

1 **“All is not lost” – Rethinking the nature of the self in dementia**

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17
18 **Article type:** Review article

19
20 **Running Head:** Memory and Self in Dementia

21
22 **Word Count:** 7361

23
24 **Figures:** 3

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28
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1 **Abstract**

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3 Memory and the self have long been considered intertwined, leading to the common
4 assumption that without memory, there can be no self. This line of reasoning has led to the
5 common misconception that a loss of memory in dementia necessarily results in a diminished
6 sense of self. Here, we challenge this assumption by considering discrete facets of the self, and
7 their relative profiles of loss and sparing, across three neurodegenerative disorders:
8 Alzheimer’s disease, semantic dementia, and frontotemporal dementia. By exploring canonical
9 expressions of the self across past, present, and future contexts in dementia, relative to healthy
10 ageing, we reconcile previous accounts of loss of self in dementia, and propose a new
11 framework for understanding and managing everyday functioning and behaviour. Notably, our
12 approach highlights the multifaceted and dynamic nature in which the self is likely to change
13 in healthy and pathological ageing, with important ramifications for development of person-
14 centred care. Collectively, we aim to promote a cohesive sense of self in dementia across past,
15 present, and future contexts, by demonstrating how, ultimately, ‘All is not lost’.

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17 **Keywords (6):** autobiographical memory, personal semantics, future thinking, Alzheimer’s
18 disease, semantic dementia, frontotemporal dementia

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1. Introduction

“*Memory alone... 'tis to be considered... as the source of personal identity*”

(Hume, 1739)

Memory and the self have long been considered intertwined (Locke, 1690; Squire and Kandel, 2003). The accumulation of memories from meaningful life experiences naturally gives rise to a ‘sense of self’, or a feeling that we exist as a distinct and unique person (Prebble et al., 2013). A sense of continuity of who we are (and will be) as individuals endures across time despite life’s many vagaries and ever-changing circumstances, enabling reflection upon one’s past, as well as anticipation of the future. Exploration of the interplay between memory and the self, however, has been hindered by the ephemeral nature of the “self”, and the tendency to consider episodic and semantic contributions to the self as independent, uniform, and static. Recent theoretical refinements have sought to delineate how episodic and semantic elements of memory potentially interact to support continuity of the self across past, present, and future contexts. Here, we build upon such integrative frameworks to consider how disruptions to discrete facets of memory impact an individual’s sense of self in healthy and pathological ageing, and how such alterations potentially differ contingent on temporal context. In doing so, we demonstrate that, counter to common conceptions, loss of memory does not in fact translate to a loss of self.

1.1 The self as a temporally-extended system

Humans are inherently driven to view their sense of self as continuous across time, enabling one to experience both stability and growth in who one is as a person (Locke, 1690; Ricoeur et al., 1990). Maintaining such a continuous sense of self is typically couched with reference to episodic (event-based) memory; however, it is important to also recognise the contribution of semantic memory (conceptual knowledge) in supporting self-continuity over time. In addition, considerable interdependence exists between the episodic and semantic memory systems (Burianová and Grady, 2007; Greenberg and Verfaellie, 2010), irrespective of whether an individual recollects a highly detailed autobiographical memory from the past or projects forward in time to envisage a self-referential future event (Irish, 2016; Irish and Piguet, 2013). As such, both episodic and semantic memory are proposed to support self-continuity across temporal contexts, in ways that are complex and distinct (Prebble et al., 2013). Episodic memory is posited to confer a sense of *subjective* continuity of the self, that is, the ability to

1 mentally project to the past or future to auto-nocally re-experience (or ‘pre-experience’)
2 episodes (see also Wheeler et al., 1997). This gives rise to a sense that the present self is an
3 extension of who one was (or will be) at the time of the event, allowing a sense of agency
4 (Metcalfe et al., 2012), aiding in future decision making and goal-setting (Hershfield, 2011),
5 contributing to growth of the self over time (D’Argebeau et al., 2012), and benefiting social
6 relationships (Alea and Bluck, 2003). On the other hand, semantic memory is held to underlie
7 the objective, *narrative* continuity of the self, allowing for the creation of a meaningful life
8 story connecting past, present, and future selves. Personal facts and experiences may be weaved
9 together via common themes, providing a narrative which one can retell, update, and create
10 new meaning from (McAdams, 2001). Both forms of self-continuity, therefore, crucially
11 contribute to an individual’s functioning and wellbeing.

12

13 **1.2 Does loss of memory entail a loss of self?**

14 The centrality of memory for a sense of self has led to the common assumption that without
15 memory, such as in amnesic disorders, there can be no “self” (Davis, 2004). By this view, an
16 amnesic individual is effectively stripped of their personhood and moral agency, raising grave
17 ethical questions regarding their autonomy and capacity to make personal decisions. Here, we
18 build on recent arguments cautioning against the simplistic notion that memory impairments
19 lead to a loss of self (e.g. Craver, 2012). Two of the most famous amnesic case studies, H.M.
20 and K.C., both retained some semblance of self-continuity via preserved knowledge about
21 themselves (for example, where they grew up, personality traits, and preferences), in the face
22 of marked retrograde and anterograde impairments (Hilts, 1995; Tulving, 1993). Such
23 examples suggest that aspects of self-continuity persist even in the face of gross episodic
24 memory impairment, and caution against viewing the self as a monolithic entity. A similar
25 erroneous view is applied in relation to neurodegenerative disorders, characterised by profound
26 episodic and semantic memory loss. Such conditions are often described as causing a “loss”
27 (Downs, 1997), “disintegration” (Davis, 2004), or “unbecoming” (Fontana and Smith, 1989)
28 of the self. Here, however, we demonstrate that despite such severe memory disturbances, self-
29 continuity remains present to varying degrees across past and future contexts.

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31 **1.3 The importance of studying the self in dementia**

32 Neurodegenerative disorders with distinct profiles of memory impairment offer a unique
33 opportunity to examine the complex interplay of episodic and semantic contributions to self-
34 continuity. The contrasting conditions of Alzheimer’s disease (AD), characterised by stark

1 episodic memory loss, and semantic dementia (SD), in which the semantic knowledge base is
2 progressively eroded, permit us to study how changes in episodic and semantic memory,
3 respectively, impinge upon the self. In addition, unique insights may be gleaned from the
4 behavioural variant of frontotemporal dementia (bvFTD), a form of younger-onset dementia
5 characterised by marked personality and behavioural change. This syndrome provides a
6 compelling window into the unravelling of the self, manifesting in alterations in defining
7 characteristics of the person, such as preferences, values, and traits, combined with a pervasive
8 lack of self-awareness and insight into these changes (see Wong et al., 2018b). Interestingly,
9 while episodic and semantic memory are also affected in bvFTD, these appear to be secondary
10 to the stark changes in the self, and resultant impairment of processing self-related information
11 (Irish et al., 2012c; Wong et al., 2017). As such, these three contrasting syndromes can each
12 provide distinct insights into episodic and semantic contributions to continuity of the self.

