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2 A positive emotional bias in confabulatory false beliefs about place[☆]

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6 Abstract

7 Some neurological patients with medial frontal lesions exhibit striking confabulations. Most accounts of the cause of confabulations are cognitive, though the literature has produced anecdotal suggestions that confabulations may not be emotionally neutral, 9 having a ('wish-fulfilment') bias that shapes the patient's perception of reality in a more affectively positive direction. The present study reviewed every case ($N = 16$) of false beliefs about place reported in the neuroscientific literature from 1980 to 2000, with blind 11 raters evaluating the 'pleasantness' of the patient's actual and confabulated locations. In each case the confabulated location was 12 evaluated as more pleasant. This striking finding supports the claim that there may be a systematic affective bias in the false beliefs 13 held by neurological patients with confabulation.

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16 1. Introduction

17 Confabulations are typically understood to represent 18 instances of false beliefs: opinions about the world 19 which are manifestly incorrect, and yet are held by the 20 patient to be true in spite of clearly presented evidence 21 to the contrary. Perhaps best known is so-called Korsakoff 'psychosis' (1889/1996), where confabulations 22 occur in the context of a dense amnesic syndrome. 23 Confabulation is also seen in a variety of other pathologies, such as cerebrovascular accidents involving the 24 anterior cerebral artery, traumatic brain injury, and 25 dementia (Dalla Barba, 1993; DeLuca, 2000; DeLuca & 26 Diamond, 1995; Downes & Mayes, 1995; Kaplan-Solms 27 & Solms, 2000; Luria, 1976; Moscovitch & Melo, 1997; 28 Solms, 1998; Tallard, 1961). Confabulation has also 29 been observed in the psychiatric population (typically in 30 schizophrenia, e.g. Dalla Barba, 1993; see Berrios, 31 1998). In anatomical terms, confabulation appears to be 32 more frequently observed, and is more severe, after 33 lesions that involve the medial frontal lobes (see DeLuca, 34 2000; for review), though a more precise anatomical 35 basis of the disorder has yet to be clearly specified.

38 One traditional explanation of the disorder (following 39 Bonhoffer, 1901) is that confabulation is secondary to 40 amnesia, and represents 'gap-filling' motivated by embarrassment. This account remains problematic in several 41 ways. For example, while most confabulators are 42 amnesic, most amnesics are not likely to confabulate. In 43 addition, while confabulation is common in the acute 44 stages of a Korsakoff psychosis, it recovers in the 45 chronic period, leaving a *non*-confabulatory amnesia 46 (see DeLuca, 2000; for review).

47 There have also been various attempts to explain the 48 disorder in terms of general executive dysfunction (e.g. 49 Baddeley & Wilson, 1986; Kapur & Coughlan, 1980; 50 Kopelman, 1987, 1995; Luria, 1976; Papagno & 51 Baddeley, 1997; Stuss et al., 1978), or processes related 52 to executive dysfunction (Johnson, 1991, 1997; Johnson, 53 Hayes, D'Esposito, & Raye, 2000; Johnson & Raye, 54 1998; Moscovitch, 1989; Schnider, Von Daniken, & 55 Gutbrod, 1996). This 'dysexecutive' class of argument 56 appears plausible, especially because a frontal lesion site 57 is common in confabulation. In addition, a few detailed 58 investigations have revealed that the severity of 59 confabulation appears to improve as measures of executive 60 function recover, even though the severity of amnesia 61 remains constant (Kapur & Coughlan, 1980; Papagno & 62 Baddeley, 1997; see also Cunningham, Pliskin, Cassisi, 63 Tsang, & Rao, 1997). However, the dysexecutive 64 account has also been criticised, primarily because cases of 65

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66 confabulation with *exclusively* executive disorders have
67 not been convincingly demonstrated (e.g. Burgess &
68 McNeil, 1999). In addition, most patients with dysex-
69 ecutive disorders do not confabulate. In response to
70 these difficulties, some authors have suggested that *both*
71 an amnesic and a dysexecutive disorder are necessary to
72 invoke a confabulatory state (see DeLuca, 2000; for
73 review).

