

## ORIGINAL PAPER

Christine Fröhlich · Frank Jacobi · Hans-Ulrich Wittchen

**DSM-IV pain disorder in the general population****An exploration of the structure and threshold of medically unexplained pain symptoms**

Received: 18 March 2005 / Accepted: 12 September 2005 / Published online: 18 November 2005

■ **Abstract** *Background* Despite an abundance of questionnaire data, the prevalence of clinically significant and medically unexplained pain syndromes in the general population has rarely been examined with a rigid personal-interview methodology. *Objective* To examine the prevalence of pain syndromes and DSM-IV pain disorder in the general population and the association with other mental disorders, as well as effects on disability and health-care utilization. *Methods* Analyses were based on a community sample of 4,181 participants 18–65 years old; diagnostic variables were assessed with a standardized diagnostic interview (M-CIDI). *Results* The 12-month prevalence for DSM-IV pain disorder in the general population was 8.1%; more than 53% showed concurrent anxiety and mood disorders. Subjects with pain disorder revealed significantly poorer quality of life, greater disability, and higher health-care utilization rates compared to cases with pain below the diagnostic threshold. The majority had more than one type of pain, with excessive headache being the most frequent type. *Conclusions* Even when stringent diagnostic criteria are used, pain disorder ranks among the most prevalent conditions in the community. The joint effects of high prevalence in all age groups, substantial disability, and increased health services utilization result in a substantial total burden, exceeding that of depression and anxiety.

■ **Key words** DSM-IV pain disorder · pain syndromes · comorbidity · impairment · Composite International Diagnostic Interview (CIDI)

**Introduction**

Chronic pain is well known as a highly prevalent condition in the general population. However, population-based prevalence studies have provided only incomplete and quite inconsistent epidemiological characterization. For example, prevalence rates of pain vary from 2%–50% for the general population depending on varying methodological factors [48]. Table 1 presents core results along with basic methodological information from recent epidemiological studies focussing on community surveys.

Beyond “true” prevalence differences (e.g., due to cultural and ethnical factors [17]), this variability of prevalence rates can be largely attributed to critical issues in the assessment of pain and mental disorders in general, such as the conceptual level (coverage, symptoms vs. diagnosis), the time frame (e.g., 12 month vs. lifetime), and the assessment method (e.g., questionnaire vs. interview) [54, 55].

Because of the complex nature of pain, the development of a comprehensive and coherent theoretical framework for chronic pain and a universally applicable and accepted classification system has proven difficult [29]. As a result, there is also no universally accepted diagnostic instrument for epidemiological research in this domain. In the development of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) [2–4], the diagnostic criteria of pain were tentatively specified and revised several times and finally labelled “pain disorder” in DSM-IV as a primarily descriptive and not etiological term. The specification also allowed for the first time the development of a standardized diagnostic interview approach to assess and clinically evaluate pain, but representative epidemiological studies using DSM-IV criteria are still not available [14].

The inclusion of a pain assessment module in recent diagnostic instruments, such as CIDI, also allows examination with greater precision of correlates and patterns of comorbidity with other mental disorders. The associ-

Dipl.-Psych. Ch. Fröhlich (✉) · F. Jacobi, PhD · H.-U. Wittchen, PhD  
Technische Universität Dresden  
Institute of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy  
Chemnitz Str. 46  
01187 Dresden, Germany  
Tel.: +49-351/463-36990  
Fax: +49-351/463-36984  
E-Mail: froehlich@psychologie.tu-dresden.de

**Table 1** Prevalence rates of chronic pain in recent community-based surveys

Study	Sample	Definition/assessment of pain	Prevalence (time frame)
USA National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES-I) [36]	N = 3.059 age: 25–74	chronic musculoskeletal pain for 6 months/self-report	total 14.4 % (12 months)
UK [15]	N = 3.605	any chronic pain for 3 months/two questions in unspecific questionnaire in postal survey	total 50.4 % (6 months)
Germany Early developmental stages of psychopathology study (EDSP) [35]	N = 3.021 age: 14–24	DSM-IV pain disorder/M-CIDI	total 1.4 %, men 0.3 %, women 2.6 % (12 months)
Australia [10]	N = 17.543	pain experienced every day for three months/telephone survey	men 17.1 %, women 20 % (6 months)
Hungary [43]	N = 12.640	impairment caused by pain/unspecific questionnaire	total 32.7 %
Centers in 14 countries World Health Organization Collaborative Project on Psychological Problems in General Health Care [21]	N = 3.197 primary care patients age: 18–65	pain on most days in past 6 months/CIDI	total 22.7 % (6 months)
Denmark Danish Health and Morbidity Survey [16]	N = 12.333	chronic pain for 6 months/one question in interview	total 19 %, men 16 %, women 21 % (6 months)
France [34]	N = 10.585	headache/interview, questionnaire	2.9 % (point prevalence)
Germany, Italy, Portugal, Spain, UK [40]	N = 18.980	painful condition for 6 months/unspecific question in telephone survey	total 17.1 %, men 13.2 %, women 20.7 % (12 months)
Germany Core survey of the National Health and Examination survey (GHS) [31]	N = 7.124 age: 18–65	musculoskeletal pain and other painful conditions/unspecific questionnaire	total 16 %, men 14 %, women 18 % (12 month)
Germany: Catchment Area of Luebeck [20]	N = 4.075	DSM-IV pain disorder/M-CIDI	men 1.8 %, women 3.6 % (6 months)
Netherlands, DMC3 Study [41]	N = 3.664	back pain/unspecific questionnaire in postal survey	total 26.9 % (12 months)
USA National Comorbidity Survey (NCS) [38]	N = 5.877	severe arthritis/unspecific questionnaire	total 7 % (12 months)
Canada Canadian Community Health Survey [13]	N = 118.533	chronic back pain for 6 months/unspecific questionnaire	total 9 % (12 months)

ation of pain with other mental disorders, particularly depression, has been of interest for many years. Prevalence rates of major depression in pain patients range from 18 %–54 % [6, 13, 14, 36], compared to 2 %–8 % in the general population [e. g., 28, 51, 52]. The increasing prevalence of chronic pain is associated with an increasing number of depressive symptoms; in addition, nearly every second respondent diagnosed with major depression reports also experiencing pain [40]. Bair et al. [5] point out that the presence of depression in pain patients is associated with more pain complaints and greater impairment and that the presence of pain in depressive patients affects quality of life, occupational functioning, and health-care utilization. Findings with regard to the chronological order of pain and comorbid conditions are heterogeneous. Fishbain et al. [18] reviewed 83 clinical and epidemiological studies with regard to several hypotheses on the comorbidity of pain (e. g., antecedent, consequence, or cognitive-mediation hypothesis). According to this review, pain precedes depression in most comorbid cases (i. e., there is stronger evidence for depression as a consequence of pain). Prospective studies indicate a bidirectional association, rather than a simultaneous beginning [e. g., 11, 35, 37].

