PERIYAR UNIVERSITY

(NAAC 'A++' Grade - State University - NIRF Rank 56 State Public University Rank 25)

SALEM - 636 011

CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION (CDOE)

M.SC. APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY

SEMESTER - II



CORE - VI: PSYCHOPATHOLOGY-I

(Candidates admitted from 2025-26 onwards)

PERIYAR UNIVERSITY

CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION (CDOE)

M.Sc Applied Psychology 2025 admission onwards

CORE VI

Psychopathology - I

Prepared by:

Dr.D.V.Nithiyanandan Professor Dept. of Psychology Periyar University, Salem-11

Scrutinized & Verified by:

BOS Members, Centre for Distance and Online Education (CDOE) Periyar University Salem - 636011

TABLE OF CONTENTS			
UNIT	TOPICS	PAGE	
	HISTORY, APPROACH TO PSYCHOPATHOLOGY AND ASSESSMENT &		
1.	DIAGNOSIS	1-47	
	ANXIETY, TRAUMA- & STRESSOR- RELATED DISORDERS, AND OBSESSIVE-		
2.	COMPULSIVE AND RELATED DISORDERS	48-77	
3.	SOMATIC SYMPTOM & RELATED DISORDERS; DISSOCIATIVE DISORDERS	78-93	
	MOOD DISORDERS AND SUICIDE PROBLEM-SOLVING, REASONING, AND		
4.	DECISION-MAKING	94-115	
5.	EATING AND SLEEP-WAKE DISORDER	116-155	

PSYCHOPATHOLOGY - I (Core 6)

Course Code: 25DPPSYC05

Year and Semester: I Year; II Semester

Credits: 5

OBJECTIVES: -

The main objectives of this Course are:

- 1. To develop an understanding of Cognitive Psychology and its methods
- 2. To develop an understanding of Cognitive Processes behind perception and attention
- 3. To develop an understanding of Cognitive Processes behind memory, imagery, and spatial cognition
- 4. To develop the concept behind language, thinking & problem-solving, reasoning, and decision-making
- 5. To provide the understanding of brain functions related to development, differences, and culture in cognition

LEARNING OUTCOMES:

On successful completion, the students will be able to:

Recognize the importance of cognitive psychology

Explain Cognitive Processes behind perception and attention

Understand Cognitive Processes behind memory, imagery, and spatial cognition

Discuss the importance of cognitive bases behind language, thinking & problem-solving, reasoning, and decision-making

Explain the neural background of brain functions related to development, differences, and culture in cognition

UNIT I: INTRODUCTION TO COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

History, Methods, and Paradigms: Influences on the Study of Cognition- *Research Methods in Cognitive Psychology:* Observation -Introspection - Controlled Observation and

Clinical Interviews -Experiments and Quasi-Experiments. *Paradigms of Cognitive Psychology:* Information-Processing Approach - Connectionist Approach - Evolutionary Approach - Ecological Approach

Brain: Structure - Localization of Function-Lateralization of Function -Brain Imaging Techniques.

UNIT II: COGNITIVE PROCESSES: PERCEPTION & ATTENTION

Perception: Gestalt Approaches to Perception - Bottom-Up Processes -Top-Down Processes-Direct Perception - Disruptions of Perception: Visual Agnosia.

Attention: Selective Attention- Neural underpinnings of attention- Automaticity and the Effects of Practice- Divided Attention

UNIT III: COGNITIVE PROCESSES: MEMORY, VISUAL IMAGERY, AND SPATIAL COGNITION

Memory: Traditional Approaches to the Study of Memory - Working Memory- Executive Functioning- Neurological Studies of Memory Processes. *Retrieving Memories from Long-Term Storage:* Aspects of Long-Term Memory- Subdivisions of Long-Term Memory- The Levels-of-Processing View- Reconstructive Nature of Memory- Amnesia. *Knowledge Representation (Storing and Organizing Information in Long-Term Memory):* Organizing Knowledge- Forming Concepts and Categorizing New Instances

Visual Imagery and Spatial Cognition: Codes in Long-Term Memory- Empirical Investigations of Imagery- Nature of Mental Imagery-Neuropsychological Findings- Spatial Cognition

UNIT IV: COGNITIVE PROCESSES: LANGUAGE, THINKING & PROBLEM-SOLVING, REASONING, AND DECISION-MAKING

Language: The Structure of Language-Language Comprehension and Production -Language, and Cognition.

Thinking and Problem-solving: Classic Problems and General Methods of Solution-Blocks to Problem-Solving- Problem Space Hypothesis-Expert Systems- Finding Creative Solutions-Critical Thinking

Reasoning and Decision-making: Reasoning-Types of Reasoning -Decisions Making-Cognitive Illusions in Decision-making- Utility Models of Decision-making- Descriptive Models of Decision-making Neuropsychological Evidence on Reasoning and Decision-making

UNIT V: DEVELOPMENT, DIFFERENCES, AND CULTURE IN COGNITION

Cognitive Development through Adolescence: Piagetian Theory- Non-Piagetian Approaches to Cognitive Development- Post-Piagetian View

Individual Differences in Cognition: Individual Differences in Cognition- Gender Differences in Cognition

Cognition in Cross-Cultural Perspective: Examples of Studies of Cross-Cultural Cognition- Effects of Schooling and Literacy- Situated Cognition in Everyday Settings

Learning Resources:

Recommended Text Books:

- 1. Kathleen M. Galotti (2015). Cognitive Psychology: In and Out of the Laboratory (5th Ed.). NEW DELHI: SAGE Publications India Pvt. Ltd.
- 2. Goldstein, B. (2018). Cognitive Psychology: Connecting Mind, Research and Everyday Experience (5th Ed.). BOSTON: WADSWORTH Cengage Learning.
- 3. Robert J. Sternberg. (2006). Cognitive Psychology (4th Ed.). BELMONT: Thomson Wadsworth.
- 4. Margaret W. Matlin & SUNY Geneseo. (2013) Cognition (8th Ed.). NEW JERSEY: Wiley.
- 5. Jamie Ward (2015), "The Student's Guide to Cognitive Neuroscience"- Third Edition, Psychology Press, London NewYork
- 6. Liro P. Jaaskelainen (2015)," Introduction to Cognitive Neuroscience" bookboon.com

References:

- 7. Kellogg, R. (2016). Fundamentals of cognitive psychology. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- 8. Smith, E., Kosslyn, S., &Barsalou, L. (2008). Cognitive psychology. New Delhi [India]: Prentice Hall of India.
- 9. Groom, D. (2014). An Introduction to Cognitive Psychology Processes and Disorders. USA: Psychology Press.
- 10. Reed, S. K. (2010). Cognition Theories and Applications. UK: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Web Sources:

- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EtxibYcyDz0
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=plm9tmkOV88
- https://www.voutube.com/watch?v=ZudHhIDG3M4

- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kVollCt4_dQ
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gdzmNwTLakg
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tFHL1_DStY8

Outside Syllabus: Self Study

- Trends in cognitive neuroscience research
- Hemispheric Specialization
- Brain damage and neurological disorder
- Neuroimaging and EEG
- Reflection of Neurological issues in cognition, affect and action

Social Cognition. Personality. Evolutionary Psychology and Brain

SELF-LEARNING MATERIAL

UNIT I HISTORY, APPROACH TO PSYCHOPATHOLOGY AND ASSESSMENT & DIAGNOSIS

Understanding psychopathology – Historical conceptions of abnormal behavior: Supernatural model, biological model, psychological model.

One dimensional Vs multi-dimensional model – genetic contribution to psychopathology – Contribution of neuroscience to psychopathology – Behavioural& Cognitive science – Emotions – Cultural & interpersonal factors – Lifespan development.

Assessing psychological disorders – Diagnosing psychological disorders.

Unit Objectives - By the end of this unit, students will be able to:

- 1. Describe the historical development of abnormal psychology.
- 2. Differentiate between one-dimensional and multi-dimensional models.
- 3. Analyze the contributions of neuroscience, behavioral science, and cognitive theories.
- 4. Examine the role of lifespan development and interpersonal factors.
- 5. Demonstrate knowledge of clinical assessment and diagnostic processes.

UNDERSTANDING PSYCHOPATHOLOGY

Psychopathology is the scientific study of mental disorders, encompassing their origin, development, diagnosis, and treatment. It lies at the core of clinical psychology and psychiatry, guiding practitioners in understanding the complexities of abnormal behavior and mental suffering. With the increasing integration of neuroscience, behavioral science, and socio-cultural research, modern psychopathology provides a comprehensive lens to view and treat psychological disorders.

1. Defining Psychopathology

Psychopathology can be broadly defined as the study of psychological dysfunction that leads to distress or impairment in functioning, which deviates from culturally expected behavior or experience. According to Barlow and Durand (2015), the core criteria for identifying psychopathology typically include:

• Psychological dysfunction in cognition, emotion regulation, or behavior

- Personal distress or significant impairment in social, occupational, or other areas of functioning
- Atypical or culturally incongruent responses, though cultural context must be carefully considered

These criteria remind us that pathology is not solely about statistical rarity but also about how much a condition interferes with an individual's life and well-being.

2. Historical Conceptions of Abnormal Behavior

Understanding psychopathology requires a historical perspective. Throughout the centuries, explanations of abnormal behavior have reflected prevailing cultural, religious, and scientific worldviews.

- The Supernatural Model attributed mental illness to demonic possession, witchcraft, or divine punishment. Treatments included exorcism or rituals.
- The Biological Model emerged in Ancient Greece with Hippocrates, who
 posited that imbalances in bodily humors caused mental disturbance. This
 model regained dominance in the 19th century with the discovery that general
 paresis was caused by syphilis.
- The Psychological Model developed in the 19th and 20th centuries, focusing on environmental, social, and cognitive influences. Notably, psychoanalytic theory (Freud), behaviorism (Watson, Skinner), and humanistic perspectives (Rogers, Maslow) all shaped modern psychological treatment.

Barlow and Durand (2015) emphasize that these models evolved not as replacements but as layers of understanding that now form an integrative approach.

3. The One-Dimensional vs. Multi-Dimensional Models

Early theories often followed **one-dimensional models**, attributing disorders to a single cause (e.g., purely biological or purely psychological). However, this view has proven too limited for the complexity of human behavior.

The **multi-dimensional integrative model**, as proposed by Barlow and Durand, recognizes that psychological disorders emerge from the interaction of multiple influences:

- Biological (genetics, brain structure, neurotransmitters)
- **Behavioral and cognitive** (learned behaviors, thought patterns)
- **Emotional** (affect regulation, mood response)
- **Developmental** (life events, early experiences)

• Social and cultural (family dynamics, cultural norms)

This holistic perspective not only enhances diagnosis but also promotes more effective and individualized treatment planning.

4. Role of Neuroscience and Genetics

Contemporary research has solidified the role of **genetics and neurobiology** in psychopathology. Twin and adoption studies suggest a heritable component to disorders like schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, and major depression. Moreover, advances in **brain imaging** (e.g., fMRI, PET scans) have revealed structural and functional differences in the brains of individuals with mental disorders.

Yet, as Barlow and Durand caution, genes do not act in isolation. Instead, the **diathesis-stress model** and **gene-environment interactions** suggest that genetic vulnerability requires environmental stressors to manifest as a disorder.

5. Psychological Assessment and Diagnosis

Understanding psychopathology also involves systematically assessing and diagnosing mental health conditions. Psychological assessment includes:

- Clinical interviews
- Standardized tests
- Behavioral observations
- Neuropsychological measures

Diagnosis relies on classification systems such as the **Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5)**. While diagnosis can help guide treatment, it must be approached with caution to avoid labeling and stigma.

Barlow and Durand emphasize the importance of using **evidence-based assessment tools** and considering the cultural and individual context of each client.

6. The Cultural and Lifespan Context

Culture shapes not only how symptoms are expressed but also how they are understood. A behavior deemed pathological in one culture may be normative in another. Psychopathology must be examined through a **culturally sensitive lens** to ensure appropriate treatment and avoid misdiagnosis.

Similarly, disorders may **manifest differently across the lifespan**. Childhood trauma may lead to anxiety in adulthood; age-related brain changes may influence late-onset disorders. Lifespan development is integral to understanding both the emergence and maintenance of mental disorders.

Conclusion

Psychopathology is a dynamic and evolving field that combines rigorous scientific inquiry with compassionate understanding. From its historical roots to its present-day integrative framework, it remains foundational in addressing mental suffering. As future psychologists and clinicians, post-graduate students must approach psychopathology not just as a body of knowledge, but as a tool to promote human flourishing through informed, ethical, and culturally attuned mental health care.

HISTORICAL CONCEPTIONS OF ABNORMAL BEHAVIOR: SUPERNATURAL, BIOLOGICAL, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL MODELS

Understanding how societies have interpreted and treated abnormal behavior over centuries offers critical insight into the foundations of modern psychopathology. As Barlow and Durand (2015) emphasize in *Abnormal Psychology – An Integrative Approach*, our present-day understanding is rooted in an evolving mixture of theories drawn from history, science, and culture. Three major historical models—the **Supernatural**, **Biological**, and **Psychological**—have dominated at different times and continue to shape contemporary views in integrative ways.

- 1. The Supernatural Model: Behavior as a Result of External, Mystical Forces
- *→* Core Assumption:

Abnormal behavior results from divine punishment, demonic possession, witchcraft, or other supernatural forces.

→ □ Historical Context:

This model was especially dominant during the Middle Ages and earlier, where spiritual beliefs and religious doctrines heavily influenced health and illness explanations.

Q Examples:

- **Trephination**: Drilling a hole into the skull to release evil spirits.
- **Exorcisms**: Religious rituals intended to cast out demons.
- **Witch Hunts**: In 16th–17th century Europe, individuals (often women) were labeled witches and punished for behavior now understood as mental illness.

□ Relevance Today:

While largely replaced in clinical psychology, **remnants of supernatural thinking** still exist in some cultures and belief systems. Recognizing this helps clinicians approach clients with cultural sensitivity.

- 2. The Biological Model: Behavior as a Result of Physical Causes
- ☐ Core Assumption:

Psychological disorders are caused by **biological factors** such as brain pathology, genetics, chemical imbalances, or bodily dysfunction.

△ ☐ Historical Development:

- **Hippocrates (5th century BCE)** proposed that mental disorders stemmed from **imbalances in bodily humors** (blood, phlegm, black bile, yellow bile).
- **Galen** later expanded these ideas, aligning physical health with temperament and personality.

☐ Modern Advancements:

The biological model saw a resurgence in the **19th and 20th centuries**, particularly with:

- Discovery that **syphilis caused general paresis**, linking biological infection with mental symptoms.
- Emergence of **psychotropic medications** (e.g., antipsychotics, antidepressants).
- Use of **brain imaging technologies** (fMRI, PET) to explore neuroanatomy and function.

☐ Criticism:

While it revolutionized treatment through **medical advances**, over-reliance on the biological model has sometimes led to **reductionism**, overlooking psychological and social dimensions.

3	. The Psychological Model: Be	havior as a	a Product of the	Mind and Ex	perience
	Core Assumption:				

Abnormal behavior is a result of **maladaptive thoughts**, **emotions**, **learning**, **or unconscious conflicts**.

- Psychoanalytic Theory (Freud): Introduced the role of unconscious processes and early childhood experiences in shaping mental illness.
- **Humanistic Theory (Rogers, Maslow)**: Focused on self-actualization, personal growth, and unconditional positive regard.
- **Behaviorism (Watson, Skinner)**: Emphasized learned behavior through conditioning (classical and operant).
- Cognitive Psychology (Beck, Ellis): Highlighted the role of distorted thinking patterns in disorders like depression and anxiety.

Influence on Therapy:

These models formed the basis of many **psychotherapeutic approaches**, including:

- Psychoanalysis
- Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy (CBT)
- Client-Centered Therapy

Integration of Models in Modern Psychopathology

Barlow and Durand (2015) advocate for a **multi-dimensional integrative approach**, recognizing that **no single model** can fully explain complex human behavior. Instead, psychological disorders are understood as arising from an **interaction of biological vulnerabilities**, **psychological processes**, **and environmental stressors**—a view informed by the historical evolution of thought.

Summary Table

Model	Key Concept	Example
Supernatural	Caused by spirits, curses, or divine	Exorcism, witch hunts

Model	Key Concept	Example
	forces	
IIRIOIOGICAI	Caused by brain, genetic, or chemical dysfunction	Syphilis causing mental illness, ECT
Psychological		CBT, Freudian analysis, behavioral therapy

☐ Key Takeaways for Students

- Historical models reflect how culture and scientific knowledge shape understanding of abnormal behavior.
- The **supernatural model** dominated ancient and medieval thought but persists in modern cultural interpretations.
- The biological model laid the groundwork for psychiatry and psychopharmacology.
- The **psychological model** contributed to the development of talk therapies and learning-based treatments.
- Today's best practice combines insights from all three, offering a holistic and person-centered approach.

ONE-DIMENSIONAL VS. MULTI-DIMENSIONAL MODEL IN PSYCHOPATHOLOGY

In the field of psychopathology, how we understand the causes and development of mental disorders greatly influences how we diagnose and treat them. Over time, the conceptualization of mental illness has shifted from simple, singular explanations to more complex and integrative ones. *Barlow and Durand (2015)* highlight this shift as a transition from **one-dimensional models** to **multi-dimensional models**, reflecting the growing recognition of the interplay among various biological, psychological, and social factors.

1. The One-Dimensional Model: A Narrow Lens.

Q Definition:

A **one-dimensional model** assumes that a disorder is caused by a **single cause or influence**—whether it is biological, psychological, or environmental.

☐ Examples:

- A **biological one-dimensional model** might claim that depression is caused only by a serotonin imbalance.
- A **psychological one-dimensional model** might argue that anxiety results solely from irrational thinking.

☐ Limitations:

- Oversimplifies complex disorders
- Ignores important contributing factors from other domains
- Can lead to incomplete diagnosis or ineffective treatment

☐ Clinical Implications:

Treatment guided by one-dimensional models often focuses narrowly—for instance, using only medication for depression without addressing cognitive distortions or environmental stressors.

2. The Multi-Dimensional Model: An Integrative Approach

Definition:

A **multi-dimensional model** views psychological disorders as the product of **interacting influences** from multiple domains—biological, psychological, emotional, social, and developmental.

This approach is foundational to Barlow and Durand's **integrative model of abnormal behavior**.

☐ Components of the Multi-Dimensional Model:

Dimension	Key Aspects	
Biological	Genetics, brain structure, neurotransmitter function	
Behavioral	Learning history, conditioning, reinforcement	
Cognitive	Maladaptive thoughts, beliefs, and information processing	
Emotional	Emotion regulation, temperament, mood	
Social/Cultural	Family systems, cultural expectations, social support	
Developmental	Life-stage vulnerabilities, early experiences, critical periods in brain	

Dimension	Key Aspects	
	development	

Interaction of Factors:

A person may have a genetic vulnerability to depression, but it may only manifest after a **major life stressor**, compounded by **negative thought patterns** and **lack of social support**.

3. Comparing the Models

Aspect	One-Dimensional Model	Multi-Dimensional Model
Causality	Single cause (e.g., biology or environment)	Multiple interacting causes
Perspective	Narrow and reductionist	Broad and integrative
Diagnosis & Treatment	Focused on one domain	Involves biological, psychological, and social assessment
Flexibility	Limited	High — adaptable to individual variation
Example	OCD = serotonin imbalance	OCD = biological predisposition + cognitive style + stress

4. Advantages of the Multi-Dimensional Model

- More accurate case conceptualization: Takes into account real-life complexity.
- Improved treatment planning: Encourages comprehensive, personalized interventions (e.g., combining CBT and medication).
- Better prognosis and prevention: Identifies modifiable risk and protective factors across domains.
- **Reflects current research**: Aligns with findings from neuroscience, developmental psychology, and cultural studies.

5. Clinical Application: The Case of Panic Disorder

According to Barlow and Durand (2015), panic disorder is best understood using a **multi-dimensional lens**:

- **Biological vulnerability**: Heritable tendency toward overactive "alarm systems" in the brain.
- Psychological vulnerability: Beliefs about uncontrollability of stress.
- Triggering event: Stressful life event (e.g., loss, conflict).
- Cognitive misinterpretation: Misreading body sensations (e.g., racing heart) as dangerous → leads to panic.

Only by considering **all these dimensions** can clinicians provide truly effective treatment (e.g., interoceptive exposure + cognitive restructuring + SSRIs).

□ Summary Points for Students

- The one-dimensional model offers limited explanatory power by focusing on a single factor.
- The **multi-dimensional model** recognizes that mental disorders arise from **multiple**, **interacting influences**.
- Barlow & Durand's integrative framework highlights the role of biology, behavior, emotion, cognition, and environment in psychopathology.
- Modern clinical psychology favors multi-dimensional case formulations and treatments tailored to the individual.
- Understanding both models is essential, but embracing the multi-dimensional approach is critical for effective diagnosis, intervention, and prevention.

Quiz Questions for Students

Multiple Choice:

- 1. Which of the following best represents the multi-dimensional model of psychopathology?
 - a) Serotonin imbalance alone causes depression
 - b) Childhood trauma causes all psychological disorders
 - c) Mental illness results from biological, psychological, and social influences
 - d) Cultural beliefs alone determine abnormality
- 2. What is a key limitation of the one-dimensional model?
 - a) It includes too many factors
 - b) It requires complex treatment
 - c) It oversimplifies mental disorders
 - d) It focuses only on cultural influences

Short Answer:

- 1. Explain why the multi-dimensional model offers a more accurate understanding of panic disorder than the one-dimensional model.
- 2. Identify two interacting factors from different domains (e.g., biological and social) that could lead to the development of an anxiety disorder.

Discussion Prompts

- "Think of a common mental health condition (e.g., OCD, depression, PTSD).
 How would a one-dimensional model approach it? How would a multi-dimensional model approach it differently?"
- "What are the risks of using only a one-dimensional approach in clinical diagnosis or therapy? Share real-world examples where this might happen."
- 3. "Discuss how culture can be integrated into a multi-dimensional model when working with clients from diverse backgrounds."

GENETIC CONTRIBUTION TO PSYCHOPATHOLOGY

Understanding the genetic basis of mental disorders is essential to comprehending how certain individuals are more vulnerable to developing psychological conditions than others. While genes do not determine psychopathology in isolation, they play a critical role in shaping an individual's predisposition to a range of mental illnesses. *Barlow and Durand (2015)* stress that genes operate within a **multi-dimensional model**, interacting with environmental, psychological, and social factors to influence behavior and mental health.

≤ 1. The Role of Genetics in Psychopathology

□ What Are Genes?

Genes are segments of DNA located on chromosomes that carry instructions for the body's development and function, including the brain and nervous system. These genetic instructions influence how we respond to stress, regulate emotions, and process experiences—all of which are relevant in the development of mental disorders.

П	Genetic	Vulnerability
Ш	Gerielle	vuirierability

A **genetic predisposition** or vulnerability refers to the increased likelihood of developing a psychological disorder due to inherited genetic factors. However, this predisposition often requires an **environmental trigger** to manifest as a disorder—a key principle in modern psychopathology.

☐ 2. Gene-Environment Interaction (GxE)

Genes do not operate in isolation; instead, they interact with environmental conditions in dynamic ways. This concept is captured in models such as:

- *₱* The Diathesis-Stress Model
 - Diathesis: An inherited genetic vulnerability
 - Stress: Environmental pressures or trauma
 - Outcome: Mental disorder occurs only if both are present

Example: A person with a family history of depression (genetic diathesis) may only develop clinical depression following a significant life event (e.g., job loss or grief).

♣ Reciprocal Gene-Environment Model

This model suggests that people may actively seek out or create environments that increase their likelihood of developing a disorder, based on their genetically influenced traits.

Example: A genetically impulsive individual may engage in risky behaviors that expose them to trauma, increasing the risk of developing PTSD.

☐ 3. Research Evidence for Genetic Influence

☐ Family Studies

If psychopathology is inherited, family members of individuals with a mental disorder should show higher rates of the disorder. These studies show increased rates of disorders like schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, and depression among first-degree relatives.

Twin Studies

Monozygotic (MZ) twins share 100% of their genes.

• **Dizygotic (DZ) twins** share about 50%.

Higher concordance rates in MZ twins compared to DZ twins provide evidence for genetic influence.