74 A substantial difficulty facing existing accounts of
75 confabulation is their inability to explain why these
76 patients confabulate *at all*—an issue made most notable
77 by findings of the selectivity (or content-specificity) of
78 confabulations. Burgess and McNeil (1999) knew of “no
79 formal empirical investigation of this dimension” (p.
80 164), though their clinical experience, and their knowl-
81 edge of the literature, suggested that the content often
82 reflected “the personal concerns, experiences and pre-
83 dilections” of the patient (p. 164). For example, the
84 Burgess and McNeil (1999) patient only confabulated in
85 one domain (he would dress in formal clothes—more
86 formal than his previous job required—saying that he
87 had to go to work). However, he remained lucid and
88 coherent on a wide range of other topics, and showed no
89 other instances of false belief. On a strictly dysexecutive
90 account, such a patient should produce false beliefs
91 across *all* (or at least a very wide range) of domains.
92 Thus, dysexecutive accounts have been regarded as “too
93 *much* of an explanation for the syndrome” (Kinsbourne,
94 2000, p. 158; emphasis added), in that they predict a
95 more diverse set of deficits than the patients actually
96 produce.

97 It would appear that an additional variable might be
98 required to explain the specific nature of confabula-
99 tions—accounting for why executive resources seem to
100 fail only under particular circumstances. In this con-
101 text, several authors have suggested that motivational
102 or emotional factors might be central in the production
103 of confabulations—though the issue has yet to be sys-
104 tematically investigated. For example, many confabu-
105 lations seem to modify the patient’s personal
106 circumstances, making them appear in an improved or
107 even a grandiose light (Conway & Tacchi, 1996;
108 Downes & Mayes, 1995; Prigatano & Weinstein, 1996;
109 Villiers, Zent, Eastman, & Swingler, 1996). Kinsbourne
110 suggests that a clear contributory factor to confabula-
111 tion is “the affective significance of the topic about
112 which the patient confabulates. Patients mostly con-
113 fabulate about personal matters that are emotionally
114 significant to them, such as the integrity of their
115 body... their prospects of recovering, and for reas-
116 suming their prior lifestyle and employment” (Kins-
117 bourne, 2000, p. 158).

118 We have recently demonstrated (Fotopoulou, Solms,
119 & Turnbull, under review) that the false belief scenarios
120 of a confabulatory patient had a clear *positive* affective
121 bias, tending to be more pleasant than his actual cir-

cumstances in some 80% of false belief instances. The
patient (ES) was assessed in a non-descript room which
faced onto the road of a leafy suburb yet, in the absence
of provocation, repeatedly suggested that he was en-
gaged in apparently important business activities, or
that he was involved in a range of leisure pursuits, etc.
Similarly, Kaplan-Solms and Solms (2000; see also
Solms, 1997), have described a series of confabulatory
patients, whose false beliefs included a reunion with a
long dead friend, and the transformation of the hospital
ward to a barge.

Such examples appear, at face value, to modify the
patient’s view of reality in a generally positive direction.
However, it might be claimed that the emotional quality
(i.e., the ‘pleasantness’) of the confabulation cannot be
accurately anchored against the patient’s actual reality.
For example, it appeared to the investigators that the
patient’s ‘important business activities’ were experienced
as more pleasant than his interaction with the neuro-
psychologists. However, we have no way of knowing
whether his real experience of work was pleasurable or
(as is the case for some people) unpleasurable. Similarly,
‘reunion with a long dead friend’ appears to be plea-
surable, but it is difficult for the investigators to know
how *much* the friend was liked, in order to compare this
with the patient’s experience of seeing a stranger in the
hospital. In sum, evaluating the ‘pleasantness’ of false
beliefs can often be hindered by the investigator’s in-
ability to estimate how pleasant the patient’s *actual*
circumstances might be.

