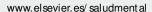


Revista de Psiquiatría y Salud Mental





BRIEF ORIGINAL

Capgras Syndrome associated with the use of psychoactive substances

Ezequiel N. Mercurio

Hospital Neuropsiquiátrico Braulio A. Moyano, Buenos Aires, Argentina

Peceived September 24, 2010; accepted February 14, 2011

KEYWORDS

Capgras syndrome; Facial processing; Prosopagnosia; Front ot emporal cortex: Substance abuse

PALABRAS CLAVE

Sindrome de Capgras; **Procesamiento** de rostros: Prosopagnosia; Corteza frontotemporal; Abuso de sustancias

Abstract

Introduction: Capgras syndrome has originally been described as psychiatric syndrome. However, in the last few years reports of patients with this syndrome has significantly increased in patients with neurological, metabolic, and infectious diseases and those who consume alcohol. Different hypotheses have been proposed to explain the neurobiology of this very unusual symptom, such as changes in the dopamine circuit and specific dysfunctions in facial processing.

Case: In this work we present a new case of Cappras syndrome, associated with an acute cocaine overdose, which was transient and reversible.

Discussion: The neurobiological bases of this syndrome are analysed, along with their relationship with the changes induced by cocaine use. Thus, Capgras syndrome could be the expression of functional changes at frontal-temporal level, and the paralimbic region secondary to the consumption of psychoactive substances such as cocaine.

© 2010 SEP and SEPB. Published by Elsevier España, S.L. All rights reserved.

Síndrome de Capgras asociado al consumo de sustancias psicoactivas

Regimen

Introducción: 🛘 síndrome de Capgras ha sido descrito originariamente como un síntoma psiquiátrico, sin embargo en los últimos años se han incrementado notablemente los reportes de pacientes con este síndrome entre pacientes con enfermedades neurológicas, metabólicas, infecciosas y consumo de alcohol. Se han propuesto diferentes hipótesis para explicar la neurobiología de este síntoma tan particular, alteraciones en el circuito de la dopamina y disfunciones específicas en el procesamiento de los rostros.

Caso: En este trabajo se presenta un caso nuevo de síndrome de Capgras asociado a la intoxicación aguda por cocaína, de tipo transitorio y reversible.

Discusión: Se analizan las bases neurobiológicas de dicho síndrome y su correlación con las alteraciones secundarias al consumo de cocaína. Así, el síndrome de Capgras podría ser la expresión de alteraciones funcionales a nivel frontotemporal y la región paralímbica secundarias al consumo de sustancias psicoactivas como la cocaína.

© 2010 SEP y SEPB. Publicado por Elsevier España, S.L. Todos los derechos reservados.

E-mail: ezequielmercurio@gmail.com

Introduction

The *delirio de Sosias* [literally, Sosias delusion], or Capgras syndrome (CS) in English, owes its name to one of the characters in the mythological comedy *Amphitryon* by Plautus.^a The Spanish term *sosias*, based on this play, is used to describe "a person who resembles someone else to the point that he could be confused with that person." The term has its analogue in the French word *sosie*, as well. In 1923, J. Capgras and J. Peboul-Lachaux reported the case of a patient, Mme. M., who presented with symptoms of chronic delusional psychosis with ideas of persecution and grandeur that included relatives who owned mines in Buenos Aires, claiming that some of her relatives had been replaced. Prior to these reports, authors such as Kahlbaum (1866), Magnan (1893), and Janet (1903) had described similar symptoms.

The clinical picture is characterised by the recurrent delusional belief that someone, usually from the patient's immediate environment, has been replaced by an impostor. In general, patients describe imperceptible differences between the original person and the impostor. In other words, the impostor is physically identical to the family member who has been replaced but is not that person.

The question is raised as to whether this clinical picture should be considered an isolated syndrome or a symptom that may be part of other pathologies. Generally speaking, case reports support the idea that it would be a symptom that may be present in various psychiatric and neurological disorders or even in the context of metabolic diseases.

