

Measured treatment differences between sexes and genders: A scoping review

--Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	PONE-D-26-09728R2
Article Type:	Research Article
Full Title:	Measured treatment differences between sexes and genders: A scoping review
Short Title:	Measured treatment differences between sexes and genders: A scoping review
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Keywords:	bias; Discrimination; healthcare; Feminism
Abstract:	Background: Sex and gender-based inequality is found throughout medicine. Although there has been significant research in gender disparities affecting healthcare professionals, there is a lack of research into gender differences in the treatment of patients. Despite recognition of systemic issues, recent empirical evidence on how gender influences actual treatment decisions remains fragmented across specialties. A preliminary search of MEDLINE, the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews and JBI (Joanna Briggs institute) Evidence Synthesis was conducted and no current or underway systematic reviews or scoping reviews on the topic were identified. Methods: Studies in English published between 2018 and 2023 were included. Only research which studied measurable differences in the care received by patients of different sexes or genders was included. Both authors independently screened the literature against the a priori defined eligibility criteria. A thematic synthesis approach was used and results summarised qualitatively. Results: Forty-one papers were included in this review. Of the thirty-eight retrospective case series, thirty-three found a significant difference between the treatment of male and female patients. Of the twenty-nine case series using a multivariate analysis, twenty-five studies found a significant difference in treatment between male and female patients. Conclusions: The results of this review indicate that men and women are frequently treated differently by healthcare systems. During 2018-2023, five hundred and fifty-one papers were published which studied gender-based differences in opportunities given to healthcare professionals, but only forty-one studying the treatment given to patients. This highlights an area of unmet research need.
Order of Authors:	Miriam Veenhuizen Andrew O'Malley
Opposed Reviewers:	
Response to Reviewers:	We again thank the reviewer and editor for their time and effort invested into this submission. Below, we outline the reviewer's most recent comments and indicate our adjustments made to the paper. - Tables 1 and 2 should be removed. The contents of these tables could be moved to the main text. We have removed Tables 1 and 2, and moved the contents to the main text as suggested. - Table 3 and Figure 1 should be combined into a standard PRISMA flowchart. A standard flowchart would also need the exact number of records retrieved from each database. We have combined Table 3 (now removed) and Figure 1 into a standard PRISMA flowchart. We have also included the number of records retrieved from each database. - Tables 4, 5, and 6 need to be revised. For example, in Table 4, different procedures within the same study should be presented in separate rows. - Please apply the same format to Tables 5 and 6. Tables 4, 5, and 6 (now Tables 1 to 3) have been reformatted as suggested, with

	separate rows for different procedures within the same study. We have also added years of publication to all references in these tables. - Also, move the table legends to the top of each table. We have moved the table captions/legends to the top of each table. - Please provide the Embase search strategy. We have provided the Embase search strategy in the appendix. - Please provide the exact start and end dates of the literature search (e.g., 01/01/2018–31/12/2024). We have provided the exact start and end dates of the literature search in the Appendix. Kind regards, Andrew O'Malley and Miriam Veenhuizen
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25 February 2026

Dear Editorial Board,

We wish to submit an original research article entitled “Measured Inequalities in sex and gender in the Practice of Medicine: A Scoping Review” for consideration by the PLOS One journal. We confirm that this work is original and has not been published elsewhere, nor is it currently under consideration for publication elsewhere.

In this paper, we summarise recent literature which studied how people of different genders are treated by healthcare systems worldwide. During 2018-2023, five hundred and fifty-one papers were published which studied gender-based differences in opportunities given to healthcare professionals, but only forty-one studying the treatment given to patients. This highlights an area of unmet research need. This is significant because in order to improve inequity in the treatment of people of different genders, the scale of the problem must first be identified. We believe that this manuscript will interest the readership of PLOS One.

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We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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Thank you for your consideration of this manuscript.

Sincerely,

Dr Andrew O'Malley

Measured treatment differences between sexes and genders: A scoping review

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1 Abstract

Background: Sex and gender-based inequality is found throughout medicine. Although there has been significant research in gender disparities affecting healthcare professionals, there is a lack of research into gender differences in the treatment of patients. Despite recognition of systemic issues, recent empirical evidence on how gender influences actual treatment decisions remains fragmented across specialties. A preliminary search of MEDLINE, the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews and JBI (Joanna Briggs institute) Evidence Synthesis was conducted and no current or underway systematic reviews or scoping reviews on the topic were identified.

Methods: Studies in English published between 2018 and 2023 were included. Only research which studied measurable differences in the care received by patients of different sexes or genders was included. Both authors independently screened the literature against the a priori defined eligibility criteria. A thematic synthesis approach was used and results summarised qualitatively.

Results: Forty-one papers were included in this review. Of the thirty-eight retrospective case series, thirty-three found a significant difference between the treatment of male and female patients. Of the twenty-nine case series using a multivariate analysis, twenty-five studies found a significant difference in treatment between male and female patients.

Conclusions: The results of this review indicate that men and women are frequently treated differently by healthcare systems. During 2018-2023, five hundred and fifty-one papers were published which studied gender-based differences in opportunities given to healthcare professionals, but only forty-one studying the treatment given to patients. This highlights an area of unmet research need.

Keywords: bias; discrimination; healthcare; feminism

38 2 Introduction

39 Sex inequities are evident throughout medicine. Women remain underrepresented in senior
40 academic roles (1), conference presentations (2), and surgical careers where male-
41 dominated culture and structural barriers persist (3). Harassment and discrimination during
42 training further entrench disadvantage, with one study reporting that 87% of women in
43 surgery experienced sex-based discrimination in medical school (4). These inequities extend
44 into pay gaps (5), differential allocation of healthcare resources (6), and even patient
45 interactions, where staff report gender- and race-based abuse (7, 8). Policy initiatives, such
46 as commitments from the Medical Schools Council and General Medical Council (9, 10),
47 signal recognition of the problem but persistent disparities remain.

48 Similar structural inequities also exist from a patient perspective. The field of women's health
49 has developed considerably since the women's health movement of the 1960s and 1970s,
50 which centred on reproductive rights and the exclusion of women from clinical research (11).
51 While the term sex refers to a biological difference between females and males, gender
52 refers to societal views and norms differentiating women from men (12). Over time, the
53 scope has broadened to encompass sex- and gender-based differences across all
54 populations, though significant challenges remain (11). Females are still underrepresented in
55 clinical research trials; this results in clinical guidelines being based on data skewed towards
56 male patients (13). However, some feel that knowledge of sex differences will not result in a
57 reduction in gender discrimination in healthcare (12).

58 The term administrative sex refers to the classification of a person's sex on official
59 documentation such as medical records (14). Current clinical databases have been
60 criticised for failing to allow for recording of a patient's gender, or for intersex patients (14).
61 The lack of information in medical databases can make research into sex and gender
62 inequality challenging (14).

63 Within healthcare, sex plays a role in the diagnosis and management of patients (13).
64 Research into this phenomenon began in the 1970s, with psychiatric and gynaecologic
65 practise coming under scrutiny (15). In the 1990s, the concept of the Yentl Syndrome was
66 published, describing poorer outcomes for women following myocardial infarction and
67 differences in clinical presentation (16). This work helped to catalyse the field of gender
68 medicine, which aims to research sex differences in disease and reduce gender-based
69 management disparities (13, 17).

70 Cardiovascular medicine illustrates many of these ongoing disparities. Females remain
71 substantially underrepresented in clinical trials of cardiovascular drugs, acute coronary
72 syndromes, heart failure and interventional procedures (18). Similar gaps exist in authorship
73 and leadership, with under-representation of women as investigators being associated with
74 lower recruitment of women as participants (18). Despite decades of institutional efforts,
75 including mandates from the National Institutes of Health and the FDA, females (particularly
76 females from underrepresented minority groups) continue to be under-enrolled in
77 cardiovascular research (19). This under-representation has clinical consequences,
78 contributing to reduced efficacy and higher rates of adverse effects in females. These
79 findings underscore the need for systematic approaches to embed gender-sensitive practice
80 into both research and healthcare delivery (11, 20). These patterns may reflect wider
81 systemic and societal issues.

82 The COVID-19 pandemic and contemporary social movements have significantly influenced
83 discourse on gender inequities in healthcare and medical education. The pandemic
84 threatened progress toward gender equity in academic medicine, as women faculty faced
85 disproportionate challenges from unequal household labour division and may experience
86 reduced academic productivity (21). Four key social movements (#MeToo, #NiUnaMenos,
87 intersectional feminism, and the global trans rights movement) are transforming health
88 sciences by forcing examination of gendered power relations (22). The pandemic revealed
89 structural gendered racism as a root cause of health inequities, particularly women of colour

90 who occupy disadvantaged positions in households, occupations, and healthcare institutions
91 (23). Intersectionality provides a useful conceptual lens, recognising that gender interacts
92 with other axes of identity such as race, class and age, compounding inequities (24, 25). In
93 healthcare, this perspective is vital for understanding how treatment disparities may be
94 shaped by multiple overlapping factors.

95 Research demonstrates that intersectionality significantly influences healthcare diagnosis,
96 treatment, and outcomes, though this area remains understudied. A systematic review found
97 that while implicit bias research in healthcare exists, studies examining multiple social
98 identity domains (race, sex, class) typically analyse them separately rather than investigating
99 their overlapping effects (26). In mental health, intersectional analysis reveals that sex, race,
100 class, and ethnicity combine in mutually constitutive ways to explain variation in ADHD
101 diagnosis patterns, demonstrating "paradoxical" stratification effects (27). Studies confirm
102 that socioeconomic status measures cannot fully account for sex inequalities in health, and
103 that both sex and class affect how risk factors translate into health outcomes through
104 complex intersections (28). In cardiovascular care, intersectionality approaches are needed
105 to understand how multiple factors interact to influence heart failure patients' behaviours and
106 health outcomes (29).

107 Despite recognition of systemic issues, recent empirical evidence on how sex influences
108 actual treatment decisions remains fragmented across specialties, with little synthesis of
109 findings across healthcare systems. A preliminary search of MEDLINE, the Cochrane
110 Database of Systematic Reviews and JBI Evidence Synthesis was conducted and no current
111 or underway systematic reviews or scoping reviews on the topic were identified.

112 The aim of this scoping review is to synthesise recent evidence (2018–2023) on sex-based
113 differences in the management of patients by healthcare systems, identifying where
114 inequities in treatment provision are most evident.

