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abnormal
psychology

third edition



abnormal psychology third edition

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To our parents

Anthony and Jean Casamassa

Frank and Marie Bulik

Pat and Bob Stanley

Thank you for teaching us the value of education
and for providing the love and encouragement
that allowed us to achieve our dreams.

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brief contents

- 1** Abnormal Psychology: Historical and Modern Perspectives 1
- 2** Research Methods in Abnormal Psychology 38
- 3** Assessment and Diagnosis 74
- 4** Anxiety, Obsessive-Compulsive, and Trauma- and Stressor-Related Disorders 110
- 5** Somatic Symptom, Dissociative, and Factitious Disorders 161
- 6** Bipolar and Depressive Disorders 193
- 7** Feeding and Eating Disorders 233
- 8** Gender Dysphoria, Sexual Dysfunctions, and Paraphilic Disorders 271
- 9** Substance-Related and Addictive Disorders 315
- 10** Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders 355
- 11** Personality Disorders 389
- 12** Neurodevelopmental, Disruptive, Conduct, and Elimination Disorders 426
- 13** Aging and Neurocognitive Disorders 462
- 14** Health Psychology 499
- 15** Abnormal Psychology: Legal and Ethical Issues 530

contents

Preface x

About the Authors xv

1 Abnormal Psychology: Historical and Modern Perspectives 1

Normal vs. Abnormal Behavior 3

Is Being Different Abnormal? 3

Is Behaving Deviantly (Differently) Abnormal? 4

REAL people REAL disorders

James Eagan Holmes 6

Is Behaving Dangerously Abnormal? 6

Is Behaving Dysfunctionally Abnormal? 7

A Definition of Abnormal Behavior 8

research HOT topic

Categorical vs. Dimensional Approaches to Abnormal Behavior 9

The History of Abnormal Behavior and Its Treatment 12

Ancient Theories 12

Classical Greek and Roman Periods 12

The Middle Ages Through the Renaissance 13

The Nineteenth Century and the Beginning of Modern Thought 14

examining the EVIDENCE

Modern Witchcraft, Demons, and Alien Abductions 15

examining the EVIDENCE

Modern-Day Mass Hysteria 16

The Twentieth Century 18

Ethics and Responsibility 21

Current Views of Abnormal Behavior and Treatment 22

Biological Models 23

Psychological Models 25

Sociocultural Models 30

The Biopsychosocial Model 32

real SCIENCE real LIFE

Marcie—How One Disorder Might Have Been

Understood and Treated Throughout the Ages 34

summary 35 key terms 36 test yourself 36

2 Research Methods in Abnormal Psychology 38

Ethics and Responsibility 40

Research in Abnormal Psychology at the Cellular Level 40

Neuroanatomy 41

REAL people REAL disorders

Henry Gustav Molaison (H.M.) 43

Neurohormones and Neurotransmitters 45

Neuroimaging 46

Genetics 47

Family, Twin, and Adoption Studies 49

Research in Abnormal Psychology at the Individual Level 52

The Case Study 52

Single-Case Designs 54

Ethics and Responsibility 56

Research in Abnormal Psychology at the Group Level 56

Correlational Methods 57

Controlled Group Designs 59

Improvement of Diversity in Group-Based Research 62

Cross-Sectional and Longitudinal Cohorts 63

research HOT topic

National Comorbidity Survey Replication (NCS-R) 66

Research in Abnormal Psychology at the Population Level 67

Epidemiology 67

Epidemiological Research Designs 67

examining the EVIDENCE

Can Obesity Be Prevented in Children? 68

real SCIENCE real LIFE

Susan—A Participant in a Randomized Controlled Trial 69

summary 70 key terms 71 test yourself 72

3 Assessment and Diagnosis 74

Clinical Assessment 75

Goals of Assessment 76

REAL people REAL disorders

Cases of Misdiagnosis 78

Properties of Assessment Instruments 79

Developmental and Cultural Considerations 82

Ethics and Responsibility 83

Assessment Instruments 84

Clinical Interviews 84

Psychological Tests 85

examining the EVIDENCE

The Rorschach Inkblot Test 88

Behavioral Assessment 93

Psychophysiological Assessment 96

research HOT topic

Oxytocin and “Mind Reading” 98

Diagnosis and Classification 98

History of Classification of Abnormal Behaviors 99
 Comorbidity 100
 How Do Developmental and Cultural Factors Affect
 Diagnosis? 101
 When Is a Diagnostic System Harmful? 101
 Dimensional Systems as an Alternative to DSM
 Classification 103
research HOT topic
 Too Many Disorders? 104
real SCIENCE real LIFE
 Libby—Assessment in a Clinical Research Study 105
 summary 107 key terms 107 test yourself 108

4 Anxiety, Obsessive-Compulsive, and Trauma- and Stressor-Related Disorders 110

What Is Anxiety? 111

The Fight-or-Flight Response 112
 The Elements of Anxiety 112
 How “Normal” Anxiety Differs from Abnormal Anxiety 115

What Are the Anxiety Disorders? 117

Panic Attacks 117
 Panic Disorder 118
 Agoraphobia 119
 Generalized Anxiety Disorder 121
 Selective Mutism 125

REAL people REAL disorders

A Story of Social Anxiety Disorder 125
 Specific Phobia 126
 Separation Anxiety Disorder 130

What Are the Obsessive-Compulsive and Related Disorders? 131

Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder 131

examining the EVIDENCE

Is Trichotillomania a Variant of OCD? 134
 Body Dysmorphic Disorder 134
 Hoarding Disorder 136
 Tricotillomania (Hair Pulling Disorder) 136
 Excoriation (Skin-Picking) Disorder 137

What Are the Trauma- and Stressor- Related Disorders? 137

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder 138

research HOT topic

9/11—Trauma, Grief, PTSD, and Resilience 142

The Etiology of Anxiety, OCD, and Trauma- and Stressor-Related Disorders 143

Biological Perspective 144
 Psychological Perspective 148

The Treatment of Anxiety, OCD, and Trauma- and Stressor-Related Disorders 151

Biological Treatments 152
 Psychological Treatments 154
research HOT topic
 Virtual Reality Therapy 155
 Ethics and Responsibility 156
real SCIENCE real LIFE
 Steve—The Psychopathology and Treatment
 of Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder 157
 summary 158 key terms 158 test yourself 159

5 Somatic Symptom, Dissociative, and Factitious Disorders 161

Somatic Symptom and Related Disorders 163

Somatic Symptom Disorder 163
 Conversion Disorder (Functional Neurological
 Symptom Disorder) 163
 Illness Anxiety Disorder 166
 Factitious Disorder 167
 Functional Impairment 170
 Ethics and Responsibility 171

research HOT topic

The Challenge of Chronic Fatigue Syndrome 172
 Epidemiology 172
 Sex, Race, and Ethnicity 172
 Developmental Factors 173
 Etiology 173

examining the EVIDENCE

Is Childhood Sexual Abuse Associated
 with Somatoform Disorders? 174
 Treatment 176

Dissociative Disorders 177

Dissociative Amnesia 178
 Dissociative Identity Disorder 178
 Depersonalization/Derealization Disorder 181
 Functional Impairment 181
 Epidemiology 181
 Sex, Race, and Ethnicity 182
 Developmental Factors 182
 Etiology 182

examining the EVIDENCE

Can Therapy Cause Dissociative Identity Disorder? 186
 Ethics and Responsibility 186
 Treatment 187

