estrogen may benefit from avoiding the first pass effect, but they can result in more rapid peaks with greater overall periodicity and thus are more difficult to monitor (147, 148). However, there are no data demonstrating that increased periodicity is harmful otherwise.

Clinicians can use serum estradiol levels to monitor oral, transdermal, and intramuscular estradiol. Blood tests cannot monitor conjugated estrogens or synthetic estrogen use. Clinicians should measure serum estradiol and serum testosterone and maintain them at the level for premenopausal females (100 to 200 pg/mL and <50 ng/dL, respectively). The transdermal preparations and injectable estradiol cypionate or valerate preparations may confer an advantage in older transgender females who may be at higher risk for thromboembolic disease (149).

Values

Our recommendation to maintain levels of gender-affirming hormones in the normal adult range places a high value on the avoidance of the long-term complications of pharmacologic doses. Those patients receiving endocrine treatment who have relative contraindications to hormones should have an in-depth discussion with their physician to balance the risks and benefits of therapy.

Remarks

Clinicians should inform all endocrine-treated individuals of all risks and benefits of gender-affirming hormones prior to initiating therapy. Clinicians should strongly encourage tobacco use cessation in transgender females to avoid increased risk of VTE and cardiovascular complications. We strongly discourage the unsupervised use of hormone therapy (150).

Not all individuals with GD/gender incongruence seek treatment as described (*e.g.*, male-to-eunuchs and individuals seeking partial transition). Tailoring current protocols to the individual may be done within the context of accepted safety guidelines using a multidisciplinary approach including mental health. No evidence-based protocols are available for these groups (151). We need prospective studies to better understand treatment options for these persons.

3.4. We suggest that endocrinologists provide education to transgender individuals undergoing treatment about the onset and time course of physical changes induced by sex hormone treatment. (2 |⊕○○○)

Evidence

Transgender males

Physical changes that are expected to occur during the first 1 to 6 months of testosterone therapy include cessation of menses, increased sexual desire, increased facial and body hair, increased oiliness of skin, increased muscle, and redistribution of fat mass. Changes that occur within the first year of testosterone therapy include deepening of the voice (152, 153), clitoromegaly, and male pattern hair loss (in some cases) (114, 144, 154, 155) (Table 12).

Transgender females

Physical changes that may occur in transgender females in the first 3 to 12 months of estrogen and antiandrogen therapy include decreased sexual desire, decreased spontaneous erections, decreased facial and body hair (usually mild), decreased oiliness of skin, increased breast tissue growth, and redistribution of fat mass (114, 139, 149, 154, 155, 161) (Table 13). Breast development is generally maximal at 2 years after initiating hormones (114, 139, 149, 155). Over a long period of time, the prostate gland and testicles will undergo atrophy.

Although the time course of breast development in transgender females has been studied (150), precise information about other changes induced by sex hormones is lacking (141). There is a great deal of variability among individuals, as evidenced during pubertal development. We all know that a major concern for transgender females is breast development. If we work with estrogens, the result will be often not what the transgender female expects.

Alternatively, there are transgender females who report an anecdotal improved breast development, mood, or sexual desire with the use of progestogens. However, there have been no well-designed studies of the role of progestogens in feminizing hormone regimens, so the question is still open.

Our knowledge concerning the natural history and effects of different cross-sex hormone therapies on breast

Table 12. Masculinizing Effects in Transgender Males

Effect	Onset	Maximum
Skin oiliness/acne	1–6 mo	1–2 y
Facial/body hair growth	6–12 mo	4–5 y
Scalp hair loss	6–12 mo	—[a]
Increased muscle mass/strength	6–12 mo	2–5 y
Fat redistribution	1–6 mo	2–5 y
Cessation of menses	1–6 mo	—[b]
Clitoral enlargement	1–6 mo	1–2 y
Vaginal atrophy	1–6 mo	1–2 y
Deepening of voice	6–12 mo	1–2 y

Estimates represent clinical observations: Toorians *et al.* (149), Asscheman *et al.* (156), Gooren *et al.* (157), Wierckx *et al.* (158).

[a] Prevention and treatment as recommended for biological men.

[b] Menorrhagia requires diagnosis and treatment by a gynecologist.

Table 13. Feminizing Effects in Transgender Females

Effect	Onset	Maximum
Redistribution of body fat	3–6 mo	2–3 y
Decrease in muscle mass and strength	3–6 mo	1–2 y
Softening of skin/decreased oiliness	3–6 mo	Unknown
Decreased sexual desire	1–3 mo	3–6 mo
Decreased spontaneous erections	1–3 mo	3–6 mo
Male sexual dysfunction	Variable	Variable
Breast growth	3–6 mo	2–3 y
Decreased testicular volume	3–6 mo	2–3 y
Decreased sperm production	Unknown	>3 y
Decreased terminal hair growth	6–12 mo	>3 y[a]
Scalp hair	Variable	—[b]
Voice changes	None	—[c]

Estimates represent clinical observations: Toorians *et al.* (149), Asscheman *et al.* (156), Gooren *et al.* (157).

[a]Complete removal of male sexual hair requires electrolysis or laser treatment or both.

[b]Familial scalp hair loss may occur if estrogens are stopped.

[c]Treatment by speech pathologists for voice training is most effective.

development in transgender females is extremely sparse and based on the low quality of evidence. Current evidence does not indicate that progestogens enhance breast development in transgender females, nor does evidence prove the absence of such an effect. This prevents us from drawing any firm conclusion at this moment and demonstrates the need for further research to clarify these important clinical questions (162).

Values and preferences

Transgender persons have very high expectations regarding the physical changes of hormone treatment and are aware that body changes can be enhanced by surgical procedures (*e.g.*, breast, face, and body habitus). Clear expectations for the extent and timing of sex hormone–induced changes may prevent the potential harm and expense of unnecessary procedures.

4.0 Adverse Outcome Prevention and Long-Term Care

Hormone therapy for transgender males and females confers many of the same risks associated with sex hormone replacement therapy in nontransgender persons. The risks arise from and are worsened by inadvertent or intentional use of supraphysiologic doses of sex hormones, as well as use of inadequate doses of sex hormones to maintain normal physiology (131, 139).

4.1. We suggest regular clinical evaluation for physical changes and potential adverse changes in response to sex steroid hormones and laboratory monitoring of sex steroid hormone levels every 3 months during the first year of hormone therapy for transgender males and females and then once or twice yearly. (2 l⊕⊕◯◯)

Evidence

Pretreatment screening and appropriate regular medical monitoring are recommended for both transgender males and females during the endocrine transition and periodically thereafter (26, 155). Clinicians should monitor weight and blood pressure, conduct physical exams, and assess routine health questions, such as tobacco use, symptoms of depression, and risk of adverse events such as deep vein thrombosis/pulmonary embolism and other adverse effects of sex steroids.

Transgender males

Table 14 contains a standard monitoring plan for transgender males on testosterone therapy (154, 159). Key issues include maintaining testosterone levels in the physiologic normal male range and avoiding adverse events resulting from excess testosterone therapy, particularly erythrocytosis, sleep apnea, hypertension, excessive weight gain, salt retention, lipid changes, and excessive or cystic acne (135).

Because oral 17-alkylated testosterone is not recommended, serious hepatic toxicity is not anticipated with parenteral or transdermal testosterone use (163, 164). Past concerns regarding liver toxicity with testosterone have been alleviated with subsequent reports that indicate the risk of serious liver disease is minimal (144, 165, 166).

Transgender females

Table 15 contains a standard monitoring plan for transgender females on estrogens, gonadotropin suppression, or antiandrogens (160). Key issues include avoiding supraphysiologic doses or blood levels of estrogen that may lead to increased risk for thromboembolic disease, liver dysfunction, and hypertension. Clinicians should monitor serum estradiol levels using laboratories participating in external quality control, as measurements of estradiol in blood can be very challenging (167).

VTE may be a serious complication. A study reported a 20-fold increase in venous thromboembolic disease in a large cohort of Dutch transgender subjects (161). This increase may have been associated with the use of the synthetic estrogen, ethinyl estradiol (149). The incidence decreased when clinicians stopped administering ethinyl estradiol (161). Thus, the use of synthetic estrogens and conjugated estrogens is undesirable because of the inability to regulate doses by measuring serum levels and the risk of thromboembolic disease. In a German gender clinic, deep vein thrombosis occurred in 1 of 60 of transgender females treated with a GnRH analog and oral

Table 14. Monitoring of Transgender Persons on Gender-Affirming Hormone Therapy: Transgender Male

1. Evaluate patient every 3 mo in the first year and then one to two times per year to monitor for appropriate signs of virilization and for development of adverse reactions.
2. Measure serum testosterone every 3 mo until levels are in the normal physiologic male range:[a]
   a. For testosterone enanthate/cypionate injections, the testosterone level should be measured midway between injections. The target level is 400–700 ng/dL to 400 ng/dL. Alternatively, measure peak and trough levels to ensure levels remain in the normal male range.
   b. For parenteral testosterone undecanoate, testosterone should be measured just before the following injection. If the level is <400 ng/dL, adjust dosing interval.
   c. For transdermal testosterone, the testosterone level can be measured no sooner than after 1 wk of daily application (at least 2 h after application).
3. Measure hematocrit or hemoglobin at baseline and every 3 mo for the first year and then one to two times a year. Monitor weight, blood pressure, and lipids at regular intervals.
4. Screening for osteoporosis should be conducted in those who stop testosterone treatment, are not compliant with hormone therapy, or who develop risks for bone loss.
5. If cervical tissue is present, monitoring as recommended by the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists.
6. Ovariectomy can be considered after completion of hormone transition.
7. Conduct sub- and periareolar annual breast examinations if mastectomy performed. If mastectomy is not performed, then consider mammograms as recommended by the American Cancer Society.

[a] Adapted from Lapauw *et al.* (154) and Ott *et al.* (159).

estradiol (141). The patient who developed a deep vein thrombosis was found to have a homozygous C677 T mutation in the methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase gene. In an Austrian gender clinic, administering gender-affirming hormones to 162 transgender females and 89 transgender males was not associated with VTE, despite an 8.0% and 5.6% incidence of thrombophilia (159). A more recent multinational study reported only 10 cases of VTE from a cohort of 1073 subjects (168). Thrombophilia screening of transgender persons initiating hormone treatment should be restricted to those with a personal or family history of VTE (159). Monitoring D-dimer levels during treatment is not recommended (169).

4.2. We suggest periodically monitoring prolactin levels in transgender females treated with estrogens. (2 ⊕⊕◯◯)

Evidence

Estrogen therapy can increase the growth of pituitary lactrotroph cells. There have been several reports of prolactinomas occurring after long-term, high-dose estrogen therapy (170–173). Up to 20% of transgender females treated with estrogens may have elevations in prolactin levels associated with enlargement of the pituitary gland (156). In most cases, the serum prolactin levels will return to the normal range with a reduction or discontinuation of the estrogen therapy or discontinuation of cyproterone acetate (157, 174, 175).

The onset and time course of hyperprolactinemia during estrogen treatment are not known. Clinicians should measure prolactin levels at baseline and then at least annually during the transition period and every 2 years thereafter. Given that only a few case studies reported prolactinomas, and prolactinomas were not reported in large cohorts of estrogen-treated persons, the risk is likely to be very low. Because the major presenting findings of microprolactinomas (hypogonadism and sometimes gynecomastia) are not apparent in transgender females, clinicians may perform radiologic examinations of the pituitary in those patients whose prolactin levels persistently increase despite stable or reduced estrogen levels. Some transgender individuals receive psychotropic medications that can increase prolactin levels (174).

Table 15. Monitoring of Transgender Persons on Gender-Affirming Hormone Therapy: Transgender Female

1. Evaluate patient every 3 mo in the first year and then one to two times per year to monitor for appropriate signs of feminization and for development of adverse reactions.
2. Measure serum testosterone and estradiol every 3 mo.
   a. Serum testosterone levels should be <50 ng/dL.
   b. Serum estradiol should not exceed the peak physiologic range: 100–200 pg/mL.
3. For individuals on spironolactone, serum electrolytes, particularly potassium, should be monitored every 3 mo in the first year and annually thereafter.
4. Routine cancer screening is recommended, as in nontransgender individuals (all tissues present).
5. Consider BMD testing at baseline (160). In individuals at low risk, screening for osteoporosis should be conducted at age 60 years or in those who are not compliant with hormone therapy.

This table presents strong recommendations and does not include lower level recommendations.

4.3. We suggest that clinicians evaluate transgender persons treated with hormones for cardiovascular risk factors using fasting lipid profiles, diabetes screening, and/or other diagnostic tools. (2 |⊕⊕◯◯)

Evidence

Transgender males

Administering testosterone to transgender males results in a more atherogenic lipid profile with lowered high-density lipoprotein cholesterol and higher triglyceride and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol values (176–179). Studies of the effect of testosterone on insulin sensitivity have mixed results (178, 180). A randomized, open-label uncontrolled safety study of transgender males treated with testosterone undecanoate demonstrated no insulin resistance after 1 year (181, 182). Numerous studies have demonstrated the effects of sex hormone treatment on the cardiovascular system (160, 179, 183, 184). Long-term studies from The Netherlands found no increased risk for cardiovascular mortality (161). Likewise, a meta-analysis of 19 randomized trials in nontransgender males on testosterone replacement showed no increased incidence of cardiovascular events (185). A systematic review of the literature found that data were insufficient (due to very low–quality evidence) to allow a meaningful assessment of patient-important outcomes, such as death, stroke, myocardial infarction, or VTE in transgender males (176). Future research is needed to ascertain the potential harm of hormonal therapies (176). Clinicians should manage cardiovascular risk factors as they emerge according to established guidelines (186).

Transgender females

A prospective study of transgender females found favorable changes in lipid parameters with increased high-density lipoprotein and decreased low-density lipoprotein concentrations (178). However, increased weight, blood pressure, and markers of insulin resistance attenuated these favorable lipid changes. In a meta-analysis, only serum triglycerides were higher at ≥24 months without changes in other parameters (187). The largest cohort of transgender females (mean age 41 years, followed for a mean of 10 years) showed no increase in cardiovascular mortality despite a 32% rate of tobacco use (161).

Thus, there is limited evidence to determine whether estrogen is protective or detrimental on lipid and glucose metabolism in transgender females (176). With aging, there is usually an increase of body weight. Therefore, as with nontransgender individuals, clinicians should monitor and manage glucose and lipid metabolism and blood pressure regularly according to established guidelines (186).

4.4. We recommend that clinicians obtain BMD measurements when risk factors for osteoporosis exist, specifically in those who stop sex hormone therapy after gonadectomy. (1 |⊕⊕◯◯)

Evidence

Transgender males

Baseline bone mineral measurements in transgender males are generally in the expected range for their pretreatment gender (188). However, adequate dosing of testosterone is important to maintain bone mass in transgender males (189, 190). In one study (190), serum LH levels were inversely related to BMD, suggesting that low levels of sex hormones were associated with bone loss. Thus, LH levels in the normal range may serve as an indicator of the adequacy of sex steroid administration to preserve bone mass. The protective effect of testosterone may be mediated by peripheral conversion to estradiol, both systemically and locally in the bone.

Transgender females

A baseline study of BMD reported T scores less than −2.5 in 16% of transgender females (191). In aging males, studies suggest that serum estradiol more positively correlates with BMD than does testosterone (192, 193) and is more important for peak bone mass (194). Estrogen preserves BMD in transgender females who continue on estrogen and antiandrogen therapies (188, 190, 191, 195, 196).

Fracture data in transgender males and females are not available. Transgender persons who have undergone gonadectomy may choose not to continue consistent sex steroid treatment after hormonal and surgical sex reassignment, thereby becoming at risk for bone loss. There have been no studies to determine whether clinicians should use the sex assigned at birth or affirmed gender for assessing osteoporosis (*e.g.*, when using the FRAX tool). Although some researchers use the sex assigned at birth (with the assumption that bone mass has usually peaked for transgender people who initiate hormones in early adulthood), this should be assessed on a case-by-case basis until there are more data available. This assumption will be further complicated by the increasing prevalence of transgender people who undergo hormonal transition at a pubertal age or soon after puberty. Sex for comparison within risk assessment tools may be based on the age at which hormones were initiated and the length of exposure to hormones. In some cases, it may be

reasonable to assess risk using both the male and female calculators and using an intermediate value. Because all subjects underwent normal pubertal development, with known effects on bone size, reference values for birth sex were used for all participants (154).

4.5. We suggest that transgender females with no known increased risk of breast cancer follow breast-screening guidelines recommended for those designated female at birth. (2 |⊕⊕◯◯)

4.6. We suggest that transgender females treated with estrogens follow individualized screening according to personal risk for prostatic disease and prostate cancer. (2 |⊕◯◯◯)

Evidence

Studies have reported a few cases of breast cancer in transgender females (197–200). A Dutch study of 1800 transgender females followed for a mean of 15 years (range of 1 30 years) found one case of breast cancer. The Women's Health Initiative study reported that females taking conjugated equine estrogen without progesterone for 7 years did not have an increased risk of breast cancer as compared with females taking placebo (137).

In transgender males, a large retrospective study conducted at the U.S. Veterans Affairs medical health system identified seven breast cancers (194). The authors reported that this was not above the expected rate of breast cancers in cisgender females in this cohort. Furthermore, they did report one breast cancer that developed in a transgender male patient after mastectomy, supporting the fact that breast cancer can occur even after mastectomy. Indeed, there have been case reports of breast cancer developing in subareolar tissue in transgender males, which occurred after mastectomy (201, 202).

Women with primary hypogonadism (Turner syndrome) treated with estrogen replacement exhibited a significantly decreased incidence of breast cancer as compared with national standardized incidence ratios (203, 204). These studies suggest that estrogen therapy does not increase the risk of breast cancer in the short term (<20 to 30 years). We need long-term studies to determine the actual risk, as well as the role of screening mammograms. Regular examinations and gynecologic advice should determine monitoring for breast cancer.

Prostate cancer is very rare before the age of 40, especially with androgen deprivation therapy (205). Childhood or pubertal castration results in regression of the prostate and adult castration reverses benign prostate hypertrophy (206). Although van Kesteren *et al.* (207) reported that estrogen therapy does not induce hypertrophy or premalignant changes in the prostates of transgender females, studies have reported cases of benign prostatic hyperplasia in transgender females treated with estrogens for 20 to 25 years (208, 209). Studies have also reported a few cases of prostate carcinoma in transgender females (210–214).

Transgender females may feel uncomfortable scheduling regular prostate examinations. Gynecologists are not trained to screen for prostate cancer or to monitor prostate growth. Thus, it may be reasonable for transgender females who transitioned after age 20 years to have annual screening digital rectal examinations after age 50 years and prostate-specific antigen tests consistent with U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Guidelines (215).

4.7. We advise that clinicians determine the medical necessity of including a total hysterectomy and oophorectomy as part of gender-affirming surgery. (Ungraded Good Practice Statement)

Evidence

Although aromatization of testosterone to estradiol in transgender males has been suggested as a risk factor for endometrial cancer (216), no cases have been reported. When transgender males undergo hysterectomy, the uterus is small and there is endometrial atrophy (217, 218). Studies have reported cases of ovarian cancer (219, 220). Although there is limited evidence for increased risk of reproductive tract cancers in transgender males, health care providers should determine the medical necessity of a laparoscopic total hysterectomy as part of a gender-affirming surgery to prevent reproductive tract cancer (221).

Values

Given the discomfort that transgender males experience accessing gynecologic care, our recommendation for the medical necessity of total hysterectomy and oophorectomy places a high value on eliminating the risks of female reproductive tract disease and cancer and a lower value on avoiding the risks of these surgical procedures (related to the surgery and to the potential undesirable health consequences of oophorectomy) and their associated costs.

Remarks

The sexual orientation and type of sexual practices will determine the need and types of gynecologic care required following transition. Additionally, in certain countries, the approval required to change the sex in a birth certificate for transgender males may be dependent on having a complete hysterectomy. Clinicians should help patients research nonmedical administrative criteria and

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provide counseling. If individuals decide not to undergo hysterectomy, screening for cervical cancer is the same as all other females.

5.0 Surgery for Sex Reassignment and Gender Confirmation

For many transgender adults, genital gender-affirming surgery may be the necessary step toward achieving their ultimate goal of living successfully in their desired gender role. The type of surgery falls into two main categories: (1) those that directly affect fertility and (2) those that do not. Those that change fertility (previously called sex reassignment surgery) include genital surgery to remove the penis and gonads in the male and removal of the uterus and gonads in the female. The surgeries that effect fertility are often governed by the legal system of the state or country in which they are performed. Other gender-conforming surgeries that do not directly affect fertility are not so tightly governed.

Gender-affirming surgical techniques have improved markedly during the past 10 years. Reconstructive genital surgery that preserves neurologic sensation is now the standard. The satisfaction rate with surgical reassignment of sex is now very high (187). Additionally, the mental health of the individual seems to be improved by participating in a treatment program that defines a pathway of gender-affirming treatment that includes hormones and surgery (130, 144) (Table 16).

Surgery that affects fertility is irreversible. The World Professional Association for Transgender Health Standards of Care (222) emphasizes that the "threshold of 18 should not be seen as an indication in itself for active intervention." If the social transition has not been satisfactory, if the person is not satisfied with or is ambivalent about the effects of sex hormone treatment, or if the person is ambivalent about surgery then the individual should not be referred for surgery (223, 224).

Gender-affirming genital surgeries for transgender females that affect fertility include gonadectomy, penectomy, and creation of a neovagina (225, 226). Surgeons often invert the skin of the penis to form the wall of the vagina, and several literatures reviews have reported on outcomes (227). Sometimes there is inadequate tissue to form a full neovagina, so clinicians have revisited using intestine and found it to be successful (87, 228, 229). Some newer vaginoplasty techniques may involve autologuous oral epithelial cells (230, 231).

The scrotum becomes the labia majora. Surgeons use reconstructive surgery to fashion the clitoris and its hood, preserving the neurovascular bundle at the tip of the penis as the neurosensory supply to the clitoris. Some surgeons are also creating a sensate pedicled-spot adding a G spot to the neovagina to increase sensation (232). Most recently, plastic surgeons have developed techniques to fashion labia minora. To further complete the feminization, uterine transplants have been proposed and even attempted (233).

Neovaginal prolapse, rectovaginal fistula, delayed healing, vaginal stenosis, and other complications do sometimes occur (234, 235). Clinicians should strongly remind the transgender person to use their dilators to maintain the depth and width of the vagina throughout the postoperative period. Genital sexual responsivity and other aspects of sexual function are usually preserved following genital gender-affirming surgery (236, 237).

Ancillary surgeries for more feminine or masculine appearance are not within the scope of this guideline. Voice therapy by a speech language pathologist is available to transform speech patterns to the affirmed gender (148). Spontaneous voice deepening occurs during testosterone treatment of transgender males (152, 238). No studies have compared the effectiveness of speech therapy, laryngeal surgery, or combined treatment.

Breast surgery is a good example of gender-confirming surgery that does not affect fertility. In all females, breast size exhibits a very broad spectrum. For transgender females to make the best informed decision, clinicians should delay breast augmentation surgery until the patient has completed at least 2 years of estrogen therapy, because the breasts continue to grow during that time (141, 155).

Another major procedure is the removal of facial and masculine-appearing body hair using either electrolysis or

Table 16. Criteria for Gender-Affirming Surgery, Which Affects Fertility

1. Persistent, well-documented gender dysphoria
2. Legal age of majority in the given country
3. Having continuously and responsibly used gender-affirming hormones for 12 mo (if there is no medical contraindication to receiving such therapy)
4. Successful continuous full-time living in the new gender role for 12 mo
5. If significant medical or mental health concerns are present, they must be well controlled
6. Demonstrable knowledge of all practical aspects of surgery (*e.g.*, cost, required lengths of hospitalizations, likely complications, postsurgical rehabilitation)

laser treatments. Other feminizing surgeries, such as that to feminize the face, are now becoming more popular (239–241).

In transgender males, clinicians usually delay gender-affirming genital surgeries until after a few years of androgen therapy. Those surgeries that affect fertility in this group include oophorectomy, vaginectomy, and complete hysterectomy. Surgeons can safely perform them vaginally with laparoscopy. These are sometimes done in conjunction with the creation of a neopenis. The cosmetic appearance of a neopenis is now very good, but the surgery is multistage and very expensive (242, 243). Radial forearm flap seems to be the most satisfactory procedure (228, 244). Other flaps also exist (245). Surgeons can make neopenile erections possible by reinervation of the flap and subsequent contraction of the muscle, leading to stiffening of the neopenis (246, 247), but results are inconsistent (248). Surgeons can also stiffen the penis by imbedding some mechanical device (*e.g.*, a rod or some inflatable apparatus) (249, 250). Because of these limitations, the creation of a neopenis has often been less than satisfactory. Recently, penis transplants are being proposed (233).

In fact, most transgender males do not have any external genital surgery because of the lack of access, high cost, and significant potential complications. Some choose a metaoidioplasty that brings forward the clitoris, thereby allowing them to void in a standing position without wetting themselves (251, 252). Surgeons can create the scrotum from the labia majora with good cosmetic effect and can implant testicular prostheses (253).

The most important masculinizing surgery for the transgender male is mastectomy, and it does not affect fertility. Breast size only partially regresses with androgen therapy (155). In adults, discussions about mastectomy usually take place after androgen therapy has started. Because some transgender male adolescents present after significant breast development has occurred, they may also consider mastectomy 2 years after they begin androgen therapy and before age 18 years. Clinicians should individualize treatment based on the physical and mental health status of the individual. There are now newer approaches to mastectomy with better outcomes (254, 255). These often involve chest contouring (256). Mastectomy is often necessary for living comfortably in the new gender (256).

5.1. We recommend that a patient pursue genital gender-affirming surgery only after the MHP and the clinician responsible for endocrine transition therapy both agree that surgery is medically necessary and would benefit the patient's overall health and/or well-being. (1 ⊕⊕◯◯)

5.2. We advise that clinicians approve genital gender-affirming surgery only after completion of at least 1 year of consistent and compliant hormone treatment, unless hormone therapy is not desired or medically contraindicated. (Ungraded Good Practice Statement)

5.3. We advise that the clinician responsible for endocrine treatment and the primary care provider ensure appropriate medical clearance of transgender individuals for genital gender-affirming surgery and collaborate with the surgeon regarding hormone use during and after surgery. (Ungraded Good Practice Statement)

5.4. We recommend that clinicians refer hormone-treated transgender individuals for genital surgery when: (1) the individual has had a satisfactory social role change, (2) the individual is satisfied about the hormonal effects, and (3) the individual desires definitive surgical changes. (1 ⊕◯◯◯)

5.5. We suggest that clinicians delay gender-affirming genital surgery involving gonadectomy and/or hysterectomy until the patient is at least 18 years old or legal age of majority in his or her country. (2 ⊕⊕◯◯).

