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Sex and Gender Differences in Symptoms of Early Psychosis: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

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Sex and Gender Differences in Symptoms of Early Psychosis: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

Abstract

Background: First-episode psychosis (FEP) can be quite variable in clinical presentation, and both sex and gender may account for some of this variability. Prior literature on sex or gender differences in symptoms of psychosis have been inconclusive, and a comprehensive summary of evidence on the early course of illness is lacking. The objective of this study was to conduct a systematic review and meta-analysis of the literature to summarize prior evidence on the sex and gender differences in the symptoms of early psychosis.

Methods: We conducted an electronic database search (MEDLINE, Scopus, PsycINFO and CINAHL) from 1990 to present to identify quantitative studies focused on sex or gender differences in the symptoms of early psychosis. We used random effects models to compute pooled standardized mean differences (SMD) and risk ratios (RR), with 95% confidence intervals (CI), for a range of symptoms.

Results: Thirty-five studies met the inclusion criteria for the systematic review, and 30 studies were included in the meta-analysis. All studies examined sex differences. Men experienced more severe negative symptoms (SMD=-0.15, 95%CI=-0.21,-0.09), whereas women experienced more severe depressive symptoms (SMD=0.21, 95%CI=0.14,0.27) and had higher functioning (SMD=0.16, 95%CI=0.10,0.23). Women also had a lower prevalence of substance use issues (RR=0.65, 95%CI=0.61,0.69).

Conclusions: Symptoms of early psychosis varied between men and women; however, we were limited in our ability to differentiate between biological sex and gender factors. These findings may help to inform early detection and intervention efforts to better account for sex and gender differences in early psychosis presentation.

Keywords Sex differences; Psychosis; Symptoms; First-episode psychosis

24 **Background**

25 Psychotic disorders are characterized by dysfunction in cognition or perception (Lieberman & First,
26 2018), which may include the presence of positive symptoms (i.e. hallucinations, delusions), negative
27 symptoms (i.e. anhedonia, social withdrawal), disorganized thoughts and behaviour, and impairments in
28 functioning (Iyer et al., 2015). The symptoms of psychosis exist on a continuum with normal mental states,
29 with each person's clinical presentation varying in severity along this continuum, defined by the level,
30 number, and duration of symptoms (Heckers et al., 2013).

31 The first occurrence of psychotic symptoms, known as first-episode psychosis (FEP), usually
32 presents in adolescence or early adulthood (Reed, 2008), and the clinical presentation at onset may be quite
33 variable (Ochoa et al., 2012). Early intervention for psychotic disorders can optimize the course of illness
34 and clinical prognosis of those affected, as a shorter duration of untreated psychosis is associated with a
35 lower number of hospitalizations and a reduced risk of relapse (Iyer et al., 2015). In order for the duration
36 of untreated psychosis to be minimized, clinicians must be able to identify psychotic symptoms in their
37 varying presentations.

38 The sex and gender of a person experiencing FEP or early psychosis may account for some of the
39 heterogeneity in clinical presentation, with respect to age of onset, symptom profile, level of functioning,
40 and course of illness (Ochoa et al., 2012). Sex is comprised of the biological aspects of a person, such as
41 chromosomes, anatomy, genes, and hormones; whereas gender is used to describe the nonphysiological
42 components of a person, such as social labels/roles and cultural norms that are shaped by a person's
43 environment and experience (Unger, 1979). Differences in age of onset of FEP have been well-documented
44 in the literature, with the average age of onset of psychotic symptoms being higher in women than in men
45 (Ochoa et al., 2012). This imbalance has been attributed to the difference in timing of puberty between boys
46 and girls, and estradiol being a protective hormone for psychotic disorders in both men and women (Huber
47 et al., 2005). This may also explain the second peak in psychosis incidence for women around menopause,
48 when levels of these hormones decrease (Lodha & Karia, 2019). Similarly, some studies have found that

49 estrogen may modulate the severity of psychotic symptoms, resulting in a lower disease severity in women
50 (Hochman & Lewine, 2004). Other studies have indicated that men experiencing psychotic symptoms have
51 lower estradiol and testosterone levels compared to healthy controls, further indicating the protective effect
52 of estradiol in men (Brzezinski-Sinai & Brzezinski, 2020; Lodha & Karia, 2019). Gender norms and
53 behaviours may also play a role in symptom variation between males and females with psychotic disorders.
54 For example, women tend to be more socially integrated, whereas men's social behaviours may be more
55 passive and disconnected (Køster et al., 2008). In general, women tend to be more introspective toward
56 their mental health, and are more willing to seek help than men (Fridgen et al., 2013; Gibbons et al., 2015).
57 These gender roles may contribute to differential help-seeking behaviours between men and women, and
58 willingness to comply with treatment plans (Køster et al., 2008). Adolescent girls are more likely to seek
59 help on their own, whereas the parents of boys are more likely to seek help for them (Haavik et al., 2019).
60 This behaviour carries over into adulthood, where women seek help for mental health reasons almost twice
61 as often as men (Fridgen et al., 2013). Men are also more likely to engage in substance use than women,
62 and gender-related factors may have an impact on this difference (Carliner et al., 2017; Køster et al., 2008).
63 For example, there is more societal acceptance surrounding men that use cannabis than women (Carliner et
64 al., 2017), and peer pressure to use cannabis is higher in men compared to women (El-Sawy, 2010; McCoy
65 et al., 2019). These factors may influence the risk of psychotic disorders and impact clinical presentation
66 (van Os et al., 2002). Sex and gender are often entangled in research, and it is difficult to differentiate the
67 pathways between biological and social aspects that lead to differences in clinical presentation.