Malingering 187

REAL people REAL disorders

The Piano Man—Dissociative Disorder, Factitious
 Disorder, or Malingering? 188

real SCIENCE, real LIFE

Nancy—A Case of Conversion Disorder 189
 summary 190 key terms 190 test yourself 191

6 Bipolar and Depressive Disorders 193

What Are Bipolar and Depressive Disorders? 195

Bipolar and Related Disorders 195

Bipolar Disorder 195

Epidemiology 198

Sex, Race, and Ethnicity 199

examining the EVIDENCE

Is There a Link Between Art and Madness? 200

Developmental Factors in Bipolar Disorder 200

Comorbidity 201

Depressive Disorders 201

Major Depressive Disorder 201

Persistent Depressive Disorder (Dysthymia) 202

Disruptive Mood Dysregulation Disorder 204

Premenstrual Dysphoric Disorder 205

Major Depressive Disorder with Peripartum Onset 205

Epidemiology 206

Sex, Race, and Ethnicity 206

Developmental Factors 207

Comorbidity 208

Suicide 208

Suicidal Ideation, Suicide Attempts, and Completed Suicide 209

Who Commits Suicide? 209

Ethics and Responsibility 210

Risk Factors for Suicide 211

Understanding Suicide 211

REAL people REAL disorders

The Heritability of Suicide—The Hemingway and van Gogh Families 212

Prevention of Suicide 212

Treatment After Suicide Attempts 213

The Etiology of Bipolar and Depressive Disorders 214

Biological Perspective 214

Psychological Perspective 217

research HOT topic

The Interaction Between Genes and Environment 218

The Treatment of Bipolar and Depressive Disorders 222

Bipolar Disorder 222

Depressive Disorders 224

Selecting a Treatment 229

real SCIENCE real LIFE

Latisha—Treatment of Major Depressive Disorder with Peripartum Onset 230

summary 231 key terms 231 test yourself 231

7 Feeding and Eating Disorders 233

Anorexia Nervosa 235

Epidemiology and Course of Anorexia Nervosa 237

Personality and Anorexia Nervosa 238

REAL people REAL disorders

Karen Carpenter—The Dangers of Syrup of Ipecac 239

Comorbidity and Anorexia Nervosa 239

Bulimia Nervosa 240

Epidemiology and Course of Bulimia Nervosa 242

Personality and Bulimia Nervosa 243

Comorbidity and Bulimia Nervosa 243

REAL people REAL disorders

Elton John—Bulimia Nervosa and Drug and Alcohol Abuse 244

REAL people REAL disorders

Princess Diana—Bulimia Nervosa and Depression 244

Binge Eating Disorder 245

Epidemiology and Course of BED 245

REAL people REAL disorders

Monica Seles—Tennis and Binge Eating Disorder Don't Mix 246

Personality and BED 246

Comorbidity and BED 247

Other Specified Feeding and Eating Disorders 247

Feeding and Eating Disorders of Childhood 249

Sex, Race, Ethnicity, and Developmental Factors 251

Eating Disorders in Females and Males 251

Race, Ethnicity, and Eating Disorders 252

Developmental Factors in Eating Disorders 253

The Etiology of Eating Disorders 254

Biological Perspectives 254

research HOT topic

Do Animals Binge? 255

examining the EVIDENCE

Genes or Environment in Anorexia Nervosa? 258

Psychological Perspectives 259

The Treatment for Eating Disorders 261

Inpatient Treatment for Anorexia Nervosa 262

Ethics and Responsibility 262

Biological Treatments for Eating Disorders 263

Nutritional Counseling 263

Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy 263

Interpersonal Psychotherapy 265

Family-Based Interventions 266

real SCIENCE real LIFE

Lisa—Detection and Treatment of Anorexia Nervosa in a Student Athlete 267

summary 268 key terms 268 test yourself 269

8 Gender Dysphoria, Sexual Dysfunctions, and Paraphilic Disorders 271

Human Sexuality 273

Sexual Functioning 273

Sex Differences in Sexual Response 274

Understanding Sexual Behavior 274

research HOT topic

The Internet and Cybersex 277

Gender Dysphoria 278

Functional Impairment 280

Sex, Race, and Ethnicity 281

REAL people REAL disorders

Chaz Bono—Transition in the Spotlight 281

Etiology 282

Ethics and Responsibility 283

Treatment 284

Sexual Dysfunctions 285

Sexual Interest/Desire Disorders 286

research HOT topic

Sexual Addiction and Hypersexual Disorder 287

Orgasmic Disorders 288

Genito-pelvic pain/penetration disorder 291

Subtypes 292

Functional Impairment 292

Epidemiology 293

Sex, Race, and Ethnicity 294

Developmental Factors 295

Etiology 295

Treatment 296

examining the EVIDENCE

Viagra for Female Sexual Arousal Disorder 298

Paraphilic Disorders 299

Paraphilic Disorders Based on Anomalous Target Preferences 300

Paraphilic Dysfunctions Based on Anomalous Activity Preferences 303

Functional Impairment 305

Sex, Race, and Ethnicity 306

Developmental Factors 306

Etiology 307

Treatment 307

real SCIENCE real LIFE

Michael—Treatment of Sexual Dysfunction 311

summary 311 key terms 312 test yourself 312

9 Substance-Related and Addictive Disorders 315

Substance-Related Disorders 316

Commonly Used “Licit” Drugs 319

Caffeine 319

Nicotine 321

Alcohol 323

Illicit Drugs 325

Marijuana 325

research HOT topic

Medical Uses of Marijuana 327

CNS Stimulants 328

Cocaine 329

Sedative Drugs 330

Opioids 332

REAL people REAL disorders

Amy Winehouse—A Tragic End to a Life of Substance Abuse 333

LSD and Natural Hallucinogens 334

Inhalants 334

Non-Substance-Related Disorders 335

Sex, Ethnicity, Education, and Illicit Drug Use 336

Etiology of Substance-Related Disorders 337

Biological Factors 337

Psychological Factors 339

Sociocultural, Family, and Environmental Factors 341

Developmental Factors 341

Treatment of Substance Abuse and Dependence 342

Therapies Based on Cognitive and Behavioral Principles 343

Ethics and Responsibility 347

Biological Treatments 347

examining the EVIDENCE

Controlled Drinking? 349

Sex and Racial/Ethnic Differences in Treatment 350

real SCIENCE real LIFE

Gloria—Treating Poly-Substance Abuse 351

summary 352 key terms 352 test yourself 353

10 Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders 355

Psychotic Disorders 356

What Is Psychosis? 356

What Is Schizophrenia? 357

Schizophrenia in Depth 359

REAL people REAL disorders

Elyn Saks—The Center Cannot Hold 363

Functional Impairment 365

Ethics and Responsibility 366

Epidemiology 367

Sex, Race, and Ethnicity 367

Ethics and Responsibility 368

Developmental Factors 369

Other Psychotic Disorders 370

REAL people REAL disorders

Andrea Yates—Postpartum Mood Disorder with Psychotic Features 371

Etiology of Schizophrenia 373

Biological Factors 374

examining the EVIDENCE

Genetics and Environment in the Development of Schizophrenia 376

Family Influences 378

Treatment of Schizophrenia and Other Psychotic Disorders 381

Pharmacological Treatment 381

Psychosocial Treatment 383

research **HOT** topic

Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation 384

real **SCIENCE** real **LIFE**

Kerry—Treating Schizophrenia 385

summary 386 key terms 387 test yourself 387

11 Personality Disorders 389

Personality Trait Versus Personality Disorder 390

Personality Disorder Clusters 393

Cluster A: Odd or Eccentric Disorders 394

Cluster B: Dramatic, Emotional, or Erratic Disorders 398

REAL people REAL disorders

Jeffrey Dahmer—Antisocial Personality Disorder 401

Ethics and Responsibility 405

Cluster C: Anxious or Fearful Disorders 405

examining the **EVIDENCE**

Social Anxiety Disorder Versus Avoidant Personality Disorder 407

Other Personality Disorder Models 410

Developmental Factors and Personality Disorders 411

Comorbidity and Functional Impairment 412

Epidemiology 413

Sex, Race, and Ethnicity 413

The Etiology of Personality Disorders 414

Biological Perspectives 414

research **HOT** topic

Tracking Temperament from Childhood into Adulthood 415

Psychological and Sociocultural Perspectives 417

