal cortex during working memory [52,53] as well as the functional connectivity between striatum and prefrontal cortex [54], an index of optimal neuronal coupling that is reduced in older adults. Relatedly, another study [55] showed that the functional connectivity between the prefrontal and parietal cortex, key regions in the fronto-parietal control network that underlies working memory, was reduced in older compared to younger adults (Figure 4a). Importantly, in this study interindividual differences in the frontal-parietal connectivity correlated positively with striatal caudate D1 receptor density (Figure 4b), suggesting that age-related losses in striatal DA receptors partly explain age-related decline in fronto-parietal network strength and working memory.

A promising line of research that is gaining in popularity are genetic behavioral and imaging studies that make use of genetic predispositions that are associated with individual differences in dopamine functioning. In line with the multi-modal imaging studies reviewed above, a recent imaging genetics study showed that older adults who are of a specific genotype, associated with higher frontal dopamine signaling, that is, Met carriers of the catechol-O-methyltransferase (*COMT*) gene, showed patterns of brain activation during working memory that resembled the patterns of young adults. Carriers of the genotype associated with reduced frontal dopamine (*COMT* Val carriers) exhibited the patterns of inefficient prefrontal activation associated with aging [56^{••}].

In addition to a limited working memory capacity, advancing age is also characterized by reduced working memory plasticity following cognitive training [57]. Receptor imaging studies with younger adults showed that extensive working memory training alters the binding potentials of cortical dopamine D1 receptor [58[•]] (measured with [¹¹C]SCH23390), striatal dopamine release [59[•]] (inferred by [¹¹C] raclopride displacement) and striatal activation [60[•]]. Considering that training-related transfer following cognitive intervention appears to be mediated by striatal dopamine functions [60[•]], it is plausible that aging-related decline in striatal dopamine signaling is one factor that limits training-related memory improvements in the elderly.

Episodic memory — memory for experienced events — is multifaceted. For instance, the memory about an old conversation includes the content of the conversation, the persons involved as well as the time and place at which

Figure 4



(a) Frontal–parietal functional connectivity during working memory is reduced in older adults. **(b)** Caudate D1 receptor density correlates with the frontal–parietal connectivity particularly in older adults (data adapted from [55] with permission, copyright 2011, Society of Neuroscience). **(c)** Dopamine transporter genotype (*DAT1*) and D2 receptor genotype (*DRD2*) interactively affect backward serial memory, particularly in older adults (data adapted from [70] with permission, copyright 2013 Elsevier).

the conversation took place. Associative mechanisms are required to bind different aspects of an experience into an integrated episode in long-term memory. The frontal-hippocampal circuitry has been implicated in the strategic organization and elaboration of memory materials during encoding, the binding of different features and consolidation of memory episodes, as well as pattern completion

and monitoring processes during retrieval [61]. Compared to memory for specific facts or knowledge (item and semantic memory), the elderly are particularly impaired in episodic strategic organization and elaboration [62,64] that are subserved by the frontal network [40,59,60] as well as associative mechanisms that implicate the hippocampus [65–67].

Evidence from animal research indicates that midbrain dopamine modulation of the hippocampus plays an important role in stabilizing and maintaining encoded memory associations in long-term memory [68]. In humans, a recent pharmacological imaging study showed that a pharmacological dopamine agonist (levodopa) enhanced episodic memory and brain activation in older adults [69**]. Recent behavioral genetic evidence shows that genetic predispositions of dopamine transporter (*DAT1*) and receptor (*DRD2*) genes are associated with individual differences in serial memory (Figure 4b, [70*]) and long-term episodic memory forgetting [71], particularly in older adults. The magnification of genotype effects in old age can be computationally derived from the non-linear neuronal gain control function [31], which results in an inverted-U function relating levels of dopamine signaling and memory performance [32] that is in line with empirical evidence [34–37]. Effects of genetic predispositions can thus be expected to be larger in individuals whose efficacy of dopamine modulation is further away from the optimal level [72], that is, the top portion of the inverted-U function [32].

