

## Hypothesis

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

Silvia Serino<sup>a,b,\*</sup> and Giuseppe Riva<sup>a,b</sup>

 Applied Technology for Neuro-Psychology Lab, IRCCS Istituto Auxologico Italiano, Milan, Italy

<sup>a</sup>Department of Psychology, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Milan, Italy

Accepted 19 September 2016

**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

\*Correspondence to: Silvia Serino, Applied Technology for Neuro-Psychology Lab, IRCCS Istituto Auxologico Italiano, Via Magnasco 2, 20149 Milan, Italy. Tel.: +39 02 619112726; Fax: +39 02 619112892; E-mail: s.serino@auxologico.it.

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-

342 allocentric transformation to support the recall of a  
343 spatial scenario.

344 The starting point is the evidence that there are  
345 two regions within the hippocampus involved in pro-  
346 cessing allocentric information [76, 77]: the region  
347 CA3 receives inputs from the entorhinal cortex  
348 and elaborates an allocentric representation contain-  
349 ing information about the individual's viewpoint  
350 within the spatial scene (i.e., *allocentric viewpoint-*  
351 *dependent representation* [34,77]), while the region  
352 CA1 receives inputs from CA3 via Schaffer's  
353 collaterals and encodes allocentric representations  
354 containing pure object-to-object information of the  
355 spatial scene (i.e., *allocentric viewpoint-independent*  
356 *representation* [34,77]). More specifically, when  
357 we memorize the pure object-to-object relationship  
358 included in a spatial scene (i.e., *allocentric viewpoint-*  
359 *independent representation* [34,77], we also encode  
360 the inter-object direction with respect to our ego-  
361 centric heading, resulting in the above-mentioned  
362 "ego-oriented bearing" [58, 74]. Accordingly, when  
363 we have to recall this spatial scene, we have to  
364 re-establish our ego-oriented bearing on the first  
365 pure allocentric representation by mentally comput-  
366 ing the bearing of each relevant "object" in relation  
367 to the stored heading in space (i.e., information about  
368 our viewpoint contained in the viewpoint-dependent  
369 representation), and this process facilitates the trans-  
370 lation into the egocentric representation. This means  
371 a synchronization between the allocentric viewpoint-  
372 independent representation (i.e., including the  
373 above-mentioned object-to-object information) with  
374 the allocentric viewpoint-dependent representation  
375 (i.e., comprising information about our heading in the  
376 space), that is the "mental frame syncing" [33, 34].

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

## 393 WHEN THERE IS A "BREAK" IN THE 394 "MENTAL FRAME SYNCING": 395 PRELIMINARY EVIDENCE FOR A 396 PATHOLOGICAL PROCESS IN AD AND 397 RELATED ETIOLOGICAL AGENCY

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

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

413 In support of this idea, a recent study demonstrated  
414 that patients suffering from AD performed signifi-  
415 cantly more poorly when compared to the cognitively  
416 healthy age-matched controls in a task requiring  
417 them to memorize the position of an object in a  
418 virtual room and then to retrieve its position start-  
419 ing from another viewpoint of an empty version of  
420 the room, indicating a specific impairment in stor-  
421 ing a viewpoint-independent representation, and then  
422 syncing it with the viewpoint-dependent representa-  
423 tion [22].

