


Hypothesis

The Proactive Self in Space: How Egocentric and Allocentric Spatial Impairments Contribute to Anosognosia in Alzheimer's Disease

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Abstract. In addition to impairments in episodic and spatial memory, anosognosia (i.e., loss of awareness of the deficient aspect of own cognitive functioning) may be considered an important cognitive marker of Alzheimer's disease (AD). However, although a growing body of interesting models have been proposed to explain this early symptom, what is still missing is a unifying framework of all the characteristic signs occurring in patients with AD that may guide the search for its causal neuropathological process and, ultimately, the etiological process. This contribution will first show how anosognosia may be related to the above-mentioned episodic and spatial memory impairment through a unifying framework of all these characteristic signs, i.e., the continuous interaction between different spatial representations. Second, we hypothesize that a break in the interaction between different spatial representations, as we suggest occurs in AD, may contribute significantly both to the early impairments in spatial and episodic memory, and to a deficient self-awareness since it may interfere with the capacity of the brain to detect predictive errors.

Keywords: Allocentric reference frame, Alzheimer's disease, anosognosia, egocentric reference frame, episodic memory

INTRODUCTION

“Depending on where you set your sights, Alzheimer's disease is a scientific puzzle, a medical whodunit, a psychological tragedy, a financial disaster, or an ethical, legal, and political dilemma. The disease quietly loots the brain,

nerve cell by nerve cell, like a burglar returning to the same house each night” [1], p. 20).

The theme of self-awareness, defined as the awareness of one's own mental state [2], has been a central topic of philosophy, but it recently has become a crucial issue for both the experimental investigations and theoretical speculations of cognitive neuroscience [3]. In simple terms, in the same way I am aware of a variety of things, for example, I am aware of the cup of coffee in front of me at this moment with its intense brown color and pleasant smell; I am also aware of

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37 myself, my physical and mental states, namely the
38 events that occur inside and around me. I am aware
39 of an *I* that belongs to *me*, that is self-awareness. Sec-
40 ondly, the continuous positive experience of having
41 coffee allows me to “add” a piece of my personal iden-
42 tity: I love coffee. Accordingly, one of the main issues
43 in this research field is to understand the link between
44 the sense of self and personal memories, since this
45 link permits an answer to the question, “Who am I?”.

46 The lack of self-awareness of deficient aspects
47 of own cognitive functioning in individuals with
48 dementia has important consequences for their diag-
49 nosis, treatment, and safety. This condition—usually
50 known as “anosognosia”—is quite common in patients
51 suffering from Alzheimer’s disease (AD), affecting
52 between 20% and 80% of the total number of indi-
53 viduals diagnosed with the disease [4–6]. Despite the
54 complex clinical presentation of anosognosia in AD,
55 especially in the different phases of the disease [7, 8],
56 its presence dramatically affects the management and
57 quality of life of the patients [9, 10]. Moreover, it has
58 been shown to be predictive of the progression of the
59 disease from the so-called transitional stage of mild
60 cognitive impairment (MCI) [11, 12] to AD [13].

61 However, although a growing body of interest-
62 ing models have been proposed to explain this early
63 symptom, what is still missing is a unifying frame-
64 work of all the characteristic signs occurring in
65 patients with AD that may guide the search for its
66 causal neuropathological process and, ultimately, the
67 etiological process. Using a “disease perspective” as
68 proposed by McHugh and Slavney [14], the first step
69 is to identify all the characteristic clusters of signs
70 that occur in many patients. The second step is then
71 to identify the pathological process that explains the
72 characteristic clusters of signs with a particular neu-
73 ropathology (i.e., the nature, extent, and localization
74 of a neuropathological process in the brain). Finally,
75 the third step is the discovery of an etiological agency,
76 i.e., genetic mutation, neurodegeneration, etc.

77 Beyond the unquestionable role of biomedical
78 research in identifying well-validated AD-related
79 biomarkers (see for example [15]), neuroscientific
80 cognitive research continues to provide indicators
81 that appear crucial for both early and differential
82 diagnosis, for improving the evaluation of the effi-
83 cacy of clinical trials, and for designing and testing
84 non-pharmacological interventions. Indeed, using the
85 words of Khachaturian [1], the “burglar returning the
86 same house each night” leaves a trail of clues: cog-
87 nitive neuroscience uses these clues in an effort to solve
88 the “scientific puzzle” of AD.