3 Methods

The scoping review was informed by the JBI methodology for scoping reviews (30). A research question was developed using the PCC (Population, Concept, Context) framework: What recent evidence of measured inequalities in sex and gender are found in the practice of medicine? Key terms were identified, and a search was conducted using Ovid Embase and PubMed databases. MEDLINE (via PubMed) and Embase (via Ovid) were selected as the two principal biomedical databases indexing the clinical literature relevant to the review question (31). Key terms were adapted for the requirements of each database. The Population was defined as “Patients with any clinical condition or presentation receiving care within healthcare systems.”. The Concept was “Inequalities in the management or treatment of patients based on sex or gender (including differences in diagnosis, access to interventions, procedures, medications, or outcomes).”, with key terms: “sexism”, “gender bias”, “sex bias”, “gender roles”, “gender inequality”, “sex inequality”, “sex factors”, “gender factors”, “gender equity”, “sex equity”, “gender disparities”, “sex disparities”, “gender discordance”, “sex discordance”. The Context was defined as “Healthcare delivery and practice, across specialties and healthcare systems in Europe, the US, Australia, and New Zealand, with key terms: “healthcare”, “medicine”.

The results of both searches were collected, uploaded to and stored in the literature management software EndNote. This scoping review considered both experimental and quasi-experimental study designs including randomized controlled trials, non-randomized controlled trials, before and after studies and interrupted time-series studies. In addition, analytical observational studies including prospective and retrospective cohort studies, case-control studies and analytical cross-sectional studies were considered for inclusion. This review also considered descriptive observational study designs including case series, individual case reports and descriptive cross-sectional studies for inclusion. Qualitative studies were considered if they presented primary data. Grey literature, opinion and editorial

articles, reviews and articles without primary data were not considered in this review. Full eligibility criteria were predetermined and used to screen the literature. The inclusion criteria were: written in English, published in or after 2018, published in peer reviewed journals and reporting primary data; address sex/gender differences affecting real patients; compares the healthcare received by patients of different genders. The exclusion criteria were: written in languages other than English, published before 2018, grey literature, opinion and editorial articles, reviews and articles without primary data; address sex/gender differences affecting virtual or simulated patients, healthcare professionals, or in authorship of academic publications; descriptions of differences in presentation between sex/gender without comment on the healthcare they receive, descriptions of the knowledge or attitudes of healthcare practitioners rather than their actions/the actions of systems towards patients, descriptions of patients' opinions on how healthcare should be apportioned, descriptions about barriers to access or lack of representation, only discussing interventions to previously identified inequalities, reviews the framing of disease in news articles, economic analysis.

Both authors independently screened the literature against the a priori defined eligibility criteria and disagreements were resolved through discussion between the authors. Quality appraisal of the included papers was undertaken using the JBI appraisal checklists (32). The JBI appraisal checklist is a widely-used method for assessing quality of evidence in healthcare research (33).

A spreadsheet with pre-determined columns was populated with information from each study, including year, authors, country of origin, participants, study type, outcomes measured, results, level of evidence and JBI checklist risk of bias results.

To identify themes and concepts across the included studies, a thematic synthesis approach was used (34). Quantitative and qualitative data from each study were compared and summarised qualitatively.

4 Results

The initial search of OVID Embase and PubMed after exclusion of duplicates returned 1,112 results. Title and abstract screening reduced this to fifty-seven results. Full text screening resulted in forty-one papers remaining for analysis (see Figure 1). The most common reason for non-inclusion of papers was that the study focused on differences in the treatment of healthcare professionals by gender rather than the treatment of patients. See Figure 1 for full information on reasons for exclusion.

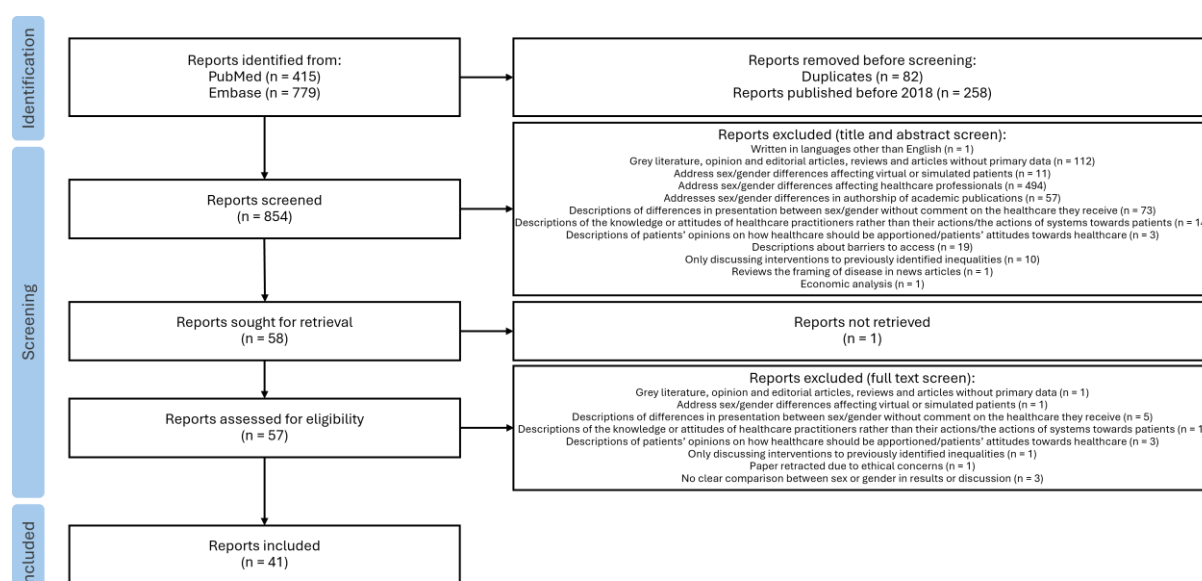


Figure 1: PRISMA flow chart

Of the forty-one papers included in this study, twenty-six were conducted in the United States (35-60), two in the United Kingdom (61, 62), one in Canada (63), one in China (64), two in Germany (65, 66), one in Portugal (67), one in the Netherlands (68), one in Norway (69), two in Sweden (70,71), one in Romania (72), one in Chile (73), one in Israel (74) and one across Europe (75). The studies were published in twenty-seven different journals between 2018 and 2023.

Thirty-eight were retrospective case series. One study combined retrospective case series with survey of participants, one combined retrospective case series with prospective case series and survey of participants and one study used mixed methods.

The papers were grouped by specialty area of medicine to aid the development of a synthesised narrative. Fifteen were from cardiovascular medicine (35, 36, 40-42, 49, 50, 52, 54, 57, 61, 65, 67, 71, 72), four from neurology (37, 44, 60, 69), one from renal medicine (38), four from surgical medicine (39, 56, 63, 66), three from transplant medicine (43, 59, 75), three from emergency medicine (45, 51, 55), three from endocrinology (46, 47, 68), three from psychiatry (48, 62, 70) two from medico-legal (58, 64), one from anaesthetics (53), one regarding waiting times across the health system (73) and one from primary care (74).

For the thirty-eight papers that used a retrospective case series, nine did not include multivariate analysis as part of their statistical analysis. Seventeen did not include the ethnicity of the participants. Thirteen did not include comorbid conditions in their description of the participants.

As all included papers were retrospective reviews of medical records, all results are assumed to be relating to the administrative sex of the patients. None of the included papers made any comment about the gender of patients, as opposed to sex. None of the reviews included any patients who were intersex.

Of the thirty-eight retrospective case series, thirty-three noted a statistically significant difference between the treatment of male and female patients. Of the twenty-nine case series using a multivariate analysis, twenty-five studies found a statistically significant difference in treatment between male and female patients.

4.1 Descriptive Results by Specialty

4.1.1 Cardiovascular

For cardiovascular conditions such as myocardial infarction, heart failure and supraventricular tachycardia, females are more likely to be managed conservatively with medication when compared to invasive procedures such as coronary artery bypass grafting, percutaneous coronary intervention or ablation therapy (41, 42, 50, 61, 67). One study showed that females had worse mortality when presenting with cardiovascular conditions (50), however the others that examined this found no significant difference in mortality (35, 61). In a Swedish study, the time from experiencing the first symptoms of a myocardial infarction to receiving a diagnostic electrocardiogram was longer for females (71). The discharge destination was examined in one study showing that females were more likely to be discharged to a skilled nursing facility after having a myocardial infarction, likely a marker of worse clinical outcomes (35). For patients with atherosclerosis of vessels, all studies found females were less likely than males to receive lipid lowering therapies (36, 40, 54, 65). In patients with diabetes, there was no statistically significant difference between the prescription of lipid-lowering therapies in males and females (72). During elective cardiovascular surgery females were more likely to receive allogeneic blood transfusion (which has a well-established link with poorer outcomes) (49). Post-aortic repair surgery, statistically significantly fewer females were discharged with optimal medical management (57).

The group-dynamics of the teams deciding on allocation of advanced heart-failure therapies (AHFT) affected the allocation process. Teams which functioned well were more likely to allocate AHFT to females than males, teams which functioned less well were more likely to allocate AHFT to men than women.

4.1.2 Neurology

For patients with Parkinson's disease, men were more likely to be referred for consideration of deep brain stimulation devices, an implantable device to help manage symptoms of Parkinson's disease. After referral, there was no statistically significant difference in whether males and females went on to have the procedure. For females who did not undergo surgery

this was more likely than in males to be due to patient preference (37). For patients with dementia, females were more likely to receive treatment (44). For patients admitted to hospital with pneumonia, males were more likely to be screened for underlying neurological causes with a speech and language consult (60). In the data from a large trial of thrombolysis (an emergency treatment for stroke) no significant difference was found between the treatment of males and females (69).

4.1.3 Endocrinology and Diabetes

For patients with diabetes, studies found no difference in the management between males and females (47, 68). For children, a study found no difference in the number of males vs females who are overweight being screened for diabetes. Males who were obese were more likely than females to be screened for diabetes (46).

4.1.4 Renal and Transplant Medicine

For the papers that looked at likelihood of liver transplantation, both found that males were more likely to receive a liver transplant than females (43, 75). Females on the transplant list were more likely to be hospitalised and more likely to be transplanted from the intensive care unit (59).

For dialysis a permanent means of access is preferred to a central venous catheter, females who required dialysis were found to spend longer using a central venous catheter and were less likely to transition to a permanent means of access (38).

4.1.5 Surgery

Length of stay in hospital (a negative outcome) was longer for females than males in two of three surgical studies (39, 66). There was no difference in discharge destination found for males and females who had elective adult spinal deformity correction (39). Endovascular treatment is a preferred treatment option for hernia repair operations however females were more likely to receive open hernia repairs (66).

When older patients were studied in Canada, females were less likely to be offered an operation (63). The outcomes for males and females who had been offered an operation were not significantly different (63). Prior to surgical management for symptomatic spinal stenosis, females were advised to trial significantly more non-operative treatments (56).

4.1.6 Emergency Medicine

Females were less likely to receive treatment from prehospital emergency medical teams both with targeted temperature management for out of hospital cardiac arrests (45), and opioids for pain management (51). Bystanders were less likely to use a defibrillator on females in cardiac arrest (55). A decision to terminate resuscitation efforts was less likely in females in cardiac arrest compared with males. Females were more likely to survive to hospital admission compared with men (55).

4.1.7 Anaesthetics

Females were less likely to receive an appropriate size of endotracheal tube for their height, receiving on average tubes too large for them (53).

