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What are the characteristics of adolescent hospitalized suicide attempters?

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■ **Abstract** *Aim* To study the specificity of hospitalized adolescent suicide attempters. *Method* Among a national sample of students ($n = 11,718$, mean age = 16.6 years) studied in 1999, 9.2% ($n = 1078$) made at least one suicide attempt during their life (SA); 21.9% ($n = 234$) of them were hospitalized (HSA). We identified the risk factors (family, school, behavioral and psychological) of SA and HSA by comparing (by gender) a) suicide attempters to non-suicide attempters and b) hospitalized suicide attempters to non-hospitalized suicide attempters. *Results* Both for girls and boys, the risk factors for SA varied. However, certain risk factors, particularly depressive mood, low self-esteem and poor parent-child relationships, were not associated with hospitalization.

Hospitalized suicide attempters had more personal and social problems. But there is an important difference according to gender: in boys, hospitalization is related to physical fighting (OR = 2.2) and offences (OR = 3.4), in girls to running away (OR = 1.7), consumption of illegal drugs other than cannabis (OR = 2.0), having a living standard outside average (OR = 2.0) and going to a private school (OR = 1.7). *Conclusion* Suicide attempters with problem behavior are more at risk of being hospitalized than others. However, the difference between hospitalized and non-hospitalized subjects was smaller than expected.

■ **Key words** adolescents – school population – suicide attempt – hospitalization – risk factors

Introduction

Adolescent suicide is a public health problem. In France, it is the second cause of mortality (800 to 900 deaths per year) among 15 to 24 year-olds [1]. Moreover, it is estimated that the number of hospitalizations for suicide attempts (SA) is about 30,000 to 40,000 per year for this age group [1]. The number of SA not detected by the health care system is unknown. According to different school surveys [2, 3], only one adolescent SA out of four (25%) was hospitalized. Most publications on adolescent SA and associated risk factors are, in France as in most countries, based on hospitalized samples [4].

By comparing hospitalized and non-hospitalized SA, Groholt [5] demonstrated that poor self-esteem, low standard of living and low social support were important risk factors for hospitalization, thus, suggesting that non-hospitalized SA are in better mental and social health than hospitalized SA. However, these factors remain to be confirmed in other cultural contexts. This is especially in France where the health system is quite different than in other countries, since hospitalization is free. In addition, since most studies on adolescent suicide attempt compare clinical samples to controls [6], the question is whether the risk factors are the same or not in population-based samples. Finally, since SA is more common in females than in males in most coun-

tries [3, 7–9], gender-related risk factors have to be considered.

Based on the ESPAD 99 data (the European Study Project on Alcohol and other Drugs [2], we examined general school population (14–19 years olds) to compare suicide attempters to non-suicide attempters and hospitalized attempters to non-hospitalized attempters. The following hypotheses are suggested:

- By comparing SA to non-SA in a school-based population survey, the risk factors of SA are the same as those suggested by clinical-based studies, particularly the poor quality of family relationships, and psychological and behavioral disorders [10–16].
- Hospitalized SA have poorer self-esteem, lower living standards and more relational problems than non-hospitalized SA (Grohold [5])
- These factors are suggested to be different for boys and for girls.

Method

■ Population

The sample was representative of French adolescents following secondary schooling in mainland France in both public and private schools (methodology of ESPAD 99 survey published elsewhere [3, 17]). The sample was performed with the secondary schools ($n=300$) and classes grade 8 to 12 (2 per school) being drawn randomly. The sample unit was the class. A total of 563 out of 600 classes (93.8%) participated in the study, representing 13,590 pupils. 89.1% of them accepted to participate ($n=12,113$). A letter informed parents of minors about the survey before the questionnaire was administered, in order that they could refuse the participation of their child.

