cambridge.org/psm

Original Article

Cite this article: Dantchev S, Zammit S, Wolke D (2018). Sibling bullying in middle childhood and psychotic disorder at 18 years: a prospective cohort study. *Psychological Medicine* **48**, 2321–2328. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291717003841

Received: 1 September 2017 Revised: 4 December 2017 Accepted: 5 December 2017

First published online: 12 February 2018

Key words:

ALSPAC; bullying; psychosis; siblings; victimization

Author for correspondence:

Dieter Wolke, E-mail: D.Wolke@warwick.ac.uk

Sibling bullying in middle childhood and psychotic disorder at 18 years: a prospective cohort study

Slava Dantchev¹, Stanley Zammit^{2,3} and Dieter Wolke¹

¹Department of Psychology, University of Warwick, Coventry, UK; ²Division of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, Cardiff University, Cardiff, UK and ³Centre for Academic Mental Health, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

Abstract

Background. Being bullied by a sibling has been recently identified as a potential risk factor for developing depression and self-harm. It is unknown whether this risk extends to other serious mental health problems such as psychosis. We investigated whether sibling bullying victimization or perpetration in middle childhood was prospectively associated with psychotic disorder in early adulthood.

Methods. The current study investigated 6988 participants of the Avon Longitudinal Study of

Parents and Children, a UK community-based birth cohort. Sibling bullying was reported at 12 years and psychotic disorder was assessed via a semi-structured interview at 18 years. **Results.** Involvement in sibling bullying was associated with psychotic disorder in a doseresponse fashion, even after controlling for a range of confounders. Those involved several times a week were 2–3 times more likely to meet criteria for a psychotic disorder [odds ratio (OR); 95% confidence interval (CI)]: victimization (OR 2.74; CI 1.28–5.87); perpetration (OR 3.16; CI 1.35–7.41). Categorical analysis indicated that particularly victims (OR 3.10; CI 1.48–6.50) and bully-victims (OR 2.66; CI 1.24–5.69) were at increased risk of psychotic disorder. Involvement in both sibling and peer bullying had a dose-effect relationship with a psychotic disorder, with those victimized in both contexts having more than four times the odds for a psychotic disorder (OR 4.57; CI 1.73–12.07).

Conclusion. Parents and health professionals should be aware of the adverse long-term effects of sibling bullying.

Introduction

There is a paucity of prospective studies considering sibling aggression as a precursor to the development of mental health problems. This is surprising, considering that sibling aggression is the most common form of family violence (Finkelhor *et al.* 2006; Radford *et al.* 2013). Nevertheless, parents and health professionals continue to perceive aggression between siblings as benign and normative behavior that children will outgrow (Eriksen & Jensen, 2009). While the occasional conflict between siblings can be constructive, repeated negative interactions may have detrimental outcomes such as increasing the risk of internalizing and externalizing problems (Buist *et al.* 2013).

Repeated aggressive behavior perpetrated by a sibling, with the intention to cause harm and involving an element of perceived or real power imbalance has been labeled as sibling bullying (Wolke *et al.* 2015). Sibling bullying has been associated with adjustment problems such as increased emotional and behavioral problems, as well as greater mental health distress (Wolke & Samara, 2004; Wolke & Skew, 2011; Tucker *et al.* 2013, 2014). However, these findings have been based on cross-sectional or retrospective designs, preventing conclusions to be drawn on whether emotional or behavior problems preceded sibling bullying, or vice versa.

At present, we are only aware of one study that prospectively studied the relationship between experiencing sibling bullying in middle childhood and mental health in late adolescence/early adulthood. This recent study (Bowes *et al.* 2014) reported that experiencing sibling bullying several times a week in middle childhood increased the odds of depression and self-harm twofold, even after controlling for peer bullying, other confounders and pre-existing emotional problems.

There is now ample evidence that childhood trauma such as physical or sexual abuse increases the odds of reporting psychotic symptoms (Varese *et al.* 2012) as well as developing psychotic disorders (Bebbington *et al.* 2004; Fisher *et al.* 2010; Varese *et al.* 2012). Psychotic disorders are one of the most impairing mental health problems with severe effects on individual's quality of life and significant social and economic costs (Kennedy *et al.* 2014).

Recent research has indicated that bullying, the systematic abuse by peers, is also implicated in the development of both psychotic symptoms (Cunningham et al. 2016) and psychotic

© Cambridge University Press 2018



disorders (Bebbington et al. 2004; Trotta et al. 2013; Sourander et al. 2016). While most research has focused on childhood victimization, some evidence suggests that perpetrating peer bullying may also be associated with increased psychotic symptoms (Kelleher et al. 2008). However, it is unclear whether this is related to bullying perpetration per se, or the subset of children involved as both perpetrators and victims of bullying. Moreover, sibling aggression has been associated with the involvement in peer bullying (Tucker et al. 2014; Tippett & Wolke, 2015) and involvement in both bullying at home and at school has been found to have a dose-effect relationship on experiencing mental health distress, emotional and behavioral problems (Wolke & Samara, 2004; Wolke & Skew, 2011; Tucker et al. 2014). Whether this dose-effect relationship translates into the development of psychotic disorders is unknown. As far as we are aware, there are no previous prospective studies of bullying victimization or perpetration between siblings and the risk of developing a psychotic disorder by early adulthood.