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14 Empirical studies of how episodic and semantic memory impairments deleteriously affect self-
15 continuity in dementia have thus far been scarce (see Caddell and Clare, 2010). Of the limited
16 studies to date, one approach has involved measurement of the self independently from
17 episodic and/or semantic memory, with the relationship between the two subsequently explored
18 (e.g., Addis and Tippett, 2004). Reliable assessment of the abstract construct of the ‘self’ in
19 populations characterised by widespread cognitive dysfunction, however, is inherently
20 challenging (Caddell and Clare, 2010). Measures of ‘self-experience’ typically employed
21 across other populations (e.g., Twenty Statements Test, Kuhn and McPartland, 1954;
22 Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, Fitts and Warren, 1996; Self-Consciousness Scale, Scheier and
23 Carver, 1985; Self-Persistence Interview, Chandler et al., 2003) are heavily reliant on self-
24 reflection and insight: abilities commonly affected from early in the disease course of many
25 neurodegenerative disorders. Given this limitation, the bulk of current evidence for altered self-
26 continuity in dementia stems from studies of episodic and semantic processes on their own.
27 Here, we consider how metrics such as specificity, contextual detail, and the subjective
28 phenomenological experience potentially inform our understanding of the component
29 processes underlying subjective and narrative self-continuity. Importantly, we further draw
30 upon convergent evidence about patient behaviour and functioning as evidence of observable
31 changes in the self, including the individual’s actions, preferences, and interactions.
32 Collectively, these findings reveal how distinct alterations in continuity of the self manifest
33 across different neurodegenerative disorders dependent on temporal context and the nature of
34 memory dysfunction.

1

2 **2. “I was”- Remembering the past**

3

4 Often considered the prototypical expression of the self, autobiographical memory (ABM)
5 involves the recollection of personally-defining past memories imbued with rich sensory-
6 perceptual details, emotional connotations, as well as abstracted semantic knowledge not
7 specific to time or place (Greenberg and Verfaellie, 2010; Grilli and Verfaellie, 2014; Irish and
8 Piguet, 2013; Renoult et al., 2012). Disruption to ABM is a pervasive feature across a host of
9 dementia syndromes (e.g., Irish et al., 2011a), with significant impacts on interpersonal
10 relationships (Kumfor et al., 2016).

11

12 The majority of studies of ABM have focused on its episodic component (see Strikwerda-
13 Brown et al., 2018), in recognition of its proposed importance for subjective continuity of the
14 self (Prebble et al., 2013). Traditionally, episodic ABM was quantified by the *specificity* of a
15 recollected past, personal event (e.g., Autobiographical Memory Interview, AMI, Kopelman
16 et al., 1989; TEMPau, Piolino et al., 2000), though scores on these tasks are constrained by the
17 limited range of the scoring system. An increasing focus on contextual details as a marker of
18 re-experiencing has led to the use of uncapped scoring systems (e.g., ‘internal’ details on the
19 Autobiographical Interview, AI, Levine et al., 2002), with individuals credited for the total
20 amount of episodic content generated. Contextual details, however, are not the sole criterion
21 for the subjective feeling of auto-noetic reliving (Piolino, 2003; Irish et al., 2008), prompting a
22 shift towards examining phenomenological aspects of the recollective endeavour (e.g., Irish et
23 al., 2011b). As such, to better appreciate how subjective self-continuity is altered across
24 neurodegenerative disorders, assessments of episodic ABM must consider the subjective
25 phenomenological experience along with event specificity and level of contextual detail.

26

27 **2.1 Contributions of episodic ABM disruption to self-continuity in dementia syndromes**

28 **2.1.1 Alzheimer’s disease (AD)**

29 Early studies in AD using the AMI highlighted a temporal gradient of event recall, with
30 impaired retrieval of recent events in the context of relatively intact remote recall (Greene et
31 al., 1995; Irish et al., 2006), in accordance with Ribot’s Law (Ribot, 1881). Using the uncapped
32 scoring system of the AI, however, a flat profile of episodic ABM impairment is evident, with
33 global disruption of the memory trace across all life epochs (Barnabe et al., 2012; Irish et al.,
34 2011a; 2014). Loss of episodic content occurs in parallel with marked alterations in the

1 phenomenological experience of remembering. As such, AD more than other dementia
2 syndromes provides compelling insight into the critical contribution of episodic ABM to
3 subjective self-continuity. These individuals no longer mentally relive their past memories,
4 instead reporting that they simply “know” the events to have taken place (Piolino, 2003;
5 Souchay and Moulin, 2009). More tellingly, auto-noetic re-experiencing is grossly
6 compromised in AD (Irish et al., 2011b; Piolino, 2003), manifesting in narratives that are
7 divested of first-person self-referential imagery and emotional salience (Irish et al., 2011b).
8 Memories of formerly evocative events such as one’s wedding day, birth of a child, or death
9 of a parent, are largely reduced to semanticised abstracted accounts, divorced of a sense of
10 having lived through the defining event. Maintaining a sense of subjective self-continuity is
11 posited to serve important social functions, with the painting of a detailed picture of a
12 previously experienced event to another person thought to promote bonding, trust, and empathy
13 (Mahr and Csibra, 2017). It is surprising, then, that social compartments and interactions
14 remain generally preserved in AD, at least in the early stages (Zhang et al., 2015), in the face
15 of starkly impaired subjective self-continuity for the past. As we argue in later sections, other,
16 preserved elements of the self may in fact be preferentially drawn upon in AD to support social
17 exchanges when subjective elements are no longer available (see also Hayes et al., 2018, for
18 discussion of the importance of semantic memory in social interactions).