89 The “first clue”, i.e., the first cognitive characteris-
90 tic sign of AD, is traditionally considered prominent
91 episodic memory deficits, in the context of more
92 subtle perceptive, language, and executive deficits
93 [16, 17]. In addition to progressive difficulties in
94 encoding and storing spatio-temporal located past
95 events with a specific reference to themselves as
96 participants to those events (i.e., episodic mem-
97 ory impairment [18]), topographical disorientation is
98 another important cognitive sign in the first phases
99 of AD [19–21], suggesting an early deficit in spa-
100 tial memory functioning [22, 23]. With regard to
101 the underlying pathological process and possible eti-
102 ological agency, the AD-neurodegenerative process
103 usually starts in the medial temporal lobes, particu-
104 larly in the hippocampus [24–28], which is a key
105 structure for both episodic and spatial memory since
106 it is involved in the retrieval of past experience by
107 providing a spatial coherent framework that acts as
108 pointer or index [29] thanks to repeated associations
109 between hippocampal sparse patterns of activity and
110 distributed neocortical representations allow the stor-
111 ing of episodic memories [30–32].

112 In the current work, we will present how self-
113 awareness deficit should be considered as another
114 important “clue” to be understood in disentangling
115 the puzzle of AD. Expanding the “mental frame sync-
116 ing hypothesis” [33, 34], we will first show how
117 anosognosia may be related to the above-mentioned
118 episodic and spatial memory impairments through
119 a unifying framework of all these characteristic
120 signs, i.e., the continuous interaction between differ-
121 ent spatial representations. Second, we hypothesize
122 that a break in this interaction between different
123 spatial representations, as we suggest occurs in
124 AD, may contribute significantly both to the early
125 impairments of both spatial and episodic mem-
126 ory, and to a deficient self-awareness, since it
127 may interfere with the capacity to detect predictive
128 errors.

ANOSOGNOSIA IN AD: LESSON LEARNED SO FAR

129 Babinski originally coined the term “anosognosia”
130 [35] to refer to a loss of awareness observed in
131 patients suffering from hemiplegia who seem to be
132 unaware of the left-sided paralysis that affects them.
133 Beyond hemiplegia (for an historical review see also
134 [36]), this term has been used for the loss of aware-
135 ness that may occur in other clinical cases, such as
136
137

hemianopia or dementia. As specifically concerns AD, different conceptual models of anosognosia were developed to explain disorders of self-awareness [37, 38]. The Dissociable Interactions and Conscious Experience (DICE) model was the first neuropsychological model of the underlying mechanism of anosognosia in AD, later reformulated in the Cognitive Awareness Model (CAM) [38, 39]. The DICE model introduced the role of the conscious awareness system (CAS) located in the parietal lobes [40], which collects and brings to consciousness the output of separate functional modules for each cognitive function, including both episodic and semantic memory. If a disconnection between one of these specific modules and the CAS occurs, a domain-specific loss of awareness follows. CAM proposes a mechanism linking awareness of cognitive functioning with the sense of self [38, 39]. According to CAM [38, 39] when a failure in performance occurs, this information is sent to a “mnemonic comparator” to compare it with the so-called “personal database” (PDB), which contains information about the self, and in which the semantic representations of our own abilities are stored (“I cannot go to the swimming pool because I can’t swim”). If an incongruence between current performance and semantic representations of own abilities is perceived, this information is sent back to the PDB to provide an update, and the updated information is directed to the Metacognitive Awareness System (MAS), allowing for awareness of a deficit. Accordingly, anosognosia would directly result from a memory dysfunction, which prevents updating of self-knowledge and thus leads to an outdated sense of self (termed “*petrified self*” [41]). The most reliable aspect of this model is that it highlights a major role of memory in explaining the causes of anosognosia. For AD, it is the peculiar pattern of memory dysfunction, with an early episodic memory deficit in the context of a more preserved semantic memory function, since patients fail to update the self with new episodic information regarding cognitive functioning and at the same time use outdated semantic representations of their abilities as a basis for evaluating performance.

