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## **Evaluating the Effectiveness of Components of National Suicide Prevention Strategies**

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## EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMPONENTS OF NATIONAL SUICIDE PREVENTION STRATEGIES: AN INTERRUPTED TIME SERIES ANALYSIS

#### Running title: COMPONENTS OF NATIONAL SUICIDE PREVENTION STRATEGY

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#### COMPONENTS OF NATIONAL SUICIDE PREVENTION STRATEGIES

#### Introduction

Suicide remains a serious public health issue worldwide, with over 700,000 people dying by suicide each year (World Health Organization [WHO], 2021). This high burden underscores the need for ongoing suicide prevention efforts, in particular a national suicide prevention strategy, which offers a systematic way to develop a comprehensive and integrated national response and provides a framework to support suicide prevention activities and their evaluation (WHO, 2018). Such a framework promotes a coordinated and multi-sectoral approach to suicide prevention, which involves collaboration between governmental and nongovernmental agencies at both national and local levels. Adoption of a national suicide prevention strategy reflects a government's recognition that suicide is a priority public health issue, heralds its commitment to suicide prevention, and allows the identification of gaps in legislation, provision of services, and the suicide prevention evidence base (Platt, Arensman, & Rezaeian, 2019; WHO, 2014; 2018). Finland was the first country to implement a national suicide prevention strategy, during the period 1986-1996 (Hakanen & Upanne, 1996). As of 2021, just under 40 countries have a national suicide prevention strategy, although there are some notable differences between LMICs and HICs (WHO, 2021). While approximately 35% upper-middle and high-income countries have adopted a strategy, only 10% of low- and lower-middle- income countries have a similar nationwide initiative (Platt et al., 2019).

To address the bio-psycho-social complexity of suicide (Stack, 2021), national suicide prevention strategies usually encompass a diverse range of public (mental) health approaches (WHO, 2021). Platt and colleagues (2019) compiled a list of twelve typical components included in national suicide prevention strategies (Table 1). These range from universal interventions, such as restriction of access to lethal means of suicide and responsible media reporting, to selective and indicated interventions, such as access to health and social care services, crisis intervention, and follow-up after a suicide attempt, which are underpinned by oversight and coordination, as well as surveillance, monitoring and evaluation (WHO, 2014). While there is a strong evidence base for the effectiveness of limiting access to certain suicide methods, such as jumping sites like bridges (Ishimo et al., 2021; Pirkis, San Too, Spittal, Krysinska, Robinson, & Cheung, 2015), firearms (Houtsma, Butterworth, & Anestis, 2018), and pesticides (Knipe et al., 2017). By contrast, there is an ongoing need to strengthen the evidence base for other strategies, such as postvention (Andriessen, Krysinska Kõlves. & Reavley, 2019) and training and education. (Hawgood, Woodward, Quinnett, & De Leo D, 2021; Zalsman et al., 2016).

#### - Table 1 -

Despite the increasing implementation of national suicide prevention strategies, there is limited and mixed evidence regarding their impact on suicide rates (De Leo & Evans, 2004; Lewitzka, Sauer, Bauer, & Felber, 2019; Martin & Page, 2009; Matsubayashi & Ueda, 2011; Taylor, Kingdom, & Jenkins; 1997). For instance, De Leo and Evans (2004) looked at rates of suicide following the implementation of national strategies in selected countries and found a decline for males and females in Finland, and an increase for males and females in Norway, males in Sweden, and females in Australia. More recently, a study (Lewitzka et al., 2019) found a post-implementation decline in suicide rates in males in the four countries that De Leo and Evans (2004) examined, with the strongest effects in middle-aged groups (25-44 years and 45-64 years), in comparison to control countries without national suicide prevention strategies. Other study (Matsubayashi & Ueda, 2011) reported an overall decrease in suicide rates in 21 Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries over 1980-2004 after they implemented national strategies, noting that the decrease was most marked for the younger and older age groups.