Variations of CS have been described, such as *Fregoli syndrome*, where delusional patients identify a relative in some other person. In this case, the relative's "personality" has invaded the stranger while the stranger has retained his own physiognomy. Here, the physiognomy is different from that of the relative—and clearly recognised by the patient—but the delusional belief is that the relative's "personality" has taken over the stranger's body.² The *syndrome of intermetamorphosis* has also been described, where the patient has the delusional conviction that people around him are changing their appearance so that they look like other people,³ as well as the *syndrome of subjective doubles*, where the patient himself psychically transforms a stranger, adopting his identity and physiognomy.⁴

Even though, historically, CShad been associated only with psychiatric pathologies, such as paranoid schizophrenia, 5-7 schizoaffective disorder8 or mood disorders, 9 and as an extremely rare clinical manifestation, in recent years, cases of this syndrome have been reported in multiple and different pathologies, 9 such as epilepsy, 10 cerebrovascular accident, 11-13 head injury, brain tumours, degenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease 14-16 or Lewy body dementia, 16,17 multiple sclerosis, 18 Parkinson's disease, 19 metabolic diseases, 13 infectious diseases, 20 and intoxication with abused substances, 16 among others.

It is estimated that CS occurs in approximately 4% of psychotic patients, the majority of whom have paranoid schizophrenia, and in 20%30% of patients with Alzheimer's disease.

The objective of this article is to analyse the various neurobiological hypotheses that have been proposed and relate them to a case reported where CS occurred in the context of acute cocaine intoxication, being a self-limited and reversible symptom. Although cases related to alcohol consumption have been reported, 21,22 as far as we know, this is the first case of CS associated with cocaine use.

Proposed neurobiological hypotheses for Capgras Syndrome

Multiple and quite varied hypotheses have been tested to explain how and why the double or <code>sosia</code> phenomenon occurs—from psychodynamic-psychoanalytical theories²³⁻²⁵ to neurobiological and cognitive theories. The first hypotheses with a psychoanalytical slant evolved from the fact that the first reported cases of CS were in patients with psychiatric disorders. However, as this clinical picture was being reported in other diseases, such as Alzheimer's disease, multiple sclerosis, and head injury, new pathophysiological hypotheses have been proposed.

From a neurochemistry standpoint, it has been proposed that there is an underlying functional impairment in CS related to increased activity in the dopamine circuit. 19,26

From the neuroanatomy point of view, CS has been associated with lesions of the right hemisphere; however, most studies have found bilateral impairment in the majority of patients. 27,28 The regions that have been associated with this syndrome are the frontal, temporal, and parietal lobes. Atrophy of the frontotemporal cortex was found in patients diagnosed with both schizophrenia and Alzheimer's-type dementia who presented with CS²⁹ Functional neuroimaging studies (PET) found an impairment in glucose metabolism in the paralimbic region and the temporal lobe in patients with Alzheimer's-type dementia and CS 30 Neuropsychological findings support a frontal dysfunction, since many patients with CS have test results inferior to those expected on frontal lobe assessment.31 These findings should be interpreted with caution, however, because CS may be the clinical manifestation of another syndrome such as, for example, a paranoid schizophrenia disorder, Alzheimer's disease, or a temporal lobe epilepsysyndromes that involve neuropsychological impairment per se, with or without CS. In other words, ancillary test results are useful for orientation, but it is impossible to conclude

^a In this work, which dates from approximately 188 BC, the Foman author describes how Jupiter, who is in love with Alcmene, the wife of Amphitryon, takes on this man's figure in order to spend a night with her while Amphitryon was in the middle of a campaign against the Teleboans. In turn, Jupiter's son, Mercury, takes the form of Amphitryon's slave, Sosia, whom he replaces so he can guard the door of Alcmene's house and prevent anyone from entering the mansion while Jupiter, transformed into Amphitryon, is with Alcmene. The real Sosia returns, and Mercury keeps him from entering the house, so Sosia goes back to the harbour to tell his master, Amphitryon, what has happened. Amphitryon does not believe Sosia and treats him as if he were crazy.

^b [direct quote from Spanish dictionary] Sosias (De Sosias, personaje de la comedia Anfitrión, de Plauto). 1. m. Persona que tiene parecido con otra hasta el punto de poder ser confundida con ella. [From] Diccionario de la Real Academia Española [Dictionary of the Spanish Royal Academy], twenty-second edition, on-line, available at www.rae.es

98 E.N. Mercurio

that they are pathognomonic for CS because CS does not occur in isolation but rather as part of another clinical picture.

