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Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Health Disparities: Executive Summary of a Policy Position Paper From the American College of Physicians

Hilary Daniel, BS and Renee Butkus, BA, ... View all authors

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Abstract

In this position paper, the American College of Physicians examines the health disparities experienced by the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) community and makes a series of recommendations to achieve equity for LGBT individuals in the health care system. These recommendations include enhancing physician understanding of hov provide culturally and clinically competent care for LGBT individuals, addressing environmental and social factors that can affect their mental and physical well-being, and supporting further research into understanding their unique health needs.

The lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) community is diverse, comprising persons from various races, ethnicities, and socioeconomic

backgrounds; however, LGBT persons face a common set of challenges within the health care system. These challenges range from access to health care coverage and culturally competent care to state and federal policies that reinforce social stigma, marginalization, or discrimination. Recent years have brought about reliable data collection, research, and a greater understanding of the health care needs of the LGBT community and the challenges they face in accessing care. Although great strides have been taken in reducing health disparities in the LGBT community, much more needs to be done to achieve equity for LGBT persons in the health care system.

Although members of the LGBT community face similar health concerns as the general population, certain disparities are reported at a higher rate among LGBT persons than the heterosexual population (1). These disparities experienced by LGBT persons may be compounded if they are also part of a racial or ethnic minority (1). Of note, LGBT persons are more likely to identify themselves as being in poor health than heterosexual individuals, and different segments of the LGBT population have individual health risks and needs. For example, gay and bisexual men are at increased risk fo certain sexually transmitted infections and account for more than half of all persons living with HIV or AIDS in the United States (1); lesbian women are less likely to have mammography or Papanicolaou test screening for cancer (2); lesbian and bisexual women are more likely to be overweight or obese (3); and lesbian, gay, and bisexual persons are more likely to become disabled at a younger age than heterosexual individuals (4).

Various state or federal laws may affect the quality of life of LGBT persons and can affect their physical and mental health. Same-sex marriage bans may cause psychological distress (5), prohibitive hospital visitation policies may prevent a same-sex parent from seeing a minor while the child is ill or participating in medical decision making for the child, and exclusions on transgender health care in private and public health plans may cause a transgender patient to seek treatment options through illegal channels (6). These laws and policies, along with others that reinforce marginalization, discrimination, social stigma, or rejection of LGBT persons by their families or communities or that simply keep LGBT persons from accessing health care, have been associated with increased rates of anxiety, suicide, and substance or alcohol abuse (7).

Addressing these disparities will require changes in the way LGBT persons and their families are regarded in society and by the health care system. Policies that are discriminatory toward the LGBT community, or are no longer supported by empirical research, continue to reinforce the environmental and social factors that can affect the mental and physical well-being of LGBT persons. The American College of Physicians (ACP) has a long-standing commitment to improving the health of all Americans and opposes any form of discrimination in the delivery of health care services. ACP is dedicated to eliminating disparities in the quality of or access to health care and is committed to working toward fully understanding the unique needs of the LGBT community and eliminating health disparities for LGBT persons.

This Executive Summary provides a synopsis of the full position paper, which is available in Appendix.

Methods

The ACP Health and Public Policy Committee, which is charged with addressing issues affecting the health care of the U.S. public and the practice of internal medicine and its subspecialties, developed these recommendations. The committee reviewed numerous studies, reports, and surveys on LGBT health care and related health policy. The committee also reviewed information on how state and federal policies may affect the physical and mental health of the LGBT population. Draft recommendations were reviewed by the ACP Board of Regents, Board of Governors, Council of Early Career Physicians, Council of Resident/Fellow Members, Council of Student Members, and Council of Subspecialty Societies. The position paper and recommendations were reviewed by the ACP Board of Regents and approved on 27 April 2015.

ACP Position Statements and Recommendations

The following statements represent the official policy positions and recommendations of the ACP. The rationale for each is provided in the full position paper (Appendix).

A glossary of LGBT terminology used throughout this paper can be found at https://lgbt.ucsf.edu/glossary-terms.

1. The American College of Physicians recommends that gender identity, independent and fundamentally different from sexual orientation, be included as part of nondiscrimination and antiharassment policies. The College encourages medical schools, hospitals, physicians' offices, and other medical facilities to adopt gender identity as part of their nondiscrimination and antiharassment policies.

2. The American College of Physicians recommends that public and private health benefit plans include comprehensive transgender health care services and provide all covered services to transgender persons as they would all other beneficiaries.

3. The definition of "family" should be inclusive of those who maintain an ongoing emotional relationship with a person, regardless of their legal or biological relationship.

4. The American College of Physicians encourages all hospitals and medical facilities to allow all patients to determine who may visit and who may act on their behalf during their stay, regardless of their sexual orientation, gender identity, or marital status, and ensure visitation policies are consisten the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services Conditions of Participation and The Joint Commission standards for Medicare-funded hospitals and critical-access hospitals.

5. The American College of Physicians supports civil marriage rights for same-sex couples. The denial of such rights can have a negative impact on

the physical and mental health of these persons and contribute to ongoing stigma and discrimination for LGBT persons and their families.

6. The American College of Physicians supports data collection and research into understanding the demographics of the LGBT population, potential causes of LGBT health disparities, and best practices in reducing these disparities.

7. Medical schools, residency programs, and continuing medical education programs should incorporate LGBT health issues into their curricula. The College supports programs that would help recruit LGBT persons into the practice of medicine and programs that offer support to LGBT medical students, residents, and practicing physicians.

8. The College opposes the use of "conversion," "reorientation," or "reparative' therapy for the treatment of LGBT persons.

9. The American College of Physicians supports continued reviews of blood donation deferral policies for men who have sex with men. The College supports evidence-based deferral policies that take into account a comprehensive assessment of the risk level of all individuals seeking to donate, which may result in varying deferral periods or a lengthened or permanent deferral on blood donation.

Conclusion

The ACP recognizes that reducing health disparities in the LGBT population will take concerted efforts not only by those in the medical community but

also from society as a whole. Training future physicians to be culturally and clinically competent in LGBT health care, working with practicing physicians to increase their understanding of the LGBT population and their health needs, advocating for practical health policies supported by empirical research, and working to eliminate laws that discriminate against the LGBT community and their families are all important steps to reducing and ultimately eliminating the health disparities experienced by the LGBT community.

Appendix: Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Health Disparities: A Policy Position Paper From The American College of Physicians

Understanding the LGBT Community

The LGBT community is a highly diverse and multifaceted group of persons encompassing all cultures, ethnicities, and walks of life. Under the LGBT umbrella, each individual group faces unique cultural and health-related needs but shares common challenges, such as social stigma, discrimi and disparities in health care, that unite them.

Research into LGBT health has been expanding as the community has become more visible and outspoken about engaging the health care system in developing a knowledge base on the distinctive challenges and health disparities they face. However, gaps in the medical community's understanding of the overall makeup of the LGBT community and the environmental and social factors that may influence the needs of those

persons present an obstacle to addressing challenges in a meaningful way. In 2011, the Institute of Medicine issued a report outlining a research agenda targeting several areas that could affect how the health care system approaches LGBT health, including demographics, social influences, disparities and inequalities, intervention that includes increasing access to care and addressing physical or mental conditions, and transgender-specific needs. The report also recommended the inclusion of the LGBT community in national health surveys and emphasized a need for scientific rigor and a respectful environment when gathering data (8).

One important obstacle to identifying health issues within the LGBT population is a lack of reliable data and the exclusion of sexual and gender minorities' identification on federal health surveys. Recent efforts have been made to gather population data on persons who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender and those who identify as being in a same-sex marriage or partnership. For the first time in 2010, the U.S. Census Bureau did not change the data reporting the number of same-sex couples that identified as being married. Before that, the 2000 U.S. Census changed the relationship status of same-sex partners identifying as being the spou

the head of household to an "unmarried partner" because there were no states in which same-sex marriage was legal. In the 1990 U.S. Census, if a same-sex couple identified themselves as married, the sex of 1 of the respondents was automatically changed to the opposite sex and the couple was enumerated as an opposite-sex married couple (9). The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act allows the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) to collect "additional demographic data to further

improve our understanding of health disparities," and in 2013, the National Health Interview Survey—an annual study of health care access, use, and behaviors—included sexual orientation as part of its data collection system (10). Recent estimates put the number of persons who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender at more than 9 million or approximately 3.4% of the U.S. population, which some analysts believe may be an underestimate (1). Individuals who may have same-sex attractions or experiences but do not self-identify as LGBT may still fall into the category of sexual minorities and face health disparities associated with LGBT persons.

Access to Care in the LGBT Population

The LGBT community has often been overlooked when discussing health care disparities and continues to face barriers to equitable care. Barriers to care are multidimensional and include stigma and discrimination, poverty, lack of education, racial or ethnic minority status, and other psychological health determinants (11). Studies show that persons who identify as LGBT have greater economic disadvantages and are more vulnerable to poverty than those who do not. Using available information from national sur

the Williams Institute reports higher overall poverty rates for persons identifying under the LGBT umbrella than heterosexual persons and higher rates of poverty in same-sex couples than heterosexual couples (7.6% vs. 5.7%) (12).

Research shows that LGBT adults and their children are more likely to be uninsured by public or private insurance and that they and their family

members continue to face difficulties in gaining access to care and face a higher risk for health disparities than the general population (2). Most Americans gain health insurance coverage through their employer; data are limited but suggest LGBT persons face higher unemployment rates than non-LGBT persons. A 2009 survey in California found a 14% unemployment rate among LGBT adult workers compared with 10% among non-LGBT adults (13).

The Affordable Care Act sought to increase access to care for low-income Americans by expanding Medicaid programs to all persons at or below 133% of the federal poverty level, providing financial subsidies to help those making between 100% and 400% of the federal poverty level purchase insurance on the federal and state marketplace exchanges, and including nondiscrimination protections in health plans sold on the exchanges. Although estimates suggested that the number of uninsured LGBT persons would be reduced as a result of Medicaid expansion, only about half of states have chosen to expand their Medicaid programs, which greatly diminishes its effect. This increases the number of LGBT persons who may fall into what has been dubbed the "coverage gap," in which persons may earn too m qualify for their state's Medicaid program but too little to qualify for subsidies (14).

Transgender individuals face additional challenges in gaining access to care. Not only are they more likely to be uninsured than the general population, they are more likely to be uninsured than lesbian, gay, or bisexual persons (1). They also face high out-of-pocket costs for transgender-specific medical

care if they lack insurance or their insurance coverage does not cover transgender health care. According to the American Congress of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, transgender youth who receive inadequate treatment are at an increased risk for engaging in self-mutilation or using illicit venues to obtain certain treatments; research shows more than 50% of persons who identify as transgender have obtained injected hormones through illegal means or outside of the traditional medical setting (6).

Mental and Physical Health Disparities

Existing research into the health of the LGBT population has found some health disparities that disproportionately affect the LGBT population. In 2000, the first federally funded research study on the health of LGBT persons assessed 5 major areas of concern for lesbian, gay, and bisexual persons (the report noted that transgender health concerns warranted an independent evaluation): cancer, family planning, HIV and AIDS, immunization and infectious diseases, and mental health (15). Research has shown that lesbian women are less likely to get preventive cancer screenings; lesbian and bisexual women are more likely to be overweight or obese (16); gay m at higher risk for HIV and other sexually transmitted infections; and LGBT populations have the highest rates of tobacco, alcohol, and other drug use (17). Lesbian, gay, and bisexual persons are approximately 2.5 times more likely to have a mental health disorder than heterosexual men and women (18).

Transgender persons are also at a higher lifetime risk for suicide attempt and show higher incidence of social stressors, such as violence, discrimination, or childhood abuse, than nontransgender persons (19). A 2011 survey of transgender or gender-nonconforming persons found that 41% reported having attempted suicide, with the highest rates among those who faced job loss, harassment, poverty, and physical or sexual assault (20).

Positions

1. The American College of Physicians recommends that gender identity, independent and fundamentally different from sexual orientation, be included as part of nondiscrimination and antiharassment policies. The College encourages medical schools, hospitals, physicians' offices, and other medical facilities to adopt gender identity as part of their nondiscrimination and antiharassment policies.

Nondiscrimination policies are in place to prevent employment discrimination or harassment based on race, color, national or ethnic origin, age, religion, sex, disability, genetics, or other characteristics protecte under federal, state, or local law (21). However, state law varies consic on the inclusion of sexual orientation and gender identity in nondiscrimination policies and some policies based on sexual orientation alone may not include gender identity. Eighteen states have employment nondiscrimination or equal employment opportunity statutes that cover both gender identity and sexual orientation, and an additional 3 states have nondiscrimination statutes that cover sexual orientation only (22). The

Human Rights Campaign, an LGBT rights organization, estimated that as a result of these assorted laws, 3 of 5 U.S. citizens live in an area that does not provide protection for gender identity or sexual orientation (23).

Sexual orientation and gender identity are inherently different and should be considered as such when assessing whether nondiscrimination or harassment policies provide protection to all members of the LGBT community. According to the Institute of Medicine, "sexual orientation" refers to a person's enduring pattern of or disposition to have sexual or romantic desires for, and relationships with, persons of the same sex or both sexes (8). "Gender identity" refers to a person's basic sense of being a man or boy, a woman or girl, or another gender. Gender identity may or may not correspond to a person's anatomical sex assigned at birth. The term "transgender" is now widely used to refer to a diverse group of persons who depart significantly from traditional gender norms (24). Persons who have a "marked difference" between their anatomical sex at birth and their expressed or experienced gender may be diagnosed with gender dysphoria, which is a diagnosis under the American Psychiatric Association *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition* (25).

Evidence shows that individuals with gender identity variants face increased discrimination, threats of violence, and stigma. The National Gay and Lesbian Task Force and the National Center for Transgender Equality conducted a national survey of transgender and gender-nonidentifying persons and found high rates of harassment (78%), physical assault (35%), and sexual violence (12%) (20). More than 90% of survey participants

reported harassment or discrimination in the workplace, and they experience double the rate of unemployment than the general population (20). Therefore, LGBT persons are more likely to lose their job or not be hired (26).

Employers have the option to include gender identity as part of their company's nondiscrimination or antiharassment policies even if their state does not, and many companies have chosen to include comprehensive protections policies. To reduce the potential for discrimination, harassment, and physical and emotional harm toward persons who are not covered by current protections, the medical community should include both sexual orientation and gender identity as part of any comprehensive nondiscrimination or antiharassment policy.

2. The American College of Physicians recommends that public and private health benefit plans include comprehensive transgender health care services and provide all covered services to transgender persons as they would all other beneficiaries.

The LGBT community is at increased risk for physical and emotional l resulting from discrimination or harassment, and transgender persons may face greater inequalities in the health care system than the general population. Of note, 19% of transgender persons lack any type of health insurance (20). A handful of states have laws about insurance coverage for transgender health care, such as hormone replacement therapy or sexual reassignment surgery, which may be considered medically necessary as part of the patient's care. Eight states and the District of Columbia have

prohibitions on insurance exclusion of treatments for sex reassignment surgery (27).

The World Professional Association for Transgender Health has developed health care standards for transgender persons who have been diagnosed with gender dysphoria. The standards emphasize treatments that will achieve "lasting personal comfort with their gendered selves, in order to maximize their overall health, psychological well-being, and self-fulfillment" and may or may not include modification to a person's gender expression or how this individual appears or presents physically to others (28). Research shows that when transgender persons receive individual, medically appropriate care, they have improved mental health, reduction in suicide rates, and lower health care costs overall because of fewer mental health–related and substance abuse–related costs (29). However, not all health plans cover all services associated with transgender health or consider such services medically necessary; some plans may issue blanket exclusions on transgender health care, not cover certain services for a transgender person as they would for nontransgender persons, or only cover the cost of gender reassignment surgery if certain conditions are met. For example, an insurance company may cover posthysterectomy estrogenic hormone replacement therapy for biological women but will not cover a similar type of hormone therapy for a postoperative male-to-female transgender patient. Many professional medical organizations, including the American Medical Association, American Psychological Association, American Psychiatric Association, American Congress of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, and

American Academy of Family Physicians, consider gender transition–related medical services medically necessary (30).

The decision to institute a hormone therapy regimen or pursue sexual reassignment surgery for transgender individuals is not taken lightly. Transgender patients and their health care team, which may include primary care physicians, endocrinologists, mental health professionals, and others, are in the best position to determine the most appropriate care plan unique to the patient's needs. Throughout the course of treatment, patients and their physicians or health care team should discuss available options and the evidence base for those treatments in which such evidence exists. It is especially important that transgender patients whose health care team has determined that treatment should include cross-sex hormone therapy or sexual reassignment surgery and postoperative hormone therapy be well-informed about the potential health risks associated with the long-term use of some hormonal replacement therapies before treatment.

Without insurance coverage, the cost of treatment for persons with gender dysphoria may be prohibitively expensive. The most extensive and exp sexual reassignment surgeries may cost tens of thousands of dollars; t does not include associated costs, such as counseling, hormone replacement therapy, copays, or aftercare. The high costs of treatment can result in persons who cannot access the type of care they need, which can increase their levels of stress and discomfort and lead to more serious health conditions. In 2014, the HHS lifted the blanket ban on Medicare coverage for gender reassignment surgery (31) and the federal government announced it

would no longer prohibit health plans offered on the Federal Employees Health Benefits Program from offering gender reassignment as part of the plan (27). Transgender health advocates are hopeful this will result in wider coverage for transgender care in private health plans.

The cost of including transgender health care in employee health benefits plans is minimal and is unlikely to raise costs significantly, if at all. A survey of employers offering transition-related health care in their health benefit plans found that two thirds of employers that provided information on actual costs of employee utilization of transition-related coverage reported 0 costs (32). This is the result of a very small portion of the population identifying as transgender and a smaller portion of that group having the most expensive type of gender reassignment surgery as part of their treatment. An analysis of the utilization of transgender health services over 6 years after transgender discrimination was prohibited in one California health plan found a utilization rate of 0.062 per 1000 covered persons (33). The inclusion of transgender-related health care services within a health plan may also result in an overall reduction of health care costs over time because patients are less likely to engage in self-destructive behaviors, such alcohol or substance abuse.

3. The definition of "family" should be inclusive of those who maintain an ongoing emotional relationship with a person, regardless of their legal or biological relationship.

The term "family" as it is seen in society is changing and no longer means married heterosexual parents with children. An analysis shows only 22% of

families fall into this category (34). Stepparents, single parents, grandparents, same-sex couples, or foster or adoptive parents all make up the changing face of U.S. families. Across the country, LGBT persons are raising children, and demographic data shows that 110 000 same-sex couples are raising as many as 170 000 biological, adopted, or foster children and 37% of LGBT adults have had a child (35). This modern concept of family is no longer dependent on parental status and does not only include adult heads of household with minor children. Same-sex couples and different-sex couples who do not have children may nevertheless have persons in their lives that they consider family.

Despite research that shows a growing trend toward acceptance of LGBT individuals and families (36), there is no widely used standard definition of family inclusive of the diverse nature of the family structure and definitions vary widely: They can differ from state to state, within the Internal Revenue Service for tax purposes, by employers to determine eligibility for health plans, and by hospitals for the purposes of visitation or medical decision making. If LGBT spouses or partners are not legally considered a family member, they are at risk for reduced access to health care and restrict on caregiving and decision making; further, they are at increased risk for health disparities, and their children may not be eligible for health coverage (34). Therefore, LGBT persons and families may already be at a financial disadvantage, with single LGBT parents 3 times more likely to live near the poverty line than their non-LGBT counterparts and LGBT families twice as likely to live near the poverty threshold (35). These financial disadvantages can translate into lack of access to medical care and poorer health outcomes

similar to those experienced by non-LGBT persons and their families who are uninsured or underinsured, in addition to the health disparities that are already reported among the LGBT community.

The Human Rights Campaign's definition of family for health care organizations, developed with multistakeholder input, is inclusive of same- and different-sex married couples and families and is an example of a broad, comprehensive definition of family that includes a person's biological, legal, and chosen family:

> Family means any person(s) who plays a significant role in an individual's life. This may include a person(s) not legally related to the individual. Members of "family" include spouses, domestic partners, and both different-sex and same-sex significant others. "Family" includes a minor patient's parents, regardless of the gender of either parent. (37)

A definition of family inclusive of all types of families, including the LGBT population, is not only fundamental to reducing the disparities and inequalities that exist within the health care system, but also important for the equal treatment of LGBT patients and their visitors in the hospital setting. Countless accounts show loved ones being denied the right to visit; assist in the medical decision-making process for their partner, minor, or child; or be updated on the condition of a patient because hospital visitation policy broadly prohibits those who are not recognized family members from access to the patient. These policies are discriminatory against LGBT patients, their visitors, and the millions of others who are considered family,

such as friends, neighbors, or nonrelative caregivers who can offer support to the patient.

4. The American College of Physicians encourages all hospitals and medical facilities to allow all patients to determine who may visit and who may to act on their behalf during their stay, regardless of their sexual orientation, gender identity, or marital status, and ensure visitation policies are consistent with the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services Conditions of Participation and The Joint Commission standards for Medicare-funded hospitals and critical-access hospitals.

When persons or their loved ones need emergency care or extended inpatient stays in the hospital, they do not often immediately think about access to visitors or hospital visitation policies, the ability to assist in medical decision making, or their legal rights as patients or visitors. Hospital visitation policies are not always clear or consistent about who can visit or make medical decisions for a patient if they become incapacitated or cannot do so themselves. The absence or limited access of loved ones can cause uncertainty and anxiety for the patient. In contrast, the involvement c family and outside support systems can improve health outcomes, suc management of chronic illness and continuity of care (38).

A highly publicized incident of LGBT families facing discrimination and being denied hospital visitation occurred in Florida in 2007. A woman on vacation with her family had an aneurysm and was taken to the hospital. Her same-sex partner and their children were denied the right to see her or receive updates on her condition, and she eventually slipped into a coma

and died (39). In response to this incident, President Obama issued a presidential memorandum recommending that the HHS review and update hospital visitation policies for hospitals participating in Medicare or Medicaid and critical-access hospitals to prohibit discrimination based on such factors as sexual orientation or gender identity (40).

Throughout the rulemaking process, the HHS revised the Medicare Conditions of Participation to require that all hospitals explain to all patients their right to choose who may visit during an inpatient stay, including same-sex spouses, domestic partners, and other visitors, and the patients' right to choose a person to act on their behalf. The Joint Commission, the nation's largest organization for hospital accreditation, also updated its standards to include equal visitation for LGBT patients and visitors (41). As a result of these updated policies, most hospitals and long-term care facilities are required to allow equal visitation for LGBT persons and their families.

The presidential memorandum also recommended that the HHS instruct hospitals to disclose to their patients that patients have a right to designate a representative to make medical decisions on their behalf if they cann make those decisions themselves. The revised Conditions of Participa emphasized that hospitals "should give deference to patients' wishes about their representatives, whether expressed in writing, orally, or through other evidence, unless prohibited by state law" (42). With piecemeal regulations and policies governing the legal rights of LGBT persons and their families, some same-sex spouses or domestic partners choose to prepare advance directives, such as durable powers of attorney and health care proxies, in an

effort to ensure their access to family members and their ability to exert their right to medical decision making if necessary.

5. The American College of Physicians supports civil marriage rights for same-sex couples. The denial of such rights can have a negative impact on the physical and mental health of these persons and contribute to ongoing stigma and discrimination for LGBT persons and their families.

The health and financial benefits of marriage for different-sex couples are widely reported, and contemporary research supports similar benefits in same-sex marriage. On the other hand, denial of marriage rights for LGBT persons may lead to mental and physical health problems. Health benefits associated with same-sex marriage result from improved psychological health and a reinforced social environment with community support (43). Research suggests that being in a legally recognized same-sex marriage diminishes mental health differentials between LGBT and heterosexual persons (5). A comparison study on the utilization of public health services by gay and bisexual men before and after Massachusetts legalized same-sex marriage found a reduction in the number of visits for health problem mental health services. The study noted a 13% reduction in visits over after the legalization of same-sex marriage (44).

In contrast, denial of such rights can result in ongoing physical and psychological health issues. Thus, LGBT persons encountering negative societal attitudes and discrimination often internalize stressors and have poor health unseen to those around them; further, these stressors can lead to self-destructive behaviors (43). A study of LGBT individuals living in states

with a same-sex marriage ban found increases in general anxiety, mood disorders, and alcohol abuse (45). The denial of marriage rights to LGBT persons has also been found to reinforce stigmas of the LGBT population that may undermine health and social factors, which can affect young adults (46). The American Medical Association's broad policy supporting civil rights for LGBT persons acknowledges that denial of civil marriage rights can be harmful to LGBT persons and their families and contribute to ongoing health disparities (47).

Since 2003, the overall support for marriage equality has increased. The shift in attitudes toward acceptance of same-sex marriage has broad positive implications for the future of U.S. civil marriage rights. A 2013 survey by the Pew Research Center revealed that nearly half of U.S. adults expressed support for same-sex marriage. Of note, millennials (those born after 1980) showed the highest rate of support for same-sex marriage rights at 70%. Not only has overall opinion changed, but individually, 1 in 7 respondents reported they had changed their minds from opposing to supporting same-sex marriage. The Pew survey found that 32% of respondents changed their mind because they knew someone who identified as lesbian or gay (3€

The legal landscape is also shifting in favor of inclusive civil marriage rights for same-sex couples. The American Bar Association has adopted a resolution recognizing "that lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) persons have a human right to be free from discrimination, threats and violence based on their LGBT status and condemns all laws, regulations and rules or practices that discriminate on the basis that an individual is [an]

LGBT person" (48). In June 2013, the U.S. Supreme Court struck down a provision of the Defense of Marriage Act that defined marriage as a "union between a man and a woman." The decision allowed legally married same-sex couples to have the same federal benefits offered to heterosexual couples (49). Currently more than half of the states and the District of Columbia allow same-sex marriage, and several states have rulings in favor of same-sex marriage that are stayed pending legal appeals (50). In April 2015, the Supreme Court heard oral arguments in a case involving same-sex marriage bans in Michigan, Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee; this will ultimately determine the constitutionality of same-sex marriage bans, including whether states would be required to recognize same-sex marriages performed legally out of state (51).

6. The American College of Physicians supports data collection and research into understanding the demographics of the LGBT population, potential causes of LGBT health disparities, and best practices in reducing these disparities.

Previous efforts to understand the LGBT population by including sexu orientation or gender identity in health surveys and data collection ar good first step, but there is a long way to go to understand the unique health needs of all members of the LGBT community. Understanding the demographics of the persons who make up this community is a key first step to understanding how environmental and social determinants may contribute to the health disparities they face. Overwhelming evidence shows that racial and ethnic minorities experience greater health disparities than

the general population. In 2010, ACP published an updated position paper on racial and ethnic disparities in health care, which identified various statistics on health disparities in racial and ethnic minority groups, such as higher levels of uninsured Hispanics than white persons (34% vs. 13%) and lower rates of medication adherence in minority Medicare beneficiaries diagnosed with dementia (52). Persons who are part of both the LGBT community and a racial or ethnic minority group may face the highest levels of disparities. For example, data show that 30% of African American adults who identify as lesbian, gay, or bisexual are likely to delay getting a prescription compared with 19% of African American heterosexual adults (26).

Transgender persons may also face certain increased risk factors that can affect their health that are not included when discussing the LGBT population as a whole, which creates research gaps with the LGBT community. A survey study of transgender persons shows elevated reports of harassment, physical assault, and sexual violence (20). In addition, transgender persons are more likely to face discrimination in education, employment, housing, and public accommodations than other sexual, racial, or ethnic minority groups. The lack of and unfamiliarity with research focused on the physical health issues of transgender persons, such as hormone replacement therapy and cancer risk, limit the understanding or development of best practices that could reduce the disparities felt by this population. The dearth of such research is detrimental to physicians' understanding of issues unique to transgender patients and reduces their ability to care for these patients.

Data that have been gathered in the relatively short time since the inclusion of sexual orientation, gender identity, and same-sex marital status have revealed information that can be used to create tailored plans to decrease health disparities in in the LGBT community. For example, in 2009 the California Health Interview Survey collected information on certain health indicators and included sexual orientation along with racial and minority status. The survey found a higher rate of uninsured lesbian, gay, or bisexual Latino adults in the state than their African American counterparts (36% vs. 14%) (20).

In addition to obtaining information from population surveys, including gender identity and sexual orientation as a component of a patient's medical record (paper or electronic) may help a physician to better understand an LGBT patient's needs and provide more comprehensive care. This can be particularly useful in the care of transgender persons, whose gender identity and gender expression may differ from their sex assigned at birth and are not in line with the standard sex template on many forms. Including this information—especially in electronic health records that can standardize information, such as anatomy present and the preferred name/pronou can create a more comfortable experience for the patient and keep the physician up to date on the patient's transition history, if applicable (53). If a physician uses paper medical records, the patient's chart should be flagged using an indicator, such as a sticker, to alert staff to use the preferred name and pronoun of the patient (54).

7. Medical schools, residency programs, and continuing medical education programs should incorporate LGBT health issues into their curricula. The College supports programs that would help recruit LGBT persons into the practice of medicine and programs that offer support to LGBT medical students, residents, and practicing physicians.

Establishing understanding, trust, and communication between a physician and a patient is key to an ongoing and beneficial physician–patient relationship. However, reported instances of physician bias or denial of care to LGBT patients may influence patients to withhold information on their sexual orientation, gender identity, or medical conditions that could help the physician have a better understanding of the potential health needs of their patients. Physicians can play an integral role in helping an LGBT patient navigate through the medical system by providing respectful, culturally, and clinically competent care that underscores the overall health of the patient. In an article published in *The New England Journal of Medicine,* Makadon noted how physicians can create a welcoming and inclusive environment to LGBT patients:

> [G]uidelines for clinical practice can be very simple: ask the appropri. questions and be open and nonjudgmental about the answers. Few patients expect their providers to be experts on all aspects of gay and lesbian life. But it is important that providers inquire about life situations, be concerned about family and other important relationships, understand support systems, and make appropriate referrals for counseling and support when necessary. (55)

Providing clinically and culturally competent care for transgender persons in the primary care setting may present a challenge to physicians who are not knowledgeable about transgender health. Transgender persons have reported encounters with physicians who are unaware of how to approach treatment of a transgender person, and half of transgender patients reported having to "teach" their physician about transgender health (20). The National Transgender Survey found that 19% of participants had been denied medical care because of their transgender status (20). Resources for physicians on how to approach the treatment of transgender patients should emphasize respecting the patient's gender identity while providing prevention, treatment, and screening to the anatomy that is present (56).

