

Mortality in people with schizophrenia: a systematic review and meta-analysis of relative risk and aggravating or attenuating factors

Christoph U. Correll^{1,3}, Marco Solmi^{4,7}, Giovanni Croatto⁸, Lynne Kolton Schneider⁹, S. Christy Rohani-Montez⁹, Leanne Fairley⁹, Nathalie Smith⁹, István Bitter¹⁰, Philip Gorwood^{11,12}, Heidi Taipale¹³⁻¹⁶, Jari Tiihonen¹³⁻¹⁵

¹Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Charité Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany; ²Department of Psychiatry, Zucker Hillside Hospital, Northwell Health, Glen Oaks, NY, USA; ³Department of Psychiatry and Molecular Medicine, Zucker School of Medicine at Hofstra/Northwell, Hempstead, NY, USA; ⁴Department of Psychiatry, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, ON, Canada; ⁵Department of Mental Health, Ottawa Hospital, Ottawa, ON, Canada; ⁶Ottawa Hospital Research Institute (OHRI) Clinical Epidemiology Program, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, ON, Canada; ⁷School of Epidemiology and Public Health, Faculty of Medicine, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, ON, Canada; ⁸Mental Health Department, AULSS 3 Serenissima, Mestre, Venice, Italy; ⁹WebMD Global LLC, London, UK; ¹⁰Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Semmelweis University, Budapest, Hungary; ¹¹INSERM U1266, Institute of Psychiatry and Neurosciences of Paris (IPNP), Paris, France; ¹²GHU Paris Psychiatrie et Neurosciences (CMME, Sainte-Anne Hospital), Université de Paris, Paris, France; ¹³Department of Clinical Neuroscience, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden; ¹⁴Center for Psychiatry Research, Stockholm City Council, Stockholm, Sweden; ¹⁵Department of Forensic Psychiatry, University of Eastern Finland, Niuvanniemi Hospital, Kuopio, Finland; ¹⁶School of Pharmacy, University of Eastern Finland, Kuopio, Finland

People with schizophrenia die 15-20 years prematurely. Understanding mortality risk and aggravating/attenuating factors is essential to reduce this gap. We conducted a systematic review and random-effects meta-analysis of prospective and retrospective, nationwide and targeted cohort studies assessing mortality risk in people with schizophrenia versus the general population or groups matched for physical comorbidities or groups with different psychiatric disorders, also assessing moderators. Primary outcome was all-cause mortality risk ratio (RR); key secondary outcomes were mortality due to suicide and natural causes. Other secondary outcomes included any other specific-cause mortality. Publication bias, subgroup and meta-regression analyses, and quality assessment (Newcastle-Ottawa Scale) were conducted. Across 135 studies spanning from 1957 to 2021 (schizophrenia: N=4,536,447; general population controls: N=1,115,600,059; other psychiatric illness controls: N=3,827,955), all-cause mortality was increased in people with schizophrenia versus any non-schizophrenia control group (RR=2.52, 95% CI: 2.38-2.68, n=79), with the largest risk in first-episode (RR=7.43, 95% CI: 4.02-13.75, n=2) and incident (i.e., earlier-phase) schizophrenia (RR=3.52, 95% CI: 3.09-4.00, n=7) versus the general population. Specific-cause mortality was highest for suicide or injury-poisoning or undetermined non-natural cause (RR=9.76-8.42), followed by pneumonia among natural causes (RR=7.00, 95% CI: 6.79-7.23), decreasing through infectious or endocrine or respiratory or urogenital or diabetes causes (RR=3 to 4), to alcohol or gastrointestinal or renal or nervous system or cardio-cerebrovascular or all natural causes (RR=2 to 3), and liver or cerebrovascular, or breast or colon or pancreas or any cancer causes (RR=1.33 to 1.96). All-cause mortality increased slightly but significantly with median study year (beta=0.0009, 95% CI: 0.001-0.02, p=0.02). Individuals with schizophrenia <40 years of age had increased all-cause and suicide-related mortality compared to those ≥40 years old, and a higher percentage of females increased suicide-related mortality risk in incident schizophrenia samples. All-cause mortality was higher in incident than prevalent schizophrenia (RR=3.52 vs. 2.86, p=0.009). Comorbid substance use disorder increased all-cause mortality (RR=1.62, 95% CI: 1.47-1.80, n=3). Antipsychotics were protective against all-cause mortality versus no antipsychotic use (RR=0.71, 95% CI: 0.59-0.84, n=11), with largest effects for second-generation long-acting injectable antipsychotics (SGA-LAIs) (RR=0.39, 95% CI: 0.27-0.56, n=3), clozapine (RR=0.43, 95% CI: 0.34-0.55, n=3), any LAI (RR=0.47, 95% CI: 0.39-0.58, n=2), and any SGA (RR=0.53, 95% CI: 0.44-0.63, n=4). Antipsychotics were also protective against natural cause-related mortality, yet first-generation antipsychotics (FGAs) were associated with increased mortality due to suicide and natural cause in incident schizophrenia. Higher study quality and number of variables used to adjust the analyses moderated larger natural-cause mortality risk, and more recent study year moderated larger protective effects of antipsychotics. These results indicate that the excess mortality in schizophrenia is associated with several modifiable factors. Targeting comorbid substance abuse, long-term maintenance antipsychotic treatment and appropriate/earlier use of SGA-LAIs and clozapine could reduce this mortality gap.

Key words: Schizophrenia, psychosis, mortality, suicide, first-episode schizophrenia, antipsychotics, comorbidity, substance use disorder, cardiovascular disease, physical health, long-acting injectable antipsychotics, clozapine

(*World Psychiatry* 2022;21:248-271)

Schizophrenia is associated with one of the highest mortality risks of all psychiatric disorders¹. While it is well recognized that individuals with this disorder die prematurely compared to the general population, reasons for the estimated life expectancy gap of 15-20 years are less clear².

Modifiable risk factors reportedly associated with greater and earlier mortality in individuals with schizophrenia include poorer lifestyle behaviors, reduced access to physical care, frequent comorbid illnesses, and use – or lack thereof – of antipsychotic medications^{3,4}. However, it is unclear whether mortality risk changes in new-onset incident cases or evolves in established prevalent cases. A larger mortality gap has been reported in younger people, not only for suicide but also for physical health causes⁵.

In a nationwide study from Finland that compared 34,809-

42,712 individuals with schizophrenia with 3,877,129-4,515,838 people from the general population between 1984 and 2014, the higher all-cause standardized mortality ratio for those with schizophrenia compared to the general population remained stable during the 30 years of follow-up (1984=2.6; 2014=2.7)⁶. However, in a Danish nationwide cohort study, the standardized mortality gap appeared to be increasing by 0.03 annually between 1995 and 2014⁷.

There is growing evidence supporting the protective effect of antipsychotic treatment versus non-use of antipsychotics in people with schizophrenia⁸⁻¹⁰. Notably, although antipsychotics have been associated with adverse cardiometabolic effects that can increase the risk of cardiovascular death¹¹⁻¹⁴ – which represents the largest absolute risk for mortality associated with schizophrenia¹⁵⁻¹⁹ – antipsychotic use versus non-use has not been

associated with a greater risk of hospitalization for any physical disease (hazard ratio, HR=1.00, 95% CI: 0.98-1.03), including cardiovascular disorders (HR=1.00, 95% CI: 0.92-1.07)¹⁰. Rather, antipsychotic use versus non-use has been associated with a significantly decreased risk for death from cardiovascular illness in individuals with schizophrenia (HR=0.62, 95% CI: 0.57-0.67)¹⁰.

This apparent paradox has been explained by healthier lifestyle behaviors, less psychosis-related stress/cortisol increase, and better help-seeking behaviors in antipsychotic-treated individuals. Recently, adherence versus non-adherence to antipsychotics has also been associated with decreased discontinuation risk of antidiabetics (adjusted hazard ratio, aHR=0.56, 95% CI: 0.47-0.66), statins (aHR=0.61, 95% CI: 0.53-0.70), anti-hypertensives (aHR=0.63, 95% CI: 0.56-0.71), and beta-blockers (aHR=0.79, 95% CI: 0.73-0.87) in within-subject analyses²⁰.

Additionally, among antipsychotic medications, differential risk attenuation of mortality risk in individuals with schizophrenia has been described⁸⁻¹⁰. For example, a Swedish prospective nationwide study on a register-based cohort followed for a median of 5.7 years reported an approximately 33% reduced mortality risk among individuals who received long-acting injectable antipsychotics (LAIs) compared with equivalent oral antipsychotics⁹. This greater protective effect of LAIs versus oral antipsychotics was substantiated in a Taiwanese nationwide cohort study with a median of 14 years of follow-up, which reported a 34% decreased all-cause mortality risk with LAIs, with an even stronger protective effect (i.e., 47% decreased mortality risk) in subjects switched to an LAI within the first two years of diagnosis of schizophrenia⁸.

Finally, use of clozapine, one of the agents with the highest cardiometabolic risk burden^{21,22}, has also been associated with decreased all-cause mortality risk, such as in a Finnish nationwide database study with a median of 14.1 years of follow-up, where all-cause mortality was reduced by 61% and cardiovascular death risk was decreased by 45% versus non-use of antipsychotics¹⁰. Consistent with the previously noted association between antipsychotic use and adherence to cardiometabolic treatments, clozapine was associated with the largest reduction among all second-generation antipsychotics (SGAs) regarding discontinuation of statins, antidiabetics and beta-blockers²⁰.

Increased mortality in individuals with schizophrenia appears to be associated to a large degree with comorbid physical conditions and unhealthy lifestyle behaviors. These individuals have higher rates of cardiovascular risk factors than the general population, including (components of) metabolic syndrome¹³ and diabetes¹⁴, as well as sedentary behavior² and smoking²³, yet are less likely to receive education regarding smoking cessation and may not receive preventive or acute care for comorbid illnesses comparable to patients without schizophrenia²⁴⁻²⁷. Moreover, in addition to increased cardiovascular risk factors, individuals with schizophrenia also receive lower quality of care for cardiovascular disease²⁸.

The role of antipsychotics in specific-cause mortality in schizophrenia has not been definitively clarified, and there is still an

ongoing debate regarding whether antipsychotic agents reduce overall mortality largely due to decreasing suicide-related mortality risk, while tending to increase natural-cause mortality risk owing to their adverse impact on cardiac repolarization, body weight and other cardiometabolic risk factors^{4,29,30}, a risk that may be aggravated in older age³¹.

To the best of our knowledge, there has been no large-scale, comprehensive meta-analysis that has included several control groups, most relevant specific causes of mortality and antipsychotic treatments, as well as an analysis of factors aggravating or attenuating mortality in individuals with schizophrenia. Most of the prior meta-analyses included fewer than 30 studies. Many studies focused either on one specific causative factor (such as suicide, cardiovascular disease, or use of specific antipsychotic agents) or included schizophrenia among other severe mental illnesses.

To fill this gap, we performed a systematic review and meta-analysis examining risk of all-cause and specific-cause mortality in individuals with schizophrenia versus several control groups, as well as factors associated with increased or attenuated mortality risk in these persons, focusing also on representativeness of the sample, study quality and time trends.

METHODS

Search methods for identification of studies

We conducted a PRISMA 2020-compliant systematic review³² searching Medline, PubMed and PsycINFO until September 9, 2021, using the search key (schizophrenia AND (mortal* OR death* OR fatal*)) NOT (animals [mesh] NOT humans [mesh]), and complemented it with manual search. The PRISMA 2020 checklist and abstract checklist are provided in the supplementary information.

Study eligibility criteria

Peer-reviewed publications of a cohort study (prospective or retrospective; nationwide or not) were eligible. We included only studies in which $\geq 70\%$ of the participants had a diagnosis of schizophrenia and in which a minimum of 100 patients with this diagnosis were recruited. Publications had to include quantified reporting – e.g., odds ratio (OR), risk ratio (RR), HR, or raw numbers – of the relationship between schizophrenia diagnosis versus control group and any type of mortality. When a risk or protective factor was present that defined a subgroup of people with schizophrenia, such as cardiac illness or diabetes or substance use disorder comorbidity, only studies where the schizophrenia and control group were matched on that risk or protective factor were included.

We excluded non-cohort studies, such as case-control studies, reviews, meta-analyses and systematic reviews. Publications were also excluded if they did not provide mortality data, quanti-

tative data, or if the data were not meta-analyzable. Publications that contained non-peer-reviewed data (such as proceedings, poster abstracts or posters) were not considered. No language or time restrictions were applied.

Four independent raters (GC, LKS, MS, NS) selected studies and extracted outcome data as well as information on potential effect modifiers. The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale³³ was used to classify quality/risk of bias. When discrepancies occurred, a further rater (CUC) was consulted. Original study authors were contacted to provide missing data.

Outcomes

The primary outcome was RR of all-cause mortality in individuals with schizophrenia versus any control group. Key secondary outcomes were mortality due to suicide and natural causes. Additional secondary outcomes included other specific-cause mortality.

Analyses examined incident plus prevalent cohorts together and either prevalent or incident cohorts separately. Prevalent cases include all individuals living with schizophrenia within a specified timeframe, regardless of when the person was diagnosed with or developed the condition. Incident cases encompass all individuals who are newly identified within the period of observation as having schizophrenia, or all new cases of schizophrenia. Control groups consisted of the general population, regardless of underlying comorbid physical diseases (from here on, “general population”), or control samples matched by physical disease. Patients with schizophrenia were compared with both control populations combined, and with each one separately, whenever possible.

Extraction methodology

Whenever results for different degrees of adjustment of RR were presented, we always used the result that was adjusted for the largest number of variables. Whenever data for both prevalent and incident cohorts were presented, we extracted both. For studies where data were only presented graphically, we extracted the data from the respective figures. For studies that only provided data on the point estimates but did not include the standard deviation or 95% CI, we imputed the 95% CI as the mean of all studies with the available data.

Whenever only raw mortality data were reported, we calculated the mortality ratio by dividing the mortality rate for schizophrenia subjects by the rate for controls. When authors presented data by narrow or broad definitions, we picked the broad definition, to be more conservative and include as many potential deaths as possible. Whenever data on samples overlapping by at least 50% were reported in different publications, we used the data including 95% CIs from the larger sample.

Whenever a subgroup of patients with schizophrenia with a specific condition was the subject of a study (for example, schiz-

ophrenia with type 2 diabetes mellitus), the control group had to have that same condition. Whenever the exact number of the control group was not specified, but rather the group was defined by a region, state or country, we took the size of that population at the midpoint of the study period. When the sample size of the control group in subgroup analyses was not specified, we imputed it by applying the same ratio of the group with schizophrenia (e.g., same male to female ratio). In representative studies, if the control group was not provided, we extracted data from census sources matching the time of study.

Data analysis

We conducted a random-effects meta-analysis³⁴ and calculated the RR of primary and secondary outcomes. Given that the outcome of interest, mortality, is rare (i.e., less than 10%), and that all included studies used the same design and evaluated the same population of interest, we pooled ORs, RRs, HRs and standardized mortality ratios. When an association measure was not available, we used the raw data (i.e., number of events and sample sizes in schizophrenia and control groups) and calculated the unadjusted RR. When both adjusted and unadjusted effect sizes were available, we prioritized adjusted ones.

I^2 was used to measure heterogeneity³⁵, and Egger’s test to assess publication bias³⁶. When Egger’s test revealed publication bias (i.e., $p < 0.1$), we conducted trim and fill analyses, and calculated the fail-safe number³⁷.

Sources of heterogeneity were explored with meta-regression, sensitivity and subgroup analyses. Random-effects meta-regression analyses were conducted with follow-up time, median study year, number of variables adjusted for, mean age, gender, and sample size as moderator variables. Sensitivity analyses were conducted in studies comparing schizophrenia with the general population, and in studies matching control groups by underlying physical conditions, as well as in incident and prevalent schizophrenia samples. Subgroup analyses were also conducted by use of nationwide versus more restricted samples, Newcastle-Ottawa Scale quality score, adjustment of results, mean age of the sample, incident or prevalent sample, and antipsychotic class prescribed. We chose to analyze the effect of treatment with antipsychotics using subgroups (by class or formulation or specific medication) as the unit of analysis, instead of using the pooled result of the overall study as the unit of analysis, since a single study might have reported on several different antipsychotic subgroups. Comprehensive Meta Analysis Version 2.0 was used for all analyses.