Treatment of Personality Disorders 419

real **SCIENCE** real **LIFE**

Robin—Life Transitions and Borderline Personality Disorder 421

summary 423 key terms 423 test yourself 424

12 Neurodevelopmental, Disruptive, Conduct, and Elimination Disorders 426

Intellectual Disability (Intellectual Developmental Disorder) 428

Functional Impairment 429

Etiology 430

Treatment 434

Specific Learning Disorders 435

Functional Impairment 437

Etiology 437

Treatment 438

Ethics and Responsibility 439

Autism Spectrum Disorder 439

Functional Impairment 441

REAL people REAL disorders

Temple Grandin, Ph.D.—Autism Spectrum Disorder 442

Etiology 442

examining the **EVIDENCE**

Vaccines Do Not Produce Autism Spectrum Disorder 443

Ethics and Responsibility 444

Treatment 444

Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder 446

Functional Impairment 447

Etiology 449

Treatment 449

Conduct Disorder and Oppositional Defiant Disorder 451

Functional Impairment 453

Etiology 454

Treatment 454

research **HOT** topic

Psychiatric Medication Use in Children 455

Elimination Disorders 455

real **SCIENCE** real **LIFE**

Danny—The Treatment of Social Anxiety Disorder and Autism Spectrum Disorder 458

summary 459 key terms 460 test yourself 460

13 Aging and Neurocognitive Disorders 462

Symptoms and Disorders of Aging 463

Geropsychology as a Unique Field 463

Successful Aging 465

Psychological Symptoms and Disorders Among Older People 466

Depression and Anxiety in Later Life 467

Bipolar Disorder and Major Depressive Disorder 468

Anxiety 472

Substance-Related Disorders and Psychosis in Later Life 476

Substance-Related Disorders 476

Psychosis 480

Neurocognitive Disorders 483

Delirium 483

Neurocognitive Disorders 485

REAL people REAL disorders

Pat Summitt—Decreasing the Stigma of Alzheimer's Disease 489

examining the **EVIDENCE**

What Is Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI), and Is It a Precursor of Major Neurocognitive Disorder or a Separate Syndrome? 493

real **SCIENCE** real **LIFE**

Charlotte—The Psychopathology and Treatment of Anxiety Disorder in an Older Adult 494

summary 495 key terms 496 test yourself 496

14 Health Psychology 499

Health Psychology: Defining the Field 500

The Mind-Body Relationship 501

Psychological Influences on Health 502

The Role of Stress in Physical and Mental Health 502

Defining Stress 503

Measuring Stress 504

The Impact of Stress on Health 506

Sex, Race, and Developmental Issues 510

research **HOT** topic

Religion, Stress, and Health 511

Psychology and Behavior in Medical Illness 512

Behavior and Health 512

Psychological Factors and Medical Illnesses 516

REAL people **REAL** disorders

Magic Johnson—Living With HIV 517

examining the **EVIDENCE**

Are Opioid Medications Useful or Too Risky in the Treatment of Pain? 521

Psychological Treatments for Health-Related Conditions 522

The Role of a Health Psychologist 522

Ethics and Responsibility 522

Health Psychology Interventions 523

real **SCIENCE** real **LIFE**

Sandy—Victory Over Cancer 526

summary 527 key terms 527 test yourself 528

15 Abnormal Psychology: Legal and Ethical Issues 530

Law, Ethics, and Issues of Treatment 532

Deinstitutionalization 533

Ethics and Responsibility 535

Civil Commitment 536

Criminal Commitment 537

REAL people **REAL** disorders

Kenneth Bianchi, Patty Hearst, and Dr. Martin Orne 542

Privacy, Confidentiality, and Privilege in Abnormal Psychology 543

Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) 545

Duty to Warn 546

Licensing, Malpractice Issues, and Prescription Privileges 547

Licensing 547

Malpractice 548

Prescription Privileges 549

Research and Clinical Trials 551

Rights of Participants in Research 551

Considerations with Children and Adolescents 552

Ethics and Responsibility 553

research **HOT** topic

The Use of Placebo in Clinical Research 554

Cultural Perceptions Regarding Research 554

examining the **EVIDENCE**

Children and Nontherapeutic Research 556

real **SCIENCE** real **LIFE**

Gregory Murphy—Psychiatry and the Law 558

summary 559 key terms 559 test yourself 560

Glossary 562

References 568

Credits 598

Name Index 600

Subject Index 606

preface

When the first edition was introduced, we wondered whether instructors and students would perceive the need for a new textbook, and we were pleased to find so many people who resonated with the scientist-practitioner approach. Abnormal psychology remains one of the most popular courses among undergraduate students as national and world events drive us to try to understand human behavior and the forces that shape and act on it. What factors drive someone to take a gun and shoot a member of the U.S. Congress? How could a celebrity, who seemingly has everything—wealth, family, fame—shoplift a \$50.00 item of jewelry? The answers to these questions do not come easily as we see simplistic answers such as “the measles vaccine causes autism,” a theory first accepted and now completely discredited.

The third edition of this textbook is another opportunity for students to see science in action. Prompted by the revision of the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, Fifth Edition (DSM-5), students will be exposed to the ever-changing nature of our understanding of human behavior, as research has shed new light on disorders, forced scientists and clinicians to grapple with disparate data sets and to work together to produce what is hopefully a scientific and clinically meaningful system for understanding and communicating about abnormal behavior. Because the DSM-5 has just been introduced, there are some areas of abnormal behavior where the science has not yet caught up to the new criteria and in some cases, the new diagnoses. This is particularly relevant in those chapters where revisions to the diagnostic criteria were extensive. The new criteria are there but epidemiological data for the new disorders are not available—researchers simply have not had time to conduct new studies using the new criteria. In those instances, we rely on the published data based on the DSM-IV categories, while giving appropriate caveats about the need for more research.

Despite the changing criteria, understanding human behavior requires integration of brain *and* behavior, data from scientists, *and* insights from clinicians and patients. As in the first two editions, a scientist-practitioner approach integrates biological data with research from social and behavioral sciences to foster the perspective that abnormal behavior is complex and subject to many different forces. Furthermore, these variables often interact in a reciprocal fashion. Psychotherapy was built in part on the assumption that behavior could be changed by changing the environment, but science has now shown us that environmental factors can also change the brain. Scientific advances in molecular genetics have expanded our understanding of how genes influence behavior. Virtual reality treatment systems have provided new insights, raised new questions, and unlocked new areas of exploration. As this third edition illustrates, we remain firm in our conviction that the integration of leading-edge biological

and behavioral research, known as the *translational approach*, or *from bench to bedside*, is needed to advance the study of abnormal psychology. As we did in previous editions, we reach beyond the old clichés of nature or nurture, clinician or scientist, genes or environment, and challenge the next generation of psychologists and students to embrace the complexity inherent in replacing these historical “ors” with contemporary “ands.”

