CHAPTER 9

MOOD ELEVATION DISORDERS

Happiness

Psychiatry deals with disordered mental life, but we don’t yet have a complete understanding of healthy mental life. Psychological research provided tests of cognitive functions, allowing the determination of “normal ranges” of cognitive function. Psychoanalysis gave us useful notion that “normal” is indicated by the ability “to work and love”. But we don’t have a definition of ‘normal happiness’.

Subjective well-being (SWB) has been conceptualized as being composed of pleasant emotions and for our purposes, can be equated with happiness (Diener et al, 1997). The most commonly used SWB assessment tool is the “Happiness scale”.

Evidence suggests greater happiness is associated with being married, religious, extraverted and optimistic. Gender does not appear to be as important. Wealthier people are consistently found to be happier than poorer people, but the effects are small (once basic needs have been obtained).

Genetic factors have a significant impact on long-term SWB. (Lykkenn and Tellegen, 1996). This is unsurprising, as we know genetics strongly influences temperament and personality. Of course, the environment is also important. Positive life experiences (in the early years in particular) help shape the phenotype by epigenetic processes. Other major influences include our ability to adapt and set goals. The ability to adapt is a boon when it comes to adjusting to a loss - but it can also be a drawback - as when a new 4-wheel drive makes us happy - but only briefly. Goals can be helpful, even if they are unachievable, as long as progress is being made toward them.

From a couple of thoughtful dead people:
1. “Nothing satisfies the man who is not satisfied with a little” – Epicurus (341-270 BC)
2. “All we need to be really happy is something to be enthusiastic about” – Charles Kingsley (1819-75).

Now, back to science.

Introduction to pathological mood elevation

Low mood takes various forms. It is often difficult to be sure whether an individual who is looking and sounding unhappy is suffering a pathological mood disorder.

In general, pathological mood elevation is less difficult to identify. A common feature is an obvious increase in energy: the individual moves, smiles and talks more, and more rapidly than usual (along with other symptoms). While most of us have times when we lack energy, few of us times when we have excessive energy.
Pathological mood elevation is conceptualized as two levels: mania (the higher level), and hypomania (less than mania). Mania occurs in the more severe Bipolar disorder type 1 (BDI). Hypomanic symptoms occur in both the less severe Bipolar disorder type 11 (BPII) and the elevated phase of cyclothymic disorder. As these are matters of degree and judgement, in a particular case, clinicians may disagree on the appropriate designation. The important issue is to identify when treatment is indicated.

Mood elevation often presents with euphoria, disinhibition and excessive friendliness.

Illustration. A middle aged woman was admitted to hospital with mania. While on the ward she used acrylic paint to adorn her jeans with words including Joy, Love, Peace, Kindness and Patients. Across the seat she painted “I love (indicated by a symbol of a heart) life”. These additions reflected her euphoria, but also her lack of inhibition and poor judgement. When she recovered she regretted ruining her new and expensive clothing (which she had purchased during a manic buying spree).

Illustration. A manic female went to an occupational therapy session and made a card for her doctor - it stated she was ready to leave hospital. The construction (different coloured papers and pieces of bright cloth) tended to contradict her written message.
A point to remember - mood elevation may present quite differently, that is, with irritability and demanding behaviour. Irritability often emerges later in an episode of mania (perhaps in response to clinicians obstructing patient wishes), but it may also manifest as an early feature.

Illustration. An unsolicited letter from a woman with mania to a male member of the hospital staff. This staff member was not involved in the care of the patient, and they had not been introduced. Thus, the endearments at the beginning and end of the letter indicate disinhibition. The patient reports being unable to sleep at night (a common manic symptom). An additional important feature is that the patient is apologising for episodes of irritability: “I do hope you can forgive me for my terrible absolute fowl moods” and “my terrible tongue, I ask you to please forgive me”.
As mentioned in Chapter 6, in mania the form of thought may be abnormal. Flight of ideas is common, occasionally with clanging or punning. Thought and behaviour may be chaotic and uncharacteristic for the individual.

