

**Lives on the Line of Duty: Preventing Suicide Amongst Police Officers and Staff**

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**Abstract**

Policing is a highly demanding profession, often exposing officers to unpredictable risk, danger, and relentless pressure that can impede mental resilience. Chronic stress, long shifts, organisational pressure of high performance and constant public scrutiny can leave police officers and staff feeling overwhelmed, taking a huge toll on their mental health and wellbeing. In such a high-pressured environment, coping mechanisms may fail, and feelings of isolation and helplessness can heighten and trigger risk of self-harm or suicide. This article explores the issues surrounding suicide among UK police officers and staff, seeking to understand not just its prevalence, but the effectiveness of the interventions and support system available to them. The research combines in-depth review of literature and existing academic research with data analysis into recently published figures, and insights from policing organisations and mental health charities. The article focuses on three core areas: trends in police suicide, occupational and organisational risk factors, and preventative measures that can make a real difference. The article highlights that suicide prevention in policing is not merely a policy issue, but a deeply human one, demanding compassion, awareness, and proactive action. The article recommends better national data collection system, the need for broader support networks and robust evaluation of interventions. Police organisations need to protect and value their most asset and champion the wellbeing of the officers and staff, while encouraging conversations about mental health, resilience, and preventable loss in high-pressured profession.

**Keywords:** *Police, suicide, mental health, self-harm, prevention, stress, risk, wellbeing*

**Contextual background:**

Self-harm and Suicide remain a major public health concern in the UK and worldwide, with thousands of lives lost each year, leaving deep social and economic

losses for families, workplaces, and communities (Office for National Statistics, 2023). In 2023 alone, 6,069 suicides were registered in England and Wales, with men accounting for 74% of these deaths, demonstrating a persistent pattern since the early 1980s (Office for National Statistics, 2024). Suicide is never the product of a single cause; rather, it emerges from the cumulative impact of personal vulnerabilities, environmental pressures, situational triggers, and access to lethal means (Turecki & Brent, 2016). Research also suggest that certain occupations face heightened risks, particularly where workers repeatedly encounter trauma or chronic stress, such as, elevated suicide rates in some emergency services roles (Milner et al., 2013; Andrew et al., 2019). Policing is one such occupation where officers and police staff deal routinely with violent incidents, sudden deaths, child protection cases and human suffering, contributing to an occupational environment shaped by public scrutiny, fast-paced decision-making, and relentless organisational demands (Di Nota et al., 2020; Brough, Brown, & Biggs, 2015). Over the past decade, the strain on members of staff intensified through rising demand, budget cuts and intense media attention (College of Policing, 2022). While these realities make policing a crucial high-risk sector for examining suicides among officers and staff, the task is complicated by an inconsistent and incomplete data recording system on national mortality as it does not reliably distinguish between serving officers and civilian staff (Office for National Statistics, 2023; 2024). Data gathered through Freedom of Information (FOI) requests to internal force records and union reports, often produce varying estimates (Police Federation of England and Wales, 2022). The available and accessible long terms data between 1981 and 2024 shows suicide rates fluctuating between 9 and 12 per 100,000 workers, masking underlying vulnerabilities within specific roles. The inconsistencies arise from issues embedded deep within the system as the data doesn't reflect the recent employment changes, coronial practices that may exclude ambiguous deaths and datasets that overlook police staff, volunteers, and agency workers. These data gathering practices may result in systematic undercounting and a fragmented picture of risk (Krishnan et al., 2022). For policing organisations, the lack of consistent data recording and monitoring undermines efforts to assess whether interventions work, identify long-term trends and patterns to target support and interventions where it is most urgently needed (College of Policing, 2022; Police Federation of England and Wales, 2022).

