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.

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Review

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

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Spatial navigation, which involves higher cognitive functions, is frequently implemented in daily activities, and is critical to the participation of human beings in mainstream environments. Virtual reality is an expanding tool, which enables on one hand the assessment of the cognitive functions involved in spatial navigation, and on the other the rehabilitation of patients with spatial navigation difficulties. Topographical disorientation is a frequent deficit among patients suffering from neurological diseases. The use of virtual environments enables the information incorporated into the virtual environment to be manipulated empirically. But the impact of manipulations seems differ according to their nature (quantity, occurrence, and characteristics of the stimuli) and the target population.

Methods: We performed a systematic review of research on virtual spatial navigation covering the period from 2005 to 2015. We focused first on the contribution of virtual spatial navigation for patients with brain injury or schizophrenia, or in the context of ageing and dementia, and then on the impact of visual or auditory stimuli on virtual spatial navigation.

Results: On the basis of 6521 abstracts identified in 2 databases (PubMed and Scopus) with the keywords “navigation” and “virtual”, 1103 abstracts were selected by adding the keywords “ageing”, “dementia”, “brain injury”, “stroke”, “schizophrenia”, “aid”, “help”, “stimulus” and “cue”; Among these, 63 articles were included in the present qualitative analysis.

Conclusion: Unlike pencil-and-paper tests, virtual reality is useful to assess large-scale navigation strategies in patients with brain injury or schizophrenia, or in the context of ageing and dementia. Better knowledge about both the impact of the different aids and the cognitive processes involved is essential for the use of aids in neurorehabilitation.

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1. Introduction

Finding one’s way around an environment, whether or not it is familiar, is a common situation for humans. People frequently need to move from one point to another, according to a trajectory that may or may not be known in advance, using different elements – external aids, landmarks or other sources of relevant information.

This ability is essential, because it underpins the person’s autonomy and his or her participation in society. Spatial navigation has raised interest, and has been the subject of much research in mammals (including humans) on account of its particular integrative role in linking functions in the areas of neurophysiology, learning, memory and cognition [1].

For a number of years, numerous clinical descriptions of brain-injured patients presenting selective losses of the ability to find their way have been undertaken. This disorder has been termed “topographical disorientation” [2]. But there is wide diversity in the types of topographical disorientation observed in these...
patients, and also in the type of brain injury incurred [3]. In addition, the evaluations used to characterise the disorders have been diverse and non-standardised [4].

To start with, tests of spatial cognition on a small scale were elaborated, in the form of “pencil-and-paper” tests, such as the Rotation Mental Test [5] or the Guilford and Zimmermann spatial orientation test. Hegarty et al. [6] showed only partial correlation between paper-and-pencil visuo-spatial tests on a small scale and tests in large-scale virtual or real environments. Spatial navigation in large spaces thus seems to require skills other than those assessed in paper-and-pencil tests. This study concluded to poor ecological validity of pencil-and-paper tests, and confirmed the usefulness of assessing spatial navigation in a large-scale environment, whether real or virtual. Indeed, several authors, among whom Cushman et al. [7], have shown a correlation in navigation performances between real and virtual environments.

The progress in computing and its widespread use from the 1990s have enabled the modelling of simulated environments that are close to reality, known as virtual reality environments. Virtual reality rapidly demonstrated its potential usefulness in clinical practice, in particular in the areas of cognitive evaluation and rehabilitation, and well as for the study of cognitive processes in humans [4]. The evaluation of navigation in a virtual environment has various advantages over evaluation in real situations [8]: it enables better scientific monitoring, it can allow for deficits and disabilities that sometimes make evaluation problematic in real situations, it is less costly, and also safer. From a functional and behavioural viewpoint, it enables immediate feedback on performances in various sensory forms and modes, controlled administration of cues so as to improve performances in a learning approach, and it also enables “time-out” to make room for discussion and the inclusion of different methods.

Following the publication of numerous studies that have shown the advantages of the virtual setting in the area of spatial cognition, it seemed important to us to perform an up-to-date review on the contributions of the use of virtual reality in the exploration of spatial navigation, especially in populations with cognitive impairments. These patients are particularly likely to present spatial cognition disorders, which are highly damaging for social participation in their ordinary environments [2,3]. In addition, the clinical use of virtual environments, because it enables more strict experimental control than working in a real environment, makes it possible to measure the influence of different components brought into play on spatial navigation performances. Thus environmental cues are used as sensory cues of the bottom-up type, and provide scope for investigation, where the use of virtual reality has much to contribute. The review presented here has two objectives: the first is to detail the clinical use of virtual reality in spatial navigation in populations with cognitive disorders; the second is to provide an update on the literature on the impact on virtual spatial navigation of using visual and auditory environmental cues.

2. Methods

This review was conducted on two medical databases, PubMed and Scopus (for the Scopus database, only articles in the area of the health sciences were searched). The following Mesh keywords were used: “navigation”, “virtual”, “ageing”, “dementia”, “brain injury”, “schizophrenia”, “stroke”, “cues”, “help”, “aid”, and “stimuli”. The basic search algorithm was “navigation AND virtual” to which all the other keywords were associated in turn. The processing of results was performed according to Prisma guidelines. Articles published in English in the area of the life sciences from 2005 to June 2015 were retained. The articles were selected on the basis of title and abstract. The final selection was discussed by the three authors of the present article (MC, PAJ, ES) with respect to the two objectives defined above. A flow diagram (Fig. 1) illustrates the article selection procedure. In all, 44 articles complying with the first objective and 19 with the second objective were retained. The main characteristics of these articles are summed up in Tables 1 and 2 using the following characteristics: first author, virtual environment used, population (numbers and type) study objective and main result.