19

20 **2.1.2 Semantic dementia (SD)**

21 While SD primarily involves the progressive degeneration of the conceptual knowledge base,
22 studying this group nonetheless provides insights into the contribution of episodic ABM to
23 self-continuity. In contrast to AD, recent episodic retrieval appears relatively spared in SD,
24 with these patients typically displaying detailed recollection of recent episodes (Graham and
25 Hodges, 1997; Hou et al., 2005; Irish et al., 2011a) for which they report a preserved sense of
26 mental reliving (Remember/Know paradigm; Piolino, 2003; Piolino et al., 2003). Contrarily,
27 memory for remote episodes is largely impoverished in detail (Graham and Hodges, 1997; Hou
28 et al., 2005; Irish et al., 2011a), interpreted as reflecting the semanticisation of older episodic
29 memories with age. While patients report auto-noetically re-experiencing these remote events,
30 the validity of such accounts is questionable given they are unable to adequately justify this
31 sense of remembering (Piolino, 2003; Piolino et al., 2003a). As such, a degree of subjective
32 self-continuity for the recent past appears retained in SD, though this is likely limited to a
33 narrow temporal window (i.e., the past year). Intriguingly, this temporal tapering of the self
34 may help to explain the commonly reported rigid and stereotypical behaviours in this condition

1 (Ahmed et al., 2014; Perry et al., 2001; Rosen et al., 2006). Patients with SD often develop a
2 strong preference for routine, such as wearing the same clothes, or insisting on attending the
3 same café, and having the same lunch, at the same time, every day. The ability to mentally re-
4 experience the self exclusively within the recent past in SD may therefore lead to an over-
5 reliance on recent events to guide behaviour, and potentially even, to define the self.

6 7 **2.1.3 Behavioural variant of frontotemporal dementia (bvFTD)**

8 Notably, while episodic memory impairments are not typically considered a core diagnostic
9 feature of bvFTD (Rascovsky et al., 2011), mounting evidence reveals gross alterations in self-
10 referential retrieval in this syndrome (Wong et al., 2017). Impairments in episodic ABM are
11 evident across all lifetime periods in bvFTD (Irish et al., 2011a; 2014; Matuszewski et al.,
12 2006; Thomas-Anterion et al., 2000), combined with reduced auto-noetic (Bastin et al., 2011;
13 Piolino, 2003) and egocentric (Piolino et al., 2007) reliving. As such, while this syndrome is
14 primarily characterised by marked personality and behavioural changes, it evolves to impact
15 ABM, with the initial breakdown in the self likely impairing subsequent retrieval of self-related
16 information (Irish et al., 2012c). At first glance, the gross impairments in episodic ABM in
17 both AD and bvFTD would suggest comparable disruption to subjective self-continuity for the
18 past. Critically, however, at a functional level, such deficits play out in markedly different
19 ways. Unlike in AD, bvFTD patients undergo prominent deterioration in their social
20 functioning, including the breakdown of meaningful relationships (Hsieh et al., 2013). While
21 this is at least somewhat attributable to early symptoms such as challenging behaviours and
22 reduced empathy, the altered subjective self-continuity in bvFTD likely exacerbates such social
23 dysfunction. Limited access to detailed personal events from their past may contribute to the
24 reduced initiation and impoverished content of conversations in these patients, further
25 impeding the bonding experience with close others.

26 27 **2.2 Contributions of semantic ABM**

28 While episodic expressions of ABM have received the most attention in relation to the self, the
29 semantic component of ABM is also integral to self-continuity, by providing an ‘objective’
30 store of all that is known about the self (Klein et al., 2002). These semantic elements, rather
31 than the events from which they are abstracted, provide a sense of *narrative continuity* across
32 time (Thomsen, 2009), which can be drawn upon when episodic elements are lacking (e.g.,
33 Grilli and Verfaellie, 2015; Rathbone et al., 2009). Accordingly, even in the absence of
34 auto-noetic reliving, semantic memory may provide a sense of self-continuity across time, by

1 creating a personal life story encompassing facts about oneself and abstractions of one's
2 experiences (Prebble et al., 2013). For example, such a narrative could incorporate that one
3 grew up in the UK, moved to Australia, has three children, and enjoys classical music. Recent
4 theoretical updates, however, contend that semantic ABM is not necessarily a unitary entity,
5 but rather comprises subcomponents which vary in their relative episodicity or semanticity
6 (Grilli and Verfaellie, 2014; Renoult et al., 2012; Strikwerda-Brown et al., 2018). Highly
7 abstracted personal trait knowledge and autobiographical facts ('personal semantics') are
8 considered separable from 'general event' memories (i.e., repeated or extended episodes),
9 which lie at the intersection of episodic and semantic ABM (Figure 1). Each of these discrete
10 elements of semantic memory impart important contributions to narrative continuity of the self
11 (Prebble et al., 2013).

12

13 **2.2.1 Alzheimer's disease (AD)**

14 Direct probing of personal semantic information (e.g., asking where one went to school,
15 whether they are a kind person) reveals impaired retrieval of autobiographical facts in AD (e.g.,
16 Barnabe et al., 2012; Graham and Hodges, 1997; Irish et al., 2006; 2011b), in the context of
17 relatively preserved personal trait knowledge (Addis and Tippett, 2004; Eustache et al., 2013;
18 Klein et al., 2003; Rankin et al., 2005; Ruby et al., 2009). Temporal gradients are evident for
19 both types of personal semantics in AD, such that self-knowledge about the recent past may be
20 particularly impaired, including facts about the self (e.g., having new grandchildren; Kazui et
21 al., 2000), or changes in personality traits occurring since the onset of the disease (e.g.,
22 becoming less self-assured; Hehman et al., 2005; Klein et al., 2003; Mograbi et al., 2009).
23 Nonetheless, knowledge about the self from the distant past, such as the location of their
24 childhood home, the university they attended, and their premorbid personality, remains
25 relatively resilient in AD (e.g., Hou et al., 2005; Rankin et al., 2005). Indeed, the spontaneous
26 narratives of AD patients are commonly observed to reflect remote personal semantics that
27 remain accessible in mild to moderate stages of the disease (e.g., Strikwerda-Brown et al.,
28 2018). Taken together, these findings suggest that while AD patients retain some access to the
29 semantic elements required to provide narrative continuity for much of their personal life
30 history, their sense of self is largely anchored on the remote past (i.e., childhood & early
31 adulthood periods, see also Addis and Tippett, 2004).

