March 2, 2022

On October 1, 2022, the District Court for the Northern District of Texas issued a judgment vacating the March 2, 2022 document. HHS is evaluating its next steps in light of that judgment but is complying with it.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

Office for Civil Rights

HHS Notice and Guidance on Gender Affirming Care, Civil Rights, and Patient Privacy

The Department of Health & Human Services (HHS) stands with transgender and gender nonconforming youth and their families—and the significant majority of expert medical associations—in unequivocally stating that gender affirming care for minors, when medically appropriate and necessary, improves their physical and mental health. Attempts to restrict, challenge, or falsely characterize this potentially lifesaving care as abuse is dangerous. Such attempts block parents from making critical health care decisions for their children, create a chilling effect on health care providers who are necessary to provide care for these youth, and ultimately negatively impact the health and well-being of transgender and gender nonconforming youth. The HHS Office for Civil Rights (OCR) will continue working to ensure that transgender and gender nonconforming youth are able to access health care free from the burden of discrimination. HHS understands that many families and health care providers are facing fear and concerns about attempts to portray gender affirming care as abuse. To help these families and providers navigate those concerns, HHS is providing additional information on federal civil rights protections and federal health privacy laws that apply to gender affirming care.

As a law enforcement agency, OCR is investigating and, where appropriate, enforcing Section 1557 of the Affordable Care Act[1] cases involving discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and gender identity in accordance with all applicable law. This means that if people believe they have been discriminated against in a health program or activity that receives financial assistance from HHS, they can file a complaint.

Federal Civil Rights Laws:

Parents or caregivers who believe their child has been denied health care, including gender affirming care, on the basis of that child's gender identity, may file a complaint with OCR.

Health care providers who believe that they are or have been unlawfully restricted from providing health care to a patient on the basis of that patient's gender identity may file a complaint with OCR.

OCR enforces federal civil rights laws that prohibit discriminatory restrictions on access to health care. Among these laws is Section 1557, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, national origin, sex, age, and disability in covered health programs or activities. OCR

[1] 42 U.S.C. 18116; *see also* 45 C.F.R. part 92.

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also enforces Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act,[2] which prohibits discrimination on the basis of disability in any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance.

Section 1557 protects the right of individuals to access the health programs and activities of recipients of federal financial assistance without facing discrimination on the basis of sex, which includes discrimination on the basis of gender identity. Categorically refusing to provide treatment to an individual based on their gender identity is prohibited discrimination. Similarly, federally-funded covered entities restricting an individual's ability to receive medically necessary care, including gender-affirming care, from their health care provider solely on the basis of their sex assigned at birth or gender identity likely violates Section 1557. For example, if a parent and their child visit a doctor for a consultation regarding or to receive gender affirming care, and the doctor or other staff at the facility reports the parent to state authorities for seeking such care, that reporting may constitute violation of Section 1557 if the doctor or facility receives federal financial assistance. Restricting a health care provider's ability to provide or prescribe such care may also violate Section 1557.

Section 504 protects qualified individuals with disabilities from discrimination in programs and activities receiving federal financial assistance. Title II of the Americans with Disabilities Act[3] (ADA) protects qualified individuals with disabilities from discrimination in state and local government programs. Gender dysphoria may, in some cases, qualify as a disability under these laws. Restrictions that prevent otherwise qualified individuals from receiving medically necessary care on the basis of their gender dysphoria, gender dysphoria diagnosis, or perception of gender dysphoria may, therefore, also violate Section 504 and Title II of the ADA.

If you believe that you or another party has been discriminated against on the basis of gender identity or disability in seeking to access gender affirming health care, visit the OCR complaint portal to file a complaint online. To read more about Section 1557 and other laws that OCR enforces, please visit our website at https:www.hhs.gov/ocr.

Federal Health Care Privacy Laws - Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of 1996 (HIPAA):

HIPAA, the cornerstone patient privacy law, limits the circumstances under which health care providers and other entities may disclose protected health information, such as gender affirming physical or mental health care administered by a licensed provider.

Providers who may be concerned about their obligations to disclose information concerning gender affirming care should seek additional legal guidance regarding their legal responsibilities and other laws.

[2] 29 U.S.C. 794; *see also* 45 C.F.R. part 84.
[3] 42 U.S.C. 12132.

OCR enforces the HIPAA Privacy, Security and Breach Notification Rules,[4] which establish requirements with respect to the use, disclosure, and protection of protected health information (PHI) by covered entities and business associates;[5] provide health information privacy and security protections; and establish rights for individuals with respect to their PHI.[6]

OCR reminds covered entities (health plans, health care providers, health care clearinghouses) and business associates that the HIPAA Privacy Rule permits, **but does not require,** covered entities and business associates to disclose PHI about an individual, without the individual's authorization,[7] when such disclosure is required by another law and the disclosure complies with the requirements of the other law.[8] This "required by law" exception to the authorization requirement is limited to "a mandate contained in law that compels an entity to make a use or disclosure of PHI and that is enforceable in a court of law."[9] Where a disclosure is required by law, the disclosure is limited to the relevant requirements of such law.[10] Disclosures of PHI that do not meet the "required by law definition" or exceed what is required by such law do not qualify as permissible disclosures under this exception.

HIPAA prohibits disclosure of gender affirming care that is PHI without an individuals' consent[11] except in limited circumstances.

If you believe that your (or someone else's) health privacy rights have been violated, visit the OCR complaint portal to file a complaint online.

DISCLAIMER: The contents of this document do not have the force and effect of law and are not meant to bind the public in any way. This document is intended only to provide clarity to the public regarding existing requirements under the law or the Departments' policies.

To obtain this information in an alternate format, contact the HHS Office for Civil Rights at (800) 368-1019, TDD toll-free: (800) 537-7697, or by emailing OCRMail@hhs.gov. Language assistance services for OCR matters are available and provided free of charge.

[4] 45 C.F.R. Parts 160 and 164, Subparts A, C, D, and E.
[5] *See* 45 C.F.R. 160.103 ("covered entity" and 'business associate" definitions).
[6] *See* 45 C.F.R. 160.103 ("protected health information" and "individually identifiable health information" definitions).
[7] *See* 45 C.F.R. 164.508(c) (HIPAA authorization required elements).
[8] 45 C.F.R. 164.512(a)(1).
[9] 45 C.F.R. 164.103 ("required by law" definition). Required by law includes, but is not limited to, court orders and court-ordered warrants; subpoenas or summons issued by a court, grand jury, a governmental or tribal inspector general, or an administrative body authorized to require the production of information; a civil or an authorized investigative demand; Medicare conditions of participation with respect to health care providers participating in the program; and statutes or regulations that require the production of information, including statutes or regulations that require such information if payment is sought under a government program providing public benefits.
[10] 45 C.F.R. 164.512(a)(1).
[11] For purposes of this guidance, "consent" refers to a valid HIPAA authorization. *See 45 C.F.R. 164.508.*

OASH | Office of Population Affairs

Gender-Affirming Care and Young People

What is gender-affirming care?

Gender-affirming care is a supportive form of healthcare. It consists of an array of services that may include medical, surgical, mental health, and non-medical services for transgender and nonbinary people.

For transgender and nonbinary children and adolescents, early gender-affirming care is crucial to overall health and well-being as it allows the child or adolescent to focus on social transitions and can increase their confidence while navigating the healthcare system.

Why does it matter?