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

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

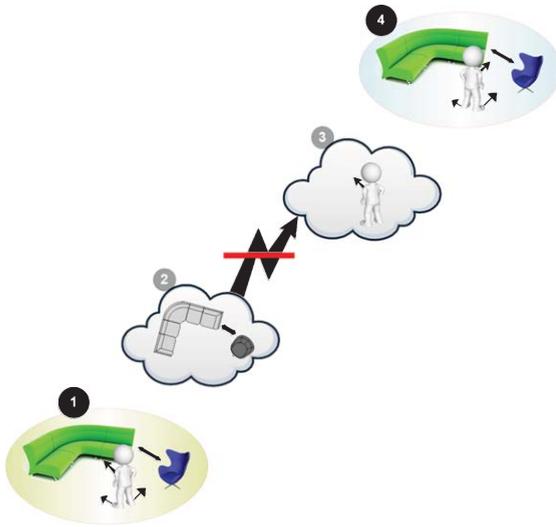


Fig. 1. When a cue prompted the retrieval of a personal experienced event (1), if the mental frame syncing does not work, the reconstructed egocentric image (4) is useless, because the allocentric viewpoint-independent representation (i.e., including the above object-to-object information) (2) is not 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 behav-  
 450 ior in the immediate context or to update internal  
 451 models, allowing more accurate predictions in the  
 452 future [52]. Comparison between predictions and per-  
 453 ception 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 ego-  
 458 centric heading (i.e., our direction in the world)  
 459 is not aligned with the objects' bearings (i.e., the  
 460 stored object-to-object relationships) in the "mem-  
 461 orized space". In other words, we are not able to  
 462 re-establish a new ego-oriented bearing on a pure  
 463 allocentric representation by elaborating the bearing  
 464 of each relevant "object" in relation to the stored  
 465 heading in space. This in turn may imply that we do  
 466 not have sufficient information to generate accurate

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

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

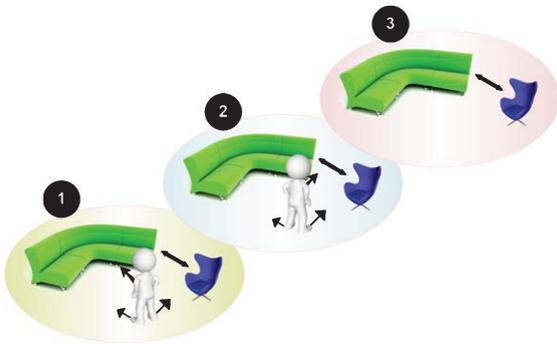


Fig. 2. A deficit in mental frame syncing affects the retrieval of a personal experienced event (1) since a person is not able to correctly orient his/her bodily position (“orienting toward the sofa”) in the space that he/she had memorized (“memorized space”) (2), and this in turn may imply that he/she 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 possi-  
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?”.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was partially supported by the Italian funded project “High-end and Low-End Virtual Reality Systems for the Rehabilitation of Frailty in the Elderly” (PE-2013-02355948), by the research project Tecnologia Positiva e Healthy Aging (Positive Technology and Healthy Aging) (Grant D.3.2., 2014) and by the research project “Ageing and Healthy Living: A Human Centered Approach in Research and innovation as Source of Quality Life”, funded by Fondazione Cariplo within the 2014.

Authors’ disclosures available online (<http://j-alz.com/manuscript-disclosures/16-0676r1>).

