



Affective reactivity of language and right-ear advantage in schizophrenia

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Abstract

A subset of schizophrenic patients has demonstrated increased language dysfunction in affectively stressful, compared to non-stressful conditions. Affective reactivity of right-ear advantage has been demonstrated in studies of dichotic listening in schizophrenia. The present study assessed whether participants who showed affective reactivity of speech were also those who showed affective reactivity of right-ear advantage. Data from 18 schizophrenic outpatients were analyzed. Affective reactivity of language was associated with affective reactivity of right-ear advantage. Findings should be regarded as preliminary due to the small sample size; however, they may potentially contribute to construct the validity of affective reactivity as a process discriminator in schizophrenia. © 2001 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

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Data accumulated from literature suggests that symptoms of schizophrenia worsen in response to stress. Evidence of symptom exacerbation associated with stressful events and negative emotions has been found in several domains of study, including the family environment, life events, psychophysiological arousal, and laboratory induction of negative affect (for review, see Docherty, 1996).

Several studies have demonstrated that a subset of schizophrenia patients show increased language dysfunction in emotionally stressful, compared to non-stressful conditions. Docherty et al. (1994) interviewed patients to elicit two 10-minute speech samples, one in which they were asked to speak about past stressful life events, the other in which they were asked to describe past pleasant life events.

Speech in the stressful condition was found to contain more disordered language than in the non-stressful condition. The level of language disturbance correlated positively with the severity of positive, but not negative symptoms. The degree to which language disturbance reacted to the stressful condition also correlated positively with the severity of positive symptoms. Furthermore, Docherty et al. (1996) found increased language disturbance in the stressful condition in patients with a family history of schizophrenia, but not in those without such a family history. This group of findings represents evidence of an affect-reactive subtype within schizophrenia (Docherty, 1996). The affect-reactive subtype apparently tends to show more severe positive symptomatology than the affect-non-reactive subtype, and may represent a more familial, heritable form of the illness.

Schizophrenia patients have shown abnormality of perceptual asymmetry in dichotic listening studies.

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97 Patients fail to show the normal level of right-ear
98 advantage (REA) for processing verbal stimuli on
99 dichotic-listening tasks (Wexler et al., 1991; Bruder
100 et al., 1995). Grosh et al. (1994) found that schizo-
101 phrenia patients as well as their non-schizophrenic
102 parents showed abnormally low REA, but the
103 patients and not their parents showed further
104 decreases in REA when emotionally negative
105 compared to when positive words were used as
106 the dichotic stimuli.

107 Diminished REA on dichotic tasks in schizophrenia
108 is presumed to reflect compromised left hemisphere
109 functioning during processing of verbal auditory
110 stimuli. The left hemisphere is specialized for proces-
111 sing language-related stimuli in more than 90% of
112 right-handed individuals (Wexler et al., 1991). In
113 non-patients, REA is thought to exist due to a more
114 direct path of processing of verbal stimuli from the
115 right ear.

116 If diminished REA for schizophrenic patients
117 results from left-hemisphere deactivation, and if
118 further decreases in REA in the negative-word dichot-
119 ic tests among these patients then represent further
120 left-hemisphere deactivation, findings from dichotic
121 listening studies may credibly be related to findings
122 from studies of affective reactivity of language.
123 Language anomalies have been shown to increase in
124 schizophrenic patients when they are asked to discuss
125 negative memories (Docherty et al., 1994); it is possi-
126 ble that this effect is due to further deactivation of the
127 (already abnormally deactivated) language-specia-
128 lized left hemisphere, because of the negative valence
129 of the conversation. If only those patients who show
130 increased language fragmentation when discussing
131 negative topics were to be shown also to have further
132 diminished REAs on the negative-word dichotic tests,
133 a left-hemisphere deactivation model of language
134 disorder would be supported.

135 If affective reactivity represents a subgrouping, or a
136 dimension of psychopathology in schizophrenia, the
137 same patients should show affective reactivity across
138 those measures of performance that have been shown
139 to be affect-reactive. In the present study, we have
140 attempted to correlate two such performance
141 measures, discussed previously herein: if those
142 patients, and only those patients, who show affective
143 reactivity of language were also to show affective
144 reactivity of perceptual asymmetry on dichotic tests,

145 such a finding would be consistent with a conceptua-
146 lization of affective reactivity as a process
147 discriminator.