Published research studies have several methodological limitations, especially model misspecification and the absence of evidence about implementation of the strategy (e.g., timing of inception of program delivery and 'dose' or 'intensity' of delivery). Publication bias may also be an issue. Of importance, the cross-national studies conducted to-date have failed to recognise the complexity of national suicide prevention strategies and disaggregate their overall impact by examining the contribution of specific components. To address this gap, we aim to: (a) describe which components have been included in national suicide prevention strategies; and (b) analyse the potential contribution of individual components of national suicide prevention strategies to reduce suicide rates.

#### **Materials and Methods**

We identified national suicide prevention strategies through a comprehensive search process and then conducted a narrative review and statistical analyses.

#### Search and eligibility criteria

Countries with national suicide prevention strategies and the national strategy documents were identified via the WHO MiNDbank (2020) and the WHO (2018) *National suicide prevention strategies* report (Figure 1). Searches were conducted in November 2020. The search identified 39 countries and documents for 30 countries were available via the WHO MiNDbank (2020). After screening these documents, the *National Mental Health and Suicide Prevention Policy* in Fiji (Ministry of Health and Medical Services, 2015) was excluded as it did not include sufficient information on suicide prevention priorities.

For inclusion in the narrative review, a country had to have a national suicide prevention strategy published before 2020 and the associated documentation had to be available via the WHO MiNDbank (2020). For countries with several iterations of a national

strategy, the most recent strategy document was included. In case of Finland, Sri Lanka, and Sweden, where the identified national strategy documents were published over 20 years ago, two authors (MS, JP) followed up with the International Association for Suicide Prevention national representatives and other suicide prevention experts to enquire whether a more recent version of the national strategy was available. We consequently found that there had been no more recent strategy implemented in Sri Lanka. In Sweden, a more recent version of the strategy was launched in 2008 and was included in the study. More recent strategy documents were available for Finland and Norway; however, both were published in 2020 and focused on implementation over 2020-2030 (Finland) and 2021-2025 (Norway) and were thus excluded. Google Translate was used to translate strategy documents that were published in languages other than English.

For inclusion in the quantitative analyses, the national strategy had to be published no earlier than 2002 and no later than 2017 to allow for the availability of at least two years of suicide data pre- and post-publication of the strategy. In addition, suicide incidence estimates had to be of at least medium quality according to the WHO Mortality Database (2020) categorisation. Based on these criteria, five countries (Bhutan, The Dominican Republic, Namibia, Nicaragua, and Sri Lanka) were excluded.

Twenty-nine countries (14 lower middle-income countries (LMICs) and 15 high income countries (HICs)) with national strategies were included in the narrative review and 24 countries (9 LMICs and 15 HICs) in the quantitative analyses (Table 2).

- Table 2-

- Figure 1 -

Coding of national suicide prevention strategies

The national suicide prevention strategy documents were coded using a framework, which consisted of the 12 components typically included in national suicide prevention strategies (Platt et al., 2019) (Table 1). Two researchers (KK, MS) independently reviewed the strategy documents and identified which of the 12 components were included in a strategy. Following the independent review, the two researchers met to compare their coding results. In cases where the coding results differed, they referred back to the original source document. If consensus still was not reached, a third researcher (KKõ) was consulted for a final decision. This final coding was captured in the coding framework either as a "yes" (the component is included in the national suicide prevention strategy).

#### Selection of population level suicide data

Age-standardised suicide incidence estimates for each country for the relevant years between 2000 to 2019 were downloaded from the WHO Global Health Observatory (GHO) (2021) data repository. This source provides a comprehensive and comparable set of cause of death estimates and represents the best estimates of the WHO, based on the available evidence, until November 2020. As all countries included in our study had at least medium data quality, the WHO GHO estimates analysed in this paper were based on data originally sourced from the WHO Mortality Database. Incidence estimates were available from 2000 to 2019 (Table 2).

#### Statistical analyses

The year of introduction of the national suicide prevention strategy was recorded and each year of data available for each country was coded as either "before" or "after" the

introduction of the strategy. The year the strategy was introduced was included in the before period. Interrupted time series models were fitted separately to the suicide data for each country and each sex (males, females, and males and females combined). This allowed direct comparison of the effect of period (before/after) within countries even though the timing of introduction varied between countries. These models are unweighted linear regression models that are fitted to the log-transformed suicide rates, with period included as a covariate. This effect, which is the main effect of interest, is referred to as the "period effect". To account for the underlying trend in suicide incidence within a country, an effect for time was also included in each model. Time was modelled using fractional polynomials fitted using the fp and fp\_select commands to identify and fit the best fractional polynomial with maximum degree of 2 from the standard set of powers (-2, -1, -0.5, 0, 1, 2, 3).

