SEVENTEENTH EDITION

ABNORMALPSYCHOLOGY

JILL M. HOOLEY

JAMES N. BUTCHER

MATTHEW K. NOCK

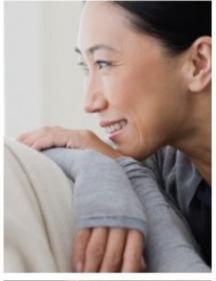
SUSAN MINEKA























Abnormal Psychology

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Jill M. Hooley

Harvard University

James N. Butcher

University of Minnesota

Matthew K. Nock

Harvard University

Susan Mineka

Northwestern University



VP, Product Development: Dickson Musslewhite
Senior Acquisitions Editor: Amber Chow
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Brief Contents

1	Abnormal Psychology: Overview and Research Approaches	1	10	Personality Disorders	341
2	Historical and Contemporary Views		11	Substance-Related Disorders	384
_	of Abnormal Behavior	32	12	Sexual Variants, Abuse, and Dysfunctions	421
3	Causal Factors and Viewpoints	60	12	•	141
4	Clinical Assessment and Diagnosis	106	13	Schizophrenia and Other Psychotic Disorders	459
5	Stress and Physical and Mental Health	136	14	Neurocognitive Disorders	503
6	Panic, Anxiety, Obsessions, and Their Disorders	173	15	Disorders of Childhood and Adolescence (Neurodevelopmental Disorders)	532
7	Mood Disorders and Suicide	220	16	Psychological Treatment	570
8	Somatic Symptom and Dissociative Disorders	269	17	Contemporary and Legal Issues in Abnormal Psychology	607
9	Eating Disorders and Obesity	303			

Contents

Features	xiii	■ Unresolved Issues Are We All Becoming Mentally II	1?
What's New in <i>DSM-5</i> ? A Quick Guide	XV	The Expanding Horizons of Mental Disorder	29
Preface	xvii	Summary	30
About the Authors	xxiii	Key Terms	31
1 Abnormal Psychology: Overview		2 Historical and Contemporary	22
and Research Approaches	1	Views of Abnormal Behavior	32
What Do We Mean by Abnormality?	3	Historical Views of Abnormal Behavior	33
Indicators of Abnormality	3	Demonology, Gods, and Magic	34
■ The World Around Us Extreme Generosity		Hippocrates' Early Medical Concepts	34
or Pathological Behavior?	6	Developments in Thinking Melancholia Through	35
■ Thinking Critically about <i>DSM</i> -5 What Is the <i>DSM</i>	[the Ages	36
and Why Was It Revised?	7	Early Philosophical Conceptions of Consciousness Later Greek and Roman Thought	36
The DSM-5 and the Definition of Mental Disorder	7	Early Views of Mental Disorders in China	37
Classification and Diagnosis	8	Views of Abnormality During the Middle Ages	37
What Are the Disadvantages of Classification?	8	Toward Humanitarian Approaches	39
How Can We Reduce Prejudicial Attitudes Toward		The Resurgence of Scientific Questioning in Europe	39
People Who Are Mentally III?	9	The Establishment of Early Asylums	40
Culture and Abnormality	10	Humanitarian Reform	41
How Common Are Mental Disorders?	12	Nineteenth-Century Views of the Causes	
Prevalence and Incidence	12	and Treatment of Mental Disorders	45
Prevalence Estimates for Mental Disorders The Global Burden of Disease	13 15	Changing Attitudes Toward Mental Health	
Treatment	15	in the Early Twentieth Century	45
Mental Health Professionals	16	The World Around Us Chaining Mental Health	
Research Approaches in Abnormal Psychology	16	Patients	46
Sources of Information	17	Mental Hospital Care in the Twentieth Century	46
Case Studies	17	The Emergence of Contemporary Views of Abnormal	4.0
Self-Report Data	18	Behavior	48
Observational Approaches	18	Biological Discoveries: Establishing the Link Between the Brain and Mental Disorder	48
Forming and Testing Hypotheses	19	The Development of a Classification System	49
Sampling and Generalization	20	Development of the Psychological Basis of Mental	17
Internal and External Validity	21	Disorder	50
Criterion and Comparison Groups	21	Developments in Research The Search	
Correlational Research Designs	22	for Medications to Cure Mental Disorders	50
Measuring Correlation	22	The Evolution of the Psychological Research Tradition	i.
Statistical Significance	23	Experimental Psychology	53
Effect Size	24	Unresolved Issues Interpreting Historical Events	56
Meta-Analysis	24	Summary	58
Correlations and Causality	24	Key Terms	59
Retrospective versus Prospective Strategies	24	2 0 15 117	
The Experimental Method in Abnormal Psychology	25	3 Causal Factors and Viewpoints	60
Studying the Efficacy of Therapy	26	Risk Factors and Causes of Abnormal Behavior	61
Single-Case Experimental Designs	27	Necessary, Sufficient, and Contributory Causes	61
■ Developments in Research Do Magnets Help		Feedback and Bidirectionality in Abnormal	
with Repetitive-Stress Injury?	27	Behavior	63
Animal Research	29	Diathesis–Stress Models	63

Perspectives to Understanding the Causes		Assessment Interviews	115
of Abnormal Behavior	66	The Clinical Observation of Behavior	116
The Biological Perspective	66	Psychological Tests	117
Genetic Vulnerabilities	67	■ Developments in Practice The Automated Practice	
Developments in Thinking Nature, Nurture,		Use of the Computer in Psychological Testing	118
and Psychopathology: A New Look at an Old Topic	71	The Case of Andrea C.: Experiencing Violence	
Brain Dysfunction and Neural Plasticity	72	in the Workplace	125
Imbalances of Neurotransmitters and Hormones	73	■ Developments in Practice Computer-Based	
Temperament	75	MMPI-2 Report for Andrea C.	126
The Impact of the Biological Viewpoint	76	The Integration of Assessment Data	128
The Psychological Perspective	76	Ethical Issues in Assessment	128
The Psychodynamic Perspective	77	Classifying Abnormal Behavior	129
■ Developments in Thinking The Humanistic		Differing Models of Classification	129
and Existential Perspectives	82	Formal Diagnostic Classification of Mental	
The Behavioral Perspective	83	Disorders	130
The Cognitive-Behavioral Perspective	86	■ Unresolved Issues The <i>DSM-5</i> : Issues in	
What the Adoption of a Perspective Does		Acceptance of Changed Diagnostic Criteria	133
and Does Not Do	89	Summary	134
The Social Perspective	90	Key Terms	135
Early Deprivation or Trauma	90		
Problems in Parenting Style	93	F	
Marital Discord and Divorce	95	5 Stress and Physical	
Low Socioeconomic Status and Unemployment	96	and Mental Health	136
Maladaptive Peer Relationships	97	What Is Stress?	137
Prejudice and Discrimination in Race, Gender,		Stress and the <i>DSM</i>	138
and Ethnicity	98	Factors Predisposing a Person to Stress	138
The Impact of the Social Perspective	99	Characteristics of Stressors	139
The Cultural Perspective	99	Measuring Life Stress	140
Universal and Culture-Specific Symptoms of Disord		Resilience	140
Culture and Over- and Undercontrolled Behavior	100		141
The World Around Us Culture and Attachment		Stress and Physical Health The Stress Response	141
Relationships	101	The Mind–Body Connection	143
Unresolved Issues Theoretical Perspectives		Understanding the Immune System	143
and the Causes of Abnormal Behavior	102		
Summary	103	Stress and Immune System Functioning	145
Key Terms	104	Stress and Cytokines Chronic Stress and Inflammation	145
1 C1: 1 A			146
4 Clinical Assessment	406	Stress and Premature Aging	147
and Diagnosis	106	■ The World Around Us Racial Discrimination and Cardiovascular Health in African Americans	147
The Basic Elements in Assessment	107		
The Relationship Between Assessment		Emotions and Health	149
and Diagnosis	107	Personality	149
Taking a Social or Behavioral History	108	Depression	150
Ensuring Culturally Sensitive Assessment		Anxiety	151
Procedures	109	Social Isolation and Lack of Social Support	151
The Influence of Professional Orientation	109	Positive Emotions	151
Reliability, Validity, and Standardization	110	The Importance of Emotion Regulation	153
Trust and Rapport Between the Clinician		Treatment of Stress-Related Physical Disorders	153
and the Client	110	Biological Interventions	153
Assessment of the Physical Organism	111	Psychological Interventions	153
The General Physical Examination	111	Stress and Mental Health	155
The Neurological Examination	111	Adjustment Disorder	155
The Neuropsychological Examination	114	Adjustment Disorder Caused by Unemployment	156
Psychosocial Assessment	115	Posttraumatic Stress Disorder	156

■ Thinking Critically about <i>DSM-5</i> Changes		Biological Causal Factors	191
to the Diagnostic Criteria for PTSD	157	Psychological Causal Factors	192
Acute Stress Disorder	158	Developments in Research Nocturnal Panic	
Posttraumatic Stress Disorder: Causes and Risk Factors	158	Attacks	194
■ DSM-5 Criteria for Posttraumatic Stress Disorder	159	Treatments	195
Prevalence of PTSD in the General Population	160	Generalized Anxiety Disorder	197
Rates of PTSD after Traumatic Experiences	160	DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Generalized Anxiety Disorder	198
Causal Factors in Posttraumatic Stress Disorder	162	Prevalence, Age of Onset, and Gender Differences	199
Individual Risk Factors	162	Comorbidity with Other Disorders	199
Biological Factors	163	Psychological Causal Factors	199
Sociocultural Factors	164	Biological Causal Factors	201
Long-Term Effects of Posttraumatic Stress	165	Treatments	202
Prevention and Treatment of Stress Disorders	165	Obsessive-Compulsive and Related Disorders	203
Prevention	165	Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder	203
■ The World Around Us Does Playing Tetris After a		■ Thinking Critically about <i>DSM-5</i> Why Is OCD	
Traumatic Event Reduce Flashbacks?	166	No Longer Considered to Be an Anxiety Disorder?	203
Treatment for Stress Disorders	167	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Obsessive-Compulsive	
Trauma and Physical Health	168	Disorder	205
The World Around Us Virtual Reality Exposure		Prevalence, Age of Onset, and Gender Differences	206
Treatment for PTSD in Military Personnel	169	Comorbidity with Other Disorders	206
Unresolved Issues Why Is the Study of Trauma So		Psychological Causal Factors	206
Contentious?	170	Biological Causal Factors	208
Summary	170	Treatments	210
Key Terms	172	Body Dysmorphic Disorder	212
		■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Body Dysmorphic	
6 Panic, Anxiety, Obsessions,		Disorder	213
and Their Disorders	173	Hoarding Disorder	215
		Trichotillomania	215
The Fear and Anxiety Response Patterns	174	Cultural Perspectives	216
Fear	174	The World Around Us Taijin Kyofusho	216
Anxiety	175	Unresolved Issues The Choice of Treatments:	
Overview of the Anxiety Disorders	450	Medications or Cognitive-Behavior Therapy?	217
and Their Commonalities	176	Summary	218
Specific Phobias	177	Key Terms	219
■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Specific Phobia	177		
Prevalence, Age of Onset, and Gender Differences	179		
Psychological Causal Factors	179	7 Mood Disorders and Suicide	220
Biological Causal Factors	181		
Treatments	181	Mood Disorders: An Overview	221
Social Phobia	183	Types of Mood Disorders	221
Prevalence, Age of Onset, and Gender Differences	183	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Major Depressive Disorder	222
Psychological Causal Factors	184	The Prevalence of Mood Disorders	222
DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Social Anxiety Disorder	101	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Manic Episode	223
(Social Phobia)	184	Unipolar Depressive Disorders	224
Biological Causal Factors	185	Major Depressive Disorder	224
Treatments	186	Persistent Depressive Disorder	227
Panic Disorder	187	■ DSM-5 Criteria for Persistent Depressive Disorder	228
■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Panic Disorder	188	Other Forms of Depression	228
Agoraphobia	188	■ Thinking Critically about DSM-5 Was It Wise	
Prevalence, Age of Onset, and Gender Differences	189	to Drop the Bereavement Exclusion for Major	
■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Agoraphobia	189	Depression?	229
Comorbidity with Other Disorders	190	■ Developments in Thinking A New <i>DSM-5</i>	
The Timing of a First Panic Attack	190	Diagnosis: Premenstrual Dysphoric Disorder	229

