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# Comparative efficacy and acceptability of psychotherapeutic, pharmacological, and combination treatments for non-suicidal self-injury in children and adolescents: a systematic review and network meta-analysis



#### **Abstract**

**Background** Non-suicidal self-injury (NSSI) is a common and serious injury behavior in children and adolescents, however, its treatment remains controversial. Here, using network meta-analysis (NMA), we compared and ranked all available therapeutic treatment interventions to explore the best treatment strategy for NSSI in children and adolescents.

**Methods** We searched PubMed, Embase, the Cochrane Library and PsycINFO for randomized controlled trials used to reduce the frequency of NSSI in children and adolescents from database inception until Jan. 11, 2025. Primary outcomes were efficacy and acceptability. We estimated summary odds ratios (ORs) with credible intervals (Cls) in random effects models.

**Results** We included 28 trials comprising 6496 participants. Dialectical behavior therapy (DBT) was better than other interventions. In subgroup analysis, pharmacotherapy and psychotherapy significantly aggravated the frequency of NSSI in depression (OR = 1.53; 95% CI: 1.10 to 2.14); however, these interventions significantly reduced NSSI in patients with self-harm (OR = 0.53; 95% CI: 0.30 to 0.96). We also found that NSSI was significantly increased in the first 3 months when using SSRIs in treatment but was significantly reduced after 3 months.

**Conclusion** Psychotherapy seems to be a better choice than pharmacotherapy, especially DBT. DBT was associated with a better reduction in the frequency of NSSI than treatment as usual, with high confidence of evidence. NSSI is frequently used to combat depression symptoms, suggesting that clinicians should pay greater attention to depression symptoms to reduce NSSI, especially in the first 3 months of treatment with SSRIs.

Keywords Non-suicidal self-injury, Psychotherapy, Pharmacotherapy, Efficacy, Acceptability, Network meta-analysis

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## Introduction

Non-suicidal self-injury (NSSI) behavior is a serious problem that often begins in adolescence, and its prevalence is highest during this stage of life. Rates of NSSI are notably elevated among younger people, including adolescents (17-27%) [64, 85, 100] and young adults (13-18%) [53, 85], especially among psychiatric inpatients (12-80%) [47, 54, 66]. An estimated 70% of adolescent psychiatric inpatients engage in NSSI [82]. It is noteworthy that NSSI is associated with the co-occurrence [4, 59, 67] and prediction [6, 97] of suicidal thoughts and behaviors. Among people with a history of NSSI, 55-85% report suicidal behaviors [25, 31]. Higher frequencies of NSSI are associated with an increased risk of suicide attempts [38], and suicide attempts could be developed via NSSI [36]. Despite the clinical seriousness and prevalence of NSSI among adolescents in medical and mental health settings, there are few studies on the efficacy of NSSI treatment and there are no standardized methods to deal with NSSI in adolescents [70].

Presently, various psychotherapies and pharmacotherapies have been proposed to treat NSSI, which are based on treatments for other psychiatric disorders [89]. Many studies show that dialectical behavioral therapy (DBT) [55], the best-known evidence-based psychotherapy, can lead to greater reductions in the frequency of NSSI and number of NSSI instances [62, 71, 77]. Previous metaanalyses have also confirmed that adolescents exhibit fewer NSSI following a course of DBT [19]. Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT is another proven therapy to treat depression, however, some research shows that CBT does not reduce NSSI in the treatment of adolescent depression [13, 35, 97] and even increases the risk of engaging in NSSI [13]. Because of the increasing interest in psychotherapy for NSSI [13, 45, 69, 89], treatments have recently been developed focusing on NSSI in children and the adolescent population. For instance, treatment for self-injurious behaviors [1-3], emotional regulation individual therapy for adolescents [10-12], cutting down program [26, 32, 50, 88], and developmental group psychotherapy (DGP) [37, 99] have shown positive effects on reducing NSSI. Among pharmacotherapies, whether selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) can reduce the frequency of NSSI remains controversial. Uncontrolled trials have shown the benefits of fluoxetine in reducing the frequency of NSSI, but replication in controlled trials to support these findings is lacking [89, 89]. In contrast, other studies have found that SSRIs tend to increase the frequency of NSSI, although the results are statistically non-significant [27, 81].

According to past studies, whether psychotherapy or pharmacotherapy can actually reduce NSSI has not

been proven by sufficient evidence for the following reasons. First, the terminology of NSSI lacks clarity due to different theoretical and clinical environments, with a wide range of related terms (e.g., deliberate self-injury, intentional injury) [18, 34, 40, 52, 80] [18, 34, 40], and some studies even involve a broader category of behaviors, including both suicidal self-injury (SSI) and NSSI [49]. Second, NSSI is often comorbid with other psychiatric disorders, such as borderline personality disorder (BPD) or depression; therefore, few current treatments have assessed the effectiveness of treatment specially designed to reduce NSSI; most treatments are based on treatments to address other psychiatric disorders. Third, previous meta-analyses [19, 27, 69, 70, 98] have typically provided separate coverage for pharmacotherapies and psychotherapies, and most studies have been based on small samples, with a small number of studies and nonrandomized designs [19, 70], which limits the choice of treatment and the precision in estimating individual study effect sizes. Thus, although NSSI is a common phenomenon among adolescents, clinicians be unsure whether there are effective and acceptable treatment options for adolescents affected by NSSI or those who are at high risk of NSSI.

Network meta-analysis (NMA) is a sophisticated method that enables the simultaneous comparison of multiple treatments by integrating both direct and indirect evidence sources within a single analytical framework. This approach allows for the pooling of samples across numerous small randomized controlled trials (RCTs), thereby enhancing the statistical power to detect differences in outcomes. NMAs may offer advantages over standard meta-analyses in certain scenarios, as the indirect comparisons within the network can help to mitigate study-specific biases that may not be apparent in head-to-head RCTs. Furthermore, a NMA can incorporate a broader range of data into the analysis, enabling researchers to address the bigger picture, whereas a traditional meta-analysis often provides a more fragmented view.

To ensure our findings pertain specifically and uniquely to NSSI, in the present study, the definition of NSSI used refers to intentional and socially unacceptable behavior, aiming to cause destruction or impairment of bodily tissues but with only slight or moderate physical injury, and with no conscious suicidal intention. Meanwhile, utilizing NMA, our objective was to provide comprehensive and hierarchical evidence regarding the efficacy and acceptability of pharmacotherapy, psychotherapy, and proposed combined therapies in reducing the frequency of NSSI among children and adolescents with comorbid psychiatric disorders.

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#### Methods

The detailed methods followed in this systematic review and NMA are described in the study protocol registered a priori at PROSPERO (CRD42024510039). In reporting the results, we followed the PRISMA extension statement for NMA.