Example: Schizophrenia has a concordance rate of about 48% in MZ twins and 17% in DZ twins.

By studying individuals raised apart from their biological relatives, researchers can separate genetic effects from environmental ones. These studies have supported genetic contributions to disorders such as ADHD and depression.

☐ 4. Genes and Specific Disorders

Disorder	Genetic Findings
Schizophrenia	Strong heritability (~70–80%) with polygenic risk factors identified
Bipolar Disorder	Highly heritable (~60–70%) with links to specific gene markers
Major Depression	Moderate heritability (~40–50%), stronger when early-onset
Anxiety Disorders	Genetic factors influence neuroticism and behavioral inhibition
Autism Spectrum	Very high heritability, with ongoing research into multiple gene mutations

☐ 5. Limitations and Ethical Considerations

Despite strong evidence for genetic contributions, **genes are not destiny**. Genetic research must be interpreted cautiously:

- **Polygenic Nature**: Most disorders are not caused by a single gene but by the interaction of many genes.
- **Gene-Environment Complexity**: Environments can **activate or silence** genes (epigenetics).
- Stigmatization and Discrimination: Overemphasizing genetic causation can lead to deterministic thinking and reduced focus on social and psychological interventions.

 Privacy Concerns: Genetic testing raises ethical issues around consent and disclosure.

☐ 6. Clinical Implications

Understanding genetic contributions helps clinicians:

- Assess familial risk
- Plan preventive strategies for high-risk individuals
- Choose appropriate treatments, especially when pharmacogenetics (how genes affect drug response) is considered

However, treatment should remain **holistic**, integrating psychological therapies, lifestyle changes, and environmental modifications.

□ Key Takeaways

- Genes play a significant role in shaping vulnerability to psychopathology, but do not act alone.
- Models like diathesis-stress and gene-environment interaction offer a nuanced understanding.
- Modern research supports a **multi-dimensional model** where genes, brain function, thought processes, and social environment all interact.
- Genetic knowledge must be **ethically applied** in both research and clinical settings.
- Clinicians must avoid reductionist thinking and maintain a person-centered approach.

1 2. Quick Review Table: Heritability of Select Disorders

Disorder	Estimated Heritability	Comments
Schizophrenia	70–80%	Polygenic, highly researched
Bipolar Disorder	60–70%	Strong familial patterns
Major Depression	40–50%	Higher for early-onset forms

Disorder	Estimated Heritability	Comments
Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD)	45-65%	Tied to specific chromosome markers in some cases
Generalized Anxiety Disorder	30-40%	Often overlaps with trait anxiety (neuroticism)

☐ 3. Mini Quiz for Self-Check

Multiple Choice Questions:

- 1. Which of the following best illustrates the diathesis-stress model?
 - o a) Genes always cause psychological disorders
 - o b) Stress is unrelated to biological vulnerability
 - o □ c) Genetic predisposition + stress leads to mental illness
 - o d) A traumatic event alone is sufficient for diagnosis
- 2. Twin studies help demonstrate genetic influence by:
 - o a) Comparing parenting styles
 - □ b) Comparing concordance rates in MZ vs DZ twins
 - c) Observing cultural differences
 - o d) Studying treatment outcomes

Short Answer Prompt:

Give an example of a mental health condition that demonstrates gene-environment interaction, and describe how both factors contribute to its development.

CONTRIBUTION OF NEUROSCIENCE TO PSYCHOPATHOLOGY

In recent decades, neuroscience has emerged as a powerful and indispensable domain in understanding mental disorders. It provides critical insights into how brain structure, function, and neurochemical processes relate to abnormal behavior. *Barlow and Durand (2015)* emphasize that neuroscience is a foundational component of the **multi-dimensional integrative approach**, which views psychopathology as the result of complex interactions among biological, psychological, and environmental influences.

☐ 1. What Is Neuroscience in Psychopathology?

Neuroscience is the scientific study of the nervous system, including the brain, spinal cord, and peripheral nerves. In the context of psychopathology, neuroscience examines how neurological functions—such as neurotransmission, brain circuitry, and hormonal regulation—contribute to the onset, maintenance, and treatment of mental disorders.

This field bridges biology and behavior, helping explain **why certain individuals are more vulnerable** to conditions like depression, schizophrenia, anxiety disorders, and more.

- ☐ 2. Key Areas of Neuroscientific Contribution

Abnormalities in specific brain regions have been linked to different disorders:

Brain Region	Associated Function	Linked Disorders
Prefrontal Cortex	Executive functioning, decision- making	Depression, ADHD
Amygdala	Emotion processing, fear response	PTSD, phobias, anxiety disorders
Hippocampus	Memory consolidation, emotional memory	Depression, dissociative disorders
Basal Ganglia	Movement, habit formation	OCD, Tourette's

Brain imaging techniques such as **fMRI**, **PET scans**, and **EEG** have provided non-invasive ways to observe structural and functional brain abnormalities in real-time.

Neurotransmitters are brain chemicals that influence how neurons communicate. Imbalances in these chemicals are associated with many mental illnesses.

Neurotransmitter	Function	Associated Disorders
Serotonin	Mood regulation, sleep, appetite	Depression, OCD, eating disorders
Dopamine	Pleasure, reward, motivation	Schizophrenia (excess), Parkinson's (deficit)
Norepinephrine	Arousal, alertness, stress response	Anxiety, PTSD
GABA	Inhibitory control, calming	Generalized anxiety disorder

Barlow and Durand (2015) highlight how these neurochemical systems interact rather than operate in isolation, emphasizing **neural network models** over single-neurotransmitter explanations.

The **Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal (HPA) axis** plays a central role in the body's response to stress. Overactivation of the HPA axis can result in elevated cortisol levels, which are associated with:

- Depression
- Anxiety disorders
- PTSD
- Chronic stress conditions

Neuroscience provides models that show how **early-life trauma** can dysregulate this system, creating long-term vulnerability to stress-related psychopathology.

3. Neuroscience and the Diathesis-Stress Model

Neuroscience supports the **diathesis-stress model** by identifying **neurobiological vulnerabilities** (diatheses) that interact with environmental stressors. For example:

- A child genetically predisposed to high cortisol reactivity may develop anxiety disorders if exposed to early trauma.
- In schizophrenia, **dopamine dysregulation** may be activated by substance use or social stress during adolescence.

This model aligns with Barlow and Durand's integrative approach, showing that neuroscience does not operate in isolation but in dynamic interaction with psychological and environmental factors.

• 4. Neuroscience in Treatment Development

Neuroscience has informed the development of **biological interventions**, including:

- Psychopharmacology: Antidepressants (SSRIs), antipsychotics, mood stabilizers, anxiolytics.
- Brain stimulation techniques:
 - Electroconvulsive Therapy (ECT): Used in severe depression.
 - Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (TMS): Non-invasive brain stimulation for mood disorders.
 - Deep Brain Stimulation (DBS): Investigational treatment for OCD and depression.

Emerging fields like **neurofeedback** and **neuromodulation** explore how individuals can consciously influence their brain activity through guided training.

5. Limitations and Ethical Considerations

While neuroscience offers powerful tools, it is not without limitations:

- Reductionism: Focusing only on the brain may ignore psychological and cultural dimensions.
- **Overgeneralization**: Brain imaging findings are often correlational, not causal.
- **Stigma and misuse**: Biological explanations may reduce personal responsibility or lead to fatalism.
- Access and cost: Advanced neurotechnological treatments are not universally available.

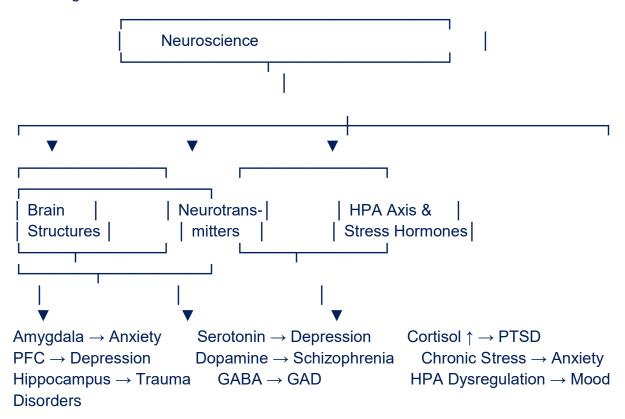
Ethical practice requires combining neuroscientific knowledge with empathy, cultural awareness, and holistic care.

□ Key Takeaways

Neuroscience enhances understanding of how brain structure,
 neurotransmitters, and stress systems contribute to mental disorders.

- It supports the **integrative model** of psychopathology, acknowledging that biology interacts with cognition, emotion, and environment.
- Neuroscience has advanced diagnosis and treatment, especially in pharmacology and neurostimulation.
- While powerful, neuroscientific findings must be applied ethically and contextually within a broader clinical framework.

☐ 1. Diagram: Neuroscience Contributions to Mental Disorders



This visual maps core areas of neuroscience and links them to specific disorders, showing how integrated biological systems influence psychopathology.

1 2. Summary Table: Neuroscience and Disorders

Component	Function	Related Disorders	
Prefrontal Cortex	Executive control, emotion regulation	Depression, ADHD	

Component	Function	Related Disorders
Amygdala	Fear, threat detection	Anxiety, PTSD
Dopamine	Reward, motivation	Schizophrenia, addiction
Serotonin	Mood, impulse control	Depression, OCD
Cortisol (HPA Axis)	Stress response	PTSD, chronic anxiety

ଅ	\mathcal{C}	lassroom	\cap	ロロフ	$\overline{}$)ııbet	ion	c
_ ാ	. 0	iassiuuiii	w	uiz	S	เนธอเ	II IUI.	J

Multiple Choice:

- 1. Which neurotransmitter is most often associated with schizophrenia?
 - o a) GABA
 - o b) Norepinephrine
 - o □ c) Dopamine
 - o d) Serotonin
- 2. The HPA axis primarily regulates:
 - o a) Neural transmission
 - □ b) Stress hormone response
 - o c) Reward sensitivity
 - o d) Brain development

Short Answer Prompt:

How	does	the am	iygdala	contribu	ite to	the	develo	pment	of ar	rxiety	disorde	ers,
acco	rding	to neur	oscieno	e resea	rch?							

BEHAVIORAL AND COGNITIVE SCIENCE IN PSYCHOPATHOLOGY

Behavioral and cognitive sciences have significantly shaped how we understand, assess, and treat psychological disorders. According to *Barlow and Durand (2015)*, these domains form a crucial part of the **multi-dimensional integrative approach**, explaining how learning processes and thought patterns interact with emotional and biological systems to influence mental health.

☐ 1. Behavioral Science: How We Learn Abnormal Behaviors

Behavioral science focuses on **observable behavior** and how it is influenced by the environment through learning processes. This approach assumes that **maladaptive behaviors are learned** and can therefore be unlearned or modified.

♣ Key Learning Theories:

Theory	Core Concept	Psychopathology Example
Classical Conditioning (Pavlov)	Learning through association	Phobias, PTSD (trauma paired with stimuli)
Operant Conditioning (Skinner)	Behavior shaped by consequences (rewards/punishments)	OCD (compulsions reinforced by anxiety relief)
Observational Learning (Bandura)	Learning by watching others	Aggression, anxiety through modeling

Behavioral models contributed to **exposure therapy, reinforcement techniques**, and **behavioral activation**, which are still widely used today.

2. Cognitive Science: How We Think Shapes How We Feel

Cognitive science explores how **perception**, **memory**, **beliefs**, **and thought patterns** affect behavior and emotion. Psychological disorders are often maintained by **distorted or dysfunctional thinking**.

♦ Core Cognitive Concepts:

Concept	Description	Disorder Link
Automatic Thoughts	Immediate, often irrational interpretations	Depression, anxiety
Cognitive Distortions	Systematic thinking errors (e.g., catastrophizing)	Panic disorder, social phobia
Core Beliefs	Deeply held views about self, world,	Low self-esteem in

Concept	Description	Disorder Link
	and future	depression

Key theorists like **Aaron Beck** (Cognitive Therapy) and **Albert Ellis** (REBT) pioneered interventions targeting **maladaptive thought patterns**, which remain central in **CBT** (**Cognitive Behavioral Therapy**).

3. Integration of Behavioral and Cognitive Science: CBT

Cognitive and behavioral approaches have been merged into **Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT)**—one of the most evidence-based treatments in psychopathology today.

♦ CBT Principles:

- Identify and modify maladaptive thoughts
- Replace avoidant or harmful behaviors
- Use homework, behavioral experiments, and thought records

Example: In **panic disorder**, CBT helps patients reframe catastrophic misinterpretations of bodily sensations and face feared situations gradually (exposure).

■ 4. Clinical Applications of Behavioral and Cognitive Science

Disorder	Behavioral/Cognitive Intervention
Phobia	Systematic desensitization, exposure therapy
Depression	Behavioral activation, cognitive restructuring
OCD	Exposure and Response Prevention (ERP)
GAD / Panic Disorder	Relaxation training, thought-challenging techniques
Eating Disorders	Cognitive reappraisal, habit reversal

☐ 5. Limitations and Considerations

While powerful, behavioral and cognitive models are not without limitations:

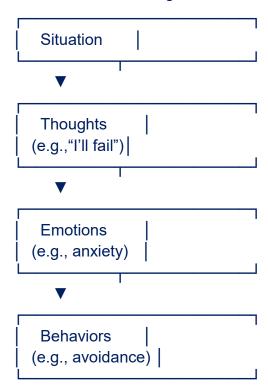
- May underemphasize biological and emotional components
- Require a level of **insight and motivation** from the client
- Cultural beliefs can affect thought patterns and learning history

Barlow and Durand (2015) argue for an **integrative model**, where **cognition**, **behavior**, **biology**, **emotion**, **and culture** are interwoven in both assessment and treatment.

□ Key Takeaways

- **Behavioral science** explains how learned responses contribute to psychopathology.
- **Cognitive science** reveals how distorted thoughts and beliefs maintain emotional distress.
- Together, they form the basis for **CBT**, a leading therapeutic approach for many mental disorders.
- These sciences emphasize structured, time-limited, goal-oriented interventions.
- Integrating behavioral and cognitive approaches with neuroscience and social context enhances clinical effectiveness.

☐ 1. Diagram: Interaction of Thoughts, Emotions, and Behaviors



This cycle explains how **cognitive distortions** lead to **emotional distress** and **maladaptive behaviors**—a foundation of **CBT**.

1 2. Quick Table: Behavioral vs. Cognitive Focus

Aspect	Behavioral Science	Cognitive Science
Focus	Observable actions and learning	Thought processes, beliefs, and internal dialogue
Key Theorists	Pavlov, Skinner, Bandura	Beck, Ellis
Key Techniques	Exposure, reinforcement, modeling	Cognitive restructuring, thought records
Disorders Treated	OCD, phobia, ADHD	Depression, anxiety, eating disorders

☐ 3. Mini Quiz & Class Discussion Prompts

Multiple Choice Questions:

- 1. Which theory explains fear responses developed through association?
 - o a) Operant conditioning
 - b) Social learning
 - o □ c) Classical conditioning
 - o d) Cognitive triad
- 2. The cognitive triad in depression includes negative views of:
 - o a) Others, emotions, and thoughts
 - o □ b) Self, world, and future
 - o c) Mind, body, and behavior
 - o d) Family, school, and society

Discussion Prompts:

1. Case Discussion:

A client avoids social gatherings because they think others will judge them harshly. Using cognitive-behavioral principles, how would you break this cycle?

2. Role Play:

In pairs, simulate a CBT session where one person plays a client with test

anxiety, and the other applies thought-challenging and behavioral activation techniques.

EMOTIONS IN PSYCHOPATHOLOGY

Emotions are central to the human experience. They help us survive, connect, and respond to the world. However, when emotional processes become dysregulated, they can contribute significantly to the onset, expression, and maintenance of psychological disorders. In *Barlow and Durand's (2015)* integrative model, **emotions are not isolated phenomena**—they are dynamically intertwined with biological, cognitive, and behavioral systems in the development of psychopathology.

(=) 1. What Are Emotions?

Emotions are brief, coordinated psychological and physiological responses to internal or external events that are perceived as significant. They involve:

- Physiological arousal (e.g., increased heart rate)
- Cognitive appraisal (e.g., "This is dangerous")
- Subjective experience (e.g., fear, sadness, joy)
- Action tendency (e.g., fight, flight, withdraw)

Emotions can be **adaptive** when they guide appropriate behavior (e.g., fear helps us avoid danger). However, when emotions are **intense**, **chronic**, **or mismatched to context**, they may become maladaptive.

□ 2. The Role of Emotions in Mental Disorders

♦ a) Anxiety Disorders

- Excessive fear and hyperarousal are core features.
- Individuals misinterpret threats and show heightened emotional reactivity (e.g., panic attacks).
- Emotion regulation failures—such as avoiding emotions—can maintain anxiety.

• Major Depression: Persistent sadness, hopelessness, emotional numbness.

- **Bipolar Disorder**: Alternating periods of **elevated (mania)** and **depressed mood**.
- Mood dysregulation is often linked to disrupted emotional processing and cognitive distortions.
- *♦* c) Borderline Personality Disorder (BPD)
 - Marked by emotional instability, impulsivity, and intense affective responses.
 - Heightened sensitivity to emotional stimuli and delayed emotional recovery.
- *♦* d) PTSD and Trauma-Related Disorders
 - Involve **fear-conditioning**, emotional numbing, and flashbacks.
 - Emotion processing centers like the amygdala and hippocampus are often overactive or impaired.

3. Emotion Regulation and Dysregulation

Emotion regulation refers to the processes by which individuals influence their emotions—how they experience them, when they occur, and how they are expressed.

Barlow and Durand (2015) highlight that many disorders stem not from the presence of strong emotions, but from the **inability to regulate those emotions** effectively.

Effective Strategies	Maladaptive Strategies
Reappraisal	Suppression
Acceptance	Rumination
Problem-solving	Avoidance
Mindfulness	Substance use

☐ 4. Neuroscience of Emotion in Psychopathology

Key brain areas involved in emotional processing include:

Brain Area	Function	Disorder Link
Amygdala	Detects threat, fear processing	Hyperactive in anxiety, PTSD
Prefrontal Cortex	Regulates emotional responses	Underactive in depression, BPD
Insula		Overactive in anxiety disorders

Disrupted connectivity between **emotion-generating (amygdala)** and **emotion-regulating (prefrontal cortex)** regions is a neural hallmark of emotional dysregulation.

• 5. Clinical Implications: Treating Emotional Dysregulation

Therapeutic approaches now directly target **emotion regulation skills**:

- Dialectical Behavior Therapy (DBT): Effective for BPD; teaches distress tolerance and emotional awareness.
- Emotion-Focused Therapy (EFT): Helps clients access and process core emotions.
- **CBT with emotion components**: Incorporates emotional awareness into thought and behavior change.
- **Mindfulness and Acceptance-Based Therapies**: Promote non-reactive, compassionate awareness of emotions.

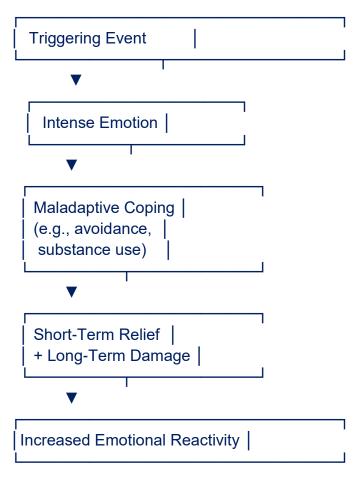
Barlow and Durand argue that future treatment models must integrate **emotion science** with traditional behavioral and cognitive therapies.

□ Key Takeaways

- Emotions are essential to mental health and are closely tied to all major psychological disorders.
- Emotional dysregulation, not just emotional intensity, is a core issue in many conditions.
- Emotion processing is linked to specific brain circuits, especially the **amyqdala** and **prefrontal cortex**.
- Effective therapy often requires **training in emotion regulation**, not just cognitive restructuring.

• Integrating emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and biological understanding offers a **holistic treatment pathway**.





This diagram illustrates how **poor emotion regulation** creates a **self-perpetuating cycle** of distress and dysfunction, often seen in anxiety, depression, and personality disorders.

11 2. Quick Reference Table: Emotion Regulation Strategies

Healthy Strategies	Unhealthy Strategies	Used In
Mindful awareness	Avoidance	DBT, ACT
Reframing/reappraisal	Rumination	СВТ
Deep breathing & grounding	Suppression	Anxiety & trauma therapy

Healthy Strategies	Unhealthy Strategies	Used In
Emotional expression	Self-harm	Emotion-Focused Therapy, DBT

☐ 3. Mini Quiz & Discussion Prompts

Multiple Choice Questions:

- 1. Which brain region is most associated with detecting emotional threats?
 - o a) Hippocampus
 - o □ b) Amygdala
 - o c) Prefrontal cortex
 - o d) Cerebellum
- 2. Emotional dysregulation is a core feature of:
 - o a) Schizophrenia
 - o □ b) Borderline Personality Disorder
 - o c) Autism Spectrum Disorder
 - o d) ADHD

Short Answer Prompt:

Explain how emotion regulation failure contributes to the maintenance of anxiety or depression. Use a real-life example or clinical case.

Discussion Prompts:

- "How can therapies like DBT and ACT support clients who feel overwhelmed by their emotions?"
- "What role do cultural factors play in emotional expression and regulation?
 How might this affect diagnosis or treatment?"

CULTURAL AND INTERPERSONAL FACTORS IN PSYCHOPATHOLOGY

Psychological disorders do not arise in a vacuum—they are deeply influenced by **cultural contexts** and **interpersonal relationships**. In *Barlow and Durand's (2015)* integrative model, culture and relationships are not peripheral but **central to understanding the expression, experience, and treatment of mental disorders**. Both factors can shape vulnerability, help-seeking behavior, symptom presentation, and prognosis.

1. Cultural Factors in Psychopathology

♦ a) Definition of Culture

Culture includes the shared values, beliefs, norms, practices, language, and customs of a group of people. It affects how individuals **perceive distress**, express emotions, define mental health, and respond to treatment.

Culture influences **what is considered "abnormal"** and how symptoms are **expressed**. Some disorders are **culture-bound syndromes**, meaning they occur primarily in specific cultural contexts.

Culture-Bound Syndrome	Region	Description
Ataque de nervios	Latin America	Uncontrollable shouting, crying, trembling
Koro	Southeast Asia	Fear that genitals are shrinking into the body
Dhat Syndrome	India	Anxiety about semen loss and sexual weakness

♦ c) Stigma and Beliefs

In some cultures, mental illness may be seen as **spiritual weakness**, **shameful**, **or a punishment**, leading to delayed treatment or preference for religious healers over mental health professionals.

□□□ 2. Interpersonal Factors in Psychopathology

Interpersonal relationships—including those with family, peers, romantic partners, and caregivers—play a **significant role** in the development and maintenance of psychological disorders.

♦ a) Attachment and Development

- Secure attachment in childhood fosters resilience.
- Insecure or disorganized attachment increases risk for anxiety, depression, and personality disorders.
- Early **neglect or trauma** can impair emotional regulation and trust in others.

- High-quality social support is a protective factor that buffers against stress.
- Loneliness and social rejection are major risk factors for depression, suicide, and substance abuse.

Marital conflict, family dysfunction, peer bullying, and workplace harassment can trigger or worsen mental health symptoms.

Example: Interpersonal conflict is a common trigger for depressive episodes and is central in models like **Interpersonal Therapy (IPT)**.

3. Cultural and Interpersonal Considerations in Diagnosis

Clinicians must consider:

- **Cultural formulation**: DSM-5 includes a *Cultural Formulation Interview* to help assess how culture affects an individual's experience of illness.
- Language and expression: Emotional vocabulary differs across cultures;
 what is called "depression" in one culture may be described as "physical tiredness" or "spirit weakness" in another.
- Cultural humility: Therapists must avoid imposing their own cultural assumptions and instead seek to understand the client's worldview.