148 In the present study, we hypothesized first that
149 patients as a group would show affective reactivity
150 of language; that is, they would show a greater degree
151 of thought disorder in the stressful compared to the
152 non-stressful speech sample. Secondly, we hypothe-
153 sized that patients who showed affective reactivity of
154 language would show greater reactivity of perceptual
155 asymmetry than patients who did not show affective
156 reactivity of language.

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1. Method

1.1. Participants

Participants for the present study ($N = 18$) had all
been participants in a larger study of reactivity of
speech (Docherty and Hebert, 1997). They included
15 males and three females aged 19–44 years
($M = 31.5$, $SD = 6.0$); ages of first hospitalization
were 14–34 years ($M = 20.7$, $SD = 4.6$). All partici-
pants met the criteria of *Diagnostic and Statistical
Manual of Mental Disorders* (fourth edition; *DSM-
IV*; American Psychiatric Association, 1987) for
schizophrenia but not mental retardation. Patients
carrying a current diagnosis of substance abuse were
excluded; patients with a history of head trauma or
other previous neurological injury or illness were like-
wise excluded. All had been outpatients for at least
three months and had Global Assessment of Function-
ing scores greater than 35 (GAF; American Psychia-
tric Association, 1987). GAF scores ranged 35–65
($M = 47$, $SD = 8.02$). Participants had completed
8–14 years of education ($M = 11.33$, $SD = 2.02$).
Seven participants were African–American, nine
were European–American, and two were Hispanic.
All were assessed using the Schedule for Affective
Disorders and Schizophrenia — Lifetime Version
(SADS-L; Spitzer et al., 1978), by a clinical psychol-
ogist with extensive research diagnostic expertise. All
participants were right-handed. All participants were
on psychotropic medications, including typical anti-
psychotics ($n = 16$), atypical antipsychotics ($n = 2$),
anticholinergics ($n = 10$), mood stabilizers ($n = 7$),
and antidepressants ($n = 4$).

1.2. Procedure

1.2.1. Speech samples

Participants provided three 10-minute speech samples, which were audiotaped. The first sample, intended to familiarize participants with the task, concerned interests and everyday activities, and was not included in the analyses. For the second and third samples, participants were asked to speak about the past negative stressful life events on one occasion, and positive, non-stressful events on the other. The order of the negative and positive speech samples was counterbalanced. These two speech samples were collected on separate days. The interviewer spoke minimally as needed to keep participants talking, or to return them to the designated topics. The two speech samples differed only in the affective content elicited by the interviewer. Speech samples were transcribed and rated using a measure of language disturbance.

1.2.2. Language measure

Speech samples were rated for derailment, tangentiality, distractible speech, illogicality, and incoherence using the thought, language, and communication scales (TLC; Andreasen, 1986). Scale scores were summed to yield a global language disturbance score, for each subject in each affective condition. All samples were coded by a single rater trained in the method. A second rater independently rated 20% of the speech samples. Interrater reliability for summed TLC scale scores was assessed and found to be quite good ($ICC = 0.87$).

1.2.3. Affective reactivity of speech

Language scores in the non-stressful condition were subtracted from scores in the stressful condition for each subject, yielding scores of affective reactivity. Reactivity scores did not correlate with baseline thought disorder scores ($r = -0.05$, n.s.).

1.2.4. Dichotic tests

The fused paired words dichotic listening task (Wexler and Halwes, 1983) was employed as a measure of laterality of processing of verbal auditory stimuli. Subjects were administered four consecutive dichotic tests in a single session, order counterbalanced, with a 2–5 min break between tests.

Of the four tests administered, two are relevant to

the present study. The positive/neutral and negative/neutral tests each consist of 11 pairs of single-syllable words; each pair differs only in the initial consonant. One word of each pair in the positive/neutral test had been rated by a group of normal young adults as having a positive emotional valence, while the other was rated as emotionally neutral (e.g. hug-tug). In the negative/neutral test, one word was rated as emotionally negative in the valence, and the other as neutral (e.g. kill-till). Participants' hearing was tested with an audiometer prior to dichotic trials. The functional integrity of each ear was also demonstrated with monaural presentation of each stimulus prior to the administration of each test. Each word pair was then presented eight times, counterbalanced for side of presentation, for a total of 88 trials for each test, or 176 trials for both tests. Subjects indicated the word they had heard by circling the word on answer sheets. Each line of the answer sheet contained four choices: two words from the stimulus pair and two other words differing from the stimulus pair by only the initial consonant. The REA, calculated for each subject on each test, was the number of correct right-ear responses minus the number of correct left-ear responses, divided by the sum of the two: $(R - L) / (R + L)$.

