## Kamalish

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This Dissertation submitted as part fulfilment for the Final Year M.Sc., (Speech and Hearing), submitted to the University of Mysore, Mysore.

DEDICATED
T0
MY GRANDPARENTS
WHO LAID THE FOUNDATION
FOR WHAT I AM TODAY

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All my subjects, $I$ enjoyed spending sometime with you and thanks for your cooperation and friendliness.

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The Lord Almightly - with a great faith you I understood that,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "As one of a thousand I may just fail, } \\
& \text { But as one, plus God, I am sure to win. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that this Dissertation entitled : PRAGMATICS IN THE RIGHT HEMIPSHERE DAMAGED is the bonafide work in part fulfilment for the degree of Master of science (Speech and Hearing) of the student with Register No.M9711.

Mysore
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This is to certify that this Dissertation entitled : PRAGMATICS IN THE RIGHT HEMISPHERE DAMAGED Has been prepared under my supervision and guidance.

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## DECLARATION

This Dissertation entitled $:$ PRAGMATICS IN THE RIGHT
HEMIPSHERE DAMAGED is the result of my own study under the
guidance of Dr.Shyamala, K.C. Reader in Speech Pathology,
All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore and has not
been submitted earlier at any University for any other
diploma or degree.

Mysore
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## INTRODUCTION

After hesitating for many centuries between Aristotle and Hippocrates, between the heart and the brain (and thereafter, between the cavities of the brain and its substance), science finally convinced itself that language and other cognitive activities were based in the convolutions of the brain, along with some of the subcortical structures. After the regularity of the brain's convolutions was finally discovered and coupled with the conviction that the different aspects of human activities could be conceived atomistically, the essence of modern neuropsychology was laid down through one of the first of a series of excesses, the phrenological approach. Franz Joseph Gall, his pupils, and his colleagues thus proposed in the early $19 t h$ century a notion that stil lies at the core of modern conceptions about the neurobiological bases of intellectual activities, namely, that discrete components of the brain are responsible for discrete components of what we now call cognitive functions. But for all those centuries whatever the conceptions proposed, both halves of the brain- or of the heart! -were thought to contribute equally. No distinction was made whatsoever between the relative contributions of the right and the left hemispheres to an individual's cognitive functions.

However, at the same time that phrenological proposals were being popularised in northern France, a clever and observant surgeon in southern France came to some clinical conclusions that would change the way both hemispheres would be regarded. This surgeon was Marc Dax. From 1800 to 1834 he had to treat a series of patients who had lost the ability to speak after suffering brain lesions (some of them from saber blows). In a paper given in Montpelier in 1836, Dax first presented the principle that the brain's hemispheres make asymmetrical contributions to language. Even though Dax's claim was never published in his lifetime, it was the origin of modern conceptions about the brain's asymmetry vis-a-vis langauge functions. According to Ombredane (1951), it was the discussions around the official recognition of Marc Dax's paper by the Academie de medecine de Paris that forced Broca to take his position. Approximately three weeks after Dax's paper was authenticated in May 1865, Broca popularised the asymmetry concept on June 5, 1865, in an address to the Societe d' anthropoIogie in Paris.

The essence of Dax's oral and Broca's written contributions is that articulated langage is essentially a product of the left hemisphere. Although most of those who refer to this period insist that the privileged role of the
teft hemisphere for language was thus unveiled, it must be realised that it was not the rote but its privileged status those was new; in part, Dax and Broca simply restated the teft hemipshere's long-known contribution to tanguage. The real revolution was that the right hemipshere lost its presumed contribution to tanguage. Thus, the end of the $19 t h$ century should be remembered as the period during which the right hemipshere tost its postutated contribution to language whereas the teft hemipshere kept its presumed abiiities. For nearly a century researchers woutd deny the right hemisphere any role in tanguage functions, the few exceptions being some sporadic and ill-received contributions, such as those of Hughlings Jackson (1879).

The right hemisphere btackout in tanguage functions tasted until the mid-20th century. At that point, some other trailblazing clinicians, as clever and observant as Dax had been, suggested that right hemisphere lesions, although usually not the origin of an aphasia proper, nonetheless could cause limitations in right handed patient's communicating abitities. Pioneers such as Mac Donald Critchtey (1962), Jon Eisenson (1962) and Ed Weinstein (1964) thus came up with the notion that an acquired right hemisphere lesion could produce communication problems. The terms delineating those problems were clumsy, though, such as

Eisenson's (1962) notion of the "super-ordinary "aspects of language. Nonetheless, the right hemisphere was more and more suspected of having some capacities for some aspects of verbal processing. Thus, a century after this exclusion and only some 30 years ago, the right hemisphere was again recognized as play in a role in language.

|  | It is now wet) known than an acquired lesion to a |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | nondominant right hemisphere, though not responsible for an |
|  | aphasia, can be at the root of some impairments in the |
|  | ability to communicate. Apart from those at the prosodic |
|  | level, impairments have been reported potentially to involve |
|  | the prosodic level, the processing of the semantic aspects of |
|  | words and text level abilities, as well as the adequacy |
|  | between language and context (Code, 1987; Joanette, Goulet |
|  | and Hannequin, 1990; Myers, 1984, 1986). Most of the |
|  | conceptual frameworks needed to describe these problems were |
|  | not available when the term aphasia was coined, which |
|  | probably explains why the impairments were not recognized as |
|  | aphasic. |

As we near the down of the 21 st century the left hemisphere is conceived to be necessary but not sufficient for normal communication ability. Numerous studies and
clinical reports have clearly demonstrated that the integrity of the right hemisphere is also needed. The question now is to identify clearly the components of communication for which the integrity of the right hemisphere is needed.

Now there is general acceptance of the notion that both cerebral hemispheres perform specialized functions. However, as complementary hemispheric specialization (Milner, 1980) gained increasing acceptance, the countervailing notion also gained voice-that the right hemisphere, being nonverbal, would therefore be mentally primitive. While the right hemisphere appears resolutely unburdened by phonological or syntactic structure, it does contain rich lexical networks differing in structural organization from the left hemipshere lexicon (Drews, 1987; Richards and Chiarello, 1997; Zaiclel, 1977). Whether the right hemisphere cues "speaks" remains a question as unsettled as it is important (Code, 1997). Meanwhile, study of right hemisphere abilities continues to expand using various methodologies, including patients with lateralized lesions (Brownell, Pincus, Blum, Rehak and Winner, 19 ; Pell and Baum, 1997), lateralized presentation (Corballis, 1997; Richards and Chiarello, 1997), and lateralised read-out (Sinos, Molfese and Brendon, 1997).

Facial perception has been extenstvety studied from many points of view, using at! the methods mentioned above. Perception of faces, with its quallties of pattern recognition, remoteness from verba) function, and its familiarity dimension became a popular topic (Hecaen and Angetugues, 1962; Benton and Van Allen, 1968; Assal, 1969; Whiteley and Warrington, 1977 Damasio, Damasio and Van Hoesen, 1982; Malone, Morris, Kay and Levin, 1982; Ellis, 1983; DeRenzi, 1986; Regard and Landis, 1988). Visuospatial processing as a spciality of the right hemisphere has developed to include personal topography (Landis, Cummings, Benson and Palmer, 1986 ), visual organization, scanning (Beumont and Davidoff, 1992), visuoconsruction and mental rotation (Corballis, 1997).

For a long time, whatever abilities were increaslngly attributed to the right hemisphere, the left hemisphere was still seen as "leading" the more "active" of the two. In this view, the teft hemisphere produces verbal and motor output, subserving, as it does, speech and praxis (Heilman, 1979), whereas the "minor" hemisphere's work was often thought to be retatively passive (excepting a notion of "manipulo-spatial" abitities, Bogen and Gazzaniga, 1965; LeDoux, Wilson and Gazzaniga, 1977). Even that difference is
blurring. Most recent observations in prosodic behavior (Pell and Baum, 1997), action patterns (Richards and Chiarello, 1997), communicative pragmatics (Brownell, Pincus, Blum, Rehak and Winner, 1997) and speech (Code, 1997) clearly attribute to the right hemisphere a more active role.


In audition research, prosody is the laterality topic of the moment. Claims for affective-prosodic information intonation in speech signaling emotion states - have been amply staked out in right hemisphere domains (Heilman, Scholes and Watson, 1975; Ross, 1980; Van Lancker, 1980). Further, given a new focus on the right hemisphere as
processor of emotions, it became apparent that normal prosodic performance probably has various psychological explanations - in that prosodic cues involve pitch, auditory patterns, and emotional meanings (Scherer, 1986), as well as multiple cerebral sources.

As mentioned above, by the 1980 s , there was considerable evidence that emotional experiencing might have greater representation in the right hemisphere, manifest in several modalities, including lexical, prosodic, facial and gestural processing (Wechsler, 1973; Cicone, Wapner and Gardner, 1980; Bear, 1983; Bryden and Ley, 1983; Ten Houten, Hoppe, Bogen and Walter, 1986; Borod, 1992, 1993; Bowers, Bauer and Heilman, 1993), with as yet unsettled questions about lateralization corresponding with negative and positive emotion (Gianotti, 1972; Sackeim, Greenberg, Weiman, Gur, Hungerbubler and Geschwind, 1982; Davidson and Tomarken, 1989). Possibly, related to lateralized affective disorders (Galin, 1974; Heilman, Watsen and Bowers, 1983; Robinson, Kubas, Starr, Rao and Price, 1984; Cummings, 1985, 1997; Bruder, Quitkin, Stewart, Martin, Voglmaier and Harrison, 1989). In the affective realm, there are reported preference and aesthetic judgements between the hemispheres (Regard and Landis, 1986, 1989).


#### Abstract

Another recent observation is the involvement of familiarity processing or personal relevance (Sperry, Zaidel and Zaidel, 1979; Wallace and Canter, 1985; Van Lancker, 1991) in behavioural deficits associated with right hemisphere dysfunction. Such problems are seldom seen in left hemisphere damage. Examples are prosopagnosia (Damasio, 1985) phonagnosia (Van Laucker and Canter, 1982; Van Lancker and Kreiman, 1987), the set of misidentification delusions including Capgras syndrome (Staton, Brumback and Wilson, 1982; Ellis, 1984), and topographicat agnosia (Landis et al., 1986).


Currently, perhaps the most richly mined cache of right hemisphere function is the use of language in communicative contexts - the field of pragmatics. Here we refer not to phonemes or grammar, but to the subtler, crucial interstitial knowledge used to connect sentences, infer meanings, follow conversation, appreciate irony, recognize metaphor, and comprehend discourse. Deficits following right hemisphere damage have involved nonliteral language (Winner and Gardner, 1977 Van Lancker and Kempler, 1987; Van Lancker, 1988, 1990), theme and topic maintenance, humor, context retevance and inference (Brownell, Pincus, Blum, Rehak and Winner, 1997; Gardner, Brownll, Wapner and Michelow, 1983; Brownell,

Potter, Bihrle and Gardner, 1986; Molloy, Brownell and Gardner, 1990). With this approach, studies of right hemisphere function merge with sociolinguistic (Rommetveit, 1974), psychological (Kernan, Mac Winney and Mayhow, 1977), and philosophical (Grice, 1975; Brownell and Martino, 1997).