Non-participation (10.9%) was due to refusal from the parents, pupils' absence from school during the study period or the impossibility of performing the study in satisfactory conditions. The non-response rate per question was low: 90% of questions had a non-response rate lower than 5%. On the suicide attempt question, 395 subjects (3.3%) did not specify whether they had or had not made a SA.

■ Questionnaire

The aim of the ESPAD 99 survey was to perform a self-administered anonymous questionnaire to measure the prevalence of consumption (tobacco, alcohol, cannabis and other drugs) in adolescents and to study the main risk factors associated (socio-demographic, school, relational and family factors). Thematic modules of deviance and a self-esteem scale (Rosenberg scale) were

included in the French part [18]. Questions on suicidal behavior, running away and absenteeism from school were included, as well as a depressive mood scale (Kandel scale). The following items are selected for in the present analysis.

- Items concerning suicide attempts (“During lifetime, how many times have you attempted suicide: no/once/twice and more”) and hospitalization (“If you made a suicide attempt, were you hospitalized for this reason: no/once/twice and more”).
- Items concerning school: type of school (general lycee, junior college, vocational school); school statute (private or public); student school results (average mark ≤ 7 , average mark ≤ 8 and ≤ 11 , average mark ≥ 12).
- Items concerning family life: father and mother study level (primary, secondary or higher); family setting (two parents, a single parent, recomposed family or other situation); relationships with parents (good, average, poor); living standard of the family (much lower, lower, equal or higher than average); family control assessed by the question “Do your parents know where you are on a Saturday evening?”: high (always + mostly) poor (sometimes), no control.
- Items concerning friends, personal mood and behavior: relationship with friends (good, average or poor); self esteem assessed by the Rosenberg scale: score ≥ 35 (high self esteem), $25 < \text{score} < 35$ (good self esteem) and ≤ 25 (low self esteem); depressive mood, assessed by Kandel Scale score > 17 ; current tobacco consumption (non-smokers, occasional smokers, < 10 cigarettes a day, 10 or more cigarettes a day); alcohol consumption during past 30 days (\leq to 10 times, more than 10 times); cannabis consumption during past 12 months (\leq to 10 times, more than 10 times); lifetime consumption of other than cannabis illicit drug (none, one, 2 or more); physical fighting in last 12 months (≤ 2 times, 3 times or more), stealing in last 12 months (no, at least once); offences in the last 12 months (none, at least once); school absenteeism in last 12 months (never, sometimes, often); running away in last 12 months (none, at least once).

■ Statistical analysis

Suicide attempters (at least one lifetime SA) were compared to non-suicide attempters (for girls, for boys) on all selected variables, as well as hospitalized suicide attempters (HSA) to non-hospitalized SA (for girls, for boys). Student t-test was performed for the quantitative variable (age). Chi 2-tests were performed for qualitative variables.

Logistics regressions were performed with SA or HSA as the “variable to be explained”, and with variables significantly associated in the bivariate analysis as the

“explanatory variables”. Age was systematically included in the logistic regressions. Statistical analysis was performed with the SAS 8.0 software.

Results

■ Sample

The analyzed sample ($n = 11,718$, the non-respondents on the SA question being excluded) was composed of 51.9% of girls and 48.1% of boys from grade 8 to 12, aged 11 to 21. 1078 subjects (9.2%) reported at least one SA, 12.6% among girls versus 5.5% among boys ($p < 0.0001$). No age difference was found between suicide attempters and non-suicide attempters either for boys (16.7 years vs. 16.6 years, ns) or for girls (16.7 years vs. 16.8 years, ns). The relapse rate was of 25.8% in boys and 27% in girls (ns difference). The hospitalization rate for SA was of 23.4% for boys and of 21.4% for girls (ns difference). In boys, hospitalized suicide attempters were significantly younger than non-hospitalized ones (16.3 years vs. 17 years, $p = 0.01$) whereas in girls, the hospitalized subjects were older (17.1 years vs. 16.6 years, $p = 0.002$).