Illustration. A middle aged woman who had been successful in business was admitted to hospital in a manic state. An intimate relationship had recently ended, and there was advice from relatives that her partner had left the relationship with an unjustifiably large amount of money. The patient demonstrated thought disorder, but was able to indicate that she had put money in her vagina. This was retrieved. It was a in the form of a role, about the size of a cigarette. It was secured with rubber bands. As the patient was manic it was not surprising that she had secured it using various different brightly coloured bands. She insisted this was rational behaviour. When the role was opened, it contained $200. On the wrapping paper was written, “The hole in the Wall”. This term is used in some parts of the world to indicate an ATM, from which one obtains money. Some links might be made here: the vagina is a hole, and the intimate partner was believed to have taken some of the patient’s money. When the woman recovered her money was returned, but she was not asked for a full explanation. She would probably have had only a vague, if any, memory of the events, and no clear explanation.

It can be difficult to distinguish between BP and Borderline personality disorder (BPD). In BPD the prominent feature is transient mood shifts which occur in response to interpersonal stressors – which has been termed ‘affect instability’ - whereas BP is associated with sustained mood changes (Puris & Black, 2015). This is an important matter – evidence indicates that find that 24% of people diagnosed with BD have been misdiagnoses and in fact suffer BPD (Zimmerman et al, 2010)
Other personality disorders which can be misdiagnosed as BP include - narcissistic personality type in which there is a pervasive pattern of grandiosity, a sense of entitlement (unreasonable expectation of preferential treatment) and lack of empathy - histrionic personality type in which there is excessive sexually provocative and attention seeking behaviour - and the antisocial personality type in which there is irritability, exploitation and disregard for the rights of others.

It may be difficult to differentiate mood elevation from Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) which is described most frequently in children but may occur in adults. In ADHD there is distractibility, increased activity and sleeplessness, but true mood elevation is absent.

Mood elevation may result from illegal drug use, in particular, stimulants. It may manifest as a feature of steroid treatment, thyrotoxicosis and multiple sclerosis.

Mood elevation may present with psychotic symptoms in up to 75% of cases (Grande et al, 2016).

**DSM-5 diagnostic criteria Manic and Hypomanic episodes**

**Manic episode**

A. A distinct period of abnormally and persistently elevated, expansive, or irritable mood, lasting at least one week (or any duration if hospitalization is necessary).

B. During the period of mood disturbance, at least 3 of the following symptoms have persisted (4 if the mood is only irritable) and have been present to a significant degree.

1. Inflated self-esteem and grandiosity
2. Decreased need for sleep
3. More talkative than usual or pressure to keep talking
4. Flight of ideas or subjective experience that thoughts are racing
5. Distractibility
6. Increase in goal-directed activity or psychomotor agitation
7. Excessive involvement in pleasurable activities which have a high potential for painful consequences (unrestrained buying sprees, sexual indiscretions, foolish business investments)

C. Mood disturbance sufficiently severe to cause marked impairment in occupational functioning or in usual social activities or relationships with others, or to necessitate hospitalization to prevent harm to self or others.

**Hypomaniac episode**

The hypomaniac episode is less severe than a manic episode - DSM-V has attempted to quantify this difference.

Rather than being present for 1 week, the diagnostic criteria state that hypomania need be present for only 4 days. Three (rather than 4) of the 7 listed symptoms must be present. The episode is not severe enough to cause marked impairment in social or
occupational functioning, or to necessitate hospitalization, and there are no psychotic symptoms.

**BIPOLAR DISORDER (BD)**

BD is a disorder (range of disorders) in which mood elevation is a feature. Prevalence estimates suggest 1.5-3.0% of the population suffer BD (Narrow et al, 2002). BDI occurs with equal frequency in males and females; BDII occurs more commonly in females (Nivoli et al, 2011).

BD is the sixth leading cause of disability worldwide (Murray & Lopez, 1996).

**Bipolar I disorder** (also BDI) is diagnosed when there has been at least one episode of mania (irrespective of whether a depressed pole has ever been observed).

**Bipolar II disorder** (also BDII) is diagnosed when there is a history of at least one episode of hypomania (not mania).

**Rapid cycling bipolar disorder** – this term has been applied when there are four or more episodes of significant mood elevation or depression in the preceding 12 months. The term is sometimes used loosely. Rapid cycling is rare.

**Mixed mood state** – This ‘diagnosis’ has been replaced in DSM-5 with the specifier “with mixed features”. This specifier can be applied to both depressive and manic episodes. It refers to the coexistence of symptoms of low and elevated mood. Low and elevated mood states do not cancel each other out. Examples include the patient who is talking about his/her suicide plan in a rapid, euphoric manner, and the patient who is weeping and laughing at the same time about how successful he/she has been in life. Frequently the clinical picture changes with low and elevated symptoms being more prominent at different times. This should not be incorrectly diagnosed as rapid cycling. This condition is relatively common.