32

33 Intriguingly, the relative preservation of remote personal semantics in AD results in a mismatch
34 between the period of life they believe they are in, and objective reality. For example, AD

1 patients may rate their current age as younger than they actually are (Eustache et al., 2013)
2 with some individuals expressing shock or surprise when confronted by their reflection. With
3 the progressive erosion of the recent personal narrative, AD patients increasingly default to
4 older, intact, semantic memories with no updating or change in their life story over time (see
5 Grilli et al., 2018, for similar findings in amnesia). Anecdotal observations of patients returning
6 to previous life roles (e.g., a former nurse assisting staff at her residential care facility) or
7 mistaking family members (e.g., believing her grandson is her son) provide compelling
8 illustrations of how the self is not lost in AD *per se*. Rather, the individual reverts to an older
9 iteration of the self that is incongruent with their present experience and surroundings. These
10 observations in AD relate to the proposal that personal semantics are organized into higher-
11 order categories of knowledge culminating in an active *schema of the self* (Markus, 1977).
12 From this perspective, similar to schemas of world or shared knowledge, one's self-schema
13 may operate as a dynamic, heuristically-driven template that facilitates fast decisions regarding
14 "who I am", "what I do", and "how I behave" – rules that govern our day-to-day activities
15 (Sheeran and Orbell, 2000). Also aligning with the properties of other schemas, one's self-
16 schema may be adaptable, and updated as dictated by changing physical contexts, experiences,
17 and social relationships (Markus, 1977). AD patients, therefore, may deploy an out-of-date
18 self-schema, in that "who I was" becomes "who I am", and this non-updated framework
19 governs their everyday behaviour.

20

21 **2.2.2 Semantic dementia (SD)**

22 Unsurprisingly, the gross semantic impairments in SD extend to the retrieval of
23 autobiographical facts (e.g., where they went to school), resulting in a reverse temporal
24 gradient, such that recent facts are better preserved than those from the remote past (Graham
25 and Hodges, 1997; Hou et al., 2005; Nestor et al., 2002). Similarly, on a more open-ended task
26 of personal knowledge (the '3 I test'), SD patients produce an equivalent number of semantic
27 representations of the present self, compared with healthy controls, but descriptions of the past
28 self are impoverished (Duval et al., 2012). Collectively, findings to date suggest some degree
29 of preservation of 'personal semantic' memory in SD, particularly for the recent past and
30 present time periods. So-called 'facts', however, may more accurately reflect retrieval of recent
31 events (e.g., remembering the conversation in which they were told a new grandchild's name),
32 and therefore draw upon the episodic, rather than semantic memory system (Graham et al.,
33 1997; Strikwerda-Brown et al., 2018). Nonetheless, these memories likely touch on activities,
34 people, or places that can connect the recent past to the present at a factual level. Preservation

1 of recent episodes may support a degree of narrative continuity in SD particularly in relation
2 to the current self, a proposal that meshes well with reports of relatively preserved self-
3 awareness in SD (Savage et al., 2015). This recent episodic information may also override
4 previously established, vulnerable elements of the self-schema in SD, resulting in behaviour
5 that is largely guided by the recent self. We speculate that this retention of recent self-defining
6 information in SD may confer some functional benefit in this condition, by augmenting a
7 connection to current reality. It is interesting therefore that this syndrome displays lower rates
8 of disability (Mioshi et al., 2007), and improved survival rates (Hodges et al., 2010), compared
9 with other neurodegenerative disorders.

10

11 **2.2.3 Behavioural variant of frontotemporal dementia (bvFTD)**

12 Findings on personal semantic memory in bvFTD are more equivocal, spanning from preserved
13 retrieval of autobiographical facts across the lifespan (Hou et al., 2005; Nestor et al., 2002) to
14 global impairments irrespective of time period (Thomas-Anterion et al., 2000). More
15 intriguingly, despite the marked personality changes that are characteristic of this syndrome,
16 such as inappropriate behaviour, disinhibition, and impulsivity, bvFTD patients fail to update
17 their self-knowledge to incorporate these alterations in personal traits (Rankin et al., 2005;
18 Ruby et al., 2007). This profound lack of insight extends to other personal attributes such as
19 preferences, values, sense of humour, political affiliation, and morality, all of which undergo
20 dramatic changes (Piguet et al., 2011). The bvFTD syndrome thus presents something of a
21 paradox whereby the individual is viewed as a ‘different person’ by close others (Strohlinger
22 and Nichols, 2015), with no corresponding change in the patient’s own perceived ‘self’. In the
23 absence of an accurate self-schema or self-governing framework, bvFTD results in behaviour
24 that is considered extremely jarring to close others, and at odds with the individual’s premorbid
25 personality. Furthermore, the striking impairment of self-awareness, and resultant effects of
26 their behaviour on loved ones, leads to significant carer burden and distress (Diehl-Schmid et
27 al., 2013; Hsieh et al., 2013). Interestingly, however, this lack of insight has a somewhat
28 protective effect for the mental wellbeing of patients, who rarely present with mood
29 disturbances (Bozeat et al., 2000). These findings further highlight the complexity of the
30 relationship between memory and the self in dementia and its subsequent manifestations in
31 patients’ daily lives.

32

33 **2.3 General event memories (“I used to”)**

1 General event memories, of episodes repeated a number of times (e.g., “I used to go dancing
2 every Friday”), or spanning an extended time period (e.g., “I worked in the city for a few
3 years”), also impart a significant contribution to narrative continuity (Conway and Pleydell-
4 Pearce, 2000). Such events lie at the centre of the episodic-semantic continuum (Renoult et al.,
5 2012), and may draw upon either memory system during retrieval (Strikwerda-Brown et al.,
6 2018; Figure 1), dependent on the accessibility of the information (Irish, in press). Studies of
7 general event memory in dementia typically examine the specificity of recollected personal
8 episodes (e.g., on the AMI; Kopelman et al., 1989), with the provision of more general, abstract
9 events interpreted as impaired episodic, but preserved semantic, ABM. General event memory
10 is typically found to be preserved in AD (Irish et al., 2011b; Philippi et al., 2015), potentially
11 reflecting a compensatory strategy by which intact memories of repeated events are harnessed
12 to support a self-narrative. For example, an individual with AD can recall that they went
13 dancing every Friday, despite being unable to provide a contextually rich description of one
14 particular instance. Such overgeneral events may provide some semblance of self-narrative in
15 AD, albeit bound to memories that are temporally distant from the present day. SD patients, by
16 contrast, provide reduced semanticised recollections of past events (Duval et al., 2012), though
17 unlike in AD, their retained subjective self-continuity for the recent past may instead be
18 preferentially drawn upon to support the self. No such compensatory process occurs in bvFTD,
19 though, with memory for general events reduced to an equal degree as detailed episodic ABM
20 (Thomas-Anterion et al., 2000). We speculate that such global changes in *both* subjective and
21 narrative self-continuity for the past in bvFTD may contribute to the greater functional
22 disability seen in bvFTD compared to other dementia syndromes (Mioshi et al., 2007). By this
23 view, preservation of certain elements of ABM in AD and SD may serve to maintain a degree
24 of self-continuity even in the face of stark memory loss, whereas the global disruptions in self-
25 referential retrieval in bvFTD equate to a much more profound disruption of the self.