■ Comparison of suicide attempters and non-suicide attempters

In boys, univariate analysis showed important differences between suicide attempters and non-suicide attempters. The SA had the following characteristics: a father with primary level education (15% vs. 10%, $p = 0.01$); a lower than average standard of living (19% vs. 9%, $p < 0.0001$); a single parent family (42% vs. 29%, $p < 0.0001$); a lack of family control (14% of the parents of suicide attempters not knowing where their children were on a Saturday evening vs. 4%, $p < 0.0001$); poor relationship with their mother (17% vs. 6%, $p < 0.001$); poor relationship with their father (26% vs. 11%, $p < 0.001$); poor relationship with their friends (5% vs. 2%, $p < 0.001$); poor self-esteem (33% vs. 13% had a Rosenberg score ≤ 25 , $p < 0.0001$); depressive mood (35% vs. 10% have a Kandel score ≥ 17 , $p < 0.0001$); regular alcohol consumption (23.4% vs. 13.4% consuming alcohol > 10 times per month, $p < 0.0001$); high tobacco consumption (22% vs. 7% smoking at least 10 cigarettes per day, $p < 0.0001$); regular cannabis consumption (34% vs. 17% taking cannabis at least 10 times per year, $p < 0.0001$); frequent other illicit consumption (29% vs. 8% having experimented several times with another illicit drug, $p < 0.0001$); physical fighting (50% vs. 25% at least twice a year, $p < 0.0001$); stealing (45% vs. 21% committing at least one theft per year, $p < 0.0001$), offences (56% vs. 21% committing at least one offence in

the year, $p < 0.0001$) or running away (21% versus 3%, $p < 0.001$); absenteeism from school (32% vs. 14% often absent, $p < 0.0001$) and poor school results (9% vs. 3% with an average mark lower than 7/20, $p < 0.0001$). On the other hand, there was no difference between the two groups with regard to the type of school (general lycée, junior college, vocational school), private or public establishment or according to the mother's level of study (primary, secondary or higher).

Logistic regression analysis (including age and factors significantly associated with SA) made it possible to classify the associated factors, in the following order of importance; running away (OR = 3.7, CI 95% 2.5–5.5), Kandel score > 17 (OR = 2.8, CI 95% 2.0–3.7), tobacco 10+/day (OR = 2.7, CI 95% 1.7–4.3), Rosenberg score ≤ 25 (OR = 2.5, CI 95% 1.6–4.0), repeated consumption of illicit drugs other than cannabis (OR = 2.5, CI 95% 1.7–3.7), poor relations with mother (OR = 1.7, CI 95% 1.1–2.5), consumption of cannabis 10+/year (OR = 1.6, CI 95% 1.1–2.3), physical fighting 2+/year (OR = 1.6, CI 95% 1.2–2.2) and often absence from school (OR = 1.6, CI 95% 1.03–3.2).

In girls, the SA had the following characteristics: lower-than-average standard of living (5% vs. 1%, $p < 0.0001$); a single parent family (35% vs. 28%, $p < 0.0001$); a lack of family control (19% vs. 9%, $p < 0.0001$); poor relationships with mother (18% vs. 2%, $p < 0.001$), with the father (34% vs. 16%, $p < 0.001$) and with their friends (14% vs. 9%, $p < 0.001$); poor self-esteem (50% vs. 27%, $p < 0.0001$); depressive mood (60% vs. 30%, $p < 0.0001$); regular alcohol consumption (6% vs. 2%, $p < 0.0001$); high tobacco consumption (57% vs. 28%, $p < 0.0001$), regular cannabis consumption (19% vs. 7%, $p < 0.0001$); experience with other illicit drugs (19% vs. 4%, $p < 0.0001$); physical fighting (26% vs. 8%, $p < 0.0001$); theft (18% vs. 7%, $p < 0.0001$); offences (19% vs. 6%, $p < 0.0001$); running away (20% versus 3%, $p < 0.001$); absenteeism from school (25% vs. 12%, $p < 0.0001$) and poor school results (5% vs. 2%, $p < 0.0001$). They also followed their studies less often in a general lycée (30% vs. 35%, $p < 0.001$).