1.2.5. Analyses

Paired *t*-tests were conducted to establish whether the language ratings differed between affective conditions. Patients were classified as affectively reactive or non-reactive. To test the hypothesis that patients who show affective reactivity of language in the speech samples also show affective reactivity of REA in the dichotic tests, a two-way (group X dichotic task) repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted comparing language-reactive versus language non-reactive participants, with the two dichotic tasks (negative/neutral and positive/neutral, respectively) as the repeated measures and REA as the dependent variable. All tests of significance were two-tailed.

2. Results

Mean and standard deviations of language ratings and REA scores are summarized in Table 1. The

Table 1

Mean and standard deviations of language ratings and REA scores (TLC: thought, language and communication disorder scales; REA: right-ear advantage; +ol: including the outlier; –ol: excluding the outlier)

	TLC		REA	
	Non-stress	Stress	Positive-word	Negative-word
+ ol	2.11±2.78	3.22±3.33	–0.02±0.20	–0.09±0.24
–ol:	1.90±2.70	2.90±3.10	0.02±0.10	–0.05±0.16

outlying REA scores of one participant were excluded from the results and analysis.

2.1. Reactivity of speech

Paired *t*-tests were computed comparing TLC scores in the stressful and non-stressful speech samples. As predicted, patients showed affective reactivity of language using the TLC scales; that is, thought disorder scores were higher in the stressful compared to the non-stressful condition ($t[17] = 2.4$, $p < 0.03$).

2.1.1. Assignment of language reactivity

Participants were divided into an affectively reactive and a non-reactive group based on changes in TLC scores between affective conditions; a subject was classed as affect-reactive if she/he scored 2.0 or more points higher on the TLC in the stressful condition (negative topic speech sample), compared to the non-stressful condition (positive, non-stressful topic sample). A change of 2.0 points indicates a substantial increase on one TLC subscale (e.g. from mild to marked), or a slight increase (e.g. from mild to moderate) in each of the two subscales. By this criterion, five of 18 patients were defined as affectively reactive. The groups did not differ significantly in dosages of antipsychotic medications (that is, they did not differ in chlorpromazine equivalent dosages, $t[10] = -1.5$, $p = 0.16$, n.s.). They also did not differ in proportions of each group on other medications thought to influence cognition. Of these, the largest proportional difference was in the number of patients on anticholinergics; the latter did not differ significantly (chi-squared ($df = 1$) = 1.68, $p = 0.20$, n.s.).

2.2. Interaction between reactivity of speech and REA

A two-way (TLC affect-reactive/affect-non-

reactive X REA affective condition) repeated-measures ANOVA was computed, with REA affective condition as the repeated measure, and REA scores as the dependent variable. This analysis compared changes in REA across affective condition, in patients whose speech was affect-reactive versus patients whose speech was not affect-reactive. The participant with the outlying REA scores was excluded from the analysis, leaving four of 17 patients in the TLC affect-reactive group (note that results were similar and significant when the outlier was included).

As predicted, a main effect was demonstrated for affective valence of dichotic tests; patients showed lower REA scores on the negative-word tests than on the positive-word tests ($F[1,15] = 8.1$; $p < 0.02$). No main effect emerged for affective reactivity; that is, patients who were classed as TLC affect-reactive did not have different REAs across conditions than those who did not show TLC reactivity ($F[1,15] = 2.0$; $p = 0.18$). In accordance with our hypothesis, an interaction between reactivity of language and reactivity of perceptual asymmetry emerged, with patients who showed reactivity of language also showing significantly more reactivity of REA on the dichotic tests ($F[1,15] = 7.9$; $p < 0.02$). This analysis is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

