

1 features, but they cannot show which ones are *causing* which. It is a standard property of
2 statistical science that when a study reports a correlation, there are necessarily three
3 possible explanations. Assuming the correlation actually exists (rather than represents a
4 statistical fluke or bias), it is possible that X causes Y, that Y causes X, or that there is
5 some other variable, Z, that causes both X and Y. (More than one of these can be true at
6 the same time.) To be complete, a research analysis of a correlation must explore all three
7 possibilities.

8 57. For example, assuming a correlation between treatment of gender dysphoria in
9 minors and mental health actually exists (rather than is a fluke): (1) It is *possible* that
10 treatment causes improvement in mental health. (2) Yet, it is also possible that having good
11 mental health is (part of) what enabled transition to occur in the first place. That is, because
12 of gate-keeping procedures in the clinical studies, those with the poorest mental health are
13 typically not permitted to transition, causing the higher mental health scores to be sorted
14 into the transitioned group. (See Section IV.E on *Selection Bias*.) (3) It is also possible that
15 a third factor, such as wealth or socioeconomic status, causes both the higher likelihood of
16 transitioning (by being better able to afford it) and the likelihood of mental health (such as
17 by avoiding the stresses of poverty or affording psychotherapy).

18 58. This principle of scientific evidence is why surveys do not (cannot) represent
19 evidence of treatment effectiveness: Surveys are limited to correlations. (See Section III.F.
20 on *Surveys*.)

21 **C. When two or more treatments are provided at the same time, one cannot**
22 **know which treatment caused observed changes (i.e., ‘confounding’).**

23 59. Confounding is a well-known issue in clinical research design. As detailed in the
24 present report, it applies throughout treatment studies of gender dysphoria. Patients who
25 undergo medical transition procedures in research clinics routinely undergo mental health
26 treatment (psychotherapy) at the same time. Without explicit procedures to distinguish
27 them, it cannot be known which treatment produced which outcome (or in what
28 proportions). Indeed, that mental health improvement came from mental health treatment

1 is a more parsimonious (and therefore, scientifically superior) conclusion than is
2 medicalized treatment causing mental health improvement.

3 **D. Extrapolation to dissimilar populations and dissimilar conditions.**

4 60. The purpose of clinical science is to establish from a finite sample of study
5 participants information about the effectiveness and safety, or other variables, of a
6 treatment that can be generalized to other people. Such extrapolation is only scientifically
7 justified with populations matched on all relevant variables. The identification of those
8 variables can itself be a complicated question, but when an experimental sample differs
9 from another group on variables already known to be related, extrapolation cannot be
10 assumed but must be demonstrated directly and explicitly.

11 61. Each of the systematic reviews from the UK, Sweden, and Finland emphasized
12 that the recently observed, greatly increased numbers of youth coming to clinical attention
13 are a population different in important respects from the subjects of often-cited research
14 studies. Conclusions from studies of adult-onset gender dysphoria and from childhood-
15 onset gender dysphoria cannot be assumed to apply to the current patient populations of
16 adolescent-onset gender dysphoria. The Cass Report correctly advised:

17 It is also important to note that any data that are available do not relate to the current
18 predominant cohort of later-presenting birth-registered female teenagers. This is
19 because the rapid increase in this subgroup only began from around 2014-15. Since
20 young people may not reach a settled gender expression until their mid-20s, it is
21 too early to assess the longer-term outcomes of this group. (Cass 2022 at 36.)

22 The report also indicated:

23 [I]t is important that it is not assumed that outcomes for, and side effects in, children
24 treated for precocious puberty will necessarily be the same in children or young
25 people with gender dysphoria. (Cass 2022 at 63.)

26 62. Finland's review repeated the observation of greatly (20 times) increased
27 numbers, an entirely different demographic of cases, and increased proportions of
28 psychiatric co-morbidities. (Finnish Palko Preparation Memo at 4-6.) The Swedish review

1 highlighted “the uncertainty that follows from the yet unexplained increase in the number
2 of care seekers, an increase particularly large among adolescents registered as females at
3 birth.” (Swedish Socialstyrelsen Support 2022 at 11.)

4 63. It is well known that males and females differ dramatically in the incidence of
5 many mental health conditions and in their responses to treatments for mental health
6 conditions. Thus, research from male-to-female transitioners (the predominant population
7 until recent years) cannot be extrapolated to female-to-male transitioners (the predominant
8 population presenting at clinics today). Outcomes from patients who experienced clear pre-
9 pubertal childhood gender dysphoria cannot be extrapolated to patients who first manifest
10 diagnosable gender dysphoria well into puberty. Outcomes from clinics employing
11 rigorous and openly reported gate-keeping procedures cannot be extrapolated to clinics or
12 clinicians employing only minimal or perfunctory assessments without external review.
13 Developmental trajectories and outcomes from before the social media era cannot be
14 assumed to apply to those of the current era or the future. Research from youth with formal
15 diagnoses and attending clinics cannot be extrapolated to self-identifying youth and those
16 responding to surveys advertised on social media sites.

17 64. Further, treatment of gender dysphoria in children and adolescents presents
18 novel-use cases very dissimilar to the contexts in which puberty blockers and cross-sex
19 hormones have previously been studied. Whereas use of puberty blockers to treat
20 precocious puberty *avoids* the medical risks caused by undergoing puberty growth before
21 the body is ready (thus outweighing other risks), use of blockers to treat gender dysphoria
22 in patients already at their natural puberty pushes them *away* from the mean age of the
23 healthy population. Instead of avoiding an objective problem, one is created: Among other
24 things, patients become subject to the issues and risks associated with being late-bloomers,
25 *very* late-bloomers. This transforms the risk:benefit balance, where the offsetting benefit is
26 primarily (however validly) cosmetic.

27 65. Similarly, administering testosterone to an adult male to treat testosterone
28 deficiency addresses both a different condition and a different population than

1 administration of that same drug to an adolescent female to treat gender dysphoria; the
2 benefits and harms observed in the first case cannot be extrapolated to the second.

3 **E. Mental health assessment used for gate-keeping medicalized transition**
4 **establishes a *selection bias*, creating a statistical illusion of mental**
5 **health improvement among the selected.**

6 66. Importantly, clinics are expected to conduct mental health assessments of
7 applicants seeking medicalized transition, disqualifying from medical services patients
8 with poor mental health. (The adequacy of the assessment procedures of specific clinics
9 and clinicians remains under debate, however.) Such gate-keeping—which was also part
10 of the original “Dutch Protocol” studies—can lead to misinterpretation of data unless care
11 is explicitly taken. A side-effect of excluding those with significant mental health issues
12 from medical transition is that when a researcher compares the average mental health of
13 the gender dysphoric individuals first presenting to a clinic with the average mental health
14 of those who completed medical transition, then the post-transition group would show
15 better mental health—but only because of the *selection bias*, (Larzelere 2004; Tripepi
16 2010) even when the transition had no effect at all.

17 **V. Childhood-onset gender dysphoria (prepubertal-onset) is characterized by**
18 **high rates of desistance in the absence of social or medical transition. Of the**
19 **11 existing cohort studies, all showed the majority to desist feeling gender**
20 **dysphoric upon follow-up after puberty.**

21 67. Currently, the studies of outcomes among children who experience gender
22 dysphoria before puberty that provide the most evidentiary strength available are only
23 “cohort studies,” which follow people over time, recording the outcomes of the treatments
24 they have undergone. Such studies supersede (i.e., overrule) the outcomes of surveys,
25 which are much more prone to substantial error. As I have explained above, however,
26 cohort studies can describe developmental pathways, but cannot provide evidence of
27 causation.

28 68. In total, there have been 11 cohort studies showing the outcomes for these

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children, listed in Table 2. I first published this comprehensive list of studies in my own peer-reviewed article on the topic. (Cantor 2019.)

Table 2. Cohort studies of gender dysphoric, prepubescent children.

Count	Group	Study
2/16	gay	Lebovitz, P. S. (1972). Feminine behavior in boys: Aspects of its outcome. <i>American Journal of Psychiatry</i> , 128, 1283–1289.
4/16	trans-/crossdress	
10/16	straight/uncertain	
2/16	trans-	Zuger, B. (1978). Effeminate behavior present in boys from childhood: Ten additional years of follow-up. <i>Comprehensive Psychiatry</i> , 19, 363–369.
2/16	uncertain	
12/16	gay	
0/9	trans-	Money, J., & Russo, A. J. (1979). Homosexual outcome of discordant gender identity/role: Longitudinal follow-up. <i>Journal of Pediatric Psychology</i> , 4, 29–41.
9/9	gay	
2/45	trans-/crossdress	Zuger, B. (1984). Early effeminate behavior in boys: Outcome and significance for homosexuality. <i>Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease</i> , 172, 90–97.
10/45	uncertain	
33/45	gay	
1/10	trans-	Davenport, C. W. (1986). A follow-up study of 10 feminine boys. <i>Archives of Sexual Behavior</i> , 15, 511–517.
2/10	gay	
3/10	uncertain	
4/10	straight	
1/44	trans-	Green, R. (1987). The "sissy boy syndrome" and the development of homosexuality. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
43/44	cis-	
0/8	trans-	Kosky, R. J. (1987). Gender-disordered children: Does inpatient treatment help? <i>Medical Journal of Australia</i> , 146, 565–569.
8/8	cis-	
21/54	trans-	Wallien, M. S. C., & Cohen-Kettenis, P. T. (2008). Psychosexual outcome of gender-dysphoric children. <i>Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry</i> , 47, 1413–1423.
33/54	cis-	
3/25	trans-	Drummond, K. D., Bradley, S. J., Badali-Peterson, M., & Zucker, K. J. (2008). A follow-up study of girls with gender identity disorder. <i>Developmental Psychology</i> , 44, 34–45.
6/25	lesbian/bi-	
16/25	straight	
47/127	trans-	Steensma, T. D., McGuire, J. K., Kreukels, B. P. C., Beekman, A. J., & Cohen-Kettenis, P. T. (2013). Factors associated with desistence and persistence of childhood gender dysphoria: A quantitative follow-up study. <i>Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry</i> , 52, 582–590.
80/127	cis-	
17/139	trans-	Singh, D., Bradley, S. J., Zucker, K. J. (2021). A follow-up study of boys with Gender Identity Disorder. <i>Frontiers in Psychiatry</i> , 12:632784.
122/139	cis-	

*For brevity, the list uses “gay” for “gay and cis-”, “straight” for “straight and cis-”, etc.

