



Published in final edited form as:

J Psychiatr Res. 2017 January ; 84: 310–317. doi:10.1016/j.jpsychires.2016.10.003.

Epidemiology of DSM-5 Bipolar I Disorder: Results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions – III

Carlos Blanco¹, Wilson M. Compton¹, Tulshi D. Saha², Benjamin I. Goldstein³, W. June Ruan², Boji Huang², Bridget F. Grant²

¹Division of Epidemiology, Service and Prevention Research, National Institute on Drug Abuse, 6001 Executive Blvd. Rockville, MD 20852

²Laboratory of Epidemiology and Biometry, Division of Intramural Clinical and Biological Research, National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, National Institutes of Health, 5635 Fishers Lane, Rockville, MD 20852

³Sunnybrook Health Sciences Centre, 2075 Bayview Ave., Room FG 53, Toronto, Canada, M4N 3M5

Abstract

Background: The objective of this study was to present 12-month and lifetime prevalence, correlates, comorbidity, treatment and disability of DSM-5 bipolar I disorder.

Methods: Nationally representative U.S. adult sample (N=36,309), the 2012–2013 National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions – III.

Results: Prevalences of 12-month and lifetime DSM-5 bipolar I disorder were 1.5% and 2.1% and did not differ between men (1.6% and 2.2%) and women (1.5% and 2.0%). Prevalences of bipolar I disorder were greater among Native Americans, and lower among Blacks, Hispanics and Asians/Pacific Islanders than whites. Rates were also lower among younger than older individuals, those previously married than currently married and with lower education and income relative to higher education and income. Bipolar I disorder was more strongly related to borderline and schizotypal personality disorders (adjusted odds ratios (AORs) = 2.2–4.7), than to anxiety disorders (AORs = 1.3–2.9), and substance use disorders (AORs = 1.3–2.1) overall and among men and women. Quality of life was lower among individuals with bipolar I disorder relative to those without the disorder. Treatment rates among individuals with bipolar I disorder were low in the total sample (46%, SE = 2.63), among men (36.7%, SE = 3.82) and among women (55.8%, SE = 3.32).

Conclusions: Bipolar I disorder continues to be common disabling and highly comorbid disorder among men and women, contributing substantially to low quality of life and burden of disease in our society.

Corresponding Author: Tulshi D. Saha sahatd@mail.nih.gov.

Disclaimer: The views and opinions expressed in this report are those of the authors and should not be construed to represent the views of any of the sponsoring organizations or agencies or the US government.

Keywords

Bipolar I disorder; Epidemiology; Prevalence; Comorbidity; Treatment

1. Introduction

Bipolar I disorder is a serious psychiatric condition characterized by the occurrence of one or more manic episodes (American Psychiatric Association, 2013) with early onset (most often in the second decade of life) and is associated with chronic course (Grant et al., 2005; Merikangas et al., 2011, 2007). Bipolar I disorder has been consistently associated with significant medical and psychiatric comorbidity (Gadernann et al., 2012; Grant et al., 2005; Roshanaei-Moghaddam et al., 2009; Vancampfort et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2011), premature mortality (Westman et al., 2013), high levels of functional disability (Judd et al., 2005; Rosa et al., 2010; Simon et al., 2007) and reduced quality of life (Moreno et al., 2012; Phillips and Kupfer, 2013; Rubio et al., 2014, 2013). Bipolar I disorder has also been associated with increased risk of suicide attempts and completion (Hoertel et al., 2015; Oquendo et al., 2010; Marangell et al., 2006) and high societal burden. In 2009, the economic costs of bipolar disorder were estimated to be \$151 billion dollars, with the majority of those costs (79%) attributable to lost productivity (Dilsaver, 2011).

In contrast with an extensive literature on bipolar I disorder based on clinical samples (Cerimele et al., 2014), much less is known about the disorder in community samples. Several surveys worldwide have estimated the prevalence of bipolar I disorder (Angst et al., 1984; Chen et al., 1993; Faravelli et al., 1990; Grant et al., 2005; ten Have et al., 2002; Tjissen et al., 2010; Weissman et al., 1996), but most of those surveys were constrained by sample size, leading to unstable estimates of prevalence and correlates (particularly at the national level) or are decades old. In the U.S., the most recent national estimates of bipolar I disorder prevalence and correlates are based on data collected over 15 years ago (Grant et al., 2005; Merikangas et al., 2011). During that period there have been important social, historic and economic changes in the U.S., including wars, terrorism, and unevenly distributed recovery from the 2007 recession.

Changes during that time also included important increases in the prevalences of heavy drinking (Dawson et al., 2015), substance use disorders (Grant et al., 2015a, 2015b) and suicide completion (Centers for Disease Control, 2014), all of which are associated with bipolar I disorder. These factors could all influence the epidemiology of bipolar I disorder, for example, by further increasing national prevalence. Finally, in 2013, a new diagnostic system, the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-Fifth Edition-DSM-5 (American Psychiatric Association, 2013), replaced earlier editions DSM-IV (American Psychiatric Association, 1994) and DSM-III-R (American Psychiatric Association, 1987), which had been used in most epidemiologic studies over the last 20 years. While the core DSM-IV manic symptoms were retained in the DSM-5 definition of bipolar I disorders, some changes were made, e.g., the expansion of the elevated, expansive or irritable mood criterion to include persistently increased activity or energy (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Taken together, these changes leave important unanswered questions

about the prevalence of DSM-5 bipolar I disorder, its correlates psychiatric comorbidity; functional impairment and treatment utilization. Further whether those findings differ by gender is unknown.

The absence of current national information about the prevalence, correlates and comorbidity of bipolar I disorders represents a gap in our knowledge in terms of prevention, intervention, treatment need and burden of disease. Accordingly, to our knowledge, this study reports the first nationally representative findings on the prevalence, sociodemographic correlates, psychiatric comorbidity, disability, and treatment of DSM-5 bipolar I disorder from the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism's 2012–2013 National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions-III (NESARC-III) (Grant et al., 2014). Information about bipolar I disorders is presented for the total sample and separately among men and women.

2. METHODS

2.1. Sample

NESARC-III's target population was the U.S. noninstitutionalized adult civilian population, including residents of selected group quarters. As detailed elsewhere (Grant et al., 2014), probability sampling was used to select respondents. Primary sampling units were counties or groups of contiguous counties, secondary sampling units (SSU) comprised groups of Census-defined blocks, and tertiary sampling units were households within SSUs. Eligible adults within sampled households were randomly selected. Hispanics, Blacks, and Asians were oversampled; in households with 4 eligible minority persons, two respondents were selected ($n = 1661$). Total sample size was 36,309. The screener- and person-level response rates were 72.0% and 84.0%, yielding a total response rate of 60.1%, comparable to most current U.S. national surveys (Centers for Disease Control, 2013; Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2014). Data were adjusted for oversampling and nonresponse, then weighted to represent the US civilian population based on the 2012 American Community Survey (Bureau of the Census, 2012). Weighting adjustments compensated adequately for nonresponse as detailed elsewhere (Grant et al., 2015a). Oral informed consent was recorded and respondents received \$90.00 for participation. Protocols were approved by National Institutes of Health and Westat Institutional Review Boards.

2.2. Assessments

The diagnostic interview was the NIAAA Alcohol Use Disorder and Associated Disabilities Interview Schedule-5 (AUDADIS-5) (Grant et al., 2011), designed to measure DSM-5 alcohol (AUD), tobacco (TUD), drug use disorders (DUDs), and selected mood, anxiety, trauma-related, eating and personality disorders (PDs).