Causal Factors in Unipolar Mood Disorders	230	Developments in Research What Can	
Biological Causal Factors	230	Neuroimaging Tell Us about Conversion Disorder?	280
Psychological Causal Factors	235	Treatment of Conversion Disorder	280
■ Developments in Research Why Do Sex		Developments in Practice Treatment of a Patient	
Differences in Unipolar Depression Emerge During		Who Was Mute	281
Adolescence?	243	Factitious Disorder	281
Bipolar and Related Disorders	246	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Factitious Disorder	282
Cyclothymic Disorder	246	Distinguishing Between Different Types of Somatic	
Bipolar Disorders (I and II)	246	Symptom and Related Disorders	283
Causal Factors in Bipolar Disorders	249	Dissociative Disorders: An Overview	283
Biological Causal Factors	249	Depersonalization/Derealization Disorder	284
Psychological Causal Factors	251	DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Depersonalization/	
Sociocultural Factors Affecting Unipolar		Derealization Disorder	286
and Bipolar Disorders	251	Dissociative Amnesia	286
Cross-Cultural Differences in Depressive Symptoms	252	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Dissociative Amnesia	288
Cross-Cultural Differences in Prevalence	252	■ Thinking Critically about <i>DSM</i> -5 Where Does	
Treatments and Outcomes	252	Conversion Disorder Belong?	289
Pharmacotherapy	253	Dissociative Identity Disorder	290
Alternative Biological Treatments	255	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Dissociative Identity	270
Psychotherapy	256	Disorder Dissociative identity	291
Suicide: The Clinical Picture and the Causal Pattern	259		
Who Attempts and Dies by Suicide?	260	■ The World Around Us DID, Schizophrenia, and Split Personality: Clearing Up the Confusion	292
Psychological Disorders	261	Causal Factors and Controversies about DID	292
■ The World Around Us Warning Signs for Suicide	262	Current Perspectives	296
Other Psychosocial Factors Associated with Suicide	262	Cultural Factors, Treatments, and Outcomes	270
Biological Factors	263	in Dissociative Disorders	297
Theoretical Models of Suicidal Behavior	263	Cultural Factors in Dissociative Disorders	297
Suicide Prevention and Intervention	264	Treatment and Outcomes in Dissociative	271
Treatment of Mental Disorders	264	Disorders	297
Crisis Intervention	264	■ Unresolved Issues DID and the Reality of	
Focus on High-Risk Groups and Other Measures	265	"Recovered Memories"	299
Unresolved Issues Is There a Right to Die?	265	Summary	300
Summary	266	Key Terms	302
Key Terms	268		
		0 F (D) 1 101 '	202
		9 Eating Disorders and Obesity	303
8 Somatic Symptom and Dissociative		Clinical Aspects of Eating Disorders	304
Disorders	269	Anorexia Nervosa	304
Somatic Symptom and Related Disorders: An Overview	270	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Anorexia Nervosa	305
7 1		Bulimia Nervosa	307
Somatic Symptom Disorder	271	DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Bulimia Nervosa	307
DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Somatic Symptom Disorder	271	Binge-Eating Disorder	308
Causes of Somatic Symptom Disorder	272	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Binge-Eating Disorder	309
Treatment of Somatic Symptom Disorder	275	Age of Onset and Gender Differences	310
Illness Anxiety Disorder	276	■ Thinking Critically about <i>DSM-5</i> Other Forms	
■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Illness Anxiety Disorder	276	of Eating Disorders	311
Conversion Disorder (Functional Neurological Symptom		Prevalence of Eating Disorders	311
Disorder)	276	Medical Complications of Eating Disorders	312
■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Conversion Disorder	277	Course and Outcome	313
Range of Conversion Disorder Symptoms	277	Diagnostic Crossover	313
Important Issues in Diagnosing Conversion Disorder	278	Association of Eating Disorders with Other Forms	
Prevalence and Demographic Characteristics	278	of Psychopathology	314
Causes of Conversion Disorders	279	Eating Disorders Across Cultures	315

The World Around Us Ethnic Identity		■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Schizoid Personality	
and Disordered Eating	316	Disorder	350
Risk and Causal Factors in Eating Disorders	317	Schizotypal Personality Disorder	351
Biological Factors	317	■ DSM-5 Criteria for Schizotypal Personality	
Sociocultural Factors	318	Disorder	352
Family Influences	320	Cluster B Personality Disorders	352
Individual Risk Factors	320	Histrionic Personality Disorder	352
Treatment of Eating Disorders	324	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Histrionic Personality	
Treatment of Anorexia Nervosa	324	Disorder	353
Treatment of Bulimia Nervosa	325	Narcissistic Personality Disorder	354
Developments in Practice New Options		■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Narcissistic Personality	
for Adults with Anorexia Nervosa	326	Disorder	354
Treatment of Binge-Eating Disorder	327	Antisocial Personality Disorder	355
The Problem of Obesity	328	■ DSM-5 Criteria for Antisocial Personality	
Medical Issues	329	Disorder	356
Definition and Prevalence	329	Borderline Personality Disorder	359
Weight Stigma	329	■ Thinking Critically about <i>DSM-5</i> Nonsuicidal Self-	
The World Around Us Do Negative Messages		Injury: Distinct Disorder or Symptom of Borderline	
about Being Overweight Encourage Overweight	220	Personality Disorder?	360
People to Eat More or Less?	330	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Borderline Personality	
Obesity and the <i>DSM</i>	330	Disorder	361
Risk and Causal Factors in Obesity	330	Cluster C Personality Disorders	364
The Role of Genes	330	Avoidant Personality Disorder	364
Hormones Involved in Appetite and Weight	331	■ DSM-5 Criteria for Avoidant Personality	
Regulation Sociocultural Influences	332	Disorder	365
Family Influences	333	Dependent Personality Disorder	365
Stress and "Comfort Food"	334	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Dependent Personality	
Pathways to Obesity	334	Disorder	366
Treatment of Obesity	335	Obsessive-Compulsive Personality Disorder	367
Lifestyle Modifications	335	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Obsessive-Compulsive	
Medications	336	Personality Disorder	368
Bariatric Surgery	336	General Sociocultural Causal Factors for Personality	
The Importance of Prevention	337	Disorders	368
Unresolved Issues The Role of Public Policy		Treatments and Outcomes for Personality Disorders	369
in the Prevention of Obesity	338	Adapting Therapeutic Techniques to Specific	260
Summary	339	Personality Disorders	369
Key Terms	340	Treating Borderline Personality Disorder	370
		■ The World Around Us Marsha Linehan Reveals Her Own Struggle with Borderline Personality	
10		Disorder	371
10 Personality Disorders	341	Treating Other Personality Disorders	371
Clinical Features of Personality Disorders	342	Psychopathy	372
Challenges in Personality Disorders Research	344	Dimensions of Psychopathy	372
Difficulties in Diagnosing Personality Disorders	345	Developments in Research Are You Working	372
Difficulties in Studying the Causes of Personality	010	for a Psychopath?	375
Disorders	346	The Clinical Picture in Psychopathy	376
■ Thinking Critically about <i>DSM-5</i> Why Were No		Causal Factors in Psychopathy	377
Changes Made to the Way Personality Disorders		A Developmental Perspective on Psychopathy	379
Are Diagnosed?	347	Treatments and Outcomes in Psychopathic Personality	380
Cluster A Personality Disorders	348	■ Unresolved Issues DSM-5: How Can We Improve	500
Paranoid Personality Disorder	348	the Classification of Personality Disorders?	381
■ DSM-5 Criteria for Paranoid Personality Disorder	349	Summary	381
Schizoid Personality Disorder	349	Key Terms	383

11 Substance-Related Disorders	384	■ The World Around Us Should Marijuana Be Marketed and Sold Openly as a Medication?	415
Alcohol-Related Disorders	385	Gambling Disorder	416
The Prevalence, Comorbidity, and Demographics of Alcohol Abuse and Dependence	386	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Gambling Disorder	417
*	388	■ Unresolved Issues Exchanging Addictions: Is This	
■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Alcohol Use Disorder The Clinical Picture of Alcohol-Related	300	an Effective Treatment Approach?	418
Disorders	388	Summary	418
■ Developments in Research Fetal Alcohol		Key Terms	420
Syndrome: How Much Drinking Is Too Much?	390		
Causal Factors in the Abuse of and Dependence		12 Sexual Variants, Abuse,	
on Alcohol	392	•	421
Biological Causal Factors in Alcohol Abuse		•	
and Dependence	392	Sociocultural Influences on Sexual Practices	400
Psychosocial Causal Factors in Alcohol Abuse		and Standards	422
and Dependence	394	Case 1: Degeneracy and Abstinence Theory	423
■ The World Around Us Binge Drinking		Case 2: Ritualized Homosexuality in Melanesia	424
in College	396	Case 3: Homosexuality and American Psychiatry	424
Sociocultural Causal Factors	397	Paraphilic Disorders	426
Treatment of Alcohol-Related Disorders	397	Fetishistic Disorder	426
Use of Medications in Treating Alcohol Abuse		DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Several Different Paraphilic	107
and Dependency	397	Disorders	427
Psychological Treatment Approaches	398	Transvestic Disorder	428
Controlled Drinking versus Abstinence	399	Voyeuristic Disorder	429
Alcoholics Anonymous	399	Exhibitionistic Disorder	429
Outcome Studies and Issues in Treatment	400	Frotteuristic Disorder	430
Relapse Prevention	401	Sexual Sadism Disorder	430
Drug Abuse and Dependence	402	Sexual Masochism Disorder	431
Opium and Its Derivatives	403	Causal Factors and Treatments for Paraphilias	432
Biological Effects of Morphine and Heroin	403	Gender Dysphoria	433
Social Effects of Morphine and Heroin	404	DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Gender Dysphoria	400
Causal Factors in Opiate Abuse		in Children	433
and Dependence	405	DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Gender Dysphoria in	40.4
Neural Bases for Physiological Addiction	405	Adolescents and Adults	434
Addiction Associated with Psychopathology	406	Treatment for Gender Dysphoria	435
Treatments and Outcomes	406	Transsexualism	435
Stimulants	406	Treatment for Transsexualism	436
Cocaine	406	Sexual Abuse	437
Amphetamines	408	Childhood Sexual Abuse	437
Methamphetamine	409	Pedophilic Disorder	439
Caffeine and Nicotine	409	■ Thinking Critically about <i>DSM-5</i> Pedophilia	4.40
■ Thinking Critically about DSM-5 Can Changes		and Hebephilia	440
to the Diagnostic Criteria Result in Increased		Incest	440
Drug Use?	409	Rape	441
Sedatives	411	Treatment and Recidivism of Sex Offenders	444
Effects of Barbiturates	411	The World Around Us Megan's Law	444
Causal Factors in Barbiturate Abuse		Sexual Dysfunctions	446
and Dependence	412	Sexual Dysfunctions in Men	447
Treatments and Outcomes	412	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Different Sexual Dysfunctions	448
Hallucinogens	412	Sexual Dysfunctions in Women	452
LSD	412	Unresolved Issues How Harmful Is Childhood	
Mescaline and Psilocybin	413	Sexual Abuse?	455
Ecstasy	413	Summary	456
Marijuana	414	Key Terms	458