3. Results

3.1. Contributions of spatial navigation in virtual reality in different populations presenting cognitive disturbances

3.1.1. Spatial navigation and normal ageing

The effect of ageing on navigation skills in large spaces has been widely described [9]. Generally speaking, the remembrance of spatial configurations and landmarks during navigation loses precision with age [10], while paradoxically, learning a route from an aerial view appears, according to certain authors, to be preserved [11]. More specifically, different studies in virtual reality setting have shown alterations in the allocentric processing of information (i.e. spatial configurations) among elderly subjects using a virtual water maze [12], other maze models (wall maze, radial maze) [13–16], or virtual city districts [17,18]. Similarly, other studies using mazes or other virtual environments evidence difficulties in acquiring spatial representations thought to result from an age-linked decline in hippocampus function, which appears to spontaneously direct elderly subjects towards the use of egocentric strategies [19–23]. A recent study comparing a virtual and a real city district however showed that elderly subjects encounter greater difficulties than young subjects in finding their way, this being related to decline in executive functions, while the spatial knowledge acquired in the virtual environment did not significantly differ between the two groups. This age-linked executive decline, affecting planning and the choice of appropriate navigation strategies, is confirmed by different studies [9,12]. However certain elderly subjects retain better abilities to adapt their strategies [14]. This observation is not however confirmed in the study by Carelli et al. [13]. Finally, for certain authors, failure to efficiently integrate sensory-motor information could also be implicated in the deterioration of spatial navigation skills [25–28]. Overall, virtual reality studies indicate that navigation disturbances in the course of normal ageing is multi-determined, and has origins that can be mnesic (allocentric processing associated with hippocampus function), executive (strategic processing associated with front-lobe function) or related to sensory-motor integration (integration of the itinerary associated with the retrosplenial cortex).

3.1.2. Spatial navigation and Alzheimer-type dementia

Altered large-scale spatial cognition in Alzheimer-type dementia (ATD) has been described in different studies using virtual reality [7,17,29,30]. The study by Ballassen et al. [31] suggests that memory of the temporal type in the course of a navigation task, which tends to be related to allocentric strategies, is a selective behavioural marker for ATD. Topographical disorientation is often considered to be a prodromal sign of this pathology, and has led authors to use virtual environments in order to objectify the early signs and evidence the underlying neurological correlates [32–34]. Weniger et al. [30] retrospectively compared the spatial navigation performances of a group of patients with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) that evolved towards ATD and a group of MCI patients who did not evolve towards ATD. The authors did not
6521 records identified through database searching Pubmed and Scopus with the key words « navigation » and « virtual »

85 records identified by adding the key words « ageing », « dementia », « brain injury », « stroke » and « schizophrenia »

1018 records identified by adding the key words « help », « aid », « stimulus » and « cue »

54 records screened after duplicates removed and selection of the period 2005-2015

967 records screened after duplicates removed and selection of the period 2005-2015

54 full-text articles assessed for eligibility

90 full-text articles assessed for eligibility

10 articles excluded

71 articles excluded

63 studies included in qualitative synthesis

Fig. 1. Flow diagram.

Evidence any differences between these two populations in virtual reality navigation performances, whatever the conditions (allocentric or egocentric). They did however observe that the size of the hippocampus was significantly smaller in the MCI-ATD group than in the MCI group that did not progress to dementia. In this study, the lack of specificity of the different navigation tasks assigned with respect to the different navigation strategies (allocentric or egocentric) possibly prevented the differentiation of the two groups.