- ☐ 4. Clinical Applications and Implications
- ☐ Culturally Informed Therapy Includes:
 - Understanding culturally acceptable coping mechanisms
 - Exploring how **interpersonal roles** (e.g., gender roles, family expectations) contribute to stress
 - Adjusting communication and treatment approaches to match cultural and relational norms

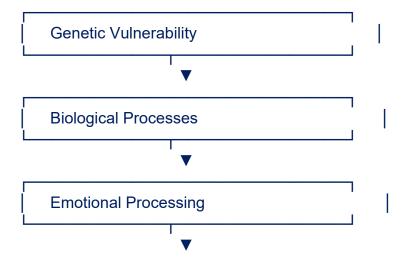
Examples:

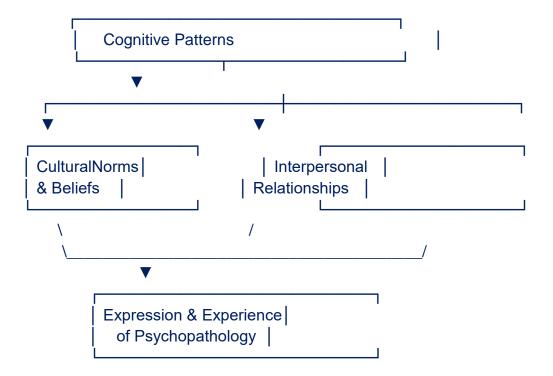
- **In collectivist cultures**, family involvement may be crucial in treatment planning.
- In individualist cultures, therapy may focus more on autonomy and selfreflection.

□ Key Takeaways

- **Culture shapes** how mental illness is experienced, labeled, and treated.
- **Interpersonal relationships** can either buffer against or contribute to psychopathology.
- Clinicians must develop cultural competence and assess relational dynamics when diagnosing and treating mental disorders.
- Integrating **cultural and interpersonal understanding** enhances therapeutic alliance and treatment outcomes.

1. Diagram: Cultural & Interpersonal Influences in the Integrative Model





☐ This visual shows how **culture and relationships** integrate with biological, emotional, and cognitive factors in shaping mental illness.

1 2. Case-Based Cultural Quick Table

Case Example	Cultural/Relational Insight	Clinical Strategy
Indian male with "weakness and fatigue"	Culture-bound somatic presentation of depression	Explore psychological factors gently, normalize
Latina woman with ataque de nervios	Cultural script for distress and grief	Validate emotional expression, involve family
Refugee with PTSD symptoms	•	Trauma-focused care + community rebuilding
Teen in peer conflict + self-harm	relationships	Combine emotion regulation + interpersonal therapy

_	_	B 41 1	\sim .		\sim 1	D:	
		N/limi	לווו (and	Class	I Jieci	ICCION
	J.	IVIIIII	Quiz.	anu	Class	DISCL	มออเบเ

Multiple Choice Questions:

- 1. Which of the following is an example of a culture-bound syndrome?
 - o a) Panic disorder
 - o b) Borderline personality disorder
 - o □ c) Dhat syndrome
 - o d) Bipolar disorder
- 2. In collectivist cultures, which of the following is a common expectation in therapy?
 - o a) Focus on individual independence
 - □ b) Involvement of family in decision-making
 - c) Emphasis on career development
 - o d) Avoidance of spiritual beliefs

Short Answer Prompt:

Describe how interpersonal conflict within a family can influence the development of depression in a young adult. Include emotional and cultural considerations.

Discussion Prompts:

- "How can therapists respectfully balance cultural norms with evidence-based treatment when the two seem to conflict?"
- "What strategies would you use to build rapport with a client from a culture very different from your own?"

Lifespan Development in Psychopathology

Psychopathology is not static—it unfolds across the human lifespan. The same mental disorder may look different in a child, an adolescent, and an older adult. According to *Barlow and Durand (2015)*, lifespan development is a key component of the **multi-dimensional integrative model**, highlighting how **age-related changes in biology, psychology, and social context** shape the onset, expression, and treatment of psychological disorders.

☐ 1. Why Lifespan Perspective Matters in Psychopathology

A lifespan approach recognizes that:

- **Developmental stages** (infancy, childhood, adolescence, adulthood, old age) each involve unique biological, cognitive, emotional, and social tasks.
- Timing of risk factors (e.g., trauma, loss) affects vulnerability.
- Some disorders are **age-specific**, while others persist or re-emerge differently at later life stages.

This perspective helps clinicians understand when and how disorders emerge, and to tailor interventions accordingly.

© 2. Psychopathology Across Key Developmental Stages

a) Childhood

- Disorders often reflect developmental delays or emotional dysregulation.
- Common: ADHD, autism spectrum disorder (ASD), separation anxiety, selective mutism.
- **Early attachment patterns** influence emotional regulation and social functioning.

b) Adolescence

- Rapid brain changes (especially in prefrontal cortex and limbic system).
- Increased vulnerability to depression, anxiety, eating disorders, substance use.
- **Peer pressure**, identity formation, and body image become dominant stressors.

c) Adulthood

- Stress related to **career, relationships, parenting**, and **life transitions** (e.g., marriage, loss).
- Depression, generalized anxiety disorder (GAD), and personality disorders are common.
- Unresolved childhood trauma may resurface as adult psychopathology.

d) Late Adulthood

- Risk increases for **neurocognitive disorders** (e.g., Alzheimer's), **depression due to loss**, and **social isolation**.
- Physical health issues can mimic or worsen psychological symptoms.

• Protective factors include meaning, autonomy, and social engagement.

3. Developmental Risk and Protective Factors

Risk Factors	Protective Factors
Early trauma or neglect	Secure attachment
Academic or social failure	Supportive school environment
Genetic vulnerability	Emotion regulation skills
Chronic family conflict or poverty	Strong social support network

Barlow and Durand (2015) emphasize that the **interaction between risk and protective factors over time** determines whether a disorder develops or is avoided.

☐ 4. Lifespan Neurodevelopment

The **developing brain** undergoes critical periods where environmental input strongly influences outcomes:

- Early life stress can alter HPA axis functioning, increasing later anxiety and depression.
- Adolescents show heightened dopamine activity, increasing risk for risktaking and mood disorders.
- Neuroplasticity continues in adulthood, supporting the use of therapy at any age.

☐ 5. Clinical Implications

Understanding lifespan development helps clinicians:

- Tailor assessments to developmental levels
- Recognize age-appropriate behaviors vs. symptoms
- Predict **trajectories** of illness and recovery
- Choose developmentally appropriate interventions (e.g., play therapy for children, CBT for adults, reminiscence therapy for elders)

☐ Key Takeaways

- A **lifespan approach** is essential for understanding how psychological disorders develop, change, and respond to treatment.
- Each life stage carries unique vulnerabilities and strengths.
- **Timing of exposure** to risk factors can affect the severity and nature of psychopathology.
- Treatment must be **age-sensitive**, developmentally appropriate, and adapted to life context.

✓ 1. Diagram: Lifespan Development and Psychopathology Timeline

Life Stage	Key Developmental Tasks	Common Psychopathologies
Infancy	Formation of secure attachment, trust-building	Separation anxiety disorder, Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD)
Childhood	Language development, emotional regulation, socialization	ADHD, Conduct Disorder, Oppositional Defiant Disorder
Adolescence	Identity formation, peer relationships, autonomy	Depression, Anxiety Disorders, Eating Disorders, Substance Use
Early Adulthood	Intimacy, career development, independence	Panic Disorder, Social Anxiety, Substance Use Disorders
Middle Adulthood	Role strain, life transitions, caregiving	Depression, Adjustment Disorders, Burnout
Older Adulthood	Reflection, coping with loss, cognitive slowing	Late-life Depression, Dementia, Generalized Anxiety Disorder

 \Box This visual timeline helps students understand how mental health issues shift across developmental stages.

1 2. Developmental Risk vs. Protective Factors Table

Life Stage	Risk Factors	Protective Factors
Childhood	Parental neglect, abuse	Secure attachment, stable home
Adolescence	Peer rejection, academic failure	Supportive teachers, extracurriculars
Adulthood	Divorce, financial stress	Coping skills, career satisfaction

Life Stage	Risk Factors	Protective Factors
		Family involvement, community engagement

☐ 3. Quiz & Class Discussion Prompts

Multiple Choice Questions:

- 1. Which life stage is associated with the emergence of identity-related mental health challenges?
 - o a) Childhood
 - o □ b) Adolescence
 - o c) Early adulthood
 - o d) Late adulthood
- 2. According to lifespan development theory, early attachment experiences most directly influence:
 - o a) Intelligence
 - o □ b) Emotion regulation
 - o c) Academic achievement
 - o d) Physical development

Short Answer Prompt:

Choose a mental disorder and describe how it might present differently across childhood, adulthood, and old age.

Discussion Prompts:

- "Why is it important to adapt therapy techniques for different life stages? Give an example."
- "How can early intervention during childhood change the trajectory of psychopathology in later life?"

ASSESSING PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS

Assessment is a foundational process in psychopathology that guides diagnosis, treatment planning, and outcome evaluation. It involves systematically gathering information about a client's emotional, behavioral, and cognitive functioning to understand the **nature and extent of psychological problems**. As emphasized by *Barlow and Durand (2015)*, effective assessment integrates **clinical observation**, **standardized tools**, **and cultural context** into a comprehensive case formulation.

© 1. Goals of Psychological Assessment

- Understand the client's presenting problem
- Identify patterns of symptoms and functional impairments
- **Diagnose psychological disorders** using established criteria (e.g., DSM-5)
- Guide treatment planning and select evidence-based interventions
- Monitor progress and evaluate treatment outcomes over time

☐ 2. Components of a Comprehensive Assessment

a) Clinical Interview

- Often the first step in assessment
- Can be structured, semi-structured, or unstructured
- Gathers detailed information about:
 - Presenting symptoms
 - Medical and psychiatric history
 - Family, social, and occupational functioning
 - o Risk factors (e.g., suicide, self-harm, substance use)

b) Mental Status Examination (MSE)

A structured way of documenting current psychological functioning, covering:

MSE Domain	Examples
Appearance	Grooming, posture, facial expressions
Mood and Affect	Reported mood vs. observed emotional expression
Thought Process	Coherence, logic, speed of thinking

MSE Domain	Examples
Thought Content	Presence of delusions, obsessions, suicidal ideation
Perception	Hallucinations, derealization
Cognition	Orientation, memory, attention
Insight & Judgment	Awareness of condition, decision-making capacity

Psychological tests are standardized instruments used to measure specific aspects of functioning:

Test Type	Purpose	Examples
Cognitive lests	Assess memory, intelligence, executive function	WAIS, WISC, Bender- Gestalt
Personality lests	Explore traits, patterns, psychopathology	MMPI-2, 16PF, NEO-PI
Projective Tests	Access unconscious material	Rorschach, Thematic Apperception Test
Behavioral Assessments	Observe behavior in specific settings	ABC logs, direct observations

4. Behavioral and Functional Assessments

Behavioral assessments are used to observe and record **antecedents**, **behaviors**, **and consequences (ABC model)** in naturalistic or clinical environments. This helps in:

- Identifying triggers and reinforcers
- Designing behavioral interventions
- Monitoring real-time change in specific contexts

5. Cultural and Developmental Considerations

- **Cultural context** affects symptom expression, help-seeking, and interpretation.
- Clinicians should use the **Cultural Formulation Interview (CFI)** from DSM-5 when relevant.
- **Developmental stage** must be considered to differentiate between normative and pathological behavior (e.g., tantrums in toddlers vs. adolescents).

□ 6. Ethical and Practical Considerations

- Ensure informed consent and confidentiality
- Use tools with validated reliability and validity
- Consider **test limitations** (e.g., cultural bias, over-pathologizing)
- Integrate data from **multiple sources** for accurate conclusions

□ Key Takeaways

- Psychological assessment is a multi-method process combining clinical judgment and standardized tools.
- Effective assessment leads to accurate diagnosis, tailored treatment, and better outcomes.
- Cultural, interpersonal, and developmental contexts are essential in interpreting assessment data.
- Ongoing reassessment is key for tracking change and guiding interventions.

```
□ 1. Flowchart: Psychological Assessment Process

Start

↓

Clinical Interview |
(Structured/Semi/Unstructured) |

↓

Mental Status Exam |
(Appearance, Thought, Mood) |

↓
```

```
Psychological Testing
(Cognitive, Personality,
Projective, Behavioral)

Functional/Behavioral Analysis
(ABC: Antecedent → Behavior → Consequence)

Diagnosis (DSM-5)
+ Case Formulation

Treatment Planning

Reassessment
```

2. MSE (Mental Status Examination) Checklist – Quick Guide

Domain	Examples/Questions
Appearance	Grooming, posture, eye contact
Behavior	Agitation, psychomotor slowing, cooperation
Speech	Rate, volume, fluency
Mood & Affect	Stated mood vs. observed emotional expression
Thought Process	Logical, tangential, disorganized
Thought Content	Delusions, obsessions, suicidal thoughts
Perceptions	Hallucinations, derealization
Cognition	Orientation, memory, attention
Insight & Judgment	Awareness of illness, decision-making ability

☐ 3. Class Activity: Case-Based Assessment Practice

Case Vignette (Brief Sample):

Riya, a 21-year-old university student, presents with complaints of persistent sadness, loss of interest in activities, fatigue, and trouble sleeping for the past six weeks. She reports difficulty concentrating and occasional thoughts of self-worthlessness. She recently broke up with her partner and has withdrawn from her friend group. There is a family history of depression on her mother's side.

Discussion Prompts:

- What areas should be covered in the clinical interview?
- Which MSE domains are likely to be relevant?
- Would you administer any standardized assessments (e.g., BDI-II)? Why?
- How would cultural background or stressors influence your assessment?
- Draft a brief case formulation and tentative treatment direction.

DIAGNOSING PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS

Diagnosis is a critical step in the clinical process, serving as the bridge between assessment and treatment. It involves identifying and classifying a set of symptoms and behaviors as a recognized psychological disorder. As emphasized by *Barlow and Durand (2015)*, diagnosis is not merely labeling—it is part of an **evidence-based, integrative process** that considers the client's biology, emotions, thoughts, behavior, culture, and environment.

☐ 1. Purpose of Diagnosis

- Clarify the nature of the problem
- Guide treatment planning
- Communicate with other professionals
- Determine prognosis
- Facilitate research and evidence-based practice
- Access insurance coverage or services (in many systems)

2. Diagnostic Systems in Psychology

- a) DSM-5 (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 5th Edition)
 - Developed by the American Psychiatric Association
 - Most widely used classification system in clinical psychology
 - Provides diagnostic criteria, symptom duration, exclusion rules, and specifiers (e.g., severity, type)
- b) ICD-11 (International Classification of Diseases)
 - Published by the World Health Organization
 - Used globally for both mental and physical health classification
 - More accessible and integrative, particularly in multicultural or global contexts

☐ 3. The Process of Diagnosis

Step-by-Step:

Step	Description
1. Data Collection	Gather information via clinical interviews, MSE, testing
2. Symptom Identification	Identify symptoms present, their duration, severity
3. Match to Criteria	Compare symptoms to DSM-5 or ICD-11 criteria for a specific disorder
4. Rule Out Medical/Other Causes	Exclude substance use, medical conditions, or normal variations
5. Consider Comorbidity	Identify co-occurring disorders (e.g., anxiety + depression)
6. Apply Specifiers	Indicate features like severity, course, or subtype
7. Case Formulation	Integrate diagnosis with individual context, strengths, and risks

☐ 4. Categorical vs. Dimensional Diagnosis

Model	Explanation	Example
L'atedoricai		Major Depressive Disorder (5/9 symptoms)
Dimensional	Disorders lie on a spectrum (degree/severity)	Severity rating in GAD or Autism

Barlow and Durand (2015) highlight the **value of combining both approaches**—using categories for clarity and dimensions for personalization.

□ 5. Challenges in Diagnosis

- **Comorbidity**: Many clients meet criteria for multiple disorders, complicating treatment.
- Cultural bias: Diagnostic tools may not fully account for cultural norms.
- Overdiagnosis vs. Underdiagnosis: Risk of medicalizing normal stress or missing subtle pathology.
- **Stigma**: A diagnosis can lead to labeling or reduced self-esteem if not handled sensitively.
- Reliability and Validity: Diagnostic categories may vary across clinicians or settings.

Q 6. Ethical and Clinical Considerations

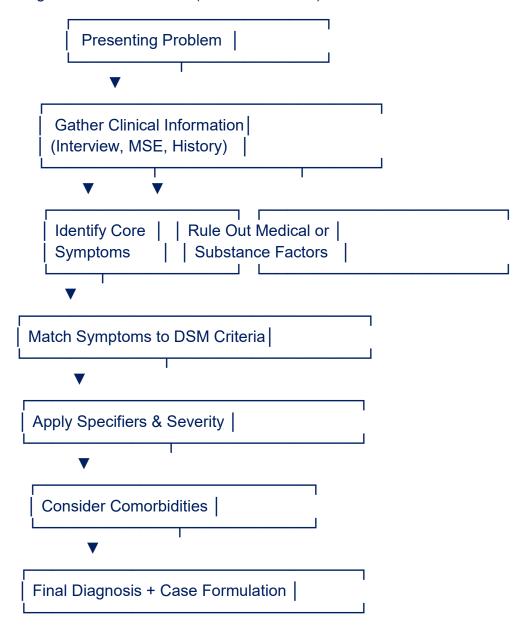
- Always use **informed consent** when discussing diagnoses.
- Be sensitive to language—avoid defining a client by their disorder.
- Diagnosis should always be contextualized, not reduced to a checklist.
- Regular re-evaluation is necessary, as symptoms and functioning may evolve.

□ Key Takeaways

- Diagnosis is a structured process of **identifying mental health disorders** based on standard criteria (DSM-5 or ICD-11).
- It helps guide treatment, ensure clear communication, and support clinical decision-making.

- Best practice combines categorical precision with dimensional insight, all within a culturally sensitive and person-centered framework.
- Ethical, flexible, and ongoing diagnostic practice is essential to client wellbeing.

☐ 1. Diagnostic Decision Tree (DSM-5-Oriented)



☐ This flowchart helps students visualize the step-by-step diagnostic reasoning process.

2. Quick Reference Table: DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria Snapshot

Disorder	Core Criteria	Duration Requirement
Major Depressive Disorder	5 of 9 symptoms including mood or anhedonia	At least 2 weeks
Generalized Anxiety	, , , ,	More days than not for 6 months
PTSD	Exposure + intrusive symptoms, avoidance, arousal	1 month minimum
II()(;1)	Obsessions and/or compulsions interfering with functioning	No minimum duration
Schizophrenia	Delusions, hallucinations, disorganized speech + social/occupational decline	6 months minimum

☐ This table is ideal for exam review or clinical interview practice.
□ 3. Class Activity: Diagnosis in Practice – Case Vignette
Case:

Arjun, 19, reports persistent sadness, withdrawal from friends, insomnia, and low energy for the past month. He struggles to focus on studies, feels worthless, and admits to passive suicidal thoughts. His father died by suicide 2 years ago, and Arjun has isolated himself from family.

Student Prompts:

- 1. Based on DSM-5, what diagnosis would you consider?
- 2. What additional information would you need to confirm it?
- 3. Are there any **comorbidities** to explore?
- 4. How might cultural and developmental factors influence the diagnosis?

SELF-LEARNING MATERIAL

UNIT II ANXIETY, TRAUMA- & STRESSOR- RELATED DISORDERS, AND OBSESSIVE-COMPULSIVE AND RELATED DISORDERS

Complexity of anxiety disorders – anxiety disorders: GAS, Panic disorder and Agoraphobia, Specific Phobia, Social Anxiety Disorder.

Posttraumatic stress disorder – Obsessive-Compulsive and Related disorders:

Obsessive-Compulsive disorder, Body dysmorphic disorder, other obsessive-compulsive and related disorders.

Unit Objectives - By the end of this unit, students will be able to:

- 1. Identify and describe major anxiety disorders
- 2. Explain the psychological and biological mechanisms.
- 3. Analyze the symptomatology, causes, and treatment approaches
- 4. Differentiate among various obsessive-compulsive and related disorders.
- 5. Evaluate current therapeutic interventions

COMPLEXITY OF ANXIETY DISORDERS

Anxiety disorders are among the most prevalent and disabling categories of psychological disorders, affecting individuals across the lifespan. While fear and anxiety are adaptive responses that help us survive, in anxiety disorders, these responses become **chronic**, **excessive**, **or triggered inappropriately**. According to *Barlow and Durand (2015)*, anxiety disorders are not just a cluster of symptoms—they reflect complex **interactions between biological**, **psychological**, **cognitive**, **emotional**, **interpersonal**, **and cultural factors**.

(a) 1. Understanding Anxiety vs. Fear

• **Fear** is an immediate, alarm response to a real or perceived threat. It triggers the **fight-or-flight** reaction.

 Anxiety is a future-oriented mood state marked by worry, tension, and physiological arousal.

In anxiety disorders, the **intensity**, **duration**, **and context** of these responses are inappropriate or impairing.

- ☐ 2. Why Are Anxiety Disorders Complex?
- a) Multiple Dimensions of Causation

Barlow and Durand emphasize a multi-dimensional model:

Factor	Contribution
Biological	Genetic vulnerability, brain circuits, neurotransmitters
Cognitive	Maladaptive thoughts, overestimation of threat
Emotional	Difficulty regulating fear and worry
Behavioral	Avoidance, safety behaviors, reinforcement loops
Social/Environmental	Childhood adversity, trauma, stress

Each individual's anxiety presentation is shaped by a **unique mix** of these influences.

♦ b) High Comorbidity

Anxiety disorders often **co-occur** with:

- Depression
- Substance use disorders
- Other anxiety disorders
- Personality disorders

This overlap complicates diagnosis, treatment planning, and prognosis.

Anxiety disorders include a **range of disorders** with overlapping yet distinct features:

Disorder	Key Feature		
Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD)	Chronic, uncontrollable worry		
Panic Disorder	Sudden panic attacks + fear of recurrence		
Agoraphobia	Fear of situations where escape feels difficult		
Social Anxiety Disorder	Intense fear of being judged or embarrassed		
Specific Phobia	Irrational fear of a specific object/situation		
Separation Anxiety	Excessive fear of being away from attachment figures		

The **boundaries between disorders** can be fluid, and individuals often meet criteria for **multiple diagnoses**.

☐ 3. The Role of Avoidance and Safety Behaviors

Avoidance plays a **central role** in maintaining anxiety:

- Prevents exposure to feared situations
- Reinforces the belief that threat is real
- Disrupts daily functioning

Safety behaviors (e.g., carrying a bottle, sitting near exits) offer short-term relief but maintain long-term fear.

- ☐ 4. Brain and Neurobiological Mechanisms
 - Amygdala hyperactivity is associated with heightened fear response.
 - Prefrontal cortex dysfunction impairs fear regulation.
 - · Neurotransmitters involved include:
 - GABA (reduced in anxiety)
 - Norepinephrine (increased arousal)

Serotonin (modulates mood and fear)

These neurobiological factors contribute to **heightened sensitivity to perceived threat** and poor emotional regulation.

5. Cultural and Developmental Variability

- **Cultural beliefs** shape how anxiety is expressed (e.g., somatic symptoms in some Asian cultures).
- **Developmental factors** (e.g., temperament, early trauma) influence when and how anxiety manifests.
- Children may display anxiety through school refusal, clinginess, or physical complaints.

□ Key Takeaways

- Anxiety disorders are multifaceted, influenced by biology, thoughts, behavior, and environment.
- They often involve **co-occurring conditions**, making diagnosis and treatment complex.
- Avoidance and safety behaviors are core maintaining factors.
- Treatment should be **comprehensive**, addressing the individual's full context—including culture, relationships, and developmental history.

```
    □ 1. Diagram: The Anxiety Cycle
    Trigger or Perceived Threat
    ↓
    Appraisal: "I'm in danger"
    ↓
    Physiological Arousal (heart racing, tension)
    ↓
    Avoidance / Safety Behavior
    ↓
    Temporary Relief → Reinforces Avoidance
    ↓
    Maintains Anxiety → Increases Sensitivity
```

This cycle shows how anxiety persists through learned avoidance and fear reinforcement.

1 2. Comparison Table: Types of Anxiety Disorders

Disorder	Core Symptoms	Common Avoidance Patterns
Generalized Anxiety (GAD)	Excessive worry about multiple life areas	Decision-making, responsibilities
Panic Disorder	Sudden, intense panic attacks	Exercise, crowds, driving
Agoraphobia	Fear of being trapped or unable to escape	Public transport, open spaces, theaters
Social Anxiety Disorder	Fear of judgment, humiliation	Speaking, eating in public, social events
Specific Phobia	Extreme fear of a specific object/situation	Animals, heights, needles, flying
Separation Anxiety Disorder	Fear of losing attachment figures	School, sleepovers, being alone

Use this t	for differential	diagnosis	practice	or dis	scussia	on of	exposure to	herapy.