RESULTS

Search results

An initial search retrieved 8,345 abstracts; removal of duplicates resulted in 6,390 abstracts for review. Of these, a total of 135

studies^{5-10,38-166} were included, after excluding 463 articles upon full text assessment (see Figure 1, Table 1 and supplementary information). We ultimately included 4,536,447 individuals with schizophrenia who were compared with 1,115,600,059 control subjects from the general population.

Studies compared subjects with schizophrenia (N=3,494,716) versus the general population (N=1,097,856,754) (n=72); schizophrenia subjects (N=29,616) versus general population groups matched for physical comorbidities (N=17,733,923) (n=30); and schizophrenia individuals (N=19,011) versus groups with other mental disorders (N=3,827,955) (n=6). Additionally, 27 studies (N=994,273) investigated the association between present/absent risk/protective factors and mortality within two groups of subjects with schizophrenia.

Studies were conducted in the US (n=20), Denmark (n=19), Taiwan (n=17), Sweden (n=10), Finland (n=9), Canada (n=9), the UK (n=9), China (n=6), Israel (n=5), France (n=4); 3 each in Italy, Hong Kong, the Netherlands, Korea, or multiple countries; 2 each in Australia, Japan and Spain; and one each in Ethiopia, Germany, Hungary, India, Norway and Singapore.

There were 22 (16.3%) prospective and 113 (83.7%) retrospective cohort studies, with 85 (63.0%) being nationwide database studies. Study periods ranged from 1957 to 2021.

Nearly one-third of the studies (32.6%) included in the meta-analysis did not report an age range. When an age range was provided, 23 studies (17.0%) reported the minimal age as >15 years and another 22 studies (16.3%) used >18 years. The remaining 46 studies listed widely heterogeneous age ranges, with upper and lower extremes ranging from 10 to 109 years old.

Altogether, 20 studies (14.8%) exclusively or also included incident (i.e., earlier-phase) cases with schizophrenia, two studies (1.5%) included first-episode patients, and five studies (3.7%) focused on treatment-resistant schizophrenia. Regarding outcomes, 49 studies (36.3%) only reported on all-cause mortality, 25 (18.5%) only on a specific cause of mortality, and 63 (46.7%) on both (see Table 1).

Primary outcome: all-cause mortality

Across 79 studies, schizophrenia was associated with significantly higher all-cause mortality as compared with any control group (RR=2.52, 95% CI: 2.38-2.68, $I^2=99.7%$) (see Table 2). Patients with schizophrenia had substantially higher all-cause mortality versus the general population (RR=2.94, 95% CI: 2.75-3.13, $I^2=99.7%$, n=57) (see Table 2 and Figure 2). The association

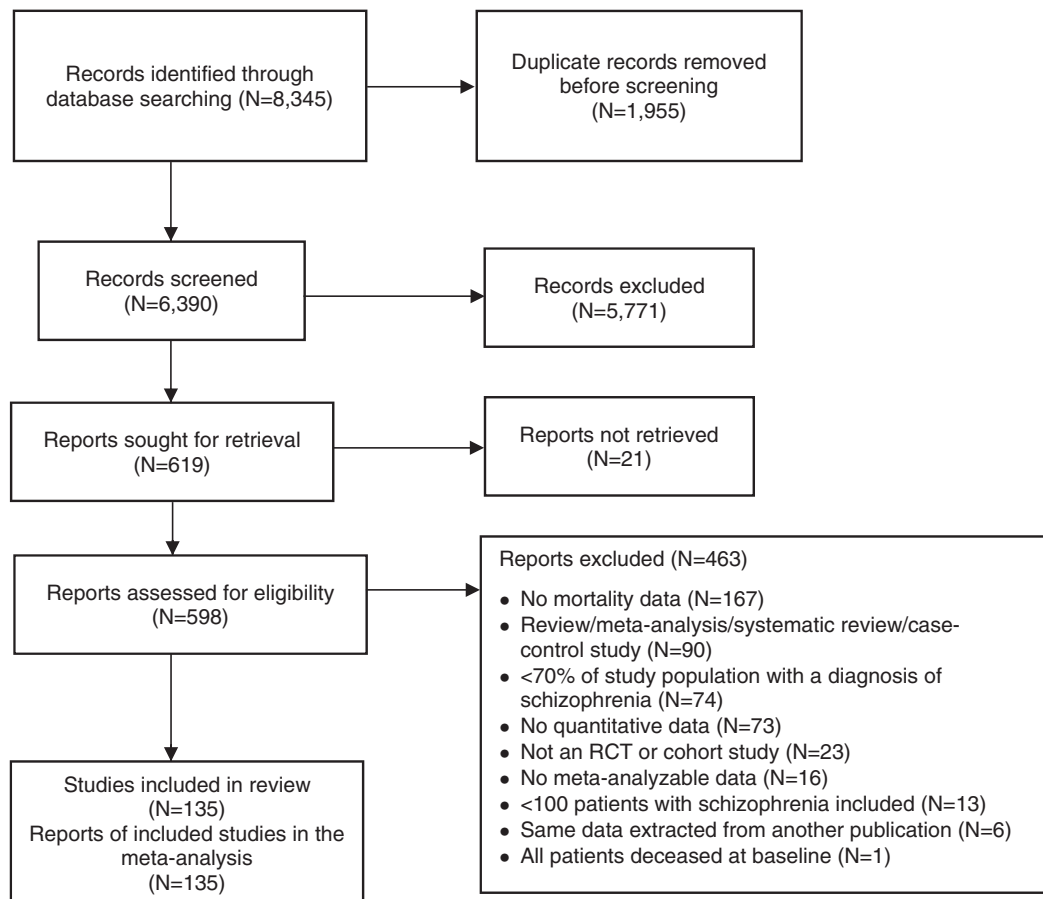


Figure 1 PRISMA flow chart. RCT - randomized controlled trial

Table 1 Included studies reporting on risk of all-cause and specific-cause mortality in schizophrenia versus control group, and on mitigating/risk factors

	Country	Years	Comparison	Incident/ prevalent	Number of patients	Number of controls	Mortality outcomes	NOS
Alleback & Wistedt ³⁸	Sweden	1971-1981	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	1,190	16,902	All-cause, suicide, various specific causes, undetermined	9
Amaddeo et al ³⁹	Italy	1982-1991	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	3,172	153,352	All-cause	9
Attar et al ⁴⁰	Denmark	1995-2013	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	726	2,178	Cardio-cerebrovascular	9
Bagewadi et al ⁴¹	India	2009-2011	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	325	NA	All-cause	9
Berardi et al ⁴²	Italy	2008-2017	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	7,940	4,250,075	All-cause, natural, various specific causes	9
Bitter et al ⁵	Hungary	2005-2013	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	65,165	390,599	All-cause	9
Black & Fisher ⁴³	US	1970-1988	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	356	2,869,448	All-cause, natural, undetermined	9
Bouza et al ⁴⁴	Spain	2004-2004	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	16,776	3,951,000	All-cause	9
Bralet et al ⁴⁵	France	1991-1999	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	150	552,303	All-cause	8
Brown et al ⁴⁶	UK	1981-2006	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	370	24,328,853	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes, undetermined	9
Buda et al ⁴⁷	US	1934-1974	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	332	NA	Suicide, natural, various specific causes, undetermined	9
Castagnini et al ⁴⁸	Denmark	1995-2008	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	4,576	3,565,833	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes, undetermined	9
Chan et al ⁴⁹	Hong Kong	2006-2016	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	3,105	13,545	Natural, various specific causes	9
Chen et al ⁵⁰	Taiwan	2000-2016	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	170,322	22,710,322	Cardiovascular	9
Chen et al ⁵¹	Taiwan	1999-2010	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	7,531	22,547,531	All-cause	9
Chen et al ⁵²	Taiwan	1998-2004	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	5,515	24,238	All-cause, natural, undetermined	9
Cheng et al ⁵³	Taiwan	1998-2008	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	2,457	22,561,450	All-cause, natural, various specific causes, undetermined	9
Crump et al ⁵⁴	Sweden	2001-2008	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	25,359	6,908,922	All-cause, injury, other	9
Curkendall et al ⁵⁵	Canada	1994-1998	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	3,022	13,110	All-cause, natural	8
Daumit et al ⁵⁶	US	1992-2001	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	2,303	5,171,640	Cardiovascular	8
Dickerson et al ⁵⁷	US	1999-2009	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	517	2,448,017	Natural	7
Dickerson et al ⁵⁸	US	1999-2012	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	710	182,165,000	Natural	9
Enger et al ⁵⁹	US	1995-1999	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	1,920	11,520	All-cause, natural, cardiovascular	9

Table 1 Included studies reporting on risk of all-cause and specific-cause mortality in schizophrenia versus control group, and on mitigating/risk factors (*continued*)

	Country	Years	Comparison	Incident/ prevalent	Number of patients	Number of controls	Mortality outcomes	NOS
Fors et al ⁶⁰	Sweden	1991-2000	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	255	1,530	All-cause, natural, cardiovascular, undetermined	9
Gatov et al ⁶¹	Canada	1993-2012	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	34,338	8,793,478	All-cause	9
Girardi et al ⁶²	Italy	2008-2018	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	12,196	9,787,004	Suicide, natural, various specific causes	9
Guan et al ⁶³	The Netherlands	1999-2007	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	4,590	23,062	All-cause, suicide, natural, other	9
Haugland et al ⁶⁴	US	1975-1978	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	351	NA	All-cause	9
Hayes et al ⁶⁵	UK	2000-2014	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	22,497	241,884	All-cause, suicide, cardiovascular	9
Heila et al ⁶⁶	Finland	1980-1996	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	58,761	7,314,595	All-cause, suicide	9
Hellemose et al ⁶⁷	Denmark	1970-2011	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	17,530	5,389,084	Other	9
Hennessy et al ⁶⁸	US	1993-1996	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	136,927	29,086	Cardiovascular	7
Hewer & Rössler ⁶⁹	Germany	1984-1986	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	8,927	61,057,927	All-cause, suicide, natural	9
Kilbourne et al ⁷⁰	US	1999-2006	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	22,817	38,859	Cardiovascular	9
Kim et al ⁷¹	Korea	2002-2013	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	9,387	1,025,340	All-cause	9
Kiviniemi et al ⁷²	Finland	1995-2001	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	7,591	5,120,000	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes, undetermined	9
Kredentser et al ⁷³	Canada	1999-2008	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	9,038	978,128	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes	9
Kugathasan et al ⁷⁴	Denmark	1995-2015	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	30,210	5,432,821	All-cause, natural, various specific causes	9
Kugathasan et al ⁷⁵	UK	2013-2017	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	36,425	218,297	Various specific causes	9
Kurdyak et al ⁷⁶	Canada	2007-2010	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	13,385	12,851,821	All-cause, suicide, injury, other	9
Lahti et al ⁷⁷	Finland	1969-2004	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	204	12,735	Cardio-cerebrovascular	9
Laursen et al ⁷⁸	Denmark, Finland, Sweden	2000-2007	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	66,088	19,691,360	All-cause, natural, cardio-cerebrovascular, undetermined	9
Laursen et al ⁷⁹	Denmark	1992-2006	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	30,614	8,999,225	Cardiovascular	9
Laursen et al ⁸⁰	Denmark	1995-2007	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	16,079	4,873,115	Natural	9
Lomholt et al ⁷	Denmark	1995-2014	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	38,500	6,176,414	All-cause	9
Luo et al ⁸¹	China	2007-2010	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	2,071	1,909,205	All-cause	9
Meesters et al ⁸²	The Netherlands	2008-2012	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	157	25,788	All-cause	9

Table 1 Included studies reporting on risk of all-cause and specific-cause mortality in schizophrenia versus control group, and on mitigating/risk factors (*continued*)

	Country	Years	Comparison	Incident/ prevalent	Number of patients	Number of controls	Mortality outcomes	NOS
Mortensen & Juell ⁸³	Denmark	1957-1986	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	6,178	2,494,178	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes	6
Mortensen & Juell ⁸⁴	Denmark	1970-1987	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	9,156	5,131,156	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes	6
Newman & Bland ⁸⁵	Canada	1976-1985	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	3,623	4,479,623	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes	6
Nielsen et al ⁸⁶	Denmark	1980-2010	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	14,974	1,326,393	All-cause	9
Olfson et al ⁸⁷	US	2001-2007	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	1,138,853	173,699,853	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes	9
Olfson et al ⁸⁸	US	2007-2016	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	668,836	311,580,000	Suicide, other non-natural	9
Ösby et al ⁸⁹	Sweden	1973-1995	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	7,784	1,792,216	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes, undetermined	9
Pan et al ⁹⁰	Taiwan	2001-2016	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	170,322	23,000,000	Suicide, other non-natural	9
Pan et al ⁹¹	Taiwan	2005-2008 2010-2013	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	95,632 104,561	2,292,000 229,200	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes	9
Phillippe et al ⁹²	France	1993-2002	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	3,470	33,264,661	All-cause, natural	6
Phillips et al ⁹³	China	1995-1999	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	102	19,121	Suicide, natural	9
Ran et al ⁹⁴	China	1994-2004	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	500	123,562	All-cause, suicide, injury, natural	9
Ruschena et al ⁹⁵	Australia	1995-1995	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	25,202	35,361,211	All-cause, suicide, injury, natural, undetermined	7
Talasilahti et al ⁹⁶	Finland	1992-2008	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	9,461	1,891,543	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes	9
Tanskanen et al ⁶	Finland	1984 1994 2014	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	159,858	16,701,991	Suicide, natural, cardiovascular, other	9
Teferra et al ⁹⁷	Ethiopia	2001-2005	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	307	68,685	All-cause	9
Tenback et al ⁹⁸	The Netherlands	2006-2008	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	7,415	105,141	All-cause	9
Tokuda et al ⁹⁹	Japan	1987-2004	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	1,108	190,157	All-cause	9
Tornianen et al ¹⁰⁰	Sweden	2006-2010	Schizophrenia vs. general population	I	48,441	1,032,760	All-cause, suicide, various specific causes	9
Tran et al ¹⁰¹	France	1993-2003	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	3,434	3,434	Cardiovascular	9
Westman et al ¹⁰²	Sweden	1987-2010	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	46,911	10,678,728	All-cause, suicide, injury, cardio-cerebrovascular, other	9
Wood et al ¹⁰³	US	1972-1976	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	8,779	235,558	All-cause	9
Yung et al ¹⁰⁴	China	2006-2016	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	817	8,987	All-cause, cerebrovascular	9
Yung et al ¹⁰⁵	Hong Kong	2006-2016	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	46,896	7,500,000	All-cause, various specific causes	9

Table 1 Included studies reporting on risk of all-cause and specific-cause mortality in schizophrenia versus control group, and on mitigating/risk factors (*continued*)

	Country	Years	Comparison	Incident/ prevalent	Number of patients	Number of controls	Mortality outcomes	NOS
Zilber et al ¹⁰⁶	Israel	1978-1983	Schizophrenia vs. general population	P	9,282	NA	All-cause, suicide, natural, various specific causes	9
Attar et al ¹⁰⁷	Sweden	2000-2018	Schizophrenia vs. general population with acute myocardial infarction	P	1,008	285,325	All-cause	9
Babidge et al ¹⁰⁸	Australia	1988-1998	Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia homeless	P	455	708	All-cause	9
Bodén et al ¹⁰⁹	Sweden	1997-2010	Schizophrenia vs. general population with acute myocardial infarction	P	541	209,592	All-cause, cardiovascular	9
Bradford et al ¹¹⁰	US	2001-2005	Schizophrenia vs. general population with lung cancer	P	835	34,644	All-cause	9
Chan et al ¹¹¹	Hong Kong	2001-2016	Schizophrenia vs. general population with diabetes mellitus	P	6,991	75,673	All-cause, diabetes mellitus	9
Chong et al ¹¹²	Singapore	2000-2006	Schizophrenia with vs. without tardive dyskinesia	P	241	561	All-cause, natural, various specific causes	9
Chou et al ¹¹³	Taiwan	2000-2008	Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia with cancer	P	1,131	6,377	All-cause	9
Chou et al ¹¹⁴	Taiwan	2000-2008	Schizophrenia vs. general population with pneumonia	P	6,040	13,878	All-cause	9
Closson et al ¹¹⁵	Canada	1998-2012	Schizophrenia vs. general population with HIV	P	835	13,331	All-cause	9
Crump et al ¹¹⁶	Sweden	2003-2009	Schizophrenia vs. general population with ischemic heart disease or cancer	P	8,277	6,097,834	All-cause	9
Druss et al ¹¹⁷	US	1994-1995	Schizophrenia vs. general population with acute myocardial infarction	P	161	88,241	All-cause	9
Fleetwood et al ¹¹⁸	UK	1991-2014	Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia with acute myocardial infarction	P	923	235,310	Cardiovascular	9
Fond et al ¹¹⁹	France	2020-2020	Schizophrenia vs. general population with COVID	P	823	50,750	COVID	9
Guerrero Fernandez de Alba et al ¹²⁰	Spain	2012-2015	Schizophrenia vs. general population with diabetes mellitus	P	931	52,266	All-cause	9
Hauck et al ¹²¹	Canada	2008-2015	Schizophrenia vs. general population with myocardial infarction	P	1,145	108,610	All-cause	9
Jeon et al ¹²²	Korea	2019-2020	Schizophrenia vs. general population with COVID	P	159	2,976	COVID	9
Kang et al ¹²³	Taiwan	2002-2004	Schizophrenia vs. general population with stroke	P	485	2,910	Cerebrovascular	9
Kapral et al ¹²⁴	Canada	2002-2017	Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia with stroke	P	612	52,473	Cerebrovascular, other	9
Kershenbaum et al ¹²⁵	UK	2013-2019	Schizophrenia vs. anxiety disorders	P	238	1,115	All-cause	9