# Search strategy and selection criteria

We searched PubMed, Embase, the Cochrane Library and PsycINFO for eligible RCTs published from database inception to Jan. 11, 2025. We only extracted data from phase 1 in open-label or crossover studies to avoid biases caused by differences in treatment regimens received by patients across different phases. We defined NSSI as any self-injury, including self-poisoning and self-cutting without suicidal intent. To maximize comprehensiveness, studies considered eligible for inclusion were those that reported information on the frequency of NSSI for children and adolescents treated with any active intervention, with any control condition or another active intervention in RCTs, whether studies of treatment directly targeting NSSI or treatment based on treatments for other psychiatric disorders. PICO (population, intervention, comparison, and outcome) was used to assess article eligibility.

# **Population**

Studies were included if they reported the frequency of NSSI among children and adolescents ( $\leq$ 25 years old). We excluded studies with no control group, those with fewer than 10 participants per group, and a diagnosis of autism-spectrum or other neurodevelopmental disorders. Data were requested from the corresponding authors or searched for in other reviews and meta-analyses when the data could not be retrieved from the original publications. The language was restricted to English.

#### Intervention

Pharmacotherapies including SSRIs (escitalopram, fluoxetine, paroxetine, and sertraline), serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (duloxetine, atomoxetine, venlafaxine, and desvenlafaxine), and other drugs (guanfacine extended-release), as well as any manualized or structured psychotherapies including cognitive analytic therapy (CAT), CBT, DBT, DGP, emotion regulation training (ERT), family therapy, iconic therapy, mentalization-based treatment, and supportive therapy, regardless of the delivery format (e.g., individual or group) or treatment medium (e.g., face-to-face or online). We included combined pharmacotherapies and psychotherapies. In addition to the above interventions, we also included some brief interventions (hospital admission tokens and brief app-based interventions). To facilitate our analyses, we merged some interventions. For example, variants of an established modality were collapsed into the main classification (e.g., family-focused CBT was collapsed into CBT, DBT for adolescents was collapsed into DBT, therapeutic assessment was collapsed into CAT, and family enhanced non-directive supportive therapy was collapsed into supportive therapy).

#### Comparison

The control conditions were placebo, treatment as usual (TAU), and no treatment. We merged enhanced usual care and good clinical care into TAU. All comparisons were based on elimination of the common therapy framework. We merged the types that did not receive any intervention after eliminating the common therapy framework and as assessment as usual [68], which also did not receive any treatment into no treatment.

#### **Outcomes**

Primary outcomes were efficacy (frequency of NSSI after treatment) and acceptability (all-cause discontinuation measured as the proportion of patients who discontinued treatment up to the post-intervention time point). For studies that reported outcomes at more than one point in time, maximum follow-up outcome data were extracted.

#### **Data extraction**

One author (X.C.) independently extracted key information from the included studies using a data collection form to record information against the outcome measures. Data were confirmed by consultation with the other review authors.

The following data were collected from each study: study characteristics (first author of study, country of study, sample size), participant characteristics (gender, age, the main diagnosis of disease and diagnostic criteria), experimental and control group characteristics (type of intervention, treatment duration and measurement), and outcomes (the frequency of NSSI after treatment, all-cause discontinuation measured by the proportion of patients who discontinued treatment up to the post-intervention time point).

#### Data analysis

We conducted NMA and pairwise meta-analysis in Stata version 17.0 [43] using the random-effects model with summary odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for dichotomous outcomes. Considering the very small number of NSSI events, some studies have even reported no NSSI events with some treatments, which would have a large impact on our results. We processed these results, adding one to results with zero NSSI events, and adding one after doubling the total events [86]. We conducted frequentist random effects meta-analyses

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for all direct treatment comparisons, allowing for heterogeneity in treatment effects between studies. The proportion of the total variance within each pairwise comparison that is owing to between-study heterogeneity was estimated using the  $I^2$  statistic [42]. We also report the heterogeneity variance  $Tau^2$  for each pairwise comparison as a measure of heterogeneity that is independent of sample size. We performed sensitivity analyses to assess the relative impact of each individual study on the pooled effect size.

#### Risk of bias and confidence in evidence assessment

Two researchers (X.C. and X.W) independently selected the studies, reviewed the main reports and supplementary materials, extracted the relevant information from the included trials, and assessed the risk of bias in included studies, according to the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions. Disagreements among the researchers in specific studies were resolved in discussion, with the participation of a third investigator where necessary. The level of risk of bias in each of these domains was presented separately for each study in tables in the final publication. We assessed the confidence of evidence contributing to each network estimate using Confidence In Network Meta-Analysis (CINeMA) software [76].

# **Network meta-analysis**

NMA is a new methodological approach that allows for the simultaneous comparison of multiple interventions within a single analysis while preserving randomization. This approach was applied to integrate direct evidence (from studies directly comparing interventions) with indirect evidence (information about two treatments derived via a common comparator) to estimate the comparative efficacy and acceptability of all treatments, resolving the limitations of previous studies. In contrast to pairwise meta-analysis, NMAs produced strong evidence against the null hypothesis more often and earlier. To visualize network geometry and node connectivity, we produced network plots for each outcome [14]. NMAs were fit within a frequentist framework using a multivariate random effects (restricted maximum likelihood estimation) meta-analysis model [43, 96] that accounts for the correlations between effect sizes in trials with more than two groups. We assumed network consistency and a common heterogeneity parameter across all treatment contrasts. For all treatment comparisons, we calculated summary ORs and 95% CIs that account for uncertainty in variance estimates [46] in league tables.

To obtain treatment hierarchies, we used a parametric bootstrap procedure with 10,000 resamples to estimate the ranking probabilities of being at each possible

rank for each intervention. The treatment hierarchy was summarized and reported as surface under the cumulative ranking curve. We also present summary treatment effects with 95% CIs and 95% prediction intervals [14] for all placebo comparisons in forest plots. NMAs were conducted using the network [57] package in Stata (version 17.0). To assess transitivity, we compared age and sex, which could act as effect modifiers across treatment comparisons. We used comparison-adjusted funnel plots [14] and the Egger's regression test to assess publication bias. Assuming equivalence of direct and indirect evidence (e.g., consistency) in NMA might lead to inaccurate conclusions when there is evidence for statistically significant inconsistency [96]. Incoherence between direct and indirect sources of evidence was statistically assessed globally by comparison of the fit and parsimony of consistency and inconsistency models, and locally by calculation of the difference between direct and indirect estimates in all closed loops in the network [43]. The node splitting method, which separates evidence on a particular comparison into direct and indirect evidence, was used to calculate inconsistency of the model.