To better understand the unique health needs of the LGBT community, physicians and medical professionals must develop a knowledge base in cultural and clinical competency and understand the factors that affect LGBT health; this should begin in the medical school setting and continue during practice. Assessment of LGBT-related content at medical schools found a median of 5 hours spent on LGBT-related issues over the course of the curriculum (57). Exposure to members of the LGBT population in medical school has been shown to increase the likelihood that a physician will take a more comprehensive patient history, have a better understanding of LGBT health issues, and have a more positive attitude toward LGBT patients (58). Studies show that undergraduate students pursuing a career in medicine are receptive to incorporating LGBT-related issues into their education and agree that it applies to their future work (59). The College recognizes the importance of incorporating LGBT health into the medical

school curriculum and publishes a comprehensive medical textbook on LGBT health, *The Fenway Guide to Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Health, 2nd Edition* (60).

In November 2014, the Association of American Medical Colleges Advisory Committee on Sexual Orientation, Gender Identity, and Sex Development released a comprehensive report recommending strategies on how to implement changes in academic medical institutions to better address the needs of LGBT patients; further, the committee identified challenges and barriers to carrying out these changes. The report recognizes 3 methods of integrating LGBT health into the medical school curricula: full curriculum revision, the addition of a required class, or LGBT health study as a part of elective materials. The report also identifies barriers to curricular changes, including but not limited to a lack of material that has been shown to be effective, reluctance of faculty and staff to teach the new material, and a shortage of institutional time that would permit teachers to participate in continuing education on the topic (61).

For some LGBT persons interested in pursuing careers in medicine, th continues to be an underlying concern that their sexual orientation or gender identity may affect their selection into a medical school or residency program and acceptance by their peers. In 2012, Dr. Mark Schuster published his personal story about being gay in medicine starting in the 1980s when he entered medical school, through residency, and into practice. In his article, he spoke of a former attending physician he worked under who acted as an advisor and had indicated he would offer him a

recommendation for residency, only to find this physician later renege on that offer after Dr. Schuster shared that he was gay (62). Little research has been done on the recruitment of LGBT physicians into the practice of medicine or how disclosing sexual orientation may affect training. One survey measuring the perceptions and attitudes toward sexual orientation during training found that 30% of respondents did not reveal their sexual orientation when applying for residency positions for fear of rejection (63).

Academic medical institutions can make efforts to create a welcoming and inclusive environment for students and faculty. The University of California, San Francisco, LGBT Resource Center developed a checklist for medical schools to assess LGBT curriculum, admissions, and the working environment within their institution. The checklist includes inclusive application procedures, measurement of retention of LGBT students, and efforts and resources dedicated to student well-being (64). In a 2013 white paper, the Gay and Lesbian Medical Association made several recommendations to support an LGBT-inclusive climate at health professional schools in such areas as institutional equality, transgender services and support, diversity initiatives, admissions, staff and faculty recruitment and retention, staff and faculty training, and other areas that underscore simple yet thoughtful ways to create an accepting environment for LGBT students, faculty, and employees (65). Tools such as these can assist in recruiting and retaining LGBT physicians.

8. The College opposes the use of "conversion," "reorientation," or "reparative' therapy for the treatment of LGBT persons.

Since 1973, the American Psychiatric Association's *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* has not considered homosexuality an illness (66). All major medical and mental health organizations do not consider homosexuality as an illness but as a variation of human sexuality, and they denounce the practice of reparative therapy for treatment of LGBT persons (67). The core basis for "conversion," "reorientation," or "reparative" therapy, which is generally defined as therapy aiming at changing the sexual orientation of lesbian women and gay men, is mostly based on religious or moral objections to homosexuality or the belief that a homosexual person can be "cured" of their presumed illness.

In 2007, the American Psychological Association conducted a literature review of 83 studies on the efficacy of efforts to change sexual orientation. It found serious flaws in the research methods of most of the studies and identified only 1 study that met research standards for establishing safety or efficacy of conversion therapy and also compared persons who received a treatment with those who did not. In that study, intervention had no effect on the rates of same-sex behavior, so it is widely believed that there is no scientific evidence to support the use of reparative therapy (68). The I American Health Organization, the regional office for the Americas of the larger World Health Organization, also supports the position that there is no medical basis for reparative therapy and that the practice may pose a threat to the overall health and well-being of an individual (69). Dr. Robert Spitzer, the author of a 2003 research study often cited by supporters of the reparative therapy movement to purport that persons may choose to change their sexual orientation, has denounced the research as flawed and

apologized to the LGBT community in a letter for misinterpretations or misrepresentations that arose from the study (70).

Available research does not support the use of reparative therapy as an effective method in the treatment of LGBT persons. Evidence shows that the practice may actually cause emotional or physical harm to LGBT individuals, particularly adolescents or young persons. Research done at San Francisco State University on the effect of familial attitudes and acceptance found that LGBT youth who were rejected by their families because of their identity were more likely than their LGBT peers who were not rejected or only mildly rejected by their families to attempt suicide, report high levels of depression, use illegal drugs, or be at risk for HIV and sexually transmitted illnesses (71). The American Psychological Association literature review found that reparative therapy is associated with the loss of sexual feeling, depression, anxiety, and suicidality (68).

States have delved into the debate over the use of reparative therapy for minor children given the potential for harm. California; New Jersey; and Washington, DC, have enacted laws banning the practice. Several othe legislatures, such as those in Washington state, Massachusetts, New Y and Oregon, have introduced or passed legislation through one chamber but failed to pass the bill into law (72). The New Jersey law was challenged on the grounds that the ban limited the free speech of mental health professionals, but the law was upheld by the Third U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals (73). In May 2015, the U.S. Supreme Court declined to hear a challenge to the law (74).

9. The American College of Physicians supports continued reviews of blood donation deferral policies for men who have sex with men. The College supports evidence-based deferral policies that take into account a comprehensive assessment of the risk level of all individuals seeking to donate, which may result in varying deferral periods or a lengthened or permanent deferral on blood donation.

Persons who are considered at increased or possible risk for certain infectious diseases, such as intravenous drug users, recipients of animal organs or tissues, and those who have traveled or lived abroad in certain countries, are prohibited by the U.S Food and Drug Administration from donating blood (75). Since the early 1980s, the policy has also included men who have sex with men (MSM) since 1977. This lifetime deferral of blood donation for MSM was instituted during a time when the incidence of HIV and AIDS increased to epidemic levels in the United States, and the disease and how it was transmitted were largely misunderstood by the scientific community. In the following years, concerted efforts by the medical community, patient advocates, and government officials and agencies resulted in advancements in blood screening technology and treatmei the virus. However, during that time of uncertainty, policies were implemented to balance the risk for contaminating the blood supply with what was known about the transmissibility of the disease.

Several medical organizations support deferral policy reform based on available scientific evidence and testing capabilities. The American Medical Association policy on blood donor criteria supports, "the use of rational,

scientifically based blood and tissue donation deferral periods that are fairly and consistently applied to donors according to their level of risk" (76). The American Association of Blood Banks, America's Blood Centers, and the American Red Cross have long advocated for a modification to deferral criteria to be "made comparable with criteria for other groups at increased risk for sexual transmission of transfusion-transmitted infections" and recommend a 12-month deferral for men who have had sex with another man since 1977, which is in line with deferral criteria for others who have exhibited high-risk behavior (77). The eligibility standards and policies on the donation of tissues or tissue products (5-year deferral since last sexual contact) (78) and vascular organs (risk assessed individually, disclosed to transplant team, and consent required) (79) by MSM also reflect a measured assessment of disease transmission risk to donor recipients.

Many countries, including the United Kingdom, Canada, Finland, Australia, and New Zealand, have successfully instituted deferral periods ranging from 12 months to 5 years in lieu of a lifetime ban on blood donation by MSM without measurable increased risk to the blood supply. A study of the risk of blood donations from MSM after the implementation of shorter defer periods in England and Wales 12 months after their last sexual encounter found only a marginal increase in the risk for transfusion-transmitted HIV (80). Australia changed the deferral policy for MSM from 5 years to 12 months over 1996 to 2000. A study that compared the prevalence of HIV among blood donors from the 5-year deferral period compared with the 12-month deferral period found no evidence that the 12-month period increased risk for HIV in recipients (81).

In late 2014, the HHS Advisory Committee on Blood and Tissue Safety and Availability voted in favor of recommending a 1-year deferral policy for MSM and increased surveillance of the blood supply. The U.S Food and Drug Administration announced it would be updating its policy on blood donation from MSM after considering recommendations made by the HHS, reviews of available scientific evidence, and recommendations from its own Blood Products Advisory Committee. The policy about indefinite deferral on blood donation from MSM is being updated to a 1-year deferral period from the last sexual contact, and the U.S. Food and Drug Administration will issue draft guidance on the policy change in 2015. In addition, the agency announced it has already taken steps to implement a national blood surveillance system to monitor what, if any, effects the new policy has on the nation's blood supply (82). Lifting the lifetime ban on blood donation by MSM is an important first step toward creating equity among those wishing to donate blood. The U.S Food and Drug Administration should continue to monitor the effects of a 1-year deferral and update its policy as information and data are gathered through surveillance to make further strides toward policies that assess donor eligibility on the basis of scientific data and individual risk fact such as the length of time since a high-risk behavior has occurred, typ sex that occurred, number of partners during a period of time, or a combination of factors (83).

Comments

6 Comments

Rex Moss, MD • Dallas, Texas • 27 May 2015

Comment

To the Editor: "ACP Takes a Stand against Health Disparities Affecting LGBT Individuals New policy paper aims to ensure high-quality health care for all" This is very disappointing. I love the Annals and very much enjoyed and learned a great deal at several ACP conferences. But I left the AMA as it stood up for abortion rights and I resign from ACP, now as you stand up for a number of foolish policies, more oriented to political ideology than medical care or logic. Your new policy states: For instance, health data related to marital status show a benefit for married heterosexual couples, but the committee found that the fact that LGBT partners and families live without the same protections and recognition appears to increase their risk for depression and other poor health outcomes. Does it really follow that societys protections and encouragement of heterosexual marriage has the power to prevent depression and poor health outcomes? Is it possible that heterosexual marriage is our natural state and that our minds and bodies work best when used in the appropriate way? ACP's Health and Public Policy Committee recommends: Including comprehensive transgender heath care services in public and private health benefit plans. You recommend public and private insurance pay for sexual reassignment surgery. Is there data of benefit? Perhaps a reduction in mortality, disability or morbidity? Do those who have sexual reassignment surgery live longer or commit suicide less often? Why should anyone outside the person determined to change their body pay for it? Expanding the definition of "family" to include all who maintain an emotional connection to the patient, regardless of legal or biological relationship. Do you have data that children raised in families other than with their biological parents do better or as well? In absence of data, would it not be logical to encourage keeping biological parents together or at least permit states to make the judgment for themselves how to regulate/ encourage marriage? (as opposed to having courts take over as the "determiners of all things not established by study or fact") Opposing the use of "conversion," "reorientation" or "reparative" therapies in the treatment of LGBT individuals. Do you have data that such therapies are harmful? If a deeply disturbed person is confused about his/ her sexual identity and wants to focus attention on the opposite sex and seeks counseling to do so, is that wrong or harmful? LGBT individuals have a high incidence of depression and suicide. Do you wish to oppose possible the may help if you have no alternative therapy that will help? Political trends come and go. Slavery, racial marriage, cocaine, smoking, breast self-exam, and epinephrine have been normal, encouraged, discouraged and tossed away. Allowing a popular political idea to lead to policy changes not supported by data, that costs a great deal of money and is very disruptive to a current healthy institution: heterosexual marriage is a poor plan. ACP think before you act. When you act wrongly think again and change. Good-bye, Rex Moss MD

Hilary Daniel, BS, Renee Butkus, BA • American College of Physicians • 11 September 2015

Response to Comments Made by Drs. Lacy and Ng

The two comments submitted by Drs. Lacy and Ng speak to the diversity of ACP's 143,000 internal medicine physicians and student members. ACP advocates on a wide variety of topics and the College

recognizes that not all ACP members will agree with our positions. The need to address the unique needs of the LGBT persons and their families is a based on ACP's long standing commitment to advocate for those being negatively affected by health care disparities. Ignoring or glossing over some topics that affect health because they are controversial would be inconsistent with ACP's mission "To enhance the quality and effectiveness of health care by fostering excellence and professionalism in the practice of medicine" including "to advocate responsible positions on individual health and on public policy relating to health care for the benefit of the public, our patients, the medical profession, and our members."

We appreciate Dr. Ng's support for our paper. As the paper was being developed, policies concerning same sex marriage, blood donation by men who have sex with men, and coverage for transgender health care services were undergoing change. The College recognizes the need for continued review of issues relating to LGBT health.

Dr. Lacy takes issue with our call for a more inclusive definition of family. As our paper points out, it's estimated that only 22% of U.S. families consist of married heterosexual parents with their own biological children. A modern definition of family that is inclusive of all types of families, including the LGBT population, is fundamental to reducing the disparities and inequalities that exist within the health care system and to equal treatment of LGBT patients and their visitors in the hospital setting. Our opposition to "therapy" to change the sexual orientation of an individual is based on the science that shows that sexual and gender orientation are not disability or disorder in need of treatment or cure, and that such "therapies" may be harmful to patients receiving them.

Hilary Daniel, BS
Renee Butkus, BA

1. Movement Advancement Project, Family Equality Council, Center for American Progress. All children matter: how legal and social inequalities hurt LGBT families: condensed version. Denver: Movement Advancement Project; 2011. Accessed at www.lgbtmap.org/file/all-children-matter-condensed-report.pdf on 11 February 2015

2. American Psychological Association Task Force. Report of the American Psychological Association Task Force on appropriate therapeutic responses to sexual orientation. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association; 2009. Accessed atwww.apa.org/pi/lgbt/resources/therapeutic-response.pdf on 11 February 2015.

Paul J Hudson, MD, MPH, FACP • SIM • 22 June 2015

The policy on LGBT reaches beyond evidence

Dear friends at ACP,

I too am disappointed at the lack of evidence for this very broad set of policy changes, which not only goes beyond the evidence but becomes an agent for changing institutions that have stood the test of millenia. For example, defining a family as something other than biological is a step in the wrong direction. The evidence shows that children need a father and they need a mother; this has something to do with biology, and cannot be socially constructed.

Please reconsider your over-reach and return to medical evidence.

Thank you,

Paul Hudson, MD, FACP, MPH

Mark D Lacy • Lubbock, Tx • 3 June 2015

Access for All but losing our way in the Process

To advocate for the elimination of health care disparities among Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender (LGBT) persons is a worthy objective not just for these populations but all patients facing obstacles to quality care. Sadly, the American College of Physicians Position Paper published May 12, 2015 addressing LGBT Health Disparities goes beyond advocating health care access by promoting a damaging sociopolitical ideology. The Paper re-defines the meaning of family, marriage, and calls for denying LGBT persons choices in behavioral health services.

While alleging the Position Paper was the product following review of “numerous studies, reports, and surveys on LGBT health care and related health policy” many cited references are based on research neither well executed nor widely corroborated. Further, it appears the reviewers fail to account for sound, copious evidence contradicting the cited sources.

To redefine family as “those who maintain an ongoing emotional relationship with a person, regardless of their legal or biological relationship” is to deny the reality of paternity and maternity, both integr most wholesome child-rearing environments. Dads contribute to the growth and development children much differently than moms do. Asserting family as whatever one wants it to be is to succumb to the solipsistic notion that the self is the final arbiter of reality, to substitute the real and immutable childhood need for mothers and fathers with the sexual-romantic mutable desires of adults. Will the next Position Paper call for endorsing the aims of the North American Man Boy Love Association or Peter Singer’s call for granting civil rights to primates? Marriage is, and for millennia has been, rooted in the male-female complementarity that makes sexual reproduction possible and child-rearing wholistic. What is at play in this Statement are very imprudent mental maneuvres, “The moment you step into the world of facts, you step into a world of limits. You can free things from alien or accidental laws, but not from the laws of their own nature. You may, if you like, free a tiger from his bars, but not free him from his stripes. Do not free a camel from his hump; you may be freeing him from being a camel”. In "re-inventing" family and the meaning of marriage is to engage in the same sort of casuistry.

With regard to the American Psychological Association (APA) being invoked as the authority to repudiate psychotherapy for unwanted sexual behaviours recall the APA Task Force unequivocally posits "Same-sex sexual attractions, behavior, and orientations per se are normal and positive variants of human sexuality." If that is the a priori assertion, can objective assessment of "sexual orientation change efforts" (SOCE) be realistically expected? Probably not. To satisfactorily debunk SOCE entails more than citing the APA. In the meantime, persons who opt for SOCE should be given the prerogative in the same way, for example, the transgender person is offered high- dose estrogens in spite of the increased risk of thrombosis.

The LGBT Position Papers unfortunately makes the Annals a mouthpiece for the post-modern notion that we can write our own narrative and call it true, regardless of the facts. Once the Annals becomes a purveyor of ideology and asserts a world view which doesn't comport with facts, it is no longer a reliable source of guidance for physicians.

Mark D Lacy, MD, MA, FACP

Henry Ng, MD, MPH, FAAP, FACP • MetroHealth Medical Center, Case Western Reserve University School of Medicine • 2 June 2015

In support of the American College of Physician's Policy Position Paper on Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Health Disparities

As an internist-pediatrician who has worked in LGBT health care for the last decade, I am invigorated that the American College of Physicians (ACP), one of my professional homes, has developed a set of LGBT health focused policy statements. From my perspective as an LGBT health advocate and clinical director of a hospital-based LGBT health service line, these policy statements were sorely needed to assist internists around the US and internationally to improve the health experiences and outcomes, and ultimately eliminate health disparities of LGBT patients. I am proud to see the American College of Physicians join a growing group of professional organizations with LGBT-inclusive policies or mi: statements including the American Academy of Family Physicians, the American Medical Assoc American Academy of Pediatrics, the American Academy of Physician Assistants, the American Academy of Nursing , the American College of Obstetrics and Gynecology, the American Psychological Association, the American Psychiatric Association, GLMA: Health Professionals Advancing LGBT Equality and others.

The nine policy statements developed by Daniel et al which compose the ACP's policy position paper are both bold and broad in their recommendations. Many of the recommendations are timely and remind internists to keep in-step with guidelines set forth by accrediting bodies such as the Joint Commission and the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services. This is especially important as more and more LGBT Americans enroll in health insurance through the Affordable Care Act and begin to routinely access the US health care system. However, the ACP's policy statements will only be as useful as they are complete and current and must be considered a living document with the capacity to grow and change based on

the best available data and knowledge regarding LGBT health. I encourage the members of the ACP Health and Public Policy Committee to revisit the policy statement on regular intervals for updates to fill the many gaps in our knowledge about LGBT health.

Future revisions of the policy statement should pay careful attention to details not necessarily called out in the current policy's executive summary. For example, policy statement 2 calls for the ACP to "recommend that all public and private health benefit plans include comprehensive transgender care services and provide all covered services to transgender persons as they would all other beneficiaries."1 The authors continue to describe the impact of arbitrary or blanket exclusions for transgender health services in their example of hysterectomy coverage for a cisgender patient, but exclusion for a transgender patient. Yet in the policy statement, the ACP falls short of stating that such hormonal and/or surgical care is medically necessary. Moreover, the term "comprehensive" is an unclear term in this context. For optimal health outcomes, comprehensive care would need to be inclusive of all medically necessary care including primary care, mental health care, transgender hormonal care, transgender-related and non-transgender-related surgical care, and HIV care.

The policy authors write in policy statement 6 that the ACP supports data collection and research into the understanding the demographics of the LGBT population, potential causes of LGBT health disparities, and best practices in reducing these disparities. This statement particularly important as there exist few nationally representative datasets describing LGBT population health. In fact, Healthy People 2020 still prioritizes collecting data on LGB and Transgender populations in their four objectives.2 To date, only the 2013 National Health Interview Survey has collected nationally representative data on lesbian, gay and bisexual people.3 Federal nationally representative surveys continue to exclude transgender respondents by not collecting gender identity/expression as part of the respondents' demographic variables. Unfortunately, the majority of electronic health records also fail to provide fields for collection of sexual orientation and gender identity (SOGI) data. Cahill et al found that integrating SOGI data collection into the meaningful use requirements was both acceptable to diverse samples of patients, including heterosexuals, and feasible.4 The ACP should consider supporting inclusion of SOGI data collection in Meaningful Use as another strategy to improve LGBT health data collection.

Daniel et al write in position statement 7 that "Medical Schools, residency programs, and continue medical education programs should incorporate LGBT health issues into their curriculum. The College supports programs that would help recruit LGBT persons into the practice of medicine and programs that offer support to other LGBT medical students, residents, and practicing physicians."1 Creating the next generation of culturally and clinically competent health professionals and internists is central to improving LGBT health. Nationally, few health organizations and hospitals have actively implemented comprehensive programs to create LGBT affirming environments, educate health professionals and staff on LGBT health, or create sustainable supportive infrastructure. There continues to be a great need for LGBT safe space programs, LGBT 101 cultural competency education, and inclusion of LGBT topics in academic discourse and mentorship. Homophobia, transphobia, few visible LGBT health professional

mentors and lack of institutional support for LGBT health scholarship serve as barriers to growing a cadre of academic internists adequately prepared to care for LGBT populations.5 The College can continue to champion LGBT health by supporting inclusion of LGBT health content in internal medicine certification examination questions, internal medicine in-training examination questions and promotion of additional LGBT health education resources like Fenway Guide to Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Health.6

Finally, the ACP should consider adding an additional statement which addresses and acknowledges the intersectionality of our patients' identities as noted by IOM report.7 Sexual orientation and gender identity/expression do not exist within a vacuum and are part of the multidimensionality of our identities as people.

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Disclosures: I am the President of GLMA: Health Professionals Advancing LGBT Equality

Hilary Daniel • American College of Physicians • 13 May 2015

FDA Releases Draft Guidance on Blood Donation by MSM

On Tuesday May 12, 2015 the Food and Drug Administration released the document "Revised Recommendations for Reducing the Risk of Human Immunodeficiency Virus Transmission by Blood and Blood Products: Draft Guidance for Industry." The proposed recommendations would replace the lifetime deferral period on blood donation by men who have sex with men (MSM) with a 12-month deferral period from most recent sexual contact. The FDA is accepting public comment on the guidance for 60 days.

PREVIOUS ARTICLE

NEXT ARTICLE

AMA
AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION

James L. Madara, MD
CEO, EXECUTIVE VICE PRESIDENT
jamesmadara@ama-assn.org

Pl. Trial Ex. 042

April 26, 2021

Mr. Bill McBride
Executive Director
National Governors Association
Hall of States
444 North Capitol Street NW, Suite 267
Washington, DC 20001

Dear Mr. McBride:

On behalf of the American Medical Association (AMA) and our physician and medical student members, I write to urge the National Governors Association (NGA) and its member governors to oppose state legislation that would prohibit the provision of medically necessary gender transition-related care to minor patients. We believe this legislation represents a dangerous governmental intrusion into the practice of medicine and will be detrimental to the health of transgender children across the country.

Empirical evidence has demonstrated that trans and non-binary gender identities are normal variations of human identity and expression. For gender diverse individuals, standards of care and accepted medically necessary services that affirm gender or treat gender dysphoria may include mental health counseling, non-medical social transition, gender-affirming hormone therapy, and/or gender-affirming surgeries. Clinical guidelines established by professional medical organizations for the care of minors promote these supportive interventions based on the current evidence and that enable young people to explore and live the gender that they choose. Every major medical association in the United States recognizes the medical necessity of transition-related care for improving the physical and mental health of transgender people.

Arkansas' recently enacted SAFE Act and similar bills pending in several other states would insert the government into clinical decision-making and force physicians to disregard clinical guidelines. Decisions about medical care belong within the sanctity of the patient-physician relationship. As with all medical interventions, physicians are guided by their ethical duty to act in the best interest of their patients and must tailor recommendations about specific interventions and the timing of those interventions to each patient's unique circumstances. Such decisions must be sensitive to the child's clinical situation, nurture the child's short and long-term development, and balance the need to preserve the child's opportunity to make important life choices autonomously in the future. We believe it is inappropriate and harmful for any state to legislatively dictate that certain transition-related services are never appropriate and limit the range of options physicians and families may consider when making decisions for pediatric patients.

In addition, evidence has demonstrated that forgoing gender-affirming care can have tragic consequences. Transgender individuals are up to three times more likely than the general population to report or be diagnosed with mental health disorders, with as many as 41.5 percent reporting at least one diagnosis of a mental health or substance use disorder.[1] The increased prevalence of these mental health conditions is widely thought to be a consequence of minority stress, the chronic stress from coping with societal

[1] Sari Reisner, et al., *Psychiatric Diagnoses and Comorbidities in a Diverse, Multicity Cohort of Young Transgender Women: Baseline Findings from Project LifeSkills*, 170 J. Am. Med. Ass'n Pediatrics 5, 481–86 (May 2016).

stigma, and discrimination because of one's gender identity and expression. Because of this stress, transgender minors also face a significantly heightened risk of suicide.

Transgender children, like all children, have the best chance to thrive when they are supported and can obtain the health care they need. Studies suggest that improved body satisfaction and self-esteem following the receipt of gender-affirming care is protective against poorer mental health and supports healthy relationships with parents and peers.[2] Studies also demonstrate dramatic reductions in suicide attempts, as well as decreased rates of depression and anxiety.[3] Other studies show that a majority of patients report improved mental health and function after receipt of gender-affirming care. Medically supervised care can also reduce rates of harmful self-prescribed hormones, use of construction-grade silicone injections, and other interventions that have potential to cause adverse events.[4]

It is imperative that transgender minors be given the opportunity to explore their gender identity under the safe and supportive care of a physician. Arkansas's law and others like it would forestall that opportunity. This is a dangerous intrusion into the practice of medicine and we strongly urge the NGA and its member governors to oppose these troubling bills.

We thank you for the opportunity to express our views on this important issue. Please contact Annalia Michelman, JD, Senior Legislative Attorney, AMA Advocacy Resource Center at annalia.michelman@ama-assn.org to discuss this issue further and how our two organizations can work together.

Sincerely,

James L. Madara, MD

[2] Ashli Owen-Smith, et al., *Association Between Gender Confirmation Treatments and Perceived Gender Congruence, Body Image Satisfaction, and Mental Health in a Cohort of Transgender Individuals*, 15 J Sexual Med 4, 591-600 (Apr. 2018); Michelle Marie Johns, et al., *Protective Factors Among Transgender and Gender Variant Youth: A Systematic Review by Socioecological Level*, 39 J Primary Prevention 3, 263-301 (Jun. 2018).

[3] M. Hassan Murad, et al., *Hormonal Therapy and Sex Reassignment: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Quality of Life and Psychosocial Outcomes*, 72 Clinical Endocrinology 2, 214-331 (Feb. 2010); Yolanda Smith, et al., *Sex Reassignment: Outcomes and Predictors of Treatment for Adult and Adolescent Transsexuals*, 35 Psychological Med. 1, 89-99 (Jan. 2005).

[4] Jessica Xavier, Admin. HIV and AIDS, D.C. Gov't, The Washington Transgender Needs Assessment Survey (2000); Wendy Bostwick & Gretchen Kenagy, *Health and Social Service Needs of Transgendered People in Chicago*, 8 Int'l J Transgenderism 2-3, 57-66 (Oct. 2008); Cathy Reback, et al., Los Angeles Transgender Health Study: Community Report (2001).

ISSUE BRIEF

Health insurance coverage for gender-affirming care of transgender patients

Background

Gender identity refers to an individual's concept of self as male, female, a blend of both or neither. Approximately 1.4 million adults and 150,000 youth ages 13 to 17 in the United States identify as transgender, meaning those individuals' gender identity and/or expression is different from cultural expectations based on the sex they were assigned at birth.[1] Individuals may also identify as gender expansive, meaning they identify with neither traditional binary gender role nor a single gender narrative or experience.[2] In this document, the term transgender is used inclusive of patients with transgender or gender expansive identities.

Many but not all transgender people experience gender dysphoria, a medical condition defined by the American Psychiatric Association as a "conflict between a person's physical or assigned gender and the gender with which he/she/they identify."[3] Standards of care and accepted medically necessary services that affirm gender or treat gender dysphoria may include but are not limited to mental health counseling, non-medical social transition, gender-affirming hormone therapy, and/or gender-affirming surgeries.[4] Every major medical association in the United States recognizes the medical necessity of transition-related care for improving the physical and mental health of transgender people and has called for health insurance coverage for treatment of gender dysphoria.[5]

Barriers to care

As a population, transgender individuals are frequently subject to bias and discrimination in many aspects of their lives, including the provision of health care. The transgender population is less likely to be insured than both the lesbian, gay and bisexual (LGB) and general populations and often faces challenges in accessing needed healthcare services.[6] A national survey of transgender individuals found:

- 25 percent of respondents experienced a problem with their insurance in the past year related to being transgender, such as being denied coverage for care related to gender transition;
- 25 percent of those who sought coverage for hormones in the past year were denied;
- 55 percent of those who sought coverage for transition-related surgery in the past year were denied;

1. Andrew Flores et al., Williams Inst., UCLA Sch. of Law, How Many Adults Identify as Transgender in the United States? (2016).
2. Joel Baum, et al., Human Rights Campaign & Gend. Spectrum, Supporting and Caring for our Gender Expansive Youth (2013).
3. *What Is Gender Dysphoria?*, Am. Psychiatric Ass'n, https://www.psychiatry.org/patients-families/gender-dysphoria/what-is-gender-dysphoria
4. World Professional Ass'n for Transgender Health, Standards of Care Version 7 (2018), *available at* https://www.wpath.org/publications/soc; Wylie Hembree, et al., Endocrine Treatment of Gender-Dysphoric/Gender-Incongruent Persons: An *Endocrine Society Clinical Practice Guideline*, 102 J Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism 11, 3869-903 (Sep. 2017); Eli Coleman, et al., *Standards of Care for the Health of Transsexual, Transgender, and Gender-Nonconforming People, Version 7*, 13 Int'l J Transgenderism 4, 165-232 (Aug. 2012).
5. Kellan Baker, *The Future of Transgender Coverage*, 376 New Eng. J. Med. 19, 1801-04 (May 2017).
6. Jen Kates, et al., Henry J. Kaiser Family Found., Health and Access to Care and Coverage for Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Individuals in the US, issue brief, May 2018; Sandy James, et al., Nat'l Ctr. Transgender Equality, The Report of the 2015 US Transgender Survey (2016); U.S. Census Bureau, 2015 American Community Survey 1-Year Estimates (2015), *available at* https://factfinder.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS_15_1YR_S2701&prodType=table.

