

Ideation-to-action framework variables involved in the development of suicidal ideation: A network analysis

Abstract

Background: In the field of suicide, three theories (*the interpersonal theory of suicide— IPTS, the integrated motivational–volitional—IMV—model, and the three-step theory—3ST*) have emerged within the ideation-to-action framework. These theories distinguish between two processes, the development of suicidal ideation and the progression from ideation to suicidal action. In relation to the development of suicidal ideation, each theory proposes different key elements (perceived burdensomeness and thwarted belongingness—IPTS; defeat and entrapment—IMV; and psychological pain and hopelessness—3ST). Through the implementation of network analysis, specifically Gaussian graphical models (GGMs), this study aims to explore the relationship between the variables of the three theories and their relationship (direct and indirect) with suicidal desire after partialing out all the other variables. **Methods:** In this cross-sectional study, 644 young adults, selected according to age, sex, and educational level, completed an online survey. **Results:** The network analysis indicated that all the variables, except thwarted belongingness, formed a network model with strong connections. Defeat is the most central variable, and it has the greatest influence in the network. Suicidal desire is only connected directly to perceived burdensomeness, psychological pain, and defeat. **Conclusions:** The development of suicidal ideation could be understood as a complex set of concurrent and potentially interactive variables.

Keywords: suicidal ideation; network analysis; ideation-to-action framework; interpersonal theory of suicide; integrated motivational–volitional model; three-step theory

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Each year, approximately 800,000 people die by suicide worldwide (WHO, 2017). Suicide is the second leading cause of death among adolescents and young adults aged 15–29 (WHO, 2017). According to the meta-analysis by Lim et al. (2019), the global lifetime and 12-month prevalence of suicidal ideation in children and adolescents are 18% and 14.2%, respectively. In addition, the lifetime and 12-month prevalence of attempted suicide in this group are 6% and 4.5%. Early suicidal behaviors often emerge in the second decade of life, and adolescents with suicidal ideation (vs. adolescents without suicidal ideation) are 12 times more likely to attempt suicide at the age of 30 (Cha et al., 2018). In the case of Spain, suicide rates in the adolescent and young adult population have remained relatively stable over time (Navarro-Gómez, 2017). In 2018, 18.78% of the total suicide deaths in Spain occurred in the 15–39 age group (INE, 2019). Likewise, 4% of Spanish adolescents have attempted suicide and 6.9% have shown a high level of suicidal ideation; this figure rises to 31% if we consider those who have expressed passive suicidal ideation (Fonseca-Pedrero et al., 2018). Moreover, suicidal ideation in this age group is associated with drug use, the presence of depressive symptoms, peer conflict, and lower emotional well-being and life satisfaction (Bousoño et al., 2017; Fonseca-Pedrero et al., 2018).

Traditionally, efforts to understand the phenomenon of suicide have focused on studying single risk factors (e.g., escape or psychological pain) or specific domains of suicidal risk (e.g., cognitive factors). This approach has provided simplified explanations of suicide, ignoring the complex interaction of the environmental, biological, social, and psychological factors that shape this type of behavior (Klonsky et al., 2018; O'Connor & Nock, 2014). This traditional approach, together with the methodological difficulties (low rate of suicidal behaviors and reduced samples in intervention studies; O'Connor & Portzky, 2018), has probably limited the ability to predict suicides, as demonstrated by 50 years of research without any improvement in predictions (Franklin et al., 2017).

Suicidal ideation can be defined as the thought or desire to be dead or to end one's life (Posner et al., 2007). Suicidal ideation precedes suicidal behaviors and is more common than suicide attempts and suicide deaths (Jobes & Joiner, 2019; Nock et al., 2008). Moreover, it is the third-strongest predictor of future death by suicide (Franklin et al., 2017). Therefore, it seems reasonable that intervening in suicidal ideation through the mutable variables involved in its development (e.g., feelings of hopelessness) could be an effective strategy for the prevention of suicide and other suicidal behaviors. However, despite the

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relevance of suicidal ideation as a predictor of suicidal behavior and/or a suicidal risk factor, most people with suicidal ideation are never involved in suicidal behavior (Have et al., 2009; Nock et al., 2008; Stritzke & Page, 2020). Even in the absence of any suicidal behaviors, suicidal ideation is a source of distress and anguish for the person who suffers from it (Jobes & Joiner, 2019). Thus, focusing on the variables involved in suicidal ideation could also represent a useful strategy to alleviate the distress associated with suicidal ideation as a clinical goal per se (Kleiman, 2020).