Police officers and staff encounter traumatic events with a regular basis, rarely seen in other professions, such as, serious violence, fatalities, cases involving children and vulnerable community. These exposures accumulate, increasing the risk of PTSD, depression, alcohol and substance misuse, all known contributors to suicidal behaviour (Di Nota et al., 2020; Papazoglou & Tuttle, 2018). Emotional and moral injury adds an additional layer, capturing the profound distress that arises when decisions or events collide with the professional code of practice, leaving officers with the feeling shame, guilt, or perceived failure (Papazoglou & Tuttle, 2018). Organisational culture also plays a critical role in it. Policing has long valorised stoicism, emotional toughness, and the ability to “cope,” values that can inadvertently deter help-seeking and bury distress beneath the mask of resilience (Brough et al., 2015). Structural pressures, disciplinary investigations, performance reviews, chronic understaffing, and long or unpredictable shifts can add further strain, with research suggesting that organisational stressors can be just as harmful as facing day-to-day operational trauma and, in some cases, the catalyst for acute crises (Andrew et al., 2019; Waters & Ussery, 2007). Shift work disrupts sleep and everyday routine, which are strongly associated with low mood and suicidal tendency (Rajaratnam et al., 2013). Finally, policing carries a distinctive social weight. Officers hold roles of public responsibility and are central to our community safety and trust. Hence, suicide of one officer resonates through teams, families and the wider community that creates long standing emotional, operational, and reputational impacts extending far beyond the individual tragedy. For these reasons, suicide prevention in policing is not just a matter of promoting occupational health and wellbeing but it is a question of moral compass, organisational culture, and public policy priority (Oscar Kilo, 2023; College of Policing, 2022). Therefore, the overarching aim of this article is to provide a deeper understanding of suicide among UK police officers and staff by analysing prevalence, occupational challenges and the effectiveness of current interventions and recommend preventative measures to bring positive changes to policy, practice, and future research.

## **Methodology**

This article is based on secondary sources of data and literature to examine suicide among UK police officers and staff, bringing together existing academic studies, official statistics, and professional reports. This approach is well suited to a

topic that is ethically sensitive and difficult to access directly, as primary research would involve engaging with bereaved families or vulnerable officers and carries risks of traumatisation (Andriessen et al., 2019). Research conducted on suicide often poses the fundamental barrier as the primary subject is deceased; researchers cannot elicit subjective accounts from those who took their own lives. This means causal inference about motives and proximal thought processes is necessarily indirect and inferential. Psychological autopsy studies seek to reconstruct antecedents via records and interviews with relatives and colleagues. However, these methods carry risks of recall bias, selective reporting, and the potential for intense distress among bereaved family members. Ethical constraints mean such interviews are rare and must be handled with exceptional care (Andriessen et al., 2019). The study follows principles associated with systematic review in constructing transparent search strategies, explicit inclusion and exclusion criteria and critical analysis. Searches were conducted across major databases including PsycINFO, Scopus, Web of Science, Criminal Justice Abstracts, and Google Scholar, with professional sources of literature drawn from the College of Policing, Police Federation of England and Wales, ONS, Mind, Oscar Kilo and other relevant organisations. Search terms combined key concepts relating to suicide, policing, occupational stress, wellbeing, and intervention, using Boolean operators and truncation to capture variations. The time frame between 2000 and 2025 ensured contemporary relevance, while permitting inclusion of earlier foundational work. Studies were included if they focused on suicide or related behaviours among police officers or staff, were UK-based or meaningfully applicable to UK policing, and offered empirical or policy-relevant insights, studies unrelated to policing, lacking methodological clarity, or based solely on opinion were excluded. Data from each source were extracted into a structured template recording authorship, context, sample details, methodology, relevant findings, and noted limitations. A thematic synthesis was then used to organise evidence into three strands that mirror the project objectives, prevalence and trends, occupational and organisational risk factors, and protective factors and interventions. Each source was critically appraised using recognised frameworks, assessing peer-reviewed literature for design quality, transparency, and sample robustness, and evaluating grey literature according to credibility, independence, and clarity (Booth et al., 2016; Gough, Oliver, & Thomas, 2017). However, UK police suicide data remain incomplete and inconsistently coded, with occupational classifications and coronial practices (such as open verdicts)

contributing to undercounting (Krishnan et al., 2022). The tailored methodological approach provides a rigorous and ethically responsible foundation for synthesising what is known about suicide in UK policing and identifying gaps where further research is urgently needed (Milner et al., 2013).