NEED FOR THE STUDY

The 1980s have been the decade of pragmatics. There has, of course, long been an interest in the function of language as well as the structure of language, but it has been in the last fifteen years of so that we have seen the widespread influence of the area of pragmatics. Studies have indicated that many of the communicative consequences of RHD can be captured under the rubric of pragmatics (Joanette, et al. 1990; Myers, 1986; Tompkins, 1990, 1994).

This is a much needed endeavor, because the right hemisphere damaged patient may have troublesome communicative deficits despite fully intact "language" (phonology, syntax and lexical semantics) function. Besides aiding the patient, identifying these deficits helps family members cope with what otherwise may seem to be uncooperativeness or willfully aversive behavior.

Very few tndian studies have been carried out in this respect.

Thus, this study is warranted to study the communicative impairment with reference to pragmatics present in the RHD population and the trend seen in the Indian patients.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE


#### Abstract

Research over the last century has revealed that the two sides of the brain, despite their morphological similarity, differ markedly in function. These differences, moreover, appear more and more fundamental as more data are reported.


The original observation that loss of speech was associated with damage to the left side of the brain (Broca, 1865) led to the hypothesis that the test hemisphere (LH) was "dominant" not only for language but for most other higher functions as well (Giannitrapain, 1967). Of course, research since then, and especially in the last decade, has confirmed the Broca-Dax hypothesis many times over in a variety of ways. Moreover, this research has in recent years addressed itself to more complex questions, namely whether the $L H$ is specialized for the language faculty as a whole, some subpart of language, or for mental abilities used in nonlinguistic cognition as well as language.

Knowledge of the properties of "the other side of the brain" (Bogen, 1969a) has emerged somewhat later, and it is only in relatively recent years, that researchers have appreciated the special role that the right hemisphere (RH) may be playing with respect to language.

During the ninteenth century the idea arose that each cerebral hemisphere controlled different functions. Hughlings Jackson (1865) first drew attention to the contribution of the $R H$ to linguistic performance, suggesting that it might mediate the less propositional, more automatic aspects of language, such as emotional utterances.

Since that time, effort in the area of RHD communication deficits has been devoted largely to an exploration of the signs and symptoms themselves, and much has been learned in the process.

We are now in a position to acknowledge that the two cerebral hemispheres of the brain enjoy a relationship of complementary specialization (Turber, 1974; Milner, 1980).

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

Damage to neural tissue in the RH arises from the same array of neuropathologies that can result in LHD i.e. cerebrovascular accident, tumor, head trauma, and various other disease processes. Stroke is the leading cause, but relatively focal symptoms can be associated with tumors and
some cases of TBI as well. CVA is distributed fairly equally between the $R H$ and $L H$ of the brain.

Although investigators now make an effort to be more specific in reporting site of lesion in RHDs, much less is known about localization of function in the $R H$ than in the LH. In the past it was customary to attribute non-dominant functions to the RH or "minor" hemisphere without specifying site of function. Finally, the RH is thought to be more diffusely organized than the $L H$ so that the distribution of function is more widespread and less focal than in the LH (Goldberg and Costa, 1981; Semmes, 1968).

Table 1: Summarizes the presumed localization of function of the $R H$ sensory, perceptual, and cognitive deficits that affect communicative ability in RHD patients.

| Impa i rment | Presumed localization in the RH |
| :---: | :---: |
| ```Left-sided neglect; i mpairment in directed attention``` | ```Reticular activating system, cingulate gyrus, frontal eye fields, and/or dorsolatral parietal cortex (Mesulam, 1981).``` |
| Acute confusional states, including delusions and hallucinations | Posterior parietal cortex (Lavine and Finkelstein, 1982; Mesulam, 1985), frontotemporal cortex (Lavine, 1984), Prefrontal cortex (Mesulam, 1985). |
| Prosopagnosia | ```Occipito-temporal cortex confined to the RH (DeRenzi, 1986; Meadows, 1974; Landis, et al. 1986); bilateral occipito- temporal cortex (Mendows, 1974; Damasio et al . 1985; Damasio, 1985).``` |
| Reduplicative paramnesia | ```Frontal cortex (Benson, et al. 1976) Perietal cortex (Fisher, 1982), Frontoparietal cortex (Ruff and Volpe, 1981)``` |
| Topographic disorientation | Occipito-parietal cortex (Meadows, 1974; Ruff and Volpe, 1981) . |
| Impaired prosodic comprehension | ```Parietal and/or temporoparietal cortex (Heilman et al. 1984; Ross, 1981, 1985)``` |
| Impaired prosodic production | Frontal cortex (Ross, 1981, 1985) |

Table-1: Presumed Localization of Selected RH Impairment.
Aside from prosodic disturbances, communicative
impairments are not included in the table since almost
nothing is known about their localization. Based on
hypothesis about left side neglect, one can specutate, however, that like negtect, failure to use and respond to significant contextuat cues during communicative events may be differentially affected by anterior and posterior lesions. Frontal areas may contribute to the search for relevant cues while posterior regions may contribute to their recognition as significant.

EPIDEMIOLOGIC OVERVIEW

Although we know little about the epidemiology of RBD per se, perhaps we can extrapolate from existing data about stroke in general. Mlcoch and Metter (1994) summarize relevant epidemiologic data. They note an annual incidence in North America of about one to two people per 1,000 people, each year in the $U S$, stroke leaves more than 250,000 people with permanent disability. At anyone time, about six of every 1,000 people are living with the consequences of stroke.

THE RIGHT HEMISPHERE'S CONTRIBUTION TO COMMUNICATION

RHD patients remind us that language is only one aspect of communication. Despite adequate linguistic skills, they are poor communicators.


Linguistic Deficits : May include mild problems in:
Confrontation naming
Word fluency
Body part naming
Auditory comprehension of complex material
Oral sentence reading
Writing :Grapheme substitutions, omissions.
Nonlinguistic Deficits : May include :
Left sided neglect
Directed attention to the left side of space
Recognition of stimulus significance.
Maintaining form in and including left sided detail
in visuo constructive tasks.
Awareness of midline and kinesthetic sense of body position.
Anosognosia - recognizing physical limitations and impaired
body as ones own.
Deni a l of illness.

Visuospatial deficits
Figure ground, figure integration, figure completion tasks.
Detecting the directionality and orientation of lines.
MentaI rotation.
Visual recall of form.
Impaired contextual processing and impaired visual
associations
Prosopagnosia
Reduplicative paramnesia - geographic disorientation. Topological disorientation.

Extra linguistic Deficits : May include problems in : Distinguishing between significant and irrelevant contextual cues.
Integrating pictured and verbal story elements into a theme. Interpreting implicit or intended meaning.
Grasping the figurative meaning of metaphor and idiomatic expression.
Over-personalization of external events.
Organizing information into an appropriate hierarchy. Topic maintenance.
Demonstrating sensitivity to the communicative situation.
Impulsivity of response.
Recognizing the emotional valence of ongoing events. Interpreting and producing affective facial expression. Interpreting and producing the prosodic features of verbal messages.

Table 2: Communication Deficits Associated with RHImpairment.


#### Abstract

When they exist, pure linguistic deficits are usually mild and by themselves, represent the least of the patients communication problems. The patient may suffer or appear to suffer from word finding problems and mild comprehension difficulty.


The heart of the person's communication disorder is in the nonlinguistic area where specific attentional and perceptual deficits interfere with the recognition of salient cues, the integration of those cues into a meaningful pattern, and the ability to adequately interpret implied or implicit meaning. The deficits manifest themselves in the extralinguistic aspects of communication.

Deficits in the extralinguistic category are usualy the behaviours that first alert the observer to the person's communicative impairment. Essentially these deficits reflect a failure to adequately interpret cues and orize information in an efficient manner.

## NONLINGUISTIC DEFICITS

The extralinguistic impairments stem from deficits in specific types of attentional and perceptual processing with the RH appears to mediate. Behaviours associated with these nonlinguistic deficits are described below:

## ATTENTION DISORDERS

Attention is a collection of operations that forms an important mental resource allowing us to manage this information barrage, and to process and act on that which is retevant to our goals.

The integrity of the $R H$ is considered particularly critical for developing and maintaining an alert state over time (Posner and Peterson. 1990; Whitehead, 1991) also referred to as sustained attention. Thts vigitance function is important for processing high priority stimuti. It appears to depend in part on a cluster of right frontal and parietal regions (Pardo, Fox and Reichler, 1991). Patients with RHD in those areas have evidenced reduced galvanic response and heart rate response to warning signals (Heilman et at. 1985; Yokoyama, Jennings, Ackles, Hood and Bollez, 1987). Also frontal lesion (in either hemisphere) interfere with sustained performance of monotonous tasks (Wilkins, Shallice and McCarthy, 1987), unless the subject can purposefully compensate with higher level of autonomic activity.

also linked depression, in part, to a disruption of RH arousal and vigilance mechanisms (Liotti and Tucker, 1992).

RHDs can often generate compensatory effort to improve their performance in the short-term, but no one, brain damaged or not, can sustain compensatory effort for extended periods of $t$ ime.

It is common in daily life to perform two or more tasks concurrently and to alternate or divide attention between them. The ability to divide attention is a problem for patients with prefrontal lesions in either hemisphere. The ability to divide attention is also relevant for performing "high load" single tasks, such as comprehending discourse units that are grammatically complex, or that require backtracking and re-evaluation (juggling many simultaneous acts of processing and storage). To name a few, the comprehender must execute syntactic, semantic and lexical processes to represent initial propositions; hold those propositions temporarily while others are encoded and interpreted; relate them to information retrieved from context and world knowledge, inhibit information that was automatically activated, but not relevant to the unfolding interpretation, resolve ambiguities such as those entailed by polysemous words, in explicit reference, nonliteral expressions, syntactic garden paths, erroneous assumptions,
or other inconsistencies, and draw inferences or other
conclusions about the integrated textual interpretation.
Indeed RHDs often complain about keeping track of lenghthy
conversations, complicated movies, or novels with many
characters and complex plots (Tompkins, 1994 ).

To summarize briefly, the more attentional resources and the greater attentional control required for a particular activity, the more poorly RHDs will perform. But, becoming familiar and practiced with new tasks or mental operations allows people to attend to fewer aspects of then, freeing up some of their limited capacity.

VISUAL AND AUDITORY PERCEPTUAL AND RELATED FUNCTIONS

Even without significant sensory loss, RHDs may experience a variety of impaired visual functions, including visuoperceptual, visuospatial and visuomotor deficits. One may influence the other.