Research demonstrates that gender-affirming care improves the mental health and overall well-being of gender diverse children and adolescents.[1] Because gender-affirming care encompasses many facets of healthcare needs and support, it has been shown to increase positive outcomes for transgender and nonbinary children and adolescents. Gender-affirming care is patient-centered and treats individuals holistically, aligning their outward, physical traits with their gender identity.

Gender diverse adolescents, in particular, face significant health disparities compared to their cisgender peers. Transgender and gender nonbinary adolescents are at increased risk for mental health issues, substance use, and suicide.[2],[3] The Trevor Project's 2021 *National Survey on LGBTQ Youth Mental Health* found that 52 percent of LGBTQ youth seriously considered attempting suicide in the past year.[4]

A safe and affirming healthcare environment is critical in fostering better outcomes for transgender, nonbinary, and other gender expansive children and adolescents. Medical and psychosocial gender affirming healthcare practices have been demonstrated to yield lower rates of adverse mental health outcomes, build self-esteem, and improve overall quality of life for transgender and gender diverse youth.[5,6] Familial and peer support is also crucial in fostering similarly positive outcomes for these populations. Presence of affirming support networks is critical for facilitating and arranging gender affirming care for children and adolescents. Lack of such support can result in rejection, depression and suicide, homelessness, and other negative outcomes.[7,8,9]

Common Terms:
(in alphabetical order)

Cisgender: Describes a person whose gender identity aligns with their sex assigned at birth.

Gender diverse or expansive: An umbrella term for a person with a gender identity and/or expression broader than the male or female binary. Gender minority is also used interchangeably with this term.

Gender dysphoria: Clinically significant distress that a person may feel when sex or gender assigned at birth is not the same as their identity.

Gender identity: One's internal sense of self as man, woman, both or neither.

Nonbinary: Describes a person who does not identify with the man or woman gender binary.

Transgender: Describes a person whose gender identity and or expression is different from their sex assigned at birth, and societal and cultural expectations around sex.

Additional Information

- Endocrine Treatment of Gender-Dysphoric/Gender-Incongruent Persons: An Endocrine Society Clinical Practice Guideline
- Ensuring Comprehensive Care and Support for Transgender and Gender-Diverse Children and Adolescents | American Academy of Pediatrics
- Standards of Care (SOC) for the Health of Transsexual, Transgender, and Gender Nonconforming People | World Professional Association for Transgender Health

HHS Office of Population Affairs
Web: opa.hhs.gov | Email: opa@hhs.gov
Twitter: @HHSPopAffairs | YouTube: HHSOfficeofPopulationAffairs

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Gender-Affirming Care and Young People

Affirming Care	What is it?	When is it used?	Reversible or not
Social Affirmation	Adopting gender-affirming hairstyles, clothing, name, gender pronouns, and restrooms and other facilities	At any age or stage	Reversible
Puberty Blockers	Using certain types of hormones to pause pubertal development	During puberty	Reversible
Hormone Therapy	Testosterone hormones for those who were assigned female at birth Estrogen hormones for those who were assigned male at birth	Early adolescence onward	Partially reversible
Gender-Affirming Surgeries	"Top" surgery – to create male-typical chest shape or enhance breasts "Bottom" surgery – surgery on genitals or reproductive organs Facial feminization or other procedures	Typically used in adulthood or case-by-case in adolescence	Not reversible

Resources

- Discrimination on the Basis of Sex | HHS Office of Civil Rights
- Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Health | Healthy People 2030
- Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Health: Health Services | Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
- National Institutes of Health Sexual & Gender Minority Research Office
- Family Support: Resources for Families of Transgender & Gender Diverse Children | Movement Advancement Project
- Five Things to Know About Gender-Affirming Health Care | ACLU
- Gender-Affirming Care is Trauma-Informed Care | The National Child Traumatic Stress Network
- Gender-Affirming Care Saves Lives | Columbia University
- Gender Identity | The Trevor Project
- Genderspectrum.org
- Glossary of Terms | Human Rights Campaign
- Health Care for Transgender and Gender Diverse Individuals | ACOG
- Transgender and Gender Diverse Children and Adolescents | Endocrine Society

[1] Green, A. E., DeChants, J. P., Price, M. N., & Davis, C. K. (2021). Association of Gender-Affirming Hormone Therapy With Depression, Thoughts of Suicide, and Attempted Suicide Among Transgender and Nonbinary Youth. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 70(4). https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2021.10.036

[2] Rimes, K., Goodship N., Ussher, G., Baker, D. and West, E. (2019). Non-binary and binary transgender youth: Comparison of mental health, self-harm, suicidality, substance use and victimization experiences. *International Journal of Transgenderism*, 20 (2-3); 230-240.

[3] Price-Feeney, M., Green, A. E., & Dorison, S. (2020). Understanding the mental health of transgender and nonbinary youth. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 66*(6), 684–690. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2019.11.314

[4] Trevor Project. (2021). *National Survey on LGBTQ Youth Mental Health 2021*. Trevor Project. https://www.thetrevorproject.org/survey-2021/.

[5] Wagner J, Sackett-Taylor AC, Hodax JK, Forcier M, Rafferty J. (2019). Psychosocial Overview of Gender-Affirmative Care. *Journal of pediatric and adolescent gynecology,* (6):567-573. doi: 10.1016/j.jpag.2019.05.004. Epub 2019 May 17. PMID: 31103711.

[6] Hughto JMW, Gunn HA, Rood BA, Pantalone DW. (2020). Social and Medical Gender Affirmation Experiences Are Inversely Associated with Mental Health Problems in a U.S. Non-Probability Sample of Transgender Adults. *Archives of sexual behavior*, 49(7):2635-2647. doi: 10.1007/s10508-020-01655-5. Epub 2020 Mar 25. PMID: 32215775; PMCID: PMC7494544.

[7] Brown, C., Porta, C. M., Eisenberg, M. E., McMorris, B. J., & Sieving, R. E. (2020). Family relationships and the health and well-being of transgender and gender-diverse youth: A critical review. *LGBT Health*, *7*, 407-419. https://doi.org/10.1089/lgbt.2019.0200

[8] Seibel BL, de Brito Silva B, Fontanari AMV, Catelan RF, Bercht AM, Stucky JL, DeSousa DA, Cerqueira-Santos E, Nardi HC, Koller SH, Costa AB. (2018). The Impact of the Parental Support on Risk Factors in the Process of Gender Affirmation of Transgender and Gender Diverse People. *Front Psychol*, 27;9:399. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00399. Erratum in: Front Psychol. 2018 Oct 12;9:1969. PMID: 29651262; PMCID: PMC5885980.

[9] Sievert ED, Schweizer K, Barkmann C, Fahrenkrug S, Becker-Hebly I. (2021). Not social transition status, but peer relations and family functioning predict psychological functioning in a German clinical sample of children with Gender Dysphoria. *Clin Child Psychol Psychiatry*, 26(1):79-95. doi: 10.1177/1359104520964530. Epub 2020 Oct 20. PMID: 33081539.

U.S. Department of Justice

Civil Rights Division

Assistant Attorney General
950 Pennsylvania Ave, NW - RFK
Washington, DC 20530

March 31, 2022

Dear State Attorneys General:

The U.S. Department of Justice (the Department) is committed to ensuring that transgender youth, like all youth, are treated fairly and with dignity in accordance with federal law. This includes ensuring that such youth are not subjected to unlawful discrimination based on their gender identity, including when seeking gender-affirming care. We write to remind you of several important federal constitutional and statutory obligations that flow from these fundamental principles.