Cushman et al. [7] compared navigation in real and virtual environment in populations of young, healthy elderly, MCI and ATD subjects, and they found strong correlations between the results obtained in the two environments for the four groups, thus demonstrating the robust ecological validity of virtual environments. This study, and also that by Zakzani et al. [17], showed that ATD patients, and to a lesser degree MCI patients, exhibited deficits in recalling landmarks, itineraries and the configuration of the environment explored. However, in complementary manner, in a more recent study, Kessels et al. [35] observed that implicit memory of objects placed at decisional locations in the pathfinding task was not impaired in ATD patients presenting atrophy of the middle temporal lobe in comparison with healthy subjects. In addition, Burgess et al. [36] earlier noted selective impairment of the allocentric component of spatial memory in ATD, and Drzezga et al. [37], among ATD or MCI patients, observed greater difficulty in inhibiting the intervention of cerebral processes non-relevant to the navigation task compared to healthy subjects. The authors thus concluded that spatial navigation disturbances are robust clinical signs for ATD and MCI. Better understanding of their manifestations, and the elaboration of tasks specific to allocentric navigation in virtual environments, could improve prognosis for progress from early cognitive impairment to dementia. The use of virtual environments is in this respect a particularly valuable approach for the understanding and evaluation of these phenomena that generally show themselves on a large scale and in ordinary living settings.
Table 1
Articles selected with the keywords “aging” and “dementia”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors/year</th>
<th>Main aim</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>VE setting*</th>
<th>Other investigation</th>
<th>Main result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Normal aging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konishi (2013) [16]</td>
<td>To examine the effects of aging on the hippocampus and caudate nucleus during navigation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td>fMRI</td>
<td>Ageing process involves a shift from using the hippocampus toward the caudate nucleus during navigation. Memory and executive declines hamper spatial navigation in older people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taille`re (2013) [24]</td>
<td>To assess wayfinding and spatial learning in relation to executive et memory decline</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual district</td>
<td></td>
<td>Aging impacts path integration. Result in VE is poorer than in real setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adamo (2012) [26]</td>
<td>To examine the impact of aging on path integration from available sensorimotor informations</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual path</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harris (2012) [25]</td>
<td>To explore age differences in path integration both with and without landmark information</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual landscape</td>
<td></td>
<td>In a VE that provided only optic flow information, older participants exhibited deficits in path integration. The elderly participants had greater problems during route retracing than during route repetition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wiener (2012) [22]</td>
<td>To investigate age-related differences in repeating and retracing a learned route</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yamamoto et al. (2012) [11]</td>
<td>To investigate whether increasing age has equal consequences for all types of spatial learning</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual town</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head (2010) [10]</td>
<td>To explore age effects on spatial navigation abilities considering the multiple cognitive and neural factors that contribute to successful navigation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td>TDM</td>
<td>Age differences are observed in both wayfinding and route learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahmood (2009) [27]</td>
<td>To investigate age-related differences in participants’ ability to determine linear distances, angular rotations, and angular displacement exclusively from visual input</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual path</td>
<td></td>
<td>There are age-related deficits in the ability to perform visual return-to-origin tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moffat (2007) [12]</td>
<td>To examine age differences in virtual environment navigation and to assess possible relationships between navigation and structural integrity of hippocampal and extrahippocampal brain regions</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td>fMRI</td>
<td>Individual differences in regional brain volumes as well as performance on the tests of memory and executive functions contributed to age differences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lövdén (2005) [28]</td>
<td>To examine the impact of improved sensorimotor strategies on spatial navigation among elderly subjects</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td></td>
<td>Walking support attenuated age-related decrements in navigational learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal aging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harris (2014) [18]</td>
<td>To test the ability of young and old participants to switch from learned routes to finding novel shortcuts</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual town</td>
<td></td>
<td>Older participants are impaired in both strategy switching and allocentric processing informations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morganti (2014) [14]</td>
<td>To test the ability to switch from allocentric to egocentric processing</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual performance is significantly related to the overall cognitive level and age.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harris (2012) [15]</td>
<td>To explore the effects of age on strategy switching during spatial navigation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td></td>
<td>Elderly subjects show a specific “switch-to-place” deficit that could account for apparent impairments in both navigational strategy switching and allocentric processing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liu (2011) [20]</td>
<td>To determine the effect of age and gender upon different orientation strategies in virtual environments</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtual town</td>
<td></td>
<td>Age-related declines in navigation are common across all orientation strategies and confirm gender-specific effects in different spatial domains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pathological aging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tarnanas (2015) [34]</td>
<td>To investigate deficits in spatial navigation, prospective memory, and executive function in MCI</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Yes Virtual museum</td>
<td>EEG</td>
<td>The VE discriminate the presence of MCI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bellassen (2012) [31]</td>
<td>To compare temporal memory among various groups following a navigation task</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Yes Virtual maze</td>
<td></td>
<td>Temporal order memory tested in a spatial navigation task may provide a selective behavioral marker of AD.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caf<code>o</code> (2012) [33]</td>
<td>To investigate categorical spatial memory deficits using a virtual navigation-based reorientation task</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>Yes VE*</td>
<td></td>
<td>VE may represent an evaluation supplement for spatial memory deficits in prodromal stages of Alzheimer’s dementia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nedelska (2012) [29]</td>
<td>To determine whether allocentric spatial navigation impairment would be proportional to right hippocampal volume loss irrespective of general brain atrophy</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Yes Virtual maze</td>
<td></td>
<td>The right hippocampus plays a critical role in allocentric navigation, particularly when cognitive impairment is present.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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3.1.3. Spatial navigation and acquired brain injury in adults

Evaluation and rehabilitation using virtual reality are two major clinical orientations that have been explored in research on spatial navigation disturbances among subjects in the aftermath of acquired brain injury. Better comprehension of the navigation strategies affected in their relationship with the brain lesions is likewise an important line of research in this population. Different authors have thus shown that among adult patients having sustained head trauma, there are difficulties in acquiring allocentric spatial representations or representations of the configuration of an environment [38, 39]. The virtual environments used by these authors to dissociate allocentric and egocentric spatial representations are based on the Morris water task paradigm [40, 41]. More recently, among amnesic patients presenting hippocampus lesions, the same team confirmed that the subjects were assisted in their navigation towards a target by proximal landmarks (egocentric strategy) but not if these markers were distant from the target (allocentric strategy) [42]. On the other hand, in a recent study, Weniger et al. [43] demonstrated that patients with left or right focal parietal lesions failed to learn an itinerary in a virtual maze (egocentric strategies coming into play in a learning task of the route type), while their performance in a virtual park (allocentric strategies deployed to learn an itinerary of the configuration of the environment type) was normal. These authors also showed that subjects’ right pretemporal volume was significantly predictive of performance in the virtual maze, and suggested that the parietal cortex could underpin egocentric strategies in spatial learning skills in large-scale environments. Carelli et al. [13] for their part showed that a group of 8 brain-injured patients (3 with a left hemisphere lesion, 2 with a right hemisphere lesion, 2 with bilateral lesions) had difficulty implementing efficient spatial navigation strategies in a virtual maze from a map of the maze on which they had previously plotted the way to the exit, suggesting difficulties in the transfer of knowledge of the configuration of the environment type to follow an itinerary of the route type. Van der Ham [44], in a case-based approach, demonstrated a dual dissociation by comparing the spatial navigation performances between two patients presenting right parietal-occipital lesions. In these two patients, the spatial strategies were not affected in the same manner, since one had difficulty in the temporal organisation of the itinerary but not in the recognition of the scenes, and the reverse was true for the other. These authors also confirmed that the main complaints from the patients concerning their topographical disorientation were not detected by the traditional neuropsychological tests as efficiently as with the virtual navigation tests. In an original study, Slobounov et al. [45] compared a group of athletes who had sustained mild brain injury with a matched control group in a virtual navigation task calling on spatial memory. These authors observed that while performances did not show significant differences between the two groups, the brain activation recorded under magnetic resonance imagery (MRI) in the brain injury group showed an increase in brain activity (significantly greater than in the control group) in the parietal cortex, the right dorsal-lateral prefrontal cortex and the right hippocampus. According to these authors, different types of lesion associated with neuromod losses and local changes in cellular metabolism could explain certain focal hyperactivations and the recruitment of additional cerebral resources.