13 Schizophrenia and Other Psychotic		Urban Living	492
Disorders	459	Immigration	492
		Cannabis Use and Abuse	493
Schizophrenia	460	A Diathesis-Stress Model of Schizophrenia	494
Origins of the Schizophrenia Construct	460	Treatments and Outcomes	495
Epidemiology	461	Clinical Outcome	495
Clinical Picture	462	Pharmacological Approaches	496
Delusions	462	Psychosocial Approaches	498
■ DSM-5 Criteria for Schizophrenia	463	■ Unresolved Issues Why Are Recovery Rates	
Hallucinations	464	in Schizophrenia Not Improving?	500
The World Around Us Stress, Caffeine,		Summary	501
and Hallucinations	465	Key Terms	502
Disorganized Speech	465		
Disorganized Behavior	466	14 Neurocognitive Disorders	503
Negative Symptoms	466	0	
Subtypes of Schizophrenia	467	Brain Impairment in Adults	504
Other Psychotic Disorders	467	Thinking Critically about DSM-5 Is the Inclusion	FOF
Schizoaffective Disorder	467	of Mild Neurocognitive Disorder a Good Idea?	505
■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Schizoaffective Disorder	467	Clinical Signs of Brain Damage	505
Schizophreniform Disorder	467	Diffuse Versus Focal Damage	506
■ DSM-5 Criteria for Schizophreniform		The Neurocognitive/Psychopathology Interaction	508
Disorder	468	Delirium	509
Delusional Disorder	468	Clinical Picture	509
Brief Psychotic Disorder	468	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Delirium	510
■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Delusional Disorder	468	Treatments and Outcomes	510
■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for.</i> Brief Psychotic Disorder	469		
Genetic and Biological Factors	469	Major Neurocognitive Disorder	510
Genetic Factors	469	■ DSM-5 <i>Criteria for</i> Major Neurocognitive Disorder	511
The World Around Us The Genain			
Quadruplets	471	Parkinson's Disease	512
Prenatal Exposures	476	Huntington's Disease	512
■ Developments in Thinking Could Schizophrenia		Alzheimer's Disease Clinical Picture	512 513
Be an Immune Disorder?	477	Prevalence	514
Genes and Environment in Schizophrenia:		Causal Factors	515
A Synthesis	477	Developments in Research Depression Increases	515
A Neurodevelopmental Perspective	478	the Risk of Alzheimer's Disease	517
Thinking Critically about DSM-5 Attenuated		Neuropathology	517
Psychosis Syndrome	480	Treatment and Outcome	519
Structural and Functional Brain Abnormalities	481	Early Detection	519
Neurocognition	481	Developments in Research New Approaches	
Social Cognition	482	to the Treatment of Alzheimer's Disease	520
Loss of Brain Volume	483	■ The World Around Us Exercising Your Way	
Affected Brain Areas	483	to a Healthier Brain?	521
White Matter Problems	484	Supporting Caregivers	521
Brain Functioning	485	Neurocognitive Disorder Resulting from HIV Infection	
Cytoarchitecture	486	or Vascular Problems	522
Brain Development in Adolescence	487	Neurocognitive Disorder Associated with HIV-1	
Synthesis	487	Infection	522
Neurochemistry	488	Neurocognitive Disorder Associated with	
Psychosocial and Cultural Factors	490	Vascular Disease	523
Do Bad Families Cause Schizophrenia?	490	Neurocognitive Disorder Characterized by Profound	
Families and Relapse	491	Memory Impairment (Amnestic Disorder)	523

Disorders Involving Head Injury	524	Intellectual Disability	556
Clinical Picture	525	Levels of Intellectual Disability	557
Treatments and Outcomes	527	Causal Factors in Intellectual Disability	558
The World Around Us Brain Damage in		Organic Intellectual Disability Syndromes	559
Professional Athletes	528	Treatments, Outcomes, and Prevention	562
Unresolved Issues Should Healthy People Use Cognitive Enhancers?	529	Special Considerations in the Treatment of Children and Adolescents	563
Summary Key Terms	530 531	Special Factors Associated with Treatment of Children and Adolescents	563
Noy Tomic	001	■ The World Around Us The Impact of Child Abuse on Psychological Disorders	565
15 Disorders of Childhood and Adolescence (Neurodevelopmental		Family Therapy as a Means of Helping Children Child Advocacy Programs	565 566
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	532	Unresolved Issues How Should Society Deal with Delinquent Behavior?	566
Special Considerations in Understanding Disorders of		Summary	567
Childhood and Adolescence	534	Key Terms	569
Psychological Vulnerabilities of Young Children	534		
The Classification of Childhood and Adolescent Disorders	534	16 Psychological Treatment	570
Anxiety and Depression in Children and Adolescents	535	An Overview of Treatment	571
Anxiety Disorders of Childhood and		Why Do People Seek Therapy?	571
Adolescence	535	Who Provides Psychotherapeutic Services?	573
Childhood Depression and Bipolar Disorder	537	The Therapeutic Relationship	573
Developments in Research Bipolar Disorder		Measuring Success in Psychotherapy	574
in Children and Adolescents: Is There	F20	Objectifying and Quantifying Change	574
an Epidemic?	539	Would Change Occur Anyway?	576
Disruptive, Impulse-Control, and Conduct Disorder	540	Can Therapy Be Harmful?	576
Oppositional Defiant Disorder	541	■ The World Around Us When Therapy Harms	576
Conduct Disorder	541	What Therapeutic Approaches Should Be Used?	577
DSM-5 Criteria for Conduct Disorder	541	Evidence-Based Treatment	577
Causal Factors in ODD and CD	542	Medication or Psychotherapy?	578
Treatments and Outcomes	543	Combined Treatments	578
Elimination Disorders	544	Psychosocial Approaches to Treatment	579
Enuresis	544	Behavior Therapy	579
Encopresis	545	Cognitive and Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy	582
Neurodevelopmental Disorders	545	Humanistic-Experiential Therapies	584
Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder	545	Psychodynamic Therapies	587
DSM-5 Criteria for Attention-Deficit/	F 46	Couples and Family Therapy	590
Hyperactivity Disorder	546	Eclecticism and Integration	591
Autism Spectrum Disorder	549	Rebooting Psychotherapy	591
DSM-5 Criteria for Autism Spectrum	EE1	Sociocultural Perspectives	592
Disorder Tic Disorders	551	Social Values and Psychotherapy Psychotherapy and Cultural Diversity	592 592
	552		
Developments in Practice Can Video Games Help Children with Neurodevelopmental		Biological Approaches to Treatment Antipsychotic Drugs	593 593
Disorders?	553	Antidepressant Drugs	594
Specific Learning Disorders	554	Antianxiety Drugs	597
Causal Factors in Learning Disorder	555	Lithium and Other Mood-Stabilizing Drugs	598
Treatments and Outcomes	555	■ Thinking Critically about DSM-5 What	
Thinking Critically about <i>DSM-5</i> What Role Should		Are Some of the Clinical Implications of the	
Cultural Changes Have in Developing Medical		Recent Changes?	599
Terminology?	556	Nonmedicinal Biological Treatments	600

■ The World Around Us Deep Brain Stimulation for Treatment-Resistant Depression	603	■ The World Around Us Controversial Not Guilty Ple Can Altered Mind States or Personality Disorder Lim	
■ Unresolved Issues Do Psychiatric Medications		Responsibility for a Criminal Act?	619
Help or Harm?	604	The Insanity Defense	622
Summary	605	Competence to Stand Trial	625
Key Terms	606	Does Having Mental Health Problems Result in Convicted Felons Being Returned to Prison After Being Released?	626
17 Contemporary and Legal Issues		Organized Efforts for Mental Health	627
in Abnormal Psychology	607	U.S. Efforts for Mental Health	627
Perspectives on Prevention	608	International Efforts for Mental Health	629
Universal Interventions	609	Challenges for the Future	629
Selective Interventions	610	The Need for Planning	630
Indicated Interventions	613	The Individual's Contribution	630
Inpatient Mental Health Treatment in Contemporary		Unresolved Issues The HMOs and Mental	
Society	613	Health Care	631
The Mental Hospital as a Therapeutic Community	613	Summary	633
Aftercare Programs	615	Key Terms	634
Deinstitutionalization	615		
Controversial Legal Issues and the Mentally Ill	617	Glossary	635
Civil Commitment	617	References	658
■ The World Around Us Important Court Decisions		Credits	730
for Patient Rights	617	Name Index	737
Assessment of "Dangerousness"	618	Subject Index	753

Features

Developments in Research		DID, Schizophrenia, and Split Personality: Clearing	
Do Magnets Help with Repetitive-Stress Injury?	27	Up the Confusion	292
The Search for Medications to Cure Mental Disorders	50	Ethnic Identity and Disordered Eating	316
Nocturnal Panic Attacks	194	Do Negative Messages about Being Overweight	220
Why Do Sex Differences in Unipolar Depression		Encourage Overweight People to Eat More or Less?	330
Emerge During Adolescence?	243	Marsha Linehan Reveals Her Own Struggle with Borderline Personality Disorder	371
What Can Neuroimaging Tell Us about Conversion		Binge Drinking in College	396
Disorder?	280	Should Marijuana Be Marketed and Sold Openly	390
Are You Working for a Psychopath?	375	as a Medication?	415
Fetal Alcohol Syndrome: How Much Drinking		Megan's Law	444
Is Too Much?	390	Stress, Caffeine, and Hallucinations	465
Depression Increases the Risk of Alzheimer's Disease	517	The Genain Quadruplets	471
New Approaches to the Treatment of Alzheimer's Disease	520	Exercising Your Way to a Healthier Brain?	521
Bipolar Disorder in Children and Adolescents: Is There	320	Brain Damage in Professional Athletes	528
an Epidemic?	539	The Impact of Child Abuse on Psychological Disorders	565
Developments in Thinking		When Therapy Harms	576
Melancholia Through the Ages	35	Deep Brain Stimulation for Treatment-Resistant	
Nature, Nurture, and Psychopathology: A New Look at		Depression	603
an Old Topic	71	Important Court Decisions for Patient Rights	617
The Humanistic and Existential Perspectives	82	Controversial Not Guilty Pleas: Can Altered Mind	
A New <i>DSM-5</i> Diagnosis: Premenstrual Dysphoric Disorder	229	States or Personality Disorder Limit Responsibility for a Criminal Act?	619
Could Schizophrenia Be an Immune Disorder?	477	T 111 .11	
Developments in Practice		Unresolved Issues	
The Automated Practice: Use of the Computer in		Are We All Becoming Mentally Ill? The Expanding Horizons of Mental Disorder	20
Psychological Testing	118		29 56
Computer-Based MMPI-2 Report for Andrea C.	126	Interpreting Historical Events Theoretical Perspectives and the Causes of Abnormal	30
Treatment of a Patient Who Was Mute	281	Behavior	102
New Options for Adults with Anorexia Nervosa	326	The <i>DSM-5</i> : Issues in Acceptance of Changed Diagnostic	
Can Video Games Help Children with		Criteria	133
Neurodevelopmental Disorders?	553	Why Is the Study of Trauma So Contentious?	170
TPL - YA7 - 1.1 A 1 Y		The Choice of Treatments: Medications	
The World Around Us		or Cognitive-Behavior Therapy?	217
Extreme Generosity or Pathological Behavior?	6	Is There a Right to Die?	265
Chaining Mental Health Patients	46	DID and the Reality of "Recovered Memories"	299
Culture and Attachment Relationships	101	The Role of Public Policy in the Prevention	
Racial Discrimination and Cardiovascular Health	1.47	of Obesity	338
in African Americans	147	DSM-5: How Can We Improve the Classification	201
Does Playing Tetris After a Traumatic Event Reduce Flashbacks?	166	of Personality Disorders?	381
Virtual Reality Exposure Treatment for PTSD	100	Exchanging Addictions: Is This an Effective Treatment Approach?	418
in Military Personnel	169	How Harmful Is Childhood Sexual Abuse?	455
Taijin Kyofusho	216	Why Are Recovery Rates in Schizophrenia Not	100
Warning Signs for Suicide	262	Improving?	500