Less attention is paid to comorbidity with anxiety disorders although data imply an association at least as strong as that which occurs with depression [38, 49].

Because of these inconsistent findings, the inconsistent definitions of “chronic pain”, and the absence of representative studies using DSM-IV criteria for pain disorder, the aims of the present study were to examine (1) the prevalence of clinically significant and medically unexplained pain symptoms as well as of DSM-IV pain disorder in the general population; (2) the type and strength of associations of pain symptoms/DSM-IV pain disorder with mood, anxiety, and substance disorder; and (3) the association with disability days, quality of life, and health-care utilization.

## Methods

Findings are based on the Mental Health Supplement of the German National Health Interview and Examination Survey 1998/99 (GHS-MHS). Aims, design, and methods have been described in greater detail elsewhere [8, 26]. Therefore, design and sample characteristics are only briefly discussed here.

## ■ Sample

The GHS covered a range of medical and social assessments in a multistage stratified random sample of the general German population from 18 to 79 years of age, drawn from population registries ( $N = 7,124$ ; response rate: 61%). The mental health supplement covered a subsample of this population ( $N = 4,181$ ; response rate within that subsample: 87.6%) and can be regarded as representative for the German noninstitutionalized adult population from 18 to 65 years of age. GHS respondents older than 65 years were excluded because of unsatisfactory psychometric properties of the diagnostic interview for use in older populations [30].

## ■ Assessment

The assessment of mental disorders was based on the computer-assisted version of the Munich Composite International Diagnostic Interview (DIA-X/M-CIDI; [57, 59]), administered by clinically trained interviewers (psychologists and MDs). The M-CIDI is a fully structured interview that allows the assessment of symptoms and syndromes, as well as 4-week, 12-month, and selected lifetime diagnoses of a wide range of mental disorders, based on DSM-IV [4] and ICD-10 [60]. Psychometric properties of the M-CIDI were found to range from “acceptable” to “very good” [32, 42, 56, 59]. All subsequent analyses were performed for 12-month criteria.

■ **Pain symptoms and DSM-IV pain disorder.** Diagnostic criteria for DSM-IV pain disorder are presented in Table 2. In the M-CIDI, first the presence of the following painful conditions in the past 12 months was assessed: excessive abdominal pain, excessive back pain, joint pain, limb pain, chest pain, excessive headache, excessive painful menstruation, rectal and genital pain, and other pain. Whenever the respondent acknowledged having experienced at least one of these pain types, the interviewer entered a standardized complex set of probe questions to evaluate the nature of the complaint [45, 58]. There are several levels of probing before the symptom ultimately is considered “medically unexplained”. The probe questions started with establishing clinical severity with respect to significance (criterion A [4]). A symptom was considered clinically significant if any of the following conditions are met: (1) the symptom prompts help-seeking behavior with a medical doctor or (2) another health professional; (3) medication was taken more than once for it; or (4) the symptom interfered substantially with life or activity.

The next probe questions targeted whether any somatic/substance-related factors might explain the occurrence of the symptom. If there was at least one significant occasion where the symptom was

not entirely explained by medical diagnosis, use of medication or drugs, injuries, or combinations of these, the symptom was rated as unexplained (or somatoform).

If at least one painful condition was found to be present as clinically relevant, further questions were asked to assess the diagnosis of DSM-IV pain disorder (criterion B [4]): (1) Did the pain ever last for a period of at least six months? (2) Did the pain ever prevent you for a period of six months from meeting your friends and family and from doing your work? (3) How strongly did the pain interfere with your life and activities (a little, a lot, or very much)? If the respondent acknowledged impairment for six months or at least a substantial interference with daily living, the diagnosis of DSM-IV pain disorder was given.

For the main diagnostic category “any somatoform disorder”, the retest reliability of the M-CIDI (1 week) as well as validity (concordance of interview and clinician’s diagnoses in a clinical sample) were lower compared to depressive and anxiety disorders but still acceptable ( $\kappa = 0.50\text{--}0.62$  [42, 58, 59]).

■ **Mental disorders.** The following DSM-IV mental disorders were considered for the subsequent analysis: dependence and abuse of alcohol/illicit substances, mood disorders (major depression, dysthymia, bipolar disorders), and anxiety disorders (panic disorder, social phobia, any specific phobia, generalized anxiety disorder (GAD), obsessive-compulsive disorder). The temporal relation among disorders in comorbid cases was assessed by using retrospective, self-reported ages-of-onset data.

■ **Sociodemographic correlates, impairment, and health-care utilization.** The following sociodemographic correlates of DSM-IV pain disorder were examined: sex, age, marital status, education, employment status, and social class (derived from information on education, income and current (job) position [50]). Impairment was examined first by the self-reported number of disability days in terms of being unable to carry out usual daily activities within the past 12 months. Second, health-related quality of life (SF-36 [12, 50]) was presented as a physical and a mental health score (standardized to  $M = 50$ ,  $SD = 10$ ). The assessment of health-care utilization included self-reported data on primary care visits, consultations with specialists (12 domains, including neurologists, psychiatrists, and psychologists), and days spent in hospital within the past 12 months.

## ■ Analytic strategy

Statistical analyses were done with the STATA software package, version 8.0 [46]. Presented prevalence estimates ( $N$ , %) were calculated with the data weighted for age, gender, region, and screening status in order to address different sampling probabilities and systematic non-response [26]. Multinomial logistic regression models (odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals) were used to quantify associations between DSM-IV pain disorder and several covariates (e.g., comorbid mental disorders, sociodemographic correlates). Associations with count variables (e.g., impairment days, number of comorbid disorders) were assessed with mean ratios (MRs) from negative binomial regression [25, 33]. MRs meet the positively skewed distribution of infrequent events and reflect the change in the expected count of a particular event per unit-increase in the covariate. For SF-36 (mental health) and SF-36 (physical health), the inversed ratios from a gamma regression were used to determine size and statistical significance of the differences among groups. All comparisons were controlled for age.