The development of new theories of suicide formulated within the *ideation-to-action framework* (O'Connor & Portzky, 2018) has facilitated substantial progress in understanding and addressing suicidal thoughts and behaviors. This theoretical framework advocates the idea that suicidal ideation is necessary but not sufficient to threaten one's life. The variables involved in the development of suicidal ideation must differ from those that are essentially involved in the transition from ideation to suicidal behaviors (Klonsky et al., 2018). The theories that have emerged within this theoretical framework (i.e., *the interpersonal theory of suicide*—*IPTS*, Joiner, 2005; *the integrated motivational–volitional*—*IMV*—*model*, O'Connor, 2011; and *the three-step theory*—*3ST*, Klonsky & May, 2015) share a philosophy and key principles. They distinguish between the development of suicidal ideation and progression to suicidal behaviors but differ in the variables that are involved in each of the processes and the way in which they are articulated.

The *IPTS* (Joiner, 2005) was the first theory within the ideation-to-action framework. Regarding the development of suicidal ideation, the *IPTS* hypothesizes that suicidal ideation is influenced by two factors: thwarted belongingness (i.e., the experience of feeling disconnected from friends, family, or other valued social circles) and perceived burdensomeness (i.e., the feeling of being a burden to oneself or one's friends, family, and/or society). In the last 10 years of research on the *IPTS*, empirical evidence has suggested that perceived burdensomeness is more strongly related to suicidal ideation than thwarted belongingness (Chu et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2016). Although both factors influence the desire to die, the transition from passive (i.e., the desire not to be alive) to active (i.e., the desire to take one's own life) suicidal ideation occurs when perceived burdensomeness and thwarted belongingness occur simultaneously and they are perceived as stable and unchanging (i.e., hopelessness with respect to these states; Ma et al., 2016; Van Orden et al., 2010). In short, research has found empirical support for the main theoretical assumptions of the *IPTS* in clinical and community populations (for a systematic review and meta-analysis of the *IPTS*, see Chu et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2016).

1 Following the appearance of the IPTS, one of the most prominent theories about suicide, the
2 IMV model (O'Connor, 2011), emerged; it conceptualizes the phenomenon of suicide in a three-phase
3 model (i.e., pre-motivational, motivational, and volitional phases). The pre-motivational phase is
4 composed of background factors (e.g., environmental factors, triggering events, or personality) that can
5 affect all the other variables in the other phases of the model. The motivational phase describes the
6 variables associated with the development of suicidal ideation. Finally, the volitional phase collects the
7 variables involved in the transition from ideation to suicidal behaviors. Suicidal ideation arises, according
8 to the IMV model, from two variables that occur sequentially: defeat (i.e., the perception of failed
9 struggle and helplessness as a result of a loss or significant alteration of social status, identity, or goals)
10 and entrapment (i.e., when the motivation to escape from the adverse circumstance is blocked and no
11 escape or rescue is perceived).

12 According to the IMV model, entrapment is not an inevitable consequence of defeat, but rather
13 the transition from defeat to entrapment and from entrapment to suicidal ideation is moderated by a set of
14 variables (i.e., self-threatening and motivational moderators, respectively) that increase or decrease the
15 probability of moving from one state to another within the motivational phase (i.e., defeat–entrapment
16 and entrapment–suicidal ideation). Like the IPTS, studies have obtained empirical evidence for the main
17 assumptions of the IMV model (e.g., Dhingra et al., 2016; Wetherall et al., 2018). The study by Dhingra
18 et al. (2016) tested the structure of the IMV model (and its main suspects) through SEM, using a sample
19 of college students ($N = 1809$) aged 18–66 years ($M_{age} = 24.05$; $SD_{age} = 8.09$). The model obtained a good
20 fit and explained 61% of the variance of suicidal ideation and 27% of the variance of suicide attempts.
21 Similarly, the study by Wetherall et al. (2016) showed that negative social comparison mediated the
22 relationship between socially prescribed perfectionism (a pre-motivational variable) and defeat in a
23 sample of adults ($N = 422$; $M_{age} = 22.87$; $SD_{age} = 5.2$). Furthermore, empirical evidence was found for the
24 relationship between negative social comparison and suicidal ideation through defeat and entrapment, the
25 mediating effect of entrapment between defeat and suicidal ideation (the main assumption of the model),
26 and the effect of resilience as a moderating (buffering) variable in the relationship between entrapment
27 and suicidal ideation.