xiv Features

Should Healthy People Use Cognitive Enhancers?	529	DSM-5 Criteria for Gambling Disorder	417
How Should Society Deal with Delinquent Behavior?	566	DSM-5 Criteria for Several Different Paraphilic	
Do Psychiatric Medications Help or Harm?	604	Disorders	427
The HMOs and Mental Health Care	631	DSM-5 Criteria for Gender Dysphoria in Children	433
DSM-5 Boxes		<i>DSM-5 Criteria for</i> Gender Dysphoria in Adolescents and Adults	434
DSM-5 Criteria for Posttraumatic Stress Disorder	159	DSM-5 Criteria for Different Sexual Dysfunctions	448
DSM-5 Criteria for Specific Phobia	177	DSM-5 Criteria for Schizophrenia	463
DSM-5 Criteria for Social Anxiety Disorder		DSM-5 Criteria for Schizoaffective Disorder	467
(Social Phobia)	184	DSM-5 Criteria for Schizophreniform Disorder	468
DSM-5 Criteria for Panic Disorder	188	DSM-5 Criteria for Delusional Disorder	468
DSM-5 Criteria for Agoraphobia	189	DSM-5 Criteria for Brief Psychotic Disorder	469
DSM-5 Criteria for Generalized Anxiety Disorder	198	DSM-5 Criteria for Delirium	510
DSM-5 Criteria for Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder	205	DSM-5 Criteria for Major Neurocognitive Disorder	511
DSM-5 Criteria for Body Dysmorphic Disorder	213	DSM-5 Criteria for Conduct Disorder	541
DSM-5 Criteria for Major Depressive Disorder	222	DSM-5 Criteria for Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity	
DSM-5 Criteria for Manic Episode	223	Disorder	546
DSM-5 Criteria for Persistent Depressive Disorder	228	DSM-5 Criteria for Autism Spectrum Disorder	551
DSM-5 Criteria for Somatic Symptom Disorder	271		
DSM-5 Criteria for Illness Anxiety Disorder	276	■ Thinking Critically About DSM-5	
DSM-5 Criteria for Conversion Disorder	277	What Is the <i>DSM</i> and Why Was It Revised?	7
DSM-5 Criteria for Factitious Disorder	282	Changes to the Diagnostic Criteria for PTSD	157
DSM-5 Criteria for Depersonalization/Derealization		Why Is OCD No Longer Considered to Be an Anxiety	
Disorder	286	Disorder?	203
DSM-5 Criteria for Dissociative Amnesia	288	Was It Wise to Drop the Bereavement Exclusion	220
DSM-5 Criteria for Dissociative Identity Disorder	291	for Major Depression?	229
DSM-5 Criteria for Anorexia Nervosa	305	Where Does Conversion Disorder Belong?	289
DSM-5 Criteria for Bulimia Nervosa	307	Other Forms of Eating Disorders	311
DSM-5 Criteria for Binge-Eating Disorder	309	Why Were No Changes Made to the Way Personality	247
DSM-5 Criteria for Paranoid Personality Disorder	349	Disorders Are Diagnosed?	347
DSM-5 Criteria for Schizoid Personality Disorder	350	Nonsuicidal Self-Injury: Distinct Disorder or Symptom of Borderline Personality Disorder?	360
DSM-5 Criteria for Schizotypal Personality Disorder	352	Can Changes to the Diagnostic Criteria Result in	300
DSM-5 Criteria for Histrionic Personality Disorder	353	Increased Drug Use?	409
DSM-5 Criteria for Narcissistic Personality Disorder	354	Pedophilia and Hebephilia	440
DSM-5 Criteria for Antisocial Personality Disorder	356	Attenuated Psychosis Syndrome	480
DSM-5 Criteria for Borderline Personality Disorder	361	Is the Inclusion of Mild Neurocognitive Disorder	100
DSM-5 Criteria for Avoidant Personality Disorder	365	a Good Idea?	505
DSM-5 Criteria for Dependent Personality Disorder	366	What Role Should Cultural Changes Have in	
DSM-5 Criteria for Obsessive-Compulsive Personality		Developing Medical Terminology?	556
Disorder	368	What Are Some of the Clinical Implications of the	
DSM-5 Criteria for Alcohol Use Disorder	388	Recent Changes?	599

What's New in DSM-5? A Quick Guide

any changes occurred from *DSM-IV-TR* to *DSM-5*. Here is a summary of some of the most important revisions. Many of these changes are highlighted in the "Thinking Critically about *DSM-5*" boxes throughout this edition.

- The chapters of the *DSM* have been reorganized to reflect a consideration of developmental and lifespan issues. Disorders that are thought to reflect developmental perturbations or that manifest early in life (e.g., neurodevelopmental disorders and disorders such as schizophrenia) are listed before disorders that occur later in life.
- The multiaxial system has been abandoned. No distinction is now made between Axis I and Axis II disorders.
- *DSM-5* allows for more gender-related differences to be taken into consideration for mental health problems.
- It is extremely important for the clinician to understand the client's cultural background in appraising mental health problems. DSM-5 contains a structured interview that focuses on the patient's cultural background and characteristic approach to problems.
- The term *intellectual disability* is now used instead of the term *mental retardation*.
- A new diagnosis of autism spectrum disorder now encompasses autism, Asperger's disorder, and other forms of pervasive developmental disorder. The diagnosis of Asperger's disorder has been eliminated from the DSM.
- Changes to the diagnostic criteria for attention deficit disorder now mean that symptoms that occur before age 12 (rather than age 7) have diagnostic significance.
- A new diagnosis, called disruptive mood dysregulation disorder, has been added. This will be used to diagnose children up to age 18 who show persistent irritability and frequent episodes of extreme and uncontrolled behavior.
- The subtypes of schizophrenia have been eliminated.
- The special significance afforded to bizarre delusions with regard to the diagnosis of schizophrenia has been removed.
- Bipolar and related disorders are now described in a separate chapter of the *DSM* and are no longer listed with depressive disorders.

- Premenstrual dysphoric disorder has been promoted from the appendix of DSM-IV-TR and is now listed as a new diagnosis.
- A new diagnosis of persistent depressive disorder now subsumes dysthymia and chronic major depressive disorder
- The bereavement exclusion has been removed in the diagnosis of major depressive episode.
- The diagnosis of phobia no longer requires that the person recognize that his or her anxiety is unreasonable.
- Panic disorder and agoraphobia have been unlinked and are now separate diagnoses in *DSM-5*.
- Obsessive-compulsive disorder is no longer classified as an anxiety disorder. DSM-5 contains a new chapter that covers obsessive-compulsive and related disorders.
- New disorders in the obsessive-compulsive and related disorders category include hoarding disorder and excoriation (skin-picking) disorder.
- Posttraumatic stress disorder is no longer considered to be an anxiety disorder. Instead, it is listed in a new chapter that covers trauma- and stressor-related disorders.
- The diagnostic criteria for posttraumatic stress disorder have been significantly revised. The definition of what counts as a traumatic event has been clarified and made more explicit. *DSM-5* now also recognizes four-symptom clusters rather than the three noted in *DSM-IV-TR*.
- Dissociative fugue is no longer listed as a separate diagnosis. Instead, it is listed as a form of dissociative amnesia.
- The DSM-IV-TR diagnoses of hypochondriasis, somatoform disorder, and pain disorder have been removed and are now subsumed into the new diagnosis of somatic symptom disorder.
- Binge-eating disorder has been moved from the appendix of *DSM-IV-TR* and is now listed as an official diagnosis.
- The frequency of binge-eating and purging episodes has been reduced for the diagnosis of bulimia nervosa.

- Amenorrhea is no longer required for the diagnosis of anorexia nervosa.
- The DSM-IV-TR diagnoses of dementia and amnestic disorder have been eliminated and are now subsumed into a new category called major neurocognitive disorder.
- Mild neurocognitive disorder has been added as a new diagnosis.
- No changes have been made to the diagnostic criteria for personality disorders, although an alternative model is now offered as a guide for future research.

- Substance-related disorders are divided into two separate groups: substance use disorders and substanceinduced disorders.
- A new disorder, gambling disorder, has been included in substance-related and addictive disorders.
- Included for the first time in Section III of *DSM-5* are several new disorders regarded as being in need of further study. These include attenuated psychosis syndrome, nonsuicidal self-injury disorder, Internet gaming disorder, and caffeine use disorder.

Preface

Te are so excited about this course and hope that you are too! We (the authors) all took this course when we were undergraduate students because we were curious about abnormal aspects of human behavior. Why do some people become so depressed they can't get out of bed? Why do others have trouble controlling their use of alcohol and drugs? Why do some people become violent toward others, and in other cases toward themselves? We continue to be intensely curious about, and fascinated by, the answers to these and many other questions about abnormal human behavior. The purpose of this book is to provide a comprehensive (and hopefully engaging) introduction to the primary psychological disorders studied within abnormal psychology.

As you will learn, there are many different types of psychological disorders, and each is caused by the interaction of many different factors and can be considered from many different perspectives. We thought a lot about how best to present this information in a way that will be clear and engaging and will allow you to gain a solid, fundamental understanding of psychological disorders. As such, we use a biopsychosocial approach to provide a sophisticated appreciation of the total context in which abnormalities of behavior occur. This means that we present and describe the wide range of biological, psychological, and social factors that work together to lead to the development of psychological disorders. In addition, we discuss treatment approaches that target each of these different factors.

For ease of understanding we also present material on each disorder in a logical and consistent way. More specifically, we focus on three significant aspects: (1) the clinical picture, where we describe the symptoms of the disorder and its associated features; (2) factors involved in the development of the disorder; and (3) treatment approaches. In each case, we examine the evidence for biological, psychosocial (i.e., psychological and interpersonal), and sociocultural (the broader social environment of culture and subculture) influences. Because we wish never to lose sight of the person, we try to integrate as much case material as we can into each chapter. An additional feature of this book is a heavy focus on treatment. Although treatment is discussed in every chapter in the context of specific disorders, we also include a separate chapter that addresses issues in treatment more broadly. This provides students with increased understanding of a wide range of treatment approaches and permits more in-depth coverage than is possible in specific disorder–based chapters.