### **Prevalence and Trends of Suicide in UK Policing**

Official data remain limited but sources including Freedom of Information (FOI) requests, professional reports, and occupational summaries help build an approximate picture. Between 2011 and 2019, the College of Policing identified 163 deaths by suicide or undetermined intent among serving officers in England and Wales (College of Policing, 2022). The Police Federation later estimated around 242 suicides among officers and PCSOs between 2011 and 2022 (Police Federation of England and Wales, 2022). More recent FOI data reported 46 officer and 20 staff suicides between January 2022 and May 2025, along with 34 deaths among former personnel (Police Federation of England and Wales, 2025). Despite variation, these sources collectively suggest that roughly 15–20 serving officers die by suicide annually in England and Wales, a notable figure within a workforce of about 147,000 of fulltime officers (Home Office, 2025). The limited inclusion of police staff and PCSOs further highlights gaps in monitoring, given their substantial representation across the service.

Policing comparison with national suicide rates reveals a gendered theme in suicide as men remain disproportionately affected, representing 74% of all suicides registered in 2023 (Office for National Statistics, 2023; 2024). Because policing is predominantly male and concentrated in age groups at higher national risk, estimates of 10–14 suicides per 100,000 officers appear broadly comparable to the general population. Some ONS analysis even suggested lower rates among male officers than among men more widely, though methodological limitations, such as small sample sizes and errors in occupational coding, mean such findings should be treated cautiously (Office for National Statistics, 2020). Compared to other occupations with persistently high suicide rates, such as the health service, construction and agriculture, policing does not consistently appear to be extreme. However, the ambiguity likely reflects data limitations rather than genuine absence of risk as academic research more consistently identifies policing as a high-risk profession. Similar trends have

been observed among prison and probation service officers and staff. In a recent report by BBC (2025) shows that officers and staff are missing work in and leaving the services rising numbers because of poor mental health, driven by relentless violence, traumatic incidents and a lack of organisational support. These experiences intensify with constant exposure to severe self-harm and assaults, with little to no help from management and organisation. Nearly 150,000 working days were lost to mental ill-health last year, a 44% rise since 2019, with Guys Marsh reporting the highest proportion of staff taking mental health-related leave (Webster, 2025).

Coroners often return open verdicts in deaths where intent is unclear, meaning many suicides are not counted as such in official registers (Krishnan et al., 2022). Occupational coding on death certificates may fail to record whether a person was currently serving, recently retired, or employed in a police staff role. Time lags between death and the completion of inquests further distort short-term monitoring (Office for National Statistics, 2023). Within policing organisations, data collection is not standardised or mandated, leading to substantial variation in reporting; many figures are only obtained through FOI requests. Grey literature produced by unions or professional bodies helps fill the gaps but often lacks methodological transparency.

In terms of international comparisons, the United States, national data often record far fewer police suicides than voluntary databases and independent reviews, demonstrating how official sources can significantly undercount deaths (Mishara & Martin, 2012). Australian research, including studies from Beyond Blue, consistently highlights elevated mental-health risks and calls for systemic prevention efforts across policing (Beyond Blue, 2021). A long running prevention programme in Quebec, Canada, achieved a substantial reduction in police suicides over twelve years, attributed to a combination of targeted prevention, postvention, and cultural change (Mishara & Martin, 2012). These examples underscore two key points; police suicides are preventable and robust reporting systems are fundamental to understanding and addressing risk.

Identifying long-term trends in UK police suicide is challenging. The most consistent estimates suggest a stable pattern of about 20 suicides per year from 2011 to 2022, without a clear upward or downward trajectory (Police Federation of England and Wales, 2022). However, contextual evidence hints at periods of increased

vulnerability, particularly during times of austerity, organisational restructuring and sharply rising workloads. The COVID-19 pandemic introduced additional pressures to greater trauma exposure, public hostility, and reduced support networks which may have contributed to fluctuations in risk. Similar patterns were observed internationally showing temporary decrease in suicide during the initial pandemic years followed by rebounds (Oscar Kilo, 2023). Overall, while the UK does not present a clear trend, the absence of reliable data limits meaningful interpretation.