28 Finally, the most recent ideation-to-action framework theory is the 3ST (Klonsky & May, 2015).
29 This theory is structured in three steps. The first and second steps describe the development of suicidal
30 ideation. According to the 3ST, pain is the key element involved in the development of suicidal ideation.
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1 This theory does not specify the nature of pain, although it usually refers to psychache or psychological
2 pain (i.e., intense introspective pain linked to negative emotions such as guilt, anguish, fear, panic,
3 loneliness, and/or helplessness as a result of the frustration of a set of psychological needs; Shneidman,
4 1993) as the most frequent type of pain in the development of suicidal ideation (Klonsky et al., 2016).
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6 The 3ST postulates that pain alone is not capable of causing suicidal ideation (if people in pain are
7 hopeful that they will get better, they will not consider ending their life). The same applies if there is
8 hopelessness but no pain. Thus, in the first step of the 3ST, the combination of pain and hopelessness is
9 the main precursor of suicidal ideation, which can be active or passive depending on the connection (i.e.,
10 feeling connected to other people, projects, and life interests), present in the second step of the 3ST. The
11 connection is introduced as a protective factor for people experiencing pain and hopelessness. If people
12 are suffering from passive suicidal ideation because of their pain and hopelessness but perceive their
13 connection to family, friends, projects, or other interests to be satisfying, passive suicidal ideation will not
14 progress to active suicidal ideation (Klonsky et al., 2016). Finally, like the IPTS and the IMV, both steps
15 of the 3ST have been successfully replicated (e.g., Dhingra et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2018). The study by
16 Dhingra et al. (2019) supported the core propositions of the 3ST related to the development of suicidal
17 ideation (the first two steps of the model) in a sample of college students ($N = 665$; $M_{age} = 24.2$; $SD_{age} =$
18 8.11). The interaction between pain and hopelessness was significant and consistent across the different
19 demographic subgroups and explained 56% of the variance in suicidal desire. Similarly, empirical
20 evidence was found for the buffering effect of connectedness (when it exceeds pain) on suicidal desire,
21 similar results to those found by Yang et al. (2018) in a sample of Chinese undergraduates ($N = 1097$;
22 $M_{age} = 19.77$; $SD_{age} = 1.67$).

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24 It is necessary to move beyond the traditional epidemiological studies to attend to the complex
25 relationships of the variables involved in the development of suicidal ideation (De Beurs et al., 2017).
26 Traditionally, the methodological approach has focused on multiple regression models. These methods
27 have been useful when dealing with a relatively high number of inter-related variables for which
28 researchers want to determine their conditional associations with a set of criterion variables (e.g.,
29 personality disorders). Nevertheless, nowadays, more up-to-date statistical approaches exist, such as
30 Gaussian graphical models (GGMs; Costantini et al., 2015; Epskamp et al., 2018), that could 1) overcome
31 some of the inherent drawbacks associated with the use of multiple regression in this context and 2) offer
32 additional information regarding the connections between the variables (e.g., the relationships between
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predictors, visualization of all the relationships in only one graph, internal structure studies, insights into predictive mediations, etc.).

The application of the GGM to the study of the relationships between psychological variables has enabled major advances to be made within the framework of the *psychological networks* applied to the study of different fields, such as psychological disorders (e.g., Fried et al., 2016), attitudes (e.g., Sayans- Jiménez et al., 2018), personality aspects (e.g., Costantini et al., 2015), and suicide (e.g., De Beurs et al., 2017, 2019). Specifically, this study aims to incorporate the advantages of the GGM to visualize and quantify the association between the key elements of the three theories of suicide associated with the occurrence of suicidal ideation (perceived burdensomeness and thwarted belongingness—IPTS; defeat and entrapment—IMV; and psychological pain and hopelessness—3ST) and their relationship (direct or indirect) with suicidal desire, after partialing out all the other variables. Within the exploratory focus of this study, we expect that this analysis will provide information about which theory has greater influence on the network and which variables could be more relevant and will contrast the associations found and their potential explanation with the literature.

Method

Participants

The sample consisted of 644 residents of Spain recruited from the general population ($M_{\text{age}} = 25.91$, $SD_{\text{age}} = 5.14$; range: 18–35 years old; 51.2% female) who participated in an online survey. The sampling method was to use age quotas (33% were 18–23; 33% were 24–29; and 33% were 29–35 years old), gender (50%), and education (30% were university students), in accordance with the composition of the Spanish young adult population. The rest of the sociodemographic and clinical characteristics can be seen in Table 1.

Instrument

An online questionnaire was administered consisting of sociodemographic variables and the following scales.