4.1.8 Psychiatry

Males were less likely to receive a diagnosis of bipolar disorder than females (48). Females were less likely to be treated with clozapine for treatment resistant schizophrenia (62). Males with depression are more likely to be prescribed medications (70) but after taking into account six month follow up, are equally likely to be sick-leave certified (70).

4.1.9 Waiting Times

In a comparison of waiting times between males and females in Chile, sixteen conditions were studied (73). After multivariate analysis, in nine there was no significant difference in waiting times between males and females. For two conditions males waited for significantly longer and in five females waited significantly longer than males (73).

4.1.10 Primary Care

In a review of primary care delivery to geriatric patients in Israel, females were vaccinated at a lower rate (74). Females were prescribed benzodiazepines at a higher rate than males (74).

4.1.11 Medico-legal

For drug adverse events that were documented by health-care professionals, more were documented for females. The adverse reactions documented for females were less serious than the events documented for males (58). One of the most common adverse drug events for females listed was “feeling hot”, however for males one of the most common adverse drug events listed was “death” (58).

A Chinese study of medical errors in elderly patients found numerical differences in the rates of reported errors between males and females between specialties, however there was no statistical analysis of the cases (64). Females were more likely to report medical errors in nephrology, respiratory, oncology, primary care and internal medicine. Males were more likely to report medical errors in the emergency department, general surgery and medical technology departments. Incidence of errors in the orthopaedic department was the same between males and females (64).

4.2 Results of Thematic Analysis

4.2.1 Interventional procedures

A theme which emerged during the analysis was papers studying the likelihood of patients of different sex's having interventional procedures. The ten papers which studied this question are summarised in Table 1 below. The effect direction and estimate refer to the likelihood of female patients receiving an interventional procedure as compared with male patients.

Table 1: Likelihood of interventional procedures. AOR = adjusted odds ratio, uOR = unadjusted odds ratio, NR = not recorded, asHR = adjusted subdistribution hazard ratio, uIRR = unadjusted incidence rate ratio.

Study	JBI bias risk	Level of evidence	Effect direction	Effect estimate (95% confidence interval)	p-value
Sacks, N.C. et al. (2020)					
Ablation for paroxysmal supra-ventricular tachycardia	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.83 (0.70-0.98)	0.0278
Verghese, D. et al. (2022)					
Coronary angiography	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.65 (0.64-0.66)	<0.001
Early angiography	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.70 (0.69-0.71)	<0.001
Percutaneous coronary intervention	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.69 (0.68-0.70)	<0.001
Jackson, A. M. et al. (2020)					
Coronary angiography	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.66 (0.60 - 0.73)	<0.0001
Percutaneous coronary intervention	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.60 (0.54-0.66)	<0.0001
Araujo, C. et al. (2018)					
Coronary angiography: STEMI group	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.61 (0.41-0.90)	0.0138
Coronary angiography: NSTEMI group	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	aOR 0.79 (0.62-1.01)	≥ 0.05
Shpiner, D. S. et al. (2019)					
Referral for DBS surgery	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.51 (0.37-0.71)	<0.0001
Proceeding with DBS surgery after referral	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	uOR 0.94 (0.52-1.68)	0.8220

Darden, M. et al. (2021)					
Liver transplant	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.854 (NR)	0.002
Liver ablation	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	aOR 1.623 (NR)	0.000
Liver resection	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.918 (NR)	0.021
Listabarth, S. et al. (2022)					
Liver transplant	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.78 (0.73-0.82)	<0.0001
Arya, S. et al. (2020)					
Transition to permanent means of access for dialysis	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	asHR 0.96(0.93-0.98)	<0.001
Rucker, D. et al. (2019)					
Operative management	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.74 (0.56-0.97)	0.03
Tandon, V. et al. (2020)					
Number of procedures	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uIRR 0.84 m(NR)	<0.05
Breathett, K. et al. (2023)					
Allocated to advanced therapies	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	NR	NR

308

309 4.2.2 Guideline compliant care/ optimal medical management

310 Another theme which emerged during the analysis was papers studying the likelihood of
311 patients of different sex's having care which was compliant with guidelines. The seventeen
312 papers which studied this question are summarised in Table 2 below. The effect direction
313 and estimate refer to the likelihood of female patients receiving guideline-compliant care as
314 compared with male patients.

315 Table 2: Likelihood of guideline compliant care. aOR = adjusted odds ratio, uOR = unadjusted odds ratio, aHR =
316 adjusted hazard ratio, a% difference = adjusted percentage difference.

Study	JB1 bias risk	Level of evidence	Effect direction	Effect estimate (95% confidence interval)	p-value
Shen, X. et al. (2019)					
Statin prescription from cardiologist: commercial insurance plan	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.69 (0.65-0.74)	<0.0001
Statin prescription from cardiologist: Medicare Advantage insurance plan	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.78 (0.76-0.79)	<0.0001
Podell, R. et al. (2018)					
Influenza vaccination	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.83 (0.83-0.84)	<0.0001
Pneumococcal vaccination	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.79 (0.78-0.80)	<0.0001
Mahtta, D. et al. (2020)					
Statin prescription	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.68 (0.62-0.75)	<0.0001
Peters, F. et al. (2020)					
Optimal pharmacological treatment	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.89 (0.86-0.92)	<0.0001
Găman, M. A. et al. (2020)					
Statin prescription	High	Level 4	— (no effect)	uOR 0.62 (0.36-1.08)	0.09
Ilyas, S. et al. (2022)					
Aspirin at discharge	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.74 (0.63-0.86)	0.0001
Statin at discharge	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.66 (0.56-0.76)	<0.0001

Lu, Z. K. et al. (2021)					
Anti-dementia medications	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	aOR 1.71(1.19-2.45)	0.0036
Stodolski, M. et al. (2020)					
Endoscopic hernia repair	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.29 (0.19-0.46)	<0.0001
Morris, N. et al. (2021)					
Targeted temperature management	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.90 (0.87-0.92)	<0.001
Wimbish, L. et al. (2022)					
Opioid administration	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.90(NR)	0.004
Wesley, E. et al. (2021)					
Clozapine prescription	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.66 (0.44-0.97)	<0.05
Ihle-Hansen, H. et al. (2022)					
Onset of symptoms to admission	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	Mean 91.6 vs 95.3 min	0.2900
Door to needle time	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	Mean 38.6 vs 37.0 min	0.3100
Ahmed, F. et al. (2022)					
Prescribed statin therapy	Low	Level 4	— (no effect)	uOR 1.14 (0.61-2.12)	0.682
Received appropriate intensity statin therapy	Low	Level 4	— (no effect)	uOR 1.14 (0.64-2.00)	0.658
Bak, L. et al. (2023)					
19 diabetes process measurements	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	aORs ranged from 0.87-1.06	All ≥0.06
Roberts, M. M. et al. (2023)					
Aspirin	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	a% difference -	<0.001

				4.36 (-5.38--3.34)	
Cholesterol management	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	a% difference -3.88 (-4.63--3.14)	<0.001
BP control	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	a% difference 1.80 (1.28-2.32)	<0.001
Smoking cessation counselling	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	a% difference 1.67 (0.95-2.38)	<0.001
Bolingier, C. et al. (2020)					
Speech and language consult	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.73 (0.58-0.91)	0.0051
Vajravelu, M. E. et al. (2021)					
Diabetes screening in overweight patients	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	aHR 1.67 (1.43-2.00)	<0.0001
Diabetes screening in obese patients	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	aHR 1.43(1.43-1.67)	<0.0001

4.3 Analysis of intersectional identities

Out of the forty-one papers, twenty nine did not have result reporting for identities other than sex. Where results were reported for other identities such as age or ethnicity, these were presented separately in seven papers. Five papers gave results for intersectional identities, all of these reported the intersection between sex and ethnicity. See Table 3 below for a summary of these results.

Table 3: Intersectional identity results. aOR = adjusted odds ratio, uOR = unadjusted odds ratio, aHR = adjusted hazard ratio, a% difference = adjusted percentage difference, aCE = adjusted estimate of co-efficient, NR = not reported

Study	JBI bias risk	Level of evidence	Effect direction	Effect estimate (95% confidence interval)	p-value
Darden, M. et al. (2021)					
Caucasian Women transplant	Moderate	Level 4	(decreased)	0.82 (0.73-0.91) [aOR]	<0.001
African-American women transplant	Moderate	Level 4	(decreased)	0.42 (0.32-0.54) [aOR]	<0.001
Caucasian women resection	Moderate	Level 4	(increased)	1.597 (1.446-1.765) [aOR]	<0.001
African-American women resection	Moderate	Level 4	(increased)	1.579 (1.303-1.913) [aOR]	<0.001
Caucasian women ablation	Moderate	Level 4	(decreased)	0.918 (0.849-0.993) [aOR]	0.033
African-American women ablation	Moderate	Level 4	(decreased)	0.813 (0.684-0.967) [aOR]	0.020
Ahmed, F. et al. (2022)					
White males vs white female statin prescription	Low	Level 4	— (No Effect)	0.68 (0.25–1.90) [aOR]	0.4600
Non-white females vs white female statin prescription	Low	Level 4	— (No Effect)	Effect)0.36 (0.12–1.06) [aOR]	0.0600
Non white males vs white female	Low	Level 4	— (No Effect)	2.19 (0.53–8.98) [aOR]	0.2800

statin prescription					
Tandon, V. et al. (2020)					
Number of procedures	Moderate	Level 4	Native american women had the lowest average number of procedures, with asian men having the highest	NR	NR
Breathett, K. et al. (2023)					
Race x gender with group function score probability of allocation to advanced heart failure therapies	Moderate	Level 4	— (No Effect)	-0.37 (-3.453-2.713) [aCE]	0.815

5 Discussion

Gender based differences in the treatment of patients were unable to be studied in this scoping review due to the lack of research found containing information on the gender of patients. This is likely due to the reliance on electronic health records for the papers studied in this scoping review. The electronic health records contain information on the administrative sex of patients, rather than their gender. This issue could be addressed using prospective studies designed specifically to answer questions regarding gender- based inequality in the current healthcare system. The HL7 gender harmony model is a logical model which gives a framework for healthcare organisations to document additional information regarding a patient's sex and gender (14). If this model or similar were to be

adopted into wide-spread use, research into gender inequality within healthcare could be undertaken at a larger scale.