Disorders of Visual Function (Kolb and Whishaw, 1990)

Visuoperceptual

- Poor discrimination of complex stimuli that differ in subtle ways.
- Poor recognition of objects or other stimuli, such as faces (prosopagnosia)
- impaired colour recognition.
- impaired separation of figure and ground.
- Poor integration of stimulus constituents, and relationships among objects/pictured elements.

Visuospatial

- Difficuity localizing points in space with fixed forward gaze.
- Difficulties judging direction, distance, length, depth.
- Topographical disorientation.

Visuomotor

- Deficits in movements directed by visual stimuli.
- impaired scanning.
- Constructional impairment.

Visuat-Attentional

- Visual neglect.

Evans, Heggs, Antoun and Hodges (1995) reported a 6 year old female presenting with progressive prosopagnosi associated with selective hypo-perfusion and atroph respectively (as revealed by SPECT and MRI), of the anteric part of the right temporal lobe.

False recognition of unfamiliar faces was investigated, by Rapesak, Polster, Glisky and Comer (1996), in patients with focal RHD in order to define the neuropsychological and anatomical correlates of the recognition impairment and examine its relationship to prosopagnosia. Processing deficits in subjects with both false recognition and prosopagnosia were associated with posterior right hemisphere lesion sites and included severe face perception impairment and partial damage to face recognition units (FRUS). Prosopagnosia without false recognition was seen following near complete destruction of $\operatorname{FRUS}$, but this type of dissociation could also occur when FRUS become disconnected. The opposite dissociation, false recognition without prosopagnosia, was observed folowing right prefrontal damage. They proposed that false recognition in frontal patients results from the breakdown of strategic decision making and monitoring functions critical for determining whether $a$ face is indeed that of a familiar person or whether there is merely a resemblance to a known individual. False recognition, following prefrontal damage may also be related to confabulation, in which case familiarity or even specific identity are erroneously attributed to facial stimuli without the activation of an underlying memory representation.

RHD can result in impaired performance on a variety of facial tasks that include the perceptual discrimination and

```
delayed recognition of unfamiliar faces (Warrington and
James, 1967; Milner, 1968; DeRenzi, Faglioni and Spinnler,
1968; Benton, 1980), the estimation of age (DeRenzi, Bonacini
and Faglioni, 1989), and the interpretation of facial
expressions (DeKosky et al. 1980; Bowers et al. 1985).
```

Anatomical and neurological correlates of visuospatial neglect were studied in 53 patients with a CT-documented right hemisphere stroke by Samuelsson, Jensen, Ekholm, Naver and Blomstrand (1997). Evidence of neglect at the acute stage of stroke was strongly related to large lesions involving the middle temporal gyrus andor the temporoparietal paraventricular white matter. Comparing those patients, who recovered from neglect and those who did not, it was suggested that a simultaneous damage to the ventrothalamic system for regulation of arousal and to the neural systems mediating visual spacing, is likely to be followed by persisting neglect symptoms.

Visual agnosia is also commonly seen in the RHDs. Out of the two types of visual agnosias - apperceptive and associative, apperceptive visual agnosia is more common in RHDs wherein the analysis of perceptual properties and dimensions of known objects is affected (McCarthy and Warrington, 1990).

Disorders of Auditory Function (Kolb and Whishaw, 1990)
Audioperceptual

- Impaired perception of music (eg. loudness, harmonic structure, tonal harmony).
- Impaired discrimination of affective and linguistic prosody.

Audiospatial

- Impaired sound localization, shifting auditory signals towards the right side.
- Auditory neglect : Rare. Analogue of visual neglect, where patients ignore auditory stimuli from the side contralateral to the lesion, has been equivocally reported (Beaten and McCarthy, 1993). This may be partly due to the anatomy of the auditory systems. Both hemispheres receive input from both ears.

Auditory Agnosias

- Amusias : Inability to discriminate tones in a scale; impaired melody recall or recognition, disorders of rhythm and tempo. Rare; usually associated with right temporal lesion.
- Agnosia for sounds : Inability to identify the meaning of nonverbal sounds, such as a bird singing. Often associated with amusia and word deafness. Probably due to bilateral temporal damage.


## ANOSOGNOSIA

- Refers to lack of knowledge of disease. Generally, anosognosia is worse and more persistent after large strokes. Also, worse the hemiplegia, the greater the denial (Hier, Mandlock and Caplan, 1983).

```
The patients may overestimate their capacity for independent living and resist supervision or intervention.
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## ORIENTATION

The RHDs may be disoriented to place and time, perhaps related to perceptual deficits. Some may be disoriented to the passage of time as well. RHD can affect orientation to other people, causing difficulty recognizing even familiar faces.

MEMORY

Just and Carpenter (1995) and Tompkins (1994) reported 25 RHDs to be more limited than control subjects on a measure of working memory capacity that requires simultaneous processing and storage of spoken information. Additionally, capacity as indexed by this task, was related to individual RHDs abilities to resolve textual inconsistencies and to revise initial references in other tasks with relatively high information processing load.

Working memory limitations of this sort may also be the root of the RHDs complaint of difficulty keeping up with fast-moving conversations and complicated story plots.

INTEGRATION


Molloy, Browne II and Gardner (1990) conclude that the fundamental discourse comprehension impairment after RHD is a difficulty combining old and new information.
Myers (1986) suggests that RHDs may have trouble with
any task that requires them to detect key elements, see
relationships among them, combine them into an overall
structure, and draw relevant conclusions.
RHDs integration deficits typically have been ascribed
to problems taking in and using contextual cues, but
perception integration requires attention to features of the
stimuli themselves as well as contextual information.

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Klonoff et al. (1990) has described integration deficits in daily living under the rubric of "seeing the big picture". Families of 3 RHDs reported that the patients fastened onto small details of a discussion, without appreciating a wider perspective or another point of view.
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## PLANNING, ORGANIZATION, REASONING AND PROBLEM SOLVING

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RHDs potential difficulties with some component processes of planning, organizing, reasoning, and problem solving are :
- appreciating and generating alternatives
- perceiving relevant properties and characteristics
- focussing and sustaining attention.
- various aspects of integrating information and inferencing.
(Ashcraft, 1989; Lezak, 1983; McCarthy and Warrington, 1990; Ylvisaker and Szekeres, 1994).
These difficulties are associated with lesions in prefrontal regions of the brain, though subcortical damage can create difficulties as well.
```

Some studies proferred : Daily planning and organization tasks that may prove difficult for RHDs include record keeping activities; following sequential procedures; keeping
checklist; organizing date books; schedules and notebooks; and keeping track of personal belongings (Klonoff et al, 1998). They also have severe problems with time management.

OTHER BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS
Other behavioural deficits that may follow RHD :

- Impulsivity and disinhibition
- Distractibility
- Response delay
- Poor error recognition
- Slower rate of learning
- Difficulty switching sets
- Apparent lack of motivation
- Depress ion
- General discrepancy between "knowing" and "doing".

Overall, the cognitive and behavioural problems exhibited by RHDs can interfere with judgement and social skills, family relationships, functional living activities, and the potential to return to productive work (Klonoff, et al. 1990).

## TEXT LEVEL ABILITIES : DISCOURSE AND CONVERSATION

Discourse processing calls on complex interactions of
knowledge and mental operations that underlie daily life
interactions. Table $1-$ describes some general properties
characterizing successful discourse (Patry and Nespoulous,
1990 ).

Remote from Surface Structure


Surface Structure Elements
Cohesion Reflects continuity established through word-level semantic relations. Cohesion occurs when the interpretation of a word or phrase in a discourse unit depends on that of another in the same discourse unit. Cohesive devices are explicit linking elements like pronouns, determiners, and other lexical or syntactic forms that coreference information across phrases and sentences (Armstrong, 1991).

Intermediate with Respect to Surface Structure

## Coherence

Reflects continuity over an entire discourse unit. Coherence is concerned with semantic relations (e.g. those involved in logical sequences and cause/ effect relations) and pragmatic factors (e.g. new information should not contradict already given information, and should be relevant to what has come before). It can be overt (established directly from propositions in the text) or covert (linkages via inference and world knowledge); and local (reflecting relationships among individual propositions) or global (reflecting propositions' relation to an organizing principle or discourse theme).

Table 3: Fundamental properties of discourse and their relationship to surface structure.

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Discourse Production and RHD
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Interest in discourse production is growing rapidly, but
the evidence is hard to interpret because no two
investigators have used similar discourse models, sampling
contexts and dependent measures and few subjects. Table-4
presents some of the contrasts among those that have been
observed in the spoken discourse samples of RHD adults.

Diminished information content (propositions, t-units, episodes) versus propositional content and accuracy similar to comparable non-brain-damaged adult speakers.

Fewer words than normal (paucity) versus same number of words versus more words or more words per turn (verbosity).

Wandering from the point versus topic maintenance skills similar to those of control speakers.

Poor error monitoring in discourse versus as many successful repairs as control speakers.

Productions based on scripts, which are common scenarios like ordering a meal in a restaurant, that include tangential associations versus those that terminate prematurely.

Difficulty telling an integrated story versus producing a fully integrated story that is unrelated to the stimulus situation.

Impaired organization on story recall versus impaired memory for story schema.

Loss of connecting line (coherence errors) in narrative productions versus comparable proportions of propositions that are central to, supportive of, or distracting from the main story line.

Higher proportions of literal concepts reflecting a tendency to itemize, rather than interpret, in picture descriptions versus no differences from age peers in proportions of literal and inferential concepts produced.

Excessive detail and personalization versus "unnecessary" detail and personal comments similar in extent to those produced by normally aging speakers.

Table-4: Some contrasting findings in discourse production after RHD

Baggs and Swindell (1993): Bloom, Ferrand and Paternosto (1993); Cherney and Canter (1993); Hillis Trupe and Hillis (1985); Joanette and Goulet (1990); Kennedy et al. (1994);

Joanette and (1990) report a comprehensive analysis of narrative discourse produced by 36 RHDs and 20 normals; elicited with a novel picture sequence called "The Cowboy Story".

They analyzed formal (lexical, syntactic) aspects of the sample, content (story structure and informativeness) and elements of cohesion and coherence contributing both to form and content.

Results are summarized as:
FORMAL ASPECTS

* Percent nouns, verbs, adjectives
* verb/noun, adjective/noun ratios
+ COHESION AND COHERENCE
Cohesive errors, or errors in semantic relations between segments of narratives (eg. undetermined pronouns, inadequate lexical reiteration).

Non-progression errors : Segments do not contribute new information.

Contradiction errors : New information contradicts something previously given.

Relation errors : New information is used without being related to that specified or implied meaning.

STORY SCHEMA AND INFORMATIVENESS

* Total number of propositions in the referential portion of the narrative (excluding modalized comments that reflect subjects' comments about the task and their performance).
* Total core propositions (relatively invariant propositions given by at least $20 \%$ of either group).
* Total simple propositions (proposition having no arguement overlap with other propositions) and complex propositions (those with arguments overlapping with another proposition).
* RHD samples have fewer.
+ RHD samples more likely contain errors in $2 / m o r e$ of the areas combined, (attributable to about $1 / 2$ of the RHDs).