☐ 3. Case Vignette & Discussion Activity

Case:

Sahana, age 25, reports frequent episodes of chest pain, dizziness, and breathlessness. These episodes occur suddenly, usually in public places, and she avoids shopping malls or buses. She fears she might faint or lose control in public. Medical exams show no physical illness.

Questions for Students:

- 1. What type of anxiety disorder might this reflect?
- 2. What maintaining behaviors can you identify?
- 3. What assessment tools or questions would help clarify the diagnosis?
- 4. How would you begin treatment using the CBT model?

This vignette can be used for case formulation, group discussion, or mock therapy planning.

GENERALIZED ANXIETY DISORDER (GAD)

Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD) is a chronic and pervasive condition marked by **excessive and uncontrollable worry** about a wide range of everyday events. Unlike phobias or panic disorder, which are linked to specific triggers, GAD involves a **diffuse**, **free-floating anxiety** that persists for months or years. As described by *Barlow and Durand (2015)*, GAD reflects a failure of emotional regulation, with worry serving as a **maladaptive cognitive coping strategy**.

(2) 1. Core Features of GAD (DSM-5 Criteria)

To meet diagnostic criteria, the following must be present:

- Excessive anxiety and worry, occurring more days than not for at least 6
 months, about multiple life domains (e.g., work, health, finances).
- 2. The individual finds it difficult to control the worry.
- 3. The anxiety and worry are associated with at least three (or one in children) of the following six symptoms:
 - Restlessness or feeling keyed up
 - Being easily fatigued
 - Difficulty concentrating
 - Irritability
 - Muscle tension
 - Sleep disturbance
- 4. The symptoms cause **clinically significant distress or impairment** in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
- 5. The disturbance is **not due to substance use or a medical condition** and is not better explained by another mental disorder.

2. The Worry Cycle in GAD

GAD is driven by a **persistent worry loop**:

- Individuals anticipate potential threats, leading to intense worry.
- Worry is perceived as a way to prepare for negative outcomes, but it increases distress.

 This results in avoidance, overplanning, reassurance-seeking, and muscle tension—which reinforce the anxiety.

☐ 3. Cognitive and Emotional Features

- GAD patients tend to have intolerance of uncertainty and overestimate the likelihood of negative events.
- Worry is often **verbal-linguistic** (internal dialogue), which paradoxically reduces emotional processing.
- Emotion regulation is impaired—individuals avoid processing core feelings like fear or sadness.

Barlow and Durand view worry in GAD as an **attempt to avoid emotional imagery** and physiological arousal, which paradoxically maintains the disorder.

☐ 4. Biological and Psychological Contributors

Biological Factors	Psychological Factors
Genetic predisposition	Early experiences with unpredictability
GABA system dysfunction	Cognitive biases toward threat
Autonomic restriction	Avoidance of emotional experience

Notably, GAD shows **restricted physiological responsiveness**—unlike panic disorder, individuals with GAD often show **less autonomic arousal**, but **more muscle tension** and fatigue.

• 5. Treatment Approaches

- a) Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy (CBT)
 - Challenge cognitive distortions and catastrophic thinking
 - Teach worry exposure and problem-solving
 - Use relaxation training and mindfulness
- b) Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT)
 - Emphasizes acceptance of uncertainty and anxious thoughts
 - Builds psychological flexibility

c) Pharmacological Treatments

- SSRIs (e.g., escitalopram), SNRIs (e.g., venlafaxine), or buspirone
- Benzodiazepines (short-term only, due to dependence risk)

☐ Key Takeaways

- GAD is marked by **chronic**, **uncontrollable worry** across multiple areas of life.
- It involves cognitive and emotional avoidance, which maintains symptoms.
- GAD is **functionally impairing**, with high comorbidity with depression.
- Effective treatment includes **CBT**, **mindfulness**, **and medication**, targeting both cognitive and emotional processes.

1. Comparison Table: GAD vs. Other Anxiety Disorders

Feature	GAD	Panic Disorder	Social Anxiety Disorder
Core Symptom	Chronic, uncontrollable worry	Recurrent panic attacks	Fear of negative evaluation in social situations
Trigger	` '	Often spontaneous or cued	Social or performance situations
Physical Symptoms	Muscle tension, fatigue, sleep disturbance	Chest pain, dizziness, shortness of breath	Blushing, trembling, nausea
Cognitive Style	Intolerance of uncertainty	misinterpretation of	Fear of embarrassment or rejection
Avoidance	Overplanning, reassurance seeking	Avoidance of physical exertion or crowded places	Avoidance of social settings

Use this chart for differential diagnosis and clinical reasoning practice.

② 2. Visual Aid: The GAD Worry Loop Worry About Possible Threat ↓ Temporary Relief via Reassurance or Avoidance ↓ Increased Sensitivity to Future Threats ↓ More Worry and Mental Preoccupation ↓ Fatigue, Tension, and Impaired Function ↓ Reinforces Belief That Worry is Necessary ↓ Loop Repeats

This diagram illustrates how worry in GAD becomes self-perpetuating through emotional avoidance and false safety behaviors.

3. Case Vignette for Class Discussion

Case:

Rakesh, a 28-year-old accountant, reports difficulty concentrating at work due to constant worry about his job performance, family health, and finances. He often stays up late checking emails, feels tense during the day, and seeks reassurance from friends. Symptoms have lasted more than 8 months. He reports feeling exhausted, yet unable to relax.

Discussion Questions:

- 1. What DSM-5 criteria does Rakesh meet for GAD?
- 2. What cognitive and behavioral patterns are maintaining his anxiety?
- 3. How would you use CBT principles to structure his treatment?
- 4. Could mindfulness or ACT-based strategies help in this case?
- This vignette can be used for diagnostic practice, treatment planning, or role-playing.

PANIC DISORDER

Panic Disorder is characterized by the unexpected and recurrent experience of panic attacks, accompanied by intense fear of future attacks and significant changes in behavior to avoid them. According to *Barlow and Durand (2015)*, panic disorder arises from a complex interplay of biological sensitivity, cognitive misinterpretation of bodily sensations, and behavioral avoidance, making it one of the most disabling anxiety disorders when untreated.

□ 1. What Is a Panic Attack?

A **panic attack** is an abrupt surge of intense fear or discomfort that peaks within minutes and includes **at least four** of the following symptoms:

- Palpitations or accelerated heart rate
- Sweating
- Trembling or shaking
- Shortness of breath or smothering sensations
- Feelings of choking
- Chest pain or discomfort
- Nausea or abdominal distress
- Dizziness, lightheadedness, or faintness
- Chills or heat sensations
- Numbness or tingling
- Derealization or depersonalization
- Fear of losing control or "going crazy"
- Fear of dying

2. DSM-5 Criteria for Panic Disorder

To meet diagnostic criteria:

- 1. Recurrent, unexpected panic attacks
- 2. At least one of the attacks has been followed by **1 month (or more)** of one or both of the following:
 - Persistent concern or worry about additional attacks or their consequences (e.g., losing control, having a heart attack)
 - Significant maladaptive change in behavior related to the attacks (e.g., avoidance)
- 3. The disturbance is **not attributable** to substance use, medical condition, or another mental disorder (e.g., social phobia, PTSD)

3. The Panic Disorder Cycle

Internal Sensation (e.g., heart pounding)

Catastrophic Misinterpretation ("I'm having a heart attack")

Increased Anxiety

Physiological Arousal (more symptoms)

Panic Attack

Avoidance + Fear of Future Attacks

Hypervigilance → Loop Continues

This cycle is central to both the development and maintenance of panic disorder.

☐ 4. Etiology: Integrative Model

Biological Factors	Psychological/Cognitive Factors
Genetic vulnerability to anxiety	Hypersensitivity to physical sensations
Overactivation of the amygdala	Tendency to catastrophize bodily signals
Noradrenergic system dysregulation	Anxiety sensitivity and fear of losing control

Barlow and Durand emphasize the "learned alarm" model, where an initial unexpected panic attack becomes associated with internal or external cues, forming conditioned fear responses.

□ 5. Differential Diagnosis

Panic Disorder must be distinguished from:

- Cardiac problems or hyperthyroidism
- PTSD (panic in trauma-related context)
- Phobias (panic limited to specific triggers)
- Generalized Anxiety Disorder (more chronic, less acute panic)

• 6. Treatment Approaches

a) Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT)

- Interoceptive Exposure: Expose client to feared physical sensations (e.g., spinning to mimic dizziness)
- Cognitive Restructuring: Challenge catastrophic interpretations
- Behavioral Experiments: Disconfirm fears through experience

b) Pharmacological Treatment

- SSRIs (e.g., fluoxetine, sertraline) are first-line
- Benzodiazepines (e.g., alprazolam) used short-term
- Medication may help in acute cases but relapse is high if used alone

7. Panic Disorder vs. Agoraphobia

- Panic Disorder: Fear of the panic attack itself
- Agoraphobia: Fear of being in places where escape/help is not possible if a panic attack occurs
- They can occur **together** or **separately** (as per DSM-5)

☐ Key Takeaways

- Panic Disorder involves unexpected panic attacks, worry about future attacks, and avoidance behaviors.
- The disorder is maintained by a **cycle of fear and misinterpretation** of bodily sensations.
- Effective treatment includes **CBT with interoceptive exposure** and sometimes medications.
- Early intervention and psychoeducation can reduce chronicity and impairment.

1. Comparison Table: Panic Disorder vs. GAD vs. Agoraphobia

Feature	Panic Disorder	Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD)	Agoraphobia
Core Symptom	Sudden panic attacks	Chronic, uncontrollable worry	Fear of being unable to escape or get help
Trigger	lunknown	Broad concerns (e.g., health, finances, future)	Public places, crowds, enclosed or open spaces
Cognitive Distortion	"I'm going to die" / "I'm losing control"	"What if something goes wrong?"	"What if I panic and can't get help?"
Avoidance	Of activities that may trigger symptoms	Overplanning, reassurance-seeking	Avoiding malls, transport, crowds
Onset	Sudden onset, peak in minutes	Gradual, persistent	Can develop after panic attacks
Treatment	CBT, interoceptive exposure, SSRIs	CBT, relaxation, mindfulness	Exposure therapy, CBT, gradual desensitization

② 2. Visual Diagram: The Panic Cycle Trigger (internal/external) ↓ Physical Sensations (e.g., racing heart, dizziness) ↓ Catastrophic Interpretation ("I'm dying!") ↓ Increased Fear & Arousal ↓ Full Panic Attack ↓ Avoidance + Hypervigilance ↓ Heightened Anxiety ↓ Repeat

□□ 3. Case Vignette: Classroom Discussion

Case:

Ayesha, 24, reports experiencing "heart attack-like" episodes at least twice a week for 3 months. These occur without warning—often in her car or in shopping malls. Her physician ruled out cardiac issues. Ayesha now avoids going out alone, carries water and her phone "just in case," and has become increasingly withdrawn and fearful.

Discussion Questions:

- 1. Does Ayesha meet DSM-5 criteria for Panic Disorder? Why or why not?
- 2. How might **interoceptive exposure** be used in her CBT treatment?
- 3. What is the role of **safety behaviors** in her maintenance of symptoms?
- 4. Could she also meet criteria for **agoraphobia**?

☐ This case can I	be used for d	iagnostic fo	ormulation, r	ole-play, o	r treatment p	lanning
exercises.						

AGORAPHOBIA AND SPECIFIC PHOBIA

Agoraphobia and Specific Phobia are both categorized under **Anxiety Disorders** in the DSM-5, but they differ significantly in scope, triggers, and behavioral patterns. *Barlow and Durand (2015)* emphasize that both disorders involve **excessive fear**, **avoidance behaviors**, and significant impairment—but they arise through **different cognitive and learning pathways**.

1. Agoraphobia

■ Definition (DSM-5):

Agoraphobia is the **marked fear or anxiety** about **two (or more)** of the following five situations:

- 1. Using public transportation
- 2. Being in open spaces (e.g., parking lots)
- 3. Being in enclosed spaces (e.g., theaters, shops)
- 4. Standing in line or being in a crowd
- 5. Being outside the home alone

The individual fears these situations because they believe **escape might be difficult** or **help may not be available** in the event of panic-like or embarrassing symptoms.

☐ Psychological Features:

- Often develops after panic attacks, as a fear of having another attack in public
- Leads to avoidance or distress in feared situations
- Can result in functional impairment and housebound behavior

Fear of panic or loss of control → Avoidance of specific places → Temporary relief → Reinforcement of fear → Increased disability

☐ Etiology of Agoraphobia:

- Biological vulnerability to anxiety and panic
- Conditioned fear responses from prior attacks
- Cognitive bias: catastrophizing "what if" scenarios
- **Behavioral avoidance** that reduces short-term fear but increases long-term impairment

☐ Treatment of Agoraphobia:

- Exposure-Based CBT: Gradual, repeated exposure to avoided situations
- Interoceptive exposure if panic is present
- Cognitive restructuring of catastrophic beliefs
- Medications (SSRIs) as adjuncts when necessary

ري 2. Specific Phobia

■ Definition (DSM-5):

Specific Phobia is an **intense**, **irrational fear** of a specific object or situation that **almost always provokes immediate anxiety** and is **actively avoided or endured with intense distress**. The fear is **out of proportion** to the actual threat.

☐ Types of Specific Phobia:

1. **Animal type** – e.g., spiders, snakes

- 2. **Natural environment type** e.g., heights, storms
- 3. **Blood-injection-injury type** e.g., needles, seeing blood
- 4. **Situational type** e.g., elevators, airplanes
- 5. Other type e.g., choking, loud sounds, clowns

Maintenance and Learning in Phobias:

Mechanism	Example
Classical conditioning	Dog bite → fear of dogs
Modeling/vicarious learning	Parent afraid of storms → child develops fear
Information transmission	Hearing repeated warnings or scary stories
Avoidance behavior	Avoidance prevents fear extinction

☐ Treatment of Specific Phobia:

- Systematic desensitization (graduated exposure with relaxation)
- **Flooding** (intense exposure to the feared object/situation)
- Cognitive techniques (less emphasized but may help with insight)
- Applied tension technique for blood-injection-injury type (to prevent fainting)

☐ Key Differences Between Agoraphobia and Specific Phobia

Aspect	Agoraphobia	Specific Phobia
Scope of Fear	Multiple public places/situations	One specific object or situation
Onset	Often after panic affacks	Often in childhood or adolescence
Fear Content		Fear of specific harm or disgust response
	Wide-ranging, may become housebound	Focused and limited
Comorbidity	Common with panic disorder	Less likely to co-occur

Aspect	Agoraphobia	Specific Phobia
_	Exposure to places and bodily symptoms	Exposure to phobic stimulus

1. Comparison Table: Agoraphobia vs. Specific Phobia

Feature	Agoraphobia	Specific Phobia
Core Fear	Fear of being unable to escape or get help	Fear of a specific object or situation
Triggers	Public transport, crowds, open/enclosed spaces	Animals, heights, blood, flying, etc.
Panic Connection	Often secondary to panic disorder	Usually not linked to panic attacks
Age of Onset	Late adolescence to adulthood	Often begins in childhood
Avoidance Pattern	Broad, may lead to housebound behavior	Narrow, stimulus-specific
Treatment	Exposure therapy + cognitive restructuring	Graduated exposure, systematic desensitization

□ 2. Visual Aid: Fear and Avoidance Loop (for Both Disorders)

Encounter Trigger (e.g., elevator, crowd)

Immediate Anxiety or Panic

↓

Escape or Avoid the Situation

↓

Temporary Relief (negative reinforcement)

↓

Increased Sensitivity and Avoidance Next Time

↓

Impairment Maintains

This loop explains how avoidance maintains both agoraphobia and specific phobias over time.

3. Case Vignettes for Classroom Practice

Case 1: Agoraphobia

Arul, age 30, avoids malls, movie theaters, and public buses after experiencing a panic attack in a crowded station. He now refuses to go outside unless accompanied by a friend and fears he will "lose control and not get help" if another attack happens.

Discussion Prompts:

- Does Arul meet DSM-5 criteria for Agoraphobia?
- What are the safety behaviors?
- How would you plan exposure steps for therapy?

Case 2: Specific Phobia (Animal Type)

Priya, age 22, experiences extreme fear when seeing dogs. Even passing a dog at a distance triggers sweating and a racing heart. She avoids parks, pet shops, and visits only homes without dogs.

Discussion Prompts:

- What type of phobia is this?
- What learning mechanisms may have contributed to the phobia?
- Design a sample exposure hierarchy.

SOCIAL ANXIETY DISORDER (SAD)

Also known as Social Phobia

Social Anxiety Disorder is characterized by a **marked and persistent fear of social or performance situations** in which the individual is exposed to possible scrutiny by others. This fear leads to intense anxiety, avoidance behaviors, and significant impairment in personal, academic, and occupational functioning. According to *Barlow and Durand (2015)*, SAD reflects a **core fear of negative evaluation**, which interacts with behavioral avoidance and cognitive distortions to maintain the disorder over time.

(2) 1. DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria

To meet criteria for **Social Anxiety Disorder**, the following must be present:

- 1. **Marked fear or anxiety** about one or more social situations (e.g., speaking, meeting people, being observed).
- 2. The individual fears they will act in a way—or show anxiety symptoms—that will be negatively evaluated (e.g., humiliated, rejected).
- 3. Social situations almost always provoke fear or anxiety.
- 4. Social situations are avoided or endured with intense fear.
- 5. The fear is **out of proportion** to the actual threat posed.
- 6. The fear, anxiety, or avoidance is **persistent** (typically ≥ 6 months).
- 7. Causes significant distress or functional impairment.
- 8. Not better explained by another disorder or medical condition.

☐ 2. Core Features and Psychological Patterns

Cognitive Biases	Behavioral Responses
Attention focused on internal symptoms	Avoiding eye contact
Overestimation of negative evaluation	Avoiding social or performance situations
Post-event rumination	Using "safety behaviors" (e.g., rehearsing, over- preparing)

SAD is often **self-reinforcing**: anxiety leads to poor performance or avoidance, which in turn confirms the individual's fear of being judged.

3. Impact and Functional Impairment

- May interfere with **school or job performance**, friendships, and romantic relationships.
- Often leads to social isolation, reduced self-esteem, and depression.
- High comorbidity with depression, substance use, and other anxiety disorders.

4. Maintenance Cycle of Social Anxiety

Social Situation → Fear of Negative Evaluation → Anxiety Symptoms → Avoidance or Safety Behavior → Missed Opportunity to Disconfirm Fear → Reinforced Anxiety

Barlow and Durand emphasize the role of **behavioral avoidance and internal self-focus** in maintaining SAD.

☐ 5. Causes of Social Anxiety Disorder

Biological Factors	Psychological & Environmental Factors
Genetic predisposition to anxiety	Childhood bullying or social rejection
Overactive amygdala response	Critical parenting, low warmth
Low dopamine activity	Social learning/modeling of anxious behavior

6. Treatment Approaches

a) Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT)

- Cognitive restructuring: Challenge and replace irrational thoughts
- Behavioral experiments: Test beliefs through real-life exposure
- **Exposure therapy**: Gradual exposure to feared social situations
- Video feedback: To counter negative self-image

b) Medications

- **SSRIs** (e.g., paroxetine, sertraline)
- **SNRIs** (e.g., venlafaxine)
- **Beta blockers** (for performance-only type)

★ 7. Subtypes

- **Generalized Type**: Fear extends across most social situations
- Performance-Only Type: Fear is limited to speaking or performing in public

□ Key Takeaways

- Social Anxiety Disorder involves a debilitating fear of being judged or embarrassed.
- Symptoms are driven by cognitive distortions and avoidance behaviors.
- The disorder causes substantial emotional distress and life impairment.
- Treatment is highly effective when it combines exposure and cognitive strategies.
- Early identification and intervention can prevent comorbid conditions like depression.

POSTTRAUMATIC STRESS DISORDER (PTSD)

Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) is a **trauma- and stressor-related disorder** that occurs in individuals who have experienced or witnessed a traumatic event. According to Barlow & Durand (2015), PTSD arises when the normal process of trauma recovery is disrupted, leading to persistent re-experiencing of the trauma, avoidance behaviors, emotional numbing, and hyperarousal.

★ 1. DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria for PTSD

A person must be exposed to a traumatic event involving **actual or threatened death, serious injury, or sexual violence** in one (or more) of the following ways:

- Direct experience
- Witnessing in person
- Learning that it occurred to a close family member or friend
- Repeated or extreme exposure to details (e.g., first responders)

And then develop symptoms in **four key clusters** lasting longer than **1 month**:

1. Intrusion Symptoms

- Recurrent distressing memories or dreams
- Flashbacks
- Psychological distress or physiological reactions to cues

2. Avoidance Symptoms

· Avoidance of trauma-related thoughts, feelings, or reminders

3. Negative Alterations in Cognition and Mood

- · Inability to recall aspects of the trauma
- Persistent negative beliefs ("I am broken")
- Emotional numbness, detachment
- Reduced interest in activities

4. Alterations in Arousal and Reactivity

- Hypervigilance
- Exaggerated startle response
- Sleep disturbances
- Irritability or angry outbursts

☐ 2. Core Features and Mechanisms

Psychological Mechanisms	Description
Classical conditioning	Neutral cues associated with trauma become fear triggers
Avoidance learning	Avoidance prevents extinction of fear
Cognitive distortions	"I should have stopped it"; "I'm no longer safe"
Dysregulation of memory systems	Intrusive memories are vivid, fragmented, and emotionally charged

☐ 3. Risk and Protective Factors

Risk Factors	Protective Factors
Prior trauma or childhood abuse	Social support
Lack of coping resources	Adaptive emotion regulation skills
Dissociation during trauma	Constructive meaning-making
Female gender (higher risk post-trauma)	Stable environment post-trauma

4. Maintenance Cycle of PTSD

Traumatic Event

Intrusive Memories & Triggers

↓
Avoidance of Thoughts/Places/People

No Emotional Processing or Cognitive Integration

Persistent Hyperarousal & Negative Mood

Continued Distress → Reinforces PTSD

☐ 5. Assessment Tools

- Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS-5)
- PTSD Checklist for DSM-5 (PCL-5)
- Trauma history questionnaires
- Structured clinical interviews

- a) Trauma-Focused Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (TF-CBT)
 - Psychoeducation
 - Cognitive restructuring
 - Prolonged exposure (imaginal and in vivo)
 - · Coping skill enhancement
- b) Eye Movement Desensitization and Reprocessing (EMDR)
 - Uses bilateral stimulation (e.g., eye movements) while recalling trauma
- c) Pharmacotherapy
 - SSRIs (e.g., sertraline, paroxetine FDA approved for PTSD)
 - Prazosin (for nightmares)
 - Caution with benzodiazepines (may impair processing)

7. Acute Stress Disorder vs. PTSD

Feature	Acute Stress Disorder (ASD)	PTSD
Onset	Within 3 days of trauma	Within 1 month or later
Duration	3 days to 1 month	≥ 1 month
Symptoms	Similar clusters	Same 4 clusters as PTSD
Progression	May resolve or evolve into PTSD	Can persist for years untreated

□ Key Takeaways

- PTSD is a **long-lasting psychological reaction** to trauma, marked by reexperiencing, avoidance, numbing, and hyperarousal.
- It reflects both psychological learning processes and biological dysregulation.
- Effective treatment must include **exposure**, **cognitive work**, and **coping skill enhancement**.
- Early intervention and support systems reduce the risk of chronic PTSD.

1. Comparison Table: PTSD vs. Acute Stress Disorder (ASD)

Feature	Acute Stress Disorder (ASD)	Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)
Onset	Within 3 days of trauma	Can begin anytime after trauma (≥1 month)
Duration	3 days to 1 month	Minimum 1 month (can last years)
Symptoms	Similar clusters to PTSD (but dissociation more emphasized)	Re-experiencing, avoidance, negative mood, hyperarousal
Progression	May resolve on its own or evolve into PTSD	Usually requires treatment if persistent
Treatment	Crisis intervention,	Trauma-focused CBT, EMDR,

Feature	Acute Stress Disorder (ASD)	Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)	
Focus	psychoeducation	SSRIs	

2. PTSD Maintenance Cycle Diagram

■ Trauma Exposure
↓
⑤ Intrusive Symptoms
(nightmares, flashbacks, triggers)
↓
□ Avoidance Behaviors
(avoiding reminders, thoughts, places)
↓
⑥ Emotional Numbing & Guilt
↓
♦ Hyperarousal & Irritability
↓
⑥ Impaired Functioning & Isolation
↓
② Cycle Reinforces the Disorder

2 ■ 3. Clinical Case Vignette for Discussion

Case:

Ravi, a 28-year-old paramedic, witnessed multiple accident-related deaths during a mass casualty incident six months ago. Since then, he has recurrent nightmares, avoids driving past the accident site, experiences intense anxiety when hearing ambulance sirens, and reports irritability, sleep disturbances, and emotional detachment from loved ones.