68 Sex and gender differences in symptoms of psychotic disorders generally have been studied
69 extensively, although findings are often inconsistent across studies. It has been reported that men tend to
70 experience more negative symptoms – including apathy, poverty of speech and thought, and social
71 withdrawal – whereas affective symptoms, such as depression and mania, tend to occur more frequently in
72 women (Riecher-Rössler et al., 2018). Additionally, men often experience more social isolation, have
73 poorer social functioning, and have more substance use than women with psychotic disorders (Riecher-

74 Rössler et al., 2018). Conversely, many other studies have concluded that there were no significant
75 differences in symptoms by sex or gender (Ochoa et al., 2012).

76 Prior literature on sex or gender differences in the symptoms of psychotic disorders are
77 inconclusive, and have been limited by small sample sizes and methodological differences between studies
78 (Riecher-Rössler et al., 2018). A comprehensive summary of the evidence base on symptoms in the early
79 course of illness specifically is lacking. The aim of this study was to systematically review the literature on
80 sex or gender differences in symptoms of early psychosis, and to quantify any observed differences.
81 Specifically, we aimed to address the following questions: 1) How do men and women differ in symptoms
82 of early psychosis? and 2) How should interventions be tailored differently for young men and women
83 experiencing early psychosis? The findings from this systematic review and meta-analysis may be used to
84 profile the clinical presentation of FEP or early psychosis more accurately by sex and gender to support
85 early identification and intervention for psychotic disorders.

86

87 **Methods**

88 This systematic review follows the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-
89 Analyses (PRISMA 2020) reporting guidelines (Supplemental Table 1) (PRISMA, 2020).

90

91 ***Search Strategy and Study Selection***

92 We searched four electronic databases – including Medline (ProQuest), Scopus, PsycINFO and
93 Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature (CINAHL) – for studies related to sex or gender
94 differences in symptoms of early psychosis or FEP. No limits were placed on language, and we restricted
95 the search to studies published after 1990 to represent the current standard of care for treating psychosis
96 (Coughlan et al., 2013). The specific search terms used for each database can be found in Supplemental
97 Table 2. Results from the search were imported into the Covidence systematic review management platform
98 (www.covidence.org) for article screening. Grey literature searching was using Google Scholar and Open

99 Grey, and unpublished work was searched in a pre-print database (medRxiv). Additional studies were
100 identified using forward and backward citation tracing of included articles.

101 We included studies if the sample was described as first-episode or early psychosis, as defined by
102 the authors of the original studies (Breitborde et al., 2009). Both affective and non-affective psychotic
103 disorders were included, and no restrictions were placed on the age of the sample. To be included in the
104 review, studies must have compared symptoms of psychosis or other features of clinical presentation by
105 sex or gender. We included any type of observational study that provided quantitative results, or
106 interventional studies that provided baseline symptom differences by sex or gender. We excluded studies
107 that included people with chronic psychotic disorders, non-psychotic mental disorders, and ultra-high risk
108 (UHR), clinical high-risk patients (CHR), or prodromal patients. Other experimental or interventional
109 studies, case-reports, case-series, and qualitative studies were also excluded from the review. See
110 Supplemental Table 3 for full inclusion and exclusion criteria.

111 Level one title and abstract screening was performed by one reviewer (BC) in Covidence, and level
112 two full-text screening was performed by two independent reviewers (BC, JW), applying the inclusion and
113 exclusion criteria. Reasons for exclusion were recorded in Covidence, and discrepancies between reviewers
114 were handled by group discussion and consensus.

115

116 ***Data Extraction and Risk of Bias Assessment***

117 Data extraction was completed by one reviewer, then verified by a second independent reviewer,
118 using a form created and pilot-tested in Microsoft Excel using the Cochrane guidelines (*Chapter 5*, n.d.).
119 Three main categories for extraction were: study characteristics (e.g., study design, source of sample)
120 sample characteristics (e.g., sample size, mean age of sample), and study findings (e.g., symptom scores by
121 sex).

122 Risk of bias of each study was assessed by two independent reviewers using the “Tools to Assess
123 Risk of Bias in Cohort Studies” by the CLARITY group at McMaster University (Lansche, n.d.), which fit
124 the needs of this review topic. To ensure comprehensive assessment of other non-cohort studies, two items

125 from the “Risk of Bias for Cross-Sectional Surveys” created by the CLARITY group were also used. The
126 domains assessed in the risk of bias tools included: representativeness of the sample, selection of cohorts,
127 assessment of exposure/outcome, measurement and analysis of confounding factors, and missing data. For
128 each study, each item was rated as low, intermediate, or high risk of bias.

129

130 *Data Synthesis*

131 We synthesized the data qualitatively data by summarizing sex/gender differences in the most
132 common symptoms of psychosis across the included studies.

133 Stata version 17.0 (StataCorp, 2021) was used to conduct all meta-analyses. The *metan* command
134 was used with random effect models to account for study heterogeneity (Harris et al., 2008). Meta-analyses
135 were conducted for each symptom (with subgroup analyses by symptom measurement tool), which included
136 each study that reported means and standard deviations on the symptom of interest. Studies that reported
137 medians and interquartile ranges were not included in the meta-analysis. We computed the standardized
138 mean difference (SMD) in symptoms between men and women, with 95% confidence intervals (CI).
139 Statistical heterogeneity was assessed using the I^2 statistic, where a value of less than 25% is considered to
140 be low heterogeneity, 50% is considered to be moderate heterogeneity, and greater than 75% is considered
141 to be high heterogeneity.(Harris et al., 2008) For symptoms where SMD was not applicable (i.e. binary
142 variable), prevalence ratios (PR) for cross-sectional studies and risk ratios (RR) for cohort studies were
143 pooled (Alho, 1992).

144

145 **Results**

146 *Study Selection and Characteristics*

147 Our electronic database search yielded 4,955 studies published after 1990. Through a further search
148 of pre-print databases, grey literature databases, and forward and backward citation tracing, 13 additional
149 studies were obtained. After removing duplicates, 4,436 records were screened based on title and abstract,

150 in which we excluded 4,120 studies. The remaining 316 studies underwent full-text screening by two
151 reviewers. Of those, 35 studies were retained for qualitative synthesis, and 30 studies included data suitable
152 for a meta-analysis. Of the studies chosen for inclusion in the systematic review and meta-analysis, all
153 looked at the sex of participants as a main exposure, with no studies measuring gender roles. The PRISMA
154 diagram outlining numbers and reasons for exclusion is presented in Figure 1.