Logistic regression analysis (including age and factors significantly associated with SA) made it possible to classify the associated factors, in the following order of importance: running away (OR = 3.8, CI 95% 2.8–5.2), tobacco 10+/day (OR = 3.8, CI 95% 2.8–5.2), experience with illicit drugs other than cannabis (OR = 3.0, CI 95% 2.2–4.1), Kandel score > 17 (OR = 2.0, CI 95% 1.7–2.6), physical fighting 2+/year (OR = 1.9, CI 95% 1.5–2.4), Rosenberg scale ≤ 25 (OR = 1.8, CI 95% 1.3–2.7), poor relations with father (OR = 1.6, CI 95% 1.2–2.0), poor relation with mother (OR = 1.4, CI 95% 1.08–1.9), poor relation with friends (OR = 1.5, CI 95% 1.1–2.0), having a single-parent family (OR = 1.5, CI 95% 1.1–2.1), and pursuing studies in an institution other than a general lycée (OR = 1.4, CI 95% 1.1–1.7).

■ Comparison between hospitalized and non-hospitalized suicide attempters

Comparison between HSA and NHSA (Tables 1 and 2) indicates:

- Compared to NHSA boys, HSA boys were more often from junior college and vocational school, living outside their family, absent from school, having a regular consumption of alcohol, tobacco or illicit drugs other than cannabis, committing several thefts, fights or criminal offences and having a previous history of running away from home and of SA. There was no difference between HSA and NHSA boys concerning sector of education, educational level of the parents, living standards of the family, relation with parents or with friends, family control, self-esteem, depressive mood and cannabis consumption.
- Compared to NHSA girls, HSA girls were more often from a junior college and vocational school, private school, with a highly educated mother, a higher or lower stand level than the average youth population, having several experiences of illicit drugs other than cannabis, committing criminal offences and having a previous history of running away and of SA. But there is no difference between HSA and NHSA girls concerning educational level of the father, family setting, relation with parents or with friends, family control, self-esteem, depressive mood, tobacco, alcohol and cannabis consumption, theft, or fights.

For boys (Table 3), after multivariate analysis, only violent behavior remained significantly associated with hospitalization (i. e., offences, OR = 3.4 and having been involved in many physical fights, OR = 2.2), whereas for girls (Table 4), two social class variables (standard of living, OR = 2.0, and private school education, OR = 1.6) and two personal variables (running away, OR = 1.7, illicit drug use other than cannabis, OR = 2.0) remained related.

Discussion

■ Prevalence rates of SA and HSA

The lifetime prevalence rate of SA was 9.9% in our school sample, which is probably a minimum rate for French school children aged 14 to 19, especially for boys. In fact, since school absenteeism (boys) is associated with SA, one could expect a higher SA rate among non-participant males.

This 9.9% prevalence rate represents a significant increase compared to the study in 1993 in which the figure was 6.5% [1]. This increased rate of SA has been confirmed elsewhere, but that has not been accompanied by an increased rate of mortality due to suicide [2]. There may be several reasons for this discrepancy; either SA

receive better management, thereby decreasing the risk of mortality; or the means used by suicide attempters are less serious. The slight decrease in the rate of hospitalization for suicide attempters (25% in 1993 vs. 22% at present) supports the latter hypothesis. However, it may be that it is now easier to declare SA than five years ago, because there has been wide media coverage of suicide and attempted suicide among young people.

In our population, the rate of HSA was 22%, a figure slightly lower than in 1993 [1]. Data from general practitioners and hospital data [2, 28] suggest that only one SA out of eight (all ages) is not detected by the hospital system. This proportion is far from that observed in our adolescent sample. This difference might be explained either by a lack of hospitalization among SA adolescents, but this is very unlikely and would be in contradiction with the recommendations made by the consensus conference of the ANAES in 1998 [28]. It is more likely explained by the weakness of the statistical tool used. In effect, it is almost impossible to include in the official statistics any SA that does not lead to contact with the health care system [2].