The evaluation of patients following a stroke and presenting unilateral spatial neglect affecting navigation was recently the subject of work by Buxbaum et al. [46, 47]. In their first study [46], these authors evidenced the sensitivity of the virtual test to detect unilateral spatial neglect problems that that were not detected using the traditional neglect battery, and they showed strong correlations with a navigation task in real environment. The second study [47] confirmed the metric qualities of the virtual reality navigation test on 70 patients presenting right cerebral vascular lesions.

Few studies to date have explored the use of virtual reality in rehabilitation programmes for patients exhibiting topographical disorientation. In a very recent study, the feasibility of a rehabilitation programme using virtual reality among patients following a stroke was tested [48]. The rehabilitation approach was of the top-down type, and showed that the use of virtual environments enabled patients to learn alternative navigation strategies suited to their particular cognitive deficits. Caglio et al. [49] used simulated navigation tasks in virtual environment to improve mnesic functions in a young head-trauma patient, thus using the multimodal cognitive nature of spatial navigation to improve the memory performance.
navigation to improve impaired functions. In this single-case study, on the basis of functional MRI imagery, the authors suggest that this type of intensive training using virtual tasks might increase the activation of the hippocampus and para-hippocampus regions.

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors/year</th>
<th>Main aim Description of process and behavioral assessment</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>HC</th>
<th>VE setting*</th>
<th>Other investigation</th>
<th>Main result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buxbaum (2012) [48]</td>
<td>To assess a large sample of patients with the aim of developing a clinically useful version of the Virtual Reality Lateralized Attention Test (VRLAT)</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual path</td>
<td>The VRLAT is a sensitive, valid, and reliable measure of hemispatial neglect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carelli (2011) [13]</td>
<td>To investigate how the transfer from survey (map-like) to route representations is affected after a brain lesion</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td>Effect of brain lesions on the transfer map/navigation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van der Ham (2010) [45]</td>
<td>Presentation of two cases with navigation problems resulting from parieto-occipital right hemisphere damage</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>VE*</td>
<td>A double dissociation between spatial and temporal deficits was found</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slobounov (2010) [46]</td>
<td>To investigate the possibility of residual functional deficits in recently concussed but asymptomatic individuals</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual corridor</td>
<td>Concussed athletes showed larger cortical networks during encoding than HC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodrich-Hunsaker (2010) [43]</td>
<td>To evaluate the importance of the hippocampus in spatial learning and memory</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td>Results confirm the role of hippocampus in human navigation and provide a new link between its mnemonic and navigational roles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weniger (2009) [44]</td>
<td>To compare subjects with brain injury and healthy control on two virtual reality tasks affording to learn a virtual park (allocentric memory) and a virtual maze (egocentric memory)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual maze and park</td>
<td>Left- and right-sided lesioned subjects did not differ on task performance but compared with HC, subjects with parietal cortex lesions were impaired learning the virtual maze</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buxbaum (2008) [47]</td>
<td>To report data from participants with right hemisphere stroke on a new VR navigation test</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Virtual path</td>
<td>The VR test detected lateralized attention deficits in participants whose performance was within the normal range on other neglect tests</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livingstone (2007) [40]</td>
<td>To assess among subjects with TBI what are the spatial strategies impaired</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td>Navigation of TBI survivors was not impaired when the proximal cues were present but was impaired when proximal cues were absent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skelton (2006) [41]</td>
<td>To test subjects with TBI in a virtual Morris water maze</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td>TBI survivors navigated to a visible platform but could not learn the location of the invisible platform</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Brain Injury & Stroke**

**Intervention programs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors/year</th>
<th>Main aim Description of process and behavioral assessment</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>HC</th>
<th>VE setting*</th>
<th>Other investigation</th>
<th>Main result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claessen (2015) [49]</td>
<td>To investigate the feasibility of a virtual navigation training to instruct chronic stroke patients to adopt an alternative navigation strategy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>VE*</td>
<td>The navigation strategy that patient use can be influenced after a short training procedure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caglio (2012) [50]</td>
<td>To describe and evaluate the efficacy of a navigational training program in a maze with TBI</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>VE*</td>
<td>Intensive training in virtual navigational tasks may result in an enhancement of memory function in brain-damaged adults</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ledoux (2013) [53]</td>
<td>Description of process and behavioral assessment To scan people with schizophrenia and healthy patients while being tested on navigating in a virtual town</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual town</td>
<td>Between-group comparisons revealed significantly less activation among patients relative to controls in the left middle frontal gyrus, and right and left hippocampi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilkins (2013) [52]</td>
<td>To investigate the strategies used by patients with schizophrenia to solve navigation tasks</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual maze</td>
<td>Importance of considering individual strategies when investigating memory and navigation performance among various groups of patients with schizophrenia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siemerkus (2012) [54]</td>
<td>To observe in fMRI patients with positive symptoms while finding their way in a virtual maze</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual maze and park</td>
<td>Les activations des régions pertinentes sont plus marquées dans le groupe contrôle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weniger (2008) [51]</td>
<td>To compare subjects with recent-onset schizophrenia with healthy subjects on two virtual reality tasks affording the navigation and learning of a virtual park (allocentric memory) and a virtual maze (egocentric memory)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Virtual maze and park</td>
<td>The more global neural network supporting egocentric spatial learning seems to be less affected than the declarative hippocampal memory system in early stages of schizophrenia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### 3.1.4. Spatial navigation in schizophrenia

Spatial navigation disorders among schizophrenic patients have been the focus of specific interest in the literature. These patients present altered spatial cognition, in particular regarding spatial strategies of the allocentric type, while egocentric strategies based...
on landmark-direction associations appear to be preserved, with normal to subnormal performances in comparison with healthy subjects [50–52]. The authors of these studies used virtual mazes with landmarks outside the laze derived from the real world (buildings, trees, mountains etc.) to objectify the dissociations on navigation strategies. Ledoux et al. [53], under functional MRI, observed a decrease on hippocampus and middle frontal gyrus activity in these patients in a way-finding task. They suggested that these patients had difficulty associating spatial information with contexts in which it appeared, affecting the formation of cognitive maps. A study by Simierkus et al. [54] under functional MRI however showed than in some of these patients specifically presenting positive symptoms, there was difficulty in recruiting the brain areas required for egocentric learning of spatial information. The authors indicate that this could be related to altered consciousness that these patients with positive schizophenia symptoms have of themselves and of their relationship with the environment.