Along this line, it has been proposed that this syndrome occurs due to a problem with correctly processing known faces. Some indicate that it would be an impairment in the integration of information between the right and left hemispheres. 32,33 Vigheto postulates that an injured right hemisphere would deprive the left hemisphere of proper information, rendering it unrestrained and resulting in the patient's delusional verbalisations. 34

CS has been differentiated from another neurological syndrome known as prosopagnosia, in which the patient is unable to recognize familiar faces. In this syndrome, patients are able to recognize their relatives by voice, by the way they walk or the way they dress, and by their glasses or beard. Here, the lesion would be found in the right ventromedial occipito-temporal area. According to the face recognition model proposed by Bruce and Young, the impairment in prosopagnosia would be found at the level of face recognition units, while in CS, the impairment would be found in the person identity nodes—it would be an agnosia for identification with face recognition preserved. 35,36

Elis and Young proposed that, when looking at faces they recognize, CS patients do not feel the emotional content associated with those familiar faces. This would involve not a failure to recognize familiar faces but rather a failure of those faces to arouse personal meaning. So, there would be damage to the neural circuit responsible for linking a familiar visual stimulus and generating the emotional response to that stimulus. These authors point out that it would be a mirror phenomenon to prosopagnosia. Consequently, the patient with CS loses the sense of familiarity that known faces arouse in him because, in this phenomenon, the emotional connotations are not transmitted. This is why the patient reacts indifferently to his relatives, experiencing no emotion in their presence, and where the patient's explanation that they have been robbed of their identity originates.24

Hirstein and Ramachandran propose that, in CS, there would be a disconnect between the limbic system—the amygdala, specifically—and the inferior temporal cortex, 25,37 which is why patients would be unable to access the emotional memory associated with that relative. So, the delusion would arise as a response to the pathological situation of not experiencing a feeling of familiarity in the presence of a known face; thus, this is a family recognition agnosia with secondary delusional reduplication. 38

Along this line, Elis et al showed that, while patients with CS had an autonomic response that did not distinguish between familiar faces and unfamiliar faces, their response to familiar auditory stimuli was appropriate; in other words, patients were able to recognize their relatives when they were talking by phone. ³⁹ This is somewhat different from what Damasio and Tranel reported for patients with prosopagnosia: that these patients had an autonomic response—dermal conductance—to the faces of people they knew but were unable to name. This dermal conductance response did not occur with unknown faces. So the authors propose that the patients with

prosopagnosia knew those faces but were not aware of that, despite the fact that they were able to evidence an autonomic response. 40

Bauer has proposed a double pathway for the processing of faces in the right hemisphere: a ventral pathway connecting the visual cortex (inferotemporal) to the hippocampus, the amygdala, and the fronto-orbital cortex, and another dorsal pathway connecting the visual cortex to the inferior parietal cortex, the cingulate gyrus, and the dorsolateral frontal cortex.41 The first would be responsible for conscious processing, impairment of which would be associated with prosopagnosia; the second, the dorsal circuit, would be associated with CS and would be responsible for transmitting the emotional reaction to the face. Other authors have suggested a different neural circuit, 37,40 however, indicating an important role for the retrospinal cortex, as well, the fusiform gyrus, 42,43 Moreover. functional neuroimaging studies with PET in patients with Alzheimer's disease showed a dysfunction in the connection between the frontal and temporal lobes and the paralimbic region. 30,44 Along this line, a neuropathology study found limbic, paralimbic, and frontal dysfunctions in patients with Lewy body dementia associated with delusional identification; 45 a case of CS secondary to epilepsy surgery (temporal lobectomy) has also been reported. 46

Presentation of the case

Patient was a 31-year-old male with an unremarkable medical history except for polyconsumption of psychoactive substances (marijuana, cocaine, alcohol, psycho-active drugs) since he was 20 years old. There was no known psychiatric history. The patient was taken to an Urgent Care service for symptoms of psychomotor agitation secondary to cocaine use. His wife reported that, after using cocaine, the patient assaulted her verbally, stating that she (his wife) was not his wife, that she was an impostor who had replaced his real wife. This situation was of a transitory nature and occurred only after his use of cocaine. Upon examination and after the treatment instituted, the patient's higher mental functions and the neurological examination were within normal limits.