■ Risk factors of suicide attempt (SA)

Our analysis of the risk factors of SA confirms the results previously reported in the literature, based on hospitalized SA showing that family problems [13, 15, 16, 19–22], mood disturbances [5, 11, 23], poor self-esteem [5, 12, 24], violent behavior [13, 14, 24], alcohol consumption [14, 19, 25] and illicit drug use [14, 25] are risk factors often reported. Most of these factors are also revealed in our school-based sample which was examined with a self-administered questionnaire.

In our sample, running away and school absenteeism are important risk factors associated with suicide attempt [8, 26], yet they received little attention in the psychiatric hospital-based context. Nevertheless, these behaviors as well as SA can reflect avoidance from very difficult social and family situations.

In most studies, little attention has been paid to the level of tobacco use in young suicide attempters. In our analysis, this consumption is highly associated to SA in boys and in girls, whereas the association between alcohol and SA was no longer present after adjustment on the other variables. Only Tomori et al. [27] noted that smokers may be characterized according to their drug use, family disturbances and previous SA. In a survey of Swiss adolescents [8], the authors attributed this absence of link between alcohol and SA to the positive image of alcohol consumption in their culture, which is similar to French culture.

Our study shows a quite different SA model according to gender. While depression, loss of self-esteem, substance consumption and running away were found both

Table 1 Comparison between hospitalized and non-hospitalized attempters by gender, on demographic, school, family and psychological variables

	BOYS			GIRLS		
	Hospitalized n = 71 (%)	Non-hospitalized n = 232 (%)	p	Hospitalized n = 163 (%)	Non-hospitalized n = 600 (%)	p
Type of school						
General lycée	16.4	29.5	p = 0.01	33.1	31.1	p = 0.0032
Junior college	49.3	35.1		30.7	42.1	
Vocational lycée	26.1	19.2		22.7	15.6	
Multi-purpose lycée	8.2	16.2		13.5	11.2	
Sector of education						
Public	83.6	83.8	NS	69.9	79.1	p = 0.013
Private	16.4	16.2		30.1	20.9	
Absenteeism (last year)						
Often	49.2	26.7	p = 0.0007	28.7	23.5	NS
Sometimes	28.4	51.7		53.2	51.8	
Never	22.4	21.6		18.1	24.7	
Living with						
Two parents	42.2	62.2	p = 0.004	51.2	56.7	NS
Recomposed	14.1	10.9		16.2	15.3	
Single parent	16.9	15.6		12.6	14.6	
Other	26.8	11.3		20.0	13.4	
Educational level of mother						
Primary-secondary	76.6	72.6	NS	71.1	81.1	p = 0.007
Higher	23.4	27.4		28.9	18.9	
Educational level of father						
Primary	16.6	14.5	NS	13.2	12.5	NS
Secondary	66.7	59.0		67.4	67.2	
Higher	16.7	26.5		19.4	20.3	
Standard of living						
Equivalent	42.0	48.0	NS	40.0	56.9	p = 0.0001
Lower or higher	58.0	52.0		60.0	43.1	
Family control						
High	74.1	75.2	NS	79.0	82.0	NS
Poor	10.3	12.0		12.9	10.2	
No control	15.6	12.8		8.1	7.8	
Relationships with mother						
Good	53.1	59.6	NS	45.0	47.5	NS
Average	12.5	16.4		17.2	19.4	
Poor	34.4	24.0		37.8	33.1	
Relationships with father						
Good	72.1	65.6	NS	61.9	62.1	NS
Average	10.3	17.8		15.0	17.2	
Poor	17.6	16.6		23.1	20.7	
Relationships with friends						
Good	87.1	89.6	NS	84.5	86.1	NS
Average	4.3	6.9		9.9	10.9	
Poor	8.6	3.5		5.6	3.0	
Depressive mood (Kandel scale)						
Score < 17	60.9	65.9	NS	33.7	41.4	NS
Score ≥ 17	39.1	34.1		66.3	58.6	
Self-esteem (Rosenberg scale)						
≥35 (high)	13.1	17.1	NS	5.8	8.9	NS
> 25 or < 35 (good)	57.4	49.1		40.4	42.3	
25 (low)	29.5	33.8		53.8	48.8	