#### Subgroup analysis and meta-regression analysis

To determine whether the results were affected by study characteristics, we performed subgroup analysis for primary outcomes according to the following variables: psychiatric disorder, intervention, treatment duration and measurement. We chose active treatments (pharmacotherapy and psychotherapies) with control conditions (no treatment, placebo, TAU) for subgroup analysis. Because there is only one published study on combination intervention, we did not do subgroup analysis. Given that NSSI frequently co-occurs with other psychiatric disorders, we performed a subgroup analysis examining the comorbid psychiatric disorders in NSSI patients. This analysis aims to elucidate the incidence and associated patterns of NSSI within the spectrum of other psychiatric comorbidities. With psychiatric disorders, if patients were transdiagnostic, we analyzed them according to the main diagnosis. In patients with multiple primary diagnoses, we analyzed them in every main diagnosis group. We merged suicide- and self-harm-related behaviors as self-harm. Because rumination is closely associated with depression and anxiety and can increase the risk of depression and anxiety, we analyzed rumination in both depression and anxiety groups. The types of pharmacotherapy analyzed were classified as SSRIs, serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs), anti-attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) medication; the types of psychotherapy analyzed were brief intervention, CBT, CAT, ERT, DBT, DGP, family therapy, and mentalization-based treatment. Considering that Chen et al. BMC Psychiatry (2025) 25:328 Page 5 of 17

suicide- and self-harm-related behaviors mostly occurred in the first 3 months of SSRIs treatment [24], we took 3 months as the cutoff for further analysis. We also analyzed measurement of NSSI. We classified studies that used less strict assessment instruments (clinical interview or self-report) to measure NSSI studies as "without a rating scale" and others were classified as "rating scale".

We also did meta-regression for primary outcomes according to sex (females/total), mean age, and treatment duration (Appendix 10).

#### Results

We identified 2044 citations, retrieved the full text of 203 potentially eligible articles, and included 28 RCTs with 6496 patients (Appendix 2). These trials comprised six pharmacotherapies, 10 psychotherapies, two combination interventions, and three control interventions. The mean study sample size was 203 participants and ranged from 40 to 488. The age range was from 6 to 25 years. In most studies (89.3%), females made up more than 50% of the total patients. Half of studies used less-strict assessment instruments (clinical interview or self-report) to measure NSSI. In studies on measuring NSSI with rating scales, 64.3% used the Columbia–Suicide Severity Rating Scale (C-SSRS). Further descriptive information about the included studies is given in Table 1.

#### Network meta-analysis

Concerning efficacy, in the comparisons between active treatment and control conditions, both DBT and iconic therapy were significantly superior to no treatment and TAU (ORs ranged from 0.03 to 0.19; Figs. 1A, 2, 3A). SSRIs+CBT and CBT were worse than placebo (ORs 4.32 and 5.18, respectively; Figs. 1A, 2, 3A). In comparisons between two active treatments, iconic therapy was better than most psychotherapies and one combination intervention (Figs. 1A, 2). CAT and CBT were worse than DBT (ORs 4.94 and 8.46, respectively; Figs. 1A, 2). Desvenlafaxine was significantly superior to CBT and SSRIs+CBT (ORs 0.13 and 0.15, respectively; Figs. 1A, 2).

Concerning acceptability, in comparisons between two control conditions, no treatment had fewer all-cause NSSI discontinuations than placebo (OR = 0.29; 95% CI: 0.15 to 0.58; Figs. 1B, 2, 3B). In the comparisons between active treatment and control conditions, all pharmacotherapies, ERT and all combination interventions (SSRIs+CBT and VEN+CBT) were associated with significantly more NSSI discontinuations than no treatment (ORs range from 2.47 to 20.03), and DGP was associated with significantly fewer discontinuations than no treatment (OR = 0.48; 95% CI: 0.31 to 0.74; Figs. 1B, 2, 3B). Brief intervention, CAT,

CBT, and DGP were associated with significantly fewer NSSI discontinuations than placebo (ORs range from 0.14 to 0.29) whereas ERT was associated with significantly more discontinuations than placebo (OR = 5.83; 95% CI: 1.11 to 30.69; Figs. 1B, 2, 3B). CAT was associated with significantly fewer NSSI discontinuations than TAU (OR = 0.40; 95% CI: 0.18 to 0.89), and ERT was associated with more discontinuations than TAU (OR = 13.98; 95% CI: 2.11 to 92.84; Figs. 1B, 2, 3B). In comparisons between two active treatments, CAT, CBT, and DGP were associated with the fewest NSSI discontinuations (Figs. 1B, 2). By contrast, the most active treatments had fewer all-cause discontinuations than ERT (ORs ranged from 0.02 to 0.19; Figs. 1B, 2, and Appendix 6).

We did not found any significant incoherence for efficacy and the acceptability in the test of global incoherence, tests of local incoherence and the test of the node-splitting model (Appendix 8). The assessment of transitivity showed most comparisons had a mean age and sex ratio (Appendix 7). Comparison-adjusted funnel plots of the NMA and Egger's regression tests were not suggestive of publication bias for efficacy and acceptability outcome (Appendix 9). The finding that the primary outcomes were robust was substantiated by the fact that there was no alteration in the statistical significance when a sensitivity analysis was conducted by sequentially removing each study individually (Appendix 10).

# Subgroup analysis and meta-regression analysis

Concerning efficacy, subgroup analysis showed that with psychiatric disorders, pharmacotherapy and psychotherapy tended to aggravate the frequency of NSSI in patients with depression and ADHD, especially depression (OR=1.53; 95% CI: 1.10 to 2.14; Fig. 4). However, in patients with anxiety, self-harm, and BPD, those interventions tended to reduce NSSI, especially in those with self-harm (OR=0.53; 95% CI: 0.30 to 0.96; Fig. 4). For pharmacotherapy, anti-ADHD medication and SSRIs tended to increase the frequency of NSSI. In further analyses, we found that NSSI was significantly increased in the first 3 months when using SSRIs for treatment (OR = 1.97; 95% CI: 1.01 to 3.81) and significantly reduced after 3 months (OR = 0.09; 95% CI: 0.02 to 0.47; Fig. 4). In meta-regression analysis, we found that the frequency of NSSI was significantly related with the duration of treatment when using SSRIs for therapy (P=0.037; Fig. 4). Psychotherapy tended to reduce NSSI, in general, especially DBT (OR = 0.08; 95% CI: 0.03 to 0.25) and mentalization-based treatment (OR = 0.26; 95% CI: 0.09 to 0.78); CBT seemed to have the opposite tendency (Fig. 4). We found no significant differences regarding whether to use

**Table 1** Randomized controlled trials included in the systematic review and network meta-analysis. All comparisons are based on elimination of the common therapy framework, the groups did not receive any intervention. References for included studies are provided in the Appendix 3