155 Table 1 shows the study and sample characteristics of the 35 included studies. Seven studies were
156 published in North America, 18 studies were published in Europe, one study was published in Africa, five
157 studies were published in Asia, and the remaining four studies were published in Australia. Most included
158 studies used either a cohort (n=25) or cross-sectional (n=7) design, and most (n=18) recruited the sample
159 from early psychosis intervention services. Other studies recruited their samples from other outpatient
160 mental health services (n=3), inpatient services (n=9), a combination of inpatient and outpatient sources
161 (n=3), or health administrative data (n=2). The sample size of included studies ranged from 39 to 3,350
162 patients, with males comprising a median of 64.2% (range = 33%-80%) of the sample across studies. Most
163 studies used standardized interviews to establish a diagnosis of psychotic disorder, with the majority using
164 DSM-IV or ICD-10 diagnostic criteria. Listed diagnoses included schizophrenia, schizoaffective disorder,
165 schizophreniform disorder, drug-induced psychosis, bipolar disorder, major depressive disorder with
166 psychotic features, affective psychosis with mood-incongruent delusions, brief psychotic episode, non-
167 affective psychosis, and psychotic disorder not otherwise specified. A summary of the tools used to measure
168 symptoms in each study can be found in Supplemental Table 4.

169

170 *Risk of Bias*

171 Figure 2 presents the findings from the risk of bias assessment. Representativeness of the source
172 population was a concern in the majority of included studies, as only 37% of studies had a low risk of bias
173 on this domain. Studies with a low risk of bias recruited samples through early psychosis intervention clinics
174 or other mental health services. Small sample sizes – often consisting of many more males than females –
175 account for a large portion of this intermediate and high risk across studies.

176 Measurement and adjustment for confounding factors in the analysis was another common risk of
177 bias, with only half of studies having a low risk of bias in these domains (measurement = 49%; adjustment
178 = 49%). There is potential for other factors, such as ethnicity or age of participants, to bias the relationship
179 between sex and clinical presentation, although these factors were not mentioned or accounted for in many
180 analyses.

181 Most studies had a low risk of bias in the domains of selection of exposed and non-exposed cohorts
182 (77%), assessment of exposures (91%), and assessment of outcomes (86%), with the latter largely due to
183 the use of standardized interviews and measures to obtain diagnoses and symptoms. There was also a low
184 risk of bias due to missing data, with 83% of studies having a low risk of bias.

185

186 *Summary of Findings*

187 The results from individual studies can be found in Supplemental Tables 5-10 and are summarized
188 in Table 2. Mean scores and standard deviations on each symptom scale were recorded from each study for
189 both males and females. A wide range of psychotic symptoms were reported across the included studies,
190 and the most common symptoms were compiled. Positive symptoms – such as hallucinations, delusions,
191 and paranoia – and negative symptoms, such as apathy, poverty of speech/thought, and emotional/social
192 withdrawal, were two of the main categories of symptoms recorded. Other common categories of symptoms
193 assessed in the included studies were depression, general psychopathology symptoms, functioning, and
194 substance use (alcohol and drug use). The results from the meta-analysis can be found in Figure 3.

195 Among the included studies that looked at positive symptoms of psychosis (n=31), 16 found more
196 severe positive symptoms among men, 8 studies found more severe positive symptoms among women, and
197 the remaining 7 studies found no differences between men and women (Supplemental Table 4). Twenty-
198 one studies included data on positive symptom severity that were suitable for a meta-analysis (Figure 3,
199 Supplemental Figure 1). The overall SMD for positive symptoms was -0.03 (95%CI: -0.09, 0.03;
200 $I^2=46.8\%$), which suggests no difference in positive symptoms between men and women, and the findings
201 are largely consistent across measurement tools.

202 Thirty studies looked at negative symptoms of psychosis, and 25 studies found more severe
203 negative symptoms among men, while only one study reported more severe negative symptoms among
204 women, and four reported no difference between men and women (Supplemental Table 4). Twenty-one
205 studies included data on negative symptoms suitable for a meta-analysis (Figure 3, Supplemental Figure 2),
206 in which the overall SMD was found to be -0.15 (95%CI: -0.21, -0.09, $I^2=50.9\%$), indicating that women
207 experience significantly lower negative symptom severity than men. Consistent with the findings from the
208 meta-analysis on positive symptoms, the findings are consistent across measurement tools.

209 Depressive symptoms were assessed in 20 of the included studies and of those, 14 found more
210 severe depressive symptoms in women, three studies found more severe depressive symptoms in men, and
211 three studies found no difference between men and women (Supplemental Table 5). Twelve studies
212 included data on depressive symptoms suitable for meta-analysis, (Figure 3, Supplemental Figure 3) in
213 which the overall SMD was 0.21 (95%CI: 0.14, 0.27, $I^2=76.1\%$), indicating that women experience
214 significantly more severe depressive symptoms than men.

215 Symptoms of general psychopathology were assessed in 14 of the included studies (Supplemental
216 Table 6), in which six studies found more severe symptoms among men, four studies found more severe
217 symptoms among women, and four studies found no difference between men and women. Twelve studies
218 were included in the general psychopathology meta-analysis (Figure 3, Supplemental Figure 4), where the
219 overall effect was found to be -0.06 (95%CI: -0.16, 0.04, $I^2=50.0\%$), suggesting no significant difference
220 between men and women.

221 Sixteen included studies assessed overall level of functioning (Supplemental Table 7), and of these,
222 13 studies reported that women had higher levels of functioning, two studies reported that men had higher
223 levels of functioning, and one study reported that men and women had similar levels of functioning. Fifteen
224 studies provided data suitable for a meta-analysis (Figure 3, Supplemental Figure 5), in which the pooled
225 effect was 0.16 (95%CI: 0.10, 0.23, $I^2=68.5\%$), suggesting that women have significantly higher levels of
226 functioning than men.

