

PSYC251 – THE PSYCHOLOGY OF ABNORMALITY

- **What is psychology of abnormality?**
 - Examines unusual patterns of behaviour, emotion and thought
 - interested in understanding the development of disorders
 - characteristics/symptoms of these disorders
 - prevalence (how common they are in population etc.) and diagnostic criteria (DSM-5)
 - co-morbidity – how often disorders co-occur together, e.g. anxiety and depression
 - motivation and maintaining factors – what's making someone continue behaviours even though its causing harm
 - the lived experience = living with mental illness, looking at things from their perspective
 - **Assessments**
 - measuring severity, symptoms and features
 - mini mental state exam
 - beck depression inventory
 - **Treatments**
 - psychological;
 - CBT, Systematic family therapy, Dialectical behaviour therapy, Interpersonal psychotherapy
 - Pharmacological (medication)
 - **Myths**
 - people with mental illness are dangerous
 - mental illness is uncommon
 - only certain types of people experience mental illness
 - you can't recover from mental illness
 - medication is the only option
 - **Empathy** – Recognising and sharing the emotions of another person. Really trying to feel what it's like from the clients perspective
- VS**
- **Sympathy** – Feeling of care or concern for a person
- **Defining abnormality**
 - defined as the behavioural, emotional, or cognitive dysfunctions that are unexpected in the cultural context and associated with personal distress or substantial impairment in functioning – DSM5
- **What does it mean to be abnormal?**
 - Mental disorders involved abnormal behaviours but having abnormal behaviours does not always mean mental disorder
 - BEHAVIOUR = what we see, more to it than that (cognitions, emotions, subjective distress)
 - Quantifying abnormality so you don't misinterpret 'different' people as abnormal
 - STATISTICALLY abnormal is something is that uncommon

- **Abnormal laypersons view**
 - may define abnormal according to cultural and social norm violation
 - behaviour that seems out of place
 - CULTURAL RELATIVISM = abnormal in one society, strength in another
 - TEMPORAL RELATIVISM = abnormal at one time, normal at another
 - SITUATIONAL RELATIVISM = norms that adjust according to circumstances
- **Maladaptive behaviour**
 - dysfunctional
 - non-productive
 - can be maladaptive to SELF and SOCIETY
- **Personal distress view**
 - the individual might say that abnormality is defined by the experience of psychological pain.
 - they may think abnormal = 'I am extremely upset by my thought and/or behaviours'
 - this is called a SUBJECTIVE DISTRESS definition
 - distress can be normal e.g. grief
 - distress can be absent in some disorders e.g. manic phase in bipolar
- **Impairment/disability**
 - impairment = inability to 'do' things
 - impairment may be a small part of life e.g. fear of riding a bus
 - people can adapt to impairments
 - sometimes not obvious
- **The four D's**
 - DISTRESS (from point of individual)
anxious, depressed, feelings of guilt etc
 - DEVIANCE (point of view from culture)
bizarre behaviour, threatening, troublesome and unpredictable
 - DYSFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOUR (individual)
do they have an impairment and stops the ability to function adequately in everyday life
 - DANGEROUS (culture)
danger to themselves, others or society. Risk of suicide, impaired decision making, hurting others
 - they place a role in defining abnormal behaviour but not one factor is sufficient for all abnormal behaviour, to see how extreme the behaviours are...
- **Level of disturbance (severity)**
 - BIZARRENES = how extreme is the behaviour
 - DURATION = how long has the symptoms persisted
 - SOCIAL FUNCTIONING = extent of effect on social functioning
- **What is diagnosis?**
 - in mental health, a diagnosis doesn't always indicate the cause and nature of the issue
 - it's often just a short hand way of referring to behaviours/beliefs/emotions that commonly occur

- **DSM-5**
 - defines mental disorders
 - lists all recognised mental disorders and their diagnostic criteria
- In order to treat a client effectively, a diagnosis is not enough. A full narrative of how the issue arose and is being maintained is a MUST before treatment. When formulating a case...
- **The 4P Formulation Format**
 1. PREDISPOSING FACTORS →
 2. PRECIPITATING FACTORS → PROBLEM OR ISSUE



- the Presenting problem (maybe the 5th p) is the reason the client came to therapy but may not necessarily be the most serious problem

EXAMPLE

- Sarah freaked out at a concert, breathing quickly, heart pounding, thought she was going to pass out (panic attack). Not physiological, Now she has begun to avoid other crowded places
- 1. Temperament, genetics and modelling
- 2. What triggered the problem? Crowds, excitement, things in the present not the past
- 3. Behavioural avoidance “if I go to the shops, I’ll get a panic attack”
- Cognitive errors – catastrophic thinking
- 4. Acceptance, Early detection, Commitment to treatment

ATTACHMENT

- **What is attachment**
 - An enduring emotional bond characterised by a tendency to seek and maintain proximity to a specific figure, particularly when under stress
 - a need to have bonds with other people
 - it is a biological necessity
 - continues throughout life
 - it is not optional, it’s part of our programming and has evolutionary significance
 - first two years are critical
- **Origins of attachment theory**
 - **Developmental psychology**
 - **Ethology** (study of animal behaviour)
 - **Psychodynamic theory** (Freud, Bowlby, Ainsworth)
- **JOHN BOWLBY**
 - started off studying deprived and homeless children in post war Europe
 - found that children between 6-30 months old form emotional attachments to caregivers
 - the emotional attachments shown in their preference for the familiar people, a secure base and seeking proximity to caregivers
 - abrupt separation of a toddler from a caregiver interferes with attachment, possible long term negative impacts on emotional and cognitive life
 - attachments contribute to emotional and personality development

- **MARY AINSWORTH**
 - experiments with children 1-2-year-old
 - measuring individual differences in attachment
 - used to determine the nature of attachment behaviours
 - ATTACHMENT STYLES;
 - Secure
 - Insecure-Ambivalent
 - Insecure-Avoidant
 - Disorganised (or disoriented attachment)
- **Adult attachments**
 - attachment patterns as a child roughly correspond to adult attachments
- **BARTHOLOMEW & HOROWITZ**
 - Model of self
 - Model of others
 - Adult attachment styles;
 - Secure (positive on self, positive on others)
 - Preoccupied (negative on self, positive on others)
 - Dismissive-Avoidant (positive model of self, negative of others)
 - Fearful-Avoidant (negative model of self, negative of others)
- **Attachment in clinical settings**
 - influences all four P's of formulation
 - Predisposing, Precipitating, Perpetuating, Protective
 - influences the working alliance = the relationship between client and therapist
 - people with negative attachment styles may take longer to establish rapport with

MODELS OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

Major models

- each model has their own strengths and weaknesses
- not one model can account for every mental disorder
- be Integrative NOT eclectic
- Behavioural
 - focus on specific presenting symptoms
 - how to unlearn problematic behaviours
 - e.g. exposure therapy, aversion therapy
- Cognitive and Cognitive Behavioural
 - crucially emphasise the role of thoughts
 - thoughts play a huge role in influencing our behaviours and emotions
 - e.g. Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) & Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT)
- Humanistic-Experimental
 - people have freedom, so they have responsibility for the actions they take in life
 - helps patients find meaning and fulfilment
 - therapists role is more of a facilitator to help the patient grow
 - e.g. client-centred therapy (Carl Rogers) & Motivational Interviewing
- Systems – Couples and Families