**Supplementary Materials for the paper, *Spared bottom-up but impaired top-down interactive effects during naturalistic language processing in schizophrenia: Evidence from the visual world paradigm.***

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**Table of Contents.**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Full description of coding methods of eye movements | p. 3 |
| 2. Graphs depicting time course of gaze across the different objects in response to experimental manipulations | p.5 |
| 3. Exploratory correlations with clinical measures within the schizophrenia group. | p. 9 |

**1. Full description of coding methods for eye movements: Video-based eye tracking**

Although visual world eye tracking is new to the study of schizophrenia, it has considerable history in the field of psycholinguistics [1-9]. The variant used here – *video-based eye tracking,* in which gaze is recorded by a video camera – also has considerably history in developmental psychology, due to its non-invasive nature and its reliability (it results in minimal missing data). Video-based eye tracking has been used to study visual attention in both children and adults (e.g., [10]) but has mainly been used to study language. Important examples include a number of papers by Anne Fernald’s research group (e.g., [11-13]). In particular, this research group has demonstrated that video-based eye tracking is a valid measure of language comprehension, by showing that children’s eye-tracked responses to spoken sentences can predict their scores on standardized structural language assessments completed at both the time of testing and also many years later [14].

Other groups have also used video-based eye tracking (e.g., [15, 16]). The results from [16] are particularly important here because they conducted a comparison between automated eye tracking and video-based eye tracking, and found that the two techniques measured position of gaze with greater than 90% agreement. As such, video-based eye tracking can be described as a robust and non-invasive approach to measure gaze.

In the current study, eye movement videos were coded to reveal how participants gazed at the different objects in front of them over time, and how this varied across the experimental conditions. All coding was carried out by trained coders employed by the lab; these coders were blind to hypotheses and experimental conditions and were not otherwise involved in the running of this study. All coders had taken part in a rigorous training routine, coding multiple different videos iteratively in order to achieve high across-coder reliability (>95% agreement across five different videos).

Eye movement coding was carried out, frame-by-frame, starting from the onset of the first word in each sentence. For instance, for the trial associated with the spoken instruction, “*tickle the frog with the feather”*, one coder would first find the onset of the word “*tickle”* in the video, and then (with the sound turned off), a second coder (blind to condition) would record the participant’s direction of gaze in each video frame from that point up until 2500ms subsequent to the onset of the final word (“*feather”*). Although this procedure recorded information for the entire duration of the sentence, we only analyzed gaze on frames subsequent to the onset of “*feather”*, as that was the point at which participants could begin to resolve the syntactic ambiguity to come to an interpretation of sentence meaning.

To code each frame of the video, the coder recorded where the participant was gazing on the shelf (to the upper left object, upper right object, lower left object, lower right object, the center of the shelf, elsewhere on the shelf), or recorded if the subject blinked or looked away from the shelf entirely. Once each frame had been coded, the subsequent file was recoded to match the location of gaze with the object of gaze (e.g., on trials where the upper left object was the Target Instrument, frames with gaze to the upper left were recoded as gaze to the Target Instrument). Because our critical hypotheses concerned gaze to the Target Instrument (as a measure of syntactic ambiguity resolution), our key analyses compared gaze to that object across the different experimental conditions.

The resulting data were then analyzed using the “time-window” analysis reported in the main paper. This analysis compared gaze to the Target Instrument across conditions in two pre-specified a priori 500ms time windows, from 200ms-699ms after the onset of the final word (e.g., “*feather”*), and from 700ms-1199ms. For each trial and time window, we coded whether or not participants fixated on the Target Instrument, to create the binary dependent measure that could be analyzed using the logistic regressions described in the main paper.

**2. Graphs depicting time-course of gaze across the different objects in Tasks 1-3**

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**Supplementary Figure 1.** Task 1: Use of prosodic phrasing over time in people with schizophrenia and controls. For each condition, the graphs show proportion of trials, at each time point, on which participants are fixating upon each of the objects. Ribbons represent +/- one standard error of the mean. Note that target and distractor animals were of different types (e.g., a frog and a cat).

An example stimulus set would be:

**Biased towards target instrument:** *You can point at the cat… with the flower*

**Biased against target instrument:** *You can point at… the cat with the flower*

**Target Animal:** A cat holding a tiny flower

**Target Instrument:** A large flower

**Distractor Animal:** An elephant holding a tiny hairclip

**Distractor Instrument:** A large hairclip

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**Supplementary Figure 2.** Task 2 (Verb semantic-thematic): Use of verb semantic-thematic information over time in people with schizophrenia and controls. For each condition, the graphs show proportion of trials, at each time point, on which participants are fixating each of the objects. Ribbons represent +/- one standard error of the mean. Target and distractor animals were of the same type on 50% of trials.