Table 1 Included studies reporting on risk of all-cause and specific-cause mortality in schizophrenia versus control group, and on mitigating/risk factors (*continued*)

	Country	Years	Comparison	Incident/ prevalent	Number of patients	Number of controls	Mortality outcomes	NOS
Kugathasan et al ¹²⁶	Denmark	1995-2015	Schizophrenia vs. general population with myocardial infarction	P	631	101,510	All-cause	9
Kurdyak et al ¹²⁷	Canada	2002-2006	Schizophrenia vs. general population with acute myocardial infarction	P	842	71,668	Cardiovascular	9
Laursen et al ¹²⁸	Denmark	1998-2008	Schizophrenia vs. general population with stroke	P	3,660	877,507	All-cause, cardiovascular, undetermined	9
Liao et al ¹²⁹	Taiwan	2004-2007	Schizophrenia vs. general population with surgery	P	8,967	44,835	Other	9
Mohamed et al ¹³⁰	US	2004-2014	Schizophrenia vs. other severe mental illness vs. no severe mental illness with myocardial infarction	P	23,582	6,322,796	Cardiovascular	9
Shen et al ¹³¹	Taiwan	2005-2007	Schizophrenia vs. general population in intensive care unit	P	203	2,239	All-cause	9
Søgaard et al ¹³²	Denmark	2000-2015	Schizophrenia vs. general population with atrial fibrillation	P	534	2,552,772	Cardiovascular	9
Toender et al ¹³³	Denmark	1999-2017	Schizophrenia vs. general population with diabetes mellitus	P	1,004	184,470	All-cause, diabetes mellitus, other	9
Tsai et al ¹³⁴	Taiwan	1999-2008	Schizophrenia vs. general population with stroke	P	1,377	4,329	All-cause	9
Tsai et al ¹³⁵	Taiwan	1999-2010	Schizophrenia vs. general population with osteoporotic fractures	P	30,335	151,675	All-cause	9
Tzur Bitan et al ¹³⁶	Israel	2020-2021	Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia with COVID	P	25,539	51,078	COVID	8
Wellejus Albertsen et al ¹³⁷	Denmark	2000-2013	Schizophrenia vs. general population with acute myocardial infarction	P	1,160	36,685	Cardiovascular	9
Alaräsänen et al ¹³⁸	Finland	1997-2005	Schizophrenia vs. other mental disorder	I	100	422	Suicide	9
Dickerson et al ¹³⁹	US	1999-2018	Schizophrenia vs. bipolar disorder or major depressive disorder	P	861	1,745	Natural	9
Hayes et al ¹⁴⁰	UK	2007-2010	Schizophrenia vs. bipolar disorder	P	4,270	6,109	All-cause	9
Kodesh et al ¹⁴¹	Israel	2002-2012	With vs. without very late onset schizophrenia	P	329	94,120	All-cause	9
Chen et al ¹⁴²	Taiwan	1998-2008	Schizophrenia on SGA vs. FGA	I	812	1,624	All-cause	9
Cho et al ¹⁴³	UK	2008-2015	TRS with vs. without clozapine	TRS	1,025	2,817	All-cause	9
Cullen et al ¹⁴⁴	US	1994-2004	Schizophrenia with or without annual antipsychotic continuity	P	2,132	-	All-cause, suicide, cardiovascular	9
Dickerson et al ¹⁴⁵	US	1999-2004	Schizophrenia with vs. without Toxoplasma	P	358	-	Natural	9

Table 1 Included studies reporting on risk of all-cause and specific-cause mortality in schizophrenia versus control group, and on mitigating/risk factors (*continued*)

	Country	Years	Comparison	Incident/ prevalent	Number of patients	Number of controls	Mortality outcomes	NOS
Fontanella et al ¹⁴⁶	US	2006-2013	Schizophrenia with vs. without benzodiazepines with or without antipsychotics	P	5,212	32,694	All-cause, suicide, natural	9
Funayama et al ¹⁴⁷	Japan	1999-2016	Schizophrenia with vs. without catatonia	P	140	1,710	All-cause	9
Hayes et al ¹⁴⁸	UK	2007-2011	TRS with vs. without clozapine	TRS	617	9,437	All-cause	9
Hjorthoj et al ¹⁴⁹	Denmark	1969-2013	Schizophrenia with vs. without substance use disorder	P	29,549	41,470	All-cause, suicide, various specific causes	9
Horsdal et al ¹⁵⁰	Denmark	2000-2012	Schizophrenia with vs. without abnormal C-reactive protein or white blood cell levels	I	208	1,025	All-cause	9
Huang et al ⁸	Taiwan	2002-2017	Schizophrenia with oral vs. LAI antipsychotic	I	2,614	2,614	Suicide, natural	9
Kadra et al ¹⁵¹	UK	2007-2014	Schizophrenia vs. bipolar disorder	P	5,896	7,782	All-cause	9
Kiviniemi et al ¹⁵²	Finland	1998-2003	First-episode schizophrenia with or without antipsychotics	I	5,266	6,713	All-cause, suicide, cardiovascular	9
Kugathasan et al ¹⁵³	Denmark	1980-2015	Schizophrenia with vs. without physical health multimorbidity	P	9,775	1,798	All-cause	9
Lahteenvuoto et al ¹⁵⁴	Finland, Sweden	1972-2007 2006-2016	Schizophrenia with vs. without substance use disorder	P	8,110 4,514	30,860 14,616	Suicide, injury, natural	9
Liu et al ¹⁵⁵	China	2006-2010	Schizophrenia vs. other mental disorders	P	7,628	3,810,782	All-cause	9
Oh et al ¹⁵⁶	Korea	2003-2017	Schizophrenia with vs. without antipsychotics	P	77,139	86,923	All-cause, suicide, various specific causes	9
Pridan et al ¹⁵⁷	Israel	2007-2012	TRS with vs. without clozapine	TRS	43	527	All-cause	9
Ran et al ¹⁵⁸	China	1994-2015	Men vs. women and older vs. younger people with schizophrenia	P	510	123,062	All-cause, suicide, natural, other	9
Strom et al ¹⁵⁹	Multicountry	2002-2006	Schizophrenia on ziprasidone vs. olanzapine	P	9,077	18,154	All-cause, suicide, cardiovascular, other	9
Strømme et al ¹⁶⁰	Norway	2005-2014	Schizophrenia with vs. without antipsychotics	P	101	696	All-cause	9
Stroup et al ¹⁶¹	US	2001-2009	TRS with vs. without clozapine	TRS	3,123	6,246	All-cause	9
Taipale et al ⁹	Sweden	2006-2013	Schizophrenia with vs. without antipsychotics	P I	34,426	-	All-cause	9
Taipale et al ¹⁰	Finland	1996-2015	Schizophrenia with vs. without antipsychotics	P I	62,250	-	All-cause, suicide, cardiovascular	9
Tang et al ¹⁶²	Taiwan	2001-2015	Schizophrenia on oral vs. LAI antipsychotics	P	58,615	87,247	Cardiovascular	9

Table 1 Included studies reporting on risk of all-cause and specific-cause mortality in schizophrenia versus control group, and on mitigating/risk factors (*continued*)

	Country	Years	Comparison	Incident/ prevalent	Number of patients	Number of controls	Mortality outcomes	NOS
Taub et al ¹⁶³	Israel	2012-2014	Schizophrenia on clozapine with vs. without physical illness	P	2,406	1,817	All-cause	9
Tiihonen et al ¹⁶⁴	Finland	2000-2007	Schizophrenia with vs. without antipsychotics, antidepressants or benzodiazepines	I	2,192	2,588	All-cause	9
Wimberley et al ¹⁶⁵	Denmark	1996-2013	TRS with vs. without clozapine	TRS	1,372	2,370	All-cause, suicide, natural, other	9
Wu & Shur-Fen Gau ¹⁶⁶	Taiwan	2001-2012	Schizophrenia with vs. without antipsychotics or benzodiazepines	P	32,512	68,718	All-cause	9

NOS – Newcastle-Ottawa Scale, I – incident, P – prevalent, TRS – treatment-resistant schizophrenia, NA – not available, SGA – second generation antipsychotic, FGA – first generation antipsychotic, LAI – long-acting injectable antipsychotic

was the highest in two studies specifically including individuals with first-episode schizophrenia (RR=7.43, 95% CI: 4.02-13.75, $I^2=93.0\%$), and significantly higher in incident than prevalent schizophrenia (RR=3.52, 95% CI: 3.09-4.00, $I^2=97.1\%$, n=7 vs. RR=2.86, 95% CI: 2.62-3.12, $I^2=99.67\%$, n=50, p=0.009) (see Table 2, Figures 3-4 and supplementary information).

Compared with controls matched for physical diseases, the mortality risk of individuals with schizophrenia was attenuated but still significant (RR=1.66, 95% CI: 1.42-1.94, $I^2=97.2\%$, n=22) (see Table 2). Specifically, individuals with schizophrenia had significantly higher mortality compared with controls matched for acute myocardial infarction (RR=1.82, 95% CI: 1.49-2.22, $I^2=83.1\%$, n=6), diabetes mellitus (RR=1.91, 95% CI: 1.08-3.38, $I^2=99.4\%$, n=4), and stroke (RR=1.35, 95% CI: 1.22-1.50, $I^2=0\%$, n=2) (see Table 2).

No significantly increased mortality risk emerged when schizophrenia was compared with other psychiatric disorders, except for bipolar disorder (RR=1.26, 95% CI: 1.03-1.53, $I^2=25.4\%$, n=3) (see Table 2).

Regarding risk and protective factors for all-cause mortality, having a substance use disorder comorbid with schizophrenia increased mortality (RR=1.62, 95% CI: 1.47-1.80, $I^2=57.4\%$, n=3) (see Table 2).

Wherever publication bias was detected, we conducted trim and fill analyses, which confirmed the magnitude and significance of the findings in the primary analyses, with a fail-safe N ranging from 545 to 27,164,601 (see also supplementary information).

Key secondary outcomes: suicide-related mortality and natural causes of mortality

Suicide-related mortality

Across 28 studies, schizophrenia was associated with increased mortality by suicide compared with the general popu-

lation (RR=9.76, 95% CI: 7.60-12.55, $I^2=99.5\%$) (see Table 2 and Figure 2), suggesting that suicide is the greatest relative risk factor for mortality in individuals with schizophrenia. There was a numerically but not statistically significantly greater suicide-related mortality among the incident versus prevalent cohort (RR=12.7, 95% CI: 5.25-30.53, $I^2=99.8\%$, n=5 vs. RR=9.28, 95% CI: 7.31-11.78, $I^2=98.8\%$, n=23, p=0.51) (see Table 2, Figures 3-4 and supplementary information).

Wherever publication bias was detected, we conducted trim and fill analyses, which confirmed the magnitude and significance of the primary findings, with a fail-safe N ranging from 25,581 to 229,490 (see also supplementary information).

Natural causes of mortality

Across 59 studies, schizophrenia was associated with higher natural-cause mortality (which excludes mortality due to suicide or accident or poisoning) compared with either the general population or control groups matched for a physical disease (RR=2.00, 95% CI: 1.85-2.15, $I^2=99.5\%$) (see Table 2).

Higher natural-cause mortality was confirmed across 44 studies involving comparisons with the general population (RR=2.16, 95% CI: 1.99-2.36, $I^2=99.6\%$), without differences between incident and prevalent schizophrenia (RR=2.15, 95% CI: 1.86-2.48, $I^2=94.6\%$, n=6 vs. RR=2.15, 95% CI: 1.96-2.37, $I^2=99.1\%$, n=38, p=0.939) (see Table 2, Figures 3-4 and supplementary information).

Across 16 studies involving prevalent populations with physical disease-matched controls, natural-cause mortality risk was also significantly increased (RR=1.56, 95% CI: 1.35-1.82, $I^2=94.0\%$), including specifically matched patients with acute myocardial infarction (RR=1.66, 95% CI: 1.24-2.22, $I^2=96.4\%$, n=5) (see Table 2).

Wherever publication bias was detected, we conducted trim

Table 2 All-cause and cause-specific mortality risk in schizophrenia versus control groups

	Incident/ prevalent	N. studies	Risk ratio	95% CI	p	I ²	Egger's p
All-cause mortality							
Schizophrenia vs. any other population	I + P	79	2.523	2.377-2.678	0.000	99.7	0.001
	P	72	2.432	2.253-2.626	0.000	99.591	0.690
First-episode schizophrenia vs. general population	I	2	7.433	4.017-13.754	0.000	92.965	NA
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	57	2.938	2.753-3.135	0.000	99.733	0.050
	I	7	3.516	3.092-3.998	0.000	97.114	0.840
	P	50	2.859	2.622-3.117	0.000	99.669	0.360
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (all matched)	P	22	1.664	1.425-1.943	0.000	97.226	0.530
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (matched for acute myocardial infarction)	P	6	1.821	1.491-2.224	0.000	83.146	0.840
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (matched for diabetes mellitus)	P	4	1.913	1.082-3.380	0.026	99.414	0.500
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (matched for stroke)	P	2	1.351	1.219-1.498	0.000	0.000	NA
Schizophrenia vs. other mental disorder	I + P	5	2.130	0.648-7.002	0.213	99.349	0.110
	P	5	2.130	0.648-7.002	0.213	99.349	0.110
Schizophrenia vs. bipolar disorder	P	3	1.257	1.031-1.533	0.023	25.362	0.210
Schizophrenia with vs. without substance use disorder	P	3	1.625	1.467-1.799	0.000	57.443	0.680
Mortality due to suicide							
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	28	9.764	7.598-12.549	0.000	99.478	0.030
	I	5	12.654	5.245-30.530	0.000	99.802	0.050
	P	23	9.281	7.311-11.782	0.000	98.793	0.680
Mortality due to natural cause							
Schizophrenia vs. any other population	I + P	59	1.996	1.851-2.153	0.000	99.464	0.020
	P	53	1.967	1.793-2.158	0.000	99.201	0.040
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	44	2.162	1.985-2.355	0.000	99.571	0.004
	I	6	2.149	1.861-2.481	0.000	94.602	0.270
	P	38	2.154	1.961-2.367	0.000	99.182	0.140
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (all matched)	P	16	1.565	1.346-1.821	0.000	94.001	0.030
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (matched for acute myocardial infarction)	P	5	1.659	1.238-2.223	0.001	96.379	0.070
Mortality due to cardio-cerebrovascular diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. any other population	I + P	30	2.028	1.678-2.452	0.000	99.470	0.020
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	28	2.099	1.797-2.451	0.000	99.008	0.001
	I	4	3.470	1.792-6.719	0.000	97.883	0.570
	P	24	1.984	1.729-2.275	0.000	97.690	0.210
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (all matched)	P	2	1.329	0.907-1.946	0.144	97.625	NA
Mortality due to cardiovascular diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. any other population	I + P	25	2.089	1.764-2.474	0.000	99.289	0.020
	P	20	1.963	1.653-2.331	0.000	98.841	0.220
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	19	2.205	1.824-2.666	0.000	99.412	0.050
	I	5	2.701	1.802-4.050	0.000	98.514	0.250
	P	14	2.058	1.680-2.522	0.000	99.120	0.370
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (all matched)	P	7	1.855	1.392-2.473	0.000	91.665	0.480
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (matched for acute myocardial infarction)	P	4	1.847	1.515-2.252	0.000	73.575	0.360

