

INTERPRETATION OF SCHIZOPHRENIA

Other Physical Therapies

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e-Book 2016 International Psychotherapy Institute

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Table of Contents

[Other Physical Therapies](#)

[I Convulsive Shock Treatment](#)

[II Insulin Treatment](#)

[III Some Notes on Psychosurgery](#)

[Bibliography](#)

[Acknowledgments](#)

Other Physical Therapies

Physical therapies other than drug therapy are not as frequently used as they used to be until the middle 1950s. However, because they remain in the therapeutic armamentarium of many psychiatrists, a brief description of them and a critical discussion of their use will be presented.

I

Convulsive Shock Treatment

Convulsive shock treatment was first applied by Von Meduna (1937) with pharmacologic methods. Von Meduna thought that there was an incompatibility between schizophrenia and epilepsy and that therefore even an artificially produced epilepsy would be beneficial to schizophrenic patients. This theoretical basis is very dubious; furthermore, convulsive therapy was soon found more effective for psychotic depressions than for schizophrenia. No matter how debatable were his theoretical premises, the introduction of convulsive therapy in psychiatry is nevertheless to Von Meduna's credit.

Pharmacologic convulsive therapy has, however, a serious drawback. The convulsion occurs not immediately after the injection but after a brief interval during which the patient retains consciousness. During this interval the patient experiences fear and unpleasant feelings of extreme intensity. Electric convulsive therapy (ECT), introduced in 1938 by Cerletti and Bini (1938), immediately replaced the pharmacologic method partly because it was technically simpler than the latter, but most of all because it produced an almost immediate loss of consciousness and therefore eliminated the above-mentioned unpleasant interval experiences. A simple machine, modeled after the original one devised by Bini, is necessary. Two electrodes are placed on the temples of the patient and a certain amount of current is allowed to pass. The amount of current and the duration are measured. The doses range from 70 to 150 volts for 0.1 to 0.5 second. Petit mal and grand mal seizures result, but only grand mal seizures are therapeutically effective. The average course of twenty treatments is generally given to schizophrenic patients.

Kalinowsky and Hippus (1969) recommend an initial dose of 70 volts for 0.2 second. An increase in time and voltage is applied if no convulsion occurs. The patient should have no breakfast prior to

treatment. Dentures, hair pins, and other metal objects should be removed. Partial dentures are left in the mouth to prevent breaking of unevenly spaced teeth. All medication should be suspended. The bladder should be voided.

Although Kalinowsky and Hippus believe that the danger of treating with ECT patients who were receiving phenothiazine treatment was exaggerated, they still refrain from treating patients who are on high doses of tranquilizers. They prefer to wait two days from the time the dose was drastically reduced. On the morning of the treatment all neuroleptic drugs are suspended. Mouth gags are used to keep the patient from biting his tongue. The trunk and extremities are held gently by attendants. To obtain muscle relaxation and to avoid fracture many practitioners used curare, in accordance with a technique first described by Bennett (1940). Because this procedure is dangerous, curare has been replaced by succinylcholine. This substance is given in combination with an intravenous anesthetic and therefore the assistance of an anesthesiologist is required.

Severe cardiovascular diseases, pulmonary diseases, diseases of the bones, brain tumors, and epilepsy are contraindications to ECT.

The results obtained with ECT are very impressive, especially in patients whose illness is recent (generally no longer than a year). In many cases, the obvious symptoms—such as delusions, hallucinations, ideas of reference, catatonic postures—disappear. The patient becomes more cooperative and is soon capable of living socially. The treatment is not affective in every case; furthermore in many cases relapses occur sooner or later.

As we mentioned before, if we probe deeply enough into these patients, we see that the cause of the deep conflicts will remain or may reemerge once the effects of the treatment fade away. Nevertheless, what we obtain is of considerable worth. Generally, after ECT, the patient is able to return to society; he will no longer be a public charge and, although his functions may be curtailed, he may be able to live some kind of limited social life. In many fortunate cases, where the events in dramatic succession (acute attack *→* hospitalization *→* institution of ECT) have acted as catalytic agents on the environmental forces, the results may be much more than a removal of the immediate symptoms.