The results of this scoping review indicate that males and females are frequently treated differently by healthcare systems, though the evidence does not consistently clarify whether such differences confer disadvantage to either sex. Many studies, excluded from the formal part of this review, did not directly measure patient care but instead examined professional attitudes or workforce equity, which fall outside the central focus here. The studies that did examine management revealed variation in treatment practices, raising questions about whether these reflect appropriate clinical considerations or systemic inequities. Notably, very few papers explicitly referenced clinical guidelines recommending sex-specific management, leaving uncertainty about the drivers of observed disparities. Observed differences in treatment practices may relate to patient choice or barriers to access treatment. These findings align with other adjacent reviews, which have synthesised evidence of gender inequities across multiple medical specialties, revealing persistent disparities in both clinical care delivery and professional representation. Grinberg & Sela (76) identified significant gender biases in pain management, with women receiving inadequate analgesia during medical procedures due to unconscious biases, lack of sex-specific protocols, and cultural stereotypes. Shaw et al. (77) examined cardiovascular medicine, emphasizing that achieving equitable care requires consideration of unique gendered structural determinants of health and development of women-optimised care pathways. Ros et al. (78) conducted a broader scoping review revealing substantial inequities in women's representation across medical professions, particularly in leadership positions and senior faculty roles, with only 13% of identified studies addressing potential interventions. Parsons Leigh et al. (79) focused on critical care medicine, noting it has among the lowest female representation and proposing comprehensive strategies to synthesise and implement solutions for improving gender equity.

Most included studies originated from the United States, limiting the generalisability of findings. This raises the need to examine evidence from other regions such as Europe, the UK, and Australasia, where healthcare systems and policy frameworks differ. Research evidence reveals significant sex inequities in healthcare delivery across the UK and Europe. In the UK's National Health Service, females and older people receive guideline-recommended cardiovascular treatments less frequently than males and younger people, with limited research available on ethnic disparities (80). A broader European analysis found that after adjusting for healthcare needs, significant pro-rich inequity emerged in half of studied countries for physician contacts, primarily due to higher-income groups' greater use of specialist services while lower-income groups relied more on general practitioner care (81). Sex bias in healthcare manifests in two ways: assuming similarities between male's and female's health situations when differences exist, and assuming differences where similarities occur, both potentially leading to negative health outcomes for females (82). Despite equity being a central NHS objective since 1948, important inequities persist in UK healthcare access, though methodological limitations often prevent firm conclusions about underlying causes (83). This regional evidence reinforces the broader pattern identified in this review, showing that inequities in healthcare delivery are not confined to the US context but also persist across European systems.

A consistent trend was observed: females were statistically less likely than males with similar clinical characteristics to be offered invasive management, and when managed conservatively, females were statistically less likely to receive optimal pharmacological therapy. It is not possible to determine whether this was as a result of inequities or due to another cause. Breathett et al. studied how group dynamics may influence the allocation of treatment to patients and found that worse group dynamics resulted in females and patients of colour being less likely to be allocated intensive treatment options.

Much of the recent research on sex differences in management has been conducted in cardiovascular medicine, reflecting the historical prominence of this field since early studies

on sex-based disparities (82). It remains unclear whether this concentration reflects a true predominance of inequities in cardiovascular care or simply research inertia building on prior work.

Research has identified several explanations for observed sex differences in healthcare delivery. Raine (84) found evidence of sex disparities across multiple conditions, with males more likely to receive certain procedures like renal transplantation and HIV treatments, while females were more likely to undergo liver transplantation and cataract surgery. The study attributed these differences to both demand factors (disease prevalence, severity, patient preferences) and supply factors (clinical judgment). With patient preference also being attributed to the reduced implantation of deep-brain stimulation devices in females in one study in this review (37). Elderkin-Thompson & Waitzkin (85) highlighted communication differences as a key factor, noting that physicians commonly attribute women's symptoms to "over anxiousness" and make more diagnostic errors with female patients, even when positive test results are present. These explanations provide possible mechanisms underlying the consistent trend observed in this review, where females are statistically less likely than males to receive invasive management or optimal pharmacological therapy.

Although thirteen studies reported results comparing outcomes for groups other than males and females, only four presented the results using intersectional identities. The results of these studies are summarised in Table 3, no clear conclusions could be drawn due to the lack of data. The reporting of results for different identities separately rather than in an intersectional manner has been noted in previous reviews (26).

The evidence base remains limited in quality. Many studies relied on retrospective analyses of medical records, with incomplete data limiting the strength of conclusions. Several did not perform multivariate analyses to adjust for potential confounders such as race, comorbidity, or socioeconomic status. Future research should prioritise prospective designs to establish whether differences are attributable to sex itself rather than intersecting factors.

Several major international funding agencies have implemented policies requiring or encouraging sex and gender analysis in health research. The National Institutes of Health (NIH) has instituted policies requiring researchers to include appropriate populations and analyse data accordingly, focusing on sex as a biological variable (SABV) to enhance reproducibility (86, 87). The Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) implemented a sex- and gender-based analysis (SGBA) policy, with mandatory questions introduced in 2010 showing increased compliance over time, though disparities across disciplines persist (87, 88). The European Commission requires integration of the "gender dimension," incorporating sex, gender, and intersectional analysis into research and innovation (87). A comprehensive analysis of 22 major national funding agencies across six continents reveals varying approaches to implementing sex, gender, and diversity analysis policies, highlighting opportunities for improved international collaboration and research excellence (89).

A limitation of this paper relates to the methodology employed. Scoping reviews in health research face several common methodological limitations that must be acknowledged when interpreting findings. Key limitations include a lack of prospective studies, non-representative samples that limit generalizability, and insufficient data on mediators and moderators of relationships between variables (90). The heterogeneous nature of literature in scoping reviews creates challenges in gathering, analysing, and interpreting information, with epistemological considerations significantly influencing methodological decisions (91). The search was restricted to two biomedical databases and did not include allied health or multidisciplinary indexes such as CINAHL, so relevant studies indexed solely in those sources may have been missed. Consistent with the mapping aim of a scoping review, the consistency of effect directions observed across specialties suggests the principal patterns are unlikely to be materially altered by a small number of additional records.

6 Conclusions

This review demonstrates that recent evidence points to persistent sex-based differences in the treatment of patients. Across multiple specialties, the most consistent finding was that females were statistically less likely than males with comparable clinical characteristics to receive invasive or intensive treatments, and when treated conservatively, were less likely to receive guideline compliant therapy. Important gaps in evidence quality exist, with many studies limited by retrospective designs, incomplete adjustment for confounders, and a predominance of US-based data. A gap in research investigating the gender of patients rather than administrative sex was evident. Future research must integrate equity considerations and intersectional analysis into study design, employ rigorous analytical methods, and extend to diverse healthcare systems. Addressing these gaps will be critical to determining whether observed differences represent appropriate clinical variation or systemic inequities, and to ensuring that practice reflects equitable standards of care.

Acknowledgements

None

Author Contributions

MV designed and performed the search. MV and AO reviewed results of search. Both authors contributed to, read and approved the final manuscript.

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Statements and Declarations

Ethical Considerations

Not applicable

Consent to participate

Not applicable

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Declaration of conflicting interests

The authors declare that they have no conflicting interests

Funding

No financial declarations

Availability of data and materials

Not applicable

727 Appendix 1

728 PubMed Search term 01/01/2018 – 19/12/2023

729 (sexism [tiab] OR "gender bias" [tiab] OR "sex bias" [tiab] OR "gender roles" [tiab] OR

730 "gender

731 inequality" [tiab] OR "sex inequality" [tiab] OR "sex factors" [tiab] OR "gender factors" [tiab]

732 "gender equity" [tiab] OR "sex equity" [tiab] OR "gender disparities" [tiab] OR "sex

733 disparities"

734 [tiab] OR "gender discordance" [tiab] OR "sex discordance"[tiab]) AND ("healthcare" [tiab]

735 OR "medicine" [tiab])

736

737 Embase Search term 01/01/2018 – 19/12/2023

738 ('sexism':ti,ab OR 'gender bias':ti,ab OR 'sex bias':ti,ab OR 'gender roles':ti,ab OR 'gender

739 inequality':ti,ab OR 'sex inequality':ti,ab OR 'sex factors':ti,ab OR 'gender factors':ti,ab OR

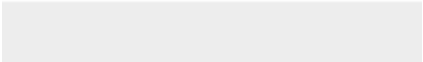
740 'gender equity':ti,ab OR 'sex equity':ti,ab OR 'gender disparities':ti,ab OR 'sex

741 disparities':ti,ab OR 'gender discordance':ti,ab OR 'sex discordance':ti,ab) AND

742 ('healthcare':ti,ab OR 'medicine':ti,ab)

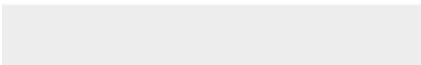


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1 Measured treatment differences
2 between
3 sexes and genders:
4 A scoping review

5
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13

1 Abstract

Background: Sex and gender-based inequality is found throughout medicine. Although there has been significant research in gender disparities affecting healthcare professionals, there is a lack of research into gender differences in the treatment of patients. Despite recognition of systemic issues, recent empirical evidence on how gender influences actual treatment decisions remains fragmented across specialties. A preliminary search of MEDLINE, the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews and JBI (Joanna Briggs institute) Evidence Synthesis was conducted and no current or underway systematic reviews or scoping reviews on the topic were identified.

Methods: Studies in English published between 2018 and 2023 were included. Only research which studied measurable differences in the care received by patients of different sexes or genders was included. Both authors independently screened the literature against the a priori defined eligibility criteria. A thematic synthesis approach was used and results summarised qualitatively.

Results: Forty-one papers were included in this review. Of the thirty-eight retrospective case series, thirty-three found a significant difference between the treatment of male and female patients. Of the twenty-nine case series using a multivariate analysis, twenty-five studies found a significant difference in treatment between male and female patients.

Conclusions: The results of this review indicate that men and women are frequently treated differently by healthcare systems. During 2018-2023, five hundred and fifty-one papers were published which studied gender-based differences in opportunities given to healthcare professionals, but only forty-one studying the treatment given to patients. This highlights an area of unmet research need.

Keywords: bias; discrimination; healthcare; feminism

2 Introduction

Sex inequities are evident throughout medicine. Women remain underrepresented in senior academic roles (1), conference presentations (2), and surgical careers where male-dominated culture and structural barriers persist (3). Harassment and discrimination during training further entrench disadvantage, with one study reporting that 87% of women in surgery experienced sex-based discrimination in medical school (4). These inequities extend into pay gaps (5), differential allocation of healthcare resources (6), and even patient interactions, where staff report gender- and race-based abuse (7, 8). Policy initiatives, such as commitments from the Medical Schools Council and General Medical Council (9, 10), signal recognition of the problem but persistent disparities remain.

Similar structural inequities also exist from a patient perspective. The field of women's health has developed considerably since the women's health movement of the 1960s and 1970s, which centred on reproductive rights and the exclusion of women from clinical research (11). While the term sex refers to a biological difference between females and males, gender refers to societal views and norms differentiating women from men (12). Over time, the scope has broadened to encompass sex- and gender-based differences across all populations, though significant challenges remain (11). Females are still underrepresented in clinical research trials; this results in clinical guidelines being based on data skewed towards male patients (13). However, some feel that knowledge of sex differences will not result in a reduction in gender discrimination in healthcare (12).

The term administrative sex refers to the classification of a person's sex on official documentation such as medical records (14). Current clinical databases have been criticised for failing to allow for recording of a patient's gender, or for intersex patients (14). The lack of information in medical databases can make research into sex and gender inequality challenging (14).