Table 2 All-cause and cause-specific mortality risk in schizophrenia versus control groups (*continued*)

	Incident/ prevalent	N. studies	Risk ratio	95% CI	p	I ²	Egger's p
Mortality due to cerebrovascular diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. any other population	I + P	16	1.458	1.168-1.822	0.001	97.435	0.090
	P	11	1.386	0.993-1.936	0.055	98.027	0.260
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	13	1.598	1.250-2.042	0.000	97.748	0.220
	I	5	1.764	1.357-2.292	0.000	72.580	0.090
	P	8	1.583	1.062-2.359	0.024	98.505	0.490
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (all matched)	P	3	0.972	0.520-1.817	0.929	91.905	0.240
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (matched for stroke)	P	2	0.724	0.173-3.038	0.659	95.719	NA
Mortality due to diabetes mellitus							
Schizophrenia vs. any other population	I + P	7	2.512	1.623-3.889	0.000	99.121	0.170
	P	6	2.271	1.444-3.572	0.000	98.201	0.920
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	5	3.159	2.420-4.123	0.000	94.848	0.270
	P	4	2.878	1.858-4.458	0.000	94.485	0.630
Schizophrenia vs. no schizophrenia (matched for diabetes mellitus)	P	2	1.483	1.032-2.131	0.033	95.695	NA
Mortality due to any cancer							
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	25	1.327	1.187-1.482	0.000	97.942	0.001
	I	5	1.315	0.982-1.760	0.066	93.121	0.060
	P	20	1.328	1.157-1.524	0.000	97.109	0.420
Mortality due to endocrine diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	9	3.802	1.750-8.262	0.001	97.438	0.500
	I	3	4.217	1.747-10.179	0.001	76.243	0.390
	P	6	3.519	1.216-10.185	0.020	98.350	0.640
Mortality due to gastrointestinal diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	12	2.859	2.069-3.950	0.000	96.838	0.930
	I	4	2.384	1.939-2.932	0.000	0.000	0.910
	P	8	3.060	2.046-4.577	0.000	97.959	0.800
Mortality due to any infectious diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	10	3.840	2.103-7.012	0.000	97.025	0.460
	P	8	4.344	2.228-8.471	0.000	97.679	0.410
Mortality due to any liver diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	2	1.964	1.899-2.032	0.000	0.000	NA
Mortality due to any neurological diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	8	2.347	1.942-2.838	0.000	6.879	0.400
	I	4	1.972	1.126-3.452	0.018	25.381	0.270
	P	4	2.435	2.245-2.641	0.000	0.000	0.840
Mortality due to any respiratory diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	15	3.748	2.989-4.699	0.000	97.563	0.790
	I	4	3.267	2.365-4.515	0.000	60.784	0.430
	P	11	3.860	2.963-5.029	0.000	98.217	0.720
Mortality due to any urogenital diseases							
Schizophrenia vs. general population	I + P	9	3.328	2.062-5.372	0.000	98.032	0.640
	P	7	3.752	2.183-6.450	0.000	98.518	0.560

Significant values of risk ratio are highlighted in bold. I – incident, P – prevalent, TRS – treatment-resistant schizophrenia, FGA – first-generation antipsychotic, SGA, second-generation antipsychotic, LAI – long-acting injectable antipsychotic, NA – not available

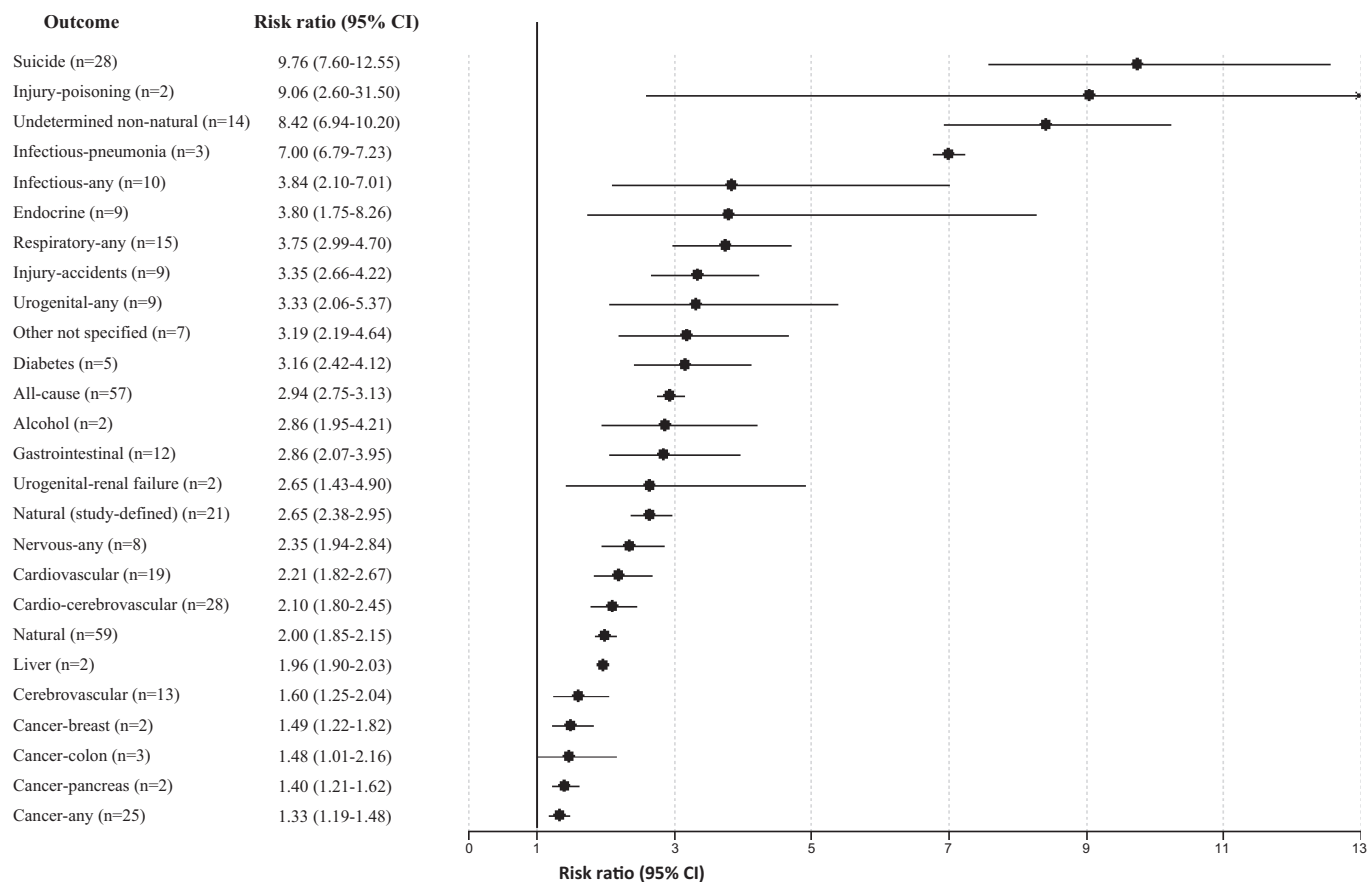


Figure 2 Significant findings for all-cause and cause-specific mortality risk in incident plus prevalent schizophrenia versus the general population

and fill analyses, which confirmed the magnitude and significance of the primary findings (with a fail-safe N ranging from 235 to 282,469), except for a slight reduction of the effect size in comparison with physical disease-matched controls (four studies trimmed, RR=1.35, 95% CI: 1.17-1.56) (see also supplementary information).

Additional secondary outcomes: other specific-cause mortality

Cardiovascular and/or cerebrovascular diseases

Across 30 studies, schizophrenia was associated with higher cardio-cerebrovascular-related mortality compared with either the general population or control groups matched for a physical illness (RR=2.03, 95% CI: 1.68-2.45, $I^2=99.5\%$) (see Table 2). Separating causes, higher mortality from cardiovascular diseases (RR=2.09, 95% CI: 1.76-2.47, $I^2=99.3\%$, n=25) as well as from cerebrovascular diseases (RR=1.46, 95% CI: 1.17-1.82, $I^2=97.4\%$, n=16) was observed among individuals with schizophrenia (see Table 2).

Comparing schizophrenia with the general population, significant findings emerged for the composite mortality outcome

(RR=2.10, 95% CI: 1.80-2.45, $I^2=99.0\%$, n=28), as well as for mortality due to cardiovascular diseases (RR=2.21, 95% CI: 1.82-2.67, $I^2=99.4\%$, n=19) and to cerebrovascular diseases (RR=1.60, 95% CI: 1.25-2.04, $I^2=97.7\%$, n=13). Mortality due to cardio-cerebrovascular diseases was substantially higher in incident (RR=3.47, 95% CI: 1.79-6.72, $I^2=97.9\%$, n=4) than in prevalent schizophrenia (RR=1.98, 95% CI: 1.73-2.27, $I^2=97.7\%$, n=24) (see Table 2 and Figure 2).

Compared with physical disease-matched controls, patients with schizophrenia had significantly higher mortality from cardiovascular diseases (RR=1.86, 95% CI: 1.39-2.47, $I^2=91.7\%$, n=7), including cohorts that were specifically matched for acute myocardial infarction (RR=1.85, 95% CI: 1.52-2.25, $I^2=73.6\%$, n=4) (see Table 2).

Other specific causes

Individuals with schizophrenia had significantly higher mortality than the general population from pneumonia (RR=7.00, 95% CI: 6.79-7.23, n=3), any infectious diseases (RR=3.84, 95% CI: 2.10-7.01, n=10), any endocrine diseases (RR=3.80, 95% CI: 1.75-8.26, n=9), any respiratory diseases (RR=3.75, 95% CI: 2.99-

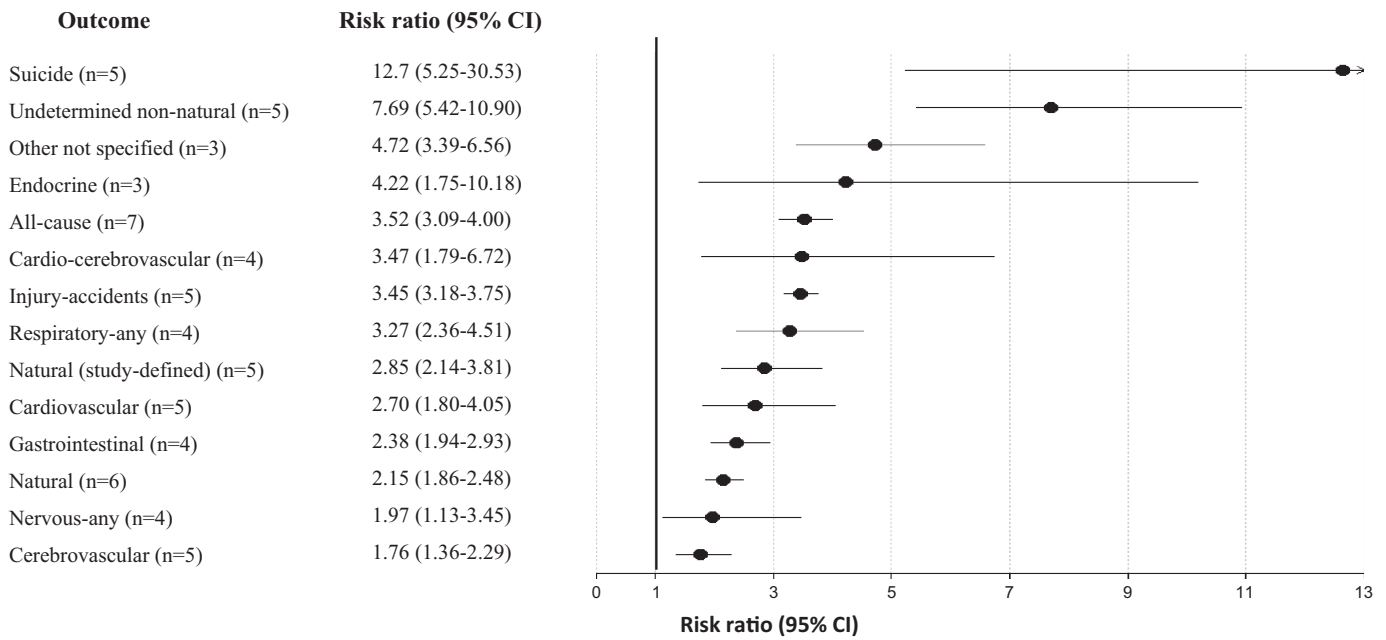


Figure 3 Significant findings for all-cause and cause-specific mortality risk in incident schizophrenia versus the general population

4.70, n=15), any urogenital diseases (RR=3.33, 95% CI: 2.06-5.37, n=9), diabetes mellitus (RR=3.16, 95% CI: 2.42-4.12, n=5), any gastrointestinal diseases (RR=2.86, 95% CI: 2.07-3.95, n=12), any neurological diseases (RR=2.35, 95% CI: 1.94-2.84, n=8), any liver diseases (RR=1.96, 95% CI: 1.90-2.03, n=2), and any cancer (RR=1.33, 95% CI: 1.19-1.48, n=25) (see Table 2 and Figure 2).

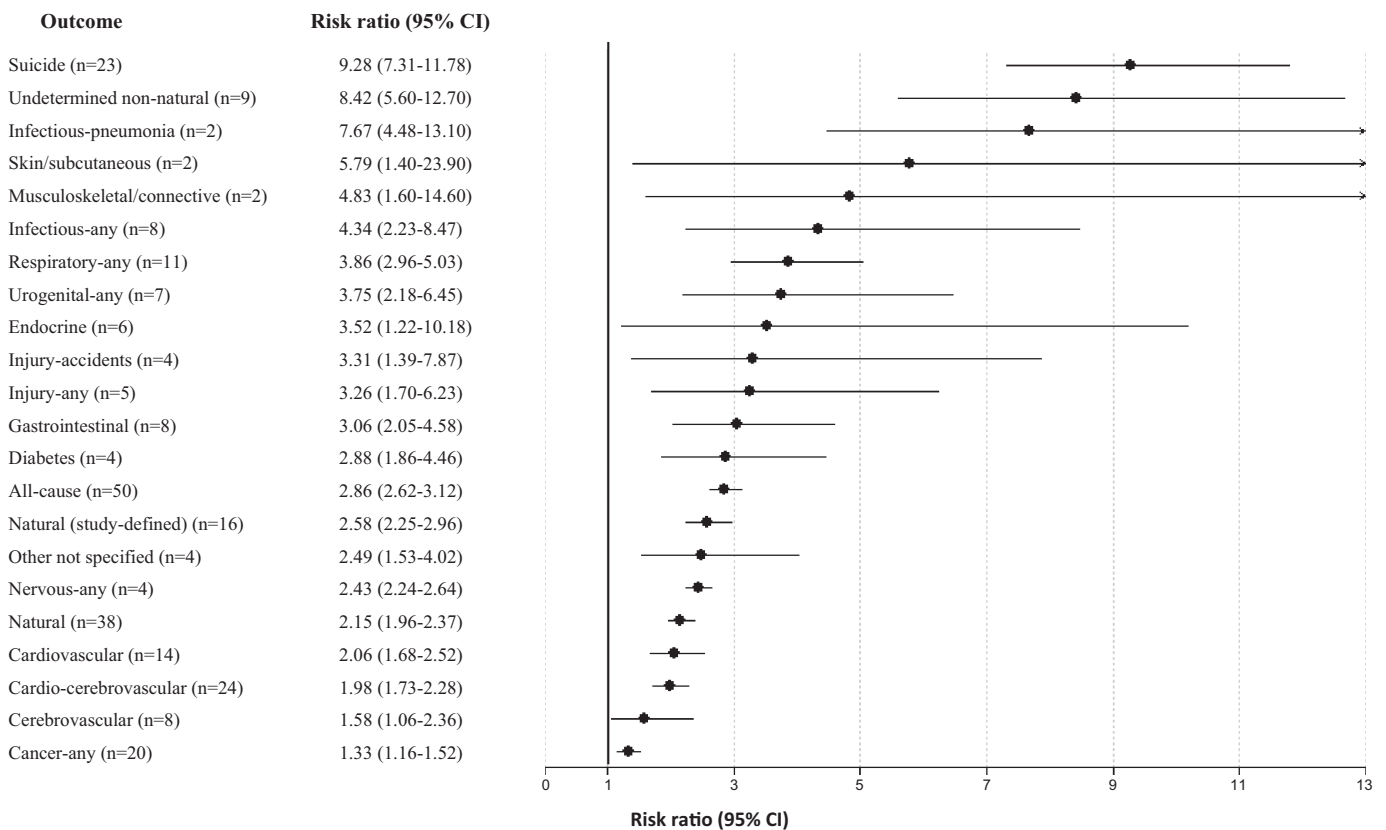


Figure 4 Significant findings for all-cause and cause-specific mortality risk in prevalent schizophrenia versus the general population

Among individuals with schizophrenia, mortality was significantly higher than the general population also from injury-poisoning (RR=9.06, 95% CI: 2.60-31.50, n=2) and undetermined non-natural causes (RR=8.42, 95% CI: 6.94-10.20, n=14) (see Figure 2 and supplementary information).