The aim of the present study was to investigate the association between sibling bullying in middle childhood and psychotic disorder in early adulthood. We investigated whether (1) there is an association between experiencing sibling bullying (victimization or perpetration) at 12 years and the development of psychotic disorder by 18 years; (2) whether there is a dose-response relationship between the frequency of experiencing sibling victimization or perpetration and psychotic disorder; (3) whether the role taken in sibling bullying (victim, bully, bully-victim) is differentially associated with the psychotic disorder and (4) whether being victimized in more than one context (siblings at home and peers at school) is cumulatively associated with the psychotic disorder.

We expected to find an association between sibling bullying victimization and psychotic disorder (Schreier *et al.* 2009; Arseneault *et al.* 2011; Wolke *et al.* 2014) with those children acting as bully-victims being at the highest risk for a psychotic disorder (Wolke *et al.* 2014; Sourander *et al.* 2016). We further anticipated to see a dose-response effect for sibling and peer victimization, where victimization across both contexts is associated with higher risk of psychotic disorder (Wolke & Skew, 2011; Tucker *et al.* 2014).

Methods

Study design

The Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC) is a birth cohort study that recruited 14 541 pregnant women from Avon, UK with an expected delivery date between 1 April 1991 and 31 December 1992. Out of this initial number of pregnancies, where enrolled mothers had either returned at least one questionnaire or attended one 'Children in Focus' clinic by the 19 June 1999, there were 14 062 live births with 13 988 of these children still alive at the age of 12 months. A detailed report on the recruitment process of the mother and child cohorts are available in the cohort profile (Boyd et al. 2013; Fraser et al. 2013). Children were invited to attend annual assessment clinics, including face-to-face interviews, and psychological and physical tests from 7 years onwards. Please note that the study website contains details of all the data that is available through a fully searchable data dictionary at http://www.bris.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/dataaccess/data-dictionary/. Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the ALSPAC Ethics and Law Committee and the Local Research Ethics Committees.

Sample

Our starting sample includes 6988 children who completed detailed questions on sibling bullying at the 12-year assessment. Questionnaires were sent out to 11 132 eligible participants, of which 7505 (67.4%) were returned and completed. Children with no siblings (N=477) were excluded. Semi-structured interviews measuring psychotic experiences at 18 years were available for 4718 adolescents. Our complete sample consists of 3596 participants where data were available across both exposure and outcome variables.

Assessment of sibling bullying

Sibling bullying was assessed at 12 years via a standard sibling bullying questionnaire adapted from the Olweus Bullying Questionnaire (Olweus, 2007). Children were informed that they would be asked about bullying by brothers and sisters, explaining that this is when a sibling tries to upset them 'by saying nasty and hurtful things, or completely ignores [them] from their group of friends, hits, kicks, pushes or shoves [them] around, tells lies or makes up false rumors about [them]'. Children were asked whether they were ever bullied (victimization) or had ever bullied (perpetration) their brother or sister in the past 6 months. Responses were on a Likert scale: 'never', 'only ever once or twice', '2 or 3 times a month', 'about once a week' and 'several times a week'.

We used sibling bullying as an ordinal (frequencies of victimization and perpetration, respectively) and categorical variable (victim, bully, bully-victim). Children reporting victimization several times a month or every week were classified as victims, children reporting perpetration several times a month or every week was classified as bullies. Those who were victimized, but also bullied a sibling several times a month or every week were 'bully-victims'. Children who neither bullied or were victimized several times a month or several times a week were classified as 'non-involved' (Wolke *et al.* 2014).

Psychotic disorder in early adulthood

The psychotic disorder was assessed via the semi-structured face-to-face Psychosis-like Symptoms Interview (PLIKSi) at a mean age of 17.5 years. The PLIKSi has been adapted from the standardized clinical examination developed for the Schedule for Clinical Assessment in Neuropsychiatry (WHO, 1994). Following a brief section addressing unusual experiences, 11 core questions eliciting key psychotic experiences since the age of 12 were asked by trained Psychology graduates who administered the PLIKSi. Key psychotic experiences from the PLIKSi fell into categories of hallucinations (visual and auditory), delusions (e.g. being spied on), and experiences of thought interference (e.g. broadcasting). Inter-rater reliability, as well as the test-retest reliability of the PLIKSi were found to be high (κ = 0.83 and 0.76; Zammit et al. 2013). Individuals were classified as having a psychotic disorder if they fulfilled DSM-IV and ICD 10 criteria and reported definite psychotic experiences not attributable to the effects of sleep or fever occurring at least once per month over the previous 6 months and either caused distress, negative impact on daily functioning or led to helpseeking (Zammit et al. 2013).

Potential confounders

We selected potential confounders *a priori* based on the literature on peer bullying and mental health and those identified by Bowes *et al.* (2014) for sibling bullying. Confounders were assessed before the mean onset age of sibling bullying, occurring at or before the age of 8 years.

Individual characteristics

Previous psychiatric diagnoses were assessed using the Development and Wellbeing Assessment (Goodman *et al.* 2000) based on parent and teacher reports when children were 7 years. Children were classified as presenting no DSM-IV Axis I diagnosis (N=7775, 94.2%) or presenting one or more Axis I diagnoses of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, conduct disorder, oppositional defiant disorder, depression or anxiety (Schreier *et al.* 2009). Internalizing and externalizing problems were assessed via the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 2001) via the emotional symptoms and conduct problems subscales ($\alpha=0.70$ across both subscales), based on maternal reports when the study child was 7 years.