Demographic and subgroup analysis offers further insight into the problem and demonstrates gendered risk profiles and the composition of the workforce; in 2023, men accounted for 4,506 of the 6,069 suicides registered nationally (Office for National Statistics, 2024). Women within policing may be underrepresented in suicide statistics yet report higher levels of occupational stress and non-fatal suicidal ideation (Mind, 2016). Most deaths occur among officers in their 30s and 40s, aligning with the age groups most exposed to sustained operational pressures and increasing domestic responsibilities. International evidence suggests sergeants and senior constables may be at higher risk (Di Nota et al., 2020), while UK based case studies highlight officers under investigation are at a higher risk, emphasising the potential impact of organisational stressors. Police staff suicides remain poorly documented, though FOI data show that 20 staff members died by suicide between 2022 and 2025 (Police Federation of England and Wales, 2025). Given the large size of the staff workforce, the lack of systematic monitoring represents an important oversight. The gaps in UK data, coupled with international evidence of elevated risk in policing, highlight a clear need for improved monitoring and deeper understanding of the occupational and organisational pressures contributing to suicide within the service.

### **Occupational and Organisational Stressors**

Suicide risk in policing stems not from a single cause but from the ongoing interaction between operational trauma and organisational culture. Police personnel routinely face distressing incidents involving violent crime scenes, sudden deaths, child abuse and rape cases alongside irregular shifts and intense public scrutiny (Brough, Brown, & Biggs, 2015; Purba & Demou, 2019). These exposures to repeated trauma have been strongly linked to depression, anxiety, PTSD and substance misuse, gradually eroding coping capacity (Di Nota et al., 2020). Di Nota et al. (2020)

identified high levels of probable PTSD and suicidal ideation among Canadian police employees, showing clear associations between PTSD, depression and suicidal thoughts. Moral injury in line with the emotional fallout from events conflicting with deeply held moral dilemma can add profound guilt and shame (Papazoglou & Tuttle, 2018). Importantly, this burden is not confined to frontline officers. Many police staff roles involve sustained vicarious trauma from reviewing distressing material or supporting victims remotely (Krishnan et al., 2022). UK surveys echo these findings, with widespread reports of work-related trauma and psychological strain among both officers and staff (Purba & Demou, 2019; Mind, 2019).

Trauma over time frequently develops into burnout and emotional exhaustion, cynicism and a sense of reduced efficacy which when combined with depression or chronic stress, raises vulnerability to suicidal tendency. Policing blend of traumatic exposure and relentless operational demand creates a distinct and often intense form of occupational stress (Brough et al., 2015). Burnout is reinforced by heavy workloads, insufficient recovery time and limited access to organisational support (Brough et al., 2015; Di Nota et al., 2020). When officers feel poorly supported, the path from acute distress to chronic despair becomes more likely. Systematic reviews consistently identify organisational factors rather than the traumatic events themselves as major contributors to police burnout and psychological disorders (Krishnan et al., 2022; Di Nota et al., 2020).

Moreover, shift working pattern and sleep disruption further complicate this picture. Policing depends on irregular, rotating shifts that disrupt circadian rhythms and lead to chronic fatigue (Rajaratnam, Howard, & Grunstein, 2011). Sleep loss impairs mood, emotional regulation and cognitive functioning and is a recognised risk factor for depression, anxiety and suicidal ideation. Research with emergency responders shows that shift work heightens psychological distress, and fatigue can markedly reduce officers' resilience after traumatic incidents (Rajaratnam et al., 2013; Di Nota et al., 2020).

Workload pressures made worse by understaffing, rising public demand and administrative burden are among the most frequently cited stressors in policing (Brough et al., 2015; Purba & Demou, 2019). Officers often describe unmanageable paperwork, case backlogs and performance targets as sources of chronic frustration.

In addition, the reality that policing is a highly visible and politicised profession. Intense media attention, negative press coverage and political scrutiny following critical incidents can fuel feelings of shame, fear of professional ruin or moral distress. These factors paired with internal performance demands, create an environment many officers perceive as overwhelming and beyond their control (Purba & Demou, 2019).