What’s New in the Third Edition

- **Complete DSM-5 Revisions:** Updated to thoroughly reflect the new DSM-5, including relevant organizational changes in some chapters.
- **DSM-5 diagnostic criteria tables:** All diagnostic criteria tables have been revised to reflect any changes in the DSM-5.
- **Coverage of disorders expanded to include the following, based on their inclusion in DSM-5:** Premenstrual Dysphoric Disorder, Binge Eating Disorder, Hoarding Disorder, Excoriation Disorder, Illness Anxiety Disorder, Gender Dysphoria, Autism Spectrum Disorder, Substance Use Disorder, Compulsive Gambling added to Addiction and Related Disorders, and others.
- **New and updated content throughout, including many new topics for these special features:** “Real People, Real Disorders,” “Examining the Evidence,” and “Research Hot Topic” and a new feature, “Real Science: Real Life.”
- **Current research:** Hundreds of new research citations throughout reflect the ever-advancing field of abnormal psychology.
- **QR Codes:** Use of QR codes students can use to access sample video case vignettes on their smartphones or computers.

The Scientist-Practitioner Model

We subtitled this book *A Scientist-Practitioner Approach* because we know that understanding abnormal psychology rests on knowledge generated through scientific studies and clinical practice. Many psychologists are trained in the scientist-practitioner model and adhere to it to some degree in their professional work. We live and breathe this model. In addition to our roles as teachers at the undergraduate, graduate, and postdoctoral levels, we are all active clinical researchers and clinical practitioners. However, the scientist-practitioner model means more than just having multiple roles; it is a philosophy that guides all of the psychologist’s activities. Those who are familiar with the model know this quote well: “Scientist-practitioners embody a research orientation in their practice and a practice relevance in their research” (Belar & Perry, 1992). This philosophy reflects our guiding principles, and we wrote this text to emphasize this

rich blend of science and practice. Because we are scientist-practitioners, all of the cases described throughout this text are drawn from our own practice with the exception of a few quotations and newspaper stories designed to highlight a specific point. We have endeavored to “bring to life” the nature of these conditions by providing vivid clinical descriptions. In addition to the clinical material that opens each chapter and the short clinical descriptions that are used liberally throughout each chapter, a fully integrated case study drawn from one of our practices is presented at the end of each chapter, again illustrating the interplay of biological, psychosocial, and emotional factors. Of course, details have been changed and some cases may represent composites in order to protect the privacy of those who have shared their life stories with us throughout our careers.

The goal of our textbook is to avoid a dense review of the scientific literature but to maintain a strong scientific focus. Similarly, we wanted to avoid “pop” psychology, an overly popularized approach that we believe presents easy answers that do not truly reflect the essence of the psychological disorders we cover. Having now used the book with our own undergraduate classes, we find that students respond positively to material and features that make these conditions more understandable and vivid. Our goal is to “put a face” on these sometimes perplexing and unfamiliar conditions by using rich clinical material such as vignettes, case histories, personal accounts, and the feature “Real People, Real Disorders.” We hope that these illustrations will entice students to learn more about abnormal psychology while acquiring the important concepts. Thus, although the book represents leading-edge science, our ultimate goal is to portray the human face of these conditions.

A Developmental Trajectory

It has become increasingly clear that many types of abnormal behaviors either begin in childhood or have childhood precursors. Similarly, without treatment, most disorders do not merely disappear with advancing age and, in fact, new disorders may emerge. Quite simply, as we grow, mature, and age, our physical and cognitive capacities affect how symptoms are expressed. Without this developmental perspective, it is easy to overlook important clues that indicate the presence of a specific disorder at a particular phase of life. We are proud that we embraced this concept before its introduction in the DSM-5. Failure to understand the various manifestations of a disorder means that theories of etiology may be incorrect or incomplete, and that interventions may be inappropriately applied. Now that DSM-5 has shifted to a developmental focus, students and instructors will find that certain disorders are not in the same chapters in which they were in previous editions. In each chapter where we discuss psychological disorders, we also include a section called “Developmental Considerations,” which highlights what is known about the developmental trajectory of each condition. In the margins of those pages, you will find the developmental

trajectory icons, which indicate that important developmental features are discussed in that paragraph.

Sex, Race, and Ethnicity

In each chapter, we describe the current literature regarding the effect of sex, race, or ethnicity on a disorder’s clinical presentation, etiology, and treatment. We carefully considered the terms used in the text to refer to these concepts. Indeed, the terms used to refer to *sex*, *gender*, *race*, and *ethnicity* are continually evolving, and the words that we use vary throughout the text. When we describe a particular study, we retain the labels that were used in the publication (e.g., Afro-Caribbean, Caucasian, Pacific Islander). To create some consistency throughout the text, when we discuss general issues regarding race and ethnicity, we use standard terms (e.g., whites, African Americans, Hispanics). Although we are admittedly uncomfortable with calling groups by any labels, whether they refer to race, ethnicity, or diagnosis (e.g., blacks, whites, schizophrenics), for clarity of presentation and parsimony in the case of race and ethnicity, we opted for these categorical labels rather than the more cumbersome “individuals of European-American ancestry” approach. Throughout the book, however, we have not labeled individuals who have psychological disorders by their diagnosis because people are far more rich and complex than any diagnostic label could ever capture. Moreover, referring to a patient or patient group by a diagnostic label (e.g., bulimics, depressives, schizophrenics) is fundamentally disrespectful. People have disorders, but their disorders do not define them.

Ethics and Responsibility

In this edition, we continue our newest feature titled “Ethics and Responsibility.” The discussion of ethics and responsibility varies with respect to the individual chapter, but in each case, we have attempted to select a topic that is timely and illustrates how psychologists consider the impact of their behavior on those with whom they work and on society in general. We hope that this feature will generate class discussion and impress on students the impact of one’s behavior upon others.

Clinical Features

Consistent with our belief that the clinical richness of this text will bring the subject matter to life, each chapter begins with a clinical description that introduces and illustrates the topic of the chapter. These descriptions are not necessarily extensive case studies but provide the reader a global “feel” for each disorder. Additionally, small case vignettes are used liberally throughout the text to illustrate specific clinical elements. Another important clinical element is the “Side by Side Case Studies,” in which we illustrate the differences between typical human emotions (such as elation) and abnormal behavior (such as mania). We included

these descriptions in each chapter devoted to an area of abnormal behavior to emphasize that the difference between normal emotions and what we call *psychological disorders* is not simply the presence of emotion or specific behavior but whether the behavior creates distress or impairs daily functioning.

Each chapter discussion concludes with a case study “Real Science, Real Life,” a clinical presentation, assessment, and treatment of a patient with a particular disorder, again drawn from our own clinical files. Each concluding case study illustrates much of the material covered in the chapter and uses the scientist-practitioner approach to understanding, assessing, and treating the disorder. Furthermore, this concluding case study demonstrates how the clinician considers biological, psychological, environmental, and cultural factors to understand the patient’s clinical presentation. Finally, we describe the treatment program and outcome, highlighting how all of the factors are addressed in treatment. Through this process, the case study allows the student to view “firsthand” the scientist-practitioner approach to abnormal behavior, dispelling myths often propagated through the media about how psychologists think, work, and act.