Another intriguing hypothesis is that anosognosia in AD may originate in both memory and perspective-taking impairments [42]. Salmon and colleagues [43] found that a cognitive discrepancy score (i.e., a measure of anosognosia that is the result of the difference between patient’s and caregiver’s evaluation of the patient’s cognitive status) was inversely correlated to metabolism in the temporoparietal junction.

According to this framework, it is possible to interpret anosognosia in AD as the result of an impaired ability to see oneself within a third-person perspective (i.e., knowing how another person sees you). This is consistent with what emerged in a recent review that explored the neural correlates of anosognosia in AD [44]. From one side, it is noted the role of the medial prefrontal cortex and the medial posterior cingulate, which are critical areas for self-referential processing (judgments targeting the self versus the other person) [45]. On the other side, however, another line of functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) studies have highlighted the involvement of the medial frontal and lateral parieto-temporal regions (especially the temporo-parietal junction), areas known to be critical in the ability to understand another’s mental status, namely the ‘theory of mind’ (ToM) or mentalizing [46]. Moreover, this is in line with recent results obtained with patients who were anosognosic of their hemiplegia. An incredible improvement in awareness of hemiplegia has been shown in patients who had the opportunity to see a visual feedback of their paralysis from a third-person perspective, i.e., using mirrors or video replays [47–49]. Following these results, Fotopoulou suggested that patients with anosognosia for hemiplegia have an impairment in the ability to use a third-person perspective to inform and update their first-person perspective on their state [50]. Adopting a predictive processing theory of cognitive function [51–53], Fotopolou affirmed that “anosognosic phenomena can be linked to an antagonism between ‘prior beliefs’ (predictive internal models of the world formed on the basis of prior learning and genetics) and ‘prediction errors’ (discrepancies between expected and actual inputs based on ascending interoceptive and exteroceptive signals) at different levels and domains of the neurocognitive hierarchy.” ([54], p. 12). In this view, anosognosia can be considered a functional disconnection between top-down, premorbidly learned predictions regarding a property of the self and the processing of bottom-up perceptual information regarding its current state [50, 55]. The difference between self-awareness deficits in AD and in other pathologies can be related to the characteristic of the self that is disconnected: spatial reference frame processing in AD, body experience in anorexia nervosa [55], etc.

Indeed, a possible explanation for taking into account both episodic memory and perspective-taking impairments is the introduction of a unifying framework connecting them, i.e., the continuous interaction between different spatial representations.

A UNIFYING FRAMEWORK FOR ALL CHARACTERISTIC SIGNS OF AD: THE “MENTAL FRAME SYNCING”

To understand how anosognosia may be related to other fundamental early signs of AD, the first step to disentangle is the distinction between the egocentric and allocentric spatial representations. Indeed, the relationship between the self and the world in spatial terms may result in two types of spatial representations, according to the two reference points used to encode and store spatial information [55–58]: egocentric and allocentric. Egocentric representations are transient spatial representations useful for guiding immediate actions in peripersonal space, since they are constituted of subject-to-object spatial relations, integrated mainly in the posterior parietal lobes [59–61]. Allocentric spatial representations are useful for long-term storage, since they are constituted of object-to-object spatial relations, which are elaborated in the hippocampal areas [62–64]. Parallel egocentric and allocentric spatial processes create a flexible and highly adaptive inner space that permits an effective interaction with our surrounding space. From a neuroscience perspective, Burgess and colleagues [65, 66] argued that when stimulated by external (perceptual) or internal (cognitive) inputs, we are engaged in a process of retrieving an egocentric scenario, known as a “parietal egocentric window.” We extract pieces of information from our experiences and recombine them in a flexible manner according to our different needs. This process recruits the activity of different brain regions, such as the frontal lobes, the retrosplenial cortex (RSC), and the parietal areas, which highlight the key role of the medial temporal lobes, specifically the hippocampus [67–70]. In particular, according to this neuroscientific model [65, 66], a crucial role was assigned to RSC, which is responsible for the continuous transformation between these two spatial representations by compensating for the rotational offset of different coordinates (self-centered versus world-centered).