USA         486         Transclagmostic         DSM-W-TR         56.47%         13.03(2.84)         7~17         DLL         SSR8         —           USA         337         MDD         DSM-W-TR         52.23%         13.16(3.14)         7~17         DLL         SSR8         —           USA         334         Transclagnostic         DSM-W         69.76%         15.90(1.53)         12~18         CBT         —         VEN           Australia         98         BPD         DSM-W         75.64%         16.4(0.9)         15~18         CAT         TMD         CBT           UK         105         Suicide antempts         NA         84.76%         14.9         12-16         SSR8         —         AAU           UK         105         Suicide cepression         DSM-W         75.64%         16.4(0.9)         15-18         CAT         TMD         AAU           UK         105         Suicide cepression         DSM-W         58.82%         14.9         12-16         SSR8         PR-cepo         CBT           USA         105         Suicide cepression         DSM-W         58.97%         14.6(1.55)         12-18         CBT         AAU           USA         MDD </th <th>References (author,year)</th> <th>Country</th> <th>Sample size</th> <th>Clinical group (main diagnosis)</th> <th>Diagnostic criteria</th> <th>Female (%)</th> <th>Years, mean(SD)</th> <th>Age range</th> <th>Test group</th> <th>Control group</th> <th>Common therapy Framework</th> <th>Measurement</th> <th><b>Treatment</b> duration</th>	References (author,year)	Country	Sample size	Clinical group (main diagnosis)	Diagnostic criteria	Female (%)	Years, mean(SD)	Age range	Test group	Control group	Common therapy Framework	Measurement	<b>Treatment</b> duration
USA         337         MDD         DSMA4VR FRANCISCO         52.23% 5.876         13.16(3.14) 5.876         7 – 17 5.876         DUL 5.876         SSR18 5.876         —           USA         13.24         Transclagnostic MMDD)         DSM-1V         69.76%         15.90(1.55)         12 – 18         GR1 5.878         SSR18 5.878         VEN 5.878         SSR18 5.878         VEN 5.878         SSR18 5.878         CBT 5.878         VEN 5.878         SSR18 5.878         CBT 5.878         VEN 5.878         SSR18 5.878         CBT 5.878         VEN 5.878         SSR18 5.878         CBT 5.878         CBT 5.878         CBT 5.878         CBT 5.878         CAT 5.878         TAU 5.878         CBT 5.878         CBT 5.878         CBT 5.878         CAT 5.878         AMU 5.878         CBT 5.878         CAT 5.878         AMU 5.878         CAT 5.878         AMU 5.878         CBT 5.878         CAT 5.878         AMU 5.878         CBT 5.878         CAT 5.878         AMU 5.878         CBT 5.878         CAT 5.878         AMU 5.878         CBT 5.878	Atkinson et al., (2018) [7]	USA	486	Transdiagnostic (MDD)	DSM-IV-TR	56.47%	13.03(2.84)	7~17	DEV	Placebo		C-SSRS	× 8
USA         334         Transdiagnostic (MDD)         DSM-IV         6976%         15.90(155)         12-18         GRT OFF OFF OFF OFF OFF OFF OFF OFF OFF OF	Atkinson et al., (2014)ª [8]	USA	337	MDD	DSM-IV-TR	52.23%	13.16(3.14)	7~17	DUL DUL SSRIs	SSRIs Placebo Placebo		C-SSRS	10w
L, UK         105         Suicide attempts         NA         8476%         16.4 (0.9)         15~18         CAT         TAU         —         AAU           4 ustralia         153         Suicide attempts         NAD         58.82%         19.6(2.7)         15~25         SSRS         Placebo         CBT           USA         129         Transdiagnostic         BDJH         81.20%         14.87(1.68)         12~18         FT         STR         AAU           USA         312         MDD         DSM-HV         58.97%         14.6(1.55)         12~17         SSRIs         Placebo         CBT           USA         463         MDD         DSM-HV-TR         51.19%         12.98(2.98)         7~17         SSRIs         Placebo         —           USA         147         Transdiagnostic         R-SADS-PL         74.04%         NA         112~18         CBT         TAU         SSRIs           UK         366         Self-harm         NA         88.52%         NA         12~17         CBT         TAU         TAU           Spain         162         Deliberate self-         NA         88.52%         NA         12~17         CBR         TA         TAU	Brent et al., (2009) [13]	USA	334	Transdiagnostic (MDD)	DSM-IV	69.76%	15.90(1.55)	12 ~ 18	CBT VEN VEN + CBT VEN + CBT CBT	SSRIs SSRIs+CBT SSRIs SSRIs	VEN	Self-report	12w
L, UK         105         Suicide attempts         NA         84.76%         14.9         12.2~16.7         BI         —         AAU           USA         153         MDD         DSM-IV         58.82%         19.6(2.7)         15~25         SSRIs         Placebo         CBT           USA         129         Transdiagnostic         BDHII         81.20%         14.87(1.68)         12~17         SSRIs         Placebo         CBT           USA         MDD         DSM-IVTR         51.19%         12.98(2.98)         7~17         DUL         Placebo         —           USA         463         MDD         DSM-IVTR         51.19%         12.98(2.98)         7~17         DUL         Placebo         —           USA         463         MDD         DSM-IVTR         51.19%         12.98(2.98)         7~17         DUL         Placebo         —           USA         145         14.9(1.51)         12~18         CBT         TAU         SRIs           UK         208         Transdiagnostic         K-SADS-PL         74.04%         NA         17~17         CBT         TAU         TAU           Spain         162         Deliberate self-         NA         89.51%	Chanen et al., (2008) <sup>c</sup> [15]	Australia	86	BPD	DSM-IV	75.64%	16.4 (0.9)	15~18	CAT	TAU	I	Clinical inter- view	24 mo
Australia         153         MDD         DSM-IV         58.82%         19.6(2.7)         15~25         SSRIs         Placebo         CBT           USA         129         Transdiagnostic         BDLIV         81.20%         14.87(1.68)         12~18         FT         STRIS         —           USA         463         MDD         DSM-IV-TR         51.19%         12.98(2.98)         7~17         DUL         Placebo         —           USA         463         MDD         DSM-IV-TR         51.19%         12.98(2.98)         7~17         DUL         Placebo         —           USA         147         Transdiagnostic         DSM-IV-TR         76.19%         14.9(1.51)         12~18         CBT         TAU         —           UK         208         Transdiagnostic         K-SADS-PL         74.04%         NA         11~17         CBT         TAU         TAU           UK         366         Self-harm         NA         88.52%         NA         12~17         DCP         TAU         TAU           Spain         337         Transdiagnostic         ATX         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6~17         GKR         TA         TAU	Cotgrove et al., (1995) <sup>c</sup> [20]	¥	105	Suicide attempts	Υ Υ	84.76%	14.9	12.2~16.7	BI	I	AAU	Clinical records	12mo