5.6. We suggest that clinicians determine the timing of breast surgery for transgender males based upon the physical and mental health status of the individual. There is insufficient evidence to recommend a specific age requirement. (2 ⊕◯◯◯)

Evidence

Owing to the lack of controlled studies, incomplete follow-up, and lack of valid assessment measures, evaluating various surgical approaches and techniques is difficult. However, one systematic review including a large numbers of studies reported satisfactory cosmetic and functional results for vaginoplasty/neovagina construction (257). For transgender males, the outcomes are less certain. However, the problems are now better understood (258). Several postoperative studies report significant long-term psychological and psychiatric pathology (259–261). One study showed satisfaction with breasts, genitals, and femininity increased significantly and showed the importance of surgical treatment as a key therapeutic option for transgender females (262). Another analysis demonstrated that, despite the young average age at death following surgery and the relatively larger number of individuals with somatic morbidity, the study does not allow for determination of

causal relationships between, for example, specific types of hormonal or surgical treatment received and somatic morbidity and mortality (263). Reversal surgery in regretful male-to-female transsexuals after sexual reassignment surgery represents a complex, multistage procedure with satisfactory outcomes. Further insight into the characteristics of persons who regret their decision postoperatively would facilitate better future selection of applicants eligible for sexual reassignment surgery. We need more studies with appropriate controls that examine long-term quality of life, psychosocial outcomes, and psychiatric outcomes to determine the long-term benefits of surgical treatment.

When a transgender individual decides to have gender-affirming surgery, both the hormone prescribing clinician and the MHP must certify that the patient satisfies criteria for gender-affirming surgery (Table 16).

There is some concern that estrogen therapy may cause an increased risk for venous thrombosis during or following surgery (176). For this reason, the surgeon and the hormone-prescribing clinician should collaborate in making a decision about the use of hormones before and following surgery. One study suggests that preoperative factors (such as compliance) are less important for patient satisfaction than are the physical postoperative results (56). However, other studies and clinical experience dictate that individuals who do not follow medical instructions and do not work with their physicians toward a common goal do not achieve treatment goals (264) and experience higher rates of postoperative infections and other complications (265, 266). It is also important that the person requesting surgery feels comfortable with the anatomical changes that have occurred during hormone therapy. Dissatisfaction with social and physical outcomes during the hormone transition may be a contraindication to surgery (223).

An endocrinologist or experienced medical provider should monitor transgender individuals after surgery. Those who undergo gonadectomy will require hormone replacement therapy, surveillance, or both to prevent adverse effects of chronic hormone deficiency.

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Evidence review: Gonadotrophin releasing hormone analogues for children and adolescents with gender dysphoria

This document will help inform Dr Hilary Cass' independent review into gender identity services for children and young people. It was commissioned by NHS England and Improvement who commissioned the Cass review. It aims to assess the evidence for the clinical effectiveness, safety and cost-effectiveness of gonadotrophin releasing hormone (GnRH) analogues for children and adolescents aged 18 years or under with gender dysphoria.

The document was prepared by NICE in October 2020.

The content of this evidence review was up to date on 14 October 2020. See summaries of product characteristics (SPCs), British National Formulary (BNF) or the Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency (MHRA) or NICE websites for up-to-date information.

Contents

1. Introduction

This review aims to assess the evidence for the clinical effectiveness, safety and cost-effectiveness of gonadotrophin releasing hormone (GnRH) analogues for children and adolescents aged 18 years or under with gender dysphoria. The review follows the NHS England Specialised Commissioning process and template and is based on the criteria outlined in the PICO framework (see appendix A). This document will help inform Dr Hilary Cass' independent review into gender identity services for children and young people.

Gender dysphoria in children, also known as gender identity disorder or gender incongruence of childhood (World Health Organisation 2020), refers to discomfort or distress that is caused by a discrepancy between a person's gender identity (how they see themselves[1] regarding their gender) and that person's sex assigned at birth and the associated gender role, and/or primary and secondary sex characteristics (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 2013).

GnRH analogues suppress puberty by delaying the development of secondary sexual characteristics. The intention is to alleviate the distress associated with the development of secondary sex characteristics, thereby providing a time for on-going discussion and exploration of gender identity before deciding whether to take less reversible steps. In England, the GnRH analogue triptorelin (a synthetic decapeptide analogue of natural GnRH, which has marketing authorisations for the treatment of prostate cancer, endometriosis and precocious puberty [onset before 8 years in girls and 10 years in boys]) is used for this purpose. The use of triptorelin for children and adolescents with gender dysphoria is off-label.

For children and adolescents with gender dysphoria it is recommended that management plans are tailored to the needs of the individual, and aim to ameliorate the potentially negative impact of gender dysphoria on general developmental processes, support young people and their families in managing the uncertainties inherent in gender identity development and provide on-going opportunities for exploration of gender identity. The plans may also include psychological support and exploration and, for some individuals, the use of GnRH analogues in adolescence to suppress puberty; this may be followed later with gender-affirming hormones of the desired sex (NHS England 2013).

2. Executive summary of the review

Nine observational studies were included in the evidence review. Five studies were retrospective observational studies (Brik et al. 2020, Joseph et al. 2019, Khatchadourian et al. 2014, Klink et al. 2015, Vlot et al. 2017), 3 studies were prospective longitudinal observational studies (Costa et al. 2015, de Vries et al. 2011, Schagen et al. 2016) and 1 study was a cross-sectional study (Staphorsius et al. 2015). Two studies (Costa et al. 2015

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[1] Gender refers to the roles, behaviours, activities, attributes and opportunities that any society considers appropriate for girls and boys, and women and men (World Health Organisation, Health Topics: Gender).

and Staphorsius et al. 2015) provided comparative evidence and the remaining 7 studies used within-person, before and after comparisons.

The terminology used in this topic area is continually evolving and is different depending on stakeholder perspectives. In this evidence review we have used the phrase 'people's assigned sex at birth' rather than natal or biological sex, gonadotrophin releasing hormone (GnRH) analogues rather than 'puberty blockers' and gender-affirming hormones rather than 'cross sex hormones'. The research studies included in this evidence review may use historical terms which are no longer considered appropriate.

In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the clinical effectiveness of treatment with GnRH analogues compared with one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?

Critical outcomes

The critical outcomes for decision making are the impact on gender dysphoria, mental health and quality of life. The quality of evidence for these outcomes was assessed as very low certainty using modified GRADE.

Impact on gender dysphoria
The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that treatment with GnRH analogues before starting gender-affirming hormones does not affect gender dysphoria (measured using the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale [UGDS]). The mean (±SD) gender dysphoria (UGDS) score was not statistically significantly different at baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 53.20 [±7.91] versus 53.9 [±17.42], p=0.333).

Impact on mental health
The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that treatment with GnRH analogues before starting gender-affirming hormones may reduce depression (measured using the Beck Depression Inventory-II [BDI-II]). The mean [±SD] BDI score was statistically significantly lower (improved) from baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 8.31 [±7.12] versus 4.95 [±6.72], p=0.004).

The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that treatment with GnRH analogues before starting gender-affirming hormones does not affect anger (measured using the Trait Anger Scale [TPI]). The mean [±SD] anger (TPI) score was not statistically significantly different at baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 18.29 [±5.54] versus 17.88 [±5.24], p=0.503).

The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that treatment with GnRH analogues before starting gender-affirming hormones does not affect anxiety (measured using the Trait Anxiety Scale [STAI]). The mean [±SD] anxiety (STAI) score was not statistically significantly different at baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 39.43 [±10.07] versus 37.95 [±9.38], p=0.276).

Impact on quality of life
No evidence was identified.

Important outcomes

The important outcomes for decision making are impact on body image, psychosocial impact, engagement with health care services, impact on extent of and satisfaction with surgery and stopping treatment. The quality of evidence for all these outcomes was assessed as very low certainty using modified GRADE.

Impact on body image
The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that treatment with GnRH analogues before starting gender-affirming hormones does not affect body image (measured using the Body Image Scale [BIS]). The mean [±SD] body image (BIS) scores were not statistically significantly different from baseline compared with follow-up for primary sexual characteristics (n=57, 4.10 [±0.56] versus 3.98 [±0.71], p=0.145), secondary sexual characteristics (n=57, 2.74 [±0.65] versus 2.82 [±0.68], p=0.569) or neutral body characteristics (n=57, 2.41 [±0.63] versus 2.47 [±0.56], p=0.620).

Psychosocial impact
The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that treatment with GnRH analogues before starting gender-affirming hormones may improve psychosocial impact over time (measured using the Children's Global Assessment Scale [CGAS]). The mean [±SD] CGAS score was statistically significantly higher (improved) from baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 70.24 [±10.12] versus 73.90 [±9.63], p=0.005).

This study also found that psychosocial functioning may improve over time (measured using the Child Behaviour Checklist [CBCL] and the self-administered Youth Self-Report [YSR]). The mean [±SD] CBCL scores were statistically significantly lower (improved) from baseline compared with follow-up for Total T score (n=54, 60.70 [±12.76] versus 54.46 [±11.23], p<0.001), internalising T score (n=54, 61.00 [±12.21] versus 52.17 [±9.81], p<0.001) and externalising T score (n=54, 58.04 [±12.99] versus 53.81 [±11.86], p=0.001). The mean [±SD] YSR scores were statistically significantly lower (improved) from baseline compared with follow-up for Total T score (n=54, 55.46 [±11.56] versus 50.00 [±10.56], p<0.001), internalising T score (n=54, 56.04 [±12.49] versus 49.78 [±11.63], p<0.001) and externalising T score (n=54, 53.30 [±11.87] versus 49.98 [±9.35], p=0.009). The proportion of adolescents scoring in the clinical range decreased from baseline to follow up on the CBCL total problem scale (44.4% versus 22.2%, p=0.001) and the internalising scale of the YSR (29.6% versus 11.1%, p=0.017).

The study by Costa et al. 2015 in 201 adolescents with gender dysphoria who had 6 months of psychological support followed by either GnRH analogues and continued psychological support or continued psychological support only, found that during treatment with GnRH analogues psychosocial impact in terms of global functioning may improve over time (measured using the CGAS). In the group receiving GnRH analogues, the mean [±SD] CGAS score was statistically significantly higher (improved) after 6 months (n=60, 64.70 [±13.34]) and 12 months (n=35, 67.40 [±13.39]) compared with baseline (n=101, 58.72 [±11.38], p=0.003 and p<0.001, respectively). However, there was no statistically significant difference in global functioning (CGAS scores) between the group receiving GnRH analogues plus psychological support and the group receiving psychological support only at any time point.

The study by Staphorsius et al. 2015 in 40 adolescents with gender dysphoria (20 of whom were receiving GnRH analogues) gave mean [±SD] CBCL scores for each group, but statistical analysis is unclear (transfemales receiving GnRH analogues 57.4 [±9.8], transfemales not receiving GnRH analogues 58.2 [±9.3], transmales receiving GnRH analogues 57.5 [±9.4], transmales not receiving GnRH analogues 63.9 [±10.5]).

Engagement with health care services
The study by Brik et al. 2018 in 143 children and adolescents with gender dysphoria receiving GnRH analogues found that 9 adolescents in the original sampling frame (9/214, 4.2%) were excluded from the study because they stopped attending appointments.

The study by Costa et al. 2015 in 201 adolescents with gender dysphoria who had 6 months of psychological support followed by either GnRH analogues and continued psychological support or continued psychological support only had a large loss to follow-up over time. The sample size at baseline and 6 months was 201, which dropped by 39.8% to 121 after 12 months and by 64.7% to 71 at 18 months follow-up. No explanation of the reasons for loss to follow-up are reported.

Impact on extent of and satisfaction with surgery
No evidence was identified.

Stopping treatment
The study by Brik et al. 2018 in 143 children and adolescents with gender dysphoria receiving GnRH analogues reported the reasons for stopping GnRH analogues. During the follow-up period 6.2% (9/143) of adolescents had stopped GnRH analogues after a median duration of 0.8 years (range 0.1 to 3.0). Five adolescents stopped treatment because they no longer wished to receive gender-affirming treatment for various reasons. In 4 adolescents (all transmales), GnRH analogues were stopped mainly because of adverse effects (such as mood and emotional lability), although they wanted to continue treatments for gender dysphoria.

The study by Khatchadourian et al. 2014 in 27 adolescents with gender dysphoria who started GnRH analogues reported the reasons for stopping them. Eleven out of 26 where data was available (42%) stopped GnRH analogues during follow up.

In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the short-term and long-term safety of GnRH analogues compared with one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?

Evidence was available for bone density, cognitive development or functioning, and other safety outcomes. The quality of evidence for all these outcomes was assessed as very low certainty using modified GRADE.

Bone density
The study by Joseph et al. 2019 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that GnRH analogues may reduce the expected increase in lumbar or femoral bone density (measured with the z-score). However, the z-scores were largely within 1 standard deviation of normal,

and actual lumbar or femoral bone density values were not statistically significantly different between baseline and follow-up:

- The mean z-score [±SD] for lumbar bone mineral apparent density (BMAD) was statistically significantly lower at 1 year compared with baseline in transfemales (baseline 0.859 [±0.154], 1 year −0.228 [±1.027], p=0.000) and transmales (baseline −0.186 [±1.230], 1 year −0.541 [±1.396], p=0.006).
- The mean z-score [±SD] for lumbar BMAD was statistically significantly lower after receiving GnRH analogues for 2 years compared with baseline in transfemales (baseline 0.486 [±0.809], 2 years −0.279 [±0.930], p=0.000) and transmales (baseline −0.361 [±1.439], 2 years −0.913 [±1.318], p=0.001).
- The mean z-score [±SD] for femoral neck bone mineral density (BMD) was statistically significantly lower after receiving GnRH analogues for 2 years compared with baseline in transfemales (baseline 0.0450 [±0.781], 2 years −0.600 [±1.059], p=0.002) and transmales (baseline −1.075 [±1.145], 2 years −1.779 [±0.816], p=0.001).

The study by Klink et al. 2015 in 34 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that GnRH analogues may reduce the expected increase in lumbar (transmales only), but not femoral bone density. However, the z-scores are largely within 1 standard deviation of normal. Actual lumbar or femoral bone density values were not statistically significantly different between baseline and follow-up (apart from BMD measurements in transmales):

- The mean z-score [±SD] for lumbar BMAD was not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transfemales, but was statistically significantly lower when starting gender-affirming hormones in transmales (GnRH analogues 0.28 [±0.90], gender-affirming hormones −0.50 [±0.81], p=0.004).

The study by Vlot et al. 2017 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that GnRH analogues may reduce the expected increase in lumbar or femoral bone density. However, the z-scores were largely within 1 standard deviation of normal. Actual lumbar or femoral bone density values were not statistically significantly different between baseline and follow-up (apart from in transmales with a bone age ≥14 years). This study reported change in bone density from starting GnRH analogues to starting gender-affirming hormones by bone age:

- The median z-score [range] for lumbar BMAD in transfemales with a bone age of <15 years was statistically significantly lower at starting gender-affirming hormones than at starting GnRH analogues (GnRH analogues −0.20 [−1.82 to 1.18], gender-affirming hormones −1.52 [−2.36 to 0.42], p=0.001) but was not statistically significantly different in transfemales with a bone age ≥15 years.
- The median z-score [range] for lumbar BMAD in transmales with a bone age of <14 years was statistically significantly lower at starting gender-affirming hormones than at starting GnRH analogues (GnRH analogues −0.05 [−0.78 to 2.94], gender-affirming hormones −0.84 [−2.20 to 0.87], p=0.003) and in transmales with a bone age ≥14 years (GnRH analogues 0.27 [−1.60 to 1.80], gender-affirming hormones −0.29 [−2.28 to 0.90], p≤0.0001).

- The median z-score [range] for femoral neck BMAD in transfemales with a bone age of <15 years was not statistically significantly lower at starting gender-affirming hormones than at starting GnRH analogues (GnRH analogues −0.71 [−3.35 to 0.37], gender-affirming hormones −1.32 [−3.39 to 0.21], p≤0.1) or in transfemales with a bone age ≥15 years (GnRH analogues −0.44 [−1.37 to 0.93], gender-affirming hormones −0.36 [−1.50 to 0.46]).
- The z-score for femoral neck BMAD in transmales with a bone age of <14 years was not statistically significantly lower at starting gender-affirming hormones than at starting GnRH analogues (GnRH analogues −0.01 [−1.30 to 0.91], gender-affirming hormone −0.37 [−2.28 to 0.47]) but was statistically significantly lower in transmales with a bone age ≥14 years (GnRH analogues 0.27 [−1.39 to 1.32], gender-affirming hormones −0.27 [−1.91 to 1.29], p=0.002).

Cognitive development or functioning

The study by Staphorsius et al. 2015 in 40 adolescents with gender dysphoria (20 of whom were receiving GnRH analogues) measured cognitive development or functioning (using an IQ test, and reaction time and accuracy measured using the Tower of London task):

- The mean (±SD) IQ in transfemales receiving GnRH analogues was 94.0 (±10.3) and 109.4 (±21.2) in the control group. In transmales receiving GnRH analogues the mean (±SD) IQ was 95.8 (±15.6) and 98.5 (±15.9) in the control group.
- The mean (±SD) reaction time in transfemales receiving GnRH analogues was 10.9 (±4.1) and 9.9 (±3.1) in the control group. In transmales receiving GnRH analogue it was 9.9 (±3.1) and 10.0 (±2.0) in the control group.
- The mean (±SD) accuracy score in transfemales receiving GnRH analogues was 73.9 (±9.1) and 83.4 (±9.5) in the control group. In transmales receiving GnRH analogues it was 85.7 (±10.5) and 88.8 (±9.7) in the control group.

No statistical analyses or interpretation of the results was reported.

Other safety outcomes

The study by Schagen et al. 2016 in 116 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that GnRH analogues do not affect renal or liver function:

- There was no statistically significant difference between baseline and 1 year results for serum creatinine in transfemales, but there was a statistically significant decrease between baseline and 1 year in transmales (p=0.01).
- Glutamyl transferase, alanine aminotransferase (ALT), and aspartate aminotransferase (AST) levels did not significantly change from baseline to 12 months of treatment.

The study by Khatchadourian et al. 2014 in 27 adolescents with gender dysphoria who started GnRH analogues narratively reported adverse effects from GnRH analogues in 26 adolescents:

- 1 transmale developed sterile abscesses; they were switched from leuprolide acetate to triptorelin, and this was well tolerated
- 1 transmale developed leg pains and headaches, which eventually resolved
- 1 participant gained 19 kg within 9 months of starting GnRH analogues.

In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the cost-effectiveness of GnRH analogues compared to one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?

No cost-effectiveness evidence was found for GnRH analogues in children and adolescents with gender dysphoria.

From the evidence selected, are there any subgroups of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria that may benefit from GnRH analogues more than the wider population of interest?

Some studies reported data separately for the following subgroups of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria: sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) and sex assigned at birth females (transmales). This included some direct comparisons of these subgroups, and differences were largely seen at baseline as well as follow up. No evidence was found for other specified subgroups.

Sex assigned at birth males (transfemales)

Impact on gender dysphoria

The study by Costa et al. 2015 in 201 adolescents with gender dysphoria who had 6 months of psychological support followed by either GnRH analogues and continued psychological support or continued psychological support only, found that gender dysphoria (measured using the UGDS) in sex assigned at birth males is lower than in sex assigned at birth females. Sex assigned at birth males had a statistically significantly lower (improved) mean [±SD] UGDS score of 51.6 [±9.7] compared with sex assigned at birth females (56.1 [±4.3], p<0.001), but it was not reported if this was at baseline or follow-up.

The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that gender dysphoria (measured using the UGDS) in sex assigned at birth males is lower than in sex assigned at birth females at baseline and follow up. The mean [±SD] UGDS score was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at baseline (n=not reported, mean UGDS score: 47.95 [±9.70] versus 56.57 [±3.89]) and follow up (n=not reported, 49.67 [±9.47] versus 56.62 [±4.00]); between sex difference p<0.001).

Impact on mental health

The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that the impact on mental health (depression, anger and anxiety) may be different in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females. Over time there was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females for depression, but sex assigned at birth males had statistically significantly lower levels of anger and anxiety than sex assigned at birth females at baseline and follow up.

- The mean [±SD] depression (BDI-II) score was not statistically significantly different in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at baseline (n=not reported, mean BDI score [±SD]: 5.71 [±4.31] versus 10.34 [±8.24]) and follow-up (n=not reported, 3.50 [±4.58] versus 6.09 [±7.93]), between sex difference p=0.057
- The mean [±SD] anger (TPI) score was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at baseline (n=not reported, mean TPI score [±SD]: 5.22 [±2.76] versus 6.43 [±2.78]) and follow-

up (n=not reported, 5.00 [±3.07] versus 6.39 [±2.59]), between sex difference p=0.022

- The mean [±SD] anxiety (STAI) score was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at baseline (n=not reported, mean STAI score [±SD]: 4.33 [±2.68] versus 7.00 [±2.36]) and follow-up (n=not reported, 4.39 [±2.64] versus 6.17 [±2.69]), between sex difference p<0.001.

Impact on body image

The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that the impact on body image may be different in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females. Sex assigned at birth males are less dissatisfied with their primary and secondary sex characteristics than sex assigned at birth females at both baseline and follow up, but the satisfaction with neutral body characteristics is not different.

- The mean [±SD] BIS score for primary sex characteristics was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at baseline (n=not reported, mean BIS score [±SD]: 4.02 [±0.61] versus 4.16 [±0.52]) and follow up (n=not reported, 3.74 [±0.78] versus 4.17 [±0.58]) between sex difference p=0.047.
- The mean [±SD] BIS score for secondary sex was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at baseline (n=not reported, mean BIS score [±SD]: 2.66 [±0.50] versus 2.81 [±0.76]) and follow up (n=not reported, 2.39 [±0.69] versus 3.18 [±0.42]), between sex difference p=0.001.
- The mean [±SD] BIS score for neutral body characteristics was not statistically significantly different in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at baseline (n=not reported, 2.60 [±0.58] versus 2.24 [±0.62], between sex difference p=0.777).

Psychosocial impact

The study by Costa et al. 2015 in 201 adolescents with gender dysphoria who had 6 months of psychological support followed by either GnRH analogues and continued psychological support or continued psychological support only, found that sex assigned at birth males had statistically significant lower mean [±SD] CGAS scores at baseline compared with sex assigned at birth females (n=201, 55.4 [±12.7] versus 59.2 [±11.8], p=0.03), but no conclusions could be drawn.

The study by de Vries et al. 2011 in 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria found that psychosocial impact in terms of global functioning (CGAS) and psychosocial functioning (CBCL and YSR) may be different in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females, but no conclusions could be drawn.

- There was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females (at baseline or follow up) for the CBCL Total T score, the CBCL internalising T score, the YSR Total T score or the YSR internalising T score.

- Sex assigned at birth males had statistically higher mean [±SD] CGAS scores compared with sex assigned at birth females at baseline (n=54, 73.10 [±8.44] versus 67.25 [±11.06]) and follow up (n=54, 77.33 [±8.69] versus 70.30 [±9.44]), between sex difference p=0.021.
- Sex assigned at birth males had statistically lower mean [±SD] CBCL externalising T scores compared with sex assigned at birth females at baseline (n=54, 54.71 [±12.91] versus 60.70 [±12.64]) and follow up (n=54, 48.75 [±10.22] versus 57.87 [±11.66]), between sex difference p=0.015.
- Sex assigned at birth males had statistically lower mean [±SD] YSR externalising T scores compared with sex assigned at birth females at both baseline (n=54, 48.72 [±11.38] versus 57.24 [±10.59]) and follow up (n=54, 46.52 [±9.23] versus 52.97 [±8.51]), between sex difference p=0.004.

Bone density

The studies by Joseph et al. 2019, Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017 provided evidence on bone density in sex assigned at birth males (see above for details).

Cognitive development or functioning

The study by Staphorsius et al. 2015 provided evidence on cognitive development or functioning in sex assigned at birth males (see above for details).

Other safety outcomes

The study by Schagen et al. 2016 provided evidence on renal function in sex assigned at birth males (see above).

Sex assigned at birth females (transmales)

Impact on gender dysphoria

The studies by de Vries et al. 2011 and Costa et al. 2015 found that gender dysphoria (measured using the UGDS) in sex assigned at birth females is higher than in sex assigned at birth males at baseline and follow up (see above for details).

Impact on mental health

The study by de Vries et al. 2011 found that the impact on mental health (depression, anger and anxiety) may be different in sex assigned at birth females compared with sex assigned at birth males. Over time there was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth females and sex assigned at birth males for depression, but sex assigned at birth females had statistically significantly greater levels of anger and anxiety than sex assigned at birth males at both baseline and follow up (see above for details).

Impact on body image

The study by de Vries et al. 2011 found that the impact on body image may be different in sex assigned at birth females compared with sex assigned at birth males. Sex assigned at birth females are more dissatisfied with their primary and secondary sex characteristics than sex assigned at birth males at both baseline and follow up, but the satisfaction with neutral body characteristics is not different (see above for details).

Psychosocial impact

The studies by de Vries et al. 2011 and Costa et al. 2015 found that psychosocial impact in terms of global functioning (CGAS) and psychosocial functioning (CBCL and YSR) may be different in sex assigned at birth females compared with sex assigned at birth males, but no conclusions could be drawn (see above for details).

Bone density

The studies by Joseph et al. 2019, Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017 provided evidence on bone density in sex assigned at birth females (see above for details).

Cognitive development or functioning

The study by Staphorsius et al. 2015 provided evidence on cognitive development or functioning in sex assigned at birth females (see above for details).

Other safety outcomes

The study by Schagen et al. 2016 provided evidence on renal function in sex assigned at birth females (see above for details).

From the evidence selected:

(a) what are the criteria used by the research studies to define gender dysphoria, gender identity disorder and gender incongruence of childhood?

(b) what were the ages at which participants commenced treatment with GnRH analogues?

(c) what was the duration of treatment with GnRH analogues?

All studies that reported diagnostic criteria for gender dysphoria (6/9 studies) used the version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) criteria that was in use at the time. In 5 studies (Costa et al. 2015, Klink et al. 2015, Schagen et al. 2016, Staphorsius et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017) the DSM-fourth edition, text revision (IV-TR) criteria were used. The study by Brik et al. 2020 used DSM-V criteria. It was not reported how gender dysphoria was defined in the remaining 3 studies.

The studies show variation in the age (11 to 18 years old) at which children and adolescents with gender dysphoria started GnRH analogues.

Most studies did not report the duration of treatment with GnRH analogues (Joseph et al. 2019, Khatchadourian et al. 2014, Vlot et al. 2017, Costa et al. 2015, de Vries et al. 2011, Schagen et al. 2016), but where this was reported (Brik et al. 2020, Klink et al. 2015, Staphorsius et al. 2015) there was a wide variation ranging from a few months to about 5 years.

Discussion

A key limitation to identifying the effectiveness and safety of GnRH analogues for children and adolescents with gender dysphoria is the lack of reliable comparative studies. The lack of clear, expected outcomes from treatment with a GnRH analogue (the purpose of which is to suppress secondary sexual characteristics which may cause distress from unwanted pubertal changes) also makes interpreting the evidence difficult.