3.1.5. Overview

Recent studies on large-scale spatial cognition among subjects presenting cognitive disturbances show first of all the interest of using virtual reality to assess navigation strategies, hitherto inadequately explored using the classic pencil-and-paper tests on small scale. This research confirms that large-scale navigation requires the concurrent processing by the brain of different types of information in the course of navigation, enabling a subject to find his or her way towards a given destination [55]. It shows complementarity between spatial representations of the allocentric type [55,56] and those of the egocentric type [57,58], and the way in which navigation strategies can be selectively affected depending on the brain networks that have been damaged (for a review of the neuro-anatomical determinants of large-scale spatial navigation see Chrastil [59]). One perspective afforded by the use of virtual environments simulating reality and appearing in the most recent research concerns the scope for improving the specificity of the virtual tasks assigned to patients for diagnostic and predictive purposes. Large-scale spatial cognition is in itself an excellent integrative model of global brain functioning that is directly linked to complex navigation behaviours in everyday life [60].

3.2. The impact of visual or auditory environmental cues on virtual spatial navigation

One of the central questions when using virtual environments to assess spatial navigation functions is that of the differences in the sensory–motor cues between real and virtual settings. Indeed, the motor control involved in the management of navigation using a keyboard or a joystick is not the same as that implemented in actually walking. The proprioceptive and vestibular information involved in these two types of navigation is also different. Grant and Magee [61] thus showed that participants guided along a real route found the places more easily in the real–environment test than those that had learnt the route in virtual setting (i.e. actually walking in situ, or navigating with a joystick). This was not however evidenced in another study [62]. Williams et al. [63] observed that judgment errors in perspective were greater and latencies longer in repositioning and rotation tasks for subjects in virtual environment compared to those in real environment. Welter et al. [64] showed that poorer-quality visual information (textured versus non-textured environment) in a virtual city district led to a deficit in the transfer of information in the same, real city setting, independently from whether the initial learning situation for the itinerary was active or passive, which is in favour of the preponderance of visual processing of information over motor information.

One of the lines of research concerns the delivery of complementary sensory-motor information that is poorer when virtual environments are used. Ruddle et al. [65] thus showed that the use of a treadmill exerciser associated with a task consisting in localising items in a supermarket decreased the distances covered and improved the precision of the estimates of distances between products. Larrue et al. [66] demonstrated that the reconstruction of a trajectory in a real environment was performed better when the trajectory had been learnt in either real or virtual situation using a treadmill and rotations of the upper body, in comparison with learning in virtual environment with a joystick or with a treadmill but without upper body rotation. However, a recent study on a task involving a search for goods in a shopping mall also showed that among elderly people difficulties generated by the combination of the virtual environment and the treadmill had a negative impact on performance, where the task required frequent shifts in field of vision in order to move towards the objects [67]. Indeed, adding sensory–motor information or walking during navigation puts elderly or brain-injured subjects in a double-task situation (motor task in moving around and balancing and cognitive task for the navigation parameters) [28], which may have reduced performances. It does however seem that active navigation (motor and cognitive) is beneficial for navigation among young subjects [68].

In this line of thought, in terms with visual and motor cues, a number of studies are in favour of the similarity of the processes involved in learning and finding a trajectory in real and virtual environments [7,69,70]. This does indeed appear to be a compensation for the loss of idiographic information in navigation in virtual environments [71].

Nevertheless, while virtual reality enables the simulation of certain aspects of the real world, it also makes it possible to go beyond reality [72]. This is the case in particular when stimuli are added to a virtual environment in the software. These stimuli can be defined as additional information provided by the virtual system that increases the amount of information present in the environment. However their absence from the environment does not prevent completion of the task. These stimuli can be contextual, that is to say linked to the performance of the task, or non-contextual, that is to say they bear no relationship to the task to be performed.

These sensory stimuli can be of different types–auditory, visual, tactile or olfactory. They can be administered separately or in combination in the course of the performance of the task.

Different studies have assessed the impact of visual or auditory environmental cues delivered by the virtual system on navigation or spatial learning tasks.