- 78 percent of respondents wanted hormone therapy related to gender transition, but only 49 percent had ever received it;
- 42 percent reported that insurance covered only some of the surgical care needed for transition; and
- 21 percent reported that insurance covered transition-related surgery, but had no in-network providers.[7]

Federal and state policies

Section 1557 of the Affordable Care Act (ACA) created specific protections barring insurance discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity.[8] Prior to enactment, medically necessary gender-affirming hormones and surgeries were often excluded from insurance coverage. Addressing this disparity, the US Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) promulgated final regulations in 2016 implementing section 1557 of the ACA to extend protections against sex discrimination to health coverage and care for the first time and including gender identity discrimination within the definition of sex discrimination.[9] However, a federal court stayed a legal challenge to the rule after the current Administration announced it would reconsider the rule's prohibition on discrimination based on gender identity. The timeline for HHS reconsideration is unknown and the current Administration has, to date, declined to defend the regulation.[10] Rulings by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission remain intact, however, which found that employer-sponsored plans that exclude gender-affirming care violate Title VII. [11] Title VII of the Civil Rights Act prohibits employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex and national origin.

In addition to the ACA, the federal government has taken steps to bar discrimination against transgender individuals in federal health programs. In 2014, HHS invalidated a prior prohibition on Medicare coverage of gender-affirming surgery, citing evidence supporting its effectiveness in treating gender dysphoria and potential for improved health outcomes.[12] In 2016, the federal Office of Personnel Management barred exclusions for gender transition services from the Federal Employees Health Benefits Program. In 2018, the US Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) proposed to amend its medical regulations by removing a provision that excludes "gender alterations" from its medical benefits package, which would effectively authorize transition-related surgery as part of VA care when medically necessary. Final regulations, however, have not yet been issued by the VA.

State-wise, twenty states (CA, CT, CO, DE, HI, IL, MA, MD, MI, MN, NJ, NM, NV, NY, OR, PA, RI, VT and WA) and District of Columbia prohibit health insurers from excluding coverage for transgender health services.[13] California, for example, prohibits health plans from denying coverage or limiting coverage on the basis of sex, which is defined to include gender, gender identity and gender expression. In regulation, California specifies four prohibited practices:

- Denying or cancelling an insurance policy on the basis of gender identity;
- Using gender identity as a basis for determining premium;
- Considering gender identity as a pre-existing condition; and
- Denying coverage or claims for health care services to transgender people when coverage is provided to non-transgender people for the same services.[14]

7. Nat'l Ctr. Transgender Equality, The Report of the 2015 US Transgender Survey (2016)
8. 42 U.S.C. § 18116.
9. Nondiscrimination in Health Programs and Activities, 81 Fed. Reg. 31375 (May 18, 2016) (to be codified in 45 C.F.R. pt. 92).
10. *Franciscan Alliance, Inc. et al. v. Burwell et al.*, No. 7:16–cv-00108-o (N.D. Texas Dec. 31, 2016).
11. *Macy v. Holder*, No. 0120120821, 2012 WL 1435995 (E.E.O.C. Apr. 20, 2012); *EEOC v. Deluxe Financial Services Corp.*, (D. Minn., Civ. No. 0:15-cv-02646-ADM-SER, filed June 4, 2015, settled January 20, 2016).
12. U.S. Dep't Health & Human Servs., Departmental Appeals Bd., Appellate Div. NCD 140.3, Transsexual Surgery, Docket No. A-13–87, Decision No. 2576 (May 30, 2014).
13. Baker, *supra* note 5.
14. Cal. Ins. Code § 10140; Cal. Code Regs. Tit. 10 § 2561.2.

Cost savings

In promulgating the regulations, the California Department of Insurance issued an Economic Impact Assessment that determined that aggregate costs of the antidiscrimination rules would be "insignificant and immaterial" while yielding significant benefits to transgender individuals including suicide reduction, improvements in mental health, reduction in substance use rates, higher rates of adherence to HIV care and reduction in self-medication.[15] The Economic Impact Assessment also identified potential cost savings in the medium to long term due to lower costs associated with suicide, attempts at suicide, overall improvements in mental health and lower rates of substance abuse.[16] The assessment noted that the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention estimate the average acute medical costs of a single suicide completion or attempt in the United States is $2,596 and $7,234 respectively.[17]

Other studies have similarly demonstrated that transgender inclusive health coverage is cost-effective compared to the costs associated with untreated gender dysphoria.[18] A cost analysis of the City and County of San Francisco's coverage of transition-related surgeries found that costs in the first five years to both insurers and employers were low, averaging between $0.77 and $0.96 per year per enrollee, and resulted in no surcharge or premium increases.[19] The analysis also found no evidence of a "magnet effect" wherein transgender individuals would have deliberately sought employment in order to access services.

Health implications for transgender individuals

Transgender individuals in the US are up to three times more likely than the general population to report or be diagnosed with mental health disorders, with as many as 41.5 percent reporting at least one diagnosis of a mental health or substance use disorder:

- Over a third of transgender individuals suffer a major depressive episode in their lifetimes;
- 20.2 percent have been diagnosed with suicidality in the past 30 days;
- 7.9 percent have been diagnosed with an anxiety disorder in the past six months;
- 9.8 percent have been diagnosed with post-traumatic stress disorder in the past six months; and
- 15.2 percent have been diagnosed with a substance use disorder in the past year.[20]

The increased prevalence of these mental health conditions is widely thought to be a consequence of minority stress, the chronic stress from coping with societal stigma and discrimination because of one's gender identity and expression.[21] Indeed, gender based discrimination affecting access to services is a strong predictor of suicide risk among transgender persons.[22] Lack of access to gender-affirming care may directly contribute to poor mental

15. State of Cal., Dep't Ins., Economic Impact Assessment, Gender Nondiscrimination in Health Insurance, Reg-2011-00023 (Apr. 13, 2012).
16. *Id*.
17. *Id*, citing Ctrs. Disease Control & Prevention, Nat'l Ctr. Injury Prevention & Control, Fact Sheet: The Medical Cost Associated with Suicide in the United States, 2010.
18. State of Cal., supra note 15; William Padula, et al., *Societal Implications of Health Insurance Coverage for Medically Necessary Services in the U.S. Transgender Population: A Cost-Effectiveness Analysis*, 31 J Gen. Internal Med. 4, 394-401 (Apr. 2016).
19. Human Rights Campaign, San Francisco Transgender Benefit, available at http://www.hrc.org/resources/san-francisco-transgender-benefit
20. Sari Reisner, et al., *Psychiatric Diagnoses and Comorbidities in a Diverse, Multicity Cohort of Young Transgender Women: Baseline Findings from Project LifeSkills*, 170 J. Am. Med. Ass'n Pediatrics 5, 481–86 (May 2016).
21. Stephen Russell & Jessica Fish, *Mental Health in Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender (LGBT) Youth*, 12 Ann. Rev. Clinical Psychology 1, 465-87 (Mar. 2016).
22. Kristin Clements-Nolle, et al., *Attempted Suicide among Transgender Persons: The Influence of Gender-Based Discrimination and Victimization*, 53 J Homosexuality 3, 53-69 (Oct. 2008).

health: individuals with gender dysphoria who have undergone no gender confirmation treatment are twice as likely to experience moderate to severe depression and four times more likely to experience anxiety than their surgically-affirmed peers.[23]

Improving access to gender-affirming care is an important means of improving health outcomes for the transgender population. Studies demonstrate dramatic reductions in rate of suicide attempts, with one meta-analysis finding that suicidality rates dropped from 30 percent pre-treatment to 8 percent post-treatment.[24] Studies have also demonstrated a decrease in depression and anxiety and that a majority of patients report improved mental health and function after receipt of gender-affirming care.[25] In addition, receipt of appropriate care is associated with decreased substance use and improved HIV medication adherence among the transgender population, reducing long term negative health outcomes and potential transmission rates. [26] Medically supervised care can also reduce rates of harmful self-prescribed hormones, use of construction grade silicone injections and other interventions that have potential to cause adverse events.[27]

Patients who receive gender-affirming care, including surgical care, feel more congruent in their bodies and report improved mental health. Specifically, one study found that facial feminization surgery improved mental health-related quality of life scores among transgender women to levels seen in the general female population.[28] Studies suggest that improved body satisfaction and self-esteem following medical and surgical therapies is protective against poorer mental health and also supports healthy relationships with parents and peers.[29]

Positive health effects from gender-affirming care extend to children and adolescents as well.[30] Recent research demonstrates that integrated affirmative models of care for youths, which include access to medications and surgeries, result in fewer mental health concerns than has been historically seen among transgender populations.[31] Importantly, rates of self-reported feelings of regret among adolescents following receipt of gender-affirming care are extremely low.[32]

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23. Ashli Owen-Smith, et al., *Association Between Gender Confirmation Treatments and Perceived Gender Congruence, Body Image Satisfaction, and Mental Health in a Cohort of Transgender Individuals*, 15 J Sexual Med 4, 591-600 (Apr. 2018).
24. M. Hassan Murad, et al., *Hormonal Therapy and Sex Reassignment: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Quality of Life and Psychosocial Outcomes*, 72 Clinical Endocrinology 2, 214-331 (Feb. 2010).
25. Yolanda Smith, et al., *Sex Reassignment: Outcomes and Predictors of Treatment for Adult and Adolescent Transsexuals*, 35 Psychological Med. 1, 89-99 (Jan. 2005); Tiffany Ainsworth & Jeffrey Spiegel, *Quality of life of individuals with and without facial feminization surgery or gender reassignment surgery*, 19 Quality Life Res. 7, 1019-24 (Sep. 2010).
26. Jamil Rehman, et al., *The Reported Sex and Surgery Satisfactions of 28 Postoperative Male to-Female Transsexual Patients*, 28 Archives Sexual Behav. 1, 71-89; Jae Sevelius, Adam Carrico & Mallory Johnson, *Antiretroviral Therapy Adherence Among Transgender Women Living with HIV*, 21 J Ass'n Nurses AIDS Care 3, 256-64 (May 2010).
27. Jessica Xavier, Admin. HIV and AIDS, D.C. Gov't, The Washington Transgender Needs Assessment Survey (2000); Wendy Bostwick & Gretchen Kenagy, *Health and Social Service Needs of Transgendered People in Chicago*, 8 Int'l J Transgenderism 2-3, 57-66 (Oct. 2008); Cathy Reback, et al., Los Angeles Transgender Health Study: Community Report (2001).
28. Ainsworth & Spiegel, *supra* note 25.
29. Ashli Owen-Smith, et al., *Association Between Gender Confirmation Treatments and Perceived Gender Congruence, Body Image Satisfaction, and Mental Health in a Cohort of Transgender Individuals*, 15 J Sexual Med 4, 591-600 (Apr. 2018); Michelle Marie Johns, et al., *Protective Factors Among Transgender and Gender Variant Youth: A Systematic Review by Socioecological Level*, 39 J Primary Prevention 3, 263-301 (Jun. 2018).
30. Lily Durwood, Katie Mclaughlin & Kristina Olson, *Mental Health and Self-Worth in Socially Transitioned Transgender Youth*, 56 J Am Acad. Child Adolescent Psychiatry 2, 116-23 (Nov. 2016).
31. Laura Edwards-Leeper & Norman Spack, *Psychological evaluation and medical treatment of transgender youth in an interdisciplinary "Gender Management Service" (GeMS) in a major pediatric center*, 59 J Homosexuality 3, 321-36 (Mar. 2012). Edgardo Menvielle, *A comprehensive program for children with gender variant behaviors and gender identity disorders*, 59 J Homosexuality 3, 357-68 (Mar. 2012); Darryl Hill, et al., *An affirmative intervention for families with gender variant children: parental ratings of child mental health and gender*, 36 J Sex & Marital Therapy 1, 6–23 (2010)
32. Johanna Olson-Kennedy, et al., *Chest Reconstruction and Chest Dysphoria in Transmasculine Minors and Young Adults: Comparisons of Nonsurgical and Postsurgical Cohorts*, 172 JAMA Pediatrics 5, 431-436 (May 2018).

Medical society opinions

The AMA opposes any discrimination based on an individual's sex, sexual orientation or gender identity, opposes the denial of health insurance on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity, and supports public and private health insurance coverage for treatment of gender dysphoria as recommended by the patient's physician. GLMA: Health Professionals Advancing LGBTQ Equality recognizes that mental healthcare, hormone replacement therapy, and/or gender-affirming surgery are medically necessary for the treatment of transgender people who meet the criteria for gender dysphoria and advocates that these services not be excluded from any public or private insurance programs. In addition, other medical associations, including the American Academy of Family Physicians, American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists and American Psychiatric Association have stated that medically necessary transition-related care should be covered by insurance.[33]

AMA policy

Removing Financial Barriers to Care for Transgender Patients H-185.950
Our AMA supports public and private health insurance coverage for treatment of gender dysphoria as recommended by the patient's physician. (Res. 122 A-08; Modified: Res. 05, A-16)

Sexual Orientation and/or Gender Identity as Health Insurance Criteria H-180.980
The AMA opposes the denial of health insurance on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity. (Res. 178, A-88; Reaffirmed: Sub. Res. 101, I-97; Reaffirmed: CMS Rep. 9, A-07; Modified: BOT Rep. 11, A-07; Reaffirmed: CMS Rep. 01, A-17)

Military Medical Policies Affecting Transgender Individuals H-40.966
Our American Medical Association affirms that there is no medically valid reason to exclude transgender individuals from service in the US military and affirms transgender service members be provided care as determined by patient and physician according to the same medical standards that apply to non-transgender personnel. (Res. 11, A-15)

Reducing Suicide Risk Among Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, and Questioning Youth Through Collaboration with Allied Organizations H-60.927
Our AMA will partner with public and private organizations dedicated to public health and public policy to reduce lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and questioning (LGBTQ) youth suicide and improve health among LGBTQ youth. (Res. 402, A-12)

GLMA policy

GLMA 127-18-101: Transgender Healthcare
Therapeutic treatment, including hormone therapy, mental health therapy and gender affirming surgeries, are medically necessary for the treatment of gender dysphoria. These gender-affirming medical and surgical treatments should be covered by all public and private insurance plans. (Approved 2018)

For additional information or assistance with advocacy to protect transgender individuals' access to medically necessary services, please visit the www.ama-assn.org/go/arc or contact Annalia Michelman, JD, Senior Legislative Attorney, AMA Advocacy Resource Center at annalia.michelman@ama-assn.org or (312) 464-4788.

33. See Am. Acad. Fam. Physicians, Coverage Equity for Drugs, Testing, Procedure, Preventive Services, and Reproductive Technologies (2017); Am. College Obstetricians & Gynecologists, Health Care for Transgender Individuals (2011); Am. Psychiatric Ass'n, Position Statement on Access to Care for Transgender and Gender Variant Individuals (2012).

Removing Financial Barriers to Care for Transgender Patients H-185.950

Topic: Health Insurance	Policy Subtopic: Benefits and Coverage
Meeting Type: Annual	Year Last Modified: 2022
Action: Reaffirmed	Type:
Council & Committees: NA, NA	undefined

Our AMA supports public and private health insurance coverage for treatment of gender dysphoria as recommended by the patient's physician.

Policy Timeline

Res. 122

A-08

Modified: Res. 05, A-16

Reaffirmed: Res. 012, A-22

Guidelines for Psychological Practice With Transgender and Gender Nonconforming People

American Psychological Association

Transgender and gender nonconforming[1] (TGNC) people are those who have a gender identity that is not fully aligned with their sex assigned at birth. The existence of TGNC people has been documented in a range of historical cultures (Coleman, Colgan, & Gooren, 1992; Feinberg, 1996; Miller & Nichols, 2012; Schmidt, 2003). Current population estimates of TGNC people have ranged from 0.17 to 1,333 per 100,000 (Meier & Labuski, 2013). The Massachusetts Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance Survey found 0.5% of the adult population aged 18 to 64 years identified as TGNC between 2009 and 2011 (Conron, Scott, Stowell, & Landers, 2012). However, population estimates likely underreport the true number of TGNC people, given difficulties in collecting comprehensive demographic information about this group (Meier & Labuski, 2013). Within the last two decades, there has been a significant increase in research about TGNC people. This increase in knowledge, informed by the TGNC community, has resulted in the development of progressively more trans-affirmative practice across the multiple health disciplines involved in the care of TGNC people (Bockting, Knudson, & Goldberg, 2006; Coleman et al., 2012). Research has documented the extensive experiences of stigma and discrimination reported by TGNC people (Grant et al., 2011) and the mental health consequences of these experiences across the life span (Bockting, Miner, Swinburne Romine, Hamilton, & Coleman, 2013), including increased rates of depression (Fredriksen-Goldsen et al., 2014) and suicidality (Clements-Nolle, Marx, & Katz, 2006). TGNC people's lack of access to trans-affirmative mental and physical health care is a common barrier (Fredriksen-Goldsen et al., 2014; Garofalo, Deleon, Osmer, Doll, & Harper, 2006; Grossman & D'Augelli, 2006), with TGNC people sometimes being denied care because of their gender identity (Xavier et al., 2012).

In 2009, the American Psychological Association (APA) Task Force on Gender Identity and Gender Variance (TFGIGV) survey found that less than 30% of psychologist and graduate student participants reported familiarity with issues that TGNC people experience (APA TFGIGV, 2009). Psychologists and other mental health professionals who have limited training and experience in TGNC-affirmative care may cause harm to TGNC people (Mikalson, Pardo, & Green, 2012; Xavier et al., 2012). The significant level of societal stigma and discrimination that TGNC people face, the associated mental health consequences, and psychologists' lack of familiarity with trans-affirmative care led the APA Task Force to recommend that psychological practice guidelines be developed to help psychologists maximize the effectiveness of services offered and avoid harm when working with TGNC people and their families.

Purpose

The purpose of the *Guidelines for Psychological Practice with Transgender and Gender Nonconforming People* (hereafter *Guidelines*) is to assist psychologists in the provision of culturally competent, developmentally appropriate, and trans-affirmative psychological practice with TGNC people. Trans-affirmative practice is the provision

The American Psychological Association's (APA's) Task Force on Guidelines for Psychological Practice with Transgender and Gender Nonconforming People developed these guidelines. lore m. dickey, Louisiana Tech University, and Anneliese A. Singh, The University of Georgia, served as chairs of the Task Force. The members of the Task Force included Walter O. Bockting, Columbia University; Sand Chang, Independent Practice; Kelly Ducheny, Howard Brown Health Center; Laura Edwards-Leeper, Pacific University; Randall D. Ehrbar, Whitman Walker Health Center; Max Fuentes Fuhrmann, Independent Practice; Michael L. Hendricks, Washington Psychological Center, P.C.; and Ellen Magalhaes, Center for Psychological Studies at Nova Southeastern University and California School of Professional Psychology at Alliant International University.

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This document will expire as APA policy in 2022. After this date, users should contact the APA Public Interest Directorate to determine whether the guidelines in this document remain in effect as APA policy.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to the Public Interest Directorate, American Psychological Association, 750 First Street, NE, Washington, DC 20002.

[1] For the purposes of these guidelines, we use the term *transgender and gender nonconforming* (TGNC). We intend for the term to be as broadly inclusive as possible, and recognize that some TGNC people do not ascribe to these terms. Readers are referred to Appendix A for a listing of terms that include various TGNC identity labels.

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of care that is respectful, aware, and supportive of the identities and life experiences of TGNC people (Korell & Lorah, 2007). The *Guidelines* are an introductory resource for psychologists who will encounter TGNC people in their practice, but can also be useful for psychologists with expertise in this area of practice to improve the care already offered to TGNC people. The *Guidelines* include a set of definitions for readers who may be less familiar with language used when discussing gender identity and TGNC populations (see Appendix A). Distinct from TGNC, the term "cisgender" is used to refer to people whose sex assigned at birth is aligned with their gender identity (E. R. Green, 2006; Serano, 2006).

Given the added complexity of working with TGNC and gender-questioning youth[2] and the limitations of the available research, the *Guidelines* focus primarily, though not exclusively, on TGNC adults. Future revisions of the *Guidelines* will deepen a focus on TGNC and gender-questioning children and adolescents. The *Guidelines* address the strengths of TGNC people, the challenges they face, ethical and legal issues, life span considerations, research, education, training, and health care. Because issues of gender identity are often conflated with issues of gender expression or sexual orientation, psychological practice with the TGNC population warrants the acquisition of specific knowledge about concerns unique to TGNC people that are not addressed by other practice guidelines (APA, 2012). It is important to note that these *Guidelines* are not intended to address some of the conflicts that cisgender people may experience due to societal expectations regarding gender roles (Butler, 1990), nor are they intended to address intersex people (Dreger, 1999; Preves, 2003).

Documentation of Need

In 2005, the APA Council of Representatives authorized the creation of the Task Force on Gender Identity and Gender Variance (TFGIGV), charging the Task Force to review APA policies related to TGNC people and to offer recommendations for APA to best meet the needs of TGNC people (APA TFGIGV, 2009). In 2009, the APA Council of Representatives adopted the Resolution on Transgender, Gender Identity, & Gender Expression Non-Discrimination, which calls upon psychologists in their professional roles to provide appropriate, nondiscriminatory treatment; encourages psychologists to take a leadership role in working against discrimination; supports the provision of adequate and necessary mental and medical health care; recognizes the efficacy, benefit, and medical necessity of gender transition; supports access to appropriate treatment in institutional settings; and supports the creation of educational resources for all psychologists (Anton, 2009). In 2009, in an extensive report on the current state of psychological practice with TGNC people, the TFGIGV determined that there was sufficient knowledge and expertise in the field to warrant the development of practice guidelines for TGNC populations (APA TFGIGV, 2009). The report identified that TGNC people constituted a population with unique needs and that the creation of practice guidelines would be a valuable resource for the field (APA TFGIGV, 2009). Psychologists' relative lack of knowledge about TGNC people and trans-affirmative care, the level of societal stigma and discrimination that TGNC people face, and the significant mental health consequences that TGNC people experience as a result offer a compelling need for psychological practice guidelines for this population.

Users

The intended audience for these *Guidelines* includes psychologists who provide clinical care, conduct research, or provide education or training. Given that gender identity issues can arise at any stage in a TGNC person's life (Lev, 2004), clinicians can encounter a TGNC person in practice or have a client's presenting problem evolve into an issue related to gender identity and gender expression. Researchers, educators, and trainers will benefit from use of these *Guidelines* to inform their work, even when not specifically focused on TGNC populations. Psychologists who focus on TGNC populations in their clinical practice, research, or educational and training activities will also benefit from the use of these *Guidelines*.

Distinction Between Standards and Guidelines

When using these *Guidelines*, psychologists should be aware that APA has made an important distinction between *standards* and *guidelines* (Reed, McLaughlin, & Newman, 2002). Standards are mandates to which all psychologists must adhere (e.g., the *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct*; APA, 2010), whereas guidelines are aspirational. Psychologists are encouraged to use these *Guidelines* in tandem with the *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct*, and should be aware that state and federal laws may override these *Guidelines* (APA, 2010).

In addition, these *Guidelines* refer to psychological practice (e.g., clinical work, consultation, education, research, and training) rather than treatment. Practice guidelines are practitioner-focused and provide guidance for professionals regarding "conduct and the issues to be considered in particular areas of clinical practice" (Reed et al., 2002, p. 1044). Treatment guidelines are client-focused and address intervention-specific recommendations for a clinical population or condition (Reed et al., 2002). The current *Guidelines* are intended to complement treatment guidelines for TGNC people seeking mental health services, such as those set forth by the World Professional Association for Transgender Health Standards of Care (Coleman et al., 2012) and the Endocrine Society (Hembree et al., 2009).

[2] For the purposes of these guidelines, "youth" refers to both children and adolescents under the age of 18.

Compatibility

These *Guidelines* are consistent with the APA *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct* (APA, 2010), the *Standards of Accreditation for Health Service Psychology* (APA, 2015), the APA TFGIGV (2009) report, and the APA Council of Representatives Resolution on Transgender, Gender Identity, & Gender Expression Non-Discrimination (Anton, 2009).

Practice Guidelines Development Process

To address one of the recommendations of the APA TFGIGV (2009), the APA Committee on Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity (CSOGD; then the Committee on Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Concerns) and Division 44 (the Society for the Psychological Study of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Issues) initiated a joint Task Force on Psychological Practice Guidelines with Transgender and Gender Nonconforming People in 2011. Task Force members were selected through an application and review process conducted by the leadership of CSOGD and Division 44. The Task Force included 10 members who had substantial psychological practice expertise with TGNC people. Of the 10 task force members, five individuals identified as TGNC with a range of gender identities and five identified as cisgender. In terms of race/ethnicity, six of the task force members identified as White and four identified as people of color (one Indian American, one Chinese American, one Latina American, and one mixed race).

The Task Force conducted a comprehensive review of the extant scholarship, identified content most pertinent to the practice of psychology with TGNC people, and evaluated the level of evidence to support guidance within each guideline. To ensure the accuracy and comprehensiveness of these *Guidelines*, Task Force members met with TGNC community members and groups and consulted with subject matter experts within and outside of psychology. When the Task Force discovered a lack of professional consensus, every effort was made to include divergent opinions in the field relevant to that issue. When this occurred, the Task Force described the various approaches documented in the literature. Additionally, these *Guidelines* were informed by comments received at multiple presentations held at professional conferences and comments obtained through two cycles of open public comment on earlier *Guideline* drafts.

This document contains 16 guidelines for TGNC psychological practice. Each guideline includes a Rationale section, which reviews relevant scholarship supporting the need for the guideline, and an Application section, which describes how the particular guideline may be applied in psychological practice. The *Guidelines* are organized into five clusters: (a) foundational knowledge and awareness; (b) stigma, discrimination, and barriers to care; (c) life span development; (d) assessment, therapy, and intervention; and (e) research, education, and training.

Funding for this project was provided by Division 44 (Society for the Psychological Study of LGBT Issues); the APA Office on Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender (LGBT) Concerns; a grant from the Committee on Division/APA Relations (CODAPAR); and donations from Randall Ehrbar and Pamela St. Amand. Some members of the Task Force have received compensation through presentations (e.g., honoraria) or royalties (e.g., book contracts) based in part on information contained in these *Guidelines*.

Selection of Evidence

Although the number of publications on the topic of TGNC-affirmative practice has been increasing, this is still an emerging area of scholarly literature and research. When possible, the Task Force relied on peer-reviewed publications, but books, chapters, and reports that do not typically receive a high level of peer review have also been cited when appropriate. These sources are from a diverse range of fields addressing mental health, including psychology, counseling, social work, and psychiatry. Some studies of TGNC people utilize small sample sizes, which limits the generalizability of results. Few studies of TGNC people utilize probability samples or randomized control groups (e.g., Conron et al., 2012; Dhejne et al., 2011). As a result, the Task Force relied primarily on studies using convenience samples, which limits the generalizability of results to the population as a whole, but can be adequate for describing issues and situations that arise within the population.

Foundational Knowledge and Awareness

Guideline 1. Psychologists understand that gender is a nonbinary construct that allows for a range of gender identities and that a person's gender identity may not align with sex assigned at birth.

Rationale. Gender identity is defined as a person's deeply felt, inherent sense of being a girl, woman, or female; a boy, a man, or male; a blend of male or female; or an alternative gender (Bethea & McCollum, 2013; Institute of Medicine [IOM], 2011). In many cultures and religious traditions, gender has been perceived as a binary construct, with mutually exclusive categories of male or female, boy or girl, man or woman (Benjamin, 1966; Mollenkott, 2001; Tanis, 2003). These mutually exclusive categories include an assumption that gender identity is always in alignment with sex assigned at birth (Bethea & McCollum, 2013). For TGNC people, gender identity differs from sex assigned at birth to varying degrees, and may be experienced and expressed outside of the gender binary (Harrison, Grant, & Herman, 2012; Kuper, Nussbaum, & Mustanski, 2012).

Gender as a nonbinary construct has been described and studied for decades (Benjamin, 1966; Herdt, 1994; Kulick, 1998). There is historical evidence of recognition, societal acceptance, and sometimes reverence of diversity in gender identity and gender expression in several different cultures (Coleman et al., 1992; Feinberg, 1996; Miller

& Nichols, 2012; Schmidt, 2003). Many cultures in which gender nonconforming persons and groups were visible were diminished by westernization, colonialism, and systemic inequity (Nanda, 1999). In the 20th century, TGNC expression became medicalized (Hirschfeld, 1910/1991), and medical interventions to treat discordance between a person's sex assigned at birth, secondary sex characteristics, and gender identity became available (Meyerowitz, 2002).