Special Features

We draw the reader’s attention to three specific features that appear in each chapter. The first, “Examining the Evidence,” presents a current controversy related to the disorder under study in the chapter. However, we do not simply present the material; rather, to be consistent with the scientist-practitioner focus, we present both sides of the controversy and lead students through the data, allowing them to draw their own conclusions. Thus, “Examining the Evidence” features do not just present material but also foster critical thinking skills about issues in abnormal psychology. By considering both sides of the issues, students will become savvy consumers of scientific literature.

The second feature is “Research Hot Topic,” which presents topical, leading-edge research at the time of publication. Consistent with the focus of this text, the “Research Hot Topic” features illustrate how science informs our understanding of human behavior in a manner that is engaging to students (e.g., “Virtual Reality Therapy for the Treatment of Anxiety Disorders”). As teachers and researchers who open our clinical research centers to undergraduate students, we know that many students think research is “dull.” What they discover by participating in our research programs, and what students reading this text will discover, is that research is exciting.

The third feature, “Real People, Real Disorders,” presents a popular figure who has suffered from the disorder discussed in the chapter. As we indicated in Chapter 1, although many people, including undergraduate students, suffer from these disorders, they often feel that they are alone or “weird.” We

wanted to break down the stereotypes that many undergraduate students have about people with psychological disorders. Using well-known figures to humanize these conditions allows students to connect with the material on an emotional, as well as an intellectual, level.

Intermediate and End-of-Chapter Reviews

Finally, we would like to draw the reader’s attention to the “Concept Checks” that are found throughout the chapter as well as the “Test Yourself” sections at the end of each chapter. The “Concept Checks” provide quick reviews at the end of chapter sections, allowing students to be sure that they have mastered the material before proceeding to the next section. Instructors can use the “Concept Checks” and “Critical Thinking Questions” to challenge students to think “outside the box” and critically examine the material presented within that section. The “Test Yourself” provides another opportunity for students to review and master the material using the format that they will most likely find on their class examinations.

Supplemental Teaching Materials MyPsychLab for Abnormal Psychology

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Finally, we hope the students and instructors who used the first and second editions and who will use this new text experience the joy and wonder that comes with learning about the challenging and intriguing topic of abnormal psychology. We are passionate about our science and compassionate with our patients. We are also dedicated educators. As such, we encourage you to contact us with comments, questions, or suggestions on how to improve this book. No textbook is perfect, but with your help, we will continue to strive for that goal.

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Adult Food and Weight Obsessions (Rodale), and *Crave: Why You Binge Eat and How to Stop*, *The Woman in the Mirror: How to Stop Confusing What You Look Like with Who You Are*, and *Midlife Eating Disorders: Your Journey to Recovery* (Walker). She is a recipient of the Eating Disorders Coalition Research Award, the Hulka Innovators Award, the Academy for Eating Disorders Leadership Award for Research, the Price Family National Eating Disorders Association Research Award, the Carolina Women's Center Women's Advocacy Award, the Women's Leadership Council Faculty-to-Faculty Mentorship Award, and the Academy for Eating Disorders Meehan-Hartley Advocacy Award. She is a past President of the Academy for Eating Disorders, past Vice-President of the Eating Disorders Coalition, and past Associate Editor of the *International Journal of Eating Disorders*. Dr. Bulik holds the first endowed professorship in eating disorders in the United States. She balances her academic life by being happily married with three children and a competitive ice dancer.

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often remain unrecognized and undertreated. In these settings, the content and delivery of care require modifications to meet cultural, cognitive, sensory, and logistic barriers. Some of Dr. Stanley's work in this domain includes the integration of religion and spirituality into therapy to enhance engagement in care for traditionally underserved groups. Dr. Stanley and her colleagues have been awarded continuous funding from the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) for 14 years to support her research in late-life anxiety. In 2008,

Dr. Stanley received the Excellence in Research Award from the South Central MIRECC. In 2009, she received the MIRECC Excellence in Research Education Award. She has received numerous teaching awards and has served as mentor for five junior faculty career development awards. Dr. Stanley is a Fellow of the American Psychological Association, and she has served as a regular reviewer of NIMH grants. She is the author of over 150 scientific publications, including journal articles, book chapters, and books.

chapter 1

abnormal psychology



historical and modern
perspectives



learning objectives

At the end of this chapter,
you should be able to:

1.1

Explain the difference between behaviors that are different, deviant, dangerous, and dysfunctional.

1.2

Identify at least two factors that need to be considered when determining whether a behavior is abnormal.

1.3

Discuss spiritual/religious, biological, psychological, and sociocultural theories of the origins of abnormal behavior in their historical context.

1.4

Discuss the scientist–practitioner model of abnormal psychology.

1.5

Describe the modern biological, psychological, sociocultural, and biopsychosocial perspectives on the origins of abnormal behavior.

Steve was a member of the United States Marine Corps who served during the Vietnam War. He spent a year on patrol, constantly on the lookout for the enemy. One night, the Viet Cong attacked his squad. During the firefight, the Marine next to him lost his arm. Steve got his buddy to the medic, but the horrific image never left him. He felt helpless and out of control. After returning from Vietnam, Steve had difficulty sleeping, lost interest in his hobbies, isolated himself from family and friends, and felt helpless and sad. Even 45 years later, he can still see himself in the rice paddy, watching in horror as the grenade hits his friend, amputating his arm. Every night he wakes in yet another cold sweat and with a racing heart—unable to breathe, as the nightmare occurs again. Steve cannot watch fireworks—he breaks out in a cold sweat and feels dizzy. He drops to the ground at the sound of a helicopter, reacting as if he were again under attack. He sleeps only 4 hours a night. Although employed for many years, he had many interpersonal conflicts with coworkers and his boss, and recently he was forced into early retirement. He has no friends except for his immediate family and other veterans who served in Vietnam.

Malcom is 9 years old. He lived in New Orleans with his family. They did not have a lot of money, but there was always food and a roof over their heads. At school, Malcom was an average and well-behaved student. One day Hurricane Katrina ripped through town. Malcom’s family thought they were safe—the floodwalls would protect them. But they were wrong. Trapped in their house, they escaped to the attic. Luckily, his father grabbed an axe and cut a hole through the roof. After 8 hours, soaking wet and hungry, they were rescued by a helicopter and taken to the convention center. The situation was not much better there. People were sick and desperate. Malcom saw a dead body inside the convention center. Finally, they were able to get to another state where they had relatives so they could start their lives over. But Malcom has had difficulties adjusting. He has nightmares about once again being on the roof or in the convention center. He cries when he hears a helicopter. When the news media forecasts a hurricane, he cries and begs his parents to move to “Iowa—they don’t have hurricanes in Iowa.” His grades have slipped, he has difficulty making friends, and he often refuses to go to school. He will not sleep in his room, insisting that he has to sleep with his parents or his older brother.

Rosa is a freshman in college. She is seeking treatment because she has been feeling anxious and depressed and experiencing chest pain and breathing problems. When she was 6 years old, her family crossed the Mexican border to reach the United States. During the crossing, Rosa was sexually molested by the coyote—the man who helped the family navigate the border crossing. Her family settled in New York to live the American dream. One year later, both parents, who were working as janitorial staff inside the World Trade Center, were killed in the 9/11 attack. Rosa went to live with her aunt, who assisted her in obtaining U.S. citizenship via a special visa that is granted for someone who was a victim of a crime. Over the years, Rosa grew up as a shy and very intelligent person. Her transition to college was difficult, especially because she had to move to another city. It was the first time she had to be separated from her aunt since her parents’ death. She has been having difficulty concentrating and has started to miss classes when feeling depressed and anxious. She gets panicky feelings and premonitions that something bad might happen to her aunt. Occasionally she runs out of class to call to check on her aunt.