2.3. Bipolar I Disorder

DSM-5 lifetime bipolar I disorder was defined as having at least one manic episode with or without one or more major depressive or hypomanic episodes on a lifetime basis. Among respondents with lifetime diagnoses of bipolar I disorder, respondents who had at least 1 manic, major depressive, or hypomanic episode in the year preceding the interview were

classified with 12-month bipolar I disorder. Twelve-month and lifetime diagnoses of DSM-5 bipolar I disorder excluded disorders that were attributable to substance/medication (aside from sustained manic responses to antidepressants)/medical illness-related effects. Test-retest reliability of DSM-5 manic episode diagnoses and associated symptom scales were fair ($\kappa=0.42$; interclass correlation coefficients=0.40) in a large general population sample (Grant et al., 2015b). Age at onset of bipolar I disorder was defined as the first age at which the requisite number of criteria for bipolar I disorder occurred. Respondents were asked if they sought help for their manic symptoms from a physician or other healthcare practitioner, received medications, been a patient in any kind of hospital overnight, or gone to an emergency room during the last 12-months and on a lifetime basis.

2.4. Other Psychiatric Disorders

DSM-5 substance use disorders included alcohol use disorder (AUD), tobacco use disorder (TUD), and other drug use disorder (DUDs): cannabis, sedative/tranquilizer, stimulant, cocaine, club drug, opioid, heroin, hallucinogen, solvent/inhalant and other drug use disorders. Test-retest reliabilities were moderate to substantial for AUD ($\kappa=0.60-0.62$), TUD ($\kappa=0.50-0.87$) and all other DUDs ($\kappa=0.41-0.66$), and higher for their dimensional counterparts (Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC)=0.45–0.85) (Grant et al., 2015b). Procedure validity was assessed through blind clinician re-appraisal using the semi-structured, clinician-administered Psychiatric Research Interview for Substance and Mental Disorders, DSM-5 version (PRISM-5) (Hasin et al., 2011). AUDADIS-5 and PRISM-5 concordance on AUD, NUD and other DUD diagnoses and dimensional scales was fair to substantial ($\kappa=0.35-0.72$; ICCs=0.38–0.92) (Hasin et al., 2015a).

Other DSM-5 mood disorders assessed in the NESARC-III included 12-month and lifetime persistent depression, major depressive disorder, and bipolar II disorders. Anxiety disorders included panic, agoraphobia, generalized anxiety, and social anxiety disorder and specific phobia. Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) was also assessed. All diagnoses excluded substance- medication- and medical illness-induced cases. Lifetime personality disorders (PDs) included antisocial, borderline, and schizotypal. Reliability and validity of these psychiatric disorders were described in detail elsewhere (Hasin et al., 2015b).

2.5. Quality of Life

Current quality of life was determined using the 12-Item Short Form Health Survey, version 2 (SF-12v2), a reliable and valid measure widely used in population surveys (Gandek et al., 1998). SF-12v2 scales included in this study were mental health, social functioning, role emotional functioning, and mental component summary (MCS). Each SF-12v2 norm-based score has a mean of 50, standard deviation of ± 10 , and a range of 0–100. Lower scores indicate lower quality of life.

2.6. Statistical Analysis

Weighted percentages were computed for 12-month and lifetime DSM-5 bipolar I disorder. Adjusted odds ratios (AORs) derived from multiple logistic regression indicated associations between bipolar I disorder and each sociodemographic characteristic, controlling for all others. Logistic regressions of psychiatric comorbidity of bipolar I disorder controlled for:

(1) sociodemographic characteristics only; and (2) sociodemographic characteristics and other substance use and psychiatric disorders. Anorexia nervosa, bulimia nervosa, and binge-eating disorder were too rare to assess comorbid associations with bipolar I disorder, but were used as covariates in comorbidity analyses. Relationships between 12-month bipolar I disorder to SF-12 v2 scales were determined using multiple linear regression, controlling for sociodemographic characteristics and other psychiatric disorders. All analyses utilized SUDAAN Statistical Software For Weighting, Imputing and Analyzing Data (Research Triangle Institute, 2012) version 11.0, software that accounts for NESARC-III's complex design.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Prevalence Sociodemographic and Clinical Characteristics

Prevalences of 12-month and lifetime bipolar I disorder were 1.5% and 2.1% in the total sample (Table 1) and no significant differences were observed among men (1.6%, 2.2%) and women (1.5%, 2.0%). Regardless of timeframe, prevalences of bipolar I disorder were greater among Native Americans and lower among Blacks, Hispanics, and Asian/Pacific Islanders relative to Whites. Rates of 12-month and lifetime bipolar I disorder decreased with age, and were greater among previously married individuals and those with lower education and income.

Prevalences of 12-month and lifetime bipolar I disorder among men and women mirrored those for the total sample with the following exceptions (Table 2). Among men, rates of 12-month bipolar I disorder were lower only among Asian/Pacific Islanders and higher only among respondents with < \$20,000.00 annual incomes and those with a high school education. Among women, prevalences of bipolar I disorder were lower only among Asians/Pacific Islanders (12-month) and Hispanics (lifetime). There were no differences in the prevalences of bipolar I disorder by marital status among women regardless of timeframe, and 12-month rates of bipolar I disorder were greater among those with less than high school education. Interestingly, prevalences of 12-month and lifetime bipolar I disorder were lower in urban than rural areas among women.

In the total sample, age at onset of bipolar I disorder was 22.3 years and slightly younger for women (21.5 years) than men (23.0 years). Age at first treatment for bipolar I disorder was 26.3 years in the total sample, 25.2 among women, and 27.5 years among men. Twelve-month and lifetime treatment rates were 46.0% and 72.4% in the total sample, 36.7% and 65.0% for men and 55.8% and 79.9% for women.

3.2. Comorbidity

Controlling only for sociodemographic characteristics, 12-month and lifetime bipolar I disorder were positively and significantly related to all substance use and other psychiatric disorders assessed in the NESARC-III. Especially strong associations were observed between 12-month and lifetime bipolar I disorder and panic disorder (AORs > 5.6) and borderline and schizotypal PDs (AORs=11.6–18.8), regardless of gender (Tables 3 and 4).

When additional control was introduced for other psychiatric disorders, these 12-month and lifetime associations were generally diminished, with odds ratios between bipolar I disorder and AUD (12-month), and social phobia no longer significant in the total sample. For men, associations between bipolar I disorder and AUD (12-month), DUD (12-month) and generalized anxiety disorder, social anxiety disorder and specific phobia (12-month and lifetime) were no longer significant. Similarly, among women, associations between bipolar I disorder and DUD (12-month), TUD (lifetime), agoraphobia (12-month) and generalized anxiety disorder, and social and specific phobias were no longer significant. Regardless of gender or timeframe, bipolar I disorder remained significantly associated with panic disorder (AORs = 1.4–4.0), posttraumatic stress disorder (AORs = 1.8–2.9), and borderline (AORs=3.2–4.7), schizotypal (AORs = 2.2–2.7) and antisocial (AORs = 1.7–2.0) personality disorders.

3.3. Quality of Life

In the total sample, all quality of life scores, except the mental health score, were lower among those respondents with bipolar I disorder than those without bipolar I disorder (Table 5). Women with bipolar I disorder had significantly lower quality of life than women without the disorder as assessed by each disability score. By contrast, men with bipolar I disorder differed little with respect to disability compared to those men without the disorder, except for role emotional functioning.

4. Discussion

To our knowledge, the NESARC-III is the first representative national survey to provide information on the prevalence and correlates of DSM-5 bipolar I disorder in the U.S. population. The lifetime prevalence of bipolar I disorders was 2.1%, representing about 4,884,000 million adult Americans and the 12-month prevalence was 1.5%, representing about 3,679,000 million adults Americans. Lifetime and 12-month prevalences of bipolar I disorder were similar among men and women and were associated with substantial decreases in quality of life, especially among women.