Abnormal Psychology has a long and distinguished tradition as an undergraduate text. Ever since James Coleman wrote the first edition many years ago, this textbook has been considered the most comprehensive in the field. Along the way there have been many changes. This is very much the case with this new edition. Perhaps the most exciting change, however, is the addition of Harvard Professor Matthew Nock to the author team. Matt, a recent MacArthur Award (aka, "Genius Grant") recipient, brings his brilliance, scholarship, and wry sense of humor to the book, providing fresh approaches and new perspectives. We are delighted that he has joined the author team and welcome him with great enthusiasm!

The Hooley-Butcher-Nock-Mineka author team is in a unique position to provide students with an integrated and comprehensive understanding of abnormal psychology. Each author is a noted researcher, an experienced teacher, and a licensed clinician. Each brings different areas of expertise and diverse research interests to the text. We are committed to excellence. We are also committed to making our text accessible to a broad audience. Our approach emphasizes the importance of research as well as the need to translate research findings into informed and effective clinical care for all who suffer from mental disorders. In this new edition, we seek to open up the fascinating world of abnormal psychology, providing students with comprehensive and up-to-date knowledge in a clear and engaging way. We hope that this newest edition conveys some of the passion and enthusiasm for the topic that we still experience every day.

Why Do You Need This New Edition?

The book you are reading is the seventeenth edition of *Abnormal Psychology*. Why so many revisions? And why not just use an old copy of the fifteenth or sixteenth edition? The reason is that our field is constantly making advances in our understanding of abnormal psychology. New research is being published all the time. As authors, it is important to us that these changes and new ways of thinking about the etiology, assessment, and treatment of psychological disorders are accurately presented in this text. Although many of the ideas and diagnostic concepts in the field of abnormal psychology have persisted for hundreds of years, changes in thinking often occur. And, at

some point, events occur that force a rethinking of familiar topics. A major example here is the revision of the manual that is used to classify mental disorders (called the *DSM-5*). This new edition of *Abnormal Psychology* includes the most up-to-date information about *DSM-5* diagnostic categories, classifications, and criteria.

Every time we work on a revision of *Abnormal Psychology* we are reminded of how dynamic and vibrant our field is. Developments in areas such as genetics, brain imaging, behavioral observation, and classification, as well changes in social and government policy and in legal decisions, add to our knowledge base and stimulate new treatments for those whose lives are touched by mental disorders.

If you're wondering what exactly is so new in this edition of *Abnormal Psychology*, here are seven big revisions that we have made.

- 1. We have a new author! Matt Nock brings a fresh and new perspective to this authoritative and established text.
- 2. The seventeenth edition of Abnormal Psychology includes the most up-to-date and in-depth information about biological influences on the entire spectrum of behavioral abnormalities, while still maintaining a comprehensive and balanced biopsychosocial approach to understanding abnormal behavior.
- 3. As a result of the publication of *DSM-5*, the diagnostic criteria for many disorders have changed. This edition includes detailed boxes listing the current *DSM-5* diagnostic criteria for all the disorders covered in the book. Specific highlight boxes and discussions in the text also alert you to some of the most important changes in *DSM-5*.
- 4. Other feature boxes provide opportunities for critical thinking by illustrating some of the controversies associated with the changes that were (or were not) made. Throughout the text we also provide readers with different perspectives on the likely implications that these changes will have (or are having) for clinical diagnosis and research in psychopathology.
- 5. Reflecting the ever-changing field of abnormal psychology, hundreds of new references have been added, highlighting the newest and most important research findings.
- 6. Changes have been made in many chapters to improve the flow of the writing and enhance learning. The presentation of material in many chapters has also been reorganized to provide a more logical and coherent narrative.
- 7. Finally, at the beginning of each chapter, clearly defined learning objectives provide the reader with an overview of topics and issues that will be included in the chapter. These learning objectives also appear again in the specific sections to which they apply. This

makes it easier for readers to identify what they should be learning in each section. At the end of each chapter a summary of the learning objectives is also provided. In Review questions at the end of major sections within chapters also provide additional opportunities for selfassessment and increased learning.

What's New

This new edition of *Abnormal Psychology* has been redesigned to reflect the newest and most relevant research findings, presented in a way that is engaging to the newest generation of students. We've done a lot of updating! Our focus has been on streamlining material throughout the book to decrease the length of each chapter while retaining all of the important information that students should be learning.

We have also done our best to include the most exciting changes and advances occurring in our field. For example, throughout the text, we have significantly increased the focus on the manifestation and treatment of psychological disorders around the globe, using data from a recently completed cross-national series of studies in more than 20 different countries. In Chapter 3, we have added a new and more accessible description of why correlation does not equal causation—and what does! In Chapter 5, we now adopt a more broad and integrative approach to the health consequences of stress, including a focus on the *mechanisms* through which stress is thought to cause physical health problems. Chapter 7 has been updated substantially and now includes more information about some of the problems most relevant to college students, such as suicide and self-injury.

New case studies have also been added throughout the book. Chapter 8, for example, has four new case studies, as well as two new highlight boxes. These illustrate recent neuroimaging research on patients with conversion disorder, as well as a very creative new approach to the treatment of this fascinating disorder. Chapter 11 has significant new material on how alcohol and drugs affect the brain, what causes hangovers, and information on new synthetic drugs that have recently hit the streets. In Chapter 13, the most current genetic findings concerning schizophrenia are described, and new developments in our understanding of the nature of dopamine abnormality in schizophrenia are discussed. A new Developments in Thinking highlight box also presents new ideas about the possibility that schizophrenia might be an immune function disorder. Chapter 15 has been reorganized and updated throughout; for instance, it now includes cuttingedge findings on the potential causes and most effective treatments for autism spectrum disorders. And throughout the book we have included information about some of the newest ways in which researchers and clinicians are treating psychological disorders, such as via the use of new smartphone apps, brain stimulation treatments, and assistive therapeutic robots! These are just a handful of the many changes we have made to give readers the most current perspectives possible. We want students to stay ahead of the curve and to provide them with the most up-to-date information we can. We also want to give students a sense of how and in what ways various fields are likely moving.

This edition also retains features that were very well received in the last edition. To assist both instructors and students, we continue to feature specialized boxes, highlighting many of the key changes that were made in *DSM-5*. In this edition, however, we also provide a detailed but accessible description of the RDoC approach.

As before, chapters begin with learning objectives. These orient the reader to the material that will be presented in each specific chapter. Learning objectives are also repeated by the section they apply to and summarized at the end of each chapter. Most chapters also begin with a case study (many of which are new) that illustrates the mental health problems to be addressed in the chapter. This serves to capture students' interest and attention right from the outset. Numerous new references, photographs, and illustrations have also been added. In short, outdated material has been replaced, current findings have been included, and new developments have been identified. Importantly, all of this has been accomplished without adding length to the book! We hope you enjoy this new edition.

Features and Pedagogy

The extensive research base and accessible organization of this book are supported by high-interest features and helpful pedagogy to further engage students and support learning. We also hope to encourage students to think in depth about the topics they are learning about through specific highlight features that emphasize critical thinking.

Features

FEATURE BOXES Special sections, called Developments in Research, Developments in Thinking, Developments in Practice, and The World Around Us, highlight topics of particular interest, focusing on applications of research to everyday life, current events, and the latest research methodologies, technologies, and findings.

CRITICAL THINKING Many of the revisions to *DSM-5* were highly contentious and controversial. A feature box called "Thinking Critically about *DSM-5*" introduces students to the revised *DSM* and encourages them to think critically about the implications of these changes.

UNRESOLVED ISSUES All chapters include end-of-chapter sections that demonstrate how far we have come

and how far we have yet to go in our understanding of psychological disorders. The topics covered here provide insight into the future of the field and expose students to some controversial topics.

Pedagogy

LEARNING OBJECTIVES Each chapter begins with learning objectives. These orient the reader to the material that will be presented in each specific chapter. Learning objectives are also repeated by the section they apply to and summarized at the end of each chapter. This provides students with an excellent tool for study and review. In this edition, sections of many chapters have also been reorganized and material has been streamlined whenever possible. All the changes that have been made are designed to improve the flow of the writing and enhance pedagogy.

CASE STUDIES Extensive case studies of individuals with various disorders are integrated in the text throughout the book. Some are brief excerpts; others are detailed analyses. These cases bring important aspects of the disorders to life. They also remind readers that the problems of abnormal psychology affect the lives of people—people from all kinds of diverse backgrounds who have much in common with all of us.

IN REVIEW QUESTIONS Review questions appear at the end of each major section within the chapter, providing regular opportunities for self-assessment as students read and further reinforce their learning.

DSM-5 **BOXES** Throughout the book these boxes contain the most up-to-date (*DSM-5*) diagnostic criteria for all of the disorders discussed. In a convenient and visually accessible form, they provide a helpful study tool that reflects current diagnostic practice. They also help students understand disorders in a real-world context.

RESEARCH CLOSE-UP TERMS Appearing throughout each chapter, these terms illuminate research methodologies. They are designed to give students a clearer understanding of some of the most important research concepts in the field of abnormal psychology.

CHAPTER SUMMARIES Each chapter ends with a summary of the essential points of the chapter organized around the learning objectives presented at the start of the chapter. These summaries use bulleted lists rather than formal paragraphs. This makes the information more accessible for students and easier to scan.

KEY TERMS Key terms are identified in each chapter. Key terms are also listed at the end of every chapter with page numbers referencing where they can be found in the body of the text. Key terms are also defined in the Glossary at the end of the text.

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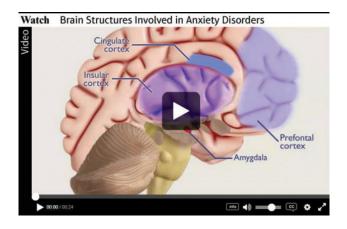
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About the Authors



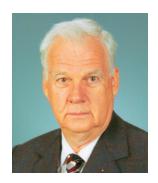
Jill M. Hooley Harvard University

Jill M. Hooley is a professor of psychology at Harvard University. She is also the head of the experimental psychopathology and clinical psychology program at Harvard. Dr. Hooley was born in England and received a BSc in psychology from the University of Liverpool. This was followed by research work at Cambridge University. She then attended Magdalen College, Oxford, where she completed her DPhil. After a move to the United States and additional training in clinical psychology at SUNY Stony Brook, Dr. Hooley took a position at Harvard, where she has been a faculty member since 1985.

Dr. Hooley has a long-standing interest in psychosocial predictors of psychiatric relapse in patients with severe psychopathology such as schizophrenia and depression. Her research has been supported by grants from the National Institute of Mental Health and by the Borderline Personality Disorder Research Foundation. She uses fMRI to study emotion regulation in people who are vulnerable to depression and in people who are suffering from borderline personality disorder. Another area of research interest is nonsuicidal self-harming behaviors such as skin cutting or burning.

In 2000, Dr. Hooley received the Aaron T. Beck Award for Excellence in Psychopathology Research. She is also a past president of the Society for Research in Psychopathology. The author of many scholarly publications, Dr. Hooley was appointed Associate Editor for Clinical Psychological Science in 2012. She is also an associate editor for Applied and Preventive Psychology and serves on the editorial boards of several journals including the Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, the Journal of Family Psychology, Family Process, and Personality Disorders: Theory, Research and Treatment. In 2015 Dr. Hooley received the Zubin Award for Lifetime Achievement in Psychopathology Research from the Society for Research in Psychopathology.

At Harvard, Dr. Hooley has taught graduate and undergraduate classes in introductory psychology, abnormal psychology, schizophrenia, mood disorders, clinical psychology, psychiatric diagnosis, and psychological treatment. Reflecting her commitment to the scientist-practitioner model, she also does clinical work specializing in the treatment of people with depression, anxiety disorders, and personality disorders.