USA         129         Transdiagnostic (suicide, depression)         BD-III         81.20%         14.87(1.68)         12~18         FT         ST         —           USA         312         MDD         DSM-IV-TR         58.97%         14.6(1.55)         12~17         SSRIs         Placebo         —           USA         463         MDD         DSM-IV-TR         51.19%         12.98(2.98)         7~17         DUL         Placebo         —           USA         147         Transdiagnostic         DSM-IV-TR         76.19%         14.9(1.51)         12~18         CBT         TAU         —           UK         208         Transdiagnostic         K-SADS-PL         74.04%         NA         11~17         CBT         TAU         TAU           UK         366         Self-harm         NA         88.52%         NA         12~17         CBT         TAU         TAU           Spain         162         Deliberate self-         NA         89.51%         14.50(1.16)         10~16         FT         TAU           Spain         337         Transdiagnostic         ADHD-RS-IV         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6~17         GXR         ATX         Placebo         — <td>Davey et al., 2019) [22]</td> <td>Australia</td> <td>153</td> <td>MDD</td> <td>DSM-IV</td> <td>58.82%</td> <td>19.6(2.7)</td> <td>15~25</td> <td>SSRIs</td> <td>Placebo</td> <td>CBT</td> <td>C-SSRS</td> <td>12 w</td>	Davey et al., 2019) [22]	Australia	153	MDD	DSM-IV	58.82%	19.6(2.7)	15~25	SSRIs	Placebo	CBT	C-SSRS	12 w
USA         463         MDD         DSM-IV-TR         51.19%         14.6(1.55)         1217         SSRIs         Placebo         —           USA         146         Transdiagnostic         DSM-IV-TR         51.19%         12.98(2.98)         7~17         DUL         Placebo         —           1, USA         147         Transdiagnostic         DSM-IV-TR         76.19%         14.9(1.51)         12~18         CBT         TAU         Placebo         —           1, US         208         Transdiagnostic         K-SADS-PL         74.04%         NA         11~17         CBT         TAU         SSRIs           UK         366         Self-harm         NA         88.52%         NA         12~17         DGP         —         TAU           UK         162         Deliberate self-         NA         89.51%         14.50(1.16)         10~16         FT         —         TAU           Spain         337         Transdiagnostic         ADHD-RS-IV         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6~17         GXR         ATX         —         TAU	Diamond et al., (2019) <sup>b</sup> [23]	USA	129	Transdiagnostic (suicide,depression)	BDI-II and SIQ-JR	81.20%	14.87(1.68)	12~18	H	ST	I	C-SSRS	16 w
USA         463         MDD         DSM-IV-TR         51.19%         12.98(2.98)         7~17         DUL DUL SSRIs         SSRIs Placebo Placebo BRSCO Placebo <td>Emslie et al., 2009) [28]</td> <td>USA</td> <td>312</td> <td>MDD</td> <td>DSM-IV</td> <td>58.97%</td> <td>14.6(1.55)</td> <td>12~17</td> <td>SSRIs</td> <td>Placebo</td> <td></td> <td>Clinical records and self-report</td> <td>≥ ∞</td>	Emslie et al., 2009) [28]	USA	312	MDD	DSM-IV	58.97%	14.6(1.55)	12~17	SSRIs	Placebo		Clinical records and self-report	≥ ∞
USA         147         Transdiagnostic (MDD,suicidal crisis)         DSM-IV-TR         76.19%         14.9(1.51)         12~18         CBT         TAU         —           ", UK         208         Transdiagnostic (depression)         K-SADS-PL         74.04%         NA         11~17         CBT         —         SSRIs           UK         366         Self-harm         NA         88.52%         NA         12~17         DGP         —         TAU           UK         162         Deliberate self-parm         NA         89.51%         14.50(1.16)         10~16         FT         —         TAU           Spain         337         Transdiagnostic         ADHD-RS-IV         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6~17         GXR         ATX         —         TAU	:mslie et al., 2014)ª [29]	USA	463	MDD	DSM-IV-TR	51.19%	12.98(2.98)	7~17	DUL DUL SSRIs	SSRIs Placebo Placebo	111	C-SSRS	10w
, UK         208         Transdiagnostic (depression)         K-SADS-PL (depression)         74.04%         NA         11~17         CBT         —         SSRIs           UK         366         Self-harm         NA         88.52%         NA         12~17         DGP         —         TAU           UK         162         Deliberate self-parm         NA         89.51%         14.50(1.16)         10~16         FT         —         TAU           Spain         337         Transdiagnostic         ADHD-RS-IV         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6~17         GXR         ATX         —           ADHDD)         ADHD-RS-IV         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6~17         GXR         ATX         —	sposito smythers et al., 2019) [30]	USA	147	Transdiagnostic (MDD,suicidal crisis)	DSM-IV-TR	76.19%	14.9(1.51)	12~18	CBT	TAU	I	SITBI	12mo
UK         162         Deliberate self- poisoning,Self-harm         NA         88.52%         NA         12~17         DGP         —         TAU           UK         162         Deliberate self- poisoning,Self-harm         NA         89.51%         14.50(1.16)         10~16         FT         —         TAU           Spain         337         Transdiagnostic         ADHD-RS-IV         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6~17         GXR         ATX         —           ADHDD)         ADHD-RS-IV         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6~17         GXR         ATX         —	500dyer et al., 2007) [35]	¥	208	Transdiagnostic (depression)	K-SADS-PL	74.04%	NA median: 14	11~17	CBT		SSRIs	K-SADS-PL	28w
UK         162         Deliberate self- NA         NA         89.51%         14.50(1.16)         10~16         FT         —         TAU           Spain         337         Transdiagnostic         ADHD-RS-IV         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6~17         GXR         ATX         —           (ADHD)         (ADHD)         ATX         Placebo         —	5reen et al., 2011) <sup>c</sup> [37]	ž	366	Self-harm	Ϋ́ V	88.52%	ΥZ	12~17	DGP	I	TAU	Clinical interview	12mo
Spain         337         Transdiagnostic         ADHD-RS-IV         26.11%         10.80(2.79)         6 ~ 17         GXR         ATX         —           (ADHD)         (ADHD)         ATX         Placebo         —	Harrington et al., [1998] <sup>c</sup> [39]	Ϋ́	162	Deliberate self- poisoning,Self-harm	<b>∀</b> Z	89.51%	14.50(1.16)	10~16	Ħ		TAU	Clinical interview	<b>∀</b> Z
	Hervas et al., 2014) [41]	Spain	337	Transdiagnostic (ADHD)	ADHD-RS-IV	26.11%	10.80(2.79)	6~17	GXR GXR ATX	ATX Placebo Placebo		C-SSRS	12~15w