I recommend ECT especially in acute or refractory cases, when

the patients do not respond to psychotherapy or drug therapy. After the course of ECT the capacity to experience anxiety is diminished and the patient is more reachable. The elimination of the gross psychopathology makes communication easier and reduces the duration and the frequency of the sessions of psychotherapy. If the patient cannot be affected psychotherapeutically after ECT, this fact must be considered an ominous sign, and a recurrence has to be expected sooner or later.

But it is my opinion that, if a complete or solid recovery is hoped for, psychotherapy is a necessity after ECT, just as it is in drug therapy. In certain difficult cases psychotherapy will make it possible to spot minor subliminal setbacks, which may then be checked and controlled. If not worked out with the therapist, these setbacks would develop into full psychotic relapses. At the same time the patient is made able to understand and to manage the conflicts or the anxiety that is bound to reappear with the gradual resumption of his normal functions of life.

How is ECT capable of producing its symptomatic therapeutic effects? Here the field is still open to the realm of speculation. Gordon

(1948), in an interesting short paper, listed no fewer than fifty theories that have been advanced to explain the effect of ECT. Twenty-seven of them are somatogenic theories and twenty-three psychogenic. At the present stage of our knowledge it is difficult to ascertain which one or which combination of them is valid.

Despite the fact that ECT acts as a psychological catalyst on the relatives of the patient, and despite the fact that I consider the psychological determinants and components of schizophrenia very important, I am inclined to believe that ECT has a predominantly physiological action, not a psychological one. Although the improvement may be partially due to the fact that the patient receives some kind of care, obviously it cannot be due only to the fact of being treated, irrespective of the nature of the treatment. Some of the past physical treatments, such as hormone therapy, did not produce any effect on schizophrenics. The symptomatic improvement is also not due to the fact that the patients become more accessible to psychotherapy. Although, as we have already mentioned, it is true that they become more accessible to psychotherapy and that we should take advantage of this greater accessibility to the fullest possible extent, the fact remains that hundreds of patients have been

discharged from hospitals after ECT free of overt symptoms, even though they have not received any kind of psychotherapy.

I share with many others the view that the improvement is a consequence of the reversible histological alterations produced in the central nervous system, particularly in the frontal lobes. These alterations engender those transient clinical pictures of organic disorder that Kalinowsky (1945) has described and called “organic-psychotic reactions occurring during ECT” and that are mainly characterized by impairment of memory and by confusion. In order for the patient to experience the kind of anxiety that produces a psychosis, some areas of the brain, either cortical or subcortical, must function adequately. If those areas are in an altered condition, no long-circuited anxiety is possible. There is loss of memory of the conflicts, or, if the conflicts are remembered, they are incapable of eliciting anxiety. By the time the reversible alterations have disappeared, the patient may have reoriented his life, or his life may have been reoriented for him, or the acute, precipitating factors may have disappeared, so that there may be no recurrence of the symptoms. But if these factors have not changed, sooner or later there will be a relapse.

The chief objection to this theory is the following. Why is not ECT effective in psychoneuroses? After all, we know that in psychoneuroses, too, anxiety is the basic factor. The transient damage produced by ECT is not enough to prevent the degree of anxiety that is necessary to engender a neurosis. In other words, according to this theory, to elicit the anxiety that causes a psychosis, a higher degree of functionality is necessary than for the development of the anxiety that leads to psychoneurosis. We have already learned that in order to become psychotic, the patient must have cortical centers that will permit him to experience long-circuiting anxiety, that is, cortical centers that will permit him to live in a symbolic and interpersonal world.