The studies included in this evidence review are all small, uncontrolled observational studies, which are subject to bias and confounding, and all the results are of very low certainty using modified GRADE. They all reported physical and mental health comorbidities and concomitant treatments very poorly. All the studies are from a limited number of, mainly European, care facilities. They are described as either tertiary referral or expert services but the low number of services providing such care and publishing evidence may bias the results towards the outcomes in these services only and limit extrapolation.

Many of the studies did not report statistical significance or confidence intervals. Changes in outcome scores for clinical effectiveness and bone density were assessed with regards to statistical significance. However, there is relatively little interpretation of whether the changes in outcomes are clinically meaningful.

In the observational, retrospective studies providing evidence on bone density, participants acted as their own controls and change in bone density was determined between starting GnRH analogues and follow up. Observational studies such as these can only show an association with GnRH analogues and bone density; they cannot show that GnRH analogues caused any differences in bone density seen. Because there was no comparator group and participants acted as their own controls, it is not known whether the findings are associated with GnRH analogues or due to changes over time.

Conclusion

The results of the studies that reported impact on the critical outcomes of gender dysphoria and mental health (depression, anger and anxiety), and the important outcomes of body image and psychosocial impact (global and psychosocial functioning), in children and adolescents with gender dysphoria are of very low certainty using modified GRADE. They suggest little change with GnRH analogues from baseline to follow-up.

Studies that found differences in outcomes could represent changes that are either of questionable clinical value, or the studies themselves are not reliable and changes could be due to confounding, bias or chance. It is plausible, however, that a lack of difference in scores from baseline to follow-up is the effect of GnRH analogues in children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, in whom the development of secondary sexual characteristics might be expected to be associated with an increased impact on gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, anger and distress over time without treatment. The study by de Vries et al. 2011 reported statistically significant reductions in the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL) and Youth Self-Report (YSR) scores from baseline to follow up, which include measures of distress. As the aim of GnRH analogues is to reduce distress caused by the development of secondary sexual characteristics, this may be an important finding. However, as the studies all lack appropriate controls who were not receiving GnRH analogues, any positive changes could be a regression to mean.

The results of the studies that reported bone density outcomes suggest that GnRH analogues may reduce the expected increase in bone density (which is expected during puberty). However, as the studies themselves are not reliable, the results could be due to confounding, bias or chance. While controlled trials may not be possible, comparative studies are needed to understand this association and whether the effects of GnRH analogues on bone density are seen after they are stopped. All the studies that reported safety outcomes provided very low certainty evidence.

No cost-effectiveness evidence was found to determine whether or not GnRH analogues are cost-effective for children and adolescents with gender dysphoria.

The results of the studies that reported outcomes for subgroups of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, suggest there may be differences between sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) and sex assigned at birth females (transmales).

3. Methodology

Review questions

The review question(s) for this evidence review are:

1. For children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the clinical effectiveness of treatment with GnRH analogues compared with one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?
2. For children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the short-term and long-term safety of GnRH analogues compared with one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?
3. For children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the cost-effectiveness of GnRH analogues compared to one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?
4. From the evidence selected, are there any subgroups of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria that may derive more (or less) advantage from treatment with GnRH analogues than the wider population of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria?
5. From the evidence selected,
    a) what are the criteria used by the research studies to define gender dysphoria, gender identity disorder and gender incongruence of childhood?
    b) what were the ages at which participants commenced treatment with GnRH analogues?
    c) what was the duration of treatment with GnRH analogues?

See appendix A for the full review protocol.

Review process

The methodology to undertake this review is specified by NHS England in their 'Guidance on conducting evidence reviews for Specialised Services Commissioning Products' (2020).

The searches for evidence were informed by the PICO document and were conducted on 23 July 2020.

See appendix B for details of the search strategy.

Results from the literature searches were screened using their titles and abstracts for relevance against the criteria in the PICO framework. Full text references of potentially

relevant evidence were obtained and reviewed to determine whether they met the inclusion criteria for this evidence review.

See appendix C for evidence selection details and appendix D for the list of studies excluded from the review and the reasons for their exclusion.

Relevant details and outcomes were extracted from the included studies and were critically appraised using a checklist appropriate to the study design. See appendices E and F for individual study and checklist details.

The available evidence was assessed by outcome for certainty using modified GRADE. See appendix G for GRADE Profiles.

4. Summary of included studies

Nine observational studies were identified for inclusion. Five studies were retrospective observational studies (Brik et al. 2020, Joseph et al. 2019, Khatchadourian et al. 2014, Klink et al. 2015, Vlot et al. 2017), 3 studies were prospective longitudinal observational studies (Costa et al. 2015, de Vries et al. 2011, Schagen et al. 2016) and 1 study was a cross-sectional study (Staphorsius et al. 2015).

The terminology used in this topic area is continually evolving and is different depending on stakeholder perspectives. In this evidence review we have used the phrase 'people's assigned sex at birth' rather than natal or biological sex, gonadotrophin releasing hormone (GnRH) analogues rather than 'puberty blockers' and gender-affirming hormones rather than 'cross sex hormones'. The research studies included in this evidence review may use historical terms which are no longer considered appropriate.

Table 1 provides a summary of these included studies and full details are given in appendix E.

Table 1 Summary of included studies

Study	Population	Intervention and comparison	Outcomes reported
Brik et al. 2020 Retrospective observational single-centre study Netherlands	The study was conducted at the Curium-Leiden University Medical Centre gender clinic in Leiden, the Netherlands and involved adolescents with gender dysphoria. The sample size was 143 adolescents (median age at start of treatment was 15.0 years, range 11.1 to 18.6 years in transfemales; 16.1 years, range 10.1 to 17.9 years in transmales) from a sampling frame of 269 children and adolescents registered at the clinic between November 2010 and January 2018.	**Intervention** 143 children and adolescents receiving GnRH analogues (no specific treatment, dose, route or frequency of administration reported). The median duration was 2.1 years (range 1.6–2.8 years). **Comparison** No comparator.	**Critical Outcomes** • No critical outcomes reported **Important outcomes** • Stopping treatment

Study	Population	Intervention and comparison	Outcomes reported
	Participants were included in the study if they were diagnosed with gender dysphoria according to the DSM-5 criteria, registered at the clinic, were prepubertal and within the appropriate age range, and had started GnRH analogues. No concomitant treatments were reported.		
Costa et al. 2015 Prospective longitudinal observational single centre cohort study United Kingdom	The study was conducted at the Gender Identity Development Service in London and involved adolescents with gender dysphoria. The sample size was 201 adolescents (mean [±SD] age 15.52±1.41 years, range 12 to 17 years) from a sampling frame of 436 consecutive adolescents referred to the service between 2010 and 2014. The mean [±SD] age at the start of GnRH analogues was 16.48 [±1.26] years, range 13 to 17 years. Participants were invited to participate following a 6-month diagnostic process using DSM-IV-TR criteria. No concomitant treatments were reported.	**Intervention** 101 adolescents assessed as being immediately eligible for GnRH analogues (no specific treatment, dose or route of administration reported) plus psychological support. The average duration of treatment was approximately 12 months (no exact figure given). **Comparison** 100 adolescents assessed as not immediately eligible for GnRH analogues (more time needed to make the decision to start GnRH analogues) who had psychological support only. None received GnRH analogues throughout the study.	**Critical Outcomes** • No critical outcomes reported **Important outcomes** • Psychosocial impact
de Vries et al. 2011 Prospective longitudinal observational single centre before and after study Netherlands	The study was conducted at the Amsterdam gender identity clinic of the VU University Medical Centre and involved adolescents who were defined as “transsexual”. The sample size was 70 adolescents receiving GnRH analogues (mean age [±SD] at assessment 13.6±1.8 years) from a sampling frame of 196 consecutive adolescents referred to the service between 2000 and 2008. Participants were invited to participate if they subsequently started gender-affirming hormones between 2003 and 2009. No diagnostic criteria or concomitant treatments were reported.	**Intervention** 70 individuals assessed at baseline (T0) before the start of GnRH analogues (no specific treatment, dose or route of administration reported). **Comparison** No comparator.	**Critical Outcomes** • Gender dysphoria • Mental health (depression, anger and anxiety) **Important outcomes** • Body image • Psychosocial impact

Study	Population	Intervention and comparison	Outcomes reported
Joseph et al. 2019 Retrospective longitudinal observational single centre study United Kingdom	This study was conducted at the Early intervention clinic at University College London Hospital (all participants had been seen at the Gender Identity Development Service in London) and involved adolescents with gender dysphoria. The sample size was 70 adolescents with gender dysphoria (no diagnostic criteria described) all offered GnRH analogues. The mean age at the start of treatment was 13.2 years (SD ±1.4) for transfemales and 12.6 years (SD ±1.0) for transmales. Details of the sampling frame were not reported. Further details of how the sample was drawn are not reported. No concomitant treatments were reported.	**Intervention** GnRH analogues. No specific treatment, duration, dose or route of administration reported. **Comparison** No comparator.	**Critical Outcomes** • No critical outcomes reported **Important outcomes** • Safety: bone density
Khatchadourian et al. 2014 Retrospective observational chart review single centre study Canada	This study was conducted at the Endocrinology and Diabetes Unit at British Columbia Children's Hospital, Canada and involved youths with gender dysphoria. The sample size was 27 young people with gender dysphoria who started GnRH analogues (at mean age 14.7 [SD ±1.9] years) out of 84 young people seen at the unit between 1998 and 2011. Diagnostic criteria and concomitant treatments were not reported.	**Intervention** 84 young people with gender dysphoria. For GnRH analogues no specific treatment, duration, dose or route of administration reported. **Comparison** No comparator.	**Critical Outcomes** • No critical outcomes reported **Important outcomes** • Stopping treatment • Safety: adverse effects
Klink et al. 2015 Retrospective longitudinal observational single centre study Netherlands	This study was conducted in the Netherlands at a tertiary referral centre. It is unclear which centre this was. The sample size was 34 adolescents (mean age 14.9 [SD ±1.9] years for transfemales and 15.0 [SD ±2.0] years for transmales at start of GnRH analogues). Details of the sampling frame are not reported. Participants were included if they met DSM-IV-TR criteria for gender identity disorder of adolescence and had been treated with GnRH analogues and gender-affirming hormones during their pubertal years. No concomitant treatments were reported.	**Intervention** The intervention was GnRH analogue monotherapy (triptorelin 3.75 mg subcutaneously every 4 weeks) followed by gender-affirming hormones with discontinuation of GnRH analogues after gonadectomy. Duration of GnRH analogues was 1.3 years (range 0.5 to 3.8 years) in transfemales and 1.5 years (0.25 to 5.2 years in transmales. **Comparison** No comparator.	**Critical Outcomes** • No critical outcomes reported **Important outcomes** • Safety: bone density

Study	Population	Intervention and comparison	Outcomes reported
Schagen et al. 2016 Prospective longitudinal study Netherlands	This study was conducted at the Centre of Expertise on Gender Dysphoria at the VU University Medical Centre (Amsterdam, Netherlands) and involved adolescents with gender dysphoria. The sample size was 116 adolescents (median age [range] 13.6 years [11.6 to 17.9] in transfemales and 14.2 years [11.1 to 18.6] in transmales during first year of GnRH analogues) out of 128 adolescents who started GnRH analogues. Participants were included if they met DSM-IV-TR criteria for gender dysphoria, had lifelong extreme gender dysphoria, were psychologically stable and were living in a supportive environment. No concomitant treatments were reported.	**Intervention** The intervention was GnRH analogue monotherapy (triptorelin 3.75 mg at 0, 2 and 4 weeks followed by intramuscular injections every 4 weeks, for at least 3 months). **Comparison** No comparator.	**Critical Outcomes** • No critical outcomes reported **Important outcomes** • Safety: liver and renal function.
Staphorsius et al. 2015 Cross-sectional (single time point) assessment single centre study Netherlands	This study was conducted at the VU University Medical Centre (Amsterdam, Netherlands) and involved adolescents with gender dysphoria. The sample size was 85, of whom 40 were adolescents with gender dysphoria (20 of whom were being treated with GnRH analogues) and 45 were controls without gender dysphoria (not further reported here). Mean (±SD) age 15.1 (±2.4) years in transfemales and 15.8 (±1.9) years in transmales. Details of the sampling frame are not reported. Participants were included if they were diagnosed with Gender Identity Disorder according to the DSM-IV-TR and at least 12 years old and Tanner stage of at least B2 or G2 to G3 with measurable oestradiol and testosterone levels in girls and boys, respectively. No concomitant treatments were reported.	**Intervention** The intervention was a GnRH analogue (triptorelin 3.75 mg every 4 weeks subcutaneously or intramuscularly). The mean duration of treatment was 1.6 years (SD ±1.0). **Comparison** Adolescents with gender dysphoria not treated with GnRH analogues.	**Critical Outcomes** • No critical outcomes reported **Important outcomes** • Psychosocial impact • Safety: cognitive functioning
Vlot et al. 2017 Retrospective observational data analysis study Netherlands	This study was conducted at the VU University Medical Centre (Amsterdam, Netherlands) and involved adolescents with gender dysphoria. The sample size was 70 adolescents (median age [range] 15.1 years [11.7 to 18.6] for transmales and 13.5 years [11.5 to	**Intervention** The intervention was a GnRH analogue (triptorelin 3.75 mg every 4 weeks subcutaneously). **Comparison** No comparator.	**Critical Outcomes** • No critical outcomes reported **Important outcomes**

Study	Population	Intervention and comparison	Outcomes reported
	18.3] for transfemales at start of GnRH analogues). Details of the sampling frame are not reported. Participants were included if they had a diagnosis of gender dysphoria according to DSM-IV-TR criteria who were receiving GnRH analogues and then gender-affirming hormones. No concomitant treatments were reported.		• Safety: bone density
Abbreviations: DSM-IV-TR, Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fourth edition, text revision; GnRH, Gonadotrophin releasing hormone; SD, Standard deviation.			

5. Results

In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the clinical effectiveness of treatment with GnRH analogues compared with one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?

Outcome	Evidence statement
Clinical Effectiveness	
Critical outcomes	
Impact on gender dysphoria **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is a critical outcome because gender dysphoria in children and adolescents is associated with significant distress and problems with functioning. One uncontrolled, prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence relating to the impact on gender dysphoria in adolescents, measured using the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale (UGDS). The UGDS is a validated screening tool for both adolescents and adults to assess gender dysphoria. It consists of 12 items, to be answered on a 1- to 5-point scale, resulting in a sum score between 12 and 60. The higher the UGDS score the greater the gender dysphoria. The study measured the impact on gender dysphoria at 2 time points: • before starting a GnRH analogue (mean [±SD] age: 14.75 [±1.92] years), and • shortly before starting gender-affirming hormones (mean [±SD] age: 16.64 [±1.90] years). The mean (±SD) UGDS score was not statistically significantly different at baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 53.20 [±7.91] versus 53.9 [±17.42], p=0.333) **(VERY LOW)**. **This study provides very low certainty evidence that treatment with GnRH analogues, before starting gender-affirming hormones, does not affect gender dysphoria.**

Impact on mental health: depression **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is a critical outcome because self-harm and thoughts of suicide have the potential to result in significant physical harm and, for completed suicides, the death of the young person. One uncontrolled, prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence relating to the impact on depression in children and adolescents with gender dysphoria. Depression was measured using the Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II). The BDI-II is a valid, reliable, and widely used tool for assessing depressive symptoms. There are no specific scores to categorise depression severity, but it is suggested that 0 to 13 is minimal symptoms, 14 to 19 is mild depression, 20 to 28 is moderate depression, and severe depression is 29 to 63. The study provided evidence for depression measured at 2 time points: • before starting a GnRH analogue (mean [±SD] age: 14.75 [±1.92] years), and • shortly before starting gender-affirming hormones (mean [±SD] age: 16.64 [±1.90] years). The mean (±SD) depression (BDI) score was statistically significantly lower (improved) from baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 8.31 [±7.12] versus 4.95 [±6.72], p=0.004) **(VERY LOW)**. **This study provides very low certainty evidence that treatment with GnRH analogues, before starting gender-affirming hormones, may reduce depression.**
Impact on mental health: anger **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is a critical outcome because self-harm and thoughts of suicide have the potential to result in significant physical harm and, for completed suicides, the death of the young person. One uncontrolled, prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence relating to the impact on anger in children and adolescents with gender dysphoria. Anger was measured using the Trait Anger Scale of the State-Trait Personality Inventory (TPI). This is a validated 20-item inventory tool which measures the intensity of anger as the disposition to experience angry feelings as a personality trait. Higher scores indicate greater anger. The study provided evidence for anger measured at 2 time points: • before starting a GnRH analogue (mean [±SD] age: 14.75 [±1.92] years), and • shortly before starting gender-affirming hormones (mean [±SD] age: 16.64 [±1.90] years). The mean (±SD) anger (TPI) score was not statistically significantly different at baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 18.29 [±5.54] versus 17.88 [±5.24], p=0.503) **(VERY LOW)**. **This study provides very low certainty evidence that treatment with GnRH analogues, before starting gender-affirming hormones, does not affect anger.**
Impact on mental health: anxiety	This is a critical outcome because self-harm and thoughts of suicide have the potential to result in significant physical harm and, for completed suicides, the death of the young person.

Certainty of evidence: very low	One uncontrolled, prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence relating to the impact on anxiety in children and adolescents with gender dysphoria. Anxiety was measured using the Trait Anxiety Scale of the State-Trait Personality Inventory (STAI). This is a validated and commonly used measure of trait and state anxiety. It has 20 items and can be used in clinical settings to diagnose anxiety and to distinguish it from depressive illness. Higher scores indicate greater anxiety. The study provided evidence for anxiety at 2 time points: • before starting a GnRH analogue (mean [±SD] age: 14.75 [±1.92] years), and • shortly before starting gender-affirming hormones (mean [±SD] age: 16.64 [±1.90] years). The mean (±SD) anxiety (STAI) score was not statistically significantly different at baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 39.43 [±10.07] versus 37.95 [±9.38], p=0.276) (**VERY LOW**). **This study provides very low certainty evidence that treatment with GnRH analogues, before starting gender-affirming hormones, does not affect levels of anxiety.**
Quality of life	This is a critical outcome because gender dysphoria in children and adolescents may be associated with a significant reduction in health-related quality of life. No evidence was identified.
Important outcomes	
Impact on body image **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because some children and adolescents with gender dysphoria may want to take steps to suppress features of their physical appearance associated with their sex assigned at birth or accentuate physical features of their desired gender. One uncontrolled, prospective observational longitudinal study provided evidence relating to the impact on body image (de Vries et al. 2011). Body image was measured using the Body Image Scale (BIS) which is a validated 30-item scale covering 3 aspects: primary, secondary and neutral body characteristics. Higher scores represent a higher degree of body dissatisfaction. The study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence for body image measured at 2 time points: • before starting a GnRH analogue (mean [±SD] age: 14.75 [±1.92] years), and • shortly before starting gender-affirming hormones (mean [±SD] age: 16.64 [±1.90] years). The mean (±SD) body image (BIS) scores for were not statistically significantly different from baseline compared with follow-up for: • primary sexual characteristics (n=57, 4.10 [±0.56] versus 3.98 [±0.71], p=0.145) • secondary sexual characteristics (n=57, 2.74 [±0.65] versus 2.82 [±0.68], p=0.569)

	• neutral body characteristics (n=57, 2.41 [±0.63] versus 2.47 [±0.56], p=0.620) **(VERY LOW)**. **This study provides very low certainty evidence that treatment with GnRH analogues, before starting gender affirming hormones, does not affect body image.**
Psychosocial impact: global functioning **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because gender dysphoria in children and adolescents is associated with internalising and externalising behaviours, and emotional and behavioural problems which may impact on social and occupational functioning. One uncontrolled, observational, prospective cohort study (de Vries et al 2011) and one prospective cross-sectional cohort study (Costa et al. 2015) provided evidence relating to psychosocial impact in terms of global functioning. Global functioning was measured using the Children's Global Assessment Scale (CGAS). The CGAS tool is a validated measure of global functioning on a single rating scale from 1 to 100. Lower scores indicate poorer functioning. One study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence for global functioning (CGAS) at 2 time points: • before starting a GnRH analogue (mean [±SD] age: 14.75 [±1.92] years), and • shortly before starting gender-affirming hormones (mean [±SD] age: 16.64 [±1.90] years). The mean (±SD) CGAS score was statistically significantly higher (improved) from baseline compared with follow-up (n=41, 70.24 [±10.12] versus 73.90 [±9.63], p=0.005) **(VERY LOW)**. One study (Costa et al. 2015) in adolescents with gender dysphoria who had 6 months of psychological support followed by either GnRH analogues and continued psychological support (the immediately eligible group) or continued psychological support only (the delayed eligible group who did not receive GnRH analogues) provided evidence for global functioning (CGAS) measured at 4 time points: • at baseline (T0) in both groups, • after 6 months of psychological support in both groups (T1), • after 6 months of GnRH analogues and 12 months of psychological support in the immediately eligible group and 12 months of psychological support only in the delayed eligible group (T2), and • after 18 months of psychological support and 12 months of GnRH analogues in the immediately eligible group and after 18 months of psychological support only in the delayed eligible group (T3). The mean [±SD] CGAS score was statistically significantly higher (improved) for all adolescents (including those not receiving GnRH analogues) at T1, T2 or T3 compared with baseline (T0). For the immediately eligible group (who received GnRH analogues) versus the delayed eligible group (who did not receive GnRH analogues) there were no statistically significant differences in CGAS

	scores between the 2 groups at baseline T0 (n=201, p=0.23), T1 (n=201, p=0.73), T2 (n=121, p=0.49) or T3 (n=71, p=0.14) time points. For the immediately eligible group (who received GnRH analogues), the mean (±SD) CGAS score was not statistically significantly different at: • T1 compared with T0 • T2 compared with T1 • T3 compared with T2. The mean (±SD) CGAS score was statistically significantly higher (improved) at: • T2 compared with T0 (n=60, 64.70 [±13.34] versus n=101, 58.72 [±11.38], p=0.003) • T3 compared with T0 (n=35, 67.40 [±13.39] versus n=101, 58.72 [±11.38], p<0.001) • T3 compared with T1 (n=35, 67.40 [±13.93] versus n=101, 60.89 [±12.17], p<0.001) **(VERY LOW)**. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that during treatment with GnRH analogues, global functioning may improve over time. However, there was no statistically significant difference in global functioning between GnRH analogues plus psychological support compared with psychological support only at any time point.**
Psychosocial impact: psychosocial functioning **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because gender dysphoria in children and adolescents is associated with internalising and externalising behaviours, and emotional and behavioural problems which may impact on social and occupational functioning. Two studies provided evidence for this outcome. One uncontrolled, observational, prospective cohort study (de Vries et al, 2011) and 1 cross-sectional observational study (Staphorsius et al. 2015) assessed psychosocial functioning using the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL) and the self-administered Youth Self-Report (YSR). The CBCL is a checklist parents complete to detect emotional and behavioural problems in children and adolescents. YSR is similar but is self-completed by the child or adolescent. The scales consist of a Total problems score, which is the sum of the scores of all the problem items. An internalising problem scale sums the anxious/depressed, withdrawn-depressed, and somatic complaints scores while the externalising problem scale combines rule-breaking and aggressive behaviour. The standard scores are scaled so that 50 is average for the child or adolescent's age and gender, with a SD of 10 points. Higher scores indicate greater problems, with a T-score above 63 considered to be in the clinical range. One study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence for psychosocial functioning (CBCL and YSR scores) at 2 time points: • before starting a GnRH analogue (mean [±SD] age: 14.75 [±1.92] years), and • shortly before starting gender-affirming hormones (mean [±SD] age: 16.64 [±1.90] years).

	At follow up, the mean (±SD) CBCL scores were statistically significantly lower (improved) compared with baseline for: • Total T score (n=54, 60.70 [±12.76] versus 54.46 [±11.23], p<0.001 • Internalising T score (n=54, 61.00 [±12.21] versus 52.17 [±9.81], p<0.001) • Externalising T score (n=54, 58.04 [±12.99] versus 53.81 [±11.86], p=0.001). At follow up, the mean (±SD) YSR scores were statistically significantly lower (improved) compared with baseline for: • Total T score (n=54, 55.46 [±11.56] versus 50.00 [±10.56], p<0.001) • Internalising T score (n=54, 56.04 [±12.49] versus 49.78 [±11.63], p<0.001) • Externalising T score (n=54, 53.30 [±11.87] versus 49.98 [±9.35], p=0.009). The proportion of adolescents scoring in the clinical range decreased from baseline to follow up on the CBCL total problem scale (44.4% versus 22.2%, p=0.001) and the internalising scale of the YSR (29.6% versus 11.1%, p=0.017) **(VERY LOW)**. One study (Staphorsius et al. 2015) assessed CBCL in a cohort of adolescents with gender dysphoria (transfemale: n=18, mean [±SD] age 15.1 [±2.4] years and transmale: n=22, mean [±SD] age 15.8 [±1.9] years) either receiving GnRH analogues (transfemale, n=8 and transmale, n=12), or not receiving GnRH analogues (transfemale, n=10 and transmale, n=10). The mean (±SD) CBCL scores for each group were (statistical analysis unclear): • transfemales (total) 57.8 [±9.2] • transfemales receiving GnRH analogues 57.4 [±9.8] • transfemales not receiving GnRH analogues 58.2 [±9.3] • transmales (total) 60.4 [±10.2] • transmales receiving GnRH analogues 57.5 [±9.4] • transmales not receiving GnRH analogues 63.9 [±10.5] **(VERY LOW)**. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that during treatment with GnRH analogues psychosocial functioning may improve, with the proportion of adolescents in the clinical range for some CBCL and YSR scores decreasing over time.**
Engagement with health care services **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because patient engagement with health care services will impact on their clinical outcomes. Two uncontrolled observational cohort studies provided evidence relating to loss to follow up, which could be a marker of engagement with health care services (Brik et al. 2018 and Costa et al. 2015). In one retrospective study (Brik et al. 2018), 9 adolescents (9/214, 4.2%) who had stopped attending appointments were excluded from the study between November 2010 and July 2019 **(VERY LOW)**.