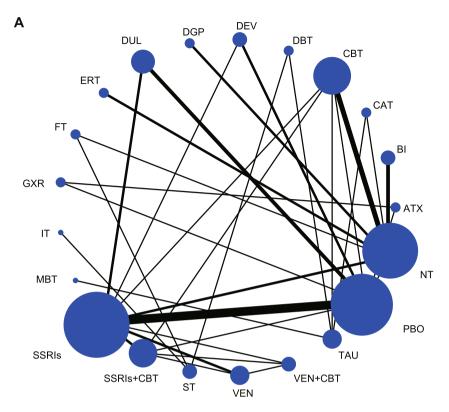
Table 1 (continued)

References (author,year)	Country	Sample size	Clinical group (main diagnosis)	Diagnostic criteria	Female (%)	Years, mean(SD)	Age range	Age range Test group	Control group	Common therapy Framework	Measurement	Treatment duration
Hurtado-Santi- ago et al., (2022) <sup>d</sup> [44]	Spain	40	Transdiagnostic (BPD,Suicide)	C-SSRS, CEPER-III- BPD	82.50%	20.53(4.32)	15~25	ST	E	TAU	₹ Z	10~12w
Kennard et al., (2018) [51]	USA	99	Suicide	∢ Z	89.40%	15.1(1.5)	12~18	BI	1	D	C-SSRS	24w
McCauley et al., (2018) [60]	USA	173	Transdiagnostic (suicide,BPD)	SIQ-JR, DSM-IV	94.22%	14.89(1.47)	15~25	DBT	ST	I	SASII	бто
Mehlum et al., (2014) <sup>c</sup> [62]	Norway	77	Transdiagnostic (Self-harm,BPD)	DSM-IV	88.31%	15.6(1.5)	12~18	DBT	TAU	I	Self-reported	19w
Melvin et al., (2019) [63]	Australia	59	Transdiagnostic (Anxiety)	DSM-IV-TR	45.76%	13.59 (1.08)	10~16.5	SSRIs Placebo SSRIs	— — Placebo	CBT CBT CBT	SEFCA	бто
Ougrin et al., (2013) <sup>c</sup> [68]	ž	107	Self-harm	<b>⋖</b> Z	%0008	15.55(1.36)	12~18	CAT	AAU		Clinical records	۷ ۷
Rossouw et al., (2012) <sup>c</sup> [75]	¥	80	Self-harm	Ý Z	85.00%	15.1(1.29)	12~17	MBT	TAU	I	Clinical inter- view and self- report	12mo
Schuppert et al., (2009) <sup>c</sup> [78]	Netherlands	8	Transdiagnostic (BPD)	DSM-IV	88.37%	16.14(1.23)	14~19	ERT	I	TAU	Clinical interview and self-report	17w
Schuppert et al., (2012) <sup>c</sup> [79]	Netherlands 109	109	Transdiagnostic (BPD)	DSM-IV	96.33%	15.98(1.22)	14~19	ERT	1	TAU	Clinical interview and self-report	17w
Strawn et al., (2015) <sup>a</sup> [84]	USA	272	Transdiagnostic (Anxiety)	DSM-IV-TR	53.31%	12.40(2.96)	7~17	DNL	Placebo	I	C-SSRS	10w
Walkup et al., (2008) [92]	USA	488	Transdiagnostic (Anxlety)	DSM-IV-TR	49.59%	10.65(2.83)	7~17	CBT SSRIs SSRIs +CBT SSRIs SSRIs CBT	— Placebo CBT Placebo Placebo	SSRIs CBT — —	Clinical interview	12w
Webb et al., (2022) <sup>b</sup> [93]	USA	152	Rumination	CRSQ	58.55%	13.71(0.90)	12~15	BI	AAU		Self-reported	3w
Weihs et al., (2018) [94]	USA	339	Transdiagnostic (MDD)	DSM-IV-TR	54.28%	12.73(2.99)	7~17	SSRIs SSRIs DEV	DEV Placebo Placebo		C-SSRS	8w
Wood et al., (2001) <sup>c</sup> [99]	Y)	63	Deliberate self-harm	N A	77.78%	14.25(1.67)	12~16	DGP	I	TAU	Clinical intre- view	бто

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# Table 1 (continued)

Self-Injury Interview, SEFCA Side-effects Form for Children and Adolescents, SIQ-JR Suicidal Ideation Questionnaire-Junior, STRB/Self-injurious thoughts and behavior interview, SSRIs Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, K-SADS-PL Kiddie Schedule for affective disorders and schizophrenia present and lifetime version, MBTMentalization-based treatment, MDDMajor depressive disorder, MTNo treatment, PBO Placebo, SASI/Suicide Attempt Only data from phase 1 in multiphase studies extracted. Data from trial registers with results were posted. Oata were provided in a high-quality published meta-analysis[69]. Investigators recruited participants aged analytic therapy, CBT Cognitive behavioral therapy, CEPER-III-BPD Exploratory Questionnaire of Personality-III-BPD, CRSQ Children's Response Styles Questionnaire, C-SSRS Columbia-Suicide Severity Rating Scale, DBT Dialectical behavior therapy, DEV Desvenlafaxine, DGP Developmental group psychotherapy, DUL Duloxetine, ERTEmotion regulation training, FT Family therapy, GXR Guanfacine extended-release, IT Iconic therapy, ADHD Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, ADHD-R5-IV ADHD Rating Scale version IV, ATX Atomoxetine, BDI-II Beck Depression Inventory-II, BI Brief intervention, BPD Borderline personality disorder, CATCognitive TAT Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors plus cognitive behavioral therapy, 57 Supportive Therapy, 7AU Treatment as usual, VEN Venlafaxine, VEN + CBT Venlafaxine plus cognitive behavioral therapy 15 to 25 years instead of 15 to 30 years, as initially planned Chen et al. BMC Psychiatry (2025) 25:328 Page 9 of 17



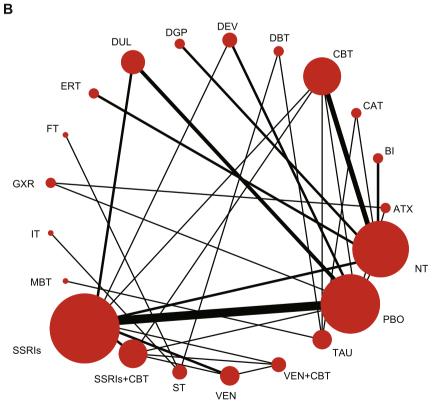
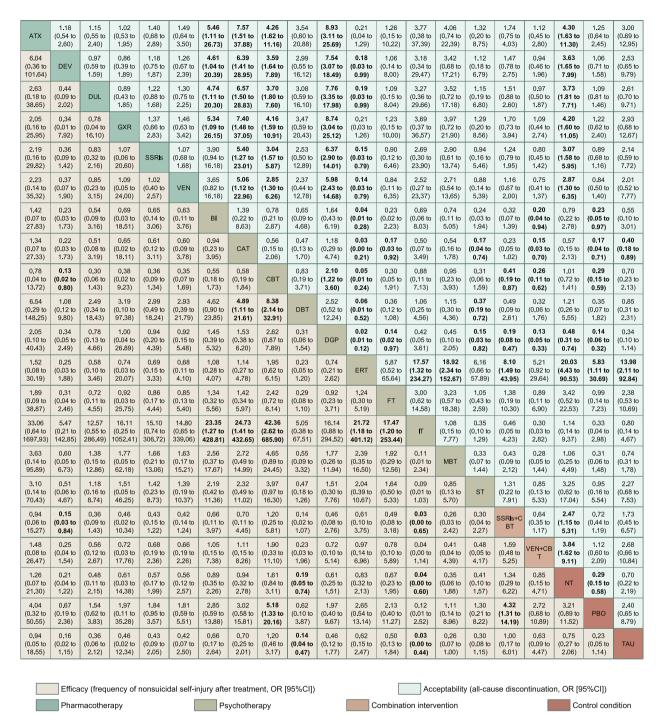