63 Within healthcare, sex plays a role in the diagnosis and management of patients (13).
64 Research into this phenomenon began in the 1970s, with psychiatric and gynaecologic
65 practise coming under scrutiny (15). In the 1990s, the concept of the Yentl Syndrome was
66 published, describing poorer outcomes for women following myocardial infarction and
67 differences in clinical presentation (16). This work helped to catalyse the field of gender
68 medicine, which aims to research sex differences in disease and reduce gender-based
69 management disparities (13, 17).

70 Cardiovascular medicine illustrates many of these ongoing disparities. Females remain
71 substantially underrepresented in clinical trials of cardiovascular drugs, acute coronary
72 syndromes, heart failure and interventional procedures (18). Similar gaps exist in authorship
73 and leadership, with under-representation of women as investigators being associated with
74 lower recruitment of women as participants (18). Despite decades of institutional efforts,
75 including mandates from the National Institutes of Health and the FDA, females (particularly
76 females from underrepresented minority groups) continue to be under-enrolled in
77 cardiovascular research (19). This under-representation has clinical consequences,
78 contributing to reduced efficacy and higher rates of adverse effects in females. These
79 findings underscore the need for systematic approaches to embed gender-sensitive practice
80 into both research and healthcare delivery (11, 20). These patterns may reflect wider
81 systemic and societal issues.

82 The COVID-19 pandemic and contemporary social movements have significantly influenced
83 discourse on gender inequities in healthcare and medical education. The pandemic
84 threatened progress toward gender equity in academic medicine, as women faculty faced
85 disproportionate challenges from unequal household labour division and may experience
86 reduced academic productivity (21). Four key social movements (#MeToo, #NiUnaMenos,
87 intersectional feminism, and the global trans rights movement) are transforming health
88 sciences by forcing examination of gendered power relations (22). The pandemic revealed
89 structural gendered racism as a root cause of health inequities, particularly women of colour

90 who occupy disadvantaged positions in households, occupations, and healthcare institutions
91 (23). Intersectionality provides a useful conceptual lens, recognising that gender interacts
92 with other axes of identity such as race, class and age, compounding inequities (24, 25). In
93 healthcare, this perspective is vital for understanding how treatment disparities may be
94 shaped by multiple overlapping factors.

95 Research demonstrates that intersectionality significantly influences healthcare diagnosis,
96 treatment, and outcomes, though this area remains understudied. A systematic review found
97 that while implicit bias research in healthcare exists, studies examining multiple social
98 identity domains (race, sex, class) typically analyse them separately rather than investigating
99 their overlapping effects (26). In mental health, intersectional analysis reveals that sex, race,
100 class, and ethnicity combine in mutually constitutive ways to explain variation in ADHD
101 diagnosis patterns, demonstrating "paradoxical" stratification effects (27). Studies confirm
102 that socioeconomic status measures cannot fully account for sex inequalities in health, and
103 that both sex and class affect how risk factors translate into health outcomes through
104 complex intersections (28). In cardiovascular care, intersectionality approaches are needed
105 to understand how multiple factors interact to influence heart failure patients' behaviours and
106 health outcomes (29).

107 Despite recognition of systemic issues, recent empirical evidence on how sex influences
108 actual treatment decisions remains fragmented across specialties, with little synthesis of
109 findings across healthcare systems. A preliminary search of MEDLINE, the Cochrane
110 Database of Systematic Reviews and JBI Evidence Synthesis was conducted and no current
111 or underway systematic reviews or scoping reviews on the topic were identified.

112 The aim of this scoping review is to synthesise recent evidence (2018–2023) on sex-based
113 differences in the management of patients by healthcare systems, identifying where
114 inequities in treatment provision are most evident.

115 **3 Methods**

116 The scoping review was informed by the JBI methodology for scoping reviews (30). A
117 research question was developed using the PCC (Population, Concept, Context) framework:
118 What recent evidence of measured inequalities in sex and gender are found in the practice
119 of medicine? Key terms were identified (~~Table 1~~), and a search was conducted using Ovid
120 Embase and PubMed databases. MEDLINE (via PubMed) and Embase (via Ovid) were
121 selected as the two principal biomedical databases indexing the clinical literature relevant to
122 the review question (31). Key terms were adapted for the requirements of each database.
123 The Population was defined as “Patients with any clinical condition or presentation receiving
124 care within healthcare systems.”. The Concept was “Inequalities in the management or
125 treatment of patients based on sex or gender (including differences in diagnosis, access to
126 interventions, procedures, medications, or outcomes).”, with key terms: “sexism”, “gender
127 bias”, “sex bias”, “gender roles”, “gender inequality”, “sex inequality”, “sex factors”, “gender
128 factors”, “gender equity”, “sex equity”, “gender disparities”, “sex disparities”, “gender
129 discordance”, “sex discordance”. The Context was defined as “Healthcare delivery and
130 practice, across specialties and healthcare systems in Europe, the US, Australia, and New
131 Zealand, with key terms: “healthcare”, “medicine”.

PCC Component	Key Terms
Population	Patients with any clinical condition or presentation receiving care within healthcare systems.
Concept	Inequalities in the management or treatment of patients based on sex or gender (including differences in diagnosis, access to interventions, procedures, medications, or outcomes). Sexism, “gender bias”, “sex bias”, “gender roles”, “gender inequality”, “sex inequality”, “sex factors”, “gender factors”, “gender equity”, “sex

	equity", "gender disparities", "sex disparities", "gender discordance", "sex discordance"
Context	Healthcare delivery and practice, across specialties and healthcare systems in Europe, the US, Australia, and New Zealand. "healthcare", "medicine"

Table 1: PCC framework and related key words for the search strategy

The results of both searches were collected, uploaded to and stored in the literature management software EndNote. This scoping review considered both experimental and quasi-experimental study designs including randomized controlled trials, non-randomized controlled trials, before and after studies and interrupted time-series studies. In addition, analytical observational studies including prospective and retrospective cohort studies, case-control studies and analytical cross-sectional studies were considered for inclusion. This review also considered descriptive observational study designs including case series, individual case reports and descriptive cross-sectional studies for inclusion. Qualitative studies were considered if they presented primary data. Grey literature, opinion and editorial articles, reviews and articles without primary data were not considered in this review. Full eligibility criteria, ~~presented in Table 2,~~ were predetermined and used to screen the literature. The inclusion criteria were: written in English, published in or after 2018, published in peer reviewed journals and reporting primary data; address sex/gender differences affecting real patients; compares the healthcare received by patients of different genders. The exclusion criteria were: written in languages other than English, published before 2018, grey literature, opinion and editorial articles, reviews and articles without primary data; address sex/gender differences affecting virtual or simulated patients, healthcare professionals, or in authorship of academic publications; descriptions of differences in presentation between sex/gender without comment on the healthcare they receive, descriptions of the knowledge or attitudes of healthcare practitioners rather than their

153 actions/the actions of systems towards patients, descriptions of patients' opinions on how
 154 healthcare should be apportioned, descriptions about barriers to access or lack of
 155 representation, only discussing interventions to previously identified inequalities, reviews the
 156 framing of disease in news articles, economic analysis.

Inclusion-	Exclusion-
Written in English- Published in or after 2018 Published in peer reviewed journals and reporting primary data-	Written in languages other than English Published before 2018 Grey literature, opinion and editorial articles, reviews and articles without primary data-
Address sex/gender differences affecting real patients	Address sex/gender differences affecting virtual or simulated patients Addressing sex/gender differences affecting healthcare professionals- Addresses sex/gender differences in authorship of academic publications-
Compares the healthcare received by patients of different genders-	Descriptions of differences in presentation between sex/gender without comment on the healthcare they receive- Descriptions of the knowledge or attitudes of healthcare practitioners rather than their actions/the actions of systems towards patients-

	Descriptions of patients' opinions on how healthcare should be apportioned- Descriptions about barriers to access or lack of representation Only discussing interventions to previously identified inequalities- Reviews the framing of disease in news articles Economic analysis
--	--

-Table 2:-Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Both authors independently screened the literature against the a priori defined eligibility criteria and disagreements were resolved through discussion between the authors. Quality appraisal of the included papers was undertaken using the JBI appraisal checklists (32). The JBI appraisal checklist is a widely-used method for assessing quality of evidence in healthcare research (33).

A spreadsheet with pre-determined columns was populated with information from each study, including year, authors, country of origin, participants, study type, outcomes measured, results, level of evidence and JBI checklist risk of bias results.

To identify themes and concepts across the included studies, a thematic synthesis approach was used (34). Quantitative and qualitative data from each study were compared and summarised qualitatively.

4 Results

The initial search of OVID Embase and PubMed after exclusion of duplicates returned 1,112 results. Title and abstract screening reduced this to fifty-seven results. Full text screening resulted in forty-one papers remaining for analysis (see Figure 1). The most common reason for non-inclusion of papers was that the study focused on differences in the treatment of healthcare professionals by gender rather than the treatment of patients. See [Figure 1Table 3](#) for full information on reasons for exclusion.