The Interpersonal Needs Questionnaire (INQ; Van Orden et al., 2012). This is a self-administered questionnaire composed of two scales, one for perceived burdensomeness, containing six items (e.g., “lately I think people close to me would be better off if I disappeared”), and another for

1 thwarted belongingness, with four items (e.g., “lately I feel close to other people”). The answer choices
2 are given using a seven-point Likert-type scale from one (*not at all true for me*) to seven (*very true for*
3 *me*). The higher the score on each scale, the higher the respondents’ perception that their interpersonal
4 needs are not satisfied. In this study, we used the Spanish version of the INQ (Ordóñez-Carrasco et al.,
5 2018). The scores of this version have shown good internal consistency in a sample of fibromyalgia
6 patients ($\alpha = .92$ for perceived burdensomeness; $\alpha = .80$ for thwarted belongingness).
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11 *The Defeat Scale* (DS; Gilbert & Allan, 1998). This is a self-administered scale consists of 16
12 items (e.g., “I feel that I have lost my standing in the world”). The answer choices are given on a five-
13 point Likert-type scale from zero (*never*) to four (*always*). The higher the score on the DS, the greater the
14 perception of defeat. The score of the Spanish version of the DS (Ordóñez-Carrasco et al., 2021) has
15 shown good internal consistency ($\alpha = .94$) in young adults.
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22 *The Entrapment Scale* (ES; Gilbert & Allan, 1998). This is a self-administered scale composed
23 of 16 items (e.g., “I often have the feeling that I would just like to run away”), with answers provided on a
24 five-point scale from zero (*not at all like me*) to 4 (*extremely like me*). The higher the score on the ES, the
25 greater perception of being trapped. The Spanish version of the ES (Ordóñez-Carrasco et al., 2021) has
26 been shown to have good internal consistency ($\alpha = .94$) in young adults.
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32 *The Psychache Scale* (PS; Holden et al., 2001). This is a self-administered scale containing 13
33 items (e.g., “my psychological pain seems worse than any other physical pain”). The answer choices are
34 made using a five-point Likert-type scale. For items 1 to 9, the response options range from one (*never*) to
35 five (*always*), and for items 10 to 13, the response options range from one (*strongly disagree*) to five
36 (*strongly agree*). The higher the score, the more intense and frequent (the more unbearable) the
37 perception of psychological pain. In a sample of young adults, the estimate of the reliability of the scores
38 of the Spanish version of the PS was .96, obtained through Cronbach’s alpha (Ordóñez-Carrasco et al.,
39 2019).
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48 *The Beck Hopelessness Scale* (BHS; Beck et al., 1974). This is composed of 20 dichotomous
49 response items (0 = *false*, 1 = *true*). An example of an item on this scale is: “My future seems dark to
50 me.” The higher the score, the greater the sense of hopelessness. The scores of the Spanish version of the
51 Beck Hopelessness Scale (Aguilar et al., 1995) showed a Cronbach’s alpha of .82 in a sample of first-
52 episode psychotic patients.
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Suicidal Desire. Item 9 of the Spanish adaptation (Sanz & García-Vera, 2013) of the Beck Depression Inventory II (Beck et al., 1996) was used as an indicator. This item was dichotomized (0 = no suicidal desire; 1 = suicidal desire). This item has frequently been used in the literature and has an outstanding reputation based on its concurrent validity with the Beck Scale for Suicidal Ideation (Beck et al., 1997).

Procedure

The recruiters were psychology students and collaborators of our research team. The collaborators recruited participants from their contacts and social networks. They also briefly explained the conditions of the study and provided the participants with a link to the online questionnaire, respecting the pre-established quotas. An open-source web survey platform, LimeSurvey (<http://www.limesurvey.org/>), was used to conduct the online questionnaire. Neither the recruiters nor the participants received any economic incentive for their participation. All the participants were informed of the purpose of the research, the voluntary character of their participation, the mechanisms that would guarantee their anonymity, and the data protection law. All the participants gave their consent online. The study was approved by the Bioethics Committee in Human Research of the authors' university.

Results

All the analyses were performed using R version 3.5.3, in R-Studio 1.2.1335, with the following R-packages: *bootnet* version 1.2 (Epskamp et al., 2018), *mgm* version 1.2.5 (Haslbeck & Waldorp, 2016), and *psych* version 1.8.12 (Revelle, 2018).

The descriptive statistics and reliability estimations are presented in Table 2. In general, the means of all the variables are low, which is to be expected since it is not a clinical sample. Besides, the estimation of the reliability of the scores for each scale is good.