As early as the 1950s, research found variability in how an individual described their[3] gender, with some participants reporting a gender identity different from the culturally defined, mutually exclusive categories of "man" or "woman" (Benjamin, 1966). In several recent large online studies of the TGNC population in the United States, 30% to 40% of participants identified their gender identity as other than man or woman (Harrison et al., 2012; Kuper et al., 2012). Although some studies have cultivated a broader understanding of gender (Conron, Scout, & Austin, 2008), the majority of research has required a forced choice between man and woman, thus failing to represent or depict those with different gender identities (IOM, 2011). Research over the last two decades has demonstrated the existence of a wide spectrum of gender identity and gender expression (Bockting, 2008; Harrison et al., 2012; Kuper et al., 2012), which includes people who identify as either man or woman, neither man nor woman, a blend of man and woman, or a unique gender identity. A person's identification as TGNC can be healthy and self-affirming, and is not inherently pathological (Coleman et al., 2012). However, people may experience distress associated with discordance between their gender identity and their body or sex assigned at birth, as well as societal stigma and discrimination (Coleman et al., 2012).

Between the late 1960s and the early 1990s, health care to alleviate gender dysphoria largely reinforced a binary conceptualization of gender (APA TFGIGV, 2009; Bolin, 1994; Hastings, 1974). At that time, it was considered an ideal outcome for TGNC people to conform to an identity that aligned with either sex assigned at birth or, if not possible, with the "opposite" sex, with a heavy emphasis on blending into the cisgender population or "passing" (APA TFGIGV, 2009; Bolin, 1994; Hastings, 1974). Variance from these options could raise concern for health care providers about a TGNC person's ability to transition successfully. These concerns could act as a barrier to accessing surgery or hormone therapy because medical and mental health care provider endorsement was required before surgery or hormones could be accessed (Berger et al., 1979). Largely because of self-advocacy of TGNC individuals and communities in the 1990s, combined with advances in research and models of trans-affirmative care, there is greater recognition and acknowledgment of a spectrum of gender diversity and corresponding individualized, TGNC-specific health care (Bockting et al., 2006; Coleman et al., 2012).

Application. A nonbinary understanding of gender is fundamental to the provision of affirmative care for TGNC people. Psychologists are encouraged to adapt or modify their understanding of gender, broadening the range of variation viewed as healthy and normative. By understanding the spectrum of gender identities and gender expressions that exist, and that a person's gender identity may not be in full alignment with sex assigned at birth, psychologists can increase their capacity to assist TGNC people, their families, and their communities (Lev, 2004). Respecting and supporting TGNC people in authentically articulating their gender identity and gender expression, as well as their lived experience, can improve TGNC people's health, well-being, and quality of life (Witten, 2003).

Some TGNC people may have limited access to visible, positive TGNC role models. As a result, many TGNC people are isolated and must cope with the stigma of gender nonconformity without guidance or support, worsening the negative effect of stigma on mental health (Fredriksen-Goldsen et al., 2014; Singh, Hays, & Watson, 2011). Psychologists may assist TGNC people in challenging gender norms and stereotypes, and in exploring their unique gender identity and gender expression. TGNC people, partners, families, friends, and communities can benefit from education about the healthy variation of gender identity and gender expression, and the incorrect assumption that gender identity automatically aligns with sex assigned at birth.

Psychologists may model an acceptance of ambiguity as TGNC people develop and explore aspects of their gender, especially in childhood and adolescence. A nonjudgmental stance toward gender nonconformity can help to counteract the pervasive stigma faced by many TGNC people and provide a safe environment to explore gender identity and make informed decisions about gender expression.

Guideline 2. Psychologists understand that gender identity and sexual orientation are distinct but interrelated constructs.

Rationale. The constructs of gender identity and sexual orientation are theoretically and clinically distinct, even though professionals and nonprofessionals frequently conflate them. Although some research suggests a potential link in the development of gender identity and sexual orientation, the mechanisms of such a relationship are unknown (Adelson & American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry [AACAP] Committee on Quality Issues [CQI], 2012; APA TFGIGV, 2009; A. H. Devor, 2004; Drescher & Byne, 2013). *Sexual orientation* is defined as a person's sexual and/or emotional attraction to another person (Shively & De Cecco, 1977), compared with *gender identity*, which is defined by a person's felt, inherent sense of gender. For most people, gender identity develops earlier than sexual orientation. Gender identity is often established in young toddlerhood (Adelson & AACAP CQI, 2012; Kohlberg, 1966), compared with aware-

[3] The third person plural pronouns "they," "them," and "their" in some instances function in these guidelines as third-person singular pronouns to model a common technique used to avoid the use of gendered pronouns when speaking to or about TGNC people.

ness of same-sex attraction, which often emerges in early adolescence (Adelson & AACAP CQI, 2012; D'Augelli & Hershberger, 1993; Herdt & Boxer, 1993; Ryan, 2009; Savin-Williams & Diamond, 2000). Although gender identity is usually established in childhood, individuals may become aware that their gender identity is not in full alignment with sex assigned at birth in childhood, adolescence, or adulthood. The developmental pathway of gender identity typically includes a progression through multiple stages of awareness, exploration, expression, and identity integration (Bockting & Coleman, 2007; A. H. Devor, 2004; Vanderburgh, 2007). Similarly, a person's sexual orientation may progress through multiple stages of awareness, exploration, and identity through adolescence and into adulthood (Bilodeau & Renn, 2005). Just as some people experience their sexual orientation as being fluid or variable (L. M. Diamond, 2013), some people also experience their gender identity as fluid (Lev, 2004).

The experience of questioning one's gender can create significant confusion for some TGNC people, especially for those who are unfamiliar with the range of gender identities that exist. To explain any discordance they may experience between their sex assigned at birth, related societal expectations, patterns of sexual and romantic attraction, and/or gender role nonconformity and gender identity, some TGNC people may assume that they must be gay, lesbian, bisexual, or queer (Bockting, Benner, & Coleman, 2009). Focusing solely on sexual orientation as the cause for discordance may obscure awareness of a TGNC identity. It can be very important to include sexual orientation and gender identity in the process of identity exploration as well as in the associated decisions about which options will work best for any particular person. In addition, many TGNC adults have disguised or rejected their experience of gender incongruence in childhood or adolescence to conform to societal expectations and minimize their fear of difference (Bockting & Coleman, 2007; Byne et al., 2012).

Because gender and patterns of attraction are used to identify a person's sexual orientation, the articulation of sexual orientation is made more complex when sex assigned at birth is not aligned with gender identity. A person's sexual orientation identity cannot be determined by simply examining external appearance or behavior, but must incorporate a person's identity and self-identification (Broido, 2000).

Application. Psychologists may assist people in differentiating gender identity and sexual orientation. As clients become aware of previously hidden or constrained aspects of their gender identity or sexuality, psychologists may provide acceptance, support, and understanding without making assumptions or imposing a specific sexual orientation or gender identity outcome (APA TFGIGV, 2009). Because of their roles in assessment, treatment, and prevention, psychologists are in a unique position to help TGNC people better understand and integrate the various aspects of their identities. Psychologists may assist TGNC people by introducing and normalizing differences in gender identity and expression. As a TGNC person finds a comfortable way to actualize and express their gender identity, psychologists may notice that previously incongruent aspects of their sexual orientation may become more salient, better integrated, or increasingly egosyntonic (Bockting et al., 2009; H. Devor, 1993; Schleifer, 2006). This process may allow TGNC people the comfort and opportunity to explore attractions or aspects of their sexual orientation that previously had been repressed, hidden, or in conflict with their identity. TGNC people may experience a renewed exploration of their sexual orientation, a widened spectrum of attraction, or a shift in how they identify their sexual orientation in the context of a developing TGNC identity (Coleman, Bockting, & Gooren, 1993; Meier, Pardo, Labuski, & Babcock, 2013; Samons, 2008).

Psychologists may need to provide TGNC people with information about TGNC identities, offering language to describe the discordance and confusion TGNC people may be experiencing. To facilitate TGNC people's learning, psychologists may introduce some of the narratives written by TGNC people that reflect a range of outcomes and developmental processes in exploring and affirming gender identity (e.g., Bornstein & Bergman, 2010; Boylan, 2013; J. Green, 2004; Krieger, 2011; Lawrence, 2014). These resources may potentially aid TGNC people in distinguishing between issues of sexual orientation and gender identity and in locating themselves on the gender spectrum. Psychologists may also educate families and broader community systems (e.g., schools, medical systems) to better understand how gender identity and sexual orientation are different but related; this may be particularly useful when working with youth (Singh & Burnes, 2009; Whitman, 2013). Because gender identity and sexual orientation are often conflated, even by professionals, psychologists are encouraged to carefully examine resources that claim to provide affirmative services for lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) people, and to confirm which are knowledgeable about and inclusive of the needs of TGNC people before offering referrals or recommendations to TGNC people and their families.

Guideline 3. Psychologists seek to understand how gender identity intersects with the other cultural identities of TGNC people.

Rationale. Gender identity and gender expression may have profound intersections with other aspects of identity (Collins, 2000; Warner, 2008). These aspects may include, but are not limited to, race/ethnicity, age, education, socioeconomic status, immigration status, occupation, disability status, HIV status, sexual orientation, relational status, and religion and/or spiritual affiliation. Whereas some of these aspects of identity may afford privilege, others may create stigma and hinder empowerment (Burnes & Chen, 2012; K. M. de Vries, 2015). In addition, TGNC people who transition may not be prepared for changes in privilege or societal treatment based on gender identity and gender expression. To illustrate, an African American trans man may gain male privilege, but may face racism and

societal stigma particular to African American men. An Asian American/Pacific Islander trans woman may experience the benefit of being perceived as a cisgender woman, but may also experience sexism, misogyny, and objectification particular to Asian American/Pacific Islander cisgender women.

The intersection of multiple identities within TGNC people's lives is complex and may obstruct or facilitate access to necessary support (A. Daley, Solomon, Newman, & Mishna, 2008). TGNC people with less privilege and/or multiple oppressed identities may experience greater stress and restricted access to resources. They may also develop resilience and strength in coping with disadvantages, or may locate community-based resources available to specific groups (e.g., for people living with HIV; Singh et al., 2011). Gender identity affirmation may conflict with religious beliefs or traditions (Bockting & Cesaretti, 2001). Finding an affirmative expression of their religious and spiritual beliefs and traditions, including positive relationships with religious leaders, can be an important resource for TGNC people (Glaser, 2008; Porter, Ronneberg, & Witten, 2013; Xavier, 2000).

Application. In practice, psychologists strive to recognize the salient multiple and intersecting identities of TGNC people that influence coping, discrimination, and resilience (Burnes & Chen, 2012). Improved rapport and therapeutic alliance are likely to develop when psychologists avoid overemphasizing gender identity and gender expression when not directly relevant to TGNC people's needs and concerns. Even when gender identity is the main focus of care, psychologists are encouraged to understand that a TGNC person's experience of gender may also be shaped by other important aspects of identity (e.g., age, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation), and that the salience of different aspects of identity may evolve as the person continues psychosocial development across the life span, regardless of whether they complete a social or medical transition.

At times, a TGNC person's intersection of identities may result in conflict, such as a person's struggle to integrate gender identity with religious and/or spiritual upbringing and beliefs (Kidd & Witten, 2008; Levy & Lo, 2013; Rodriguez & Follins, 2012). Psychologists may aid TGNC people in understanding and integrating identities that may be differently privileged within systems of power and systemic inequity (Burnes & Chen, 2012). Psychologists may also highlight and strengthen the development of TGNC people's competencies and resilience as they learn to manage the intersection of stigmatized identities (Singh, 2012).

Guideline 4. Psychologists are aware of how their attitudes about and knowledge of gender identity and gender expression may affect the quality of care they provide to TGNC people and their families.

Rationale. Psychologists, like other members of society, come to their personal understanding and acceptance of different aspects of human diversity through a process of socialization. Psychologists' cultural biases, as well as the cultural differences between psychologists and their clients, have a clinical impact (Israel, Gorcheva, Burnes, & Walther, 2008; Vasquez, 2007). The assumptions, biases, and attitudes psychologists hold regarding TGNC people and gender identity and/or gender expression can affect the quality of services psychologists provide and their ability to develop an effective therapeutic alliance (Bess & Stabb, 2009; Rachlin, 2002). In addition, a lack of knowledge or training in providing affirmative care to TGNC people can limit a psychologist's effectiveness and perpetuate barriers to care (Bess & Stabb, 2009; Rachlin, 2002). Psychologists experienced with lesbian, gay, or bisexual (LGB) people may not be familiar with the unique needs of TGNC people (Israel, 2005; Israel et al., 2008). In community surveys, TGNC people have reported that many mental health care providers lack basic knowledge and skills relevant to care of TGNC people (Bradford, Xavier, Hendricks, Rives, & Honnold, 2007; Xavier, Bobbin, Singer, & Budd, 2005) and receive little training to prepare them to work with TGNC people (APA TFGIGV, 2009; Lurie, 2005). The National Transgender Discrimination Survey (Grant et al., 2011) reported that 50% of TGNC respondents shared that they had to educate their health care providers about TGNC care, 28% postponed seeking medical care due to antitrans bias, and 19% were refused care due to discrimination.

The APA ethics code (APA, 2010) specifies that psychologists practice in areas only within the boundaries of their competence (Standard 2.01), participate in proactive and consistent ways to enhance their competence (Standard 2.03), and base their work upon established scientific and professional knowledge (Standard 2.04). Competence in working with TGNC people can be developed through a range of activities, such as education, training, supervised experience, consultation, study, or professional experience.

Application. Psychologists may engage in practice with TGNC people in various ways; therefore, the depth and level of knowledge and competence required by a psychologist depends on the type and complexity of service offered to TGNC people. Services that psychologists provide to TGNC people require a basic understanding of the population and its needs, as well as the ability to respectfully interact in a trans-affirmative manner (L. Carroll, 2010).

APA emphasizes the use of evidence-based practice (APA Presidential Task Force on Evidence-Based Practice, 2006). Given how easily assumptions or stereotypes could influence treatment, evidence-based practice may be especially relevant to psychological practice with TGNC people. Until evidence-based practices are developed specifically for TGNC people, psychologists are encouraged to utilize existing evidence-based practices in the care they provide. APA also promotes collaboration with clients concerning clinical decisions, including issues related to costs, potential benefits, and the existing options and resources related to treatment (APA Presidential Task Force on Evidence-Based Practice, 2006). TGNC people could benefit from such collaboration and active engagement in decision

making, given the historical disenfranchisement and disempowerment of TGNC people in health care.

In an effort to develop competence in working with TGNC people, psychologists are encouraged to examine their personal beliefs regarding gender and sexuality, gender stereotypes, and TGNC identities, in addition to identifying gaps in their own knowledge, understanding, and acceptance (American Counseling Association [ACA], 2010). This examination may include exploring one's own gender identity and gendered experiences related to privilege, power, or marginalization, as well as seeking consultation and training with psychologists who have expertise in working with TGNC people and communities.

Psychologists are further encouraged to develop competence in working with TGNC people and their families by seeking up-to-date basic knowledge and understanding of gender identity and expression, and learning how to interact with TGNC people and their families respectfully and without judgment. Competence in working with TGNC people may be achieved and maintained in formal and informal ways, ranging from exposure in the curriculum of training programs for future psychologists and continuing education at professional conferences, to affirmative involvement as allies in the TGNC community. Beyond acquiring general competence, psychologists who choose to specialize in working with TGNC people presenting with gender-identity-related concerns are strongly encouraged to obtain advanced training, consultation, and professional experience (ACA, 2010; Coleman et al., 2012).

Psychologists may gain knowledge about the TGNC community and become more familiar with the complex social issues that affect the lives of TGNC people through first-hand experiences (e.g., attending community meetings and conferences, reading narratives written by TGNC people). If psychologists have not yet developed competence in working with TGNC people, it is recommended that they refer TGNC people to other psychologists or providers who are knowledgeable and able to provide trans-affirmative care.

Stigma, Discrimination, and Barriers to Care

Guideline 5. Psychologists recognize how stigma, prejudice, discrimination, and violence affect the health and well-being of TGNC people.

Rationale. Many TGNC people experience discrimination, ranging from subtle to severe, when accessing housing, health care, employment, education, public assistance, and other social services (Bazargan & Galvan, 2012; Bradford, Reisner, Honnold, & Xavier, 2013; Dispenza, Watson, Chung, & Brack, 2012; Grant et al., 2011). Discrimination can include assuming a person's assigned sex at birth is fully aligned with that person's gender identity, not using a person's preferred name or pronoun, asking TGNC people inappropriate questions about their bodies, or making the assumption that psychopathology exists given a specific gender identity or gender expression (Nadal, Rivera, & Corpus, 2010; Nadal, Skolnik, & Wong, 2012). Discrimination may also include refusing access to housing or employment or extreme acts of violence (e.g., sexual assault, murder). TGNC people who hold multiple marginalized identities are more vulnerable to discrimination and violence. TGNC women and people of color disproportionately experience severe forms of violence and discrimination, including police violence, and are less likely to receive help from law enforcement (Edelman, 2011; National Coalition of Anti-Violence Programs, 2011; Saffin, 2011).

TGNC people are at risk of experiencing antitrans prejudice and discrimination in educational settings. In a national representative sample of 7,898 LGBT youth in K-12 settings, 55.2% of participants reported verbal harassment, 22.7% reported physical harassment, and 11.4% reported physical assault based on their gender expression (Kosciw, Greytak, Palmer, & Boesen, 2014). In a national community survey of TGNC adults, 15% reported prematurely leaving educational settings ranging from kindergarten through college as a result of harassment (Grant et al., 2011). Many schools do not include gender identity and gender expression in their school nondiscrimination policies; this leaves TGNC youth without needed protections from bullying and aggression in schools (Singh & Jackson, 2012). TGNC youth in rural settings may be even more vulnerable to bullying and hostility in their school environments due to antitrans prejudice (Kosciw et al., 2014).

Inequities in educational settings and other forms of TGNC-related discrimination may contribute to the significant economic disparities TGNC people have reported. Grant and colleagues (2011) found that TGNC people were four times more likely to have a household income of less than $10,000 compared with cisgender people, and almost half of a sample of TGNC older adults reported a household income at or below 200% of poverty (Fredriksen-Goldsen et al., 2014). TGNC people often face workplace discrimination both when seeking and maintaining employment (Brewster, Velez, Mennicke, & Tebbe, 2014; Dispenza et al., 2012; Mizock & Mueser, 2014). In a nonrepresentative national study of TGNC people, 90% reported having "directly experienced harassment or mistreatment at work and felt forced to take protective actions that negatively impacted their careers or their well-being, such as hiding who they were to avoid workplace repercussions" (Grant et al., 2011, p. 56). In addition, 78% of respondents reported experiencing some kind of direct mistreatment or discrimination at work (Grant et al., 2011). Employment discrimination may be related to stigma based on a TGNC person's appearance, discrepancies in identity documentation, or being unable to provide job references linked to that person's pretransition name or gender presentation (Bender-Baird, 2011).

Issues of employment discrimination and workplace harassment are particularly salient for TGNC military personnel and veterans. Currently, TGNC people cannot serve openly in the U.S. military. Military regulations cite "transsexualism" as a medical exclusion from service (Department of Defense, 2011; Elders & Steinman, 2014). When

enlisted, TGNC military personnel are faced with very difficult decisions related to coming out, transition, and seeking appropriate medical and mental health care, which may significantly impact or end their military careers. Not surprisingly, research documents very high rates of suicidal ideation and behavior among TGNC military and veteran populations (Blosnich et al., 2013; Matarazzo et al., 2014). Being open about their TGNC identity with health care providers can carry risk for TGNC military personnel (OutServe-Servicemembers Legal Defense Network, n.d.). Barriers to accessing health care noted by TGNC veterans include viewing the VA health care system as an extension of the military, perceiving the VA as an unwelcoming environment, and fearing providers' negative reactions to their identity (Sherman, Kauth, Shipherd, & Street, 2014; Shipherd, Mizock, Maguen, & Green, 2012). A recent study shows 28% of LGBT veterans perceived their VA as welcoming and one third as unwelcoming (Sherman et al., 2014). Multiple initiatives are underway throughout the VA system to improve the quality and sensitivity of services to LGBT veterans.

Given widespread workplace discrimination and possible dismissal following transition, TGNC people may engage in sex work or survival sex (e.g., trading sex for food), or sell drugs to generate income (Grant et al., 2011; Hwahng & Nuttbrock, 2007; Operario, Soma, & Underhill, 2008; Stanley, 2011). This increases the potential for negative interactions with the legal system, such as harassment by the police, bribery, extortion, and arrest (Edelman, 2011; Testa et al., 2012), as well as increased likelihood of mental health symptoms and greater health risks, such as higher incidence of sexually transmitted infections, including HIV (Nemoto, Operario, Keatley, & Villegas, 2004).

Incarcerated TGNC people report harassment, isolation, forced sex, and physical assault, both by prison personnel and other inmates (American Civil Liberties Union National Prison Project, 2005; Brotheim, 2013; C. Daley, 2005). In sex-segregated facilities, TGNC people may be subjected to involuntary solitary confinement (also called "administrative segregation"), which can lead to severe negative mental and physical health consequences and may block access to services (Gallagher, 2014; National Center for Transgender Equality, 2012). Another area of concern is for TGNC immigrants and refugees. TGNC people in detention centers may not be granted access to necessary care and experience significant rates of assault and violence in these facilities (Gruberg, 2013). TGNC people may seek asylum in the United States to escape danger as a direct result of lack of protections in their country of origin (APA Presidential Task Force on Immigration, 2012; Cerezo, Morales, Quintero, & Rothman, 2014; Morales, 2013).

TGNC people have difficulty accessing necessary health care (Fredriksen-Goldsen et al., 2014; Lambda Legal, 2012) and often feel unsafe sharing their gender identity or their experiences of antitrans prejudice and discrimination due to historical and current discrimination from health care providers (Grant et al., 2011; Lurie, 2005; Singh & McKleroy, 2011). Even when TGNC people have health insurance, plans may explicitly exclude coverage related to gender transition (e.g., hormone therapy, surgery). TGNC people may also have difficulty accessing trans-affirmative primary health care if coverage for procedures is denied based on gender. For example, trans men may be excluded from necessary gynecological care based on the assumption that men do not need these services. These barriers often lead to a lack of preventive health care for TGNC people (Fredriksen-Goldsen et al., 2014; Lambda Legal, 2012). Although the landscape is beginning to change with the recent revision of Medicare policy (National Center for Transgender Equality, 2014) and changes to state laws (Transgender Law Center, n.d.), many TGNC people are still likely to have little to no access to TGNC-related health care as a result of the exclusions in their insurance.

Application. Awareness of and sensitivity to the effects of antitrans prejudice and discrimination can assist psychologists in assessing, treating, and advocating for their TGNC clients. When a TGNC person faces discrimination based on gender identity or gender expression, psychologists may facilitate emotional processing of these experiences and work with the person to identify supportive resources and possible courses of action. Specific needs of TGNC people might vary from developing self-advocacy strategies, to navigating public spaces, to seeking legal recourse for harassment and discrimination in social services and other systems. Additionally, TGNC people who have been traumatized by physical or emotional violence may need therapeutic support.

Psychologists may be able to assist TGNC people in accessing relevant social service systems. For example, psychologists may be able to assist in identifying health care providers and housing resources that are affirming and affordable, or locating affirming religious and spiritual communities (Glaser, 2008; Porter et al., 2013). Psychologists may also assist in furnishing documentation or official correspondence that affirms gender identity for the purpose of accessing appropriate public accommodations, such as bathroom use or housing (Lev, 2009; W. J. Meyer, 2009).

Additionally, psychologists may identify appropriate resources, information, and services to help TGNC people in addressing workplace discrimination, including strategies during a social and/or medical transition for identity disclosure at work. For those who are seeking employment, psychologists may help strategize about how and whether to share information about gender history. Psychologists may also work with employers to develop supportive policies for workplace gender transition or to develop training to help employees adjust to the transition of a coworker.

For TGNC military and veteran populations, psychologists may help to address the emotional impact of navigating TGNC identity development in the military system. Psychologists are encouraged to be aware that issues of confidentiality may be particularly sensitive with active duty or reserve status service members, as the consequences of being identified as TGNC may prevent the client's disclosure of gender identity in treatment.

In educational settings, psychologists may advocate for TGNC youth on a number of levels (APA & National

Association of School Psychologists, 2014; Boulder Valley School District, 2012). Psychologists may consult with administrators, teachers, and school counselors to provide resources and trainings on antitrans prejudice and developing safer school environments for TGNC students (Singh & Burnes, 2009). Peer support from other TGNC people has been shown to buffer the negative effect of stigma on mental health (Bockting et al., 2013). As such, psychologists may consider and develop peer-based interventions to facilitate greater understanding and respectful treatment of TGNC youth by cisgender peers (Case & Meier, 2014). Psychologists may work with TGNC youth and their families to identify relevant resources, such as school policies that protect gender identity and gender expression (APA & National Association of School Psychologists, 2014; Gonzalez & McNulty, 2010), referrals to TGNC-affirmative organizations, and online resources, which may be especially helpful for TGNC youth in rural settings.

Guideline 6. Psychologists strive to recognize the influence of institutional barriers on the lives of TGNC people and to assist in developing TGNC-affirmative environments.

Rationale. Antitrans prejudice and the adherence of mainstream society to the gender binary adversely affect TGNC people within their families, schools, health care, legal systems, workplaces, religious traditions, and communities (American Civil Liberties Union National Prison Project, 2005; Bradford et al., 2013; Brewster et al., 2014; Levy & Lo, 2013; McGuire, Anderson, & Toomey, 2010). TGNC people face challenges accessing gender-inclusive restrooms, which may result in discomfort when being forced to use a men's or women's restroom (Transgender Law Center, 2005). In addition to the emotional distress the forced binary choice that public restrooms may create for some, TGNC people are frequently concerned with others' reactions to their presence in public restrooms, including potential discrimination, harassment, and violence (Herman, 2013).

Many TGNC people may be distrustful of care providers due to previous experiences of being pathologized (Benson, 2013). Experiences of discrimination and prejudice with health care providers may be complicated by power differentials within the therapeutic relationship that may greatly affect or complicate the care that TGNC people experience. TGNC people have routinely been asked to obtain an endorsement letter from a psychologist attesting to the stability of their gender identity as a prerequisite to access an endocrinologist, surgeon, or legal institution (e.g., driver's license bureau; Lev, 2009). The need for such required documentation from a psychologist may influence rapport, resulting in TGNC people fearing prejudicial treatment in which this documentation is withheld or delayed by the treating provider (Bouman et al., 2014). Whether a TGNC person has personally experienced interactions with providers as disempowering or has learned from community members to expect such a dynamic, psychologists are encouraged to be prepared for TGNC people to be very cautious when entering into a therapeutic relationship. When TGNC people feel validated and empowered within the environment in which a psychologist practices, the therapeutic relationship will benefit and the person may be more willing to explore their authentic selves and share uncertainties and ambiguities that are a common part of TGNC identity development.

Application. Because many TGNC people experience antitrans prejudice or discrimination, psychologists are encouraged to ensure that their work settings are welcoming and respectful of TGNC people, and to be mindful of what TGNC people may perceive as unwelcoming. To do so, psychologists may educate themselves about the many ways that cisgender privilege and antitrans prejudice may be expressed. Psychologists may also have specific conversations with TGNC people about their experiences of the mental health system and implement feedback to foster TGNC-affirmative environments. As a result, when TGNC people access various treatment settings and public spaces, they may experience less harm, disempowerment, or pathologization, and thus will be more likely to avail themselves of resources and support.

Psychologists are encouraged to be proactive in considering how overt or subtle cues in their workplaces and other environments may affect the comfort and safety of TGNC people. To increase the comfort of TGNC people, psychologists are encouraged to display TGNC-affirmative resources in waiting areas and to avoid the display of items that reflect antitrans attitudes (Lev, 2009). Psychologists are encouraged to examine how their language (e.g., use of incorrect pronouns and names) may reinforce the gender binary in overt or subtle and unintentional ways (Smith, Shin, & Officer, 2012). It may be helpful for psychologists to provide training for support staff on how to respectfully interact with TGNC people. A psychologist may consider making changes to paperwork, forms, or outreach materials to ensure that these materials are more inclusive of TGNC people (Spade, 2011b). For example, demographic questionnaires can communicate respect through the use of inclusive language and the inclusion of a range of gender identities. In addition, psychologists may also work within their institutions to advocate for restrooms that are inclusive and accessible for people of all gender identities and/or gender expressions.

When working with TGNC people in a variety of care and institutional settings (e.g., inpatient medical and psychiatric hospitals, substance abuse treatment settings, nursing homes, foster care, religious communities, military and VA health care settings, and prisons), psychologists may become liaisons and advocates for TGNC people's mental health needs and for respectful treatment that addresses their gender identity in an affirming manner. In playing this role, psychologists may find guidance and best practices that have been published for particular institutional contexts to be helpful (e.g., Department of Veterans Affairs, Veterans' Health Administration, 2013; Glezer, McNiel, & Binder, 2013; Merksamer, 2011).

Guideline 7: Psychologists understand the need to promote social change that reduces the negative effects of stigma on the health and well-being of TGNC people.

Rationale. The lack of public policy that addresses the needs of TGNC people creates significant hardships for them (Taylor, 2007). Although there have been major advances in legal protections for TGNC people in recent years (Buzuvis, 2013; Harvard Law Review Association, 2013), many TGNC people are still not afforded protections from discrimination on the basis of gender identity or expression (National LGBTQ Task Force, 2013; Taylor, 2007). For instance, in many states, TGNC people do not have employment or housing protections and may be fired or lose their housing based on their gender identity. Many policies that protect the rights of cisgender people, including LGB people, do not protect the rights of TGNC people (Currah, & Minter, 2000; Spade, 2011a).