In terms of wider organisational culture, such as, poor leadership, poor communication, inadequate supervision and unclear procedures repeatedly emerge as critical problem areas (Brough et al., 2015; Krishnan et al., 2022). When staffing is stretched and support inconsistent, officers can experience role conflict and a strong sense of institutional injustice. A perceived lack of organisational care magnifies emotional distress and discourages early help-seeking. Research suggests that internal culture and management style can have as much psychological impact as traumatic operational events themselves (College of Policing, 2022).

Disciplinary and performance processes constitute one of the most sensitive organisational stressors. Officers under investigation frequently report extreme anxiety, shame and isolation. These investigations are often lengthy and opaque, leaving officers uncertain about their future, fearful of dismissal and public humiliation (Krishnan et al., 2022). The expansion of digital oversight from body-worn cameras to extensive record keeping has increased accountability and the likelihood of formal scrutiny, amplifying pressure and fear of mistakes. While quantitative causal evidence remains limited, professional bodies consistently identify disciplinary processes as a significant factor in some police suicides (Police Federation of England and Wales, 2022).

Underlying many of these challenges is police culture itself. Traditional narratives of stoicism, emotional control and self-reliance can make it difficult for officers to acknowledge distress or seek help (College of Policing, 2022). Despite growing organisational efforts to normalise mental health conversations, stigma remains widespread: many officers fear that admitting vulnerability could harm their career, reputation or relationships with peers (Mind, 2019). The “macho” ethos and occupational expectation of invulnerability mean that distress is often hidden until crisis emerges. Changing this culture has been identified as essential prevention strategies (Stevenson & Farmer, 2017).

Stress exposure is not evenly distributed. Frontline officers typically face the most direct trauma, while staff dealing with digital evidence or victim support carry a form of cumulative vicarious trauma (Krishnan et al., 2022; Purba & Demou, 2019). UK data indicate that most suicides involve male officers, reflecting both workforce demographics and broader gender differences in suicide (Office for National Statistics, 2023). However, significant gaps remain regarding how ethnicity, sexual orientation and disability intersect with mental health and suicide risk in policing (Krishnan et al., 2022; Police Federation of England and Wales, 2022). Evidence from international research demonstrates that middle ranks may experience elevated stress, but UK research in this area are still limited (Di Nota et al., 2020).

Most existing studies are cross-sectional, meaning they can identify associations but not causal pathways or the emergence of risk over time (Krishnan et al., 2022). Longitudinal and qualitative research are essential for understanding how organisational processes contribute to crisis remains sparse. In addition, diversity and intersectionality are severely under researched in UK policing to show how the Black and Ethnic minority officers and staff are affected by suicide. Addressing these evidence gaps is crucial for designing targeted and effective interventions (Krishnan et al., 2022; College of Policing, 2022) for officers and staff from all diverse backgrounds.

Overall, the literature shows that suicide risk in policing builds cumulatively through the interaction of repeated trauma, sleep disruption, organisational pressures, fear of disciplinary action, and a culture that continues to stigmatise vulnerability. These stressors rarely operate in isolation; rather, they reinforce one another in ways that stretch coping capacity over time. Prevention, therefore, must operate at multiple levels, supporting individual resilience while also addressing the organisational, structural and cultural conditions that amplify risk.

### **Protective Factors and Interventions**

This section of the article focuses on the protective factors and interventions designed to reduce suicide risk and improve wellbeing among police officers and staff. It covers peer-support approaches such as Trauma Risk Management (TRiM), access to clinical and occupational health services, leadership and cultural reforms, resilience training, postvention, and wider systemic measures including efficient collection and

restoration of official statistics and policy change, emphasising on how individualised supports (e.g., counselling, resilience skills) must be paired with organisational strategies (e.g., trauma-informed supervision, leadership accountability) to form an effective prevention strategy.

Peer support forms a central protective measure in UK policing. Schemes like TRiM train selected officers to offer confidential, structured support after critical incidents, aiming to normalise help-seeking and identify those needing professional care (Jones et al., 2017; Creamer et al., 2012). Evidence from military and emergency-service settings suggests TRiM can reduce PTSD symptoms and increase willingness to seek help, though the quality of studies varies and randomised policing trials are rare (Jones et al., 2017; Creamer et al., 2012). TRiM can also shift internal culture as evaluation reports reduced stigma and increased trust in peer supporters (Jones et al., 2017). Mind's Blue Light Programme similarly found that training over 9,000 peers and line managers increased awareness and early help-seeking (Mind, 2019). Yet provision across forces is uneven, and peer supporters often lack supervision and clear role boundaries. Guidance stresses that peers cannot replace clinical care, and that robust governance and national standards are necessary (Creamer et al., 2012; Mind, 2019).