People who are transgender are frequently vulnerable to discrimination in many aspects of their lives, and are often victims of targeted threats, legal restrictions, and anti-transgender violence.[1] The Department and the federal government more generally have a strong interest in protecting the constitutional rights of individuals who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, intersex, nonbinary, or otherwise gender-nonconforming,[2] and in ensuring compliance with federal civil rights statutes. The Department is also charged with the coordination and enforcement of federal laws that protect individuals from discrimination in a wide range of federally-funded programs and activities.[3]

Intentionally erecting discriminatory barriers to prevent individuals from receiving gender-affirming care implicates a number of federal legal guarantees. State laws and policies that prevent parents or guardians from following the advice of a healthcare professional regarding what may be medically necessary or otherwise appropriate care for transgender minors may infringe on rights protected by both the Equal Protection and the Due Process Clauses of the Fourteenth Amendment. The Equal Protection Clause requires heightened scrutiny of laws that discriminate on the basis of sex[4] and prohibits such discrimination absent an "exceedingly

[1] *See, e.g.*, Michelle M. Johns et al., Ctrs. for Disease Control and Prevention, *Transgender Identity and Experiences of Violence Victimization, Substance Use, Suicide Risk, and Sexual Risk Behaviors Among High School Students—19 States and Large Urban School Districts, 2017*, Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report 68: 67-71 (2019), https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/volumes/68/wr/mm6803a3.htm?s_cid=mm6803a3_w (finding that transgender youth reported higher levels of violence victimization compared to their cisgender peers).
[2] *See, e.g.*, Exec. Order No. 13,988, § 1, 86 Fed. Reg. 7023 (Jan. 20, 2021); Pamela S. Karlan, Principal Deputy Assistant Attorney General, Civ. Rts. Div., U.S. Dep't of Justice, Memorandum, *Application of Bostock v. Clayton County to Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972* (Mar. 26, 2021), https://www.justice.gov/crt/page/file/1383026/download.
[3] Exec. Order No. 12,250, § 1-201, 45 Fed. Reg. 72,995 (Nov. 2, 1980).
[4] *See*, *e.g.*, *Grimm v. Gloucester Cnty. Sch. Bd.*, 972 F.3d 586, 610-13 (4th Cir. 2020), *as amended* (Aug. 28, 2020), *reh'g en banc denied*, 976 F.3d 399 (4th Cir. 2020), *cert. denied*, 2021 WL 2637992 (June 28, 2021); *Whitaker* v.

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persuasive" justification.[5] Because a government cannot discriminate against a person for being transgender "without discriminating against that individual based on sex,"[6] state laws or policies that discriminate against transgender people must be "substantially related to a sufficiently important governmental interest."[7]

A law or policy need not specifically single out persons who are transgender to be subject to heightened scrutiny. When a state or recipient of federal funds criminalizes or even restricts a type of medical care predominantly sought by transgender persons, an intent to disfavor that class can "readily be presumed."[8] For instance, a ban on gender-affirming procedures, therapy, or medication may be a form of discrimination against transgender persons, which is impermissible unless it is "substantially related" to a sufficiently important governmental interest.[9] This burden of justification is "demanding."[10] Such a law or policy will not withstand heightened scrutiny when "the alleged objective" differs from the "actual purpose" underlying the classification.[11] In addition, the Due Process Clause protects the right of parents "to seek and follow medical advice" to safeguard the health of their children.[12] A state or local government must meet the heavy burden of justifying interference with that right since it is well established within the medical community that gender-affirming care for transgender youth is not only appropriate but often necessary for their physical and mental health.[13]

In addition to these constitutional guarantees, many federal statutes require recipients of federal financial assistance to comply with nondiscrimination requirements as a condition of receiving those funds. Relevant statutes include:

- **Section 1557 of the Affordable Care Act**[14] protects the civil rights of people—including transgender youth—seeking nondiscriminatory access to healthcare in a range of health

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Kenosha Unified Sch. Dist. No. 1 Bd. of Educ., 858 F.3d 1034, 1051 (7th Cir. 2017), *cert. dismissed*, 138 S. Ct. 1260 (2018); *see also* Brief for the United States as Amicus Curiae Supporting Plaintiffs-Appellees, *Brandt v. Rutledge*, No. 21-2875 (8th Cir. Jan. 21, 2022); En Banc Brief for the United States as Amicus Curiae Supporting Plaintiff-Appellee, *Adams v. School Board of St. John's County*, No. 18-13592 (11th Cir. Nov. 26, 2021); Brief for the United States as Amicus Curiae Supporting Plaintiffs-Appellees, *Corbitt v. Taylor*, No. 21-10486 (11th Cir. Aug. 2, 2021).

[5] *United States v. Virginia*, 518 U.S. 515, 531 (1996) ("Parties who seek to defend gender-based government action must demonstrate an 'exceedingly persuasive justification' for that action.") (quoting *Mississippi Univ. for Women v. Hogan*, 458 U.S. 718, 724 (1982)).

[6] *Bostock v. Clayton Cnty.*, 140 S. Ct. 1731, 1741 (2020).

[7] *Grimm*, 972 F.3d at 608 (quoting *City of Cleburne v. Cleburne Living Ctr.*, 473 U.S. 432, 441 (1985) (internal quotations omitted)).

[8] *Bray v. Alexandria Women's Health Clinic*, 506 U.S. 263, 270 (1993) ("Some activities may be such an irrational object of disfavor that, if they are targeted, and if they also happen to be engaged in exclusively or predominantly by a particular class of people, an intent to disfavor that class can readily be presumed.").

[9] *Virginia*, 518 U.S. at 533.

[10] *Id.*

[11] *Miss. Univ.*, 458 U.S. at 730.

[12] *Parham v. J.R.*, 442 U.S. 584, 602 (1979).

[13] *See, e.g.*, *Brandt v. Rutledge*, 551 F. Supp. 3d 882, 891, 893 (E.D. Ark. 2021).

[14] 42 U.S.C. § 18116.

programs and activities.[15] Categorically refusing to provide treatment to a person based on their gender identity, for example, may constitute prohibited discrimination under Section 1557. As the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services has stated, restricting an individual's ability to receive medically necessary care, including gender-affirming care, from their health care providers solely on the basis of their sex assigned at birth or their gender identity may also violate Section 1557.[16]

- **Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972**[17] prohibits sex discrimination, including sex-based harassment, by recipients of federal financial assistance that operate education programs and activities.[18] Policies and practices that deny, limit, or interfere with access to the recipient's education program or activity because students are transgender minors receiving gender-affirming care may constitute discrimination on the basis of sex in violation of Title IX.

- The **Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968**[19] prohibits sex discrimination in certain law enforcement programs and activities receiving federal financial assistance.[20] If a law enforcement agency takes a transgender minor who is receiving gender-affirming care into custody or arrests the child's parents on suspicion of child abuse because the parents permitted such medical care, that agency may be violating the statute's nondiscrimination provision.