An interesting fMRI study carried out by Zhang and colleagues [71] helped to clarify the role of RSC in the translation between allocentric and egocentric reference frames. Participants learned spatial layout in two different ways, by active navigation (i.e., egocentric reference frame) or by learning with an aerial-view map (i.e., allocentric reference frames). While undergoing the fMRI, participants were asked to perform a traditional spatial pointing task involving

judgments of relative direction (JRD) (see for example [72]). In this task, participants were required to imagine themselves at a specific object X, facing object Y, and to point to object Z. This task was dependent on allocentric knowledge of the relative position of spatial locations in relation to each other and not only to the correct matching of the individual’s orientation with the immediate environment. Results showed a greater activation of the RSC following the egocentric condition, suggesting that this area is involved in translating egocentric coordinate information acquired during a first-person perspective navigation to an object-to-object relationships representation. Dhindsa and colleagues [73] expanded these findings by investigating how brain activity correlated with accuracy in judging the direction of an object in three different conditions: 1) without a change in viewpoint; 2) with a rotation in viewpoint; 3) with a rotation and translation in viewpoint. In the first condition, participants were asked to imagine if their position and viewpoint were identical to the reference viewpoint they had learned previously before pointing to the cued object. In the second condition, participants were required to imagine their position being identical to the position in the first condition, but instead they were facing one of the objects and asked to point to a second object. The last condition is the JRD paradigm previously described. Results demonstrated that the RSC was more active during imagined transformations involving both rotation and translation of viewpoint (JRD) compared to transformations involving only a rotation of viewpoint.

To understand all these relevant results, it is crucial to reflect that in the JRD task, participants were asked to indicate the bearing of each object from a new position, but still in relation to their heading, that is what Klatzky called the “ego-oriented bearing” [58, 74]. In other words, when confronted with two objects in space, the inter-object direction is coded with respect to the individual’s current heading, resulting in an “ego-oriented bearing” from one object to the other, that is the angle between the self’s position and the vector connecting the two objects [58, 74]. It would be difficult to solve the JRD task if the stored egocentric heading was not aligned with the objects’ bearings [33, 34]. In order to account for the role of this alignment principle centered on the self, starting from this theoretical framework [65, 66, 68], we suggested that *mental frame syncing* may be included as a neurocognitive mechanism of the egocentric-

allocentric transformation to support the recall of a spatial scenario.

The starting point is the evidence that there are two regions within the hippocampus involved in processing allocentric information [76, 77]: the region CA3 receives inputs from the entorhinal cortex and elaborates an allocentric representation containing information about the individual's viewpoint within the spatial scene (i.e., *allocentric viewpoint-dependent representation* [34,77]), while the region CA1 receives inputs from CA3 via Schaffer's collaterals and encodes allocentric representations containing pure object-to-object information of the spatial scene (i.e., *allocentric viewpoint-independent representation* [34,77]). More specifically, when we memorize the pure object-to-object relationship included in a spatial scene (i.e., *allocentric viewpoint-independent representation* [34,77]), we also encode the inter-object direction with respect to our egocentric heading, resulting in the above-mentioned "ego-oriented bearing" [58, 74]. Accordingly, when we have to recall this spatial scene, we have to re-establish our ego-oriented bearing on the first pure allocentric representation by mentally computing the bearing of each relevant "object" in relation to the stored heading in space (i.e., information about our viewpoint contained in the viewpoint-dependent representation), and this process facilitates the translation into the egocentric representation. This means a synchronization between the allocentric viewpoint-independent representation (i.e., including the above-mentioned object-to-object information) with the allocentric viewpoint-dependent representation (i.e., comprising information about our heading in the space), that is the "mental frame syncing" [33, 34].