## REFERENCES

- [1] Khachaturian ZS (1997) Plundered memories. *The Sciences* **37**, 20-25.
- [2] Newen A, Vogeley K (2003) Self-representation: Searching for a neural signature of self-consciousness. *Conscious Cogn* **12**, 529-543.
- [3] Gallagher S (2000) Philosophical conceptions of the self: Implications for cognitive science. *Trends Cogn Sci* **4**, 14-21.
- [4] Feher EP, Mahurin RK, Inbody SB, Crook TH, Pirozolo FJ (1991) Anosognosia in Alzheimer’s disease. *Cogn Behav Neurol* **4**, 136-146.
- [5] Migliorelli R, Tesón A, Sabe L, Petracca G, Petracchi M, Leiguarda R, Starkstein SE (1995) Anosognosia in Alzheimer’s disease: A study of associated factors. *J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci* **7**, 338-344.
- [6] Starkstein SE (2014) Anosognosia in Alzheimer’s disease: Diagnosis, frequency, mechanism and clinical correlates. *Cortex* **61**, 64-73.
- [7] Vasterling JJ, Seltzer B, Foss MW, Vanderbrook V (1995) Unawareness of deficit in Alzheimer’s disease: Domain-specific differences and disease correlates. *Cogn Behav Neurol* **8**, 26-32.
- [8] Avondino E, Antoine P (2015) Heterogeneity of cognitive anosognosia and its variation with the severity of dementia in patients with Alzheimer’s disease. *J Alzheimers Dis* **50**, 89-99.
- [9] Koltai DC, Welsh-Bohmer KA, Schmechel DE (2001) Influence of anosognosia on treatment outcome among dementia patients. *Neuropsychol Rehab* **11**, 455-475.
- [10] Turró-Garriga O, Garre-Olmo J, Vilalta-Franch J, Condesala JL, Gracia Blanco M, López-Pousa S (2013) Burden associated with the presence of anosognosia in Alzheimer’s disease. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry* **28**, 291-297.
- [11] Petersen RC, Aisen P, Boeve BF, Geda YE, Ivnik RJ, Knopman DS, Mielke M, Pankratz VS, Roberts R, Rocca WA (2013) Mild cognitive impairment due to Alzheimer disease in the community. *Ann Neurol* **74**, 199-208.
- [12] Petersen RC, Caracciolo B, Brayne C, Gauthier S, Jelic V, Fratiglioni L (2014) Mild cognitive impairment: A concept in evolution. *J Intern Med* **275**, 214-228.
- [13] Tabert MH, Albert SM, Borukhova-Milov L, Camacho Y, Pelton G, Liu X, Stern Y, Devanand DP (2002) Functional deficits in patients with mild cognitive impairment: Prediction of AD. *Neurology* **58**, 758-764.
- [14] McHugh PR, Slavney PR (2011) *The perspectives of psychiatry (2nd ed.)*, JHU Press.
- [15] Blennow K, Dubois B, Fagan AM, Lewczuk P, de Leon MJ, Hampel H (2015) Clinical utility of cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers in the diagnosis of early Alzheimer’s disease. *Alzheimers Dement* **11**, 58-69.
- [16] Nestor PJ, Scheltens P, Hodges JR (2004) Advances in the early detection of Alzheimer’s disease. *Nat Med* **10**(Suppl), S34-S41.
- [17] Weintraub S, Wicklund AH, Salmon DP (2012) The neuropsychological profile of Alzheimer disease. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med* **2**, a006171.
- [18] Koen JD, Yonelinas AP (2014) The effects of healthy aging, amnesic mild cognitive impairment, and Alzheimer’s disease on recollection and familiarity: A meta-analytic review. *Neuropsychol Rev* **24**, 332-354.
- [19] Monacelli AM, Cushman LA, Kavcic V, Duffy CJ (2003) Spatial disorientation in Alzheimer’s disease The remembrance of things passed. *Neurology* **61**, 1491-1497.
- [20] Guariglia CC, Nitrini R (2009) Topographical disorientation in Alzheimer’s disease. *Arq Neuropsiquiatr* **67**, 967-972.
- [21] Pai MC, Jacobs WJ (2004) Topographical disorientation in community-residing patients with Alzheimer’s disease. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry* **19**, 250-255.
- [22] Serino S, Morganti F, Di Stefano F, Riva G (2015) Detecting early egocentric and allocentric impairments deficits in Alzheimer’s disease: An experimental study with virtual reality. *Front Aging Neurosci* **7**, 88.
- [23] Lithfous S, Dufour A, Després O (2013) Spatial navigation in normal aging and the prodromal stage of Alzheimer’s disease: Insights from imaging and behavioral studies. *Ageing Res Rev* **12**, 201-213.
- [24] Braak H, Braak E (1991) Neuropathological staging of Alzheimer-related changes. *Acta neuropathol* **82**, 239-259.
- [25] Braak H, Braak E (1996) Evolution of the neuropathology of Alzheimer’s disease. *Acta Neurol Scand* **94**, 3-12.
- [26] Alafuzoff I, Arzberger T, Al-Sarraj S, Bodi I, Bogdanovic N, Braak H, Bugiani O, DelTredici K, Ferrer I, Gelpi E (2008) Staging of neurofibrillary pathology in Alzheimer’s disease: A study of the BrainNet Europe Consortium. *Brain Pathol* **18**, 484-496.
- [27] Dickson DW (1997) The pathogenesis of senile plaques. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol* **56**, 321-339.
- [28] Thal DR, Rüb U, Schultz C, Sassin I, Ghebremedhin E, Del Tredici K, Braak E, Braak H (2000) Sequence of A $\beta$  Protein Deposition in the Human Medial Temporal Lobe. *J Neuropathol Exp Neuro* **59**, 733-748.
- [29] Teyler TJ, Rudy JW (2007) The hippocampal indexing theory and episodic memory: Updating the index. *Hippocampus* **17**, 1158-1169.
- [30] Nadel L, Moscovitch M (1997) Memory consolidation, retrograde amnesia and the hippocampal complex. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **7**, 217-227.
- [31] Moscovitch M, Rosenbaum RS, Gilboa A, Addis DR, Westmacott R, Grady C, McAndrews MP, Levine B, Black S, Winocur G (2005) Functional neuroanatomy of remote episodic, semantic and spatial memory: A unified account based on multiple trace theory. *J Anat* **207**, 35-66.
- [32] Moscovitch M, Cabeza R, Winocur G, Nadel L (2016) Episodic memory and beyond: The hippocampus and neocortex in transformation. *Ann Rev Psychol* **67**, 105-134.