James N. Butcher
Professor Emeritus, University of Minnesota

James N. Butcher was born in West Virginia. He enlisted in the army when he was 17 years old and served in the airborne infantry for 3 years, including a 1-year tour in Korea during the Korean War. After military service, he attended Guilford College, graduating in 1960 with a BA in psychology. He received an MA in experimental psychology in 1962 and a PhD in clinical psychology from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. He was awarded Doctor Honoris Causa from the Free University of Brussels, Belgium, in 1990 and an honorary doctorate from the University of Florence, Florence, Italy, in 2005. He is currently professor emeritus in the Department of Psychology at the University of Minnesota. He was associate director and director of the clinical psychology program at the university for 19 years. He was a member of the University of Minnesota Press's MMPI Consultative Committee, which undertook the revision of the MMPI in 1989. He was formerly the editor of Psychological Assessment, a journal of the American Psychological Association, and serves as consulting editor or reviewer for numerous other journals in psychology and psychiatry. Dr. Butcher was actively involved in developing and organizing disaster response programs for dealing with human problems following airline disasters during his career. He organized a model crisis intervention disaster response for the Minneapolis-St. Paul Airport and organized and supervised the psychological services offered following two major airline disasters: Northwest Flight 255 in Detroit, Michigan, and Aloha Airlines on Maui. He is a fellow of the Society for Personality Assessment. He has published 60 books and more than 250 articles in the fields of abnormal psychology, cross-cultural psychology, and personality assessment.



Matthew K. Nock Harvard University

Matthew Nock was born and raised in New Jersey. Matt received his BA from Boston University (1995), followed by two masters (2000, 2001) and a PhD from Yale University (2003). He also completed a clinical internship at Bellevue Hospital and the New York University Child Study Center (2003). Matt joined the faculty of Harvard University in 2003 and has been there ever since, currently serving as a Professor in the Department of Psychology. While an undergraduate, Matt became very interested in the question of why people do things to intentionally harm themselves and he has been conducting research aimed at answering this question ever since. His research is multidisciplinary in nature and uses a range of methodological approaches (e.g., epidemiologic surveys, laboratory-based experiments, and clinic-based studies) to better understand how these behaviors develop, how to predict them, and how to prevent their occurrence. His work is funded by research grants from the National Institutes of Health, Department of Defense, and several private foundations. Matt's research has been published in over 100 scientific papers and book chapters and has been recognized through the receipt of awards from the American Psychological Association, the Association for Behavioral and Cognitive Therapies, and the American Association of Suicidology. In 2011 he received a MacArthur Fellowship (aka, "Genius Grant") in recognition of his research on suicide and self-harm. At Harvard, Matt teaches courses on various topics including psychopathology, statistics, research methods, and cultural diversity. He has received numerous teaching and mentoring awards including the Roslyn Abramson Teaching Award and the Petra Shattuck Prize.

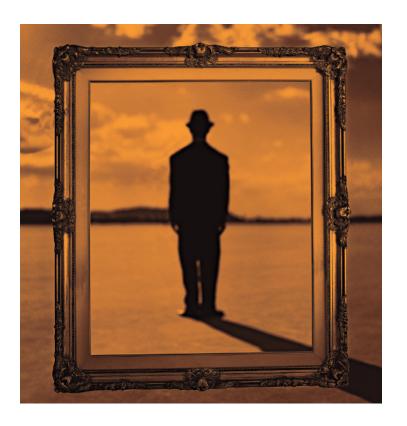


Susan Mineka Northwestern University

Susan Mineka, born and raised in Ithaca, New York, received her undergraduate degree magna cum laude in psychology at Cornell University. She received a PhD in experimental psychology from the University of Pennsylvania and later completed a formal clinical retraining program from 1981 to 1984. She taught at the University of Wisconsin-Madison and at the University of Texas at Austin before moving to Northwestern University in 1987. Since 1987 she has been a professor of psychology at Northwestern, and from 1998 to 2006 she served as director of clinical training there. She has taught a wide range of undergraduate and graduate courses, including introductory psychology, learning, motivation, abnormal psychology, and cognitive-behavior therapy. Her current research interests include cognitive and behavioral approaches to understanding the etiology, maintenance, and treatment of anxiety and mood disorders. She is currently a Fellow of the American Psychological Association, the American Psychological Society, and the Academy of Cognitive Therapy. She has served as editor of the Journal of Abnormal Psychology (1990–1994). She also served as associate editor for Emotion from 2002 to 2006 and is on the editorial boards of several of the leading journals in the field. She was also president of the Society for the Science of Clinical Psychology (1994–1995) and was president of the Midwestern Psychological Association (1997). She also served on the American Psychological Association's Board of Scientific Affairs (1992–1994, chair 1994), on the Executive Board of the Society for Research in Psychopathology (1992-1994, 2000-2003), and on the Board of Directors of the American Psychological Society (2001-2004). During 1997 and 1998 she was a fellow at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences at Stanford.

Chapter 1

Abnormal Psychology: Overview and Research Approaches



Learning Objectives

- **1.1** Explain how we define abnormality and classify mental disorders.
- **1.2** Describe the advantages and disadvantages of classification.
- **1.3** Explain how culture affects what is considered abnormal and describe two different culture-specific disorders.
- **1.4** Distinguish between incidence and prevalence and identify the most common and prevalent mental disorders.
- **1.5** Discuss why abnormal psychology research can be conducted in almost any setting.

- **1.6** Describe three different approaches used to gather information about mental disorders.
- **1.7** Explain why a control (or comparison group) is necessary to adequately test a hypothesis.
- **1.8** Discuss why correlational research designs are valuable, even though they cannot be used to make causal inferences.
- **1.9** Explain the key features of an experimental design.

Abnormal psychology is concerned with understanding the nature, causes, and treatment of mental disorders. The topics and problems within the field of abnormal psychology surround us every day. You have only to read a newspaper, flip through a magazine, surf the web, or sit through a movie to be exposed to some of the issues that clinicians and researchers deal with on a day-to-day basis. All too often, some celebrity is in the news because of a drug or alcohol problem, a suicide attempt, an eating disorder, or some other psychological difficulty. Countless books provide personal accounts of struggles with schizophrenia, depression, phobias, and panic attacks. Films and TV shows portray aspects of abnormal behavior with varying degrees of accuracy. And then there are the tragic news stories of mothers who kill their children, in which problems with depression, schizophrenia, or postpartum difficulties seem to be implicated.

Abnormal psychology can also be found much closer to home. Walk around any college campus, and you will see flyers about peer support groups for people with eating disorders, depression, and a variety of other disturbances. You may even know someone who has experienced a clinical problem. It may be a cousin with a cocaine habit, a roommate with bulimia, or a grandparent who is developing Alzheimer's disease. It may be a coworker of your mother's who is hospitalized for depression, a neighbor who is afraid to leave the house, or someone at your gym who works out intensely despite being worrisomely thin. It may even be the disheveled street person in the aluminum foil hat who shouts, "Leave me alone!" to voices only he can hear.

The issues of abnormal psychology capture our interest, demand our attention, and trigger our concern. They also compel us to ask questions. To illustrate further, let's consider two clinical cases.

Monique

Monique is a 24-year-old law student. She is attractive, neatly dressed, and clearly very bright. If you were to meet her, you would think that she had few problems in her life; but Monique has been drinking alcohol since she was 14, and she smokes marijuana every day. Although she describes herself as "just a social drinker," she drinks four or five glasses of wine when she goes out with friends and also drinks several glasses of wine a night when she is alone in her apartment in the evening. She frequently misses early morning classes because she feels too hung over to get out of bed. On several occasions her drinking has caused her to black out. Although she denies having any problems with alcohol, Monique admits that her friends and family have become very concerned about her and have suggested that she seek help. Monique, however, says, "I don't think I am an alcoholic because I never drink in the mornings." The previous week she decided to stop smoking marijuana entirely because she was concerned that she might have a drug problem. However, she found it impossible to stop and is now smoking regularly again.

Scott

Scott was born into an affluent family. There were no problems when he was born and he seemed to develop normally when he was a child. He went to a prestigious college and completed his degree in mathematics. Shortly afterwards, however, he began to isolate himself from his family and he abandoned his plans for graduate studies. He traveled to San Francisco, took an apartment in a run-down part of the city, became increasingly suspicious of people around him, and developed strange ideas about brain transfer technology. Shortly before Christmas, he received a package from a friend. As he opened the package, he reported that his "head exploded" and he began to hear voices, even though no one was around. The voices began to tell him what to do and what not to do. His concerned parents came out to visit him, but he refused to seek any help or return home to live with them. Shortly after, he left the city and, living as a homeless person, moved around the country, eventually making his way back to the East Coast. Throughout that time he was hearing voices every day-sometimes as many as five or six different ones. Eventually Scott's worried family located him and persuaded him to seek treatment. Although he has been hospitalized several times and been on many different medications in the intervening years, Scott still has symptoms of psychosis. His voices have never entirely gone away and they still dictate his behavior to a considerable extent. Now age 49, he lives in a halfway house, and works part-time shelving books in a university library.

Perhaps you found yourself asking questions as you read about Monique and Scott. For example, because Monique doesn't drink in the mornings, you might have



Fergie has spoken about her past struggles with substance abuse, specifically crystal meth.

wondered whether she could really have a serious alcohol problem. She does. This is a question that concerns the criteria that must be met before someone receives a particular diagnosis. Or perhaps you wondered whether other people in Monique's family likewise have drinking problems. They do. This is a question about what we call **family aggregation**—that is, whether a disorder runs in families.

You may also have been curious about what is wrong with Scott and why he is hearing voices. Questions about the age of onset of his symptoms as well as predisposing factors may have occurred to you. Scott has schizophrenia, a disorder that often strikes in late adolescence or early adulthood. Also, as Scott's case illustrates, it is not especially unusual for someone who develops schizophrenia to develop in a seemingly normal manner before suddenly becoming ill.

These cases, which describe real people, give some indication of just how profoundly lives can be derailed because of mental disorders. It is hard to read about difficulties such as these without feeling compassion for the people who are struggling. Still, in addition to compassion, clinicians and researchers who want to help people like Monique and Scott must have other attributes and skills. If we are to understand mental disorders, we must learn to ask the kinds of questions that will enable us to help the patients and families who have mental disorders. These questions are at the very heart of a research-based approach that looks to use scientific inquiry and careful observation to understand abnormal psychology.

Asking questions is an important aspect of being a psychologist. Psychology is a fascinating field, and abnormal psychology is one of the most interesting areas of psychology (although we are undoubtedly biased). Psychologists are trained to ask questions and to conduct research. Though not all people who are trained in abnormal psychology (this field is sometimes called psychopathology) conduct research, they still rely heavily on their scientific skills and ability both to ask questions and to put information together in coherent and logical ways. For example, when a clinician first sees a new client or patient, he or she asks many questions to try and understand the issues or problems related to that person. The clinician will also rely on current research to choose the most effective treatment. The best treatments of 20, 10, or even 5 years ago are not invariably the best treatments of today. Knowledge accumulates and advances are made—and research is the engine that drives all of these developments.

In this chapter, we outline the field of abnormal psychology and the varied training and activities of the people who work within its demands. First we describe the ways in which abnormal behavior is defined and classified so that researchers and mental health professionals can communicate with each other about the people they see. Some of the issues here are probably more complex and

controversial than you might expect. We also outline basic information about the extent of behavioral abnormalities in the population at large.