## Results

### ■ Prevalence of pain symptoms and DSM-IV pain disorder

Table 3 shows 12-month prevalences of pain symptoms considered as being clinically significant and medically

**Table 2** Diagnostic criteria for DSM-IV pain disorder

A. Pain in one or more anatomical sites is the predominant focus of the clinical presentation and is of sufficient severity to warrant clinical attention.
B. The pain causes clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
C. Psychological factors are judged to have an important role in the onset, severity, exacerbation, or maintenance of the pain.
D. The symptom or deficit is not intentionally produced or feigned (as in Factitious Disorder or malingering).
E. The pain is not better accounted for by a Mood, Anxiety, or Psychotic Disorder and does not meet criteria for Dyspareunia.
<i>Code as follows:</i>
307.80 Pain Disorder Associated with Psychological Factors
307.89 Pain Disorder Associated with Both Psychological Factors and a General Medical Condition
Note: The following is not considered to be a mental disorder and is included here to facilitate differential diagnosis: Pain Disorder Associated with a General Medical Condition
<i>Specify if:</i>
Acute: duration of less than 6 months
Chronic: duration of 6 months or longer

**Table 3** The 12-month prevalence of clinically significant, medically unexplained pain symptoms and DSM-IV pain disorder in the general population (GHS-MHS; age: 18–65; total: N = 4.181; men: N = 2.107; women: N = 2.074)

	Total sample		Men				Women			
	N	%	total %	18–34 %	35–49 %	50–65 %	total %	18–34 %	35–49 %	50–65 %
<b>Symptom level</b>										
Clinically significant, medically not explained pain symptoms <sup>1</sup>										
Excessive abdominal pain	348	8.3	6.4	8.4	5.9	4.4	10.3	12.4	10.0	8.5
Excessive back pain	355	8.5	6.7	6.4	7.5	6.2	10.3	7.3	13.0	10.7
Joint pain	299	7.2	5.9	4.8	4.9	8.2	8.5	4.1	8.7	12.8
Limb pain	142	3.4	2.4	1.7	2.4	3.4	4.4	2.5	4.1	6.8
Chest pain	252	6.1	6.0	3.9	6.8	7.5	6.1	4.4	6.5	7.6
Excessive headache	529	12.7	8.2	8.4	9.0	8.8	16.7	18.5	15.2	16.2
Excessive painful menstruation	341	–	–	–	–	–	16.4	21.6	14.3	13.2
Rectal and genital pain	67	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.0	1.4	1.9	1.6	2.3	1.7
Any other pain	27	0.6	0.5	0.1	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.4	1.2	0.8
Any clinically significant, medically not explained pain symptom <sup>2</sup>	1523	28.3	22.4	22.1	23.7	21.3	34.2	36.6	32.9	33.1
Proportion of subjects with pain in one or more sites										
one		67.9	78.3	77.8	81.6	75.0	61.0	66.7	56.9	58.5
two		22.7	15.4	14.2	14.8	17.7	27.6	25.4	31.0	26.5
three		6.5	4.9	7.3	2.4	5.1	7.6	4.2	8.8	10.1
four or more		2.9	1.4	0.7	1.3	2.2	3.9	3.7	3.3	4.8
<b>Diagnostic level</b>										
DSM-IV pain disorder <sup>3</sup>	340	8.1	4.3	4.0	4.5	6.4	11.4	11.2	12.2	10.7
Proportion of subjects with pain in one or more sites										
one		45.0	46.6	61.9	30.2	48.6	44.3	56.4	44.1	31.3
two		32.4	32.5	20.9	50.1	26.8	32.4	25.7	38.5	32.6
three		14.5	16.8	14.2	16.1	19.2	13.6	11.3	9.4	21.0
four or more		8.1	4.2	14.5	3.7	5.4	9.7	6.7	8.0	15.2

<sup>1</sup> Rated by the interviewer as not the result of somatic condition, injury, medication, or drug use; at least mild impairment

<sup>2</sup> At least one of the somatoform pain symptoms above (DSM-IV criteria A and C) without meeting criterion B for pain disorder

<sup>3</sup> Significant impairment by at least one pain symptom for at least six months (DSM-IV criterion B); rates without diagnostic exclusion rules (non-hierarchical); if the full diagnostic differential criteria were applied (hierarchical: exclusion if somatization disorder or undifferentiated somatization disorder/Somatic Symptom Index (SSI4.6) according to Escobar et al. [17] was present), rates would be as follows: total sample: 6.4% (N = 268), men: 3.9% (N = 82), women: 8.9% (N = 185)

unexplained, as well as DSM-IV pain disorder in the general population. All pain symptoms as well as DSM-IV pain disorder were more frequent in women. Excessive headache was the most frequent painful condition (total sample: 12.7%; men: 8.2%; women: 16.7%), consistent over all age groups. Abdominal pain and excessive back pain were also often reported (total: 8.3% and 8.5%, respectively); in women, excessive, painful menstruation was very common, peaking at age 18–34 with 21.6%.

Of the sample, 28% (men: 22.4%; women: 34.2%) reported at least one pain symptom without meeting criteria for DSM-IV pain disorder, and 8.1% met the criteria for DSM-IV pain disorder (men: 4.3%; women: 11.4%). If the exclusion criteria of somatization disorder or undifferentiated somatization disorder/Somatic Symptom Index (SSI4.6) according to Escobar et al. (1989) [17] were applied, the number decreased to 6.4% (men: 3.9%; women: 8.9%). If the diagnosis of DSM-IV pain disorder was given, in most cases (55%) multiple pain symptoms were reported; 8.1% reported four or more symptoms. If clinically significant, medically un-

explained pain symptoms were present, men reported a pure pain symptom more often than did women (78.3% vs. 61%); in DSM-IV pain disorder, the number of combined symptoms was about the same in men and women except for the category of four or more symptoms, which was more frequent in women (9.7% vs. 4.2%).