Peer bullying was assessed using a modified version of the Bullying and Friendship Interview Schedule (Wolke *et al.* 2014) when children were 8 and 12 years. The interview asked children about peer bullying victimization and perpetration. Children were considered as peer victims or bullies if they reported any overt or relational peer bullying several times a month or several times a week

The UK version of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children – III (Wechsler *et al.* 1992) was administered at the 8-year clinic to establish an overall score for children's intelligence quotient (grand mean = 103.97; s.D. = 16.54).

Family characteristics

Maternal depression was assessed during pregnancy at 18 weeks' gestation via the Edinburgh Post-Natal Depression Scale (Cox et al. 1987). Maternal reports further provided information about the study child's birth order (first born or later born), number of other children in the household (≤ 2 or ≥ 3), sibling gender (older brother/sister or not), maternal education (certificate of secondary school education and lower or ordinary-level education and higher) and marital status (single or married) when children were between 7 and 8 years old (Bowes et al. 2014). Domestic violence was measured across four-time points when children were between 8 months and 4 years and were considered as present if mothers reported any physical or emotional cruelty from their partner at any time point (Bowes et al. 2014). Maltreatment was measured across seven-time points when children were between 1 and 8 years and wereas considered present if mothers reported any physical or sexual abuse at any time point.

Statistical analysis

All analyses were conducted using SPSS 23 and STATA 14. Firstly, we determined the distribution of exposure to sibling bullying behavior across gender. We used Mann–Whitney U tests and χ^2 analysis to test whether gender was separately associated with bullying victimization, perpetration or sibling bullying status. Secondly, we assessed the distribution of sibling bullying behavior across all confounding variables. Mann–Whitney U tests and oneway analysis of variance (ANOVA) analyses were performed to test for individual and family characteristics of children who

were victims or perpetrators of sibling bullying (online Supplementary Table S1). Binary logistic regression analysis was utilized to examine selective drop-out, by comparing adolescents with interviews about sibling bullying who had completed the PLIKSi at 18 with those who were lost to follow-up (online Supplementary Table S2).

To assess associations between involvement in sibling bullying in middle childhood and psychotic disorder in late adolescence, a set of logistic regression models were run. First, victimization and perpetration were used as ordinal variables in order to identify a dose-response relationship. Unadjusted analyses indicate the crude relationship between victimization and perpetration with a psychotic disorder. Odd ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) are reported.

We then tested whether the role taken in sibling bullying was related to the psychotic disorder. Again we ran logistic regression analyses, however, this time sibling bullying was used as a categorical variable (victim, bully, bully-victim).

To test whether there was a dose-response effect of sibling and peer victimization at 12 years, we performed binary logistic regression analysis, where sibling and/or peer victimization was treated as a continuous variable (non-involved, victimized by siblings *or* peers, victimized by siblings *and* peers).

Missing data

To address possible bias in our findings, resulting from missing data by attrition, we used fully conditional specification equations as implemented in the Multiple Imputation by Chained Equations algorithm in STATA 14. We included a range of early sociodemographic variables into our model, given that these have been associated with missingness in ALSPAC. Our imputed adjusted models included a range of confounders consisting of family characteristics as well as factors that have previously been associated with psychosis (as outlined above). Using averaged parameter estimates over 60 imputed datasets using Rubin's rules (Little & Rubin, 2002) we were able to impute up to starting sample of 3559.

Results

Prevalence and characteristics of sibling bullying involvement

Children reported the onset of sibling bullying victimization (M = 8.3, s.d. = 2.51) and perpetration (M = 8.7, s.d. = 2.38) in years around the same time. Girls were more often victimized by a sibling compared with boys, while no gender difference was found for sibling bullying perpetration. Out of all children, 771 were bully-victims, 664 were pure victims and 486 were pure bullies, making up the smallest group. No gender difference was identified between bully status groups.

Children that were victimized had lower IQ, more internalizing and externalizing problems and were more frequently bullied by peers at 8 years. Moreover, they were more often later born, had more siblings and older brothers. Mothers of victimized children had higher depression scores in pregnancy, were more often exposed to domestic violence and the children to maltreatment. Children who were perpetrators of sibling bullying had lower IQ scores and higher internalizing and externalizing problems previously. Perpetrators were more often first-born and came from families with mothers with higher depression scores in pregnancy, more siblings in the household and were less likely to have

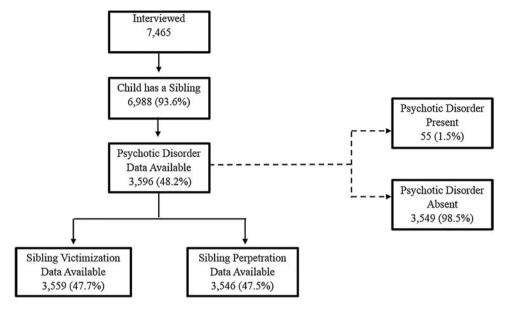


Fig. 1. Flowchart of participants assessed at 12 years on sibling bullying and subsequent assessment of psychotic disorder.

older sisters. Experience of maltreatment and domestic violence in the family were more frequent in those children who were perpetrators. For more details on individual and family characteristics of sibling bullying victims and perpetrators see online Supplementary Table S1.