Table 2 Comparison between hospitalized and non-hospitalized attempters by gender and behaviors

	BOYS			GIRLS		
	Hospitalized n = 71 (%)	Non-hospitalized n = 232 (%)	p	Hospitalized n = 163 (%)	Non-hospitalized n = 600 (%)	p
Running away (last year)						
No	69.7	82.0	p = 0.03	73.0	82.0	p = 0.01
Yes	30.3	18.0		27.0	18.0	
Offences (last year)						
No	28.1	63.6	p < 0.0001	73.3	82.6	p = 0.007
Yes	71.9	36.4		26.7	17.4	
Theft (last year)						
0 to 2	32.8	61.3	p < 0.0001	79.7	82.6	NS
≥ 3	67.2	38.7		20.3	17.4	
Fights (last year)						
0 to 2	29.7	56.0	p = 0.0002	72.3	74.7	NS
≥ 3	70.3	44.0		27.7	25.3	
Tobacco						
0 to 10 cigarettes a day	68.1	80.2	p = 0.032	75.9	82.7	NS
≥ 10 cigarettes a day	31.9	19.8		24.1	17.3	
Consumption of alcohol (last month)						
0 to 10 times a month	67.1	79.4	p = 0.03	87.2	89.5	NS
> 10 times a month	32.9	20.6		12.8	10.5	
Cannabis (last 12 months)						
No	68.6	71.8	NS	82.0	81.1	NS
Yes	31.4	28.2		18.0	18.9	
Other illicit drugs (lifetime)						
0 to 1	52.0	76.5	p < 0.0001	73.6	84.1	p = 0.02
≥ 2	48.0	23.5		26.4	15.9	
Previous history of SA (lifetime)						
No	45.2	81.6	p < 0.0001	62.0	77.5	p < 0.0001
Yes	54.8	18.4		38.0	22.5	

in boys and girls, absenteeism from school occurred only in boys, while poor affective relations with family and friends play a more important role in girls. Kelly et al. [19] also found that poor family relationships were predictive of SA only in adolescent girls. These findings strengthen the hypothesis of a significant gender difference in SA that should be further investigated by other more sociological research.

■ Risk factors for hospitalization for suicide attempt (HSA)

The variables associated with hospitalization reflect the personal difficulties encountered by the suicide attempter, such as criminal offences, violence, drug use and running away. Groholt [4] pointed out the importance of poor self-esteem, low socio-economic status and low support from the entourage as being risk factors for hospitalization. In our population, we did not find any association with poor self-esteem, and socio-economic

status was not known. Nevertheless, the higher rate of hospitalization in suicide attempters attending private schools suggests an opposite tendency. On the other hand, the link between running away and hospitalization might indicate a breakdown with the entourage.

The variables associated with hospitalization differ according to gender. In boys, violent behavior was more frequent, as were offences. Since violent adolescents are more at risk of SA [13, 14, 24], their more frequent hospitalization might be due to the greater violence of their suicidal act. In girls, running away and illicit drug use other than cannabis were associated. In any respect, the variables associated with hospitalization reflect a high degree of personal difficulties, whose mode of expression differs according to the gender: self-aggressive behavior for girls (running away, illicit drugs) and hetero-aggressive behavior for boys (violence and criminal offences).