1 69. The children in these studies were receiving professional mental health support
2 during the study period, but did not “socially transition.” In sum, despite coming from a
3 variety of countries, conducted by a variety of labs, using a variety of methods, at various
4 times across four decades, every study without exception has come to the identical
5 conclusion: among prepubescent children who feel gender dysphoric, the majority cease to
6 want to be the other gender over the course of puberty—ranging from 61–88% desistance
7 across the large, prospective studies. Such cases are often referred to as “desisters,”
8 whereas children who continue to feel gender dysphoric are often called “persisters.”

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11 70. This interpretation of these studies is widely accepted, including by the
12 Endocrine Society, which concluded:

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14 In most children diagnosed with GD/gender incongruence, it did not persist into
15 adolescence. . . . [T]he large majority (about 85%) of prepubertal children with a
16 childhood diagnosis did not remain GD/gender incongruent in adolescence.
(Hembree 2017 at 3879.)

17 The developers of the Dutch Protocol, at the Vrije University gender clinic, likewise concluded
18 based on these studies that “Although the persistence rates differed between the various
19 studies...the results unequivocally showed that the gender dysphoria remitted after puberty in the
20 vast majority of children.” (Steensma & Cohen-Kettenis 2011 at 2.)

21
22 **VI. Systematic reviews of safety and effectiveness have been conducted by the**
23 **health care ministries/departments of several governments. They**
24 ***unanimously* concluded the evidence on medicalized transition in minors to be**
of poor quality.

25 **A. Understanding safety and efficacy.**

26 71. At the outset, it is important to understand the meaning of “safety” in the clinical
27 context. The criteria for assessing safety involve two independent components, and
28

1 discussion of the safety of hormonal interventions on the natural development of children
2 requires consideration of both of them. The term *safety* in the clinical context represents a
3 “risk:benefit ratio,” not an absolute statement that can be extrapolated across applications.
4 In clinical research, assessing safety requires simultaneous consideration of both
5 components of the risk:benefit ratio. That is, treatments are not deemed simply “safe” or
6 “unsafe.” These dual components are reflected in FDA regulation:
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9 There is reasonable assurance that a device is safe when it can be determined, based
10 upon valid scientific evidence, that *the probable benefits* to health from use of the
11 device for its intended uses and conditions of use, when accompanied by adequate
12 directions and warnings against unsafe use, outweigh *any probable risks*. (Code of
13 Federal Regulations Title 21 Sec. 860.7, italics added.)

14 72. Thus, for example, as I explain in further detail below, because the Endocrine
15 Society did not undertake (or rely on) any systematic review of the efficacy of hormonal
16 interventions to relieve gender dysphoria in minors (i.e., their benefits), and WPATH did
17 not undertake (or rely on) any systematic review of the safety of hormonal interventions in
18 minors (i.e., their risks), neither gathered the evidence necessary to assess the risk:benefit
19 ratio of medicalized transition in minors.

20 73. In fact, as I also review below, after conducting systematic reviews, the English,
21 Finnish, and Swedish national health care institutions all concluded that there is insufficient
22 evidence to determine that hormonal interventions as treatments for gender dysphoria in
23 minors are safe. Reasons for these consistent conclusions include lack of research,
24 insufficient research quality among the existing investigations, and insufficient
25 investigation of long-term safety.
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28 74. To understand the uniform conclusions of these national health care bodies, it is

1 important to understand that—at least where there is *prima facie* reason to be concerned
2 that certain harms may result—when the research has not been done, the absence of
3 evidence cannot be taken as evidence of the absence of such harms. “We don’t know” does
4 not permit the conclusion “It is safe.”

5
6 **B. The McMaster University systematic review of systematic reviews.**

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8 75. McMaster University is recognized as a center of expertise in the performance
9 of methodologically sound systematic reviews. In 2022, authors associated with that
10 McMaster University team (Dr. Romina Brignardello-Petersen and Dr. Wojtek Wiercioch)
11 conducted a systematic review, “Effects of gender affirming therapies in people with
12 gender dysphoria: evaluation of the best available evidence,” spanning all the available
13 systematic reviews in this area, including their methodological strength, the evidence they
14 cited, and the conclusions they reached. (Brignardello-Petersen & Wiercioch 2022.)
15 Applying carefully disclosed criteria and methods, they identified on-point systematic
16 reviews, and graded the methodological quality of each on-point review as high, moderate,
17 low, or critically low. With regard to systematic reviews relating to the effects of puberty
18 blockers or cross-sex hormones, the authors included in their analysis all reviews that
19 achieved at least a “low” rating of methodological quality, while excluding those rated as
20 “very low.” No systematic reviews earned a “high” methodological rating, except a review
21 performed by the highly respected Cochrane Library of the effects of cross-sex hormones
22 on transitioning natal males (Haupt 2020), but that most careful review in turn found *no*
23 published studies on this topic of sufficient methodological soundness to satisfy its
24 inclusion criteria and thus merit review. After this careful review of the data and analysis
25 contained in available systematic reviews, the McMaster authors concluded:

26 Due to important limitations in the body of evidence, there is great uncertainty
27 about the effects of puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, and surgeries in young
28 people with gender dysphoria. This evidence alone is not sufficient to support

1 whether using or not using these treatments. (Brignardello-Petersen & Wiercioch
2 2022 at 5.)

3 **C. The quality of the systematic reviews from governmental bodies and**
4 **professional associations.**

5 76. To ensure consideration of all available evidence, I compiled into a single table
6 all the cohort studies of safety and effectiveness included by any of the systematic reviews
7 from the international health care systems and (although they were incomplete) by the U.S.-
8 based clinical associations issuing guidelines or standards. I discuss their specific findings
9 in the following sections.

10 77. New studies continue to be conducted and published. I have identified two
11 additional studies that were published after these reviews were released, but that meet their
12 inclusion criteria: Tordoff, *et al.*, 2022, and Chen, *et al.*, 2023. The findings from both these
13 studies are consistent with those already included and are noted here for completeness.

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Table 1. Cohort studies of effectiveness and safety of puberty-blockers and cross-sex hormones in minors.

	Finland (2019)	NICE (2020a,b)	Sweden (2022)	E.S. (2017)	AAP (2018)	Baker (2021) (WPATH)
Effectiveness GnRH_a	Costa et al, 2015 de Vries et al, 2011	Costa et al, 2015 de Vries et al, 2011	Becker-Hebly et al, 2020 Carmichael et al, 2021 Costa et al, 2015 *** Hisle-Gorman et al, 2021			de Vries et al, 2011
Effectiveness Sex Hormones	de Vries et al, 2014*	Achille et al, 2020 Allen et al, 2019 Kaltiala et al, 2020 Lopez de Lara et al, 2020	*** *** Cantu et al, 2020* de Vries et al, 2014* ***			Achille et al, 2020 de Vries et al, 2014* López de Lara et al, 2020
Safety (Bones) GnRH_a		Brik et al, 2020 Joseph et al, 2019 Khatchadourian et al, 2014 Klink et al, 2015 Vlot et al, 2017	Joseph et al, 2019 Klink et al, 2015 Navabi et al, 2021 Schagen et al, 2020 Stoffers et al, 2019 Vlot et al, 2017 Lee et al, 2020 van der Loos et al, 2021			
Safety (Bloods) GnRH_a		Klaver et al, 2020 Schagen et al, 2016	Klaver et al, 2018 Klaver et al, 2020 Nokoff et al, 2020 Perl et al, 2020 Schagen et al, 2016 Schulmeister et al, 2021			
Safety (Bones) Sex Hormones	****	Khatchadourian et al, 2014 Klaver et al, 2020 Klink et al, 2015 Kuper et al, 2020 Stoffers et al, 2019 Vlot et al, 2017		Klink et al, 2015		
Safety (Bloods) Sex Hormones			Jarin, 2017 Mullins et al, 2021 Tack et al, 2016			

*Included both puberty-blockers and cross-sex hormones.

**The Endocrine Society review included bone/skeletal health, but did not explicate whether the scope included minors.

***Sweden explicitly excluded due to high risk of bias: Achille, *et al.*, (2020), Allen, *et al.* (2019), de Vries, *et al.*, (2011), and López de Lara, *et al.*, (2020).

****The Finnish review adopted the Endocrine Society review, but did not indicate whether minors were included.

1 **D. United Kingdom**

2 78. The National Health Service (NHS) of the United Kingdom conducted an
3 independent review of its services for minors with gender dysphoria. (Cass 2022.) Included
4 in that process were two systematic, comprehensive reviews of the research literature,
5 conducted by England’s National Institute for Health Care Excellence (NICE) in 2020.
6 One regarded the efficacy, safety, and cost-effectiveness of Gonadotrophin-Releasing
7 Hormone (GnRH) analogs (or “puberty blockers”) in minors. (NICE 2020a.) The other
8 regarded the efficacy, safety, and cost-effectiveness of cross-sex hormones, or “gender-
9 affirming hormones,” in minors. (NICE 2020b.) (Only efficacy and safety are relevant to
10 the present report.)