REA in TLC affect-reactive versus affect-non-reactive patients on affectively positive versus negative dichotic tests (Main effect of group: $F = 2.02$ (n.s.); $p = 0.18$). Main effect of condition: $F = 8.07$ ($p < 0.02$). Interaction effect: $F = 7.86$ ($p < 0.02$)

Group	Affective condition		
	Positive	Negative	Total
TLC reactive	0.02±0.06	–0.19±0.16	–0.08±0.01
TLC non-reactive	0.03±0.11	–0.01±0.15	0.01±0.12
Total	0.02±0.10	–0.05±0.16	–0.01±0.12

385 Post-hoc analyses were conducted to assess the differ- 433
386 ences between groups in each dichotic condition; one- 434
387 way ANOVAs were non-significant ($F[1,15] = 01$; 435
388 $p = 0.93$) for the positive-word test, and fell just 436
389 short of significance ($F[1,15] = 4.44$; $p = 0.05$) for 437
390 the negative-word test. 438

391 3. Discussion 439

392 Consistent with previous findings, patients as a 440
393 group showed affective reactivity of language on the 441
394 TLC, and affective reactivity of REA on the dichotic 442
395 tasks. Patients who showed affective reactivity of 443
396 speech on the TLC also showed greater affective 444
397 reactivity of REA on the dichotic tests. Post-hoc 445
398 analyses revealed that the significant interaction was 446
399 due almost entirely to the difference between the 447
400 affect-reactive and affect-non-reactive groups in the 448
401 negative dichotic test, rather than the positive-dichotic 449
402 test. This finding contributes to the construct validity 450
403 of affective reactivity, since the affect-reactive 451
404 patients significantly corresponded between two 452
405 measures that have been shown independently to be 453
406 affect-reactive. 454

407 Decreased REA has been found in schizophrenia 455
408 patients across studies (Wexler et al., 1991), and is 456
409 presumably related in some way to schizophrenic 457
410 pathophysiology. REA has been demonstrated to 458
411 decrease further in response to affectively negative 459
412 stimuli (Grosh et al., 1994), and, in the present 460
413 study, to do so mainly in people who show stress- 461
414 related increases in language dysfunction. Therefore, 462
415 it is possible that the decreased REA scores in the 463
416 negative dichotic test reflect a change in laterality of 464
417 processing of language that underlies the increased 465
418 language dysfunction demonstrated in the stressful 466
419 speech samples. Future studies could further bolster 467
420 the construct validity of affective reactivity by exam- 468
421 ining whether performance on potentially language- 469
422 related cognitive tasks, such as those which involve 470
423 attention, working memory, and executive functions, 471
424 show affective reactivity, and whether patients who 472
425 show such reactivity tend to be the same who show 473
426 reactivity of language and REA. Reliably identifying 474
427 such a subgroup of schizophrenia patients, who show 475
428 increased language dysfunction and language-related 476
429 cognitive deficits in stressful situations and in 477
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433 response to negative affective stimuli, would amount 434
435 to the isolation of a process discriminator within the 436
437 illness. 438

439 Several shortcomings of the present study limit the 440
441 interpretability of its findings. First, the sample size 442
443 was small. Of 18 participants, only five showed affect- 444
445 ive reactivity of language; findings are thus to be 446
447 regarded as preliminary. Secondly, the sample 448
449 contained few female patients; findings may not 450
451 generalize to women. Thirdly, only schizophrenia 452
453 patients were included in the sample; hence, the 454
455 study did not address the question of diagnostic speci- 456
457 ficity of the phenomena explored. It is possible, for 458
459 instance, that bipolar manic patients, or even subjects 460
461 without a psychiatric illness would show a similar 461
462 correspondence between affective reactivity of 462
463 language and REA. 463

464 In conclusion, this study explored individual differ- 465
466 ences in response to negative affect among schizo- 466
467 phrenia patients. An association was found between 467
468 the two forms of affective reactivity examined, those 468
469 influencing language disorder and those affecting 469
470 perceptual asymmetry. Findings of the present study 470
471 should be regarded as preliminary and interpreted 471
472 with caution due to the small number of participants 472
473 in the study sample. A future study with a larger 473
474 sample, including both psychiatric and non-patient 474
475 controls, could strengthen the present findings and 475
476 begin to address some of the questions raised pertain- 476
477 ing to the import of those findings. 477

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