The partial correlation network was estimated using the R-package *mgm* and the Extended Bayesian Information Criterion (EBIC, Chen & Chen, 2008) to choose the tuning parameter. To prevent biasing edge estimates toward zero due to shrinkage, the edges were refitted without LASSO regularization (Epskamp & Fried, 2018). The comparisons of the zero-order correlations and the partial correlations (Table 3) are key information to determine which relationships between variables could take place through a third variable (e.g., suicidal desire with hopelessness, thwarted belongingness, or entrapment; psychological pain with hopelessness; thwarted belongingness with perceived

burdensomeness or entrapment). The moderate partial (exclusive) correlations between some pairs of the network could indicate a high degree of co-occurrence of these variables (see the relationships of psychological pain with entrapment—.42—or defeat with entrapment—.36).

Regarding the predictability of each variable, the percentage of explained variance (effect size) of each continuous variable in the network (Haslbeck & Fried, 2017) was computed. For the categorical variable, suicidal desire, we computed the normalized accuracy that indicates, from zero to one, the extent to which this variable can be predicted by the rest of the nodes in the network (Haslbeck & Waldorp, 2020). The predictability of each node in Table 2 (pies surrounding each node in Figure 1) allowed us to determine that thwarted belongingness is the most separated variable ($R^2 = .07$), almost disconnected from the network. The high percentages of explained variance of the rest of the continuous variables (53–81%) indicate that they conform to a highly interconnected dimensional space with a considerable capacity to predict the suicidal desire scores ($R^2 = .32$) of young adults. One way or another, these results indicate that all the variables but thwarted belongingness present a high degree of dependence that makes it inadvisable to treat them independently either when researching suicidal ideation or when treating or preventing it.

The strength centrality index (the sum of the absolute weight of all the edges of each node) was estimated for all the variables. The strength centrality index provides specific information regarding the impact of each node on the rest of the network. Defeat is the most central variable (its standardized strength index was 1.56), and it has the strongest influence in the network. Its variations are expected to be reciprocated by variations in the rest of the variables in the network. The next most central variables are psychological pain (0.52) and entrapment (0.51). The resulting network is displayed in Figure 1.

Despite the results highlighting the importance of all the employed variables but one to the prediction of suicidal desire (thwarted belongingness), suicidal desire is only connected (related) directly to perceived burdensomeness (.35), psychological pain (.25), and defeat (.16). Additionally, defeat is indirectly connected to suicidal desire through its influence on perceived burdensomeness (.23) and psychological pain (.31). On a second level, it can be appreciated that entrapment is indirectly connected to suicidal desire across the three previously mentioned variables (entrapment–defeat, .36; entrapment–perceived burdensomeness, .23; and entrapment–psychological pain, .42). Finally, in the group of highly connected variables, hopelessness is connected to suicidal desire via its influence on defeat (.35).

Altogether, these results suggest that perceived burdensomeness, psychological pain, defeat, entrapment,

1 and hopelessness are imbricated and mutually dependent variables with a strong influence on the final
2 expression of suicidal ideation.

3 **Discussion**

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6 This study has explored the relationship between the factors that are essentially involved in the
7 development of suicidal ideation of the three most prominent theories of suicide (i.e., the IPTS, the IMV
8 model, and the 3ST) and their relationship (direct and indirect) with suicidal desire. The network analysis
9 indicated that all the variables, except thwarted belongingness, formed a network model with strong
10 connections, which suggests that the development of suicidal ideation could be understood as a set of
11 variables that could act in a joint and potentially interactive manner. These results emphasize the need to
12 evaluate these variables not only because of their impact on suicidal desire but also because of their
13 strong interrelationship, a fact that has repercussions both for the investigation of suicidal ideation and for
14 the treatment or prevention of suicidal ideation.
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18 Concerning the IPTS variables, De Beurs et al. (2019) applied empirical networks to evaluate the
19 relationship between the core elements of the IPTS and the IMV model and their relationship with
20 suicidal ideation. In this study, perceived burdensomeness and entrapment were the variables with the
21 strongest direct associations with suicidal ideation. Our results coincide in positioning perceived
22 burdensomeness, along with psychological pain and defeat, as the variable with the largest direct
23 relationship with suicidal desire. In line with our findings, the systematic review by Ma et al. (2016)
24 found that the relationship between perceived burdensomeness and suicidal ideation was statistically
25 significant in 82.6% of the studies reviewed with different samples (e.g., general population, clinical,
26 students, etc.). Similarly, in a meta-analysis by Chu et al. (2017), examining IPTS research over the past
27 ten years, perceived burdensomeness was the variable that was most strongly related to suicidal ideation
28 compared with thwarted belongingness. In our study, thwarted belongingness appears disconnected from
29 suicidal ideation and most network variables. This finding is consistent with other studies evaluating the
30 relationship between thwarted belongingness and suicidal ideation. Of the total number of studies
31 reviewed by Ma et al. (2016), 60% of them found no statistically significant association between the two
32 variables. In the cases in which thwarted belongingness was statistically significant, it seemed to
33 contribute slightly to the percentage of explained variance in suicidal ideation (6%). Similarly, the effect
34 size of thwarted belongingness was moderate compared with the effect size of perceived burdensomeness
35 (a large median effect size).
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Regarding the IMV variables, defeat is the most central variable in the network, followed by psychological pain and entrapment. Thus, it is expected that, besides its impact on suicidal ideation, variations in the perception of defeat will co-occur with variations in the rest of the variables related to suicidal ideation (Fried et al., 2017). This finding is consistent with the main assumptions of the IMV model, which hypothesizes that the key factors involved in the development of suicidal ideation are defeat and entrapment (O'Connor & Kirtley, 2018). However, according to the IMV model, defeat precedes entrapment and entrapment is the most proximate variable to suicidal ideation. In our study, as in the study by Tucker et al. (2016), entrapment did not have a direct relationship with suicidal desire (although defeat did), which could be explained by the simultaneous measurement of the two variables. As explained by O'Connor and Kirtley (2018), the temporal context seems indispensable for evaluating the transition from defeat to entrapment, so defeat is expected to precede entrapment temporarily, and entrapment is the variable closest to suicidal ideation. Due to the cross-sectional design of this study, this sequence may not have been captured.