From these theoretical and experimental premises, Serino and Riva [78] specifically investigated the mechanism underlying this process, namely how the interaction between allocentric viewpoint-independent and viewpoint-dependent representation works in spatial retrieval. Participants were asked to navigate in virtual environments to memorize the position of one hidden object in two different conditions: in an egocentric condition and with an interactive aerial view of the city. Results showed that the presence of an interactive aerial view of the city facilitated the retrieval of spatial information, since it furnishes information about the current egocentric heading in the space; this may facilitate the matching of the stored egocentric heading with the current egocentric heading in the spatial scene.

WHEN THERE IS A "BREAK" IN THE "MENTAL FRAME SYNCING": PRELIMINARY EVIDENCE FOR A PATHOLOGICAL PROCESS IN AD AND RELATED ETIOLOGICAL AGENCY

At this point we can introduce the main claim of our hypothesis: a break in the continuous interaction between different spatial representations may contribute significantly both to the early impairments in spatial and episodic memory, and to a deficient self-awareness in AD.

As concerns the first point, namely how a break in the mental frame syncing may contribute to the early impairments in spatial and episodic memory in AD, it has been suggested that when it occurs, the reconstructed egocentric image retrieved from allocentric memory is useless because the egocentric heading is not aligned with the bearing of each relevant "object" that cued the retrieval [33, 34] (see Fig. 1).

In support of this idea, a recent study demonstrated that patients suffering from AD performed significantly more poorly when compared to the cognitively healthy age-matched controls in a task requiring them to memorize the position of an object in a virtual room and then to retrieve its position starting from another viewpoint of an empty version of the room, indicating a specific impairment in storing a viewpoint-independent representation, and then syncing it with the viewpoint-dependent representation [22].

Consequently, first of all, a deficit in mental frame syncing may explain both the spatial and episodic deficits in patients with AD, since it did not allow to place their stored egocentric heading in relation to other objects within the "memorized space", a function that is crucial to navigate (i.e., spatial memory deficit) and to retrieve our past experiences (i.e., episodic memory deficit).

As concerns the second point, namely how a break in the mental frame syncing may contribute to a deficient self-awareness in AD, a useful theoretical starting point is the predictive account to brain function [51–53]. Indeed, it has been suggested that our brain is essentially a "predictive brain" since it is constantly engaged in making predictions about future states and comparing them with actual perceived states [51–53]. In this direction, recent empirical works and theoretical proposals have emphasized the relationship between the retrieval of personal past

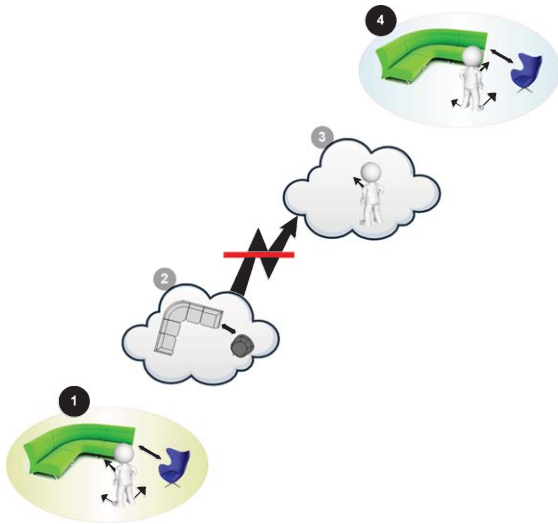


Fig. 1. When a cue prompted the retrieval of a personal experienced event (1), if the mental frame syncing does not work, the reconstructed egocentric image (4) is useless, because the allocentric viewpoint-independent representation (i.e., including the above object-to-object information) (2) is not aligned with the allocentric viewpoint-dependent representation (i.e., comprising information about our heading in the space) (3). This may cause difficulty in correctly orienting bodily position ('orienting toward the sofa') in the space that had been memorized ("memorized space"), making easy the translation of it into a "lived space" that needed to navigate and remember the past.