Another study by Frederikson and Stemoun (1993); revealed a particular difficulty constructing new conceptual representation of texts that contained information. The study is to be replicated for confirmation.

Davis, Pirozzi and Coon (1997) compared a group with RHD to neurologically intact controls regarding the referential cohesion and logical coherence of narrative production. A somewhat varied sample of six stories was obtained with tasks of cartoon-elicited story-telling and auditory oral retelling. They found deficits in the patient group with respect to referential cohesion, logical coherence, and accuracy of narration, but the occurrence of deficits depended on the condition in which narration was produced and, to some extent, on the particular story used in each condition.

Tompkins et al. (1993) analyzed connected speech samples elicited from a relatively large group of RHDs who were not selected on the basis of severity or neurobehavioural status. They studied 52 stroke patients (26 RHDs, 26 LHDs) and 26 controls. The stimuli to elicit speech sample was the

```
"cookie theft" picture. The responses were scored for
literal and interpretative context units. Results revealed
that some of the disordered behaivour ascribed to RHDs such
as high proportions of literal concepts, over
personalization, and excessive detail, did not distinguish
RHDs from LHDs or normals.
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Kennedy, Strand, Burton and Peterson (1994) studied first encounter conversations of RHD adults; with the purpose of comparing the dyadic interaction in turns between RHD and non-brain damaged (NBD). Simple conversation samples of 12 RHD and 11 NBD were analyzed. Results showed that RHDs took significantly more turns than NBD groups. They suggested that RHDs turn taking was inversely proportional to the number of words per turn and total number of turns in conversation. They used simpler topic skills of maintaining and reintroducing the topic. Also their dyadic conversation was less.

Uryase, Duffy and Liles (1991) analyzed and described narrative discourse in RHD adults, compared to neurologically normal and LHD aphasic adults; in terms of cohesion and story grammar 22 RHD, 20 neurologically normal and 12 LHD participated in the study. They found that only significantly smaller proportion of incomplete - tie cohesive markers than the LHD differentiated the two groups (which

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could be partially explained by their breivity and missing
context).
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Discourse Comprehension and RHD

Brownell (1988) notes that RHDs appear to understand less in discourse than one might predict on the basis of their intact sentence-level linguistic comprehension.
Indeed the $R H$ appears to contribute more to discourse
comprehension than to single word processing (Phelps,
Mazziotta and Huang, 1982).

The discourse comprehension problem that some RHDs exhibit appear to reflect a difficulty in synthesizing their knowledge with a specific discourse context. For ex. They may have trouble selecting a punchline that coheres with the rest of joke, even though their choice appropriately captures an element of surprise. Or they may have problems choosing pictured representations for metaphors that they can define. RHDs may also have difficulty answering questions about the more abstract or inferential aspects of narrative passages, such as those about relationships among events or characters. The extent of difficulty has been associated with education level, extent of premorbid brain atrophy and neglect (Benowitz, Moya and Levind, 1990).

Purdy, Belanger and Liles (1992) studied RHDs ability to use information within the text as well as extra linguistic information to draw inferences. They studied two groups -Group-1 consisted of 15 adults with RHD due to stroke and Group-2 had 15 normal adults. Results showed that the RHDs used more of general world knowledge in drawing appropriate situation specific inferences. Amongst explicit and inferential questions, explicit questions were easier for both RHD and normal subjects. However, RHDs overall performance was significantly poorer than normals.

Myers and Brookshire (1994) investigated the effects of visual and inferential complexity on the picture description of 24 RHD and 30 NBD adults by manipulating the visual and inferential complexity of pictured stimuli within the same task. They found that visual complexity has little effect on subject's descriptions of complex pictured words. On the other hand, inferential complexity consistently affected performance. The RHDs tended to generate fewer major concepts in all conditions than the NBD group, which suggests that RHDs are less able than NBDs to interpret and describe pictures (significantly impaired inferential accuracy and neglect scores). Therefore had more problem in context than isolated pictures, therefore show a central inference deficit (suggested by Myers, 1991).

Another study by Schmitzer, Strauss and DeMarco (1997) examined the influence of context on the interpretation of denotative and connotative meanings of homographs in RHD and NBD adults. Subjects were required to choose the meaning of homographs in linguistically unbiased ambiguous sentences and in denotatively and connotatively semantically biased narrative contexts. The NBD groups was significantly more accurate that the RHD, on the sentence and connotative narrative contexts. However, there was no significant difference between groups for the denotative narrative context. There were no significant differences between tasks contexts for the NBD group. The RHDs were significantty more accurate on the denotative narrative than the sentence context but disptayed significant difference in performance on the connotative narrative vs. sentence contexts. The findings suggested that RHD may resutt in a reduced ability to process connotative components of word meaning, that does not appear to be aided by the presence of additional semantically supportive linguistic information.

Other discourse comprehension problems have been attributed to a deficit in altering initial assumptions. RHDs even have difficulty at the single sentence level with tasks that require a shift in their initial assignment of syntactic roles for texical items (Schneiderman and Saddy, 1988).

RHDs appear to have particular difficulty indiscrepant situations when portions of the context point to competing interpretations. Ex. Situations involving literally false statements where several possible meanings may be reconciled with other contextual cues. RHDs show less ability to use context effectively (eg. Knowledge of characters relationship) to predict what a speaker intends (eg. was the statement meant as a lie, a teasing comment, or a hurtful remark?) (Kaplan et al. 1990).

Frederikson and Stemner (1993) found a problem with reconceptualizing original interpretations to reconcile seeming discrepancies (like to differentiate between a relevant and a dream). They also suggest than an abundance of inferences linked to explicit propositions, and an over use of narrative frame structure, may contribute to perceptions of tangentiality in RHDs.

Bloise and Tompkins (1992) found no group differences between RHDs and NBDs performance on questions pertaining to revised linguistic or attitudinal inferences.

DeVruse, Neri , Rubichi and Salvioli (1996) examined the issue of $R H$ participation in sentential syntax processing. A modified version of the Insertion Task of Schneiderman and Saddy (1988) was administered to 8 RHDs, 8 LHDs and 28
normals. 28 word/syntagm required role reassignment of a lexical item in the stimulus sentence (shift); 25 insertions implied only semantic reinterpretation of the sentence (Nonshift). The RHDs performed significantly worse only on the shift items. However, there was no differences between normals and RHD nonshift scores, or between the LHD and normal shift scores. Again, the RHDs scored lower than both the normals and LHDs on the Insertion Task as a whole. The findings suggest that the RH may be crucial for parallel activation processes underlying resolution of grammatical ambiguity.

Normally, an enhancement mechanism heighten the activation of information associated with a contextually relevant interpretation, and a suppression mechanism dampens activation of information that is less appropriate or relevant to the situation or discourse content. Given that RHDs comprehension problems tend to surface in incongruent conditions, with materials that require revision for successful comprehension, or in which multiple sources of information must be considered and reconciled, it is useful to investigate the efficiency of RHDs suppression and enhancement mechanisms (Tompkins, 1993).

Tompkins et al. (1997) studied 19 RHDs and 15 controls who listened to sentences that ended in lexical ambiguities.


RHDs are sometimes able to infer from, and profit from, contextual information (eg. semantic or emotional contexts, explicit themes, internal discourse consistency or redundancy), particularly in conditions that limit demands of attentional or working memory resources. And, they can draw some inference revisions when attentional demands are reduced (Tompkins, 1990, 1991; Tompkins, et al. 1992, 1994).

Conversational Behaviour
One preliminary effort examining spontaneous conversations with familiar partners (Prutting and Kirchner, 19987) found the majority of the 30 pragmatic skills investigated to be appropriately used by a group of 10 RHDs. About $1 / 2$ of the RHDs were judged inappropriate in eye gaze, prosodic pattern and variation, turn-taking contingency, turn-taking adjacency, and quantity/conciseness. Parameters such as topic selection, topic introduction, topic change, other turn taking variables, and cohension were noted to the deficient for 2 of the 10 subjects.

The sentence verbs biased ambiguity interpretation. Probe words, representing unbiased meanings of the ambiguities, were presented for rapid judgements of their fit with the sentences. In rejecting probe words, both groups showed interference from unbiased meanings of the ambiguities at a short (175 ms) probe interval. Only RHDs demonstrated interference 1000 ms after sentence offset, indicating that they suppressed contextually inappropriate meanings less effectively than controls.

Despite their deficits, RHDs do exhibit some strengths in discourse comprehension :

- They understand main ideas in narrative paragraphs better than details (Brookshire and Nicholas, 1984).
- They comprehend explicit information, especially when it is salient or important better than implied meaning (Brookshire and Nicholas, 1984).
- They benefit when provided with thematic information at the beginning of a narrative paragraph (Hough, 1990).
- They also demonstrate knowledge of the essential elements of common scripts (Roman, Brownell, Potter, Seibold and Gardner, 1987) and of metaphoric and idiomatic meanings (Tompkins et al. 1992).

Frederikson and Stemmer's (1993) patient drew microproposition inferences, in fact paraphrasing more of the literal content than the control subject; showed evidence of using narrative frame structure in inferred propositions that indicated temporal, causal and conditional links (but staying closer to the text than the control subject, who generated more summarization); and demonstrated some use of a goal


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structure to interpret story events. The patient also generated plausible inferences that could reconcile the two sets of events in the story, as we II (eg. that the woman was having a nightmare, at a later time, about being in a airplane crash), but did not tie them to the reconceptualization suggested in the story.


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In first-encounter conversational dyads consisting of RHDs and SLPs, Kennedy and colleagues (Kennedy and Perez, 1993; Kennedy et al. 1994) also noted poor eye contact for RHDs. RHDs took more turns and used more words per turn in their conversations than did controls. But a variety of topic skill parameters including introductions, maintenance, expansions, shades, reintroductions, and terminations did not distinguish the two groups. Those in the patient group, on average, were more likely to talk about themselves than to ask questions of their clinician partners. They also found that RHDs initiated conversational topics after clinicians had made termination moves, suggesting that the patients were not aware that the conversation should be ending.

Mackenzie, Begg, Brady and Lees (1997) studied 91 middle aged subjects (64 NBD and 17 RH stroke) who were assessed on a series of verbal comprehension and spoken discourse tasks. Comparison of the stroke subjects with the appropriate educational contrasts showed the stroke group to be weaker in several aspects of spoken language comprehension, particularly metaphor and inference. In picture description the NBD groups used more words, spoke for longer and produced more information. In conversation, limited facial expression and eye contact and monotonous intonational pattern were characteristics of the stroke subjects, but other discourse

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parameters - such as verbosity and topic maintenance did not
distinguish these RBDs and NBDs.
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RHDs were observed to use fewer figurative expressions than NBDs. However, the relative frequency of various types of figurative terms did not distinguish the groups (Apel, et al. 1992). There was no difference in percentage of terms containing requests for information responses to questions, arguments, interruptions, self-initiated comments, direct quotations, narrative comments, elaboration, selfelaborations or taboo words (Blender, et al. 1993).

AUDITORY LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

Adamovich and Brooks (1981) reported that RHDs performed less well than control subjects on most of the auditory comprehension tests of the BDAE (Goodglass and Kaplan, 1983), and on portions of the Revised Token Test (RTT) (McNeil and Prescott, 1978).

McNeil, Odell and Campbell (1982) observed some similarities between RHDs and aphasic subjects in the nature of moment to moment changes in auditory processing.


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evidence that lexical semantic knowledge is largely intact following RHD, and the apparent lexical deficits result from failure to use lexical knowledge flexibly, suggesting that RHD language disorders may stem from broader cognitive failures.


Jogermani and Pierce (1995) investigated the nature of semantic attribute knowledge in subjects with LHD and RHD and with NBD. The relationship between attribute knowledge and both auditory comprehension level and naming skills was also studied. Subjects completed a sorting task involving high, mid and low frequency of occurrence nouns and high (HI) and low importance (LI) attributes. Subjects also named pictures of the stimulus nouns. While the identification of HI attributes remained intact, LHDs and RHDs exhibited equivalent reductions in identification of LI attributes across frequency levels. In contrast, the LHDs were significantly more impaired on comprehension and naming measures than were the RHDs.

Kiefer et al. (1998) found that ERPs at inferior frontoparietal sites for directly related words showed ERP priming effects over both hemispheres. However, indirectly related words only elicited ERP priming effects over the RH. The results support the hypothesis that the $R H$ semantic system is involved in processing of remote semantic information.

WORD-RETRIEVAL DIFFICULTIES
RHDs often have word retrieval problems :

Hough, DeMarco, Bedsole, Fox and Pabst (1993) report that $60 \%$ of the RHDs exhibited word-finding difficulties. Their difficulties are typically fewer in number and less obvious than those of aphasics. The majority of errors can be coded as semantic confusions, and, as is the case of NBDs, most of these are coordinate errors (eg. "cat' for "dog').

RHDs also tend to make more visually based errors than aphasics (eg. "extension cord' for snake). Some visualsemantic errors can be attributed to problems of scale in the correct semantic field (eg. "big top' for camping tent). it has been suggested that RHDs with temporo-parietal damage are most likely to have visual misnaming errors due to perceptual impairments of object recognition (Tompkins, 1994).

The evidence of lexical semantic deficits following RHD was assessed using word (or verbal) fluency tests by Varley (1995). Two groups of subjects (NBD and RHD) were in distinguishable in their performances on convergent lexical tasks. Subjects completed verbal fluency tasks by 5 semantic criteria. The BD subjects produced significantly fewer lexical retrieval strategies. The results are interpreted as


#### Abstract

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#### Abstract

RHD have been found to have particular difficulty naming categories, or collective nouns (Myers and Brookshire, 1995). They may identify the individual elements in a composite picture (eg. one depicting a hammer, screwdriver, and pliers), rather than assigning the category name ("tools"). They may also have more difficulty naming objects associated with their illness (eg. wheelchair), especially when they have hemispatial neglect or anosognosia.


READING AND WRITING DEFICITS
Reading Difficulties

These are ascribed to impairments in various mechanisms that co-operate in encoding and processing visuospatial information, such as premotor programming of ocular scanning, spatial distribution of attention, and construction of abstract visuospatial representations. "Lower level deficits" may include difficulties scanning across a line; tracking back to the left to find the beginning of each line, or coordinating the process of looking from the top of the page to the bottom for an answer choice and then backup again (Tompkins, 1994 ).
One of the most frequently investigated types of RHD
reading impairments associated with attentional or
representational mechanisms is neglect dyslexia (Friedman,
Ween and Albert, 1993 ). This syndrome is classically
defined by four symptoms:

1. ignoring the left page of a book.
2. omitting the first words of a line