26

27 **2.4 New approaches to understanding the past self**

28 The aforementioned studies have typically dissected episodic from semantic components of
29 ABM, treating these constructs as dissociable entities. This tendency to fractionate episodic
30 and semantic memory, however, fails to embrace the many ways in which the two memory
31 systems interact during ABM retrieval (e.g., Greenberg and Verfaellie, 2010; Irish and Piguet,
32 2013). In addition, intact recall of semantic facts alone is not sufficient to provide a sense of
33 self-continuity, which instead requires integration of this information into a coherent narrative
34 (McAdams, 2001). A more sensitive and ecologically valid window into narrative continuity,

1 therefore, can be gained by examining the semantic details enmeshed within autobiographical
2 narratives, as these details typically situate the event within the broader context of the
3 individual's life story. We recently proposed a new taxonomy for the fine-grained examination
4 of 'external' details in episodic narratives, that is, the additional information provided during
5 recall that is not specific to the main event being described (Strikwerda-Brown et al., 2018).
6 While external details have long been overlooked in the ABM literature, we argue that this
7 contextual, background information is integral to one's life story. Our new protocol, the New
8 External Details (NExt) taxonomy, reveals distinct profiles of personally-relevant information
9 across the episodic-semantic spectrum in AD and SD, obscured using traditional scoring
10 methods (e.g., Barnabe et al., 2012; Benjamin et al., 2015; Irish et al., 2011a; 2018).
11 Specifically, AD patients default to providing general events ('extended episodes'), personal
12 semantic, and general semantic details in the face of impoverished episodic ('internal')
13 retrieval, particularly for the remote period (Strikwerda-Brown et al., 2018). Such findings
14 dovetail with the increased reliance on gist-based memory in AD (Gallo et al., 2006; Irish et
15 al., 2011b) and the preserved ability to share aspects of one's life story (Usita et al., 1998). As
16 such, in the absence of detailed event-based recollection, semantic elements may be harnessed
17 to foster a sense of narrative continuity by providing self-relevant descriptions of lifetime
18 periods, divorced from any specific episode.

19

20 In contrast, applying our NExt taxonomy to SD reveals an increased provision of general event
21 and general semantic details such as details of frequently experienced events, not specific to
22 any one time (Strikwerda-Brown et al., 2018). At first glance, the increased provision of
23 seemingly semantic details in a patient group characterised by impairments in this memory
24 type is counterintuitive. Such elevated details are therefore unlikely to represent semantic ABM
25 *per se* and may be better conceptualised as episodic details co-opted into the memory trace (see
26 also Graham et al., 1997; Irish et al., 2012b; McKinnon et al., 2006). Irrespective of the origin
27 of such details, they may contribute to narrative continuity by providing relevant information
28 for one's life story (Conway and Pleydell-Pearce, 2000). Nonetheless, future studies examining
29 the phenomenology (e.g., auto-noetic consciousness, visual imagery) of these detail types across
30 patient groups will be important to ascertain their respective contributions to subjective versus
31 narrative self-continuity. Overall, our review of the extant ABM literature reveals that
32 continuity of the self is not entirely lost in dementia, with distinct elements of preservation
33 emerging contingent on life epoch and dementia syndrome.

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3. “I will be”- Envisaging the future

While we tend to exclusively characterise the self in relation to memory for one’s past, it is clear that the self also extends into the future. Much of our waking life consists of planning and imagining our personal future, simulating hypothetical situations and foreseeing different outcomes (Schacter et al., 2012). From an evolutionary perspective, this ability to envisage personally-relevant events is of great adaptive value (Suddendorf et al., 2009; Tulving and Szpunar, 2009), and is integral for a sense of wellbeing (Chandler et al., 2003). Given the close concordance between autobiographical memory and event-based future simulation (Schacter et al., 2012), maintaining a sense of subjective and narrative continuity of self across time requires not only linkage to one’s past, but also a connection with one’s future. As such, projecting oneself into the future via the simulation of self-relevant events can be used to define the self across temporal contexts (D’Argembeau et al., 2012). Characterising how these future self-projections support self-continuity in dementia syndromes is crucial to understanding alterations in the self across temporal contexts. Surprisingly little empirical research, however, has been done on this topic.

3.1 Contributions of episodic elements of future thinking to self-continuity

According to the constructive episodic simulation hypothesis (Schacter and Addis, 2007), imagining a novel, self-relevant future event relies heavily upon the episodic memory system, involving the flexible recombination of contextual details from previous experiences. In line with this framework, deficits in episodic retrieval for the past extend to imagining future events in both AD (Addis et al., 2009; Irish et al., 2012a) and bvFTD (Irish et al., 2013). Despite such striking alterations in the content of future simulations in these conditions, the phenomenological components of these events have proven more difficult to decipher. Interestingly, subjective quality ratings of vividness and level of detail for future events do not differ between AD and control participants (Addis et al., 2009; Irish et al., 2012b). Future studies incorporating ratings of more sensitive measures of subjective self-continuity, such as auto-noetic consciousness and egocentric reliving, may prove more informative in this regard (e.g. Irish et al., 2010). Nonetheless, the impoverished episodic content of future simulations in AD and bvFTD implies a distinct narrowing of the temporal window of subjective self-continuity in these disorders. Moreover, the inability to subjectively experience the self in the

1 future has important implications for patients' daily functioning (Irish and Piolino, 2016;
2 Bulley & Irish, 2018). For example, individuals with AD and bvFTD have difficulty
3 remembering to perform intended actions in the future (prospective memory: Kamminga et al.,
4 2014; van den Berg et al., 2012), as well as impairments in planning ahead and making adaptive
5 financial decisions (Gleichgerricht et al., 2010).