Finally, non-selective functional recruitments of additional brain regions during both episodic and working memory are common observations in fMRI experiment in older adults [see [73] for an early review]. For instance, during episodic encoding older adults tend to under-recruit left frontal cortex, while at the same time non-selectively recruiting right frontal regions that are usually not recruited in younger adults for the same process [63,74]. Non-selective recruitment in older adults has also been demonstrated during retrieval. Whereas brain activation in left prefrontal cortex and the hippocampus are selectively modulated by the demand of associative binding during retrieval in younger adults, the activities of the frontal-hippocampal network seem not sensitive to the associative demands in older adults [75]. The stochastic gain tuning model predicts general non-efficient over activation and non-selective recruitment of presumably independent processing pathways (Figure 2b, [32]), suggesting that non-selective fMRI activation of brain regions in aging across a variety of tasks might, in part, be a reflection of reduced dopamine functions in older age. This notion has to date not been comprehensively investigated but was supported by genomic imaging studies [35,56] showing that Val homozygotes of the *COMT* gene exhibited non-efficient over activation in prefrontal areas during working memory. Amphetamine, which temporarily increases synaptic dopamine level, reduced the over-activation and improved performance [35].

Aging of goal-directed learning and decision-making

Midbrain dopamine neurons are critically involved in modulating reward processing [76]. Reward anticipation has been shown to enhance long-term memory formation through stronger coupling between the striatal and

hippocampal activities during encoding [77]. Thus, interactions between striatal dopamine release and hippocampal memory processes may, on the one hand, bias memory for events with higher reward or motivational significance and, on the other hand, provide a mean for forming integrated memory representations that guide future actions [78,79].

Given aging-related declines in various aspects of frontal and striatal dopamine modulation (see Figure 1), accumulating evidence indicates adult age differences in reward-based learning and decision-making. Findings from studies using probabilistic reinforcement learning or incentive delay tasks that compare striatal activations in younger and older adults indicate that striatal signaling of reward or outcome valence per se may not be affected by aging [80,81]. However, complex integration of reward values with outcome expectations for reward prediction, which depends on prefrontal outcome monitoring and hippocampal memory processes that integrate expectation-action-outcome contingencies, is impaired in aging [81,82,83*,84–87]. Several studies have indicated a link between fMRI activation in key areas of the dopamine system and performance of older adults during tasks involving reward-related processes. For instance, the greater temporal variability in mesolimbic activity assessed during a financial decision task seems to mediate older adults' suboptimal choices [83*]. Furthermore, in comparison to younger adults, healthy older adults and unmedicated Parkinson's patients under-recruited mesolimbic activity for learning the predictive value of rewards, while showing preserved responses to the reward outcome itself [84]. In inter-temporal choice tasks, where individuals are presented with the choice options of immediate or delayed rewards of different magnitudes, older adults tend to discount delayed reward less than younger adults. This behavioral effect is paralleled by a reduced sensitivity of striatal activities to immediate or delayed rewards [85–87]. That said, further research is necessary to better understand age-related differences in decisions about future rewards, as current findings are still mixed, depending on delay durations and task types.

Although a considerable number of studies exists linking striatal fMRI signal and reward expectation in younger samples, PET studies, genetic imaging and behavioral studies that could link individual differences in dopamine modulation to reward processing and decision making in older adults are still rare. A notable exception is a recent pharmacological imaging study, which shows that L-DOPA can restore the striatal activity and improve decision performance in some older adults [88**].

Outlook: enhancing neuronal gain control via cognitive training and non-invasive brain stimulation

If reduced neuronal gain control is at the heart of dopamine-related cognitive decline in aging, how could

neuronal gain control be enhanced in older adults? In the future, pharmacological intervention might be a viable approach for restoring neuromodulatory functions in regulating the processing fidelity of synaptic signal transmission or gating information transfers between cortical networks. To date, however, cognitive enhancer drugs that are suitable for the non-clinical elderly populations are not readily available, and bear a great risk for side effects that likely outweighs the benefits. Cognitive interventions and non-invasive brain stimulations that may be able to target the dopamine system constitute interesting alternatives to pharmaceuticals.