Most forces offer counselling or Employee Assistance Programmes (EAPs), providing short-term therapy, helplines, and referrals. Treatments such as Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT) and trauma focused therapy can make a positive difference, but uptake among police is low because many distrust force linked services. Independent providers, such as Police Care UK, often achieve higher engagement, and national guidance now recommends external commissioning (Oscar Kilo, 2023). Trauma informed practice, recognising how cumulative trauma affects behaviour, is gaining credibility but remains inconsistent across forces (College of Policing, 2022). Other jurisdictions, such as Australia, routinely embed trauma informed supervision in their support services (Beyond Blue, 2021). Wellbeing education and self-help programmes, including resilience workshops, mindfulness and online training (e.g. "Mind Fit Cop"), aim to improve mental health literacy and personal coping skills (Oscar Kilo, 2023). Studies such as Jensen et al. (2020) and College of Policing (2022) show that mental health training increases confidence and knowledge, though UK

policing evidence is largely self-reported and does not yet show reductions in suicide cases.

### **Leadership, Culture Change and Mental Health Awareness**

The Stevenson & Farmer review (2017) argues leaders must model openness and normalise help-seeking. Many UK forces now promote wellbeing conversations and senior officers publicly endorse mental health transparency (College of Policing, 2022). Research evidence shows reductions in perceived stigma where leaders actively participate in training (Stevenson & Farmer, 2017). International examples, such as Victoria Police, show similar gains. But longstanding fears of being seen as weak persist (Mind, 2019). Implementing non-punitive cultures, particularly around performance and misconduct, forms part of this shift (Krishnan et al., 2022). Trauma-informed approaches to discipline, including pausing proceedings after major incidents, can reduce organisational stress.

Improving mental health literacy across all ranks is another protective factor. Programmes such as Mind's Blue Light Champions promote peer awareness and earlier intervention (Mind, 2019). Training improves officers' ability to identify distress and trigger signs (Kitchener & Jorm, 2002) that can improve the knowledge and attitudes (College of Policing, 2022). A randomised pilot trial found limited changes with no significant differences to officers' behaviour compared to controlled trials (Ramey et al., 2017). While officers often value the training, resilience skills alone rarely provide lasting protection without organisational support. Simulated scenario training (College of Policing, 2021) shows anecdotal promise but awaits evaluation. Most guidance recommends integrating resilience initiatives within broader, multi-level wellbeing strategies (Stevenson & Farmer, 2017; Mind, 2019).

### **Postvention and Aftercare**

Postvention support following a suicide is crucial to reducing contagion and helping colleagues recover. Some UK forces now use rapid-response protocols and rely on external partners like Oscar Kilo and Samaritans. The new "Suicide Postvention Toolkit" (2024) encourages early outreach, confidentiality, and structured follow ups. International evidence shows that timely postvention reduces complicated grief and secondary trauma (Andriessen et al., 2019; Nowland et al., 2015) and that family support also matters (Petschauer et al., 2019). The Quebec "Together for Life"

programme illustrates the benefits of consistent debriefing and family liaison (Mishara & Martin, 2012). Experts argue that every force needs a formalised plan and should evaluate and monitor indirect outcomes such as sickness and absences (Krishnan et al., 2022).

### **Systemic Interventions and Structural Reforms**

Structural changes underpin effective prevention. Centralised suicide data collection has long been recommended by the Police Federation (2022) and is essential for targeted efforts. Forces are also exploring reforms to shift patterns, workload, and disciplinary processes. Trauma-informed investigations and “wellbeing rosters” aim to reduce chronic stress. National frameworks such as the Police Covenant (2019) and the Blue Light Wellbeing Framework (2020) seek to standardise expectations (Oscar Kilo, 2023). A new 24/7 confidential crisis line offers independent access to support, addressing major barriers to help-seeking. Cross-agency partnerships, including Mind’s Blue Light Programme and international knowledge sharing, further strengthen system-wide prevention. Integrating police suicide prevention into national plans, such as the UK Suicide Prevention Plan 2024–30 (UK Health Dept., 2024), embeds policing within wider public health strategies.