The 12-month prevalences of bipolar I disorder in NESARC-III are slightly below the estimates of the 2001–2002 NESARC (2.2%) (Grant et al., 2005), above those of the 2001 National Comorbidity Survey Replication (0.6%) (Merakangas et al., 2011) and falling with the range of estimates reported in recent reviews and meta-analyses (0.1%–5.0%) (Clemente et al., 2015; Dell’Aglia et al., 2013). Taken together, these results suggest that the prevalence of bipolar I disorder has remained broadly stable over time in the United States population. The reason for stability in the rates of bipolar I disorder may be due to the low treatment rate shown in this study and the importance of genetics in the etiology of bipolar I disorder (Craddock and Sklar, 2013). Nevertheless, environmental factors (e.g., adverse childhood events) also influence the risk of bipolar I disorder (Brietzke et al., 2012; Goldstein, 2012; Sala et al., 2014). Interventions to decrease the effect of these risk factors, as well as targeting high-risk groups should contribute to lowering the prevalence of bipolar I disorder in the community (Geddes and Miklowitz, 2013; Vallarino et al., 2015).

Consistent with prior research (Grant et al., 2005; Merikangas et al., 2007, 2011; Clemente et al., 2015; Dell'Aglio et al., 2013), we found that the ratio of 12-month to lifetime prevalence was 71%, indicating a high degree of persistence of the disorder, supporting recommendations to consider bipolar disorder a chronic disease (Kessler et al., 2007). Despite this chronicity, less than half of the individuals with 12-month bipolar I disorder had sought treatment in the year preceding the interview. Insurance or other financial barriers, side effects of medication, lack of insight on the part of some patients, and inadequate screening for the disorder may all contribute to the low treatment rates for current bipolar I disorder observed in this study (Carvalho et al., 2015; Keck et al., 2006). Recent studies (Hawke et al., 2013; Latalova et al., 2013) have also highlighted the role of stigma as a barrier to care among individuals with bipolar I disorder as well as their caregivers. Although recent health care reforms may facilitate access to care (Barry and Huskamp, 2011), more extensive research on treatment barriers in bipolar I disorder and efforts to destigmatize the disorder among affected individuals and their caretakers is warranted.

Sociodemographic correlates of bipolar I disorder among men and women in NESARC-III were similar to those previously documented for total samples of the U.S. population (Grant et al., 2005; Kessler et al., 2007; Merikangas et al., 2011). Greater prevalence among younger men and women may reflect the early age of onset of the disorder or premature death due medical complications among as individuals with bipolar I disorder (Crump et al., 2013; Goldstein et al., 2015) or by suicide (Schaffer et al., 2015). Lower socioeconomic status may be both a risk factor for and a consequence of bipolar I disorder. The increased prevalence of bipolar I disorder among Native Americans is consistent with prior research and with the broader pattern of increased mental and physical morbidity in this group (Gone and Trimble, 2012). Lower prevalences of bipolar I disorder among Asians/Pacific Islanders, Blacks and Hispanics are also broadly consistent with prior reports (Alegria et al., 2006; Blanco et al., 2013; Gibbs et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2011) that have highlighted the role of cultural factors and differential response patterns on the rates of bipolar I disorder among these minorities.

Similar to earlier findings (Xiong et al., 2015), bipolar I disorder was consistently associated with panic disorder, agoraphobia, posttraumatic stress disorder, and borderline, schizotypal and antisocial PDs. With few exceptions, bipolar I disorder was also associated with AUD and TUD and DUD (lifetime) among women. Bipolar I disorder has frequently been linked with borderline PD in the clinical literature (Fan and Hassell, 2008; Garo et al., 2005; Paris et al., 2007) and high rates of comorbidity between the disorders have been observed in general population surveys (Bassett, 2012; Grant et al., 2008; McDermid et al., 2015). Although the underlying nature of the relationship remains unclear, similarities in phenomenology (i.e., misdiagnosing the emotional extremes of borderline PD as bipolar I disorder), the influence of borderline personality features on vulnerability to bipolar I disorder and the impact of early childhood adversity in the development of both bipolar I and borderline PD have been implicated (Bassett, 2012; Grant et al., 2008; McDermid et al., 2015; Ruggero et al., 2010; Zimmerman et al., 2008). Associations between bipolar I disorder and anxiety and substance use disorders were modest, but their comorbidity has recently been linked to greater likelihoods of suicide attempts and deaths attributable to suicide (de Silva et al., 2015; Di Florio et al., 2014; Oquendo et al., 2006; Yoon et al., 2011).

A recent task force has highlighted the need to systematically screen for comorbidity among individuals with bipolar I disorder and calls for additional treatment studies of patients with bipolar I disorder and other comorbidities to inform clinical practice (Beaulieu et al., 2012; Rosenbluth et al., 2012).

This study should be understood in the context of several limitations. Clinical information was based on self-report, with lifetime estimates subject to recall bias. However, reliability and validity of NESARC-III measures have been well documented in the literature (Grant et al., 2015b; Hasin et al., 2015, 2011). The current study did not also address differences between bipolar I and bipolar II disorders with respect to prevalence and sociodemographic and clinical correlates. Consistent with other epidemiologic surveys, the NESARC did not use a clinician-administered interview, but relied on the AUDADIS-5, a fully structured interview. However, the strong associations with external clinical correlates of quality of life, age at onset and treatment observed in this study supports the validity of the AUDADIS-5 assessment of bipolar I disorder.

In conclusion, this is the first study to provide information on the prevalence of DSM-5 bipolar I disorder in the U.S. Our data suggest that the prevalence of bipolar I disorder has not substantively changed over the last decade. Bipolar I disorder continues to be a common disorder among men and women and contributes substantially to low quality of life and the burden of disease in our society. Its association with most common psychiatric disorders may hold clues to better understand its etiology, but further interferes with the individuals' level of functioning and their treatment response (Bassett, 2012) and increases the likelihood of suicide attempts and deaths (de Silva et al., 2015; Di Florio et al., 2014; Oquendo et al., 2010; Yoon et al., 2011). Comprehensive evaluation of patients with bipolar I disorder should include assessment of a broad array of psychiatric comorbidities. Efforts to destigmatize bipolar I disorder also can importantly help reduce the current treatment gap that characterizes bipolar I disorder (Hawke et al., 2013; Latalova et al., 2013). Despite the existence of efficacious treatment, continuity of care is more the exception than the rule (Ketter, 2015, 2010). There is a need to develop new treatment approaches that are more accessible and acceptable to patients to decrease the burden of bipolar I disorder for the individual and society.

References

- Alegria M, Canino G, Stinson FS, et al., 2006 Nativity and DSM-IV psychiatric disorders among Puerto Ricans, Cuban Americans, and non-Latino Whites in the United States: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *J. Clin. Psychiatry* 67 (1), 56–65.
- American Psychiatric Association, 2013 Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th ed Arlington, VA: American Psychiatric Association.
- American Psychiatric Association, 1994 Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th ed Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association.
- American Psychiatric Association, 1987 Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 3rd, Revised. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association.
- Angst J, Dobler-Mikola A, Binder J, 1984 The Zurich study—a prospective epidemiological study of depressive, neurotic and psychosomatic syndromes. I. problem, methodology. *Eur. Arch. Psychiatry Neurol. Sci.* 234 (1), 13–20. [PubMed: 6333343]