Having estimated the coefficients for the period effect for each country and sex strata within each country, we pooled these data to estimate the mean change in suicide rates overall and for males and females separately. This was done by inputting the period coefficients and their standard errors into a random effects meta-analysis, conducted separately for each of the three groups (total, male, female). Separate meta-analyses were also performed for each of the 12 strategy components, with each meta-analysis including only the countries where that strategy component was present. Results from these 13 meta-analyses are presented as forest plots with exponentiated estimates (i.e., on the relative risk (RR) scale), sorted by strategy iteration (first/second or subsequent) and first year after strategy introduction. The total number of strategy components present for each country was also counted and meta-regression models were fitted to test for association with number of components. Sensitivity analyses allowed lags of one and two years, and weighted interrupted time series models (weighted by inverse of SE of log(ASR)). All analyses were performed using Stata v16.1 (Stata Corp., 2019).

#### **Results**

#### Narrative review

Eighteen of the 29 countries implemented their national suicide prevention strategies for the first time, including 12 LMICs (86%) and 6 HICs (33.3%). The remaining 11 countries had either a second (n=6) or subsequent (n=5) iteration of their strategy. The number of components adopted by countries ranged from four to 11. Training and education, such as gatekeeper training and training of primary care physicians, were included in all but one strategy (96.5%). Other components included in more than half of the national strategies were awareness raising (82.7%), access to services (75.8%), means restriction (72.4%), follow-up after a suicide attempt (68.9%), postvention (68.9%), media reporting (65.6%), and stigma reduction (48.2%). Only six countries (20.6%) included psychotherapy in their national strategies, while crisis intervention was included in one third of the strategies (37.9%). The majority of countries adopted surveillance (93.1%) and oversight and coordination (79.3%). Full details of the components included in the national strategies are presented in Table 3.

- Table 3 –

#### Statistical analyses

After adjustment for underlying time trends, estimated period effects for total suicide rates in individual countries ranged from a significant decrease in yearly suicide rate with RR=0.80 (95% CI 0.69-0.93, for South Korea) to a significant increase with RR=1.12 (95% CI 1.05-1.19, for Uzbekistan). (Figure 2a). However, there was no evidence of a consistent change for the 28 countries. The pooled estimate of the period effect was RR<sub>P</sub>=1.00 (95% CI 0.97 – 1.04, p=0.81, k=24,  $I^2$ =79.6%) for both sexes (Figure 2a), RR<sub>P</sub>=1.00 (95% CI 0.96 – 1.03,

p=0.84,  $I^2$ =71.0%, Figure 2b) for males (figure 2b), and RR<sub>P</sub>=1.02 (95% CI 0.97 – 1.07, p=0.5,  $I^2$ =82.4%) for females (Figure 2c).

Similar results were obtained when each component was considered separately. For example, when a pooled effect was estimated for the 17 countries with strategies including restriction of access to commonly used methods of suicide,  $RR_P=1.00$  (95% CI 0.97-1.04, p=0.32) for males and females combined, and there was no difference between the RR estimates for countries whose strategies did and did not include this component (p=0.74). The only subgroup differences observed were for countries that did and did not include crisis intervention. Countries whose strategies included this crisis interventions had a reduced RR after its introduction ( $RR_P=0.94$ , 95% CI 0.87-1.01, p < 0.01) in contrast to countries whose strategies did not include this component ( $RR_P=1.04$ , 95% CI 1.01-1.07, p=0.01, p-value for difference between subgroups=0.02). Results for this component were similar for males (p-value for subgroup differences 0.02) but not females (p = 0.10). However, given the large number of tests conducted, these results would not be considered significant after any adjustments for multiple testing, and are unlikely to be clinically relevant. See Supplementary Figure 1 for full details.