Thus, according to this point of view, ECT is a reductive procedure; it operates by putting the patient artificially on a lower level, where it will be easier for him to integrate. We have seen that the illness itself attempts to do so. However, with relatively few exceptions the illness fails in its teleologic attempts because, although it pushes the patient to lower levels, it does not give him the ability to integrate; on the contrary, it puts into motion a mechanism of self-perpetuating and progressive regression. ECT is successful if the

patient, with the help of others, can manage to reach some kind of solid integration before the conflicts come back, so that he will be able then to repress them or to find some kind of *modus vivendi* with them. ECT, like all organic cerebral traumata, does not unchain a progressive regression (Arieti, 1956). Undoubtedly ECT has a useful effect also on the autonomic nervous system and on the reticular system, but the mechanism is unknown.

Two points must be examined on account of which ECT has been bitterly criticized: (1) does ECT produce serious damage to the nervous system? (2) does ECT hinder or make impossible subsequent psychotherapy?

ECT *does* produce some damage, but of relatively mild intensity and of reversible character. Apart from the theoretical considerations about the therapeutic mechanisms of ECT, we have clinical and pathological evidence of damage. Clinically, we have those organic reactions that have already been mentioned and that generally subside in a few weeks after termination of the treatment. The works of many authors (Winkleman and Moore, 1944; Arieti, 1941; Cerletti and Bini, 1940; Globus et al., 1943) have made it evident that histological

changes produced by both metrazol and ECT are all *reversible*, unless an unusual quantity of treatment is given for a prolonged period of time.

Clinical and histological studies indicate that the damage is mild and transitory. Complete *restitutio ad integrum* is to be expected if the proper technique is used.

If physical hazards do not exist or are minimal when the proper conditions are met, then the objections of many authors to this type of treatment must concern possible psychological harm. We have already seen that some intellectual impairment and emotional liability may occur during the treatment, but that they are transitory. No patient, as a result of the treatment, has been permanently incapacitated intellectually or has developed psychopathic traits.

Finally, and this question concerns the second fundamental point to be evaluated, does ECT hinder the ensuing or concomitant psychotherapy that is necessary for a complete recovery?

Eissler (1952) speaks of “the great danger” he saw in ECT and of his great efforts to save patients from it.

My experience with many patients who, before the era of drug therapy, were treated psychotherapeutically after ECT has convinced me that this physical treatment did not hinder psychotherapy but, on the contrary, made it easier or possible in many otherwise untreatable cases. It is necessary, however, that the psychotherapist be not the same physician who administered the shock. A new reorientation, with new interpersonal contacts, is necessary for the patient.

ECT, however, should not be the first choice among various methods of treatment. It is symptomatic in nature, the effects are not lasting in many cases, and the memory of it remains painful to the patient. All in all, it remains a useful procedure, to be kept in the psychiatric armamentarium and to be used only when the other types of treatment have failed to bring about even symptomatic improvement.

II Insulin Treatment

Insulin shock treatment was introduced by Sakel (1936). It consists of administration of insulin in progressively larger doses. One starts initially with 10 to 15 units and increases the dosage until the

patient undergoes severe hypoglycemic shocks, which are characterized by comas and, less frequently, by epileptic seizures. The average coma-producing dose is 100 to 150 units. The state of coma used to be terminated in the fourth or fifth hour by administration of an adequate amount of carbohydrates. Sugar was given orally if the patient was able to drink, or through tube feeding, or through an intravenous injection of a glucose solution. Now termination is obtained through the use of glucagon, in doses of 0.33 to 1 mg intravenously or intramuscularly. Small amounts generally awaken the patient, who is then able to drink a sugar solution.

From a minimum of twenty to a maximum of eighty comas are generally produced, usually at a frequency of at least three times a week.

Many modifications of Sakel's original technique have been devised. Laqueur and La Burt (1960) devised the method of multiple doses of insulin. Treatment is started with 5 to 10 units and the daily amount is divided into three doses given at fifteen-minute intervals. In most patients comas are obtained with only 60 or 70 units of insulin.

Elderly patients should not be accepted for insulin treatment, nor should patients with cardiovascular, renal, or respiratory conditions or other debilitating diseases. Pregnancy is also a counterindication. From a pathological point of view, some researchers have found severe histological alterations (Ferraro and Jervis, 1939), whereas others have found irreversible cell damage in experimental animals *only* when the animals died in coma or when unusually high doses were injected over a long period of time (Accomero, 1939; Weil, Liebert, and Heilbrunn, 1938).