Dropout analysis

Using the 12-year sibling bullying assessment as our starting point (N = 6988), our dropout analysis (online Supplementary Table S2) revealed that participants were less likely to have completed the PLIKSi follow-up at 18 years if they were male, had lower IQ scores, more externalizing problems in childhood and if they had bullied a sibling several times a week. Later born children, those from families where mothers were single, had higher depression scores in pregnancy, lower levels of education or reported domestic violence were also more likely to have been lost to follow-up.

Associations between sibling bullying and psychotic disorder

Out of the 3596 participants who completed both the sibling bullying assessment as well as the PLIKSi at 18 years, a total of 55 (1.5%) adolescents were classified with a psychotic disorder. The rates of psychotic disorder for those involved in sibling bullying was 11 (3%) pure victims, 6 (2.5%) pure bullies and 11 (2.9%) bully-victims.

Sibling victimization

Children who reported being victimized by a sibling several times a week had nearly three times the odds of meeting criteria for a psychotic disorder at 18 years (Table 1; OR 2.92; 95% CI 1.41–6.02). Evidence of a linear association was identified after victimization was treated as a continuous term, indicating a dose-response relationship of being victimized by a sibling and psychotic disorder (Table 1).

Sibling perpetration

Children who reported bullying a sibling several times a week were found to increase the odds of psychotic disorder threefold (OR 3.49; 95% CI 1.57–7.73). A linear trend was identified, pointing towards a dose-response relationship for bullying a sibling (Table 1).

Sibling bullying status groups

When looking at the role taken in sibling bullying (victim, bully, bully-victim), crude associations indicated that any role taken in sibling bullying is associated with being classified with a psychotic disorder (Table 2).

Sibling and peer victimization

An overlap was identified across sibling and peer victimization (online Supplementary Table S3). Binary logistic regression analysis showed that experiencing either sibling or peer victimization was associated with an increased risk of meeting the criteria of a psychotic disorder (Table 3). Moreover, there was an additional increase in the OR for children who were exposed to victimization by both siblings and peers (OR 4.72; 95% CI 1.90–11.72). A linear association was identified when victimization at home and/or school was treated as a continuous term, with cumulative victimization (home and school) being more strongly associated with the psychotic disorder.

Missing data imputation

After performing the multiple imputation, all of our logistic regression analyses were repeated using the imputed dataset and additionally controlling for a range of confounders including family characteristics and factors previously associated with psychosis (Tables 1–3). All associations between our exposure and outcome variables were only slightly attenuated.

Sensitivity analysis

We repeated all of our analysis, additionally accounting for concurrent psychotic-like experiences at 12 years in order to account

Table 1. Prevalence and ORs of psychotic disorder at age 18 according to sibling bullying victimization and perpetration at age 12

		Frequency of sibling bullying					
Sibling bullying	Never	Only ever once or twice	2 or 3 times a month	About once a week	Several times a week	Linear trend	
Victimization (N = 3559)	1849	626	333	363	388		
% yes	1.1	1.4	0.9	2.8	3.1		
Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Reference	1.33 (0.60-2.95)	0.83 (0.25–2.81)	2.59 (1.20-5.58)*	2.92 (1.41-6.02)**	1.31 (1.11-1.56)**	
Imputed Adjusted ^a OR (95% CI)	Reference	1.27 (0.57–2.84)	0.81 (0.23-2.80)	2.37 (1.07–5.28)*	2.74 (1.28–5.87)**	1.29 (1.08–1.54)**	
Perpetration (N = 3546)	2096	440	384	349	277		
% yes	1.0	1.4	2.6	2.3	3.3		
Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Reference	1.44 (0.57-3.59)	2.78 (1.29–5.98)**	2.44 (1.06–5.57)*	3.49 (1.57-7.73)**	1.37 (1.15-1.63)**	
Imputed adjusted ^a OR (95% CI)	Reference	1.35 (0.53-3.44)	2.71 (1.23–5.95)*	2.47 (1.00-5.61)*	3.16 (1.35-7.41)**	1.35 (1.12–1.62)**	

Significant confounders:

Victimization = male gender, lower maternal education, single marital status, maltreatment present. Perpetration = male gender, lower maternal education, single marital status, maltreatment present.

for some reverse causality. Our results were slightly attenuated in strength (online Supplementary Tables S4–S6), however, sibling bullying victimization and involvement in both sibling and peer victimization remained strong predictors of psychotic disorder.

Discussion

This study found that sibling bullying victimization and perpetration in middle childhood is associated with the development of a psychotic disorder by 18 years in a dose-response fashion. The categorical analysis further indicated that children who act as pure victims and bully-victims several times a month or week, are at a particular risk of being classified with a psychotic disorder by early adulthood, even after imputing for missing data and adjusting for a wide range of confounders. Finally, the findings suggest that children who were victimized in more than one context (home and school) were at the highest odds of meeting criteria of a psychotic disorder.