Based on subgroup and meta-regression analyses for total suicide rates, there was also no evidence of differing effects by strategy iteration (first vs second/subsequent, p=0.80, Supplementary Figure 2a), economic status (HICs vs LMICs, p=0.81, Supplementary Figure 3a), number of components included (4-11, grouped as 4-7, 8-9, and 10-11, p=0.46, Supplementary Figure 4a), year of first introduction of the strategy (2006-2017, grouped as 2006-2011, 2012-2014 and 2015-2017, p=0.77, Supplementary Figure 5a), or suicide rate in the year prior to publication of the strategy (low, medium or high, p=0.98). Very similar results were obtained when males and females were considered separately (Supplementary Figures 2b-5b and 2c-5c).

#### COMPONENTS OF NATIONAL SUICIDE PREVENTION STRATEGIES

Sensitivity analyses included models fitted using lags of one and two years, linear yearly trends, full (rather than best fitting) fractional polynomials and weighted by the estimated SE of the suicide rate. None of these modifications materially changed the results or conclusions. For example, with a lag of two years and for males and females combined,  $RR_P=1.00 (95\% CI 0.97 - 1.03, p=0.88)$  (full results not shown).

#### Discussion

Our study is the first to consider the potential impact of components included in national suicide prevention strategies on suicide incidence. The narrative review revealed considerable diversity between countries in the inclusion of these components. While training and education and surveillance were included in over 90% of the existing strategies, psychotherapy and crisis intervention were included in less than half of the strategies. These differences may reflect the range of priorities recommended for countries at earlier and later stages of suicide prevention strategy development (WHO, 2014). Other possible sources of diversity include the relative influence of civil society interest groups, the extent of recognition and integration of voices of lived experience, and the willingness of non-health sector agencies and government departments to take responsibility for specific actions.

In our statistical analyses we found no consistent estimated pooled changes (RR<sub>P</sub> consistently approximately equal to 1). This result is different from results of previous studies which reported changes in suicide rates in countries with national suicide prevention strategies (De Leo & Evans, 2004; Lewitzka et al., 2019; Martin & Page, 2009; Matsubayashi & Ueda, 2011; Taylor et al., 1997). This difference may be related to the fact that the earlier studies were looking at the implementation of whole strategies, whereas our study aimed at assessing the effectiveness of particular components. It is possible that whole strategies,

which are intrinsically complex and multi-level, make a difference, unlike individual specific components, which are a mix of universal, selective and indicated interventions targeting different groups, in different settings, by different mechanisms (Van Der Feltz-Cornelis et al., 2011). Further, previous studies have used a variety of different samples, methodologies, and control variables. For instance, Matsubayashi and Ueda (2011) analysed suicide mortality data using a fixed-effect estimator over 1980-2004 in 21 OECD nations controlling for a range of political, economic, and socio-demographic variables. Lewitzka and colleagues (2019) analysed suicide rates in four countries with national strategies using six years as the study period with four control countries (no strategy). Further, our analyses showed decreases in national suicide rates in some countries (e.g., South Korea), while there were increases in suicide mortality in other countries (e.g., Uzbekistan).

Although the study did not find changes in suicide incidence that were associated with particular components of national suicide prevention strategies, we cannot conclude that the components (or the whole strategies) are ineffective. It may be that they take longer to show an effect (Collings, Jenkin, Stanley, McKenzie, & Hatcher, 2011) or only have an effect in certain sub-group (DE Leo & Evans, 2004). In our study, we identified the existence of national suicide prevention strategies, but we were not able to ascertain whether a specific strategy had been implemented or, if implemented, the quality, scale, intensity, completeness and timing of the implementation process (Burgess, Pirkis, Jolley, Whiteford, & Saxena, 2004). There are numerous barriers to successful implementation on many levels, from unsupportive socio-economic, political, social and legal environments to ineffective planning and coordination, and limited knowledge and resources (Arensman, Scott, De Leo, & Pirkis, 2020).