- **Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973**[21] protects people with disabilities, which can include individuals who experience gender dysphoria.[22] Restrictions that prevent, limit, or interfere with otherwise qualified individuals' access to care due to their gender

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[15] *See, e.g.*, Notification of Interpretation and Enforcement of Section 1557 of the Affordable Care Act and Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, reprinted at 86 Fed. Reg. 27,984 (May 25, 2021).
[16] U.S. Dep't Health & Hum. Servs., *Notice and Guidance on Gender Affirming Care, Civil Rights, and Patient Privacy* (Mar. 2, 2022), https://www.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/hhs-ocr-notice-and-guidance-gender-affirming-care.pdf.
[17] 20 U.S.C. § 1681, *et seq*.
[18] *See* Karlan, *supra* note 2; *see also Doe v. Snyder*, --- F.4th ---, 2022 WL 711420, at *9 (9th Cir. Mar. 10, 2022); *Grimm*, 972 F.3d at 619.
[19] 34 U.S.C. § 10101, *et seq*.
[20] *See* 34 U.S.C. § 10228(c)(1); *see also* Kristen Clarke, Assistant Attorney General, Civ. Rts. Div., U.S. Dep't of Justice, Memorandum, *Interpretation of Bostock v. Clayton County regarding the nondiscrimination provisions of the Safe Streets Act, the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act, the Victims of Crime Act, and the Violence Against Women Act* (Mar. 10, 2022), https://www.justice.gov/crt/page/file/1481776/download.
[21] 29 U.S.C. § 794. Additionally, Title II of the Americans with Disabilities Act extends disability civil rights protections with respect to all programs, services and activities of state and local governments, regardless of the receipt of federal financial assistance. *See* 42 U.S.C. § 12132.
[22] *See, e.g.*, *Doe v. Penn. Dep't of Corrections*, No. 1:20-cv-00023-SPB-RAL, 2021 WL 1583556, at *12 (W.D. Pa. Feb. 19, 2021), report and recommendation adopted in relevant part, 2021 WL 1115373 (W.D. Pa. March 24, 2021); *Lange v. Houston Cnty.*, 499 F. Supp. 3d 1258, 1270 (M.D. Ga. 2020); *Doe v. Mass. Dep't of Correction*, No. 1:17-cv-12255-RGS, 2018 WL 2994403 at *6 (D. Mass. June 14, 2018); *Blatt v. Cabela's Retail, Inc.*, No. 5:14-CV-04822, 2017 WL 2178123 (E.D. Pa. May 18, 2017).

dysphoria, gender dysphoria diagnosis, or perception of gender dysphoria may violate Section 504.

All persons should be free to access the services, programs, and activities supported by federal financial assistance without fear that they might face unlawful discrimination for doing so. Courts have held that many nondiscrimination statutes contain an implied cause of action for retaliation based on the general prohibition against intentional discrimination, and agencies have made this clear in regulations.[23] Thus, any retaliatory conduct may give rise to an independent legal claim under the protections described above.

* * *

Thank you for your continued commitment to improving the well-being of children and their families. The Department is always available to help ensure that state and local governments, many of which are recipients of federal financial assistance, meet their obligations under federal law. Please feel free to contact the Department's Civil Rights Division for assistance if you have further questions.

Sincerely,

Kristen Clarke
Assistant Attorney General
Civil Rights Division
U.S. Department of Justice

[23] *See, e.g.*, *Jackson v. Birmingham Bd. of Ed.*, 544 U.S. 167, 173 (2005) ("Retaliation against a person because that person has complained of sex discrimination is another form of intentional sex discrimination…"). Examples of agency regulations that prohibit retaliation include 24 C.F.R. § 1.7(e) (Dep't of Housing and Urban Development); 34 C.F.R. § 100.7(e) (Dep't of Education); 38 C.F.R. § 18.7(e) (Dep't of Veterans Affairs); and 45 C.F.R. § 80.7(e) (Dep't of Health and Human Services). Other relevant regulations can be found in the Civil Rights Division's Title VI Legal Manual. Civ. Rts. Div., U.S. Dep't of Justice, *Title VI Legal Manual*, Section VIII, https://www.justice.gov/crt/book/file/1364106/download.

NCA - Gender Dysphoria and Gender Reassignment Surgery (CAG-00446N) - Decision Memo

Links in PDF documents are not guaranteed to work. To follow a web link, please use the MCD Website.

Decision Summary

Currently, the local Medicare Administrative Contractors (MACs) determine coverage of gender reassignment surgery on a case-by-case basis. We received a complete, formal request to make a national coverage determination on surgical remedies for gender identity disorder (GID), now known as gender dysphoria. The Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) is not issuing a National Coverage Determination (NCD) at this time on gender reassignment surgery for Medicare beneficiaries with gender dysphoria because the clinical evidence is inconclusive for the Medicare population.

In the absence of a NCD, coverage determinations for gender reassignment surgery, under section 1862(a)(1)(A) of the Social Security Act (the Act) and any other relevant statutory requirements, will continue to be made by the local MACs on a case-by-case basis. To clarify further, the result of this decision is not national non-coverage rather it is that no national policy will be put in place for the Medicare program. In the absence of a national policy, MACs will make the determination of whether or not to cover gender reassignment surgery based on whether gender reassignment surgery is reasonable and necessary for the individual beneficiary after considering the individual's specific circumstances. For Medicare beneficiaries enrolled in Medicare Advantage (MA) plans, the initial determination of whether or not surgery is reasonable and necessary will be made by the MA plans.

Consistent with the request CMS received, the focus of this National Coverage Analysis (NCA) was gender reassignment surgery. Specific types of surgeries were not individually assessed. We did not analyze the clinical evidence for counseling or hormone therapy treatments for gender dysphoria. As requested by several public commenters, we have modified our final decision memorandum to remove language that was beyond the scope of the specific request. We are not making a national coverage determination related to counseling, hormone therapy treatments, or any other potential treatment for gender dysphoria.

While we are not issuing a NCD, CMS encourages robust clinical studies that will fill the evidence gaps and help inform which patients are most likely to achieve improved health outcomes with gender reassignment surgery, which types of surgery are most appropriate, and what types of physician criteria and care setting(s) are needed to ensure that patients achieve improved health outcomes.

Decision Memo

To: Administrative File: CAG #00446N

From: Tamara Syrek Jensen, JD
Director, Coverage and Analysis Group

Joseph Chin, MD, MS
Deputy Director, Coverage and Analysis Group

James Rollins, MD, PhD
Director, Division of Items and Devices

Elizabeth Koller, MD
Lead Medical Officer

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Linda Gousis, JD
Lead Analyst

Katherine Szarama, PhD
Analyst

Subject: Final Decision Memorandum on Gender Reassignment Surgery for Medicare Beneficiaries with Gender Dysphoria

Date: August 30, 2016

I. Decision

Currently, the local Medicare Administrative Contractors (MACs) determine coverage of gender reassignment surgery on a case-by-case basis. We received a complete, formal request to make a national coverage determination on surgical remedies for gender identity disorder (GID), now known as gender dysphoria. The Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) is not issuing a National Coverage Determination (NCD) at this time on gender reassignment surgery for Medicare beneficiaries with gender dysphoria because the clinical evidence is inconclusive for the Medicare population.

In the absence of a NCD, coverage determinations for gender reassignment surgery, under section 1862(a)(1)(A) of the Social Security Act (the Act) and any other relevant statutory requirements, will continue to be made by the local MACs on a case-by-case basis. To clarify further, the result of this decision is not national non-coverage rather it is that no national policy will be put in place for the Medicare program. In the absence of a national policy, MACs will make the determination of whether or not to cover gender reassignment surgery based on whether gender reassignment surgery is reasonable and necessary for the individual beneficiary after considering the individual's specific circumstances. For Medicare beneficiaries enrolled in Medicare Advantage (MA) plans, the initial determination of whether or not surgery is reasonable and necessary will be made by the MA plans.