- 825 [33] Serino S, Riva G (2013) Getting lost in Alzheimer's  
826 disease: A break in the mental frame syncing. *Med*  
827 *Hypotheses* **80**, 416-421.
- 828 [34] Serino S, Riva G (2014) What is the role of spatial  
829 processing in the decline of episodic memory in Alzheimer's  
830 disease? The mental frame syncing hypothesis. *Front*  
831 *Aging Neurosci* **6**, 33.
- 832 [35] Babinski J (1914) Contribution à l'étude des troubles men-  
833 taux dans l'hémiplégie organique cérébrale (anosognosie).  
834 *Rev Neurol* **27**, 845-848.
- 835 [36] Papagno C, Vallar G (2003) *Classic Cases in Neuropsy-*  
836 *chology*, volume 2., Code C, Wallesch CW, Joannette Y,  
837 Lecours AR, eds. Psychology Press, Hove, East Sussex,  
838 pp. 171-189.
- 839 [37] McGlynn SM, Schacter DL (1989) Unawareness of  
840 deficits in neuropsychological syndromes. *J Clin Exp Neu-*  
841 *ropsychol* **11**, 143-205.
- 842 [38] Agnew SK, Morris RG (1998) The heterogeneity of  
843 anosognosia for memory impairment in Alzheimer's dis-  
844 ease: A review of the literature and a proposed model.  
845 *Aging Ment Health* **2**, 7-19.
- 846 [39] Morris RG, Hannesdottir K (2004) Loss of 'awareness'  
847 in Alzheimer's disease. In *Cognitive neuropsychology of*  
848 *Alzheimer's disease*, Morris RG, Becker JT, eds. Oxford  
849 University Press, Oxford, pp. 275-296.
- 850 [40] Schacter DL (1992) Consciousness and awareness in  
851 memory and amnesia: Critical issues In *The Neuropsy-*  
852 *chology of Consciousness, Milner AD, Rugg MD, eds*,  
853 Academic Press, London.
- 854 [41] Mograbi DC, Brown RG, Morris RG (2009) Anosognosia  
855 in Alzheimer's disease—the petrified self. *Conscious Cogn*  
856 **18**, 989-1003.
- 857 [42] Salmon E, Ruby P, Perani D, Kalbe E, Laureys S, Adam S,  
858 Collette F (2005) Two aspects of impaired consciousness  
859 in Alzheimer's disease. *Prog Brain Res* **150**, 287-298.
- 860 [43] Salmon E, Perani D, Herholz K, Marique P, Kalbe E,  
861 Holthoff V, Delbecq X, Beuthien-Bauman B, Pelati O,  
862 Lespagnard S, Collette F, Garraux G (2004) Multiple  
863 regional cerebral account for unawareness of cognitive  
864 impairment in AD, *HBM Abstract*, Budapest.
- 865 [44] Zamboni G, Wilcock G (2011) Lack of awareness of  
866 symptoms in people with dementia: The structural and  
867 functional basis. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry* **26**, 783-792.
- 868 [45] Northoff G, Heinzl A, De Greck M, Bermpohl F,  
869 Dobrowolny H, Panksepp J (2006) Self-referential pro-  
870 cessing in our brain—a meta-analysis of imaging studies  
871 on the self. *Neuroimage* **31**, 440-457.
- 872 [46] Frith CD, Frith U (2007) Social cognition in humans. *Curr*  
873 *Biol* **17**, R724-R732.
- 874 [47] Besharati S, Kopelman M, Avesani R, Moro V, Fotopoulou  
875 A (2015) Another perspective on anosognosia: Self-  
876 observation in video replay improves motor awareness.  
877 *Neuropsychol Rehabil* **25**, 319-352.
- 878 [48] Jenkinson PM, Haggard P, Ferreira NC, Fotopoulou A  
879 (2013) Body ownership and attention in the mirror:  
880 Insights from somatoparaphrenia and the rubber hand illu-  
881 sion. *Neuropsychologia* **51**, 1453-1462.
- 882 [49] Fotopoulou A, Rudd A, Holmes P, Kopelman M (2009)  
883 Self-observation reinstates motor awareness in anosog-  
884 nosia for hemiplegia. *Neuropsychologia* **47**, 1256-1260.
- 885 [50] Fotopoulou A (2015) The virtual bodily self: Mentalisa-  
886 tion of the body as revealed in anosognosia for hemiplegia.  
887 *Conscious Cogn* **33**, 500-510.
- 888 [51] Friston K (2010) The free-energy principle: A unified brain  
889 theory? *Nat Rev Neurosci* **11**, 127-138.