The second part of this chapter is devoted to research. We make every effort to convey to you how abnormal behavior is studied. Research is at the heart of progress and knowledge in abnormal psychology. The more you know and understand about how research is conducted, the more educated and aware you will be about what research findings do and do not mean.

What Do We Mean by Abnormality?

1.1 Explain how we define abnormality and classify mental disorders.

It may come as a surprise to you that there is still no universal agreement about what is meant by *abnormality* or *disorder*. This is not to say we do not have definitions; we do. However, a truly satisfactory definition will probably always remain elusive (Lilienfeld et al., 2013; Stein et al., 2010).

Indicators of Abnormality

Why does the definition of a mental disorder present so many challenges? A major problem is that there is no one behavior that makes someone abnormal. However, there are some clear elements or indicators of abnormality (Lilienfeld et al., 2013; Stein et al., 2010). No single indicator is sufficient in and of itself to define or determine abnormality. Nonetheless, the more that someone has difficulties in the following areas, the more likely he or she is to have some form of mental disorder:

- Subjective distress: If people suffer or experience psychological pain we are inclined to consider this as indicative of abnormality. People with depression clearly report being distressed, as do people with anxiety disorders. But what of the patient who is manic and whose mood is one of elation? He or she may not be experiencing any distress. In fact, many such patients dislike taking medications because they do not want to lose their manic "highs." You may have a test tomorrow and be exceedingly worried. But we would hardly label your subjective distress abnormal. Although subjective distress is an element of abnormality in many cases, it is neither a sufficient condition (all that is needed) nor even a necessary condition (a feature that all cases of abnormality must show) for us to consider something as abnormal.
- Maladaptiveness: Maladaptive behavior is often an indicator of abnormality. The person with anorexia may restrict her intake of food to the point where she

becomes so emaciated that she needs to be hospitalized. The person with depression may withdraw from friends and family and may be unable to work for weeks or months. Maladaptive behavior interferes with our well-being and with our ability to enjoy our work and our relationships. But not all disorders involve maladaptive behavior. Consider the con artist and the contract killer, both of whom have antisocial personality disorder. The first may be able glibly to talk people out of their life savings, the second to take someone's life in return for payment. Is this behavior maladaptive? Not for them, because it is the way in which they make their respective livings. We consider them abnormal, however, because their behavior is maladaptive for and toward society.

3. Statistical deviancy: The word abnormal literally means "away from the normal." But simply considering statistically rare behavior to be abnormal does not provide us with a solution to our problem of defining abnormality. Genius is statistically rare, as is perfect pitch. However, we do not consider people with such uncommon talents to be abnormal in any way. Also, just because something is statistically common doesn't make it normal. The common cold is certainly very common, but it is regarded as an illness nonetheless.

On the other hand, intellectual disability (which is statistically rare and represents a deviation from normal) is considered to reflect abnormality. This tells us that in defining abnormality we make value judgments. If something is statistically rare and undesirable (as is severely diminished intellectual functioning), we are more likely to consider it abnormal than something that is statistically rare and highly desirable (such as genius) or something that is undesirable but statistically common (such as rudeness).



As with most accomplished athletes, Venus and Serena Williams' physical ability is abnormal in a literal and statistical sense. Their behavior, however, would not be labeled as being abnormal by psychologists. Why not?

4. Violation of the standards of society: All cultures have rules. Some of these are formalized as laws. Others form the norms and moral standards that we are taught to follow. Although many social rules are arbitrary to some extent, when people fail to follow the conventional social and moral rules of their cultural group, we may consider their behavior abnormal. For example, driving a car or watching television would be considered highly abnormal for the Amish of Pennsylvania. However, both of these activities reflect normal everyday behavior for most other Pennsylvania residents.

Of course, much depends on the magnitude of the violation and on how commonly the rule is violated by others. As illustrated in the preceding example, a behavior is most likely to be viewed as abnormal when it violates the standards of society and is statistically deviant or rare. In contrast, most of us have parked illegally at some point. This failure to follow the rules is so statistically common that we tend not to think of it as abnormal. Yet when a mother drowns her children there is instant recognition that this is abnormal behavior.

- Social discomfort: Not all rules are explicit. And not all rules bother us when they are violated. Nonetheless, when someone violates an implicit or unwritten social rule, those around him or her may experience a sense of discomfort or unease. Imagine that you are sitting in an almost empty bus. There are rows of unoccupied seats. Then someone comes in and sits down right next to you. How do you feel? Is the person's behavior abnormal? Why? The person is not breaking any formal rule. He or she has paid for a ticket and is permitted to sit anywhere he or she likes. But your sense of social discomfort ("Why did this person sit right next to me when there are so many empty seats available?") will probably incline you to think that this is an example of abnormal behavior. In other words, social discomfort is another potential way that we can recognize abnormality. But again, much depends on circumstances. If the person who gets on the bus is someone you know well, it might be more unusual if he or she did not join you.
- noted, we expect people to behave in certain ways. Although a little unconventionality may add some spice to life, there is a point at which we are likely to consider a given unorthodox behavior abnormal. If a person sitting next to you suddenly began to scream and yell obscenities at nothing, you would probably regard that behavior as abnormal. It would be unpredictable, and it would make no sense to you. The disordered speech and the disorganized behavior of patients with schizophrenia are often irrational. Such behaviors are also a hallmark of the manic phases of bipolar disorder. Perhaps the most important factor, however, is our

evaluation of whether the person can control his or her behavior. Few of us would consider a roommate who began to recite speeches from King Lear to be abnormal if we knew that he was playing Lear in the next campus Shakespeare production—or even if he was a dramatic person given to extravagant outbursts. On the other hand, if we discovered our roommate lying on the floor, flailing wildly, and reciting Shakespeare, we might consider calling for assistance if this was entirely out of character and we knew of no reason why he should be behaving in such a manner.

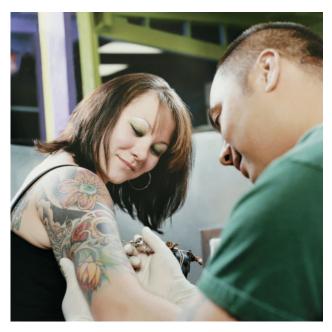
Dangerousness: It seems quite reasonable to think that someone who is a danger to him- or herself or to another person must be psychologically abnormal. Indeed, therapists are required to hospitalize suicidal clients or contact the police (as well as the person who is the target of the threat) if they have a client who makes an explicit threat to harm another person. But, as with all of the other elements of abnormality, if we rely only on dangerousness as our sole feature of abnormality, we will run into problems. Is a soldier in combat mentally ill? What about someone who is an extremely bad driver? Both of these people may be a danger to others. Yet we would not consider them to be mentally ill. Why not? And why is someone who engages in extreme sports or who has a dangerous hobby (such as free diving, race car driving, or keeping



How important is dangerousness to the definition of mental illness? If we are a risk to ourselves or to others, does this mean we are mentally ill?

poisonous snakes as pets) not immediately regarded as mentally ill? Just because we may be a danger to ourselves or to others does not mean we are mentally ill. Conversely, we cannot assume that someone diagnosed with a mental disorder must be dangerous. Although people with mental illness do commit serious crimes, serious crimes are also committed every day by people who have no signs of mental disorder. Indeed, research suggests that in people with mental illness, dangerousness is more the exception than the rule (Corrigan & Watson, 2005).

One final point bears repeating. Decisions about abnormal behavior always involve social judgments and are based on the values and expectations of society at large. This means that culture plays a role in determining what is and is not abnormal. In addition, because society is constantly shifting and becoming more or less tolerant of certain behaviors, what is considered abnormal or deviant in one decade may not be considered abnormal or deviant a decade or two later. At one time, homosexuality was classified as a mental disorder. But this is no longer the case (it was removed from the formal classification system in 1974). A generation ago, pierced noses and navels were regarded as highly deviant and prompted questions about a person's mental health. Now, however, such adornments are commonplace and attract little attention. What other behaviors can you think of that are now considered normal but were regarded as deviant in the past?



Tattoos, which were once regarded as highly deviant, are now quite commonplace and considered fashionable by many.

As you think about these issues, consider the person described in the World Around Us box. He is certainly an unusual human being. But is his behavior abnormal? Do you think everyone will agree about this?

The World Around Us

Extreme Generosity or Pathological Behavior?

Zell Kravinsky was a brilliant student who grew up in a workingclass neighborhood in Philadelphia. He won prizes at school, and at the age of 12, he began investing in the stock market. Despite his abilities, his Russian immigrant parents were, in the words of a family friend, "steadfast in denying him any praise." Kravinsky eventually completed two Ph.D. degrees and indulged his growing interest in real estate. By the time he was 45 years old, he was married with children. His assets amounted to almost \$45 million.

Although Kravinsky had a talent for making money, he found it difficult to spend it. He drove an old car, did not give his children pocket money, and lived with his family in a modest home. As his fortune grew, however, he began to talk to his friends about his plans to give all of his assets to charity. His philanthropy began in earnest when he and his wife gave two gifts, totaling \$6.2 million, to the Centers for Disease Control Foundation. They also donated an apartment building to a school for the disabled in Philadelphia. The following year the Kravinskys gave real estate gifts worth approximately \$30 million to Ohio State University.

Kravinsky's motivation for his donations was to help others. According to one of his friends, "He gave away the money because he had it and there were people who needed it. But it changed his way of looking at himself. He decided the purpose of his life was to give away things." After he had put some money aside in trust for his wife and his children, Kravinsky's personal assets were reduced to a house (on which he had a substantial mortgage), two minivans, and around \$80,000 in stocks and cash. He had essentially given away his entire fortune.

Kravinsky's donations did not end when his financial assets became depleted. He began to be preoccupied with the idea of nondirected organ donations, in which an altruistic person gives an organ to a total stranger. When he learned that he could live quite normally with only one kidney, Kravinsky decided that the personal costs of giving away one of his kidneys were minimal compared to the benefits received by the kidney recipient. His wife, however, did not share his view. Although she had consented to bequeathing substantial sums of money to worthwhile charities, when it came to her husband offering his kidney, she could not support him.

For Kravinsky, however, the burden of refusing to help alleviate the suffering of someone in need was almost unbearable, even if it meant sacrificing his very own organs. He called the Albert Einstein Medical Center and spoke to a transplant coordinator. He met with a surgeon and then with a psychiatrist. Kravinsky told the psychiatrist that his wife did not support his desire to donate one of his kidneys. When the psychiatrist told him that he was doing something he did not have to do, Kravinsky's response was that he did need to make this sacrifice: "You're missing the whole point. It's as much a necessity as food, water, and air."



Is Zell Kravinsky's behavior abnormal, or is he a man with profound moral conviction and courage?

Three months later, Kravinsky left his home in the early hours of the morning, drove to the hospital, and donated his right kidney. He informed his wife after the surgery was over. In spite of the turmoil that his kidney donation created within his family, Kravinsky's mind turned back to philanthropy almost immediately. "I lay there in the hospital, and I thought about all my other good organs. When I do something good, I feel that I can do more. I burn to do more. It's a heady feeling." By the time he was discharged, he was wondering about giving away his one remaining kidney.

After the operation, Kravinsky experienced a loss of direction. He had come to view his life as a continuing donation. However, now that his financial assets and his kidney were gone, what could he provide to the less fortunate? Sometimes he imagines offering his entire body for donation. "My organs could save several people if I gave my whole body away." He acknowledges that he feels unable to hurt his family through the sacrifice of his life.