	One prospective study (Costa et al. 2015) had evidence for a large loss to follow-up over time. The sample size at baseline (T0) and 6 months (T1) was 201, which dropped by 39.8% to 121 after 12 months (T2) and by 64.7% to 71 at 18 months follow-up (T3). No explanation of the reasons for loss to follow-up are reported **(VERY LOW)**. Due to their design there was no reported loss to follow-up in the other 3 effectiveness studies (de Vries et al 2011; Khatchadourian et al. 2014; Staphorsius et al. 2015). **These studies provide very low certainty evidence about loss to follow up, which could be a marker of engagement with health care services, during treatment with GnRH analogues. Due to the large variation in rates between studies no conclusions could be drawn.**
Impact on extent of and satisfaction with surgery	This is an important outcome because some children and adolescents with gender dysphoria may proceed to transitioning surgery. No evidence was identified.
Stopping treatment **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because there is uncertainty about the short- and long-term safety and adverse effects of GnRH analogues in children and adolescents with gender dysphoria. Two uncontrolled, retrospective, observational cohort studies provided evidence relating to stopping GnRH analogues. One study had complete reporting of the cohort (Brik et al. 2018), the other (Khatchadourian et al. 2014) had incomplete reporting of its cohort, particularly for transfemales where outcomes for only 4/11 were reported. Brik et al. 2018 narratively reported the reasons for stopping GnRH analogues in a cohort of 143 adolescents (38 transfemales and 105 transmales). Median age at the start of GnRH analogues was 15.0 years (range, 11.1–18.6 years) in transfemales and 16.1 years (range, 10.1–17.9 years) in transmales. Of these adolescents, 125 (87%, 36 transfemales, 89 transmales) subsequently started gender-affirming hormones after 1.0 (0.5–3.8) and 0.8 (0.3–3.7) years of GnRH analogues. At the time of data collection, the median duration of GnRH analogue use was 2.1 years (1.6–2.8). During the follow-up period 6.3% (9/143) of adolescents had discontinued GnRH analogues after a median duration of 0.8 years (range 0.1 to 3.0). The percentages and reasons for stopping were: • 2.8% (4/143) stopped GnRH analogues although they wanted to continue endocrine treatments for gender dysphoria: ○ 1 transmale stopped due to increase in mood problems, suicidal thoughts and confusion attributed to GnRH analogues ○ 1 transmale had hot flushes, increased migraines, fear of injections, stress at school and unrelated medical issues, and temporarily stopped treatment (after 4 months) and restarted 5 months later. ○ 1 transmale had mood swings 4 months after starting GnRH analogues. After 2.2 years had unexplained severe nausea and rapid weight loss and discontinued GnRH analogues after 2.4 years

	○ 1 transmale stopped GnRH analogues because of inability to regularly collect medication and attend appointments for injections. • 3.5% (5/143) stopped treatment because they no longer wished to receive gender-affirming treatment for various reasons **(VERY LOW)**. Khatchadourian et al. 2014 narratively reported the reasons for stopping GnRH analogues in a cohort of 26 adolescents (15 transmales and 11 transfemales), 42% (11/26) discontinued GnRH analogues during follow-up between 1998 and 2011. Of 15 transmales receiving GnRH analogues, 14 received testosterone during the observation period, of which: • 7 continued GnRH analogues after starting testosterone • 7 stopped GnRH analogues after a median of 3.0 years (range 0.2 to 9.2 years), of which: ○ 5 stopped after hysterectomy and salpingo-oophorectomy ○ 1 stopped after 2.2 years (transitioned to gender-affirming hormones) ○ 1 stopped after <2 months due to mood and emotional lability **(VERY LOW)**. Of 11 transfemales receiving GnRH analogues, 5 received oestrogen during the observation period, of which: • 4 continued GnRH analogues after starting oestrogen • 1 stopped GnRH analogues when taking oestrogen (no reason reported) **(VERY LOW)**. Of the remaining 6 transfemales taking GnRH analogues: • 1 stopped GnRH analogues after a few months due to emotional lability • 1 stopped GnRH analogues before taking oestrogen (the following year delayed due to heavy smoking) • 1 stopped GnRH analogues after 13 months due not to pursuing transition **(VERY LOW)**. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence for the number of adolescents who stop GnRH analogues and the reasons for this.**

Abbreviations: GnRH, gonadotrophin releasing hormone; SD, standard deviation.

In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the short-term and long-term safety of GnRH analogues compared with one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?

Outcome	Evidence statement
Safety	
Change in bone density: lumbar	This is an important outcome because puberty is an important time for bone development and puberty suppression may affect bone development, as shown by changes in lumbar bone density.

Certainty of evidence: very low	Three uncontrolled, observational, retrospective studies provided evidence relating to the effect of GnRH analogues on bone density (based on lumbar BMAD) between starting with a GnRH analogue and at 1 and 2 year intervals (Joseph et al. 2019), and between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones (Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017). All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales; also see subgroups table below. BMAD is a size adjusted value of BMD incorporating body size measurements using UK norms in growing adolescents. It was reported as g/cm^3 and as z-scores. Z-scores report how many standard deviations from the mean a measurement sits. A z-score of 0 is equal to the mean, a z-score of −1 is equal to 1 standard deviation below the mean, and a z-score of +1 is equal to 1 standard deviation above the mean. One retrospective observational study (Joseph et al. 2019, n=70) provided non-comparative evidence on change in lumbar BMAD increase using z-scores. • The z-score for lumbar BMAD was statistically significantly lower at 2 years compared with baseline in transfemales (z-score [±SD]: baseline 0.486 [0.809], 2 years −0.279 [0.930], p=0.000) and transmales (baseline −0.361 [1.439], 2 years −0.913 [1.318], p=0.001) **(VERY LOW)**. • The z-score for lumbar BMAD was statistically significantly lower at 1 year compared with baseline in transfemales (baseline 0.859 [0.154], 1 year −0.228 [1.027], p=0.000) and transmales (baseline −0.186 [1.230], 1 year −0.541 [1.396], p=0.006) **(VERY LOW)**. • Actual lumbar BMAD values in g/cm^3 were not statistically significantly different between baseline and 1 or 2 years in transfemales or transmales **(VERY LOW)**. Two retrospective observational studies (Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017, n=104 in total) provided non-comparative evidence on change in lumbar BMAD between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones. All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales; also see subgroups table below. In Klink et al. 2015 the z-score for lumbar BMAD was not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transfemales but was statistically significantly lower when starting gender-affirming hormones in transmales (z-score mean [±SD]: GnRH analogue 0.28 [±0.90], gender-affirming hormone −0.50 [±0.81], p=0.004). Actual lumbar BMAD values in g/cm^3 were not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transfemales or transmales **(VERY LOW)**. Vlot et al. 2017 reported change from starting GnRH analogues to starting gender-affirming hormones in lumbar BMAD by bone age. • The z-score for lumbar BMAD in transfemales with a bone age of <15 years was statistically significantly lower at starting gender-affirming hormone treatment than at starting GnRH

	analogues (z-score median [range]: GnRH analogue −0.20 [−1.82 to 1.18], gender-affirming hormone −1.52 [−2.36 to 0.42], p=0.001) but was not statistically significantly different in transfemales with a bone age ≥15 years **(VERY LOW)**. • The z-score for lumbar BMAD in transmales with a bone age of <14 years was statistically significantly lower at starting gender-affirming hormone treatment than at starting GnRH analogues (z-score median [range]: GnRH analogue −0.05 [−0.78 to 2.94], gender-affirming hormone −0.84 [−2.20 to 0.87], p=0.003) and in transmales with a bone age ≥14 years (GnRH analogue 0.27 [−1.60 to 1.80], gender-affirming hormone −0.29 [−2.28 to 0.90], p≤0.0001) **(VERY LOW)**. • Actual lumbar BMAD values in g/cm^3 were not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transfemales or transmales with young or old bone age **(VERY LOW)**. Two uncontrolled, observational, retrospective studies provided evidence for the effect of GnRH analogues on bone density (based on lumbar BMD) between starting GnRH analogues and either at 1 or 2 year intervals (Joseph et al. 2019), or starting gender-affirming hormones (Klink et al. 2015). All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales; also see subgroups table below. One retrospective observational study (Joseph et al. 2019, n=70) provided non-comparative evidence on change in lumbar BMD increase using z-scores. • The z-score for lumbar BMD was statistically significantly lower at 2 years compared with baseline in transfemales (z-score mean [±SD]: baseline 0.130 [0.972], 2 years −0.890 [±1.075], p=0.000) and transmales (baseline −0.715 [±1.406], 2 years −2.000 [1.384], p=0.000) **(VERY LOW)**. • The z-score for lumbar BMD was statistically significantly lower at 1 year compared with baseline in transfemales (z-score mean [±SD]: baseline −0.016 [±1.106], 1 year −0.461 [±1.121], p=0.003) and transmales (baseline −0.395 [±1.428], 1 year −1.276 [±1.410], p=0.000) **(VERY LOW)**. • With the exception of transmales, where lumbar BMD in kg/m^2 increased between baseline and 1 year (mean [±SD]: baseline 0.694 [±0.149], 1 year 0.718 [±0.124], p=0.006), actual lumbar BMD values were not statistically significantly different between baseline and 1 or 2 years in transfemales or between 0 and 2 years in transmales **(VERY LOW)**. One retrospective observational study (Klink et al. 2015, n=34) provided non-comparative evidence on change in lumbar BMD between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones. • The z-score for lumbar BMD was not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogue and starting gender-affirming hormone treatment in transfemales, but was statistically significantly lower when starting gender-affirming hormones in transmales (z-score mean [±SD]: GnRH analogue 0.17 [±1.18], gender-affirming hormone −0.72 [±0.99], p<0.001) **(VERY LOW)**.

	• Actual lumbar BMD in g/cm² was not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transfemales but was statistically significantly lower when starting gender-affirming hormones in transmales (mean [±SD]: GnRH analogues 0.95 [±0.12], gender-affirming hormones 0.91 [±0.10], p=0.006) **(VERY LOW)**. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that GnRH analogues reduce the expected increase in lumbar bone density (BMAD or BMD) compared with baseline (although some findings were not statistically significant). These studies also show that GnRH analogues do not statistically significantly decrease actual lumbar bone density (BMAD or BMD).**
Change in bone density: femoral **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because puberty is an important time for bone development and puberty suppression may affect bone development, as shown by changes in femoral bone density. Two uncontrolled, observational, retrospective studies provided evidence relating to the effect of GnRH analogues on bone density (based on femoral BMAD) between starting treatment with a GnRH analogue and starting gender-affirming hormones (Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017). All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales; also see subgroups table below. One retrospective observational study (Klink et al. 2015, n=34) provided non-comparative evidence on change in femoral area BMAD between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones. All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales. • The z-score for femoral area BMAD was not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transfemales or transmales **(VERY LOW)**. • Actual femoral area BMAD values were not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transmales or transfemales **(VERY LOW)**. One retrospective observational study (Vlot et al. 2017, n=70) provided non-comparative evidence on change in femoral neck (hip) BMAD between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones. All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales; also see subgroups table below. • The z-score for femoral neck BMAD in transfemales with a bone age of <15 years was not statistically significantly lower at starting gender-affirming hormones than at starting GnRH analogues (z-score median [range]: GnRH analogue −0.71 [−3.35 to 0.37], gender-affirming hormone −1.32 [−3.39 to 0.21], p≤0.1) or in transfemales with a bone age ≥15 years (GnRH analogue −0.44 [−1.37 to 0.93], gender-affirming hormone −0.36 [−1.50 to 0.46]) **(VERY LOW)**. • The z-score for femoral neck BMAD in transmales with a bone age of <14 years was not statistically significantly lower at starting gender-affirming hormones than at starting GnRH analogues (z-score median [range]: GnRH analogue −0.01

	[−1.30 to 0.91], gender-affirming hormone −0.37 [−2.28 to 0.47]) but was statistically significantly lower in transmales with a bone age ≥14 years (GnRH analogue 0.27 [−1.39 to 1.32], gender-affirming hormone −0.27 [−1.91 to 1.29], p=0.002) **(VERY LOW)**. • Actual femoral neck BMAD values were not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transfemales or in transmales with a young bone age, but were statistically significantly lower in transmales with a bone age ≥14 years (GnRH analogue 0.33 [0.25 to 0.39), gender-affirming hormone 0.30 [0.23 to 0.41], p≤0.01) **(VERY LOW)**. Two uncontrolled, observational, retrospective studies provided evidence for the effect of GnRH analogues on bone density (based on femoral BMD) between starting GnRH analogues and either at 1 or 2 year intervals (Joseph et al. 2019), or starting gender-affirming hormones (Klink et al. 2015). All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales; also see subgroups table below. One retrospective observational study (Joseph et al. 2019, n=70) provided non-comparative evidence on change in femoral neck BMD increase using z-scores. All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales. • The z-score for femoral neck BMD was statistically significantly lower at 2 years compared with baseline in transfemales (z-score mean [±SD]: baseline 0.0450 [±0.781], 2 years −0.600 [±1.059], p=0.002) and transmales (baseline −1.075 [±1.145], 2 years −1.779 [±0.816], p=0.001) **(VERY LOW)**. • The z-score for femoral neck BMD was statistically significantly lower at 1 year compared with baseline in transfemales (z-score mean [±SD]: baseline 0.157 [±0.905], 1 year −0.340 [±0.816], p=0.002) and transmales (baseline −0.863 [±1.215], 1 year −1.440 [±1.075], p=0.000) **(VERY LOW)**. • Actual femoral neck BMD values in kg/m^2 were not statistically significantly different between baseline and 1 or 2 years in transmales or transfemales **(VERY LOW)**. One retrospective observational study (Klink et al. 2015, n=34) provided non-comparative evidence on change in femoral area BMD between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones. All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales. • The z-score for femoral area BMD was not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transfemales, but was statistically significantly lower in transmales (z-score mean [±SD]: GnRH analogue 0.36 [±0.88], gender-affirming hormone −0.35 [±0.79], p=0.001) **(VERY LOW)**. • Actual femoral area BMD values were not statistically significantly different between starting GnRH analogues and starting gender-affirming hormones in transfemales, but were statistically significantly lower in transmales (mean [±SD] GnRH analogue 0.92 [±0.10], gender-affirming hormone 0.88 [±0.09], p=0.005) **(VERY LOW)**.

	These studies provide very low certainty evidence that GnRH analogues may reduce the expected increase in femoral bone density (femoral neck or area BMAD or BMD) compared with baseline (although some findings were not statistically significant). These studies also show that GnRH analogues do not statistically significantly decrease actual femoral bone density (femoral area BMAD or femoral neck BMD), apart from actual femoral area BMD in transmales.
Cognitive development or functioning **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because puberty is an important time for cognitive development and puberty suppression may affect cognitive development or functioning. One cross-sectional observational study (Staphorsius et al. 2015, n=70) provided comparative evidence on cognitive development or functioning in adolescents with gender dysphoria on GnRH analogues compared with adolescents with gender dysphoria not on GnRH analogues. Cognitive functioning was measured using an IQ test. Reaction time (in seconds) and accuracy (percentage of correct trials) were measured using the Tower of London (ToL) task. All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales; also see subgroups table below. No statistical analyses or interpretation of the results in these groups were reported: • IQ in transfemales (mean [±SD] GnRH analogue 94.0 [±10.3], control 109.4 [±21.2]). IQ transmales (GnRH analogue 95.8 [±15.6], control 98.5 [±15.9]. • Reaction time in transfemales (mean [±SD] GnRH analogue 10.9 [±4.1], control: 9.9 [±3.1]). Reaction time transmales (GnRH analogue 9.9 [±3.1], control 10.0 [±2.0]). • Accuracy score in transfemales (GnRH analogue 73.9 [±9.1], control 83.4 [±9.5]. Accuracy score in transmales (GnRH analogue 85.7 [±10.5], control 88.8 [±9.7]. **This study provides very low certainty evidence (with no statistical analysis) on the effects of GnRH analogues on cognitive development or functioning. No conclusions could be drawn.**
Other safety outcomes: kidney function **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because if renal damage (raised serum creatinine is a marker of this) is suspected, GnRH analogues may need to be stopped. One prospective observational study (Schagen et al. 2016, n=116) provided non-comparative evidence on change in serum creatinine between starting GnRH analogues and at 1 year. All outcomes were reported separately for transfemales and transmales; also see subgroups table below. • There was no statistically significant difference between baseline and 1 year for serum creatinine in transfemales (mean [±SD] baseline 70 [±12], 1 year 66 [±13], p=0.20). • There was a statistically significant decrease between baseline and 1 year for serum creatinine in transmales (baseline 73 [±8], 1 year 68 [±13], p=0.01). **This study provides very low certainty evidence that GnRH analogues do not affect renal function.**

Other safety outcomes: liver function **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because if treatment-induced liver injury (raised liver enzymes are a marker of this) is suspected, GnRH analogues may need to be stopped. One prospective observational study (Schagen et al. 2016, n=116) provided non-comparative evidence on elevated liver enzymes between starting GnRH analogues and during use. No comparative values or statistical analyses were reported. • Glutamyl transferase was not elevated at baseline or during use in any person. • Mild elevations of AST and ALT above the reference range were present at baseline but were not more prevalent during use than at baseline. • Glutamyl transferase, AST, and ALT levels did not significantly change from baseline to 12 months of use. **This study provides very low certainty evidence (with no statistical analysis) that GnRH analogues do not affect liver function.**
Other safety outcomes: adverse effects **Certainty of evidence: very low**	This is an important outcome because if there are adverse effects, GnRH analogues may need to be stopped. One uncontrolled, retrospective, observational cohort study (Khatchadourian et al. 2014) provided evidence relating to adverse effects from GnRH analogues. It had incomplete reporting of its cohort, particularly for transfemales where outcomes for only 4/11 were reported. Khatchadourian et al. 2014 reported adverse effects in a cohort of 26 adolescents (15 transmales and 11 transfemales) receiving GnRH analogues. Of these: • 1 transmale developed sterile abscesses; they were switched from leuprolide acetate to triptorelin, and this was well tolerated. • 1 transmale developed leg pains and headaches, which eventually resolved • 1 participant gained 19 kg within 9 months of starting GnRH analogues. **This study provides very low certainty evidence about potential adverse effects of GnRH analogues. No conclusions could be drawn.**

Abbreviations: ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; BMAD, bone mineral apparent density; BMD, bone mineral density; GnRH, gonadotrophin releasing hormone; IQ, intelligence quotient; NS, not significant; SD, standard deviation.

In children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the cost-effectiveness of GnRH analogues compared to one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?

Outcome	Evidence statement
Cost-effectiveness	No studies were identified to assess the cost-effectiveness of GnRH analogues for children and adolescents with gender dysphoria.

From the evidence selected, are there any subgroups of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria that may benefit from GnRH analogues more than the wider population of interest?

Subgroup	Evidence statement
Sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) **Certainty of evidence: Very low**	Some studies reported data separately for sex assigned at birth males (transfemales). This included some direct comparisons with sex assigned at birth females (transmales). **Impact on gender dysphoria** One uncontrolled prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence for gender dysphoria in sex assigned at birth males. See the clinical effectiveness results table above for a full description of the study. The mean (±SD) UGDS score was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at both baseline (T0) (n=not reported, mean UGDS score [±SD]: 47.95 [±9.70] versus 56.57 [±3.89]) and T1 (n=not reported, 49.67 [±9.47] versus 56.62 [±4.00]); between sex difference p<0.001 **(VERY LOW)**. One further prospective observational longitudinal study (Costa et al. 2015) provided evidence for the impact on gender dysphoria in sex assigned at birth males. See the clinical effectiveness results table above for a full description of the study. Sex assigned at birth males had a statistically significantly lower (improved) mean (±SD) UGDS score of 51.6 [±9.7] compared with sex assigned at birth females (56.1 [±4.3], p<0.001). However, it was not reported if this was baseline or follow-up **(VERY LOW)**. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales), gender dysphoria is lower than in sex assigned at birth females (transmales).** **Impact on mental health** One uncontrolled prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence for the impact on mental health (depression, anger and anxiety) in sex assigned at birth males. See the clinical effectiveness results table above for a full description of the study. • The mean (±SD) depression (BDI-II) score was not statistically significantly different in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at both baseline (T0) (n=not reported, mean BDI score [±SD]: 5.71 [±4.31] versus 10.34 [±8.24]) and T1 (n=not reported, 3.50 [±4.58] versus 6.09 [±7.93]), between sex difference p=0.057 • The mean (±SD) anger (TPI) score was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at both baseline (T0) (n=not reported, mean TPI score [±SD]: 5.22 [±2.76] versus 6.43 [±2.78]) and T1 (n=not reported, 5.00 [±3.07] versus 6.39 [±2.59]), between sex difference p=0.022 • The mean (±SD) anxiety (STAI) score was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males

compared with sex assigned at birth females at both baseline (T0) (n=not reported, mean STAI score [±SD]: 4.33 [±2.68] versus 7.00 [±2.36]) and T1 (n=not reported, 4.39 [±2.64] versus 6.17 [±2.69]), between sex difference p<0.001 **(VERY LOW)**.

This study provides very low certainty evidence that the impact on mental health (depression, anger and anxiety) may be different in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) compared with sex assigned at birth females (transmales). Over time there was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females for depression. However, sex assigned at birth males had statistically significantly lower levels of anger and anxiety than sex assigned at birth females at both baseline and follow up.

Impact on body image

One uncontrolled prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence relating to the impact on body image in sex assigned at birth males.

- The mean (±SD) BIS score for primary sex characteristics was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at both baseline (T0) (n=not reported, mean BIS score [±SD]: 4.02 [±0.61] versus 4.16 [±0.52]) and T1 (n=not reported, 3.74 [±0.78] versus 4.17 [±0.58]), between sex difference p=0.047
- The mean (±SD) BIS score for secondary sex was statistically significantly lower (improved) in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at both baseline (T0) (n=not reported, mean BIS score [±SD]: 2.66 [±0.50] versus 2.81 [±0.76]) and T1 (n=not reported, 2.39 [±0.69] versus 3.18 [±0.42]), between sex difference p=0.001
- The mean (±SD) BIS score for neutral body characteristics was not statistically significantly different in sex assigned at birth males compared with sex assigned at birth females at both baseline (T0) (n=not reported, mean BIS score [±SD]: 2.60 [±0.58] versus 2.24 [±0.62]) and T1 (n=not reported, 2.32 [±0.59] versus 2.61 [±0.50]), between sex difference p=0.777 **(VERY LOW)**.

This study provides very low certainty evidence that the impact on body image may be different in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) compared with sex assigned at birth females (transmales). Sex assigned at birth males are less dissatisfied with their primary and secondary sex characteristics than sex assigned at birth females at both baseline and follow up, but the satisfaction with neutral body characteristics is not different.

Psychosocial impact

One uncontrolled prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence for psychosocial impact in terms of global functioning (CGAS) and psychosocial functioning (CBCL and YSR) in sex assigned at birth males.

- Sex assigned at birth males had statistically higher mean (±SD) CGAS scores compared with sex assigned at birth

	females at both baseline (T0) (n=54, 73.10 [±8.44] versus 67.25 [±11.06]) and T1 (n=54, 77.33 [±8.69] versus 70.30 [±9.44]), between sex difference p=0.021 • There was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females for the CBCL Total T score at T0 or T1 (n=54, p=0.110) • There was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females for the CBCL internalising T score at T0 or T1 (n=54, p=0.286) • Sex assigned at birth males had statistically lower mean (±SD) CBCL externalising T scores compared with sex assigned at birth females at both T0 (n=54, 54.71 [±12.91] versus 60.70 [±12.64]) and T1 (n=54, 48.75 [±10.22] versus 57.87 [±11.66]), between sex difference p=0.015 • There was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females for the YSR Total T score at T0 or T1 (n=54, p=0.164) • There was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females for the YSR internalising T score at T0 or T1 (n=54, p=0.825) • Sex assigned at birth males had statistically lower mean (±SD) YSR externalising T scores compared with sex assigned at birth females at both T0 (n=54, 48.72 [±11.38] versus 57.24 [±10.59]) and T1 (n=54, 46.52 [±9.23] versus 52.97 [±8.51]), between sex difference p=0.004 **(VERY LOW)**. One uncontrolled, observational, prospective cohort study (Costa et al. 2015) provided evidence for psychosocial impact in terms of global functioning (CGAS) in sex assigned at birth males. • Sex assigned at birth males had statistically significant lower mean (±SD CGAS scores at baseline) compared with sex assigned at birth females (n=201, 55.4 [±12.7] versus 59.2 [±11.8], p=0.03) **(VERY LOW)**. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that psychosocial impact may be different in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) compared with sex assigned at birth females (transmales). However, no conclusions could be drawn.** **Change in bone density: lumbar** Three uncontrolled, observational, retrospective studies provided evidence relating to the effect of GnRH analogues on lumbar bone density in sex assigned at birth males (Joseph et al. 2019, Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017). See the safety results table above for a full description of the results. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that GnRH analogues reduce the expected increase in lumbar bone density (BMAD or BMD) in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales; although some findings were not statistically significant). These studies also show that GnRH analogues do not statistically significantly decrease actual lumbar bone density (BMAD or BMD) in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales).** **Change in bone density: femoral**

	Three uncontrolled, observational, retrospective studies provided evidence for the effect of GnRH analogues on femoral bone density in sex assigned at birth males (Joseph et al. 2019, Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017). See the safety results table above for a full description of the results. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that GnRH analogues may reduce the expected increase in femoral bone density (femoral neck or area BMAD or BMD) in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales; although some findings were not statistically significant). These studies also show that GnRH analogues do not statistically significantly decrease actual femoral bone density (femoral area BMAD or femoral neck BMD) in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales).** **Cognitive development or functioning** One cross-sectional observational study (Staphorsius et al. 2015) provided comparative evidence on cognitive development or functioning in sex assigned at birth males. See the safety results table above for a full description of the results. **This study provides very low certainty evidence (with no statistical analysis) on the effects of GnRH analogues on cognitive development or functioning in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales). No conclusions could be drawn.** **Other safety outcomes: kidney function** One prospective observational study (Schagen et al. 2016) provided non-comparative evidence on change in serum creatinine in sex assigned at birth males. See the safety results table above for a full description of the results. **This study provides very low certainty evidence that GnRH analogues do not affect renal function in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales).**
Sex assigned at birth females (transmales) **Certainty of evidence: Very low**	Some studies reported data separately for sex assigned at birth females (transmales). This included some direct comparisons with sex assigned at birth males (transfemales). **Impact on gender dysphoria** One uncontrolled prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) and one prospective observational longitudinal study (Costa et al. 2015) provided evidence for gender dysphoria in sex assigned at birth females. See the sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) row above for a full description of the results. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that in sex assigned at birth females (transmales), gender dysphoria is higher than in sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) at both baseline and follow up.** **Impact on mental health** One uncontrolled prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence relating to the impact on mental health (depression, anger and anxiety) in sex assigned at birth

	females. See the sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) row above for a full description of the results. **This study provides very low certainty evidence that the impact on mental health (depression, anger and anxiety) may be different in sex assigned at birth females (transmales) compared with sex assigned at birth males (transfemales). Over time there was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth females and sex assigned at birth males for depression. However, sex assigned at birth females had statistically significantly greater levels of anger and anxiety than sex assigned at birth males at baseline and follow up.** **Impact on body image** One uncontrolled prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence relating to the impact on body image in sex assigned at birth females. See the sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) row above for a full description of the results. **This study provides very low certainty evidence that the impact on body image may be different in sex assigned at birth females (transmales) compared with sex assigned at birth males (transfemales). Sex assigned at birth females are more dissatisfied with their primary and secondary sex characteristics than sex assigned at birth males at both baseline and follow up, but the satisfaction with neutral body characteristics is not different.** **Psychosocial impact** One uncontrolled prospective observational longitudinal study (de Vries et al. 2011) provided evidence for psychosocial impact in terms of global functioning (CGAS) and psychosocial functioning (CBCL and YSR) in sex assigned at birth females. One uncontrolled, observational, prospective cohort study (Costa et al. 2015) provided evidence for psychosocial impact in terms of global functioning (CGAS) in sex assigned at birth females. See the sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) row above for a full description of the results. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that psychosocial impact may be different in sex assigned at birth females (transmales) compared with sex assigned at birth males (transfemales). However, no conclusions could be drawn.** **Change in bone density: lumbar** Three uncontrolled, observational, retrospective studies provided evidence relating to the effect of GnRH analogues on lumbar bone density in sex assigned at birth females (Joseph et al. 2019, Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017). See the safety results table above for a full description of the results. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that GnRH analogues reduce the expected increase in lumbar bone density (BMAD or BMD) in sex assigned at birth females (transmales; although some findings were not statistically significant). These studies also show that GnRH analogues do not statistically**

	significantly decrease actual lumbar bone density (BMAD or BMD) in sex assigned at birth females (transmales). **Change in bone density: femoral** Three uncontrolled, observational, retrospective studies provided evidence relating to the effect of GnRH analogues on femoral bone density in sex assigned at birth females (Joseph et al. 2019, Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017). See the safety results table above for a full description of the results. **These studies provide very low certainty evidence that GnRH analogues may reduce the expected increase in femoral bone density (femoral neck or area BMAD or BMD) in sex assigned at birth females (transmales; although some findings were not statistically significant). These studies also show that GnRH analogues do not statistically significantly decrease actual femoral bone density (femoral area BMAD or femoral neck BMD) in sex assigned at birth females (transmales), apart from actual femoral area.** **Cognitive development or functioning** One cross-sectional observational study (Staphorsius et al. 2015) provided comparative evidence on cognitive development or functioning in sex assigned at birth females. See the safety results table above for a full description of the results. **This study provides very low certainty evidence (with no statistical analysis) on the effects of GnRH analogues on cognitive development or functioning in sex assigned at birth females (transmales). No conclusions could be drawn.** **Other safety outcomes: kidney function** One prospective observational study (Schagen et al. 2016) provided non-comparative evidence on change in serum creatinine in sex assigned at birth females (transmales). See the safety results table above for a full description of the results. **This study provides very low certainty evidence that GnRH analogues do not affect renal function in sex assigned at birth females (transmales).**
Duration of gender dysphoria	No evidence was identified.
Age at onset of gender dysphoria	No evidence was identified.
Age at which GnRH analogue started	No evidence was identified.
Age at onset of puberty	No evidence was identified.
Tanner stage at which GnRH analogue started	No evidence was identified.
Diagnosis of autistic spectrum disorder	No evidence was identified.