- 890 [52] Bar M (2011) *Predictions in the brain: Using our past to*  
891 *generate a future*, Oxford University Press.
- 892 [53] Clark A (2016) *Surfing Uncertainty: Prediction, Action,*  
893 *and the Embodied Mind*, Oxford University Press.
- 894 [54] Fotopoulou A (2014) Time to get rid of the Modular in neu-  
895ropsychology: A unified theory of anosognosia as aberrant  
896 predictive coding. *J Neuropsychol* **8**, 1-19.
- 897 [55] Riva G (2014) Out of my real body: Cognitive neuro-  
898 science meets eating disorders. *Front Hum Neurosci* **8**  
899 236.
- 900 [56] O'Keefe J, Nadel LT (1978) *The Hippocampus as Cogni-*  
901 *tive Map*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- 902 [57] Paillard J (1991) *Brain and Space*, Oxford Science Publi-  
903 cations, Oxford, UK.
- 904 [58] Klatzky RL (1998) Allocentric and egocentric spatial  
905 representations: Definitions, distinctions, and intercon-  
906 nections. In *Spatial Cognition. An Interdisciplinary*  
907 *Approach to Representing and Processing Spatial Knowl-*  
908 *edge*, Freksa C, Habel C, Wender KF, eds. Springer, pp.  
909 1-17.
- 910 [59] Lester BD, Dassonville P (2014) The role of the right supe-  
911 rior parietal lobule in processing visual context for the  
912 establishment of the egocentric reference frame. *J Cogn*  
913 *Neurosci* **26**, 2201-2209.
- 914 [60] Zipser D, Andersen RA (1988) A back-propagation pro-  
915 grammed network that simulates response properties of a  
916 subset of posterior parietal neurons. *Nature* **331**, 679-684.
- 917 [61] Pouget A, Sejnowski TJ (1992) A distributed common re-  
918 ference frame for egocentric space in the posterior parietal  
919 cortex. *Behav Brain Sci* **15**, 787-788.
- 920 [62] Ekstrom AD, Kahana MJ, Caplan JB, Fields TA, Isham  
921 EA, Newman EL, Fried I (2003) Cellular networks under-  
922 lying human spatial navigation. *Nature* **425**, 184-188.
- 923 [63] O'Keefe J, Dostrovsky J (1971) The hippocampus as a  
924 spatial map. Preliminary evidence from unit activity in the  
925 freely-moving rat. *Brain Res* **34**, 171-175.
- 926 [64] Ono T, Nakamura K, Nishijo H, Eifuku S (1993) Mon-  
927 key hippocampal neurons related to spatial and nonspatial  
928 functions. *J Neurophysiol* **70**, 1516-1516.
- 929 [65] Byrne P, Becker S, Burgess N (2007) Remembering the  
930 past and imagining the future: A neural model of spatial  
931 memory and imagery. *Psychol Rev* **114**, 340-375.
- 932 [66] Burgess N, Becker S, King JA, O'Keefe J (2001) Memory  
933 for events and their spatial context: Models and experi-  
934 ments. *Philos T R Soc B* **356**, 1493-1503.
- 935 [67] Burgess N (2008) Spatial cognition and the brain. *Ann N*  
936 *Y Acad Sci* **1124**, 77-97.
- 937 [68] Vann SD, Aggleton JP, Maguire EA (2009) What does the  
938 retrosplenial cortex do? *Nat Rev Neurosci* **10**, 792-802.
- 939 [69] Galati G, Lobel E, Vallar G, Berthoz A, Pizzamiglio  
940 L, Le Bihan D (2000) The neural basis of egocentric  
941 and allocentric coding of space in humans: A func-  
942 tional magnetic resonance study. *Exp Brain Res* **133**,  
943 156-164.
- 944 [70] Zaehle T, Jordan K, Wüstenberg T, Baudewig J, Dechent  
945 P, Mast FW (2007) The neural basis of the egocentric  
946 and allocentric spatial frame of reference. *Brain Res* **1137**,  
947 92-103.
- 948 [71] Zhang H, Copara M, Ekstrom AD (2012) Differential  
949 recruitment of brain networks following route and car-  
950 tographic map learning of spatial environments. *PLoS One*  
951 **7**, e44886.
- 952 [72] Mou W, McNamara TP, Valiquette CM, Rump B (2004)  
953 Allocentric and egocentric updating of spatial memories.  
954 *J Exp Psychol Learn Mem Cogn* **30**, 142-157.