Discussion Questions:

- 1. Does Ravi meet the diagnostic criteria for PTSD?
- 2. What symptom clusters are present?
- 3. What are some trauma-related **cognitive distortions** Ravi may hold?
- 4. How would you structure a trauma-focused CBT intervention plan for Ravi?
- 5. How could **EMDR** be integrated into his therapy?

OBSESSIVE-COMPULSIVE AND RELATED DISORDERS

The Obsessive-Compulsive and Related Disorders (OCRD) category in the DSM-5 includes a range of conditions that share key features such as **repetitive thoughts** and/or behaviors, difficulty in impulse control, and significant distress or impairment. These disorders are distinct from anxiety disorders but remain closely linked in etiology and treatment approaches.

☐ 1. Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD)

Q Core Features

- **Obsessions**: Recurrent, persistent, intrusive thoughts, urges, or images that are unwanted and cause significant anxiety (e.g., contamination, harm, symmetry).
- Compulsions: Repetitive behaviors or mental acts (e.g., checking, counting, hand-washing) performed to reduce anxiety or prevent a feared outcome even if irrational.

Cycle of OCD

- 1. Obsession →
- 2. Anxiety →
- 3. Compulsion \rightarrow
- 4. Temporary Relief →
- 5. Reinforcement of Obsession

☐ Impact

- Time-consuming (>1 hour/day)
- Impairs academic, occupational, and social functioning
- Often associated with depression or other anxiety disorders

☐ 2. Body Dysmorphic Disorder (BDD)

Q Core Features

- Preoccupation with **perceived defects or flaws** in physical appearance that are not observable or appear slight to others.
- Engages in **repetitive behaviors** (e.g., mirror checking, grooming, skin picking) or mental acts (e.g., comparing with others).

Significant distress or functional impairment.

Insight

• Often **poor insight** or delusional beliefs about their appearance.

☐ 3. Hoarding Disorder

Q Core Features

- Persistent difficulty discarding or parting with possessions, regardless of value
- Perceived need to save items, resulting in accumulation that clutters living areas.
- Causes significant distress or impairment (e.g., fire hazard, eviction, family conflict).

☐ Distinction from OCD

 Hoarding was previously considered a subtype of OCD but now classified separately due to distinct cognitive processes and poor response to traditional OCD treatments.

☐ 4. Trichotillomania (Hair-Pulling Disorder)

Q Core Features

- Recurrent pulling out of one's hair, leading to hair loss.
- · Repeated attempts to stop the behavior.
- Causes distress or functional impairment.
- Often preceded by tension and followed by relief or gratification.

☐ 5. Excoriation (Skin-Picking) Disorder

Q Core Features

- Recurrent skin picking resulting in skin lesions.
- Repeated attempts to decrease or stop the behavior.
- Causes significant distress, infections, or scarring.
- Strong urge and compulsive quality similar to trichotillomania.

$\hfill\Box$ Etiology: Shared Factors Across OCRDs

Biological Factors	Psychological Factors
Dysregulation in serotonin system	Cognitive distortions (e.g., thought-action fusion)
Dysfunction in orbitofrontal cortex	Conditioning: obsessions (CS) → compulsions (CR)
Genetic vulnerability	Intolerance of uncertainty

Treatment Approaches

Disorder	Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy (CBT)	Pharmacotherapy	
OCD	Exposure and Response Prevention (ERP)	SSRIs (e.g., fluoxetine, fluvoxamine)	
BDD	Cognitive restructuring, mirror exposure	SSRIs	
Hoarding	CBT with motivational interviewing	Limited response to meds	
Trichotillomania	Habit reversal training, stimulus control	N-acetylcysteine (experimental)	
III x coriation	Habit reversal, acceptance and commitment therapy (ACT)	SSRIs (some benefit)	

★ Differentiation Table: OCRD Conditions

Disorder	Main Symptom	Trigger	Compulsive Behavior
OCD	Intrusive thoughts	Internal (thoughts)	Rituals (washing, checking)
BDD		•	Grooming, reassurance seeking
Hoarding		Thought of letting go	Saving, organizing
Trichotillomania	Urge to pull hair	Boredom, stress	Hair pulling

Disorder	Main Symptom	Trigger	Compulsive Behavior	
Excoriation	Urge to pick skin	Imperfections, stress	Skin picking	

□ Key Takeaways

- OCRDs involve repetitive thoughts or behaviors driven by distress or urges.
- Although they share some features with anxiety disorders, distinct neurobiological circuits and treatment strategies are involved.
- ERP is the gold standard for OCD, while habit reversal and CBT adaptations work for related conditions.
- Insight levels vary, and early intervention improves long-term outcomes.

1. Comparison Chart: OCRD Disorders

Disorder	Core Symptoms	Trigger Type	Compulsive Behavior	Insight Level
OCD	Intrusive obsessions + ritualistic compulsions	Internal (thoughts)	washing,	Variable (fair to poor)
Body Dysmorphic Disorder	Preoccupation with imagined defects	Social/mirror cues	Grooming, mirror- checking, comparisons	Often poor
Hoarding Disorder	Difficulty discarding possessions	Thought of loss	Saving, organizing, acquiring more	Usually poor
Trichotillomania	Repeated hair- pulling	Urges/stress	Pulling from scalp, brows, lashes	Fair
Excoriation Disorder	Repeated skin- picking	Imperfections/urges	Picking, scabbing, examining	Fair

- Reinforces Obsessive Thought

3. Case Vignette + Group Activity

Case: OCD

Aruna, a 26-year-old accountant, spends 3+ hours a day checking whether she has locked her door. She fears someone might break in and harm her family if she forgets. Even when she knows she locked it, she returns multiple times to confirm.

Discussion Prompts:

- 1. Identify the obsession and compulsion.
- 2. How is the behavior **negatively reinforced**?
- 3. Design a **graded exposure hierarchy** (starting from least to most anxiety-provoking situations).
- 4. Discuss how **ERP and cognitive restructuring** would be applied in Aruna's treatment.

SELF-LEARNING MATERIAL

UNIT III SOMATIC SYMPTOM & RELATED DISORDERS; DISSOCIATIVE DISORDERS

Somatic symptom & related disorders: Somatic symptom disorder, Illness anxiety disorder, Conversion disorder. Dissociative disorders: Depersonalization disorder – Dissociative identity disorder.

Unit Objectives - By the end of this unit, students will be able to:

- 1. Understand the diagnostic criteria and clinical features
- 2. Analyze the psychological, biological, and social factors
- 3. Evaluate treatment approaches and interventions
- 4. Examine the neurobiological and cognitive mechanisms
- 5. Apply theoretical and clinical knowledge

SOMATIC SYMPTOM DISORDER (SSD)

Somatic Symptom Disorder (SSD) is a psychological condition in which an individual experiences **excessive and disproportionate thoughts, feelings, or behaviors** related to **real or perceived physical symptoms**. Unlike disorders that focus solely on the authenticity of symptoms, SSD emphasizes the **maladaptive response** to somatic experiences rather than their medical basis.

1. DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria for SSD

A diagnosis of SSD includes:

- One or more somatic symptoms that are distressing or disrupt daily life.
- Excessive thoughts, feelings, or behaviors related to these symptoms, including:
 - Disproportionate and persistent thoughts about the seriousness of symptoms
 - High levels of anxiety about health or symptoms
 - Excessive time and energy devoted to health concerns
- The symptoms may or may not be medically explained.
- Duration: typically more than 6 months.

SSD replaces the older diagnoses of hypochondriasis and somatization disorder in DSM-IV.

☐ 2. Key Features

Symptom Focus	Psychological Response
Pain, fatigue, or gastrointestinal symptoms	Excessive worry, fear of serious illness
Symptoms fluctuate or move across body parts	Constant doctor visits and reassurance seeking
	Misinterpretation of normal bodily sensations

3. Maintenance Cycle of SSD

Mild Physical Sensation or Discomfort

Catastrophic Thought ("It must be cancer")

Increased Anxiety and Hypervigilance

Bodily Sensations Intensify (due to anxiety)

Health-Seeking or Avoidance Behaviors

Temporary Relief → Reinforces the Worry

Chronic Concern and Functional Impairment

☐ This cycle is **self-reinforcing** through cognitive distortions and bodily focus.

☐ 4. Etiology and Risk Factors

Biological Factors	Psychological Factors	Social/Environmental Factors	
hodily cues	Cognitive bias (catastrophic interpretation)	Early illness experiences (in self or family)	
	Poor emotional awareness or alexithymia	Reinforcement from attention/avoidance	

Biological Factors	Psychological Factors	Social/Environmental Factors
	• •	Cultural beliefs about health and illness

□ 5. Clinical Assessment Tools

- Structured Clinical Interview (SCID-5)
- Somatic Symptom Scale (SSS-8)
- PHQ-15 to evaluate severity of somatic complaints
- Medical records review to avoid redundant testing

6. Treatment Approaches

- ☐ Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT)
 - Restructuring distorted health-related beliefs
 - Reducing checking and reassurance-seeking behaviors
 - Enhancing emotional awareness and stress management

☐ *Mindfulness-Based Approaches*

- Improve body awareness without judgment
- Reduce anxiety and preoccupation with symptoms

Pharmacological Interventions

- Antidepressants (especially SSRIs) may help with co-occurring anxiety/depression
- Avoid unnecessary medical testing or polypharmacy

☐ 7. SSD vs. Other Somatic Disorders

Disorder	Key Difference
Illness Anxiety Disorder	Preoccupation with having a serious illness, with few or no symptoms
Conversion Disorder	Involves neurological symptoms (e.g., paralysis, blindness) incompatible with known conditions

Disorder	Key Difference
Factitious Disorder	Symptoms are intentionally produced for psychological gain (not external reward)

□ Key Takeaways

- SSD is not about "faking" illness—it involves real distress driven by misinterpretation and anxiety.
- Treatment targets the **psychological response to symptoms**, not the symptoms themselves.
- Early psychoeducation and therapeutic alliance are critical.
- SSD illustrates the **mind-body connection** in psychopathology and challenges the dichotomy between physical and psychological illness.

1. Comparison Chart: SSD vs. Similar Disorders

Disorder	Main Concern	Symptoms Present?	Intentional?	Key Feature
Somatic Symptom Disorder	Focus on distressing bodily symptoms	Yes, real symptoms	No	Emotional overfocus on physical symptoms
Illness Anxiety Disorder	Fear of having a serious illness	Minimal or no symptoms	No	Preoccupation with diagnosis, not sensations
Conversion Disorder	Neurological-like symptoms (e.g., paralysis)	Yes, functional symptoms	No	Symptoms don't match medical explanation
Factitious Disorder	Producing symptoms to assume sick role	May be feigned or induced	Yes	Motivation is psychological, not external gain
Malingering	Producing symptoms for external gain	Feigned or exaggerated	Yes	E.g., to avoid work or legal responsibility



3. Classroom Case Vignette + Group Activity

Case:

Sneha, 30, frequently visits clinics for fatigue, stomach aches, and headaches. She's had multiple tests, all normal. She fears these symptoms mean something serious like cancer. She spends hours researching illnesses and avoids social outings to rest.

Discussion Questions:

- 1. Does Sneha meet DSM-5 criteria for SSD?
- 2. How does her behavior reflect maladaptive coping?
- 3. What **CBT techniques** could help her manage her anxiety?
- 4. How would you differentiate her case from Illness Anxiety Disorder?
- 5. Suggest a simple **psychoeducation script** you would use in therapy.

ILLNESS ANXIETY DISORDER (IAD)

Illness Anxiety Disorder (IAD), previously known as hypochondriasis, is characterized by a persistent preoccupation with having or acquiring a serious illness, despite little or no somatic symptoms. Individuals with IAD often misinterpret normal bodily sensations as signs of severe disease, which leads to excessive health-related behaviors or avoidance.

1. DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria

To meet the criteria for IAD, an individual must exhibit the following for at least **6** months:

- Preoccupation with having or acquiring a serious illness
- Somatic symptoms are mild or absent, but health anxiety is disproportionate
- High level of anxiety about personal health
- Performs excessive health-related behaviors (e.g., repeated body checks, doctor visits) or exhibits maladaptive avoidance (e.g., avoiding hospitals)
- Preoccupation persists despite medical reassurance

□ 2. Core Features

Focus	Illness Anxiety Disorder
Physical symptoms	Minimal or absent
Thought pattern	Catastrophic misinterpretation of bodily sensations
Behavior	Doctor shopping, frequent self-checking, or complete avoidance
Emotional response	Chronic worry, fear, and anxiety about disease
Duration	At least 6 months (though the specific feared illness may change)

☐ 3. Contributing Factors

Biological	Psychological	Social
	Misinterpretation of harmless symptoms	Family history of illness
Possible genetic vulnerability	Health-related schema (e.g., belief "a headache = tumor")	Early experiences with illness or trauma
Increased arousal (anxiety)	I hought-action tusion	Media influence on disease perception

4. Cognitive-Behavioral Model of IAD

Normal Body Sensation (e.g., fatigue)

Misinterpretation ("What if it's leukemia?")

Health Anxiety

Checking or Avoidance (e.g., visit doctor, avoid exercise)

Temporary Relief \rightarrow Reinforces Worry

Cycle Repeats with New Sensations or Triggers

☐ This self-reinforcing cycle **maintains the disorder** through cognitive distortions and safety behaviors.

- Structured Clinical Interview (SCID-5)
- Illness Anxiety Severity Index (IASI)
- Health Anxiety Inventory (HAI)
- Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) for comorbid anxiety

• 6. Treatment Approaches

- ☐ Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT)
 - Challenge catastrophic beliefs about illness

- Reduce checking and reassurance-seeking
- Cognitive restructuring and behavioral experiments
- Focus on acceptance of uncertainty

☐ *Mindfulness-Based Therapy*

- Improve present-moment awareness
- Reduce health-related rumination

- **SSRIs** for health anxiety and comorbid depression/anxiety
- Avoid unnecessary medication for physical complaints

□ 7. IAD vs. Related Disorders

Disorder	Key Differentiating Feature	
Somatic Symptom Disorder	Symptoms are present and distressing	
IAD	Symptoms are minimal or absent , but anxiety is high	
Generalized Anxiety Disorder	Worry spans multiple life areas, not just health	
OCD	Intrusive thoughts not limited to health; compulsions broader	
Delusional Disorder (Somatic Type)	Fixed false beliefs about health that are unchangeable	

□ Key Takeaways

- Illness Anxiety Disorder is an anxiety disorder, not a medical condition.
- The focus is on perceived illness, not actual symptoms.
- Treatment involves modifying thought patterns and behaviors, especially reassurance-seeking.
- Early intervention can prevent unnecessary medical procedures and **improve** quality of life.

1. Comparison Table: IAD vs. Related Disorders

Disorder	Physical Symptoms Present?	Main Concern	Insight	Key Feature
	Minimal or absent	Fear of having a serious illness		Excessive health anxiety despite reassurance
Somatic Symptom Disorder	Prominent and distressing	Physical discomfort and its impact	Variable	Focus on real symptoms causing excessive worry
OCD (Health- related)	Obsession-like thoughts	Fear of contamination or illness	Good/fair	Ritualistic checking or avoidance
III)ISOrder	No symptoms, fixed belief	Belief of being seriously ill	Poor	Unshakeable conviction of illness despite evidence

- 2. Visual: Illness Anxiety Cycle
- $\hfill \square$ Normal Sensation (e.g., muscle twitch)
- Misinterpretation ("It could be ALS")
- Health Anxiety Builds

 \downarrow

- Q Reassurance Seeking (Google, doctor visits)
- Anxiety Returns With New Sensation or Doubt
- 3. Case Vignette: Discussion & Application

Case Example:

Ramesh, 34, has been preoccupied with the idea that he has heart disease. He checks his pulse multiple times daily, avoids climbing stairs, and frequently seeks reassurance from his doctor, even though all tests have come back normal. He spends hours reading about cardiac arrest online.

Discussion Questions:

- 1. What makes this Illness Anxiety Disorder rather than Somatic Symptom Disorder?
- 2. Which behaviors are **maintaining the cycle** of anxiety?
- 3. What **CBT techniques** would you apply first in treatment?
- 4. How would you help Ramesh tolerate uncertainty about his health?

CONVERSION DISORDER

(FUNCTIONAL NEUROLOGICAL SYMPTOM DISORDER)

Conversion Disorder is a mental health condition in which individuals experience **neurological-like symptoms** (e.g., paralysis, blindness, seizures) that cannot be explained by any **known medical condition**. These symptoms are not intentionally produced, but they are real and cause significant distress or impairment.

1. DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria

To diagnose Conversion Disorder, the following criteria must be met:

- One or more symptoms of altered voluntary motor or sensory function (e.g., paralysis, tremors, numbness, blindness)
- Clinical findings provide evidence of incompatibility between the symptom and recognized neurological or medical conditions
- The symptom is not better explained by another medical or mental disorder
- The symptom causes significant distress, social or occupational impairment, or warrants medical evaluation

☐ 2. Common Symptoms

Motor Symptoms	Sensory Symptoms	Other Manifestations	
Paralysis or weakness		Non-epileptic seizures (psychogenic)	
Abnormal gait or tremors	Blindness or double vision	Aphonia (inability to speak)	

Motor Symptoms	Sensory Symptoms	Other Manifestations
Coordination disturbances	Deatness	Globus sensation (lump in throat)

☐ 3. Understanding the Disorder

- The symptoms often follow psychological stress or trauma
- There is no conscious control or fabrication (unlike factitious disorder or malingering)
- The term "conversion" refers to the conversion of emotional stress into physical symptoms

4. Psychodynamic Viewpoint (Historical Origin)

According to Freud and early psychodynamic theorists:

- Unconscious conflict is converted into a physical symptom as a defense mechanism
- The symptom relieves the individual from **psychological burden** (primary gain)
- May also attract attention or avoid responsibilities (secondary gain)

☐ 5. Modern Integrative Perspective

Biological	Psychological	Social/Environmental
Functional brain imaging shows unusual activation in motor/sensory areas	Maladaptive coping with trauma or stress	Cultural norms about expressing distress
HAIANTANAA STRASS RASNANSA	,	Reinforcement from family or caregivers

★□ 6. Differential Diagnosis

Condition	Key Distinction
Neurological Disorders	Have medical findings and consistent clinical patterns

Condition	Key Distinction
Factitious Disorder	Symptoms are intentionally produced for psychological reasons
Malingering	Symptoms are faked for external incentives (e.g., money)
Somatic Symptom Disorder	Focus is on physical distress , not neurological symptoms

☐ 7. Assessment and Testing Clues

- Symptoms often do not follow anatomical pathways (e.g., glove anesthesia)
- Positive signs such as Hoover's sign (involuntary leg movement) suggest non-organic cause
- Normal results on neurological and imaging tests

§ 8. Treatment Approaches

Psychoeducation & Reassurance

- Explain the diagnosis in non-judgmental, validating terms
- Emphasize that the symptoms are real but reversible
- ☐ Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT)
 - Identify and restructure stress-related thoughts
 - Address avoidance and maladaptive behaviors
- ☐ Stress Management
 - Relaxation training, mindfulness, and trauma-informed care
- □ Physiotherapy
 - For motor symptoms like gait disturbances or weakness
 - Reinforces re-learning movement patterns

□ 9. Key Takeaways

- Conversion Disorder involves real symptoms without medical explanation, usually emerging in response to emotional stress.
- **Diagnosis requires careful neurological assessment**, but the symptoms are psychological in origin.
- **CBT and psychoeducation are the most effective treatments**, especially when provided early.
- Empathy and collaboration with the patient are essential to avoid stigmatization.

DISSOCIATIVE DISORDERS:

Depersonalization/Derealization Disorder & Dissociative Identity Disorder

Dissociative disorders involve disruptions in **consciousness**, **memory**, **identity**, **or perception**, often as a response to overwhelming stress or trauma. These disruptions are not due to substance use or medical conditions and significantly impair functioning.

- ☐ 1. Depersonalization/Derealization Disorder (DDD)
- ☐ Diagnostic Features:
 - **Depersonalization**: Feeling detached from oneself (e.g., observing oneself from outside the body).
 - **Derealization**: Feeling that the external world is unreal or dreamlike.
 - Reality testing remains intact the person knows the experience is subjective.
 - Symptoms cause significant distress or impairment and are persistent or recurrent.

* Key Points:

Feature	Description
Onset	Often in adolescence or early adulthood
Triggers	Severe stress, trauma, anxiety, substance use
Common Comorbidities	Anxiety disorders, depression

Feature	Description
Duration	Can be chronic, with episodes fluctuating in intensity

☐ Causes:

- Early emotional neglect or trauma
- High levels of **emotional suppression** or avoidance
- Cognitive disconnection as a coping strategy

Treatment:

- Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT): Targets distorted beliefs about perception and control
- Mindfulness and grounding techniques
- SSRIs may help if comorbid depression/anxiety is present

Formerly known as **Multiple Personality Disorder**, DID is a rare but severe dissociative condition marked by the presence of **two or more distinct personality states** that take control of an individual's behavior at different times.

□ DSM-5 Criteria:

- Presence of two or more distinct identities or personality states, each with its own pattern of perceiving, relating to, and thinking about the environment and self
- Recurrent gaps in memory inconsistent with ordinary forgetting (e.g., daily events, personal information)
- Causes distress or impairment
- Not attributable to cultural/religious practices, substances, or medical conditions

☐ Characteristics of Alters (Alternate Identities):

Feature	Description
Identity	May have different names, genders, ages, languages
Awareness	Some alters are aware of others; some are not
Functions	Alters may serve specific roles (protector, child, etc.)

Feature	Description
Memory	May have distinct memories and behaviors

☐ Causes:

- Severe, chronic childhood trauma (e.g., physical, sexual abuse)
- Psychological escape through dissociation
- Lack of a consistent external support system during development

Treatment:

- Long-term psychotherapy with focus on integration of identities
- Trauma-focused therapy
- Hypnotherapy and internal communication between alters
- Stabilization before memory processing

3. Differentiating the Two Disorders

Feature	Depersonalization/Derealization Disorder	Dissociative Identity Disorder
Core Symptom	Detachment from self/environment	Presence of two or more personalities
Memory Loss	Rare	Frequent and significant (amnesia)
Insight into Symptoms	Usually good	Often variable
History of Severe Trauma	May be present	Almost always present
Identity Disruption	No	Central to the disorder

□ Key Takeaways

- **DDD** involves **detachment** from self or reality but with preserved awareness.
- **DID** is characterized by a **fragmentation of identity**, often rooted in early trauma.
- Both are adaptive responses to overwhelming emotional experiences.

- Accurate diagnosis requires careful clinical evaluation to rule out neurological or substance-induced causes.
- Treatment is complex and must address both **symptom management** and **underlying trauma**.

Table: Comparison of Two Major Dissociative Disorders

Feature	Depersonalization/Derealization Disorder (DDD)	Dissociative Identity Disorder (DID)
Core Symptoms	Detachment from self (depersonalization) and surroundings (derealization)	Presence of two or more distinct identities (alters)
Memory Disruption	Rare or mild	Significant gaps in memory (amnesia for daily events)
Awareness of Reality	Usually intact (knows the experiences are not real)	May be unaware of other identities or experiences
Onset	Typically adolescence or early adulthood	Often begins in childhood
Duration	Episodic or chronic	Chronic and long-term
Insight	Often good (disturbed by symptoms)	May vary; some alters unaware of others
Trauma History	Sometimes present	Almost always present (severe early trauma)
Common Comorbidities	Anxiety, depression	PTSD, depression, borderline personality disorder
Treatment Approach	CBT, mindfulness, SSRIs	Trauma-focused psychotherapy, integration of identities
Functional Impairment	Can range from mild to severe	Often severe and disabling

SELF-LEARNING MATERIAL

UNIT IV MOOD DISORDERS AND SUICIDE

Defining mood disorder – Structure of mood disorder – Additional defining criteria for depressive and bipolar disorders. Causes: Biological, Neurological, Psychological, Social and cultural – Treatment: ECT and TMS, Psychological, Preventing relapse.