We also examined the prevalence of DSM-IV pain disorder by pain site (not shown in Table 3), revealing that in the total sample, 3.8% had a DSM-IV pain disorder associated with excessive headache, 2.3% with excessive back pain, 2.1% with excessive abdominal pain, 1.9% with joint pain, 1.5% with chest pain, 1.3% with limb pain, and 0.3% with rectal and genital pain or other pain.

### ■ Association of pain with mental disorders

We examined the prevalence of major comorbid diagnostic subgroups and the mean number of 12-month disorders in the groups having (a) no pain symptoms, (b) any clinically relevant pain symptom, and (c) DSM-

IV pain disorder. As compared to subjects without pain symptoms, rates for mental disorders were strongly elevated in subjects meeting criteria for DSM-IV pain disorder, with GAD (7.1%; OR = 7.31; CI: 4.32–12.37) and dysthymia (16.7%; OR = 5.63; CI: 4.01–7.92) being the most elevated comorbid diagnoses. Substance-use disorders tended also to be more frequent in subjects with DSM-IV pain disorder (men: 9.9% vs. 6.4% without pain symptoms; women: 3.1% vs. 1.7%), but this increase in frequency did not reach statistical significance. In subjects with DSM-IV pain disorder, 56% met the diagnostic criteria for any other 12-month disorder (vs. 33.5% without pain disorder; OR = 2.56; CI: 1.96–3.35) and showed a mean number of 2.4 comorbid 12-month disorders (vs. 1.6; MR = 1.48; CI: 1.36–1.62). Having more than one pain symptom increased the comorbidity with all examined mental disorders, even significantly for any 12-month disorder, mean number of 12-month disorders, and any anxiety disorder.

Because of noticeable sex differences in comorbidity rates, comorbid pain symptoms and DSM-IV pain disorder are presented separately for men and women (Table 4). Women showed higher prevalence rates of all disorders as well as higher comorbidity rates in cases with any pain symptom (except for any substance abuse/dependence). The increase of additional diagnoses with vs. without pain disorder was higher in males, especially for GAD (men: 8%; OR = 13.00; CI: 5.12–31.10 vs. women: 6.7%; OR = 4.91; CI: 2.58–9.33). Further analyses of depressive symptom patterns in persons with and without pain disorder revealed a slightly greater number of depressive symptoms in men than in women; this increase was not specific to somatic symptoms because cognitive and affective symptoms were significantly elevated as well (not presented in tables).

In an examination of the prevalence of DSM-IV pain disorder by pain site (not shown in Table 4), joint and limb pain were found to be highly comorbid with mental disorders compared to the other pain symptoms under consideration. DSM-IV pain disorder associated with limb pain showed the greatest comorbidity with any 12-month disorder (81.3%; OR = 3.60; CI: 1.64–7.90), especially in men (84.4%; OR = 5.37; CI: 1.36–21.20). In contrast, DSM-IV pain disorder associated with excessive back pain showed relatively lower comorbidity rates.

#### ■ **Correlates and effects of pain syndromes and pain disorder on impairment and health-care utilization**

■ **Sociodemographic correlates.** Sociodemographic correlates for DSM-IV pain disorder were found to be female sex (OR = 2.48; CI: 1.92–3.20) and unemployment compared to working fulltime (OR = 2.10; CI: 1.37–3.22). Subjects from the lower social class showed elevated rates compared to those of medium or high social class (OR = 1.48; CI: 1.07–2.06).

■ **Impairment and health care utilization.** Table 5 shows (1) impairment in terms of number of disability days and quality of life and (2) different domains of health-care utilization in subjects with any pain symptom and DSM-IV pain disorder. Because we found no significant sex differences (although men tended to have more disability days and visits with specialists and primary care visits), results are shown for the total sample.

The diagnosis of DSM-IV pain disorder is significantly associated with impairment and health-care utilization for all variables under consideration. Whereas subjects having no pain symptoms and any clinically significant pain symptom reported fewer disability days than did the total sample (12.9), the mean number of disability days was significantly increased in subjects with diagnosed DSM-IV pain disorder (29.7; MR = 2.55; CI: 1.99–3.27).

Quality of life with regard to mental health (SF-36) was significantly reduced in subjects with any pain symptom; this effect was much stronger in subjects with DSM-IV pain disorder. The physical component of the SF-36 was decreased only in DSM-IV pain disorder.

The mean numbers of visits in general practice, specialist visits, and number of days in hospital were increased in subjects with any pain symptom, and even more in those with a diagnosis of DSM-IV pain disorder (e.g., number of days in hospital: 2.6; MR = 1.91; CI: 1.28–2.84). Findings were not as pronounced but still significant after having been controlled for duration of pain or comorbidity with mental disorders and somatic conditions. To check whether the effects were better explained by comorbidity than pain itself, we conducted the same analyses for pure DSM-IV pain disorder (43%, N = 148). Effects remained significant for number of disability days and doctor visits (specialists and primary care). In an analysis of pain symptoms separately in subjects with diagnosed DSM-IV pain disorder (not shown in Table 5), the number of pain symptoms was strongly associated with all impairment measures; however, we found no special pain symptom related to increased impairment or health-care utilization in the total sample, either in men or in women.

## Discussion

This is to our knowledge the first community study examining the prevalence and selected correlates of medically unexplained and clinically significant pain symptoms as well as pain disorder according to the rigid criteria of DSM-IV. Unlike most other studies, prevalence estimates reported here are based on a careful exploration of the symptom level by use of a standardized diagnostic module administered by clinical interviewers and using an objective, computerized diagnostic analysis. Limitations are (1) a restricted range of pain types assessed, (2) the lack of diagnostic routine medical appraisal of symptoms, (3) the sole reliance on a cross-sectional assessment without chart information, and (4) a

**Table 4** Associations with other mental disorders in men and women with any clinically significant, medically unexplained pain disorder: 12-month prevalences and odds ratios of major diagnostic subgroups, mean number of comorbid disorders (GHS-MHS; men: N = 2.102; women: N = 2.079)