Reductions in suicide incidence are only one possible, although highly desired, outcome indicator of the effectiveness of a national suicide prevention strategy (WHO,

2014). Other intermediate outcome indicators include the establishment of suicide attempt and self-harm surveillance systems, increased awareness of suicide risk factors, improved identification of suicide risk, improved access to quality health care, reduced access to lethal means of suicide, and lower numbers of people hospitalized after a suicide attempt (Rezaeian & Khan, 2020).

Outcome evaluations of national suicide prevention strategies focused on suicide mortality data, including our study, have many methodological challenges. These include the relative statistical rarity of suicide, naturally occurring fluctuations in suicide rates over time, regression to the mean, and delays between registration of a suicide death and publication of mortality data (De Leo, 2015; WHO, 2021). We carefully selected two time periods – the baseline (i.e., pre-publication of a national suicide prevention strategy) and post-publication – and controlled for the iteration of the strategy. Nonetheless, this approach might not have been able to account for the complex process of implementation over time (Platt et al., 2019). Our analyses considered a number of confounders and covariates (gender, LMIC/HIC status, and strategy iteration). Nonetheless, we did not account for other variables, such as economic recession, political disruption, and broader national and local level mental health and social policies (Collings et al, 2018; Rezaeian & Khan, 2020; Vijayakumar, Daly, Arafat, & Arensman, 2020).

The downloaded WHO Global Health Observatory data, while representing the best available estimates from WHO, include 95% confidence intervals, indicating that there is some uncertainty about these estimates. Despite this uncertainty, our main analyses treated the rates as observed data. However, the meta-analytic results were consistent when the interrupted time series analyses were weighted by the inverse of the standard error of the mortality rates (obtained by transformation of the confidence intervals), providing some reassurance that this limitation did not have a great effect. Mortality rates were available for

at most 20 years for each country, with a minimum post-publication time of three years and a maximum of fourteen years. The variation in pre- and post-publication times between countries may have affected the power to detect significant changes within individual countries, especially for countries with extreme splits, such as 17 (pre-)/3 (post-). Nonetheless, the interrupted time series models used all available data, which provides more power than merely examining a few years pre- and post-publication. Furthermore, bias from potential classification of suicide deaths as "undetermined" is minimized by the WHO methodology (WHO, 2020).

#### Conclusion

Our study was unable to identify any specific suicide prevention strategy component that was associated with a reduction in suicide rates. Further detailed evaluations, probably using different methodologies, will be required to confirm this finding. It is likely that the effects of different components are nuanced, for instance more effective in reducing suicide rates in particular age or gender groups across countries. Until then, it is reasonable to recommend development, implementation and evaluation of national suicide prevention strategies, which include multiple components, emphasizing the importance of accurate and timely surveillance (especially during the COVID-19 era and its aftermath).

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#### Figure 1: Flow Chart.

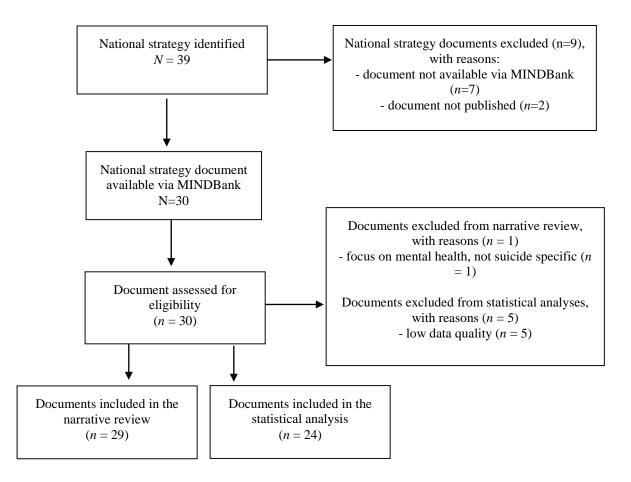


Figure 2. Forest plots of period effects for 24 countries, for both sexes combined (Figure 2a), males only (Figure 2b), and females only (Figure 2c).