- 955 [73] Dhindsa K, Drobinin V, King J, Hall GB, Burgess N, 1020  
 956 Becker S (2014) Examining the role of the temporo- 1021  
 957 parietal network in memory, imagery, and viewpoint 1022  
 958 transformations. *Front Hum Neurosci* **8**, 709. 1023
- 959 [74] Klatzky RL, Wu BT (2008) The embodied actor in multiple 1024  
 960 frames of reference. In *Embodiment, Ego-Space and 1025*  
 961 *Action*. Klatzky RL, Behrmann M, MacWhinney B, eds. 1026  
 962 Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, NJ. 1027
- 963 [75] Rolls ET (2007) An attractor network in the hippocampus: 1028  
 964 Theory and neurophysiology. *Learn Mem* **14**, 714-731. 1029
- 965 [76] Rolls ET, Treves A, Robertson RG, Georges-François P, 1030  
 966 Panzeri S (1998) Information about spatial view in an 1031  
 967 ensemble of primate hippocampal cells. *J Neurophysiol* 1032  
 968 **79**, 1797-1813. 1033
- 969 [77] Behrendt RP (2013) Conscious experience and episodic 1034  
 970 memory: Hippocampus at the crossroads. *Front Psychol* 1035  
 971 **4**, 304. 1036
- 972 [78] Serino S, Riva G (2015) How different spatial representa- 1037  
 973 tions interact in virtual environments: The role of mental 1038  
 974 frame syncing. *Cogn Process* **16**, 191-201. 1039
- 975 [79] Michaelian K, Klein SB, Szpunar KK (2016) Seeing the 1040  
 976 future: Theoretical perspectives on future-oriented mental 1041  
 977 time travel. Oxford University Press, Oxford. 1042
- 978 [80] Nigro G, Neisser U (1983) Point of view in personal mem- 1043  
 979 ories. *Cogn Psychol* **15**, 467-482. 1044
- 980 [81] Sutin AR, Robins RW (2008) When the “I” looks at the 1045  
 981 “Me”: Autobiographical memory, visual perspective, and 1046  
 982 the self. *Conscious Cogn* **17**, 1386-1397. 1047
- 983 [82] Robinson JA, Swanson KL (1993) Field and observer 1048  
 984 modes of remembering. *Memory* **1**, 169-184. 1049
- 985 [83] Piolino P, Giffard-Quillon G, Desgranges B, Chételat G, 1050  
 986 Baron JC, Eustache F (2004) Re-experiencing old mem- 1051  
 987 ories via hippocampus: A PET study of autobiographical 1052  
 988 memory. *Neuroimage* **22**, 1371-1383. 1053
- 989 [84] Piolino P, Desgranges B, Clarys D, Guillery-Girard 1054  
 990 B, Taconnat L, Isingrini M, Eustache F (2006) Auto- 1055  
 991 biographical memory, autoeocentric consciousness, and 1056  
 992 self-perspective in aging. *Psychol Aging* **21**, 510. 1057
- 993 [85] Vogeley K, Fink GR (2003) Neural correlates of the first- 1058  
 994 person-perspective. *Trends Cogn Sci* **7**, 38-42. 1059
- 995 [86] Mclsaac HK, Eich E (2002) Vantage point in episodic 1060  
 996 memory. *Psychon Bull Rev* **9**, 146-150. 1061
- 997 [87] Irish M, Lawlor BA, O’Mara SM, Coen RF (2011) 1062  
 998 Impaired capacity for autoeocentric reliving during autobio- 1063  
 999 graphical event recall in mild Alzheimer’s disease. *Cortex* 1064  
 1000 **47**, 236-249. 1065
- 1001 [88] Fretton M, Lemogne C, Bergouignan L, Delaveau P, 1066  
 1002 Lehericy S, Fossati P (2014) The eye of the self: 1067  
 1003 Precuneus volume and visual perspective during auto- 1068  
 1004 biographical memory retrieval. *Brain Struct Funct* **219**, 1069  
 1005 959-968. 1070
- 1006 [89] Addis DR, Sacchetti DC, Ally BA, Budson AE, Schacter 1071  
 1007 DL (2009) Episodic simulation of future events is impaired 1072  
 1008 in mild Alzheimer’s disease. *Neuropsychologia* **47**, 2660- 1073  
 1009 2671. 1074
- 1010 [90] Gamboz N, De Vito S, Brandimonte MA, Pappalardo S, 1075  
 1011 Galeone F, Iavarone A, Della Sala S (2010) Episodic future 1076  
 1012 thinking in amnesic mild cognitive impairment. *Neuropsychologia* 1077  
 1013 **48**, 2091-2097. 1078
- 1014 [91] Mitchell AJ, Shiri-Feshki M (2009) Rate of progression of 1079  
 1015 mild cognitive impairment to dementia—meta-analysis of 1080  