11 79. The puberty-blocker review was tasked with reviewing the research on two
12 relevant questions. For one:

13 *In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the clinical*
14 *effectiveness of treatment with GnRH analogues compared with one or a*
15 *combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or*
16 *no intervention?* (NICE 2020a at 4.)

17 Clinical effectiveness of puberty-blockers was composed of three factors deemed “critical
18 outcomes”: impact on gender dysphoria, impact on mental health, and impact on quality of life.

19 The second question addressed in the review was:

20 *In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the short-term and long-*
21 *term safety of GnRH analogues compared with one or a combination of*
22 *psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no*
23 *intervention?* (NICE 2020a at 6.)

24 Puberty-blocker safety was assessed as its effect on three categories of health: bone density,
25 cognitive development or functioning, and “other.”

26 80. The second review, for cross-sex hormone treatment, was tasked with the
27 corresponding questions. For one:

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1 *In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the clinical*
2 *effectiveness of treatment with gender-affirming hormones compared with one or a*
3 *combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or*
4 *no intervention?* (NICE 2020b at 4.)

5 The critical outcomes were again deemed to be impact on gender dysphoria, on mental health, and
6 on quality of life. The impact on mental health was composed of indicators of depression, anxiety,
7 and suicidality and self-injury. The second question was:

8 *In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the short-term and long-*
9 *term safety of gender-affirming hormones compared with one or a combination of*
10 *psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no*
11 *intervention?* (NICE 2020b at 7.)

12 Cross-sex hormone treatment safety was assessed as its effect on bone density and on “clinical
13 parameters,” which included insulin, cholesterol, and blood pressure levels.

14 81. These two reviews included a systematic consolidation of all the research
15 evidence, following established procedures for preventing the “cherry-picking” or selective
16 citation favouring or down-playing any one conclusion, carefully setting out the criteria for
17 including or excluding specific studies from the review, and providing detailed analyses of
18 each included study. The whole was made publicly available, consistent with good practice.

19 82. The reviews’ results were unambiguous: For both puberty blockers and cross-
20 sex hormones, “The critical outcomes for decision making are the impact on gender
21 dysphoria, mental health and quality of life.” The quality of evidence for these outcomes
22 was assessed as “very low” using the established GRADE procedures for assessing clinical
23 research evidence. (NICE 2020a at 4; NICE 2020b at 4.) The reviews also assessed as “very
24 low” the quality of evidence regarding “body image, psychosocial impact, engagement
25 with health care services, impact on extent of satisfaction with surgery and stopping
26 treatment” or (in the case of cross-sex hormones) of “detransition.” (NICE 2020a at 5;
27 NICE 2020b at 6.) The review of puberty blockers concluded that of the existing research,
28 “The studies included in this evidence review are all small, uncontrolled observational

1 studies, which are subject to bias and confounding,” “They suggest little change with
2 GnRH analogues [puberty blockers] from baseline to follow-up.” (NICE 2020a at 13.) The
3 cross-sex hormone review likewise reported a lengthy list of methodological defects or
4 limitations affecting all available studies. (NICE 2020b at 13-14.)

5 83. The NHS changed the language on its website describing puberty blockers and
6 cross sex hormones. It removed the statement that “The effects of treatment with GnRH
7 analogues are considered to be fully reversible,”² replacing that text with:³

8 Little is known about the long-term side effects of hormone or puberty blockers in
9 children with gender dysphoria. . . . [I]t is not known what the psychological effects
10 may be. It’s also not known whether hormone blockers affect the development of
11 the teenage brain or children’s bones.

12 84. As mentioned in the McMaster review, the highly respected Cochrane Library,
13 based in England, undertook a systematic review of studies of the safety and efficacy of
14 the administration of cross-sex hormones to natal males. That review focused primarily on
15 adults (age 16 and older). The results, including a detailed explanation of methodology and
16 inclusion criteria, were published in 2020. Unfortunately, but importantly, the Cochrane
17 review found *zero* studies, globally, that were sufficiently reliable to meet the inclusion
18 criteria even at a “very low” level of evidentiary quality. The authors reported:

19 Despite more than four decades of ongoing efforts to improve the quality of
20 hormone therapy for women in transition, we found that no RCTs or suitable cohort
21 studies have yet been conducted to investigate the efficacy and safety of hormonal
22 treatment approaches for transgender women in transition. . . . We found insufficient
23 evidence to determine the efficacy or safety of hormonal treatment approaches. . . . for
24 transgender women in transition. The evidence is very incomplete, demonstrating

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26 ² BBC. Retrieved from <https://www.bbc.co.uk/sounds/play/m000kgsj>; Kurkup, J. (2020,
27 June 4). *The Spectator*. Available from <https://www.spectator.co.uk/article/the-nhs-has-quietly-changed-its-trans-guidance-to-reflect-reality/>

28 ³ NHS. Retrieved from <https://www.nhs.uk/conditions/gender-dysphoria/treatment/>

1 a gap between current clinical practice and clinical research. (Haupt 2020 at 10-
2 11.)

3 The authors’ frustration at the total lack of reliable research was evident: “The lack of reliable data
4 on hormone therapy for transitioning transgender women should encourage the development of
5 well-planned RCTs and cohort studies to evaluate widespread empirical practice in the treatment
6 of gender dysphoria.” (Haupt 2020 at 10.)

7 **E. Sweden**

8 85. Sweden similarly commissioned a systematic review, published in 2022 and
9 charged with addressing these three questions:

10 *Are there any scientific studies explaining the increase in numbers seeking for*
11 *gender dysphoria?*

12 *Are there any scientific studies on long-term effects of treatment for gender*
13 *dysphoria?*

14 *What scientific papers on diagnosis and treatment of gender dysphoria has been*
15 *published after the National Board of Health and Welfare in Sweden issued its*
16 *national support for managing children and adolescents with gender dysphoria in*
17 *2015?* (SBU Scoping Review Summary 2019.)

18 The databases searched included CINAHL (EBSCO), Cochrane Library (Wiley), EMBASE
19 (Embase.com), PsychINFO (EBASCO), PubMed (NLM), Scopus (Elsevier), and SocINDEX
20 (EBSCO). A total of 8,867 abstracts were identified, from which 315 full text articles were
21 assessed for eligibility. The review concluded that “literature on management and long-term
22 effects in children and adolescents is sparse,” that no RCTs have been conducted, and that there
23 remains no explanation for the recent and dramatic increases in numbers of minors presenting with
24 gender dysphoria. (SBU Scoping Review Summary 2019.) I have quoted other conclusions from
25 the Swedish systematic review in Section II above.

26 **F. Finland**

27 86. Finland’s Ministry of Social Affairs and Health commissioned a systematic
28 review, completed in 2019, of the effectiveness and safety of medicalized transition.

1 (COHERE Recommendation 2020.) The review spanned both minors and adults and
2 included both puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones (Pasternack 2019). Three
3 reviewers tabulated the results. In total, 38 studies were identified, of which two pertained
4 to minors: de Vries (2011) and Costa (2015). The report noted that, because the
5 methodological quality of the studies was already “weak” (no study including any control
6 groups), the assessors declined detailed quality assessment of the existing studies.
7 (Pasternack 2019 at 3.) I have quoted other conclusions from the Finnish systematic review
8 in Section II above.

9 **G. Norway**

10 87. Norway’s investigation of its health care policy for gender dysphoric minors also
11 revealed substantial safety concerns:

12 There are unsettled questions related to puberty blockers in young people. A
13 published study shows that puberty-inducing hormones cause slower height growth
14 and a slower increase in bone density. It is also noted that the effects on cognitive
15 development have not been mapped. Unexplained side effects and long-term effects
16 of both puberty blockers (hormone treatment) and gender-affirming hormone
17 treatments are increasingly being questioned. However, experience with other
18 patient groups shows that long-term use of sex hormones can affect disease risk.
19 When people with gender incongruence are treated, it is with significantly longer
20 duration and intensity of hormone treatment than hormone treatments for other
21 conditions. (Ukom 2023.)

22 **VII. The Endocrine Society, WPATH, and the American Academy of Pediatrics** 23 **did not conduct systematic reviews of safety and efficacy in establishing** 24 **clinical guidelines, despite systematic reviews being the foundation and gold** 25 **standard of evidence-based care.**

26 88. I have also examined the reviews conducted by the U.S.-based professional
27 associations that have published standards and guidelines for the treatment of gender
28 dysphoric youth. As detailed herein, and unlike the European reviews, none of the U.S.-

1 based professional associations conducted a systematic review of both effectiveness and
2 safety, without which they are unable to assess the risk:benefit ratio posed by medicalized
3 transition of minors.

4 **A. The Endocrine Society reviewed cross-sex hormones, but not puberty**
5 **blockers. They reviewed safety, but did not review effectiveness**
6 **research.**

7 89. The Endocrine Society appointed a task force which commissioned two
8 systematic reviews as part of updating their 2009 recommendations. (Hembree 2017.) The
9 scopes of the two reviews were limited to physiological effects of cross-sex hormones,
10 narrowly defined: “The first one aimed to summarize the available evidence on the effect
11 of sex steroid use in transgender individuals on lipids and cardiovascular outcomes....The
12 second review summarized the available evidence regarding the effect of sex steroids on
13 bone health in transgender individuals.” (Hembree 2017 at 3873.) As described in the
14 Endocrine Society Guidelines, those reviews did not, however, include the effectiveness of
15 any treatment on mental health (quality of life, suicidality, rates of detransition, cosmetic
16 or functional outcomes, or improvements in feelings of gender dysphoria). What appears
17 to be the referenced review of lipids and cardiovascular outcomes (Maraka 2017) did not
18 identify any study of adolescents, noting “literature addressing this clinical question in the
19 pediatric/adolescent population is completely lacking.” (Maraka at 3921.) What appears to
20 be the referenced review of bone health (Singh-Ospina 2017) identified only one small
21 study on adolescents, involving 15 male-to-female and 19 female-to-male cases. (Klink
22 2015.) Notably, the median duration of puberty-blocker administration was 1.2 years,
23 leaving unknown the effects on children receiving blockers from puberty onset (usually
24 age 9–10) to age 14 or 16.