Insulin coma treatment requires a proper hospital setting; it is not a procedure suitable for office practice. Because of its relative technical difficulties, it has been replaced by ECT. However, some authorities, including Kalinowsky and Hippius (1969), feel that insulin remission is superior to that achieved with ECT.

III

Some Notes on Psychosurgery

In the first edition of this book (1955) I concluded my notes on psychosurgery with the following words:

By doing surgery on the patient, we give up all hope. We share the pessimism and hopelessness of the patient. We are ready to make him more docile but less human, without any possibility of redemption. The irrevocability of the damage, which precludes the application of new methods, devised in the future, or additional unforeseeable opportunities, has been dramatized recently by the development of the new tranquilizing drugs. The partial amelioration obtained with psychosurgery could have been obtained shortly afterwards with these pharmacological agents. Thousands and thousands of patients, all over the world, who lost their frontal lobes could have obtained the same or greater degrees of improvement in a less dangerous, nontraumatic, and reversible manner.

I still subscribe to these remarks. Nevertheless, inasmuch as psychosurgery is still practiced in a few treatment centers for refractory chronic patients, I shall describe here a few of its modalities.

Psychosurgical treatment, forerunners of which were applied even in ancient times, was reintroduced on a scientific basis in 1935 by the Portuguese Ega Moniz (1963a, b). As Fulton reported (1951), Moniz was impressed by Jacobsen's and Fulton's experiments. Monkeys present anxiety and temper tantrums if they are not rewarded in a test situation, but they do not manifest this disturbed behavior if their frontal lobes have been removed. Moniz felt that if

this result is obtained in monkeys, it could also be obtained in men suffering from anxiety. He proceeded to cut the frontal projections of twenty patients and reported favorable results. He first destroyed the white matter by means of alcohol injections but soon replaced this method with another one that consists of cutting the white matter. This procedure appeared more reliable and controllable. Leucotomy was thus originated.

Freeman and Watts (1942) introduced Moniz's method into the United States and refined its technique. Since then many types of operations have been tried and advocated in an attempt to reduce the damage and to increase the safety of the operation. After the original work of Moniz, Fiamberti (1947) introduced the method of transorbital leucotomy. A frontal cut is produced in the lower medial quadrant merely by drawing the upper eyelid away from the eyeball and inserting the transorbital leucotome, which goes through the orbital plate, penetrates the frontal lobe for a depth of three inches, and severs the basal portion of the thalamofrontal radiation. Freeman (1949), who originally preferred Moniz's operation, later became one of the chief advocates of Fiamberti's technique. This technique is relatively simple and does not require surgical skill.

Scoville (1949) advocated a technique called “selective cortical undercutting,” which cuts only the orbital surface of the frontal lobes. Mettler (1952) and others have advocated another operation called topectomy or gyrectomy, which consists of the bilateral removal of Brodmann’s areas 9 and 10. Thalamotomy and other operations have also been attempted. Lindstrom (1954) produced cortical destruction with ultrasonic beams, which did not produce gliosis.

It is out of place to give here a description of the various techniques or a detailed account of the postoperative handling of the patients or of the early postoperative symptoms.

Some differences have been noticed in the results obtained with the various operations, but the fundamental characteristics seem to be the same. These operations have been performed on patients suffering from a variety of psychiatric syndromes, such as severe obsessive-compulsive neuroses, involuntal melancholia, and anxiety states. They have also been performed on patients suffering from intractable pain.