 1016 41 robust inception cohort studies. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1081  
 1017 **119**, 252-265. 1082
- 1018 [92] Roberts JL, Clare L, Woods RT (2009) Subjective mem- 1083  
 1019 ory complaints and awareness of memory functioning in 1084  
 mild cognitive impairment: A systematic review. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord* **28**, 95-109.
- [93] Zamboni G, Drazich E, McCulloch E, Filippini N, Mackay CE, Jenkinson M, Tracey I, Wilcock GK (2013) Neuroanatomy of impaired self-awareness in Alzheimer’s disease and mild cognitive impairment. *Cortex* **49**, 668-678.
- [94] Piras F, Piras F, Orfei MD, Caltagirone C, Spalletta G (2016) Self-awareness in mild cognitive impairment: Quantitative evidence from systematic review and meta-analysis. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* **61**, 90-107.
- [95] Kalbe E, Salmon E, Perani D, Holthoff V, Sorbi S, Elsner A, Weisenbach S, Brand M, Lenz O, Kessler J (2005) Anosognosia in very mild Alzheimer’s disease but not in mild cognitive impairment. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord* **19**, 349-356.
- [96] Clare L, Nelis SM, Martyr A, Whitaker CJ, Marková IS, Roth I, Woods RT, Morris RG (2012) Longitudinal trajectories of awareness in early-stage dementia. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord* **26**, 140-147.
- [97] Clare L, Nelis SM, Martyr A, Roberts JL, Whitaker CJ, Markova IS, Roth I, Woods RT, Morris RG (2012) The influence of psychological, social and contextual factors on the expression and measurement of awareness in early-stage dementia: Testing a biopsychosocial model. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry* **27**, 167-177.
- [98] Vogel A, Stokholm J, Gade A, Andersen BB, Hejl AM, Waldemar G (2004) Awareness of deficits in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer’s disease: Do MCI patients have impaired insight? *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord* **17**, 181-187.
- [99] Okuda J, Fujii T, Ohtake H, Tsukiura T, Tanji K, Suzuki K, Kawashima R, Fukuda H, Itoh M, Yamadori A (2003) Thinking of the future and past: The roles of the frontal pole and the medial temporal lobes. *Neuroimage* **19**, 1369-1380.
- [100] Schacter DL, Addis DR (2007) The cognitive neuroscience of constructive memory: Remembering the past and imagining the future. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* **362**, 773-786.
- [101] Hassabis D, Kumaran D, Maguire EA (2007) Using imagination to understand the neural basis of episodic memory. *J Neurosci* **27**, 14365-14374.
- [102] Friedman D, Pizarro R, Or-Berbers K, Neyret S, Pan X, Slater M (2015) A method for generating an illusion of backwards time travel using immersive virtual reality—an exploratory study. *Front Psychol* **5**, 943.
- [103] Bohil CJ, Alicea B, Biocca FA (2011) Virtual reality in neuroscience research and therapy. *Nat Rev Neurosci* **12**, 752-762.
- [104] Cogné M, Taillade M, N’Kaoua B, Tarruella A, Klinger E, Larrue F, Sauzéon H, Joseph PA, Sorita E (2016) The contribution of virtual reality to the diagnosis of spatial navigation disorders and to the study of the role of navigational aids: A systematic literature review. *Ann Phys Rehabil Med*, doi: 10.1016/j.rehab.2015.12.004
- [105] Serino S, Cipresso P, Morganti F, Riva G (2014) The role of egocentric and allocentric abilities in alzheimer’s disease: A systematic review. *Ageing Res Rev* **16**, 32-44.
- [106] Liu CC, Kanekiyo T, Xu H, Bu G (2013) Apolipoprotein E and Alzheimer disease: Risk, mechanisms and therapy. *Nat Rev Neurol* **9**, 106-118.
- [107] Laczó J, Andel R, Vyhnaek M, Vlcek K, Nedelska Z, Matoska V, Gazova I, Mokrisova I, Sheardova K, Hort J (2014) APOE and spatial navigation in amnesic MCI:

- 1085 Results from a computer-based test. *Neuropsychol* **28**,  
1086 676.
- 1087 [108] Laczó J, Andel R, Vlček K, Macoška V, Vyhnaněk M, Tolar  
1088 M, Bojar M, Hort J (2010) Spatial navigation and APOE  
1089 in amnesic mild cognitive impairment. *Neurodegener Dis*  
1090 **8**, 169-177.
- 1091 [109] Ferri CP, Prince M, Brayne C, Brodaty H, Fratiglioni L,  
1092 Ganguli M, Hall K, Hasegawa K, Hendrie H, Huang Y  
1093 (2006) Global prevalence of dementia: A Delphi consen-  
1094 sus study. *Lancet* **366**, 2112-2117.
- 1095 [110] Weuve J, Hebert LE, Scherr PA, Evans DA (2015) Preva-  
1096 lence of Alzheimer disease in US states. *Epidemiology* **26**,  
1097 e4-e6.
- 1098 [111] Alzheimer's, Association (2015) 2015 Alzheimer's dis-  
1099 ease facts and figures. *Alzheimers Dement* **11**, 332.
- [112] Brooker D, Fontaine JL, Evans S, Bray J, Saad K (2014) 1100  
Public health guidance to facilitate timely diagnosis of 1101  
dementia: ALzheimer's COoperative Valuation in Europe 1102  
recommendations. *Int J Ger Psych* **29**, 682-693. 1103
- [113] Olazarán J, Reisberg B, Clare L, Cruz I, Peña-Casanova 1104  
J, Del Ser T, Woods B, Beck C, Auer S, Lai C (2010) 1105  
Nonpharmacological therapies in Alzheimer's disease: A 1106  
systematic review of efficacy. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Dis- 1107  
ord* **30**, 161-178. 1108
- [114] Fernández-Calvo B, Contador I, Ramos F, Olazarán J, 1109  
Mograbi DC, Morris RG (2015) Effect of unawareness 1110  
on rehabilitation outcome in a randomised controlled trial 1111  
of multicomponent intervention for patients with mild 1112  
Alzheimer's disease. *Neuropsychol Rehabil* **25**, 448-477. 1113