- Barry CL, Huskamp HA, 2011 Moving beyond Parity – Mental Health and Addiction Care under the ACA. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 365 (11), 973–975. [PubMed: 21848453]
- Bassett D, 2012 Borderline personality disorder and bipolar affective disorder. Spectra or spectre? A review. *Australian and New Zealand J. Psychiatry* 46 (4), 327–339. [PubMed: 22508593]
- Beaulieu S, Saury S, Sareen J, et al., 2012 The Canadian Network Mood and Anxiety Treatments (CANMAT) Task Force recommendations for the management of patients with mood disorders and comorbid substance use disorders. *Ann. Clin. Psychiatry* 24 (1), 38–55. [PubMed: 22303521]
- Blanco C, Morcillo C, Alegria M, et al., 2013 Acculturation and drug use disorders among Hispanics in the U.S. *J. Psychiatry Res.* 47 (2), 226–232.
- Brietzke E, Mansur RB, Soczynska JK, et al., 2012 Towards a multifactorial approach for prediction of bipolar disorder in at risk populations. *J. Affect. Disord.* 140 (1), 82–91. [PubMed: 22406334]
- Bureau of the Census, 2013 American Community Survey, 2012. Suitland, MD: Bureau of the Census.
- Carvalho AF, Takwoingi Y, Sales PMG, et al., 2015 Screening for bipolar spectrum disorders: a comprehensive meta-analysis of accuracy studies. *J. Affect. Disord.* 17 (2), 337–346.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Fatal Injury Report, 2000–2013., 2014 Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2013 Unweighted Response Rates for the NHANES 2011–2012. Atlanta, GA: Center for Disease Control and Prevention.
- Cerimele JM, Chwastiak LA, Dodson S, Katon WJ, 2014 The prevalence of bipolar disorder in general primary care samples: a systematic review. *Gen. Hosp. Psychiatry* 36 (1), 19–25. [PubMed: 24144521]
- Chen CN, Wong J, Lee N, et al., 1993 The Shatin community mental health survey in Hong Kong. II. Major findings. *Arch. Gen. Psychiatry* 50 (2), 125–133. [PubMed: 8427552]
- Clemente AS, Kiniz BS, Nicolato R, et al., 2015 Bipolar disorder prevalence: a systematic review and meta-analysis of the literature. *Revista Brasileira de psiq.* 37 (3), 155–161.
- Craddock N, Sklar P, 2013 Genetics of bipolar disorder. *Lancet* 381 (9878), 1654–1662. [PubMed: 23663951]
- Crump C, Sundquist K, Winkleby MD, et al., 2013 Comorbidities and mortality in bipolar disorder: a Swedish National Cohort Study. *JAMA Psychiatry* 70 (9), 931–939. [PubMed: 23863861]
- da Silva Costa L, Alencar AP, Neto PJN, et al., 2015 Risk factors for suicide in bipolar disorder: a systematic review. *J. Aff. Disord.* 170 (3), 237–254.
- Dawson DA, Goldstein RB, Saha TD, Grant BF, 2015 Changes in alcohol consumption: United States, 2001–2002 to 2012–2013. *Drug Alc. Depend.* 148 (1), 56–61.
- Dell’Aglia JC, Basso LA, de Lima Argimon II, Artehe A, 2013 Systematic review of the prevalence of bipolar disorder and bipolar spectrum disorders in population-based studies. *Trends in Psychiatry and Psychother.* 35 (2), 99–105.
- Di Florio A, Craddock N, van den Bree M, 2014 Alcohol misuse in bipolar disorder: a systematic review and meta-analysis of comorbidity rates. *Euro. Psychiatry* 29 (2), 117–124.
- Dilsaver SC, 2011 An estimate of the minimum economic burden of bipolar I and II disorders in the United States. *J. Affect. Disord.* 129 (1–3), 79–83. [PubMed: 20888048]
- Fan AH, Hassell J, 2008 Bipolar disorder and comorbid personality psychopathology: a review of the literature. *J. Clin. Psychiatry* 69 (11), 1794–1803. [PubMed: 19026249]
- Faravelli C, Guerrini Degl’Innocenti B, Aiazzi L, et al., 1990 Epidemiology of mood disorders: a community survey in Florence. *J. Affect. Disord.* 20 (2), 135–141. [PubMed: 2148328]
- Gademann AM, Alonso J, Vilagut G, Zaslavsky AM, Kessler RC, 2012 Comorbidity and disease burden in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication (NCS-R). *Depress. Anxiety* 29 (9), 797–806. [PubMed: 22585578]
- Gandek B, Ware JE, Aaronson NK, et al., 1998 Tests of data quality, scaling assumptions, and reliability of the SF-36 in eleven countries: results from the IQOLA Project. *J. Clin. Epidemiol.* 51 (11), 1149–1158. [PubMed: 9817132]
- Garno JL, Goldberg JF, Ramirez PM, et al., 2005 Bipolar disorder with comorbid cluster B personality disorder features: impact on suicidality. *J. Clin. Psychiatry* 66 (3), 339–345. [PubMed: 15766300]

- Geddes JR, Miklowitz DJ, 2013 Treatment of bipolar disorder. *Lancet* 381 (9878), 1672–1682. [PubMed: 23663953]
- Gibbs T, Okuda M, Oquendo MA, et al., 2013 Mental Health of African Americans and Caribbean Blacks in the United States: results from the National Epidemiological Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *Am. J. Public Health* 103 (2), 330–338. [PubMed: 23237171]
- Goldstein BI, 2012 Recent progress in understanding pediatric bipolar disorder. *Arch. Pediatr. Adolesc. Med.* 166 (4), 362–371. [PubMed: 22213607]
- Goldstein BI, Schaffer A, Wang S, et al., 2015 Excessive and premature new-onset cardiovascular disease among adults with bipolar disorder in the US NESARC Cohort. *J. Clin. Psychiatry* 76 (2), 163–169. [PubMed: 25742203]
- Gone JP, Trimble JE, 2012 American Indian and Alaska Native mental health: diverse perspectives on enduring disparities. *Annu. Rev. Clin. Psychol.* 8, 131–160. [PubMed: 22149479]
- Grant BF, Ansberry M, Chu A, et al., 2014 Source and Accuracy Statement: National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions-III (NESARC-III). Rockville, MD: National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism.
- Grant BF, Chou SP, Goldstein RB, et al., 2008 Prevalence, correlates, disability, and comorbidity of DSM-IV borderline personal disorder: results from the Wave 2 National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *J. Clin. Psychiatry* 69 (4), 533–545. [PubMed: 18426259]
- Grant BF, Goldstein RB, Chou SP, 2011 The Alcohol Use Disorder and Associated Disabilities Interview Schedule – Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition Version (AUDADIS-5). Rockville, MD: National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism.
- Grant BF, Goldstein RB, Saha TD, et al., 2015a Epidemiology of DSM-5 Alcohol Use Disorder: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions-III. *JAMA Psychiatry* 72 (8), 757–766. [PubMed: 26039070]
- Grant BF, Goldstein RB, Smith SM, et al., 2015c The Alcohol Use Disorder and Associated Disabilities Interview Schedule-5 (AUDADIS-5): reliability of substance use and psychiatric disorder modules in a general population sample. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 148 (1), 27–33. [PubMed: 25595052]
- Grant BF, Saha TD, Ruan WJ, et al., 2015b Epidemiology of DSM-5 drug use disorder: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions-III. *JAMA Psychiatry* 72 (8), 1–9.
- Grant BF, Stinson FS, Hasin DS, et al., 2005 Prevalence, correlates, and comorbidity of bipolar I disorder and axis I and II disorders: Results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *J. Clin. Psychiatry.* 66 (10), 1205–1215. [PubMed: 16259532]
- Hasin DS, Aivadyan C, Greenstein E, et al., 2011 Psychiatric Research Interview for Substance Use and Mental Disorders, Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (PRISM-5) Version. New York, NY: Columbia University, Department of Psychiatry, 2011.
- Hasin DS, Greenstein E, Aivadyan C, et al., 2015a The Alcohol Use Disorder and Associated Disabilities Interview Schedule-5 (AUDADIS-5): procedural validity of substance use disorders modules through clinical re-appraisal in a general population sample. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 148 (1), 40–46. [PubMed: 25604321]
- Hasin DS, Shmulewitz D, Stohl M, et al., 2015b Procedural validity of the AUDADIS-5 depression, anxiety and post-traumatic stress disorder modules: substance abusers and others in the general population. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 152, 246–256. [PubMed: 25939727]
- Hawke LD, Parikh SV, Michalak EE, 2013 Stigma and bipolar disorder: a review of the literature. *J. Affect. Disord.* 15 (2), 181–191.
- Hoertel N, Franco S, Wall MM, et al., 2015 Mental disorders and risk of suicide attempt: a national prospective study. *Mol. Psychiatry* 20 (6), 718–726. [PubMed: 25980346]
- Judd LL, Akiskal HS, Schettier PJ, et al., 2005 Psychosocial disability in the course of bipolar I and II disorders: a prospective, comparative, longitudinal study. *Arch. Gen Psychiatry* 62 (2), 1322–1330. [PubMed: 16330720]
- Keck PE, Kessler RC, Ross R, 2006 Clinical and economic effects of unrecognized or inadequately treated bipolar disorder. *J. Psych. Practice* 14 (2), 31–38.