6 7 **3.2 A role for semantic representations**

8 Even more intriguing are findings of asymmetric impairments between past and future episodic
9 thinking in SD. Despite preserved recall of recent episodes, future thinking is compromised in
10 this condition at a level comparable to that observed in AD (Irish et al., 2012a; 2012b). Such
11 striking findings suggest that episodic future thinking is not merely mediated by episodic
12 content, but relies heavily on semantic contributions; a central tenet of the *semantic scaffolding*
13 *hypothesis* (Irish, 2016; Irish and Piguet, 2013). By this view, future conceptualisations of the
14 self hinge upon semantic scripts, representations, and schemas, which guide one along a
15 prescribed path of typical life events: providing a scaffold for the generation of plausible self-
16 relevant future episodes. Accordingly, while subjective continuity of the self for the past relies
17 entirely on episodic components, we argue that semantic elements are equally important as
18 their episodic counterpart for subjectively experiencing the self in the future. This interaction
19 between episodic and semantic elements further challenges the simplistic episodic-
20 subjective/semantic-narrative dichotomy of self-continuity. Findings on the phenomenology of
21 simulated future events in SD have been mixed, with no difference in subjective quality ratings
22 between SD and controls in one study (Irish et al., 2012b), but reduced auto-noetic
23 consciousness for future episodes in another (Remember/Know paradigm, Duval et al., 2012;
24 though this study did not directly probe episodic future thinking). Given the frequent 're-
25 casting' of entire events from one's past into the future in SD (Irish, 2016; Irish et al., 2012a;
26 2012b), though, any apparent preservation of auto-noetic continuity for future simulations may
27 stem from previously having experienced the event in the recent past. Such observations have
28 important implications for understanding subjective self-continuity in SD. While these patients
29 retain some continuity of self for the recent past (Irish et al., 2011a; Piolino, 2003), this heavily
30 influences their experience of the self in the future. An inability to foresee the occurrence of
31 *novel* personal events in the future may lead to a "static" self in SD, with no growth or change
32 over time, which meshes well with the behavioural rigidity observed in this condition. Further
33 supporting this notion, impaired prospection has been associated with increased stereotypical
34 and repetitive behaviours in SD (Kamminga et al., 2014). Importantly, these changes to

1 continuity of the future self may significantly impact mental wellbeing in these patients. A
2 pertinent case study by Hsiao and colleagues (2013) describes a patient with SD who loses the
3 ability to imagine himself in the future. The patient's profound distress at the loss of his future
4 leads to suicidality as he questions, "What am I going to do for the rest of my life?". Such
5 striking findings illustrate how loss of the future self may have more devastating effects than
6 changes to self-continuity for the past.

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8 **3.3 New approaches to examining the future self**

9 The study of future thinking in clinical populations is relatively new borne, yet we propose that
10 much can be learned from studying the narrative as a whole including the extraneous
11 information (i.e., external details) (e.g., Strikwerda-Brown et al., 2018). Of particular interest
12 will be dissecting the external detail profiles generated by AD patients for future events.
13 Findings on the total external details provided for future events in AD have thus far been mixed,
14 with some studies reporting marked reductions (Addis et al., 2009), whereas others reveal
15 comparable total external details to controls (Irish et al., 2012b; Irish et al., 2013). Given the
16 harnessing of semantic information (i.e., general events, personal semantics, and general
17 semantics) to support past narratives in AD (Strikwerda-Brown et al., 2018), a similar pattern
18 may also occur for future simulations. In other words, these patients may be able to construct
19 a personalised semantic framework for the future, containing abstract information about who
20 they may be as a person, details of their life circumstances, and frequently occurring events,
21 even in the absence of specific details of particular episodes. Such findings would indicate
22 some degree of retained narrative continuity across both past and future contexts in AD, despite
23 alterations in subjective continuity, again pointing to preservation of discrete aspects of the self
24 in these patients.

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26 In contrast, the provision of external details is compromised for future and past events in
27 bvFTD, potentially reflecting a global difficulty in generating any form of self-referential
28 material (Irish et al., 2013). As such, the bvFTD syndrome encompasses striking alterations in
29 subjective and narrative aspects of self-continuity, which extends across past, present, and
30 future contexts. Such pervasive shifts in sense of self likely relate to many of the prominent
31 behavioural symptoms that are characteristic of this condition, such as apathy (see Irish et al.,
32 2013). It seems intuitive that not 'feeling' (subjective continuity) or 'knowing' (narrative
33 continuity) a continuous sense of self that aligns with the present environment may result in
34 reduced motivation to engage in personally relevant goal-directed behaviour, a common thread

1 underlying symptoms of bvFTD (Wong et al., 2018a). The distinct profiles of subjective and
2 narrative self-continuity for the past, present, and future across AD, SD, and bvFTD further
3 speak to the importance of adopting a multifaceted approach to examining the self, considering
4 both episodic and semantic elements, as well as their expression across temporal contexts.

6 **4. “I am”- The unconstrained, mind-wandering self**

8 Up to this point, we have focused on the direct probing of personally-relevant mental time
9 travel in neurodegenerative disorders in the context of mnemonic and prospective tasks. It is
10 clear, however, that self-referential thought often occurs unbidden and unrelated to the task at
11 hand. When external environmental conditions are not sufficiently stimulating, humans tend to
12 redirect their attention inwards in a spontaneous or deliberate fashion, a phenomenon often
13 referred to as “mind-wandering” (Smallwood and Schooler, 2015). Adults have been shown to
14 spend almost half their waking life engaged in off-task thought (Killingsworth and Gilbert,
15 2010; though estimates may vary dependent on measurement tool, Seli et al., 2018), which can
16 involve travelling through subjective time (remembering the past/imagining the future) or
17 engaging in thoughts about the present/of an atemporal nature (Smallwood and Schooler,
18 2015). Emerging evidence suggests the frequency and content of spontaneous thoughts are
19 integral to wellbeing and sense of self (Andrews-Hanna et al., 2013; Smallwood and Andrews-
20 Hanna, 2013). As such, studying spontaneously generated expressions of the self may provide
21 a unique glimpse into the subjective self-experience in neurodegenerative disorders not
22 permitted by traditional methods of memory and prospection. Moreover, this approach would
23 allow examination of the natural tendency to engage in different forms of self-referential
24 thought (i.e., past, present, future; episodic, semantic) in the absence of external direction.