International examples of best practices reinforce the need for comprehensive, multi-layered strategies. Montreal’s “Together for Life” programme reduced police suicides by around 79% over 12 years through combined training, peer support and cultural change (Mishara & Martin, 2012). Australian reform, including wellbeing check-ins and literacy training (Beyond Blue, 2021; Royal Commission into Victoria’s Mental Health System, 2021; South Australia Police, 2023), highlights the value of whole-organisation commitment. US Crisis Intervention Team programmes improve officers’ confidence with mental health crisis (Compton et al., 2014) and can indirectly enhance their own awareness. New Zealand’s peer and resilience initiatives reinforce the importance of integrated systems. Across contexts, common principles recur stigma reduction, strong leadership, peer involvement, and data-driven policy (Milner et al., 2013). Most studies however, measure satisfaction rather than outcomes, and there are no UK equivalents to Montreal’s longitudinal data (Mishara & Martin, 2012). Stigma also suppresses uptake: even confidential counselling lines may be underused if officers fear repercussions (Purba & Demou, 2019).

## Conclusion and Recommendations

Police suicide rates appear broadly comparable to national figures, around 10–14 per 100,000 compared with overall 11.4 per 100,000 (Office for National Statistics, 2024; College of Policing, 2022) but the true scale remains uncertain due to inconsistent reporting, fragmented coronial data, and the absence of a national recording system (Office for National Statistics, 2023; Police Federation of England and Wales, 2022). This lack of reliable data significantly limits the sector’s ability to understand trends or assess the impact of interventions. The evidence shows that police suicide risk escalates from a blend of operational and organisational stressors. Trauma exposure, shift disruption and workload demand contribute to chronic stress (Brough et al., 2015; Rajaratnam et al., 2013), while organisational factors, including poor leadership, limited support, stigma and punitive sanctions frequently exert an equal or greater influence on mental health of officers and staff (Purba & Demou, 2019; Waters & Ussery, 2007). These findings reinforce that suicide prevention requires cultural reform and not only dependant on institutional support and individual coping strategies.

Peer-support approaches such as TRiM appear to enhance help-seeking and reduce stigma, yet robust outcome data are limited (Jones et al., 2017; Mind, 2019). Confidential clinical services and employee assistance programmes exist across most forces, though concerns about privacy and organisational oversight restrict their use (Purba & Demou, 2019). Postvention initiatives and national wellbeing frameworks such as the Oscar Kilo helpline represent progress, but their long-term effectiveness remains unclear and uneven across forces (Oscar Kilo, 2023; College of Policing, 2022). International examples, notably Quebec’s “Together for Life” strategy, demonstrate that multi-layered, coordinated programmes can be applied to UK policing to bring sustained and impactful changes (Mishara & Martin, 2012). Overall, the findings underline that sustainable progress requires consistent national coordination, stronger evaluation, and systemic cultural change with strong leadership commitments.

The study strongly recommends introduction of a national database of police suicide records to enable accurate monitoring and evaluation of data that captures precise information and simplifies the cross-tabulation of data into causation of death,

age, rank, gender, ethnicity and other variables. Peer-support systems including TRiM should be expanded and standardised, with clear training and referral pathways. Moreover, leadership training in trauma-informed practice must be mandatory, with wellbeing metrics incorporated into performance assessment. Independent and confidential clinical services should be prioritised, alongside full rollout of 24/7 helpline provision. Every force should adopt a formal postvention protocol to mitigate trauma and reduce contagion risk among deceased's family members, friends and colleagues. In addition, wellbeing frameworks must be embedded across organisational structures, supported by external monitoring and auditing. Finally, independent research should be funded and commissioned to evaluate existing and new interventions. Mixed-methods studies, longitudinal tracking, and cross-force comparisons are needed in addition to anecdotal evidence. Partnerships between policing organisations, universities, and charities could generate robust insights while maintaining ethical safeguards.

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