Disorders (DSM-IV)	Prevalence in the general population				Prevalence if any clinically significant, medically unexplained pain symptom is present				Prevalence if DSM-IV pain disorder is present								
	Total	Men		Women	Men	OR <sup>5</sup>	95% CI	Women	%	OR <sup>5</sup>	95% CI	Men	%	OR <sup>5</sup>	95% CI	Women	%
	N	%	%	%													
Any substance																	
Abuse/dependence <sup>1</sup>	187	4.5	6.4	1.7	9.4	1.93	0.99–2.28	2.4	1.76	0.92–3.38	9.9	1.59	0.77–3.31	3.1	2.00	0.88–4.55	
Any mood disorder <sup>2</sup>	499	11.9	6.7	15.4	9.6	1.19	0.81–1.76	20.5	1.78*	1.39–2.29	30.0	5.48*	3.39–8.87	29.7	2.69*	1.96–3.71	
Major depression	347	8.3	4.5	11.2	6.0	1.14	0.71–1.86	15.1	1.78*	1.34–2.37	17.5	4.28*	2.42–7.57	20.8	2.37*	1.66–3.38	
Dysthymia	188	4.5	1.8	5.8	4.5	1.58	0.92–2.72	7.4	1.59*	1.08–2.34	19.6	9.75*	5.45–17.46	15.4	3.91*	2.56–5.94	
Any anxiety disorder <sup>3</sup>	604	14.5	6.6	19.8	12.3	1.55*	1.11–2.19	26.7	1.88*	1.51–2.35	32.8	5.65*	3.56–8.94	36.5	2.69*	2.12–3.62	
Panic disorder	98	2.3	0.7	3.0	3.2	2.62*	1.28–5.37	4.6	2.09*	1.29–3.37	9.0	7.35*	3.36–16.09	7.8	3.45*	2.83–5.87	
GAD	63	1.5	0.5	2.1	1.1	1.19	0.46–3.08	2.7	1.64	0.88–3.04	8.0	13.00*	5.12–33.11	6.7	4.91*	2.58–9.33	
Social phobia	82	2.0	1.0	2.7	1.2	0.90	0.33–2.49	3.1	1.27	0.74–2.17	7.3	7.99*	3.27–19.55	6.3	3.01*	1.62–5.60	
Specific phobia	318	7.6	3.4	10.8	6.3	1.61	1.00–2.59	15.4	1.97*	1.49–2.61	12.5	3.41*	1.82–6.35	18.8	2.14*	1.51–3.11	
Any 12-month disorder (without pain) <sup>4</sup>	1152	27.6	18.2	31.9	31.7	1.76*	1.35–2.01	43.2	2.16*	1.77–2.63	59.0	5.52*	3.52–8.65	55.4	3.05*	2.27–4.10	
Mean number of 12-month disorders <sup>4</sup>		0.6	0.3	0.7	0.5	1.26*	1.01–1.56	0.8	1.23*	1.06–1.43	2.4	7.90*	6.60–9.47	2.3	4.81*	4.23–5.49	

<sup>a</sup> Mean ratios (MIK) from negative binominal regression and 95 % confidence intervals (CI); controlled for age; reference group: not having the condition under consideration (any clinically significant pain symptom; DSM-IV pain disorder)

\*  $P < 0.05$

**Table 5** Impairment and health-care utilization in participants with no pain symptom, any clinically significant, medically unexplained pain symptom or DSM-IV pain disorder (GHS-MHS; total: N = 4,181)

	Total sample	No clinically significant, medically unexplained pain symptoms			Clinically significant, medically unexplained pain symptoms			DSM-IV pain disorder		
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Ratio <sup>4</sup>	95 % CI	Mean (SD)	Ratio <sup>4</sup>	95 % CI	Mean (SD)	Ratio <sup>4</sup>	95 % CI
Number of disability days <sup>1</sup>	12.9 (38.4)	11.4 (35.8)	0.72*	0.59–0.86	11.6 (32.3)	0.89	0.73–1.08	29.7 (34.8)	2.55*	1.99–3.27
SF-36 (mental health) <sup>2</sup>	50.5 (8.8)	51.9 (7.8)	0.92*	0.21–0.93	48.7 (9.4)	1.05*	1.03–1.06	45.7 (8.5)	1.11*	1.08–1.13
SF-36 (physical health) <sup>2</sup>	49.2 (8.8)	50.1 (8.8)	0.95*	0.94–0.96	48.8 (8.3)	1.01	0.99–1.02	43.2 (8.5)	1.12*	1.10–1.15
Number of general practice visits <sup>3</sup>	3.0 (4.8)	2.7 (4.1)	0.77*	0.68–0.86	3.3 (5.3)	1.16*	1.02–1.32	4.3 (4.6)	1.46*	1.21–1.75
Number of specialist visits <sup>3</sup>	5.4 (8.8)	4.4 (7.5)	0.65*	0.58–0.72	6.2 (9.6)	1.24*	1.11–1.40	9.4 (8.2)	1.84*	1.57–2.16
Number of days in hospital <sup>3</sup>	1.5 (1.5)	1.3 (6.2)	0.71*	0.52–0.99	1.5 (8.1)	1.10	0.74–1.62	2.6 (6.9)	1.91*	1.28–2.84

<sup>1</sup> Reported number of days being unable to carry out usual activities (within past 12 months)

<sup>2</sup> SF36 [10, 47] sum scores mental and physical health (MW = 50, SD = 10)

<sup>3</sup> Self-reported health-care utilization within last 12 months: visits to general practice, visits to specialists (12 domains), days spent in hospital

<sup>4</sup> For count variables (number of disability days, number of doctor visits, inpatient days): Mean ratios (MRs) from negative binominal regression and 95 % confidence intervals (CI); controlled for age; reference group: not having the condition under consideration (any clinically significant pain symptom, DSM-IV pain disorder)

For SF-36 (mental health) and SF-36 (physical health): inversed ratio from gamma regression and 95 % confidence intervals (CI); controlled for age; reference group: not having the condition under consideration (any clinically significant pain symptom, DSM-IV pain disorder); for interpretation: a significant ratio of > 1 indicates a decrease of health related quality of life

\* p < 0.05

restricted age range. Respondents older than 65 years were not considered because the psychometric properties for such interview tools in older populations have not yet been established [30].