TGNC people can experience challenges obtaining gender-affirming identity documentation (e.g., birth certificate, passport, social security card, driver's license). For TGNC people experiencing poverty or economic hardship, requirements for obtaining this documentation may be impossible to meet, in part due to the difficulty of securing employment without identity documentation that aligns with their gender identity and gender expression (Sheridan, 2009). Additionally, systemic barriers related to binary gender identification systems prevent some TGNC people from changing their documents, including those who are incarcerated, undocumented immigrants, and people who live in jurisdictions that explicitly forbid such changes (Spade, 2006). Documentation requirements can also assume a universal TGNC experience that marginalizes some TGNC people, especially those who do not undergo a medical transition. This may affect a TGNC person's social and psychological well-being and interfere with accessing employment, education, housing and shelter, health care, public benefits, and basic life management resources (e.g., opening a bank account).

Application. Psychologists are encouraged to inform public policy to reduce negative systemic impact on TGNC people and to promote positive social change. Psychologists are encouraged to identify and improve systems that permit violence; educational, employment, and housing discrimination; lack of access to health care; unequal access to other vital resources; and other instances of systemic inequity that TGNC people experience (ACA, 2010). Many TGNC people experience stressors from constant barriers, inequitable treatment, and forced release of sensitive and private information about their bodies and their lives (Hendricks & Testa, 2012). To obtain proper identity documentation, TGNC people may be required to provide court orders, proof of having had surgery, and documentation of psychotherapy or a psychiatric diagnosis. Psychologists may assist TGNC people by normalizing their reactions of fatigue and traumatization while interacting with legal systems and requirements; TGNC people may also benefit from guidance about alternate avenues of recourse, self-advocacy, or appeal. When TGNC people feel that it is unsafe to advocate for themselves, psychologists may work with their clients to access appropriate resources in the community.

Psychologists are encouraged to be sensitive to the challenges of attaining gender-affirming identity documentation and how the receipt or denial of such documentation may affect social and psychological well-being, the person's ability to obtain education and employment, find safe housing, access public benefits, obtain student loans, and access health insurance. It may be of significant assistance for psychologists to understand and offer information about the process of a legal name change, gender marker change on identification, or the process for accessing other gender-affirming documents. Psychologists may consult the National Center for Transgender Equality, the Sylvia Rivera Law Project, or the Transgender Law Center for additional information on identity documentation for TGNC people.

Psychologists may choose to become involved with an organization that seeks to revise law and public policy to better protect the rights and dignities of TGNC people. Psychologists may participate at the local, state, or national level to support TGNC-affirmative health care accessibility, human rights in sex-segregated facilities, or policy change regarding gender-affirming identity documentation. Psychologists working in institutional settings may also expand their roles to work as collaborative advocates for TGNC people (Gonzalez & McNulty, 2010). Psychologists are encouraged to provide written affirmations supporting TGNC people and their gender identity so that they may access necessary services (e.g., hormone therapy).

Life Span Development

Guideline 8. Psychologists working with gender-questioning [4] and TGNC youth understand the different developmental needs of children and adolescents, and that not all youth will persist in a TGNC identity into adulthood.

Rationale. Many children develop stability (constancy across time) in their gender identity between Ages 3 to 4 (Kohlberg, 1966), although gender consistency (recognition that gender remains the same across situations) often does not occur until Ages 4 to 7 (Siegal & Robinson, 1987). Children who demonstrate gender nonconformity in preschool and early elementary years may not follow this trajectory (Zucker & Bradley, 1995). Existing research suggests that between 12% and 50% of children diagnosed with gender dysphoria may persist in their identification with a gender different than sex assigned at birth into late adolescence and young adulthood (Drummond, Bradley,

[4] Gender-questioning youth are differentiated from TGNC youth in this section of the guidelines. Gender-questioning youth may be questioning or exploring their gender identity but have not yet developed a TGNC identity. As such, they may not be eligible for some services that would be offered to TGNC youth. Gender-questioning youth are included here because gender questioning may lead to a TGNC identity.

Peterson-Badaali, & Zucker, 2008; Steensma, McGuire, Kreukels, Beekman, & Cohen-Kettenis, 2013; Wallien & Cohen-Kettenis, 2008). However, several research studies categorized 30% to 62% of youth who did not return to the clinic for medical intervention after initial assessment, and whose gender identity may be unknown, as "desisters" who no longer identified with a gender different than sex assigned at birth (Steensma et al., 2013; Wallien & Cohen-Kettenis, 2008; Zucker, 2008a). As a result, this research runs a strong risk of inflating estimates of the number of youth who do not persist with a TGNC identity. Research has suggested that children who identify more intensely with a gender different than sex assigned at birth are more likely to persist in this gender identification into adolescence (Steensma et al., 2013), and that when gender dysphoria persists through childhood and intensifies into adolescence, the likelihood of long-term TGNC identification increases (A. L. de Vries, Steensma, Doreleijers, & Cohen-Kettenis, 2011; Steensma et al., 2013; Wallien & Cohen-Kettenis, 2008; Zucker, 2008b). Gender-questioning children who do not persist may be more likely to later identify as gay or lesbian than non-gender-questioning children (Bailey & Zucker, 1995; Drescher, 2014; Wallien & Cohen-Kettenis, 2008).

A clear distinction between care of TGNC and gender-questioning children and adolescents exists in the literature. Due to the evidence that not all children persist in a TGNC identity into adolescence or adulthood, and because no approach to working with TGNC children has been adequately, empirically validated, consensus does not exist regarding best practice with prepubertal children. Lack of consensus about the preferred approach to treatment may be due in part to divergent ideas regarding what constitutes optimal treatment outcomes for TGNC and gender-questioning youth (Hembree et al., 2009). Two distinct approaches exist to address gender identity concerns in children (Hill, Menvielle, Sica, & Johnson, 2010; Wallace & Russell, 2013), with some authors subdividing one of the approaches to suggest three (Byne et al., 2012; Drescher, 2014; Stein, 2012).

One approach encourages an affirmation and acceptance of children's expressed gender identity. This may include assisting children to socially transition and to begin medical transition when their bodies have physically developed, or allowing a child's gender identity to unfold without expectation of a specific outcome (A. L. de Vries & Cohen-Kettenis, 2012; Edwards-Leeper & Spack, 2012; Ehrensaft, 2012; Hidalgo et al., 2013; Tishelman et al., 2015). Clinicians using this approach believe that an open exploration and affirmation will assist children to develop coping strategies and emotional tools to integrate a positive TGNC identity should gender questioning persist (Edwards-Leeper & Spack, 2012).

In the second approach, children are encouraged to embrace their given bodies and to align with their assigned gender roles. This includes endorsing and supporting behaviors and attitudes that align with the child's sex assigned at birth prior to the onset of puberty (Zucker, 2008a; Zucker, Wood, Singh, & Bradley, 2012). Clinicians using this approach believe that undergoing multiple medical interventions and living as a TGNC person in a world that stigmatizes gender nonconformity is a less desirable outcome than one in which children may be assisted to happily align with their sex assigned at birth (Zucker et al., 2012). Consensus does not exist regarding whether this approach may provide benefit (Zucker, 2008a; Zucker et al., 2012) or may cause harm or lead to psychosocial adversities (Hill et al., 2010; Pyne, 2014; Travers et al., 2012; Wallace & Russell, 2013). When addressing psychological interventions for children and adolescents, the World Professional Association for Transgender Health Standards of Care identify interventions "aimed at trying to change gender identity and expression to become more congruent with sex assigned at birth" as unethical (Coleman et al., 2012, p. 175). It is hoped that future research will offer improved guidance in this area of practice (Adelson & AACAP CQI, 2012; Malpas, 2011).

Much greater consensus exists regarding practice with adolescents. Adolescents presenting with gender identity concerns bring their own set of unique challenges. This may include having a late-onset (i.e., postpubertal) presentation of gender nonconforming identification, with no history of gender role nonconformity or gender questioning in childhood (Edwards-Leeper & Spack, 2012). Complicating their clinical presentation, many gender-questioning adolescents also present with co-occurring psychological concerns, such as suicidal ideation, self-injurious behaviors (Liu & Mustanski, 2012; Mustanski, Garofalo, & Emerson, 2010), drug and alcohol use (Garofalo et al., 2006), and autism spectrum disorders (A. L. de Vries, Noens, Cohen-Kettenis, van Berckelaer-Onnes, & Doreleijers, 2010; Jones et al., 2012). Additionally, adolescents can become intensely focused on their immediate desires, resulting in outward displays of frustration and resentment when faced with any delay in receiving the medical treatment from which they feel they would benefit and to which they feel entitled (Angello, 2013; Edwards-Leeper & Spack, 2012). This intense focus on immediate needs may create challenges in assuring that adolescents are cognitively and emotionally able to make life-altering decisions to change their name or gender marker, begin hormone therapy (which may affect fertility), or pursue surgery.

Nonetheless, there is greater consensus that treatment approaches for adolescents affirm an adolescents' gender identity (Coleman et al., 2012). Treatment options for adolescents extend beyond social approaches to include medical approaches. One particular medical intervention involves the use of puberty-suppressing medication or "blockers" (GnRH analogue), which is a reversible medical intervention used to delay puberty for appropriately screened adolescents with gender dysphoria (Coleman et al., 2012; A. L. C. de Vries et al., 2014; Edwards-Leeper, & Spack, 2012). Because of their age, other medical interventions may also become available to adolescents, and psychologists are frequently consulted to provide an assessment of whether such procedures would be advisable (Coleman et al., 2012).

Application. Psychologists working with TGNC and gender-questioning youth are encouraged to regularly review the most current literature in this area, recognizing the limited available research regarding the potential benefits and risks of different treatment approaches for children and for adolescents. Psychologists are encouraged to offer parents and guardians clear information about available treatment approaches, regardless of the specific approach chosen by the psychologist. Psychologists are encouraged to provide psychological service to TGNC and gender-questioning children and adolescents that draws from empirically validated literature when available, recognizing the influence psychologists' values and beliefs may have on the treatment approaches they select (Ehrbar & Gorton, 2010). Psychologists are also encouraged to remain aware that what one youth and/or parent may be seeking in a therapeutic relationship may not coincide with a clinician's approach (Brill & Pepper, 2008). In cases in which a youth and/or parent identify different preferred treatment outcomes than a clinician, it may not be clinically appropriate for the clinician to continue working with the youth and family, and alternative options, including referral, might be considered. Psychologists may also find themselves navigating family systems in which youth and their caregivers are seeking different treatment outcomes (Edwards-Leeper & Spack, 2012). Psychologists are encouraged to carefully reflect on their personal values and beliefs about gender identity development in conjunction with the available research, and to keep the best interest of the child or adolescent at the forefront of their clinical decisions at all times.

Because gender nonconformity may be transient for younger children in particular, the psychologist's role may be to help support children and their families through the process of exploration and self-identification (Ehrensaft, 2012). Additionally, psychologists may provide parents with information about possible long-term trajectories children may take in regard to their gender identity, along with the available medical interventions for adolescents whose TGNC identification persists (Edwards-Leeper & Spack, 2012).

When working with adolescents, psychologists are encouraged to recognize that some TGNC adolescents will not have a strong history of childhood gender role nonconformity or gender dysphoria either by self-report or family observation (Edwards-Leeper & Spack, 2012). Some of these adolescents may have withheld their feelings of gender nonconformity out of a fear of rejection, confusion, conflating gender identity and sexual orientation, or a lack of awareness of the option to identify as TGNC. Parents of these adolescents may need additional assistance in understanding and supporting their youth, given that late-onset gender dysphoria and TGNC identification may come as a significant surprise. Moving more slowly and cautiously in these cases is often advisable (Edwards-Leeper & Spack, 2012). Given the possibility of adolescents' intense focus on immediate desires and strong reactions to perceived delays or barriers, psychologists are encouraged to validate these concerns and the desire to move through the process quickly while also remaining thoughtful and deliberate in treatment. Adolescents and their families may need support in tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty with regard to gender identity and its development (Brill & Pepper, 2008). It is encouraged that care should be taken not to foreclose this process.

For adolescents who exhibit a long history of gender nonconformity, psychologists may inform parents that the adolescent's self-affirmed gender identity is most likely stable (A. L. de Vries et al., 2011). The clinical needs of these adolescents may be different than those who are in the initial phases of exploring or questioning their gender identity. Psychologists are encouraged to complete a comprehensive evaluation and ensure the adolescent's and family's readiness to progress while also avoiding unnecessary delay for those who are ready to move forward.

Psychologists working with TGNC and gender-questioning youth are encouraged to become familiar with medical treatment options for adolescents (e.g., puberty-suppressing medication, hormone therapy) and work collaboratively with medical providers to provide appropriate care to clients. Because the ongoing involvement of a knowledgeable mental health provider is encouraged due to the psychosocial implications, and is often also a required part of the medical treatment regimen that may be offered to TGNC adolescents (Coleman et al., 2012; Hembree et al., 2009), psychologists often play an essential role in assisting in this process.

Psychologists may encourage parents and caregivers to involve youth in developmentally appropriate decision making about their education, health care, and peer networks, as these relate to children's and adolescents' gender identity and gender expression (Ryan, Russell, Huebner, Diaz, & Sanchez, 2010). Psychologists are also encouraged to educate themselves about the advantages and disadvantages of social transition during childhood and adolescence, and to discuss these factors with both their young clients and clients' parents. Emphasizing to parents the importance of allowing their child the freedom to return to a gender identity that aligns with sex assigned at birth or another gender identity at any point cannot be overstated, particularly given the research that suggests that not all young gender nonconforming children will ultimately express a gender identity different from that assigned at birth (Wallien, & Cohen-Kettenis, 2008; Zucker & Bradley, 1995). Psychologists are encouraged to acknowledge and explore the fear and burden of responsibility that parents and caregivers may feel as they make decisions about the health of their child or adolescent (Grossman, D'Augelli, Howell, & Hubbard, 2006). Parents and caregivers may benefit from a supportive environment to discuss feelings of isolation, explore loss and grief they may experience, vent anger and frustration at systems that disrespect or discriminate against them and their youth, and learn how to communicate with others about their child's or adolescent's gender identity or gender expression (Brill & Pepper, 2008).

Guideline 9. Psychologists strive to understand both the particular challenges that TGNC elders experience and the resilience they can develop.

Rationale. Little research has been conducted about TGNC elders, leaving much to be discovered about this life stage for TGNC people (Auldridge, Tamar-Mattis, Kennedy, Ames, & Tobin, 2012). Socialization into gender role behaviors and expectations based on sex assigned at birth, as well as the extent to which TGNC people adhere to these societal standards, is influenced by the chronological age at which a person self-identifies as TGNC, the age at which a person comes out or socially and/or medically transitions (Birren & Schaie, 2006; Bockting & Coleman, 2007; Cavanaugh & Blanchard-Fields, 2010; Nuttbrock et al., 2010; Wahl, Iwarsson, & Oswald, 2012), and a person's generational cohort (e.g., 1950 vs. 2010; Fredriksen-Goldsen et al., 2011).

Even decades after a medical or social transition, TGNC elders may still subscribe to the predominant gender role expectations that existed at the time of their transition (Knochel, Croghan, Moore, & Quam, 2011). Prior to the 1980s, TGNC people who transitioned were strongly encouraged by providers to pass in society as cisgender and heterosexual and to avoid associating with other TGNC people (Benjamin, 1966; R. Green & Money, 1969; Hastings, 1974; Hastings & Markland, 1978). Even TGNC elders who were comfortable telling others about their TGNC identity when they were younger may choose not to reveal their identity at a later stage of life (Ekins & King, 2005; Ippolito & Witten, 2014). Elders' unwillingness to disclose their TGNC identity can result from feelings of physical vulnerability or increased reliance on others who may discriminate against them or treat them poorly as a result of their gender identity (Bockting & Coleman, 2007), especially if the elder resides in an institutionalized setting (i.e., nursing home, assisted living facility) and relies on others for many daily needs (Auldridge et al., 2012). TGNC elders are also at a heightened risk for depression, suicidal ideation, and loneliness compared with LGB elders (Auldridge et al., 2012; Fredriksen-Goldsen et al., 2011).

A Transgender Law Center survey found that TGNC and LGB elders had less financial well-being than their younger cohorts, despite having a higher than average educational level for their age group compared with the general population (Hartzell, Frazer, Wertz, & Davis, 2009). Survey research has also revealed that TGNC elders experience underemployment and gaps in employment, often due to discrimination (Auldridge et al., 2012; Beemyn & Rankin, 2011; Factor & Rothblum, 2007). In the past, some TGNC people with established careers may have been encouraged by service providers to find new careers or jobs to avoid undergoing a gender transition at work or being identified as TGNC, potentially leading to a significant loss of income and occupational identity (Cook-Daniels, 2006). Obstacles to employment can increase economic disparities that result in increased needs for supportive housing and other social services (National Center for Transgender Equality, 2012; Services and Advocacy for GLBT Elders & National Center for Transgender Equality, 2012).

TGNC elders may face obstacles to seeking or accessing resources that support their physical, financial, or emotional well-being. For instance, they may be concerned about applying for social security benefits, fearing that their TGNC identity may become known (Hartzell et al., 2009). A TGNC elder may avoid medical care, increasing the likelihood of later needing a higher level of medical care (e.g., home-based care, assisted living, or nursing home) than their same-age cisgender peers (Hartzell et al., 2009; Ippolito & Witten, 2014; Mikalson et al., 2012). Nursing homes and assisted living facilities are rarely sensitive to the unique medical needs of TGNC elders (National Senior Citizens Law Center, 2011). Some TGNC individuals who enter congregate housing, assisted living, or long-term care settings may feel the need to reverse their transition to align with sex assigned at birth to avoid discrimination and persecution by other residents and staff (Ippolito & Witten, 2014).

Older age may both facilitate and complicate medical treatment related to gender transition. TGNC people who begin hormone therapy later in life may have a smoother transition due to waning hormone levels that are a natural part of aging (Witten & Eyler, 2012). Age may also influence the decisions TGNC elders make regarding sex-affirmation surgeries, especially if physical conditions exist that could significantly increase risks associated with surgery or recovery.

Much has been written about the resilience of elders who have endured trauma (Fuhrmann & Shevlowitz, 2006; Hardy, Concato, & Gill, 2004; Mlinac, Sheeran, Blissmer, Lees, & Martins, 2011; Rodin & Stewart, 2012). Although some TGNC elders have experienced significant psychological trauma related to their gender identity, some also have developed resilience and effective ways of coping with adversity (Fruhauf & Orel, 2015). Despite the limited availability of LGBTQ-affirmative religious organizations in many local communities, TGNC elders make greater use of these resources than their cisgender peers (Porter et al., 2013).

Application. Psychologists are encouraged to seek information about the biopsychosocial needs of TGNC elders to inform case conceptualization and treatment planning to address psychological, social, and medical concerns. Many TGNC elders are socially isolated. Isolation can occur as a result of a loss of social networks through death or through disclosure of a TGNC identity. Psychologists may assist TGNC elders in establishing new social networks that support and value their TGNC identity, while also working to strengthen existing family and friend networks after a TGNC identity has been disclosed. TGNC elders may find special value in relationships with others in their generational cohort or those who may have similar coming-out experiences. Psychologists may encourage TGNC elders to identify ways they can mentor and improve the resilience of younger TGNC generations, creating a sense of generativity (Erikson, 1968) and contribu-

tion while building new supportive relationships. Psychologists working with TGNC elders may help them recognize the sources of their resilience and encourage them to connect with and be active in their communities (Fuhrmann & Craffey, 2014).

For TGNC elders who have chosen not to disclose their gender identity, psychologists may provide support to address shame, guilt, or internalized antitrans prejudice, and validate each person's freedom to choose their pattern of disclosure. Clinicians may also provide validation and empathy when TGNC elders have chosen a model of transition that avoids any disclosure of gender identity and is heavily focused on passing as cisgender.

TGNC elders who choose to undergo a medical or social transition in older adulthood may experience antitrans prejudice from people who question the value of transition at an older age or who believe that these elders are not truly invested in their transition or in a TGNC identity given the length of time they have waited (Auldridge et al., 2012). Some TGNC elders may also grieve lost time and missed opportunities. Psychologists may validate elders' choices to come out, transition, or evolve their gender identity or gender expression at any age, recognizing that such choices may have been much less accessible or viable at earlier stages of TGNC elders' lives.

Psychologists may assist congregate housing, assisted living, or long-term care settings to best meet TGNC elders' needs through respectful communication and affirmation of each person's gender identity and gender expression. Psychologists may work with TGNC people in hospice care systems to develop an end-of-life plan that respects the person's wishes about disclosure of gender identity during and after death.

Assessment, Therapy, and Intervention

Guideline 10. Psychologists strive to understand how mental health concerns may or may not be related to a TGNC person's gender identity and the psychological effects of minority stress.

Rationale. TGNC people may seek assistance from psychologists in addressing gender-related concerns, other mental health issues, or both. Mental health problems experienced by a TGNC person may or may not be related to that person's gender identity and/or may complicate assessment and intervention of gender-related concerns. In some cases, there may not be a relationship between a person's gender identity and a co-occurring condition (e.g., depression, PTSD, substance abuse). In other cases, having a TGNC identity may lead or contribute to a co-occurring mental health condition, either directly by way of gender dysphoria, or indirectly by way of minority stress and oppression (Hendricks & Testa, 2012; I. H. Meyer, 1995, 2003). In extremely rare cases, a co-occurring condition can mimic gender dysphoria (i.e., a psychotic process that distorts the perception of one's gender; Baltieri & De Andrade, 2009; Hepp, Kraemer, Schnyder, Miller, & Delsignore, 2004).

Regardless of the presence or absence of an etiological link, gender identity may affect how a TGNC person experiences a co-occurring mental health condition, and/or a co-occurring mental health condition may complicate the person's gender expression or gender identity. For example, an eating disorder may be influenced by a TGNC person's gender expression (e.g., rigid eating patterns used to manage body shape or menstruation may be related to gender identity or gender dysphoria; Ålgars, Alanko, Santtila, & Sandnabba, 2012; Murray, Boon, & Touyz, 2013). In addition, the presence of autism spectrum disorder may complicate a TGNC person's articulation and exploration of gender identity (Jones et al., 2012). In cases in which gender dysphoria is contributing to other mental health concerns, treatment of gender dysphoria may be helpful in alleviating those concerns as well (Keo-Meier et al., 2015).

A relationship also exists between mental health conditions and the psychological sequelae of minority stress that TGNC people can experience. Given that TGNC people experience physical and sexual violence (Clements-Nolle et al., 2006; Kenagy & Bostwick, 2005; Lombardi, Wilchins, Priesing, & Malouf, 2001; Xavier et al., 2005), general harassment and discrimination (Beemyn & Rankin, 2011; Factor & Rothblum, 2007), and employment and housing discrimination (Bradford et al., 2007), they are likely to experience significant levels of minority stress. Studies have demonstrated the disproportionately high levels of negative psychological sequelae related to minority stress, including suicidal ideation and suicide attempts (Center for Substance Abuse Treatment, 2012; Clements-Nolle et al., 2006; Cochran & Cauce, 2006; Nuttbrock et al., 2010; Xavier et al., 2005) and completed suicides (Dhejne et al., 2011; van Kesteren, Asscheman, Megens, & Gooren, 1997). Recent studies have begun to demonstrate an association between sources of external stress and psychological distress (Bockting et al., 2013; Nuttbrock et al., 2010), including suicidal ideation and attempts and self-injurious behavior (dickey, Reisner, & Juntunen, 2015; Goldblum et al., 2012; Testa et al., 2012).

The minority stress model accounts for both the negative mental health effects of stigma-related stress and the processes by which members of the minority group may develop resilience and resistance to the negative effects of stress (I. H. Meyer, 1995, 2003). Although the minority stress model was developed as a theory of the relationship between sexual orientation and mental disorders, the model has been adapted to TGNC populations (Hendricks & Testa, 2012).

Application. Because of the increased risk of stress-related mental health conditions, psychologists are encouraged to conduct a careful diagnostic assessment, including a differential diagnosis, when working with TGNC people (Coleman et al., 2012). Taking into account the intricate interplay between the effects of mental health symptoms and gender identity and gender expression, psychologists are encouraged to neither ignore mental health problems a TGNC person is experiencing, nor erroneously

assume that those mental health problems are a result of the person's gender identity or gender expression. Psychologists are strongly encouraged to be cautious before determining that gender nonconformity or dysphoria is due to an underlying psychotic process, as this type of causal relationship is rare.

When TGNC people seek to access transition-related health care, a psychosocial assessment is often part of this process (Coleman et al., 2012). A comprehensive and balanced assessment typically includes not only information about a person's past experiences of antitrans prejudice or discrimination, internalized messages related to these experiences, and anticipation of future victimization or rejection (Coolhart, Provancher, Hager, & Wang, 2008), but also coping strategies and sources of resilience (Hendricks & Testa, 2012; Singh et al., 2011). Gathering information about negative life events directly related to a TGNC person's gender identity and gender expression may assist psychologists in understanding the sequelae of stress and discrimination, distinguishing them from concurrent and potentially unrelated mental health problems. Similarly, when a TGNC person has a primary presenting concern that is not gender focused, a comprehensive assessment takes into account that person's experience relative to gender identity and gender expression, including any discrimination, just as it would include assessing other potential trauma history, medical concerns, previous experience with helping professionals, important future goals, and important aspects of identity. Strategies a TGNC person uses to navigate antitrans discrimination could be sources of strength to deal with life challenges or sources of distress that increase challenges and barriers.

Psychologists are encouraged to help TGNC people understand the pervasive influence of minority stress and discrimination that may exist in their lives, potentially including internalized negative attitudes about themselves and their TGNC identity (Hendricks & Testa, 2012). With this support, clients can better understand the origins of their mental health symptoms and normalize their reactions when faced with TGNC-related inequities and discrimination. Minority stress models also identify potentially important sources of resilience. TGNC people can develop resilience when they connect with other TGNC people who provide information on how to navigate antitrans prejudice and increase access to necessary care and resources (Singh et al., 2011). TGNC people may need help developing social support systems to nurture their resilience and bolster their ability to cope with the adverse effects of antitrans prejudice and/or discrimination (Singh & McKleroy, 2011).

Feminizing or masculinizing hormone therapy can positively or negatively affect existing mood disorders (Coleman et al., 2012). Psychologists may also help TGNC people who are in the initial stages of hormone therapy adjust to normal changes in how they experience emotions. For example, trans women who begin estrogens and antiandrogens may experience a broader range of emotions than they are accustomed to, or trans men beginning testosterone might be faced with adjusting to a higher libido and feeling more emotionally reactive in stressful situations. These changes can be normalized as similar to the emotional adjustments that cisgender women and men experience during puberty. Some TGNC people will be able to adapt existing coping strategies, whereas others may need help developing additional skills (e.g., emotional regulation or assertiveness). Readers are encouraged to refer to the World Professional Association for Transgender Health Standards of Care for discussion of the possible effects of hormone therapy on a TGNC person's mood, affect, and behavior (Coleman et al., 2012).

Guideline 11. Psychologists recognize that TGNC people are more likely to experience positive life outcomes when they receive social support or trans-affirmative care.

Rationale. Research has primarily shown positive treatment outcomes when TGNC adults and adolescents receive TGNC-affirmative medical and psychological services (i.e., psychotherapy, hormones, surgery; Byne et al., 2012; R. Carroll, 1999; Cohen-Kettenis, Delemarre-van de Waal, & Gooren, 2008; Davis & Meier, 2014; De Cuypere et al., 2006; Gooren, Giltay, & Bunck, 2008; Kuhn et al., 2009), although sample sizes are frequently small with no population-based studies. In a meta-analysis of the hormone therapy treatment literature with TGNC adults and adolescents, researchers reported that 80% of participants receiving trans-affirmative care experienced an improved quality of life, decreased gender dysphoria, and a reduction in negative psychological symptoms (Murad et al., 2010).

In addition, TGNC people who receive social support about their gender identity and gender expression have improved outcomes and quality of life (Brill & Pepper, 2008; Pinto, Melendez, & Spector, 2008). Several studies indicate that family acceptance of TGNC adolescents and adults is associated with decreased rates of negative outcomes, such as depression, suicide, and HIV risk behaviors and infection (Bockting et al., 2013; Dhejne et al., 2011; Grant et al., 2011; Liu & Mustanski, 2012; Ryan, 2009). Family support is also a strong protective factor for TGNC adults and adolescents (Bockting et al., 2013; Moody & Smith, 2013; Ryan et al., 2010). TGNC people, however, frequently experience blatant or subtle antitrans prejudice, discrimination, and even violence within their families (Bradford et al., 2007). Such family rejection is associated with higher rates of HIV infection, suicide, incarceration, and homelessness for TGNC adults and adolescents (Grant et al., 2011; Liu & Mustanski, 2012). Family rejection and lower levels of social support are significantly correlated with depression (Clements-Nolle et al., 2006; Ryan, 2009). Many TGNC people seek support through peer relationships, chosen families, and communities in which they may be more likely to experience acceptance (Gonzalez & McNulty, 2010; Nuttbrock et al., 2009). Peer support from other TGNC people has been found to be a moderator between antitrans discrimination and mental health, with higher levels of peer support associated with better mental health (Bockting et al., 2013). For some TGNC people, support from religious and spiritual communities provides

an important source of resilience (Glaser, 2008; Kidd & Witten, 2008; Porter et al., 2013).

Application. Given the strong evidence for the positive influence of affirmative care, psychologists are encouraged to facilitate access to and provide trans-affirmative care to TGNC people. Whether through the provision of assessment and psychotherapy, or through assisting clients to access hormone therapy or surgery, psychologists may play a critical role in empowering and validating TGNC adults' and adolescents' experiences and increasing TGNC people's positive life outcomes (Bess & Stabb, 2009; Rachlin, 2002).

Psychologists are also encouraged to be aware of the importance of affirmative social support and assist TGNC adults and adolescents in building social support networks in which their gender identity is accepted and affirmed. Psychologists may assist TGNC people in negotiating family dynamics that may arise in the course of exploring and establishing gender identity. Depending on the context of psychological practice, these issues might be addressed in individual work with TGNC clients, conjoint sessions including members of their support system, family therapy, or group therapy. Psychologists may help TGNC people decide how and when to reveal their gender identity at work or school, in religious communities, and to friends and contacts in other settings. TGNC people who decide not to come out in all aspects of their lives can still benefit from TGNC-affirmative in-person or online peer support groups.