In incident schizophrenia, no significant association was found with death due to cancer (RR=1.31, 95% CI: 0.98-1.76, n=5), whereas the association was observed in prevalent schizophrenia (RR=1.33, 95% CI: 1.16-1.52, n=20) (see Table 2 and Figure 4). There was instead a significantly increased risk of mortality in both incident and prevalent schizophrenia cohorts due to endocrine diseases (incident: RR=4.22, 95% CI: 1.75-10.18, n=3; prevalent: RR=3.52, 95% CI: 1.22-10.18, n=6), gastrointestinal diseases (incident: RR=2.38, 95% CI: 1.94-2.93, n=4; prevalent: RR=3.06, 95% CI: 2.04-4.58, n=8), neurological diseases (incident: RR=1.97, 95% CI: 1.13-3.45, n=4; prevalent: RR=2.43, 95% CI: 2.24-2.64, n=4) and respiratory diseases (incident: RR=3.27, 95% CI: 2.36-4.51, n=4; prevalent: RR=3.86, 95% CI: 2.96-5.03, n=11) (see Table 2 and Figures 2-4).

Subgroup analyses and meta-regression

Use of any antipsychotic versus non-use was associated with a reduction of all-cause mortality in patients with incident plus prevalent schizophrenia (RR=0.71, 95% CI: 0.59-0.84, $I^2=97.7%$, n=11). Reduction of all-cause mortality risk versus no antipsychotic treatment differed significantly across antipsychotic subgroups ($p=0.0001$), in descending order as follows: any SGA LAI (RR=0.39, 95% CI: 0.27-0.56, $I^2=81.0%$, n=3), clozapine (RR=0.43, 95% CI: 0.34-0.55, $I^2=77.9%$, n=3), any LAI (RR=0.47, 95% CI: 0.39-0.58, $I^2=91.8%$, n=2), any oral SGA (RR=0.47, 95% CI: 0.45-0.50, $I^2=18.9%$, n=4), any first-generation antipsychotic (FGA) LAI (RR=0.50, 95% CI: 0.43-0.57, $I^2=68.9%$, n=3), any SGA (RR=0.53, 95% CI: 0.44-0.63, $I^2=91.0%$, n=4), any oral antipsychotic (RR=0.64, 95% CI: 0.51-0.80, $I^2=95.9%$, n=4), and any FGA (RR=0.73, 95% CI: 0.55-0.97, $I^2=97.0%$, n=5). There was a borderline significant all-cause mortality reduction among individuals with treatment-resistant schizophrenia who received clozapine compared with other medications (RR=0.70, 95% CI: 0.49-1.00, $I^2=57.9%$, n=5) (see Figure 5 and supplementary information).

In incident schizophrenia, the largest protective association emerged for SGA LAIs (RR=0.15, 95% CI: 0.04-0.55, n=1), whereas the protective effect was not significant for any oral antipsychotics, or FGA in any formulation ($p=0.07$ for comparison across antipsychotics). In prevalent schizophrenia, the largest association emerged for SGA LAIs again (RR=0.42, 95% CI: 0.29-0.59, n=2), and the smallest for any antipsychotic (RR=0.69, 95% CI: 0.57-0.84, n=7) ($p=0.0001$ for comparison across antipsychotics) (see supplementary information).

Use of any antipsychotic versus non-use was not associated with a reduction of suicide-related mortality in patients with incident plus prevalent schizophrenia (RR=0.73, 95% CI: 0.47-1.12, $I^2=94.4%$, n=4). Reduction of suicide-related mortality versus no antipsychotic treatment differed significantly across anti-

psychotic subgroups ($p=0.0001$), in descending order as follows: clozapine (RR=0.22, 95% CI: 0.16-0.30, $I^2=0%$, n=2), any SGA LAI (RR=0.43, 95% CI: 0.24-0.78, I^2 not available, n=1), any LAI (RR=0.60, 95% CI: 0.47-0.77, I^2 not available, n=1), any SGA oral (RR=0.64, 95% CI: 0.54-0.74, $I^2=0$, n=2), any FGA LAI (RR=0.64, 95% CI: 0.49-0.85, I^2 not available, n=1), and any SGA (RR=0.68, 95% CI: 0.56-0.82, $I^2=44.2%$, n=2). In contrast, compared to no antipsychotic, any FGA (RR=1.05, 95% CI: 0.37-2.99, $I^2=97.2%$, n=2) and oral FGAs (RR=1.13, 95% CI: 0.33-3.93, $I^2=95.7%$, n=2) did not protect individuals with schizophrenia against suicide-related mortality (see Figure 5 and supplementary information).

In incident schizophrenia, the largest protective association regarding suicide-related mortality emerged for clozapine (RR=0.29, 95% CI: 0.14-0.62, n=1), while, in contrast, oral FGAs were associated with increased mortality (RR=2.17, 95% CI: 1.36-3.48, n=1) ($p=0.0001$ for comparison across antipsychotics). In prevalent schizophrenia, the lowest risk of suicide-related mortality emerged for clozapine (RR=0.21, 95% CI: 0.15-0.29, n=1), and the closest to null effect emerged for any antipsychotic (RR=0.73, 95% CI: 0.36-1.49, n=2) ($p=0.0001$ for comparison across antipsychotics) (see supplementary information).

In incident plus prevalent schizophrenia, any antipsychotic versus no antipsychotic use was protective against natural causes of mortality (RR=0.76, 95% CI: 0.59-0.97, $I^2=90.7%$, n=3). Reduction of natural-cause mortality versus no antipsychotic treatment differed significantly across antipsychotic subgroups ($p=0.04$), in descending order as follows: clozapine (RR=0.50, 95% CI: 0.29-0.86, $I^2=21.3%$, n=2), any oral SGA (RR=0.57, 95% CI: 0.52-0.62, $I^2=0%$, n=2), any oral antipsychotic (RR=0.62, 95% CI: 0.59-0.66, I^2 not available, n=1), any SGA (RR=0.65, 95% CI: 0.48-0.89, $I^2=71.4%$, n=2), any SGA LAI (RR=0.66, 95% CI: 0.52-0.84, I^2 not available, n=1), any LAI (RR=0.69, 95% CI: 0.62-0.77, I^2 not available, n=1), any FGA LAI (RR=0.70, 95% CI: 0.62-0.78, I^2 not available, n=1). In contrast, any FGA or any oral FGA were not associated with lower natural-cause mortality (see Figure 5 and supplementary information).

In incident schizophrenia, no significant reduction of natural-cause mortality emerged for any antipsychotic subgroup versus no antipsychotic use. Oral FGAs were associated with increased natural-cause mortality (RR=2.20, 95% CI: 1.29-3.77, n=1) ($p=0.0004$ for comparison across antipsychotics). In prevalent schizophrenia, the largest protective effect emerged for clozapine (RR=0.55, 95% CI: 0.47-0.64, n=1), and the smallest for FGA LAIs (RR=0.70, 95% CI: 0.62-0.78, n=1) ($p=0.0005$ for comparison across antipsychotics) (see supplementary information).

In subgroup analyses of incident plus prevalent schizophrenia cohorts by age, the risk of all-cause mortality was significantly higher for patients aged <40 vs. ≥ 40 years (RR=3.93, 95% CI: 3.34-4.63 vs. RR=2.66, 95% CI: 2.18-3.26, $p=0.003$). A similar difference was observed for suicide-related mortality (RR=17.58, 95% CI: 12.36-24.99 vs. RR=4.69, 95% CI: 1.77-12.45, $p=0.01$). There was no significant difference between the two age groups for natural-cause mortality (see supplementary information).

No consistent and significant differences emerged from subgroup analyses considering nationwide versus other samples,

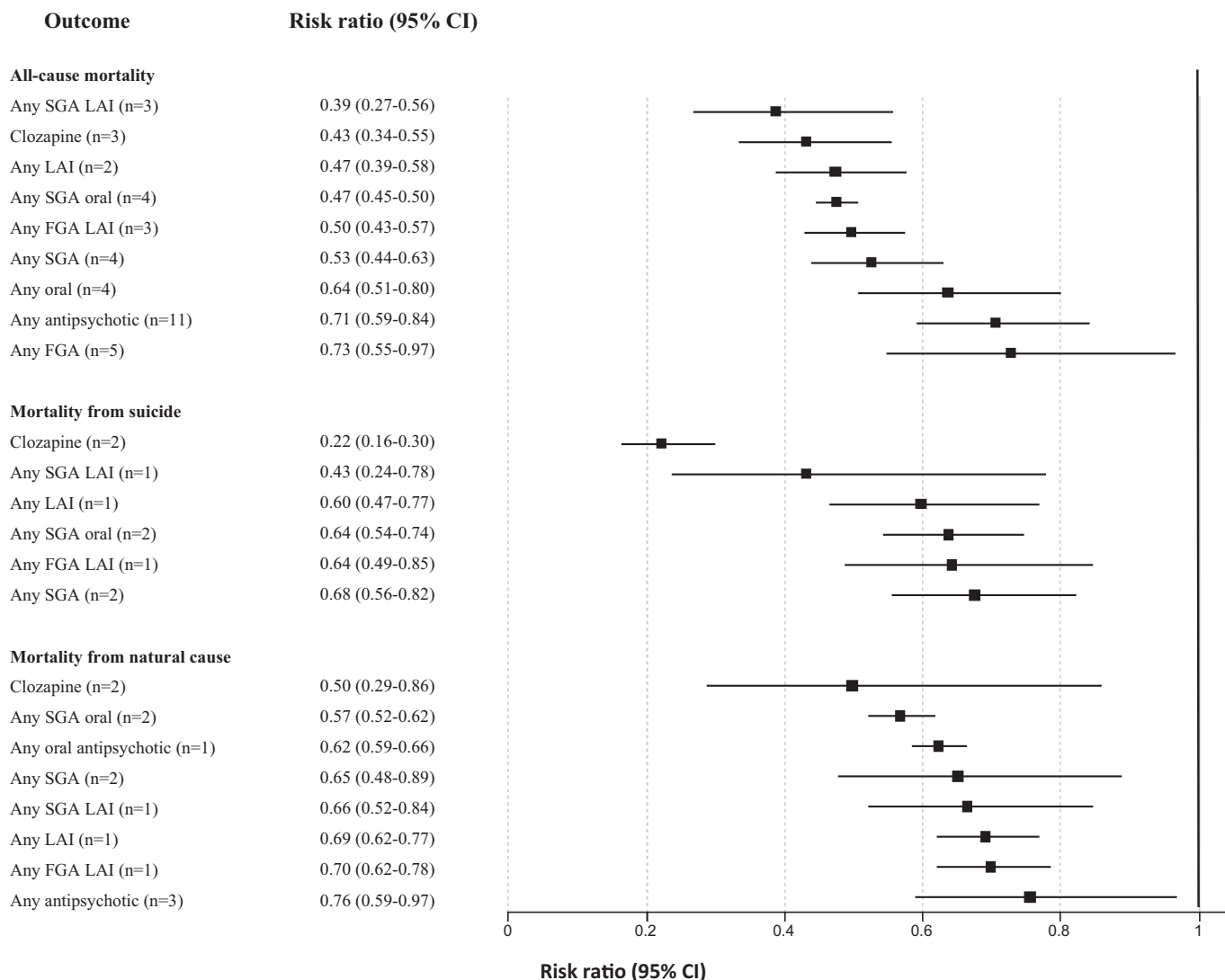


Figure 5 Findings in subgroup analyses of mortality risk due to any cause, suicide, and natural death by antipsychotic treatment within incident plus prevalent schizophrenia versus no antipsychotic. FGA - first-generation antipsychotic, SGA - second-generation antipsychotic, LAI - long-acting injectable antipsychotic

quality of studies, and adjustment of results, suggesting that findings concerning mortality are not systematically influenced by these moderators (see supplementary information).

In meta-regression analyses, we found in incident plus prevalent schizophrenia a significant increase of all-cause mortality ($\beta=0.0009$, 95% CI: 0.001-0.02, $p=0.02$) and of natural-cause mortality ($\beta=0.01$, 95% CI: 0.006-0.02, $p=0.0002$) with increasing median year of study publication, without a significant time trend for suicide-related mortality ($\beta=0.006$, 95% CI: -0.01 to 0.03, $p=0.56$) (see supplementary information).

For all-cause mortality, in incident plus prevalent schizophrenia, more recent study year moderated a larger protective effect of any antipsychotic ($\beta=-0.11$, 95% CI: -0.15 to -0.06) and of oral FGA versus no antipsychotic ($\beta=-0.11$, 95% CI: -0.17 to -0.05). Similarly, for suicide-related mortality, more recent study year moderated a larger protective effect of any FGA versus no an-

tipsychotic in incident plus prevalent schizophrenia ($\beta=-0.27$, 95% CI: -0.36 to -0.18).

Longer duration of follow-up and more variables used to adjust the analyses increased the protective effect against suicide-related mortality of any antipsychotic in prevalent schizophrenia ($\beta=-0.14$, 95% CI: -0.24 to -0.04, and $\beta=-0.23$, 95% CI: -0.40 to -0.06, respectively). Higher percentage of females increased the risk of suicide-related mortality in incident schizophrenia ($\beta=0.36$, 95% CI: 0.23-0.49, $p<0.0001$).

For natural-cause mortality, the protective effect of any FGA versus no antipsychotic in incident plus prevalent schizophrenia was increased by more recent study year ($\beta=-0.23$, 95% CI: -0.33 to -0.13) and more variables used to adjust the analyses ($\beta=-0.12$, 95% CI: -0.17 to -0.07). Natural-cause mortality versus any other population was greater in higher quality studies in incident plus prevalent schizophrenia ($\beta=0.11$, 95% CI: 0.04-

0.18). Natural-cause mortality versus the general population was also greater in higher quality studies in incident plus prevalent schizophrenia (beta=0.13, 95% CI: 0.06-0.20), as well as in incident schizophrenia (beta=0.20, 95% CI: 0.08-0.31) and in prevalent schizophrenia (beta=0.11, 95% CI: 0.02-0.19). Natural-cause mortality was also larger, in incident schizophrenia, with higher number of variables that analyses were adjusted for (beta=0.12, 95% CI: 0.06-0.18).

DISCUSSION

Schizophrenia is one of the mental disorders with the highest mortality risk. This meta-analysis of 135 cohort studies comparing 4.5 million schizophrenia patients with about 1.11 billion people from the general population comprehensively quantified this increased risk. Specifically, we observed a 2.9-fold increased all-cause mortality in patients with schizophrenia versus the general population, and a somewhat lower but still significantly 1.6-fold increased risk versus physical disease-matched general population controls.

In addition, we identified significantly greater specific-cause mortality among individuals with schizophrenia versus the general population, which was particularly pronounced for suicide (9.7-fold); other non-natural causes, including poisoning (8- to 9-fold); and pneumonia (7-fold). The mortality risk remained greater for infectious, endocrine and respiratory diseases (3.7-3.8-fold); injury or accidents (3.3-fold); diabetes mellitus (3.2-fold); alcohol use and gastrointestinal diseases (2.9-fold); urogenital diseases (2.6-fold); neurological diseases (2.3-fold); cardiovascular diseases (2.2-fold); liver diseases (2-fold); and cerebrovascular diseases (1.6-fold); also extending to breast, colon, pancreas and any cancer (1.3- to 1.5-fold).