25 90. Further, the Endocrine Society does not claim to have conducted or consulted
26 any systematic review of the efficacy of puberty blockers or cross-sex hormones to reduce
27 gender dysphoria or increase mental health or well-being by any metric. Nor does it claim
28 to have conducted or consulted any systematic review of safety of any of these treatments

1 for minors with respect to brain development, future fertility, actual reversibility, or any
2 other factor of safety or adverse event other than cardiovascular disease and bone strength.

3 91. For all these reasons, I concur with the opinion of Dr. Guyatt, who has said that
4 he finds “serious problems” with the Endocrine Society guidelines, among other reasons
5 because the only systematic reviews those guidelines refer to did not look at the efficacy
6 of the recommended hormonal interventions to improve gender dysphoria, which he
7 termed “the most important outcome.” (Block, *Gender Dysphoria 2023* at 4.)

8 92. The current Endocrine Society guidelines, released in 2017, include this
9 disclaimer:

10 The Endocrine Society makes no warranty, express or implied, regarding the
11 guidelines and specifically excludes any warranties of merchantability and fitness
12 for a particular use or purpose. The Society shall not be liable for direct, indirect,
13 special, incidental, or consequential damages related to the use of the information
14 contained herein. (Hembree 2017 at 3895.)

15 The previous, 2009, version included no disclaimers. (Hembree 2009.)

16 **B. WPATH reviewed effectiveness, but not the safety of medicalized**
17 **transition of minors.**

18 93. WPATH engaged in a multi-step process in updating its Standards of Care from
19 version 7 to version 8. That process included commissioning a systematic review, which
20 was published as Baker, *et al.* (2021) which included the disclaimer “The authors are
21 responsible for its content. Statements in this report do not necessarily reflect the official
22 views of or imply endorsement by WPATH.” (Baker 2021 at 14.)

23 94. The literature search was completed in June 2020, and spanned 13 questions.
24 Two questions related to the effectiveness of medicalized transition of minors: Question
25 #10 was “[W]hat are the effects of suppressing puberty with GnRH agonists on quality of
26 life?”, and question #11 was “[W]hat are the psychological effects (including quality of
27 life) associated with hormone therapy?”(Sharma 2018; Baker 2021.) That is, the review
28 included studies of the effectiveness of puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones, but,

1 remarkably did not include any effort to determine the *safety* of either.

2 95. Baker (2021) identified that among all experimental evidence published on
3 medicalized transition, a total of “Three studies focused on adolescents.” (Baker 2021 at
4 1.) These were Achille, *et al.* (2020), López de Lara, *et al.* (2020), and de Vries, *et al.*
5 (2011, 2014). (Baker 2021 considered the two de Vries articles as a single study, because
6 the later one included the subset of patients from the earlier one who continued in treatment.
7 I will refer to this set as four studies, however, to be consistent with the other reviews.)
8 Notably, in contrast with WPATH’s review, the Swedish review entirely excluded Achille
9 *et al.* (2020), López de Lara *et al.* (2020), and de Vries *et al.* (2011) due to their high risks
10 of bias. (SBU Scoping Review Appendix 2.) The Baker team did not used the GRADE
11 system for assessing the quality of evidence, instead using the Methods Guide for
12 Conducting Comparative Effectiveness Reviews.

13 96. The Baker team noted “no study reported separate results by gender identity for
14 transgender youth.” (Baker 2021 at 3.) They also found that “No study reported on
15 hormone therapy among nonbinary people.” (at 3.) (Despite this finding, WPATH SOC-8
16 now includes recommendations for people who identify as nonbinary.)

17 97. My assessment of the Baker review revealed that there were substantial
18 discrepancies and misleading ambiguities in their reporting: Baker, *et al.* indicated in the
19 abstract that “Hormone therapy was associated with increased QOL [quality of life],
20 decreased depression, and decreased anxiety” (Baker 2021 at 1,) and that “Associations
21 were similar across gender identity and age” (Baker 2021 at 12). This is not what its actual
22 data tables showed, however. Table 2 presented the only study of QOL specifically among
23 adolescents included in the review and indicated that “Mean QOL scores did *not* change.”
24 (Baker 2021 at 7, italics added.)

25 98. The review, however, did not rate the quality of the studies of adolescents on
26 their own, instead combining them with the studies of adults. (at 10, italics added.) Table
27 4 of that study presented three analyses of anxiety: One showed a decrease, and on the
28 other two, “Mean anxiety score did *not* change.” (at 11, italics added.) Finally, the review

1 also concluded, “It was impossible to draw conclusions about the effects of hormone
2 therapy on death by suicide.” (at 12.) Even for the combined set, the review read the
3 strength of evidence to be “low” for each of QOL, depression, and anxiety, and to be
4 “insufficient” for death by suicide. (Baker 2021 at 13, Table 6.) Specifically, the review
5 indicated, “There is insufficient evidence to draw a conclusion about the effect of hormone
6 therapy on death by suicide among transgender people.” (at 13, Table 6.) Overall, “The
7 strength of evidence for these conclusions is low due to methodological limitations.” (at
8 12.) Of particular concern was that “Uncontrolled confounding was a major limitation in
9 this literature.” (at 12.)

10 99. Additionally, although WPATH commissioned the Baker review, WPATH did
11 not follow its results. Baker 2021 indicated the use of two systematic quality assessment
12 methods, called RoB 2 and ROBINS-I (Baker 2021 at 3); however, WPATH modified the
13 conclusions that that process yielded. WPATH SOC-8 states, “This evidence is not only
14 based on the published literature (direct as well as background evidence) but also on
15 consensus-based expert opinion.” (Coleman 2022 at S8.) Moreover:

16 Recommendations in the SOC-8 are based on available evidence supporting
17 interventions, a discussion of risks and harms, as well as feasibility and
18 acceptability within different contexts and country settings. Consensus on the final
19 recommendations was attained using the Delphi process that included all members
20 of the guidelines committee and required that recommendation statements were
21 approved by at least 75% of members. (Coleman 2022 at S8.)

22 100. By allowing “consensus-based expert opinion” to modify or overrule
23 conclusions supported by systematic reviews that apply accepted criteria of evidentiary
24 strength, WPATH has explicitly abandoned evidence-based medicine. As indicated already
25 by the Pyramid of Evidence, “expert opinion” represents the *lowest* level of evidence in
26 science, whereas systematic review, the highest. (Also, it is unclear what the authors mean
27 by “background evidence.”) To modify systematic results according to committee opinion
28 is to re-introduce the very biases that the systematic process is meant to overcome. The

1 WPATH document attempts to claim the authority of a systematic review, while reserving
2 the ability to “overrule” results that WPATH members did not like.

3 101. As to evidence supporting hormonal interventions in minors, WPATH asserted
4 that “a systematic review regarding outcomes of [hormonal] treatment in adolescents is not
5 possible” due to the lack of “outcome studies that follow youth into adulthood.” (Coleman
6 2022 at S46.) WPATH is correct that essential outcome studies have not been done, but
7 incorrect that this authorizes issuance of guidelines or standards in the absence of a
8 systematic review. As Dr. Guyatt has stated, “systematic reviews are always possible”—
9 and indeed an important conclusion from such a review may be (as here) that insufficient
10 evidence exists to support any evidence-based guideline. As Dr. Guyatt further elaborated,
11 if an organization issues recommendations without performing an on-point systematic
12 review, “they’d be violating standards of trustworthy guidelines.” (Block, Dysphoria
13 Rising, 2023 at 3.)

14 102. Finally, the WPATH SOC-8 were revised immediately after their release,
15 removing all age minimums to all recommendations. None of these studies and none of
16 these reviews support such a change, and WPATH cites no studies or other document in
17 support of the change.

18 103. In sum, the WPATH SOC8 cannot be called evidence-based guidelines under
19 any accepted meaning of that term.

20 **C. The American Academy of Pediatrics did not conduct a systematic**
21 **review either of safety or effectiveness.**

22 104. While the AAP policy statement is often referenced, the AAP did not report
23 conducting any systematic review of any aspect of transgender care in producing its policy
24 statement on gender-diverse children and adolescents. (Rafferty 2018.) Further, the AAP
25 policy statement on its face is the work of a single author rather than of any committee or
26 the membership more broadly (Dr. Rafferty “conceptualized,” “drafted,” “reviewed,”
27 “revised,” and “approved” the statement), and the statement explicitly states that it does
28 not “indicate an exclusive course of treatment” nor “serve as a standard of medical care.”

1 (Rafferty 2018 at 1.)

2 **VIII. Definitions of sex, gender identity, and gender dysphoria.**

3 **A. Sex and sex-assigned-at-birth represent objective features.**

4 105. Sex is an *objective* feature: It can be ascertained regardless of any declaration by
5 a person, such as by chromosomal analysis or visual inspection. Gender identity, however,
6 is *subjective*: There exists no means of either falsifying or verifying people’s declarations
7 of their gender identities. In science, it is the objective factors—and only the objective
8 factors—that matter to a valid definition. Objectively, sex can be ascertained, not only in
9 humans or only in the modern age, but throughout the animal kingdom and throughout its
10 long history in natural evolution.