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Similarly, the potential interdependence of the two variables (Forkmann et al., 2018; Taylor et al., 2009) and the absence of some motivational moderators could have distorted our results. In our case, entrapment had an indirect relationship with suicidal desire through the perceived burdensomeness and psychological pain. In the literature, the relationship between entrapment and perceived burdensomeness is positive, moderately strong, and statistically significant (e.g., Cramer et al., 2019). Similarly, according to the IMV model, the relationship between entrapment and suicidal ideation is contingent on a set of motivational moderators, which include perceived burdensomeness. Forkmann and Teismann (2017) found no empirical evidence for the moderating role of perceived burdensomeness. However, this assumption of the IMV model was supported in two subsequent studies with favorable results (Li et al., 2020; Ordóñez-Carrasco et al., 2020a). Bloch-Elkouby et al. (2020), examining the concomitance of factors involved in the suicide crisis syndrome (i.e., an intense affective state, indicative of an acute risk of imminent suicide) through empirical networks, found a strong connection between entrapment and psychological pain. The authors suggested that psychological pain can capture the characteristic emotional intensity of the deep and urgent feeling of escaping or avoiding a life situation that is perceived as unbearable, or impossible to overcome. Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate whether psychological pain is also a motivational moderator in the IMV.

1 A strong association was also found between defeat according to the theoretical assumption of
 2 the IMV model (O'Connor & Kirtley, 2018) as well as the empirical tests of the model's assumptions
 3 (e.g., Dhingra et al., 2016). Furthermore, in our network, defeat was directly related to suicidal desire, in
 4 line with other findings, such as those of Siddaway et al. (2015). In addition, as well as entrapment, defeat
 5 was related to perceived burdensomeness and psychological pain. Dhingra et al. (2016) had already found
 6 a strong correlation between defeat and perceived burdensomeness. Similarly, in the study by De Beurs et
 7 al. (2019), defeat was directly associated with suicidal ideation with a weak intensity similar to that of our
 8 network, and, as in our results, defeat was closely associated with entrapment and perceived
 9 burdensomeness.

10 As far as the 3ST variables are concerned, hopelessness showed a strong association with defeat,
 11 but it was not connected to other variables, as observed with the rest of the nodes in the network (with the
 12 exception of thwarted belongingness). The relationship between the two variables is similar to that found
 13 by Tarsafi et al. (2015). One possible explanation is that, according to Li et al. (2020), the loss of
 14 motivation subscale of the Beck Hopelessness Scale (Beck et al., 1974) shows a strong association with
 15 the Scale of Defeat since, consistent with *the diathesis–stress model* and *the cry of pain theory of suicide*
 16 (Schotte & Clum, 1987; Williams, 1997), they have the same foundations (i.e., failed social struggle or
 17 social comparison) as well as similar content in some items.

18 Psychological pain showed a strong and direct relationship with suicidal desire in line with the
 19 systematic review by Verrocchio et al. (2016), highlighting the important relationship of psychological
 20 pain with suicidal risk and, more specifically, with suicidal ideation. Similarly, in a longitudinal design,
 21 changes in psychological pain have been significantly associated with changes in suicidal ideation after
 22 controlling for depression and hopelessness (Troister et al., 2013).