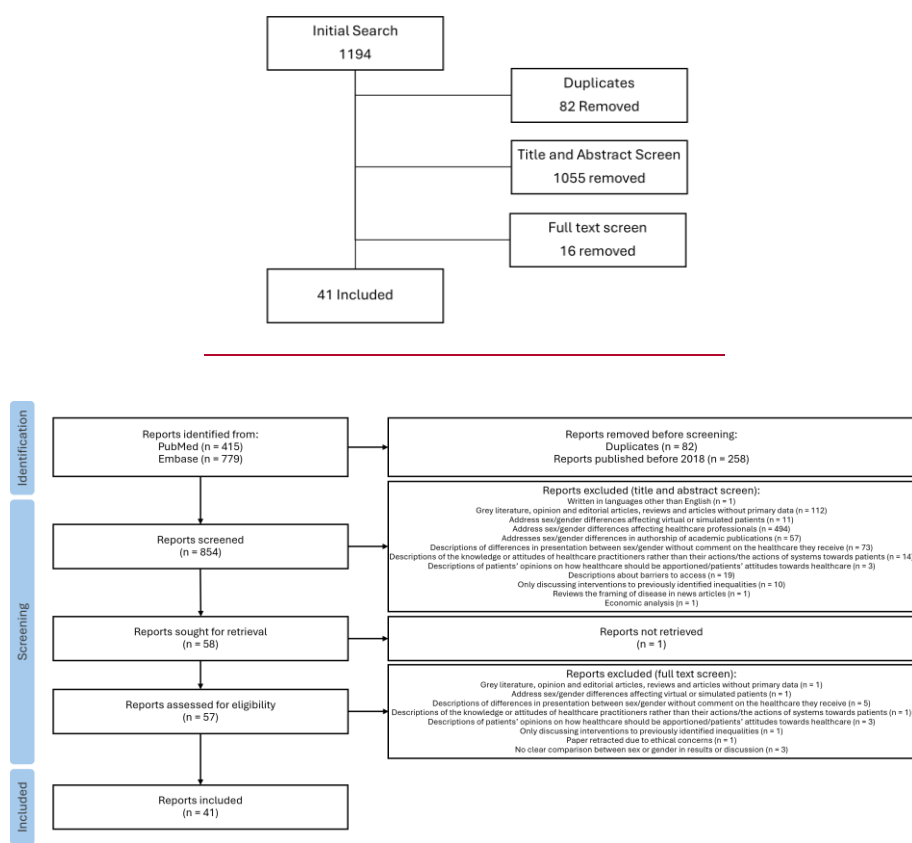


Figure 1: PRISMA flow chart

Reason for Exclusion	Number of papers excluded		
	Title and Abstract Screen	Full Text Screen	Total
Written in languages other than English	1	0	1
Published before 2018	258	0	258
Grey literature, opinion and editorial articles, reviews and articles without primary data	112	1	113
Address sex/gender differences affecting virtual or simulated patients	11	1	12
Addressing sex/gender differences affecting healthcare professionals	494	0	494
Addresses sex/gender differences in authorship of academic publications	57	0	57
Descriptions of differences in presentation between sex/gender without comment on the healthcare they receive	73	5	78
Descriptions of the knowledge or attitudes of healthcare practitioners rather than their actions/the actions of systems towards patients	14	1	15
Descriptions of patients' opinions on how healthcare should be apportioned/ patients attitudes towards healthcare	3	3	6
Descriptions about barriers to access	19	0	19
Only discussing interventions to previously identified inequalities	10	1	11
Reviews the framing of disease in news articles	1	0	1
Economic analysis	1	0	1
Paper retracted due to ethical concerns	0	1	1
No clear comparison between sex or gender in results or discussion	0	3	3

Unable to source full-text	1	0	1
Totals	1055	16	1071

Table 3: Reasons for exclusion from review

Of the forty-one papers included in this study, twenty-six were conducted in the United States (35-60), two in the United Kingdom (61, 62), one in Canada (63), one in China (64), two in Germany (65, 66), one in Portugal (67), one in the Netherlands (68), one in Norway (69), two in Sweden (70,71), one in Romania (72), one in Chile (73), one in Israel (74) and one across Europe (75). The studies were published in twenty-seven different journals between 2018 and 2023.

Thirty-eight were retrospective case series. One study combined retrospective case series with survey of participants, one combined retrospective case series with prospective case series and survey of participants and one study used mixed methods.

The papers were grouped by specialty area of medicine to aid the development of a synthesised narrative. Fifteen were from cardiovascular medicine (35, 36, 40-42, 49, 50, 52, 54, 57, 61, 65, 67, 71, 72), four from neurology (37, 44, 60, 69), one from renal medicine (38), four from surgical medicine (39, 56, 63, 66), three from transplant medicine (43, 59, 75), three from emergency medicine (45, 51, 55), three from endocrinology (46, 47, 68), three from psychiatry (48, 62, 70) two from medico-legal (58, 64), one from anaesthetics (53), one regarding waiting times across the health system (73) and one from primary care (74).

For the thirty-eight papers that used a retrospective case series, nine did not include multivariate analysis as part of their statistical analysis. Seventeen did not include the ethnicity of the participants. Thirteen did not include comorbid conditions in their description of the participants.

As all included papers were retrospective reviews of medical records, all results are assumed to be relating to the administrative sex of the patients. None of the included papers

203 made any comment about the gender of patients, as opposed to sex. None of the reviews
204 included any patients who were intersex.

205 Of the thirty-eight retrospective case series, thirty-three noted a statistically significant
206 difference between the treatment of male and female patients. Of the twenty-nine case
207 series using a multivariate analysis, twenty-five studies found a statistically significant
208 difference in treatment between male and female patients.

209 **4.1 Descriptive Results by Specialty**

210 **4.1.1 Cardiovascular**

211 For cardiovascular conditions such as myocardial infarction, heart failure and
212 supraventricular tachycardia, females are more likely to be managed conservatively with
213 medication when compared to invasive procedures such as coronary artery bypass grafting,
214 percutaneous coronary intervention or ablation therapy (41, 42, 50, 61, 67). One study
215 showed that females had worse mortality when presenting with cardiovascular conditions
216 (50), however the others that examined this found no significant difference in mortality (35,
217 61). In a Swedish study, the time from experiencing the first symptoms of a myocardial
218 infarction to receiving a diagnostic electrocardiogram was longer for females (71). The
219 discharge destination was examined in one study showing that females were more likely to
220 be discharged to a skilled nursing facility after having a myocardial infarction, likely a marker
221 of worse clinical outcomes (35). For patients with atherosclerosis of vessels, all studies
222 found females were less likely than males to receive lipid lowering therapies (36, 40, 54, 65).
223 In patients with diabetes, there was no statistically significant difference between the
224 prescription of lipid-lowering therapies in males and females (72). During elective
225 cardiovascular surgery females were more likely to receive allogeneic blood transfusion
226 (which has a well-established link with poorer outcomes) (49). Post-aortic repair surgery,
227 statistically significantly fewer females were discharged with optimal medical management
228 (57).

229 The group-dynamics of the teams deciding on allocation of advanced heart-failure therapies
230 (AHFT) affected the allocation process. Teams which functioned well were more likely to
231 allocate AHFT to females than males, teams which functioned less well were more likely to
232 allocate AHFT to men than women.

233 **4.1.2 Neurology**

234 For patients with Parkinson's disease, men were more likely to be referred for consideration
235 of deep brain stimulation devices, an implantable device to help manage symptoms of
236 Parkinson's disease. After referral, there was no statistically significant difference in whether
237 males and females went on to have the procedure. For females who did not undergo surgery
238 this was more likely than in males to be due to patient preference (37). For patients with
239 dementia, females were more likely to receive treatment (44). For patients admitted to
240 hospital with pneumonia, males were more likely to be screened for underlying neurological
241 causes with a speech and language consult (60). In the data from a large trial of
242 thrombolysis (an emergency treatment for stroke) no significant difference was found
243 between the treatment of males and females (69).

244 **4.1.3 Endocrinology and Diabetes**

245 For patients with diabetes, studies found no difference in the management between males
246 and females (47, 68). For children, a study found no difference in the number of males vs
247 females who are overweight being screened for diabetes. Males who were obese were more
248 likely than females to be screened for diabetes (46).

249 **4.1.4 Renal and Transplant Medicine**

250 For the papers that looked at likelihood of liver transplantation, both found that males were
251 more likely to receive a liver transplant than females (43, 75). Females on the transplant list
252 were more likely to be hospitalised and more likely to be transplanted from the intensive care
253 unit (59).

254 For dialysis a permanent means of access is preferred to a central venous catheter, females
255 who required dialysis were found to spend longer using a central venous catheter and were
256 less likely to transition to a permanent means of access (38).

257 **4.1.5 Surgery**

258 Length of stay in hospital (a negative outcome) was longer for females than males in two of
259 three surgical studies (39, 66). There was no difference in discharge destination found for
260 males and females who had elective adult spinal deformity correction (39). Endovascular
261 treatment is a preferred treatment option for hernia repair operations however females were
262 more likely to receive open hernia repairs (66).

263 When older patients were studied in Canada, females were less likely to be offered an
264 operation (63). The outcomes for males and females who had been offered an operation
265 were not significantly different (63). Prior to surgical management for symptomatic spinal
266 stenosis, females were advised to trial significantly more non-operative treatments (56).

267 **4.1.6 Emergency Medicine**

268 Females were less likely to receive treatment from prehospital emergency medical teams
269 both with targeted temperature management for out of hospital cardiac arrests (45), and
270 opioids for pain management (51). Bystanders were less likely to use a defibrillator on
271 females in cardiac arrest (55). A decision to terminate resuscitation efforts was less likely in
272 females in cardiac arrest compared with males. Females were more likely to survive to
273 hospital admission compared with men (55).

274 **4.1.7 Anaesthetics**

275 Females were less likely to receive an appropriate size of endotracheal tube for their height,
276 receiving on average tubes too large for them (53).

277 **4.1.8 Psychiatry**

278 Males were less likely to receive a diagnosis of bipolar disorder than females (48). Females
279 were less likely to be treated with clozapine for treatment resistant schizophrenia (62). Males
280 with depression are more likely to be prescribed medications (70) but after taking into
281 account six month follow up, are equally likely to be sick-leave certified (70).

282 **4.1.9 Waiting Times**

283 In a comparison of waiting times between males and females in Chile, sixteen conditions
284 were studied (73). After multivariate analysis, in nine there was no significant difference in
285 waiting times between males and females. For two conditions males waited for significantly
286 longer and in five females waited significantly longer than males (73).

287 **4.1.10 Primary Care**

288 In a review of primary care delivery to geriatric patients in Israel, females were vaccinated at
289 a lower rate (74). Females were prescribed benzodiazepines at a higher rate than males
290 (74).

291 **4.1.11 Medico-legal**

292 For drug adverse events that were documented by health-care professionals, more were
293 documented for females. The adverse reactions documented for females were less serious
294 than the events documented for males (58). One of the most common adverse drug events
295 for females listed was “feeling hot”, however for males one of the most common adverse
296 drug events listed was “death” (58).

297 A Chinese study of medical errors in elderly patients found numerical differences in the rates
298 of reported errors between males and females between specialties, however there was no
299 statistical analysis of the cases (64). Females were more likely to report medical errors in
300 nephrology, respiratory, oncology, primary care and internal medicine. Males were more
301 likely to report medical errors in the emergency department, general surgery and medical

302 technology departments. Incidence of errors in the orthopaedic department was the same
303 between males and females (64).

304 **4.2 Results of Thematic Analysis**

305 **4.2.1 Interventional procedures**

306 A theme which emerged during the analysis was papers studying the likelihood of patients of
307 different sex's having interventional procedures. The ten papers which studied this question
308 are summarised in Table 41 below. The effect direction and estimate refer to the likelihood of
309 female patients receiving an interventional procedure as compared with male patients.