**Clinical features of BD**

Clinical features are listed as the diagnostic criteria

The clinical features of depressive phases have been described in Chapter 8.

Patients with mania usually do not bring themselves to a health professional or hospital complaining of symptoms. Commonly, they lack insight, and have “never felt better”. In these circumstances patients not wish for treatment which will make them less “well”. Quite frequently patients with mania are brought along by the Police or family members. Patients may need to be retained in hospital against their will, using the local mental health legislation.
Patients classically present in a disorganized state. They may be unclean and shabby in appearance; having been highly distractible and jumping from one exciting idea to the next, they may not have had time or the necessary focus to attend to their grooming. Alternatively, the patient may present in the latest fashions, often in the brightest colours, and wearing excessive jewellery.

Patients are often talking rapidly and loudly and difficult to interrupt (pressure of speech/thought). With racing thoughts, patients rapidly change topic, and it is difficult to follow their conversation (flight of ideas). A feature of flight of ideas may be clanging (rhyming of words) and punning, although this is not common.

Patients have often not slept of some days or be getting only a couple of hours of sleep per night. They will not see this as a problem and state that they don’t need any more sleep, and besides, they have too many things to achieve to waste time sleeping. They are often not eating regularly or wisely. They may be visiting politicians with plans to improve the state of the world or have made unwise investments.

While people with mania may be irritable (especially when thwarted) - they do not usually represent a danger to others, except for an occasional pub brawl or tussle with family members. They represent a danger to themselves, not so much through attempts on their life, but through unwise sexual encounters and investments. Thus, they are frequently in danger of doing themselves social and financial damage. It depends on the interpretation of the local mental health legislation as to whether this type of danger justifies involuntary hospitalization.

Mania, especially when marked, is best managed in hospital. Patients may not accept medication and this may need to be initiated involuntarily. The first step, particularly when lack of sleep and food and fluid intake are a concern, is to reduce the overactivity. Grande et al (2016) state that antipsychotics are more effective for the treatment of mania than the mood stabilizers (this is a recent position) and that a combination of an antipsychotic (haloperidol, risperidone, olanzapine, quetiapine) and a mood stabilizer (lithium, valproate, lamotrigine) may have advantages.

Long-term treatment may also include combinations of an antipsychotic and a mood stabilizer.

Where mania is a predominant, antipsychotics have a central role. Where depressive symptoms predominate, antidepressants and an antidepressant should only be supplied in the presence of a mood stabilizer (lamotrigine is strongly indicated) – because of the risk of pushing the condition into mania.

Psychosocial support and ‘psychoeducation’ have an important role.

**Neuropsychology**

BP is associated with cognitive deficits, even during the euthymic phase (Srivastava et al, 2019), which appears to be associated with hippocampal volume (Ott et al, 2019).
Neuroimaging

The subgenual (under the knee, or anterior bend of the corpus callosum) anterior cingulate cortex is an area of particular interest. Reduced grey matter volume and decreased cerebral blood flow and metabolism in the left subgenual anterior cingulate had been demonstrated in people with bipolar disorder with a positive family history (Drevets et al, 1997).

Koo et al (2008) conducted a longitudinal study of bipolar disorder, scanning patients at the first episode psychosis, and again, 2-3 years later. They found progressive reduction in the volume of the anterior cingulate cortex.

Abnormalities of white matter tracts are demonstrated in patients with bipolar disorder (Barysheva et al, 2013) and their unaffected siblings (Sprooten et al, 2013).

Fateh et al (2019) found MDD and BD could be distinguished from healthy controls and from each other by examination of the connection of the hippocampus. This not yet standard clinical practice.

A neuroimaging breakthrough?

Goodkind et al (2015) (The Brainstorm Consortium) reported a large study – a meta-analysis of 193 studies - comparing the MRI scans of patients suffering the main psychiatric diagnoses (psychotic and non-psychotic). Spectacularly, they reported a ‘trans-diagnostic neural abnormality’! Grey matter loss was demonstrated in the dorsal cingulate-insula. This is a region involved in executive function, which is disrupted in some psychiatric disorders. BP was one of the disorders studies included and this grey matter loss was demonstrated.