However, there is one class of confabulation in which
the ‘pleasantness’ of both actual and confabulated real-
ity can be established with some degree of certainty: the
instance of false beliefs about *place*, including the classic
disorder referred to as reduplicative paramnesia for
place (see Feinberg, 1997; for recent review). Here, the
investigator knows the actual location in which the pa-
tient is to be found (e.g., a hospital), and also the con-
fabulated location (e.g., a barge). The extent to which
these realities represent pleasurable or unpleasurable
experiences can thus be quantified by a simple rating
procedure. In an attempt to systematically investigate
the question of whether neurological patients show a
clear positive emotional bias in their confabulations, the
present study reviewed every case ($N = 16$) of false be-
lief about place that had been reported in the neuro-
scientific literature during 1980–2000, with blind raters
evaluating the ‘pleasantness’ of the patient’s actual and
confabulated locations.

2. Method

A survey of the literature in neuropsychology, neu-
rology, psychiatry, and associated neuroscience journals
was conducted for the period 1980–2000. The first in-

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Table 1
Demographic data for the neurological patients, and the raters who evaluated the actual and confabulated locations for ‘pleasantness’

	Raters	Patients
<i>N</i>	10	13
Gender (M, F)	5, 5	10, 3
Mean age	55.1	56.3
Age standard deviation	9.1	9.2
Age range	46–72	43–73

175 clusion criterion was that patients should have suffered
176 damage (identified by structural imaging technology) to
177 the ventral and/or medial frontal lobes. Second, on be-
178 havioral grounds, all patients must have showed at least
179 one clear instance of confabulation which involved a
180 false belief about place. This produced a set of 16 con-
181 fabulations (Dab, Claes, Morais, & Shallice, 1999; De
182 Luca & Locker, 1996; Fischer, Alexander, Eposito, &
183 Otto, 1995; Fukatsu, Yamadori, & Fujii, 1998; Ha-
184 shimoto, Tanaka, & Nakano, 2000; Kaplan-Solms &
185 Solms, 2000; Moscovitch, 1989; Parkin, 1997; Rohren-
186 bach & Landis, 1995; Schnider et al., 1996; Vilkki, 1985;
187 Wright, Boeve, & Malec, 1999).

188 The patient’s location at the time of their confabu-
189 lation, and the specific content of the confabulation,
190 were detailed in brief descriptions. These were listed on a
191 rating sheet, such that (1) no two actual locations were
192 adjacent, and (2) no actual location was adjacent to its
193 associated confabulated location. Each location
194 description was listed only once.

195 Ten participants were recruited, age-matched to the
196 patients (see Table 1). An independent samples *t* test
197 revealed no significant difference between the mean age
198 of the groups ($t(21) = 0.31, p > 0.05$). The participants
199 were asked to act as raters, indicating “how pleasant, or
200 enjoyable,” they would find it to spend time in each of
201 the locations, by giving each a score from 1 (very un-
202 pleasant) to 5 (very pleasant). They were paid £5 for
203 participation.

204 3. Results

205 The actual location was a hospital in 15 cases, and a
206 hospital clinic in the remaining case (Rohrenbach &
207 Landis, 1995). The confabulated locations were (from
208 worst to best): my old secondary school; at work (4×);
209 at my doctor’s home; in my old university; in my moth-
210 er’s home town; staying in a hotel or motel (2×); on a
211 ferry in the Caribbean; on holiday on a barge; in a
212 bistro; at home (3×).

213 In each instance the confabulated location was rated
214 as more pleasant than the actual location (see Fig. 1). A
215 paired samples *t* test showed a significant difference
216 between the actual vs confabulated location ratings
217 ($t(9) = 10.37, p < 0.05$).

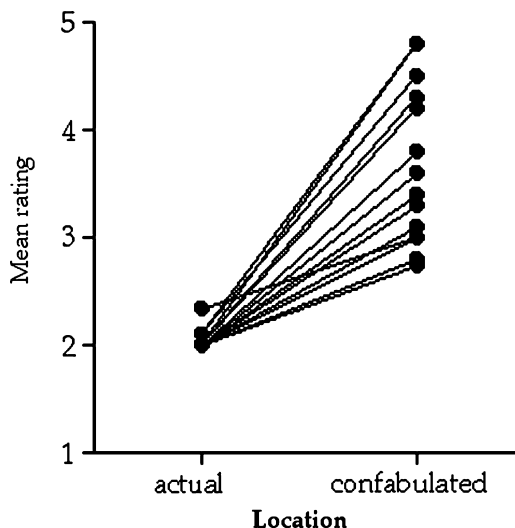


Fig. 1. ‘Pleasantness’ rating for actual and confabulated locations for each of the 16 patients with false beliefs about place surveyed from the literature.