3.2.1. Visual cues and virtual spatial navigation (Table 3)

The visual cues used were first of all created in a manner that was analogous with aids available for navigation in an unfamiliar real environment. For instance, Darken and Sibert [73] proposed a virtual map, and they reported a significant impact of this element on navigation performance in a virtual environment among healthy subjects. Sjölinder et al. [74] showed that the use of a map in a virtual environment was useful to improve comprehension of the spatial layout of information, but it slowed participants in their progression on account of the mobilisation of greater cognitive capacities, and also because of the repeated switches between the egocentric perspective of the participant and the allocentric perspective of the map. Parush and Berman [75] showed that at the outset of their test navigation with a map provided more difficult than navigation with a list of instructions for movement, but that this difference became non-significant as the duration of navigation was prolonged. Likewise, the existence of landmarks made the navigation more difficult at the outset, but the difficulty lessened as the navigation went on. The deterioration in
### Table 3
Visual stimuli and virtual spatial navigation: articles selected with the keywords “cue”, “help”, “aid” and “stimulus”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>VE setting</th>
<th>Main aim</th>
<th>Main result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smyth (2007)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Vehicle simulator</td>
<td>Study summarized in the section “auditory stimuli”</td>
<td>Study summarized in the section “auditory stimuli”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yi (2015)</td>
<td>Mild Alzheimers</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Vehicle simulator</td>
<td>Study summarized in the section “auditory stimuli”</td>
<td>Study summarized in the section “auditory stimuli”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadbent (2015)</td>
<td>48 children aged 5, 7 and 9 years and 18 participants with William syndrome.</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Two virtual environment mazes (with and without landmarks)</td>
<td>To examine whether individuals with William syndrome are able to employ a sequential egocentric strategy to guide learning and the retracing of a route</td>
<td>Participants with William syndrome showed significantly greater detriment for route learning and retracing a recently learned route when the landmarks were removed. Typically developing children were able to keep an egocentric navigation strategy when landmarks were removed, contrary to participants with William syndrome. Participants chose the correct movement direction in 62% of all trials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de Condappa (2014)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>A virtual route with 4-way intersections and 2 landmarks at each intersection</td>
<td>To examine the cognitive processes and ocular behavior associated with ongoing navigation strategy choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slöninger (2005)</td>
<td>24 younger subjects et 24 older subjects</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Online grocery</td>
<td>To examine the influence of a map on navigation and acquisition of spatial knowledge in a virtual ecological environment</td>
<td>The use of a map improved the understanding of the spatial configural knowledge, but slowed down the navigating subjects. The older participants needed more time to solve the tasks, et showed more difficulties to create configural knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parush and Berman (2004)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>A T-shaped environment divided into 4 rooms</td>
<td>To evaluate the influence of a route list and a map on acquisition of route and survey spatial knowledge</td>
<td>The initial navigation with a map was harder than with a route list, but this difference became insignificant at the end of the learning phase. A similar pattern was found for the impact of landmarks. Performance degradation upon removal of the navigation aids was less for those that navigated with a map as compared to a route list. Performance degradation upon removal of the navigation aid was less for those that navigated with landmarks as compared to no landmarks. The 3 navigation aids were helpful for navigation. The 3D directional arrows outperformed the others, except for experienced users. There was a difference between experienced and unexperienced users when using the 2D aids. The navigation of traumatic brain injury participants was not impaired when the proximal cues were present (egocentric mode) but was impaired when proximal cues were absent (allocentric mode). The addition of distal landmarks did not allow the elaboration of a cognitive map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burigat and Chittaro (2007)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>An air base surrounded by urban areas and an empty sphere</td>
<td>To compare 3 navigation aids (2D and 3D directional arrows pointing towards objects that users had to reach and a 2D radar metaphor) on pointing out the location of objects or places</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livingstone (2007)</td>
<td>11 subjects with traumatic brain injury and 12 control subjects</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>A Morris virtual water maze</td>
<td>To investigate the pattern of preserved or impaired cognitive mechanisms of wayfinding among survivors of traumatic brain injury</td>
<td>The navigation of traumatic brain injury participants was not impaired when the proximal cues were present (egocentric mode) but was impaired when proximal cues were absent (allocentric mode). The addition of distal landmarks did not allow the elaboration of a cognitive map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van der Brink (2013)</td>
<td>23 30-month-old children and 22 35-month-old children</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4 ED environments: a beach, an open square, a snow and a park landscape</td>
<td>To investigate orientation abilities on the basis of visual spatial cues in 2-3-year-old children</td>
<td>Neither age group benefited from landmarks present in the environment, suggesting that successful task performance relied on the use of optic flow cues, rather than object-to-object relations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andersen (2012)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>An eight-arm radial maze</td>
<td>To determine by analysing the oculomotor movements if there is a sex difference in wayfinding with variation of the landmarks’ number</td>
<td>Women rely more to landmarks (2 or 6) to navigate than men. The landmarks fixation were associated with an increase in task completion time. The more increased the number of landmarks, the more increased the landmarks fixation time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boggus (2010)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>A virtual maze</td>
<td>To compare the use of distance field illumination and 4 other navigation aids: directional arrows, a line extending in the direction of a goal, a path from the user to the goal and a map showing the locations of the user and goals</td>
<td>The distance field illumination is an effective cue for aiding in visual search and spatial navigation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harris (2012)</td>
<td>27 younger subjects and 29 older subjects</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>A dark grey floor with white dots and mountain scenery with landmarks</td>
<td>To explore age differences in path integration (distance and direction estimation and triangle completion) both with and without landmark information</td>
<td>Without landmark information, older participants exhibited deficits in path integration in terms of distance reproduction, rotation reproduction, and triangle completion. With landmark information, an age difference in triangle completion was also found.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
performance was less marked when navigation aids were removed among participants who had navigated with a map and those who had navigated in an environment with landmarks.

Other authors chose to add visual cues that were unlike cues found in a real environment. For instance, Burigat and Chittaro [76] compared the effect of two navigation aids for location pointing among healthy subjects: 2D and 3D arrows indicating the name, the direction, and the distance of the target, and a 2D radar effect using colored points. They showed that in a large virtual geographical environment the 3 aids were useful for navigation by participants whether or not they had experience of navigation in virtual environments. The 3D aid was more effective that the other two types for non-experienced participants, and there were significant differences in performance between experienced and non-experienced performers with the 2D aids. Boggus and Crawfils [77] demonstrated that progressively lighting up the path to follow to the target was a possible cue technique for navigation in virtual environment.

Finally, different authors have studied the impact of adding or altering landmarks in the virtual environment to be explored. Livingstone et al. [38] for instance had traumatic brain injury subjects perform a wayfinding task in a virtual environment rather like the Morris water maze. They showed that adding landmarks close to the targeted favoured spatial navigation among these patients (egocentric mode), making their performance comparable to that of the control subjects. In contrast, adding distant visual landmarks did not enable this population of brain-injured patients to elaborate a cognitive map. In addition to this, Andersen et al. [78] evidenced a longer duration of navigation in correlation with the number of instances of eye fixation on landmarks, and found that fixating increased with the number of landmarks in the virtual environment.