In younger adults, working memory training across five weeks was found to be associated with changes in cortical dopamine D1 receptor binding potential in the prefrontal and parietal cortices [58^{*}] and in striatal dopamine D2 receptor binding potential [59^{*}]. Although there is little evidence to date that similar intervention successes could be achieved in older adults, understanding the neural circuitry that underlies reduced gain control in older adults may open up future avenues for the development of cognitive interventions that target specific functional brain circuitries (e.g. the frontal-hippocampal-striatal network) innervated by the major transmitter pathways.

Related to the development of non-invasive cognitive interventions that are designed to target specific brain pathways in order to enhance older adults' performance, one other approach is non-invasive brain stimulations. Studies using transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) or transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) that were applied to the fronto-parietal network revealed cognitive enhancing effects in young adults, clinical samples [see 89] for review]. Very recently, a few explorative studies have begun to use non-invasive brain stimulations in older adults. Some preliminary success in terms of ameliorating cognitive aging deficits could be demonstrated. For instance, anodal tDCS applied over the left inferior frontal gyrus improved performance in a semantic word generation task that implicates frontal cognitive control and working memory in old adults. Moreover, anodal tDCS also reduced the non-specific recruitment of the right prefrontal regions in older adults observed with fMRI, and modified functional brain activity of older adults to resemble those observed in younger adults [90^{*}]. Of note, TMS applied to the prefrontal cortex has been shown to elicit dopamine release in striatum [91], to perturb functional connectivity of the striatum [92], activate the midbrain [93], and to interact with baseline dopamine level [94]. Thus, non-invasive brain stimulations might, in part, exert their effects through dopaminergic modulation. Together, these findings demonstrate reciprocal interplays between environmental supports in the form of cognitive training or non-invasive brain stimulation and dopamine modulation in

vivo and hint at possible new avenues for buffering the aging population's cognitive vitality by sharpening neuronal gain control. In light of the recent evidence suggesting that an attenuated transfer effect of working memory training in older adults maybe associated with the under-recruitment of striatal activation [60^{*}], combining frontal tDCS or TMS stimulations with cognitive training might be a viable mean to enhance the intervention benefits in old adults. The initial progress notwithstanding, further research is needed for better understandings about the underlying mechanisms of tDCS and TMS, their long-term effects and potential risks, in order to develop appropriate protocols for gerontological applications.

Conclusions

Computational models have suggested that suboptimal dopamine modulation attenuates neuronal gain control, which yields a sequence of suboptimal neurocomputational effects that (Figure 2) may underlie deficits in older adults' cognition and behavior across multiple domains. Over the last decade, neuroimaging, genetic and pharmacological manipulation studies have accumulated and provided compelling evidence for a link between deficient dopamine modulation in the aging brain and the elderly's limitations in (i) information processing fidelity, (ii) working memory and episodic memory, and (iii) goal-directed learning and decision making. Where available, we have focused on imaging studies that linked dopamine functions (in terms of PET, genetics, or pharmacological manipulation) to both behavioral performance and patterns of fMRI activations that are common in aging. We have also highlighted existing gaps in the literature. For example, the association between deficient dopamine modulation and non-selective over-activation in aging is still insufficiently explored. Moreover, although animal and human studies suggest a strong involvement of dopamine functions in reward-related processes, relative to evidence on dopamine's role in memory deficits, knowledge about how deficient dopamine modulation in aging may limit goal-directed learning and decision making in old age is still scarce. Finally, we have briefly reviewed recent findings from cognitive training and non-invasive transcranial stimulations, which suggest cognitive-enhancing interventions, be it training or brain stimulation, that target the frontal-striatal circuitry and neuromodulation may be a promising avenue for future aging research.

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