The physical, cognitive, and behavioral symptoms that Steve, Malcom, and Rosa displayed represent common mental health problems. These behaviors are considered abnormal because most people do not run out of class to check on someone, and they sleep more than 4 hours a night. Most children do not cry when they hear a helicopter. Although often unrecognized, psychological disorders exist in substantial numbers of people across all ages, races, ethnic groups, cultures, and in both sexes. Furthermore, they cause great suffering and impair academic, occupational, and social functioning.

Defining abnormality is challenging because behaviors must be considered in context. For example,

→ Donna and Matthew were very much in love. They had been married for 25 years and often remarked that they were not just husband and wife but also best friends. Then Matthew died suddenly, and Donna felt overwhelming sadness. She was unable to eat, cried uncontrollably at times, and started to isolate herself from others. Her usually vivacious personality disappeared.

↓

When a loved one dies, feelings of grief and sadness are common, even expected. Donna's reaction at her husband's death would not be considered abnormal; rather, its *absence* at such a time might be considered abnormal. A theme throughout this book is that *abnormal behavior must always be considered in context*.

Normal vs. Abnormal Behavior

Sometimes it's fairly easy to identify behavior as abnormal, as when someone is still deeply troubled by events that happened 45 years ago or is feeling so hopeless that he or she cannot get out of bed. But sometimes identifying behavior as abnormal is not clear-cut. Put simply, *abnormal* means "away from normal," but that is a circular definition. By this standard, normal becomes the statistical average and any deviation becomes "abnormal." For example, if the average weight for a woman living in the United States is 140 pounds, then women who weigh less than 100 pounds or more than 250 pounds deviate significantly from the average. Their weight would be considered abnormally low or high. For abnormal psychology, defining abnormal behavior as merely being away from normal assumes that deviations on both sides of average are negative and in need of alteration or intervention. This assumption is often incorrect. Specifically, we must first ask whether simply being different is abnormal.

Is Being Different Abnormal?

Many people deviate from the average in some way. Yao Ming is 7 feet 5 inches tall and weighs 295 pounds—far above average in both height and weight. However, his deviant stature does not affect him negatively. To the contrary, he was a successful and highly paid



Yao Ming, Mariah Carey, and Stephen Hawking differ from most people (in height, vocal range, and intelligence, respectively). However, these differences are not abnormalities and have resulted in positive contributions to society.

basketball player in the National Basketball Association. Mariah Carey has an abnormal vocal range—she is one of a few singers whose voice spans five octaves. Because of her different ability, she has sold millions of songs. Professor Stephen Hawking, one of the world’s most brilliant scientists, has an intellectual capacity that exceeds that of virtually everyone else, yet he writes best-selling and popular works about theoretical physics and the universe and appears on popular television shows like *The Big Bang Theory*. He does this despite suffering from amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS, also known as *Lou Gehrig’s disease*), a debilitating and progressive neurological disease. Each of these individuals has abilities that distinguish him or her from the general public; that is, they are away from normal. However, their “abnormalities” (unusual abilities) are not negative; rather, they result in positive contributions to society. Furthermore, their unusual abilities do not cause distress or appear to impair their daily functioning (as appears to be the case for Steve, Malcom, and Rosa). In summary, being different is not the same as being psychologically abnormal.

Is Behaving Deviantly (Differently) Abnormal?

When the definition of abnormal behavior broadens from simply *being* different to *behaving* differently, we often use the term *deviance*. Deviant behaviors differ from prevailing societal standards.

→ On February 9, 1964, four young men from Liverpool, England, appeared on *The Ed Sullivan Show* and created quite a stir. Their hair was “long,” their boots had “high (Cuban) heels,” and their “music” was loud. Young people loved them but their parents were appalled.

The Beatles looked, behaved, and sounded deviant in the context of the prevailing cultural norms. In 1964, they were considered outrageous. Today their music, dress, and behavior appear rather tame. Was their behavior abnormal? They looked different and acted differently, but their looks and behavior did no harm to themselves or others. The same behavior, outrageous and different in 1964 but tame by today’s standards, illustrates an important point, *deviant behavior* violates societal and cultural norms, but those norms are always changing.

→ Derek is 7 years old. From the time he was an infant, he was always “on the go.” He has a hard time paying attention and has boundless energy. His parents compensate for his high level of energy by involving him in lots of physical activities (soccer, Tiger Cub Scouts, karate). Derek had an understanding first-grade teacher. Because he could not sit still, the teacher accommodated him with “workstations” so that he could move around the classroom. But now Derek is in second grade, and the new teacher does not allow workstations. She believes that he must learn to sit like all the other children. He visits the principal’s office often for “out-of-seat behavior.”

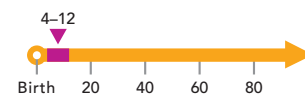
Understanding behavior within a specific context is known as **goodness of fit** (Chess & Thomas, 1991). Simply put, a behavior can be problematic or not problematic depending on the environment in which it occurs. Some people change an environment to accommodate a behavior in the same way that buildings are modified to assure accessibility by everyone. Derek’s situation illustrates the goodness-of-fit concept. At home and in first grade, his parents and teacher changed the environment to meet his high activity level. They did not see his activity as a problem but simply as behavior that needed to be accommodated. In contrast, his second-grade teacher expected Derek to fit into a nonadaptable environment. In first grade, Derek was considered “lively,” but in second grade, his behavior was considered abnormal. When we attempt to understand behavior, it is critical to consider the context in which the behavior occurs.

GROUP EXPECTATIONS The expectations of family, friends, neighborhood, and culture are consistent and pervasive influences on why people act the way they do. Sometimes the standards of one group are at odds with those of another group. Adolescents, for example, often deliberately behave very differently than their parents do (they violate expected standards or norms) as a result of their need to *individuate* (separate) from their parents and be part of their peer group. In this instance, deviation from the norms of one group involves conformity to those of another. Like family norms, cultural traditions and practices also affect behavior in many ways. For example, holiday celebrations usually include family and cultural traditions. As young people mature and leave their family of origin, new traditions from extended family, marriage, or friendships often blend into former customs and traditions, creating a new context for holiday celebrations.

Often, these different cultural traditions are unremarkable, but sometimes they can cause misunderstanding:

→ Maleah is 12 years old. Her family recently moved to the United States from the Philippines. Her teacher insisted that Maleah's mother take her to see a psychologist because of "separation anxiety." The teacher was concerned because Maleah told the teacher that she had always slept in a bed with her grandmother. However, a psychological evaluation revealed that Maleah did not have any separation fears. Rather, children sleeping with parents and/or grandparents is what people normally do (what psychologists call normative) in Philippine culture.

Culture refers to shared behavioral patterns and lifestyles that differentiate one group of people from another. Culture affects an individual's behavior but also is reciprocally changed by the behaviors of its members (Tseng, 2003). We often behave in ways that reflect the values of the culture in which we were raised. For example, in some cultures, children are expected to be "seen and not heard," whereas in other cultures, children are encouraged to freely express themselves. **Culture-bound syndrome** is a term that originally described abnormal behaviors that were specific to a particular location or group (Yap, 1967); however, we now know that some of these behavioral patterns extend across ethnic groups and geographic areas. How culture influences behavior will be a recurring theme throughout this book. Maleah's behavior is just one example of how a single behavior can be viewed differently in two different cultures.