11 106. I use the term “sex” in this report with this objective meaning, which is
12 consistent with definitions articulated by multiple medical organizations:

13 Endocrine Society (Bhargava 2021 at 220.)

14 “Sex is dichotomous, with sex determination in the fertilized zygote
15 stemming from unequal expression of sex chromosomal genes.”

16 American Academy of Pediatrics (Rafferty 2018 at 2 Table 1.):

17 “An assignment that is made at birth, usually male or female, typically on the
18 basis of external genital anatomy but sometimes on the basis of internal
19 gonads, chromosomes, or hormone levels.”

20 American Psychological Association (APA Answers 2014):

21 “Sex is assigned at birth, refers to one’s biological status as either male or
22 female, and is associated primarily with physical attributes such as
23 chromosomes, hormone prevalence, and external and internal anatomy.”

24 American Psychological Association (APA Resolution 2021 at 1):

25 “While gender refers to the trait characteristics and behaviors culturally
26 associated with one’s sex assigned at birth, in some cases, gender may be
27 distinct from the physical markers of biological sex (e.g., genitals,
28 chromosomes).”

1 American Psychiatric Association (Am. Psychiatric Ass’n Guide):

2 “Sex is often described as a biological construct defined on an anatomical,
3 hormonal, or genetic basis. In the U.S., individuals are assigned a sex at birth
4 based on external genitalia.”

5 107. The phrases “assigned male at birth” and “assigned female at birth” are
6 increasingly popular, but they lack any scientific merit. Science is the systematic study of
7 natural phenomena, and nothing objective changes upon humans’ labelling or re-labelling
8 it. That is, the objective sex of a newborn was the same on the day before as the day after
9 the birth. Indeed, the sex of a fetus is typically known by sonogram or amniocentesis many
10 months before birth. The use of the term “assign” insinuates that the label is arbitrary and
11 that it was possible to have been assigned a different label that is equally objective and
12 verifiable, which is untrue. Infants were born male or female before humans invented
13 language at all. Indeed, it is exactly because an expected child’s sex is known before birth
14 that there can exist the increasingly popular “gender reveal” events. Biologically, the sex
15 of an individual (for humans and almost all animal species) as male or female is irrevocably
16 determined at the moment it is conceived. Terms such as “assign” obfuscate rather than
17 clarify the objective evidence.

18 **B. Gender identity refers to subjective feelings that cannot be defined,
19 measured, or verified by science.**

20 108. It is increasingly popular to define gender identity as a person’s “inner sense,”
21 however, neither “inner sense” nor any similar phrase is scientifically meaningful. In
22 science, a valid construct must be both objectively measurable and falsifiable with
23 objective testing. The concept of an “inner sense” fits none of these requirements.

24 **IX. Suicide and suicidality are distinct phenomena representing different mental
25 health issues and indicating different clinical needs.**

26 109. *Suicide* refers to completed suicides and the sincere intent to die. It is
27 substantially associated with impulsivity, using more lethal means, and being a biological
28 male. (Freeman 2017.) *Suicidality* refers to *para*-suicidal behaviors, including suicidal

1 ideation, threats, and gestures.

2 **A. Rates of suicidality among all adolescents have skyrocketed with the**
3 **advent of social media.**

4 110. The CDC’s 2019 Youth Risk Behavior Survey found that 24.1% of female and
5 13.3% of male high school students reported “seriously considering attempting suicide.”
6 (Ivey-Stephenson 2020 at 48.)

7 111. The CDC survey reported not only that these already alarming rates of suicide
8 attempt were still increasing (by 8.1%–11.0% per year), but also that this increase was
9 occurring only among female students. No such trend was observed among male students.
10 That is, the demographic increasingly reporting suicidality is the same demographic
11 increasingly reporting gender dysphoria. (Ivey-Stephenson 2020 at 51.)

12 112. The U.S. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration
13 (SAMHSA) produces a series of evidence-based resource guides which includes their
14 Treatment for Suicidal Ideation, Self-Harm, and Suicide Attempts Among Youth. It noted
15 (italics added):

16 [F]rom 1999 through 2018, the suicide death rate doubled for females aged 15 to
17 19 and 20 to 24. For youth aged 10 to 14, the suicide death rate more than tripled
18 from 2001 to 2018. Explanations for the increase in suicide may include bullying,
19 social isolation, increase in technology and *social media*, increase in *mental*
20 *illnesses*, and economic recession. (SAMHSA 2020 at 5.)

21 The danger potentially posed by social media follows from suicidality spreading as a social
22 contagion, as suicidality increases after media reports, occurs in clusters of social groups, and in
23 adolescents after the death of a peer. (Gould & Lake 2013.)

24 113. Social media voices today loudly advocate “hormones-on-demand” while
25 issuing hyperbolic warnings that teens will commit suicide unless this is not granted. Both
26 adolescents and parents are exposed to the widely circulated slogan that “I’d rather have a
27 living son than a dead daughter,” and such baseless threats or fears are treated as a
28 justification for referring to affirming gender transitions as ‘life-saving’ or ‘medically

1 necessary'. Such claims grossly misrepresent the research literature, however. Indeed, they
2 are unethical: Suicide prevention research and public health campaigns repeatedly warn
3 against circulating messages that can be taken to publicize or even glorify suicide, due to
4 the risk of copy-cat behavior they encourage. (Gould & Lake 2013.)

5 114. Systematic review of 44 studies of suicidal thoughts and behaviors in LGBTQ
6 youth and suicidality found only a small association between suicidality and sexual
7 minority stress. (Hatchel 2021.) The quantitative summary of the studies (an especially
8 powerful type of systematic review called *meta-analysis*) found no statistically significant
9 association between suicidality and any of having an unsupportive school climate, stigma
10 and discrimination, or outness/openness. There were, however, significant associations
11 between suicidality and indicators of social functioning problems, including violence from
12 intimate partners, victimization from LGBT peers and from non-LGBT peers, and sexual
13 risk taking.

14 **B. *Suicidality is substantially more common among females, and suicide,***
15 ***among males. Sexual orientation is strongly associated with suicidality,***
16 ***but much less associated with suicide.***

17 115. Notwithstanding public misconceptions about the frequency of suicide and
18 related behaviors, the highest rates of death by suicide are among middle-aged and elderly
19 men in high income countries. (Turecki & Brent 2016 at 3.) Males are at three times greater
20 risk of death by suicide than are females, whereas suicidal ideation, plans, and attempts are
21 three times more common among females. (Klonsky 2016; Turecki & Brent 2016.) In
22 contrast with completed suicides, the frequency of suicidal ideation, plans, and attempts is
23 highest during adolescence and young adulthood, with reported ideation rates spanning
24 12.1–33%. (Borges 2010; Nock 2008.) Relative to other countries, Americans report
25 elevated rates of each of suicidal ideation (15.6%), plans (5.4%), and attempts (5.0%).
26 (Klonsky 2016.) Suicide attempts occur up to 30 times more frequently than completed
27 suicides. (Bachmann 2018.) The rate of completed suicides in the U.S. population is 14.5
28 per 100,000 people. (WHO 2022.)

1 116. There is substantial research associating sexual orientation with suicidality, but
2 much less so with completed suicide. (Haas 2014.) More specifically, there is some
3 evidence suggesting gay adult men are more likely to die by suicide than are heterosexual
4 men, but there is less evidence of an analogous pattern among lesbian women. Regarding
5 suicidality, surveys of self-identified LGB Americans repeatedly report rates of suicidal
6 ideation and suicide attempts 2–7 times higher than their heterosexual counterparts.
7 Because of this association of suicidality with sexual orientation, one must apply caution
8 in interpreting findings allegedly about gender identity: because of the overlap between
9 people who self-identify as non-heterosexual and as transgender or gender diverse,
10 correlations detected between suicidality and gender dysphoria may instead reflect (be
11 confounded by) sexual orientation. Indeed, other authors have made explicit their surprise
12 that so many studies, purportedly of gender identity, entirely omitted measurement or
13 consideration of sexual orientation, creating the situation where features that seem to be
14 associated with gender identity instead reflect the sexual orientation of the members of the
15 sample. (McNeil 2017.)

16 **C. There is no evidence that medicalized transition reduces rates of**
17 **suicide or suicidality.**

18 117. It is repeatedly asserted that despite the known risks, despite the lack of research
19 into the reality or severity of unquantified risks, it is essential and “the only ethical
20 response” to provide medical transition to minors because medical transition is known to
21 reduce the likelihood of suicide among minors who suffer from gender dysphoria. This is
22 simply untrue. *No studies* have documented any reduction in suicide rates in minors (or
23 any population) as a result of medical transition. No methodologically sound studies have
24 provided meaningful evidence that medical transition reduces suicidality in minors.
25 Instead, multiple studies show tragically high rates of suicide after medical transition, with
26 that rate beginning to spike several years after medical transition.

27 118. Among post-transition adults, completed suicide rates remain elevated. (Wiepjes
28 2020.) Among post-operative transsexual adults in Sweden’s highly tolerant society, death

1 by suicide is 19 times higher than among the cisgendered. (Dhejne 2011.) Systematic
2 review of 17 studies of suicidality in transsexual adults confirmed suicide rates remain
3 elevated even after complete transition. (McNeil 2017.) Among post-operative patients in
4 the Netherlands, long-term suicide rates of six times to eight times that of the general
5 population were observed depending on age group. (Asscheman 2011 at 638.) Also
6 studying patients in the Netherlands, Wiepjes et al. (2020) reported the “important finding”
7 that “suicide occurs similarly” before and after medical transition. (Wiepjes 2020 at 490.)
8 In other words, *transition did not reduce suicide*. A very large dataset from the U.K. GIDS
9 clinic showed that those referred to the GIDS clinic for evaluation and treatment for gender
10 dysphoria committed suicide at a rate five times that of the general population, both before
11 and after commencement of medical transition (Biggs 2022). Finally, in a still-ongoing
12 longitudinal study of U.S. patients, Chen *et al.* have reported a shockingly high rate of
13 completed suicide among adolescent subjects in the first two years *after* hormonal
14 transition, although they provide no pre-treatment data for this population to compare
15 against. (Chen 2023 at 245.)