Diagnosis of mental health condition	No evidence was identified.

Abbreviations: BDI-II, Beck Depression Inventory-II; BIS, Body Image Scale; CBCL, Child Behaviour Checklist; CGAS, Children's Global Assessment Scale; SD, standard deviation; STAI, Trait Anxiety Scale of the State-Trait Personality Inventory; TPI, Trait Anger Scale of the State-Trait Personality Inventory; UGDS, Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale; YSR, Youth Self-Report

From the evidence selected,

(a) what are the criteria used by the research studies to define gender dysphoria, gender identity disorder and gender incongruence of childhood?

(b) what were the ages at which participants commenced treatment with GnRH analogues?

(c) what was the duration of treatment with GnRH analogues?

<table>
<tr><th>Outcome</th><th>Evidence statement</th></tr>
<tr><td>Diagnostic criteria</td><td>In 5 studies (Costa et al. 2015, Klink et al. 2015, Schagen et al. 2016, Staphorsius et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017) the DSM-IV-TR criteria of gender identity disorder was used.

The study by Brik et al. 2020 used DSM-V criteria. The DSM-V has one overarching definition of gender dysphoria with separate specific criteria for children and for adolescents and adults. The general definition describes a conflict associated with significant distress and/or problems functioning associated with this conflict between the way they feel and the way they think of themselves which must have lasted at least 6 months.

It was not reported how gender dysphoria was defined in the remaining 3 studies (VERY LOW).

From the evidence selected, all studies that reported diagnostic criteria for gender dysphoria (6/9 studies) used the DSM criteria in use at the time the study was conducted.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Age when GnRH analogues started</td><td>8/9 studies reported the age at which participants started GnRH analogues, either as the mean age (with SD) or median age (with the range):

<table>
<tr><th>Study</th><th>Mean age (±SD)</th></tr>
<tr><td>Costa et al. 2015</td><td>16.5 years (±1.3)</td></tr>
<tr><td>de Vries et al. 2011</td><td>13.6 years (±1.8)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Joseph et al. 2019</td><td>13.2 years (±1.4) in transfemales
12.6 years (±1.0) in transmales</td></tr>
<tr><td>Khatchadourian et al. 2014</td><td>14.7 years (±1.9)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Klink et al. 2015</td><td>14.9 years (±1.9) in transfemales
15.0 years (±2.0) in transmales</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th>Study</th><th>Median age (range)</th></tr>
<tr><td>Brik et al. 2020</td><td>15.5 years (11.1–18.6) in transfemales
16.1 years (10.1–17.9) in transmales</td></tr>
</table>
</td></tr>
</table>

	<table><tr><td>Schagen et al. 2016</td><td>13.6 years (11.6–17.9) in transfemales 14.2 years (11.1–18.6) in transmales</td></tr><tr><td>Vlot et al. 2017</td><td>13.5 years (11.5–18.3) in transfemales 15.1 years (11.7–18.6) in transmales</td></tr></table> Age at the start of GnRH analogues was not reported in Staphorsius et al. 2015, but participants were required to be at least 12 years **(VERY LOW)**. **The evidence included showed wide variation in the age (11 to 18 years old) at which children and adolescents with gender dysphoria started GnRH analogues.**
Duration of treatment	The duration of treatment with GnRH analogues was reported in 3/9 studies. The median duration was: • 2.1 years (range 1.6–2.8) in Brik et al. 2020. • 1.3 years (range 0.5–3.8) in transfemales and 1.5 years (range 0.25–5.2) in transmales in Klink et al. 2015. In Staphorsius et al. 2015, the mean duration was 1.6 years (SD ±1.0). In de Vries et al. 2011, the mean duration of time between starting GnRH analogues and gender-affirming hormones was 1.88 years (SD ±1.05). **The evidence included showed wide variation in the duration of treatment with GnRH analogues, but most studies did not report this information. Treatment duration ranged from a few months up to about 5 years.**

Abbreviations: DSM, Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders criteria; SD, standard deviation.

6. Discussion

A key limitation to identifying the effectiveness and safety of GnRH analogues for children and adolescents with gender dysphoria is the lack of reliable comparative studies. The lack of clear, expected outcomes from treatment with a GnRH analogue (the purpose of which is to suppress secondary sexual characteristics which may cause distress from unwanted pubertal changes) also makes interpreting the evidence difficult. The size of the population with gender dysphoria means conducting a prospective trial may be unrealistic, at least on a single centre basis. There may also be ethical issues with a 'no treatment arm' in comparative trials of GnRH analogues, where there may be poor mental health outcomes if treatment is withheld. However, the use of an active comparator such as close psychological support may reduce ethical concerns in future trials.

The studies included in this evidence review are all small, uncontrolled observational studies, which are subject to bias and confounding, and are of very low certainty as assessed using modified GRADE. All the included studies reported physical and mental health comorbidities and concomitant treatments very poorly. For example, very little data are reported on how many children and adolescents needed additional mental health support, and for what reasons, or whether additional interventions, and what form and duration (for example drug treatment or counselling) that took. This is a possible confounder for the treatment outcomes in the studies because changes in critical and important

outcomes may be attributable to external care rather than the psychological support or GnRH analogues used in the studies.

The studies that reported diagnostic criteria for gender dysphoria (6/9 studies) used the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) criteria in use at the time the study was conducted (either DSM-IV-TR or DSM-V). The definition was unclear in the remaining studies. There was wide variation in the ages at which participants started a GnRH analogue, typically ranging from about 11 to 18 years. Similarly, there was a wide variation in the duration of use, but few studies reported this.

Changes in outcome scores for clinical effectiveness were assessed for statistical significance in the 3 studies reporting these outcomes (Costa et al. 2015; de Vries et al. 2011; Staphorsius et al. 2015). However, there is relatively little interpretation of whether the changes in outcome scores seen in these studies are clinically meaningful.

For some outcomes there was no statistically significant difference from before starting GnRH analogues until just before starting gender-affirming hormones. These were the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale (UGDS) (which was assessed in 1 study de Vries et al. 2011), the Trait Anger (TPI) and Trait Anxiety (STAI) Scales (which were assessed in 1 study de Vries et al. 2011), and Body Image Scale (BIS) which was assessed in 1 study (de Vries et al. 2011).

The Beck Depression Inventory (BDI-II) was used in 1 study (de Vries et al. 2011) to assess change in depression from before starting GnRH analogues to just before starting gender-affirming hormones. The result is statistically significant, with the mean (±SD) BDI-II score decreasing from 8.31 (±7.12) at baseline to 4.95 (±6.27) at follow up (p=0.004). However, both scores fall into the minimal range using the general guidelines for interpretation of BDI-II (0 to 13 minimal, 14 to 19 mild depression, 20 to 28 moderate depression and 29 to 63 severe depression), suggesting that while statistically significant, it is unclear if this is a clinically meaningful change.

Psychosocial outcomes were assessed in 3 studies (Costa et al. 2015; de Vries et al. 2011; Staphorsius et al. 2015) using the Children's Global Assessment Scale (CGAS) and Child Behavior Checklist/Youth Self-Report (CBCL/YSR). The CGAS score was assessed in 2 studies (Costa et al. 2015; de Vries et al. 2011). In de Vries et al. 2011 the mean (±SD) CGAS score statistically significantly increased over time from 70.24 [±10.12] at baseline to 73.90 [±9.63] at follow up. CGAS scores are clinically categorised into 10 categories (10 to 1, 20 to 11 and so on until 100 to 91) and both scores reported were in a single category (71 to 80, no more than slight impairment) suggesting that while statistically significant, it is unclear if this is a clinically meaningful change. The Costa et al. 2015 study does highlight a larger change in CGAS scores from baseline to follow-up (mean [±SD] 58.72 [±11.38] compared with 67.40 [±13.39]), but whether this is clinically meaningful is unclear. The average score moved from the clinical category of 60 to 51 (variable functioning with sporadic difficulties) at baseline to 70 to 61 (some difficulty in a single area, but generally functioning pretty well) at follow up, but the large standard deviations suggest clinically significant overlaps between the scores from baseline to follow-up.

Psychosocial functioning using the CBCL/YSR was assessed in 2 studies (de Vries et al. 2011; Staphorsius et al. 2015). In de Vries et al. 2011 there was a statistically significant reduction in both CBCL and YSR scores from before starting GnRH analogues to just before

starting gender-affirming hormones. The study interpreted the CBCL/YSR with a proportion of adolescents who scored in the clinical range (a T-score above 63), which allows changes in clinically meaningful scores to be assessed, and proportions of adolescents in the clinical range for some CBCL and YSR scores decreased over time. One cross-sectional study (Staphorsius et al. 2015) assessed CBCL scores only, but it was unclear if this was the Total T score, or whether subscales of internalising or externalising scores were also assessed, and whether the results were statistically significant.

The 2 prospective observational studies (Costa et al. 2015; de Vries et al. 2011) are confounded by a number of common factors. Firstly, the single assessment of scores at baseline means it is unclear if scores were stable, already improving or declining before starting treatment. Secondly, in an uncontrolled study any changes in scores from baseline to follow-up could be attributed to a regression-to-mean, for example getting older has been positively associated with maturity and wellbeing. The studies use mean and standard deviations in the descriptive statistics and analyses; however, they do not report testing the normality of data which would support the use of parametric measures. The study by de Vries et al. 2011 used general linear models (regression) to examine between and within group variances (changes in outcomes). In using such models, the data is assumed to be balanced (measured at regular intervals and without missing data), but the large ranges in ages at which participants were assessed and started on various interventions suggests that ascertainment of outcome was unlikely to be regular and missing data was likely. Missing data was handled through listwise deletion (omits those cases with the missing data and analyses the remaining data) which is acceptable if data loss is completely random but for some outcomes where there was incomplete data for individual items this was not random (items were introduced by the authors after the first eligible adolescents had started GnRH analogues). The study provided no detail on whether these assumptions for the modeling were met, they also provided no adequate assessment of whether any regression diagnostics (analysis that seek to assess the validity of a model) or model fit (how much of the variance in outcome is explained by the between and within group variance) were undertaken.

The 2 retrospective observational studies (Brik et al. 2020; Khatchadourian et al. 2014) both only report absolute numbers for each trajectory along with reasons for stopping GnRH analogues. It is difficult to assess outcomes from such single centre studies because there is little comparative data for outcomes from other such services. A lack of any critical or other important outcomes also means the success of the treatment across all the participants is difficult to judge.

Three uncontrolled, observational, retrospective studies provided evidence relating to the effect of GnRH analogues on bone density (Joseph et al. 2019; Klink et al. 2015; Vlot et al. 2017). In all 3 studies, the participants acted as their own controls and change in bone density was determined between starting GnRH analogues and either after 1 and 2 year follow-up timepoints (Joseph et al. 2019) or when gender-affirming hormones were started (Klink et al. 2015 and Vlot et al. 2017). Observational studies such as these can only show an association with GnRH analogues and bone density; they cannot show that GnRH analogues caused any differences in bone density seen. Because there was no comparator group and participants acted as their own controls, it is unclear whether the findings are associated with GnRH analogues or due to changes over time. The authors reported z-scores which allows for comparison with the expected increase in bone density in the

general population. However, because no concomitant treatments or comorbidities were reported it is possible that the findings may not be because of GnRH analogues and there is another way in which the study population differs from the general population.

All the studies are from a limited number of, mainly European, care facilities. They are described as either tertiary referral or expert services but the low number of services providing such care and publishing evidence may bias the results towards the outcomes in these services only and limit extrapolation.

The first study (Brik et al. 2020) was an uncontrolled, retrospective, observational study that assessed the outcome trajectories of adolescents receiving GnRH analogues for gender dysphoria. This study followed-up 143 individuals who had received GnRH analogues (38 transfemales and 105 transmales) using clinical records to show outcomes for up to 9 years (continuing use of GnRH analogues, reasons for stopping GnRH analogues and onward care such as gender-affirming hormone use). The methods and results are well reported, but no analysis of data was undertaken. The views of adolescents and their parents are particularly difficult to interpret because no data on how many responded to each question and in what ways are reported.

The second study (Costa et al. 2015) was an uncontrolled, prospective observational study which assessed global functioning in adolescents with gender dysphoria using CGAS every 6 months, including during the first 6 months where statistically significant improvements were seen without GnRH analogues. The study is confounded by significant unexplained loss to follow-up (64.7%: from n=201 adolescents to n=71 after 18 months). Missing data for those lost to follow-up maybe more than sufficient to change the direction of effects seen in the study if the reasons for loss to follow-up are systematic (such as deriving little or no benefit from treatment). The study uses clustered data in its analysis, a single outcome (CGAS) measured in clusters (at different visits), and the analysis does not take account of the correlation of scores (data at different time points are not independent) as a significant change in scores early in the study means the successive changes measured against baseline were also significant. The study relies on multiple (>20) pairwise independent *t*-tests to examine change in CGAS between the 4 time points, increasing the possibility of type-I error (a false positive which occurs when a researcher incorrectly rejects a true null hypothesis) because the more tests performed the more likely a statistically significant result will be observed by chance alone.

The Costa et al. 2015 study compares immediately eligible and delayed eligible cohorts, however, it is highly likely that they are non-comparable groups because the immediately eligible group were those able to start GnRH analogues straight away whilst those in the delayed eligible group were either not ready to make a decision about starting treatment (no age comparison was made between the 2 groups so it is unclear if they were a younger cohort than the immediately eligible group) or had comorbid mental health or psychological difficulties. The authors report that those with concomitant problems (such as mental health problems, substantial problems with peers, or conflicts with parents or siblings) were referred to local mental health services but no details are provided.

The third study (de Vries et al. 2011) was an uncontrolled, prospective observational study which assessed gender dysphoria and psychological functioning before and after puberty suppression in adolescents with gender dysphoria. Although the study mentions the DSM-IV-TR there is no explicit discussion of this, or any other criteria, being used as the

diagnostic criteria for study entry. There are no details reported for how the outcomes in the study were assessed, and by whom. The length of follow-up for the outcomes in the model are questionable in relation to whether there was sufficient time for GnRH analogues to have a measurable effect. The time points used are start of GnRH analogues and start of gender-affirming hormones. Overall, the mean time between starting GnRH analogues and gender-affirming hormones was 1.88 (±1.05) years, but the range is as low as just 5 months between the 2 time points, which may be insufficient for any difference in outcome to have occurred in some individuals.

The fourth study (Joseph et al. 2019) was a retrospective, longitudinal observational single centre study which assessed bone mineral density in adolescents with gender dysphoria in the UK. For inclusion in the study, participants had to have been assessed by the Gender Identity Development Service multi-disciplinary psychosocial health team for at least 4 assessments over a minimum of 6 months. No other diagnostic criteria, such as the DSM-IV-TR, are discussed. Bone density was assessed using dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (DAXA) scan of the lumbar spine (L1-L4) and the femoral neck at baseline (n=70), 1 year (n=70) and 2 years after starting GnRH analogues (n=39). The results suggest a possible association between GnRH analogues and bone mineral apparent density. However, the evidence is of poor quality, and the results could be due to bias or chance. No concomitant treatments or comorbidities were reported.

The fifth study (Khatchadourian et al. 2014) was an uncontrolled retrospective observational study which describes patient characteristics at presentation, treatment, and response to treatment in 84 adolescents with gender dysphoria, of whom 27 received GnRH analogues. The study used clinical records to show outcomes for up to 13 years (continuing use of GnRH analogues, reasons for stopping GnRH analogues and onward care such as gender-affirming hormone use). The methods are well reported but the results for those taking GnRH analogues are poorly and incompletely reported, particularly for transfemales, and no analysis of data was undertaken. It is difficult to assess the results for stopping GnRH analogues due to incomplete reporting of this outcome.

The sixth study (Klink et al. 2015) was a retrospective longitudinal observational single centre study which assessed bone mineral density in adolescents with gender dysphoria, diagnosed with the DSM-IV-TR criteria. Bone density was assessed when starting GnRH analogues and then when starting gender-affirming hormones. Results are reported for transmales and transfemales separately and no results for the whole cohort are given. Statistical analyses were reported for all outcomes of interest but, because there was no comparator group and participants acted as their own controls, it is not known whether the findings are associated with GnRH analogues or due to changes over time. The authors reported z-scores which allows for comparison with the expected increase in bone density in the general population. However, because no concomitant treatments or comorbidities were reported it is possible that the findings may not be because of GnRH analogues and there is another way in which the study population differs from the general population.

The seventh study (Schagen et al. 2016) was a prospective observational study of 116 adolescents which provided very low certainty non-comparative evidence on change in serum creatinine between starting GnRH analogues and 1 year, and liver function during treatment. Statistical analyses were reported for changes in serum creatinine but not for liver function. Because there was no comparator group and participants acted as their own

controls, it is not known whether the findings are associated with GnRH analogues or due to changes over time, or concomitant treatments.

The eighth study (Staphorsius et al. 2015) was a cross-sectional study of 85 adolescents, 40 with gender dysphoria (of whom 20 were receiving GnRH analogues) and 45 matched controls (not further reported in this evidence review). The study includes 1 outcome of interest for clinical effectiveness (CBCL) and 1 outcome of interest for safety (cognitive development or functioning). The mean (±SD) CBCL, IQ test, reaction time and accuracy scores were given for each group, but the statistical analysis is unclear. It is not reported what analysis was used or which of the groups were compared, therefore it is difficult to interpret the results.

The ninth study (Vlot et al. 2017) was a retrospective observational study which assessed bone mineral apparent density in adolescents with DSM-IV-TR gender dysphoria. Measurements were taken at the start of GnRH analogues and at the start of gender-affirming hormones. Results are reported for young bone age and old bone age in transmales and transfemales separately, and no results for the whole cohort are given. Statistical analyses were reported for all outcomes of interest but, because there was no comparator group and participants acted as their own controls, it is not known whether the findings are associated with GnRH analogues or due to changes over time. The authors reported z-scores which allows for comparison with the expected increase in bone density in the general population. However, because no concomitant treatments or comorbidities were reported it is possible that the findings may not be because of GnRH analogues and there is another way in which the study population differs from the general population.

7. Conclusion

The results of the studies that reported impact on the critical outcomes of gender dysphoria and mental health (depression, anger and anxiety), and the important outcomes of body image and psychosocial impact (global and psychosocial functioning) in children and adolescents with gender dysphoria are of very low certainty using modified GRADE. They suggest little change with GnRH analogues from baseline to follow-up.

Studies that found differences in outcomes could represent changes that are either of questionable clinical value, or the studies themselves are not reliable and changes could be due to confounding, bias or chance. It is plausible, however, that a lack of difference in scores from baseline to follow-up is the effect of GnRH analogues in children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, in whom the development of secondary sexual characteristics might be expected to be associated with an increased impact on gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, anger and distress over time without treatment. One study reported statistically significant reductions in the Child Behaviour Checklist/Youth Self-Report (CBCL/YSR) scores from baseline to follow up, and given that the purpose of GnRH analogues is to reduce distress caused by the development of secondary sexual characteristics and the CBCL/YSR in part measures distress, this could be an important finding. However, as the studies all lack reasonable controls not receiving GnRH analogues, the natural history of the outcomes measured in the studies is not known and any positive changes could be a regression to mean.

The results of the studies that reported bone density outcomes suggest that GnRH analogues may reduce the increase in bone density which is expected during puberty. However, as the studies themselves are not reliable, the results could be due to confounding, bias or chance. While controlled trials may not be possible, comparative studies are needed to understand this association and whether the effects of GnRH analogues on bone density are seen after treatment is stopped. All the studies that reported safety outcomes provided very low certainty evidence.

No cost-effectiveness evidence was found to determine whether or not GnRH analogues are cost-effective for children and adolescents with gender dysphoria.

The results of the studies that reported outcomes for subgroups of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, suggest there may be differences between sex assigned at birth males (transfemales) and sex assigned at birth females (transmales).

Appendix A PICO document

The review questions for this evidence review are:

1. For children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the clinical effectiveness of treatment with GnRH analogues compared with one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?
2. For children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the short-term and long-term safety of GnRH analogues compared with one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?
3. For children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, what is the cost-effectiveness of GnRH analogues compared to one or a combination of psychological support, social transitioning to the desired gender or no intervention?
4. From the evidence selected, are there any subgroups of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria that may derive more (or less) advantage from treatment with GnRH analogues than the wider population of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria?
5. From the evidence selected,
   a) what are the criteria used by the research studies to define gender dysphoria, gender identity disorder and gender incongruence of childhood?
   b) what were the ages at which participants commenced treatment with GnRH analogues?
   c) what was the duration of treatment with GnRH analogues?

PICO table

P – Population and Indication	Children and adolescents aged 18 years or less who have gender dysphoria, gender identity disorder or gender incongruence of childhood as defined by study: The following subgroups of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, gender identity disorder or gender incongruence of childhood need to be considered: • Sex assigned at birth males. • Sex assigned at birth females. • The duration of gender dysphoria: less than 6 months, 6-24 months, and more than 24 months. • The age of onset of gender dysphoria. • The age at which treatment was initiated. • The age of onset of puberty. • Tanner stage at which treatment was initiated. • Children and adolescents with gender dysphoria who have a pre-existing diagnosis of autistic spectrum disorder. • Children and adolescents with gender dysphoria who had a significant mental health symptom load at diagnosis including anxiety, depression (with or without a history of self-harm and suicidality), suicide attempts, psychosis, personality disorder, Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder and eating disorders.
I – Intervention	Any GnRH analogue including: triptorelin*; buserelin; histrelin; goserelin (Zoladex); leuprorelin/leuprolide (Prostap); nafarelin.

	* Triptorelin (brand names Gonapeptyl and Decapeptyl) are used in Leeds Hospital, England. The search should include brand names as well as generic names.
C – Comparator(s)	One or a combination of: • Psychological support. • Social transitioning to the gender with which the individual identifies. • No intervention.
O – Outcomes	There are no known minimal clinically important differences and there are no preferred timepoints for the outcome measures selected. **All outcomes should be stratified by:** • The age at which treatment with GnRH analogues was initiated. • The length of treatment with GnRH analogues where possible. **A: Clinical Effectiveness** *Critical to decision making* • **Impact on Gender Dysphoria** This outcome is critical because gender dysphoria in adolescents and children is associated with significant distress and problems functioning. Impact on gender dysphoria may be measured by the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale. Other measures as reported in studies may be used as an alternative to the stated measure. • **Impact on mental health** Examples of mental health problems include self-harm, thoughts of suicide, suicide attempts, eating disorders, depression/low mood and anxiety. These outcomes are critical because self-harm and thoughts of suicide have the potential to result in significant physical harm and for completed suicides the death of the young person. Disordered eating habits may cause significant morbidity in young people. Depression and anxiety are also critical outcomes because they may impact on social, occupational, or other areas of functioning of children and adolescents. The Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Assessment (CAPA) may be used to measure depression and anxiety. The impact on self-harm and suicidality (ideation and behaviour) may be measured using the Suicide Ideation Questionnaire Junior. Other measures may be used as an alternative to the stated measures. • **Impact on Quality of Life** This outcome is critical because gender dysphoria in children and adolescents may be associated with a significant reduction in health-related quality of life. Quality of Life may be measured by the KINDL questionnaire, Kidscreen 52. Other measures as reported in studies may be used as an alternative to the stated measure. *Important to decision making* • **Impact on body Image** This outcome is important because some transgender young people may desire to take steps to suppress features of their physical appearance associated with their sex assigned at birth or accentuate physical features of their desired gender. The Body Image Scale could be used as a measure. Other measures

	as reported in studies may also be used as an alternative to the stated measure. • **Psychosocial Impact** Examples of psychosocial impact are: coping mechanisms which may impact on substance misuse; family relationships; peer relationships. This outcome is important because gender dysphoria in adolescents and children is associated with internalising and externalising behaviours and emotional and behavioural problems which may impact on social and occupational functioning. The child behavioural check list (CBCL) may be used to measure the impact on psychosocial functioning. Other measures as reported in studies may be used as an alternative to the stated measure. • **Engagement with health care services** This outcome is important because patient engagement with healthcare services will impact on their clinical outcomes. Engagement with health care services may be measured using the Youth Health Care measure-satisfaction, utilization, and needs (YHC-SUN) questionnaire. Loss to follow up should also be ascertained as part of this outcome. Alternative measures to the YHC-SUN questionnaire may be used as reported in studies. • **Transitioning surgery – Impact on extent of and satisfaction with surgery** This outcome is important because some children and adolescents with gender dysphoria may proceed to transitioning surgery. Stated measures of the extent of transitioning surgery and satisfaction with surgery in studies may be reported. • **Stopping treatment** The proportion of patients who stop treatment with GnRH analogues and the reasons why. This outcome is important to patients because there is uncertainty about the short- and long-term safety and adverse effects of GnRH analogues in children and adolescents being treated for gender dysphoria. **B: Safety** • Short and long-term safety and adverse effects of taking GnRH analogues are important because GnRH analogues are not licensed for the treatment of adolescents and children with gender dysphoria. Aspects to be reported on should include: o Impact of the drug use such as its impact on bone density, arterial hypertension, cognitive development/functioning o Impact of withdrawing the drug such as, slipped upper femoral epiphysis, reversibility on the reproductive system, and any others as reported. **C: Cost effectiveness** Cost effectiveness studies should be reported.
Inclusion criteria	
Study design	Systematic reviews, randomised controlled trials, controlled clinical trials, cohort studies. If no higher level quality evidence is found, case series can be considered.