Two years later the same group, this time led by McTeague (2017) reported a large meta-analysis of 283 studies – comparing functional brain activation in schizophrenia, bipolar and unipolar depression, anxiety disorders and substance use disorders - demonstrated a common pattern of disruption across these disorders.

The authors of the studies in the above 2 paragraphs suggest these results point to a move away from psychiatric diagnoses being made by clinical finding to a nosology based on objective findings. However, to this point, no biomarker has been approved for diagnosis of any mental disorder and clinical criteria endure.

Pathophysiology


Traditionally, interest has focused on neurotransmitter pathways (serotonin, acetylcholine, nor/adrenalin, dopamine, glutamate) – but, this has been unproductive.
**Intracellular signalling** pathways are complex and integrated. They allow the cell to receive, process, and respond to information. They are involved in regulating diverse vegetative functions such as mood, appetite and wakefulness, and are therefore likely to be involved in the pathophysiology of bipolar disorder. The G protein-cAMP pathway, protein kinase C (PKC) pathway, and calcium signalling are presently topics of interest.

**Neuroplasticity** refers to diverse processes by which the brain adapts to internal and external stimuli, and includes axonal sprouting, synaptogenesis and even neurogenesis. The reduced size of certain brain components in bipolar disorder suggests a failure of neuroplasticity. Abnormalities of glial cell function have been proposed, as these cells play a central role in the release of excitatory glutamate. Elevated glucocorticoid levels (possibly due to stress) have also been identified as potentially important, as these are associated with cell atrophy and vulnerability. Low levels of neuro-protective and neurotrophic factors may be important. Brain derived neurotropic factor (BDNF) facilitates dendritic sprouting – involved in maintaining circuits.

**Mitochondrial dysfunction** – problem with the “energy factory” of the body underpin many long-term inherited disorders. Zverova et al (2019) report that mitochondrial dysfunction is a feature of mood disorders and mitochondrial parameters can selectively distinguish MDD from BP depression.

**Telomere issues?** - telomeres are specialized structures at the ends of chromosomes – shortening leads to various health effects – shortening occurs with increasing age, and inflammation – and has been associated with mood disorders (Saquassina et al, 2019).

**Immunology**

Recently, there has been enormous interest immune system function in the major mental disorders. Immunological disturbance has been demonstrated in bipolar disorder (Altamura et al, 2013). Bipolar disorder depressed phase appears to be tightly linked to elevated levels of soluble interleukin-2 receptor (sIL-2R) (Tsai et al, 2014).

**Genetics**

BD is highly heritable (Craddock & Sklar, 2013). Studies which report a 1% incidence in the general population, report a 7% incidence in the first-degree relatives of people with bipolar disorder. A monozygotic twin of a bipolar patient has about a 60% risk of developing the disorder (Potash & DePaulo, 2002).

“The genetic basis of …bipolar disorder…is likely to be explained by the synergistic interaction of a small number of heterozygous deleterious mutations, rather than the interaction of common variant alleles” (Price and Morris, 2013; Price was a medical student).
Anttila et al (2018) (The Brainstorm Consortium) reported a high degree of genetic correlation among psychiatric disorders (including BD) – leading to a call for the restructuring of psychiatric restructuring.

**Epigenetics**

As with all branches of psychiatry, there is excitement about the possible role of epigenetics in BD. Dell’Osso et al (2014) reported lower BDNF gene promoter methylation in BD I compared to major MDD and BD II (p<0.01). Fries et al (2018) reviewed several studies which reported changes in microRNA expression.

**CYCLOTHYMIC DISORDER**

The DSM-5 diagnostic criteria are that over a period of 2 years there have been numerous episodes of hypomanic symptoms and numerous episodes of depressive symptoms. However, during this time it has not been possible to make a diagnosis of major depressive or manic episode.

Thus, cyclothymic disorder is a cyclic mood disorder with symptoms less pronounced than those of bipolar disorder.

Some authorities view cyclothymic disorder as a personality trait or disorder (cycloid or cyclothymic personality disorder) rather than an episodic disorder (Perugi et al, 2017). As BPD also has clinical similarities, Cyclothymic disorder is one of the least well described/understood DSM-5 “disorders”.

Cycloid or cyclothymic personality disorder does not appear in either the DSM-5 or the ICD-11, but this does not deny the existence of such a condition. Cyclothymic temperament can be quantified using the Temperament Evaluation of Memphis, Pisa, Paris and San Diego (TEMPS) and the Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI).