310 *Table 1: Likelihood of interventional procedures. AOR = adjusted odds ratio, uOR = unadjusted odds ratio, NR =*
311 *not recorded, asHR = adjusted subdistribution hazard ratio, uIRR = unadjusted incidence rate ratio.*

Study	JBI bias risk	Level of evidence	Effect direction	Effect estimate (95% confidence interval)	p--value
Sacks, N.C. et al. (2020)					
Sacks, N.C. et al. (2020) ablation Ablation for paroxysmal supra-ventricular tachycardia	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.83 (0.70-0.98)	0.0278
Verghese, D. et al. (2022)					
Verghese, D. et al. coronary Coronary angiography	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.65 (0.64-0.66)	<0.001

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early angiography					
percutaneous coronary intervention					
Verghese, D. et al.	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.70 (0.69-0.71)	<0.001
e Early angiography					
Verghese, D. et al.	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.69 (0.68-0.70)	<0.001
p Percutaneous coronary intervention					
Jackson, A. M. et al. (2020)					
Jackson, A. M. et al.	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.66 (0.60 - 0.73)	<0.0001
coronary Coronary angiography					
percutaneous coronary intervention					
Jackson, A. M. et al.	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.60 (0.54-0.66)	<0.0001
p Percutaneous coronary intervention					
Araujo, C. et al. (2018)					
Araujo, C. et al. coronary Coronary	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.61 (0.41-0.90)	0.0138

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angiography: STEMI group					
coronary angiography: NSTEMI group					
Araujo, C. et al. Coronary angiography: NSTEMI group	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	aOR 0.79 (0.62-1.01)	≥ 0.05
Shpiner, D. S. et al. (2019)					
Shpiner, D. S. et al. referral Referral for DBS surgery proceeding with DBS surgery after referral	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.51 (0.37-0.71)	<0.0001
Shpiner, D. S. et al. Proceeding with DBS surgery after referral	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	uOR 0.94 (0.52-1.68)	0.8220
Darden, M. et al. (2021)					
Darden, M. et al. liver-Liver transplant liver ablation liver resection	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.854 (NR)	0.002
Darden, M. et al. Liver ablation	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	aOR 1.623 (NR)	0.000

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Darden, M. et al. <u>Liver resection</u>	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.918 (NR)	0.021
Listabarth, S. et al. (2022)					
Listabarth, S. et al. <u>Liver-Liver transplant</u>	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.78 (0.73-0.82)	<0.0001
Arya, S. et al. (2020)					
Arya, S. et al. <u>Transition to permanent means of access for dialysis</u>	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	asHR 0.96(0.93-0.98)	<0.001
Rucker, D. et al. (2019)					
Rucker, D. et al. <u>Operative management</u>	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.74 (0.56-0.97)	0.03
Tandon, V. et al. (2020)					
Tandon, V. et al. <u>Number of procedures</u>	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uIRR 0.84 m(NR)	<0.05
Breathett, K. et al. (2023)					
Breathett, K. et al. Allocated to advanced therapies	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)		

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Table 4: Likelihood of interventional procedures. AOR = adjusted odds ratio, uOR = unadjusted odds ratio, NR = not recorded, asHR = adjusted subdistribution hazard ratio, uIRR = unadjusted incidence rate ratio.

4.2.2 Guideline compliant care/ optimal medical management

Another theme which emerged during the analysis was papers studying the likelihood of patients of different sex's having care which was compliant with guidelines. The seventeen papers which studied this question are summarised in Table 52 below. The effect direction and estimate refer to the likelihood of female patients receiving guideline-compliant care as compared with male patients.

Table 2: Likelihood of guideline compliant care. aOR = adjusted odds ratio, uOR = unadjusted odds ratio, aHR = adjusted hazard ratio, a% difference = adjusted percentage difference.

Study	JB1 bias risk	Level of evidence	Effect direction	Effect estimate (95% confidence interval)	p-value
Shen, X. et al. (2019)					
Shen, X. et al. statin-Statin prescription from cardiologist: commercial insurance plan	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.69 (0.65-0.74)	<0.0001
statin prescription from cardiologist: Medicare Advantage insurance plan					
Statin prescription from cardiologist: Medicare Advantage insurance plan	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.78 (0.76-0.79)	<0.0001
Podell, R. et al. (2018)					
Podell, R. et al.	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.83 (0.83-0.84)	<0.0001

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influenza					
Influenza					
vaccination					
pneumococcal					
vaccination					
<u>Pneumococcal vaccination</u>	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.79 (0.78-0.80)	<0.0001
<u>Mahtta, D. et al. (2020)</u>					
Mahtta, D. et al.	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.68 (0.62-0.75)	<0.0001
statin					
Statin					
prescription					
<u>Peters, F. et al. (2020)</u>					
Peters, F. et al.	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.89 (0.86-0.92)	<0.0001
optimal					
Optimal					
pharmacological					
treatment					
<u>Găman, M. A. et al. (2020)</u>					
Gaman M. A. et al.	High	Level 4	— (no effect)	uOR 0.62 (0.36-1.08)	0.09
statin					
Statin					
prescription					
<u>Ilyas, S. et al. (2022)</u>					
Ilyas, S. et al.	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.74 (0.63-0.86)	0.0001
aspirin					
Aspirin at					
discharge					
statin at					
discharge					
<u>Statin at discharge</u>	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.66 (0.56-0.76)	<0.0001
<u>Lu, Z. K. et al. (2021)</u>					
Lu, Z. K. et al.	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	aOR 1.71(1.19-2.45)	0.0036
Anti-dementia medications					

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<u>Stodolski, M. et al. (2020)</u>					
Stodolski, M. et al. endoscopic Endoscopic hernia repair	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.29 (0.19-0.46)	<0.0001
<u>Morris, N. et al. (2021)</u>					
Morris, N. et al. targeted Targeted temperature management	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.90 (0.87-0.92)	<0.001
<u>Wimbish, L. et al. (2022)</u>					
Wimbish, L. et al. opioid Opioid administration	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.90(NR)	0.004
<u>Wesley, E. et al. (2021)</u>					
Wesley, E. et al. clozapine Clozapine prescription	Low	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	aOR 0.66 (0.44-0.97)	<0.05
<u>Ihle-Hansen, H. et al. (2022)</u>					
Ihle-Hansen, H. et al. onset Onset of symptoms to admission	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	Mean 91.6 vs 95.3 min	0.2900
door to needle time					
Door to needle time	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	Mean 38.6 vs 37.0 min	0.3100
<u>Ahmed, F. et al. (2022)</u>					
Ahmed, F. et al.	Low	Level 4	— (no effect)	uOR 1.14 (0.61-2.12)	0.682

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prescribed Prescribed statin therapy					
Received appropriate intensity statin therapy					
Received appropriate intensity statin therapy	Low	Level 4	— (no effect)	uOR 1.14 (0.64-2.00)	0.658
Bak, L. et al. (2023)					
Bak, L. et al. 19 diabetes process measurements	Moderate	Level 4	— (no effect)	aORs ranged from 0.87-1.06	All >=0.06
Roberts, M. M. et al. (2023)					
Roberts, M. M. et al. aspirin Aspirin	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	a% difference - 4.36 (-5.38--3.34)	<0.001
cholesterol managment					
BP control					
smoking cessation counselling					
Cholesterol management	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	a% difference - 3.88 (-4.63--3.14)	<0.001

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<u>BP control</u>	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	a% difference 1.80 (1.28- 2.32)	<0.001
<u>Smoking cessation counselling</u>	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	a% difference 1.67 (0.95- 2.38)	<0.001
<u>Bolinger, C. et al. (2020)</u>					
<u>Bollinger, C. et al.</u> <u>speech-Speech</u> and language consult	Moderate	Level 4	▼ (decreased)	uOR 0.73 (0.58-0.91)	0.0051
<u>Vajravelu, M. E. et al. (2021)</u>					
<u>Vajravelu, M. E. et al.</u> <u>diabetes</u> <u>Diabetes</u> screening in overweight patients	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	aHR 1.67 (1.43-2.00)	<0.0001
<u>diabetes</u> <u>screening in</u> <u>obese patients</u>					
<u>Diabetes</u> <u>screening in</u> <u>obese patients</u>	Moderate	Level 4	▲ (increased)	aHR 1.43(1.43- 1.67)	<0.0001

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Table 5: Likelihood of guideline-compliant care. aOR = adjusted odds ratio, uOR = unadjusted odds ratio, aHR = adjusted hazard ratio, a% difference = adjusted percentage difference.

4.3 Analysis of intersectional identities

326 Out of the forty-one papers, twenty nine did not have result reporting for identities other than
327 sex. Where results were reported for other identities such as age or ethnicity, these were
328 presented separately in seven papers. Five papers gave results for intersectional identities,
329 all of these reported the intersection between sex and ethnicity. See Table 63 below for a
330 summary of these results.

331 Table 3: Intersectional identity results. aOR = adjusted odds ratio, uOR = unadjusted odds ratio, aHR = adjusted
332 hazard ratio, a% difference = adjusted percentage difference, aCE = adjusted estimate of co-efficient, NR = not
333 reported.

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Study	JBI bias risk	Level of evidence	Effect direction	Effect estimate (95% confidence interval)	p-value
<u>Darden, M. et al. (2021)</u>					
Darden, M. et al. Caucasian Women transplant African-American women transplant Caucasian women resection African-American	Moderate	Level 4	(decreased)	0.82 (0.73-0.91) [aOR]	<0.001

women resection					
Caucasian women ablation					
African- American women ablation					
Darden, M. et al. African-American women transplant	Moderate	Level 4	(decreased)	0.42 (0.32-0.54) [aOR]	<0.001
Darden, M. et al. Caucasian women resection	Moderate	Level 4	(increased)	1.597 (1.446-1.765) [aOR]	<0.001
Darden, M. et al. African-American women resection	Moderate	Level 4	(increased)	1.579 (1.303-1.913) [aOR]	<0.001
Darden, M. et al. Caucasian women ablation	Moderate	Level 4	(decreased)	0.918 (0.849-0.993) [aOR]	0.033
Darden, M. et al. African-American women ablation	Moderate	Level 4	(decreased)	0.813 (0.684-0.967) [aOR]	0.020
Ahmed, F. et al. (2022)					

Ahmed, F. et al.	Low	Level 4	— (No Effect)	0.68 (0.25–1.90) [aOR]	0.4600
white-White males vs white female statin prescription					
Non-white females vs white female statin prescription					
Non-white males vs white female statin prescription					
Non-white females vs white female statin prescriptionref	Low	Level 4	— (No Effect)	Effect)0.36 (0.12–1.06) [aOR]	0.0600
Non white males vs white female refstatin prescription	Low	Level 4	— (No Effect)	2.19 (0.53–8.98) [aOR]	0.2800
Tandon, V. et al. (2020)					
Tandon, V. et al. number Number of procedures	Moderate	Level 4	Native american women had the lowest average number of procedures, with asian men having the highest	NR	NR
Breathett, K. et al. (2023)					

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Breathett, K. et al	Moderate	Level 4	— (No Effect)	-0.37 (- 3.453-2.713) [aCE]	0.815
Race x gender with group function score probability of allocation to advanced heart failure therapies					

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Table 6: Intersectional identity results. aOR = adjusted odds ratio, uOR = unadjusted odds ratio, aHR = adjusted hazard ratio, a% difference = adjusted percentage difference, aCE = adjusted estimate of co-efficient, NR = not reported

5 Discussion

Gender based differences in the treatment of patients were unable to be studied in this scoping review due to the lack of research found containing information on the gender of patients. This is likely due to the reliance on electronic health records for the papers studied in this scoping review. The electronic health records contain information on the administrative sex of patients, rather than their gender. This issue could be addressed using prospective studies designed specifically to answer questions regarding gender- based inequality in the current healthcare system. The HL7 gender harmony model is a logical model which gives a framework for healthcare organisations to document additional information regarding a patient's sex and gender (14). If this model or similar were to be adopted into wide-spread use, research into gender inequality within healthcare could be undertaken at a larger scale.

