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Diagnostic unreliability between research and clinical practice in psychiatry still matters: a call for discussion about medical history taking and diagnostic interview basic principles

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Reliability and Validity are closely related concepts in philosophy and medicine. Validity concerns the existence of a specific concept or object in a shared reality, while reliability relates to the agreement among different observers regarding the existence of a concept or object¹. Both validity and reliability are fundamental to the issue of mental disorders and psychiatry's goal of being a science-based medical specialty¹.

Mental disorders encompass biological, subjective, and social aspects of human life². Despite anti-psychiatry movement critics, many of these disorders exist as independent constructs and are therefore valid. However, the low reliability among clinicians indicates limited validity of mental disorders. To address this, psychiatry introduced the "operational revolution," which involves describing mental disorders through operational categories and using Structured Diagnostic Interviews (SDIs) as a guide for diagnosis³.

Operational categories undergo continuous review by the DSM and ICD, but it's unclear how they are used in daily clinical practice^{4,5}. On the other hand, SDIs are rarely used in clinical practice, leading to an unspoken problem in evidence-based psychiatry. Research relies on subjects diagnosed using operational criteria obtained through SDIs, while clinical practice relies on individual diagnostic prototypes obtained through Non-Standard Diagnostic Interviews (NSDIs) that lack standardization⁶.

Surprisingly, there are very few studies measuring the reliability between SDIs and NSDIs, and almost none focusing on NSDI reliability since the development of SDIs in the late seventies and early eighties⁷. This scarcity suggests that NSDI unreliability is now taken for granted or that reliability issues are considered irrelevant. The latter hypothesis is reinforced by the DSM-5 work group's goal of achieving kappa reliability of around 0.4 for diagnostic items⁸, a value only slightly better than random agreement⁹, and worse than NSDI reliability studies in the pre-operational revolution era¹⁰.

The problem of conducting research with a definition of mental disorders and a diagnostic instrument that differ from clinical practice and whose reliability is unknown becomes evident. Given that the kappa agreement between SDIs and NSDIs for bipolar disorder is 0.4⁷, the likelihood of a subject receiving the same diagnosis in both assessments is slightly above 15%⁹. This means that almost 85% of all patients undergoing treatment for bipolar disorder in an outpatient setting, after being diagnosed with NSDIs, would not be selected as research subjects. Consequently, they would receive treatment that is not evidence-based if they rely solely on clinical trials.

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On the other hand, SDIs only identify a subset of mental disorders diagnosed by clinicians⁷. The effects of this restriction on subjects' representation in medical development and research on organic disturbances in mental disorders are unknown. However, completely dismissing SDIs and operational criteria is akin to throwing out the baby with the bathwater. Clear diagnostic definitions and standardized assessments are crucial in mitigating common diagnostic biases that impact clinical assessments, such as missing information, anchoring, confirmation, and diagnostic availability biases^{11,12}. If clear diagnostic definitions and standardized assessments are essential, they must be improved rather than discarded.

Operational criteria alone may be insufficient for a comprehensive description of mental disorders^{4,13}. However, the previous model based on a simple narrative description was also inadequate. Prototypes naturally form the basis of clinical diagnostic reasoning^{13,14}, but diagnostic prototypes can and should incorporate operational operators as part of their descriptors. A valuable suggestion is to use prototype adequacy ranges, where clinicians can compare their observations with an ideal prototype that serves as a scaffold for diagnosis¹³. This approach is compatible with the dimensional approach in the latest classification system.

Diagnostic interviews are akin to diagnostic tests and require standardization. However, SDIs were directly built from operational criteria, following an up-down strategy (starting from the diagnosis and verifying its signs and symptoms), which is the opposite of the down-up strategy taught in clinical textbooks (collecting signs and symptoms first and then attempting to classify the disorder). Medical history taking, as a diagnostic technology, has been poorly studied, lacking a MeSH thesaurus or a valid global standard⁶. Nonetheless, understanding its components and refining its structure for research purposes might be easier to translate into clinical practice than using diagnostic criteria converted into questionnaires.

Currently, most reliability studies in psychiatry today are related to the validation of new diagnostic instruments or their comparison with SDIs, as well as the scales used to measure symptom intensity⁷. Many of these instruments are not meant for clinical practice, and their usage by clinicians remains unclear. The reason why reliability studies between

research and clinical methods have been neglected is unclear, and the assumption that they are unnecessary is inaccurate. We are entering a new era of technological support for diagnosis and the review of diagnostic systems⁶, stemming from a "brain decade" during which very few, if any, groundbreaking discoveries were made in psychiatry using SDIs and operational criteria as the diagnostic gold standard. It is perhaps time to recalibrate research and clinical diagnostic instruments, acknowledges their true limitations, and avoid falling into the trap of the sunk cost bias: the more we invest in a failed project, the more challenging it becomes to abandon it.

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