Discussion

CS has been associated only with psychiatric pathology, such as paranoid schizophrenia, schizoaffective disorder, and mood disorders. In recent years, however, cases of this syndrome have been reported in connection with multiple and different pathologies: epilepsy, cerebrovascular accident, head injury, brain tumours, degenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease or Lewy body dementia, ¹⁷ multiple sclerosis, ¹⁸ metabolic diseases, ¹³ infectious diseases, ²⁰ and intoxication with abused substances. ¹⁶ Although there has been indication of it being associated with the use of psychoactive substances, specific cases involving this association have not been reported. In this regard, in the case presented, the presence of neurological and chronic psychiatric pathology was ruled out, the CS

presenting as the result of an acute cocaine intoxication that was transitory and reversible in nature. Thus, CS secondary to acute cocaine intoxication may be explained in neurobiological terms, since cocaine users have been shown to have prefrontal cortex, temporal—the amygdala—parietal, and insular impairments. ⁴⁷ From a neurochemistry standpoint, it has been proposed that hyperactivation of the dopaminergic circuit would be associated with CS. Therefore, it is neurobiology that, in the absence of neurological and psychiatric pathology, would explain a case of transitory and reversible CS secondary to acute cocaine intoxication.

Conflict of interest

The author declares that he has no conflict of interest.

References

- Capgras J, Peboul-Lachaux J. L'illusion des sosies dans un dèlire systématisé chronique. Bull Soc Clin Méd Ment. 1923;2: 6-16.
- Courbon P, Fail F. Syndrome "d'illusion de Fregoli" et schizofrénie. Ann Med Psychol. 1927;85:289-90.
- Courbon M, Tusques J. L'illusion d'intermetamorphose et de charme. Ann Med Psychol. 1932;90:401-5.
- Christodoulou GN. Syndrome of subjective doubles. Am J Psychiatry. 1978;135:249-51.
- Christodoulou GN. The syndrome of Capgras. Br J Psychiatry. 1977;130:556-64.
- Berson RJ. Capgras syndrome. Am J Psychiatry. 1983;140: 969-78.
- Odom-White A, de Leon J, Stanilla J, Cloud BS, Smpson GM. Misidentification syndromes in schizophrenia: case reviews with implications for classificationand prevalence. Aust N Z J Psychiatry. 1995;29:63-8.
- 8. Haslam MT. A case of Capgras syndrome. Am J Psychiatry. 1973;130:493-4.
- Christodoulou GN, Margariti M, Kontaxakis VP, Christodoulou NG. The delusional misidentification syndromes: strange, fascinating, and instructive. Curr Psychiatry Pep. 2009;11: 185-9.
- Fleminger S, Burns A. The delusional misidentification syndromes in patients with and without evidence of organic cerebral disorder: a structured review of case reports. Biol Psychiatry. 1993;33:22-32.
- Horikawa H, Monji A, Sasaki M, Maekawa T, Onitsuka T, Nitazaka Y, et al. Different SPECT findings before and after Capgras' syndrome in interictal psychosis. Epilepsy Behav. 2006;9: 189-92.
- Kapur N, Turner A, King C. Peduplicative paramnesia: possible anatomical and neuropsychological mechanisms. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 1988;51:579-81.
- Collins MN, Hawthorne ME, Gribbin N, Jacobson R. Capgras' syndrome with organic disorders. Postgrad Med J. 1990;66: 1064-7
- Assal F, Mendez MF. Intermetamorphosis in a patient with Alzheimer's disease. J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci. 2003; 15:246-7.
- Lee DY, Choo IH, Kim KW, Jhoo JH, Youn JC, Lee UY, et al. White matter changes associated with psychotic symptoms in Alzheimer's disease patients. J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci. 2006;18:191-8.