16 119. WPATH’s systematic review of the effectiveness of puberty blockers and cross-
17 sex hormones on suicide in minors concluded that “It was impossible to draw conclusions
18 about the effects of [either] hormone therapy on death by suicide.” (Baker 2021 at 12.) In
19 short, I am aware of no respected voice that asserts that medical transition reduces suicide
20 among minors who suffer from gender dysphoria.

21 120. As to the separate and far more common phenomenon of suicidality, of course,
22 that claim is widely made. McNeil’s systematic review revealed, however, a complicated
23 set of interrelated factors rather than supporting the common hypothesis that rates of
24 suicidal ideation and suicidal attempts would decrease upon transition. Rates of suicidal
25 ideation did not show the same pattern as suicide attempts, male-to-female transitioners
26 did not show the same patterns as female-to-male transitioners, and social transition did
27 not show the same patterns as medical transition. Importantly, the review included one
28 study that reported “a positive relationship between higher levels of social support from

1 leaders (e.g., employers or teachers) and increased suicide attempt, which they suggested
2 may be due to attempts instigating increased support from those around the person, rather
3 than causing it.” (McNeil 2017 at 348.)

4 121. Moreover, the 2020 Kuper, *et al.* cohort study of minors receiving hormone
5 treatment found *increases* in each of suicidal ideation (from 25% to 38%), attempts (from
6 2% to 5%), and non-suicidal self-injury (10% to 17%). (Kuper 2020 at Table 5.) Research
7 has found social support to be associated with *increased* suicide attempts, suggesting the
8 reported suicidality may represent attempts to evoke more support. (Bauer 2015; Canetto
9 2021.)

10 122. Overall, the research evidence is only minimally consistent with the hypothesis
11 that an absence of transition causes mental health issues and suicide, but very strongly
12 consistent with the hypothesis that mental health issues, such as *Borderline Personality*
13 *Disorder* (BPD), cause both suicidality and unstable identity formation (including gender
14 identity confusion). BPD is repeatedly documented to be greatly elevated among sexuality
15 minorities (Reuter 2016; Rodriguez-Seiljas 2021; Zanarini 2021), and both suicidality and
16 identity confusion are symptoms of that disorder. Thus, diverting distressed youth towards
17 transition necessarily diverts youth away from receiving the psychotherapies designed for
18 treating the issues actually causing their distress.

19 123. Despite that mental health issues, including suicidality, are repeatedly required
20 by clinical standards of care to be resolved before transition, threats of suicide are instead
21 oftentimes used as the very justification for labelling transition a “medical necessity”.
22 However plausible it might seem that failing to affirm transition causes suicidality, the
23 epidemiological evidence does not support that hypothesis.

24 **X. Neuroimaging studies have associated brain features with sex and with sexual**
25 **orientation, but not gender identity.**

26 124. Claims that transgender identity is an innate property resulting from brain
27 structure remain unproven. Neuroimaging and other studies of brain anatomy repeatedly
28 identify patterns distinguishing male from female brains, but when analyses search for

1 those patterns among transgender individuals, “gender identity and gender incongruence
2 could not be reliably identified.” (Baldinger-Melich 2020 at 1345.) Although much smaller
3 than male/female differences, statistically significant neurological differences are
4 repeatedly associated with sexual orientation (termed “homosexual” vs “nonhomosexual”
5 in the research literature). Importantly, despite the powerful associations between
6 transsexuality and homosexuality, as explicated by Blanchard, many studies analyzing
7 gender identity failed to control for sexual orientation, representing a problematic and
8 centrally important confound. I myself pointed this out in the research literature, noting
9 that neuroanatomical differences attributed to gender dysphoria should instead be
10 attributed to sexual orientation. (Cantor 2011, Cantor 2012.) A more recent review of the
11 science, by Guillamon, et al. (2016), agreed, stating:

12 Following this line of thought, Cantor (2011, 2012, but also see Italiano, 2012) has
13 recently suggested that Blanchard’s predictions have been fulfilled in two
14 independent structural neuroimaging studies. Specifically, Savic and Arver (2011)
15 using VBM on the cortex of untreated nonhomosexual MtFs and another study
16 using DTI in homosexual MtFs (Rametti et al., 2011b) illustrate the predictions.
17 *Cantor seems to be right*”. (Guillamon 2016 at 1634, italics added; see also Italiano
18 2012.)

19 In addition to this confound, because snapshot neurobiological studies can provide only
20 correlational data, it would not be possible for such studies to distinguish whether brain differences
21 cause gender identity or if gender atypical behavior modifies the brain over time, such as through
22 neuroplasticity. As noted by one team of neuroscientists, “[I]t remains unclear if the differences in
23 brain phenotype of transgender people may be the result of a sex-atypical neural development or
24 of a lifelong experience of gender non-conformity.” (Fisher 2020 at 1731.) In sum, at present
25 assertions that transgender identity is caused by neurology represent faith, not science.
26
27
28

1 **XI. Known and potential harms associated with administration of puberty**
2 **blockers and cross-sex hormones to children and adolescents.**

3 **A. Hormonal treatments during puberty interfere with neurodevelopment**
4 **and cognitive development.**

5 125. It is well known that pubertal hormone levels drive important stages of neural
6 development and resulting capabilities, although the mechanisms are not yet well
7 understood. Dr. John Strang (Research Director of the Gender Development Program at
8 Children’s National Hospital in Washington, D.C.) (Terhune 2022), the Cass Report from
9 the U.K., and the systematic review from Finland all reiterated the central importance and
10 unknown effects of GnRH-agonists on windows, or “sensitive periods,” in brain
11 development, notably including adolescence. As Dr. Cass put it:

12 A further concern is that adolescent sex hormone surges may trigger the opening of a
13 critical period for experience-dependent rewiring of neural circuits underlying
14 executive function (i.e. maturation of the part of the brain concerned with planning,
15 decision making and judgement). If this is the case, brain maturation may be
16 temporarily or permanently disrupted by puberty blockers, which could have
17 significant impact on the ability to make complex risk-laden decisions, as well as
18 possible longer-term neuropsychological consequences. To date, there has been very
19 limited research on the short-, medium- or longer-term impact of puberty blockers on
20 neurocognitive development. (Cass Review Letter 2022 at 6.)

21 126. In a meta-analysis (a highly rigorous type of systematic review) of studies of
22 neuropsychological performance, non-transsexual males undergoing puberty earlier show
23 a different cognitive profile than those underdoing puberty later. The association of brain
24 development with age of pubertal onset exists in humans as well as non-human animals.
25 (Shirazi 2022.)

26 127. Even in adults, neuroscience studies employing MRI and other methods have
27 shown that the blockade of normal levels of hormones associated with puberty and
28 adulthood degrade brain performance. Thus, when GnRH-agonists are administered to

1 adult biological women, several brain networks decrease in activity and cognitive
2 performance, such as in working memory, declines. (Craig 2007; Grigороva 2006.)

3 128. In light of this science, multiple voices have expressed concern that blocking the
4 process of puberty during its natural time could have a negative and potentially permanent
5 impact on brain development (Cass 2022 at 38–39; Chen 2020; Hembree 2017 at 3874.)
6 As Chen *et al.* (2020) observed:

7 [I]t is possible these effects are temporary, with youth ‘catching up’...However,
8 pubertal suppression may prevent key aspects of development during a sensitive
9 period of brain organization. Neurodevelopmental impacts might emerge over time,
10 akin to the ‘late effects’ cognitive findings associated with certain [other] oncology
11 treatments. (Chen 2020 at 249.)

12 Chen *et al.* (2020) noted that no substantial studies have been conducted to identify such impacts
13 outside “two small studies” (at 248) with conflicting results. I have not identified any systematic
14 review of neurodevelopment or cognitive capacity.

15 129. A related concern is that by slowing or preventing stages of neural development,
16 puberty blockers may impair precisely the mature cognitive capabilities that would be
17 necessary to evaluation of, and meaningful informed consent to, the type of life-changing
18 impacts that accompany cross-sex hormones.

19 **B. Substantially delayed puberty is associated with medical harms.**

20 130. The research cited by the WPATH Standards of Care includes the evidence that
21 children whose natural puberty started very late (top 2.3% in age) have elevated risks of
22 multiple health issues in adulthood. (Zhu & Chan 2017.) These include elevations in
23 metabolic and cardiovascular disease, lower height, and decreased bone mineral density. It
24 has not been studied whether these correlations also occur in children whose puberty is
25 chemically delayed. Undergoing puberty much later than one’s peers is also associated
26 with poorer psychosocial functioning and lesser educational achievement. (Koerselman &
27 Pekkarinen 2018.)