351 The results of this scoping review indicate that males and females are frequently treated
352 differently by healthcare systems, though the evidence does not consistently clarify whether
353 such differences confer disadvantage to either sex. Many studies, excluded from the formal
354 part of this review, did not directly measure patient care but instead examined professional
355 attitudes or workforce equity, which fall outside the central focus here. The studies that did
356 examine management revealed variation in treatment practices, raising questions about
357 whether these reflect appropriate clinical considerations or systemic inequities. Notably, very
358 few papers explicitly referenced clinical guidelines recommending sex-specific management,
359 leaving uncertainty about the drivers of observed disparities. Observed differences in
360 treatment practices may relate to patient choice or barriers to access treatment. These
361 findings align with other adjacent reviews, which have synthesised evidence of gender
362 inequities across multiple medical specialties, revealing persistent disparities in both clinical
363 care delivery and professional representation. Grinberg & Sela (76) identified significant
364 gender biases in pain management, with women receiving inadequate analgesia during
365 medical procedures due to unconscious biases, lack of sex-specific protocols, and cultural
366 stereotypes. Shaw et al. (77) examined cardiovascular medicine, emphasizing that achieving
367 equitable care requires consideration of unique gendered structural determinants of health
368 and development of women-optimised care pathways. Ros et al. (78) conducted a broader
369 scoping review revealing substantial inequities in women's representation across medical
370 professions, particularly in leadership positions and senior faculty roles, with only 13% of
371 identified studies addressing potential interventions. Parsons Leigh et al. (79) focused on
372 critical care medicine, noting it has among the lowest female representation and proposing
373 comprehensive strategies to synthesise and implement solutions for improving gender
374 equity.

375 Most included studies originated from the United States, limiting the generalisability of
376 findings. This raises the need to examine evidence from other regions such as Europe, the
377 UK, and Australasia, where healthcare systems and policy frameworks differ. Research

378 evidence reveals significant sex inequities in healthcare delivery across the UK and Europe.
379 In the UK's National Health Service, females and older people receive guideline-
380 recommended cardiovascular treatments less frequently than males and younger people,
381 with limited research available on ethnic disparities (80). A broader European analysis found
382 that after adjusting for healthcare needs, significant pro-rich inequity emerged in half of
383 studied countries for physician contacts, primarily due to higher-income groups' greater use
384 of specialist services while lower-income groups relied more on general practitioner care
385 (81). Sex bias in healthcare manifests in two ways: assuming similarities between male's
386 and female's health situations when differences exist, and assuming differences where
387 similarities occur, both potentially leading to negative health outcomes for females (82).
388 Despite equity being a central NHS objective since 1948, important inequities persist in UK
389 healthcare access, though methodological limitations often prevent firm conclusions about
390 underlying causes (83). This regional evidence reinforces the broader pattern identified in
391 this review, showing that inequities in healthcare delivery are not confined to the US context
392 but also persist across European systems.

393 A consistent trend was observed: females were statistically less likely than males with similar
394 clinical characteristics to be offered invasive management, and when managed
395 conservatively, females were statistically less likely to receive optimal pharmacological
396 therapy. It is not possible to determine whether this was as a result of inequities or due to
397 another cause. Breathett et al. studied how group dynamics may influence the allocation of
398 treatment to patients and found that worse group dynamics resulted in females and patients
399 of colour being less likely to be allocated intensive treatment options.

400 Much of the recent research on sex differences in management has been conducted in
401 cardiovascular medicine, reflecting the historical prominence of this field since early studies
402 on sex-based disparities (82). It remains unclear whether this concentration reflects a true
403 predominance of inequities in cardiovascular care or simply research inertia building on prior
404 work.

405 Research has identified several explanations for observed sex differences in healthcare
406 delivery. Raine (84) found evidence of sex disparities across multiple conditions, with males
407 more likely to receive certain procedures like renal transplantation and HIV treatments, while
408 females were more likely to undergo liver transplantation and cataract surgery. The study
409 attributed these differences to both demand factors (disease prevalence, severity, patient
410 preferences) and supply factors (clinical judgment). With patient preference also being
411 attributed to the reduced implantation of deep-brain stimulation devices in females in one
412 study in this review (37). Elderkin-Thompson & Waitzkin (85) highlighted communication
413 differences as a key factor, noting that physicians commonly attribute women's symptoms to
414 "over anxiousness" and make more diagnostic errors with female patients, even when
415 positive test results are present. These explanations provide possible mechanisms
416 underlying the consistent trend observed in this review, where females are statistically less
417 likely than males to receive invasive management or optimal pharmacological therapy.

418 Although thirteen studies reported results comparing outcomes for groups other than males
419 and females, only four presented the results using intersectional identities. The results of
420 these studies are summarised in Table 63, no clear conclusions could be drawn due to the
421 lack of data. The reporting of results for different identities separately rather than in an
422 intersectional manner has been noted in previous reviews (26).

423 The evidence base remains limited in quality. Many studies relied on retrospective analyses
424 of medical records, with incomplete data limiting the strength of conclusions. Several did not
425 perform multivariate analyses to adjust for potential confounders such as race, comorbidity,
426 or socioeconomic status. Future research should prioritise prospective designs to establish
427 whether differences are attributable to sex itself rather than intersecting factors.

428 Several major international funding agencies have implemented policies requiring or
429 encouraging sex and gender analysis in health research. The National Institutes of Health
430 (NIH) has instituted policies requiring researchers to include appropriate populations and

analyse data accordingly, focusing on sex as a biological variable (SABV) to enhance reproducibility (86, 87). The Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) implemented a sex- and gender-based analysis (SGBA) policy, with mandatory questions introduced in 2010 showing increased compliance over time, though disparities across disciplines persist (87, 88). The European Commission requires integration of the "gender dimension," incorporating sex, gender, and intersectional analysis into research and innovation (87). A comprehensive analysis of 22 major national funding agencies across six continents reveals varying approaches to implementing sex, gender, and diversity analysis policies, highlighting opportunities for improved international collaboration and research excellence (89).

A limitation of this paper relates to the methodology employed. Scoping reviews in health research face several common methodological limitations that must be acknowledged when interpreting findings. Key limitations include a lack of prospective studies, non-representative samples that limit generalizability, and insufficient data on mediators and moderators of relationships between variables (90). The heterogeneous nature of literature in scoping reviews creates challenges in gathering, analysing, and interpreting information, with epistemological considerations significantly influencing methodological decisions (91). The search was restricted to two biomedical databases and did not include allied health or multidisciplinary indexes such as CINAHL, so relevant studies indexed solely in those sources may have been missed. Consistent with the mapping aim of a scoping review, the consistency of effect directions observed across specialties suggests the principal patterns are unlikely to be materially altered by a small number of additional records.

6 Conclusions

This review demonstrates that recent evidence points to persistent sex-based differences in the treatment of patients. Across multiple specialties, the most consistent finding was that females were statistically less likely than males with comparable clinical characteristics to

456 receive invasive or intensive treatments, and when treated conservatively, were less likely to
457 receive guideline compliant therapy. Important gaps in evidence quality exist, with many
458 studies limited by retrospective designs, incomplete adjustment for confounders, and a
459 predominance of US-based data. A gap in research investigating the gender of patients
460 rather than administrative sex was evident. Future research must integrate equity
461 considerations and intersectional analysis into study design, employ rigorous analytical
462 methods, and extend to diverse healthcare systems. Addressing these gaps will be critical to
463 determining whether observed differences represent appropriate clinical variation or
464 systemic inequities, and to ensuring that practice reflects equitable standards of care.

465 **Acknowledgements**

466 None

467 **Author Contributions**

468 MV designed and performed the search. MV and AO reviewed results of search. Both
469 authors contributed to, read and approved the final manuscript.

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724

725 **Statements and Declarations**

726 **Ethical Considerations**

727 Not applicable

728 **Consent to participate**

729 Not applicable

730 **Consent for publication**

731 Not applicable

732 **Declaration of conflicting interests**

733 The authors declare that they have no conflicting interests

734 **Funding**

735 No financial declarations

736 **Availability of data and materials**

737 Not applicable

738

739

740 **Appendix 1**

741 PubMed Search term 01/01/2018 – 19/12/2023⁴

742 (sexism [tiab] OR "gender bias" [tiab] OR "sex bias" [tiab] OR "gender roles" [tiab] OR

743 "gender

744 inequality" [tiab] OR "sex inequality" [tiab] OR "sex factors" [tiab] OR "gender factors" [tiab]

745 "gender equity" [tiab] OR "sex equity" [tiab] OR "gender disparities" [tiab] OR "sex
746 disparities"
747 [tiab] OR "gender discordance" [tiab] OR "sex discordance"[tiab]) AND ("healthcare" [tiab]
748 OR "medicine" [tiab]-)
749
750 Embase Search term 01/01/2018 – 19/12/2023
751 ('sexism':ti,ab OR 'gender bias':ti,ab OR 'sex bias':ti,ab OR 'gender roles':ti,ab OR 'gender
752 inequality':ti,ab OR 'sex inequality':ti,ab OR 'sex factors':ti,ab OR 'gender factors':ti,ab OR
753 'gender equity':ti,ab OR 'sex equity':ti,ab OR 'gender disparities':ti,ab OR 'sex
754 disparities':ti,ab OR 'gender discordance':ti,ab OR 'sex discordance':ti,ab) AND
755 ('healthcare':ti,ab OR 'medicine':ti,ab)

Dear Reviewer and Editor,

We again thank the reviewer and editor for their time and effort invested into this submission. Below, we outline the reviewer's most recent comments and (in red) indicate our adjustments made to the paper.

- Tables 1 and 2 should be removed. The contents of these tables could be moved to the main text.

We have removed Tables 1 and 2, and moved the contents to the main text as suggested.

- Table 3 and Figure 1 should be combined into a standard PRISMA flowchart. A standard flowchart would also need the exact number of records retrieved from each database.

We have combined Table 3 (now removed) and Figure 1 into a standard PRISMA flowchart. We have also included the number of records retrieved from each database.

- Tables 4, 5, and 6 need to be revised. For example, in Table 4, different procedures within the same study should be presented in separate rows.

- Please apply the same format to Tables 5 and 6.

Tables 4, 5, and 6 (now Tables 1 to 3) have been reformatted as suggested, with separate rows for different procedures within the same study. We have also added years of publication to all references in these tables.

- Also, move the table legends to the top of each table.

We have moved the table captions/legends to the top of each table.

- Please provide the Embase search strategy.

We have provided the Embase search strategy in the appendix.

- Please provide the exact start and end dates of the literature search (e.g., 01/01/2018–31/12/2024).

We have provided the exact start and end dates of the literature search in the Appendix.

Kind regards,

Andrew O'Malley and Miriam Veenhuizen