Consistent with the request CMS received, the focus of this National Coverage Analysis (NCA) was gender reassignment surgery. Specific types of surgeries were not individually assessed. We did not analyze the clinical evidence for counseling or hormone therapy treatments for gender dysphoria. As requested by several public commenters, we have modified our final decision memorandum to remove language that was beyond the scope of the specific request. We are not making a national coverage determination related to counseling, hormone therapy treatments, or any other potential treatment for gender dysphoria.

While we are not issuing a NCD, CMS encourages robust clinical studies that will fill the evidence gaps and help inform which patients are most likely to achieve improved health outcomes with gender reassignment surgery, which types of surgery are most appropriate, and what types of physician criteria and care setting(s) are needed to ensure that patients achieve improved health outcomes.

II. Background

Below is a list of acronyms used throughout this document.

AHRQ - Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality
AIDS - Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANOVA - Analysis of Variance

APA - American Psychiatric Association
APGAR - Adaptability, Partnership Growth, Affection, and Resolve test
BIQ - Body Image Questionnaire
BSRI - Bem Sex Role Inventory
CCEI - Crown Crips Experimental Index
CDC – Centers for Disease Control
CHIS - California Health Interview Survey
CI - Confidence Interval
CMS - Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services
DAB - Departmental Appeals Board
DSM - Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders
EMBASE - Exerpta Medica dataBASE
FBeK - Fragebogen zur Beurteilung des eigenen Korpers
FDA - Food and Drug Administration
FPI-R - Freiburg Personality Inventory
FSFI - Female Sexual Function Index
GAF - Global Assessment of Functioning
GID - Gender Identity Disorder
GIS - Gender Identity Trait Scale
GRS - Gender Reassignment Surgery
GSI - Global Severity Indices
HADS - Hospital Anxiety Depression Scale
HHS - U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
HIV - Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IIP - Inventory of Interpersonal Problems
IOM - Institute of Medicine
KHQ - King's Health Questionnaire
LGB - Lesbian, Gay, and Bisexual
LGBT - Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender
MAC - Medicare Administrative Contractor
MMPI - Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory
NCA - National Coverage Analysis
NCD - National Coverage Determination
NICE - National Institute for Health Care Excellence
NIH - National Institutes of Health
NZHTA - New Zealand Health Technology Assessment
PIT - Psychological Integration of Trans-sexuals
QOL - Quality of Life
S.D. - Standard Deviation
SADS - Social Anxiety Depression Scale
SCL-90R - Symptom Check List 90-Revised
SDPE - Scale for Depersonalization Experiences
SES - Self Esteem Scale
SF - Short Form
SMR - Standardized Mortality Ratio SOC – Standards of Care
STAI-X1 - Spielberger State and Trait Anxiety Questionnaire
STAI-X2 - Spielberger State and Trait Anxiety Questionnaire
TSCS - Tennessee Self-Concept Scale
U.S. - United States
VAS - Visual Analog Scale
WHOQOL-BREF - World Health Organization Quality of Life - Abbreviated version of the WHOQOL-100
WPATH - World Professional Association for Transgender Health

A. Diagnostic Criteria

The criteria for gender dysphoria or spectrum of related conditions as defined by the American Psychiatric Association (APA) in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) has changed over time (See Appendix A).

Gender dysphoria (previously known as gender identity disorder) is a classification used to describe persons who experience significant discontent with their biological sex and/or gender assigned at birth. Although there are other therapeutic options for gender dysphoria, consistent with the NCA request, this decision only focuses on gender reassignment surgery.

B. Prevalence of Transgender Individuals

For estimates of transgender individuals in the U.S., we looked at several studies.

The Massachusetts Behavior Risk Factor Surveillance Survey (via telephone) (2007 and 2009) identified 0.5% individuals as transgender (Conron et al., 2012).

Derivative data obtained from the 2004 California Lesbian Gay Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) Tobacco Survey (via telephone) and the 2009 California Health Interview Survey (CHIS) (via telephone) suggested the LGB population constitutes 3.2% of the California population and that transgender subjects constitute approximately 2% of the California LGBT population and 0.06% of the overall California population (Bye et al., 2005; CHIS 2009; Gates, 2011).

Most recently, the Williams Institute published a report that utilized data from the Centers for Disease Control's (CDC) Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS). Overall, they found that 0.6% or 1.4 million U.S. adults identify as transgender. The report further estimated 0.7% of adults between the ages of 18-25 identify as transgender, 0.6% of adults between the ages of 25-65 identify as transgender, and 0.5% of adults age 65 or older identify as transgender (Flores et al., 2016).

In a recent review of Medicare claims data, CMS estimated that in calendar year 2013 there were at least 4,098 transgender beneficiaries (less than 1% of the Medicare population) who utilized services paid for by Medicare, of which 90% had confirmatory diagnosis, billing codes, or evidence of a hormone therapy prescription. The Medicare transgender population is racially and ethnically diverse (e.g., 74% White, 15% African American) and spans the entire country. Nearly 80% of transgender beneficiaries are under age 65, including approximately 23% ages 45-54. (CMS Office of Minority Health 2015).

For international comparison purposes, recent estimates of transgender populations in other countries are similar to those in the United States. New Zealand researchers, using passport data, reported a prevalence of 0.0275% for male-to-female adults and 0.0044% female-to-male adults (6:1 ratio) (Veale, 2008). Researchers from a centers of transgender treatment and reassignment surgery in Belgium conducted a survey of regional plastic surgeons and reported a prevalence of 0.008% male-to-female and 0.003% female-to-male (ratio 2.7:1) surgically reassigned transsexuals in Belgium (De Cuypere et al., 2007). Swedish researchers, using national mandatory reporting data on those requesting reassignment surgery, reported secular changes over time in that the number of completed reassignment surgeries per application increased markedly in the 1990s; the male-to- female/female-to-male sex ratio changed from 1:1 to 2:1; the age of male-to-female and female-to-male applicants was initially similar, but increased by eight years for male-to-female applicants; and the proportion of foreign born applicants increased (Olsson and Moller 2003).

III. History of Medicare Coverage

Date	Action
August 1, 1989	CMS published the initial NCD, titled "140.3, Transsexual Surgery" in the Federal Register. (54 Fed. Reg. 34,555, 34,572)
May 30, 2014	The HHS Departmental Appeals Board (DAB) determined that the NCD denying coverage for all transsexual surgery was not valid. As a result, MACs determined coverage on a case-by-case basis.

CMS does not currently have a NCD on gender reassignment surgery.

A. Current Request

On December 3, 2015, CMS accepted a formal complete request from a beneficiary to initiate a NCA for gender reassignment surgery.

CMS opened this National Coverage Analysis (NCA) to thoroughly review the evidence to determine whether or not gender reassignment surgery may be covered nationally under the Medicare program.

B. Benefit Category

Medicare is a defined benefit program. For an item or service to be covered by the Medicare program, it must fall within one of the statutorily defined benefit categories as outlined in the Act. For gender reassignment surgery, the following are statutes are applicable to coverage:

Under §1812 (Scope of Part A) Under §1832 (Scope of Part B)
Under §1861(s) (Definition of Medical and Other Health Services)
Under §1861(s)(1) (Physicians' Services)

This may not be an exhaustive list of all applicable Medicare benefit categories for this item or service.