227 The findings from studies looking at substance use can be found in Supplemental Table 8. Five
228 studies assessed overall substance use among their sample, with all studies reporting a higher prevalence
229 of substance use among men than women. Six studies assessed alcohol use among their sample, with four
230 reporting a higher prevalence of alcohol use among men compared to women. Ten studies assessed drug
231 use among their sample, and all reported a higher prevalence of drug use among men compared to women.
232 Thirteen studies were used in the meta-analysis (Figure 3, Supplemental Figure 6), in which the pooled risk
233 ratio was 0.65 (95%CI: 0.61, 0.69, $I^2=0.0\%$), suggesting that women have a significantly lower risk of
234 substance use compared to men.

235

236 **Discussion**

237 *Summary of Evidence*

238 The findings from our systematic review and meta-analysis suggest that men with FEP or early
239 psychosis experience greater severity of negative symptoms and a higher likelihood of substance use,
240 whereas women experience greater severity of depressive symptoms and a higher level of functioning. We
241 did not find differences between men and women in positive symptoms or symptoms of general
242 psychopathology. These findings on sex/gender differences in the symptoms of early psychosis are
243 consistent with findings from previous reviews on sex differences in chronic schizophrenia (Leung M.D.
244 & Chue M. R. C. Psych., 2000; Sami Räsänen, Antti Pakaslahti, Erk, 2000).

245 Prior literature suggests that men have a higher incidence of psychotic disorders than women
246 (Ochoa et al., 2012), which accounts for the gender distributions observed in the study samples. Ochoa and
247 colleagues discussed the differences in diagnoses of psychotic disorders between men and women, and
248 alluded to the idea that although more cases of psychosis are recorded among men, this difference may be
249 due to difficulties detecting the illness among women (Ochoa et al., 2012). The average age of onset for
250 women with psychotic disorders tends to be later in life than men, which can be explained by the second
251 peak in onset that women experience post-menopause, raising the group mean for women (Häfner et al.,

252 1993; Ochoa et al., 2012; Riecher-Rössler et al., 2018). It is still largely unknown why men may present
253 with psychotic symptoms earlier in life than women, but some hypothesize that higher cannabis
254 consumption in men (Riecher-Rössler et al., 2018), or protective hormones in women (Galdos et al., 1993)
255 may account for this difference.

256 Previous research on sex differences in the symptoms of psychosis have been well documented,
257 however; it is less clear whether sex differences are present at the initial presentation for psychotic disorders
258 or emerge later in the course of illness due to differences in service engagement and treatment adherence.
259 It is generally acknowledged that men present with more severe negative symptoms than women, whereas
260 women display more severe affective symptoms, such as depression and lack of energy (Riecher-Rössler
261 et al., 2018). This systematic review and meta-analysis clarifies these differences and provides evidence for
262 sex differences in the early course of illness. It was found that men experienced more severe negative
263 symptoms, such as apathy or social/emotional withdrawal, than women, whereas we did not find evidence
264 of sex differences in positive symptoms, such as hallucinations and delusions. Additionally, we found that
265 women experienced more severe depressive or affective symptoms than men. These findings align with a
266 prior literature review on gender differences in schizophrenia symptoms, which found more severe negative
267 symptoms in men, more severe affective symptoms in women, but inconclusive findings on positive
268 symptoms (Ochoa et al., 2012). Lower symptom severity in women supports our finding that women have
269 higher levels of functioning than men, however; further research is needed to confirm this relationship.

270 The studies included in this review focused on differences in clinical presentation of psychosis in
271 men and women through the lens of biological sex; however, it is important to highlight the role that gender
272 could play in this relationship. While examining these differences in terms of sex may provide information
273 regarding the biological influences on psychosis presentation, examining these differences in terms of social
274 implications of sex, referred to as gender may provide information regarding how factors related to
275 socialization influence the presentation of psychosis. We did not identify any studies focused on how gender
276 may impact psychosis presentation, but these influences could stem from differences in patterns of
277 behaviour, thinking, and feeling between the genders (Køster et al., 2008). For example, men are more

278 likely to smoke cannabis, and women may exhibit more social behaviours and willingness to accept help
279 (Køster et al., 2008). Some of the findings from the current review could also be explained through a gender
280 lens, for example where men have higher rates of substance use and women have higher levels of
281 functioning. Future research on the relative contributions of sex and gender to differences in clinical
282 presentation in FEP or early psychosis is warranted.

283 It is generally accepted that men and women present with psychosis in different ways; however,
284 there is still a considerable knowledge gap about the how the illness presents in the early stages with regards
285 to sex/gender differences. Based on findings from this study and from prior literature, it is presumed that
286 women with psychotic disorders present with more subtle symptoms than men, due to less severe negative
287 symptoms and higher functioning. This may cause the illness to be harder to detect, especially in the early
288 course. Clinicians may be able to tailor interventions specifically toward young men or women experiencing
289 early psychosis by better recognizing how symptoms differ between the sexes. Early detection and
290 intervention is of utmost importance in psychotic disorders (Iyer et al., 2015), and understanding sex and
291 gender differences in clinical presentation can help advance the aim of early detection (Iyer et al., 2015).