- Kessler RC, Merikangas KR, Wang PS, 2007 Prevalence, comorbidity, and service utilization for mood disorders in the United States at the beginning of the twenty-first century. *Annu. Rev. Clin. Psychol.* 3, 137–158. [PubMed: 17716051]
- Ketter TA, 2015 *Advances in Treatment of Bipolar Disorders*. Washington DC: American Psychiatric Publishing.
- Ketter TA, 2010 *Handbook of Diagnosis and Treatment of Bipolar Disorders*. Washington DC: American Psychiatric Publishing.
- Latalova K, Ociskova M, Prasko J, et al., 2013 Self-stigmatization in patients with bipolar disorder. *Neuro. Endocrinol. Lett.* 34 (4), 265–372.
- Marangell LB, Bauer MS, Dennehy EB, et al., 2006 Prospective predictors of suicide and suicide attempts in 1,556 patients with bipolar disorders followed for up to 2 years. *Bipolar Disord.* 8 (5 Pt 2), 566–575. [PubMed: 17042830]
- McDermid J, Sareen J, El-Gabalawy R, et al., 2015 Co-morbidity of bipolar disorder and borderline personality disorder: findings from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *Compr. Psychiatry* 58 (1), 18–28. [PubMed: 25666748]
- Merikangas KR, Akiskal HS, Angst J, et al., 2007 Lifetime and 12-month prevalence of bipolar spectrum disorder in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. *Arch. Gen. Psychiatry* 64 (5), 543–552. [PubMed: 17485606]
- Merikangas KR, Jin R, He JP, et al., 2011 Prevalence and correlates of bipolar spectrum disorder in the World Mental Health Survey Initiative. *Arch. Gen. Psychiatry* 68 (3), 241–251. [PubMed: 21383262]
- Moreno C, Hasin DS, Arango C, et al., 2012 Depression in bipolar versus major depressive disorder: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *Bipolar Disord.* 14 (3), 271–282. [PubMed: 22548900]
- Olfson M, Blanco C, Wong S, Laje G, Correll CU, 2014 National trends in mental healthcare of children, adolescents, and adults by office-based physicians. *JAMA Psychiatry* 71 (1), 81–90. [PubMed: 24285382]
- Oquendo MA, Currier D, Liu S, et al., 2010 Increased risk for suicidal behavior in comorbid bipolar disorder and alcohol use disorders. *J. Clin. Psychiatry* 71 (7), 902–909. [PubMed: 20667292]
- Paris J, Gunderson J, Weinberg I, 2007 The interface between borderline personality disorder and bipolar spectrum disorders. *Compr. Psychiatry* 48 (2), 145–154. [PubMed: 17292705]
- Phillips ML, Kupfer DJ, 2013 Bipolar disorder diagnosis: challenges and future directions. *Lancet* 381 (9878), 1663–1671. [PubMed: 23663952]
- Research Triangle Institute, 2012 *SUDAAN Language Manual*, Release 11.0. Research Triangle Park, NC: Research Triangle Institute.
- Rosa AR, Reinares M, Michalak EE, et al., 2010 Functional impairment and disability across mood states in bipolar disorder. *Val Health* 13 (8), 984–988.
- Rosenbluth M, MacQueen G, McIntyre RS, et al., 2012 The Canadian Network Mood and Anxiety Treatments (CANMAT) Task Force recommendations for the management of patients with mood disorders and comorbid substance use disorders. *Ann. Clin. Psychiatry* 24 (1), 56–68. [PubMed: 22303522]
- Roshanaei-Moghaddam B, Katon W, 2009 Premature mortality from general medical illnesses among persons with bipolar disorder: a review. *Psychiatry Serv.* 60 (2), 147–156.
- Rubio JM, Olfson M, Perez-Fuentes G, et al., 2014 Effect of first episode Axis I disorders on quality of life. *J. Nerv. Ment. Dis.* 202 (4), 271–274. [PubMed: 24647219]
- Rubio JM, Olfson M, Villegas L, et al., 2013 Quality of life following remission of mental disorders: findings from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *J. Clin. Psychiatry* 74 (5), E445–450. [PubMed: 23759465]
- Ruggero CJ, Zimmerman M, Chelminski I, et al., 2010 Borderline personality disorder and the misdiagnosis of bipolar disorder. *J. Psychiatr. Res.* 44 (6), 405–408. [PubMed: 19889426]
- Sala R, Goldstein B, Wang S, et al., 2014 Childhood maltreatment and the course of bipolar disorders among adults: epidemiologic evidence of dose-response effects. *J. Affect. Disord.* 165, 74–80. [PubMed: 24882181]

- Schaffer A, Isometsa ET, Azorin JM, et al., 2015 A review of factors associated with greater likelihood of suicide attempts and suicide deaths in bipolar disorder: Part II of a report of the International Society for Bipolar Disorders Task Force on Suicide in Bipolar Disorder. *Australian and New Zealand J. Psychiatry* 49 (1), 1006–1020. [PubMed: 26175498]
- Simon GE, Bauer MS, Ludman EJ, Operskalski BH, Unutzer J, 2007 Mood symptoms, functional impairment and disability in people with bipolar disorder: specific effects of mania and depression. *J. Clin. Psychiatry* 68 (8), 1237–1245. [PubMed: 17854249]
- Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2014 Results from the 2013 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings, NSDUH Series H-48, HHS Publication No. (SMA) 14–4863. Rockville, MD, Substance Abuse and mental Health Services Administration.
- ten Have M, Vollebergh W, Bijl R, Nolen WA, 2002 Bipolar disorder in the general population in The Netherlands (prevalence, consequences and care utilization): results from The Netherlands Mental Health Survey and Incidence Study (NEMESIS). *J. Affect. Disord.* 68 (2–3), 203–213. [PubMed: 12063148]
- Tijssen MJ, Van Os J, Wittchen H-U, et al., 2010 Evidence that bipolar disorder is the poor outcome fraction of a common developmental phenotype: an 8-year cohort study in young people. *Psychol. Med.* 40 (2), 289–299. [PubMed: 19515266]
- Vallarino M, Henry C, Etain B, et al., 2015 An evidence map of psychosocial interventions for the earliest stages of bipolar disorder. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2 (6), 548–563. [PubMed: 26360451]
- Vancampfort D, Vansteelandt K, Correll CU, et al., 2013 Metabolic syndrome and metabolic abnormalities in bipolar disorder: a meta-analysis of prevalence rates and moderators. *Am. J. Psychiatry* 170 (3), 265–274. [PubMed: 23361837]
- Weber NS, Fisher JA, Cowan DN, Niebuhr DW, 2011 Psychiatric and general medical conditions comorbid with bipolar disorder in the National Hospital Discharge Survey. *Psychiatry Serv.* 62 (10), 1152–1158.
- Weissman MM, Bland RC, Canino GJ, et al., 1996 Cross-national epidemiology of major depression and bipolar disorder. *JAMA.* 276 (4), 293–299. [PubMed: 8656541]
- Westman J, Hallgren J, Wahlbeck K, et al., 2013 Cardiovascular mortality in bipolar disorder: a population-based cohort study in Sweden. *BMJ Open* 3 (4).
- Xiong Lai HM, Cleary M, Sitharthan T, Hunt GE, 2015 Prevalence of comorbid substance use, anxiety and mood disorders in epidemiological surveys, 1990–2014: a system review and meta-analysis. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 154 (1), 1–13. [PubMed: 26072219]
- Xu Y, Okuda M, Hser YI, et al., 2011 Twelve-month prevalence of psychiatric disorders and treatment-seeking among Asian Americans/Pacific Islanders in the United States: results from the National Epidemiological Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *J. Psychiatry Res.* 45 (7), 910–918.
- Yoon Y-H, Chen CM, Yi HY, Moss HB, 2011 Effect of comorbid alcohol and drug use disorders on premature death among unipolar and bipolar disorder decedents in the United States, 1999 to 2006. *Compr. Psychiatry* 52 (4), 453–464. [PubMed: 21146814]
- Zimmerman M, Ruggero CJ, Chelminski I, et al., 2008 Is bipolar disorder overdiagnosed? *J. Clin. Psychiatry* 69 (6), 935–940. [PubMed: 18466044]