23 Suicidal ideation is the result of a complex convergence of factors of different natures influenced
 24 by time, so it seems unwise to think that some of the theories available to date can fully explain the
 25 repertoire of suicidal ideation and behavior (Gunn & Lester, 2015). However, as in the study by De Beurs
 26 et al. (2019), we found that at least one variable from each theory is directly associated with suicidal
 27 desire (i.e., perceived burdensomeness, defeat, and psychological pain) and, although all of the variables
 28 included in the network are psychological, the predictability of suicidal desire was remarkable. The
 29 analysis and understanding of the suicide spectrum, including suicidal ideation, must consider the
 30 dynamic interaction between the biological, the sociological, and the psychological factors involved as
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1 well as the particular biographies and circumstances of the individual who manifests it (Fonseca-Pedrero
2 & Pérez-de Albéniz, 2020). However, as stated by O'Connor and Nock (2014), suicide seems to be the
3 cause of death that is most directly influenced by psychological factors. Without losing sight of the fact
4 that the psychological context, with its entity, is subordinate to the biological and the sociocultural
5 context, it seems reasonable that psychological theories of suicide are the ideal theoretical context for
6 understanding the suicide phenomenon, from the identification of the modifiable variables to be treated to
7 the mechanisms by which the factors involved are concatenated.
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14 Without obviating the exploratory purpose of the study, we believe that the integrated
15 motivational–volitional model of suicidal behavior (IMV; O'Connor, 2011) may be a good theoretical
16 background to advance the research, consistent with our findings and the network analysis approach. The
17 reasons for this assertion are several: 1) a considerable number of studies have provided empirical
18 evidence for the IMV model (e.g., Branley-Bell et al., 2019; Dhingra et al., 2016; Li et al., 2020; Lucht et
19 al., 2020); 2) the model is intended to combine previous empirical evidence and proposes a (moderating)
20 role for variables from other theories (e.g., perceived burdensomeness and thwarted belongingness); in
21 addition, although there are variables in this study that are not assigned a role in the IMV model, for
22 example psychological pain, there is already empirical evidence to support the role of psychological pain
23 as a motivational moderator in the context of the IMV model (Ordóñez-Carrasco et al., 2020b); 3) its
24 most relevant variables (i.e., defeat and entrapment) have been shown to be central to our network, so
25 they are considered to be particularly relevant to network activation, propagation, and maintenance; and
26 4) the IMV model could be considered a “meta-framework” in that it draws on four theoretical
27 perspectives (i.e., the diathesis–stress model, Schotte & Clum, 1982, 1987; the theory of planned
28 behavior, Ajzen, 1991; the cry of pain, Williams, 1997; and the differential activation hypothesis,
29 Teasdale & Dent, 1987; Williams et al., 2005).
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47 Conceptualizing suicidal ideation as a network not only provides a new way of understanding
48 suicidal ideation and analyzing the relationship between the variables involved in its development but
49 also has implications for approaching it clinically. This study proposes that focusing on the variables
50 involved in the development of suicidal ideation could have a positive impact on its prevention and
51 intervention. Furthermore, we estimate that better identification, treatment, and prevention of suicidal
52 ideation through these variables could motivate a reduction in attempts and suicides (e.g., Zuromski et al.,
53 2019) since, as the ideation-to-action framework shows, suicidal ideation is the first (and probably
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necessary, Jobes & Joiner, 2019) step toward suicidal behavior (Klonsky et al., 2018). According to Borsboom (2017), there are three ways to intervene (or foci of intervention) in a network, one of suicidal ideation in our case: a) intervening in specific nodes, emphasizing the most central nodes in the network (e.g., defeat); b) intervening in causes external to the network (e.g., external events or predisposing factors) that trigger the activation of nodes (e.g., incarceration, physical illness, self-esteem, or family conflicts in the case of perceived burdensomeness; Van Orden et al., 2010); and c) intervening in the network itself through psychological therapy (e.g., cognitive–behavioral) that provides the individual with coping or management skills to limit the association between nodes (symptom–symptom).

This study is not without limitations. The network analysis carried out was cross-sectional and did not allow research on the dynamic interactions and directionality between the variables. However, the purpose of this work was to explore the concomitance between the variables as a starting point for new research to analyze these relationships. In addition, probably because the sample was from the general population, the variables included in the network analysis showed relatively narrow dispersion. Due to the dimensional operationalization of the variables, future studies should combine clinical and community samples as well as multigroup approaches to provide additional evidence regarding the weaker connections between the variables. Likewise, it is necessary to highlight as a limitation the absence of variables that, either because of the moderating role that they play in the analyzed variables (e.g., the ruminative process) or because of their direct relationship with suicidal desire (e.g., past suicidal ideation), could increase the percentage of explained variance. Nevertheless, in the present study, the percentage of explained variance of suicidal desire is not negligible, and therefore it seems that the variables included in the network are essential to explain the development of suicidal ideation in young adults. Finally, it is necessary to expand the knowledge about the conceptual or measurement overlap of all the variables included in this study (especially defeat–entrapment and defeat–hopelessness) through classical techniques such as factor analysis or through a network analysis that includes the items of all the measures as nodes to determine how they are clustered.