Childhood is a period of rapid development. As children mature, behaviors once considered typical can become deviant.

DEVELOPMENT AND MATURITY Another important context that must be taken into account when considering behavioral abnormality is age. As a child matures (physically, mentally, and emotionally), behaviors previously considered developmentally appropriate and therefore normal can become abnormal.

→ Nick is 4 years old and insists on using a night-light to keep the monsters away.

At age 4, children do not have the *cognitive*, or mental, capacity to understand fully that monsters are not real. However, at age 12, a child should understand the difference between imagination and reality. Therefore, if at age 12 Nick still needs a night-light to keep the monsters away, his behavior would be considered abnormal and perhaps in need of treatment. Similarly, very young children do not have the ability to control their bladder; bed-wetting is common in toddlerhood. However, after the child achieves a certain level of physical and cognitive maturity, bed-wetting becomes an abnormal behavior and is given the diagnostic label of *enuresis* (see Chapter 12).

James Eagan Holmes

On July 20, 2012, James Eagan Holmes walked into a Colorado movie theater and bought a ticket to the midnight showing of the Batman movie, *The Dark Knight Rises*. After the movie began, he left the theater through an emergency exit, came back, and allegedly set off gas/smoke canisters and opened fire on the audience, killing 12 people and wounding 58 others. He was quickly arrested and he warned the police not to go to his apartment. They did but found that he had booby-trapped it before leaving for the theater. At his first legal hearing, he appeared in court with his hair dyed orange, appearing dazed and confused, looking bug-eyed, and spitting on the officers who were escorting him. He called himself The Joker.

Holmes graduated from the University of California, Berkeley, in the top 1% of his class, with a 3.94 GPA, and a degree in neuroscience. Described by some as socially inept and uncommunicative, he described himself as quiet and easygoing on an apartment rental application. He applied to graduate school at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, and the application included a picture of himself with a llama. The choice of such a picture on something as important as a graduate school application certainly could qualify as eccentric behavior, but does that mean that he was psychologically disturbed?

In 2011, Holmes enrolled as a Ph.D. student in neuroscience at the University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus in Aurora. In 2012, his grades declined and he failed his comprehensive

examination. Although the university did not plan to dismiss him, he started the process to withdraw from the university. At the same time, he purchased large quantities of guns and over 6,000 rounds of ammunition. Is this irrational behavior? Is it potentially dangerous behavior?



He asked someone if he or she had ever heard of a disorder called dysphoric mania and told a graduate student to stay away from him because he was “bad news.” His answering machine recording was described as “freaky, guttural sounding, incoherent, and rambling.” He dyed his hair orange, called himself The Joker, and went to the movie theater. Does this behavior prove that Holmes had a psychological disorder?

From all accounts, Holmes evolved from being a brilliant, if socially awkward neuroscience student, to a mass murderer. Whatever label is applied, his behavior evolved from behaving differently to behaving dangerously (perhaps as a result of disordered thinking). In this instance, his behavior was extremely harmful to others and could no longer be considered merely eccentric. It is also important to point out that most people who have psychological disorders are not dangerous and do not commit crimes or attempt to harm other people.

Eccentricity. What about the millionaire who wills his entire estate to his dog? This behavior violates cultural norms, but it is often labeled eccentric rather than abnormal. Eccentric behavior may violate societal norms but is not always negative or harmful to others. Yet, sometimes behaviors that initially appear eccentric cross the line into dangerousness (see “Real People, Real Disorders: James Eagan Holmes”).

Is Behaving Dangerously Abnormal?

→ The police arrive at the emergency room of a psychiatric hospital with a man and a woman in handcuffs. Jon is 23 years old. He identifies himself as the chauffeur for Melissa, who is age 35 and also in handcuffs. They are both dressed in tight leather pants and shirts, have unusual “spiked” haircuts, and wear leather “dog collars” with many silver spikes. Jon and Melissa live in the suburbs but spent a day in the city buying clothes and getting their hair cut. As they were leaving the parking garage to return home, Melissa began to criticize Jon’s hair. Jon became angry and ran the car (which belonged to Melissa) into the wall of the parking garage—several times. When a clinician asked the police officer why they were brought to the psychiatric emergency room, the officer replied, “Well, would a sane person keep ramming a car into the wall of a parking garage?” Neither Jon nor Melissa had any previous history of psychological disorders. An interview revealed that Jon’s behavior was the result of a lover’s quarrel, and although their relationship was often volatile, they denied any incidents of physical aggression toward each other or anyone else.

Certainly, repeatedly ramming a car into the wall of a parking garage is dangerous, is outside of societal norms, and could be labeled abnormal. Dangerous behavior can result from intense emotional states, and in Jon's case, the behavior was directed outwardly (toward another person or an inanimate object). In other cases, dangerous behavior such as suicidal thoughts may be directed toward oneself. However, it is important to understand that most people with psychological disorders do not engage in dangerous behavior (Linaker, 2000; Monahan, 2001). Individuals with seriously disordered thinking rarely present any danger to society even though their behaviors may appear dangerous to others. Therefore, behavior that is dangerous may signal the presence of a psychological disorder, but dangerous behavior alone is not necessary or sufficient for the label of abnormality to be assigned.

Is Behaving Dysfunctionally Abnormal?

1.1 Explain the difference between behaviors that are different, deviant, dangerous, and dysfunctional.

Thus far, simply being different, behaving differently, or behaving dangerously clearly does not constitute abnormal behavior. A final consideration when attempting to define abnormal behavior is whether that behavior causes *distress* or *dysfunction* for the individual or others. Consider the examples of Robert and Stan (see “Side-by-Side Case Studies”).

Both Robert and Stan engage in checking behaviors, but Robert's behavior falls into the category of what is called “normal checking” (Rachman & Hodgson, 1980). Stan's routine of checking the house before he leaves for work or goes to bed is *different* from the way in which most people lock up their house before going to work, so his behavior *deviates* from the norm. Even though simple deviance is not abnormal, Stan's behavior differs from Robert's in another way: Stan's checking occurs more frequently. Frequency alone does not mean a behavior is maladaptive, but frequency can lead to two other conditions: distress and dysfunction. Specifically, Stan's worries are so frequent and pervasive that they cause him to feel anxious and lose sleep at night. In this case, maladaptive behavior results in *distress*; Stan's worries result in a negative mood (anxiety) and cause him to lose sleep. Frequently, they also cause him to arrive late for work or for social engagements. Thus, his behaviors create occupational and social *dysfunction*. When one of these conditions is evident, the presence of a psychological disorder must be considered.

SIDE by SIDE case studies

Dimensions of Behavior: From Normal to Abnormal

Normal Behavior Case Study

A Cautious Person—No Disorder

→ Robert is a very cautious person. He does not like to make mistakes and believes that the behavior standards that he sets for himself are high but fair. He is concerned about safety and worried that other people might take advantage of him if he makes a mistake. Before leaving his house or going to sleep, he walks through the house, checking to make sure that every door and window is locked and the oven and stove are turned off. This usually takes about 5 minutes.

Abnormal Behavior Case Study

Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder

→ Stan also is cautious and very concerned. When away from home, he worries that he forgot to lock a door and that his house has been robbed. Often he returns home to check that the house is locked. But even after he checks, he remains doubtful and spends hours each day checking and rechecking. He has an elaborate system of checking the locks, the doors, the garage door, and the burglar alarm system. He checks the stove seven times to make sure that the oven and the burners are off. Thoughts of a burglar in his house or his house burning down cause him great distress, sometimes interfering with his sleep. He is often late for work or for social engagements because he needs to go back to the house to check and recheck.