As this is the first prospective study of sibling bullying and the development of the psychotic disorder, findings may be compared with effects found for peer bullying. We found a robust association between sibling bullying victimization and perpetration with a psychotic disorder that remained even after controlling

for well-known precursors of psychotic symptoms such as child-hood cognitive abilities (Horwood *et al.* 2008), maltreatment, domestic violence and peer bullying (Kelleher *et al.* 2008; Varese *et al.* 2012; Wolke *et al.* 2014). These results are in line with previous studies who have consistently identified peer victimization as a risk factor for the development of psychotic experiences and symptoms (Schreier *et al.* 2009; Arseneault *et al.* 2011; Wolke *et al.* 2014). They are also comparable with some of the few studies on peer bullying that have suggested perpetration as an additional risk factor for psychotic experiences (Kelleher *et al.* 2008; Wolke *et al.* 2014).

Categorical analysis indicated that involvement in any role of sibling bullying was associated with an increased risk of psychotic disorder years later, however the findings were strongest for children who were pure victims or bully-victims, This parallels previous work finding that pure victims and bully-victims amongst peers are at the greatest risk for psychotic experiences (Schreier et al. 2009; Wolke et al. 2014) and psychotic disorders (Sourander et al. 2016) in early adulthood. Sibling bullying victimization should thus be considered as an additional risk factor or early marker in the development of the psychotic disorder. While pure bullies were also found more likely to meet criteria of a psychotic disorder, the strength of the effect was weaker

Table 2. Prevalence and ORs of psychotic disorder at age 18 according to sibling bullying status at age 12

			Sibling bullying status		
	Non-involved	Pure victim	Pure bully	Bully-victim	
Bullying involvement (N = 3522)	2538	364	236	384	
%yes	1.0	3.0	2.5	2.9	
Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Reference	3.13 (1.53-6.42)**	2.62 (1.06-6.46)*	2.96 (1.45-6.07)*	
Imputed Adjusted ^a OR (95% CI)	Reference	3.10 (1.48-6.50)**	2.68 (1.04-6.89)*	2.66 (1.24-5.69)*	

Significant confounders: = male gender, lower maternal education, single marital status, maltreatment present.

^{*}p < 0.05 **p < 0.01.

alncludes family characteristics and factors associated with psychosis as confounders.

^{*}p < 0.05 **p < 0.01

alncludes family characteristics and factors associated with psychosis as confounders.

Table 3. Prevalence and ORs of psychotic disorder at age 18 according to sibling and/or peer victimization at age 12

	Non-involved	Sibling OR peer	Sibling AND peer	Linear trend
Psychotic disorder (N = 3171)	1957	1015	199	
% yes	0.8	2.2	3.5	
Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Reference	2.87 (1.48-5.55)**	4.72 (1.90-11.72)**	2.28 (1.51–3.44)**
Imputed adjusted ^a OR (95% CI)	Reference	2.66 (1.40-5.03)**	4.57 (1.73–12.07)**	2.23 (1.42–3.49)**

Significant confounders: = lower maternal education, single marital status.

compared with pure victims and bully-victims. This suggests that it may be the unique combination of being a victim and perpetrator (bully-victim) of sibling bullying rather than a pure bully that increases the odds of a psychotic disorder. Alternatively, it may be due to issues of statistical power: the group of bullies was smaller and thus CIs wider. The findings indicate that all involved in frequent sibling bullying were at increased risk of developing a psychotic disorder.

Exploring bullying within the home and school environment further revealed that children exposed to multiple victimizations at the hands of both siblings and peers were at a higher risk of psychotic disorders compared with children who were only victimized in one context. This resonates with other work that has shown a dose-response relationship between experiencing multiple trauma types and psychosis (Shevlin *et al.* 2008). It also extends findings from previous studies by showing that victimization by siblings and peers not only increases the risk of clinically significant behavior problems (Wolke & Skew, 2011), but additionally poses a substantial risk towards the development of severe mental health problems like psychotic disorders.

We may speculate on why those who become victimized by a sibling, either as a pure victim or bully-victim are at increased risk for psychotic experiences years later. Social defeat is proposed as a possible route in explaining the development of schizophrenia (Selten & Cantor-Graae, 2005). Feelings of failed struggle and losing rank have been reported to induce negative self-beliefs and thereby predict psychotic symptoms (Stowkowy & Addington, 2012). There is evidence showing that social defeat is an important mediator in explaining the relationship between childhood trauma and psychotic experiences, especially in the context of bullying (Van Nierop et al. 2014). In peer bullying, bully-victims are found to be the most defeated, seeing that they hold the negative qualities of both pure bullies and victims (Lereya et al. 2015). These children become victimized, despite fighting back and may, therefore, be at the highest risk of experiencing social defeat and developing dysfunctional schemas. This tallies with our finding that sibling bully-victims had an increased risk for psychotic disorder.

Cognitive theories may also inform our understanding of how sibling bullying may increase the risk of psychotic disorder. Childhood trauma has been argued to create a lasting cognitive vulnerability generating negative schemas about the self and the world (Garety *et al.* 2001). This form of negative cognitions resulting from traumatic events such as sexual abuse (Killcommons & Morrison, 2007) or peer bullying (Campbell & Morrison, 2007) has been linked to psychotic experiences, allowing for similar speculations to made for sibling bullying involvement.