The largest number of patients who have been treated belong to

the schizophrenic group. The results are not constant, but most authors feel that if deterioration has not occurred, improvement is likely to occur. These authors stress the fact that the patients who were unhappy or anxiety ridden before the operation seem very much relieved. They appear euphoric, gay, carefree. If they had obsessions and compulsions or disturbing hallucinations, they may lose these symptoms. More often the symptoms persist but do not seem so disturbing. According to Burlingame (1949) these patients present a “third personality”—that is, a personality that is different from the psychotic and psychoneurotic. This “third personality” is characterized by reduced affectivity and increased responsiveness to immediate stimuli and environment. The patients who are not improved enough to leave the hospital are easier to manage. They cooperate better and do not manifest destructive behavior or attacks of rage. Neurological complications, especially epilepsy, occur in some cases. The mortality rate is low.

Some enthusiastic authors have spoken even of social recoveries. Some patients are able to resume their previous occupations if these did not require too much initiative. Others adjust in a lower occupation. Many authors stress the fact also that the common

psychological tests, such as the usual intelligence tests, do not reveal any impairment of the mental functions of the patients.

These views are optimistic because they give only a partial account of the results. It is enough to stay for a few hours in close interpersonal relationship with some of these operated patients in order to realize that they are not normal. Perhaps their abnormality cannot be differentiated or illustrated by the usual psychiatric examination or by the common psychological tests. This proves only the limitations of these tests. Not only is the operated patient in an abnormal state, but his abnormalities are serious. He lacks initiative, originality, foresight, moral judgment. Psychopathic behavior is prominent in many cases, because the patient is carefree, oblivious of the consequences of his acts, and interested only in satisfying his wishes. On the other hand, it is true that some patients show only minimal defects or sporadic outbursts of temper.

Many people feel that, undesirable as these postoperative symptoms are, they are still better than the ones the patient presented prior to the operation and that therefore the change is worthwhile. In other words, the difference between the preoperative and

postoperative symptoms is more important than what we lose potentially. This point of view is very questionable. It is true that prior to the operation the patient was unmanageable and suffering and that after the operation he often becomes docile and easy to manage. However, as we have already mentioned, often he also becomes a ruthless extrovert, impulsive, lacking in deep emotionality, foresight, initiative, creativity, and spirituality, and manifests psychopathic behavior. These characteristics are not *secondary* undesirable sequelae. They are very important. They also prevent deep psychotherapy, which requires an awareness of long-circuited anxiety and of one's dynamic mechanisms. After psychosurgery only training toward adjustment to a limited existence is possible, nothing else.

The principle under which psychosurgery is practiced is fundamentally a reductive one. Damage is caused to the highest levels of the nervous system, so that it will not be able to mediate those functions that are necessary for the production of symptoms (see Chapter 30). Theoretically there is no objection to this principle. Many medical treatments, especially surgical ones, are of reductive nature. They diminish the functionality; they remove organs. In the field of neurosurgery, this principle is followed quite often. For example, in

order to eliminate the involuntary movements of postencephalitic parkinsonian patients, cortical tracts are cut. No cortical impulses, therefore, can produce the pathological movements by acting on other centers. We have just seen that shock therapy also is reductive. But in psychosurgery the treatment is not reductive in a mild or transitory manner. Important areas, necessary for the highest processes of symbolism and interpersonal relations, are destroyed for the lifetime of the patient.

On the other hand, in the schizophrenic process itself, the damage is not necessarily permanent. As striking recoveries, at times even from very advanced cases, indicate, there is nothing in schizophrenia proving the absolute irreversibility of the process. The situation is thus different from that of postencephalitic parkinsonian patients who are treated surgically. It is a physical impossibility for them to reacquire the normal functions of the extrapyramidal centers that are diseased. It is more than questionable whether one can feel authorized in schizophrenia to barter a damage that is permanent for one that is not, especially when what we get is only a partial amelioration of dubious value, and almost always accompanied by serious complications.

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Acknowledgments

I wish to express my indebtedness to the publishers who have permitted the reproduction in this volume of long excerpts and/or illustrations from the following articles of mine:

“Special Logic of Schizophrenic and Other Types of Autistic Thought.”
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"Schizophrenic Art and Its Relationship to Modern Art," *Journal of the American Academy of Psychoanalysis*, Vol. 1, pp. 333-365. © 1973 by John Wiley & Sons.

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