Like the Livingstone et al. study [38], other studies have assessed the impact of visual cues on spatial navigation among subjects with difficulties in topographical orientation:

Harris et al. [25] showed an effect of age on performance in the integration of a trajectory, based on optic flow. In the condition with no landmarks elderly subjects had more difficulty in tasks involving estimations of direction or distance, and in the triangle completion task. It can be noted here that the pattern of responses differed between older and younger subjects depending on the distance, the range of the rotation required and the type of task assigned (lesser variability in individual responses, poorer performances for large triangles, over-estimation of rotations for small triangles, under-estimation of large triangles). The only difference linked to landmarks was the greater inter-individual differences among elderly subjects for rotations, only in the condition with landmarks.

Broadbent et al. [79] studied the ability of young adults with a Williams syndrome to learn and reproduce an itinerary performed in a virtual maze, with and without landmarks. These subjects relied more on the landmarks to learn and reproduce a trajectory and had greater difficulty in returning to an egocentric strategy in the absence of landmarks than normally-developing children aged 5, 7 and 9.

Van der Brink et al. [80] for their part used 4 environments representing a beach, an open yard, a snowy landscape and a park, and showed that children of two and a half and three drew no benefit from the presence of landmarks in the environment in a task consisting in maintaining the orientation of the scene.

These different studies reflect the diversity of the impact of visual stimuli on virtual spatial navigation, with notable differences according to the populations studied, the cues used and the way in which they were administered.

3.2.2. Auditory cues in spatial navigation (Table 4)

The impact of auditory cues on spatial navigation was first of all studied in real environments or in augmented reality, and in different populations, for instance maritime navigation among partially blind subjects, or explorations among patients with topographical orientation disorders, resulting for example from brain injury. In this respect, Fickas et al. [81] assessed performances in a route-following task in 4 conditions: aerial map, map oriented according to the viewpoint of the user, auditory instructions and text instructions. The brain-injured patients presenting severe cognitive disorders derived the most assistance from auditory instructions, which is in line with the results of the study by Solihberg et al. [82] performed in a real urban environment on patients with severe brain trauma.

The studies performed in virtual situations have had different objectives, such as testing the validity of a virtual environmental setup [83,84], reproducing a cognitive task in virtual environment [85], or assessing the impact of auditory stimuli on virtual spatial navigation among healthy subjects compared to patients presenting topographical disorientation.

Concerning the impact of auditory stimuli on virtual spatial navigation in healthy participants, several studies are available.

First, Ardito et al. [86] assessed the impact of auditory stimuli on navigation in a virtual environment reproducing a painting exhibition. Three auditory environments were tested:

- a piece of music semantically associated with each item in the exhibition (functional role);
- a musical background delivered throughout the navigation (aesthetic role);
- no auditory stimulus.

The participants were instructed to remember certain elements in the exhibition on which they were to click in the course of navigation. There was no effect of the music on the number of errors in the task, nor on the speed of execution. One hypothesis made by these authors was that the semantic link between the music and the items in the exhibition was too weak. They therefore reiterated the study forming two groups of participants: one was informed explicitly of the semantic link between the music and the environment, and the other was not. The performances this time were better among participants informed of the link between the auditory stimuli and the environment.

Smyth et al. [87], using a driving simulator, assessed the impact of visual directional cues (yellow arrows), auditory cues (verbal instructions) or the two combined on a navigation task. Among 16 military participants they evidenced an increase in navigation speed with the directional cues. When they added to the workload in this navigation (dual task) fewer elements in the virtual environment (here the number of vehicles passed) were remembered. Likewise, Vlaud-Delmon et al. [88] studied the manner in which auditory stimuli could affect memorisation of a virtual spatial environment, here the Morris water maze. The main result of this study was that the participants managed to memorise the spatial localisation of a target without visual information (using only auditory cues). By altering the topographic characteristics of the auditory cues used, these authors showed that removal of a proximal auditory cue or a change in the perimeter of the explored zone did not significantly prolong the duration of the task, in contrast with the rotation of auditory cues or the switching of two cues.

There are also a few studies on the impact of auditory stimuli on virtual spatial navigation among patients presenting topographical orientation disorders.