Unit Objectives - By the end of this unit, students will be able to:

- 1. Define and differentiate mood disorders
- 2. Analyze the structural components of mood disorders
- 3. Examine the multifaceted causes
- 4. Evaluate treatment approaches
- 5. Investigate strategies for relapse prevention

DEFINING MOOD DISORDERS

Mood disorders—also referred to as **affective disorders**—are a category of psychological conditions characterized by **disturbances in a person's emotional state**, typically involving **periods of intense sadness (depression)** or **excessive elation (mania)**. These disorders reflect a **profound disruption in mood regulation**, often resulting in significant distress or impairment in daily functioning.

1. What is "Mood"?

Mood refers to a **sustained emotional state** that influences how a person perceives and interacts with the world. It differs from emotion in that it is more **enduring** and less tied to a specific stimulus.

Mood disorders occur when:

- Mood is inappropriately intense or prolonged, and
- It significantly interferes with cognitive, physical, or social functioning.

2. DSM-5 Classification of Mood Disorders

Mood disorders are classified into two broad types:

Category	Disorders Included	
II -	Major Depressive Disorder, Persistent Depressive Disorder (Dysthymia), Disruptive Mood Dysregulation Disorder	
Bipolar and Related Disorders	Bipolar I Disorder, Bipolar II Disorder, Cyclothymic Disorder	

${\bf Q}$ 3. Core Symptoms Across Mood Disorders

Depressive Features	Manic Features
Persistent sadness or emptiness	Elevated or irritable mood
Loss of interest or pleasure	Inflated self-esteem or grandiosity
Fatigue or loss of energy	Decreased need for sleep
Feelings of worthlessness	Talkativeness, flight of ideas
Thoughts of death or suicide	Excessive involvement in risky activities
Changes in appetite or sleep	Distractibility, impulsivity

∡ 4. Key Dimensions of Mood Disorders

Dimension	Description
Severity	Ranges from mild to severe, may include psychotic features
Duration	Can be episodic (e.g., MDD) or chronic (e.g., dysthymia)
Polarity	Unipolar (depression only) vs. Bipolar (both depression and mania/hypomania)
Course	Single episode or recurrent
Onset	Often emerges in adolescence or early adulthood

☐ 5. Biological and Psychological Underpinnings

Mood disorders result from a complex interplay of:

- **Genetic factors** (family history of mood disorders)
- **Neurochemical imbalances** (e.g., serotonin, norepinephrine, dopamine)
- **Cognitive distortions** (e.g., negative thinking patterns)
- Stressful life events (e.g., loss, trauma, interpersonal conflict)

□ Key Takeaways

- Mood disorders involve emotional states that deviate significantly from baseline, either too low (depression) or too high (mania).
- They affect thinking, behavior, motivation, and physiology.
- Understanding their definition is essential for distinguishing them from normal mood fluctuations and for guiding appropriate diagnosis and treatment.

Summary Table: Defining Mood Disorders

Component	Description	
Definition	Psychological disorders involving persistent disturbances in mood or affect.	
Types	1. Depressive Disorders – e.g., MDD, dysthymia 2. Bipolar Disorders – e.g., Bipolar I, Bipolar II	
Mood States Affected	Depression – Low mood, sadness, fatigue 2. Mania/Hypomania – Elevated or irritable mood	
Polarity	- Unipolar: Depression only - Bipolar: Alternating depression and mania	
Onset	Typically adolescence to early adulthood	
Duration	Episodic (MDD) or chronic (Persistent Depressive Disorder)	
Common Symptoms	Depression: Anhedonia, worthlessness, suicidal thoughts Mania: Grandiosity, reduced need for sleep	
Causes	Genetic vulnerability, neurotransmitter imbalance, cognitive distortions, stress	

Component	Description
Impact	Impaired social, occupational, academic functioning
	CBT, Interpersonal Therapy, Medication (SSRIs, Mood Stabilizers), ECT

STRUCTURE OF MOOD DISORDERS

The **structure of mood disorders** refers to the classification, organization, and interrelation of different types of mood disturbances in terms of symptom presentation, severity, course, and polarity. Understanding this structure helps clinicians identify diagnostic categories, make distinctions between disorders, and choose effective treatment pathways.

☐ 1. Classification by DSM-5

Mood disorders are broadly classified into two main types:

Major Categories	Disorders Included	
II -	Major Depressive Disorder (MDD), Persistent Depressive Disorder (Dysthymia), Disruptive Mood Dysregulation Disorder	
Bipolar and Related Disorders	Bipolar I Disorder, Bipolar II Disorder, Cyclothymic Disorder	

□ 2. Polarity Dimension

Mood disorders are also structured according to **mood polarity**:

Туре	Polarity	Mood States Experienced
Unipolar	One-directional	Depressed mood only (e.g., MDD, dysthymia)
Bipolar	Bidirectional	Both depressed and elevated (manic/hypomanic) states

3. Symptom Patterns and Course

Symptom Features	Depressive Disorders	Bipolar Disorders
Mood	Persistently low	Alternates between low and elevated
Energy	Decreased	Increased during manic phases
II hought content	Worthlessness, guilt, hopelessness	Grandiosity, racing thoughts
Sleep pattern	Insomnia or hypersomnia	Decreased need for sleep (mania)
Course	May be single or recurrent episodes	Often cyclical with alternating episodes

☐ 4. Episodic Nature of Mood Disorders

Mood disorders often follow a **recurrent or cyclical pattern**, with periods of normal mood (euthymia) in between. The major episode types include:

- Major Depressive Episode: At least 2 weeks of depressed mood and related symptoms
- Manic Episode: At least 1 week of abnormally elevated or irritable mood, with increased energy/activity
- **Hypomanic Episode**: Similar to mania but less severe and shorter duration
- Mixed Episode: Simultaneous features of depression and mania

☐ 5. Specifiers in Diagnosis (According to DSM-5)

Specifiers help to capture the full structure and complexity of mood disorders. Common specifiers include:

Specifier	Description
With anxious distress	Presence of anxiety symptoms during a mood episode
With psychotic features	Presence of hallucinations or delusions
With melancholic	Loss of pleasure in all activities, profound despondency

Specifier	Description
features	
With atypical features	Mood reactivity, increased appetite, hypersomnia
With seasonal pattern	Episodes occur during specific seasons (e.g., winter depression)
With rapid cycling	Four or more mood episodes per year (in Bipolar Disorder)

☐ 6. Key Takeaways

- The structure of mood disorders includes categories, symptom profiles, polarity, course, and specifiers.
- A clear understanding of this structure aids in **differential diagnosis**, **individualized treatment**, and **prognosis**.
- Mood disorders are **episodic**, **cyclical**, and **multifactorial** in origin—requiring both **clinical insight** and **biopsychosocial understanding**.

Summary Table: Structure of Mood Disorders

Dimension	Depressive Disorders	Bipolar Disorders	
Polarity	Unipolar (only low mood)	Bipolar (low and elevated moods)	
<u>-</u>	 Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) Persistent Depressive Disorder (Dysthymia) 	- Bipolar I Disorder - Bipolar II Disorder - Cyclothymic Disorder	
Mood Episodes	Major depressive episode only	Depressive, manic, hypomanic, or mixed episodes	
	≥2 weeks (MDD), ≥2 years (dysthymia)	Mania ≥1 week, Hypomania ≥4 days, Depression ≥2 weeks	
	High (social, occupational, cognitive)	Varies: Severe in Bipolar I; moderate in Bipolar II & Cyclothymia	

Dimension	Depressive Disorders	Bipolar Disorders
Specifiers (Examples)	With anxious distress, melancholic, psychotic, seasonal	With rapid cycling, mixed features, psychotic features
Course	ISINGLE OF RECURRENT ENISORES	Episodic, often with periods of remission
Onset	Adolescence to mid-20s	Late teens to early adulthood

ADDITIONAL DEFINING CRITERIA FOR DEPRESSIVE AND BIPOLAR DISORDERS

While core diagnostic criteria define the presence of **major depressive**, **manic**, or **hypomanic episodes**, the **DSM-5** also provides **additional specifiers** and criteria to capture the **complexity and variability** of mood disorders. These help clinicians tailor diagnoses, predict prognosis, and plan effective treatments.

1. Course Specifiers

These describe the **pattern and progression** of the disorder:

Specifier	Description
Single Episode / Recurrent	Indicates if the depressive or mood episode has occurred once or multiple times
Chronic	Symptoms persist continuously for ≥2 years (e.g., dysthymia)
In Partial / Full Remission	Symptoms have lessened or disappeared entirely

3 2. Symptom-Based Specifiers

Used to describe the quality of the current or most recent episode:

Specifier	Applies to	Description
With Anxious Distress	Depressive/Bipolar	Tension, restlessness, worry, fear of losing control
With Mixed Features	Depressive/Bipolar	Co-occurrence of opposite mood symptoms (e.g., depressive symptoms in mania)
With Melancholic Features	Depressive	Loss of pleasure, mood non-reactive to positive events, morning worsening
With Atypical Features	Depressive	Mood reactivity, weight gain, hypersomnia, leaden paralysis
With Psychotic Features	Depressive/Bipolar	Delusions or hallucinations (mood-congruent or incongruent)
With Catatonia	Depressive/Bipolar	Motoric immobility, mutism, or purposeless motor activity
With Peripartum Onset	Depressive/Bipolar	Onset during pregnancy or within 4 weeks postpartum
With Seasonal Pattern	Depressive/Bipolar	Recurrent episodes occurring in specific seasons (e.g., winter depression)

☐ 3. Rapid Cycling Specifier (Bipolar Only)

- Defined as 4 or more mood episodes (depressive, manic, hypomanic) in a 12-month period
- Indicates a more severe course and often poorer treatment response
- More common in **females**

☐ 4. Psychotic Features: Mood-Congruent vs. Incongruent

Туре	Description
Mood- Congruent	Delusions or hallucinations consistent with the individual's mood (e.g., guilt, worthlessness in depression)
Mood- Incongruent	Psychotic features not aligned with mood (e.g., paranoia during a depressive episode)

☐ 5. Functional Impairment and Suicide Risk

These are not always listed in diagnostic criteria but are **clinically essential** in defining severity and urgency:

- Functional Impairment: Difficulty in occupational, social, or academic domains
- Suicidality: Risk of suicidal thoughts, plans, or behaviors must always be assessed

☐ 6. Importance of Specifiers

- Improve diagnostic precision
- Help predict treatment response (e.g., atypical depression responds better to MAOIs)
- Inform **risk management** (e.g., psychosis or rapid cycling linked with higher hospitalization risk)
- Aid in clinical communication and research classification

Table: Additional Defining Criteria for Depressive and Bipolar Disorders

Specifier Type	Specifier	Applies To	Description
Course	Single Episode / Recurrent	Both	Indicates whether it is a first episode or repeated episodes
	Chronic	Depressive	Symptoms persist continuously ≥2 years
	In Partial / Full Remission	Both	Symptoms improved or absent, but diagnosis still relevant
Symptom- Based	With Anxious Distress	Both	Worry, tension, restlessness, poor concentration
	With Mixed Features	Both	Features of the opposite mood state (e.g., depressive symptoms during mania)
	With Melancholic	Depressive	Severe anhedonia, early morning awakening, psychomotor changes

Specifier Type	Specifier	Applies To	Description
	Features		
	With Atypical Features	Depressive	Mood reactivity, hypersomnia, increased appetite
	With Psychotic Features	Both	Hallucinations/delusions (mood- congruent or incongruent)
	With Catatonia	Both	Immobility, mutism, or purposeless agitation
	With Peripartum Onset	Both	Onset during pregnancy or within 4 weeks postpartum
	With Seasonal Pattern	Both	Recurrence follows a seasonal pattern (e.g., winter depression)
Bipolar-Specific	With Rapid Cycling	Bipolar	Four or more mood episodes within 12 months
Risk Considerations	Suicidality	Both	Presence of suicidal ideation or behaviors
	Functional Impairment	Both	Interference in work, relationships, and daily functioning

BIOLOGICAL CAUSES OF MOOD DISORDERS

Biological factors play a **central role** in the onset, development, and recurrence of mood disorders, especially **Major Depressive Disorder (MDD)** and **Bipolar Disorders**. These include **genetic predispositions**, **neurochemical imbalances**, **hormonal irregularities**, and **brain structure and function abnormalities**.

☐ 1. Genetic Vulnerability

 Family, twin, and adoption studies have consistently shown that mood disorders have a heritable component.

- First-degree relatives of individuals with depression are **2 to 3 times more likely** to develop the condition.
- Heritability estimates:
 - Major Depressive Disorder: ~40%
 - Bipolar Disorder: ~60–85%
- Concordance rates are much higher in monozygotic twins than dizygotic twins.

Example: If one identical twin has Bipolar I Disorder, the other twin has a 65–70% chance of developing it too.

☐ 2. Neurotransmitter Imbalances

Mood disorders are associated with **dysregulation of key neurotransmitters**:

Neurotransmitter	Role	Associated Dysfunctions
	1	Low levels linked to depression and emotional instability
Norepinephrine	Arousal, attention, energy	Deficiency may lead to lethargy and depressive symptoms
lluonamine	Pleasure, reward, motivation	Dysregulated in both depression and mania

Monoamine hypothesis: Proposes that deficiencies in these monoamines lead to depression.

☐ 3. Brain Structure and Function

Neuroimaging studies have revealed several **functional and structural abnormalities** in individuals with mood disorders:

- Prefrontal cortex: Hypoactivity (especially left side) is linked to depression.
- Amygdala: Hyperactive in depression, linked to over-processing of negative emotions.
- Hippocampus: Reduced volume associated with chronic depression and stress.
- Anterior cingulate cortex: Impaired in emotional regulation.

☐ 4. Endocrine System and HPA Axis

- Mood disorders are often linked to dysregulation in the hypothalamicpituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis.
- This results in **excess cortisol** production, a stress hormone.
- Elevated cortisol is **neurotoxic** to the hippocampus and can impair mood regulation.

Cushing's syndrome (a condition of cortisol overproduction) often leads to depressive symptoms.

☐ 5. Sleep and Circadian Rhythms

- Disturbed sleep patterns are common in depression and mania.
- People with depression:
 - Enter REM sleep too quickly
 - Experience reduced slow-wave sleep
- Bipolar disorder is also associated with **circadian rhythm disruptions**, especially in mania.

☐ Summary

Biological Factor	Contribution to Mood Disorders
Genetic Heritability	Increases susceptibility, especially in bipolar disorder
Neurotransmitter Imbalance	Alters mood, motivation, energy, and emotional regulation
Brain Structure/Function	Affects emotional processing and cognitive control
HPA Axis Dysregulation	Chronic stress response, increased cortisol, damage to mood centers
Sleep/Circadian Disruption	Affects mood regulation, energy levels, and resilience to stress

□ NEUROLOGICAL CAUSES OF MOOD DISORDERS

Mood disorders such as **depression** and **bipolar disorder** are deeply linked to **neurological dysfunctions**, involving abnormalities in **brain structure**, **brain activity**, and **neurophysiological processes**. These neurological changes influence how individuals regulate emotions, respond to stress, and maintain motivation.

□ 1. Brain Structure Abnormalities

Studies using MRI and CT scans have shown structural differences in the brains of individuals with mood disorders:

Brain Region	Abnormality Observed	Implication
Prefrontal Cortex	Reduced activity and volume (especially left side)	Impaired decision-making and reduced positive affect
Amygdala		Heightened negative emotion processing
Hippocampus	Reduced volume	Poor memory, stress regulation, and emotional control
Anterior Cingulate Cortex	Decreased activation	Impaired attention and emotion regulation
Basal Ganglia	Dysfunction observed in bipolar disorder	Linked to motor activity and emotional control

☐ 2. Functional Brain Activity

Functional imaging (fMRI, PET) reveals **imbalances in neural circuits** involved in mood:

- Overactivation of limbic regions (e.g., amygdala) during negative emotional processing.
- **Underactivation of cortical regions** responsible for regulation and control (e.g., dorsolateral prefrontal cortex).
- **Impaired connectivity** between mood-regulating areas leads to emotional instability.

3. Neurophysiological Dysregulation

Abnormal EEG patterns:

- Increased right-hemisphere activity in depression (associated with withdrawal and negative emotions).
- Changes in alpha and delta wave activity during rest and sleep in mood-disordered individuals.
- Delayed or reduced brain responses to positive stimuli (blunted reward system).

zzz 4. Sleep and Circadian Neurology

REM Sleep disturbances:

- Earlier onset of REM sleep.
- o Increased REM density in depressed individuals.

• Circadian rhythm disruption:

 Abnormalities in the brain's suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) affect hormonal and sleep regulation, particularly in bipolar disorder.

☐ 5. Neuroinflammation and Neuroplasticity

- **Neuroinflammation** (elevated cytokines like IL-6, TNF-alpha) may contribute to neural damage and depressive symptoms.
- Reduced neuroplasticity and neurogenesis, especially in the hippocampus, are linked to persistent depression.
- **BDNF (Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor)**: Often reduced in depression; antidepressants may increase its levels.

□ Summary Table

Neurological Aspect	Key Findings
Brain structure	Smaller hippocampus, hypoactive prefrontal cortex, hyperactive amygdala
Functional activity	Limbic overactivity, prefrontal underactivity
Neurophysiology	EEG abnormalities, poor positive stimulus response
Sleep and circadian	REM sleep disruption, circadian desynchrony

Neurological Aspect	Key Findings
rhythms	
	Increased inflammatory markers, reduced BDNF and neurogenesis

™ Table: Neurological Causes of Mood Disorders

Neurological Factor	Description	Implication in Mood Disorders
Prefrontal Cortex Dysfunction	Reduced activity, especially in the left hemisphere	Impaired emotion regulation, loss of motivation
Amygdala Hyperactivity	Overactive emotional processing center	Heightened negative emotional response, fear, and anxiety
Hippocampal Atrophy	Shrinking of the hippocampus due to stress or neurotoxicity	
Anterior Cingulate Dysfunction	Lower activation in this emotional monitoring area	Poor attention control and emotion regulation
Basal Ganglia Changes	Dysfunctional motor- emotional integration (noted in bipolar disorder)	Affects activity level, mood swings, and emotional stability
EEG Abnormalities	Altered brain wave patterns, particularly in frontal lobes	Seen in depressive symptomatology
REM Sleep Dysregulation	Early onset REM, increased REM density	Poor sleep quality contributes to low mood and fatigue
Circadian Rhythm Disruption	Irregular sleep-wake cycle linked to SCN dysfunction	Associated with depressive and manic episodes
Neuroinflammation	Elevated cytokines (e.g., IL-6, TNF-alpha)	Brain inflammation linked to depressive symptoms
Low BDNF	Decreased brain-derived	Reduced neurogenesis,

Neurological Factor	Description	Implication in Mood Disorders
(Neuroplasticity)	neurotrophic factor	especially in hippocampus

□ PSYCHOLOGICAL CAUSES OF MOOD DISORDERS

Mood disorders such as **Major Depressive Disorder** and **Bipolar Disorders** are not only biologically and neurologically influenced — they are also significantly shaped by an individual's **thought patterns**, **emotional responses**, **personality traits**, **and early life experiences**. These internal processes are collectively referred to as **psychological causes**.

1. Cognitive Distortions and Negative Thinking (Beck's Cognitive Theory)

One of the most widely accepted psychological models of depression is Aaron Beck's **Cognitive Theory**, which states that individuals with depression tend to interpret situations negatively due to **maladaptive thought patterns**.

Key distortions include:

Cognitive Distortion	Example
Overgeneralization	"I failed this test, so I'll fail in life."
Catastrophizing	"If I lose this job, my life is over."
All-or-nothing thinking	"If I'm not perfect, I'm a failure."

These patterns form what Beck called the **Negative Cognitive Triad**:

- Negative views about the self
- Negative views about the world
- Negative views about the future

2. Learned Helplessness (Seligman's Theory)

According to **Martin Seligman**, repeated exposure to uncontrollable negative events can lead individuals to believe they are **helpless** in influencing outcomes — a condition known as **learned helplessness**.

- This leads to passivity, low self-efficacy, and eventually depressive symptoms.
- People may **give up** even when opportunities to improve their situation exist.

3. Behavioral Theories

- Loss of reinforcement: According to behavioral models, depression can result when individuals no longer receive **positive reinforcement** from their environment (e.g., due to social withdrawal or job loss).
- Avoidance behaviors can further reduce rewarding experiences and worsen mood.

4. Early Attachment and Developmental Experiences

- Insecure or avoidant attachment styles developed in early childhood are associated with poor emotional regulation in adulthood.
- Individuals who experienced abuse, neglect, or loss in childhood are at greater risk of developing mood disorders.

5. Personality and Temperament

- High neuroticism (a tendency to experience negative emotions easily) is a well-established predictor of depression and anxiety.
- Low self-esteem and perfectionistic tendencies also contribute to vulnerability.

□ Summary Table

Psychological Cause	Effect on Mood
Cognitive distortions	Negative self-perception and hopelessness
Learned helplessness	Passive behavior and reduced motivation

Psychological Cause	Effect on Mood
Lack of reinforcement	Withdrawal and emotional numbness
Insecure attachment	Difficulty trusting others and regulating emotions
Negative personality traits	Increased emotional reactivity and stress sensitivity

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL CAUSES OF MOOD DISORDERS

Mood disorders like **Major Depressive Disorder** and **Bipolar Disorder** are shaped not only by biology and psychology but also by powerful **social and cultural factors**. These influences affect the **onset**, **expression**, **course**, and even the **treatment-seeking behavior** of individuals.

□ ♂ □ 1. Social Support and Relationships

- Low social support is a strong predictor of depression, especially in chronic forms.
- **Interpersonal conflict**, isolation, or loss of a close relationship (death, divorce) can trigger or worsen symptoms.
- People with strong social networks recover faster and are less likely to relapse.

Example: Bereavement and unresolved grief often precede the onset of depressive episodes.

2. Life Stressors and Events

- Stressful life events (e.g., job loss, abuse, financial crisis) are common triggers for mood disorders.
- **Chronic stress**, especially if uncontrollable or unpredictable, can impair coping and contribute to depressive symptoms.
- **Early adversity** (such as childhood trauma or neglect) has long-term effects on emotional regulation.

3. Gender Roles and Expectations

- Women are twice as likely to be diagnosed with depression as men (global trend).
- Contributing factors may include:
 - Social pressures and role overload (career + family)
 - Higher exposure to trauma and abuse
 - o **Tendency to ruminate** more than men
- Cultural expectations around masculinity may lead to **underreporting** in men.

4. Cultural Expression of Symptoms

- Culture affects how symptoms are perceived and expressed:
 - In collectivistic societies, emotional distress may be somatized (expressed as physical symptoms).
 - In individualistic societies, people may focus more on internal emotional experiences.

Example: A depressed person in India might complain of headaches or fatigue, while one in the US may report "feeling empty."

☐ 5. Stigma and Help-Seeking Behavior

- In many cultures, mental illness is stigmatized, leading individuals to avoid or delay treatment.
- Cultural beliefs may frame depression as a moral weakness, spiritual issue, or fate-based condition.
- Access to care and beliefs about mental health shape treatment outcomes.

□ Summary Table

Social/Cultural Factor	Contribution to Mood Disorders
Low social support	Increases vulnerability and slows recovery
Stressful life events	Trigger depressive or manic episodes
Gender and role expectations	Influence prevalence and coping strategies
Cultural symptom expression	Affects diagnosis and communication of distress

Social/Cultural Factor	Contribution to Mood Disorders
Mental health stigma	Delays treatment and increases isolation

TREATMENT OF MOOD DISORDERS:

ECT, TMS, Psychological Therapies, and Relapse Prevention

Mood disorders such as **Major Depressive Disorder** and **Bipolar Disorder** require a **multimodal treatment approach**, combining biological and psychological interventions. Additionally, attention must be paid to **relapse prevention**, as recurrence is common if underlying patterns remain unaddressed.