28

1 **C. Reduced bone density.**

2 131. The systematic reviews by Sweden, Finland, and England all included bone
3 health as an outcome. *The New York Times* also recently commissioned its own
4 independent review of the available studies. (Twohey & Jewett 2022.) These reviews all
5 identified subsets of the same group of eight studies of bone health. (Carmichael 2021;
6 Joseph 2019; Klink 2015; Navabi 2021; Schagen 2020; Stoffers 2019; van der Loos 2021;
7 Vlot 2017.) These studies repeatedly arrived at the same conclusion. As described by *The*
8 *New York Times* review:

9 [I]t’s increasingly clear that the drugs are associated with deficits in bone
10 development. During the teen years, bone density typically surges by about 8 to 12
11 percent a year. The analysis commissioned by *The Times* examined seven studies
12 from the Netherlands, Canada and England involving about 500 transgender teens
13 from 1998 through 2021. Researchers observed that while on blockers, the teens
14 did not gain any bone density, on average—and lost significant ground compared
15 to their peers.⁴ (Twohey & Jewett 2022.)

16 132. There is some evidence that some of these losses of bone health are regained in
17 some of these youth when cross-sex hormones are later administered. The rebounding
18 appears to be limited to female-to-male cases, while bone development remains deficient
19 among male-to-female cases.

20 133. The long-term effects of the deficient bone growth of people who undergo
21 hormonal interventions at puberty remain unstudied. The trajectory of bone quality over
22 the human lifetime includes decreases during aging in later adulthood. Because these
23 individuals may enter their senior years with already deficient bone health, greater risks of
24 fracture and other issues are expectable in the long term. As the *New York Times*’ analysts
25 summarized, “That could lead to heightened risk of debilitating fractures earlier than would
26 be expected from normal aging—in their 50s instead of 60s.” Such harms, should they

27
28 ⁴ The eighth study was Lee, *et al.*, 2020, which reported the same deficient bone development.

1 occur, would not be manifest during the youth and younger adulthood of these individuals.
2 This distinction also represents one of the differences between adult transitioners and
3 childhood transitioners and why their experiences cannot be extrapolated between them.

4 134. There does not exist an evidence-based method demonstrated to prevent these
5 outcomes. The recommendations offered by groups endorsing puberty blockers are quite
6 limited. As summarized by *The Times*:

7 A full accounting of blockers' risk to bones is not possible. While the Endocrine
8 Society recommends baseline bone scans and then repeat scans every one to two
9 years for trans youths, WPATH and the American Academy of Pediatrics provide
10 little guidance about whether to do so. Some doctors require regular scans and
11 recommend calcium and exercise to help to protect bones; others do not. Because
12 most treatment is provided outside of research studies, there's little public
13 documentation of outcomes. (Twohey & Jewett 2022.)

14 **D. Short-term/Immediate side-effects of puberty blockers include sterile**
15 **abscesses, leg pain, headache, mood swings, and weight gain.**

16 135. The Cass Report summarized that “In the short-term, puberty blockers may have
17 a range of side effects such as headaches, hot flushes, weight gain, tiredness, low mood
18 and anxiety, all of which may make day-to-day functioning more difficult for a child or
19 young person who is already experiencing distress.” (Cass 2022 at 38.)

20 136. In 2016, the U.S. FDA began requiring drug manufacturers to add a warning
21 about the psychiatric side effects, after reports of suicidal ideation and a suicide attempt
22 began to emerge among children prescribed GnRH-agonists (for precocious puberty).⁵ The
23 warning label on Lupron reads that “Psychiatric events have been reported in
24 patients...such as crying, irritability, impatience, anger and aggression.”

25 137. Other than the suicide attempt, such adverse effects may seem minor relative to
26 the major health and developmental risks I have reviewed above, and they may be

27 ⁵ Reuters Special Report; 2022, Oct. 6. Retrieved from
28 <https://www.reuters.com/investigates/special-report/usa-transyouth-care/>

1 dismissed by children and by parents confronted by fears of suicidality and an urgent hope
2 that transition will resolve the child’s unhappiness and mental health issues. However,
3 when assessing risk:benefit ratio for “safety” against the undemonstrated benefits claimed
4 for hormonal interventions, these observed harms should not be ignored.

5 **E. Long-term use of cross-sex hormones in adult transsexuals is**
6 **associated with unfavorable lipid profiles (cholesterol and**
7 **triglycerides) and other issues.**

8 138. As the Cass Report correctly and succinctly indicated, “Sex hormones have been
9 prescribed for transgender adults for several decades, and the long-term risks and side
10 effects are well understood. These include increased cardiovascular risk, osteoporosis, and
11 hormone-dependent cancers.” (Cass 2022 at 36.)

12 139. Minors who begin puberty blockers and proceed to cross-sex hormones—as
13 almost all do—will require continuing treatment with cross-sex hormones for life, unless
14 they go through the very difficult process of detransition. Because a lifetime dependence
15 on cross-sex hormones is the expected course, the known adverse effects of cross-sex
16 hormones on adults must also be part of the risk:benefit analysis of the “safety” of putting
17 a minor on cross-sex hormones (and indeed, of the initial decision to put a child on puberty
18 blockers).

19 140. Systematic review identified 29 studies of the effects of cross-sex hormone
20 treatment on cardiovascular health in adults. (Maraka 2017.) By the two-year follow-up
21 mark among female-to-male transitioners, hormone administration was associated with
22 increased serum triglycerides (indicating poorer health), increased low-density-lipid (LDL)
23 cholesterol (indicating poorer health), and decreased high-density-lipid (HDL) cholesterol
24 (indicating poorer health). Among male-to-female transitioners at the two-year mark,
25 cross-sex hormone treatment was associated with increased serum triglycerides (indicating
26 poorer health).

27 **XII. Assessment of plaintiffs’ experts’ reports.**

28 141. Dr. Shumer indicated he was an expert witness for the plaintiffs in the following

1 cases, for which I am an expert witness for the defense: Dekker v Weida, Boe v Marshall,
2 Roe v Utah High School Activities Association, Bridge v Oklahoma Department of
3 Education.

4 142. Dr. Budge indicated she was an expert witness for the plaintiffs in Bridge v
5 Oklahoma Department of Education. I am an expert witness for the defense in that case,
6 which is currently in process.

7 **A. Dr. Shumer’s declaration does not include the evidence upon which an**
8 **expert would rely for developing an expert opinion.**

9 143. Dr. Shumer’s entire declaration included exactly one citation, providing no
10 support whatsoever for the many assertions he asserted. His submission does not provide
11 evidence of meeting any expert or professional standard.

12 144. In his declaration, Dr. Shumer asserted specific conclusions about the medical
13 status of specific people not under his care, which is a violation of medical ethics. The
14 plaintiffs are not Dr. Shumer’s patients. He has not examined them or their medical records.
15 Dr. Shumer has made explicit that his information about them is “based solely on the
16 information that I have been provided by Plaintiff’s attorneys.” (Shumer ¶15.) He is not
17 able to diagnose their pubertal, hormonal, transgender, or mental health status versus their
18 having been misdiagnosed by the health care providers who did.

19 **B. Dr. Shumer’s are unsupported by the research literature and**
20 **contradict the research literature.**

21 145. Dr. Shumer claimed without support that gender identity “has a strong biological
22 basis” (Shumer ¶19) and is a “largely biological phenomenon” (Shumer ¶22), citing no
23 support for his assertion. As already noted herein, the research has demonstrated a
24 biological basis for sexual orientation, not gender identity. (See Section X. *Neuroimaging*
25 *Studies.*)

26 146. Dr. Shumer claimed gender identity “cannot be changed by medical or
27 psychological intervention” (Shumer ¶23). He cites no support for this assertion. In actual
28 clinical practice, that is rarely the relevant issue. The far more typical situation is youth

1 who are *mistaken* about their gender identity, wherein youth misinterpret their experiences
2 to indicate they are transgender. Moreover, it has been the unanimous conclusion of every
3 follow-up study of gender dysphoric children ever conducted, not only that gender identity
4 does change, but also that it changes in the large majority of cases. (See Section V.
5 *Childhood-Onset Gender Dysphoria.*)

6 147. Dr. Shumer similarly claimed “attempts to ‘cure’ transgender individuals...are
7 harmful and ineffective” (Shumer ¶25), citing no support for the assertion. Activists and
8 social media increasingly, but erroneously, apply the term “conversion therapy,” moving
9 farther and farther from what the research has reported. “Conversion therapy” (or
10 “reparative therapy” and other names) has referred to efforts to change a person’s sexual
11 orientation. More recently, any therapy failing to provide affirmation-on-demand is labeled
12 “conversion therapy.” (D’Angelo, *et al.*, 2020.) Although the media and social media
13 habitually add “T” to “GLB” in discussing these issues, the research on “conversion
14 therapy” has investigated only sexual orientation, and its results cannot be extrapolated to
15 gender identity by mere analogy.

16 148. Dr. Shumer claimed that “a person’s sex is comprised of several components,
17 including...gender identity” (Shumer ¶26), citing no support for his claim. As already
18 indicated herein, however, gender identity is in fact excluded from the definitions of sex.
19 (See Section VIII.A. *Sex and Sex Assigned-at-Birth.*) (See also ¶160 herein.)

20 149. Dr. Shumer claimed “The WPATH Standards of Care represent expert
21 consensus” and is “based on the best science” (Shumer ¶31). As detail already, expert
22 consensus is the *lowest* level of evidence in clinical research (see Section III.E. *Expert*
23 *Opinion*), and WPATH did not engage in any systematic review of the safety of transition.
24 (See Section VII.B. *WPATH.*)

25 150. Dr. Shumer claimed the Endocrine Society (and WPATH) “establish the
26 prevailing standards” for the treatment of gender dysphoria. (Shumer ¶32–33), citing no
27 evidence for his claim. That the Endocrine Society did not engage in any systematic review
28 of the effectiveness of transition and that the E.S. explicitly indicated the evidence for its

1 safety to be low is already reviewed herein. (See Section VII.A. *Endocrine Society*.)