■ **Prevalence of pain.** Even with our more stringent complex interview approach, medically unexplained and clinically significant *symptoms of pain* were found to be a highly prevalent phenomenon in the general population: 22 % of all males and 34 % of all females reported having experienced at least one such problem during the past 12 months. Consistent with previous findings [e.g., 35, 40] excessive headache, abdominal pain, excessive back pain, and painful menstruation in women were the most frequent painful conditions in the total sample as well as in subjects with diagnosed DSM-IV pain disorder. Prevalence rates for specific pain types ranged from 0.6 % (other, not specified pain) to 13 % (excessive headache). Although similar high frequencies have been reported elsewhere [e.g., 1, 13, 15, 16, 21], direct comparisons with previous studies are difficult and restricted because most studies used a different range and scope of symptoms [14].

Using the DSM-IV diagnostic criteria, the study findings revealed that one out of four subjects with pain symptoms also met the criteria for *DSM-IV pain disorder*. The 12-month prevalence estimates of 8 % (men: 4 %; women: 11 %) make this the most prevalent of all 12-month mental disorders in the general population. This estimate lies between the much higher rates of questionnaire-type studies and the lower rates of psychiatric diagnostic investigations.

Because there is still a lack of consensus with regard to uniformly accepted definitions and assessments of pain and a dearth of coherent theoretical and methodological evidence, diagnoses based on DSM-IV criteria are a reasonable methodological refinement, for exam-

ple, by facilitating comparisons of prevalence rates across different studies [14, 29]. In this regard it has to be kept in mind that neither DSM-IV nor epidemiological research conceptualize mental disorders as nosological entities with clear-cut boundaries. This is a basic problem in our current research practice for which there are no solutions yet. Although it is claimed that the criteria offer the best comprehensive reliable diagnosis and classification of pain – regardless of the pain manifestation – available today, Sullivan [47] criticizes DSM-IV pain disorder as “a diagnosis of exclusion”, providing neither clear criteria for diagnosis nor implications for therapy, indicating that we are still not close to a perfect method of diagnosing this condition.

■ **Association of pain with other mental disorders.** 56 % of the cases with DSM-IV pain disorder met the criteria of at least one other mental disorder. Findings confirm that comorbidity seems to be the rule rather than the exception [54, 55]. DSM-IV pain disorder revealed high comorbidity rates in particular with depressive (30 %) and anxiety disorders (35 %). The novelty of this finding lies in the fact that it provides evidence for the presence of full-blown threshold mental disorders with DSM-IV pain disorder and not merely an association with syndromes. In longitudinal studies, pain and major diagnostic subgroups showed a bidirectional association, with a prevalent prior onset of pain in comorbid cases with depressive and substance-use disorders [11, 18, 35, 37]. We did not report temporal patterns here because of methodological limitations (age of onset was assessed only retrospectively), but our data are consistent with these findings (e.g., pain as the primary condition in 75 % of pain cases comorbid with depression, supporting the hypothesis of depression being a consequence of pain).

The association with depressive disorders is well doc-

umented [e. g., 7, 13, 21, 24, 40, 49], but the exact mechanism has not yet been properly established [6, 39]. Since most of this knowledge can be drawn from clinical studies, further research should examine cognitive and behavioral factors in this association as well as shared psychopathological mechanisms and pathways that are consistent in particular with the consequence hypothesis. However, for the subgroup of comorbid cases without an earlier onset of threshold pain disorder, other mechanisms might be applied. Pain symptoms that exist for a long time without fulfilling the criteria for pain disorder can, for example, achieve a completely different quality (e. g., decreased pain tolerance) in the context of a major depressive episode without necessarily “causing” the depression or “being caused” by the depression; additionally, a predisposition to depressive symptoms may increase the likelihood for the development of a full-blown depression in some pain patients. These kind of mechanisms correspond to the “scar hypotheses” that is supported in several studies [18].

Current treatment strategies for pain do include some components that are used in depression treatment as well (e. g., establishment and maintenance of positive activities, increasing self-functioning), but overall the frequent comorbidity seems not to be adequately covered. It can be assumed already under current conditions – even though the interplay between pain and comorbid mental disorders is not yet satisfactorily explained – that it is important to include and implement knowledge about the comorbidity of pain more explicitly in treatment.

■ **Gender differences.** Women showed higher rates of all pain symptoms examined, DSM-IV pain disorder, and number of combined pain symptoms. If the diagnosis of DSM-IV pain disorder is given, men show significantly higher comorbidity rates for all mental disorders, with GAD and dysthymia being the most frequent comorbid disorders. The association of pain disorder with other mental disorders was more pronounced in males (e. g., mood disorders: 7 % without vs. 30 % with pain disorder) as compared to females (15 % vs. 30 %). This could lead to the assumption that that DSM-IV pain disorder works as a stressor especially in men [see also 19, 23]. It may also be suggested that in terms of a “masked” depression [9], men report more somatic symptoms because of an inability to communicate depressive feelings. This view is not supported by closer analyses of depressive symptom patterns: the number of somatic symptoms of depression were more elevated in men than in women, but this increase was not specific to somatic symptoms because in comorbid cases cognitive and affective symptoms were significantly elevated as well.

■ **Impairment and health-care utilization.** Pain was associated with extraordinary rates of disability days, substantially reduced physical and mental well-being, and highly increased rates of health-care utilization in sev-

eral different domains. The associations were already pronounced for any clinically significant pain syndrome and even more pronounced for DSM-IV pain disorder, even exceeding those of depression and anxiety. The commonly reported major effect of comorbidity on impairment for mental disorders in general [e. g., 21, 22] and for pain and depression in particular [6] was confirmed in this study, but disability days and health-care utilization were significantly increased in cases without comorbidities as well. The effects of the diagnosis of DSM-IV pain disorder remained stable after having been controlled for sex, age, duration of pain, or comorbidity with mental and physical disorders, suggesting that DSM-IV pain disorder itself is strongly associated with impairment, decreased self-rated health status, and increased health-care utilization.

■ **Implications.** The value of the data lies in the demonstration that (a) even using stringent diagnostic criteria, 8 % of the general population meet criteria for pain disorder and that (b) pain disorder is associated with high comorbidity of DSM-IV depressive and anxiety disorders (which cannot be explained solely by symptom overlap), as well as reduced rates of quality of life and impairment. The joint effects of high prevalence in all age groups, substantial disability, and reduced quality of life, as well as increased health-services utilization result in a substantial total burden, exceeding that of depression and anxiety. The data further indirectly highlight the considerable degree of unmet need for treatment in patients with pain disorder.