Table 1.

Prevalence and Adjusted Odds Ratios of 12-Month and Lifetime DSM-5 Bipolar I Disorder by Sociodemographic Characteristics, Total Sample

Sociodemographic Characteristic	12-Month (N=566)		Lifetime (N=753)	
	Prevalence % (SE) ^a	AOR ^b (95% CI)	Prevalence % (SE)	AOR (95% CI)
Total	1.5 (0.09)	-	2.1 (0.10)	-
Sex				
Men	1.6 (0.13)	1.1 (0.91–1.45)	2.2 (0.16)	1.1 (0.93–1.37)
Women	1.5 (0.11)	1.0 (Reference) ^c	2.0 (0.13)	1.0 (Reference)
Race-ethnicity				
White	1.6 (0.12)	1.0 (Reference)	2.1 (0.14)	1.0 (Reference)
Black	1.5 (0.17)	0.7 (0.54–0.96)	2.0 (0.23)	0.7 (0.56–0.97)
Native American	3.9 (0.93)	1.9 (1.13–3.14)	5.6 (1.05)	2.1 (1.39–3.13)
Asian/Pacific Islander	0.7 (0.20)	0.4 (0.21–0.73)	1.0 (0.26)	0.4 (0.25–0.75)
Hispanic	1.6 (0.19)	0.7 (0.48–0.95)	1.9 (0.21)	0.7 (0.50–0.90)
Age, y				
18–29	2.3 (0.20)	6.6 (4.05–10.75)	2.8 (0.23)	4.0 (2.68–5.97)
30–44	1.8 (0.14)	5.9 (3.57–9.80)	2.4 (0.19)	3.9 (2.62–5.80)
45–64	1.5 (0.15)	4.5 (2.77–7.32)	2.0 (0.16)	2.9 (1.99–4.19)
65	0.4 (0.10)	1.0 (Reference)	0.8 (0.16)	1.0 (Reference)
Marital status				
Married/cohabiting	1.2 (0.11)	1.0 (Reference)	1.7 (0.13)	1.0 (Reference)
Widowed/separated/divorced	1.8 (0.17)	1.5 (1.18–1.96)	2.5 (0.19)	1.5 (1.17–1.78)
Never married	2.2 (0.19)	1.2 (0.89–1.61)	2.8 (0.21)	1.1 (0.91–1.44)
Education				
Less than high school	2.2 (0.31)	1.6 (1.11–2.19)	2.5 (0.33)	1.3 (0.92–1.72)
High school	1.9 (0.18)	1.3 (1.08–1.64)	2.5 (0.20)	1.2 (1.03–1.48)
Some college or higher	1.3 (0.09)	1.0 (Reference)	1.8 (0.11)	1.0 (Reference)
Family income				
0–19,999	2.5 (0.19)	2.3 (1.71–3.21)	3.2 (0.22)	2.3 (1.74–3.15)
20,000–34,999	1.7 (0.19)	1.7 (1.24–2.45)	2.3 (0.19)	1.8 (1.31–2.34)
35,000–69,999	1.4 (0.15)	1.5 (1.05–2.03)	2.0 (0.17)	1.5 (1.15–2.00)
70,000	0.9 (0.12)	1.0 (Reference)	1.2 (0.14)	1.0 (Reference)
Urbanicity				
Urban	1.5 (0.09)	0.8 (0.60–1.05)	2.0 (0.11)	0.8 (0.63–1.06)
Rural	1.8 (0.23)	1.0 (Reference)	2.5 (0.26)	1.0 (Reference)
Region				
Northeast	1.6 (0.21)	0.9 (0.67–1.28)	2.2 (0.25)	1.0 (0.75–1.41)
Midwest	1.4 (0.16)	0.8 (0.56–1.03)	2.0 (0.19)	0.8 (0.63–1.14)

Sociodemographic Characteristic	12-Month (N=566)		Lifetime (N=753)	
	Prevalence % (SE) ^a	AOR ^b (95% CI)	Prevalence % (SE)	AOR (95% CI)
South	1.5 (0.16)	0.8 (0.56–1.06)	2.0 (0.18)	0.8 (0.60–1.13)
West	1.7 (0.16)	1.0 (Reference)	2.1 (0.23)	1.0 (Reference)

Note: Significant ($p < 0.05$) odds ratios appear in **bold font**.

^aSE = Standard error.

^bAdjusted odds ratios (AORs) adjusted for all other sociodemographic characteristics.

^cReference = Reference group specified for each sociodemographic comparison.

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Table 2.

Prevalence and Adjusted Odds Ratios of 12-Month and Lifetime DSM-5 Bipolar I Disorder by Sociodemographic Characteristics Among Men and Women