Clients may ask psychologists to assist family members in exploring feelings about their loved one's gender identity and gender expression. Published models of family adjustment (Emerson & Rosenfeld, 1996) may be useful to help normalize family members' reactions upon learning that they have a TGNC family member, and to reduce feelings of isolation. When working with family members or significant others, it may be helpful to normalize feelings of loss or fear of what may happen to current relationships as TGNC people disclose their gender identity and expression to others. Psychologists may help significant others adjust to changing relationships and consider how to talk to extended family, friends, and other community members about TGNC loved ones. Providing significant others with referrals to TGNC-affirmative providers, educational resources, and support groups can have a profound impact on their understanding of gender identity and their communication with TGNC loved ones. Psychologists working with couples and families may also help TGNC people identify ways to include significant others in their social or medical transition.

Psychologists working with TGNC people in rural settings may provide clients with resources to connect with other TGNC people online or provide information about in-person support groups in which they can explore the unique challenges of being TGNC in these geographic areas (Walinsky & Whitcomb, 2010). Psychologists serving TGNC military and veteran populations are encouraged to be sensitive to the barriers these individuals face, especially for people who are on active duty in the U.S. military (OutServe-Servicemembers Legal Defense Network, n.d.). Psychologists may help TGNC military members and veterans establish specific systems of support that create a safe and affirming space to reduce isolation and to create a network of peers with a shared military experience. Psychologists who work with veterans are encouraged to educate themselves on recent changes to VA policy that support equal access to VA medical and mental health services (Department of Veterans Affairs, Veterans' Health Administration, 2013).

Guideline 12. Psychologists strive to understand the effects that changes in gender identity and gender expression have on the romantic and sexual relationships of TGNC people.

Rationale. Relationships involving TGNC people can be healthy and successful (Kins, Hoebeke, Heylens, Rubens, & De Cuyprere, 2008; Meier, Sharp, Michonski, Babcock, & Fitzgerald, 2013) as well as challenging (Brown, 2007; Iantaffi & Bockting, 2011). A study of successful relationships between TGNC men and cisgender women found that these couples attributed the success of their relationship to respect, honesty, trust, love, understanding, and open communication (Kins et al., 2008). Just as relationships between cisgender people can involve abuse, so can relationships between TGNC people and their partners (Brown, 2007), with some violent partners threatening to disclose a TGNC person's identity to exact control in the relationship (FORGE, n.d.).

In the early decades of medical and social transition for TGNC people, only those whose sexual orientations would be heterosexual posttransition (e.g., trans woman with a cisgender man) were deemed eligible for medical and social transition (Meyerowitz, 2002). This restriction prescribed only certain relationship partners (American Psychiatric Association, 1980; Benjamin, 1966; Chivers & Bailey, 2000), denied access to surgery for trans men identifying as gay or bisexual (Coleman & Bockting, 1988), or trans women identifying as lesbian or bisexual, and even required that TGNC people's existing legal marriages be dissolved before they could gain access to transition care (Lev, 2004).

Disclosure of a TGNC identity can have an important impact on the relationship between TGNC people and their partners. Disclosure of TGNC status earlier in the relationship tends to be associated with better relationship outcomes, whereas disclosure of TGNC status many years into an existing relationship may be perceived as a betrayal (Erhardt, 2007). When a TGNC person comes out in the context of an existing relationship, it can also be helpful if both partners are involved in decision making about the use of shared resources (i.e., how to balance the financial costs of transition with other family needs) and how to share this news with shared supports (i.e., friends and family). Sometimes relationship roles are renegotiated in the context of a TGNC person coming out to their partner (Samons, 2008). Assumptions about what it means to be a "husband" or a "wife" can shift if the gender identity of one's spouse shifts

(Erhardt, 2007). Depending on when gender issues are disclosed and how much of a change this creates in the relationship, partners may grieve the loss of aspects of their partner and the way the relationship used to be (Lev, 2004).

Although increasing alignment between gender identity and gender expression, whether it be through dress, behavior, or through medical interventions (i.e., hormones, surgery), does not necessarily affect to whom a TGNC person is attracted (Coleman et al., 1993), TGNC people may become more open to exploring their sexual orientation, may redefine sexual orientation as they move through transition, or both (Daskalos, 1998; H. Devor, 1993; Schleifer, 2006). Through increased comfort with their body and gender identity, TGNC people may explore aspects of their sexual orientation that were previously hidden or that felt discordant with their sex assigned at birth. Following a medical and/or social transition, a TGNC person's sexual orientation may remain constant or shift, either temporarily or permanently (e.g., renewed exploration of sexual orientation in the context of TGNC identity, shift in attraction or choice of sexual partners, widened spectrum of attraction, shift in sexual orientation identity; Meier, Sharp et al., 2013; Samons, 2008). For example, a trans man previously identified as a lesbian may later be attracted to men (Coleman et al., 1993; dickey, Burnes, & Singh, 2012), and a trans woman attracted to women pretransition may remain attracted to women posttransition (Lev, 2004).

Some TGNC people and their partners may fear the loss of mutual sexual attraction and other potential effects of shifting gender identities in the relationship. Lesbian-identified partners of trans men may struggle with the idea that being in a relationship with a man may cause others to perceive them as a heterosexual couple (Califia, 1997). Similarly, women in heterosexual relationships who later learn that their partners are trans women may be unfamiliar with navigating stigma associated with sexual minority status when viewed as a lesbian couple (Erhardt, 2007). Additionally, partners may find they are not attracted to a partner after transition. As an example, a lesbian whose partner transitions to a male identity may find that she is no longer attracted to this person because she is not sexually attracted to men. Partners of TGNC people may also experience grief and loss as their partners engage in social and/or medical transitions.

Application. Psychologists may help foster resilience in relationships by addressing issues specific to partners of TGNC people. Psychologists may provide support to partners of TGNC people who are having difficulty with their partner's evolving gender identity or transition, or are experiencing others having difficulty with the partner's transition. Partner peer support groups may be especially helpful in navigating internalized antitrans prejudice, shame, resentment, and relationship concerns related to a partner's gender transition. Meeting or knowing other TGNC people, other partners of TGNC people, and couples who have successfully navigated transition may also help TGNC people and their partners and serve as a protective factor (Brown, 2007). When TGNC status is disclosed during an existing relationship, psychologists may help couples explore which relationship dynamics they want to preserve and which they might like to change.

In working with psychologists, TGNC people may explore a range of issues in their relationships and sexuality (dickey et al., 2012), including when and how to come out to current or potential romantic and sexual partners, communicating their sexual desires, renegotiating intimacy that may be lost during the TGNC partner's transition, adapting to bodily changes caused by hormone use or surgery, and exploring boundaries regarding touch, affection, and safer sex practices (Iantaffi & Bockting, 2011; Sevelius, 2009). TGNC people may experience increased sexual self-efficacy through transition. Although psychologists may aid partners in understanding a TGNC person's transition decisions, TGNC people may also benefit from help in cultivating awareness of the ways in which these decisions influence the lives of loved ones.

Guideline 13. Psychologists seek to understand how parenting and family formation among TGNC people take a variety of forms.

Rationale. Psychologists work with TGNC people across the life span to address parenting and family issues (Kenagy & Hsieh, 2005). There is evidence that many TGNC people have and want children (Wierckx et al., 2012). Some TGNC people conceive a child through sexual intercourse, whereas others may foster, adopt, pursue surrogacy, or employ assisted reproductive technologies, such as sperm or egg donation, to build or expand a family (De Sutter, Kira, Verschoor, & Hotimsky, 2002). Based on a small body of research to date, there is no indication that children of TGNC parents suffer long-term negative impacts directly related to parental gender change (R. Green, 1978, 1988; White & Ettner, 2004). TGNC people may find it both challenging to find medical providers who are willing to offer them reproductive treatment and to afford the cost (Coleman et al., 2012). Similarly, adoption can be quite costly, and some TGNC people may find it challenging to find foster care or adoption agencies that will work with them in a nondiscriminatory manner. Current or past use of hormone therapy may limit fertility and restrict a TGNC person's reproductive options (Darnery, 2008; Wierckx et al., 2012). Other TGNC people may have children or families before coming out as TGNC or beginning a gender transition.

TGNC people may present with a range of parenting and family-building concerns. Some will seek support to address issues within preexisting family systems, some will explore the creation or expansion of a family, and some will need to make decisions regarding potential fertility issues related to hormone therapy, pubertal suppression, or surgical transition. The medical and/or social transition of a TGNC parent may shift family dynamics, creating challenges and opportunities for partners, children, and other family members. One study of therapists' reflections on their experiences with TGNC clients suggested that family constellation and the parental relationship was more significant for children than the parent's social and/or medical

transition itself (White & Ettner, 2004). Although research has not documented that the transitions of TGNC people have an effect on their parenting abilities, preexisting partnerships or marriages may not survive the disclosure of a TGNC identity or a subsequent transition (dickey et al., 2012). This may result in divorce or separation, which may affect the children in the family. A positive relationship between parents, regardless of marital status, has been suggested to be an important protective factor for children (Amato, 2001; White & Ettner, 2007). This seems to be the case especially when children are reminded of the parent's love and assured of the parent's continued presence in their life (White & Ettner, 2007). Based on a small body of literature available, it is generally the case that younger children are best able to incorporate the transition of a parent, followed by adult children, with adolescents generally having the most difficulty (White & Ettner, 2007). If separated or divorced from their partners or spouses, TGNC parents may be at risk for loss of custody or visitation rights because some courts presume that there is a nexus between their gender identity or gender expression and parental fitness (Flynn, 2006). This type of prejudice is especially common for TGNC people of color (Grant et al., 2011).

Application. Psychologists are encouraged to attend to the parenting and family-building concerns of TGNC people. When working with TGNC people who have previous parenting experience, psychologists may help TGNC people identify how being a parent may influence decisions to come out as TGNC or to begin a transition (Freeman, Tasker, & Di Ceglie, 2002; Grant et al., 2011; Wierckx et al., 2012). Some TGNC people may choose to delay disclosure until their children have grown and left home (Bethea & McCollum, 2013). Clinical guidelines jointly developed by a Vancouver, British Columbia, TGNC community organization and a health care provider organization encourage psychologists and other mental health providers working with TGNC people to plan for disclosure to a partner, previous partner, or children, and to pay particular attention to resources that assist TGNC people to discuss their identity with children of various ages in developmentally appropriate ways (Bockting et al., 2006). Lev (2004) uses a developmental stage framework for the process that family members are likely to go through in coming to terms with a TGNC family member's identity that some psychologists may find helpful. Awareness of peer support networks for spouses and children of TGNC people can also be helpful (e.g., PFLAG, TransYouth Family Allies). Psychologists may provide family counseling to assist a family in managing disclosure, improve family functioning, and maintain family involvement of the TGNC person, as well as aiding the TGNC person in attending to the ways that their transition process has affected their family members (Samons, 2008). Helping parents to continue to work together to focus on the needs of their children and to maintain family bonds is likely to lead to the best results for the children (White & Ettner, 2007).

For TGNC people with existing families, psychologists may support TGNC people in seeking legal counsel regarding parental rights in adoption or custody. Depending on the situation, this may be desirable even if the TGNC parent is biologically related to the child (Minter & Wald, 2012). Although being TGNC is not a legal impediment to adoption in the United States, there is the potential for overt and covert discrimination and barriers, given the widespread prejudice against TGNC people. The question of whether to disclose TGNC status on an adoption application is a personal one, and a prospective TGNC parent would benefit from consulting a lawyer for legal advice, including what the laws in their jurisdiction say about disclosure. Given the extensive background investigation frequently conducted, it may be difficult to avoid disclosure. Many lawyers favor disclosure to avoid any potential legal challenges during the adoption process (Minter & Wald, 2012).

In discussing family-building options with TGNC people, psychologists are encouraged to remain aware that some of these options require medical intervention and are not available everywhere, in addition to being quite costly (Coleman et al., 2012). Psychologists may work with clients to manage feelings of loss, grief, anger, and resentment that may arise if TGNC people are unable to access or afford the services they need for building a family (Bockting et al., 2006; De Sutter et al., 2002).

When TGNC people consider beginning hormone therapy, psychologists may engage them in a conversation about the possibly permanent effects on fertility to better prepare TGNC people to make a fully informed decision. This may be of special importance with TGNC adolescents and young adults who often feel that family planning or loss of fertility is not a significant concern in their current daily lives, and therefore disregard the long-term reproductive implications of hormone therapy or surgery (Coleman et al., 2012). Psychologists are encouraged to discuss contraception and safer sex practices with TGNC people, given that they may still have the ability to conceive even when undergoing hormone therapy (Bockting, Robinson, & Rosser, 1998). Psychologists may play a critical role in educating TGNC adolescents and young adults and their parents about the long-term effects of medical interventions on fertility and assist them in offering informed consent prior to pursuing such interventions. Although hormone therapy may limit fertility (Coleman et al., 2012), psychologists may encourage TGNC people to refrain from relying on hormone therapy as the sole means of birth control, even when a person has amenorrhea (Gorton & Grubb, 2014). Education on safer sex practices may also be important, as some segments of the TGNC community (e.g., trans women and people of color) are especially vulnerable to sexually transmitted infections and have been shown to have high prevalence and incidence rates of HIV infection (Kellogg, Clements-Nolle, Dilley, Katz, & McFarland, 2001; Nemoto, Operario, Keatley, Han, & Soma, 2004).

Depending on the timing and type of options selected, psychologists may explore the physical, social, and emotional implications should TGNC people choose to delay or

stop hormone therapy, undergo fertility treatment, or become pregnant. Psychological effects of stopping hormone therapy may include depression, mood swings, and reactions to the loss of physical masculinization or feminization facilitated by hormone therapy (Coleman et al., 2012). TGNC people who choose to halt hormone therapy during attempts to conceive or during a pregnancy may need additional psychological support. For example, TGNC people and their families may need help in managing the additional antitrans prejudice and scrutiny that may result when a TGNC person with stereotypically masculine features becomes visibly pregnant. Psychologists may also assist TGNC people in addressing their loss when they cannot engage in reproductive activities that are consistent with their gender identity, or when they encounter barriers to conceiving, adopting, or fostering children not typically faced by other people (Vanderburgh, 2007). Psychologists are encouraged to assess the degree to which reproductive health services are TGNC-affirmative prior to referring TGNC people to them. Psychologists are also encouraged to provide TGNC-affirmative information to reproductive health service personnel when there is a lack of trans-affirmative knowledge.

Guideline 14. Psychologists recognize the potential benefits of an interdisciplinary approach when providing care to TGNC people and strive to work collaboratively with other providers.

Rationale. Collaboration across disciplines can be crucial when working with TGNC people because of the potential interplay of biological, psychological, and social factors in diagnosis and treatment (Hendricks & Testa, 2012). The challenges of living with a stigmatized identity and the need of many TGNC people to transition, socially and/or medically, may call for the involvement of health professionals from various disciplines, including psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, primary health care providers, endocrinologists, nurses, pharmacists, surgeons, gynecologists, urologists, electrologists, speech therapists, physical therapists, pastoral counselors and chaplains, and career or educational counselors. Communication, cooperation, and collaboration will ensure optimal coordination and quality of care. Just as psychologists often refer TGNC people to medical providers for assessment and treatment of medical issues, medical providers may rely on psychologists to assess readiness and assist TGNC clients to prepare for the psychological and social aspects of transition before, during, and after medical interventions (Coleman et al., 2012; Hembree et al., 2009; Lev, 2009). Outcome research to date supports the value and effectiveness of an interdisciplinary, collaborative approach to TGNC-specific care (see Coleman et al., 2012 for a review).

Application. Psychologists' collaboration with colleagues in medical and associated health disciplines involved in TGNC clients' care (e.g., hormonal and surgical treatment, primary health care; Coleman et al., 2012; Lev, 2009) may take many forms and should occur in a timely manner that does not complicate access to needed services (e.g., considerations of wait time). For example, a psychologist working with a trans man who has a diagnosis of bipolar disorder may need to coordinate with his primary care provider and psychiatrist to adjust his hormone levels and psychiatric medications, given that testosterone can have an activating effect, in addition to treating gender dysphoria. At a basic level, collaboration may entail the creation of required documentation that TGNC people present to surgeons or medical providers to access gender-affirming medical interventions (e.g., surgery, hormone therapy; Coleman et al., 2012). Psychologists may offer support, information, and education to interdisciplinary colleagues who are unfamiliar with issues of gender identity and gender expression to assist TGNC people in obtaining TGNC-affirmative care (Holman & Goldberg, 2006; Lev, 2009). For example, a psychologist who is assisting a trans woman with obtaining gender-affirming surgery may, with her consent, contact her new gynecologist in preparation for her first medical visit. This contact could include sharing general information about her gender history and discussing how both providers could most affirmatively support appropriate health checks to ensure her best physical health (Holman & Goldberg, 2006).

Psychologists in interdisciplinary settings could also collaborate with medical professionals prescribing hormone therapy by educating TGNC people and ensuring TGNC people are able to make fully informed decisions prior to starting hormone treatment (Coleman et al., 2012; Deutsch, 2012; Lev, 2009). Psychologists working with children and adolescents play a particularly important role on the interdisciplinary team due to considerations of cognitive and social development, family dynamics, and degree of parental support. This role is especially crucial when providing psychological evaluation to determine the appropriateness and timeliness of a medical intervention. When psychologists are not part of an interdisciplinary setting, especially in isolated or rural communities, they can identify interdisciplinary colleagues with whom they may collaborate and/or refer (Walinsky & Whitcomb, 2010). For example, a rural psychologist could identify a trans-affirmative pediatrician in a surrounding area and collaborate with the pediatrician to work with parents raising concerns about their TGNC and questioning children and adolescents.

In addition to working collaboratively with other providers, psychologists who obtain additional training to specialize in work with TGNC people may also serve as consultants in the field (e.g., providing additional support to providers working with TGNC people or assisting school and workplaces with diversity training). Psychologists who have expertise in working with TGNC people may play a consultative role with providers in inpatient settings seeking to provide affirmative care to TGNC clients. Psychologists may also collaborate with social service colleagues to provide TGNC people with affirmative referrals related to housing, financial support, vocational/educational counseling and training, TGNC-affirming religious or spiritual communities, peer support, and other community resources (Gehi & Arkles, 2007). This collaboration might also in-

clude assuring that TGNC people who are minors in the care of the state have access to culturally appropriate care.

Research, Education, and Training

Guideline 15. Psychologists respect the welfare and rights of TGNC participants in research and strive to represent results accurately and avoid misuse or misrepresentation of findings.

Rationale. Historically, in a set of demographic questions, psychological research has included one item on either sex or gender, with two response options—male and female. This approach wastes an opportunity to increase knowledge about TGNC people for whom neither option may fit their identity, and runs the risk of alienating TGNC research participants (IOM, 2011). For example, there is little knowledge about HIV prevalence, risks, and prevention needs of TGNC people because most of the research on HIV has not included demographic questions to identify TGNC participants within their samples. Instead, TGNC people have been historically subsumed within larger demographic categories (e.g., men who have sex with men, women of color), rendering the impact of the HIV epidemic on the TGNC population invisible (Herbst et al., 2008). Scholars have noted that this invisibility fails to draw attention to the needs of TGNC populations that experience the greatest health disparities, including TGNC people who are of color, immigrants, low income, homeless, veterans, incarcerated, live in rural areas, or have disabilities (Bauer et al., 2009; Hanssmann, Morrison, Russian, Shiu-Thornton, & Bowen, 2010; Shipherd et al., 2012; Walinsky & Whitcomb, 2010).

There is a great need for more research to inform practice, including affirmative treatment approaches with TGNC people. Although sufficient evidence exists to support current standards of care (Byne et al., 2012; Coleman et al., 2012), much is yet to be learned to optimize quality of care and outcome for TGNC clients, especially as it relates to the treatment of children (IOM, 2011; Mikalson et al., 2012). In addition, some research with TGNC populations has been misused and misinterpreted, negatively affecting TGNC people's access to health services to address issues of gender identity and gender expression (Namaste, 2000). This has resulted in justifiable skepticism and suspicion in the TGNC community when invited to participate in research initiatives. In accordance with the APA ethics code (APA, 2010), psychologists conduct research and distribute research findings with integrity and respect for their research participants. As TGNC research increases, some TGNC communities may experience being oversampled in particular geographic areas and/or TGNC people of color may not be well-represented in TGNC studies (Hwahng & Lin, 2009; Namaste, 2000).

Application. All psychologists conducting research, even when not specific to TGNC populations, are encouraged to provide a range of options for capturing demographic information about TGNC people so that TGNC people may be included and accurately represented (Conron et al., 2008; Deutsch et al., 2013). One group of experts has recommended that population research, and especially government-sponsored surveillance research, use a two-step method, first asking for sex assigned at birth, and then following with a question about gender identity (GenIUSS, 2013). For research focused on TGNC people, including questions that assess both sex assigned at birth and current gender identity allows the disaggregation of subgroups within the TGNC population and has the potential to increase knowledge of differences within the population. In addition, findings about one subgroup of TGNC people may not apply to other subgroups. For example, results from a study of trans women of color with a history of sex work who live in urban areas (Nemoto, Operario, Keatley, & Villegas, 2004) may not generalize to all TGNC women of color or to the larger TGNC population (Bauer, Travers, Scanlon, & Coleman, 2012; Operario et al., 2008).

In conducting research with TGNC people, psychologists will confront the challenges associated with studying a relatively small, geographically dispersed, diverse, stigmatized, hidden, and hard-to-reach population (IOM, 2011). Because TGNC individuals are often hard to reach (IOM, 2011) and TGNC research is rapidly evolving, it is important to consider the strengths and limitations of the methods that have been or may be used to study the TGNC population, and to interpret and represent findings accordingly. Some researchers have strongly recommended collaborative research models (e.g., participatory action research) in which TGNC community members are integrally involved in these research activities (Clements-Nolle & Bachrach, 2003; Singh, Richmond, & Burnes, 2013). Psychologists who seek to educate the public by communicating research findings in the popular media will also confront challenges, because most journalists have limited knowledge about the scientific method and there is potential for the media to misinterpret, exploit, or sensationalize findings (Garber, 1992; Namaste, 2000).

Guideline 16. Psychologists Seek to Prepare Trainees in Psychology to Work Competently With TGNC People.

Rationale. The *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct* (APA, 2010) include gender identity as one factor for which psychologists may need to obtain training, experience, consultation, or supervision in order to ensure their competence (APA, 2010). In addition, when APA-accredited programs are required to demonstrate a commitment to cultural and individual diversity, gender identity is specifically included (APA, 2015). Yet surveys of TGNC people suggest that many mental health care providers lack even basic knowledge and skills required to offer trans-affirmative care (Bradford et al., 2007; O'Hara, Dispenza, Brack, & Blood, 2013; Xavier et al., 2005). The APA Task Force on Gender Identity and Gender Variance (2009) projected that many, if not most, psychologists and graduate psychology students will at some point encounter TGNC people among their clients, colleagues, and trainees. Yet professional education and training in psychology includes little or no preparation for

working with TGNC people (Anton, 2009; APA TFGIGV, 2009), and continuing professional education available to practicing mental health clinicians is also scant (Lurie, 2005). Only 52% percent of psychologists and graduate students who responded to a survey conducted by an APA Task Force reported having had the opportunity to learn about TGNC issues in school; of those respondents, only 27% reported feeling adequately familiar with gender concerns (n = 294; APA TFGIGV, 2009).

Training on gender identity in professional psychology has frequently been subsumed under discussions of sexual orientation or in classes on human sexuality. Some scholars have suggested that psychologists and students may mistakenly believe that they have obtained adequate knowledge and awareness about TGNC people through training focused on LGB populations (Harper & Schneider, 2003). However, Israel and colleagues have found important differences between the therapeutic needs of TGNC people and those of LGB people in the perceptions of both clients and providers (Israel et al., 2008; Israel, Walther, Gorcheva, & Perry, 2011). Nadal and colleagues have suggested that the absence of distinct, accurate information about TGNC populations in psychology training not only perpetuates misunderstanding and marginalization of TGNC people by psychologists but also contributes to continued marginalization of TGNC people in society as a whole (Nadal et al., 2010, 2012).

Application. Psychologists strive to continue their education on issues of gender identity and gender expression with TGNC people as a foundational component of affirmative psychological practice. In addition to these guidelines, which educators may use as a resource in developing curricula and training experiences, ACA (2010) has also adopted a set of competencies that may be a helpful resource for educators. In addition to including TGNC people and their issues in foundational education in health service psychology (e.g., personality development, multiculturalism, research methods), some psychology programs may also provide coursework and training for students interested in developing more advanced expertise on issues of gender identity and gender expression.

Because of the high level of societal ignorance and stigma associated with TGNC people, ensuring that psychological education, training, and supervision is affirmative, and does not sensationalize (Namaste, 2000), exploit, or pathologize TGNC people (Lev, 2004), will require care on the part of educators. Students will benefit from support from their educators in developing a professional, nonjudgmental attitude toward people who may have a different experience of gender identity and gender expression from their own. A number of training resources have been published that may be helpful to psychologists in integrating information about TGNC people into the training they offer (e.g., Catalano, McCarthy, & Shlasko, 2007; Stryker, 2008; Wentling, Schilt, Windsor, & Lucal, 2008). Because most psychologists have had little or no training on TGNC populations and do not perceive themselves as having sufficient understanding of issues related to gender identity and gender expression (APA TFGIGV, 2009), psychologists with relevant expertise are encouraged to develop and distribute continuing education and training to help to address these gaps. Psychologists providing education can incorporate activities that increase awareness of cisgender privilege, antitrans prejudice and discrimination, host a panel of TGNC people to offer personal perspectives, or include narratives of TGNC people in course readings (ACA, 2010). When engaging these approaches, it is important to include a wide variety of TGNC experiences to reflect the inherent diversity within the TGNC community.

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Appendix A
Definitions

Terminology within the health care field and transgender and gender nonconforming (TGNC) communities is constantly evolving (Coleman et al., 2012). The evolution of terminology has been especially rapid in the last decade, as the profession's awareness of gender diversity has increased, as more literature and research in this area has been published, and as voices of the TGNC community have strengthened. Some terms or definitions are not universally accepted, and there is some disagreement among professionals and communities as to the "correct" words or definitions, depending on theoretical orientation, geographic region, generation, or culture, with some terms seen as affirming and others as outdated or demeaning. American Psychological Association (APA) Task Force for *Guidelines for Psychological Practice with Transgender and Gender Nonconforming People* developed the definitions below by reviewing existing definitions put forward by professional organizations (e.g., APA Task Force on Gender Identity and Gender Variance, 2009; the Institute of Medicine, 2011; and the World Professional Association for Transgender Health [Coleman et al., 2012]), health care agencies serving TGNC clients (e.g., Fenway Health Center), TGNC community resources (Gender Equity Resource Center, National Center for Transgender Equality), and professional literature. Psychologists are encouraged to refresh their knowledge and familiarity with evolving terminology on a regular basis as changes emerge in the community and/or the professional literature. The definitions below include terms frequently used within the *Guidelines*, by the TGNC community, and within professional literature.

Ally: a cisgender person who supports and advocates for TGNC people and/or communities.

(*Appendices continue*)

Antitrans prejudice (transprejudice, transnegativity, transphobia): prejudicial attitudes that may result in the devaluing, dislike, and hatred of people whose gender identity and/or gender expression do not conform to their sex assigned at birth. Antitrans prejudice may lead to discriminatory behaviors in such areas as employment and public accommodations, and may lead to harassment and violence. When TGNC people hold these negative attitudes about themselves and their gender identity, it is called *internalized transphobia* (a construct analogous to internalized homophobia). Transmisogyny describes a simultaneous experience of sexism and antitrans prejudice with particularly adverse effects on trans women.

Cisgender: an adjective used to describe a person whose gender identity and gender expression align with sex assigned at birth; a person who is not TGNC.

Cisgenderism: a systemic bias based on the ideology that gender expression and gender identities are determined by sex assigned at birth rather than self-identified gender identity. Cisgenderism may lead to prejudicial attitudes and discriminatory behaviors toward TGNC people or to forms of behavior or gender expression that lie outside of the traditional gender binary.

Coming out: a process by which individuals affirm and actualize a stigmatized identity. Coming out as TGNC can include disclosing a gender identity or gender history that does not align with sex assigned at birth or current gender expression. Coming out is an individual process and is partially influenced by one's age and other generational influences.

Cross dressing: wearing clothing, accessories, and/or make-up, and/or adopting a gender expression not associated with a person's assigned sex at birth according to cultural and environmental standards (Bullough & Bullough, 1993). Cross-dressing is not always reflective of gender identity or sexual orientation. People who cross-dress may or may not identify with the larger TGNC community.

Disorders of sex development (DSD, Intersex): term used to describe a variety of medical conditions associated with atypical development of an individual's physical sex characteristics (Hughes, Houk, Ahmed, & Lee, 2006). These conditions may involve differences of a person's internal and/or external reproductive organs, sex chromosomes, and/or sex-related hormones that may complicate sex assignment at birth. DSD conditions may be considered variations in biological diversity rather than disorders (M. Diamond, 2009); therefore some prefer the terms *intersex*, *intersexuality*, or *differences in sex development* rather than "disorders of sex development" (Coleman et al., 2012).

Drag: the act of adopting a gender expression, often as part of a performance. Drag may be enacted as a political comment on gender, as parody, or as entertainment, and is not necessarily reflective of gender identity.

Female-to-male (FTM): individuals assigned a female sex at birth who have changed, are changing, or wish to change their body and/or gender identity to a more masculine body or gender identity. FTM persons are also often referred to as *transgender men*, *transmen*, or *trans men*.