■ **Acknowledgements** This study was supported by grant 01EH970/8 (German Federal Ministry of Research, Education and Science; BMBF). The reported data on mental disorders were assessed in the Mental Health Supplement of the German Health Survey, conducted by the Max-Planck-Institute of Psychiatry, Munich. Principal investigator was Prof. Dr. Hans-Ulrich Wittchen. Reported sociodemographic and somatic health status variables come from the Core Survey (GHS-CS), conducted by the Robert Koch-Institute, Berlin. Principal investigators of the GHS-CS were Dr. Bärbel-Maria Kurth and Dr. Wolfgang Thefeld.

*Note:* Data from this study are available as a Public Use File from the second author (manual and variable description in the German language): Dr. Frank Jacobi, Institute of Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy, Chemnitz Str. 46, D-01187 Dresden, Germany; E-Mail: jacobi@psychologie.tu-dresden.de. For further information about the Core Survey (GHS-CS) and its Public Use File, contact the Robert Koch-Institute, Dr. Heribert Stolzenberg, Nordufer 20, D-13353 Berlin, Germany; E-Mail: stolzenbergh@rki.de.

## References

1. Altamura AC, Carta MG, Tacchini G, Musazzi A, Pioli MR (1998) Prevalence of somatoform disorders in a psychiatric population: an Italian nationwide survey. *Eur Arch Psy Clin N* 248:267–271
2. American Psychiatric Association (1980) *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (3rd edn)* (DSM-III). Washington, D. C.: American Psychiatric Press
3. American Psychiatric Association (1987) *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (3rd edn, revised)* (DSM-III-R). Washington, D. C.: American Psychiatric Press



4. American Psychiatric Association (1994) Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (4<sup>th</sup> edn) (DSM-IV). Washington, D. C.: American Psychiatric Press
5. Bair MJ, Robinson RL, Katon W, Kroenke K (2003) Depression and pain comorbidity – a literature review. *Arch Intern Med* 163: 2433–2445
6. Banks SM, Kerns RD (1996) Explaining high rates of depression in chronic pain: A diathesis-stress framework. *Psychol Bull* 119: 95–110
7. Barkow K, Heun R, Üstün TB, Maier W (2001) Identification of items which predict later development of depression in primary health care. *Eur Arch Psy Clin N* 251(Suppl 2):21–26
8. Bellach B-M, Knopf H, Thefeld W (1998) Der Bundes-Gesundheitssurvey 1997/98. *Das Gesundheitswesen* 60:59–68
9. Blumer D, Heilbronn M (1982) Chronic pain as a variant of depressive disease: the pain-prone disorder. *J Nerv Ment Dis* 170: 381–394
10. Blyth RM, March LM, Brnabic AJ, Lorm L, Williamson M, Cousins MJ (2001) Chronic pain in Australia: a prevalence study. *Pain* 89:127–134
11. Breslau N, Davis GD, Schulz LR, Edward L, Peterson EL (1994) Migraine and major depression: A longitudinal study. *Headache* 34:387–393
12. Bullinger M, Kirchberger I (1998) SF-36 Fragebogen zum Gesundheitszustand: Handanweisung. Göttingen Hogrefe
13. Currie SR, Wang JL (2004) Chronic back pain and major depression in the general Canadian population. *Pain* 107:54–60
14. Dersh J, Polatin PB, Gatchel RJ (2002) Chronic pain and psychopathology: Research findings and theoretical considerations. *Psychosom Med* 64:773–786
15. Elliott AM, Smith BH, Penn KI, Smith WC, Chambers WA (1999) The epidemiology of chronic pain in the community. *Lancet* 354:1248–1252
16. Eriksen J, Jensen MK, Sjogren P, Ekholm O, Rasmussen NK (2003) Epidemiology of chronic non-malignant pain in Denmark. *Pain* 106:221–228
17. Escobar JL, Rubico Stipek M, Canino G, Karno M (1998) Somatic Symptom Index (SSI): a new and abridged somatization construct: prevalence and epidemiological correlates in two large community samples. *J Nerv Ment Dis* 177:140–146
18. Fishbain DA, Cutler R, Rosomoff HL, Rosomoff RS (1997) Chronic pain-associated depression: antecedent or consequence of chronic pain? A review. *Clin J Pain* 13:116–137
19. Geerlings SW, Twisk JW, Beekman AT, Deeg DJ, van Tilburg W (2002) Longitudinal relationship between pain and depression in older adults: sex, age and physical disability. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol* 37:23–30
20. Grabe HJ, Meyer C, Hapke U (2003) Somatoform pain disorder in the general population. *Psychother Psychosom* 72:88–94
21. Gureje O, Simon GE, Von Korff M (2001) A cross-national study of the course of persistent pain in primary care. *Pain* 92:195–200
22. Gureje O, Von Korff M, Simon G, Gater R (1998) Persistent pain and well-being. A World Health Organization Study in Primary Care. *JAMA* 280:147–151
23. Haley WE, Turner JA, Romano JM (1985) Depression in chronic pain patients: Relation to pain, activity, and sex differences. *Pain* 23:337–343
24. Hein S, Bonsignore M, Barkow K, Jessen F, Ptak U, Heun R (2003) Lifetime depressive and somatic symptoms as preclinical markers of late-onset depression. *Eur Arch Psy Clin N* 253:16–21
25. Höfler M (2004) Statistik in der Epidemiologie psychischer Störung. Heidelberg: Springer, 2004
26. Jacobi F, Wittchen H-U, Müller N (2002) Estimating the prevalence of mental and somatic disorders in the community: Aims and methods of the German National Health Interview and Examination Survey. *Int J Methods Psychiatr Res* 11:1–19
27. Jacobi F, Wittchen H-U, Höfing C (2004) Prevalence, comorbidity and correlates of mental disorders in the general population: Results from the German Health Interview and Examination Survey (GHS). *Psychol Med* 34:1–15
28. Kessler RC, Berglund P, Demler O (2003) The epidemiology of major depressive disorder – Results from the National Comorbidity Survey Replication (NCS-R). *JAMA* 289:3095–3105
29. King SA (2000) The classification and the assessment of pain. *Int Rev Psychiatr* 12:86–90
30. Knäuper B, Wittchen H-U (1994) Diagnosing major depression in the elderly: evidence for response bias in standardized diagnostic interviews? *J Psychiatr Res* 28:147–164
31. Kohlmann T (2003) Muskuloskelettale Schmerzen in der Bevölkerung. *Schmerz* 17:405–411
32. Lachner G, Wittchen H-U, Perkonig A (1998) Structure, content and reliability of the Munich-Composite International Diagnostic Interview (M-CIDI). Substance use sections. *Eur Addict Res* 4:28–41
33. Lawless JF (1987) Negative binomial and mixed poisson regression. *Can J Stat* 15:209–255
34. Lateri-Minet M, Auray J-P, Hasnaoui AE (2002) Prevalence and description of chronic daily headache in the general population in France. *Pain* 102:143–149
35. Lieb R, Pfister H, Mastaler M, Wittchen H-U (2000) Somatoform syndromes and disorders in a representative population sample of adolescents and young adults: prevalence, comorbidity and impairments. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 101:194–208
36. Magni G, Caldieron C, Rigatti-Luchini S (1990) Chronic musculoskeletal pain and depressive symptoms in the general population: An analysis of the 1<sup>st</sup> National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey data. *Pain* 43:299–307
37. Magni G, Moreschi C, Rigatti-Luchini S, Merskey H (1994) Prospective study on the relationship between depressive symptoms and chronic musculoskeletal pain. *Pain* 56:289–297
38. McWilliams LA, Cox BJ, Enns MW (2003) Mood and anxiety disorders associated with chronic pain: an examination in a nationally representative sample. *Pain* 106:127–133
39. Merskey H (2000) Pain, psychogenesis, and psychiatric diagnosis. *Int Rev Psychiatry* 12:99–102
40. Ohayon MM, Schatzberg AF (2003) Using chronic pain to predict depressive morbidity in the general population. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 60:39–47
41. Pricavet HS, Schouten JS (2003) Musculoskeletal pain in the Netherlands: prevalences, consequences and risk groups, the DMCS-study. *Pain* 102:167–178
42. Reed V, Gander F, Pfister H (1998) To what degree does the Composite International Diagnostic Interview (CIDI) correctly identify DSM-IV disorders? Testing validity issues in a clinical sample. *Int J Methods Psychiatr Res* 8:110–122
43. Rethelyi J, Berghammer R, Kopp MS (2001) Comorbidity of pain-associated disability and depressive symptoms in connection with sociodemographic variables: Results from a cross-sectional epidemiological survey in Hungary. *Pain* 93:115–121
44. Roy-Byrne PP, Stang P, Wittchen H-U, Üstün TB, Walters EE, Kessler RC (2000) Lifetime panic-depression comorbidity in the National Comorbidity Survey – Association with symptom, impairment, course and help-seeking. *Br J Psychiatry* 176:229–235
45. Rubio-Stipek M, Canino G, Robins LN, Wittchen HU, Sartorius N, Torres de Miranda C and Participants in the WHO/ADMHA Field trials (1993) The somatization schedule of the composite international diagnostic interview: the use of the probe flow chart in 17 different countries. *Int J Methods Psychiatr Res* 3: 129–136
46. StataCorp. Stata Statistical Software: Release 8.0 (Version College-Station) (2004) TX: Stata Corporation
47. Sullivan MD (2000) DSM-IV pain disorder: A case against the diagnosis. *Int Rev Psychiatr* 12:91–98
48. Verhaak PF, Kerssens JJ, Dekker J, Sorbi MJ, Bensing JM (1998) Prevalence of chronic benign pain disorder among adults: a review of the literature. *Pain* 77:231–239
49. Von Korff M, Simon G (1996) The relationship between pain and depression. *Br J Psychiatry* 168:101–108
50. Ware JE, Sherbourne CD (1992) The MOS 36-item shortform health survey (SF-36): I Conceptual framework and item selection. *Medical Care* 30:473–483
51. Weissman MM, Bland RC, Canino GJ (1996) Cross-national epidemiology of major depression and bipolar disorder. *JAMA* 276: 293–299