☐ 1. Electroconvulsive Therapy (ECT)

- What it is: A medical procedure where brief electrical stimulation is applied to the brain under anesthesia.
- When used: For severe depression unresponsive to medication, treatmentresistant bipolar disorder, or suicidal depression.
- Effectiveness:
 - Rapid and effective in 60–80% of cases.
 - Particularly useful when urgent symptom reduction is needed.
- Side Effects:
 - Temporary confusion or memory loss (usually short-term).
 - Well-tolerated with modern anesthesia and monitoring.

ECT is **not a first-line treatment** but remains one of the most effective for acute, life-threatening depression.

☐ 2. Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (TMS)

- What it is: A non-invasive technique using magnetic fields to stimulate specific areas of the prefrontal cortex.
- Used for: Moderate depression, particularly when medications are ineffective.
- Advantages:
 - Outpatient procedure, no anesthesia required.
 - Fewer side effects than ECT.
- Limitations:

- Requires multiple sessions (daily for 4–6 weeks).
- Effects may be less robust than ECT but still clinically significant.

TMS is FDA-approved and growing in use for patients seeking non-drug, non-invasive options.

☐ 3. Psychological Treatments

a. Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT)

- Focuses on identifying and challenging negative thoughts and replacing them with healthier beliefs.
- Includes behavioral activation to reintroduce positive activities.
- Proven to reduce depressive symptoms and prevent relapse.

b. Interpersonal Therapy (IPT)

- Targets problems in relationships, such as grief, role transitions, or interpersonal conflict.
- Effective in reducing symptoms and improving social support.

c. Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy (MBCT)

- Combines CBT with mindfulness practices.
- Helps prevent relapse in recurrent depression by increasing awareness of negative thought patterns.

d. Family-Focused Therapy (FFT)

- Used in bipolar disorder to reduce family conflict and improve communication.
- Reduces relapse and hospitalization rates.

4. Preventing Relapse

Relapse is common in mood disorders, especially when only acute symptoms are treated. Prevention strategies include:

Strategy	Purpose
Maintenance therapy	Continued medication or psychotherapy post- recovery

Strategy	Purpose
Booster CBT or IPT sessions	Strengthen coping skills and identify early warning signs
Lifestyle stabilization	Sleep hygiene, regular exercise, structured routine
Psychoeducation for patient/family	Improves understanding and early intervention
Medication adherence	Key to long-term stability, especially in bipolar cases

☐ Summary Table

Treatment Type	Method	When Used
ECT	Brain stimulation under anesthesia	Severe, treatment-resistant depression
TMS	Magnetic stimulation to cortex	Moderate depression, non- responders
СВТ	Correcting negative thought patterns	Most forms of depression
IPT	Addressing interpersonal issues	Depression linked to relationship stress
мвст	Mindfulness + CBT	Preventing relapse in recurrent cases
Relapse Prevention	Therapy + routine + awareness	All individuals post-recovery

SELF-LEARNING MATERIAL

UNIT V EATING AND SLEEP-WAKE DISORDER

Major types of eating disorder: Bulimia nervosa, Anorexia nervosa, Binge-eating disorder. Causes: Social, Biological and Psychological dimensions. Treatment and Prevention. Obesity – Causes – Treatment.

Sleep-Wake Disorder: Major dyssomnias: Insomnia disorder, Hypersomnolence disorder, Narcolepsy, Breathing-related sleep disorder, Circadian rhythm sleep disorder – Treatment – Prevention.

Unit Objectives - By the end of this unit, students will be able to:

- 1. Identify and describe the major types of eating disorders.
- 2. Analyze the biological, psychological, and social factors
- 3. Examine the causes, symptoms, and classification.
- 4. Evaluate evidence-based treatments and preventive strategies
- 5. Understand the impact of lifestyle, stress, and cultural influences

1 ■ EATING DISORDERS

Eating disorders are serious psychological conditions marked by severe disturbances in eating behavior, body image, and weight regulation. They often begin in adolescence or early adulthood and are more prevalent among females, though males are increasingly affected.

Eating disorders are influenced by a combination of **biological**, **psychological**, **and sociocultural factors**, and can result in significant physical and emotional consequences if left untreated.

Q Major Types of Eating Disorders

Disorder	Core Features
	- Intense fear of gaining weight- Severe food restriction- Body image distortion
Bulimia	- Recurrent episodes of binge eating- Compensatory behaviors

Disorder	Core Features
Nervosa	(vomiting, fasting, exercise)- Self-worth tied to body image
	- Recurrent binge eating episodes- No compensatory behaviors- Feelings of guilt, shame, and distress

☐ Key Psychological Features

- **Body image disturbance**: Overemphasis on body shape/weight in self-evaluation
- **Perfectionism**: Unrealistic standards for appearance and control
- **Emotional dysregulation**: Using food behaviors to manage anxiety, shame, or sadness
- Cognitive distortions: "I must be thin to be loved" or "Eating makes me weak"

☐ Medical Complications

Disorder	Health Risks
Anorexia Nervosa	Heart problems, bone loss, electrolyte imbalance, organ failure
Bulimia Nervosa	Tooth decay, esophageal tears, electrolyte disturbance
Binge-Eating Disorder	Obesity, Type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease

Causes of Eating Disorders

Dimension	Examples
Biological	Genetic predisposition, neurotransmitter imbalance (serotonin, dopamine)
Psychological	Low self-esteem, trauma, anxiety, perfectionism
Sociocultural	Media pressure, cultural thin-ideal, peer comparison
Family	Enmeshed or critical family dynamics

Treatment Approaches

Approach	Description
Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT-E)	Gold standard for all eating disorders; focuses on restructuring body-related thoughts and behaviors
Nutritional Rehabilitation	Helping patients restore and maintain healthy eating patterns
Family-Based Therapy (FBT)	Especially effective in adolescents with anorexia; empowers parents to help
Medication	SSRIs may help reduce binge/purge cycles or depressive symptoms

Prognosis & Prevention

- **Early intervention** improves long-term outcomes.
- Relapse prevention is crucial, especially in anorexia.
- Psychoeducation in schools and media literacy can help prevent development.

1 ■ BULIMIA NERVOSA

★ Definition

Bulimia nervosa is a serious eating disorder characterized by repeated episodes of **binge eating**, followed by **inappropriate compensatory behaviors** to prevent weight gain, such as **self-induced vomiting**, excessive exercise, or fasting. Unlike anorexia, individuals with bulimia usually maintain a body weight within or above the normal range.

Q Core Diagnostic Criteria (DSM-5)

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5), the following criteria must be met:

- 1. Recurrent episodes of binge eating, characterized by:
 - Eating a large amount of food within a discrete period
 - A sense of lack of control over eating during the episode
- 2. Recurrent inappropriate compensatory behaviors:
 - Vomiting
 - Misuse of laxatives or diuretics
 - Fasting
 - Excessive exercise
- 3. Frequency: Both binge eating and compensatory behaviors occur at least once a week for 3 months
- 4. Self-evaluation is unduly influenced by body shape and weight
- 5. Disturbance does not occur exclusively during episodes of anorexia nervosa

☐ Warning Signs and Physical Consequences

Behavioral Signs	Medical Complications
Frequent trips to the bathroom after meals	Electrolyte imbalances, dehydration
Secrecy around eating	Erosion of tooth enamel due to stomach acid (vomiting)
Rigid food rituals and fear of weight gain	Esophageal tears, gastrointestinal problems
Mood swings, shame, and guilt after eating	Menstrual irregularities, heart irregularities

☐ Psychological Profile

- High levels of perfectionism
- Low self-esteem and fear of being overweight
- Feelings of shame, guilt, and loss of control
- Often co-occurs with anxiety disorders, depression, and impulsivity

M Causes

Dimension	Examples
Biological	Genetic vulnerability; serotonin dysregulation affecting mood and

Dimension	Examples
	satiety
Psychological	Body dissatisfaction, cognitive distortions ("I'm only worthy if I'm thin")
Sociocultural	Cultural ideal of thinness; peer pressure; exposure to dieting culture
Family	Critical comments about weight, emphasis on appearance, parental dieting

Treatment

Treatment Type	Details
Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT-E)	The most effective treatment; targets binge-purge cycle and body image issues
Interpersonal Therapy (IPT)	Focuses on improving relationship issues contributing to bulimia
Antidepressant Medication (SSRIs)	May reduce binge and purge episodes; helpful for comorbid depression
Nutritional Counseling	Supports regular eating and balanced meals
Psychoeducation	Builds insight into triggers, health consequences, and recovery motivation

Prognosis

- Good prognosis with early and structured intervention
- Risk of relapse if underlying emotional issues are not addressed
- Long-term therapy may be required to maintain recovery

□ ANOREXIA NERVOSA

★ Definition

Anorexia nervosa is a severe and potentially life-threatening eating disorder marked by:

- Significant weight loss due to persistent restriction of energy intake,
- An intense fear of gaining weight, and
- A distorted body image where individuals view themselves as overweight even when dangerously underweight.

It has one of the **highest mortality rates** of any psychiatric condition.

Q Core Diagnostic Criteria (DSM-5)

- 1. **Restriction of energy intake** relative to requirements, leading to significantly low body weight.
- 2. **Intense fear of gaining weight** or becoming fat, even though underweight.
- 3. **Disturbance in body image**, self-worth influenced by body weight, or denial of the seriousness of current low body weight.

□ Subtypes

Subtype	Description
Restricting Type	Weight loss primarily through dieting, fasting, or exercise.
	Recurrent episodes of binge eating or purging (vomiting, laxatives).

☐ Medical Consequences

System Affected	Consequences
Cardiovascular	Bradycardia, hypotension, heart failure
Endocrine	Amenorrhea, infertility, growth delay

System Affected	Consequences
Gastrointestinal	Constipation, bloating, stomach pain
Skeletal	Osteopenia, osteoporosis due to low calcium and estrogen
Neurological	Fatigue, concentration problems, brain atrophy
General	Hair thinning, dry skin, lanugo (fine body hair), hypothermia

☐ Psychological Features

- Perfectionism and need for control
- Distorted body image
- Low self-esteem and fear of adulthood/independence
- Often comorbid with depression, OCD, or anxiety disorders

☐ Causes and Risk Factors

Biological	Genetic vulnerability; low serotonin and dopamine functioning
Psychological	Perfectionism, obsessive traits, body dissatisfaction
	High-achievement expectations, enmeshment, emphasis on appearance
Sociocultural	Cultural ideals of thinness, media pressure, dieting normalization

Treatment Approaches

Treatment	Goals/Methods
Nutritional Rehabilitation	Restore weight through structured meal planning
Family-Based Therapy (FBT)	Empower parents to support adolescent eating recovery
Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT-E)	Challenge distorted beliefs about weight and control
Psychodynamic Therapy	Explore unconscious fears related to identity, control, and self-worth

Treatment	Goals/Methods
IMEGICAL MONITORING	Essential to track organ function, vitals, and prevent complications
Hospitalization	Necessary in cases of severe weight loss or risk of death

Prognosis

- Early intervention increases the chances of recovery.
- Long-term recovery is difficult if distorted beliefs about body image persist.
- **Relapse** is common without continued therapy and nutritional support.
- Mortality may result from **medical complications** or **suicide**.

□ Summary Table

Aspect	Details
Diagnostic Criteria	Weight restriction, fear of fatness, body image disturbance
Subtypes	Restricting / Binge-eating-Purging
Key Psychological Traits	Perfectionism, body dissatisfaction, control needs
Major Risks	Heart failure, osteoporosis, organ damage
Treatments	CBT-E, FBT, nutritional rehab, hospitalization (if critical)

101 □ **BINGE-EATING DISORDER** (BED)

★ Definition

Binge-Eating Disorder (BED) is a psychological condition characterized by **recurrent episodes of binge eating** without the use of **compensatory behaviors** (e.g., vomiting or fasting) seen in bulimia nervosa. Individuals often feel **distressed**, **guilty**, **or out of control** during and after these episodes.

It is the **most common eating disorder** in the general population and often leads to **obesity** and related health problems.

Q Core Diagnostic Criteria (DSM-5)

- 1. Recurrent binge-eating episodes, characterized by:
 - Eating an unusually large quantity of food in a short period (e.g., within 2 hours).
 - A sense of lack of control during the episode.
- 2. Binge episodes are associated with at least **three** of the following:
 - Eating much more rapidly than normal
 - Eating until uncomfortably full
 - Eating large amounts of food when not physically hungry
 - Eating alone due to embarrassment
 - Feeling disgusted, depressed, or guilty afterward
- 3. Marked distress regarding binge eating.
- 4. Binge eating occurs, on average, at least once a week for three months.
- 5. **No regular use** of inappropriate compensatory behaviors (i.e., not bulimia).

$\hfill \square$ Behavioral and Emotional Signs

Behavioral Signs	Emotional Symptoms
Hoarding or hiding food	Guilt, shame, and low self-esteem
Eating in secret or at night	Feeling out of control during eating
Fluctuating weight	Depression and anxiety
Periods of restrictive dieting	Emotional numbing through food

□ Causes and Risk Factors

Biological	Genetic predisposition, serotonin/dopamine dysregulation
Psychological	Low self-esteem, emotional dysregulation, history of trauma
Social/Cultural Diet culture, weight stigma, unrealistic beauty standards	
Behavioral	Restrictive dieting followed by loss of control eating

☐ Associated Health Risks

- Obesity and metabolic syndrome
- Type 2 diabetes
- Hypertension and heart disease
- Joint pain and fatigue
- Psychological distress: increased risk of depression, anxiety, and substance use

Treatment Approaches

Treatment	Goal
Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT-E)	Addresses distorted thoughts and emotional eating
Interpersonal Therapy (IPT)	Improves relationship issues and emotional regulation
Dialectical Behavior Therapy (DBT)	Helps with emotional control and mindfulness
Nutritional Counseling	Supports balanced eating habits
Medication (e.g., SSRIs, Vyvanse)	May help reduce binge episodes and improve mood

Prognosis

- Moderate to good prognosis with structured therapy
- Less chronic than anorexia or bulimia but relapse is possible
- Early intervention and long-term support increase recovery rates

☐ Quick Recap Table

Aspect	Details
Key Features	Binge eating without compensatory behavior
Common Triggers	Stress, negative emotions, restrictive dieting
Health Risks	Obesity, diabetes, cardiovascular problems

Aspect	Details
Treatment	CBT-E, IPT, DBT, nutritional rehab, sometimes medication
Emotional Impact	Shame, guilt, low self-worth, social withdrawal

SOCIAL CAUSES OF EATING DISORDERS

Eating disorders do not arise in isolation. **Social and environmental pressures** significantly shape the development, maintenance, and expression of disordered eating patterns. These causes often interact with biological and psychological vulnerabilities.

♠ 1. Cultural Pressure for Thinness.

- Modern Western cultures idealize thinness as a standard of beauty and success.
- Media portrayal of "perfect bodies" in advertisements, social media, films, and fashion promotes **body dissatisfaction**.
- People, especially adolescent girls and young women, feel compelled to conform to these unrealistic standards.

"Thinness is equated with happiness, self-control, and social desirability."

- Constant **comparison with peers** or influencers fuels body dissatisfaction.
- Conversations centered around dieting, calories, or weight loss can trigger and reinforce disordered eating.
- Adolescents in particular are highly sensitive to peer validation and criticism related to appearance.

♦ 3. Weight-Based Teasing or Bullying

 Weight shaming or body-based bullying (even from family or teachers) can lead to feelings of shame, low self-worth, and disordered eating as a coping mechanism. Individuals may begin restrictive dieting, purging, or binge eating to deal with emotional pain or to avoid social rejection.

♦ 4. Family and Social Environment

- Families that emphasize appearance, **diet culture**, or athletic achievement may unknowingly reinforce unhealthy body image.
- In enmeshed families (especially seen in anorexia), identity struggles and a lack of independence can manifest through food control.
- Modeling behaviors from parents (e.g., frequent dieting, body dissatisfaction) can shape a child's eating attitudes.

- Platforms like Instagram, TikTok, and YouTube expose users to:
 - Edited or filtered body images
 - o Fitness and diet trends
 - o "What I eat in a day" videos
- These create **toxic comparison cycles** and normalize restrictive or bingetype behaviors under the guise of health or "clean eating."

☐ Summary Table: Social Causes of Eating Disorders

Social Factor	How It Contributes
Cultural thin ideal	Promotes fear of fatness and obsession with slimness
·	Increases body dissatisfaction and risky eating behaviors
Weight-based teasing/bullying	Triggers shame and compensatory food control behaviors
Family emphasis on appearance	Encourages internalization of body image ideals
Social media exposure	Reinforces unrealistic standards and diet obsession

□ BIOLOGICAL CAUSES OF EATING DISORDERS

While psychological and social factors contribute significantly to the onset of eating disorders, there is growing evidence that **biological and genetic influences** also play a critical role. These factors may **predispose individuals** to develop eating disorders and influence their **response to stress**, **hunger**, **and reward**.

♦ 1. Genetic Vulnerability

- Family and twin studies show higher rates of eating disorders among biological relatives.
- First-degree relatives of individuals with anorexia or bulimia have a 4–5 times greater risk.
- Heritability estimates range from **50–80%**, especially for **anorexia nervosa**.

Genetic predisposition may not directly cause the disorder but increases sensitivity to environmental triggers like dieting or social pressure.

a. Serotonin (5-HT)

- Involved in mood, impulse control, and appetite regulation.
- Abnormal serotonin functioning has been linked to:
 - Increased anxiety and obsessionality (common in anorexia)
 - Impulsivity and binge eating (in bulimia and BED)
- SSRI antidepressants that regulate serotonin are partially effective in treating bulimia.

b. Dopamine

- Involved in reward sensitivity and motivation.
- People with eating disorders may have altered dopamine response to food, contributing to reduced pleasure in eating (anorexia) or over-sensitivity to reward (binge eating).

- Neuroimaging studies suggest abnormalities in the insula, amygdala, and prefrontal cortex, affecting:
 - Interoception (awareness of body sensations like hunger/fullness)
 - Emotion regulation
 - Self-evaluation and control

Individuals with anorexia show heightened activity in brain areas related to control and anxiety; those with bulimia may show diminished activity in areas regulating impulsivity.

- Starvation (intentional or unintentional) disrupts the hypothalamic-pituitary axis, leading to:
 - Amenorrhea (loss of menstrual cycle)
 - Decreased thyroid function and growth hormones
 - Lowered leptin and ghrelin levels, which regulate hunger/satiety
- These hormonal imbalances may perpetuate the cycle of disordered eating.

♦ 5. Puberty and Developmental Changes

- Onset of eating disorders often occurs during puberty, a time of significant physical and hormonal change.
- Puberty increases body fat in females, which may trigger anxiety and dieting, especially in those predisposed biologically and psychologically.

☐ Summary Table: Biological Causes of Eating Disorders

Biological Factor	Impact on Eating Behavior		
Genetics	Inherited risk for anxiety, obsessionality, and emotional dysregulation		
Serotonin dysfunction	Affects mood, control, and satiety		
Dopamine abnormalities	Alters reward sensitivity and food motivation		

Biological Factor	Impact on Eating Behavior	
Brain structure differences	Impacts body perception and impulse control	
Hormonal changes	Affects hunger, satiety, and body regulation	

□ PSYCHOLOGICAL CAUSES OF EATING DISORDERS

Eating disorders are not only biologically and socially influenced—they are also deeply rooted in individual psychological functioning. **Cognitive**, **emotional**, **and behavioral patterns** play a central role in the **development and maintenance** of disorders like anorexia nervosa, bulimia nervosa, and binge-eating disorder.

- Individuals with eating disorders often have a distorted perception of their body shape and weight.
- They **overestimate body size** and judge their self-worth almost entirely based on appearance.
- Common **cognitive distortions** include:
 - o "If I am not thin, I am not lovable."
 - "I must control my eating to be in control of my life."

These maladaptive thoughts form the **core belief system** driving disordered behaviors.

- Many individuals with eating disorders display perfectionistic tendencies, setting unrealistically high standards for themselves.
- They tie their **self-esteem** to success, appearance, or weight control.
- Even minor dietary lapses are seen as personal failures, triggering guilt, shame, and compensatory behaviors.

♦ 3. Emotional Regulation Difficulties

• Disordered eating often serves as a **maladaptive coping mechanism** for regulating negative emotions like anxiety, sadness, boredom, or anger.

- People with low distress tolerance may turn to binge eating for comfort or restriction for a sense of control.
- In bulimia nervosa, the binge-purge cycle often follows **emotional triggers** rather than physical hunger.

- A fragile or poorly developed sense of self can make individuals vulnerable to external validation based on **appearance or achievement**.
- Eating control becomes a way to **feel competent or worthy**, especially in adolescents struggling with identity development.

5. History of Trauma or Abuse

- A significant portion of individuals with eating disorders report past experiences of:
 - Sexual abuse
 - Emotional neglect
 - Bullying
- These events contribute to **dissociation**, **shame**, and **loss of body trust**, which can manifest in disordered eating behaviors.

☐ Summary Table: Psychological Dimensions of Eating Disorders

Psychological Factor	Role in Eating Disorders
Distorted body image	Drives dieting, purging, and body dissatisfaction
Perfectionism	Fuels strict rules and harsh self-criticism
Emotional dysregulation	Leads to binge eating or restriction as a coping strategy
Low self-esteem	Makes self-worth dependent on appearance or control
Trauma history	Triggers dissociation and negative body relationship

☐ TREATMENT AND PREVENTION OF EATING DISORDERS

Introduction

Effective management of eating disorders like **Anorexia Nervosa**, **Bulimia Nervosa**, and **Binge-Eating Disorder** requires a **multidisciplinary approach** that addresses biological, psychological, and social factors. Treatment aims not only to restore physical health but also to correct distorted thoughts, build emotional resilience, and prevent relapse. Prevention efforts focus on **early identification**, **education**, and **resilience building** to stop the disorder from developing or worsening.

☐ Treatment Approaches

♦ 1. Psychological Interventions

Therapy Type	Focus and Use
Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT-E)	The gold standard for bulimia and binge-eating disorder. Focuses on challenging distorted body image and breaking binge-purge cycles.
Family-Based Therapy (FBT)	Particularly effective for adolescents with anorexia. Involves family in meal support and recovery.
Interpersonal Psychotherapy (IPT)	Addresses social and relational difficulties that may trigger disordered eating.
Dialectical Behavior Therapy (DBT)	Useful for those with emotional dysregulation and impulsivity (especially in binge eating).
Psychodynamic Therapy	Explores unconscious conflicts related to identity, control, and self-worth.

- · Restores healthy weight in anorexia.
- Promotes **normal eating patterns**.
- Educates about balanced nutrition and body functionality.
- Helps build a non-punitive relationship with food.

♦ 3. Medical Monitoring

- Essential for individuals with severe weight loss or electrolyte imbalances.
- Addresses complications such as:
 - Heart irregularities
 - Amenorrhea
 - o Bone loss
- May involve **hospitalization** or **inpatient care** when life-threatening.

♦ 4. Pharmacotherapy

Medication	Indications	
SSKIS (e.g., filloxetine)	Shown to reduce binge-purge frequency in bulimia; treats comorbid depression.	
III isdexamtetamine (Vvvanse)	Approved for binge-eating disorder ; reduces binge frequency.	
Atypical antipsychotics (e.g., olanzapine)	Sometimes used in anorexia to reduce anxiety around eating.	

□ Prevention Strategies

- ♦ 1. School and University Programs
 - Promote body positivity and self-esteem.
 - Discourage dieting and weight stigma.
 - Teach media literacy to reduce the impact of unrealistic body ideals.
- ♦ 2. Early Screening and Intervention
 - Identify at-risk individuals (e.g., through questionnaires or physical health markers).
 - Provide support before full disorder develops.
- - Recognize warning signs.
 - Encourage healthy body image and eating behaviors in children.

- - Campaigns that challenge "thin ideal."
 - Promote diverse, **healthy representations** of body sizes.

□ Summary Table

Aspect	Anorexia Nervosa	Bulimia Nervosa	Binge-Eating Disorder
Main Therapy	FBT, CBT-E	CBT-E, SSRIs	CBT-E, Vyvanse
Medical Need	Often high (due to low weight)	`	Low–Moderate (obesity risk)
Prevention Focus		•	Media literacy & food culture

☐ OBESITY – CAUSES AND TREATMENT

□ Definition

Obesity is defined as an excessive accumulation of body fat that presents a risk to health. Clinically, it is often measured by **Body Mass Index (BMI)** — a BMI of **30 or above** is considered obese.