Gatekeeping: the role of psychologists and other mental health professionals of evaluating a TGNC person's eligibility and readiness for hormone therapy or surgery according to the Standards of Care set forth by the World Professional Association for Transgender Health (Coleman et al., 2012). In the past, this role has been perceived as limiting a TGNC adult's autonomy and contributing to mistrust between psychologists and TGNC clients. Current approaches are sensitive to this history and are more affirming of a TGNC adult's autonomy in making decisions with regard to medical transition (American Counseling Association, 2010; Coleman et al., 2012; Singh & Burnes, 2010).

Gender-affirming surgery (sex reassignment surgery or gender reassignment surgery): surgery to change primary and/or secondary sex characteristics to better align a person's physical appearance with their gender identity. Gender-affirming surgery can be an important part of medically necessary treatment to alleviate gender dysphoria and may include mastectomy, hysterectomy, metoidioplasty, phalloplasty, breast augmentation, orchiectomy, vaginoplasty, facial feminization surgery, and/or other surgical procedures.

Gender binary: the classification of gender into two discrete categories of boy/man and girl/woman.

Gender dysphoria: discomfort or distress related to incongruence between a person's gender identity, sex assigned at birth, gender identity, and/or primary and secondary sex characteristics (Knudson, De Cuypere, & Bockting, 2010). In 2013, the fifth edition of the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (*DSM–5*; American Psychiatric Association, 2013) adopted the term *gender dysphoria* as a diagnosis characterized by "a marked incongruence between" a person's gender assigned at birth and gender identity (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 453). Gender dysphoria replaced the diagnosis of gender identity disorder (GID) in the previous version of the *DSM* (American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

Gender expression: the presentation of an individual, including physical appearance, clothing choice and accessories, and behaviors that express aspects of gender identity or role. Gender expression may or may not conform to a person's gender identity.

(*Appendices continue*)

Gender identity: a person's deeply felt, inherent sense of being a boy, a man, or male; a girl, a woman, or female; or an alternative gender (e.g., genderqueer, gender nonconforming, gender neutral) that may or may not correspond to a person's sex assigned at birth or to a person's primary or secondary sex characteristics. Because gender identity is internal, a person's gender identity is not necessarily visible to others. "Affirmed gender identity" refers to a person's gender identity after coming out as TGNC or undergoing a social and/or medical transition process.

Gender marker: an indicator (M, F) of a person's sex or gender found on identification (e.g., driver's license, passport) and other legal documents (e.g., birth certificate, academic transcripts).

Gender nonconforming (GNC): an adjective used as an umbrella term to describe people whose gender expression or gender identity differs from gender norms associated with their assigned birth sex. Subpopulations of the TGNC community can develop specialized language to represent their experience and culture, such as the term "masculine of center" (MOC; Cole & Han, 2011) that is used in communities of color to describe one's GNC identity.

Gender questioning: an adjective to describe people who may be questioning or exploring their gender identity and whose gender identity may not align with their sex assigned at birth.

Genderqueer: a term to describe a person whose gender identity does not align with a binary understanding of gender (i.e., a person who does not identify fully as either a man or a woman). People who identify as genderqueer may redefine gender or decline to define themselves as gendered altogether. For example, people who identify as genderqueer may think of themselves as both man and woman (bigender, pangender, androgyne); neither man nor woman (genderless, gender neutral, neutrois, agender); moving between genders (genderfluid); or embodying a third gender.

Gender role: refers to a pattern of appearance, personality, and behavior that, in a given culture, is associated with being a boy/man/male or being a girl/woman/female. The appearance, personality, and behavior characteristics may or may not conform to what is expected based on a person's sex assigned at birth according to cultural and environmental standards. Gender role may also refer to the *social* role in which one is living (e.g., as a woman, a man, or another gender), with some role characteristics conforming and others not conforming to what is associated with girls/women or boys/men in a given culture and time.

Hormone therapy (gender-affirming hormone therapy, hormone replacement therapy): the use of hormones to masculinize or feminize a person's body to better align that person's physical characteristics with their gender identity. People wishing to feminize their body receive antiandrogens and/or estrogens; people wishing to masculinize their body receive testosterone. Hormone therapy may be an important part of medically necessary treatment to alleviate gender dysphoria.

Male-to-female (MTF): individuals whose assigned sex at birth was male and who have changed, are changing, or wish to change their body and/or gender role to a more feminized body or gender role. MTF persons are also often referred to as *transgender women*, *transwomen*, or *trans women*.

Passing: the ability to blend in with cisgender people without being recognized as transgender based on appearance or gender role and expression; being perceived as cisgender. Passing may or may not be a goal for all TGNC people.

Puberty suppression (puberty blocking, puberty delaying therapy): a treatment that can be used to temporarily suppress the development of secondary sex characteristics that occur during puberty in youth, typically using gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) analogues. Puberty suppression may be an important part of medically necessary treatment to alleviate gender dysphoria. Puberty suppression can provide adolescents time to determine whether they desire less reversible medical intervention and can serve as a diagnostic tool to determine if further medical intervention is warranted.

Sex (sex assigned at birth): sex is typically assigned at birth (or before during ultrasound) based on the appearance of external genitalia. When the external genitalia are ambiguous, other indicators (e.g., internal genitalia, chromosomal and hormonal sex) are considered to assign a sex, with the aim of assigning a sex that is most likely to be congruent with the child's gender identity (MacLaughlin & Donahoe, 2004). For most people, gender identity is congruent with sex assigned at birth (see *cisgender*); for TGNC individuals, gender identity differs in varying degrees from sex assigned at birth.

Sexual orientation: a component of identity that includes a person's sexual and emotional attraction to another person and the behavior and/or social affiliation that may result from this attraction. A person may be attracted to men, women, both, neither, or to people who are genderqueer, androgynous, or have other gender identities. Individuals may identify as lesbian, gay, heterosexual, bisexual, queer, pansexual, or asexual, among others.

Stealth (going stealth): a phrase used by some TGNC people across the life span (e.g., children, adolescents) who choose to make a transition in a new environment (e.g., school) in their affirmed gender without openly sharing their identity as a TGNC person.

(*Appendices continue*)

TGNC: an abbreviation used to refer to people who are transgender or gender nonconforming.

Trans: common short-hand for the terms transgender, transsexual, and/or gender nonconforming. Although the term "trans" is commonly accepted, not all transsexual or gender nonconforming people identify as trans.

Trans-affirmative: being respectful, aware and supportive of the needs of TGNC people.

Transgender: an adjective that is an umbrella term used to describe the full range of people whose gender identity and/or gender role do not conform to what is typically associated with their sex assigned at birth. Although the term "transgender" is commonly accepted, not all TGNC people self-identify as transgender.

Transgender man, trans man, or transman: a person whose sex assigned at birth was female, but who identifies as a man (see FTM).

Transgender woman, trans woman, or transwoman: a person whose sex assigned at birth was male, but who identifies as a woman (see MTF).

Transition: a process some TGNC people progress through when they shift toward a gender role that differs from the one associated with their sex assigned at birth. The length, scope, and process of transition are unique to each person's life situation. For many people, this involves developing a gender role and expression that is more aligned with their gender identity. A transition typically occurs over a period of time; TGNC people may proceed through a social transition (e.g., changes in gender expression, gender role, name, pronoun, and gender marker) and/or a medical transition (e.g., hormone therapy, surgery, and/or other interventions).

Transsexual: term to describe TGNC people who have changed or are changing their bodies through medical interventions (e.g., hormones, surgery) to better align their bodies with a gender identity that is different than their sex assigned at birth. Not all people who identify as transsexual consider themselves to be TGNC. For example, some transsexual individuals identify as female or male, without identifying as TGNC. Transsexualism is used as a medical diagnosis in the World Health Organization's (2015) International Classification of Diseases version 10.

Two-spirit: term used by some Native American cultures to describe people who identify with both male and female gender roles; this can include both gender identity and sexual orientation. Two-spirit people are often respected and carry unique spiritual roles for their community.

Appendix B
Guidelines for Psychological Practice With Transgender and Gender Nonconforming People

Foundational Knowledge and Awareness

Guideline 1. Psychologists understand that gender is a nonbinary construct that allows for a range of gender identities and that a person's gender identity may not align with sex assigned at birth.

Guideline 2. Psychologists understand that gender identity and sexual orientation are distinct but interrelated constructs.

Guideline 3. Psychologists seek to understand how gender identity intersects with the other cultural identities of TGNC people.

Guideline 4. Psychologists are aware of how their attitudes about and knowledge of gender identity and gender expression may affect the quality of care they provide to TGNC people and their families.

Stigma, Discrimination, and Barriers to Care

Guideline 5. Psychologists recognize how stigma, prejudice, discrimination, and violence affect the health and well-being of TGNC people.

Guideline 6. Psychologists strive to recognize the influence of institutional barriers on the lives of TGNC people and to assist in developing TGNC-affirmative environments.

Guideline 7. Psychologists understand the need to promote social change that reduces the negative effects of stigma on the health and well-being of TGNC people.

(*Appendices continue*)

Life Span Development

Guideline 8. Psychologists working with gender-questioning and TGNC youth understand the different developmental needs of children and adolescents and that not all youth will persist in a TGNC identity into adulthood.

Guideline 9. Psychologists strive to understand both the particular challenges that TGNC elders experience and the resilience they can develop.

Assessment, Therapy, and Intervention

Guideline 10. Psychologists strive to understand how mental health concerns may or may not be related to a TGNC person's gender identity and the psychological effects of minority stress.

Guideline 11. Psychologists recognize that TGNC people are more likely to experience positive life outcomes when they receive social support or trans-affirmative care.

Guideline 12. Psychologists strive to understand the effects that changes in gender identity and gender expression have on the romantic and sexual relationships of TGNC people.

Guideline 13. Psychologists seek to understand how parenting and family formation among TGNC people take a variety of forms.

Guideline 14. Psychologists recognize the potential benefits of an interdisciplinary approach when providing care to TGNC people and strive to work collaboratively with other providers.

Research, Education, and Training

Guideline 15. Psychologists respect the welfare and rights of TGNC participants in research and strive to represent results accurately and avoid misuse or misrepresentation of findings.

Guideline 16. Psychologists Seek to Prepare Trainees in Psychology to Work Competently With TGNC People.

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AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

APA RESOLUTION on Gender Identity Change Efforts

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The foundational professional guideline for working with gender diverse persons acknowledges that, "Psychologists understand that gender is a nonbinary construct that allows for a range of gender identities and that a person's gender identity may not align with sex assigned at birth." (APA, 2015, p. 834). Gender identity refers to "a person's deep felt, inherent sense of being a girl, woman, or female; a boy, a man, or male; a blend of male or female; [or another] gender" (APA, 2015, p. 862). While gender refers to the trait characteristics and behaviors culturally associated with one's sex assigned at birth, in some cases, gender may be distinct from the physical markers of biological sex (e.g., genitals, chromosomes). Gender identity is also distinct from gender expression, which refers to "the presentation of an individual including physical appearance, clothing choice and accessories, and behaviors that express aspects of gender identity" (APA, 2015, p. 861). Cisgender refers to "a person whose gender identity aligns with sex assigned at birth" (e.g., an individual assigned female at birth who identifies as a woman/girl; APA, 2015, p. 861). Transgender is "an umbrella term used to describe the full range of people whose gender identity and/or gender role do not conform to what is typically associated with their sex assigned at birth" (APA, 2015, p. 863). For the purpose of this resolution, we are using a broad definition of transgender to include transgender women/girls, transgender men/boys, nonbinary individuals (i.e., people who may identify as a gender other than a woman/girl or a man/boy), and any individual who articulates a gender identity different from societal expectations based on their sex assigned at birth.

Some transgender and gender nonbinary individuals seek gender-affirming medical care (e.g., hormone therapy, surgery) while others do not. Similarly, some transgender and gender nonbinary individuals seek to change their gender marker and/or their name on legal documents, while others do not. In this resolution, we strive to be inclusive of all gender diversity regardless of a person's pursuance of social, medical, or legal transition.

The fields of psychiatry and psychology have a long history of pathologizing individuals and those who question their gender identity (Barkai, 2017; Benson, 2013; Bouman et al, 2014; Burke, 2011; Drescher, 2010; Nadal et al., 2010; Riggs et al. 2019). This history is informed by, and parallels, the larger Western and United States-based, medical-model, narratives that 1) define gender as binary and conflate it with physical markers, 2) define masculinity, and characteristics historically attributed to men/boys, as superior to femininity and characteristics historically attributed to women/girls, 3) create systems that confer privilege to cisgender people and label cisgender identities and expressions as normative, 4) discriminate against transgender and gender nonbinary individuals (Stryker, 2017).

Gender identity change efforts (GICE) refer to a range of techniques used by mental health professionals and non-professionals with the goal of changing gender identity, gender expression, or associated components of these to be in alignment with gender role behaviors that are stereotypically associated with sex assigned at birth, (Hill et al., 2010; SAMHSA, 2015). In addition to explicit attempts to change individuals' gender according to cisnormative pressures, GICE has also been a component of sexual orientation change efforts (SOCE). As intense focus on cisnormative conformity is a frequent characteristic of SOCE it is possible that authors in the literature describing sexual orientation change efforts misgendered their participants (Hipp et al., 2019). Moreover, "ex-gay" literature and discourse conceptualize gender diversity as a sin, a mental illness, and harmful, perpetuating cisgenderism and transmisogyny (Robinson & Spivey, 2019). Finally, Hipp et al. (2019) identified forms of GICE that are often not discussed in the psychological literature but that appear to disproportionately affect Black transgender and gender nonbinary individuals including violence, "church hurt" (i.e., religious or faith-based trauma), and gatekeeping from gender affirming care. These efforts may be referred to as "conversion therapies", "corrective" treatments, or "normalizing" therapies (Hill et al., 2010). However, to consider these techniques as therapies or treatments is inaccurate and inappropriate because, the incongruence between sex and gender in and of itself is not a mental disorder (World Health Organization, n.d.) so, any behavioral health or GICE technique or treatment that seeks to change an individual's gender identity or expression is not indicated; thus, any behavioral health or GICE effort that attempt to change an individual's gender identity or expression is inappropriate (Hill et al. 2010; SAMHSA, 2015).

With roots in this history, GICE are founded on the notion that any gender identity that is not concordant with sex assigned at birth is disordered, and that a cisgender identity is healthier, preferable, and superior to a transgender or gender nonbinary identity (Ansara & Hegarty, 2011; Hill et al., 2010; Robinson & Spivey, 2019).

GICE cause harm by reinforcing anti-transgender and anti-gender nonbinary stigma and discrimination (Turban et al., 2020); and by creating social pressure on an individual to conform to an

identity and/or presentation that may not be consistent with their sense of self (e.g., Bockting et al., 2013; Egan & Perry, 2001; Meyer, 2003; Nadal et al., 2012; Russell et al., 2012; Toomey et al., 2010; Sandfort et al., 2007). Furthermore, GICE are not supported by empirical evidence as effective practices for changing gender identity and are associated with psychological and social harm (Brinkman et al., 2014; Carr, 1998; Gagné & Tewksbury, 1998; Horn, 2007; Price et al., 2019; Smith & Leaper, 2006). The American Psychological Association (APA), as well as other healthcare organizations, (e.g., American Counseling Association, World Professional Association for Transgender Health) have established empirically-supported practice guidelines that encourage clinicians to use gender-affirming practices when addressing gender identity issues (ACA, 2010; APA, 2015; Coleman et al., 2012). Additionally, a number of national and international professional healthcare organizations have publicly warned against the harmful effects of GICE and SOCE (Sexual Orientation Change Efforts) by endorsing the United States Joint Statement Against Conversion Efforts (USJS, n.d.), including the American Academy of Family Physicians, American Academy of Nursing, American Association of Sexual Educators, Counselors and Therapists, American Counseling Association, American Medical Association, American Medical Student Association, American Psychoanalytic Association, The Association of LGBTQ Psychiatrists, Society for Affectional, Intersex, and Gender Expansive Identities, Clinical Social Work Association, GLMA: Health Professionals Advancing LGBTQ Equality, The Association of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender Addiction Professionals and their Allies, and the World Professional Association for Transgender Health. A growing number of states and municipalities have enacted laws that prohibit licensed mental health professionals from engaging in sexual orientation and gender identity change efforts with minors (Movement Advancement Project, n.d.)

GENDER DIVERSITY, STIGMA, AND DISCRIMINATION

WHEREAS diversity in gender identity and expression is part of the human experience and transgender and gender nonbinary identities and expressions are healthy, incongruence between one's sex and gender is neither pathological nor a mental health disorder (APA, 2009, 2015; SAMHSA, 2015);

WHEREAS gender diverse individuals experience cissexist discrimination and prejudice throughout the lifespan and life domains (APA, 2009) including significant discrimination in healthcare settings (Burnes et al., 2016; Fredriksen-Goldsen et al., 2014; Grant et al., 2011; James et al., 2016; Johns et al, 2019; Lambda Legal, 2010; Macapagal et al., 2016; Reisner et al., 2015; White Hughto et al., 2015);

WHEREAS the practice of GICE reinforces stigma and discrimination against transgender and gender diverse people (Turban et al., 2020);

WHEREAS gender-related bias, victimization, discrimination, criminalization, and forced-gender conformity experienced by transgender and gender nonbinary people are associated with poor psychosocial outcomes, such as heightened psychological distress, compromised overall wellbeing, and disparities across various contexts (e.g., healthcare, schools/education, workplace, law) (Bockting et al., 2013; dickey et al., 2016; Egan & Perry, 2001; Meyer, 2003; Nadal et al., 2012; Russell et al., 2012; Hendricks & Testa, 2012; Toomey et al., 2010; Sandfort et al., 2007);

WHEREAS invalidation and rejection of transgender and gender nonbinary identities and diverse gender expressions by others (e.g., families, therapists, school personnel) are forms of discrimination, stigma, and victimization, which result in psychological distress (Bockting et al., 2013; D'Augelli et al., 2006; Egan & Perry, 2001; Hendricks & Testa, 2012; Hidalgo et al., 2015; Landolt et al., 2004; Meyer, 2003; Nadal et al., 2012; Price, et al., 2019; Roberts et al., 2012; Sandfort et al., 2007; Stotzer, 2012; Russell et al., 2012; Toomey et al., 2010; Truong et al., 2020a, 2020b; Zongrone et al., 2020);

GICE AND RISKS OF HARM

WHEREAS individuals who have experienced pressure or coercion to conform to their sex assigned at birth or therapy that was biased toward conformity to one's assigned sex at birth have reported harm resulting from these experience such as emotional distress, loss of relationships, and low self-worth (Brinkman et al., 2014; Carr, 1998; Gagné & Tewksbury, 1998; Horn, 2007; Price et al., 2019; Smith & Leaper, 2006);

WHEREAS in one study of a large online sample of LGBTQ young people, those who reported experiencing change efforts were more than twice as likely to report having attempted suicide and having multiple suicide attempts as those who did not experience change efforts, (Green et al., 2020);

WHEREAS GICE have not been shown to alleviate or resolve gender dysphoria (Bradley & Zucker, 1997; Cohen-Kettenis & Kuiper, 1984; Gelder & Marks, 1969; Greenson, 1964; Pauly, 1965, SAMHSA, 2015);

WHEREAS GICE can cause undue stress and suffering and interfere with healthy sexual and gender identity development (Hiestand & Levitt, 2005; SAMHSA, 2015);

WHEREAS GICE can reduce one's willingness to pursue future mental health treatment (Craig et al., 2017);

WHEREAS GICE often involves the promotion of stereotyped gender behaviors consistent with cultural expectations (Coleman et al., 2012; Hill et al., 2010);

WHEREAS GICE are associated with harmful social and emotional effects for many individuals, including but not limited to, the onset or increase of depression, anxiety, suicidality, loss of sexual feeling, impotence, deteriorated family relationships, a range of post-traumatic responses, and substance abuse (c.f. Burnes et al., 2016; Green et al., 2020; SAMHSA 2015 for a review; Turban et al., 2019);

WHEREAS diverse gender expressions and transgender and gender nonbinary identities are not mental disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 2013) and many transgender and gender nonbinary individuals lead satisfying lives and have healthy relationships (APA, 2015; SAMHSA, 2015);

GENDER AFFIRMING PRACTICES

WHEREAS transgender and gender nonbinary people whose gender has been affirmed report increased quality of life (Ainsworth & Spiegel, 2010; APA, 2015; Gerhardstein & Anderson, 2010; Kraemer et al., 2008; Newfield et al., 2006);

WHEREAS self-determination in defining one's gender identity is a source of resilience for transgender and gender nonbinary people and associated with improvements in wellbeing and reductions in psychological distress (Menvielle & Tuerk, 2002; Pickstone-Taylor, 2003; Rosenburg, 2002; Singh et al., 2011; Singh et al., 2014);

WHEREAS individuals who have experienced gender-affirming psychological and medical practices report improved psychological functioning, quality of life, treatment retention and engagement, and reductions in psychological distress, gender dysphoria, and maladaptive coping mechanisms (Austin & Craig, 2015; de Vries et al., 2014; Haas et al., 2011; Sevelius, 2013; White Hughto & Reisner, 2016);

WHEREAS professional consensus recommends affirming therapeutic interventions for transgender and gender nonbinary adults who request that a therapist engage in GICE, and for trans youth whose parents/guardians or other custodians (e.g., state, foster care) request that a therapist engage in GICE (American Counseling Association, 2009; APA, 2012; 2015; American Psychiatric Association, 2018; Byne et al., 2012; Edwards-Leeper et al., 2016);

WHEREAS affirming therapeutic practices and guidelines recommend that the therapist should remain objective and nonjudgmental to the outcome, focusing on empowering the client to be active in exploring, discovering, and understanding their own identity (American Counseling Association, 2009; APA, 2012; 2015; American Psychiatric Association, 2018; Byne et al., 2012; Edwards-Leeper et al., 2016);

APA POLICY

WHEREAS APA opposes discrimination on the basis of gender identity, gender expression, and transgender and gender nonbinary identities, and actively opposes the adoption of discriminatory legislation (APA, 2008);

WHEREAS APA supports the passage of laws and policies protecting the legal rights and freedoms of transgender and gender nonbinary people, regardless of gender identity or expression (APA, 2008);

WHEREAS Psychologists' work is based upon established scientific and professional knowledge of the discipline. (APA, 2017b, p. 5);

WHEREAS APA recognizes that psychologists work is based upon Respect for People's Rights and Dignity (Principle E), Avoiding Harm (3.04), and Unfair Discrimination (3.01; APA, 2017b);

WHEREAS gender affirming psychotherapy is founded in clinical practice guidelines, and harm has not been identified for any of these gender-affirming treatment practices (APA, 2015, 2017b; Byne et al., 2012);

WHEREAS the APA policy and practice guidelines (e.g., Multicultural Guidelines: An Ecological Approach to Context, Identity, and Intersectionality; Guidelines for Psychological Practice with Transgender and Gender Nonconforming People) affirm that psychologists do not engage in discriminatory or biased practices and urge psychologists to take a leadership role in preventing discrimination towards transgender and gender diverse people (APA, 2009, 2015, 2017a);

WHEREAS APA's 2005 Policy Statement on Evidence-Based Practice in Psychology defines evidence-based practice as the integration of the best available research with clinical expertise in the context of patient characteristics, culture, and preferences (APA, 2005);

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED that consistent with the APA definition of evidence-based practice (APA, 2005), the APA affirms that scientific evidence and clinical experience indicate that GICE put individuals at significant risk of harm;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the APA opposes GICE because such efforts put individuals at significant risk of harm and encourages individuals, families, health professionals, and organizations to avoid GICE;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that APA opposes the idea that incongruence between sex and gender is a mental disorder (Hill et al., 2010; SAMHSA, 2015; WHO).

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that after reviewing scientific evidence on GICE harm, affirmative treatments, and professional practice guidelines, the APA affirms GICE are associated with reported harm.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the APA opposes GICE because of their association with harm.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that Transgender and gender nonbinary identities, as well as other gender identities that transcend culturally prescriptive binary notions of gender, represent normal variations in human expression of gender.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVEDthat neither transgender or gender nonbinary identities nor the pursuit of gender-affirming medical care constitutes evidence of a mental disorder.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that APA opposes portrayals of transgender and gender nonbinary people as mentally ill because of their gender identities and expressions.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that evidence supports psychologists in their professional roles to use affirming and culturally relevant approaches with individuals of diverse gender expressions and identities.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that APA is committed to promoting accurate scientific data regarding gender identity and expression in its own policy, public advocacy, judicial proceedings, media, and public opinion;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that APA encourages collaboration between and among individuals and organizations to promote the wellbeing of transgender and gender nonbinary people;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the APA encourages psychologists to be aware of multiple and intersecting factors in identity, such as sex assigned at birth, gender expression, gender identity, age, race, ethnicity, religion, spirituality, socioeconomic status, disability, national origin, and sexual orientation in conceptualization, treatment, research, and teaching about transgender and gender nonbinary people;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the APA opposes the dissemination of inaccurate information about gender identity, gender expression, and the efficacy of GICE, including the claim that gender identity can be changed through treatment, the characterization of transgender or gender nonbinary identity as a mental disorder and the promotion of treatments that prescribe gender identity or expression consistent with one's birth-assigned sex as effective for clients with gender dysphoria;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that APA encourages the development and dissemination of evidence-based, multiculturally-informed, and gender affirmative educational resources that inform psychologists, the community and education and mental health institutions about the harms of GICE;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that APA re-affirms that APA (2015) encourages psychologists to:

- Acknowledge the diversity and complexity of identities and experiences and recognize transgender and gender nonbinary identities as healthy expressions of gender
- Recognize that descriptions of any gender identity or expression as unnatural, abhorrent, or unhealthy perpetuate stigma for sexual and gender minorities, and have negative mental health and social consequences
- Assist clients in a developmentally appropriate manner to explore and understand the cultural and familial influence on gender roles and expression. Psychologists are urged to help clients in a developmentally appropriate manner understand the societal contexts of sexism, heterosexism, transphobia, racism and other forms of social oppression, and to use a developmental multicultural- and gender-affirmative framework in research, teaching, training, and supervision;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the American Psychological Association opposes GICE because there is evidence of former participants reporting harm resulting from their experiences of GICE and the contribution that such efforts make to social stigma, injustice, and prejudice directed at gender diverse individuals, consistent with other major professional mental health associations, including the American Psychiatric Association (2018); American Counseling Association (2017), SAMHSA (2015), American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry (2018), World Health Organization (n.d.) and World Psychiatric Association (2016);

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the APA, because of evidence of harm and lack of evidence of efficacy, supports public policies and legislation that prohibit, or aim to reduce GICE, cissexism, and anti-transgender and anti-gender nonbinary bias and that increase support for gender diversity;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the APA supports collaboration and partnerships with global, national and state and local partners to achieve the aims of this resolution;

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the APA promotes professional training in gender-affirming practices and opposes professional training in GICE in any stage of the education of psychologists, including graduate training, continuing education, and professional development.

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APA Official Actions

Position Statement on Treatment of Transgender (Trans) and Gender Diverse Youth

Approved by the Board of Trustees, July 2020
Approved by the Assembly, April 2020

"Policy documents are approved by the APA Assembly and Board of Trustees. . . These are . . . position statements that define APA official policy on specific subjects. . ." – *APA Operations Manual*

Issue:

Transgender and gender non-conforming youth often experience an intensification of emotional distress when the physical changes of puberty occur in opposition to the adolescent's gender identity and sense of self. The onset of menses, for example, is unwanted and psychologically devastating for an adolescent transman (assigned female at birth). Worsening dysphoria may manifest as depression, anxiety, poor relationships with family and peers, self-harm and suicide. Racism, misogyny, economic disadvantage and neurodiversity can compound the risk of negative outcomes. Due to the dynamic nature of puberty development, lack of gender-affirming interventions (i.e. social, psychological, and medical) is not a neutral decision; youth often experience worsening dysphoria and negative impact on mental health as the incongruent and unwanted puberty progresses. Trans-affirming treatment, such as the use of puberty suppression, is associated with the relief of emotional distress, and notable gains in psychosocial and emotional development, in trans and gender diverse youth.

Gender-affirming treatment of trans and gender diverse youth who experience gender dysphoria due to the physical changes of puberty, may include suppression of puberty development with GnRH (gonadotropin releasing hormone) agonists, commonly referred to as "puberty blockers." Use of GnRH agonists, despite potential side effects (e.g., hot flashes, depression) can allow the adolescent a period of time, often several years, in which to further explore their gender identity and benefit from additional cognitive and emotional development. During this time, the youth and family can receive mental health and social support services, if needed, to navigate the gender affirmation process including the consideration of whether gender affirming hormone therapy is an appropriate next step. If during this discernment period further adolescent development leads to increased comfort with the birth-assigned gender, the GnRH agonist can be discontinued, and puberty allowed to resume. If the developmental trajectory affirms the trans identity, treatment with estrogen or testosterone can be instituted to facilitate development of affirmed secondary sex characteristics, if desired. Gender-affirming surgeries may follow in later adolescence or young adulthood. However, affirmation of gender identity is a highly individualized process. For gender diverse youth and their families, decisions to which gender-affirming medical, surgical, social, and/or legal procedures to pursue are best managed via an informed consent approach.

APA Position:

The American Psychiatric Association:

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1. **Supports access to affirming and supportive treatment for trans and gender diverse youth and their families, including appropriate mental health services, and when indicated puberty suppression and medical transition support.**
2. **Opposes all legislative and other governmental attempts to limit access to these services for trans and gender diverse youth, or to sanction or criminalize the actions of physicians and other clinicians who provide them.**

APA Official Actions

Position Statement on Access to Care for Transgender and Gender Diverse Individuals

Approved by the Board of Trustees, July 2018
Approved by the Assembly, May 2018

"Policy documents are approved by the APA Assembly and Board of Trustees. . . . These are . . . position statements that define APA official policy on specific subjects. . ." – *APA Operations Manual*

Issue:
Significant and long-standing medical and psychiatric literature exists that demonstrates clear benefits of medical and surgical interventions to assist gender diverse individuals seeking transition. However, private and public insurers often do not offer, or may specifically exclude, coverage for medically necessary treatments for gender transition. Access to medical care (both medical and surgical) positively impacts the mental health of transgender and gender diverse individuals.