Sociodemographic Characteristic	12-Month				Lifetime			
	Men(N=264)		Women (N=302)		Men (N=350)		Women (N=403)	
	Prevalence % (SE) ^a	AOR ^b (95% CI)	Prevalence % (SE)	AOR (95% CI)	Prevalence % (SE)	AOR (95% CI)	Prevalence % (SE)	AOR (95% CI)
Total	1.6 (0.13)	-	1.5 (0.11)	-	2.2 (0.16)	-	2.0 (0.13)	-
Race-ethnicity								
White	1.7 (0.19)	1.0 (Reference) ^c	1.4 (0.15)	1.0 (Reference)	2.3 (0.22)	1.0 (Reference)	2.0 (0.16)	1.0 (Reference)
Black	1.6 (0.26)	0.7 (0.44–1.00)	1.5 (0.24)	0.8 (0.51–1.14)	2.1 (0.32)	0.7 (0.44–0.96)	2.0 (0.31)	0.8 (0.57–1.17)
Native American	2.6 (1.10)	1.2 (0.50–2.75)	4.8 (1.54)	2.4 (1.14–5.06)	3.6 (1.35)	1.2 (0.56–2.70)	6.9 (1.83)	2.8 (1.49–5.08)
Asian/Pacific Islander	0.6 (0.27)	0.3 (0.14–0.79)	0.7 (0.25)	0.5 (0.21–0.99)	0.9 (0.30)	0.4 (0.18–0.76)	1.0 (0.39)	0.5 (0.24–1.06)
Hispanic	1.7 (0.25)	0.7 (0.47–1.05)	1.4 (0.24)	0.7 (0.41–1.02)	2.1 (0.27)	0.7 (0.47–1.00)	1.7 (0.25)	0.7 (0.45–0.96)
Age, y								
18–29	2.4 (0.31)	8.4 (3.04–23.04)	2.2 (0.27)	5.3 (2.77–10.10)	2.9 (0.34)	4.4 (2.23–8.83)	2.8 (0.33)	3.6 (2.10–6.21)
30–44	1.8 (0.21)	6.6 (2.50–17.57)	1.8 (0.19)	5.4 (3.00–9.56)	2.4 (0.29)	4.2 (2.13–8.38)	2.4 (0.23)	3.6 (2.15–5.88)
45–64	1.7 (0.23)	5.5 (2.21–13.76)	1.3 (0.18)	3.7 (1.96–6.90)	2.2 (0.26)	3.5 (1.80–6.78)	1.7 (0.19)	2.3 (1.41–3.87)
65	0.3 (0.16)	1.0 (Reference)	0.5 (0.12)	1.0 (Reference)	0.7 (0.22)	1.0 (Reference)	0.9 (0.20)	1.0 (Reference)
Marital status								
Married/cohabiting	1.2 (0.16)	1.0 (Reference)	1.1 (0.14)	1.0 (Reference)	1.7 (0.18)	1.0 (Reference)	1.6 (0.17)	1.0 (Reference)
Widowed/separated/divorced	2.5 (0.38)	1.8 (1.28–2.63)	1.5 (0.17)	1.3 (0.90–1.89)	3.1 (0.39)	1.6 (1.19–2.10)	2.1 (0.22)	1.4 (0.95–1.97)
Never married	2.1 (0.26)	1.0 (0.64–1.59)	2.3 (0.30)	1.5 (0.97–2.19)	2.7 (0.29)	1.0 (0.70–1.47)	2.9 (0.35)	1.3 (0.92–1.86)
Education								
Less than high school	2.2 (0.38)	1.4 (0.92–2.19)	2.2 (0.39)	1.8 (1.10–2.76)	2.6 (0.42)	1.2 (0.81–1.75)	2.5 (0.40)	1.3 (0.86–2.07)
High school	2.1 (0.26)	1.4 (1.01–1.84)	1.7 (0.25)	1.3 (0.95–1.80)	2.8 (0.29)	1.3 (0.98–1.68)	2.2 (0.26)	1.2 (0.92–1.54)
Some college or higher	1.3 (0.15)	1.0 (Reference)	1.2 (0.10)	1.0 (Reference)	1.8 (0.18)	1.0 (Reference)	1.8 (0.13)	1.0 (Reference)
Family income								
0–19,999	2.8 (0.32)	2.3 (1.41–3.61)	2.2 (0.22)	2.6 (1.72–3.76)	3.7 (0.37)	2.7 (1.72–4.14)	2.8 (0.26)	2.1 (1.41–3.02)
20,000–34,999	1.9 (0.31)	1.6 (0.98–2.65)	1.5 (0.23)	2.0 (1.24–3.10)	2.4 (0.32)	1.8 (1.20–2.81)	2.1 (0.24)	1.7 (1.11–2.53)

Sociodemographic Characteristic	12-Month				Lifetime			
	Men(N=264)		Women (N=302)		Men (N=350)		Women (N=403)	
	Prevalence % (SE) ^a	AOR ^b (95% CI)	Prevalence % (SE)	AOR (95% CI)	Prevalence % (SE)	AOR (95% CI)	Prevalence % (SE)	AOR (95% CI)
35,000–69,999	1.3 (0.21)	1.2 (0.72–1.94)	1.5 (0.21)	1.9 (1.26–2.81)	2.0 (0.25)	1.5 (1.01–2.19)	2.0 (0.24)	1.5 (1.07–2.21)
70,000	1.0 (0.20)	1.0 (Reference)	0.7 (0.11)	1.0 (Reference)	1.3 (0.22)	1.0 (Reference)	1.2 (0.17)	1.0 (Reference)
Urbanicity								
Urban	1.6 (0.14)	1.0 (0.67–1.49)	1.3 (0.11)	0.6 (0.43–0.91)	2.1 (0.16)	1.0 (0.68–1.43)	1.8 (0.13)	0.7 (0.48–0.95)
Rural	1.7 (0.32)	1.0 (Reference)	2.0 (0.31)	1.0 (Reference)	2.3 (0.38)	1.0 (Reference)	2.6 (0.36)	1.0 (Reference)
Region								
Northeast	1.5 (0.33)	0.8 (0.53–1.32)	1.6 (0.30)	1.0 (0.63–1.63)	2.4 (0.45)	1.2 (0.76–1.77)	2.1 (0.32)	0.9 (0.60–1.43)
Midwest	1.5 (0.27)	0.7 (0.47–1.15)	1.4 (0.21)	0.8 (0.50–1.23)	2.2 (0.31)	0.9 (0.65–1.37)	1.9 (0.22)	0.8 (0.51–1.14)
South	1.7 (0.27)	0.8 (0.55–1.22)	1.3 (0.16)	0.7 (0.47–1.07)	2.2 (0.29)	0.9 (0.65–1.35)	1.8 (0.18)	0.7 (0.49–1.06)
West	1.8 (0.17)	1.0 (Reference)	1.6 (0.23)	1.0 (Reference)	2.1 (0.21)	1.0 (Reference)	2.2 (0.32)	1.0 (Reference)

Note: Significant ($p < 0.05$) odds ratios appear in **bold font**.

^aSE = Standard error.

^bAdjusted odds ratios (AORs) adjusted for all other sociodemographic characteristics.

^cReference = Reference group specified for each sociodemographic comparison.

Table 3.

Adjusted Odds ratios of 12-Month and Lifetime DSM-5 Bipolar I Disorder and Other Psychiatric Disorders, Total Sample

Comorbid disorder	12-Month		Lifetime	
	AOR ^a (95% CI) ^b	AOR (95% CI) ^c	AOR ^a (95% CI) ^b	AOR (95% CI) ^c
Any substance use disorder	4.4 (3.52–5.59)	2.0 (1.56–2.56)	5.8 (4.51–7.47)	2.3 (1.77–3.03)
Alcohol use disorder	3.0 (2.43–3.71)	1.2 (0.94–1.58)	5.0 (4.08–6.02)	1.7 (1.37–2.17)
Any drug use disorder	5.5 (4.20–7.31)	1.4 (1.02–1.98)	5.3 (4.42–6.29)	1.3 (1.08–1.66)
Tobacco use disorder	4.1 (3.20–5.14)	1.8 (1.38–2.34)	4.0 (3.28–4.76)	1.4 (1.13–1.74)
Any anxiety disorder	7.5 (5.83–9.52)	1.9 (1.41–2.47)	7.0 (5.76–8.53)	2.0 (1.55–2.54)
Panic	11.3 (8.76–14.58)	2.7 (2.01–3.62)	7.8 (6.34–9.60)	2.2 (1.73–2.77)
Agoraphobia	9.1 (6.36–12.93)	1.7 (1.08–2.62)	8.0 (5.91–10.89)	1.8 (1.23–2.61)
Social anxiety disorder	6.3 (4.47–8.98)	1.3 (0.91–1.83)	5.8 (4.29–7.72)	1.3 (0.96–1.81)
Specific phobia	4.3 (3.30–5.47)	1.4 (1.06–1.81)	4.0 (3.16–5.08)	1.3 (1.03–1.71)
Generalized anxiety disorder	7.8 (6.29–9.72)	1.3 (1.02–1.74)	6.4 (5.25–7.85)	1.4 (1.02–1.77)
Posttraumatic stress disorder	9.6 (7.78–11.72)	2.1 (1.65–2.71)	8.8 (7.19–10.85)	2.2 (1.73–2.90)
Any personality disorder ^d	19.9 (15.47–25.61)	8.4 (6.01–11.59)	14.8 (12.22–18.03)	5.7 (4.55–7.23)
Schizotypal	13.6 (10.52–17.57)	2.6 (1.87–3.57)	11.7 (9.51–14.38)	2.4 (1.87–3.13)
Borderline	17.9 (14.09–22.64)	4.4 (3.18–6.00)	14.2 (11.79–17.10)	3.6 (2.80–4.53)
Antisocial	7.3 (5.45–9.89)	1.9 (1.34–2.54)	6.5 (4.86–8.66)	1.7 (1.24–2.22)

Note: Significant ($p < 0.05$) odds ratios appear in **bold font**.