The relative increase in mortality compared to the general population was larger in incident (i.e., earlier-phase) than prevalent (i.e., more chronic) schizophrenia cohorts. Moreover, all-cause and suicide-related mortality were higher in patients <40 years old, whereas this was not the case for natural-cause mortality. Comorbid substance use disorder increased the all-cause mortality gap, while antipsychotic treatment versus no treatment decreased this gap. The largest protective effect was observed with SGA LAIs and clozapine. In contrast to this protective effect, FGAs increased suicide-related and natural-cause mortality in incident schizophrenia.

We found that first-episode schizophrenia was associated with a 7.4-fold higher all-cause mortality risk versus the general population, indicating the critical importance of providing a swift and accurate diagnosis followed by initiating effective treatment. The lifetime prevalence of completed suicide in patients with schizophrenia has been reported to be 5.6%, with the majority of these suicides occurring near illness onset¹⁶⁷. Moreover, suicide attempts have been found to be predicted by greater severity of psychotic illness and of depressive symptoms¹⁶⁸, two factors that should prompt clinicians to screen for and guard against suicide attempts in the early phase of the illness. Furthermore, our find-

ing that females with schizophrenia have a significantly higher risk increase than males for suicide-related mortality compared to the general population should prompt clinicians to extend the focus from males, who are still at the highest risk for completed suicide¹⁶⁹, to this additional high-risk group.

All-cause mortality was increased in persons with schizophrenia even when they were matched with general population controls for many relevant physical diseases. These included cardiovascular, cerebrovascular, endocrine, gastrointestinal, infectious, liver, neurological, respiratory and urogenital diseases, diabetes mellitus and cancer. Importantly, the relative mortality risk for cardio-cerebrovascular diseases was substantially greater in the incident (RR=3.47) versus prevalent (RR=1.98) cohorts, which is perhaps reflective of the lower overall frequency of these diseases in the younger general population and of their earlier onset in people with schizophrenia, likely due to poorer lifestyle behaviors¹⁷⁰⁻¹⁷² and to the effect of antipsychotic and other medications^{21,173}.

Disparities between individuals with schizophrenia and the general population with respect to the implementation of screening procedures (e.g., for cardiovascular risk factors and disorders, and for cancer) and the quality of medical care, including a lack of advice for lifestyle changes such as smoking cessation and physical activity, have been repeatedly reported^{2,27,28,43,174,175}. Addressing smoking is of particular importance, given the 70-162% increased risk of asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and pneumonia in subjects with schizophrenia¹⁷⁶, and considering our finding that pneumonia confers the highest risk of death among natural causes. Thus, to close the mortality gap in individuals with schizophrenia, smoking cessation interventions, cardiovascular and cancer screening and monitoring, consistent healthy lifestyle instructions, as well as early interventions for detected physical diseases, should be regarded as imperative. Since individuals with schizophrenia may be less likely to receive or seek help from a medical health care provider than people from the general population, mental health care providers need to orchestrate physical care for these individuals as part of a comprehensive and collaborative care model¹⁷.

Comorbid substance use disorders were found in our meta-analysis to be a significant risk factor for increased mortality in people with schizophrenia. This finding is likely due to the multiple adverse physical as well as intentional or accidental suicide-related effects of these disorders¹⁷⁷⁻¹⁸¹. Additionally, comorbid substance use, and cannabis use in particular, can worsen adherence to antipsychotics¹⁸²⁻¹⁸⁴. All these factors point to the need to screen for and address substance use disorders as early as possible when treating patients with schizophrenia^{185,186}.

This meta-analysis found that, compared with no antipsychotic use, antipsychotic treatment was associated with reduced all-cause mortality in patients with schizophrenia. Specifically, factors associated with a reduction in all-cause mortality included the use of any LAI, any SGA and, especially, of clozapine. These findings support prior research which found that continuous clozapine use was associated with significantly lower long-term all-cause mortality compared with other antipsychotics in patients with schizophrenia, despite the adverse impact of clo-

zapine on cardiometabolic risk factors¹⁸⁷. We also observed a borderline significant reduction in all-cause mortality among patients with treatment-resistant schizophrenia who were treated with clozapine compared with other antipsychotics, with lack of significance likely being due to low power of these analyses.

Recently, a Finnish national database study²⁰ indicated that patients with schizophrenia who were taking antipsychotics, especially LAIs and clozapine, were significantly less likely to interrupt ongoing treatment with statins, antidiabetic agents, anti-hypertensive medications, and beta-blockers. Such an association between the use of antipsychotics and better adherence to medical treatments – and potentially also closer and more regular medical monitoring as might be the case with clozapine and LAIs – is likely to be a mediator of the protective effect of antipsychotic use on mortality risk in people with schizophrenia. Studies that specifically test this hypothesis are warranted.

The use of any SGA or clozapine also had a significant protective effect against suicide-related mortality in prevalent schizophrenia, compared with no use of antipsychotics, which was not observed with FGAs. While the anti-suicidal efficacy of clozapine has been established¹⁸⁸, the differential finding favoring SGAs may be due to the fact that suicide in schizophrenia is often associated with the emergence of depression¹⁶⁸. FGAs do not improve or even induce depressive symptoms, while many SGAs have been shown to be effective in treating these symptoms¹⁸⁹⁻¹⁹¹.

We found that, in incident schizophrenia, FGAs were even associated with an increased mortality risk due to suicide. This finding should caution against the use of these medications as first-line agents, in particular in earlier-phase patients. The fact that this increased mortality risk in incident schizophrenia was not found with FGA LAIs points to a potentially mediating effect of poorer adherence with oral FGAs or a protective effect of LAI use due to increased surveillance and, possibly, treatment of emergent depression.

Thus, in addition to underscoring the importance of comprehensive physical health monitoring and integrated or collaborative care to address and improve both physical and mental health problems in patients with schizophrenia, this meta-analysis points to the need for antipsychotic maintenance treatment, monitoring for and mitigating antipsychotic non-adherence, also through a broader and earlier consideration of SGA LAIs. Furthermore, our findings point to the need to screen for and treat substance use disorders as well as depression as important clinical strategies to reduce overall and specific-cause mortality in individuals with schizophrenia.

We found a slight but significant increase of the excess mortality in people with schizophrenia by median study year of investigation (ranging from 1957 to 2021). This finding further emphasizes the urgency with which the mortality gap in these people needs to be addressed.

Among the strengths of this meta-analysis are the large number of studies (n=135) that met the inclusion criteria, the substantial number of patients with schizophrenia (4,536,447) and general population controls (1,115,600,059); and the high quality of the studies included, with results being consistent and

robust even after all trim and fill analyses. Moreover, directions for future research are provided, as analyses adjusted for more potentially relevant confounders and longer follow-up were associated with greater protective effects of antipsychotic medications against the increased mortality risk.

However, the results of this meta-analysis have to be interpreted within its limitations. First, meta-analyzed studies were observational cohort investigations. Their non-randomized nature cannot imply causality. However, since mortality is a relatively rare and late-onset/distal event, randomized controlled trials – that generally include relatively few individuals, have a modest follow-up duration and many dropouts, and that also exclude many patients that may be more severely mentally and physically ill¹⁹² – are not the best or most feasible studies to quantify mortality risk and identify generalizable aggravating and protective factors. For the study of mortality risk, longitudinal cohort and, especially, nationwide database studies represent more appropriate study options. Furthermore, consistent with our meta-analysis, two smaller meta-analyses focusing on patients in randomized controlled trials reported similar results – i.e., an about 30-50% lower mortality among patients randomized to antipsychotics compared with patients randomized to placebo^{193,194}.

Second, although we were able to include as many as 135 individual studies, with a large number of individuals with schizophrenia and even more control subjects from the general population, some findings were based on five or fewer studies. The need for additional studies is particularly important with respect to the quantitative evaluation of specific factors that increase or decrease the existing mortality gap. Third, there was substantial inconsistency in the definitions of age groups across the included studies, which limited our ability to comprehensively analyze the effect of age on all-cause and specific-cause mortality risk. Future studies should report age both categorically across relevant age groups as well as continuously.

Fourth, few studies specifically evaluated mortality risk in patients with first-episode or treatment-resistant schizophrenia, two subgroups of considerable clinical interest. Fifth, some studies did not quantify the number of the general population control group, but used instead regional or nationwide control groups restricted to certain time periods and/or age groups. In such instances, we estimated the number of general population controls based on census-based (sub)population numbers at the time of data collection, which may have introduced some imprecision. Sixth, studies used different metrics to report mortality: in order to pool results, we combined risk estimates that have somewhat different characteristics, which could have led to some imprecision. However, since mortality is a relatively rare event and since all included studies used the same cohort design and evaluated the same population of interest, the degree of imprecision is likely low.

Finally, although we preferred the risk estimate that was adjusted for the most likely potential confounders, we also included unadjusted risk estimates, and adjustments may not have included all/the most relevant covariates that are associated with mortality risk. However, we were not interested in isolating the genetic or narrowly illness-related effect of schizophrenia on mortality

risk, but rather in estimating the differential risk of all-cause and specific-cause mortality in individuals with schizophrenia who differ in many psychological, behavioral, social and environmental respects from the general population and other control groups. The potential residual confounding from a statistical standpoint, therefore, represents the reality of individuals living with schizophrenia and ensures the desired generalizability of the findings.

CONCLUSIONS

This meta-analysis provides the largest and most comprehensive quantitative assessment of the all-cause and detailed specific-cause mortality risk of individuals with schizophrenia versus the general population and other control groups, additionally focusing on reported aggravating and protective factors. It confirms that the mortality gap between patients with and without schizophrenia is high, being highest for suicide-related mortality but extending to multiple other specific-cause mortality reasons. Results of this mortality gap in individuals with schizophrenia were based on high-quality data in >97% of the studies and were robust and confirmed in multiple subgroup and meta-regression analyses. Importantly, the increased mortality was associated with certain modifiable risk factors, which can inform clinical practice.

Consistent and long-term use of SGAs, SGA LAIs and, if indicated, clozapine in patients with schizophrenia across all stages of illness can reduce the mortality risk, as antipsychotics are protective compared to non-use of antipsychotics against many kinds of mortality, including that due to cardio-cerebrovascular disease. This finding indicates that even antipsychotics with elevated cardiometabolic adverse effects, such as clozapine, can reduce overall mortality, which is not counterbalanced by larger but supported by reduced cardiometabolic-related mortality. Results were confirmed or even stronger in more recent, higher quality, adjusted studies, and those with longer follow-up. Finally, despite heightened awareness of the mortality gap of people with severe mental illness and especially with schizophrenia, this gap seems to be increasing slightly with time, including data as recent as 2021.

These results underscore the urgency with which the mortality disparity in individuals with schizophrenia need to be addressed at multiple levels. Clinicians should routinely monitor patients with schizophrenia for cardiovascular risk and physical diseases and also screen for and address substance use disorders and depression. In addition, they should screen patients with first-episode schizophrenia, both males and females, for suicide risk and depression, and avoid FGAs.

Overall, integrated mental and physical health care of individuals with schizophrenia must be at the center of mental health research and policy making agendas. Data from this meta-analysis point to the responsibility of reducing mortality risk by screening for and optimizing the management of physical as well as psychiatric comorbidities, and by earlier use of LAIs and, if indicated, clozapine in individuals with schizophrenia. This information

should be considered by treatment guidelines and incorporated into actionable policies by health care administrators.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

C.U. Correll, M. Solmi and G. Croatto are joint first authors of this paper. Supplementary information on the study is available at <https://osf.io/j2ymb/>.

REFERENCES

1. Vermeulen JM, van Rooijen G, Doedens P et al. Antipsychotic medication and long-term mortality risk in patients with schizophrenia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Psychol Med* 2017;47:2217-28.
2. Vancampfort D, Rosenbaum S, Schuch F et al. Cardiorespiratory fitness in severe mental illness: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sports Med* 2017;47:343-52.
3. Björk Brämberg E, Torgerson J, Norman Kjellström A et al. Access to primary and specialized somatic health care for persons with severe mental illness: a qualitative study of perceived barriers and facilitators in Swedish health care. *BMC Fam Pract* 2018;19:12.
4. Saha S, Chant D, McGrath J. A systematic review of mortality in schizophrenia. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2007;64:1123-31.
5. Bitter I, Czobor P, Borsi A et al. Mortality and the relationship of somatic comorbidities to mortality in schizophrenia. A nationwide matched-cohort study. *Eur Psychiatry* 2017;45:97-103.
6. Tanskanen A, Tiihonen J, Taipale H. Mortality in schizophrenia: 30-year nationwide follow-up study. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 2018;138:492-9.
7. Lomholt LH, Andersen DV, Sejrsgaard-Jacobsen C et al. Mortality rate trends in patients diagnosed with schizophrenia or bipolar disorder: a nationwide study with 20 years of follow-up. *Int J Bipolar Disord* 2019;7:6.
8. Huang CY, Fang SC, Shao YJ. Comparison of long-acting injectable antipsychotics with oral antipsychotics and suicide and all-cause mortality in patients with newly diagnosed schizophrenia. *JAMA Net Open* 2021;4:e218810.
9. Taipale H, Mittendorfer-Rutz E, Alexanderson K et al. Antipsychotics and mortality in a nationwide cohort of 29,823 patients with schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res* 2018;197:274-80.
10. Taipale H, Tanskanen A, Mehtälä J et al. 20-year follow-up study of physical morbidity and mortality in relationship to antipsychotic treatment in a nationwide cohort of 62,250 patients with schizophrenia (FIN20). *World Psychiatry* 2020;19:61-8.
11. De Hert M, Detraux J, van Winkel R et al. Metabolic and cardiovascular adverse effects associated with antipsychotic drugs. *Nat Rev Endocrinol* 2011;8:114-26.
12. Galling B, Roldán A, Nielsen RE et al. Type 2 diabetes mellitus in youth exposed to antipsychotics: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2016;73:247-59.
13. Vancampfort D, Stubbs B, Mitchell AJ et al. Risk of metabolic syndrome and its components in people with schizophrenia and related psychotic disorders, bipolar disorder and major depressive disorder: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *World Psychiatry* 2015;14:339-47.
14. Vancampfort D, Correll CU, Galling B et al. Diabetes mellitus in people with schizophrenia, bipolar disorder and major depressive disorder: a systematic review and large-scale meta-analysis. *World Psychiatry* 2016;15:166-74.
15. Correll CU, Solmi M, Veronese N et al. Prevalence, incidence and mortality from cardiovascular disease in patients with pooled and specific severe mental illness: a large-scale meta-analysis of 3,211,768 patients and 113,383,368 controls. *World Psychiatry* 2017;16:163-80.
16. De Hert M, Correll CU, Bobes J et al. Physical illness in patients with severe mental disorders. I. Prevalence, impact of medications and disparities in health care. *World Psychiatry* 2011;10:52-77.
17. Liu NH, Daumit GL, Dua T et al. Excess mortality in persons with severe mental disorders: a multilevel intervention framework and priorities for clinical practice, policy and research agendas. *World Psychiatry* 2017;16:30-40.
18. Firth J, Siddiqi N, Koyanagi A et al. The Lancet Psychiatry Commission: a blueprint for protecting physical health in people with mental illness. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2019;6:675-712.
19. Nielsen RE, Banner J, Jensen SE. Cardiovascular disease in patients with severe mental illness. *Nat Rev Cardiol* 2021;18:136-45.