443 events and predictions of future events (for a review,
 444 see [52]). Here, we advance the idea that a break in the
 445 mental frame syncing may affect also possibility to
 446 detect errors in predictions. Prediction errors, which
 447 can be detected internally (thanks to a mismatch
 448 between predictions and perceptions) or externally
 449 with cues, which are usually used to adjust behavior
 450 in the immediate context or to update internal
 451 models, allowing more accurate predictions in the
 452 future [52]. Comparison between predictions and perception
 453 is processed outside of awareness; however,
 454 when a mismatch is detected typically it reaches the
 455 self-awareness.

456 However, as previously explained, a break in the
 457 mental frame syncing implies that the stored egocentric
 458 heading (i.e., our direction in the world) is not aligned
 459 with the objects' bearings (i.e., the stored object-to-object
 460 relationships) in the "memorized space". In other words,
 461 we are not able to re-establish a new ego-oriented bearing
 462 on a pure allocentric representation by elaborating the bearing
 463 of each relevant "object" in relation to the stored heading
 464 in space. This in turn may imply that we do not have
 465 sufficient information to generate accurate
 466

467 predictions about the spatial position of self in his/her
 468 "future space", and then to detect errors in predictions
 469 allowing for self-awareness of cognitive functioning. In particular,
 470 we refer to the so-called "episodic prediction" [79], namely
 471 "the estimation of the likelihood of, and/or the reactions to,
 472 a specific autobiographical future events" (p. 25). Using
 473 the words of Freton and colleagues [80], this means that
 474 the "remembering self" (i.e., the subject who is remembering
 475 a past event) is no more able to use information about the
 476 "remembered self" (i.e., the agent of the remembered event)
 477 to predict the "future self" (see Fig. 2).
 478
 479

480 Some interesting evidence may give specific support
 481 to the idea that a break in the mental frame syncing
 482 may also contribute to the deficient self-awareness in AD.
 483 First of all, as previously explained, a peculiar aspect of
 484 autobiographical memories is related to the visual perspective
 485 adopted during the recall [80–82], namely the *field perspective*
 486 (i.e., first-person perspective; the person remembering sees
 487 the event through his own eyes) and *observer perspective*
 488 (i.e., third-person perspective; in which the person remembering
 489 sees himself and the event from the point of view of an
 490 external observer). Traditionally, the distinction between
 491 two types of visual perspective permits in turn a distinction
 492 between episodic and semantic aspects of autobiographical
 493 memories [80, 83, 84]. The first-person perspective, indeed,
 494 is a feature of the episodic autobiographical retrieval,
 495 whereas the third-person perspective is traditionally associated
 496 with a semantic autobiographical recall. This is in line with
 497 studies showing that remote semanticized autobiographical
 498 memories are usually retrieved from a third-person perspective,
 499 while more recent memories are usually recalled from the
 500 same perspective as the encoding [80, 84]. Although the
 501 first-person perspective is more immediate and natural,
 502 studies have demonstrated that people may adopt a third-
 503 person perspective [85], and this implies a cognitive
 504 translocation of our egocentric viewpoint to locate
 505 ourselves into another point in space [85]. With regard
 506 to "spatial characteristics" of the two retrieval modes,
 507 in a recent study undergraduate students were instructed
 508 to retrieve an experienced event either from a first or a
 509 third-person perspective to investigate whether a specific
 510 vantage point may influence its mnemonic content [86].
 511 The results showed that memories recalled from a third-
 512 person perspective included more "spatial details", such
 513 as where the participants looked, what they did, or where
 514 things were.
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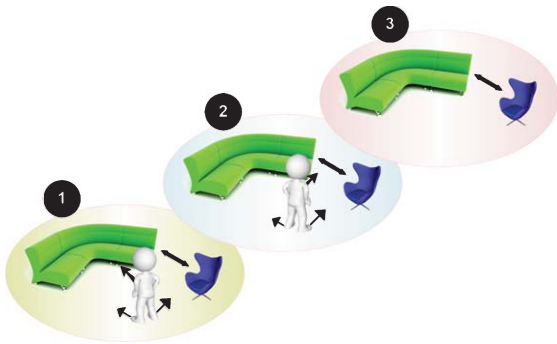


Fig. 2. A deficit in mental frame syncing affects the retrieval of a personal experienced event (1) since a person is not able to correctly orient his/her bodily position (“orienting toward the sofa”) in the space that he/she had memorized (“memorized space”) (2), and this in turn may imply that he/she does not have sufficient information to generate accurate predictions about the spatial position of self in his/her “future space”, and to then to detect errors in predictions allowing for self-awareness (3).