292

293 *Limitations*

294 The evidence from this review should be interpreted with consideration of several limitations of
295 the included studies, and of the review itself. Many of the studies included in the review had small sample
296 sizes, with more men than women. Although this is representative of the distribution of FEP in clinical
297 populations (Anderson et al., 2018), this may limit the ability to generalize the study results to all people
298 experiencing FEP or early psychosis, especially to women who may be receiving care outside the context
299 of specialized early intervention services (Anderson et al., 2018). Definitions of FEP or early psychosis
300 varied among the included studies, which may have impacted the clinical presentation noted in each study.
301 Many of the studies limited their sample to those of a certain age, duration from symptom onset, or to those
302 that spoke a certain language. These restrictions may also limit the external validity of the study findings,
303 as the results may not be applicable to all people with early psychosis. Furthermore, given that women tend

304 to have a later age at onset (Ochoa et al., 2012), any age restrictions would function to underrepresent
305 women with FEP. Another limitation of most of the included studies is the omission of cognitive symptoms.
306 Evidence suggests that men and women with early psychosis may differ in cognitive functioning (Ochoa et
307 al., 2012), which may be due to the positive role that estrogen plays in cognition (Sherwin, 1998). However,
308 these symptoms were not commonly reported throughout the literature. Lastly, sex and gender differences
309 within the included studies were often conflated, with the role of gender in the incidence and presentation
310 of psychosis being ignored. A major gap in the literature remains on the grey areas of gender, and how
311 these impact the clinical presentation of early psychosis. Future research should explore exposures that
312 differ between genders, such as childhood trauma or abuse, head injury, spring birth, in-utero or birth
313 complications, or pregnancy (Dean & Murray, 2005; Forde et al., 2020), and areas of gender fluidity,
314 including LGBTQ+ people, intersex individuals, or those with hormone dysfunction. Further research on
315 the topic should include data from these individuals to create a more cohesive understanding of the role of
316 gender on symptoms of psychosis.

317 There are also several limitations of the overall review to be considered. Inclusion and exclusion
318 criteria differed significantly across the included studies. Criteria such as age of the patient, amount of time
319 from symptom onset, inclusion of drug-induced psychosis, and criteria used to define FEP or early
320 psychosis varied between studies, which limits our ability to draw conclusions about subgroups of early
321 psychosis patients and increases the heterogeneity in our data. The exclusion of UHR, CHR, or prodromal
322 patients may decrease generalizability of the findings, however; sex differences in symptoms for these
323 populations are out of the scope of this review. Additionally, although validated scales were used in all
324 included studies to obtain measures of symptomology, these scales differed between studies and may have
325 introduced heterogeneity in our pooled estimates, although the findings were largely consistent across
326 measurement tools in our subgroup analyses. Finally, the differentiation between sex and gender is unable
327 to be determined in the present review. It is still unknown whether differences in psychotic symptoms are
328 due to biologic sex differences or if gender may also play a role.

329

330 Conclusions

331 Our findings suggest that men with FEP or early psychosis experience more negative symptoms
332 and substance use than women, whereas women experience more depressive symptoms and have higher
333 functioning than men. Gender differences were not found for positive symptoms or general
334 psychopathology. The evidence from this study may help to inform clinicians and researchers on better
335 identifying FEP and early psychosis to facilitate early intervention. Further population-based studies are
336 needed to provide more substantial evidence on sex/gender differences in clinical presentation of early
337 psychosis, and additionally, how these symptoms present outside the context of specialized early
338 intervention services. Further research on the role of biological sex and gender factors in the clinical
339 presentation of psychotic disorders is warranted.

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SEX/GENDER DIFFERENCES IN SYMPTOMS OF EARLY PSYCHOSIS

Table 1: Summary of study/sample characteristics of included studies (n=35)

Study ID, Author	Year	Country	Study Design	Sample Source	Sample Size	Age Range	Diagnoses Included	Definition of FEP/ Early Psychosis
1. (Arnold et al., 2004)	2002	United States	cohort	inpatient	180	18-45	SPR, SAD, NAP, BD, MDD	Presence of at least one psychotic symptom
2. (Arranz et al., 2020)	2020	Spain	cohort	inpatient	204	18-35	N/A	Admitted to inpatient unit for first time for FEP with psychotic symptoms of <1 year duration
3. (Austad et al., 2015)	2015	Norway	cohort	outpatient-EPI	246	15-65	SPR, SFD, SAD, BPD, DD, AP, PDN, DIP	<12 weeks of antipsychotic treatment,
4. (Ayesa-Arriola et al., 2014)	2014	Spain	cohort	outpatient-EPI	161	15-60	BPD, SFD, SPR, SAD, PDN	No prior antipsychotic treatment
5. (Barajas et al., 2010)	2010	Spain	cohort	outpatient-all	53	7-65	PDN	Two or more psychotic symptoms for <1 year, <6 months since first contact
6. (Bertani et al., 2012)	2012	Italy	cross-sectional	outpatient-all	397	15-54	NAP, AP	Presence of 1+ positive symptoms or 2+ negative symptoms
7. (Buck et al., 2020)	2020	Canada	cohort	outpatient-EPI	435	18-35	SPR, SAD, NAP, DD, BPD, PDN, BD, MDD	No past antipsychotic treatment for >1 month
8. (Caton et al., 2014)	2014	United States	cohort	inpatient	217	17-45	PDN	Presence of 1+ psychotic symptoms
9. (Chang et al., 2011)	2011	China	cohort	outpatient-EPI	700	18-55	SPR, AP, SAD, PDN	>3 years from first episode
10. (Chen et al., 2018)	2018	China	case-control	outpatient-all	110	18-35	SPR	No past antipsychotic treatment
11.(Cocchi et al., 2014)	2014	Italy	case-control	outpatient-EPI	152	17-30	SPR	DUP <24 months
12. (Cotton et al., 2009)	2009	Australia	cohort	outpatient-EPI	661	15-29	SAD, NAP	First treated psychotic episode
13. (Dama et al., 2019)	2019	Canada	cohort	outpatient-EPI	569	14-35	SAD, NAP	No past antipsychotic treatment for >1 month
14. (Danaher et al., 2018)	2018	Australia	cross-sectional	outpatient-EPI	134	15-25	SPR, SFD, SAD, BPD, DD, AP, PDN	>6 months remaining in EPI treatment
15. (Garcia et al., 2016)	2016	Spain	case-control	outpatient-EPI	79	18-35	SPR, SFD, BD, PDN	<3 years since onset of illness
16. (Heitz et al., 2019)	2016	Switzerland	cohort	outpatient-EPI	89	18+	PDN	Attenuated or brief limited intermittent psychotic symptoms
17. (Hui et al., 2016)	2016	China	cohort	population-based survey	360	26-55	SPR, DD, SFD, BPD, PDN, SAD	<1 year antipsychotic treatment
18. (Køster et al., 2008)	2008	Denmark	cohort	outpatient-EPI	269	16-35	PDN	First psychotic episode
19. (Lang et al., 2018)	2018	China	cohort	outpatient-EPI	39	16-45	SPR	Experiencing acute psychotic episode