Fig. 1 Network of eligible comparisons. A Efficacy. B Acceptability. The width of the lines is proportional to the number of trials comparing every pair of treatments, and the size of each node is proportional to the number of randomly assigned participants

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**Fig. 2** Network meta-analysis of efficacy and acceptability. Interventions were divided into four groups (pharmacotherapy, psychotherapy, combination intervention, and control condition) and each group was reported in alphabetical order. Comparisons between treatments are read from left to right, and the estimate is in cells in common between the column-defining treatment and the row-defining treatment. For efficacy (light brown) and acceptability (cyan), an odds ratio (OR) less than 1 favors the row-defining treatment. To obtain ORs for comparisons in the opposing direction, reciprocals should be taken. Significant results are in bold

rating scales to measure NSSI; in using rating scales, the C-SSRS seemed to be more sensitive for measuring NSSI than other scales (Fig. 4).

Concerning acceptability, in psychiatric disorders, patients with self-harm were associated with significantly fewer NSSI discontinuations (OR = 0.57; 95% CI:

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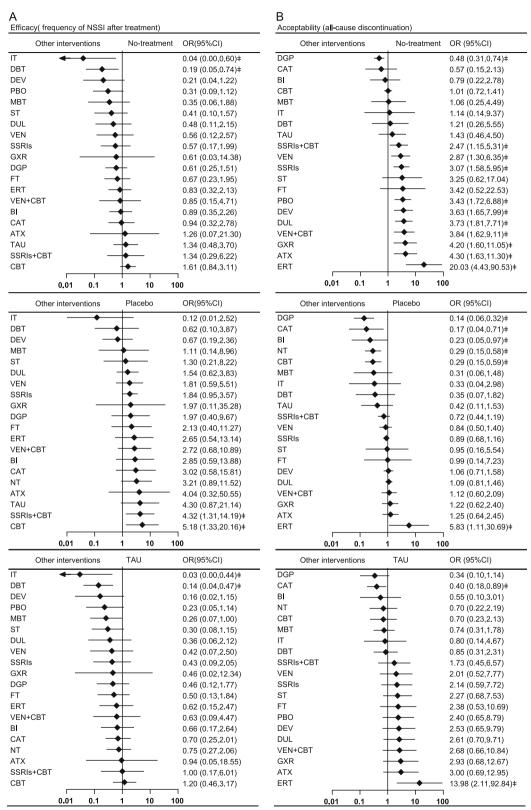
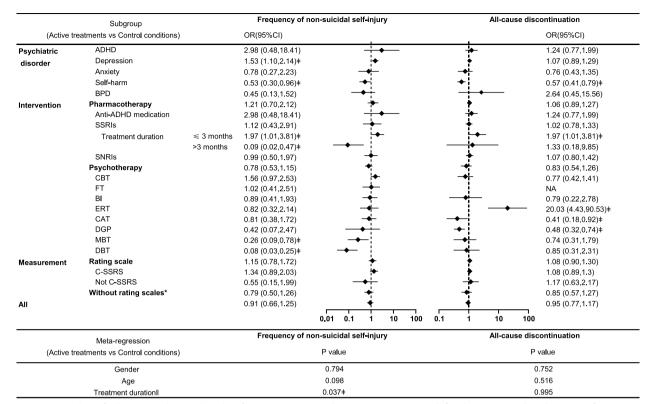


Fig. 3 Forest plots of network meta-analysis. A Efficacy. B Acceptability. Interventions were compared with placebo for efficacy and acceptability. Effect sizes represent summary odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals in network meta-analysis

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**Fig. 4** Forest plots of subgroup analysis and results of meta-regression analysis. ADHD = Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, BI = Brief intervention, BPD = Borderline personality disorder, CAT = Cognitive analytic therapy, CBT = Cognitive behavioral therapy, C-SSRS = Columbia – Suicide Severity Rating Scale, DBT = Dialectical behavior therapy, DGP = Developmental group psychotherapy, ERT = Emotion regulation training, FT = Family therapy, MBT = Mentalization-based treatment, SNRIs = Serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors, SSRIs = Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, \*Using less strict assessment instruments (clinical interview or self-report). ‡ Significant results. || Meta-regression analysis only conducted for comparisons of patients receiving selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor treatment

0.41 to 0.79; Fig. 4). There were significantly more discontinuations in the first 3 months when using SSRIs. CAT and DGP showed fewer NSSI discontinuations (ORs 0.41 and 0.48, respectively) whereas ERT showed significantly more discontinuations (OR=20.03; 95% CI: 4.43 to 90.53; Fig. 4). Meta-regression analysis showed that sex and mean age did not significantly affect the efficacy and acceptability of interventions (Fig. 4).

#### Risk of bias and confidence of evidence assessment

According to CINeMA, 1 (1.8%) of the 57 comparisons for efficacy outcomes was rated as having a high confidence of evidence, 4 (7.0%) as moderate, 34 (59.6%) as low, and 18 (31.6%) were rated as very low confidence of evidence (Appendixes 4, 12). For the acceptability outcomes, 14 (24.6%) were rated as high confidence of evidence, 5 (8.8%) as moderate, 33 (57.9%) as low, and 5 (8.8%) as very low (Appendixes 4, 12).

#### Discussion

This systematic review and NMA for NSSI in children and adolescents included data from 28 RCTs including 6496 patients who were randomized to 19 active interventions or three control conditions. To our knowledge, this is the first study to compare pharmacotherapies, psychotherapies, and their combination in children and adolescents with NSSI using an NMA, thereby providing comprehensive and hierarchical evidence to help clinicians choose treatments to reduce the frequency of NSSI in children and adolescents with comorbid psychiatric disorders.