Study	Strategyiteratation	first_yr_doc	RR with 95% Cl
South Korea	1st	2011	0.80 [ 0.69, 0.93
Chile	1st	2013	0.83 [ 0.73, 0.94
Lithuania	1st	2016	0.85 [ 0.75, 0.95
Australia	2nd/Sub	2017	0.88 [ 0.79, 0.97
Bulgaria	2nd/Sub	2013	0.91 [ 0.82, 1.00
Ireland	2nd/Sub	2015	0.91 [ 0.80, 1.02
New Zealand	2nd/Sub	2006	0.95 [ 0.88, 1.03
Luxembourg	1st	2015	0.96 [ 0.83, 1.10
USA	2nd/Sub	2012	
Suriname	1st	2016	
France	2nd/Sub	2011	
Sweden	2nd/Sub	2008	
Panama	1st	2006	1.04 [ 0.89, 1.2
Netherlands	1st	2014	1.05 [ 0.96, 1.15
Norway	2nd/Sub	2014	1.07 [ 0.99, 1.16
Guyana	1st	2014	
Japan	2nd/Sub	2017	1.07 [ 1.01, 1.14
Austria	1st	2011	
United Kingdom	2nd/Sub	2012	
Belarus	2nd/Sub	2015	1.10 [ 0.99, 1.23
Switzerland	1st	2016	1.11 [ 1.02, 1.2
Uzbekistan	1st	2010	1.12 [ 1.05, 1.19
Uruguay	1st	2011	1.12 [ 0.95, 1.32
Portugal	1st	2013	1.12 [ 0.92, 1.37
Overall			1.00 [ 0.97, 1.04
Heterogeneity: T <sup>2</sup>	= 0.01, I <sup>2</sup> = 79.61%,	$H^2 = 4.90$	
Test of $\theta_i = \theta_j$ : Q	(23) = 83.87, p = 0.00		
Test of θ = 0: z =	0.24, p = 0.81		
		0	9 1.37

Results (All) - FPselect1

Random-effects REML model Sorted by: \_b\_period first\_yr\_doc

Study	Strategyiteratation	first_yr_doc	RR with 95% CI
Lithuania	1st	2016	0.83 [ 0.74, 0.93]
South Korea	1st	2011	0.84 [ 0.72, 0.99]
Chile	1st	2013	0.86 [ 0.77, 0.96]
Australia	2nd/Sub	2017	0.89 [ 0.80, 0.99]
Bulgaria	2nd/Sub	2013	0.90 [ 0.80, 1.00]
Ireland	2nd/Sub	2015	0.91 [ 0.80, 1.05]
Guyana	1st	2014	0.93 [ 0.82, 1.07]
New Zealand	2nd/Sub	2006	0.96 [ 0.89, 1.03]
JSA	2nd/Sub	2012	
Suriname	1st	2016	
Luxembourg	1st	2015	1.01 [ 0.89, 1.15]
France	2nd/Sub	2011	
Netherlands	1st	2014	1.02 [ 0.93, 1.11]
Uruguay	1st	2011	1.03 [ 0.88, 1.20]
Panama	1st	2006	1.04 [ 0.87, 1.24]
Norway	2nd/Sub	2014	1.04 [ 0.94, 1.16]
Sweden	2nd/Sub	2008	1.05 [ 0.98, 1.12]
Portugal	1st	2013	1.05 [ 0.86, 1.28]
Austria	1st	2011	1.07 [ 1.00, 1.14]
Japan	2nd/Sub	2017	1.07 [ 1.00, 1.14]
United Kingdom	2nd/Sub	2012	1.08 [ 0.99, 1.17]
Uzbekistan	1st	2010	
Belarus	2nd/Sub	2015	1.10 [ 0.98, 1.23]
Switzerland	1st	2016	<b>1</b> .11 [ 1.03, 1.20]
Overall			1.00 [ 0.96, 1.03]
Heterogeneity: T <sup>2</sup>	= 0.00, I <sup>2</sup> = 71.02%,	$H^2 = 3.45$	
Test of $\theta_i = \theta_j$ : Q(	23) = 67.46, p = 0.00		
Test of θ = 0: z =	-0.20, p = 0.84		
		C	1.28
andom-effects R	EML model		