IV. Timeline of Recent Activities

Timeline of Medicare Coverage Policy Actions for Gender Reassignment Surgery

Date	Action
December 3, 2015	CMS accepts an external request to open a NCD. A tracking sheet was posted on the web site and the initial 30 day public comment period commenced.
January 2, 2016	Initial comment period closed. CMS received 103 comments.
June 2, 2016	Proposed Decision Memorandum posted on the web site and the final 30 day public comment period commenced.
July 2, 2016	Final comment period closed. CMS received 45 comments.

V. FDA Status

Surgical procedures per se are not subject to the Food and Drug Administration's (FDA) approval.

Inflatable penile prosthetic devices, rigid penile implants, testicular prosthetic implants, and breast implants have been approved and/or cleared by the FDA.

VI. General Methodological Principles

In general, when making national coverage determinations, CMS evaluates relevant clinical evidence to determine whether or not the evidence is of sufficient quality to support a finding that an item or service is reasonable and necessary for the diagnosis or treatment of illness or injury or to improve the functioning of a malformed body member. (§ 1862 (a)(1)(A)). The evidence may consist of external technology assessments, internal review of published and unpublished studies, recommendations from the Medicare Evidence Development & Coverage Advisory Committee (MEDCAC), evidence-based guidelines, professional society position statements, expert opinion, and public comments.

The overall objective for the critical appraisal of the evidence is to determine to what degree we are confident that: 1) specific clinical question relevant to the coverage request can be answered conclusively; and 2) the extent to which we are confident that the intervention will improve health outcomes for patients.

A detailed account of the methodological principles of study design the agency staff utilizes to assess the relevant literature on a therapeutic or diagnostic item or service for specific conditions can be found in Appendix B. In general, features of clinical studies that improve quality and decrease bias include the selection of a clinically relevant cohort, the consistent use of a single good reference standard, blinding of readers of the index test, and reference test results.

VII. Evidence

A. Introduction

Below is a summary of the evidence we considered during our review, primarily articles about clinical trials published in peer- reviewed medical journals. We also considered articles cited by the requestor, articles identified in public comments, as well as those found by a CMS literature review. Citations are detailed below.

B. Literature Search Methods

CMS staff extensively searched for primary studies for gender dysphoria. The emphasis focused less on specific surgical techniques and more on functional outcomes unless specific techniques altered those types of outcomes.

The reviewed evidence included articles obtained by searching literature databases and technology review databases from PubMed (1965 to current date), EMBASE, the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ), the Blue Cross/Blue Shield Technology Evaluation Center, the Cochrane Collection, the Institute of Medicine, and the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) as well as the source material for commentary, guidelines, and formal evidence-based documents published by professional societies. Systematic reviews were used to help locate some of the more obscure publications and abstracts.

Keywords used in the search included: Trans-sexual, transgender, gender identity disorder (syndrome), gender dysphoria and/or hormone therapy, gender surgery, genital surgery, gender reassignment (surgery), sex reassignment (surgery) and/or quality of life, satisfaction-regret, psychological function (diagnosis of mood disorders, psychopathology, personality disorders), suicide (attempts), mortality, and adverse events-reoperations. After the identification of germane publications, CMS also conducted searches on the specific psychometric instruments used by investigators.

Psychometric instruments are scientific tools used to measure individuals' mental capabilities and behavioral style. They are usually in the form of questionnaires that numerically capture responses. These tools are used to create a psychological profile that can address questions about a person's knowledge, abilities, attitudes and personality traits. In the evaluation of patients with gender dysphoria, it is important that both validity and reliability be assured in the construction of the tool (validity refers to how well the tool actually measures what it was designed to measure, or how well it reflects the reality it claims to represent, while reliability refers to how accurately results of the tool would be replicated in a second identical piece of research). Reliability and validity are important because when evaluating patients with gender dysphoria most of the variables of interest (e.g., satisfaction, anxiety, depression) are latent in nature (not directly observed but are rather inferred) and difficult to quantify objectively.

Studies with robust study designs and larger, defined patient populations assessed with objective endpoints or validated test instruments were given greater weight than small, pilot studies. Reduced consideration was given to studies that were underpowered for the assessment of differences or changes known to be clinically important. Studies with fewer than 30 patients were reviewed and delineated, but excluded from the major analytic framework. Oral presentations, unpublished white papers, and case reports were excluded. Publications in languages other than English were excluded. The CMS initial internal search for the proposed decision memorandum was limited to articles published prior to March 21, 2016. The CMS internal search for the final decision memorandum continued through articles published prior to July 22, 2016.

Included studies were limited to those with adult subjects. Review and discussion of the management of children and adolescents with the additional considerations of induced pubertal delay are outside the scope of this NCD. In cases where the same population was studied for multiple reasons or where the patient population was expanded over time, the latest and/or most germane sections of the publications were analyzed. The excluded duplicative publications are delineated.

CMS also searched Clinicaltrials.gov to identify relevant clinical trials. CMS looked at trial status including early termination, completed, ongoing with sponsor update, and ongoing with estimated date of completion. Publications on completed trials were sought. For this final decision, CMS also reviewed all evidence submitted via public comment.

C. Discussion of Evidence

The development of an assessment in support of Medicare coverage determinations is based on the same general question for almost all national coverage analyses (NCAs): "Is the evidence sufficient to conclude that the application of the item or service under study will improve health outcomes for Medicare patients?" For this specific NCA, CMS is interested in answering the following question:

Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that gender reassignment surgery improves health outcomes for Medicare beneficiaries with gender dysphoria?

The evidence reviewed is directed towards answering this question.