Declarations

Ethic approval

1 This study was performed in accordance with the ethical standards as laid down in the 1964 Declaration
2 of Helsinki and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. The study was approved by the
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4 Bioethics Committee in Human Research of the University of Almería (Ref: UALBIO2018/018)
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6 **Consent to participate**

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9 Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.
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11 **Data**

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14 The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the
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16 corresponding author on reasonable request.
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Figure Captions**Fig. 1** Estimated network

Note. The final representation of the network is displayed using a modified version of the Fruchterman–Reingold algorithm (Fruchterman & Reingold, 1991) for weighted networks (Epskamp et al., 2012), which allows connected nodes to be plotted next to one another. Continuous edges represent positive correlations while dashed edges represent negative ones. The percentage of shared variance is shown by the grey pie surrounding each node, whereas the normalized accuracy (suicidal desire) is symbolized with a black pie.

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Table 1*Socio-demographic and clinical characteristics of participants*

		<i>N</i> (%)
Sex	Woman	330 (51.8%)
	Man	305 (47.9%)
	Other	2 (0.3%)
Completed education level	No studies	21 (3.3%)
	Primary education	19 (3.0%)
	Secondary education	374 (58.7%)
	Higher education	223 (35.0%)
Marital status	Single	366 (57.5%)
	Married/Domestic partner/Stable partner	249 (39.2%)
	Divorced	20 (3.1%)
	Widowed	1 (0.2%)
Work activity	Employee	301 (47.2%)
	Student	274 (43.1%)
	Unemployed	46 (7.2%)
	Homemaker	15 (2.4%)
Religion	Catholic	258 (41.0%)
	Atheist	174 (27.6%)
	Indifferent	102 (16.2%)
	Agnostic	74 (11.7%)
	Muslim	11 (1.7%)
	Protestant	11 (1.7%)
Mental and behavioural disorders (ICD-10 code)	Anxiety Disorder (F41.9)	10 (1.5%)
	Major Depressive Disorder (F32.9)	5 (0.8%)
	Mixed Anxiety-Depressive Disorder (F41.2)	3 (0.5%)
	Borderline Personality Disorder (F60.3)	3 (0.5%)
	Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (F90.0)	2 (0.3%)
	Obsessive-Compulsive and Related Disorder (F42.9)	2 (0.3%)
	Feeding and Eating Disorder (F50.9)	1 (0.2%)
	Substance-Related and Addictive Disorder (F19.9)	1 (0.2%)

Table 2

Variable descriptive statistics, reliability estimations, explained variance, and strength centrality

Variables	n	mean	sd	min	max	sk	k	α	R²	Str
Suicidal Desire	644	0.22	0.42	0.00	1.00	1.32	-0.25	-	.32 ¹	-0.37
Perceived Burdensomeness	644	10.93	7.39	6.00	41.00	1.83	2.72	.95	.65	0.07
Thwarted Belongingness	644	12.60	5.84	4.00	28.00	0.60	-0.24	.83	.07	-1.52
Defeat	644	17.44	12.52	0.00	63.00	1.20	1.28	.94	.81	1.56
Entrapment	644	11.83	13.67	0.00	64.00	1.52	1.86	.96	.81	0.51
Psychache	644	23.89	12.02	13.00	61.00	1.19	0.59	.96	.74	0.52
Hopelessness	644	4.43	3.95	0.00	20.00	1.51	2.00	.85	.53	-0.78

*Note.*sk: skeweness; k: kurtosis; Str: strength centrality index

¹ normalized accuracy

Table 3

Zero order correlations (above the diagonal) and partial correlations (below the diagonal)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Suicidal Desire	-	.62	.45	.61	.16	.64	.60
2. Psychache	.25	-	.58	.70	.12	.81	.83
3. Hopelessness	0	0	-	.60	.21	.72	.66
4. Perceived Burdensomeness	.35	.05	.09	-	.18	.76	.76
5. Thwarted Belongingness	0	-.11	.05	0	-	.23	.20
6. Defeat	.16	.31	.35	.23	.14	-	.86
7. Entrapment	0	.42	.12	.23	0	.36	-