^aAdjusted odds ratios adjusted for sex, age, race-ethnicity, marital status, education, household income urbanicity and region.

^b95% CI= 95% confidence interval.

^cOdds ratios adjusted for sex, age, race-ethnicity, marital status, education, household income, urbanicity, region and other psychiatric disorders.

^dPersonality disorders assessed on a lifetime basis.

Table 4. Adjusted Odds ratios of 12-Month and Lifetime DSM-5 Bipolar I Disorder and Other Psychiatric Disorders Among Men and Women

	12-Month				Lifetime			
	Men		Women		Men		Women	
	AOR ^a (95% CI) ^b	AOR (95% CI) ^c	AOR ^a (95% CI) ^b	AOR (95% CI) ^c	AOR ^a (95% CI) ^b	AOR (95% CI) ^c	AOR ^a (95% CI) ^b	AOR (95% CI) ^c
Comorbid disorder								
Any substance use disorder	4.3 (3.17–5.81)	2.0 (1.42–2.78)	4.5 (3.40–6.07)	2.0 (1.45–2.78)	8.8 (5.43–14.33)	3.7 (2.28–6.14)	4.6 (3.37–6.24)	1.8 (1.27–2.44)
Alcohol use disorder	2.3 (1.71–3.17)	0.9 (0.64–1.32)	4.0 (2.99–5.37)	1.7 (1.17–2.42)	5.2 (3.77–7.16)	1.9 (1.29–2.63)	4.8 (3.72–6.25)	1.7 (1.20–2.28)
Any drug use disorder	5.2 (3.50–7.66)	1.5 (0.94–2.31)	6.1 (4.15–9.04)	1.4 (0.81–2.25)	4.6 (3.55–5.90)	1.1 (0.80–1.46)	6.2 (4.87–7.96)	1.7 (1.26–2.35)
Tobacco use disorder	4.2 (3.11–5.78)	2.1 (1.45–3.09)	3.9 (2.77–5.38)	1.6 (1.05–2.33)	5.1 (3.81–6.84)	2.0 (1.41–2.84)	3.2 (2.44–4.16)	1.0 (0.74–1.45)
Any anxiety disorder	8.4 (5.69–12.32)	2.0 (1.32–3.06)	6.7 (4.83–9.28)	1.7 (1.09–2.52)	7.2 (5.34–9.73)	2.0 (1.39–2.73)	6.8 (5.13–9.08)	2.0 (1.39–2.83)
Panic	16.1 (9.97–26.11)	4.0 (2.20–7.23)	9.0 (6.35–12.66)	2.0 (1.39–3.01)	12.0 (8.33–17.20)	3.6 (2.32–5.67)	5.6 (4.12–7.59)	1.4 (1.03–2.03)
Agoraphobia	12.9 (7.28–22.91)	2.1 (1.12–4.10)	7.4 (4.65–11.68)	1.4 (0.80–2.49)	9.5 (5.72–15.92)	1.8 (1.01–3.02)	7.3 (4.93–10.66)	1.8 (1.12–2.92)
Social anxiety disorder	8.2 (5.25–12.79)	1.4 (0.86–2.30)	5.2 (3.16–8.53)	1.1 (0.69–1.84)	6.7 (4.59–9.71)	1.3 (0.86–2.01)	5.2 (3.50–7.67)	1.3 (0.85–1.98)
Specific phobia	5.7 (3.81–8.57)	1.5 (0.90–2.34)	3.4 (2.55–4.54)	1.2 (0.94–1.61)	5.1 (3.44–7.44)	1.3 (0.84–2.09)	3.4 (2.59–4.39)	1.2 (0.95–1.60)
Generalized anxiety disorder	8.7 (5.95–12.65)	1.3 (0.85–1.91)	7.3 (5.17–10.42)	1.3 (0.83–2.11)	6.9 (5.01–9.53)	1.3 (0.92–1.96)	6.1 (4.49–8.15)	1.3 (0.86–1.98)
Posttraumatic stress disorder	11.5 (8.39–15.67)	2.4 (1.66–3.55)	8.7 (6.65–11.26)	1.9 (1.36–2.50)	11.5 (8.42–15.69)	2.9 (2.11–4.03)	7.3 (5.60–9.50)	1.8 (1.28–2.46)
Any personality disorder ^d	20.2 (13.28–30.85)	8.6 (5.45–13.54)	19.8 (13.90–28.34)	8.1 (4.80–13.59)	15.2 (11.08–20.74)	5.7 (4.17–7.78)	14.8 (11.16–19.53)	5.7 (4.00–8.04)
Schizotypal	14.9 (10.36–21.53)	2.7 (1.74–4.21)	12.4 (8.80–17.39)	2.4 (1.53–3.61)	11.8 (8.83–15.76)	2.2 (1.58–3.01)	11.6 (8.71–15.50)	2.6 (1.77–3.75)
Borderline	18.8 (12.38–28.43)	4.3 (2.72–6.80)	17.5 (12.49–24.46)	4.7 (2.81–7.88)	15.7 (11.39–21.56)	4.0 (2.75–5.79)	13.1 (10.08–17.08)	3.2 (2.24–4.58)
Antisocial	7.1 (5.08–9.97)	2.0 (1.38–2.95)	7.7 (5.03–11.78)	1.7 (1.06–2.66)	5.9 (4.26–8.11)	1.7 (1.19–2.30)	7.6 (5.05–11.38)	1.8 (1.13–2.70)

Note: Significant ($p < 0.05$) odds ratios appear in **bold font**.

^a Adjusted odds ratios adjusted for sex, age, race-ethnicity, marital status, education, household income urbanicity and region.

^b 95% CI= 95% confidence interval.

^c Adjusted odds ratios adjusted for sex, age, race-ethnicity, marital status, education, household income, urbanicity, region and other psychiatric disorders.

^d Personality disorders assessed on a lifetime basis.

Table 5.

Mean Norm-Based Quality of Life Scores by 12-Month DMS-5 Bipolar I Disorder Among Men and Women

Bipolar I Disorder	Mental Health	Social Functioning	Role Emotional Functioning	Mental Component Summary
Total				
Yes	41.9 (0.63)	40.7 (0.72) ^a	38.6 (0.66) ^a	40.3 (0.61) ^a
No	51.9 (0.08)	50.8 (0.09)	48.6 (0.12)	51.0 (0.08)
Men				
Yes	44.5 (0.92)	43.9 (1.14)	40.8 (1.05) ^a	43.5 (0.92)
No	53.0 (0.11)	51.5 (0.12)	49.4 (0.15)	52.0 (0.11)
Women				
Yes	39.1 (0.74) ^a	37.4 (0.95) ^a	36.4 (0.77) ^a	37.0 (0.73) ^a
No	50.9 (0.11)	50.1 (0.11)	47.8 (0.13)	50.1 (0.10)

^aSignificantly different ($p < .05$) from the scores for individuals with no bipolar I disorder, after adjusting for sociodemographic characteristics and other 12-month psychiatric disorders.