1. Internal Technology Assessment

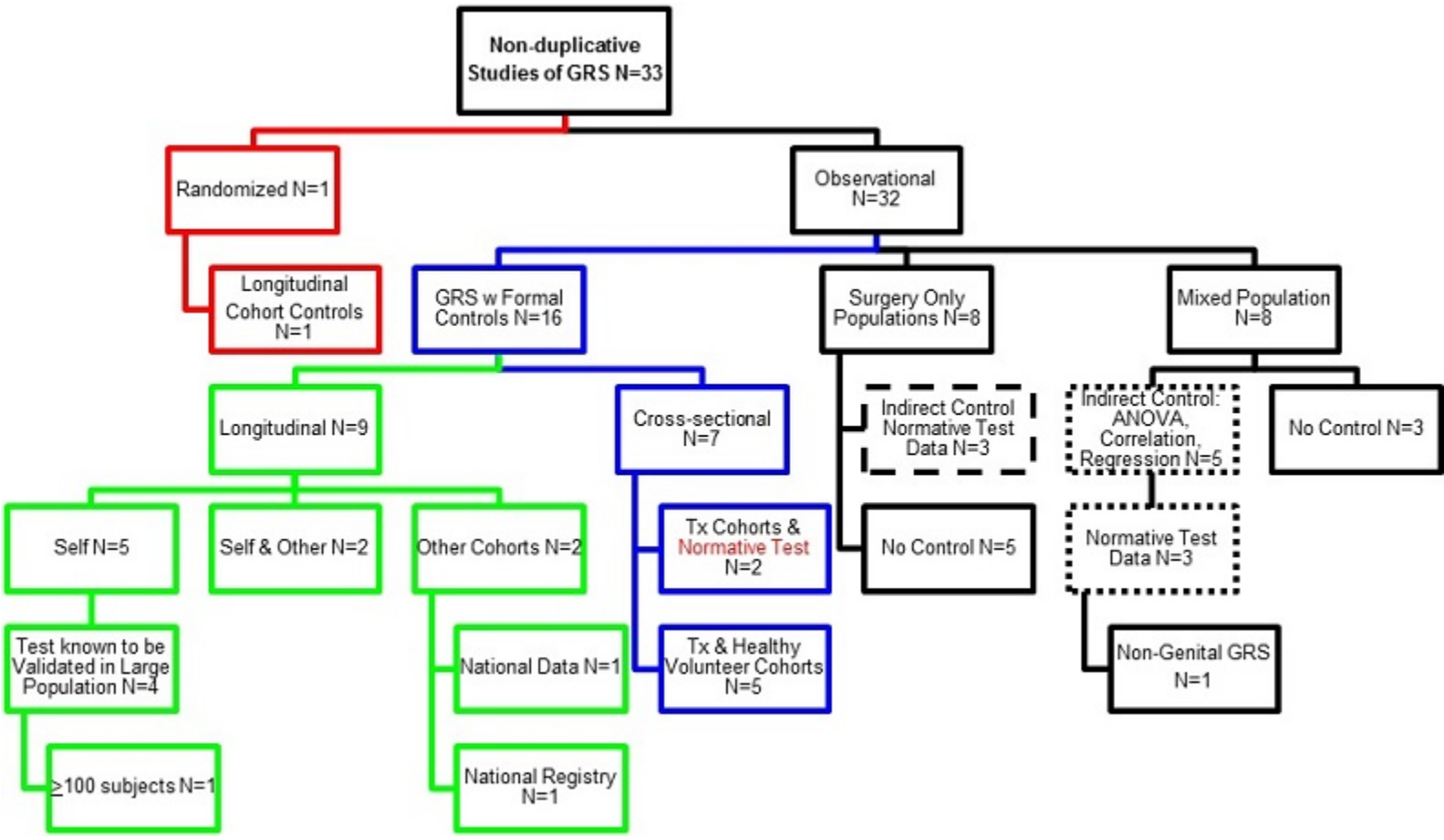
CMS conducted an extensive literature search on gender reassignment related surgical procedures and on facets of gender dysphoria that provide context for this analysis. The latter includes medical and environmental conditions.

CMS identified numerous publications related to gender reassignment surgery. A large number of these were case reports, case series with or without descriptive statistics, or studies with population sizes too small to conduct standard parametric statistical analyses. Others addressed issues of surgical technique.

CMS identified and described 36 publications on gender reassignment surgery that included health outcomes. Because the various investigators at a site sometimes conducted serial studies on ever-enlarging cohort populations, studied sub-populations, studied different outcomes, or used different tools to study the same outcomes, not all study populations were unique. To reduce bias from over-lapping populations, only the latest or most germane publication(s) were described. Subsumed publications were delineated.

Of these 36 publications, two publications used different assessment tools on the same population, and, so for the purposes of evaluation, were classified as one study (Udeze et al., 2008; Megeri and Khoosal, 2007). A total of 33 studies were reviewed (See Figure 1). Appendices C, D, and F include more detail of each study. The publications covered a time span from 1979 to 2015. Over half of the studies were published after 2005.

Figure 1. Studies of Gender Reassignment Surgery (GRS)



ANOVA=Analysis of Variance Normative=Psychometric Tests with known normative for large populations

Figure 1 Legend: The studies in Figure 1 are categorized into three groups. The first group, depicted by the colored

boxes (red, blue, and green), had explicit controls. There was a single randomized study. The remainder in the first group were observational studies. These were subdivided into longitudinal studies and cross-sectional studies. The second group, depicted by black boxes (starting with the surgery only population box) consisted of surgical series. The third group, depicted by black boxes (starting with mixed population), was composed of patients whose treatment could involve a variety of therapeutic interventions, but who were not stratified by that treatment.

When looking at the totality of studies, the 33 studies could be characterized by the following research design groups:

a. Observational, mixed population of surgical and non-surgical patients without stratification

Asscheman H, Giltay EJ, Megens JA, de Ronde WP, van Trotsenburg MA, Gooren LJ. A long-term follow-up study of mortality in transsexuals receiving treatment with cross-sex hormones. Eur J Endocrinol. 2011 Apr;164(4):635-42. Epub 2011 Jan 25.

Asscheman et al. conducted a retrospective, non-blinded, observational study of mortality using a longitudinal design to assess a mixed population treated with hormones, as well as, reassignment surgery in comparison to a population-based cohort. The study was not designed to assess the specific impact of gender reassignment surgery on clinical outcomes.

The investigators assessed mortality in patients who (a) were from a single-center, unspecified, Dutch university specialty clinic, (b) had initiated cross-sex hormone treatment prior to July 1, 1997, and (c) had been followed (with or without continued hormone treatment) by the clinic for at least one year or had expired during the first year of treatment. The National Civil Record Registry (Gemeentelijke Basis Administratie) was used to identify/confirm deaths of clinic patients. Information on the types or hormones used was extracted from clinic records, and information on the causation of death was extracted from medical records or obtained from family physicians. Mortality data for the general population were obtained through the Central Bureau of Statistics of the Netherlands (Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek). Mortality data from Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) and substance abuse were extracted from selected Statistics Netherlands reports. The gender of the general Dutch population comparator group was the natal sex of the respective gender dysphoric patient groups.

A total of 1,331 patients who met the hormone treatment requirements were identified (365 female-to-male [27.4%]; 966 male- to-female [72.6%]; ratio 1:2.6). Of these, 1,177 (88.4%) underwent reassignment surgery (343 [94.0% of female-to-male entrants]; 834 [86.3% of male-to-female entrants]; ratio difference 1:2.4 with a p-value $p<0.0001$). Later calculations did not distinguish between those with hormone therapy alone versus those with hormone therapy plus reassignment surgery. The mean age at the time of hormone initiation in female-to-male and male-to-female patients was 26.1±7.6 (range 16–56) years and 31.4±11.4 (range 16–76) years respectively, although the male-to-female subjects were relatively older ($p<0.001$). The mean duration of hormone therapy in female-to-male and male-to-female patients was 18.8±6.3 and 19.4±7.7 years respectively.

There were a total of 134 deaths in the clinic population using hormone therapy with or without surgical reassignment. Of these patients, 12 (3.3%) of the 365 female-to-male patients and 122 (12.6%) of the 966 male-to-female patients died. All-cause mortality for this mixed population was 51% higher and statistically significant (Standardized Mortality Ratio [SMR] 95% confidence interval [CI]) 1.47-1.55) for males-to-females when compared to males in the general Dutch population. The increase in all-cause mortality (12%) for females-to-males when compared to females in the general Dutch population was not statistically significant (95% CI 0.87-1.42).

Ischemic heart disease was a major disparate contributor to excess mortality in male-to-female patients but only in older patients (n=18, SMR 1.64 [95% CI 1.43-1.87]), mean age [range]: 59.7 [42-79] years. Current use of a

particular type of estrogen, ethinyl estradiol, was found to contribute to death from myocardial infarction or stroke (Adjusted Hazard Ratio 3.12 [95% CI 1.28-7.63], p=0.01). There was a small, but statistically significant increase in lung cancer that was thought to possibly be related to higher rates of smoking in this cohort.