4. Discussion

219 The present study sought to test the claim that con-
220 fabulations have a positive emotional bias—predicting
221 that the rating of pleasantness for the patients’ confabu-
222 lations would be significantly higher than similar rat-
223 ings of their actual location. This was clearly supported:
224 indeed, the confabulated location was rated as more
225 affectively positive in each case. The finding of increased
226 ‘pleasantness’ of the false beliefs is consistent with our
227 recent findings based on a different case (Fotopoulou
228 et al., under review) and the more general claim that
229 confabulations seem to have an element of ‘wish fulfil-
230 ment’ (e.g. Berlyne, 1972; Conway & Tacchi, 1996;
231 Kaplan-Solms & Solms, 2000; Solms, 1998, 2000).

232 There is, however, a possible objection to this ap-
233 parently striking finding. The fact that all of the con-
234 fabulated locations were rated as showing a positive
235 affective bias might simply be interpreted as a conse-
236 quence of the low rating of the actual location. In other
237 words, if hospitals (and hospital clinics) are seen as
238 ‘negative’ locations, then *any* other location might be
239 rated as more positive. There are clear counter-argu-
240 ments to this claim.

241 First, while the false beliefs of confabulatory patients
242 show a clear positive affective bias, this situation is not
243 the case for other false belief states. Perhaps the most
244 notable example is that of delusional beliefs in psychotic
245 states such as schizophrenia. While it is true that *some*
246 of the false beliefs of schizophrenics have a positive affec-
247 tive bias (notably in megalomania) the majority of such
248 beliefs are far more negative, especially in the context of
249 paranoid schizophrenia. In many cases such patients are
250 living in ‘actual’ locations (hospitals, or poorly ap-
251 pointed accomodation in the community) that are

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probably no more pleasant than the hospital locations seen in the patients reported in the present study. We know of no literature that *directly* addresses the 'pleasantness' of delusions in schizophrenia, but the clinical descriptions of such patients suggest a frequent negative bias. For example, Frith and Dolan (2000, p. 116) provide brief descriptions of seven classes of hallucination and delusion in schizophrenia, of which four are explicitly negative (one in which a work colleague is attempting murder the patient, one in which the patient is required to kill God, and two in which the patient is told that they will be unable to achieve an intended action). Thus, the striking emotion-related effects seen in neurological patients do not appear (at least superficially) to be matched by the false beliefs of schizophrenics. However, in discussing this matter it is also appropriate to mention the work of Bentall and colleagues, who have suggested that paranoid beliefs in schizophrenic patients might serve as a defence, which biases the perceived world of such patients in a positive manner (see Blackwood, Howard, Bentall, & Murray, 2001, p. 158). Consistent with this, there is evidence to suggest that schizophrenics who hold delusional beliefs are happier than those who (by virtue of 'successful' treatment) no longer hold the beliefs (Roberts, 1991). In other words, it may well be that a positive affective bias may be applicable to many (perhaps all) classes of false belief.

Additional support for the claim that the finding reported here is not an artefact of unpleasant 'actual' locations comes from our investigation of another confabulatory patient discussed above (Fotopoulou et al., under review). It is of some note that ES was investigated in a more pleasant *actual* location (a quiet room looking out on a suburban area) than the hospitalised patients surveyed in the literature. Nevertheless, as in the present study, ES also showed a positive affective bias in his false beliefs (with roughly 80% of 155 consecutive confabulations rated as more 'pleasant'). Thus, the findings emerging from the survey reported in the present study seem compatible with those collected using the same methods but on a different sample, and are also consistent with the impression of authors who have noted an emotion-related bias in the confabulations of neurological patients in the existing literature (e.g. Berlyne, 1972; Conway & Tacchi, 1996; Kaplan-Solms & Solms, 2000; Solms, 1998, 2000).

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