Notes: SPR = Schizophrenia, SAD = Schizoaffective disorder, NAP = non-affective psychoses, BD = bipolar disorder, MDD = major depressive disorder, SFD= Schizophreniform disorder, BPD = brief psychotic disorder, DD = delusional disorder, AP = affective psychosis, PDN = psychotic disorder not otherwise specified, DIP = drug-induced psychosis, MD = mood disorders, AD = anxiety disorders, PD = personality disorders, FEP= first episode psychotic mania. Symptoms were measured at index for all included studies.

Table 1 con't: Summary of study/sample characteristics of included studies (n=35)

Study ID, Author	Year	Country	Study Design	Sample Source	Sample Size	Age Range	Diagnoses Included	Definition of FEP/ Early Psychosis
20. (Malla et al., 2002)	2002	Canada	cohort	outpatient-EPI	88	N/A	SPR, SFD, BD, PDN	>1 week psychotic symptoms
21. (Mbewe et al., 2006)	2006	Zambia	cohort	inpatient	160	12-86	SPR, SFD, BD, PDN	Diagnosis of psychotic disorder by DSM-IV, positive on Psychosis Screening Questionnaire
22. (Navarro et al., 1996)	1996	UK	cohort	inpatient	166	16-60	SPR, SFD, SAD, AP, NAP	Presence of at least one positive symptom
23. (Penney et al., 2020)	2020	Canada	cross-sectional	outpatient-EPI	171	18-35	SPR, SAD, DD, SFD, DIP, PDN	<6 months from onset
24. (Preston et al., 2002)	2002	Australia	cross-sectional	outpatient-EPI	44	15-35	SPR, SFD, PDN	Diagnosis of FEP by Operational Checklist for Psychotic Illness and Affective Illness
25. (Pruessner et al., 2019)	2019	Canada	cohort	outpatient-EPI	210	14-35	AP, NAP	<1 month antipsychotic treatment
26. (Rapado-Castro et al., 2015)	2015	Spain	cohort	in/outpatient	61	7-17	SPR, BD, PDN	<6 months from onset
27. (Segarra et al., 2012)	2012	Spain	cohort	in/outpatient	231	15-65	SPR, SFD	Presence of positive symptoms, no prior antipsychotic treatment
28. (Suhail & Chaudhry, 2006)	2006	Pakistan	cross-sectional	inpatient	140	16-40	SPR	First admission, >4 weeks duration
29. (Talonen et al., 2017)	2017	Finland	cohort	inpatient	106	13-17	DIP, SPR, MD, AD, PD	First diagnosis of psychotic disorder
30. (Vila-Badia et al., 2020)	2020	Spain	cross-sectional	inpatient	70	13-55	PDN	Presenting with psychotic symptoms (positive, negative, disorganized) for at least one week and <5 years
31. (Irving et al., 2021)	2021	UK	cross-sectional	registry/admin data	3350	16-65	BD, DIP, SPR, SAD, PDN	<1 year from onset
32. (Cotton et al., 2013)	2013	Australia	cohort	outpatient-EPI	118	15-29	FEPM	First psychotic episode
33. (Häfner et al., 1992)	1992	Germany	cohort	inpatient	267	12-59	SPR	First admission for psychotic episode
34. (González-Rodríguez et al., 2014)	2014	Switzerland	cohort	outpatient-EPI	87	18+	FEP	FEP diagnosis by the Basel Screening Instrument for Psychosis, symptoms at least several times a week
35. (Thorup et al., 2007)	2007	Denmark	cohort	In/outpatient	578	18-45	SPR, DD, SAD, PDN	<12 weeks antipsychotic treatment

Notes: SPR = Schizophrenia, SAD = Schizoaffective disorder, NAP = non-affective psychoses, BD = bipolar disorder, MDD = major depressive disorder, SFD= Schizophreniform disorder, BPD = brief psychotic disorder, DD = delusional disorder, AP = affective psychosis, PDN = psychotic disorder not otherwise specified, DIP = drug-induced psychosis, MD = mood disorders, AD = anxiety disorders, PD = personality disorders, FEPM= first episode psychotic mania. Symptoms were measured at index for all included studies.

SEX/GENDER DIFFERENCES IN SYMPTOMS OF EARLY PSYCHOSIS

Table 2: Main findings by symptom category across studies

Symptom Category	Number of Studies	Overall Trend Direction
Positive	31	16/31 more severe symptoms in men
Negative	30	25/30 more severe symptoms in men
Depression	20	14/20 more severe symptoms in women
Psychopathology	14	6/14 more severe symptoms in men
Functioning	16	13/16 higher functioning in women
Substance Use (combined alcohol and drug use)	5	5/5 higher prevalence in men
Alcohol Use	6	4/6 higher prevalence in men
Drug Use	10	10/10 higher prevalence in men