20. Solmi M, Tiihonen J, Lähteenvuo M et al. Antipsychotics use is associated with greater adherence to cardiometabolic medications in patients with schizophrenia: results from a nationwide, within-subject design study. *Schizophr Bull* 2022;48:166-75.
21. Pillinger T, McCutcheon RA, Vano L et al. Comparative effects of 18 antipsychotics on metabolic function in patients with schizophrenia, predictors of metabolic dysregulation, and association with psychopathology: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2020;7:64-77.
22. Solmi M, Murru A, Pacchiarotti I et al. Safety, tolerability, and risks associated with first- and second-generation antipsychotics: a state-of-the-art clinical review. *Ther Clin Risk Manag* 2017;13:757-77.
23. Firth J, Solmi M, Wootton RE et al. A meta-review of "lifestyle psychiatry": the role of exercise, smoking diet and sleep in the prevention and treatment of mental disorders. *World Psychiatry* 2020;19:360-80.
24. Attar R, Jensen SE, Nielsen RE et al. Time trends in the use of coronary procedures, guideline-based therapy, and all-cause mortality following the acute coronary syndrome in patients with schizophrenia. *Cardiology* 2020;145:401-9.
25. Ayerbe L, Forgnone I, Foguet-Boreu Q et al. Disparities in the management of cardiovascular risk factors in patients with psychiatric disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Psychol Med* 2018;48:2693-701.
26. Mitchell AJ, Vancampfort D, De Hert M et al. Do people with mental illness receive adequate smoking cessation advice? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry* 2015;37:14-23.
27. Mitchell AJ, Lord O. Do deficits in cardiac care influence high mortality rates in schizophrenia? A systematic review and pooled analysis. *J Psychopharmacol* 2010;24(Suppl. 4):69-80.
28. Solmi M, Fiedorowicz J, Poddighe L et al. Disparities in screening and treatment of cardiovascular diseases in patients with mental disorders across the world: systematic review and meta-analysis of 47 observational studies. *Am J Psychiatry* 2021;178:793-803.
29. Chou RH, Lo LW, Liou YJ et al. Antipsychotic treatment is associated with risk of atrial fibrillation: a nationwide nested case-control study. *Int J Cardiol* 2017;227:134-40.
30. Khan A, Schwartz K, Stern C et al. Mortality risk in patients with schizophrenia participating in premarketing atypical antipsychotic clinical trials. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2007;68:1828-33.
31. Jackson JW, Schneeweiss S, VanderWeele TJ et al. Quantifying the role of adverse events in the mortality difference between first and second-generation antipsychotics in older adults: systematic review and meta-synthesis. *PLoS One* 2014;9:e105376.
32. Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ* 2021;372:n71.
33. Wells GA, Shea B, O'Connell D et al. The Newcastle-Ottawa scale (NOS) for assessing the quality of non-randomised studies in meta-analyses. http://www.ohri.ca/programs/clinical_epidemiology/oxford.asp.
34. Serghiou S, Goodman SN. Random-effects meta-analysis: summarizing evidence with caveats. *JAMA* 2019;321:301-2.
35. Von Hippel PT. The heterogeneity statistic I^2 can be biased in small meta-analyses. *BMC Med Res Methodol* 2015;15:35.
36. Egger M, Smith GD, Schneider M et al. Bias in meta-analysis detected by a simple, graphical test. *BMJ* 1997; 315: 629-34.
37. Duval S, Tweedie R. Trim and fill: a simple funnel-plot-based method of testing and adjusting for publication bias in meta-analysis. *Biometrics* 2000;56:455-63.
38. Alleback P, Wistedt B. Mortality in schizophrenia. a ten-year follow-up based on the Stockholm County inpatient register. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1986;43:650-3.
39. Amaddeo F, Bisoffi G, Bonizzato P et al. Mortality among patients with psychiatric illness. A ten-year case register study in an area with a community-based system of care. *Br J Psychiatry* 1995;166:783-8.
40. Attar R, Valentin JB, Freeman P et al. The effect of schizophrenia on major adverse cardiac events, length of hospital stay and prevalence of somatic comorbidities following acute coronary syndrome. *Eur Heart J Qual Care Clin Outcomes* 2018;5:121-6.
41. Bagewadi VI, Kumar CN, Thirthalli J et al. Standardized mortality ratio in patients with schizophrenia - findings from Thirthahalli: a rural South Indian community. *Indian J Psychol Med* 2016;38:202-6.
42. Berardi D, Stivanello E, Chierzi F et al. Mortality in mental health patients of the Emilia-Romagna region of Italy: a registry-based study. *Psychiatry Res* 2021;296:113702.
43. Black DW, Fisher R. Mortality in DSM-III-R schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res* 1992; 7:109-10.
44. Bouza C, López-Cuadrado T, Amate JM. Physical disease in schizophrenia: a population-based analysis in Spain. *BMC Public Health* 2010;10:745.
45. Bralet MC, Yon V, Loas G et al. Cause of mortality in schizophrenic patients: prospective study of years of a cohort of 150 chronic schizophrenic patients. *Encephale* 2000;26:32-41.
46. Brown S, Kim M, Mitchell C et al. Twenty-five year mortality of a community cohort with schizophrenia. *Br J Psychiatry* 2010;196:116-21.
47. Buda M, Tsuang MT, Fleming JA. Causes of death in DSM-III schizophrenics and other psychotics (atypicals): a comparison with the general population. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1988;45:283-5.
48. Castagnini A, Foldager L, Bertelsen A. Excess mortality of acute and transient psychotic disorders: comparison with bipolar affective disorder and schizophrenia. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 2013;128:370-5.
49. Chan JKN, Wong CSM, Yung NCL et al. Pre-existing chronic physical morbidity and excess mortality in people with schizophrenia: a population-based cohort study. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol* 2021; doi: 10.1007/s00127-021-02130-9.
50. Chen P-H, Tsai S-Y, Pan C-H et al. Age effect on incidence, physical, and psychiatric comorbidity for sudden cardiac death in schizophrenia. *Can J Psychiatry* 2020;66:367-75.
51. Chen W-Y, Huang S-J, Chang C-K et al. Excess mortality and risk factors for mortality among patients with severe mental disorders receiving home care case management. *Nord J Psychiatry* 2021;75:109-17.
52. Chen Y-H, Lee H-C, Lin H-C. Mortality among psychiatric patients in Taiwan - Results from a universal national health insurance programme. *Psychiatry Res* 2010;178:160-5.
53. Cheng K-Y, Lina C-Y, Chang T-K et al. Mortality among long-stay patients with schizophrenia during the setting-up of community facilities under the Yuli model. *Health Psych Behav Med* 2014;2:602-12.
54. Crump C, Sundquist K, Winkleby MA et al. Mental disorders and risk of accidental death. *Br J Psychiatry* 2013;203:297-302.
55. Curkendall SM, Mo J, Glasser DB et al. Cardiovascular disease in patients with schizophrenia in Saskatchewan, Canada. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2004;65:715-20.
56. Daumit GL, Anthony CB, Ford DE et al. Pattern of mortality in a sample of Maryland residents with severe mental illness. *Psychiatry Res* 2010;176:242-5.
57. Dickerson F, Stallings C, Origoni A et al. Mortality in schizophrenia: clinical and serological predictors. *Schizophr Bull* 2013;40:796-803.
58. Dickerson F, Origoni A, Schroeder J et al. Mortality in schizophrenia and bipolar disorder: clinical and serological predictors. *Schizophr Res* 2016;170:177-83.
59. Enger C, Weatherby L, Reynolds RF et al. Serious cardiovascular events and mortality among patients with schizophrenia. *J Nerv Ment Dis* 2004;192:19-27.
60. Fors BM, Isacson D, Bingeors K et al. Mortality among persons with schizophrenia in Sweden: an epidemiological study. *Nord J Psychiatry* 2007;61:252-9.
61. Gatov E, Rosella L, Chiu M et al. Trends in standardized mortality among individuals with schizophrenia, 1993-2012: a population-based, repeated cross-sectional study. *CMAJ* 2017;189:E1177-87.
62. Girardi P, Schievano E, Fedili U et al. Causes of mortality in a large population-based cohort of psychiatric patients in Southern Europe. *J Psychiatr Res* 2021;136:167-72.
63. Guan NC, Termorshuizen F, Laan W et al. Cancer mortality in patients with psychiatric diagnoses: a higher hazard of cancer death does not lead to a higher cumulative risk of dying from cancer. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol* 2013;48:1289-95.
64. Haugland G, Craig TJ, Goodman AB et al. Mortality in the era of deinstitutionalization. *Am J Psychiatry* 1983;140:848-52.
65. Hayes JE, Marston L, Walters K et al. Mortality gap for people with bipolar disorder and schizophrenia: UK based cohort study 2000-2014. *Br J Psychiatry* 2017;211:175-81.
66. Heila H, Haukka J, Suvisaari J et al. Mortality among patients with schizophrenia and reduced psychiatric hospital care. *Psychol Med* 2005;35:725-32.
67. Hellemose AA, Laursen TM, Larsen JT et al. Accidental deaths among persons with schizophrenia: a nationwide population-based cohort study. *Schizophr Res* 2018;199:149-53.
68. Hennessy S, Bilker WB, Knauss JS et al. Cardiac arrest and ventricular arrhythmia in patients taking antipsychotic drugs: cohort study using administrative data. *BMJ* 2002;325:1070-2.
69. Hewer W, Rössler W. Mortalität von Patienten mit funktionellen psychischen Erkrankungen während des Zeitraums stationärer Behandlung. *Fortschr Neurol Psychiatr* 1997;65:171-81.
70. Kilbourne AM, Morden NE, Austin K et al. Excess heart-disease-related mor-

- tality in a national study of patients with mental disorders: identifying modifiable risk factors. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry* 2009;31:555-63.
71. Kim W, Jang S-Y, Chun SY et al. Mortality in schizophrenia and other psychoses: data from the South Korea National Health Insurance Cohort, 2002-2013. *J Korean Med Sci* 2017;32:836-42.
 72. Kiviniemi M, Suvisaara J, Pirkola S et al. Regional differences in five-year mortality after a first episode of schizophrenia in Finland. *Psychiatr Serv* 2010;61:272-9.
 73. Kredentser MS, Martens PJ, Chochinov HM et al. Cause and rate of death in people with schizophrenia across the lifespan: a population-based study in Manitoba, Canada. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2014;75:154-61.
 74. Kugathasan P, Stubbs B, Aagaard J et al. Increased mortality from somatic multimorbidity in patients with schizophrenia: a Danish nationwide cohort study. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 2019;140:340-8.
 75. Kugathasan P, Laursen TM, Grøntved S et al. Increased long-term mortality after myocardial infarction in patients with schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res* 2018;199:103-8.
 76. Kurdyak P, Mallia E, de Oliveira C et al. Mortality after the first diagnosis of schizophrenia-spectrum disorders: a population-based retrospective cohort study. *Schizophr Bull* 2021;47:864-74.
 77. Lahti M, Tiihonen J, Wildgust H et al. Cardiovascular morbidity, mortality and pharmacotherapy in patients with schizophrenia. *Psychol Med* 2012;42:2275-85.
 78. Laursen TM, Wahlbeck K, Hällgren J et al. Life expectancy and death by diseases of the circulatory system in patients with bipolar disorder or schizophrenia in the Nordic countries. *PLoS One* 2013;8:e67133.
 79. Laursen TM, Nordentoft M. Heart disease treatment and mortality in schizophrenia and bipolar disorder: changes in the Danish population between 1994 and 2006. *J Psychiatr Res* 2011;45:29-35.
 80. Laursen TM, Munk-Olsen T, Gasse C. Chronic somatic comorbidity and excess mortality due to natural causes in persons with schizophrenia or bipolar affective disorder. *PLoS One* 2011;6:e24597.
 81. Luo Y, Pang L, Guo C et al. Association of urbanicity with schizophrenia and related mortality in China. *Can J Psychiatry* 2021;66:385-94.
 82. Meesters PD, Comijs HC, Smit JH et al. Mortality and its determinants in late-life schizophrenia: a 5-year prospective study in a Dutch catchment area. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry* 2016;24:272-7.
 83. Mortensen PB, Juel K. Mortality and causes of death in schizophrenic patients in Denmark. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1990;81:372-7.
 84. Mortensen PB, Juel K. Mortality and causes of death in first admitted schizophrenic patients. *Br J Psychiatry* 1993;163:183-9.
 85. Newman SC, Bland RC. Mortality in a cohort of patients with schizophrenia: a record linkage study. *Can J Psychiatry* 1991;36:239-45.
 86. Nielsen RE, Uggerby AS, Jensen SOW et al. Increasing mortality gap for patients diagnosed with schizophrenia over the last three decades - A Danish nationwide study from 1980 to 2010. *Schizophr Res* 2013;146:22-7.
 87. Olfson M, Gerhard T, Huang C et al. Premature mortality among adults with schizophrenia in the United States. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2015;72:1172-81.
 88. Olfson M, Stroup TS, Huang C et al. Suicide risk in Medicare patients with schizophrenia across the life span. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2021;78:876-85.
 89. Ösby U, Correia N, Brandt L et al. Mortality and causes of death in schizophrenia in Stockholm County, Sweden. *Schizophr Res* 2000;45:21-8.
 90. Pan CH, Chen PH, Chang HM et al. Incidence and method of suicide mortality in patients with schizophrenia: a nationwide cohort study. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol* 2021;56:1437-46.
 91. Pan Y-J, Yeh L-L, Chan H-Y et al. Excess mortality and shortened life expectancy in people with major mental illnesses in Taiwan. *Epidemiol Psychiatr Sci* 2020;29:1-11.
 92. Phillippe A, Vaiva G, Casadebaig F. Data on diabetes from the French cohort study in schizophrenia. *Eur Psychiatry* 2005;20:S340-4.
 93. Phillips MR, Yang G, Li S et al. Suicide and the unique prevalence pattern of schizophrenia in mainland China: a retrospective observational study. *Lancet* 2004;364:1062-8.
 94. Ran M-S, Chen EY-H, Conwell Y et al. Mortality in people with schizophrenia in rural China: 10-year cohort study. *Br J Psychiatry* 2007;190:237-42.
 95. Ruschena D, Mullen PE, Burgess P et al. Sudden death in psychiatric patients. *Br J Psychiatry* 1998;172:331-4.
 96. Talaslahti T, Alanen H-M, Hakko H et al. Mortality and causes of death in older patients with schizophrenia. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry* 2012;27:1131-7.
 97. Teferra S, Shibre T, Fekadu A et al. Five-year mortality in a cohort of people with schizophrenia in Ethiopia. *BMC Psychiatry* 2011;11:165.
 98. Tenback D, Pijl B, Smeets H et al. All-cause mortality and medication risk factors in schizophrenia: a prospective cohort study. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2012;31:31-5.
 99. Tokuda Y, Obara H, Nakazato N et al. Acute care hospital mortality of schizophrenic patients. *J Hosp Med* 2008;3:110-6.
 100. Tornianen M, Mittendorf-Rutz E, Tanskanen A et al. Antipsychotic treatment and mortality in schizophrenia. *Schizophr Bull* 2015;41:656-63.
 101. Tran E, Rouillon F, Loze J-Y et al. Cancer mortality in patients with schizophrenia: an 11-year prospective cohort study. *Cancer* 2009;115:3555-62.
 102. Westman J, Eriksson SV, Gissler M et al. Increased cardiovascular mortality in people with schizophrenia: a 24-year national register study. *Epidemiol Psychiatr Sci* 2018;27:519-27.
 103. Wood J B, Evenson RC, Cho DW et al. Mortality variations among public mental health patients. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1985;72:218-29.
 104. Yung NCL, Wong CSM, Chan JKN et al. Excess mortality and life-years lost in people with schizophrenia and other non-affective psychoses: an 11-year population-based cohort study. *Schizophr Bull* 2021;47:474-84.
 105. Yung NCL, Wong CSM, Chan JKN et al. Mortality in patients with schizophrenia admitted for incident ischemic stroke: a population-based cohort study. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 2019;31:152-7.
 106. Zilber N, Schufman N, Lerner Y. Mortality among psychiatric patients - the groups at risk. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1985;79:248-56.
 107. Attar R, Wester A, Koul S et al. Higher risk of major adverse cardiac events after acute myocardial infarction in patients with schizophrenia. *Open Heart* 2020;7:e001286.
 108. Babidge NC, Buhrich N, Butler T. Mortality among homeless people with schizophrenia in Sydney, Australia: a 10-year follow-up. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 2001;103:105-10.
 109. Bodén R, Molin E, Jernberg T et al. Higher mortality after myocardial infarction in patients with severe mental illness: a nationwide cohort study. *J Intern Med* 2014;277:727-36.
 110. Bradford DW, Goulet J, Hunt M et al. A cohort study of mortality in individuals with and without schizophrenia after diagnosis of lung cancer. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2016;77:e1626-30.
 111. Chan JKN, Wong CSM, Or PCF et al. Risk of mortality and complications in patients with schizophrenia and diabetes mellitus: population-based cohort study. *Br J Psychiatry* 2021;219:375-82.
 112. Chong S-A, Tay JAM, Subramaniam M et al. Mortality rates among patients with schizophrenia and tardive dyskinesia. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2009;29:5-8.
 113. Chou FH-C, Tsai K-Y, Su C-Y et al. The incidence and relative risk factors for developing cancer among patients with schizophrenia: a nine-year follow-up study. *Schizophr Res* 2011;129:97-103.
 114. Chou FH-C, Tsai K-Y, Chou Y-M. The incidence and all-cause mortality of pneumonia in patients with schizophrenia: a nine-year follow-up study. *J Psychiatr Res* 2013;47:460-6.
 115. Closson K, McLinden T, Patterson TL et al. HIV, schizophrenia, and all-cause mortality: a population-based cohort study of individuals accessing universal medical care from 1998 to 2012 in British Columbia, Canada. *Schizophr Res* 2019;209:198-205.
 116. Crump C, Winkleby MA, Sundquist K et al. Comorbidities and mortality in persons with schizophrenia: a Swedish national cohort study. *Am J Psychiatry* 2013;170:324-33.
 117. Druss BG, Bradford WD, Rosenheck RA et al. Quality of medical care and excess mortality in older patients with mental disorders. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2001;58:565-72.
 118. Fleetwood K, Wild SH, Smith DJ et al. Severe mental illness and mortality and coronary revascularization following a myocardial infarction: a retrospective cohort study. *BMC Med* 2021;19:67.
 119. Fond G, Pauly V, Leone M et al. Disparities in intensive care unit admission and mortality among patients with schizophrenia and COVID-19: a national cohort study. *Schizophr Bull* 2021;47:624-34.
 120. Guerrero Fernandez de Alba I, Gimeno-Miguel A, Poblador-Plou B et al. Association between mental health comorbidity and health outcomes in type 2 diabetes mellitus patients. *Sci Rep* 2020;10:19583.
 121. Hauck TS, Liu N, Wijeyesundera HC et al. Mortality and revascularization among myocardial infarction patients with schizophrenia: a population-based cohort study. *Can J Psychiatry* 2020;65:454-62.
 122. Jeon H-L, Kwon JS, Park S-H et al. Association of mental disorders with SARS-CoV-2 infection and severe health outcomes: nationwide cohort study. *Br J Psychiatry* 2021;218:344-51.
 123. Kang J-H, Xirasagar S, Lin H-C. Lower mortality among stroke patients with schizophrenia: a nationwide population-based study. *Psychosom Med* 2011;73:106-11.
 124. Kapral MK, Kurdyak P, Casaubon LK et al. Stroke care and case fatality in

