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Original article

## Mediating role of borderline personality traits in the effects of childhood maltreatment on suicidal behaviour among mood disorder patients

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### ABSTRACT

**Background:** Substantial evidence supports an association between childhood maltreatment and suicidal behaviour. However, few studies have examined factors mediating this relationship among patients with unipolar or bipolar mood disorders.

**Methods:** Depressive disorder and bipolar disorder (ICD-10-DCR) patients ( $n = 287$ ) from the Helsinki University Psychiatric Consortium (HUPC) Study were surveyed on self-reported childhood experiences, current depressive symptoms, borderline personality disorder traits, and lifetime suicidal behaviour. Psychiatric records served to complement the information on suicide attempts. We examined by formal mediation analyses whether (1) the effect of childhood maltreatment on suicidal behaviour is mediated through borderline personality disorder traits and (2) the mediation effect differs between lifetime suicidal ideation and lifetime suicide attempts.

**Results:** The impact of childhood maltreatment in multivariate models on either lifetime suicidal ideation or lifetime suicide attempts showed comparable total effects. In formal mediation analyses, borderline personality disorder traits mediated all of the total effect of childhood maltreatment on lifetime suicide attempts, but only one fifth of the total effect on lifetime suicidal ideation. The mediation effect was stronger for lifetime suicide attempts than for lifetime suicidal ideation ( $P = 0.002$ ) and independent of current depressive symptoms.

**Conclusions:** The mechanisms of the effect of childhood maltreatment on suicidal ideation versus suicide attempts may diverge among psychiatric patients with mood disorders. Borderline personality disorder traits may contribute to these mechanisms, although the influence appears considerably stronger for suicide attempts than for suicidal ideation.

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## 1. Introduction

Childhood experiences correlate with adult physical and mental well-being [1,2]. The most adverse outcomes include associations of childhood maltreatment (CM) with premature death [3] and suicidal behaviour [4]. While research on suicide deaths remains scarce [5], considerable evidence shows an association between CM and suicidal ideation and attempts [4]. Although several previous studies have examined this relationship by estimating the

effect of covariates in analyses, few studies have investigated potential mediating mechanisms [6–10].

Borderline personality disorder (BPD) ranks among the most prevalent personality disorder comorbidities among mood disorder patients [11,12]. Subthreshold BPD traits are even more common [13]. Within mood disorder samples, CM is associated with comorbid BPD diagnosis [14] and traits [15]. Aetiology of BPD is multifactorial, including both inherited vulnerabilities and developmental factors [16]. Family and twin studies of BPD demonstrate familial transmission and moderate heritability [17]. Psychological theories of development of BPD remark CM and dysfunctional parenting [18–20] as environmental factors.

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33 Although CM is neither sufficient nor necessary for the develop-  
34 ment of BPD [16], prospective studies show that children exposed  
35 to CM are at higher risk of developing BPD [21,22]. In cross-  
36 sectional studies, adult BPD patients report ample CM and  
37 dysfunctional parenting [23–25], and a dose-response relationship  
38 exists between CM and BPD symptoms [15,26,27].

39 Epidemiological and clinical cohort studies affirm connections  
40 between depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation. Progres-  
41 sion to suicide attempts, by contrast, appears to be more associated  
42 with severity of depression, anxiety or agitation, and impaired self-  
43 control [28–31]. Dysregulation of emotions and impaired self-  
44 control characterize the core phenotype of BPD, together with  
45 unstable relationships and cognitive distortions/identity distur-  
46 bance [32]. BPD, in turn, is a substantial risk factor for suicidal  
47 behaviour [33,34].

48 Suicidal ideation and acts are common among patients with  
49 mood disorders [28,30,31], and these patients constitute a high-risk  
50 group for suicide [35,36]. Our previous work [28] showed that  
51 among patients with mood disorder, risk factors for suicidal  
52 ideation and suicide attempts likely differ. Several putative remote  
53 risk factors may also influence this risk through more proximate  
54 clinical characteristics [28]. CM could explain the mutual associa-  
55 tion as a common denominator for both suicidal behaviour and BPD  
56 traits. In addition to dysregulation of emotions, however, affective  
57 lability is frequently present in mood disorders. The only previous  
58 study of which we are aware that investigated direct mediators  
59 between CM and suicidal behaviour in a clinical mood disorder  
60 sample showed mediation through affective lability in patients with  
61 bipolar disorder [37]. Other explanatory factors may include  
62 heritability of psychiatric disorders and impulsive-aggressive traits;  
63 tentatively interacting with familial recurrence of CM [38].

64 We investigated mediators between CM and suicidal behav-  
65 iour within a psychiatric mood disorder patient cohort. We also  
66 modelled as confounders the effects of parental mental health and  
67 substance use. We hypothesized (a) BPD traits to be significant  
68 mediators between CM and suicidal behaviour, and due to  
69 impaired self-control, (b) BPD traits to demonstrate stronger  
70 mediating effects on suicide attempts than on suicidal ideation.  
71 Finally, we explored possible differences in mediating roles of  
72 specific forms of CM.