This supports the idea that the third-person perspective may be useful for updating self-knowledge since it offers the possibility of acquiring new information on the self, taking into account previous stored information [50]. It is possible to argue that these “spatial details” would be essential to establish an ego-oriented bearing on a pure allocentric representation since they furnish essential information about the egocentric heading in relation to the bearing of each relevant “object” within the spatial scene, taking into account both episodic memory and perspective-taking impairments. With regard to the impaired ability of AD to see themselves from another perspective, a recent study [87] investigating autobiographical recall in patients with AD found that 31.4% of retrieved memories were visualized via “general” off-tangent imagery without an explicit reference to the self or to the original event that cued the recall. Moreover, 16% of memories were recalled without any visual spatial details indicating the visual perspective. These results may provide evidence to support the difficulties of patients with AD in adopting an accurate third-person perspective of themselves during recall, a compromised ability which may reflect pathology in the medial parietal areas [88], known to be critical for egocentric spatial processing in the context of autobiographical retrieval.

As specifically concern the ability in imaging future personal events, Addis and co-workers [89] found that also patients with AD had difficulties in simulating future autobiographical events, generating

fewer internal and external episodic elements in comparison to a matched control group. Moreover, Gamboz and co-workers [90] asked 14 patients with amnesic MCI (aMCI), and 14 matched controls to mentally retrieve and simulate autobiographical events. The findings showed that patients suffering from aMCI produced fewer event-specific details for both past and future events.

These data on patients suffering from aMCI are interesting since it has been shown that these patients have a higher likelihood of progressing to AD (e.g., [91]), but it is crucial to underline that although a reduced self-awareness is often reported among patients suffering from MCI [92, 93], the question about level of awareness about own cognitive functioning in patients with MCI is still under debate, and literature has not yet reached a clear consensus [94, 95]. In addition to the heterogeneity of self-awareness deficits found in MCI, one of the main concerns regards the validity of the existing methods for the evaluation of anosognosia [96, 97]. However, an interesting study using a multimodal assessment of anosognosia found that this symptom was equally frequent in both patients suffering from aMCI and in mild AD [98]. These findings may provide some support to the idea that impaired self-awareness in MCI may share common underlying mechanism with that reported in AD.

Overall, these data may corroborate the hypothesis that patients with AD may have an impaired ability to simulate autobiographical future scenarios of themselves in a third-person perspective, which may prevent the update of the first-person perspective on one’s own state [50], and in turn, the update of self-knowledge [41]. This is consistent with results showing that the ability to simulate future autobiographical scenarios is based on the activity of medial temporal lobes [99–101], which is the earliest area affected by the neuropathological process in AD. A first step to give further support to this hypothesis is to investigate whether patients with AD would manifest an improvement in their anosognosia if they have the opportunity to see themselves in future autobiographical scenarios from a third-person perspective. How is it possible to experimentally simulate autobiographical future scenarios in a third-person perspective? A possible solution is offered by virtual reality (VR). Recently, Friedman and co-workers [102] proposed an innovative method for generating the illusion of “time travel” using VR: participants took part in an event with a dramatic outcome (i.e., the deaths of stranger) and they had to choose between saving five

602 people or one. Then, in the “Time Travel Condition”,
603 they relived these events for three times, having the
604 possibility to see the embodied version of their past
605 selves doing what they had previously done. Besides
606 the opportunity for controlled, valid, and secure test-
607 ing environments (for a review, see [103]), with VR
608 it would be possible to set-up an innovative and
609 objectively valid method to experimentally simulate
610 autobiographical future scenarios in a different per-
611 spective. Specifically, VR has proven to be a valid tool
612 to assess large-scale navigation strategies in patients
613 suffering from MCI and AD [104]. Moreover, as high-
614 lighted in a recent review, it appears useful to detect
615 allocentric and egocentric impairments that appear
616 since the first phases of the AD, and also in indi-
617 viduals suffering from MCI, particularly from aMCI
618 [105]. Future research in this field should focus on this
619 population, considering also the individuals with one
620 or two alleles of the apolipoprotein E (ApoE4), which
621 is the only genetic variant accepted as increasing the
622 risk of developing AD [106]. In particular, indeed,
623 some interesting studies have found that individuals
624 who met the clinical criteria for aMCI and were also
625 ApoE4 positive showed the same spatial impairments
626 as patients with AD [107, 108].