There is evidence that cyclothymic disorder (or cyclothymic personality disorder) is a part of a “spectrum of bipolar disorder” and may predispose to the development of bipolar disorder (Chiaroni et al, 2005).

There is also evidence that among healthy individuals, those with high cyclothymic scores (compared to those with low cyclothymic scores) have 1) significantly larger grey matter volume of the left medial frontal gyrus (MFG) (Hatano et al, 2014), and 2) increased [¹⁸F]-FDG uptake in the right superior parietal lobe (Hatano et al, 2017).

Some success has been reported the treatment of cyclothymic temperament with mood stabilizers (Manning et al, 2005).
Young mania rating scale (YMRS)

The YMRS (Young et al, 1978) is the most widely used instrument for quantifying mania. An adapted version is presented here. A printable version is freely available at www.cnsforum.com.

Guide for Scoring Items:
The purpose of each item is to rate the severity of that abnormality in the patient. When several keys are given for a particular grade or severity, the presence of only one is required to qualify for that rating.

The keys provided are guides. One can ignore the keys if that is necessary to indicate severity, although this should be the exception rather than the rule.

Scoring between the points given (whole or half points) is possible and encouraged after experience with the scale is acquired. This is particularly useful when severity of a particular item in a patient does not follow the progression indicated by the keys.

1. Elated Mood
   0. Absent
   1. Mildly or possibly increased on questioning
   2. Definite subjective elevation; optimistic, self-confident; cheerful; appropriate content
   3. Elevated, inappropriate to content; humorous
   4. Euphoric; inappropriate laughter; singing

2. Increased Motor Activity-Energy
   0. Absent
   1. Subjectively increased
   2. Animated; gestures increased
   3. Excessive energy; hyperactive at times; restless (can be calmed)
   4. Motor excitement; continuous hyperactivity (cannot be calmed)

3. Sexual Interest
   0. Normal; not increased
   1. Mildly or possibly increased
   2. Definite subjective increase on questioning
   3. Spontaneous sexual content; elaborates on sexual matters; hypersexual by self-report
   4. Overt sexual acts (towards patients, staff, or interviewer)

4. Sleep
   0. Reports no decrease in sleep
   1. Sleeping less than normal amount by up to one hour
   2. Sleeping less than normal by more than one hour
   3. Reports decreased need for sleep
   4. Denies need for sleep
5. Irritability
   0. Absent
   2. Subjectively increased
   4. Irritable at time during interview; recent episodes of anger or annoyance on ward
   6. Frequently irritable during interview; short, curt throughout
   8. Hostile, uncooperative; interview impossible

6. Speech (Rate and Amount)
   0. No increase
   2. Feels talkative
   4. Increased rate or amount at time, verbose at times
   6. Push; consistently increased rate and amount; difficult to interrupt
   8. Pressured; uninterruptible, continuous speech

7. Language-Thought Disorder
   0. Normal
   1. Circumstantial; mild distractibility; quick thoughts
   2. Distractible, loses goal of thought; changes topics frequently; racing thoughts
   3. Flight of ideas; tangentiality; difficult to follow; rhyming, echolalia
   4. Incoherent; communication impossible

8. Content
   0. Normal
   2. Questionable plans
   4. Special project(s); hyper-religious
   6. Grandiose or paranoid ideas; ideas of reference
   8. Delusions; hallucinations

9. Disruptive-Aggressive Behaviour
   0. Absent, cooperative
   2. Sarcastic; loud at times, guarded
   4. Demanding; threats on ward
   6. Threatens interviewer; shouting; interview difficult
   8. Assaultive; destructive; interview impossible

10. Appearance
    0. Appropriate dress and grooming
        1. Minimally unkempt
        2. Poorly groomed; moderately dishevelled; overdressed
        3. Dishevelled; partly clothed; garish make-up
        4. Completely unkempt; decorated; bizarre garb

11. Insight
    0. Present; admits illness; agrees to need for treatment
        1. Possibly ill
        2. Admits behaviour change, but denies illness
        3. Admits possible change in behaviour, but denies illness
        4. Denies any behaviour change
References


Squassina A et al. Mood disorders, accelerated aging and inflammation: is the link hidden in telomeres. Cells 2019, 8, 52; doi:10.3390/cells8010052