Several years after the kidney donation, Kravinsky still remains committed to giving away as much as possible. However, his actions have caused a tremendous strain in his marriage. In an effort to maintain a harmonious relationship with his wife, he is now involved in real estate and has bought his family a larger home. (Taken from I. Parker, 2004.)

Is Zell Kravinsky a courageous man of profound moral commitment? Or is his behavior abnormal and indicative of a mental disorder? Explain how you reached the conclusion you did.

DSM-5 Thinking Critically about DSM-5

What Is the DSM and Why Was It Revised?

The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) provides all the information necessary (descriptions, lists of symptoms) to diagnose mental disorders. As such, it provides clinicians with specific diagnostic criteria for each disorder. This creates a common language so that a specific diagnosis means the same thing to one clinician as it does to another. In addition, providing descriptive information about the type and number of symptoms needed for each diagnosis helps ensure diagnostic accuracy and consistency (reliability). The DSM is also important for research. If patients could not be diagnosed reliably, it would be impossible to compare different treatments for patients with similar conditions. Although the DSM does not include information about treatment, clinicians need to have an accurate diagnosis in order to select the most appropriate treatment for their patients.

Since DSM-I was first published in 1952, the DSM has been revised from time to time. Revisions are important because they allow new scientific developments to be incorporated into how we think about mental disorders. The revision process for DSM-5 had the goals of maintaining continuity with the previous edition (DSM-IV) as well as being guided by new research findings. But another guiding principle was that no constraints should be placed on the level of change that could be made. If this strikes you as a little contradictory, you are correct. Striking the right balance between change and continuity presented considerable challenges. It also created a great deal of controversy. As part of the revision process, experts in specific disorders were invited to join special DSM-5 work groups and make specific recommendations for change. In some cases, the debates were so heated that people resigned from their work groups! Now that DSM-5 is here, not everyone is happy with some of the changes that have been made. On the other hand, many of the revisions that have been made make a lot of sense. In the chapters that follow we highlight key changes in DSM-5. We also try to help you think critically about the reasons behind the specific modifications that were proposed and understand why they were accepted.

The DSM-5 and the Definition of Mental Disorder

In the United States, the accepted standard for defining various types of mental disorders is the American Psychiatric Association's Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders. This manual, commonly referred to as the *DSM*, is revised and updated from time to time. The current version, called DSM-5, was published in 2013. It is 947 pages long and contains a total of 541 diagnostic categories (Blashfield et al., 2014). This recent revision of the DSM has been the topic of much debate and controversy. In the Thinking Critically about DSM-5 box we explain more about the DSM and discuss why a revision was necessary.

Although the DSM is widely used, it is not the only psychiatric classification system. The International Classification of Diseases (called ICD-10 because it is now in its 10th revision) is produced by the World Health Organization (WHO). Chapter V of this document covers mental and behavioral disorders (WHO, 2015b). Although the ICD-10 has much in common with DSM-5, it also many differences, with similar disorders having different names, for example. The ICD-10 is used in many countries outside the United States and ICD-11 is currently in development.

Within DSM-5, a mental disorder is defined as a syndrome that is present in an individual and that involves clinically significant disturbance in behavior, emotion regulation, or cognitive functioning. These disturbances are

thought to reflect a dysfunction in biological, psychological, or developmental processes that are necessary for mental functioning. DSM-5 also recognizes that mental disorders are usually associated with significant distress or disability in key areas of functioning such as social, occupational, or other activities. Predictable or culturally approved responses to common stressors or losses (such as death of a loved one) are excluded. It is also important that this dysfunctional pattern of behavior not stem from social deviance or conflicts that the person has with society as a whole.

This new DSM-5 definition of mental illness was based on input from various DSM-5 work groups as well as other sources (Broome & Bortolotti, 2010; First & Wakefield, 2010; Stein et al., 2010). Although this definition will still not satisfy everyone, it brings us even closer to a good working



description. Keep in mind that any definition of abnormality or mental disorder must be somewhat arbitrary. Rather than thinking of the *DSM* as a finished product, it should always be regarded as a work in progress, with regular updates and modifications to be expected. Although earlier versions of the *DSM* used Roman numerals to refer to each specific edition (e.g., *DSM-IV*), Arabic numerals are now being used instead of Roman numerals (5 versus V) to facilitate updating (e.g., *DSM-5.1*, *DSM-5.2*) in the future.

in review

- Why is abnormality so difficult to define?
- What characteristics help us recognize abnormality?

Classification and Diagnosis

1.2 Describe the advantages and disadvantages of classification.

If defining abnormality is so contentious and so difficult, why do we try to do it? One simple reason is that most sciences rely on classification (e.g., the periodic table in chemistry and the classification of living organisms into kingdoms, phyla, classes, and so on in biology). At the most fundamental level, classification systems provide us with a nomenclature (a naming system). This gives clinicians and researchers both a common language and shorthand terms for complex clinical conditions. Without having a common set of terms to describe specific clinical conditions, clinicians would have to talk at length about each patient individually to provide an overview of the patient's problems. But if there is a shared understanding of what the term "schizophrenia" means, for example, communication across professional boundaries is simplified and facilitated.

Another advantage of classification systems is that they enable us to *structure information* in a more helpful manner. Classification systems shape the way information is organized. For example, most classification systems typically place diagnoses that are thought to be related in some way close together. In *DSM-5*, the section on anxiety disorders includes disorders (such as panic disorder, specific phobia, and agoraphobia) that share the common features of fear and anxiety.

Organizing information within a classification system also allows us to study the different disorders that we classify and therefore to learn new things. In other words, *classification facilitates research*, which gives us more information and facilitates greater understanding, not only about what causes various disorders but also how they might best be treated. For example, thinking back to the cases you read about, Monique has alcohol and drug use disorders, and Scott has schizophrenia. Knowing what disorder each of them has is clearly very helpful, because Scott's treatment would be very different from Monique's.

A final effect of classification system usage is somewhat more mundane. As others have pointed out, the classification of mental disorders has social and political implications (see Keeley et al., 2015; Kirk & Kutchins, 1992). Simply put, *defining the domain* of what is considered to be pathological establishes the range of problems that the mental health profession can address. As a consequence, on a purely pragmatic level, it furthermore delineates which types of psychological difficulties warrant insurance reimbursement and the extent of such reimbursement.

What Are the Disadvantages of Classification?

Of course, a number of potential disadvantages are associated with the use of a discrete classification system. Classification, by its very nature, provides information in a shorthand form. However, using any form of shorthand inevitably leads to a loss of information. If we know the specific history, personality traits, idiosyncrasies, and familial relations of a person with a particular type of disorder (e.g., from reading a case summary), we naturally have much more information than if we were simply told the individual's diagnosis (e.g., schizophrenia). In other words, as we simplify through classification, we inevitably lose an array of personal details about the actual person who has the disorder.

Moreover, although things are improving, there can still be some stigma (disgrace) associated with having a psychiatric diagnosis. Stigma, of course, is hardly the fault of the diagnostic system itself. But even today, people are generally far more comfortable disclosing that they have a physical illness such as diabetes than they are admitting to any mental disorder. This is in part due to the fear (real or imagined) that speaking candidly about having a psychological disorder will result in unwanted social or occupational consequences or frank discrimination. Be honest. Have you ever described someone as "nuts," "crazy," or "a psycho"? Now think of the hurt that people with mental disorders experience when they hear such words. In one study, 96 percent of patients with schizophrenia reported that stigma was a routine part of their lives (Jenkins & Carpenter-Song, 2008). In spite of the large amount of information that is now available about mental health issues, the level of knowledge about mental illness (sometimes referred to as mental health literacy) is often very poor (Thornicroft et al., 2007).

Stigma is a deterrent to seeking treatment for mental health problems. This is especially true for younger people, for men, and for ethnic minorities (Clement et al., 2015). Stigma is also a disproportionately greater deterrent to treatment seeking for two other groups: military personnel and (ironically) mental health professionals. Would you have predicted this? Why do you think this is the case?

Related to stigma is the problem of **stereotyping**. Stereotypes are automatic beliefs concerning other people that

we unavoidably learn as a result of growing up in a particular culture (e.g., people who wear glasses are more intelligent; New Yorkers are rude). Because we may have heard about certain behaviors that can accompany mental disorders, we may automatically and incorrectly infer that these behaviors will also be present in any person we meet who has a psychiatric diagnosis. Negative stereotypes about psychiatric patients are also perpetuated in movies. If you have ever seen a horror movie you know that a common dominant theme involves the homicidal maniac. And an analysis of 55 horror films made between 2000 and 2012 has shown that it is people with psychosis who are most often portrayed as murderers (Goodwin, 2014). Stereotyping is also reflected in the comment "People like you don't go back to work" in the case example of James McNulty.

James McNulty

I have lived with bipolar disorder for more than 35 years—all of my adult life. The first 15 years were relatively conventional, at least on the surface. I graduated from an Ivy League university, started my own business, and began a career in local politics. I was married, the father of two sons. I experienced mood swings during these years, and as I got older the swings worsened. Eventually, I became so ill that I was unable to work, my marriage ended, I lost my business, and I became homeless.

At this point I had my most powerful experience with stigma. I was 38 years old. I had recently been discharged after a psychiatric hospitalization for a suicide attempt, I had no place to live, my savings were exhausted, and my only possession was a 4-year-old car. I contacted the mental health authorities in the state where I then lived and asked for assistance in dealing with my mental illness. I was told that to qualify for assistance I would need to sell my car and spend down the proceeds. I asked how I was supposed to get to work when I recovered enough to find a job. I was told, "Don't worry about going back to work. People like you don't go back to work." (McNulty, 2004)

Finally, stigma can be perpetuated by the problem of **labeling**. A person's self-concept may be directly affected by being given a diagnosis of schizophrenia, depression, or some other form of mental illness. How might you react if you were told something like this? Furthermore, once a group of symptoms is given a name and identified by means of a diagnosis, this diagnostic label can be hard to shake even if the person later makes a full recovery.

It is important to keep in mind, however, that diagnostic classification systems do not classify people. Rather, they classify the disorders that people have. And stigma may be less a consequence of the diagnostic label than a result of the disturbed behavior that got the person the diagnosis in the first place. In some situations, a diagnosis may even reduce stigma because it provides at least a partial explanation for a person's otherwise inexplicable behavior (Ruscio, 2004). Nonetheless, when we note that someone has an illness, we should take care not to define him or her by that illness.

Respectful and appropriate language should instead be used. At one time, it was quite common for mental health professionals to describe a given patient as "a schizophrenic" or "a manic-depressive." Now, however, it is widely acknowledged that it is more accurate (not to mention more considerate) to use what is called person-first language and say, "a person with schizophrenia," or "a person with bipolar disorder." Simply put, the person is not the diagnosis.

How Can We Reduce Prejudicial Attitudes Toward People Who Are Mentally Ill?

Negative reactions to people with mental illness are common and may be a fairly widespread phenomenon throughout the world. Using focus groups, Arthur and colleagues (2010) asked community residents in Jamaica about the concept of stigma. Some participants came from rural communities, others from more urban areas. Regardless of their gender, level of education, or where they lived, most participants described highly prejudicial attitudes toward those with mental illnesses. One middle-class male participant said, "We treat them as in a sense second class citizens, we stay far away from them, ostracize them, we just treat them bad" (see Arthur et al., 2010, p. 263). Fear of people who are mentally ill was also commonly expressed. A rural-dwelling middle-class man described a specific situation in the following way, "There is a mad lady on the



Are attitudes toward people who are mentally ill in Jamaica more benign than they are in more industrialized countries?