An example stimulus set would be (for trials with two different type of animal):

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Biased towards target instrument:** | **Biased against target instrument:** |
| *Poke the penguin with the feather* | *Sing to the koala with the funnel* |
| **Target Animal:** A penguin holding a tiny feather | **Target Animal:** A koala holding a tiny funnel |
| **Target Instrument:** A large feather | **Target Instrument:** A large funnel |
| **Distractor Animal:** A monkey holding a tiny partyhat | **Distractor Animal:** A dinosaur holding a tiny flower |
| **Distractor Instrument:** A large partyhat | **Distractor Instrument:** A large flower |

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**Supplementary Figure 3.** Task 2 (Visual Scene): Use of pragmatically-relevant visual scene information over time in people with schizophrenia and controls. For each condition, the graphs show proportion of trials, at each time point, on which participants are fixating each of the objects. Ribbons represent +/- one standard error of the mean. Target and distractor animals were of different types when the scene was biased toward using the target instrument, and of the same type when biased against using the target instrument.

An example stimulus set would be:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Biased towards target instrument:** | **Biased against target instrument:** |
| *Poke the penguin with the feather* | *Poke the penguin with the feather* |
| **Target Animal:** A penguin holding a tiny feather | **Target Animal:** A penguin holding a tiny feather |
| **Target Instrument:** A large feather | **Target Instrument:** A large feather |
| **Distractor Animal:** A monkey holding a tiny partyhat | **Distractor Animal:** A penguin holding a tiny partyhat |
| **Distractor Instrument:** A large partyhat | **Distractor Instrument:** A large partyhat |

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**Supplementary Figure 4.** Task 3: Use of conversational discourse information over time in people with schizophrenia and controls. For each condition, the graphs show proportion of trials, at each time point, on which participants are fixating each of the objects. Ribbons represent +/- one standard error of the mean. Note that target and distractor animals were always of the same type.

An example stimulus set would be:

**Biased towards target instrument:** Male Speaker: *What should we do to a fox?*

Female Speaker: *Scratch the fox with the comb.*

**Biased against target instrument:** Male Speaker: *Which fox should we use now?*

Female Speaker: *Scratch the fox with the comb.*

**Target Animal:** A fox holding a tiny comb

**Target Instrument:** A large comb

**Distractor Animal:** A fox holding a tiny ball

**Distractor Instrument:** A large ball

**3. Exploratory correlations with clinical measures within the patient group**

Within the schizophrenia group, we examined relationships between participants’ use of different informational cues and their clinical characteristics. Given the number of participants and relatively small range of symptoms, we consider these analyses exploratory. We hypothesized that negative thought disorder severity (SANS global alogia rating) might predict impairments using prosodic phrasing. This was based on previous reports of correlations between negative symptoms and lower-level perceptual deficits [19] or prosodic impairments [20]. In addition, we hypothesized that positive thought disorder severity (SAPS global thought disorder rating) might predict impairments in using lexical information. This was based on previous reports of lexico-semantic abnormalities in individuals with positive thought disorder [e.g. 21, 22]. In addition, to establish the specificity of any findings, we carried out analyses examining global ratings of delusions, hallucinations, and global summed ratings of positive and negative symptoms, as well as with medication dosage.

We found that individuals with higher ratings of negative thought disorder (M=0.8, range 0 - 4) showed marginally less influence of prosodic information when carrying out their final actions (Beta=0.39 (Standard Error = 0.21), z=1.9, p=.06), although this effect was not found in eye movements (p=.52).

We also found that individuals with higher global positive thought disorder ratings (M=4.4, range 0-12) showed weaker effects of lexical information on both their eye movements (Beta=0.32 (0.15), z=2.1, p=.04) and final actions (Beta=0.74 (0.35), z=2.1, p=.03). While these findings should be considered preliminary, they are consistent with the theory that lexical representations are noisier in people with positive thought disorder as a longer-term consequence of compromised top-down interactions [23].

Global ratings of delusions, hallucinations, or summed scores of global ratings of positive and negative symptoms all failed to predict how any type of information affected either eye movements or final actions. The same was true of medication (chlorpromazine equivalents) and participant age.

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