Sanchez et al. [89] showed that an auditory virtual environment enabled 7 visually impaired children aged 10–12 to find their orientations, move around and acquire mental spatial representations and information for the majority (74%). Alfonso et al. [90] showed that the distance to the auditory cues had an effect on the
Table 4
Auditory stimuli and virtual spatial navigation: articles selected with the keywords “cue”, “help”, “aid” and “stimulus”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors (year)</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>VE setting</th>
<th>Main aim</th>
<th>Main result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yi (2015)</td>
<td>Mild Alzheimer</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Vehicle simulator</td>
<td>To investigate the effectiveness of the GPS (visual or audio informations) in assisting drivers with mild Alzheimer in finding their destination safely</td>
<td>The driving performance score was highest in the audio-only setting, moderate in the normal setting and lowest in the visual-only setting. Drivers using the audio-only setting and normal setting were more likely to successfully find their destination than participants using the visual-only setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smyth (2007)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Vehicle simulator</td>
<td>To evaluate the impact of visual (yellow arrows), audio (instructions) or both directional cues on a navigation task combined to a cognitive task</td>
<td>The participants drove significantly faster with the road-turn cues than with just the map. They recalled fewer vehicle sightings with the cognitive tests than without them. They reported higher perceived workload with the cognitive tests than without them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorkin (2005 and 2006)</td>
<td>Subjects with schizophrenia</td>
<td>39 patients/21 control subjects</td>
<td>A virtual maze, inspired by the Wisconsin Card Sorting Test</td>
<td>To diagnose the schizophrenia patients with the rules deduction virtual task</td>
<td>A classification procedure based on the subjects' performance profile (with 4 performance measures: the distractor effect, the errors made while the subject was learning the rule, the number of consecutive errors and the response time) correctly predicted 85% of the schizophrenic patients (and all of the comparison subjects).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ardito (2007)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>40 (First part) then 10</td>
<td>the Einstein Tower</td>
<td>To evaluate if a musical background provides a support to user navigation and achievement of the search task in the Einstein Tower</td>
<td>First part: no functional role of the musical background on navigation performance was showed (but the semantic link between music and the search task was not explicitly told). If the participants were explicitly told about the relationship between music and virtual scene, the music had a functional role on the navigation speed. Participants succeeded in memorizing the spatial localization of a target without visual informations (using auditory cues only). The absence of the closest landmark did not seem to impact the performance. The rotation of the 3 landmarks and the switch (inversion of two landmarks) lengthened the search time. The modification of the perimeter of the exploration area did not impair the search strategy of the participants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viaud-Delmon (2014)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>An auditory equivalent of the Morris water maze</td>
<td>To study how a spatial scene can be memorized on the basis of auditory and idiothetic cues only</td>
<td>None.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanchez (2012)</td>
<td>Blind children 10-12-year-old</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Audio-based Environment Simulator (AbES)</td>
<td>To evaluate the impact of the use of an audio and haptic-based videogame on the development of orientation, mobility, orientation and spatial knowledge skills in school-age blind learners</td>
<td>Participants mainly succeeded the proposed activities (minimum: 74%).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degara (2014)</td>
<td>Healthy subjects</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>A virtual environment where subjects must guide an avatar to a target point using only auditory cues in a computer</td>
<td>To compare two spatial virtual sonification navigation system: the Neate-Yang method (with distance-to-target mapping, obstacle detection and directional mapping) and the Villa’s method (with target object sonification, obstacle collisions, angular distance and panning)</td>
<td>Participants were able to find the target 62% of the times using Neate-Yang’s sonification method. When using Villa’s method, subjects were not able to get to the target.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maidenbaum (2013)</td>
<td>Blind adults</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>A virtual corridor with an angle and with a virtual Eye-Cane</td>
<td>To investigate whether blind and blindfolded users can navigate down a virtual twisting corridor using only the Virtual-EyeCane’s single point distance parameter</td>
<td>All participants both sighted and blind, were able to navigate all routes with a virtual Eye-Cane successfully following minimal training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afonso (2010)</td>
<td>18 blindfolded sighted, 18 late blind and 18 healthy participants</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>A physical and virtual space with 6 virtual sounds</td>
<td>To investigate the role of auditory information on spatial knowledge acquisition by blind participants</td>
<td>The time necessary to create a spatial mental knowledge increases with the distance of the auditory cues. The blindfolded sighted participants were selectively impaired in their ability to generate precise spatial representations from locomotor experience.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
construction of mental representations of the space in which the cues were located, and that blind people more easily formed spatial representations in the setting of movement through a virtual auditory environment than people normally sighted. Maidenbaum et al. [91] for their part showed that virtual auditory setups, such as a virtual white cane, favoured navigation among visually impaired subjects.

Ye et al. [92], among patients with early Alzheimer’s disease, showed that compared to visual GPS, auditory instructions improved spatial navigation performances and generally enabled subjects to reach their destination.

3.2.3. Impact of the characteristics of the virtual environmental cues used

In the literature there are arguments in favour of an influence of presentation and content of the cues used on the navigation performances of participants.

For instance, Riley et al. [93] showed that automatic instructions were more helpful to patients with a consolidation deficit (linked to severe mnestic or dysexecutive disturbances). Thus administration of the implicit type and procedural processing of the sensory cues could be very useful in this population.

The moment at which the stimulus occurs, and whether it is transient or lasting also seem to be important. The fleeting administration of a stimulus could no doubt increase the degree of attention in the subject at a key moment in the navigation, although no study was found assessing this aspect.

The existence of a semantic correspondence between the stimulus administered and the task appears to increase the impact of the stimulus used, in particular when the task performed calls on high-level perceptual abilities [86,94].

The nature of the cue or aid (visual, olfactory, auditory, tactile, etc.) could also be of importance [92].

The gradual lighting-up or the illumination of the pathway according to the distance remaining to the target could also be useful [77].

Concerning landmarks used as cues, Stankiewicz and Kalia [95] showed that structural landmarks were better encoded than objects, and that the informativeness of a landmark determined its memorisation. Caduff and Timpf [96] defined different types of landmark salience: perceptual salience refers to the ability of an object to generate exogenous attention by its particular characteristics (shape, colour, size etc.); cognitive salience involves the endogenous orientation of attention as a result of knowledge possessed or informative cues; contextual salience refers to the influence of the environment and the task to be performed on the ability to focus attention on a particular landmark. Janzen and van Turennoût [97] showed that objects placed at decisional points, as well as those that the subject would expect to encounter in a passive spatial navigation task, were recalled better than those placed randomly. Han et al. [98] for their part, using 3 virtual navigation experiments, demonstrated that when the localisation of objects was useful to the navigation, because of attentional focalisation, the remembrance of these objects that had become landmarks and the acquisition of allocentric spatial representations were improved.

Different stimuli appear either as facilitators or as hindrances in navigation tasks. But their real impact can vary with a number of parameters, including the amount of information provided, the moment when it is given, and the population concerned.

4. Conclusion

Virtual reality is a valuable, fast-expanding tool. In the area of spatial navigation it enables assessment of patients in dynamic situations that are close to reality, which is an advantage over traditional assessment approaches of the pencil-and-paper type. It also provides better understanding of the mechanisms at play in navigation. Finally, in addition to the evaluation of deficits, it also affords scope for assessing solutions aiming to improve performances in navigation activities, and thus foster greater participation in daily life for affected subjects.

The use of environmental cues as navigation aids could have several applications in the future with the foreseeable progress in technology:

- assistance in rehabilitation and retraining of patients with spatial navigation difficulties;
- improvement of autonomy in the home for these patients.

Better knowledge of the impact of the characteristics of the aids or cues used and the cognitive processes involved seems essential for their appropriate use. As shown by this systematic review, although some research has got underway along these lines, there is still much to be done to understand how to render interventions with neurological patients efficacious.

Disclosure of interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interest.

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