Table 3 Risk of hospitalization among SA boys.¹ Multivariate analysis (% OR, CI 95%)

Logistic regression	HSA boys (%)	p	OR (CI 95%)
Type of school			
General lycée	14.8*	NS	
Junior college	30.5		
Vocational lycée	29.7		
Multi-purpose lycée	13.6		
Living with			
Two parents	17.3	NS	
Recomposed	25.0		
Single parent	28.7		
Other	42.2		
Absenteeism (last 12 months)			
Often	23.1	NS	
Sometimes	13.7		
Never	34.7		
Consumption of tobacco (current)			
0 to 10 cigarettes a day	19.6	NS	
≥10 cigarettes a day	32.3		
Consumption of alcohol (last 30 days)			
0 to 10 times a month	20.8	NS	
> 10 times a month	33.3		
Offences (last 12 months)			
No	11.2	p < 0.0005	3.38 (1.70, 6.71)
Yes	35.9		
Theft (last 12 months)			
0 to 2	13.2	NS	
≥ 3	33.1		
Fights (last 12 months)			
0 to 2	13.1	p = 0.024	2.23 (1.11, 4.48)
≥ 3	31.2		
Consumption of other illicit drugs (lifetime)			
0 to 1	17.5	NS	
≥ 2	38.9		
Previous history of SA (lifetime)			
No	14.7	NS	
Yes	48.2		

¹ Only associated factors (bi-variate analysis) were included in the logistic regression

* 14.8% of suicide attempters attending a general lycée were hospitalized

■ Limitations

Since the present population concerns only adolescents attending school, those hospitalized in health care system (<0.5% of the youth population) or having left school between 16 and 18 years (<10% of the youth population) are not represented in this study. Moreover, there is a survival bias because only suicide attempters having survived their SA were able to reply, while be-

Table 4 Risk of hospitalization among SA girls.¹ Multivariate analysis (% OR, CI 95%)

Logistic regression	HSA girls (%)	p	OR (CI 95%)
Type of school			
General lycée	16.3*	NS	
Junior college	22.2		
Vocational lycée	28.0		
Multi-purpose lycée	24.4		
Sector of education			
Public	19.2	p = 0.017	1.65 (1.09, 2.48)
Private	27.2		
Educational level of mother			
Primary-secondary	19.0	NS	
Higher	29.0		
Standard of living			
Equivalent	15.8	p = 0.0002	2.00 (1.39, 2.89)
Lower or higher	27.0		
Running away (last 12 months)			
No	19.3	p = 0.017	1.70 (1.09, 2.60)
Yes	28.8		
Offences (last 12 months)			
No	19.4	NS	
Yes	29.4		
Consumption of other illicit drugs (lifetime)			
No	15.4	p = 0.0002	2.00 (1.39, 2.90)
Yes	27.0		
Previous history of SA (lifetime)			
No	17.7	NS	
Yes	31.2		

¹ Only associated factors (bi-variate analysis) were included in the logistic regression

* 16.3% of suicide attempters attending junior college were hospitalized

tween 200 and 300 deaths by suicide per year occur among 15 to 19 years old.

The data were obtained via adolescent self-reported questionnaires. This may have limited the validity of the measures, but it is interesting to note that most risk factors found in clinical samples are also present in this school sample. The relations examined were cross-sectional and no assertions can be made about the temporal relations of the variables. Despite these limitations, the data are satisfactory since the rate of participation was high and the results in coherence with other surveys. In addition, the main advantage of this survey was to bring into light the high non-hospitalized SA rate.

In conclusion, this study of a representative sample of school adolescents confirms the SA risk factors. Our findings also suggest that running away, high tobacco consumption and experimentation with illicit drugs other than cannabis are three risk factors that may be easily detected. Moreover, adolescents hospitalized for

SA would seem to have more social and personal problems than non-hospitalized SA, but the difference was not as important as expected. For this reason, each SA (hospitalized or not) has to be considered seriously within the framework of school and general practice.

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