52. WHO World Mental Health Survey Consortium (2004) Prevalence, Severity, and Unmet Need for Treatment of Mental Disorders in the World Health Organization World Mental Health Surveys. *JAMA* 291:2581–2590
53. Winkler J, Stolzenberg H (1998) Der Sozialschichtindex im Bundes-Gesundheitssurvey. In: *Das Gesundheitswesen, Schwerpunkt: Bundes-Gesundheitssurvey 1998*, Stuttgart Thieme
54. Wittchen H-U (1996a) What is Comorbidity – Fact or Artefact? *Br J Psychiatry* 168(Suppl 30):7–8
55. Wittchen H-U (1996b) Critical Issues in the Evaluation of Comorbidity of Psychiatric Disorders. *Br J Psychiatry* 168(Suppl 30):9–16
56. Wittchen H-U (1994) Reliability and validity studies of the WHO-Composite International Diagnostic Interview (CIDI): A critical review. *J Psychiatr Res* 28:57–84
57. Wittchen H-U, Pfister H (eds) (1997) *DIA-X-Interviews: Manual für Screening-Verfahren und Interview; Interviewheft Längsschnittuntersuchung (DIA-X-Lifetime); Ergänzungsheft (DIA-X-Lifetime); Interviewheft Querschnittuntersuchung (DIA-X-12-Monate); Ergänzungsheft Querschnittuntersuchung (DIA-X-12-Monate); PC-Programm zur Durchführung des Interviews (Längs- und Querschnittuntersuchung)*
58. Wittchen H-U, Essau CA, Rief W, Fichter MM (1993) Assessment of somatoform disorders and comorbidity pattern with the CIDI-findings in psychosomatic inpatients. *Int J Methods Psychiatr Res* 3:87–99
59. Wittchen H-U, Lachner G, Wunderlich U, Pfister H (1998) Test-retest reliability of the computerized DSM-IV version of the Munich-Composite International Diagnostic Interview (M-CIDI). *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol* 33:568–578
60. World Health Organization (1992) *International Classification of Diseases. ICD-10*. Geneva World Health Organization