2 151. Dr. Shumer claimed that “before puberty, there are no significant differences in
3 athletic performance between girls and boys.” (Shumer ¶38.) Peer reviewed research
4 studies from around the world have repeatedly demonstrated the very opposite. Although
5 the differences increase upon puberty, biological males already show even before puberty
6 a 2–5% advantage in swimming, running, jumping, and a range of strength tests. Such
7 differences have been repeatedly identified in studies of children from Australia (Catley
8 2013), Germany (Woll 2011), Norway (Tønnessen 2015), Spain (Gulias-González 2014),
9 and Latvia (Sauka 2011). Dr. Shumer’s declaration did not contest or mention the research
10 studies cited among the legislative findings.

11 152. The single source cited within Dr. Shumer’s entire declaration was Handelsman
12 et al. (2018), to support the claim that testosterone was the “driver” of the post-pubertal
13 male advantage in muscle mass and strength. Missing from the Shumer report, however,
14 was the other study from Handelsman (2017), which reported, again, that the male
15 advantage already existed *before* puberty:

16 In track and field athletics, the effects of age on running performance... showed
17 that the *prepubertal differences of 3.0%* increased to a plateau of 10.1% with an
18 onset (ED20) at 12.4 years and reaching midway (ED50) at 13.9 years. For
19 jumping,...the *prepubertal difference of 5.8%* increased to 19.4% starting at 12.4
20 years and reaching midway at 13.9 years. (Handelsman 2017 at 70, italics added)

21 **C. Dr. Budge’s assertions are unsupported by the research literature and**
22 **contradict the research literature.**

23 153. In referring to the basis of her assertions, Dr. Budge claimed she relied on “the
24 same types of material that experts in my field of study regularly rely upon.” (Budge ¶13.)
25 The contents of her declaration show the opposite. Dr. Budge’s asserted very many claims
26 about transgender youth (Budge ¶¶17–22) and the medical care for transgender youth
27 (Budge ¶¶23–34). Her claims are entirely unsupported, failing to include even a single peer
28 reviewed research article to support even a single claim about the nature, causes, diagnosis,

1 or treatment of gender dysphoria. The materials upon which experts in this field rely is the
2 peer reviewed literature, culminating in systematic reviews of their findings. (See Section
3 III. *Clinical Research Pyramid of Evidence*.) Dr. Budge did not cite or indicate considering
4 the conclusions of any of the systematic reviews conducted by the international health care
5 bodies. (See Section VI *Systematic Reviews of Safety and Effectiveness*.)

6 154. Dr. Budge misrepresents “APA” and the “DSM.” In ¶10 of her declaration, she
7 refers to the “American *Psychological* Association” as “APA,” and she notes affiliations
8 she has with that organization. (Budge ¶11.) Her declaration subsequently refers to aspects
9 of the diagnostic category “which the *APA* calls gender dysphoria.” (Budge ¶23 line 22,
10 italics added.) That organization, however, is the American *Psychiatric* Association, of
11 which Dr. Budge is not a member: She clearly identified herself as a psychologist, not a
12 psychiatrist. (Budge ¶3.) In the next sentence, Dr. Budge cites “APA’s Diagnostic and
13 Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5)” (Budge ¶23), from 2013, by the
14 American *Psychiatric* Association. That edition is outdated, having been superseded by its
15 text revision (the DSM-5-TR), published by American *Psychiatric* Association in 2022.

16 155. Dr. Budge asserted without support that “gender identity is well-established in
17 psychology and medicine.” (Budge ¶17.) Her claim does not reflect the status of the field.
18 Indeed, the DSM-5-TR itself says the very opposite: “The area of sex and gender is highly
19 controversial and has led to a proliferation of terms whose meanings vary over time and
20 within and between disciplines.” (American Psychiatric Association 2022 at 511.) (See
21 also Section VIII.A. *Sex and Sex-Assigned-at-Birth*.)

22 156. Dr. Budge claimed that “sex” is comprised of multiple characteristics, and she
23 included among them “gender identity.” (Budge ¶19.) As already indicated herein, gender
24 identity is *excluded* from the definition of sex. (See also Section VIII.B. *Subjective*
25 *feelings*.) The same is true of the DSM-5-TR, which also says the opposite of Dr. Budge’s
26 unsourced claim:

27 In this chapter [on gender dysphoria], *sex* and *sexual* refer to the biological
28 indicators of male and female (understood in the context of reproductive capacity),

1 such as in sex chromosomes, gonads, sex hormones, and nonambiguous internal
2 and external genitalia. (American Psychiatric Association at 511, italics in
3 original.)

4 157. Dr. Budge’s unsourced claim that gender identity is innate (Budge ¶20) is untrue.
5 The peer reviewed research shows *sexual orientation* is innate, not gender identity. (See
6 Section X. *Neuroimaging*.)

7 158. Dr. Budge offers a brief summary indicating potential benefits to participating
8 in school-sponsored athletics (Budge ¶¶35–37), which is not in contention. The large
9 majority of transgender adolescents are biologically female, and under SB-1165, continue
10 to be permitted to participate on male designated teams, and these benefits remain available
11 to them. Because SB-1165 explicitly permits participation in coed and mixed teams, such
12 benefits remain available to everyone else. Moreover, the majority of adolescents who
13 identify as transgender specifically identify as “non-binary” or “gender fluid.” Teams
14 designated mixed or coed represent a *closer* match to such identities than those designated
15 female.

16 159. Dr. Budge was explicit that her opinion about SB-1165 being “psychological
17 damaging” was “based on my experience working with transgender youth.” (Budge ¶39).
18 As indicated in the present report, such opinions represent the very lowest level of
19 evidence. (See Section III.E. *Expert Opinion*.) In the absence of studies comparing
20 participation on female designated teams versus coed- or mixed- teams, it is not possible
21 for Dr. Budge to know what she claims.

22 160. Dr. Budge included no evidence to support her dramatic claim “irreversible and
23 severe damage” including trauma, suicidal ideation, and suicide attempts. (Budge ¶39.) Dr.
24 Budge’s citation of Hughes et al. (2022) insinuates that Hughes to have been a study
25 showing those results; however, it was not a study of impact at all. Rather, it was a survey
26 of physicians and nurses providing the very hormones and other procedures whose safety
27 and effectiveness are being challenged by the international health care community. (See
28 Section VI. *Systematic Reviews of Safety and Effectiveness*.) As noted herein, such surveys

1 do not constitute meaningful scientific evidence (See Section III.F. *Surveys*), and this
2 survey in particular made no effort to hide its political rather than objective purpose of the
3 four questions it asked:

4 Participants were asked to provide their thoughts about these proposed laws in four
5 separate open-ended survey questions: “What do laws like this mean to you as a
6 gender-affirming care provider for transgender and gender diverse youth?” “How
7 do you think laws like this would impact your practice?” “How do you think laws
8 like this would impact your patients?” “What steps, if any, do you think would be
9 helpful to ensure transgender and gender diverse youth are not banned from
10 participating in sports?” (Hughes 2022 at 248.)

11 161. Dr. Budge conveyed a warning “that the physical consequences for transgender
12 youth of not being able to participate in sports include worse cardiovascular outcomes,
13 poor bone mineral density, and poor neurocognitive development when compared to non-
14 transgender youth” (Budge ¶39), citing Barrera et al. (2022). First, Barrera et al. (2022) is
15 an editorial, not a peer-reviewed research finding. Second, the protection of mixed and
16 coed activities prevents the situation Barrera warns against. Finally, and perhaps most
17 relevantly, the listed health consequences are not caused by lack of exercise—They are
18 caused by the *puberty-blockers and cross-sex hormones* used on the children. As Barrera
19 wrote: “Increased access to physical activity for TGD [(transgender and gender-diverse)]
20 youth is important for improving cardiovascular risk and mediating *the expected changes*
21 *that occur with GAH [(gender affirming hormones)].” (Barrera 2022 at 223, italics added.)*
22 (See also Section XI. *Known and Potential Harms.*)

23 162. The three remaining sources cited by Dr. Budge (Tebbe 2021; Kosciw 2022;
24 McLemore 2015) are all surveys as well. They do not represent empirical research capable
25 of demonstrating the causal connections which Dr. Budge attributes to them. They reflect
26 the beliefs and political views of the people taking the surveys, not the accuracy of those
27 views and beliefs. The recent Washington Post-Kaiser Family Foundation survey found
28 both that a majority of Americans support laws prohibiting discrimination against trans

1 people *and at that same time* support restricting female sports teams to biological females.
2 (Meckler & Clement 2023.)

3 **D. Dr. Budge’s report did not contest, or even address, the pertinent**
4 **scientific or psychological issues or their implications.**

5 163. Dr. Budge’s declaration did not address the legislative findings of SB-1165
6 acknowledging the biological differences between males and females. Her declaration did
7 not address any of the peer reviewed studies cited in SB1165 and did not cite any peer
8 reviewed studies with conclusions that contradict the conclusions of the studies in SB-
9 1165. Dr. Budge’s analysis did not include any issues regarding competitive fairness from
10 including people other than biological females on teams of biological females. It is not
11 possible to develop an objective balance by considering only one side of such an issue.

12 164. Dr. Budge’s analysis did not include the psychological effects on biological
13 females of the participation of biological males. Because adolescents do not typically
14 undergo genital surgery until adulthood, people with an intact penis and testicles would be
15 present in the females’ showers, locker rooms, and other areas designated female-only.

16 165. Dr. Budge’s analysis did not address the capacity of mixed or coed teams to
17 prevent the potential negative effects she postulated.

18
19 I swear or affirm under penalty of perjury that the foregoing is true and correct.

20 Dated: May 18, 2023

Signed: /s/ Dr. James M. Cantor, Ph.D.

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