3. altering the initial letters of single words.
4. "visual" errors in which the word is misread but the incorrect elements do not lateralize.

Left neglect dyslexia is observed in some patients with right parietal lesions. It is sensitive to orientation of words in space, so the effect diminishes when words are written vertically. The most common errors are better substitutions that preserve overall word length; but some deletion errors occur (Kinsbourne and Warrington, 1962; Shallice and Warrington, 1977; Baxter and Warrington, 1983; Barbut and Gazzaniga, 1987; Caplan, 1987; Ellis, et al. 1987; Behrmann, et al. 1990).

Schwartz, Ojemann and Dodrill (1997) characterized the reading errors made by 64 right-handed adults with complex partial seizures after RH injection of sodium amobarbital. A variety of reading errors occurred, most of which fell under the syndrome of "neglect dyslexia" including deletions and substitutions of whole words on the left side of a line of
text as well as within - word neglect errors. It could be caused by an interaction between a peripheral processing deficit and more centrally located conceptual knowledge of linguistic structure. Other errors could be attributed to a general decrease in attentional mechanism. Neglect errors at the level of the sentence occurred in the absence of neglect errors at the level of the word although the converse was not true. Therefore the later causes the former. A double dissociation existed between single word neglect dyslexia errors and "visual" errors, indicating separate processing mechanisms.

Koul and Llyod (1998) compared the differences in performance on recognition of graphic symbols across time by individuals with aphasia, individuals with RHD, and neurologically normal adults. The results indicated that individuals with aphasia normals do not differ significantly in recognition of graphic symbols. However, individuals with RHD recognized fewer symbols compared to individuals with aphasia and normals, suggesting that they have difficulty in associative learning of graphic symbols.

RHDs may have difficulty comprehending abstract meanings or complex written material. These problems may be linguistically based.

WritingDifficulties

They are most commonly exhibit spatial agraphias.

Ardila and Rosselli (1993) found that motor deficits predominated in RHDs with frontal damage (eg. iterations of features and letters), and spatial deficits were most apparent in RHDs with posterior damage (eg. inappropriate distribution in space, such as super imposition of words or elements, and misgrouping of elements within and between words). Patients with concomitant neglect may also exhibit a tendency to leave larger margins on the left side of the page, which increase as succeeding lines are written or to crowd their output on to the right side of the space provided.

Benson observes that spatial agraphia remains unproven (characterized by an excessive number of separations between letters and groups of letters).

Hashimoto, Tanaka and Yoshida (1998) found that a strongly right handed Japanese man showed an unusual writing disorder associated with Broca-type aphasia after suffering a RH infarction. Writing produced a fluent output in contrast to his non-fluent speech. The patient's agraphia disproportionality affected the writing of kana (Japanese


Data from split-brain patients, patients with extensive LHD and patients who have undergone left hemispherectomy was used to examine the RH capability of written language production by Weekes (1995). The data show the isolated RH of split -brain patients is capable of written language even if spoken word production is absent. The RH can also develop a capacity to write and spell after damage to the LH. Further, the type of spelling skill displayed the RH is constrained to a lexico-semantic strategy.
Other impairments may also contribute to writing
deficits. For eg. if attention wanders, patients may have a
problem returning to the place where their writing left off.

Difficulty organizing thoughts or formulating propositions may be reflected in ambiguous or seen on sentences.

Prevalence of spatial agraphia as reported by Ardila and Rosselli (1993) in RHDs with retro-rolandic lesions is 40-73\% and upto $50 \%$ of frontally damaged.

In another report by Homer, Lathrop, Fish and Dawson (1987), the presence, severity, and pattern of agraphia in narrative writing samples did not reliably differentiate RHDs from either aphasics or those with mild dementing conditions.

DYSARTHRIA

Kent and Rosenbek's (1982) acoustic analysis of RHD's speech patterns indicated essentially normal word and phrase duration with a flattened prosodic contour. These are many similarities between RHD and parkinson's disease and hypokinetic dysarthria. Both groups showed a general pattern of decreased acoustic contrast, including limited Fo and intensity variation, continuous voicing, weakly formed consonants and reduced acoustic energy in the mid-to-high frequency range.

PRAGMATICS DOMAIN
$\quad$ Pragmatics involves the relation between language
behavior and the contexts in which it is used and
interpreted. Some of them include :

- Prosody
- Emotional interpretation and response.
- Speech act use and interpretation.
- Figurative and implied meanings
- Sensitivity to situation and listener needs.
- Humor appreciation
- Other forms of inference
(Joanette et al. 1990).

Pragmatic deficits associated with damage to the RH ar interrelated with the deficiencies in affective-prosodic and linguistic cognitive processing (Myers, 1986). Clinica observation of the conversational abilities of RHD patient shows that these individuals are unable to appreciate th context and tone of a conversation or the presupposition entailed. Their discourse often focuses on insignificant ar tangential details and includes inappropriate humor ar comments giving their language an excessive and ramblir nature.


The observation that LHD aphasic patients communicate better than they talk (Holland, 1977) and RHD patients perhaps talk better than they communicate has led to the hypothesis that $R H$ is responsible for simultaneously organizing and integrating different elements of conversation while the LH is critical for literal language (phonology, syntax and low level semantics (Foldi, Cicone, Garner, 1983).


#### Abstract

Shields (1991) noted that following RH lesions, adults' speech can become copious and inappropriate, with abnormal prosody, and they may be unable to comprehend metaphor or humor. Their symptoms resemble those of children with semantic-pragmatic language disorder, who use fluent, grammatically complex language, but with poor sensitivity to the communicative situation. The hyperlexia found in some of these children reflects an underlying cognitive problem in integrating semantic information with knowledge of the world. Both groups of patients fail to comprehend inferential meaning or to make use of paralinguistic features. It was hypothesized that the disorders of communication and cognition found in semantic pragmatic language disorder could be linked to RHD and confirmation by research was indicated. PROSODY


Includes elements of speech melody rate, stress,
juncture and duration. $\quad$ Prosodic influences cut across
linguistic levels, providing cues to consonant voicing,
syntactic clause boundaries, utterance form, semantic stress
and novelty, and utterance intent.

Some RHDs have monotonous or 'flat' speech (House, Rowe and Standen, 1987). RHDs produce less stress an individual words in sentences, and less emphatic stress. so that their production have a monotone quality.

Colsher, Cooper and Graff-Radford (1987) found that time post-onset was related to perceived dysprosody, which suggests that early apparent dysarthrias, may diminish (monotone may be due to the dysarthria associated with RHD).

Some RHDs are hypermelodic. Acoustic evidences show they have abnormally high mean $F o$, together with high pitch variability (Colsher et al. 1987).

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In general, whether linguistic or emotional prosody, the evidence on prosodic problems after RHD is mixed. Therefore, these deficits are not particular to RHDs.
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Difficulties with interpeting linguistic prosody is due to impairment of prosodic decoding (Joanette, et al. 1990). RHDs respond less consistently to emotional tone or intonationally implied meanings in interaction with others. This is due to difficulty in discriminating between filtered, nonemotional speech patterns (Tompkins and Flowers, 1985).

A more purely perceptual component may underlie or contribute to both and emotional prosodic impairments.

RHDs have more difficulty processing intonational, or Fo aspects of prosodic signals, than temporal or durational components (Robin, Travel and Damasio, 1990).


Gandour et al. (1995) studied the production of speech prosody in emotional contexts in Thai patients with unilateral RHD. 12 RHDs and 12 normals read target sentences embedded in paragraphs that cued either a happy, sad or neutral effect. Perceptual evaluations of their productions revealed a severe deficit in RHDs. Acoustic analysis indicated that long-term measures of $F o$, timing and energy at the sentence level were abberant in RHDs.
Ross and Thompson (1997) explored the mechanisms
underlying affective prosodic deficits following LHD and RHD
by testing the ability of subjects to repeat and comprehend
 Blonder et al. (1995) examined spontaneous prosody in audiotapes of interviews with a 77 year old right-handed woman recorded 6 months before and 6 weeks after she suffered a stroke affecting the right fronto-temporo-parietal regions and the right basal ganglia. They compared beginning, peak and ending Fo in breath groups, the timings of these Fo changes, rate of speech, pause duration, and breath-group duration. They found that post-stroke, the patient had a more restricted Fo contour, no changes in the timing of peak Fo, an increased rate of speech, less variability in pause duration, and no changes in breath-group duration.


Emotional and Nonverbal Communication

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A great deal of evidence suggests that emotional behaviour is mediated primarily by RH (Tucker and Frederick, 1989).
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But the evidence is conflicting as to whether the RH is more important for processing negative emotions and LH for positive emotions or vice-versa.

Within RH, frontal lesions tend to result in emotional disinhibition. For ex. patients with frontal impairments may tell pointless stories with liberal profanity, even when others take exception. Patients with more posterior RHD may minimise and rationalise their deficits and have difficulty assigning meaning to emotional stimuli.

embedded, potentially leading to emotional misinterpretation (Blonder, Bowers and Heilman, 1991). Some exhibit emotional interpretation deficits across modalities, including pictures, body language, facial and vocal expression, and complex non-redundant discourse units (Zoccolotti, Scabini and Violani , 1982).

In Schmitt, Hartje and Willmess's (1997) study 27 patients with RHD, 25 patients with LHD and 26 normals were investigated for unimod00al and simultaneous multi modal recognition of emotional attitude. AM subjects were shown 330 videotaped items of 4 seconds duration, each of which was to be judged in terms of facial expression, emotional prosody and the emotional meaning of the underlying spoken sentence. The results suggested; (a) RH superiority for recognition of emotions conveyed by facial and prosodic information (b) a RH dominance for recognition of fear and (c) no significant enhancement of $R H$ superiority under multimodal presentation of emotional stimuli .

RHDs show reduced non-verbal animation and co-verbal behaviours relative to NBDs (Blonder, Burns, Bowers, Moore and Heilman, 1993; Golper, Gordon, Rau, 1984). Again there are exceptions. Either extreme has potential implications for interpersonal interactions. RHDs also are deficient in adhering to rules of social discourse involving eye contact,

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facial expression, spontaneous use of gesture, vocal
inflection and turn-taking.
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Speech Acts

Often, a speaker's intentions differs from the literal meaning of his/her utterance. For ex. "Pass the salt" requires an action to be done.

The "real" meaning conveyed by an utterance is known as speech acts. Other speech acts include asserting, directing, questioning, and warning.


Bara, Tirassa, Zettin (1997) verified all the predicted trends of difficulty; in particular, difficulty increases from direct/indirect speech acts to irony, from irony to deceits, and from deceits to failure recovery. They found that in sharp contrast with previous literature, there is no difference between the subjects' comprehension of direct and indirect speech acts.

It is not clear whether the RHDs difficulty lies In interpreting the requests themselves, interpreting the contexts, or relating the two at some level (Joanette, et al. 1990). Stemmer, Giroux and Joanette (1994) studied the production and evaluation request sequences (not comprehension), suggest that the last possibility may be the case in some conditions. They examined RHDs production and metalinguistic judgements of requests that varied from quite direct requests (eg. "Turn down the radio) to quite indirect "hints" (eg. "I am having trouble concentrating").

RHDs problem, centred primarily around the application of nonconventionally indirect requests, or "hints". In such requests, the mental representation of the stimulus context is not necessarily compatible with that derived for the request itself (whose interpretation is not linked by any strong convention to a particular pragmatic form or function (Stemmer, et al. 1994).

Lemieux, Goulet and Joanette (1993) reported that RHDs had no difficulty interpreting indirect speech acts in more natural communicative situations. Evidence from other studies of nonliteral processing has raised similar cautions against over generalizing from poor performance on metacognitive tasks after RHD (Tompkins. 1990; Tompkins et al. 1992).

Figurative and Other Implied Meanings
Some RHDs also take idiomatic, metaphoric, connotative,
or sarcastic expressions more literally than they are
intended. Nonliteral interpretation problems often emerge
when the assessment method requires metacognitive abilities
such as comparing literal and metaphoric word attributes to
judge similarity of meaning; associating intact appreciation
of figurative expressions such as "a loud tie" with specific,
task-imposed contexts; or explaining nonliteral forms such as
proverbs. for instance, a dissociation has been observed
between RHDs access to idiomatic expressions presented in
sentence contexts, and their relative difficulty defining and
explaining the same forms (Tompkins et al. lg92).

Kaplan, Brownell, Jacobs and Gardner (1990) assessed the ability to interpret conversational utterances in a group of 12 male patients within RHD and 12 NBD, aged matched male
control subjects. Subjects listened to short vignettes which described both the actor's performance on a task. Each vignette concluded with the speaker's utterance was literally true; in the other half, the utterance was literally false and invited a non-literal interpretation. Results showed no appreciable differences in the performance of control subjects and RHD patients when interpreting literally true utterances. In contrast, the two groups differed reliably when interpreting the pragmatic intent of nonliteral utterances. Control subjects used information about both the actor's performance and the speaker actor, relationship. They are better with nonliteral expressions (comprehension) that they have produced (Apel, Van Dyke and Fedorak, 1992).

Sensitivity to Listener Needs and Situation



#### Abstract

As the $R H$ has been seen to be responsible for the interpretation of the pragmatic aspects of communication, RHD and LHD adult patients in Siegal, Carrington and Radel"s (1996) study were compared on their ability to correctly draw inferences in false belief tasks. The RHD but not the LHD patients were found to have difficulties similar to those of young children in the controversial implications of test questions. Removal of the need to infer the questioner's meaning enabled both RHD and LHD subjects to make correct false belief predictions.


Important for referential and lexical markers to conversational management devices, as speakers attempt to make their contributions appropriate to their partners.

RHDs have difficulty in this area. They may delue into a topic without informing the listener, they may use in explicit referential devices, and they may attempt few conversational repairs. Also they have problems with presupposition and theory of mind. Kaplan, Brownell, Jacobs and Gardner (1990) studied conversational irony. A situation in which an actor's poor performance is followed by a positive comment from another character (friend). RHDs were less likely than controls to use the relationship information to decide whether the speaker was telling the truth, joking, sarcastic, mistaken, or lying on purpose. The authors
interpreted this finding as a difficulty in attributing knowledge of friend's intentions to the actor. This task has a metacognitive component that may make it hard for RHDs to perform.

| An impaired | sensitivity | to | listener's | needs | and |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| situations may be | manifested | more | generally | in | social |
| disinhibition and | other so | social/interactional |  | problems |  |
| (Klonoff, Sheperd, | O'Brien, Ch | pello | and Hodak, | 990 . |  |

Humor

Deficits in appreciating humor in RHDs are potentially multifaceted. They are linked to impairments in interpreting situational, facial and prosodic that signal the emotional content of a message, and/or difficulty integrating content across parts of a narrative.

Some patients appear to detect, but have difficulty resolving, the incongruity or contradiction that is frequently necessary for a story to be perceived as humorous, although they do recognize surprise as an essential element of humor (Bihrle, Brownell and Gardner, 1988).