Language	English only
Patients	Human studies only
Age	18 years or less
Date limits	2000-2020
Exclusion criteria	
Publication type	Conference abstracts, non-systematic reviews, narrative reviews, commentaries, letters, editorials, guidelines and pre-publication prints
Study design	Case reports, resource utilisation studies

Appendix B Search strategy

Medline, Embase, the Cochrane Library, HTA and APA PsycInfo were searched on 23 July 2020, limiting the search to papers published in English language in the last 20 years. Conference abstracts and letters were excluded.

Database: Medline
Platform: Ovid
Version: Ovid MEDLINE(R) <1946 to July 21, 2020>
Search date: 23/7/2020
Number of results retrieved: 144
Search strategy:

1 Gender Dysphoria/ (485)
2 Gender Identity/ (18452)
3 "Sexual and Gender Disorders"/ (75)
4 Transsexualism/ (3758)
5 Transgender Persons/ (3143)
6 Health Services for Transgender Persons/ (136)
7 exp Sex Reassignment Procedures/ (836)
8 (gender* adj3 (dysphori* or affirm* or incongruen* or identi* or disorder* or confus* or minorit* or queer*)).tw. (7435)
9 (transgend* or transex* or transsex* or transfem* or transwom* or transma* or transmen* or transperson* or transpeopl*).tw. (12678)
10 (trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*).tw. (102343)
11 ((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition*)).tw. (6974)
12 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m).tw. (114841)
13 or/1-12 (252702)
14 exp Infant/ or Infant Health/ or Infant Welfare/ (1137479)
15 (prematur* or pre-matur* or preterm* or pre-term* or infan* or newborn* or new-born* or perinat* or peri-nat* or neonat* or neo-nat* or baby* or babies or toddler*).ti,ab,in,jn. (852400)
16 exp Child/ or exp Child Behavior/ or Child Health/ or Child Welfare/ (1913257)

17 Minors/ (2574)
18 (child* or minor or minors or boy* or girl* or kid or kids or young*).ti,ab,in,jn. (2361686)
19 exp pediatrics/ (58118)
20 (pediatric* or paediatric* or peadiatric*).ti,ab,in,jn. (836269)
21 Adolescent/ or Adolescent Behavior/ or Adolescent Health/ (2024207)
22 Puberty/ (13278)
23 (adolescen* or pubescen* or prepubescen* or pre-pubescen* or pubert* or prepubert* or pre-pubert* or teen* or preteen* or pre-teen* or juvenil* or youth* or under*age*).ti,ab,in,jn. (424246)
24 Schools/ (38104)
25 Child Day Care Centers/ or exp Nurseries/ or Schools, Nursery/ (7199)
26 (pre-school* or preschool* or kindergar* or daycare or day-care or nurser* or school* or pupil* or student*).ti,ab,jn. (468992)
27 (("eight" or "nine" or "ten" or "eleven" or "twelve" or "thirteen" or "fourteen" or "fifteen" or "sixteen" or "seventeen" or "eighteen" or "nineteen") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (89353)
28 (("8" or "9" or "10" or "11" or "12" or "13" or "14" or "15" or "16" or "17" or "18" or "19") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (887838)
29 or/14-28 (5534171)
30 13 and 29 (79263)
31 (transchild* or transyouth* or transteen* or transadoles* or transgirl* or transboy*).tw. (7)
32 30 or 31 (79263)
33 Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone/ (27588)
34 (pubert* adj3 block*).ti,ab. (78)
35 ((gonadotrophin or gonadotropin) and releasing).ti,ab. (17299)
36 (GnRH adj2 analog*).ti,ab. (2541)
37 GnRH*.ti,ab. (20991)
38 "GnRH agonist*".ti,ab. (4040)
39 Triptorelin Pamoate/ (1906)
40 triptorelin.ti,ab. (677)
41 arvekap.ti,ab. (1)
42 ("AY 25650" or AY25650).ti,ab. (1)
43 ("BIM 21003" or BIM21003).ti,ab. (0)
44 ("BN 52014" or BN52014).ti,ab. (0)
45 ("CL 118532" or CL118532).ti,ab. (0)
46 Debio.ti,ab. (83)
47 diphereline.ti,ab. (17)
48 moapar.ti,ab. (0)
49 pamorelin.ti,ab. (0)
50 trelstar.ti,ab. (3)
51 triptodur.ti,ab. (1)
52 ("WY 42422" or WY42422).ti,ab. (0)
53 ("WY 42462" or WY42462).ti,ab. (0)
54 gonapeptyl.ti,ab. (0)
55 decapeptyl.ti,ab. (210)
56 salvacyl.ti,ab. (0)
57 Buserelin/ (2119)
58 buserelin.ti,ab. (1304)

59 bigonist.ti,ab. (0)
60 ("hoe 766" or hoe-766 or hoe766).ti,ab. (69)
61 profact.ti,ab. (2)
62 receptal.ti,ab. (30)
63 suprecur.ti,ab. (4)
64 suprefact.ti,ab. (22)
65 tiloryth.ti,ab. (0)
66 histrelin.ti,ab. (55)
67 "LHRH-hydrogel implant".ti,ab. (1)
68 ("RL 0903" or RL0903).ti,ab. (1)
69 ("SPD 424" or SPD424).ti,ab. (1)
70 goserelin.ti,ab. (875)
71 Goserelin/ (1612)
72 ("ici 118630" or ici118630).ti,ab. (51)
73 ("ZD-9393" or ZD9393).ti,ab. (0)
74 zoladex.ti,ab. (379)
75 leuprorelin.ti,ab. (413)
76 carcinil.ti,ab. (0)
77 enanton*.ti,ab. (23)
78 ginecrin.ti,ab. (0)
79 leuplin.ti,ab. (13)
80 Leuprolide/ (2900)
81 leuprolide.ti,ab. (1743)
82 lucrin.ti,ab. (11)
83 lupron.ti,ab. (162)
84 provren.ti,ab. (0)
85 procrin.ti,ab. (3)
86 ("tap 144" or tap144).ti,ab. (40)
87 (a-43818 or a43818).ti,ab. (3)
88 Trenantone.ti,ab. (1)
89 staladex.ti,ab. (0)
90 prostap.ti,ab. (6)
91 Nafarelin/ (327)
92 nafarelin.ti,ab. (251)
93 ("76932-56-4" or "76932564").ti,ab. (0)
94 ("76932-60-0" or "76932600").ti,ab. (0)
95 ("86220-42-0" or "86220420").ti,ab. (0)
96 ("rs 94991 298" or rs94991298).ti,ab. (0)
97 synarel.ti,ab. (12)
98 deslorelin.ti,ab. (263)
99 gonadorelin.ti,ab. (201)
100 ("33515-09-2" or "33515092").ti,ab. (0)
101 ("51952-41-1" or "51952411").ti,ab. (0)
102 ("52699-48-6" or "52699486").ti,ab. (0)
103 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (463)
104 cetrotide.ti,ab. (41)
105 ("NS 75A" or NS75A).ti,ab. (0)
106 ("NS 75B" or NS75B).ti,ab. (0)

107 ("SB 075" or SB075).ti,ab. (0)
108 ("SB 75" or SB75).ti,ab. (63)
109 gonadoliberin.ti,ab. (143)
110 kryptocur.ti,ab. (6)
111 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (463)
112 cetrotide.ti,ab. (41)
113 antagon.ti,ab. (17)
114 ganirelix.ti,ab. (138)
115 ("ORG 37462" or ORG37462).ti,ab. (3)
116 orgalutran.ti,ab. (20)
117 ("RS 26306" or RS26306).ti,ab. (5)
118 ("AY 24031" or AY24031).ti,ab. (0)
119 factrel.ti,ab. (11)
120 fertagyl.ti,ab. (11)
121 lutrelef.ti,ab. (5)
122 lutrepulse.ti,ab. (3)
123 relefact.ti,ab. (10)
124 fertiral.ti,ab. (0)
125 (hoe471 or "hoe 471").ti,ab. (6)
126 relisorm.ti,ab. (4)
127 cystorelin.ti,ab. (18)
128 dirigestran.ti,ab. (5)
129 or/33-128 (42216)
130 32 and 129 (416)
131 limit 130 to english language (393)
132 limit 131 to (letter or historical article or comment or editorial or news or case reports) (36)
133 131 not 132 (357)
134 animals/ not humans/ (4686361)
135 133 not 134 (181)
136 limit 135 to yr="2000 -Current" (144)

Database: Medline in-process
Platform: Ovid
Version: Ovid MEDLINE(R) In-Process & Other Non-Indexed Citations <1946 to July 21, 2020>
Search date: 23/7/2020
Number of results retrieved:
Search strategy: 42

1 Gender Dysphoria/ (0)
2 Gender Identity/ (0)
3 "Sexual and Gender Disorders"/ (0)
4 Transsexualism/ (0)
5 Transgender Persons/ (0)
6 Health Services for Transgender Persons/ (0)
7 exp Sex Reassignment Procedures/ (0)

8 (gender* adj3 (dysphori* or affirm* or incongruen* or identi* or disorder* or confus* or minorit* or queer*)).tw. (1645)
9 (transgend* or transex* or transsex* or transfem* or transwom* or transma* or transmen* or transperson* or transpeopl*).tw. (2333)
10 (trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*).tw. (20884)
11 ((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition*)).tw. (968)
12 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m).tw. (15513)
13 or/1-12 (39905)
14 exp Infant/ or Infant Health/ or Infant Welfare/ (0)
15 (prematur* or pre-matur* or preterm* or pre-term* or infan* or newborn* or new-born* or perinat* or peri-nat* or neonat* or neo-nat* or baby* or babies or toddler*).ti,ab,in,jn. (80723)
16 exp Child/ or exp Child Behavior/ or Child Health/ or Child Welfare/ (0)
17 Minors/ (0)
18 (child* or minor or minors or boy* or girl* or kid or kids or young*).ti,ab,in,jn. (321871)
19 exp pediatrics/ (0)
20 (pediatric* or paediatric* or peadiatric*).ti,ab,in,jn. (119783)
21 Adolescent/ or Adolescent Behavior/ or Adolescent Health/ (0)
22 Puberty/ (0)
23 (adolescen* or pubescen* or prepubescen* or pre-pubescen* or pubert* or prepubert* or pre-pubert* or teen* or preteen* or pre-teen* or juvenil* or youth* or under*age*).ti,ab,in,jn. (60264)
24 Schools/ (0)
25 Child Day Care Centers/ or exp Nurseries/ or Schools, Nursery/ (0)
26 (pre-school* or preschool* or kindergar* or daycare or day-care or nurser* or school* or pupil* or student*).ti,ab,jn. (69233)
27 (("eight" or "nine" or "ten" or "eleven" or "twelve" or "thirteen" or "fourteen" or "fifteen" or "sixteen" or "seventeen" or "eighteen" or "nineteen") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (10319)
28 (("8" or "9" or "10" or "11" or "12" or "13" or "14" or "15" or "16" or "17" or "18" or "19") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (112800)
29 or/14-28 (525529)
30 13 and 29 (9196)
31 (transchild* or transyouth* or transteen* or transadoles* or transgirl* or transboy*).tw. (3)
32 30 or 31 (9197)
33 Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone/ (0)
34 (pubert* adj3 block*).ti,ab. (19)
35 ((gonadotrophin or gonadotropin) and releasing).ti,ab. (1425)
36 (GnRH adj2 analog*).ti,ab. (183)
37 GnRH*.ti,ab. (1695)
38 "GnRH agonist*".ti,ab. (379)
39 Triptorelin Pamoate/ (0)
40 triptorelin.ti,ab. (72)
41 arvekap.ti,ab. (0)
42 ("AY 25650" or AY25650).ti,ab. (0)
43 ("BIM 21003" or BIM21003).ti,ab. (0)
44 ("BN 52014" or BN52014).ti,ab. (0)
45 ("CL 118532" or CL118532).ti,ab. (0)

46 Debio.ti,ab. (11)
47 diphereline.ti,ab. (6)
48 moapar.ti,ab. (0)
49 pamorelin.ti,ab. (0)
50 trelstar.ti,ab. (0)
51 triptodur.ti,ab. (0)
52 ("WY 42422" or WY42422).ti,ab. (0)
53 ("WY 42462" or WY42462).ti,ab. (0)
54 gonapeptyl.ti,ab. (0)
55 decapeptyl.ti,ab. (8)
56 salvacyl.ti,ab. (0)
57 Buserelin/ (0)
58 buserelin.ti,ab. (59)
59 bigonist.ti,ab. (0)
60 ("hoe 766" or hoe-766 or hoe766).ti,ab. (3)
61 profact.ti,ab. (0)
62 receptal.ti,ab. (0)
63 suprecur.ti,ab. (1)
64 suprefact.ti,ab. (2)
65 tiloryth.ti,ab. (0)
66 histrelin.ti,ab. (9)
67 "LHRH-hydrogel implant".ti,ab. (0)
68 ("RL 0903" or RL0903).ti,ab. (0)
69 ("SPD 424" or SPD424).ti,ab. (0)
70 goserelin.ti,ab. (68)
71 Goserelin/ (0)
72 ("ici 118630" or ici118630).ti,ab. (0)
73 ("ZD-9393" or ZD9393).ti,ab. (0)
74 zoladex.ti,ab. (6)
75 leuprorelin.ti,ab. (47)
76 carcinil.ti,ab. (0)
77 enanton*.ti,ab. (1)
78 ginecrin.ti,ab. (0)
79 leuplin.ti,ab. (1)
80 Leuprolide/ (0)
81 leuprolide.ti,ab. (121)
82 lucrin.ti,ab. (4)
83 lupron.ti,ab. (10)
84 provren.ti,ab. (0)
85 procrin.ti,ab. (0)
86 ("tap 144" or tap144).ti,ab. (0)
87 (a-43818 or a43818).ti,ab. (0)
88 Trenantone.ti,ab. (1)
89 staladex.ti,ab. (0)
90 prostap.ti,ab. (0)
91 Nafarelin/ (0)
92 nafarelin.ti,ab. (5)
93 ("76932-56-4" or "76932564").ti,ab. (0)

94 ("76932-60-0" or "76932600").ti,ab. (0)
95 ("86220-42-0" or "86220420").ti,ab. (0)
96 ("rs 94991 298" or rs94991298).ti,ab. (0)
97 synarel.ti,ab. (0)
98 deslorelin.ti,ab. (14)
99 gonadorelin.ti,ab. (13)
100 ("33515-09-2" or "33515092").ti,ab. (0)
101 ("51952-41-1" or "51952411").ti,ab. (0)
102 ("52699-48-6" or "52699486").ti,ab. (0)
103 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (31)
104 cetrotide.ti,ab. (5)
105 ("NS 75A" or NS75A).ti,ab. (0)
106 ("NS 75B" or NS75B).ti,ab. (0)
107 ("SB 075" or SB075).ti,ab. (0)
108 ("SB 75" or SB75).ti,ab. (2)
109 gonadoliberin.ti,ab. (4)
110 kryptocur.ti,ab. (1)
111 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (31)
112 cetrotide.ti,ab. (5)
113 antagon.ti,ab. (0)
114 ganirelix.ti,ab. (8)
115 ("ORG 37462" or ORG37462).ti,ab. (0)
116 orgalutran.ti,ab. (3)
117 ("RS 26306" or RS26306).ti,ab. (0)
118 ("AY 24031" or AY24031).ti,ab. (0)
119 factrel.ti,ab. (2)
120 fertagyl.ti,ab. (1)
121 lutrelef.ti,ab. (0)
122 lutrepulse.ti,ab. (0)
123 relefact.ti,ab. (0)
124 fertiral.ti,ab. (0)
125 (hoe471 or "hoe 471").ti,ab. (0)
126 relisorm.ti,ab. (0)
127 cystorelin.ti,ab. (1)
128 dirigestran.ti,ab. (0)
129 or/33-128 (2332)
130 32 and 129 (45)
131 limit 130 to english language (45)
132 limit 131 to yr="2000 -Current" (42)

Database: Medline epubs ahead of print
Platform: Ovid
Version: Ovid MEDLINE(R) Epub Ahead of Print <July 21, 2020>
Search date: 23/7/2020
Number of results retrieved: 8
Search strategy:

1 Gender Dysphoria/ (0)

2 Gender Identity/ (0)
3 "Sexual and Gender Disorders"/ (0)
4 Transsexualism/ (0)
5 Transgender Persons/ (0)
6 Health Services for Transgender Persons/ (0)
7 exp Sex Reassignment Procedures/ (0)
8 (gender* adj3 (dysphori* or affirm* or incongruen* or identi* or disorder* or confus* or minorit* or queer*)).tw. (486)
9 (transgend* or transex* or transsex* or transfem* or transwom* or transma* or transmen* or transperson* or transpeopl*).tw. (640)
10 (trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*).tw. (1505)
11 ((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition*)).tw. (178)
12 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m).tw. (2480)
13 or/1-12 (4929)
14 exp Infant/ or Infant Health/ or Infant Welfare/ (0)
15 (prematur* or pre-matur* or preterm* or pre-term* or infan* or newborn* or new-born* or perinat* or peri-nat* or neonat* or neo-nat* or baby* or babies or toddler*).ti,ab,in,jn. (15496)
16 exp Child/ or exp Child Behavior/ or Child Health/ or Child Welfare/ (0)
17 Minors/ (0)
18 (child* or minor or minors or boy* or girl* or kid or kids or young*).ti,ab,in,jn. (53563)
19 exp pediatrics/ (0)
20 (pediatric* or paediatric* or peadiatric*).ti,ab,in,jn. (22796)
21 Adolescent/ or Adolescent Behavior/ or Adolescent Health/ (0)
22 Puberty/ (0)
23 (adolescen* or pubescen* or prepubescen* or pre-pubescen* or pubert* or prepubert* or pre-pubert* or teen* or preteen* or pre-teen* or juvenil* or youth* or under*age*).ti,ab,in,jn. (13087)
24 Schools/ (0)
25 Child Day Care Centers/ or exp Nurseries/ or Schools, Nursery/ (0)
26 (pre-school* or preschool* or kindergar* or daycare or day-care or nurser* or school* or pupil* or student*).ti,ab,jn. (12443)
27 (("eight" or "nine" or "ten" or "eleven" or "twelve" or "thirteen" or "fourteen" or "fifteen" or "sixteen" or "seventeen" or "eighteen" or "nineteen") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (1416)
28 (("8" or "9" or "10" or "11" or "12" or "13" or "14" or "15" or "16" or "17" or "18" or "19") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (20166)
29 or/14-28 (88366)
30 13 and 29 (1638)
31 (transchild* or transyouth* or transteen* or transadoles* or transgirl* or transboy*).tw. (1)
32 30 or 31 (1638)
33 Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone/ (0)
34 (pubert* adj3 block*).ti,ab. (2)
35 ((gonadotrophin or gonadotropin) and releasing).ti,ab. (176)
36 (GnRH adj2 analog*).ti,ab. (30)
37 GnRH*.ti,ab. (223)
38 "GnRH agonist*".ti,ab. (49)
39 Triptorelin Pamoate/ (0)

40 triptorelin.ti,ab. (12)
41 arvekap.ti,ab. (0)
42 ("AY 25650" or AY25650).ti,ab. (0)
43 ("BIM 21003" or BIM21003).ti,ab. (0)
44 ("BN 52014" or BN52014).ti,ab. (0)
45 ("CL 118532" or CL118532).ti,ab. (0)
46 Debio.ti,ab. (2)
47 diphereline.ti,ab. (1)
48 moapar.ti,ab. (0)
49 pamorelin.ti,ab. (0)
50 trelstar.ti,ab. (0)
51 triptodur.ti,ab. (0)
52 ("WY 42422" or WY42422).ti,ab. (0)
53 ("WY 42462" or WY42462).ti,ab. (0)
54 gonapeptyl.ti,ab. (0)
55 decapeptyl.ti,ab. (0)
56 salvacyl.ti,ab. (0)
57 Buserelin/ (0)
58 buserelin.ti,ab. (7)
59 bigonist.ti,ab. (0)
60 ("hoe 766" or hoe-766 or hoe766).ti,ab. (0)
61 profact.ti,ab. (0)
62 receptal.ti,ab. (0)
63 suprecur.ti,ab. (0)
64 suprefact.ti,ab. (1)
65 tiloryth.ti,ab. (0)
66 histrelin.ti,ab. (2)
67 "LHRH-hydrogel implant".ti,ab. (0)
68 ("RL 0903" or RL0903).ti,ab. (0)
69 ("SPD 424" or SPD424).ti,ab. (0)
70 goserelin.ti,ab. (11)
71 Goserelin/ (0)
72 ("ici 118630" or ici118630).ti,ab. (0)
73 ("ZD-9393" or ZD9393).ti,ab. (0)
74 zoladex.ti,ab. (1)
75 leuprorelin.ti,ab. (13)
76 carcinil.ti,ab. (0)
77 enanton*.ti,ab. (1)
78 ginecrin.ti,ab. (0)
79 leuplin.ti,ab. (0)
80 Leuprolide/ (0)
81 leuprolide.ti,ab. (22)
82 lucrin.ti,ab. (0)
83 lupron.ti,ab. (2)
84 provren.ti,ab. (0)
85 procrin.ti,ab. (0)
86 ("tap 144" or tap144).ti,ab. (1)
87 (a-43818 or a43818).ti,ab. (0)

88 Trenantone.ti,ab. (0)
89 staladex.ti,ab. (0)
90 prostap.ti,ab. (0)
91 Nafarelin/ (0)
92 nafarelin.ti,ab. (4)
93 ("76932-56-4" or "76932564").ti,ab. (0)
94 ("76932-60-0" or "76932600").ti,ab. (0)
95 ("86220-42-0" or "86220420").ti,ab. (0)
96 ("rs 94991 298" or rs94991298).ti,ab. (0)
97 synarel.ti,ab. (0)
98 deslorelin.ti,ab. (3)
99 gonadorelin.ti,ab. (3)
100 ("33515-09-2" or "33515092").ti,ab. (0)
101 ("51952-41-1" or "51952411").ti,ab. (0)
102 ("52699-48-6" or "52699486").ti,ab. (0)
103 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (6)
104 cetrotide.ti,ab. (2)
105 ("NS 75A" or NS75A).ti,ab. (0)
106 ("NS 75B" or NS75B).ti,ab. (0)
107 ("SB 075" or SB075).ti,ab. (0)
108 ("SB 75" or SB75).ti,ab. (0)
109 gonadoliberin.ti,ab. (0)
110 kryptocur.ti,ab. (0)
111 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (6)
112 cetrotide.ti,ab. (2)
113 antagon.ti,ab. (1)
114 ganirelix.ti,ab. (1)
115 ("ORG 37462" or ORG37462).ti,ab. (0)
116 orgalutran.ti,ab. (0)
117 ("RS 26306" or RS26306).ti,ab. (0)
118 ("AY 24031" or AY24031).ti,ab. (0)
119 factrel.ti,ab. (0)
120 fertagyl.ti,ab. (0)
121 lutrelef.ti,ab. (0)
122 lutrepulse.ti,ab. (0)
123 relefact.ti,ab. (0)
124 fertiral.ti,ab. (0)
125 (hoe471 or "hoe 471").ti,ab. (0)
126 relisorm.ti,ab. (0)
127 cystorelin.ti,ab. (0)
128 dirigestran.ti,ab. (0)
129 or/33-128 (310)
130 32 and 129 (8)
131 limit 130 to english language (8)
132 limit 131 to yr="2000 -Current" (8)

Database: Medline daily update
Platform: Ovid

Version: Ovid MEDLINE(R) Daily Update <July 21, 2020>
Search date: 23/7/2020
Number of results retrieved: 1
Search strategy

1 Gender Dysphoria/ (4)
2 Gender Identity/ (38)
3 "Sexual and Gender Disorders"/ (0)
4 Transsexualism/ (2)
5 Transgender Persons/ (26)
6 Health Services for Transgender Persons/ (1)
7 exp Sex Reassignment Procedures/ (3)
8 (gender* adj3 (dysphori* or affirm* or incongruen* or identi* or disorder* or confus* or minorit* or queer*)).tw. (24)
9 (transgend* or transex* or transsex* or transfem* or transwom* or transma* or transmen* or transperson* or transpeopl*).tw. (39)
10 (trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*).tw. (87)
11 ((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition*)).tw. (15)
12 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m).tw. (181)
13 or/1-12 (358)
14 exp Infant/ or Infant Health/ or Infant Welfare/ (932)
15 (prematur* or pre-matur* or preterm* or pre-term* or infan* or newborn* or new-born* or perinat* or peri-nat* or neonat* or neo-nat* or baby* or babies or toddler*).ti,ab,in,jn. (981)
16 exp Child/ or exp Child Behavior/ or Child Health/ or Child Welfare/ (1756)
17 Minors/ (3)
18 (child* or minor or minors or boy* or girl* or kid or kids or young*).ti,ab,in,jn. (3672)
19 exp pediatrics/ (75)
20 (pediatric* or paediatric* or peadiatric*).ti,ab,in,jn. (1658)
21 Adolescent/ or Adolescent Behavior/ or Adolescent Health/ (2006)
22 Puberty/ (8)
23 (adolescen* or pubescen* or prepubescen* or pre-pubescen* or pubert* or prepubert* or pre-pubert* or teen* or preteen* or pre-teen* or juvenil* or youth* or under*age*).ti,ab,in,jn. (732)
24 Schools/ (56)
25 Child Day Care Centers/ or exp Nurseries/ or Schools, Nursery/ (5)
26 (pre-school* or preschool* or kindergar* or daycare or day-care or nurser* or school* or pupil* or student*).ti,ab,jn. (622)
27 (("eight" or "nine" or "ten" or "eleven" or "twelve" or "thirteen" or "fourteen" or "fifteen" or "sixteen" or "seventeen" or "eighteen" or "nineteen") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (98)
28 (("8" or "9" or "10" or "11" or "12" or "13" or "14" or "15" or "16" or "17" or "18" or "19") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (1301)
29 or/14-28 (6705)
30 13 and 29 (130)
31 (transchild* or transyouth* or transteen* or transadoles* or transgirl* or transboy*).tw. (0)
32 30 or 31 (130)
33 Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone/ (11)