26 **4.1 Frequency of mind-wandering in dementia**

27 To date, only two studies to our knowledge have explored the propensity for off-task and/or
28 stimulus-independent thought in dementia. O’Callaghan and colleagues (2017) found
29 alterations in spontaneous cognition in bvFTD and AD under conditions of low cognitive
30 demand. This manifested as a shift towards stimulus-bound thinking in bvFTD, with an
31 increase in thoughts about the immediate environment, at the expense of mind-wandering or
32 off-task thought. Intriguingly, these changes in spontaneous cognition converge strongly with
33 behavioural symptoms of bvFTD, including the environmental dependency syndrome, in
34 which an individual’s actions are almost entirely controlled by their surroundings (Shin et al.,

1 2013). For example, patients may spontaneously imitate actions or speech, or attempt to use
2 any item placed in front of them ('utilisation behaviour'), such as drinking from the coffee cup
3 of another person (Ghosh et al., 2012), and often fail to initiate behaviour or conversation
4 without external prompting (Quaranta et al., 2012). We tentatively speculate that this profound
5 dependence on the immediate environment in bvFTD may stem from impaired access to
6 internally-driven self-referential cognitive processes. In the absence of a continuous subjective
7 and/or narrative sense of self, patients may turn their attention outwards towards the external
8 environment. By contrast, AD patients displayed off-task thought at intermediate levels to
9 bvFTD patients and controls (O'Callaghan et al., 2017). This finding suggests that under
10 conditions of minimal cognitive demand, which mirror the circumstances in which mind-
11 wandering occurs in daily life, AD patients retain some capacity for spontaneous thought. In
12 contrast, however, a recent study revealed that under more cognitively demanding conditions,
13 mind-wandering is reduced in AD (Gyurkovics et al., 2018), emphasising the importance of
14 considering task requirements when interpreting findings in this field (see also Seli et al.,
15 2018). Whether changes in the propensity for mind-wandering in dementia reflect altered
16 spontaneous versus deliberate off-task thought (see Smallwood and Schooler, 2015) remains
17 unknown, and represents an important question for refining our understanding of the subjective
18 experience of these patients.

19

20 **4.2 Temporal content of mind-wandering**

21 While preliminary evidence of alterations in the *frequency* of mind-wandering in dementia is
22 accumulating, a more in-depth understanding of the everyday self-experience of these patients
23 will be provided by studying thought *content*. Mind wandering generally consists of a
24 combination of past, future, and present-oriented thoughts in healthy individuals, though their
25 relative proportions depend upon the method of assessment. In healthy ageing and amnesic
26 patients, a shift towards present/atemporal oriented thoughts is revealed under undirected or
27 low cognitive demand conditions (Irish et al., 2018; Jackson et al., 2013; McCormick et al.,
28 2018). This parallels the changes in mental time travel abilities in these populations, suggesting
29 the content of an individual's spontaneous thought may reflect the relative accessibility of its
30 constituent elements (O'Callaghan and Irish, 2018). A similar bias towards present-oriented
31 spontaneous thoughts, then, may also be expected in AD, SD, and bvFTD, in the face of
32 disrupted past and future thinking. In support of this view, patients with AD and SD have been
33 found to increasingly use the present, rather than past, tense during self-narratives (Irish et al.,
34 2015). Examining the temporal content of spontaneous cognition in dementia provides an

1 exciting opportunity to clarify the width of the temporal window of the self as experienced
2 moment-to-moment. Furthermore, instances of mind-wandering vary in their self-relevance.
3 For example, healthy older adults have been found to shift away from self-focused spontaneous
4 cognition towards increased thoughts about other people (Irish et al., 2018). The self-referential
5 content of spontaneous cognition in dementia remains to be explored, but may further uncover
6 the nature of the self in the here-and-now in these patients.

7

8 **4.3 Episodic and semantic content**

9 Like other forms of mental construction, spontaneous cognition comprises episodic and
10 semantic elements (O'Callaghan and Irish, 2018), the relative weighting of which varies across
11 different populations (O'Callaghan et al., 2015; McCormick et al., 2018). Given the importance
12 of these elements for continuity of the self, examining their prevalence during mind-wandering
13 instances in dementia may inform how subjective and narrative self-continuity are
14 spontaneously experienced. Of note, amnesic patients, faced with stark episodic memory
15 deficits, primarily furnish their instances of mind-wandering with semantic elements
16 (McCormick et al., 2018). This suggests that the most accessible content is preferentially
17 harnessed during spontaneous cognition, not unlike that observed during deliberate instances
18 of past and future thinking. In the absence of access to episodic elements, AD patients may
19 default to predominantly semantic content during mind wandering (e.g., personal facts), largely
20 drawing upon the self-narrative to support the self in the present. The contrasting memory
21 profiles in SD, however, may result in a predominantly episodic style of mind wandering. Such
22 thoughts would be predicted to comprise the replay of recent episodes that remain accessible,
23 providing some sense of subjective self-continuity for the recent past. An increased focus on
24 the frequency and content of spontaneous expressions of the self will be essential to improve
25 our understanding of the subjective experience of the individual living with dementia. More
26 crucially, such investigations may provide important insights to guide appropriate interventions
27 to improve overall quality of life in dementia.

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29

30 **5. Conclusion**

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32 Our objective in writing this review was to direct attention away from the common
33 misperception that loss of memory equates a loss of self. In reviewing the available evidence
34 on deliberate and spontaneous expressions of memory and the self, we uncover distinct profiles
35 of loss and sparing across the dementia syndromes of AD, SD, and bvFTD, each of which

1 reveals important insights into their everyday functioning and behavioural symptoms (Figures
2 2 and 3). Notably, our approach highlights the multifaceted and dynamic nature in which the
3 self is likely to change in healthy and pathological ageing, with important ramifications for
4 development of person-centred care.