627 CONCLUSION

628 The fortunate combination of a rapid increase
629 in population growth (the Baby-Boom generation)
630 and in life expectancy has resulted in a consequent
631 increase in the aging population (aged 65 and over).
632 The flip-side of the coin, namely the negative effect
633 of this growth, is that the prevalence of neurodegen-
634 erative diseases is also expected to increase. In 2005,
635 an estimated 24.3 million of individuals suffered from
636 AD [109]. It has been estimated that each year 4.6 mil-
637 lion new cases of AD will be diagnosed, and that the
638 number of the elderly with AD will reach 81.1 million
639 by 2040. In the United States, recent epidemiological
640 data has estimated that 5.3 million of U.S. individuals
641 suffered from AD [110, 111], a number that is pro-
642 jected to grow by nearly 10 million by mid-century
643 [111]. Based on these premises, it is evident why a
644 major goal of health policy worldwide has become
645 the continuous identification of early indicators of
646 cognitive decline in the elderly [112].

647 Here, we suggest a new unifying framework of
648 all the characteristic signs occurring in AD related
649 to the interaction between different spatial represen-
650 tations. In particular, we hypothesized that a break

651 in this interaction may contribute significantly both
652 to the early impairments of spatial and episodic
653 memory and to deficient self-awareness. Specifi-
654 cally, it is proposed that continuous synchronization
655 (namely, “mental frame syncing”) of an allocentric
656 viewpoint-independent representation (i.e., includ-
657 ing only abstract object-to-object relations) and an
658 allocentric viewpoint-dependent representation (i.e.,
659 comprising information about our egocentric head-
660 ing) may permit me to correctly orient my bodily
661 position in the space I have memorized (“memorized
662 space”) making it easy to translate it into a “lived
663 space” that I need to navigate and remember the past
664 [33, 34]. If mental frame syncing stops, as we sug-
665 gest occurs in AD, the reconstructed egocentric image
666 from the allocentric memory will be useless, because
667 our egocentric heading will be not aligned with the
668 objects’ bearings. Moreover, this may provoke an
669 impairment in our ability to use this “memorized
670 space” to predict our future based on our personal
671 past episodes, namely to place our self in a “future
672 space” and consequently to see ourselves from the
673 outside, and in turn to detect errors in predictions and
674 then use this information to update our first-person
675 perspective allowing for self-awareness.

676 From a clinical viewpoint, the elaboration of a
677 unifying framework of all the characteristic signs
678 occurring in patients with AD opens crucial posi-
679 bility also for non-pharmacological interventions.
680 In the last few decades, an increasing number of
681 studies found that the non-pharmacological interven-
682 tions, such as cognitive training, may play a role both
683 for patients with AD or for their caregivers, as a
684 complement to the pharmacological approach [113].
685 In a recent study, 61 patients suffering from mild
686 stage AD patients were assigned to an experimen-
687 tal group to receive a Multi-Intervention Programme
688 (i.e., a combination of cognitive tasks, training in
689 daily life, and recreational activities) or to the waiting
690 list. Results showed that patients with AD and with
691 awareness of their deficits had positive effects on all
692 outcome measures when compared the waiting list
693 group, whereas patients with AD and unawareness
694 demonstrated improvements only in non-cognitive
695 symptoms [114].

696 Even if these claims are supported by a growing
697 number of studies, further research is still needed to
698 provide more evidence for this theoretical proposal.
699 Any further improvement in this direction may also
700 help cognitive neuroscience to bridge the still existing
701 gap between two key questions related to our self:
“Where am I?” and “Who am I?”.

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