34 (pubert* adj3 block*).ti,ab. (0)
35 ((gonadotrophin or gonadotropin) and releasing).ti,ab. (10)
36 (GnRH adj2 analog*).ti,ab. (2)
37 GnRH*.ti,ab. (14)
38 "GnRH agonist*".ti,ab. (4)
39 Triptorelin Pamoate/ (1)
40 triptorelin.ti,ab. (1)
41 arvekap.ti,ab. (0)
42 ("AY 25650" or AY25650).ti,ab. (0)
43 ("BIM 21003" or BIM21003).ti,ab. (0)
44 ("BN 52014" or BN52014).ti,ab. (0)
45 ("CL 118532" or CL118532).ti,ab. (0)
46 Debio.ti,ab. (1)
47 diphereline.ti,ab. (0)
48 moapar.ti,ab. (0)
49 pamorelin.ti,ab. (0)
50 trelstar.ti,ab. (0)
51 triptodur.ti,ab. (0)
52 ("WY 42422" or WY42422).ti,ab. (0)
53 ("WY 42462" or WY42462).ti,ab. (0)
54 gonapeptyl.ti,ab. (0)
55 decapeptyl.ti,ab. (0)
56 salvacyl.ti,ab. (0)
57 Buserelin/ (0)
58 buserelin.ti,ab. (0)
59 bigonist.ti,ab. (0)
60 ("hoe 766" or hoe-766 or hoe766).ti,ab. (0)
61 profact.ti,ab. (0)
62 receptal.ti,ab. (0)
63 suprecur.ti,ab. (0)
64 suprefact.ti,ab. (0)
65 tiloryth.ti,ab. (0)
66 histrelin.ti,ab. (0)
67 "LHRH-hydrogel implant".ti,ab. (0)
68 ("RL 0903" or RL0903).ti,ab. (0)
69 ("SPD 424" or SPD424).ti,ab. (0)
70 goserelin.ti,ab. (1)
71 Goserelin/ (2)
72 ("ici 118630" or ici118630).ti,ab. (0)
73 ("ZD-9393" or ZD9393).ti,ab. (0)
74 zoladex.ti,ab. (0)
75 leuprorelin.ti,ab. (0)
76 carcinil.ti,ab. (0)
77 enanton*.ti,ab. (0)
78 ginecrin.ti,ab. (0)
79 leuplin.ti,ab. (0)
80 Leuprolide/ (0)
81 leuprolide.ti,ab. (0)

82 lucrin.ti,ab. (0)
83 lupron.ti,ab. (0)
84 provren.ti,ab. (0)
85 procrin.ti,ab. (0)
86 ("tap 144" or tap144).ti,ab. (0)
87 (a-43818 or a43818).ti,ab. (0)
88 Trenantone.ti,ab. (0)
89 staladex.ti,ab. (0)
90 prostap.ti,ab. (0)
91 Nafarelin/ (0)
92 nafarelin.ti,ab. (0)
93 ("76932-56-4" or "76932564").ti,ab. (0)
94 ("76932-60-0" or "76932600").ti,ab. (0)
95 ("86220-42-0" or "86220420").ti,ab. (0)
96 ("rs 94991 298" or rs94991298).ti,ab. (0)
97 synarel.ti,ab. (0)
98 deslorelin.ti,ab. (0)
99 gonadorelin.ti,ab. (0)
100 ("33515-09-2" or "33515092").ti,ab. (0)
101 ("51952-41-1" or "51952411").ti,ab. (0)
102 ("52699-48-6" or "52699486").ti,ab. (0)
103 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (0)
104 cetrotide.ti,ab. (0)
105 ("NS 75A" or NS75A).ti,ab. (0)
106 ("NS 75B" or NS75B).ti,ab. (0)
107 ("SB 075" or SB075).ti,ab. (0)
108 ("SB 75" or SB75).ti,ab. (0)
109 gonadoliberin.ti,ab. (0)
110 kryptocur.ti,ab. (0)
111 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (0)
112 cetrotide.ti,ab. (0)
113 antagon.ti,ab. (0)
114 ganirelix.ti,ab. (0)
115 ("ORG 37462" or ORG37462).ti,ab. (0)
116 orgalutran.ti,ab. (0)
117 ("RS 26306" or RS26306).ti,ab. (0)
118 ("AY 24031" or AY24031).ti,ab. (0)
119 factrel.ti,ab. (0)
120 fertagyl.ti,ab. (0)
121 lutrelef.ti,ab. (0)
122 lutrepulse.ti,ab. (0)
123 relefact.ti,ab. (0)
124 fertiral.ti,ab. (0)
125 (hoe471 or "hoe 471").ti,ab. (0)
126 relisorm.ti,ab. (0)
127 cystorelin.ti,ab. (0)
128 dirigestran.ti,ab. (0)
129 or/33-128 (23)

130 32 and 129 (1)
131 limit 130 to english language (1)
132 limit 131 to yr="2000 -Current" (1)

Database: Embase
Platform: Ovid
Version: Embase <1974 to 2020 July 22>
Search date: 23/7/2020
Number of results retrieved: 367
Search strategy:

1 exp Gender Dysphoria/ (5399)
2 Gender Identity/ (16820)
3 "Sexual and Gender Disorders"/ (24689)
4 Transsexualism/ (3869)
5 exp Transgender/ (6597)
6 Health Services for Transgender Persons/ (158848)
7 exp Sex Reassignment Procedures/ or sex transformation/ (3058)
8 (gender* adj3 (dysphori* or affirm* or incongru* or identi* or disorder* or confus* or minorit* or queer*)).tw. (13005)
9 (transgend* or transex* or transsex* or transfem* or transwom* or transma* or transmen* or transperson* or transpeopl*).tw. (22509)
10 (trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*).tw. (154446)
11 ((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition*)).tw. (10327)
12 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m).tw. (200166)
13 or/1-12 (582812)
14 exp juvenile/ or Child Behavior/ or Child Welfare/ or Child Health/ or infant welfare/ or "minor (person)"/ or elementary student/ (3437324)
15 (prematur* or pre-matur* or preterm* or pre-term* or infan* or newborn* or new-born* or perinat* or peri-nat* or neonat* or neo-nat* or baby* or babies or toddler*).ti,ab,in,jn. (1186161)
16 (child* or minor or minors or boy* or girl* or kid or kids or young*).ti,ab,in,jn. (3586795)
17 exp pediatrics/ (106214)
18 (pediatric* or paediatric* or peadiatric*).ti,ab,in,jn. (1491597)
19 exp adolescence/ or exp adolescent behavior/ or adolescent health/ or high school student/ or middle school student/ (105108)
20 (adolescen* or pubescen* or prepubescen* or pre-pubescen* or pubert* or prepubert* or pre-pubert* or teen* or preteen* or pre-teen* or juvenil* or youth* or under*age*).ti,ab,in,jn. (641660)
21 school/ or high school/ or kindergarten/ or middle school/ or primary school/ or nursery school/ or day care/ (103791)
22 (pre-school* or preschool* or kindergar* or daycare or day-care or nurser* or school* or pupil* or student*).ti,ab,jn. (687437)
23 (("eight" or "nine" or "ten" or "eleven" or "twelve" or "thirteen" or "fourteen" or "fifteen" or "sixteen" or "seventeen" or "eighteen" or "nineteen") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (138908)
24 (("8" or "9" or "10" or "11" or "12" or "13" or "14" or "15" or "16" or "17" or "18" or "19") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (1562903)

25 or/14-24 (7130881)
26 13 and 25 (182161)
27 (transchild* or transyouth* or transteen* or transadoles* or transgirl* or transboy*).tw. (17)
28 26 or 27 (182161)
29 gonadorelin/ (37580)
30 (pubert* adj3 block*).ti,ab. (142)
31 ((gonadotrophin or gonadotropin) and releasing).ti,ab. (21450)
32 (GnRH adj2 analog*).ti,ab. (4013)
33 GnRH*.ti,ab. (29862)
34 "GnRH agonist*".ti,ab. (6719)
35 exp gonadorelin agonist/ or gonadorelin derivative/ or gonadorelin acetate/ (23304)
36 Triptorelin/ (5427)
37 triptorelin.ti,ab. (1182)
38 arvekap.ti,ab. (3)
39 ("AY 25650" or AY25650).ti,ab. (1)
40 ("BIM 21003" or BIM21003).ti,ab. (0)
41 ("BN 52014" or BN52014).ti,ab. (0)
42 ("CL 118532" or CL118532).ti,ab. (0)
43 Debio.ti,ab. (185)
44 diphereline.ti,ab. (51)
45 moapar.ti,ab. (0)
46 pamorelin.ti,ab. (0)
47 trelstar.ti,ab. (5)
48 triptodur.ti,ab. (1)
49 ("WY 42422" or WY42422).ti,ab. (0)
50 ("WY 42462" or WY42462).ti,ab. (0)
51 gonapeptyl.ti,ab. (10)
52 decapeptyl.ti,ab. (307)
53 salvacyl.ti,ab. (1)
54 buserelin acetate/ or buserelin/ (5164)
55 buserelin.ti,ab. (1604)
56 bigonist.ti,ab. (1)
57 ("hoe 766" or hoe-766 or hoe766).ti,ab. (89)
58 profact.ti,ab. (4)
59 receptal.ti,ab. (37)
60 suprecur.ti,ab. (8)
61 suprefact.ti,ab. (30)
62 tiloryth.ti,ab. (0)
63 histrelin/ (446)
64 histrelin.ti,ab. (107)
65 "LHRH-hydrogel implant".ti,ab. (1)
66 ("RL 0903" or RL0903).ti,ab. (1)
67 ("SPD 424" or SPD424).ti,ab. (1)
68 goserelin.ti,ab. (1487)
69 Goserelin/ (7128)
70 ("ici 118630" or ici118630).ti,ab. (49)
71 ("ZD-9393" or ZD9393).ti,ab. (0)

72 zoladex.ti,ab. (501)
73 leuprorelin/ (11312)
74 leuprorelin.ti,ab. (727)
75 carcinil.ti,ab. (0)
76 enanton*.ti,ab. (38)
77 ginecrin.ti,ab. (1)
78 leuplin.ti,ab. (26)
79 leuprolide.ti,ab. (2788)
80 lucrin.ti,ab. (47)
81 lupron.ti,ab. (361)
82 provren.ti,ab. (0)
83 procrin.ti,ab. (11)
84 ("tap 144" or tap144).ti,ab. (63)
85 (a-43818 or a43818).ti,ab. (3)
86 Trenantone.ti,ab. (7)
87 staladex.ti,ab. (0)
88 prostap.ti,ab. (11)
89 nafarelin acetate/ or nafarelin/ (1441)
90 nafarelin.ti,ab. (324)
91 ("76932-56-4" or "76932564").ti,ab. (0)
92 ("76932-60-0" or "76932600").ti,ab. (0)
93 ("86220-42-0" or "86220420").ti,ab. (0)
94 ("rs 94991 298" or rs94991298).ti,ab. (0)
95 synarel.ti,ab. (28)
96 deslorelin/ (452)
97 deslorelin.ti,ab. (324)
98 gonadorelin.ti,ab. (338)
99 ("33515-09-2" or "33515092").ti,ab. (0)
100 ("51952-41-1" or "51952411").ti,ab. (0)
101 ("52699-48-6" or "52699486").ti,ab. (0)
102 cetrorelix/ (2278)
103 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (717)
104 cetrotide.ti,ab. (113)
105 ("NS 75A" or NS75A).ti,ab. (0)
106 ("NS 75B" or NS75B).ti,ab. (0)
107 ("SB 075" or SB075).ti,ab. (1)
108 ("SB 75" or SB75).ti,ab. (76)
109 gonadoliberin.ti,ab. (152)
110 kryptocur.ti,ab. (6)
111 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (717)
112 cetrotide.ti,ab. (113)
113 antagon.ti,ab. (32)
114 ganirelix/ (1284)
115 ganirelix.ti,ab. (293)
116 ("ORG 37462" or ORG37462).ti,ab. (4)
117 orgalutran/ (1284)
118 orgalutran.ti,ab. (68)
119 ("RS 26306" or RS26306).ti,ab. (6)

120 ("AY 24031" or AY24031).ti,ab. (0)
121 factrel.ti,ab. (14)
122 fertagyl.ti,ab. (20)
123 lutrelef.ti,ab. (7)
124 lutrepulse.ti,ab. (6)
125 relefact.ti,ab. (10)
126 fertiral.ti,ab. (0)
127 (hoe471 or "hoe 471").ti,ab. (4)
128 relisorm.ti,ab. (6)
129 cystorelin.ti,ab. (26)
130 dirigestran.ti,ab. (5)
131 or/29-130 (80790)
132 28 and 131 (988)
133 limit 132 to english language (940)
134 133 not (letter or editorial).pt. (924)
135 134 not (conference abstract or conference paper or conference proceeding or "conference review").pt. (683)
136 nonhuman/ not (human/ and nonhuman/) (4649157)
137 135 not 136 (506)
138 limit 137 to yr="2000 -Current" (420)
139 elsevier.cr. (25912990)
140 138 and 139 (372)
141 remove duplicates from 140 (367)

Database: Cochrane Library – incorporating Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR); CENTRAL
Platform: Wiley
Version:
CDSR – Issue 7 of 12, July 2020
CENTRAL – Issue 7 of 12, July 2020
Search date: 23/7/2020
Number of results retrieved: CDSR – 1; CENTRAL - 8.

#1 [mh ^"Gender Dysphoria"] 3
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#4 [mh ^transsexualism] 27
#5 [mh ^"transgender persons"] 36
#6 [mh ^"health services for transgender persons"] 0
#7 [mh "sex reassignment procedures"] 4
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#10 (trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*):ti,ab 3915
#11 ((sex or gender*) NEAR/3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition*)):ti,ab 493
#12 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m):ti,ab 489

#13 {or #1-#12} 6142
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#15 (prematur* or pre-matur* or preterm* or pre-term* or infan* or newborn* or new-born* or perinat* or peri-nat* or neonat* or neo-nat* or baby* or babies or toddler*):ti,ab 69476
#16 [mh child] or [mh "child behavior"] or [mh ^"child health"] or [mh ^"child welfare"] 42703
#17 [mh ^minors] 8
#18 (child* or minor or minors or boy* or girl* or kid or kids or young*):ti,ab 175826
#19 [mh pediatrics]661
#20 (pediatric* or paediatric* or peadiatric*):ti,ab 30663
#21 [mh ^adolescent] or [mh ^"adolescent behavior"] or [mh ^"adolescent health"] 102154
#22 [mh ^puberty] 295
#23 (adolescen* or pubescen* or prepubescen* or pre-pubescen* or pubert* or prepubert* or pre-pubert* or teen* or preteen* or pre-teen* or juvenil* or youth* or under*age*):ti,ab 34139
#24 [mh ^schools] 1914
#25 [mh ^"Child Day Care Centers"] or [mh nurseries] or [mh ^"schools, nursery"] 277
#26 (pre-school* or preschool* or kindergar* or daycare or day-care or nurser* or school* or pupil* or student*):ti,ab 54723
#27 (("eight" or "nine" or "ten" or "eleven" or "twelve" or "thirteen" or "fourteen" or "fifteen" or "sixteen" or "seventeen" or "eighteen" or "nineteen") NEAR/2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)):ti,ab 6710
#28 (("8" or "9" or "10" or "11" or "12" or "13" or "14" or "15" or "16" or "17" or "18" or "19") NEAR/2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)):ti,ab 196881
#29 {or #14-#28} 469351
#30 #13 and #29 2146
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#32 #30 or #31 2146
#33 [mh ^"Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone"] 1311
#34 (pubert* NEAR/3 block*):ti,ab 1
#35 ((gonadotrophin or gonadotropin) and releasing):ti,ab 2095
#36 (GnRH NEAR/2 analog*):ti,ab 493
#37 GnRH*:ti,ab 3764
#38 "GnRH agonist*":ti,ab 1399
#39 [mh ^"Triptorelin Pamoate"] 451
#40 triptorelin:ti,ab 451
#41 arvekap:ti,ab 4
#42 ("AY 25650" or AY25650):ti,ab 0
#43 ("BIM 21003" or BIM21003):ti,ab 0
#44 ("BN 52014" or BN52014):ti,ab 0
#45 ("CL 118532" or CL118532):ti,ab 0
#46 Debio:ti,ab 301
#47 diphereline:ti,ab 25
#48 moapar:ti,ab 0
#49 pamorelin:ti,ab 5
#50 trelstar:ti,ab 3

#51 triptodur:ti,ab 0
#52 ("WY 42422" or WY42422):ti,ab 0
#53 ("WY 42462" or WY42462):ti,ab 0
#54 gonapeptyl:ti,ab 11
#55 decapeptyl:ti,ab 135
#56 salvacyl:ti,ab 0
#57 [mh ^Buserelin] 290
#58 Buserelin:ti,ab 339
#59 bigonist:ti,ab 0
#60 ("hoe 766" or hoe-766 or hoe766):ti,ab 11
#61 profact:ti,ab 1
#62 receptal:ti,ab 4
#63 suprecur:ti,ab 0
#64 suprefact:ti,ab 28
#65 tiloryth:ti,ab 0
#66 histrelin:ti,ab 5
#67 "LHRH-hydrogel implant":ti,ab 0
#68 ("RL 0903" or RL0903):ti,ab 0
#69 ("SPD 424" or SPD424):ti,ab 0
#70 goserelin:ti,ab 761
#71 [mh ^goserelin] 568
#72 ("ici 118630" or ici118630):ti,ab 7
#73 ("ZD-9393" or ZD9393):ti,ab 1
#74 zoladex:ti,ab 318
#75 leuprorelin:ti,ab 248
#76 carcinil:ti,ab 0
#77 enanton*:ti,ab 21
#78 ginecrin:ti,ab 1
#79 leuplin:ti,ab 7
#80 [mh ^Leuprolide] 686
#81 leuprolide:ti,ab696
#82 lucrin:ti,ab 21
#83 lupron:ti,ab 77
#84 provren:ti,ab 0
#85 procrin:ti,ab 2
#86 ("tap 144" or tap144):ti,ab 24
#87 (a-43818 or a43818):ti,ab 0
#88 Trenantone:ti,ab 3
#89 staladex:ti,ab 0
#90 prostap:ti,ab 9
#91 [mh ^Nafarelin] 77
#92 nafarelin:ti,ab 114
#93 ("76932-56-4" or "76932564"):ti,ab 0
#94 ("76932-60-0" or "76932600"):ti,ab 2
#95 ("86220-42-0" or "86220420"):ti,ab 0
#96 ("rs 94991 298" or rs94991298):ti,ab 0
#97 synarel:ti,ab 10
#98 deslorelin:ti,ab 16

#99 gonadorelin:ti,ab 11
#100 ("33515-09-2" or "33515092"):ti,ab 0
#101 ("51952-41-1" or "51952411"):ti,ab 0
#102 ("52699-48-6" or "52699486"):ti,ab 0
#103 cetrorelix:ti,ab 221
#104 cetrotide:ti,ab 111
#105 ("NS 75A" or NS75A):ti,ab 0
#106 ("NS 75B" or NS75B):ti,ab 0
#107 ("SB 075" or SB075):ti,ab 0
#108 ("SB 75" or SB75):ti,ab 10
#109 gonadoliberin:ti,ab 5
#110 kryptocur:ti,ab 0
#111 cetrorelix:ti,ab 221
#112 cetrotide:ti,ab 111
#113 antagon:ti,ab 12
#114 ganirelix:ti,ab 142
#115 ("ORG 37462" or ORG37462):ti,ab 4
#116 orgalutran:ti,ab 45
#117 ("RS 26306" or RS26306):ti,ab 0
#118 ("AY 24031" or AY24031):ti,ab 0
#119 factrel:ti,ab 1
#120 fertagyl:ti,ab 0
#121 lutrelef:ti,ab 0
#122 lutrepulse:ti,ab 1
#123 relefact:ti,ab 1
#124 fertiral:ti,ab 0
#125 (hoe471 or "hoe 471"):ti,ab 3
#126 relisorm:ti,ab 0
#127 cystorelin:ti,ab 0
#128 dirigestran:ti,ab 0
#129 {or #33-#128} 6844
#130 #32 and #129 27
#131 #130 with Cochrane Library publication date Between Jan 2000 and Jul 2020, in Cochrane Reviews 1
#132 #130 27
#133 "conference":pt or (clinicaltrials or trialsearch):so 492465
#134 #132 not #133 9
#135 #134 with Publication Year from 2000 to 2020, in Trials 8

Database: HTA
Platform: CRD
Version: HTA
Search date: 23/7/2020
Number of results retrieved: 26
Search strategy:

1 MeSH DESCRIPTOR Gender Dysphoria EXPLODE ALL TREES 0
2 MeSH DESCRIPTOR Gender Identity EXPLODE ALL TREES 14

3 MeSH DESCRIPTOR Sexual and Gender Disorders EXPLODE ALL TREES 2

4 MeSH DESCRIPTOR Transsexualism EXPLODE ALL TREES 12
5 MeSH DESCRIPTOR Transgender Persons EXPLODE ALL TREES 3
6 MeSH DESCRIPTOR Health Services for Transgender Persons EXPLODE ALL TREES 0
7 MeSH DESCRIPTOR Sex Reassignment Procedures EXPLODE ALL TREES 1

8 ((gender* adj3 (dysphori* or affirm* or incongruen* or identi* or disorder* or confus* or minorit* or queer*))) 28
9 ((transgend* or transex* or transsex* or transfem* or transwom* or transma* or transmen* or transperson* or transpeopl*)) 76
10 ((trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*)) 83
11 (((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition*))) 24
12 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m) 86
13 ((transchild* or transyouth* or transteen* or transadoles* or transgirl* or transboy*)) 0
14 #1 OR #2 OR #3 OR #4 OR #5 OR #6 OR #7 OR #8 OR #9 OR #10 OR #11 OR #12 OR #13 262
15 (#1 OR #2 OR #3 OR #4 OR #5 OR #6 OR #7 OR #8 OR #9 OR #10 OR #11 OR #12 OR #13) IN HTA 30

*26 results are from 200 onwards. Downloaded as a set to sift for drug terms rather than continuing with search strategy.

Database: APA PsycInfo
Search date: July 2020 (Week 2)
Search Strategy:
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1 Gender Dysphoria/ (936)
2 Gender Identity/ (8648)
3 Transsexualism/ (2825)
4 Transgender/ (5257)
5 exp Gender Reassignment/ (568)
6 (gender* adj3 (dysphori* or affirm* or incongruen* or identi* or disorder* or confus* or minorit* or queer*)).tw. (15471)
7 (transgend* or transex* or transsex* or transfem* or transwom* or transma* or transmen* or transperson* or transpeopl*).tw. (13028)
8 (trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*).tw. (7679)
9 ((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition*)).tw. (5796)
10 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m).tw. (63688)
11 or/1-10 (99560)
12 exp Infant Development/ (21841)
13 (prematur* or pre-matur* or preterm* or pre-term* or infan* or newborn* or new-born* or perinat* or peri-nat* or neonat* or neo-nat* or baby* or babies or toddler*).ti,ab,in,jn. (150219)

14 Child Characteristics/ or exp Child Behavior/ or Child Psychology/ or exp Child Welfare/ or Child Psychiatry/ (23423)
15 (child* or minor or minors or boy* or girl* or kid or kids or young*).ti,ab,in,jn. (984230)
16 (pediatric* or paediatric* or peadiatric*).ti,ab,in,jn. (78962)
17 Adolescent Psychiatry/ or Adolescent Behavior/ or Adolescent Development/ or Adolescent Psychology/ or Adolescent Characteristics/ or Adolescent Health/ (62142)
18 Puberty/ (2753)
19 (adolescen* or pubescen* or prepubescen* or pre-pubescen* or pubert* or prepubert* or pre-pubert* or teen* or preteen* or pre-teen* or juvenil* or youth* or under*age*).ti,ab,in,jn. (347604)
20 Schools/ or exp elementary school students/ or high school students/ or junior high school students/ or middle school students/ (113053)
21 Child Day Care/ or Nursery Schools/ (2836)
22 (pre-school* or preschool* or kindergar* or daycare or day-care or nurser* or school* or pupil* or student*).ti,ab,jn. (772814)
23 (("eight" or "nine" or "ten" or "eleven" or "twelve" or "thirteen" or "fourteen" or "fifteen" or "sixteen" or "seventeen" or "eighteen" or "nineteen") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (21475)
24 (("8" or "9" or "10" or "11" or "12" or "13" or "14" or "15" or "16" or "17" or "18" or "19") adj2 (year or years or age or ages or aged)).ti,ab. (285697)
25 or/12-24 (1772959)
26 11 and 25 (49612)
27 (transchild* or transyouth* or transteen* or transadoles* or transgirl* or transboy*).tw. (14)
28 26 or 27 (49613)
29 exp Gonadotropic Hormones/ (4226)
30 (pubert* adj3 block*).ti,ab. (29)
31 ((gonadotrophin or gonadotropin) and releasing).ti,ab. (1060)
32 (GnRH adj2 analog*).ti,ab. (49)
33 GnRH*.ti,ab. (998)
34 "GnRH agonist*".ti,ab. (72)
35 triptorelin.ti,ab. (25)
36 arvekap.ti,ab. (0)
37 ("AY 25650" or AY25650).ti,ab. (0)
38 ("BIM 21003" or BIM21003).ti,ab. (0)
39 ("BN 52014" or BN52014).ti,ab. (0)
40 ("CL 118532" or CL118532).ti,ab. (0)
41 Debio.ti,ab. (7)
42 diphereline.ti,ab. (0)
43 moapar.ti,ab. (0)
44 pamorelin.ti,ab. (0)
45 trelstar.ti,ab. (0)
46 triptodur.ti,ab. (0)
47 ("WY 42422" or WY42422).ti,ab. (0)
48 ("WY 42462" or WY42462).ti,ab. (0)
49 gonapeptyl.ti,ab. (0)
50 decapeptyl.ti,ab. (3)
51 salvacyl.ti,ab. (1)