## 73 2. Methods

### 74 2.1. Setting

75 This study was executed within the mood disorder arm of the  
76 Helsinki University Psychiatric Consortium (HUPC) Study, a joint  
77 research project between the Faculty of Medicine, University of  
78 Helsinki; the Department of Psychiatry, Helsinki University Central  
79 Hospital; the Department of Health and the Mental Health Unit of  
80 the National Institute of Health and Welfare; and the Department  
81 of Social Services and Health Care, Psychiatric Services, City of  
82 Helsinki, Finland. The Ethics Committee of Helsinki University  
83 Central Hospital and the appropriate research committees  
84 approved the study design. A complete description of the HUPC  
85 study methodology is available elsewhere [28,39] and is briefly  
86 outlined below.

87 Participating regional units consisted of all 10 communal  
88 mental health centres, 24 of the 35 psychiatric inpatient wards,  
89 and one of the 8 day-care hospitals. The sampling was executed  
90 from 12th January 2011 to 20th December 2012. Patients were  
91 randomly drawn by stratified sampling method from regional  
92 units to generate representativeness. Every  $\geq 18$ -year-old patient  
93 was considered eligible, excluding patients suffering from mental  
94 retardation or neurodegenerative disorders or possessing insuffi-  
95 cient Finnish language skills.

### 2.2. Sampling

96 From the mood disorder units, a total of 904 patients were  
97 drawn and 784 were reached and invited to participate in the  
98 study; 375 declined participation and 336 completed the study  
99 (response rate 43%, 336/784). Excluding missing surveys and other  
100 principal lifetime diagnoses resulted in a final sample of  
101 287 patients with either depressive disorder ( $n = 188$ ) or bipolar  
102 disorder (BD) ( $n = 99$ ). No significant differences emerged in age or  
103 gender when stratified by principal diagnosis and regional  
104 sampling relative to the patient population in the respective  
105 psychiatric services. For the description of the sample, see Table 1.  
106

### 2.3. Lifetime principal diagnosis

107 The study diagnoses were formed by the clinical diagnoses  
108 assigned by the attending physicians and according to the  
109 International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Health  
110 Problems, 10th Revision (ICD-10), Diagnostic Criteria for Research.  
111 The authors (K.A., I.B., B.K., M.K.), however, carefully weighed the  
112 validity of the diagnoses by re-examining all available information  
113 from patient records and specified the diagnosis when needed. A  
114 lifetime principal diagnosis was hierarchically established by  
115 giving precedence to severe depressive, bipolar affective, and  
116 psychotic disorders. The BD diagnosis was subtyped according to  
117 the Finnish national treatment guidelines [40] into type I and II  
118 disorders.  
119

### 2.4. Trauma and Distress Scale (TADS)

120 The TADS is a self-report questionnaire of childhood maltreat-  
121 ment and distressing experiences [41,42]. The 25 items of the scale  
122 measure five subdomains of CM, including physical, sexual, and  
123 emotional abuse, and emotional and physical neglect. The items of  
124 the scale inquire about gradually more severe experiences and rate  
125 the frequency of occurrence of each by a five-point Likert scale  
126 from 0 to 4 (0 = never, 1 = rarely, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often,  
127 4 = nearly always). The TADS provides both subscales for each  
128 type of CM and, by adding the subscales, a sum score. The reliability  
129 between self-reported and interviewed TADS, and internal  
130 consistencies of the subscales indicate good psychometric  
131 properties in a Finnish community sample [43]. In our sample,  
132 Cronbach's alphas for the subscales ranged from 0.675 to 0.908,  
133 and for the sum score 0.924.  
134

### 2.5. McLean Screening Instrument for Borderline Personality Disorder (MSI-BPD)

135 The MSI-BPD is a 10-item self-report screening instrument for  
136 borderline personality disorder (BPD), where each item rates true/  
137 false screening for the presence of BPD symptoms. The MSI-BPD  
138 shows good sensitivity (0.81) and specificity (0.85) with a clinical  
139 cut-off score of 7 or more, as well as good internal consistency  
140 (Cronbach's alpha = 0.74) [44], confirmed in a Finnish validation  
141 study [45]. In our sample, Cronbach's alpha was 0.753 and analyses  
142 were conducted by omitting the suicidality item to avoid content  
143 overlap.  
144

### 2.6. Other assessments

145 Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) is a self-report instrument  
146 (21 items) for depressive symptoms [46]. In our sample,  
147 Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.923. The suicidality item in  
148 the analyses was omitted to avoid circularity.  
149

150 The survey inquired about family history of mental health and  
151 substance abuse that had required treatment or caused significant  
152

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