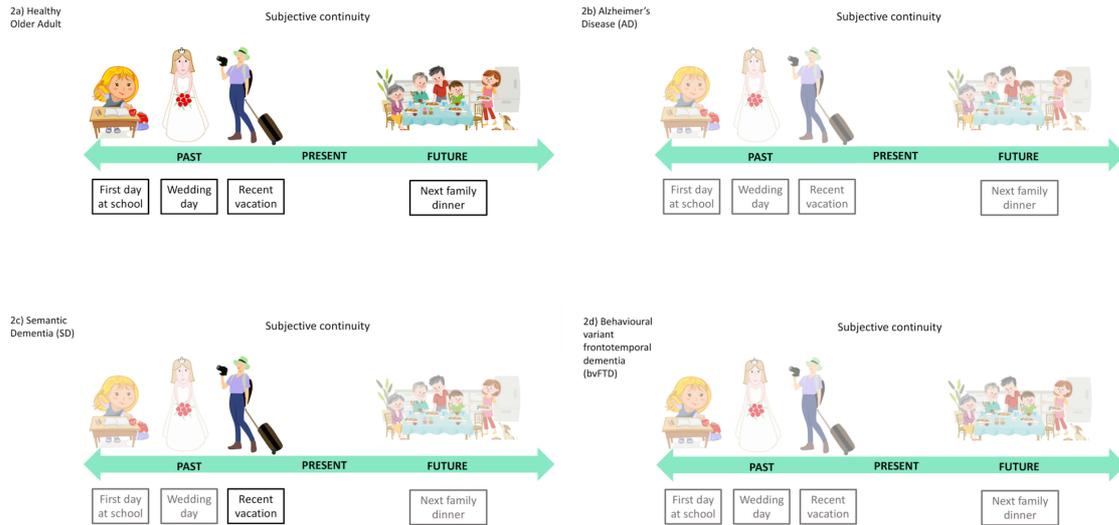
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6 Looking ahead, we propose that a refined understanding of the self in dementia is essential. To
7 fully appreciate the differing profiles of loss and sparing, fine-grained analysis of past and
8 future narratives will help to further elucidate episodic and semantic contributions to self-
9 referential forms of (re)construction. In addition, naturalistic measures of narrative continuity
10 should be employed, including autobiographical life stories (Grilli et al., 2018) in addition to
11 narratives of episodic memories (e.g., the AI, Levine et al., 2002). This convergent approach
12 will capture the integration of memories into a meaningful, personal story, as opposed to the
13 isolated recall of personal semantic facts, devoid of context. Detailed examination of the
14 content of spontaneous thought, such as temporal context, self-referential nature, and episodic
15 and semantic elements, will be of utmost importance in understanding the everyday experience
16 of self-continuity in neurodegenerative disorders. Furthermore, given the limitations of
17 existing measures of the ‘self’ (i.e., questionnaires requiring insight and higher-level cognitive
18 abilities), multidimensional assessment tools will be required, incorporating carer ratings
19 capturing how facets of the self may be altered in daily life, in areas such as functioning,
20 behaviour, wellbeing, mood, motivation, and social engagement. Finally, as most studies to
21 date have focused on patients in the mild to moderate stage of dementia, increased research is
22 required into how the self changes across the lifespan and with the onset and progression of
23 neurodegenerative disease. Collectively, we aim to stimulate further concerted research efforts
24 to understand and promote a cohesive sense of self in dementia, across past, present, and future
25 contexts, by demonstrating how, ultimately, ‘All is not lost’.

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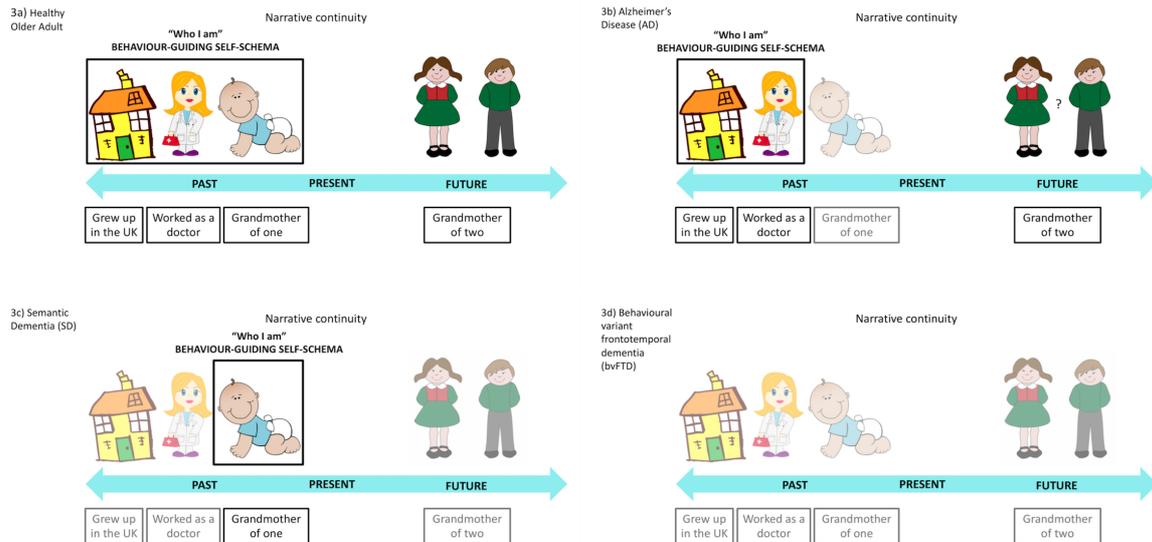
27 **6. Acknowledgements**

28 This work was supported in part by an Australian Research Council (ARC) Centre of
29 Excellence in Cognition and its Disorders (CE110001021). CSB is supported by a National
30 Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) Postgraduate Scholarship (APP1132764).
31 MG is supported by the Arizona Alzheimer’s Consortium, Department of Health Services. JAH
32 is supported by an NIA funded Alzheimer’s Disease Center (P30 AG019610) and the
33 University of Arizona’s Department of Psychology and Cognitive Science Program. MI is
34 supported by an ARC Future Fellowship (FT160100096).



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Figure 2: (A) Episodic re-experiencing of significant autobiographical events (e.g., first day at school, wedding day, a recent holiday) and pre-experiencing of potential self-relevant future occurrences (e.g., next family dinner) gives rise to a subjective sense of self-continuity across temporal contexts. (B) In AD, impoverished episodic memory and future construction leads to a global decay in subjective self-continuity across temporal contexts (C) SD patients retain subjective self-continuity for the recent past, however they are unable to mentally re-experience remote memories or simulate novel events in the future. (D) bvFTD results in globally impaired subjective continuity for both past and future periods.



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Figure 3: (A) The weaving of personal facts from across the lifespan into a life story (e.g., grew up in the UK, worked as a doctor, and have one grandchild) and foreseeing who one may be in the future (e.g., becoming a grandmother of two) provides a sense of narrative-self continuity spanning past, present, and future. These personal facts may be integrated into a ‘self-schema’, informing “Who I Am” and guiding behaviour accordingly. (B) In AD, personal semantic memory is affected for the recent period, but relatively spared for the remote past. This leads to a preserved, but outdated, self-narrative, with “Who I was” becoming “Who I am”. Narrative continuity for the future remains to be explored (C) SD patients retain narrative self-continuity for the recent past, with behaviour exclusively guided by recent experiences. Narrative continuity for the remote period, and the future, however, is impaired (D) bvFTD results in the progressive deterioration of the self, leading to globally impaired narrative self-continuity for past and future time periods, with an absence of a self-schema to guide appropriate behaviour.

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