Similar to previous studies [19, 71], we found that DBT leads to more efficacious reductions in the frequency of NSSI than other treatments, especially TAU, with high confidence of evidence. On the contrary, as the basis of DBT, CBT was less efficacious than other treatments and even showed a worse tendency in NSSI. One reason for this is the differences in treatment structure between CBT and DBT. DBT is a comprehensive CBT method

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[55], which was originally developed for chronically suicidal female patients who met the criteria for BPD [56]. Because the treatment developer did not find the standard CBT program to be successful to treat women with chronic suicidality, the treatment was amended to incorporate acceptance strategies grounded in Zen mindfulness to balance the change strategies emphasized in CBT treatment. Finally, DBT was developed based on the balance, flexibility, and synthesis of acceptance and change strategies in the delivery of treatment. We speculate that the role of Zen mindfulness to balance change strategies may be key to reducing suicidal behavior and NSSI. In addition, previous studies have shown that CBT should be considered a potential source of symptoms/adverse events [33] and CBT treatment for adolescents with both SI [5, 21, 73] and NSSI [5, 91] is associated with worse outcomes. The association of CBT with the onset of NSSI was probably due to increased contact and monitoring and contextual and behavioral functions of non-suicidal adverse events were not emphasized in this treatment model [13].

The United States has issued public health warnings regarding antidepressants, including SSRIs, which carry a risk of suicidal thoughts and behaviors in children and adolescents, based on the results of clinical trials [83]. One study describing suicidal tendencies in children and adolescents treated with SSRIs found that suicide-related behaviors and self-injury-related behaviors occurred primarily during the first three months of SSRI treatment [24]. Similar to previous results for SSI, we found that the frequency of NSSI was significantly increased in the first 3 months when using SSRIs for treatment and significantly reduced after 3 months. In addition, an observational study found that the number of NSSI events increased after SSRI initiation, although this finding was statistically non-significant [81]. However, owing to limited studies on the efficacy of SSRIs on NSSI, more highquality clinical evidence is needed.

Compared with other psychiatric disorders, we found that patients with depression had a greater frequency of NSSI in subgroup analysis. Several studies also suggested that depressive symptoms may play a critical role in the development and persistence of NSSI [17, 48, 58, 87, 90, 95]), which is consistent with our results. We speculate that one reason for this is that NSSI is carried out to regulate depression. The experiential avoidance model [16] indicates that an individual may resort to self-injury when experiencing depression, which is an efficient method of regulating and combating depressive feelings [65],Tang WC, 2022). Moreover, compared with other mental diseases, patients with depression use more SSRIs, which leads to greater NSSI frequency. In addition, subgroup analysis showed that patients who experienced self-harm

had less NSSI frequency. This may be because patients with self-harm were receiving treatments that are especially designed to target self-harm. However, there is no relevant evidence to support this, and further research is needed.

Previous meta-analyses about SSRIs and tricyclic antidepressant trials have shown that systematic assessment leads to higher rates of adverse events than less systematic assessment [72]. However, we did not find significant differences regarding whether to use rating scales to measure NSSI. Considering the influence of expectations, investigators likely expected substantial differences between the frequency of NSSI with active treatments and the control condition, which can substantially influence the outcome of experimental investigations [72, 74]. This expectation will be more significant in our results because it is difficult to double-blind investigators in psychotherapy studies. Regression analysis showed that sex and mean age did not significantly affect the efficacy and acceptability of interventions, but the treatment duration when using SSRIs for therapy significantly affected the efficacy and acceptability of interventions. Some studies indicated a potential correlation between NSSI or suicidal behavior in adolescents and sleep disturbances [9, 61]. However, further research is necessary to substantiate these findings.

Some interventions necessitate specialized training to be effectively implemented. However, future research should investigate strategies to incorporate low-intensity interventions or digital tools that require minimal clinician training. This would enhance accessibility for everyday practice. While certain interventions, such as "I Am Sober," have demonstrated potential in clinical settings, they have not yet been systematically evaluated within the NMA framework. Therefore, future research should rigorously examine their effectiveness through well-designed trials to expand the evidence base.

The study had several strengths. First, we included the age group  $\leq$  25 years, which has a high incidence of NSSI, and did not limit the country and region, which is likely to reasonably represent help-seeking young people with NSSI, making the results more broadly generalizable. Second, the definition of NSSI, the inclusion of intervention measures, the assessment of outcomes, and other aspects followed the PICO principle, and the selection of appropriate RCTs as data sources enhanced the accuracy and credibility of our results. Third, we compared and ranked efficacy and acceptability of psychotherapeutic, pharmacological, and combination treatments for NSSI in children and adolescents using NMA and conducted subgroup analysis of psychiatric disorders to provide evidence for clinicians to choose effective and safe treatments for patients with different psychiatric disorders.

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#### Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, according to CINeMA assessment, the quality of most comparisons was low; many studies did not report adequate information. Second, we did not use the same measurements when counting NSSI outcomes. Because of the difficulty of double-blinding in some studies, using unstructured approaches may be influenced by the expectations of investigators, which may influence the results. Third, the lack of baseline frequency of NSSI in most included studies is a limitation that may affect the interpretation of treatment efficacy. Future studies should prioritize reporting both baseline and posttreatment NSSI frequency to allow for a more accurate assessment of treatment effects. Finally, a small number of studies compared the same treatments, which may make the results unstable; we cannot ensure that treatment efficacy will be same in the real world, meaning that the results should be interpreted with caution.

# **Conclusion**

The findings of this NMA represent the most comprehensive analysis of the available evidence. As a mediator, depression seems to have a critical role in the development and persistence of NSSI. Moreover, NSSI is frequently used to combat depression symptoms, which may suggest that clinicians should give more attention to depression symptoms to reduce NSSI, especially in the first 3 months of SSRI treatment. The results of this review suggest that some psychotherapies have some efficacy for specific measures of NSSI, especially DBT. Based on the existing research, DBT may be considered the most effective option for reducing the frequency of NSSI. However, in recent years, given the increase in NSSI among adolescents, interventions are being specifically developed for NSSI management, and the study of interventions has been the focus of empirical research. Further verification in high-quality RCTs is still needed in the future.

#### Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1186/s12888-025-06735-1.

Supplementary Material 1

#### Acknowledgements

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# Clinical trial number

Not applicable. Our study is not a clinical trial, it is a system review and metaanalysis. We described in the study protocol registered a priori at PROSPERO (CRD42024510039).

#### Authors' contributions

X.C. wrote the protocol, managed the literature searches, analyzed data, and wrote the draft of the manuscript. Z.L. and C.Q. designed the study, wrote the protocol, and revised the manuscript. X.C. M.Y., and X.W. managed the literature searches and analyses. Data extraction was done by X.C and X.W; M.Y., and Y.Y. undertook the statistical analysis. J.Y. and X.C. also conducted the risk of bias assessment independently. L.G., Z.L., and C.Q. modified the manuscript. All authors contributed to and have approved the final manuscript.

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#### Data availability

The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

#### **Declarations**

#### Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable. All analyses were based on previous published studies, thus no ethical approval and patient consent are required.

#### Consent to participate

Not applicable.

#### Competing interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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