A Definition of Abnormal Behavior

1.2 Identify at least two factors that need to be considered when determining whether a behavior is abnormal.

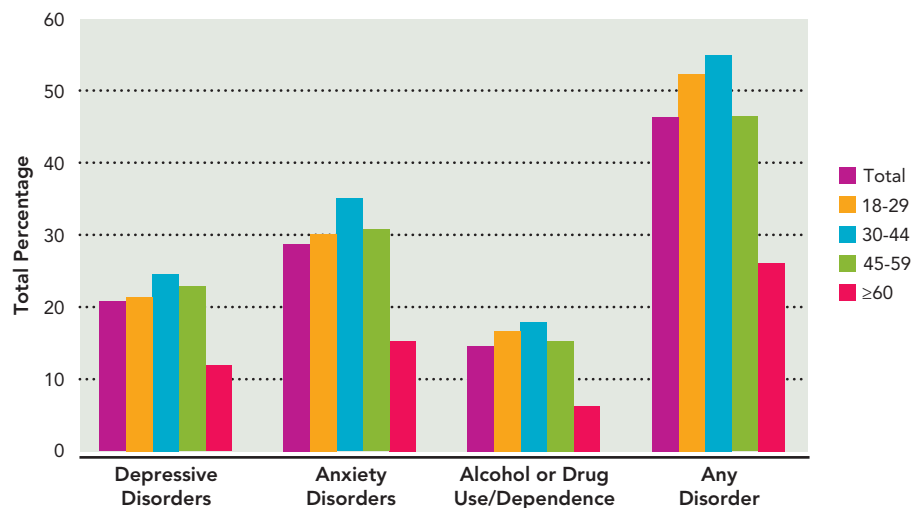
To summarize, to define abnormal behavior, we need to consider several factors. Merely being different or behaving differently is not enough, although the latter certainly might be a signal that something is wrong. Some abnormal behaviors are dangerous, but dangerousness is not necessary for a definition of abnormality. In this book, we define **abnormal behavior** as behavior that is inconsistent with the individual's developmental, cultural, and societal norms, and creates emotional distress or interferes with daily functioning.

The following chapters will examine many different types of abnormal behavior. As a guide, the behaviors are considered using the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, fifth edition (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013), commonly known as the *DSM-5*. This diagnostic system uses an approach that focuses on symptoms and the scientific basis for the disorders, including their *clinical presentation* (what specific symptoms cluster together?), *etiology* (what causes the disorder?), *developmental stage* (does the disorder look different in children than it does in adults?), and *functional impairment* (what are the immediate and long-term consequences of having the disorder?). The DSM system uses a *categorical approach* to defining abnormal behavior. Although this method is somewhat controversial (see “Research Hot Topic: Categorical vs. Dimensional Approaches to Abnormal Behavior”), it remains the most widely accepted diagnostic system in the United States.

ABNORMAL BEHAVIOR IN THE GENERAL POPULATION Psychological disorders are common in the general population. Approximately 47% of adults in the United States have suffered from a psychological disorder at some time in their lives (Kessler et al., 2005a). The most commonly reported disorders in the United States are anxiety disorders and depressive disorders (see Figure 1.1). More than 20% of adults will suffer from major depression, and more than 14% will struggle with alcohol dependence at some point in their lives. Anxiety disorders are also common, affecting over 28% of adults, during their lifetimes. Clearly, many people suffer from serious psychological disorders; this emphasizes the need for more understanding of these conditions and the development of effective treatments.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE EXPRESSION OF ABNORMAL BEHAVIORS Contextual factors play an important role when considering if and when abnormal behaviors may develop. Some factors include personal characteristics such as sex and race or ethnicity.

FIGURE 1.1
Lifetime Prevalence of Various DSM-IV Psychiatric Disorders at Different Ages in Adulthood. Data from Kessler et al. (2005). *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 62, 593–603.



Categorical vs. Dimensional Approaches to Abnormal Behavior

The current diagnostic system, the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM), presents a primarily *categorical* approach to understanding psychological disorders. The DSM assumes that a person either has a disorder or does not, just as one is pregnant or not pregnant. The current DSM is superior to previous diagnostic systems, which were tied to theory but not necessarily to data. However, two issues continue to present problems for a categorical approach: (a) symptoms rarely fall neatly into just one category and (b) symptoms often are not of sufficient severity to determine that they represent a psychological disorder despite distress and impairment.

In fact, people in psychological distress rarely have only one psychological disorder (Nathan & Langenbucher, 1999). A woman struggling with an eating disorder often feels depressed as well. Does she have two distinct disorders, or is her depression merely part of her abnormal eating pattern? Making these distinctions is more than just an academic exercise—it affects whether someone receives treatment. It may, for example, determine whether a psychologist decides to refer a depressed patient for medication treatment or just monitors her sadness to see whether it disappears when the eating disorder is successfully treated.

The second issue—deciding when one has “enough” of a symptom to have a diagnosis—can be illustrated through the following example. Shyness and sadness are two behaviors that may be personality dimensions rather than a distinct category. When is one “sad enough” or “shy enough” to be diagnosed with a psychological disorder? Is shyness a personality feature or a psychological disorder? Currently, one is considered to have a psychological disorder when the distress is severe enough or when functional impairment results. However, in many instances, this is an artificial distinction and may deny people with moderate distress the opportunity to seek services. Scientifically, a **dimensional approach** would allow an understanding of how abnormal behavior varies in severity over time, perhaps increasing and decreasing, or how behaviors change from one disorder to another.

Researchers continue to investigate the most accurate way to describe abnormal behavior. The DSM-5 emphasizes the need to consider not just the presence of symptoms but also whether those symptoms affect functioning when attempting to understand abnormal behavior.

For example, women are more likely to suffer from anxiety disorders (see Chapter 4) and mood disorders (see Chapter 6), and men are more likely to suffer from alcohol and drug abuse (see Chapter 9; Kessler et al., 2005a). With respect to race and ethnicity, whites and African Americans suffer equally from most types of psychological disorders. Hispanics are more likely to have mood disorders such as depression than are non-Hispanic whites. In addition, as we shall see throughout this book, culture may influence how symptoms are expressed.

Socioeconomic status (SES), defined by family income and educational achievement, is another important factor that affects the prevalence of psychological disorders in the general population. Except for drug and alcohol abuse, which occurs more often among those with the middle education level (a high school graduate but no college degree), psychological disorders occur most frequently among those with the lowest incomes and the least education. A continuing debate is whether psychological disorders are the result of lower SES. Do more education and higher income serve to protect someone against psychological disorders by providing more supportive resources? An alternative hypothesis is that the impairment that *results* from a psychological disorder (inability to sleep, addiction to alcohol) leads to job loss or limited educational achievement, a phenomenon known as *downward drift*. Another alternative is that a third factor, such as genetic predisposition, contributes both to the onset of a psychiatric disorder and to the inability to achieve academically or occupationally.

Few studies address the relationship of SES to psychological disorders specifically, but one study of the development of psychological disorders in children does help us understand this relationship. In this study, children were interviewed at yearly intervals, in some cases for 9 consecutive years. During that time, children from all SES groups *developed* psychological disorders at the same rate (Wadsworth & Achenbach, 2005).