- Josephs KA. Capgras syndrome and its relationship to neurodegenerative disease. Arch Neurol. 2007;64:1762-6.
- Marantz AG, Verghese J. Capgras' syndrome in dementia with Lewy bodies. J Geriatr Psychiatry Neurol. 2002;15:239-41.
- Sharma A, Garuba M, Egbert M. Capgras syndrome in a patient with multiple sclerosis: a case report. Prim Care Companion J Clin Psychiatry. 2009;11:274.
- Roane DM, Rogers JD, Robinson JH, Feinberg TE. Delusional misidentification in association with parkinsonism. J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci. 1998;10:194-8.
- Crichton P, Lewis S. Delusional misidentification, AIDS and the right hemisphere. Br J Psychiatry. 1990;157:608-10.
- MacCallum WAG. Capgras symptoms with an organic basis. Br J Psychiatry. 1973;123:639-42.
- Quinn D. The Capgras syndrome: two case reports and a review. Can J Psychiatry. 1981;26:126-9.
- Capgras J, Carrette P. Illusion de sosies et complexe d'Oedipe. Ann Méd Psychol. 1924;132:48-68.
- Ellis HD, Young AW. Accounting for delusional misidentification. Br J Psychiatry. 1990;157:239-48.
- Ramachandran VS. Consciousness and body image: lessons from phantom limbs, Capgras syndrome and pain asymbolia. PhilTrans R Soc Lond B. 1998;353:1851-9.
- Daniel DG, Swallows A, Wolff F. Capgras delusion and seizures in association with therapeutic dosages of disulfiram. South Med J. 1987;80:1577-9.
- SIva JA, Leong GB, Lesser IM, Boone KB. Bilateral cerebral pathology and the genesis of delusional misidentification. Can J Psychiatry. 1995;40:498-9.
- Devinsky O. Delusional misidentifications and duplications Right brain lesions, left brain delusions. Neurology. 2009;72: 80-7
- Joseph AB, O'Leary DH, Wheeler HG. Bilateral atrophy of the frontal and temporal lobes in schizophrenic patients with Capgras syndrome: a case-control study using computed tomography. J Clin Psychiatry. 1990;51:322-5.
- Mentis MJ, Weinstein EA, Horwitz B, McIntosh AR, Pietrini P, Alexander GE, et al. Abnormal brain glucose metabolism in the delusional misidentification syndromes: a positron emission tomography study in Alzheimer disease. Biol Psychiatry. 1995;38:438-49.
- Bourget D, Whitehurst L. Capgras syndrome: a review of the neurophysiological correlates and presenting clinical features in cases involving physical violence. Can J Psychiatry. 2004; 49:719-25.
- Joseph AB. Focal nervous system abnormalities in patients with misidentification syndromes. Biblio Psychiatr. 1986;164:68-79.
- 33. Elis HD, de Pauw KW, Christodoulou GN, Papageorgiou L, Milne AB, Joseph AB. Responses to facial and non-facial stimuli presented tachistoscopically in either or both visual fields by patients with the Capgras delusion and paranoid schizophrenics. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 1993;56:215-9.
- Vighetto A, Aimard G. Le délire spatial. Neuro-Psy. 1992;7:351 [quoted by Gil R. In: Neuropsicología. 4th ed. Barcelona: Masson; 2007]
- Bruce V, Young AW. Understanding face recognition. Br J Psychol. 1986;77:305-27.
- Lopera F. Procesamiento de caras: bases neurológicas, trastornos y evaluación. Pev Neurol. 2000;30:486-90.
- Hirstein W, Ramachandran VS. Capgras Syndrome: a Novel Probe for Understanding the Neural Representation of the Identity and Familiarity of Persons. Proc R Soc Lond B Biol Sci. 1997;264:437-44.
- Lahera Corteza G. Cognición social y delirio. Pev Asoc Esp Neuropsig. 2008;XXVIII:197-209.
- Blis HD, et al. Peduced autonomic responses to faces in Capgras delusión. Proc R Soc Lond B. 1997;264:1085-92.

100 E.N. Mercurio

 Tranel D, Damasio AR. Knowledge without awareness: an autonomic index of facial recognition by prosopagnosics. Science. 1985;228:1453-4.

- Bauer RM. Autonomic recognition of names and faces in prosopagnosia: a neuropsychological application of the guilty knowledge test. Neuropsychologia. 1984;22:457-69.
- 42. Olivares El, Iglesias Jl. Bases neurales de la percepción y el reconocimiento de caras. Rev Neurol. 2000;30:946-52.
- 43. Shah NJ, Marshall JC, Zafiris O, Schwab A, Zilles K, Markowitsch HJ, et al. The neural correlates of person familiarity. A functional magnetic resonance imaging study with clinical implications. Brain. 2001;124:804-15.
- 44. Paillère-Martinot ML, Dao-Castellana MH, Masure MC, Pillon B, Martinot JL. Delusional misidentification: a clinical,

- neuropsychological and brain imaging case study. Psychopathology. 1994;27:200-10.
- Nagahama Y, Okina T, Suzuki N, Matsuda M, et al. Neural correlates of psychotic symptoms in dementia with Lewy bodies. Brain. 2010;133:557-67.
- Mace CJ, Trimble MR. Psychosis following temporal lobe surgery: a report of six cases. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 1991;54:639-44.
- 47. Verdej o-García A, Pérez-García M, Sánchez-Barrera M, Podríguez-Fernández A, Gómez-Río M. Neuroimagen y drogodependencias: correlatos neuroanatómicos del consumo de cocaína, opiáceos, cannabis y éxtasis. Rev Neurol. 2007;44: 432-9.