```
    RHDs humor production is crude or otherwise
disinhibited, and inappropriate to the situation.
```

Gardner et al. (1983) evaluated RHDs understanding of humor by asking them to quantify their appreciation of the humorous nature of a story on a scale from 0 to 5. In them, $1 / 2$ of the stories were humorous and other $1 / 2$ humorless. The latter were constructed from the former by replacing the punchline with a congruent proposition. They found that the RHDs were able to distinguish these two types of stories, truely suggesting that they were capable of understanding the humorous nature of stories.

In a second experiment, Gardner et al. (1983) compared the evaluations given by the same subjects for four different types of humor; puns, tricks, puzzles and foils. In the RHDs, the evaluation scores were lowest for the foils and highest for the forms. In fact, the RHDs tended to give higher evaluation scores than the normals, regardless of whether the item were funny. This finding could reflect a global effect of the task itself on the choices made by these patients.

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Both Gardner et al. (1983) and Birhle et al. (1986) view these results as indicative of the preservation of a certain sensitivity of the RHDs to the formal aspects of humor.
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Laavanya (1996) studied the comprehension of humour in the brain damaged. She found significant differences between

## METHODOLOGY

AIM : The aim of the present study was to study impairment in pragmatic use of language in the Right Hemisphere Damaged.

SUBJECTS : Five adults (above 18 years) with a right hemisphere damage were taken as the subjects of this study.

CRITERIA : The criteria for the subject selection were :

1) Right hemisphere damaged
2) Age above 18 years
3) Education at least uptill primary level.

TOOLS : The tool used in the present study was:

THE PRAGMATIC PROTOCOL

The pragmatic protocol, developed by Prutting (1982) was designed to provide an overall communicative index for school-age children, adolescents, and adults. The protocol consists of 30 pragmatic aspects of langauge. These parameters were extrapolated from the developmental; child language literature as well as the adult literature. It adheres to Levison's (1983) treatise that the range of
the brain damaged and normal controls but not between LHDs,
and RHDs on the task of complex cartoons. The poor
performance of RHD's compared to normal were attributed to a
combination of visuoperceptive and cognitive impairments and
the poor performance of LHD to a difficulty in processing
humour based on higher level cognitive strategies.


#### Abstract

However, in the test which had cartoons with captions revealed a significant difference between the brain damaged and normal controls. She suggested that such tests could tap the RHDs impairment in associating a linguistic information (caption) with an absurd picture.


Inferences

Inferencing is gleaning information that is not explicitly provided.

Although RHD subjects make few errors sorting pictures of objects, they may have more difficulty sorting pictures according to an implicit theme or gist, particularly when the pictures contain multiple contextual cues that lead to thematic interpretations (Myers, Linebaugh and MackisackMorin, 1985). Similarly, some patients are poor at inferring motives and morals from story contexts (Wapner, Hamby and Gardner. 1981) .


Kaplan et al. (1990) reported that inferences about affectively consistent information (eg. a person in a pleasant situation hears a positive comment and interprets it as "telling the truth") maybe less impaired than those about affectively inconsistent or discrepant situations (eg. someone in a negative situation hears the same positive comment, which may be intended ironically, or as an attempt to make someone feel better.

In general, RHD patients appear to have more difficulties with inferencing when the context supports or suggests alternative interpretations.


#### Abstract

pragmatic aspects exists on a continuum and includes both context dependent aspects of language structure (eg. cohesion) as well as aspects that rely on principles of language usage that are relatively independent of language structure (eg. physical proximity, eye gaze).


The protocol used in this study along with the definitions of each parameter and examples are presented in the Appendix 1.

PROCEDURE :

The pragmatic protocol was completed after observing individuals engaged in spontaneous, unstructured conversation with a communicative partner (family members/experimenter). The experimenter observed a 15 minute of conversation on $I$ ine for aspects that rely on principles of langauge usage that are relatively independent of language structure i.e. nonverbal aspect (eg. body posture, eye gaze etc). The conversation was audio taped to assess the verbal and paral inguistic aspects of language. After the experimenter observed the interaction, the protocol was completed. RESPONSE MODE : Response were elicited in verbal mode.

DATA RECORDING: The data collected was represented under the following format -