### Results (M) - FPselect1

Random-effects REML model Sorted by: \_b\_period first\_yr\_doc

Study	Strategyiteratation	first_yr_doc		RR with 95% CI
South Korea	1st	2011 —		0.71 [ 0.59, 0.85]
Australia	2nd/Sub	2017		0.81 [ 0.71, 0.93]
Ireland	2nd/Sub	2015		0.87 [ 0.75, 1.02]
Luxembourg	1st	2015		0.88 [ 0.69, 1.11]
Lithuania	1st	2016		0.93 [ 0.76, 1.13]
New Zealand	2nd/Sub	2006		0.93 [ 0.76, 1.14]
Bulgaria	2nd/Sub	2013		0.94 [ 0.82, 1.09]
Chile	1st	2013		0.95 [ 0.75, 1.20]
Sweden	2nd/Sub	2008		0.98 [ 0.88, 1.09]
France	2nd/Sub	2011	-	0.98 [ 0.93, 1.03]
Suriname	1st	2016		1.01 [ 0.98, 1.04]
JSA	2nd/Sub	2012		1.01 [ 0.98, 1.05]
Guyana	1st	2014		1.02 [ 0.91, 1.15]
Jruguay	1st	2011		1.04 [ 0.86, 1.25]
Japan	2nd/Sub	2017		1.09 [ 0.99, 1.19]
Panama	1st	2006		— 1.10 [ 0.73, 1.67]
Norway	2nd/Sub	2014		1.10 [ 0.97, 1.25]
Switzerland	1st	2016		1.11 [ 0.96, 1.28]
Austria	1st	2011		1.12 [ 0.98, 1.28]
Belarus	2nd/Sub	2015		1.13 [ 1.01, 1.25]
Jnited Kingdom	2nd/Sub	2012		1.13 [ 1.04, 1.23]
Netherlands	1st	2014		1.15 [ 1.01, 1.30]
Jzbekistan	1st	2010		1.19 [ 1.10, 1.28]
Portugal	1st	2013		— 1.35 [ 1.02, 1.79]
Overall			•	1.02 [ 0.97, 1.07]
Heterogeneity: T <sup>2</sup>	= 0.01, I <sup>2</sup> = 82.43%,	$H^2 = 5.69$		
Test of $\theta_i = \theta_j$ : Q(	23) = 76.43, p = 0.00			
Test of $\theta = 0$ : z =	0.67, p = 0.50			
		0.59	V.	1.79
andom-effects R	EML model			

## Results (F) - FPselect1

Random-effects REML model Sorted by: \_b\_period first\_yr\_doc Table 1. Typical components of a national suicide prevention strategy (Platt et al., 2019)

- Restriction of access to commonly used methods of suicide
- Promotion of responsible media reporting
- Access to health and social care services
- Training and education
- Psychotherapeutic interventions intended to reduce repeated suicidal behavior
- Enhanced care/follow-up targeted at people with a history of attempted suicide
- Crisis intervention
- Postvention
- Awareness raising
- Addressing stigmatized attitudes toward mental ill-health and suicidal behavior
- Surveillance, monitoring, and evaluation
- Oversight and coordination

Country	Strategy iteration												
	neration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Australia	5 <sup>th</sup>	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Austria	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+	+	+			+		+		+	+
Belarus	2 <sup>nd</sup>	+		+	+	+		+		+		+	+
Bhutan	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+		+	+
Bulgaria	2 <sup>nd</sup>	+	+	+	+	+		+		+		+	+
Chile	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+		+		+	+	+	+		+	+
Dominican Republic	1 <sup>st</sup>			+	+	+		+		+		+	
England	2 <sup>nd</sup>	+	+	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	+
Guyana	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	+
France	3 <sup>rd</sup>	+			+		+		+	+		+	+
Ireland	2 <sup>nd</sup>	+	+	+	+	+			+	+	+	+	+
Japan	2 <sup>nd</sup> or 3 <sup>rd</sup>		+	+	+		+		+	+		+	+
Lithuania	1 <sup>st</sup>			+	+			+				+	
Luxembourg	1 <sup>st</sup>		+	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	+
Namibia	1 <sup>st</sup>			+	+					+		+	+
Nicaragua	1 <sup>st</sup>	+			+		+		+	+	+	+	+
Netherlands	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+		+								+

Table 3: Components included in national suicide prevention strategies (n=29).