Biopsychosocial models (Read et al. 2014) lend further explanation of how childhood adversities may lead to psychotic

disorders. Environmental liabilities are thought to sensitize individuals, increasing their reactivity towards minor life stressors (Collip et al. 2013; Myin-Germeys et al. 2005). Especially early life adversities such as childhood trauma, abuse and bullying have been found to elevate stress sensitivity (Knack et al. 2011; Lardinois et al. 2011) in physiological systems such as the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and the body's dopaminergic system (Holtzman et al. 2013), both which are implicated in psychosis. Inflammatory markers such as increased levels of C-reactive protein (Hepgul et al. 2012) or DNA methylation (Ouellet-Morin et al. 2013) are other examples of biomarkers that have been suggested as mediators between childhood trauma and psychosis. Sibling bullying may, therefore, be viewed as an additional trigger in altering physiological responses to stress.

Although associations between pure bullies and psychotic disorders were weaker compared with other sibling bullying groups, it is equally important to address possible mechanisms through which perpetration might lead to psychotic disorders. The presence of psychotic symptoms as well as psychotic disorders has consistently been linked to an elevated risk of aggressive behavior (Hodgins, 2008). While the etiological pathways leading to violence in psychotic disorders remain uncertain, childhood deviant behavior has been suggested as a developmental prodrome of aggression in schizophrenia (Swanson et al. 2008). Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies have found that childhood conduct disorders may account for violent behaviors in adults with schizophrenic disorders (Hodgins et al. 2008). This evidence taken together with our findings, suggests that displaying aggressive behaviors in childhood may be treated as a developmental marker of psychotic disorders in an already vulnerable individual with a tendency towards persistent aggressive behavioral patterns. This study adds that sibling bullying perpetration, beyond general conduct problems in childhood, is associated with the development of psychotic experiences.

Strengths and limitations

There are many strengths of this study. First, we used a longitudinal birth cohort that allows to make time-ordered conclusions about the association between sibling bullying and psychotic disorder. Secondly, we included a large range of potential confounders shown to be associated with sibling bullying and psychotic symptoms. This increases the confidence that the relationship between our exposure and outcome variables is causal. Third, unlike previous work on sibling bullying, focusing solely on victimization, we also showed a dose-response effect of perpetration of sibling bullying. Fourth, repeating the analysis using an imputed dataset further strengthens the confidence in our findings.

^{**}n < 0.01

^aIncludes family characteristics and factors associated with psychosis as confounders.

There are also limitations. Large geographically defined population studies are prone to subject loss over a 19-year period. The dropout was selective and related to family variables such as lower levels of maternal education and single-mother households, making our sample more advantaged. Thus, like many longitudinal studies, our estimate of the prevalence of sibling bullying may be inaccurate. In contrast, even when selective dropout occurs, empirical simulations have shown that associations between exposure and outcome variables are only marginally affected (Wolke *et al.* 2009). However, findings require replication. Although sibling bullying was measured via self-report, much of sibling bullying occurs behind closed doors and alternative parent reports have been found to underestimate the rate of sibling aggression with self-reports (Wolke *et al.* 2014).

Furthermore, whilst adjusting for a broad range of potential confounders had a minimal impact on our results, it remains possible that the association between sibling bullying perpetration or victimization and psychotic disorder is due to residual confounding. Finally, we cannot eliminate the possibility of reverse causality as we have no measure of parent psychotic disorder or of psychotic disorder available prior to the reported onset of sibling bullying before 8 years. However, this seems an unlikely explanation for our findings given that psychotic disorder prior to this age is extremely rare.

Conclusion

Our study adds that children involved in sibling bullying are at increased risk of developing a psychotic disorder, in keeping with findings for other kinds of stressors during childhood. If causal, as suggested by our study, this highlights the need for parents and health professionals to identify and put into place mechanisms to minimize sibling bullying within families. Interventions that focus on social skill training of children and mediation techniques for parents have been found to be helpful in alleviating sibling aggression (Tucker & Finkelhor, 2015).

Supplementary material. The supplementary material for this article can be found at https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291717003841.

Acknowledgements. We are extremely grateful to all the families who took part in this study, the midwives for their help in recruiting them, and the whole ALSPAC team, which includes interviewers, computer and laboratory technicians, clerical workers, research scientists, volunteers, managers, receptionists and nurses. The UK Medical Research Council and Wellcome (Grant ref: 102215/2/13/2) and the University of Bristol provide core support for ALSPAC. This study is also supported by the NIHR Bristol BRC. We are also thankful to Lucy Bowes who contributed towards revising this work. Finally, we are grateful to the MRC (Grant ref: G0701503) who funded the PLIKS interview. This publication is the work of the authors and S.D and D.W will serve as guarantors for the contents of this paper.

References

- Arseneault L, Cannon M, Fisher HL, Polanczyk F, Moffitt TE and Caspi A (2011) Childhood trauma and children's emerging psychotic symptoms: a genetically sensitive longitudinal cohort study. The American Journal of Psychiatry 168, 65–72.
- Bebbington RE, Bhugra D, Brugha T, Singleton N, Farrell M, Jenkins R et al. (2004) Psychosis, victimisation and childhood disadvantage. British Journal of Psychiatry 185, 220–226.
- Bowes L, Wolke D, Joinson C, Lereya ST and Lewis G (2014) Sibling bullying and risk of depression, anxiety, and self-harm: a prospective cohort study. *Pediatrics* **134**, e1032–e1039.