```
Name
Age/Sex
Date
Communicative partners:
Relationship.
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Communicative Act & Appro- & Inappro & No oppor Comments \\
& priate & priate & tunity
\end{tabular}
```

VERBAL ASPECTS
A. SPEECH ACTS

1. Speech act pair analysis
2. Variety of speech acts
B. TOPIC
3. Selecti on
4. I nt roduct i on
5. Maintenance
6. Change
C. TURN TAKING
7. Initiation
8. Response
9. Repair/Revision
10. Pause time
11. Interruption/overlap
12. Feedback to speakers
13. Adjacency
14. Contingency
15. Quantity Conciseness
D. LEXICAL SELECTION/USE ACROSS SPEECH ACTS
16. Specificity/accuracy
17. Cohes ion
E. STYLISTIC VARIATIONS
18. The varying of communicative style

PARALINGUISTIC ASPECTS

## F. INTELLIGIBILITY AND PROSODICS

```
19. Intel I igib i I i ty
20. Vocal intensity
21. Vocal qua l i ty
22. Prosody
23. Fluency
```

NONVERBAL ASPECTS
G. KINESICS AND PROXEMICS
24. Physical proximity
25. Physical contacts
26. Body posture
27. Foot/leg and hand/arm movb.
28. Gestures
29. Facial expression
30. Eye gaze

SCORING

Each pragmatic aspect of language on the protocols judged as appropriate, inappropriate, or not observed.

The following guidelines were used.

Appropriate : Parameters are marked appropriate if they are judged to facilitate the communicative interaction or are neut ral.

Inappropriate : Parameters are marked inappropriate if they are judged to detract from the communicative exchange and penal ize the individual.


Name: $\frac{\mathrm{Mr} \cdot \mathrm{V}}{\text { Commacative }}$
setting observed AT home

| Communicative act | Appropriate | Inappropriate | No opportunity to observe |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Verbal aspects |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 1. Speech act pair |  |  |  |
| analysis |  |  |  |
| 2. Variety of | $\checkmark$ |  |  |
| B. Topic |  |  |  |
| 3. Selection |  |  |  |
| 4. Introduction |  |  |  |
| 5. Maintenance |  |  |  |
| C. Turn take ${ }_{\text {6. }}$ Chang |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| C. Turn taking |  |  | 7. Initiation |
| 8. Response |  |  |  |
| 9. Repair/revision |  |  |  |
| 10. Pause time |  |  |  |
| 11. Interruption/ overlap |  |  |  |
| 12. Feedback to |  |  |  |
| speakers |  |  |  |
| 13. Adjacency |  |  |  |
| 14. Contingency |  |  |  |
| 15. Quantity/ conciseness |  |  |  |
| use across speech acts |  |  |  |
| 16. Specificity/ |  |  |  |
| 17. Cohesion |  |  |  |
| E. Stylistic variations |  |  |  |
| 18. The varying of communicative style |  |  |  |
| Paralinguistic aspects |  |  |  |
| F. Intelligibility and prosodics |  |  |  |
| 19. Intelligibility |  |  |  |
| 20. Vocal intensity |  |  |  |
| 21. Vocal quality |  |  |  |
| 22. Prosody |  |  |  |
| 23. Fluency |  |  |  |
| Nonnerbal asprets |  |  |  |
| G. Kenesies and proxemics |  |  |  |
| 24. Physicalproximity |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 25. Physical $\begin{aligned} & \text { contacts }\end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |
| 26. Body posture |  | $\checkmark$ |  |
| 27. Footleg and hand/arm |  |  |  |
| movements |  |  |  |
| 28. Gestures |  |  |  |
| 29. Facial expression |  |  | - |
| 30. Eye gaze |  |  |  |

FIG 1: DEFICITS WIIH REFERENCE TO PRAGMATICS IN CASE I

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The main aim of the study was to delinete the pragmatic deficits in the right hemisphere damaged patients. For the purpose, patients were evaluated on the "Pragmatic Protocol" (Prutting and Kirchner, 1987). Figures 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 demonstrate the deficits with reference to prgmatics in their discourse observed in cases I, II, III, IV and V respectively.

Figure 6 summarises the pragmatic parameters marked inappropriate for the subjects. The results show that ;

| i) | $3 / 5$ had difficulty in topic introduction |
| :--- | :--- |
| ii) | $2 / 5$ had difficulty in topic topic maintenance |
| iii) | $2 / 5$ had difficulty in topic change |
| iv) | $4 / 5$ had difficulty in turn taking initiation |
| v) | $1 / 5$ had difficulty in turn taking pause time |
| vi) | $3 / 5$ had difficulty in turn taking feedback to speaker |
| vii) | $5 / 5$ had difficulty in turn taking adjacency, |
| viii) $\quad 3 / 5$ had difficulty in cohesion |  |
| ix) | $1 / 5$ had difficulty in vocal intensity |
| x) | $5 / 5$ had difficulty in prosody |
| xi) | $1 / 5$ had difficulty in physical proximity |

Name: Mr, $R$
Communicative
SETTING OBSERVED
AT HOME


FIG 2: DEFICITS WITH REFERENCE TO PRAGMATICS IN CASE II

Name: M×s. M
Commencative at hospital
seting obsenved at hospital

| Communicative act | Appropriate | Inappropriate | No opportunity to observe |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Verbal aspects <br> A. Speech acts |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 1. Speech act pair |  |  |  |
| 2. Varietsis of |  |  |  |
| 2. Variety of speech acts | , |  |  |
| B. Topic |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 4. Introduction |  |  |  |
| 5. Maintenance |  |  |  |
| 6. Change |  |  |  |
| C. Tum taking |  |  |  |
| 7. Initiation |  |  |  |
| 8. Resporise |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 10. Pause time |  |  |  |
| 11. Interruption/ overlap |  |  |  |
| 12. Feedback to speakers |  |  |  |
| 13. Adjacency |  |  |  |
| 14. Contingency |  |  |  |
| 15. Quantity/ conciseness |  |  |  |
| D. Lexical selection/ use across speech acts |  |  |  |
| 16. Specificity/ |  |  |  |
| 17. ${ }^{\text {accuracy }}$ Cohesion |  |  |  |
| E. Stylistic variations |  |  |  |
| 18. The varying of communicative style |  |  |  |
| Paralingristic aspeets |  |  |  |
| F. Intelligibility and prosedics |  |  |  |
| 19. Intelligibility |  |  |  |
| 20. Vocal intensity |  |  |  |
| 21. Vocal quality |  |  |  |
| 22. Prosody |  |  |  |
| 23. Fluency |  |  |  |
| Nonverbal aspects |  |  |  |
| G. Kenesics and proxemics |  |  |  |
| 24. Plysicalproximity |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 25. Physical |  |  |  |
| 26. Body posture |  |  |  |
| 27. Footlleg and hand/arm | / |  |  |
| movements |  |  |  |
| 28. Gestures |  |  |  |
| 29. Facial expression | $\checkmark$ |  | . |
| 30. Eve gaze |  | $\checkmark$ |  |

FIG 3: DEFICITS WITH REFERENCE TO PRACMATICS IN CASE III


| Communicative act | Appropriate | Inappropriate | No oppartunity to observe |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Verbal aspects |  |  |  |
| A. Speech acts |  |  |  |
| 1. Speech act pair analusis |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 2. Variety of |  |  |  |
| speech acts |  |  |  |
| B. Topic |  |  |  |
| 3. Selection |  |  |  |
| 4. Introduction |  |  |  |
| 5. Maintenance |  |  |  |
| C. Turn taking |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 7. Initiation |  |  |  |
| 8. Response |  |  |  |
| 9. Repair/revision |  |  |  |
| 10. Pause time |  |  |  |
| 11. Interruption/overlap |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| 12. Feedback to |  |  |  |
| speakers |  |  |  |
| 13. Adjacency |  |  |  |
| 14. Contingency |  |  |  |
| 15. Quantity/ |  |  |  |
| conciseness |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| use across speech acts |  |  |  |
| 16. Specificityl |  |  |  |
| accuracy <br> 17. Cohesion |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| E. Stylistic variations |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| communicative style |  |  |  |
| Paralinguistic aspects |  |  |  |
| F. Intelligibility and prosodics |  |  |  |
| 19. Intelligibility |  |  |  |
| 20. Vocal intensity |  |  |  |
| 21. Vocal quality |  |  |  |
| 22. Prosody |  |  |  |
| 23. Fluency |  |  |  |
| Nonverbal aspects |  |  |  |
| G. Kenesies und |  |  |  |
| 24. Physical |  |  |  |
| 25. Proximity |  |  |  |
| 25. Physical contacts |  |  |  |
| 26. Body posture |  |  |  |
| 27. Footleg and |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| movements |  |  |  |
| 28. Cestures |  |  |  |
| 29. Facial |  |  |  |
| expression |  |  | - |
| 30. Eve gaze |  |  |  |

FIG 4: DEFICITS

Name: Mr. Nh
Communciative:
SETTING OBSERVED AT HOME


FIG S: DEFICITS


FIG 6 : PRAGMATIC PARAMETERG MARKED INAPPROPRIATE FOR THE SUBJECTS WITH RIGHT HEMISPHERE DAMAGE