New Zealand	2 <sup>nd</sup>	+	+	+	+		+		+		+	+	+
Norway	2 <sup>nd</sup> or more				+	+	+		+			+	+
Panama	1 <sup>st</sup>			+	+		+	+	+	+		+	+
Portugal	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	
Republic of Korea	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sri Lanka	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+	+	+		+						
Suriname	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+	+			+		+	+	+	+	+
Sweden	2 <sup>nd</sup> or more	+		+	+					+	+	+	+
Switzerland	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+	+	+		+		+	+		+	
Uruguay	1 <sup>st</sup>				+		+			+	+	+	+
USA	2 <sup>nd</sup>	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Uzbekistan	1 <sup>st</sup>	+	+	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	

1. Restriction of access to commonly used methods of suicide; 2. Promotion of responsible media reporting; 3. Access to health and social care services; 4. Training and education; 5. Psychotherapeutic interventions intended to reduce repeated suicidal behavior; 6. Enhanced care/follow-up targeted at people with a history of attempted suicide; 7. Crisis intervention; 8. Postvention; 9. Awareness raising; 10. Addressing stigmatized attitudes toward mental ill-health and suicidal behavior; 11. Surveillance, monitoring, and evaluation; 12. Oversight and coordination.

Countries	Country classificatio n	Year(s) of national strategy	Pre period for statistical analysis	Post period for statistical analysis	Inclusion: narrative review	Inclusion: statistical analysis	Data quality*
Australia	HIC	2017	2000-2017	2018-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Austria	HIC	2011	2000-2011	2012-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Belarus	LMIC	2015	2000-2015	2016-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Bhutan	LMIC	2015-2018	NA	NA	Yes	No	Low
Bulgaria	LMIC	2013-2018	2000-2013	2014-2019	Yes	Yes	Medium
Chile	LMIC	2013	2000-2013	2014-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Dominican Republic	LMIC	2014	NA	NA	Yes	No	Low
England	HIC	2012	2000-2012	2013-2019	Yes	Yes	High
France	HIC	2011-2014	2000-2011	2012-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Guyana	LMIC	2014	2000-2014	2015-2019	Yes	Yes	Medium
Ireland	HIC	2015-2020	2000-2015	2016-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Japan	HIC	2017	2000-2017	2018-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Lithuania	LMIC	2016-2020	2000-2016	2017-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Luxembourg	HIC	2015-2019	2000-2015	2016-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Namibia	LMIC	2011	NA	NA	Yes	No	Low
Netherlands	HIC	2014-2017	2000-2014	2015-2019	Yes	Yes	High
New Zealand	HIC	2006-2016	2000-2006	2007-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Nicaragua	LMIC	2000	NA	NA	Yes	No	High
Norway	HIC	2014-2017	2000-2014	2015-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Panama	LMIC	2006	2000-2006	2007-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Portugal	HIC	2013-2017	2000-2013	2014-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Republic of Korea	HIC	2011	2000-2011	2012-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Sri Lanka	LMIC	1997	NA	NA	Yes	No	Medium
Suriname	LMIC	2016	2000-2016	2017-2019	Yes	Yes	Medium
Sweden	HIC	2008	2000-2008	2009-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Switzerland	HIC	2016	2000-2016	2017-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Uruguay	LMIC	2011-2015	2000-2011	2012-2019	Yes	Yes	Medium
USA	HIC	2012	2000-2012	2013-2019	Yes	Yes	High
Uzbekistan	LMIC	2010-2020	2000-2010	2011-2019	Yes	Yes	Medium

Table 2: List of countries with national suicide prevention strategies included in the study.

HIC: high-income country; LMIC: low- and middle- income country

\* High quality data: country has reported at least five years' data from 2008 or later, the latest year data are reported by ICD code, and has average usability from 2008-latest  $\geq$  80%. Medium quality data: country reports at least five years of data from 2008 or later to, the latest year data are reported by ICD code, and has average usability during the period 2008-latest  $\geq$  60% and < 80% or at least five years' data are reported using a shortlist, and the average usability during the period 2008-latest  $\geq$  80% (WHO, 2020).

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