Although obesity is primarily a **medical condition**, it is increasingly studied within psychopathology due to its **behavioral**, **psychological**, **and emotional components**, particularly its comorbidity with **binge-eating disorder**, **depression**, and **low self-esteem**.

Q Causes of Obesity

Obesity results from a complex interplay of **biological**, **psychological**, **social**, and **environmental** factors. It is **not simply a matter of willpower or eating habits**.

- ♦ 1. Biological Causes
 - **Genetic predisposition**: Family history influences body weight regulation.

- Neuroendocrine abnormalities:
 - Leptin resistance (hormone that signals fullness)
 - Insulin dysregulation
- **Brain reward pathways**: Individuals may overeat due to heightened response to food stimuli (dopaminergic reward system).

♦ 2. Psychological Causes

- **Emotional eating**: Individuals eat in response to stress, anxiety, boredom, or sadness rather than hunger.
- Body image dissatisfaction: Leads to disordered eating patterns and repeated dieting failures.
- Learned behavior: Eating becomes a habitual coping strategy.

3. Behavioral and Lifestyle Factors

- Sedentary lifestyle: Lack of physical activity due to modern conveniences.
- **Irregular eating habits**: Skipping meals, overeating at night, frequent consumption of processed food.
- Sleep deprivation: Disrupts hunger hormones like ghrelin and leptin.

- Lower socioeconomic status: Linked to limited access to healthy foods or safe exercise spaces.
- Marketing of high-calorie foods: Overexposure to fast food and sugary drinks.
- **Cultural norms**: Some cultures associate weight with health or prosperity.

☐ Treatment of Obesity

There is **no single solution** to obesity. Treatment requires **multilevel intervention**, including medical, psychological, and lifestyle-based strategies.

- - Combination of dietary control, physical activity, and self-monitoring.
 - Focus on sustainable lifestyle changes.

• Often includes **goal setting**, **problem-solving**, and **relapse prevention**.

♦ 2. Psychological Interventions

Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT):

- Identifies and modifies dysfunctional thoughts about food, body image, and self-worth.
- Reduces emotional eating and improves coping skills.

Motivational Interviewing (MI):

- Enhances motivation for change.
- Used especially for individuals ambivalent about losing weight.
- Mindfulness-Based Eating Awareness Training (MB-EAT):
 - Encourages non-judgmental awareness of hunger, fullness, and emotional cues.

- Pharmacological interventions (e.g., orlistat, GLP-1 receptor agonists like liraglutide).
- **Medical supervision** may be necessary for individuals with obesity-related complications.

♦ 4. Surgical Treatments

- **Bariatric surgery** (e.g., gastric bypass, sleeve gastrectomy) is an option for severe obesity.
- Typically recommended when:
 - \circ BMI > 40, or
 - o BMI > 35 with comorbidities (e.g., diabetes, hypertension)
- Must be combined with lifestyle changes and psychological support for long-term success.

☐ Summary Table: Obesity – Causes and Treatments

Category	Causes	Treatments
Biological	, ·	Medication, lifestyle changes, bariatric surgery

Category	Causes	Treatments
IPSVCDOIOGICAL	•	CBT, MI, mindfulness-based interventions
liBenavioral	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Behavioral programs, physical activity routines
Social/Environmental		Community programs, education, food policy changes

SLEEP-WAKE DISORDERS

★ Definition

Sleep-Wake Disorders are a group of conditions characterized by disturbances in sleep patterns that lead to distress and impairment in daily functioning. These disorders may affect the **quality**, **timing**, and **amount of sleep**, impacting physical health, mood regulation, cognition, and behavior.

- ☐ Types of Sleep-Wake Disorders
- - Most common sleep disorder.
 - Difficulty falling asleep, staying asleep, or waking too early and not being able to return to sleep.
 - Occurs despite adequate opportunity to sleep and causes significant distress or impairment.

Often associated with anxiety, depression, and stress-related disorders.

♦ 2. Hypersomnolence Disorder

- Excessive daytime sleepiness despite a main sleep period lasting at least 7 hours.
- Repeated sleep episodes during the day (e.g., napping) that are unrefreshing.

May be mistaken for laziness or fatigue.

♦ 3. Narcolepsy

- Irresistible attacks of sleep occurring during waking hours.
- Often includes **cataplexy** (sudden loss of muscle tone), **hypnagogic hallucinations**, and **sleep paralysis**.
- Linked to abnormal REM sleep regulation and hypocretin (orexin) deficiency in the brain.

Includes several conditions where **breathing disruptions** interrupt sleep:

Disorder	Description
Unstructive Sieen Annea	Repeated episodes of blocked airway due to throat muscle collapse
Central Sleep Apnea	Brain fails to send proper signals to breathing muscles
II	Shallow breathing during sleep, often seen in obesity or lung disorders

These disorders can cause loud snoring, gasping, and daytime fatigue.

- - Mismatch between **internal biological clock** and **external environment** (e.g., night shifts, jet lag).
 - Subtypes include:
 - Delayed sleep phase (falling asleep late)
 - Shift work type
 - o Irregular sleep-wake rhythm

☐ Causes of Sleep-Wake Disorders

Category	Examples
Biological	Brainwave abnormalities, neurotransmitter imbalances
Psychological	Anxiety, stress, depression, hyperarousal
Behavioral	Poor sleep hygiene, substance use, irregular schedules
Environmental	Noise, light, temperature, screen exposure

Treatment Approaches

- 1. Cognitive Behavioral Therapy for Insomnia (CBT-I)
 - Gold standard non-pharmacological treatment
 - Includes:
 - Stimulus control (associating bed with sleep only)
 - Sleep restriction
 - Cognitive restructuring
 - Relaxation training

2. Pharmacotherapy

- Short-term use of sleep aids:
 - Benzodiazepines or Z-drugs (zolpidem)
 - Melatonin for circadian disorders
- Careful monitoring due to risk of dependence and tolerance

3. Lifestyle Modifications

- Sleep hygiene education (consistent bedtime, avoiding caffeine/blue light)
- Physical activity and relaxation before bed

4. Medical Treatments

- CPAP (Continuous Positive Airway Pressure) for sleep apnea
- Treating underlying medical or psychiatric conditions

□ □ Prevention Strategies

- · Healthy sleep routines from early life
- Stress management and regular exercise

 Monitoring and early intervention for sleep difficulties in at-risk groups (e.g., adolescents, shift workers)

□ Summary Table

Disorder	Key Feature	Primary Treatment
Insomnia	Difficulty falling/staying asleep	CBT-I, short-term medication
Hypersomnolence	Excessive sleepiness despite full night sleep	Sleep hygiene, scheduled naps
Narcolepsy	Sudden sleep attacks, cataplexy	Stimulants, scheduled naps
Obstructive Sleep Apnea	Breathing stops during sleep	CPAP, weight management
Circadian Rhythm Disorders	Misaligned sleep timing	Light therapy, melatonin, schedule shifts

→ MAJOR DYSSOMNIAS

Definition

Dyssomnias are a category of **Sleep-Wake Disorders** characterized by **disruptions in the amount, quality, or timing of sleep**. They differ from **parasomnias**, which involve abnormal behaviors or experiences during sleep (e.g., sleepwalking).

¶ Major Dyssomnias and Their Features

Disorder	Core Feature	Common Effects
Insomnia Disorder	istaving asleen, or waking	Fatigue, irritability, poor concentration
Hypersomnolence	Excessive daytime	Sleep inertia, unrefreshing

Disorder	Core Feature	Common Effects
Disorder	sleepiness despite adequate night sleep	naps, mental fog
Narcolepsy	sleep attacks during	May include cataplexy, sleep paralysis, hallucinations
Breathing-Related Sleep Disorders	lannormal preaming (e.g.	Loud snoring, gasping, daytime drowsiness
Circadian Rhythm Sleep- Wake Disorders	Misalignment of internal clock with environment	Insomnia or excessive sleepiness at wrong times

☐ Diagnostic Focus

To be diagnosed with a dyssomnia:

- The sleep disturbance must last at least 3 times per week for 3 months or more (DSM-5 criteria).
- It must cause **clinically significant distress or impairment** in social, occupational, or other areas of functioning.

□ Key Assessment Tools

- Polysomnography (sleep study)
- Sleep diaries
- Actigraphy (movement-based sleep tracking)
- Clinical interviews/questionnaires (e.g., Epworth Sleepiness Scale)

□ Treatment Overview

Disorder	First-line Treatment
Insomnia	CBT-I, sleep hygiene education
Hypersomnolence	Scheduled naps, stimulant medication
Narcolepsy	Modafinil, sodium oxybate, behavioral scheduling

Disorder	First-line Treatment
Sleep apnea	CPAP, weight loss, dental appliances
Circadian Disorders	Bright light therapy, melatonin, consistent routines

) INSOMNIA DISORDER

★ Definition

Insomnia Disorder is a dyssomnia characterized by persistent difficulty with sleep initiation, sleep maintenance, or early-morning awakening, despite adequate opportunity for sleep. It causes significant distress or impairment in daytime functioning.

Q Core Symptoms

- Difficulty falling asleep (sleep onset insomnia)
- Trouble staying asleep (sleep maintenance insomnia)
- Waking too early and being unable to return to sleep
- Fatigue, irritability, and poor concentration during the day

These symptoms must occur at least 3 nights per week for a minimum of 3 months.

□ Causes of Insomnia

Category	Examples
Biological	Hyperarousal of the central nervous system, cortisol elevation
Psychological	Stress, anxiety, depression, perfectionism
Behavioral	Poor sleep hygiene, excessive screen time, irregular routines
Environmental	Noise, light, caffeine, uncomfortable sleep settings

- □ Assessment Tools
 - Sleep diaries
 - Polysomnography (for complex or comorbid cases)
 - Actigraphy (sleep-wake tracking via movement)
 - Clinical interviews and questionnaires
- Treatment Approaches
- ₱ 1. Cognitive Behavioral Therapy for Insomnia (CBT-I)
- ✓ Most effective, first-line, non-pharmacological treatment Includes:
 - Sleep restriction therapy
 - Stimulus control (bed only for sleep/sex)
 - Cognitive restructuring
 - Relaxation training
- *♦* 2. Pharmacological Options (short-term only)
 - Benzodiazepines (e.g., temazepam)
 - Non-benzodiazepine sedatives (e.g., zolpidem)
 - Melatonin or melatonin receptor agonists
- ☐ Use with caution due to risk of dependence or rebound insomnia
- □ □ Prevention and Sleep Hygiene Tips
 - Maintain a regular sleep schedule
 - Avoid caffeine and screens close to bedtime
 - Create a quiet, dark, and cool sleep environment
 - Use the bed only for sleep and intimacy
- □ Summary Table

Feature	Details
Frequency & Duration	≥ 3 nights/week for ≥ 3 months
Daytime Impact	Fatigue, low focus, mood disturbance

Feature	Details
Common Comorbidities	Anxiety, depression, chronic stress
Best Treatment	CBT-I (gold standard), short-term sleep medications

Hypersomnolence Disorder

★ Definition

Hypersomnolence Disorder is characterized by **excessive sleepiness** despite a main sleep period of at least **7 hours**. Individuals may sleep longer than normal, experience frequent **daytime sleep episodes**, and still feel **unrefreshed** upon waking.

It differs from normal fatigue or poor sleep hygiene in that the **sleep drive is** unusually strong, and the excessive sleepiness significantly impairs daily functioning.

Q Core Diagnostic Features (DSM-5)

- Recurrent periods of **sleep or lapses into sleep** within the same day (e.g., during work or conversations).
- A main sleep period longer than 9 hours that is nonrestorative.
- Difficulty being fully awake after abrupt awakening (sleep inertia).
- Occurs at least 3 times per week, for at least 3 months.
- Not better explained by another sleep disorder (e.g., narcolepsy, breathingrelated sleep disorder).

☐ Associated Features

- Memory impairment, slowed thinking, and irritability due to unrefreshing sleep.
- Can co-occur with depression, substance use, or medical conditions (e.g., hypothyroidism).
- Sleep episodes often occur in inappropriate situations, such as while driving or at work.

☐ Causes of Hypersomnolence Disorder

Domain	Examples
Biological	Genetic predisposition, abnormalities in sleep-wake regulation
Neurological	Brain injury, infections affecting the CNS, idiopathic hypersomnia
Psychiatric	Co-occurring depression or bipolar disorder
Substance- related	Sedating medications, alcohol, antihistamines

□ Assessment Tools

- Polysomnography (overnight sleep study)
- **Multiple Sleep Latency Test (MSLT)**: Measures how quickly the person falls asleep in a quiet environment during the day.
- Sleep diary and actigraphy to monitor sleep patterns.
- Rule out sleep apnea, narcolepsy, and medication effects.

Treatment Approaches

- Encouraging consistent sleep-wake routines.
- Short, scheduled naps to manage daytime sleepiness.
- Sleep hygiene education.

♦ 2. Pharmacological Treatments

- **Stimulants** (e.g., modafinil, methylphenidate, amphetamines).
- Wake-promoting agents like armodafinil.
- Dosing must be individualized and monitored for side effects or misuse.

Note: Antidepressants may be used if hypersomnolence is **secondary to depression**.

□ Summary Table

Feature	Details
Primary Symptom	Excessive daytime sleepiness despite adequate night sleep
Onset	Usually in late adolescence or early adulthood
Key Diagnostic Tool	Multiple Sleep Latency Test (MSLT)
Main Treatments	Modafinil, sleep hygiene, behavioral strategies
Associated Risks	Driving impairment, reduced productivity, misdiagnosis

NARCOLEPSY

★ Definition

Narcolepsy is a chronic neurological disorder characterized by recurrent, uncontrollable episodes of sleep during waking hours. It involves abnormalities in REM sleep regulation and is often accompanied by sudden muscle weakness and vivid dream-like experiences.

Q Core Symptoms (DSM-5 Criteria)

To diagnose **narcolepsy**, individuals must experience **recurrent periods of irrepressible need to sleep, lapsing into sleep, or napping**, occurring at least **three times per week for the past three months**, plus at least **one** of the following:

♦ 1. Cataplexy

- Sudden, brief loss of muscle tone triggered by strong emotions (e.g., laughter, anger, surprise)
- The person remains **conscious** during the episode

- Confirmed via cerebrospinal fluid analysis
- Hypocretin is a neuropeptide that regulates arousal and wakefulness

- Shortened **REM latency** (i.e., entering REM within 15 minutes of sleep onset)
- Confirmed through polysomnography and Multiple Sleep Latency Test (MSLT)

□ Additional Features

Symptom	Description	
Sleep paralysis	Temporary inability to move or speak when falling asleep or waking	
Hypnagogic hallucinations	Vivid, dream-like experiences while falling asleep	
Disrupted nighttime sleep	Frequent awakenings despite daytime sleepiness	

□ Onset and Course

- Typically begins in late adolescence or early adulthood
- Often misdiagnosed as depression, epilepsy, or chronic fatigue
- Narcolepsy is life-long but symptoms may improve with age

☐ Causes and Pathophysiology

Domain	Key Insights
Neurological	Dysfunction of the hypothalamus and loss of hypocretin neurons
Genetic	Strong association with HLA-DQB1*06:02 gene
Autoimmiine	Believed to involve autoimmune destruction of hypocretin-producing cells

☐ Assessment and Diagnosis

- Polysomnography (PSG): Overnight sleep study
- Multiple Sleep Latency Test (MSLT): Measures speed of falling asleep and REM onset

• **CSF hypocretin testing** (optional but definitive)

Treatment Approaches

♦ 1. Medications

Symptom Targeted	Drug
Daytime sleepiness	Modafinil, armodafinil, amphetamines
Cataplexy	Sodium oxybate (Xyrem), antidepressants (SSRIs/SNRIs)
Sleep fragmentation	Sodium oxybate

♦ 2. Behavioral Management

- **Scheduled naps** (15–20 minutes) at regular intervals
- Maintain consistent sleep-wake schedule
- **Safety precautions**: Avoid driving or operating machinery without medical clearance

$\hfill \square$ Summary Table: Narcolepsy

Feature	Details
Main Symptom	Sudden sleep attacks during the day
Common Co-symptoms	Cataplexy, sleep paralysis, hypnagogic hallucinations
Underlying Cause	Loss of hypocretin-producing neurons in the hypothalamus
Diagnostic Tools	MSLT, PSG, CSF hypocretin analysis
Treatment	Stimulants, antidepressants, sodium oxybate

™ ■ BREATHING-RELATED SLEEP DISORDERS

★ Definition

Breathing-related sleep disorders are a group of dyssomnias involving **disrupted breathing during sleep**, which leads to repeated awakenings, poor sleep quality, and **excessive daytime sleepiness**. These conditions impair cognitive performance, mood, and physical health if left untreated.

Q Types of Breathing-Related Sleep Disorders

- 1. Obstructive Sleep Apnea Hypopnea (OSA)
 - Most common form
 - Caused by repeated blockage of the upper airway during sleep
 - Results in **loud snoring**, gasping, or choking sounds
 - Oxygen levels drop, triggering brief awakenings (apneas = full stoppage, hypopneas = partial reduction in airflow)
- 2. Central Sleep Apnea (CSA)
 - Caused by dysfunction in brain's respiratory control centers
 - Brain temporarily stops sending signals to breathing muscles
 - Less associated with snoring; often co-occurs with heart failure or neurological disorders

3. Sleep-Related Hypoventilation

- Breathing becomes too shallow or slow during sleep
- Often related to obesity, neuromuscular disorders, or medication use (e.g., opioids)
- Leads to elevated carbon dioxide levels (hypercapnia) and reduced oxygen saturation

□ Symptoms

- Loud snoring (in OSA)
- Pauses in breathing during sleep (often reported by partners)
- Daytime sleepiness, fatigue, morning headaches

- Dry mouth or sore throat upon waking
- Poor attention, irritability, or mood disturbances

□ Causes and Risk Factors

Category	Examples
Physical	Enlarged tonsils, obesity, craniofacial abnormalities
Neurological	Brainstem dysfunction (CSA)
Lifestyle	Alcohol use, sedatives, smoking
Medical	Heart failure, hypothyroidism, neuromuscular conditions

☐ Assessment and Diagnosis

- Polysomnography (PSG) is the gold standard
 Measures: airflow, oxygen levels, brain waves, breathing effort
- Home Sleep Apnea Testing (HSAT) for simpler OSA cases
- Oximetry and capnography may help in detecting hypoventilation

Treatment Options

- ♦ 1. Continuous Positive Airway Pressure (CPAP)
 - Delivers **pressurized air** through a mask to keep airway open
 - First-line treatment for moderate to severe OSA
- ♦ 2. Bi-level Positive Airway Pressure (BiPAP)
 - Offers different pressures for inhaling and exhaling
 - Used for CSA or hypoventilation
- ♦ 3. Oral Appliances
 - Dental devices that move the jaw or tongue forward
 - Effective in mild OSA
- 4. Surgical Options
 - Uvulopalatopharyngoplasty (UPPP), tonsil removal, or jaw surgery

- Considered when CPAP fails
- ♦ 5. Lifestyle Modifications
 - Weight loss, reducing alcohol intake, changing sleep posture (e.g., sidesleeping)

□ Summary Table

Disorder	Cause	Treatment
Obstructive Sleep Apnea (OSA)	Throat muscle collapse	CPAP, oral devices, surgery
Central Sleep Apnea (CSA)		BiPAP, address underlying issue
Sleep-Related Hypoventilation	Shallow breathing	Ventilatory support, weight loss

(1) CIRCADIAN RHYTHM SLEEP-WAKE DISORDERS

★ Definition

Circadian Rhythm Sleep-Wake Disorders are characterized by a misalignment between a person's internal biological clock (circadian rhythm) and the external environment (light-dark cycle or social schedule). This leads to insomnia, excessive daytime sleepiness, or both.

- ☐ What is the Circadian Rhythm?
 - A natural **24-hour biological cycle** regulating sleep, wakefulness, hormone release, and body temperature.
 - Controlled by the **suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN)** in the hypothalamus.
 - Synchronized primarily by light exposure but also influenced by social cues, meals, and activity.

☐ Core Symptoms

- Difficulty falling asleep or waking up at the desired time
- Excessive daytime sleepiness
- Fragmented or non-restorative sleep
- Normal sleep **architecture** when allowed to sleep on personal schedule (e.g., weekends, vacations)

☐ Types of Circadian Rhythm Sleep-Wake Disorders

Туре	Description
Delayed Sleep Phase Type	Sleep and wake times are significantly later than desired (common in teens)
Advanced Sleep Phase Type	Sleep and wake times are earlier than desired (more common in older adults)
Irregular Sleep-Wake Type	No consistent sleep pattern; sleep spread in fragments across 24 hours
Non-24-Hour Sleep- Wake Type	Circadian rhythm runs longer than 24 hours (often seen in blind individuals)
Shift Work Type	Caused by working night shifts or rotating schedules
Jet Lag Type (not in DSM-5)	Temporary misalignment due to rapid time zone travel

☐ Causes and Risk Factors

Domain	Examples	
Biological	Genetic predisposition, delayed melatonin release	
Environmental	Artificial light exposure at night, inconsistent routines	
Occupational	Night shifts, rotating schedules	
Sensory	Blindness (inability to perceive light cues for SCN regulation)	

□ Assessment and Diagnosis

- Sleep diaries over 1–2 weeks
- Actigraphy: wearable sleep-wake monitor
- Polysomnography if other sleep disorders are suspected
- Clinical interview focusing on daily routine, work/school demands, and light exposure

Treatment Approaches

- ♦ 1. Chronotherapy
 - Gradually shifting sleep-wake time closer to the desired schedule
- ♦ 2. Light Therapy (Phototherapy)
 - Exposure to **bright light** (10,000 lux) at specific times:
 - Morning for delayed sleep phase
 - Evening for advanced sleep phase
 - Helps reset circadian rhythm
- ♦ 3. Melatonin Supplementation
 - Taken 1–2 hours before desired bedtime for delayed sleep phase
 - Helps shift the biological clock
- ♦ 4. Sleep Hygiene and Behavioral Support
 - · Consistent sleep-wake routine
 - Avoid screens before bedtime
 - Reduce caffeine and alcohol

□ Summary Table

Туре	Key Feature	Treatment
Delayed Sleep Phase	Can't fall asleep until very late	Light therapy, melatonin
Advanced Sleep Phase	Falls asleep/wakes too early	Light exposure in evening
Irregular Sleep-Wake	No clear sleep pattern	Structured routine,

Туре	Key Feature	Treatment
		melatonin
Non-24-Hour	Sleep time gradually shifts each day	Melatonin, strict routines
IShiff Work		Nap scheduling, light control

→ □ TREATMENT AND PREVENTION OF CIRCADIAN RHYTHM SLEEP-WAKE DISORDERS

Treatment Approaches

Effective treatment for Circadian Rhythm Sleep-Wake Disorders focuses on realigning the internal biological clock with external time cues and improving daytime functioning.

♦ 1. Chronotherapy

- A gradual adjustment of sleep and wake times by 15–30 minutes daily
- Especially useful for **Delayed Sleep Phase Disorder**
- Requires high consistency and supervision

† 2. Light Therapy (Phototherapy)

- Exposure to **bright light** (10,000 lux) at appropriate times
- Used to advance or delay sleep-wake timing
- Morning light for delayed phase; evening light for advanced phase
- Enhances alertness and shifts circadian rhythm

♦ 3. Melatonin Supplementation

- Low-dose **melatonin** taken 1–2 hours before desired sleep time
- Most effective in delayed sleep phase and non-24-hour types

- Supports circadian rhythm entrainment
- - Maintain **consistent sleep/wake times**, even on weekends
 - Avoid screens, caffeine, and heavy meals before bedtime
 - Limit napping during the day
 - Use the bed only for sleep and intimacy
- - Especially helpful in irregular and shift work disorders
 - Reinforces regularity through external routine cues
- ♦ 6. Behavioral Therapy
 - Cognitive Behavioral Therapy for Insomnia (CBT-I) can be used alongside
 - Address thoughts, behaviors, and routines that interfere with proper sleep

□ Prevention Strategies

Strategy	Goal
Consistent routines	Helps maintain circadian alignment
Controlled light exposure	Supports natural biological timing
Preparing for shift work or travel	Gradually adjust sleep times in advance
Education on sleep hygiene	Increases awareness and personal responsibility
Limiting social jet lag	Encouraging similar wake times on weekends