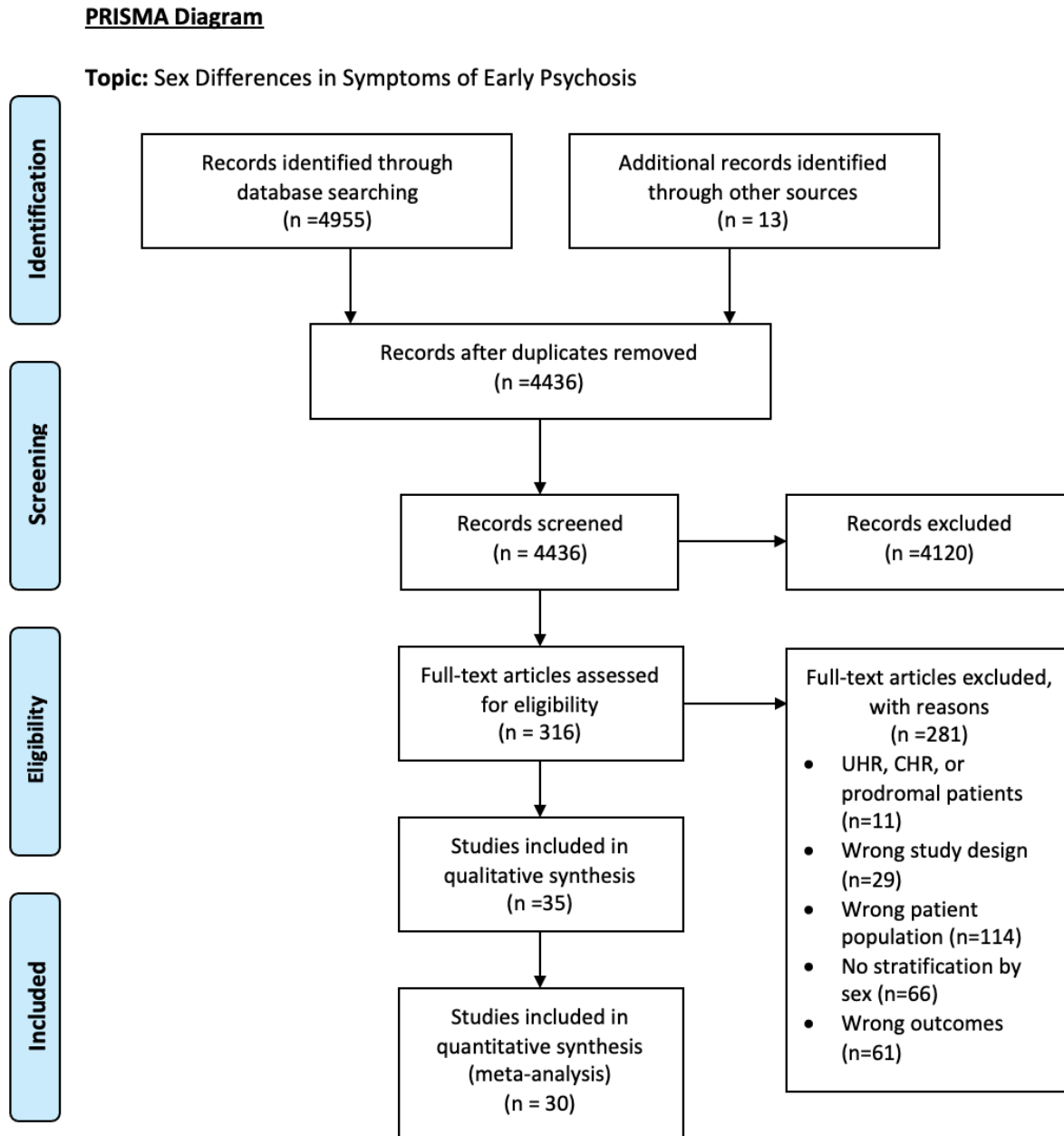
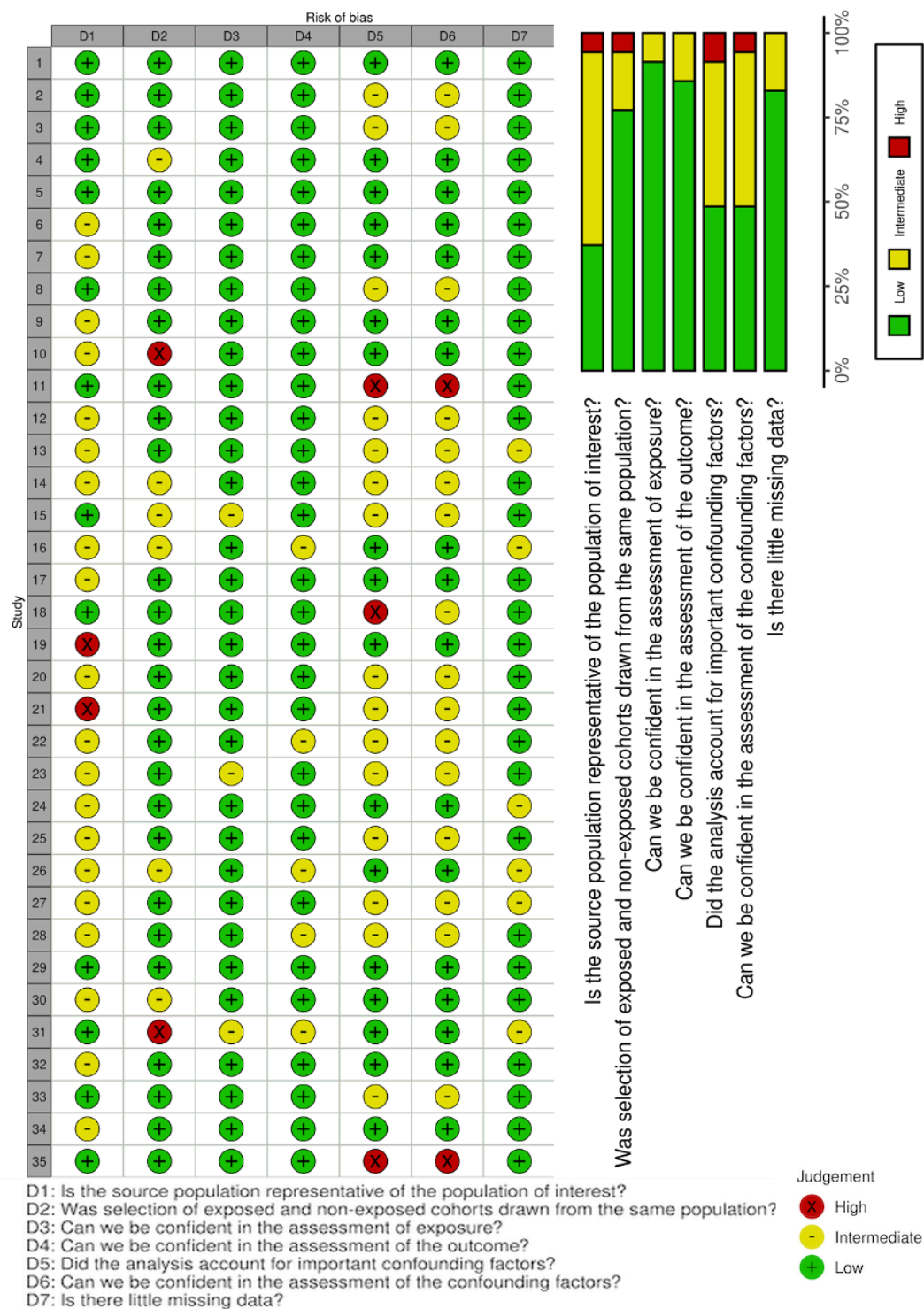
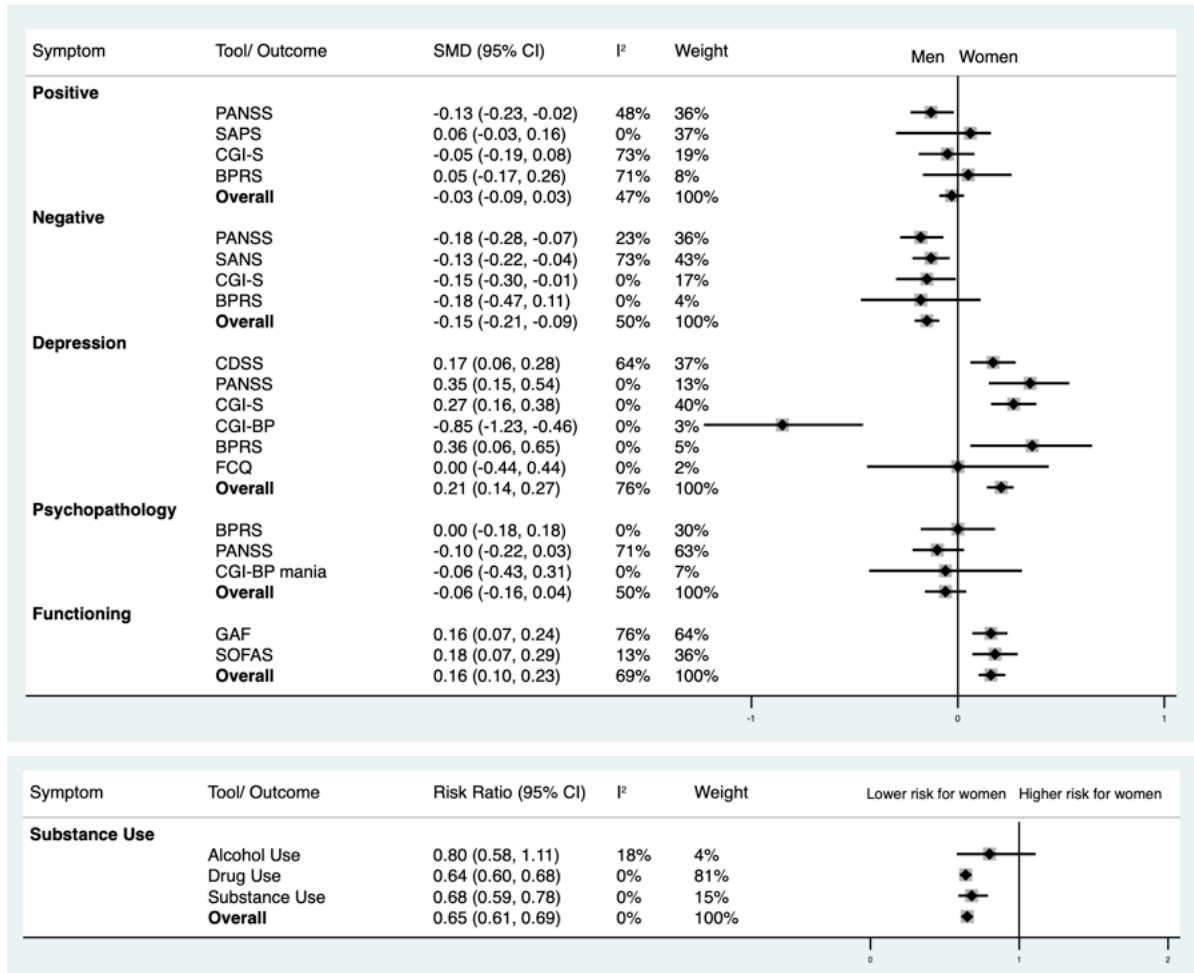
Figure 1: PRISMA diagram of study identification and selection for systematic review and meta-analysis

Figure 2: Summary of findings from the risk of bias assessment



Figures generated from <https://mcguinlu.shinyapps.io/robvis/>

Figure 3: Results from meta-analysis by symptom measure, with subgroup analysis by measurement tool (n=30)



Notes: SMD = Standardized Mean Difference, PANSS = Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale, SAPS = Scale for the Assessment of Positive Symptoms, CGI-S/BP = The Clinical Global Impression-Severity Scale/ Bipolar, BPRS = Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale, SANS = Scale for the Assessment of Negative Symptoms, CDSS = The Calgary Depression Scale, FCQ = Frankfurt Complaint Questionnaire, GAF = Global Assessment of Functioning Scale, SOFAS = Social and Occupational Functioning Assessment Scale