The APA's vision statement includes the phrase: "Its vision is a society that has available, accessible, quality psychiatric diagnosis and treatment," yet currently, transgender and gender diverse individuals frequently lack available and accessible gender-affirming treatment. In addition, APA's values include the following points:

- best standards of clinical practice
- patient-focused treatment decisions
- scientifically-established principles of treatment
- advocacy for patients

Transgender and gender diverse individuals currently lack access to the best standards of clinical practice, do not have the opportunity to pursue patient-focused gender-affirming treatment decisions, and do not receive scientifically-established treatment. They could benefit significantly from APA's advocacy.

Position:

Therefore, the American Psychiatric Association:

1. **Recognizes that appropriately evaluated transgender and gender diverse individuals can benefit greatly from medical and surgical gender-affirming treatments.**
2. **Advocates for removal of barriers to care and supports both public and private health insurance coverage for gender transition treatment.**
3. **Opposes categorical exclusions of coverage for such medically necessary treatment when prescribed by a physician.**
4. **Supports evidence-based coverage of all gender-affirming procedures which would help the**

Pl. Trial Ex. 048

mental well-being of gender diverse individuals

Authors:
Authors: Jack Drescher, M.D., Ellen Haller, M.D., APA Caucus of Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual Psychiatrists. Revised 2017 Eric Yarbrough, M.D., APA Caucus of LGBTQ Psychiatrists and the Council on Minority Mental Health and Health Disparities

ENDOCRINE SOCIETY
Hormone Science to Health

PES PEDIATRIC ENDOCRINE SOCIETY

TRANSGENDER HEALTH

POSITION STATEMENT

INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades, there has been a rapid expansion in the understanding of gender identity along with the implications for the care of transgender and gender diverse individuals. In parallel with the greater societal awareness of transgender individuals, evidence-based practices in caring for pediatric and adult transgender patients have been developed in response to scientific research. While there continue to be gaps in knowledge about the optimal care for transgender individuals, the framework for providing care is increasingly well-established as is the recognition of needed policy changes.

BACKGROUND

The medical consensus in the late 20th century was that transgender and gender incongruent individuals suffered a mental health disorder termed "gender identity disorder." Gender identity was considered malleable and subject to external influences. Today, however, this attitude is no longer considered valid. Considerable scientific evidence has emerged demonstrating a durable biological element underlying gender identity.[1,2] Individuals may make choices due to other factors in their lives, but there do not seem to be external forces that genuinely cause individuals to change gender identity.

Although the specific mechanisms guiding the biological underpinnings of gender identity are not entirely understood, there is evolving consensus that being transgender is not a mental health disorder. Such evidence stems from scientific studies suggesting that: 1) attempts to change gender identity in intersex patients to match external genitalia or chromosomes are typically unsuccessful[1,2]; 2) identical twins (who share the exact same genetic background) are more likely to both experience transgender identity as compared to fraternal (non-identical) twins[3]; 3) among individuals with female chromosomes (XX), rates of male gender identity are higher for those exposed to higher levels of androgens *in utero* relative to those without such exposure, and male (XY)-chromosome individuals with complete androgen insensitivity syndrome typically have female gender identity[4]; and 4) there are associations of certain brain scan or staining patterns with gender identity rather than external genitalia or chromosomes.[1,2]

CONSIDERATIONS

Transgender individuals are often denied insurance coverage for appropriate medical and psychological treatment. Those gender diverse youth who have barriers to accessing adequate healthcare have poorer overall physical and mental health compared to their cisgender peers.[5] Over the last decade, there has been considerable research on and development of evidence-based standards of care that have proven to be both safe and efficacious for the treatment of gender dysphoria/gender incongruence in youth and adults. There is also a growing understanding of the positive impact that increased access to such treatments can have on the mental health of these individuals.

The Endocrine Society's Clinical Practice Guideline on gender dysphoria/gender incongruence[6] provides the standard of care for supporting transgender individuals. The guideline establishes a methodical, conservative framework for gender-affirming care, including pubertal suppression, hormones and surgery and standardizes terminology to be used by healthcare professionals. These recommendations include evidence that treatment of gender dysphoria/incongruence is medically necessary and should be covered by insurance.

Despite increased awareness, many barriers to improving the health and well-being of transgender youth and adults remain. Oftentimes, medical treatment for gender dysphoria/gender incongruence is considered elective by insurance companies, which fail to provide coverage for physician-prescribed treatment. Access to appropriately trained healthcare professionals can also be challenging as there

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[4]Dessens AB, Slijper FM, Drop SL. Gender dysphoria and gender change in chromosomal females with congenital adrenal hyperplasia. *Arch Sex Behav.* Aug 2005;34(4):389-97. doi:10.1007/s10508-005-4338-5

[5]Rider GN, McMorris BJ, Gower AL, Coleman E, Eisenberg ME. Health and Care Utilization of Transgender and Gender Nonconforming Youth: A Population-Based Study. *Pediatrics.* 2018;141(3):e20171683. doi:10.1542/peds.2017-1683

[6]Hembree WC, Cohen-Kettenis PT, Gooren L, et al. Endocrine Treatment of Gender-Dysphoric/Gender-Incongruent Persons: An Endocrine Society Clinical Practice Guideline. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* Nov 1 2017;102(11):3869-3903. doi:10.1210/jc.2017-01658

is a lack of formal education on gender dysphoria/gender incongruence among clinicians trained in the United States. A 2016 survey of endocrinologists, the physicians most likely to care for these patients, found that over 80% have never received training on care of transgender patients.[7]

This can have an adverse impact on patient outcomes, particularly in rural and underserved areas. In fact, studies have indicated that 70% of transgender individuals have experienced maltreatment by medical providers, including harassment and violence.[7] Many transgender individuals have been subjected to conversion therapy, or efforts to change a transgender person's gender identity using psychological interventions; this is known to be associated with adverse mental health outcomes, including suicidality, and is banned in 20 states and the District of Columbia.[8]

Transgender individuals who have been denied care show an increased likelihood of dying by suicide and engaging in self-harm.[7] Transgender/gender incongruent youth who had access to pubertal suppression, a treatment which is fully reversible and prevents development of secondary sex characteristics not in alignment with their gender identity, have lower lifetime odds of suicidal ideation compared to those youth who desired pubertal suppression but did not have access to such treatment.[9] Youth who are able to access gender-affirming care, including pubertal suppression, hormones and surgery based on conservative medical guidelines and consultation from medical and mental health experts, experience significantly improved mental health outcomes over time, similar to their cis-gender peers.[10-12] Pre-pubertal youth who are supported and affirmed in their social transitions long before medical interventions are indicated, experience no elevation in depression compared to their cis-gender peers.[12] It is critical that transgender individuals have access to the appropriate treatment and care to ensure their health and well-being.

FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS

While the data are strong for both a biological underpinning to gender identity and the relative safety of hormone treatment (when appropriately monitored medically), there are gaps in knowledge that are necessary to address in order to optimize care. Comparative effectiveness research in hormone regimens is needed to determine: the best endocrine and surgical protocols[13], as it is not yet known if certain regimens are safer or more effective than others; the degree of improvement as a result of the intervention (e.g. decrease in mental health diagnoses); the need for training of health care providers and the most effective training methods; and to build the body of evidence pertaining to cardiovascular, malignancy, or other long-term risks from hormone interventions, particularly as the transgender individual ages. Additional studies are needed to elucidate the biological processes underlying gender identity; such studies may lead to destigmatization and may also decrease health disparities for gender minorities. In addition, further studies are needed to determine strategies for fertility preservation and to investigate long-term outcomes of early medical intervention, including pubertal suppression, gender-affirming hormones and gender-affirming surgeries for transgender/gender incongruent youth. To successfully establish and enact these protocols requires long-term, large-scale studies across countries that employ similar care protocols.

POSITIONS

- There is a durable biological underpinning to gender identity that should be considered in policy determinations.
- Medical intervention for transgender youth and adults (including puberty suppression, hormone therapy and medically indicated surgery) is effective, relatively safe (when appropriately monitored), and has been established as the standard of care.[6] Federal and private insurers should cover such interventions as prescribed by a physician as well as the appropriate medical screenings that are recommended for all body tissues that a person may have.
- Increased funding for national pediatric and adult transgender health research programs is needed to close the gaps in knowledge regarding transgender medical care and should be made a priority.

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PEDIATRIC ENDOCRINE SOCIETY

6728 Old McLean Village Drive • McLean • VA • 22101 • 703-556-9222 • www.pedsendo.org

POSITION STATEMENT
APRIL 2021

The Pediatric Endocrine Society Opposes Bills that Harm Transgender Youth

Bills that threaten the health of transgender and gender diverse (TGD) youth have been introduced in multiple state legislatures across the United States. These bills undermine medical recommendations and seek to criminalize health care professionals who provide gender-affirming care such as puberty suppressing medications and gender-affirming hormone therapy.

We caution legislators and the public that the support and implementation of these bills will worsen mental health, increase the risk of suicide, and contribute to poorer overall health in our TGD patients. Such bills contradict evidence-based Standards of Care recommendations from the Pediatric Endocrine Society as well as Position Statements from several national and international medical associations with expertise in the care of TGD youth, such as the American Academy of Pediatrics, the Endocrine Society, the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, the American Psychiatric Association and the World Professional Association for Transgender Health.

The Pediatric Endocrine Society recommends an affirmative model of care that supports one's gender identity, and follows a multidisciplinary approach that includes involvement of mental health professionals, patients and their families. Puberty suppression and/or gender-affirming hormone therapy is recommended within this evidence-based approach on a case-by-case basis as medically necessary and is potentially lifesaving. The implementation of these recommendations has been demonstrated to improve the psychological health and well-being of TGD youth.

The Pediatric Endocrine Society stands with its members and other clinicians outside of our Society that provide gender-affirmative care to transgender youth.

As experts in the care of transgender youth, we strongly urge legislators to follow our medical advice and advocate for the well-being of ALL youth and oppose bills restricting the rights of TGD youth. The decision to proceed with medical care for gender dysphoria should be made jointly by TGD youth, their families and their health care professionals.

References:

Rider et al. Pediatrics, 2018; Sorbara et al. Pediatrics, 2020; Turban et al. Pediatrics, 2020; Turban et al. JAMA Psychiatry, 2019; Olson et al. Pediatrics, 2016; De Vries et.al. Pediatrics, 2014; Kuper et.al. Pediatrics 2020

SAHM Statement in Opposition of State Legislation Barring Evidence-Based Treatment

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SAHM Statement in Opposition of State Legislation Barring Evidence-Based Treatment

There are an increasing number of bills introduced in state legislatures within the U.S. that would bar medically necessary and evidence-based treatments for patients and interfere with the doctor-patient relationship. These bills would make providing pubertal blockers or cross-sex hormones for transgender and gender-diverse patients younger than 18 years-old a felony or misdemeanor for physicians and other health care providers. These bills are harmful for the health and well-being of transgender and gender diverse youth, a vulnerable population.

As an organization that advocates for the health and well-being of all teenagers and young adults, the **Society for Adolescent Health and Medicine (SAHM)** affirms that transgender and gender diverse youth should have access to *all available* treatments that will affirm their gender identity, whether it be social support, mental health therapy, pubertal blockers, or cross-sex hormones. Any legislation that would make it a felony or misdemeanor to provide any of these treatments lacks empirical justification and will harm patients.

Transgender and gender diverse youth experience distress from their bodies not matching their gender identity as well as from stigma and discrimination from society. As a result, transgender youth are six times more likely to have anxiety, four times more likely to have depression ([i] Bercerra-Culqui et al., 2018), and four times more likely to engage in substance use ([ii] Day et al., 2017) compared to their non-transgender peers. Because of family rejection, forty percent of transgender youth are homeless ([iii] Hafeez et al., 2017). About half of transgender and gender diverse youth have considered or attempted suicide ([iv] Haas et al,

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2014). Additionally, they have limited access to health care due to anti-trans stigma and discrimination, with a fifth of transgender people reporting that their healthcare providers have refused to treat them or have kicked them out of their practice because of their gender identity and/or expression ([v] Grant et al., 2011); therefore, such laws would make healthcare for transgender youth even more difficult to access.

A growing number of medical organizations, including the American Academy of Pediatrics, the World Professional Association for Transgender Health, and the Endocrine Society have stated that the best way to provide care for transgender and gender diverse youth is to support and affirm their gender identity, whether it be by social support, mental health therapy, pubertal blockers, or cross sex hormones. Furthermore, there is growing robust evidence that these treatments are associated with better health outcomes for transgender and gender diverse youth. Transgender youth who receive cross-sex hormones have a 75% decrease in suicidality and a 14% increase in general well-being ([vi] Allen et al., 2019), and transgender youth who receive pubertal blockers, when needed, experience a 70% decrease in lifetime suicidality ([vii] Turban et al., 2020) and a 25% decrease in psychological problems ([viii] de Vries et al., 2014).

SAHM We urges all state legislators where these bills are being introduced to vote against such proposals and instead spend the time to know and work with their transgender and gender diverse constituents to propose laws that would expand health care access to these historically disenfranchised citizens. We also ask SAHM Chapters who represent states where this type of legislation is being introduced, to contact Executive Director Ryan Norton for assistance with statements of opposition to the legislation being proposed.

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WORLD MEDICAL ASSOCIATION

WMA STATEMENT ON TRANSGENDER PEOPLE

Adopted by the 66th WMA General Assembly, Moscow, Russia, October 2015

17th February 2017

PREAMBLE

In most cultures, an individual's sex is assigned at birth according to primary physical sex characteristics. Individuals are expected to identify with their assigned sex (gender identity) and behave according to specific cultural norms strongly associated with this (gender expression). Gender identity and gender expression make up the concept of "gender" itself.

There are individuals who experience different manifestations of gender that do not conform to those typically associated with their sex assigned at birth. The term "transgender" refers to people who experience gender incongruence, which is defined as a marked mismatch between one's gender and the sex assigned at birth.

While conceding that this is a complex ethical issue, the WMA would like to acknowledge the crucial role played by physicians in advising and consulting with transgender people and their families about desired treatments. The WMA intends this statement to serve as a guideline for patient-physician relations and to foster better training to enable physicians to increase their knowledge and sensitivity toward transgender people and the unique health issues they face.

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Along the transgender spectrum, there are people who, despite having a distinct anatomically identifiable sex, seek to change their primary and secondary sex characteristics and gender role completely in order to live as a member of the opposite sex (transsexual). Others choose to identify their gender as falling outside the sex/gender binary of either male or female (genderqueer). The generic term “transgender” represents an attempt to describe these groups without stigmatisation or pathological characterisation. It is also used as a term of positive self-identification. This statement does not explicitly address individuals who solely dress in a style or manner traditionally associated with the opposite sex (e.g. transvestites) or individuals who are born with physical aspects of both sexes, with many variations (intersex). However, there are transvestites and intersex individuals who identify as transgender. Being transvestite or intersex does not exclude an individual from being transgender. Finally, it is important to point out that transgender relates to gender identity, and must be considered independently from an individual’s sexual orientation.

Although being transgender does not in itself imply any mental impairment, transgender people may require counseling to help them understand their gender and to address the complex social and relational issues that are affected by it. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders of the American Psychiatric Association (DSM-5) uses the term “gender dysphoria” to classify people who experience clinically significant distress resulting from gender incongruence.

Evidence suggests that treatment with sex hormones or surgical interventions can be beneficial to people with pronounced and long-lasting gender dysphoria who seek gender transition. However, transgender people are often denied access to appropriate and

affordable transgender healthcare (e.g. sex hormones, surgeries, mental healthcare) due to, among other things, the policies of health insurers and national social security benefit schemes, or to a lack of relevant clinical and cultural competence among healthcare providers. Transgender persons may be more likely to forego healthcare due to fear of discrimination.

Transgender people are often professionally and socially disadvantaged, and experience direct and indirect discrimination, as well as physical violence. In addition to being denied equal civil rights, anti-discrimination legislation, which protects other minority groups, may not extend to transgender people. Experiencing disadvantage and discrimination may have a negative impact upon physical and mental health.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The WMA emphasises that everyone has the right to determine one's own gender and recognises the diversity of possibilities in this respect. The WMA calls for physicians to uphold each individual's right to self-identification with regards to gender.

2. The WMA asserts that gender incongruence is not in itself a mental disorder; however it can lead to discomfort or distress, which is referred to as gender dysphoria (DSM-5).

3. The WMA affirms that, in general, any health-related procedure or treatment related to an individual's transgender status, e.g. surgical interventions, hormone therapy or psychotherapy, requires the freely given informed and explicit consent of the patient.

4. The WMA urges that every effort be made to make individualised, multi-professional, interdisciplinary and affordable transgender healthcare (including speech therapy

healthcare (including speech therapy, hormonal treatment, surgical interventions and mental healthcare) available to all people who experience gender incongruence in order to reduce or to prevent pronounced gender dysphoria.

5. The WMA explicitly rejects any form of coercive treatment or forced behaviour modification. Transgender healthcare aims to enable transgender people to have the best possible quality of life. National Medical Associations should take action to identify and combat barriers to care.

6. The WMA calls for the provision of appropriate expert training for physicians at all stages of their career to enable them to recognise and avoid discriminatory practises, and to provide appropriate and sensitive transgender healthcare.

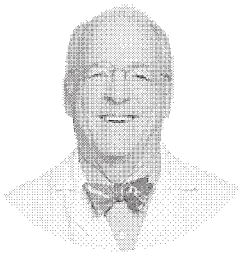
7. The WMA condemns all forms of discrimination, stigmatisation and violence against transgender people and calls for appropriate legal measures to protect their equal civil rights. As role models, individual physicians should use their medical knowledge to combat prejudice in this respect.

8. The WMA reaffirms its position that no person, regardless of gender, ethnicity, socio-economic status, medical condition or disability, should be subjected to forced or coerced permanent sterilisation (WMA Statement on Forced and Coerced Sterilisation). This also includes sterilisation as a condition for rectifying the recorded sex on official documents following gender reassignment.

9. The WMA recommends that national governments maintain continued interest in the healthcare rights of transgender people by

conducting health services research at the national level and using these results in the development of health and medical policies. The objective should be a responsive healthcare system that works with each transgender person to identify the best treatment options for that individual.

VAN METER PEDIATRIC ENDOCRINOLOGY



QUENTIN VAN METER, MD

Dr. Van Meter graduated from the College of William and Mary in 1969. He attended the Medical College of Virginia where he received his medical degree in 1973. Dr. Van Meter did his pediatric internship (1973-1974) and his pediatric residency (1974 to 1976) at the Naval Regional Medical Center in Oakland, through the University of California, San Francisco. He completed his pediatric endocrinology fellowship from 1978 to 1980 at Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine.

Dr. Van Meter worked as a staff pediatric endocrinologist at the Naval Hospital in San Diego from 1980 to 1986 and was Chairman and Director of the residency training program at the Naval Hospital Oakland from 1986 to 1991. In 1991, he retired from a 20-year career in the Navy Medical Corps and moved to the Atlanta area where he joined the Fayette Medical Clinic as a Pediatrician and Pediatric Endocrinologist. To better serve the ever-expanding population of pediatric patients with endocrine disorders, he developed his own full-time endocrine practice - which today bears his name. He is a clinical associate professor of Pediatrics at Morehouse School of Medicine and former adjunct Associate Professor of Pediatrics at Emory University School of Medicine.

Pl. Trial Ex. 053

Address

1800 Howell Mill Rd. NW
Suite 450
Atlanta, GA 30318

Contact

(P) 678-961-2100
(F) 678-961-2107

Follow

Testosterone Products

Humana

Pharmacy Coverage Policy

Effective Date: January 01, 2021
Revision Date: May 25, 2022
Review Date: May 18, 2022
Line of Business: Medicare, Commercial, Medicaid - South Carolina
Policy Type: Prior Authorization

Disclaimer

State and federal law, as well as contract language, including definitions and specific inclusions/exclusions, take precedence over clinical policy and must be considered first in determining eligibility for coverage. Coverage may also differ for our Medicare and/or Medicaid members based on any applicable Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) coverage statements including National Coverage Determinations (NCD), Local Medical Review Policies (LMRP) and/or Local Coverage Determinations. See the CMS website at http://www.cms.hhs.gov/. The member's health plan benefits in effect on the date services are rendered must be used. Clinical policy is not intended to pre-empt the judgment of the reviewing medical director or dictate to health care providers how to practice medicine. Health care providers are expected to exercise their medical judgment in rendering appropriate care. Clinical technology is constantly evolving, and we reserve the right to review and update this policy periodically.

Description

Testosterone is an endogenous androgen produced by cells in the testis, ovary and adrenal cortex. It is utilized therapeutically for the treatment of either congenital or acquired hypogonadism.

Topical Testosterone gels (AndroGel, Fortesta, Testim, Vogelxo), patch (Androderm), solution (Axiron), buccal mucoadhesive (Striant), nasal gel (Natesto), Xyosted, Testopel, and oral capsules (Jatenzo, Kyzatrex) are indicated for testosterone replacement therapy in men for conditions associated with a deficiency or absence of endogenous testosterone due to either primary or secondary hypogonadism.

Androderm is available as a 2mg/24hr and 4mg/24hr transdermal testosterone patch system.

AndroGel 1% for topical use is available as follows:

- Packets containing 25 mg of testosterone
- Packets containing 50 mg of testosterone

AndroGel 1.62% for topical use is available as follows:

Pl. Trial Ex. 054

- Metered-dose pump that delivers 20.25 mg testosterone per actuation
- Packets containing 20.25 mg testosterone. Packets containing 40.5 mg testosterone

Fortesta is supplied as a metered dose pump that delivers 10 mg of testosterone per complete pump actuation. The metered dose pump is capable of dispensing 120 metered pump actuations.

Jatenzo (testosterone undecanoate) is available in 158 mg, 198 mg, and 237 mg oral capsules.

Kyzatrex (testosterone undecanoate) is available as 100mg, 150mg, and 200mg oral capsules.

Natesto is supplied as a metered dose pump that delivers 5.5mg of testosterone per 0.122gm of gel in each complete pump actuation. The metered dose pump is capable of dispensing 60 pump actuations.

Striant is available as a mucoadhesive system for buccal administration containing 30mg of testosterone.

Testosterone gel is available as Testim 1% (50mg) in 5gm unit dose tubes.

Testosterone enanthate is available as branded Xyosted auto-injector for subcutaneous injection.

Testosterone is available as Testopel in 75mg pellets for subcutaneous implantation.

Testosterone undecanoate is available as Aveed in 750mg/3mL single-dose vials. It is also available as branded Tlando available in 112.5mg oral capsules

Vogelxo is supplied as follows:

- 50mg of testosterone in 5gm unit dose tubes

- Metered-dose pump containing 75g or 60 metered 1.25g doses (supplied as 2 pumps); each actuation delivers 12.5mg of testosterone
- 5g unit-dose aluminum foil packets containing 50mg of testosterone

Coverage Determination

Please note the following regarding medically accepted indications:

All reasonable efforts have been made to ensure consideration of medically accepted indications in this policy. Medically accepted indications are defined by CMS as those uses of a covered Part D drug that are approved under the federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act, or the use of which is supported by one or more citations included or approved for inclusion in any of the compendia described in section 1927(g)(1)(B)(i) of the Act. These compendia guide review of off-label and off-evidence prescribing and are subject to minimum evidence standards for each compendium. Currently, this review includes the following references when applicable and may be subject to change per CMS:

- American Hospital Formulary Service-Drug Information (AHFS-DI)
- National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN) Drugs and Biologics Compendium
- Truven Health Analytics Micromedex DrugDEX
- Elsevier/Gold Standard Clinical Pharmacology
- Wolters Kluwer Lexi-Drugs

Testosterone Products (Androderm, AndroGel 1%, AndroGel 1.62%, Aveed, Fortesta, Jatenzo, Kyzatrex, Natesto, Striant, Testim, Testopel, testosterone gel, Vogelxo, Xyosted, Tlando) will require prior authorization. These agents may be considered medically necessary when the following criteria are met:

Hypogonadism

- Member has one of the following diagnoses:
  - Primary hypogonadism : testicular failure due to cryptorchidism, bilateral torsion, orchitis, vanishing testis syndrome, orchiectomy, Klinefelter's syndrome, chemotherapy, or toxic damage from alcohol or heavy metals; **OR**

- Hypogonadotropic hypogonadism* : idiopathic gonadotropin or luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone (LHRH) deficiency or pituitary-hypothalamic injury from tumors, trauma, or radiation; **AND**

- Member has had one of the following:
  - Documentation of two morning serum testosterone levels (total or free) that are less than the reference range for the lab, taken at separate times, prior to treatment; **OR**
  - Documentation of a serum testosterone level (total or free) that is less than or within the reference range for the lab, when already on treatment; **AND**

- Member has had previous treatment with a generic testosterone 1.62% **AND** one of the following: testosterone cypionate or testosterone enanthate
  - *^previous treatment criteria does not apply to generic testosterone 1.62% or Medicare Part B requests*

**also known as secondary or central hypogonadism*

Testosterone Products (Androderm, AndroGel 1%, AndroGel 1.62%, Aveed, Fortesta, Jatenzo, Kyzatrex, Natesto, Striant, Testim, Testopel, testosterone gel, Vogelxo, Xyosted, Tlando) will be approved in plan year durations or as determined through clinical review.

Coverage Limitations

Testosterone Products (Androderm, AndroGel 1%, AndroGel 1.62%, Aveed, Fortesta, Jatenzo, Kyzatrex, Natesto, Striant, Testim, Testopel, testosterone gel, Vogelxo, Xyosted, Tlando) is not considered medically necessary for members with the following concomitant conditions:

- Experimental/Investigational Use – Indications not supported by CMS recognized compendia or acceptable peer reviewed literature.

Background

This is a prior authorization policy about Testosterone Products (Androderm, AndroGel 1%, AndroGel 1.62%, Aveed, Fortesta, Jatenzo, Kyzatrex, Natesto, Striant, Testim, Testopel, testosterone gel, Vogelxo, Xyosted, Tlando)

Androderm (Transdermal testosterone patch)
The recommended starting dose of Androderm is 4 mg/day system (not two 2mg/daysystems) applied nightly for 24 hours.

AndroGel 1%, Vogelxo (Transdermal testosterone gel)
The recommended starting dose of Androgel 1% and Vogelxo is 50 mg of testosterone (ie. one packet or 4 pump actuations) applied topically once daily.

AndroGel 1.62% (Transdermal testosterone gel)
The recommended starting dose of Androgel 1.62% is 40.5 mg of testosterone (ie. 2 pump actuations or a single 40.5 mg packet) applied topically once daily in the morning.

Aveed (testosterone undecanoate)
Aveed (testosterone undecanoate) is administered via deep intramuscular injection into the gluteal muscle. A dose of 750mg (3mL) is given initially, followed by another dose at 4 weeks, and then every 10 weeks thereafter.

Fortesta (Transdermal testosterone gel)
The recommended starting dose of Fortesta is 40mg.

Jatenzo (testosterone undecanoate)
The recommended starting dose is 237 mg capsule in the morning and once in the evening

Natesto (testosterone gel, nasal)
The recommended dose of Natesto is 11mg of testosterone (5.5mg or one pumpactuation in each nostril) three times a day.

Striant (testosterone buccal system)
The recommended dose of Striant is one buccal system (30 mg) to the gum region twice daily; morning and evening (about 12 hours apart).

Testim, Vogelxo (Transdermal Testosterone gel)
The recommended starting dose of Testim is 50 mg of testosterone (ie. one tube) applied topically once daily.

Testopel (testosterone)
The number of pellets to be implanted depends upon the minimal daily requirements of testosterone propionate determined by a gradual reduction of the amount administered parenterally. The usual dosage is as follows: implant two 75mg pellets for each 25mg testosterone propionate required weekly. Thus when a patient requires injections of 75mg per week, it is usually necessary to implant 450mg (6 pellets). With injections of 50mg per week, implantation of 300mg (4 pellets) may suffice for approximately three months. With lower requirements by injection, correspondingly lower amounts may be implanted. It has been found that approximately one-third of the material is absorbed in the first month, one fourth in the second month, and one sixth in the third month. Adequate effect of the pellets ordinarily continues for three to four months, sometimes as long as six months

Xyosted (testosterone enanthate)
The starting dose of Xyosted is 75mg, administered subcutaneously in the abdominal region once a week. Xyosted is for subcutaneous injection in the abdominal region only. Measure total testosterone trough concentrations (measured 7 days after the most recent dose) following 6 weeks of dosing, following 6 weeks after dose adjustment, and

periodically while on treatment with Xyosted. A trough concentration between 350 ng/dL and 650 ng/dL generally provides testosterone exposures in the normal range during the entire dosing interval.
Decrease the dose by 25 mg if the total testosterone trough concentration (Ctrough) is ≥650 ng/dL. Increase the dose by 25 mg if the total testosterone Ctrough is <350 ng/dL. Maintain the same dose if the total testosterone Ctrough is ≥350 ng/dL and <650 ng/dL.

Tlando
The recommended dosage of TLANDO is 225 mg (taken as two 112.5 mg capsules), orally twice daily, once in the morning and once in the evening. Take with food.

Monitoring for Continued Use or Discontinuation
Monitor serum testosterone (8 to 9 hours after the morning dose) 3 to 4 weeks after initiating TLANDO, and periodically after. Based on serum testosterone measurements, determine if Tlando should be continued or discontinued.

- Serum testosterone 300 - 1080 ng/dL: continue therapy
- Serum testosterone < 300 ng/dL: discontinue therapy
- Serum testosterone > 1080 ng/dL: discontinue therapy

Provider Claims Codes

For medically billed requests, please visit www.humana.com/PAL. Select applicable Preauthorization and Notification List(s) for medical and procedural coding information.

Medical Terms

Androderm; AndroGel; Fortesta; Jatenzo; Kyzatrex; Natesto; Striant; Testim; testosterone; Vogelxo; hypogonadism; topical; transdermal; pharmacy; nasal; Aveed; Xyosted; Testopel, Tlando

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