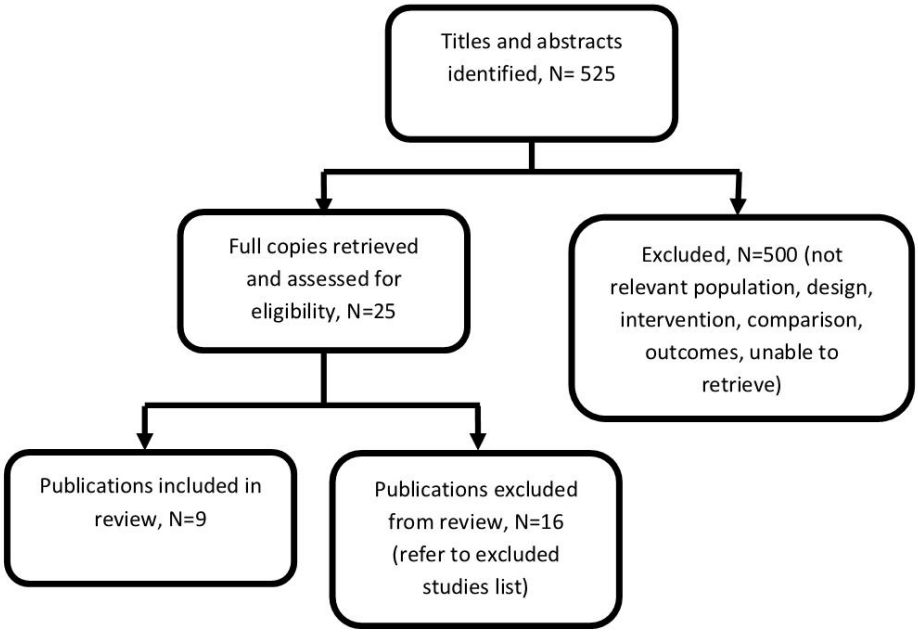
52 buserelin.ti,ab. (6)
53 bigonist.ti,ab. (0)
54 ("hoe 766" or hoe-766 or hoe766).ti,ab. (0)
55 profact.ti,ab. (0)
56 receptal.ti,ab. (0)
57 suprecur.ti,ab. (0)
58 suprefact.ti,ab. (0)
59 tiloryth.ti,ab. (0)
60 histrelin.ti,ab. (1)
61 "LHRH-hydrogel implant".ti,ab. (0)
62 ("RL 0903" or RL0903).ti,ab. (0)
63 ("SPD 424" or SPD424).ti,ab. (0)
64 goserelin.ti,ab. (30)
65 ("ici 118630" or ici118630).ti,ab. (0)
66 ("ZD-9393" or ZD9393).ti,ab. (0)
67 zoladex.ti,ab. (3)
68 leuprorelin.ti,ab. (12)
69 carcinil.ti,ab. (0)
70 enanton*.ti,ab. (1)
71 ginecrin.ti,ab. (0)
72 leuplin.ti,ab. (0)
73 leuprolide.ti,ab. (79)
74 lucrin.ti,ab. (1)
75 lupron.ti,ab. (18)
76 provren.ti,ab. (0)
77 procrin.ti,ab. (0)
78 ("tap 144" or tap144).ti,ab. (1)
79 (a-43818 or a43818).ti,ab. (0)
80 Trenantone.ti,ab. (0)
81 staladex.ti,ab. (0)
82 prostap.ti,ab. (0)
83 nafarelin.ti,ab. (1)
84 ("76932-56-4" or "76932564").ti,ab. (0)
85 ("76932-60-0" or "76932600").ti,ab. (0)
86 ("86220-42-0" or "86220420").ti,ab. (0)
87 ("rs 94991 298" or rs94991298).ti,ab. (0)
88 synarel.ti,ab. (0)
89 deslorelin.ti,ab. (8)
90 gonadorelin.ti,ab. (3)
91 ("33515-09-2" or "33515092").ti,ab. (0)
92 ("51952-41-1" or "51952411").ti,ab. (0)
93 ("52699-48-6" or "52699486").ti,ab. (0)
94 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (9)
95 cetrotide.ti,ab. (0)
96 ("NS 75A" or NS75A).ti,ab. (0)
97 ("NS 75B" or NS75B).ti,ab. (0)
98 ("SB 075" or SB075).ti,ab. (0)
99 ("SB 75" or SB75).ti,ab. (1)

100 gonadoliberin.ti,ab. (1)
101 kryptocur.ti,ab. (0)
102 cetrorelix.ti,ab. (9)
103 cetrotide.ti,ab. (0)
104 antagon.ti,ab. (0)
105 ganirelix.ti,ab. (0)
106 ("ORG 37462" or ORG37462).ti,ab. (0)
107 orgalutran.ti,ab. (0)
108 ("RS 26306" or RS26306).ti,ab. (0)
109 ("AY 24031" or AY24031).ti,ab. (0)
110 factrel.ti,ab. (0)
111 fertagyl.ti,ab. (0)
112 lutrelef.ti,ab. (0)
113 lutrepulse.ti,ab. (0)
114 relefact.ti,ab. (0)
115 fertiral.ti,ab. (0)
116 (hoe471 or "hoe 471").ti,ab. (0)
117 relisorm.ti,ab. (0)
118 cystorelin.ti,ab. (0)
119 dirigestran.ti,ab. (0)
120 or/29-119 (4869)
121 28 and 120 (130)
122 limit 121 to english language (120)
123 limit 122 to yr="2000 -Current" (93)

Appendix C Evidence selection

The literature searches identified 525 references. These were screened using their titles and abstracts and 25 references were obtained and assessed for relevance. Of these, 9 references are included in the evidence review. The remaining 16 references were excluded and are listed in appendix D.

Figure 1 – Study selection flow diagram



References submitted with Preliminary Policy Proposal

There is no preliminary policy proposal for this policy.

Appendix D Excluded studies table

Study reference	Reason for exclusion
Achille, C., Taggart, T., Eaton, N.R. et al. (2020) Longitudinal impact of gender-affirming endocrine intervention on the mental health and well-being of transgender youths: Preliminary results. International Journal of Pediatric Endocrinology 2020(1): 8	Intervention – data for GnRH analogues not reported separately from other interventions
Bechard, Melanie, Vanderlaan, Doug P, Wood, Hayley et al. (2017) Psychosocial and Psychological Vulnerability in Adolescents with Gender Dysphoria: A "Proof of Principle" Study. Journal of sex & marital therapy 43(7): 678-688	Population – no GnRH analogues at time of study
Chew, Denise, Anderson, Jemma, Williams, Katrina et al. (2018) Hormonal Treatment in Young People With Gender Dysphoria: A Systematic Review. Pediatrics 141(4)	All primary studies included apart from 1 conference abstract
de Vries, Annelou L C, McGuire, Jenifer K et al. (2014) Young adult psychological outcome after puberty suppression and gender reassignment. Pediatrics 134(4): 696-704	Population – relevant population included in de Vries et al. 2011
Ghelani, Rahul, Lim, Cheryl, Brain, Caroline et al. (2020) Sudden sex hormone withdrawal and the effects on body composition in late pubertal adolescents with gender dysphoria. Journal of pediatric endocrinology & metabolism: JPEM 33(1): 107-112	Outcomes – not in the PICO

Study reference	Reason for exclusion
Giovanardi, G, Morales, P, Mirabella, M et al. (2019) Transition memories: experiences of trans adult women with hormone therapy and their beliefs on the usage of hormone blockers to suppress puberty. Journal of endocrinological investigation 42(10): 1231-1240	Population – adults only
Hewitt, Jacqueline K, Paul, Campbell, Kasiannan, Porpavai et al. (2012) Hormone treatment of gender identity disorder in a cohort of children and adolescents. The Medical journal of Australia 196(9): 578-81	Outcomes – no data reported for relevant outcomes
Jensen, R.K., Jensen, J.K., Simons, L.K. et al. (2019) Effect of Concurrent Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone Agonist Treatment on Dose and Side Effects of Gender-Affirming Hormone Therapy in Adolescent Transgender Patients. Transgender Health 4(1): 300-303	Outcomes – not in the PICO
Klaver, Maartje, de Mutsert, Renee, Wiepjes, Chantal M et al. (2018) Early Hormonal Treatment Affects Body Composition and Body Shape in Young Transgender Adolescents. The journal of sexual medicine 15(2): 251-260	Outcomes – not in the PICO
Klaver, Maartje, de Mutsert, Renee van der Loos, Maria A T C et al. (2020) Hormonal Treatment and Cardiovascular Risk Profile in Transgender Adolescents. Pediatrics 145(3)	Outcomes – not in the PICO
Lopez, Carla Marisa, Solomon, Daniel, Boulware, Susan D et al. (2018) Trends in the use of puberty blockers among transgender children in the United States. Journal of pediatric endocrinology & metabolism : JPEM 31(6): 665-670	Outcomes – not in the PICO
Schagen, Sebastian E E, Lustenhouwer, Paul, Cohen-Kettenis, Peggy T et al. (2018) Changes in Adrenal Androgens During Puberty Suppression and Gender-Affirming Hormone Treatment in Adolescents With Gender Dysphoria. The journal of sexual medicine 15(9): 1357-1363	Outcomes – not in the PICO
Swendiman, Robert A, Vogiatzi, Maria G, Alter, Craig A et al. (2019) Histrelin implantation in the pediatric population: A 10-year institutional experience. Journal of pediatric surgery 54(7): 1457-1461	Population – less than 10% of participants had gender dysphoria; data not reported separately
Turban, Jack L, King, Dana, Carswell, Jeremi M et al. (2020) Pubertal Suppression for Transgender Youth and Risk of Suicidal Ideation. Pediatrics 145(2)	Intervention – data for GnRH analogues not reported separately from other interventions
Vrouenraets, Lieke Josephina Jeanne Johanna, Fredriks, A Miranda, Hannema, Sabine E et al. (2016) Perceptions of Sex, Gender, and Puberty Suppression: A Qualitative Analysis of Transgender Youth. Archives of sexual behavior 45(7): 1697-703	Outcomes – not in the PICO
Zucker, Kenneth J, Bradley, Susan J, Owen-Anderson, Allison et al. (2010) Puberty-blocking hormonal therapy for adolescents with gender identity disorder: A descriptive clinical study. Journal of Gay & Lesbian Mental Health 15(1): 58-82	Intervention – data for GnRH analogues not reported separately from other interventions

Appendix E Evidence tables

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
Brik T, Vrouenraets L, de Vries M, et al. (2020) Trajectories of adolescents treated with gonadotropin-releasing hormone analogues for gender dysphoria. Archives of Sexual Behaviour https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-020-01660-8 Netherlands Retrospective observational single-centre study To document trajectories after the initiation of GnRH analogue and explore reasons for extended use and discontinuation of GnRH analogues. Includes participants seen between November 2010 and January 1, 2018.	Inclusion criteria were adolescents with gender dysphoria, according to the DSM-5 criteria, seen at the single centre and treated with GnRH analogues between November 2010 and January 1, 2018. The study excluded adolescents without a diagnosis of gender dysphoria, those who had coexisting problems that interfered with the diagnostic process and/or might interfere with successful treatment (not further defined), those adolescents not wanting hormones, those with ongoing diagnostic evaluation and those who did not attend appointments. The sample consisted of 143 adolescents meeting the inclusion/exclusion criteria, 38 transfemales, 105 transmales, with median ages of 15.0 years (range 11.1 to 18.6 years) and 16.1 years (range 10.1 to 17.9	The study only reports that GnRH analogues were given, no specific drug, dose, route, or frequency of administration are reported. No comparator cohort was used in the study. Follow-up was at (up to) 9 years (last follow-up July 2019).	**Critical outcomes** No critical outcomes assessed. **Important outcomes** ***Psychosocial impact*** Not assessed. ***Engagement with health care services*** Not formally assessed but the study reported that out of 214 age and developmentally appropriate adolescents for potential inclusion in the study, 9 were excluded as they stopped attending appointments (4.2%). ***Stopping treatment*** Of the 143 adolescents, 9 (6.2%, 1 transfemale and 8 transmales) stopped taking GnRH analogues after a median duration of 0.8 years (range 0.1 to 3.0). Four adolescents (2.8%) discontinued GnRH analogues although they wanted to continue endocrine treatments for gender dysphoria: • 1 transmale stopped due to increase in mood problems, suicidal thoughts and confusion attributed to GnRH analogues (later had gender-affirming hormones at an adult gender clinic)[1] • 1 transmale experienced hot flushes, increased migraines, had a fear of injections, stress at school and unrelated medical issues, and temporarily discontinued treatment (after 4 months)[2]	This study was appraised using the Newcastle-Ottawa tool for cohort studies. **Domain 1: Selection** 1. somewhat representative 2. no-non exposed cohort 3. secure record 4. yes **Domain 2: Comparability** 1. no comparator **Domain 3: Outcome** 1. record linkage 2. yes 3. complete follow-up **Overall quality is assessed as poor.** Other comments: Physical and psychological comorbidity was poorly reported, concomitant use of other medicines was not reported. Source of funding: not reported.

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
	years), respectively at commencement of GnRH analogues. Of the 143 adolescents in the study, 125 (87%, 36 transfemales and 89 transmales) subsequently started treatment with gender-affirming hormones after median 1.0 (range 0.5 to 3.8) years and 0.8 (0.3 to 3.7) years, respectively. Median age at the start of gender-affirming hormones was 16.2 years (range 14.5 to 18.6 years) in transfemales and 17.1 years (range 14.9 to 18.8 years) in transmales. Five adolescents who used GnRH analogues had not started gender-affirming hormones at the time of data collection as they were not yet eligible for this treatment due to age. At the time of data collection, they had used GnRH analogues for a median duration of 2.1 years (range 1.6 to 2.8). Tanner stage was not reported. Six adolescents had been referred to a gender clinic elsewhere for further		• 1 transmale experienced mood swings 4 months after commencing GnRH analogues. After 2.2 years he developed unexplained severe nausea and rapid weight loss and due to his general condition discontinued GnRH analogues after 2.4 years[3] • 1 transmale stopped GnRH analogues as his parents were unable to regularly collect medication from the pharmacy and take him to appointments for the injections[4] Five adolescents (3.5%) stopped treatment as they no longer wished to continue with gender-affirming treatment. • 1 adolescent had been very distressed about breast development at the start of GnRH analogues and later thought that she might want to live as a woman without breasts. She did not want to live as a boy and discontinued GnRH analogues, although dreaded breast development and menstruation. • 1 adolescent experienced concurrent psychosocial problems interfering with the exploration of gender identity and did not currently want treatment.[5] • 1 adolescent felt more in between male and female and therefore did not want to continue with GnRH analogues.[6] • 1 adolescent made a social transition while using GnRH analogues and shortly after decided to discontinue treatment.[7]	

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
	treatment, including 1 who had prolonged use.		• 1 adolescent discontinued after using GnRH analogues as the treatment allowed them to feel who they were.[8]	

[1] The adolescent later indicated "I was already fully matured when I started GnRH analogues, menstruations were already suppressed by contraceptives. For me, it had no added value" (transmale, age 19 years).
[2] The adolescent restarted endocrine treatment (testosterone) 5 months later.
[3] The adolescent recovered over the next 2 years and subsequently started lynestrenol and testosterone treatment.
[4] The adolescent subsequently started lynestrenol to suppress menses, he was not yet eligible for testosterone treatment.
[5] The adolescent later reflected that "The decision to stop GnRH analogues to my mind was made by the gender team, because they did not think gender dysphoria was the right diagnosis. I do still feel like a man, but for me it is okay to be just me instead of a he or a she, so for now I do not want any further treatment" (adolescent assigned female sex at birth, age 16 years).
[6] The adolescent stated "At the moment, I feel more like 'I am' instead of 'I am a woman' or 'I am a man'" (adolescent assigned female sex at birth, age 16 years).
[7] The adolescent stated that "he had fallen in love with a girl and had never had such feelings, which made him question his gender identity. At subsequent visits, he indicated that he was happy living as a man.
[8] The adolescent stated "After using GnRH analogues for the first time, I could feel who I was without the female hormones, this gave me peace of mind to think about my future. It was an inner feeling that said I am a woman" (adolescent assigned female sex at birth, age 18 years).

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
Costa R, Dunsford M, Skagerberg E, et al. (2015) Psychological support, puberty suppression, and psychosocial functioning in adolescents with gender dysphoria. Journal of Sexual Medicine 12(11):2206-14. United Kingdom Prospective longitudinal observational single centre cohort study Includes participants referred to the service between 2010 and 2014.	Adolescents with gender dysphoria who completed a 6-month diagnostic process using DSM-IV-TR criteria for gender dysphoria (comprising the gender dysphoria assessment and psychological interventions) either immediately eligible for treatment with GnRH analogues or delayed eligible for treatment with GnRH analogues (received psychological support without any physical intervention). No exclusion criteria were reported. The sample consisted of 201 adolescents (sex assigned at birth male to female ratio 1:1.6) mean (±SD) age 15.52±1.41 years) from a sampling frame of	**Intervention** 101 individuals were assessed as being immediately eligible for use of GnRH analogues (no specific treatment, dose or route, or frequency of administration reported but all received psychological support). **Comparison** The analyses were between the immediately eligible and delayed eligible (n=100) adolescents,	**Critical outcomes** ***Impact on gender dysphoria*** The Utrecht gender dysphoria scale (UGDS) was used to assess adolescents' gender dysphoria related discomfort. The Cronbach's alpha (α) for the study was reported as 0.76 to 0.88, suggesting good internal consistency. UGDS was only reported once, for 160 adolescents (50 sex assigned at birth males and 110 sex assigned at birth females). The assessment time point is not reported (baseline or follow-up) and the comparison for gender related discomfort was between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females. Sex assigned at birth males had a mean (±SD) UGDS score of 51.6 [±9.7] versus sex assigned at birth females score of 56.1 [±4.3], *t*-test 4.07; p<0.001.	This study was appraised using the Newcastle-Ottawa tool for cohort studies. **Domain 1: Selection** 1. somewhat representative 2. drawn from the same community as the exposed cohort. 3. secure record 4. no **Domain 2: Comparability** 1. partial comparator **Domain 3: Outcome** 1. independent assessment (unclear if blinded) 2. yes 3. incomplete follow-up **Overall quality is assessed as poor.**

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
	436 consecutive adolescents referred to the service between 2010 and 2014. The mean (±SD) age (n=201) at the start of GnRH analogues was 16.48 [±1.26], range 13 to 17 years. The interval from the start of the diagnostic procedure to the start of puberty suppression took approximately 1.5 years [±0.63] from baseline. None of the delayed eligible individuals received puberty suppression at the time of this study. Tanner stage was not reported.	Baseline assessment (following diagnostic procedure) was followed by follow-up at 6 months from baseline (T1), 12 months from baseline (T2) and 18 months from baseline (T3).	***Impact on mental health*** Not assessed. ***Impact on quality of life*** Not assessed. **Important outcomes** ***Psychosocial impact*** The Children's Global Assessment Scale (CGAS) was used to assess adolescents' psychosocial functioning. The CGAS was administered by psychologists, psychotherapists, and psychiatrists (intra-class correlation assessment was 0.76 ≤ Cronbach's α ≤0.94). At baseline, CGAS scores were not associated with any demographic variable, in both sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females (all p>0.1). In comparison with sex assigned at birth females, sex assigned at birth males had statistically significantly lower mean (±SD) baseline CGAS scores (55.4 [±12.7] versus 59.2 [11.8]; *t*-test 2.15; p=0.03). There was no statistically significant difference in mean (±SD) CGAS scores at baseline (T0) between immediately eligible adolescents and delayed eligible adolescents (n=201, 58.72 [±11.38] versus 56.63 [±13.14]; *t*-test 1.21; p=0.23). **Immediately eligible compared with delayed eligible participants** At follow-up, there was no statistically significant difference in mean (±SD) CGAS scores at any follow-up time point (T1, T2 or T3) between immediately	Other comments: Physical and psychological comorbidity was poorly reported, concomitant use of other medicines was not reported. Large unexplained loss to follow-up (64.7%) at T3. Source of funding: not reported.

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
			eligible adolescents and delayed eligible adolescents: • T1, n=201, 60.89 [±12.17] versus 60.29 [±12.81]; *t*-test 0.34; p=0.73 • T2, n=121, 64.70 [±13.34] versus 62.97 [±14.10]; *t*-test 0.69; p=0.49 • T3, n=71, 67.40 [±13.93] versus 62.53 [±13.54]; *t*-test 1.49; p=0.14. **All participants** There was a statistically significant increase in mean (±SD) CGAS scores at any follow-up time point (T1, T2 or T3) compared with baseline (T0) for the all adolescents group: • T0 (n=201) versus T1 (n=201), 57.73 [±12.27] versus 60.68 [±12.47]; *t*-test 4.87; p<0.001 • T0 (n=201) versus T2 (n=121), 57.73 [±12.27] versus 63.31 [±14.41]; *t*-test 3.70; p<0.001 • T0 (n=201) versus T3 (n=71), 57.73 [±12.27] versus 64.93 [±13.85]; *t*-test 4.11; p<0.001 There was a statistically significant increase in mean (±SD) CGAS scores when comparing the follow-up period T1 to T3 but not for the periods T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, for all adolescents: • T1 (n=201) versus T2 (n=121), 60.68 [±12.47] versus 63.31 [±14.41]; *t*-test 1.73; p<0.08 • T1 (n=201) versus T3 (n=71), 60.68 [±12.47] versus 64.93 [±13.85], *t*-test 2.40; p<0.02 • T2 (n=121) versus T3 (n=71), 63.31 [±14.41] versus 64.93 [±13.85], *t*-test 0.76; p=0.45 There were no statistically significant differences in CGAS scores between sex assigned at birth males and sex	

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
			assigned at birth females with gender dysphoria in all the follow-up evaluations (all p>0.1). Delayed eligible and immediately eligible adolescents with gender dysphoria were not statistically significantly different for demographic variables (all p>0.1). **Immediately eligible participants** There was a statistically significant increase in mean (±SD) CGAS scores at follow-up times T2 and T3 compared with baseline (T0) but not for T0 versus T1, for the immediately eligible adolescents: • T0 (n=101) versus T1 (n=101), 58.72 [±11.38] versus 60.89 [±12.17]; *t*-test 1.31; p=0.19 • T0 (n=101) versus T2 (n=60), 58.72 [±11.38] versus 64.70 [±13.34]; *t*-test 3.02; p=0.003 • T0 (n=101) versus T3 (n=35), 58.72 [±11.38] versus 67.40 [±13.93]; *t*-test 3.66; p<0.001 There was a statistically significant increase in mean (±SD) CGAS scores when comparing the follow-up period T1 to T3 with each other but not for the periods T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, for the immediately eligible adolescents: • T1 (n=101) versus T2 (n=60), 60.89 [±12.17] versus 64.70 [±13.34]; *t*-test 1.85; p=0.07 • T1 (n=101) versus T3 (n=35), 60.89 [±12.17] versus 67.40 [±13.93], *t*-test 2.63; p<0.001 • T2 (n=60) versus T3 (n=35), 64.70 [±13.34] versus 67.40 [±13.93], *t*-test 0.94; p=0.35 The immediately eligible adolescents had a CGAS score which was not	

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
			statistically significantly different compared to the sample of children/ adolescents without observed psychological /psychiatric symptoms after 12 months of puberty suppression (T3, *t*=0.01, *p*=0.99).	

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
de Vries A, Steensma T, Doreleijers T, et al. (2011) Puberty suppression in adolescents with gender identity disorder: a prospective follow-up study. The Journal of Sexual Medicine 8 (8):2276-83. Netherlands Prospective longitudinal observational single centre before and after study.	The sample size was 70 adolescents receiving GnRH analogues (mean age [±SD] at assessment 13.6±1.8 years) from a sampling frame of 196 consecutive adolescents referred to the service between 2000 and 2008. Inclusion criteria were if they subsequently started gender-affirming hormones between 2003 and 2009 (mean [±SD] age at start of GnRH analogues was 14.75 [±1.92] years)[1]. No specific exclusion criteria were described. No diagnostic criteria or concomitant treatments were reported. Tanner stage of the included adolescents was not reported.	**Intervention** 70 adolescents were assessed at baseline (T0) before the start of GnRH analogues (no specific treatment, dose or route of administration reported). **Comparison** The same 70 adolescents were assessed again at follow-up (T1), shortly before starting gender-affirming hormones. Not all adolescents completed all assessments for all items[2].	**Critical outcomes** ***Impact on gender dysphoria*** Impact on gender dysphoria was assessed using the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale (UGDS). • There was no statistically significant difference in UGDS scores between T0 and T1 (n=41). There was a statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females, with sex assigned at birth females reporting more gender dysphoria, *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 15.98 (1,39), p<0.001. ***Impact on mental health*** Depressive symptoms were assessed using the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI-II). • There was a statistically significant reduction in BDI score between T0 and T1, n=41, 8.31 [±7.12] versus 4.95 [±6.72], *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 9.28 (1,39), p=0.004. • There was no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females, *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 3.85 (1,39), p=0.057.	This study was appraised using the Newcastle-Ottawa tool for cohort studies. **Domain 1: Selection** 1. somewhat representative of children and adolescents who have gender dysphoria 2. no non-exposed cohort 3. no description 4. no **Domain 2: Comparability** 1. study controls for age, age at start of treatment, IQ, and parental factors **Domain 3: Outcome** 1. no description 2. no/unclear 3. complete **Overall quality is assessed as poor**. Other comments: Physical and psychological comorbidity was not reported, concomitant use of other medicines was not reported. Source of funding: This study was supported by a personal

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
			Anger and anxiety were assessed using Trait Anger and Anxiety (TPI and STAI, respectively) Scales of the State-Trait Personality Inventory. • There was no statistically significant difference in anger (TPI) scale scores between T0 and T1 (n=41). There was a statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females, with sex assigned at birth females reporting increased anger compared with sex assigned at birth males, *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 5.70 (1,39), p=0.022. • Similarly, there was no statistically significant difference in anxiety (STAI) scale scores between T0 and T1 (n=41). There was a statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females, with sex assigned at birth females reporting increased anxiety compared with sex assigned at birth males, *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 16.07 (1,39), p<0.001. ***Impact on quality of life*** Not assessed. **Important outcomes** ***Impact on body image*** Impact on body image was assessed using the Body Image Scale to measure body satisfaction (BIS). There was no statistically significant difference between T0 and T1 for any of the 3 BIS scores (primary sex characteristics, secondary sex characteristics or neutral characteristics,	grant awarded to the first author by the Netherlands Organization for Health Research and Development.

Study details	Population	Interventions	Study outcomes	Appraisal and Funding
			n=57). There were statistically significant differences between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females, with sex assigned at birth females reporting more dissatisfaction, for: • primary sexual characteristics, *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 4.11 (1,55), p=0.047. • secondary sexual characteristics, *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 11.57 (1,55), p=0.001. But no statistically significant difference between sex assigned at birth males and sex assigned at birth females was found for neutral characteristics. However, there was a significant interaction effect between sex assigned at birth sex and the changes of gender dysphoria between T0 and T1; sex assigned at birth females became more dissatisfied with their secondary sex characteristics compared with sex assigned at birth males, *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 14.59 (1,55), p<0.001) and neutral characteristics, *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 15.26 (1,55), p<0.001). ***Psychosocial impact*** Psychosocial impact was assessed using both the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL) and the Youth Self-Report (YSR) to parents and adolescents, respectively. The Children's Global Assessment Scale was also reported. There was a statistically significant decrease in mean (±SD) total, internalising, and externalising[3] parental CBCL scores between T0 and T1[4] for all adolescents (n=54): • Total score (T0 – T1) 60.70 [±12.76] versus 54.46 [±11.23], *F* (*df, errdf*), *P*: 26.17 (1,52), p<0.001.	