- people with and without schizophrenia: a retrospective cohort study. *BMJ Open* 2021;11:e044766.
125. Kershenbaum A, Cardinal RN, Chen S et al. Investigation of risk of dementia diagnosis and death in patients in older people's secondary care mental health services. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry* 2020;36:573-82.
 126. Kugathasan P, Horsdal HT, Aagaard J et al. Association of secondary preventive cardiovascular treatment after myocardial infarction with mortality among patients with schizophrenia. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2018;85:1261-9.
 127. Kurdyak P, VIGod S, Calzavara A et al. High mortality and low access to care following incident acute myocardial infarction in individuals with schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res* 2012;142:52-57.
 128. Laursen TM, Mortensen PB, MacCabe JH et al. Cardiovascular drug use and mortality in patients with schizophrenia or bipolar disorder: a Danish population-based study. *Psychol Med* 2014;44:1625-37.
 129. Liao C-C, Shen WW, Chang C-C et al. Surgical adverse outcomes in patients with schizophrenia: a population-based study. *Ann Surg* 2013;257:433-8.
 130. Mohamed MO, Rashid M, Farooq S et al. Acute myocardial infarction in severe mental illness: prevalence, clinical outcomes, and process of care in U.S. hospitalizations. *Can J Cardiol* 2019;35:821-30.
 131. Shen H-N, Lu C-L, Yang H-H. Increased risks of acute organ dysfunction and mortality in intensive care unit patients with schizophrenia: a nationwide population-based study. *Psychosom Med* 2011;73:620-6.
 132. Søgaard M, Skjøth F, Kjældgaard JN et al. Atrial fibrillation in patients with severe mental disorders and the risk of stroke, fatal thromboembolic events and bleeding: a nationwide cohort study. *BMJ Open* 2017;7:e018209.
 133. Toender A, Vestergaard M, Munk-Olsen T et al. Risk of diabetic complications and subsequent mortality among individuals with schizophrenia and diabetes – a population-based register study. *Schizophr Res* 2020;218:99-106.
 134. Tsai K-Y, Lee C-C, Chou Y-M et al. The incidence and relative risk of stroke in patients with schizophrenia: a five-year follow-up study. *Schizophr Res* 2012;138:41-7.
 135. Tsai K-Y, Lee C-C, Chou Y-M et al. The risks of major osteoporotic fractures in patients with schizophrenia: a population-based 10-year follow-up study. *Schizophr Res* 2014;159:322-8.
 136. Tzur Bitan D, Kridin K, Cohen AD et al. COVID-19 hospitalization, mortality, vaccination, and postvaccination trends among people with schizophrenia in Israel: a longitudinal cohort study. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2021;8:901-8.
 137. Wellejus Albertsen LW, Heide-Jørgensen U, Schmidt SAJ et al. The DANish Comorbidity Index for Acute Myocardial Infarction (DANCAMI): development, validation and comparison with existing comorbidity indices. *Clin Epidemiol* 2020;12:1299-311.
 138. Alaräisänen A, Miettunen J, Räsänen P et al. Suicide rate in schizophrenia in the Northern Finland, 1966 Birth Cohort. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol* 2009;44:1107-10.
 139. Dickerson F, Origoni A, Rowe K et al. Risk factors for natural cause mortality in a cohort of 1494 persons with serious mental illness. *Psychiatry Res* 2021;298:113755.
 140. Hayes RD, Chang C-K, Fernandes A et al. Associations between symptoms and all-cause mortality in individuals with serious mental illness. *J Psychosom Res* 2012;72:114-9.
 141. Kodesh A, Goldberg Y, Rotstein A et al. Risk of dementia and death in very-late-onset schizophrenia-like psychosis: a national cohort study. *Schizophr Res* 2020;223:220-6.
 142. Chen VC-H, Liao Y-T, Lai T-J et al. Survival analysis of the use of first and second-generation antipsychotics among patients suffering schizophrenia: a nationwide population-based cohort study. *Schizophr Res* 2015;169:406-11.
 143. Cho J, Hayes RD, Jewell A et al. Clozapine and all-cause mortality in treatment-resistant schizophrenia: a historical cohort study. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 2019;139:237-47.
 144. Cullen BA, McGinty EE, Zhang Y et al. Guideline-concordant antipsychotic use and mortality in schizophrenia. *Schizophr Bull* 2013;39:1159-68.
 145. Dickerson F, Boronow J, Stallings C et al. *Toxoplasma gondii* in individuals with schizophrenia: association with clinical and demographic factors and with mortality. *Schizophr Bull* 2007;33:737-40.
 146. Fontanella CA, Campo JV, Phillips GS et al. Benzodiazepine use and risk of mortality among patients with schizophrenia: a retrospective longitudinal study. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2016;77:661-7.
 147. Funayama M, Takata T, Koreki A et al. Catatonic stupor in schizophrenic disorders and subsequent medical complications and mortality. *Psychosom Med* 2018;80:370-6.
 148. Hayes RD, Downs J, Chang C-K et al. The effect of clozapine on premature mortality: an assessment of clinical monitoring and other potential confounders. *Schizophr Bull* 2014;41:644-55.
 149. Hjorthoj C, Østergaard MLD, Benros ME et al. Association between alcohol and substance use disorders and all-cause and cause-specific mortality in schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, and unipolar depression: a nationwide, prospective, register-based study. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2015;2:801-8.
 150. Horsdal HT, Köhler-Forsberg O, Benros ME et al. C-reactive protein and white blood cell levels in schizophrenia, bipolar disorders and depression – associations with mortality and psychiatric outcomes: a population-based study. *Eur Psychiatry* 2017;44:164-72.
 151. Kadra G, Stewart R, Shetty H et al. Long-term antipsychotic polypharmacy prescribing in secondary mental health care and the risk of mortality. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 2018;138:123-32.
 152. Kiviniemi M, Suvisaari J, Koivumaa-Honkanen H et al. Antipsychotics and mortality in first-onset schizophrenia: prospective Finnish study with 5-year follow-up. *Schizophr Res* 2013;159:274-80.
 153. Kugathasan P, Wu H, Gaughran F et al. Association of physical health multimorbidity with mortality in people with schizophrenia spectrum disorders: using a novel semantic search system that captures physical diseases in electronic patient records. *Schizophr Res* 2020;216:408-15.
 154. Lähteenvuo M, Batalla A, Luykx JJ et al. Morbidity and mortality in schizophrenia with comorbid substance use disorders. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 2021;144:42-9.
 155. Liu T, Song X, Chen G et al. Prevalence of schizophrenia disability and associated mortality among Chinese men and women. *Psychiatr Res* 2014;220:181-7.
 156. Oh J, Nam H, Park S et al. Decreased cardiovascular death in schizophrenia patients treated with antipsychotics: a Korean national cohort study. *Schizophr Res* 2021;228:417-24.
 157. Pridan S, Swartz M, Baruch Y et al. Effectiveness and safety of clozapine in elderly patients with chronic resistant schizophrenia. *Int Psychogeriatr* 2015;27:131-4.
 158. Ran M-S, Ziao Y, Fazel S et al. Mortality and suicide in schizophrenia: 21-year follow-up in rural China. *BJPsych Open* 2020;6:e121.
 159. Strom BL, Eng SM, Faich G et al. Comparative mortality associated with ziprasidone and olanzapine in real-world use among 18,154 patients with schizophrenia: the Ziprasidone Observational Study of Cardiac Outcomes (ZODIAC). *Am J Psychiatry* 2011;168:193-201.
 160. Strømme ME, Mellesdal LS, Bartz-Johannessen C et al. Mortality and non-use of antipsychotic drugs after acute admission in schizophrenia: a prospective total-cohort study. *Schizophr Res* 2021;235:29-35.
 161. Stroup TS, Gerhard T, Crystal S et al. Comparative effectiveness of clozapine and standard antipsychotic treatment in adults with schizophrenia. *Am J Psychiatry* 2016;173:166-73.
 162. Tang CH, Ramcharran D, Yang CW et al. A nationwide study of the risk of all-cause, sudden death, and cardiovascular mortality among antipsychotic-treated patients with schizophrenia in Taiwan. *Schizophr Res* 2021;237:9-19.
 163. Taub S, Hoshen M, Balicer R et al. Metabolic predictors for mortality among patients treated with long-term clozapine – A longitudinal study. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 2020;41:63-9.
 164. Tiihonen J, Suokas JT, Suvisaari JM et al. Polypharmacy with antipsychotics, antidepressants, or benzodiazepines and mortality in schizophrenia. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2012;69:476-83.
 165. Wimberley T, MacCabe H, Laursen TM et al. Mortality and self-harm in association with clozapine in treatment-resistant schizophrenia. *Am J Psychiatry* 2017;174:990-8.
 166. Wu C-S, Shur-Fen Gau S. Association between antipsychotic treatment and advanced diabetes complications among schizophrenia patients with Type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Schizophr Bull* 2016;42:703-11.
 167. Palmer BA, Pankratz VS, Bostwick JM. The lifetime risk of suicide in schizophrenia. A reexamination. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2005;62:247-53.
 168. Díaz-Caneja CM, Pina-Camacho L, Rodríguez-Quiroga A et al. Predictors of outcome in early-onset psychosis: a systematic review. *NPJ Schizophr* 2015;1:14005.
 169. Miranda-Mendizabal A, Castellví P, Parés-Badell O et al. Gender differences in suicidal behavior in adolescents and young adults: systematic review and meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Int J Public Health* 2019;64:265-83.
 170. Pillinger T, D'Ambrosio E, McCutcheon R et al. Is psychosis a multisystem disorder? A meta-review of central nervous system, immune, cardiometabolic, and endocrine alterations in first-episode psychosis and perspective on potential models. *Mol Psychiatry* 2019;24:776-94.
 171. Pillinger T, Beck K, Stubbs B et al. Cholesterol and triglyceride levels in first-episode psychosis: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Psychiatry* 2017;211:339-49.

172. Pillinger T, Beck K, Gobjila C et al. Impaired glucose homeostasis in first-episode schizophrenia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2017;74:261-9.
173. Correll CU, Robinson DG, Schooler NR et al. Cardiometabolic risk in patients with first-episode schizophrenia spectrum disorders: baseline results from the RAISE-ETP study. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2014;71:1350-63.
174. Solmi M, Firth J, Miola A et al. Disparities in cancer screening in people with mental illness across the world versus the general population: prevalence and comparative meta-analysis including 4 717 839 people. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2020;7:52-63.
175. Shao M, Tian H, Wang L et al. Mortality risk following acute coronary syndrome among patients with schizophrenia: a meta-analysis. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry* 2020;96:108737.
176. Suetani S, Honarparvar F, Siskind D et al. Increased rates of respiratory disease in schizophrenia: a systematic review and meta-analysis including 619,214 individuals with schizophrenia and 52,159,551 controls. *Schizophr Res* 2021;237:131-40.
177. Forray A, Yonkers KA. The collision of mental health, substance use disorder, and suicide. *Obstet Gynecol* 2021;137:1083-90.
178. Harris BR, Tracy M, Comber KG et al. Suicide safer care in behavioral health settings: a comparative analysis of perceptions, training completion, and practice between mental health and substance use disorder treatment providers. *J Subst Abuse Treat* 2021;126:108330.
179. Miller KA, Hitschfeld MJ, Lineberry TW et al. How does active substance use at psychiatric admission impact suicide risk and hospital length-of-stay? *J Addict Dis* 2016;35:291-7.
180. Ostergaard MLD, Nordentoft M, Hjorthoj C. Associations between substance use disorders and suicide or suicide attempts in people with mental illness: a Danish nation-wide, prospective, register-based study of patients diagnosed with schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, unipolar depression or personality disorder. *Addiction* 2017;112:1250-9.
181. Volkow ND, Torrens M, Poznyak V et al. Managing dual disorders: a statement by the Informal Scientific Network, UN Commission on Narcotic Drugs. *World Psychiatry* 2020;19:396-7.
182. Ameller A, Gorwood P. Attributable risk of co-morbid substance use disorder in poor observance to pharmacological treatment and the occurrence of relapse in schizophrenia. *Encephale* 2015;41:174-83.
183. Foglia E, Schoeler T, Klamerus E et al. Cannabis use and adherence to antipsychotic medication: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Psychol Med* 2017;47:1691-705.
184. Schoeler T, Petros N, Di Fort M et al. Effect of continued cannabis use on medication adherence in the first two years following onset of psychosis. *Psychiatr Res* 2017;255:36-41.
185. Masroor A, Khorochkov A, Prieto J et al. Unraveling the association between schizophrenia and substance use disorder – predictors, mechanisms and treatment modifications: a systematic review. *Cureus* 2021;13:e16722.
186. Maj M, van Os J, De Hert M et al. The clinical characterization of the patient with primary psychosis aimed at personalization of management. *World Psychiatry* 2021;20:4-33.
187. Vermeulen JM, van Rooijen G, van de Kerkhof MPJ et al. Clozapine and long-term mortality risk in patients with schizophrenia: a systematic review and meta-analysis of studies lasting 1.1-12.5 years. *Schizophr Bull* 2019;45:315-29.
188. Wilkinson ST, Trujillo Diaz D, Rupp ZW et al. Pharmacological and somatic treatment effects on suicide in adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Depress Anxiety* 2022;39:100-12.
189. Miura I, Nosaka T, Yabe H et al. Antidepressive effect of antipsychotics in the treatment of schizophrenia: meta-regression analysis of randomized placebo-controlled trials. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2021;24:200-15.
190. Kadakia A, Dembek C, Heller V et al. Efficacy and tolerability of atypical antipsychotics for acute bipolar depression: a network meta-analysis. *BMC Psychiatry* 2021;21:249.
191. Nuñez NA, Joseph B, Pahwa M et al. Augmentation strategies for treatment resistant major depression: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. *J Affect Disord* 2022;302:385-400.
192. Taipale H, Schneider-Thoma J, Pinzón-Espinosa J et al. Representation and outcomes of individuals with schizophrenia seen in everyday practice who are ineligible for randomized clinical trials. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2022; doi: 10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2021.3990.
193. Khan A, Faucett J, Morrison S et al. Comparative mortality risk in adult patients with schizophrenia, depression, bipolar disorder, anxiety disorders, and attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder participating in psychopharmacology clinical trials. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2013;70:1091-9.
194. Schneider-Thoma J, Efthimiou O, Huhn M et al. Second-generation antipsychotic drugs and short-term mortality: a systematic review and meta-analysis of placebo-controlled randomised controlled trials. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2018;5:653-63.

DOI:10.1002/wps.20994