```
xii) 2/5 had difficulty in body posture
xiii) 1/5 had difficulty in facial expression
xiv) 5/5 had difficulty in eye zage
```


#### Abstract

Thus, the cluster of parameters identified as most frequently judged inappropraite were eyegaze, prosody, adjacency, contingency, and quantity and conciseness. The results are in collaboration with the results obtained by Prutting and Kirchner (1987).


Also the results indicated that topic introduction turn taking skills and cohesion were markedly impaired in the patients.

It was noticed that the intonation and stress patterns inall the subjects consisted of few variations and voice sound "flat" and monotonous. Thus, this finding supports the observation of House, Rowe and Standen (1987), MacKenzie et al. (1997), Dyskstra et al. (1995), Gandour et al. (1995) and Blonder et al. (1995).

Pause times in response to questions were seen to be long and the responses did not contribute to new information. Similar findings have been reported by Joanette and Boulet, 1990; Tompkins, et al. 1993. The subjects demonstrated
inability to produce comments that could move the conversation further. Also, in some subjects verbosity was observed without informativeness.

The subjects also demonstrated inability to initiate new topics for discussion, the inability to select appropriate topics for discussion given the context and participants and make relevant contributions to a topic. Inability to maintain topic frequently co-occurred with high frequency of new topic introductions. The findings concurred with Prutting and Kirchner (1987), Purdy et al. (1992), Kennedy et al. (1994), Myers and Brookshire (1994).

Cohesive errors, or errors in semantic relations between segments of narratives (eg. undetermined pronouns, inadequate lexical reiteration) were noticed in the subjects. The utterances did not appear to be related in a logical and sequential fashion; frequently resulting in misinterpretation and ambiguity. These findings were also reported by Joanette and Goulet (1990), Frederikson et al. (1990) and Prutting and Kirchner (1987), Davis et al. (1997), Uryase et al. (1991).

Also vocal intensity, physical proximity, body posture and facial expression were judged to be inappropriate in some of the subjects. Similar findings have been reported by Mackenzie, Begg, Brady and Lees (1997), Schmitt et al. (1997).
Discourse production is a complex activity involving a
broad range of cognitive abilities beyond strictly linguistic
ones. in addition to lexical and syntactic retrieval,
ordering and structuring of content are necessary, as are
linking sentences and ideas and selecting what should be
mentioned and what should remain unsaid.

It was observed in the subjects that variable patterns of pragmatic deficits were present. The possibility is that these distinctive patterns are the expression of the extent and the localization of the lesion in the right hemisphere, presuming that the right hemisphere does contribute distinctively to verbal communication deficits.

Despite these variations, most of the subjects were judged inappropriate in eye gaze, prosodic pattern and variation - turn-taking contingency, turn-taking adjacency, and quantity/conciseness. Parameters such as topic selection, topic introduction, topic change, other turn-
taking skills, and cohesion were noted to be deficient in 2 or fewer of the 5 subjects.

Thus, RHD patients remind us that language is only one aspect of communication. Despite adequate linguistic skills they are poor communicators.

```
The objective of the study was to scrutinise the pragmatic use of language in the right hemisphere damaged patients and to identify the inappropriate pragmatic features seen.
```

The design of the study consisted of outlining verbal, paralinguistic aspects and kinesics and proxemics seen in the population. For the purpose, the subjects were judged as "appropriatre" or "inappropriate" on the pragmatic protocol developed by Prutting (1982). The communicative acts were asessed on observing a 15 minute conversation entire (for kinesics and proxemics) and the sample was audiotapes (for verbal and para linguistic aspects) for further analysis.

Results show that there are variable patterns of pragmatic impairments seen across patients. But most of them were consistently impaired cohesion and coherence, prosody, eye gaze.

Thus, we can deduce that although the right hemisphere damaged patients evince adequate linguistic skills, they are poor communicators, and ther is obvious detraction from the communicative exchange.

Suggestions for further research

1. The study can be replicated using other pragmatic assessment tools for further confirmation of the results.
2. Impairment in other areas of deficit in the RHDs can be probed into.
3. The correspondence between the impairments and their functional consequences : disabilities, or restrictions in daily life activities and handicaps, or broader changes in life role participation can be outlined.

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## APPENDIX

Definitions for Communicative Parameters Assessed Using the Pragmatic Protoco!

VERBAL ASPECTS (Speech act pair analysis)

The ability to take both speaker and listener rote appropriate to the contest.

Types : Directive compliance - 0 personal need, imperatives, permissions, directives, question directives, and hints.

Query/response - request for confirmation, mental requests for repetition, requests for speech constituent repetition.

Request/response - direct request, inferred requests, requests for clarification, acknowledgment of request for action.

Comment/acknowledgment - description of ongoing activities, of immediate subsequent activity, of state or condition of objects or person naming, acknowledgments that are positive, negative, exptetive, or indicative.

Examples : Appropriate behaviors: Initiates directives, queries, and comments, responds to directives by complying : responds to queries; responds appropriately to requests; and acknowledges comments made by the speaker. Appropriate behaviour can be verbat or nonverbal as in the case of taking appropriate action to a directive or request. Inappropriate behaviors; Does not initiate directives, queries, and comments; does not respond to directives, request, or queries by the speaker; and does not use acknowledgments made by the speaker either nonverbally or verbally.

Variety of speech Acts
The variety of speech acts or what one can do with tanguage with as comment, assert, request promise, and so forth.

Examples : Appropriate behaviors : The partner shows both appropriate use of and diversity in the number of different speech acts he can accomplish.
Inappropriate behaviors: The partner shows inappropriate use or a reduced range of different speech acts he or she can use (eg. a particular child whose productive repertoire is restricted to requests for objects with no other observed speech act types).

Topic
a) Selection
b) Introduction
c) Maintannce
The selection of a topic appropriate to the multidimensional aspects of context.
Introduction of a new topic in the discourse.
Coherent maintenance of topic across the discourse.
d) Change Change of topic in the discourse.
Examples : Appropriate behaviors : The speaker/listener is able to make relevant contributions to a topic, is able to make smooth changes in topic at appropriate times in the discourse, is able to select appropriate topics for discussion given the context and participants, and is able to end discussion of a topic at an appropriate place in the discourse.
Inappropriate behaviors:. The introduction of too many topics within a specified time limit, the inability to initiate new topics for discussion, the inability to select appropriate topics for discussion given the context and participants, and the inability to make relevant contributions to a topic. Inability to maintain topic may frequently co-occur with high frequency of new topic introductions.

Turn taking
a. Initiation
b. Response
c. Repair/revision
d. Pause time

Smooth interchanges between speaker/listener

Initiation of speech acts.
Responding as a listener to speech acts.

The ability to repai ra conversation when a breakdown occurs, and the abi lity to ask for a repetition when misunderstanding or ambiguity has occurred.

Pause time that is too short or too long between words, in response to a question, or

|  | between se |
| :---: | :---: |
| e. Interruption/overlap | Interruptions between speaker and listener; overlap refers to two people talking at once. |
| f. Feedback to listener | Verbal behaviour to give the listener feedback such as yeah and rally; nonverbal behavior such as head nods to show positive reactions and side to side to express negative effects or disbelief. |
| g. Adjacency | Utterances that occur immediately after the partner's utterance. |
| h. Contingency | Utterances that share the same topic with a preceding utterance and that add information to the prior communicative act. |
| i. Quantity/consciseness | The contribution should be as informative as required but not too informative. |
| Examples : In all of the above categories, appropriate and inappropriate behavior is judged in relationship to both |  |
| to comments made by the speaker, asking for clarification when a portion of the message is misunderstood and revising one's own message to facilitate understanding, avoiding |  |
| interrupting or talking before the other partner is finished, |  |
| giving feedback to the speaker as a way of moving the conversation forward, appropriate length of pauses in the conversation to support timing relationships in the conversation, and making comments relevant and informative. |  |
| Inappropriate behaviours : Little initiation in the conversation forcing one partner to take the burden of moving |  |
|  |  |
| responses to requests for clarification by the partner, no attempt to ask for repair, long pauses that interrupt timing |  |
| relationships in the conversation, pause time that is too short and results in overlap or interruptions, little or no |  |
|  |  |
| feedback to the speaker, and inability to produce commentsthat are relevant and informative. |  |

Lexical Selection/use
Specificity/Accuracy Lexical items of best fit considering the text.

Examples : Appropriate behaviors : The ability to be specific and make appropriate lexical choices to clearly convey information in the discourse.

Inappropriate behaviors : Over use of unspecified referents that results in ambiguity of the message. Also include inappropriate choice of lexical iterns that do not facilitate understanding.

Specifying relationships between and across speech acts.
Cohens ion The recognizable unity or connectedness of text. Types : Reference - semantic relation where by the information needed for intepretation of some item is found elsewhere in the text. Substitution - cohesive bond is established by the use of substitute item of the same grammatical class. Ellipsis substitution by zero and refers to sentences or clauses whose structure is such as to presuppose the missing information. Conjunction-logicaI relation between clauses. Lexical cohesion-achieved through vocabulary selection.

Examples : Appropriate behaviors : Relatedness and unity in the discourse. One is able to follow the conversation, and the ideas are expressed in a logical and sequential way.

Inappropriate behaviors : A conversation is disjointed, and utterances do not appear to be related in a logical and sequential fashion. One is unable to follow the line of thinking expressed by the speaker, frequently resulting in misinterpretation and ambiguity.

Stylistic variances Adaptations used by the speaker under various dyadic conditions (eg. polite forms, different syntax, changes in
vocal quality).
Examples : Appropriate behaviors : The ability to adjust speech style to the listeners.

Inappropriate behaviors : Mismatch between the style and status of listeners or no difference when required.

PARALINGUISTIC ASPECT

| Intelligibility | The extent to which the message is |
| :--- | :--- |
| understood. |  |
| Vocal intensity | The loudness or softness of the message. |
| Vocal quality | The resonance and/or laryngeal <br> characteristics of the vocal tract. |
| Fluency | The intonation and stress patterns of the <br> message; variations of loudness, pitch <br> and duration. |
| The smoothness, consistency and rate of <br> the message. |  |

Examples :
Appropriate behaviors : Speech that is clear: not too loud or too soft; appropriate in quality; and shows appropriate use of intonation, stress, and pitch to support the communicative/linguistic intention of the message.

Inappropriate behaviors: Speech that is so unclear as to result in frequent misinterpretations of the message; speech that is too loud or too soft; a quality of speech that is inappropriate to age or sex of speaker and interferes with communication: and the lack of prosodic variation that supports affect and the linguistic aspects of the message.

NONVERBAL ASPECTS

Physical proximity

Physical contacts

Body posture

The distance that the speaker and listener sit or stand from one another.

The number of times and placement of contacts between speaker and listener.

Forward lean is when the speaker or listener moves away from a 90 degree angle toward the other person: recline is slouching down from waist

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and moving away from the partner;
side to side is when a person moves
to the right or left.
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Foot/leg and hand/arm movements

Gestures

Facial Expression

Eye gaze

Any movement of the foot/leg or hand/arm (touching self or moving an object or touching part of the body, clothing, or self).

Any movements that support, complement, or replace verbal behavior.

A positive expression as in the corners of the mouth turned upward, a negative .expression is a downward turn, a neutral expression is the face in resting position.

One looks directly at the other's face; mutual gaze is when both members of the dyad look at the other.

Examples :

Appropriate behaviours : Use of nonverbal aspects of communication that demonstrate level of affiliation between partners, aid in regulating discourse turns, and may supplement or support linguistic aspects of the message.

Inappropriate behaviors :Use of nonverbal aspects that interfere with interpersonal/social aspects of communication, behaviors that detract from the content of the message rather than support and regulate discourse.