Boyd A, Folding J, Macleod J, Lawlor DA, Fraser A, Henderson J et al. (2013) Cohort profile: the 'children of the 90s'-the index offspring of the avon longitudinal study of parents and children. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 42, 111–127.

- **Buist KL, Dekovic M and Prinzie P** (2013) Sibling relationship quality and psychopathology of children and adolescents: a meta-analysis. *Clinical Psychology Review* **33**, 97–106.
- Campbell ML and Morrison AP (2007) The relationship between bullying, psychotic-like experiences and appraisals in 14–16-year olds. *Behavioral Research Therapy* **4**, 65–79.
- Clemmensen L, van Os J, Drukker M, Munkholm A, Rimvall MK, Væver M *et al.* (2016) Psychotic experiences and hyper-theory-of-mind in preadolescence a birth cohort study. *Psychological Medicine* **46**, 87–101.
- Collip D, Wigman JTW, Myin-Germeys I, Jacobs N, Derom C, Thiery E et al. (2013) From epidemiology to daily life: linking daily life stress reactivity to persistence of psychotic experiences in a longitudinal general population study. *PLoS ONE* 8, e62688.
- Cox JL, Holden JM and Sagovsky R (1987) Detection of postnatal depression.

 Development of the 10-item edinburgh postnatal depression scale. *British Journal of Psychiatry* 150, 782–786.
- Cunningham T, Hoy K and Shannon C (2016) Does childhood bullying lead to the development of psychotic symptoms? A meta-analysis and review of prospective studies. *Psychosis* 8, 48–59.
- Eriksen S and Jensen V (2009) A push or a punch. Distinguishing the severity of sibling violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 24, 183–208.
- Finkelhor D, Turner H and Ormrod R (2006) Kid's stuff: the nature and impact of peer and sibling violence on younger and older children. *Child Abuse & Neglect* 30, 1401–1421.
- Fisher HL, Jones PB, Fearon P, Craig TK, Dazzan P, Morgan K *et al.* (2010) The varying impact of type, timing and frequency of exposure to childhood adversity on its association with adult psychiatric disorder. *Psychological Medicine* **40**, 1967–1978.
- Fraser A, Macdonald-Wallis C, Tilling K, Brody A, Golding J, Davey-Smith G et al. (2013) The avon longitudinal study of parents and children: ALSPAC mothers cohort. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 42, 97–110.
- Garety PA, Kuipers E, Fowler D, Freeman D and Bebbington PE (2001) A cognitive model of positive symptoms of psychosis. *Psychological Medicine* 31, 189–195.
- Goodman R (2001) Psychometric properties of the strengths and difficulties questionnaire. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry* **40**, 1337–1345.
- Goodman R, Ford T, Richards H, Gatward R and Meltzer H (2000) The development and well-being assessment: description and initial validation of an integrated assessment of child and adolescent psychopathology. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines* 41, 645–655.
- Hepgul N, Pariante CM, Dipasquale S, DiForti M, Taylor H, Marques TR *et al.* (2012) Childhood maltreatment is associated with increased body mass index and increased c-reactive protein levels in first-episode psychosis patients. *Psychological Medicine* **42**, 1893–1901.
- **Hodgins S** (2008) Violent behaviour among people with schizophrenia: a framework for investigations of causes, and effective treatment, and prevention. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B, Biological Sciences* **363**, 2505–2518.
- Hodgins S, Cree A, Alderton J and Mak T (2008) From conduct disorder to severe mental illness: associations with aggressive behaviour, crime and victimization. *Psychological Medicine* 38, 975–987.
- Holtzman CW, Trotman HD, Goulding SM, Ryan AT, Macdonald AN, Shapiro DI et al. (2013) Stress and neurodevelopmental processing in the emergence of psychosis. Neuroscience 249, 172–191.
- Horwood J, Salvi G, Thomas K, Duffy L, Gunnell D, Hollis C et al. (2008) IQ and non-clinical psychotic symptoms in 12-year-olds: results from the ALSPAC birth cohort. British Journal of Psychiatry 193, 185–191.
- Kelleher I, Harley M, Lynch F, Arseneault L, Fitzpatrick C and Cannon M (2008) Associations between childhood trauma, bullying and psychotic symptoms among a school-based adolescent sample. British Journal of Psychiatry 193, 378–382.

Kennedy JL, Altar CA, Taylor DL, Degtiar I and Hornberger JC (2014)
The social and economic burden of treatment-resistant schizophrenia.

International Clinical Psychopharmacology 29, 63–76.

- Knack JM, Jensen-Campbell LA and Baum A (2011) Worse than sticks and bones? Bullying is associated with altered HPA axis functioning and poor health. *Brain and Cognition* 77, 183–190.
- Lardinois M, Lataster T, Mengelers R, Van Os J and Myin-Germeys I (2011)

 Childhood trauma and increased stress sensitivity in psychosis. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica* 123, 28–35.
- Lereya ST, Copeland WE, Zammit S and Wolke D (2015) Bully/victims: a longitudinal, population-based cohort study of their mental health. European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry 24, 1461–1471.
- Little RJA and Rubin DB (2002) Statistical Analysis with Missing Data, 2nd edn. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Myin-Germeys O, Delespaul P and van Os J (2005) Behavioral sensitization to daily life stress in psychosis. *Psychological Medicine* **35**, 733–741.
- Olweus D (2007) The Olweus Bullying Questionnaire. Center City, MN: Hazelden.
- Ouellet-Morin I, Wong CC, Danese A, Pariante CM, Papadopoulos AS, Mill J et al. (2013) Increased serotonin transporter gene (SERT) DNA methylation is associated with bullying victimization and blunted cortisol response to stress in childhood: a longitudinal study of discordant monozygotic twins. Psychological Medicine 43, 1813–1823.
- Radford L, Corral S, Bradley C and Fisher HL (2013) The prevalence and impact of child maltreatment and other types of victimization in the UK: findings from a population survey of caregivers, children and young people and adults. Child Abuse & Neglect 37, 801–813.
- Read J, Fosse R, Moskowitz A and Perry PD (2014) The traumagenic neurodevelopmental model of psychosis revisited. Neuropsychiatry 4, 65–79.
- Schreier A, Wolke D, Thomas K, Horwood J, Hollis C, Gunnell D et al. (2009) Prospective study of peer victimization in childhood and psychotic symptoms in a nonclinical population at age 12 years. Archives of General Psychiatry 66, 527–536.
- Selten J and Cantor-Graae E (2005) Social defeat: risk factor for schizophrenia? British Journal of Psychiatry 187, 101–102.
- Shevlin M, Houston JE, Dorahy MJ and Adamson G (2008) Cumulative traumas and psychosis: an analysis of the national comorbidity survey and the British psychiatric morbidity survey. Schizophrenia Bulletin 34, 193–199.
- Sourander A, Gyllenberg D, Klomek AB, Sillanmäki L, Ilola AM and Kumpulainen K (2016) Association of bullying behaviour at 8 years of age and use of specialized services for psychiatric disorders by 29 years of age. JAMA Psychiatry 73, 159–165.
- Stowkowy J and Addington J (2012) Maladaptive schemas as a mediator between social defeat and positive symptoms in young people at clinical high risk for psychosis. *Early Intervention in Psychiatry* 6, 87–90.
- Swanson JW, Van Dorn RA, Swartz MS, Smith A, Elbogen EB and Monahan J (2008) Alternative pathways to violence in persons with

- schizophrenia: the role of childhood antisocial behavior problems. *Law and Human Behavior* **32**, 228–240.
- **Tippett N and Wolke D** (2015) Aggression between siblings: associations with the home environment and peer bullying, *Aggressive Behavior* **41**, 14–24.
- Trotta A, Di Forti M, Mondelli V, Dazzan P, Pariante C, David A *et al.* (2013) Prevalence of bullying victimisation amongst first-episode psychosis patients and unaffected controls. *Schizophrenia Research* **150**, 1–17.
- **Tucker CJ and Finkelhor D** (2015) The state of interventions for sibling conflict and aggression. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse* **18**, 396–406.
- Tucker CJ, Finkelhor D, Turner H and Shattuck A (2013) Association of sibling aggression with child and adolescent mental health. *Pediatrics* 132, 79–84.
- Tucker CJ, Finkelhor D, Turner H and Shattuck AM (2014) Sibling and peer victimization in childhood and adolescence. Child Abuse and Neglect 38, 1599–1606.
- Van Nierop M, Dorsselaer S, Bak M, Mayin-Gremeys I and van Winkel R (2014) Does social defeat mediate the association between childhood trauma and psychosis? Evidence from the NEMESIS-2 study. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavia* 129, 467–476.
- Varese F, Smeets F, Drukker M, Lieverse R, Lataster T, Viechtbauer W et al. (2012) Childhood adversities increase the risk of psychosis: a meta-analysis of patient-control, prospective-and cross-sectional cohort studies. Schizophrenia Bulletin 38, 661–671.
- Wechsler D, Golombok S and Rust J (1992) WISC-III UK Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children. Sidcup: Psychological Corp.
- Wolke D, Lereya ST, Fisher HL, Lewis G and Zammit S (2014) Bullying in elementary school and psychotic experiences at 18 years: a longitudinal, population-based cohort study. *Psychological Medicine* 44, 2199–2211.
- Wolke D and Samara MM (2004) Bullied by siblings: association with peer victimisation and behaviour problems in Israeli lower secondary school children. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry* **45**, 1015–1029.
- Wolke D and Skew AJ (2011) Bullied at home and at school: relationship to behaviour problems and unhappiness. In McFall S (ed.), *Understanding Society: Early Findings From the First Wave of the UKs Household Longitudinal Study.* London: Economic and Social Research.
- Wolke D, Tippett N and Dantchev S (2015) Bullying in the family: sibling bullying. The Lancet Psychiatry 2, 917–929.
- Wolke D, Waylen A, Samara M, Steer C, Goodman R, Ford T et al. (2009) Selective drop-out in longitudinal studies and non-biased prediction of behavioral disorders. British Journal of Psychiatry 195, 249–256.
- World Health Organization (1994) Schedules for Clinical Assessment in Neuropsychiatry. Washington DC: American Psychiatric Research.
- Zammit S, Kounali D, Cannon M, David AS, Gunnell D, Heron J et al. (2013) Psychotic experiences and psychotic disorders at age 18 in relation to psychotic experiences at age 12 in a longitudinal population-based cohort study. American Journal of Psychiatry 170, 742–750.