Other contributors to the mortality difference between male-to-female patients and the Dutch population at large were completed suicide (n=17, SMR 5.70 [95% CI 4.93-6.54]), AIDS (n=16, SMR 30.20 [95% CI 26.0-34.7]), and illicit drug use (n=5, SMR 13.20 [95% CI 9.70-17.6]). An additional major contributor was "unknown cause" (n=21, SMR 4.00 [95% CI 3.52-4.51]). Of the 17 male-to-female hormone treated patients who committed suicide, 13 (76.5%) had received prior psychiatric treatment and six (35.3%) had not undergone reassignment surgery because of concerns about mental health stability.

Overall mortality, and specifically breast cancer and cardiovascular disease, were not increased in the hormone-treated female-to-male patients. Asscheman et al. reported an elevated SMR for illicit drug use (n=1, SMR 25 [6.00-32.5]). This was the cause of one of the 12 deaths in the cohort.

This study subsumes earlier publications on mortality (Asscheman et al. 1989 [n=425]; Van Kesteren et al. 1997 [n=816]).

Gómez-Gil E, Zubiaurre-Elorza L, Esteva I, Guillamon A, Godás T, Cruz Almaraz M, Halperin I, Salamero M. Hormone-treated transsexuals report less social distress, anxiety and depression. Psychoneuroendocrinology. 2012 May;37(5):662-70. Epub 2011 Sep 19.

Gómez-Gil et al. conducted a prospective, non-blinded observational study using a cross-sectional design and non-specific psychiatric distress tools in Spain. The investigators assessed anxiety and depression in patients with gender dysphoria who attended a single-center specialty clinic with comprehensive endocrine, psychological, psychiatric, and surgical care. The clinic employed World Professional Association for Transgender Health (WPATH) guidelines. Patients were required to have met diagnostic criteria during evaluations by 2 experts. Investigators used the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) and the Social Anxiety and Distress Scale (SADS) instruments. The SADS total score ranges from 0 to 28, with higher scores indicative of more anxiety. English language normative values are 9.1±8.0. HAD-anxiety and HAD-depression total score ranges from 0 to 21, with higher scores indicative of more pathology. Scores less than 8 are normal. ANOVA was used to explore effects of hormone and surgical treatment.

Of the 200 consecutively selected patients recruited, 187 (93.5% of recruited) were included in the final study population. Of the final study population, 74 (39.6%) were female-to-male patients; 113 (60.4%) were male-to-female patients (ratio 1:1.5); and 120 (64.2%) were using hormones. Of those using hormones, 36 (30.0%) were female-to-male; 84 (70.0%) were male-to-female (ratio 1:2.3). The mean age was 29.87±9.15 years (range 15-61). The current age of patients using hormones was 33.6±9.1 years (n=120) and older than the age of patients without hormone treatment (25.9±7.5) (p=0.001). The age at hormone initiation, however, was 24.6±8.1 years.

Of those who had undergone reassignment surgery, 29 (36.7%) were female-to-male; 50 (63.3%) were male-to-female (ratio 1:1.7). The number of patients not on hormones and who had undergone at least one gender-related surgical procedure (genital or non-genital) was small (n=2). The number of female-to-male patients on hormones who had undergone such surgery (mastectomy, hysterectomy, and/or phalloplasty) was 28 (77.8%). The number of male-to-female patients on hormones who had undergone such surgery (mammoplasty, facial feminization, buttock feminization, vaginoplasty, orchiectomy, and/or vocal feminization (thyroid chondroplasty) was 49 (58.3%).

Analysis of the data revealed that although the mean scores HAD-Anxiety, HAD-Depression, and SADS were statistically lower (better) in those on hormone therapy than in those not on hormone therapy, the mean scores for

HAD-Depression and SADS were in the normal range for gender dysphoric patients not using hormones. The HAD-Anxiety score was 9 in transsexuals without hormone treatment and 6.4 in transsexuals with hormone treatment. The mean scores for HAD-Anxiety, HAD- Depression, and SADS were in the normal range for gender dysphoric patients using hormones. ANOVA revealed that results did not differ by whether the patient had undergone a gender related surgical procedure or not.

Gómez-Gil E, Zubiaurre-Elorza L, de Antonio I, Guillamon A, Salamero M. Determinants of quality of life in Spanish transsexuals attending a gender unit before genital sex reassignment surgery. Qual Life Res. 2014 Mar;23(2):669-76. Epub 2013 Aug 13.

Gómez-Gil et al. conducted a prospective, non-blinded observational study using a non-specific quality of life tool. There were no formal controls for this mixed population ± non-genital reassignment surgery undergoing various stages of treatment.

The investigators assessed quality of life in the context of culture in patients with gender dysphoria who were from a single-center (Barcelona, Spain), specialty and gender identity clinic. The clinic used WPATH guidelines. Patients were required to have met diagnostic criteria during evaluations by both a psychologist and psychiatrist. Patients could have undergone non-genital surgeries, but not genital reassignment surgeries (e.g., orchiectomy, vaginoplasty, or phalloplasty). The Spanish version of the World Health Organization Quality of Life-Abbreviated version of the WHOQOL-100 (WHOQOL- BREF) was used to evaluate quality of life, which has 4 domains (environmental, physical, psychological, and social) and 2 general questions. Family dynamics were assessed with the Spanish version of the Family Adaptability, Partnership Growth, Affection, and Resolve (APGAR) test. Regression analysis was used to explore effects of surgical treatment.

All consecutive patients presenting at the clinic (277) were recruited and, 260 (93.9%) agreed to participate. Of this number, 59 of these were excluded for incomplete questionnaires, 8 were excluded for prior genital reassignment surgery, and 193 were included in the study (the mean age of this group was 31.2±9.9 years (range 16-67). Of these, 74 (38.3%) were female-to-male patients; 119 (61.7%) were male-to-female patients (ratio1:1.6). Of these, 120 (62.2%) were on hormone therapy; 29 (39.2%) of female-to-male patients had undergone at least 1 non-genital, surgical procedure (hysterectomy n=19 (25.7%); mastectomy n=29 (39.2%)); 51 (42.9%) of male-to-female patients had undergone at least one non-genital surgical procedure with mammoplasty augmentation being the most common procedure, n=47 (39.5%), followed by facial feminization, n=11 (9.2%), buttocks feminization, n=9 (7.6%), and vocal feminization (thyroid chondroplasty), n=2 (1.7%).

WHOQOL-BREF domain scores for gender dysphoric patients with and without non-genital surgery were: "Environmental" 58.81±14.89 (range 12.50-96.88), "Physical" 63.51±17.79 (range 14.29-100), "Psychological" 56.09+16.27 (range 16.67- 56.09), "Social" 60.35±21.88 (range 8.33-100), and "Global QOL and Health" 55.44+27.18 (range 0-100 with higher score representing better QOL). The mean APGAR family score was 7.23±2.86 (range 0-10 with a score of 7 or greater indicative of family functionality).

Regression analysis, which was used to assess the relative importance of various factors to WHOQOL-BREF domains and general questions, revealed that family support was an important element for all four domains and the general health and quality- of-life questions. Hormone therapy was an important element for the general questions and for all of the domains except "Environmental." Having undergone non-genital reassignment surgery, age, educational levels, and partnership status, did not impact domain and general question results related to quality of life.

Hepp U, Kraemer B, Schnyder U, Miller N, Delsignore A. Psychiatric comorbidity in gender identity disorder. J Psychosom Res. 2005 Mar;58(3):259-61.

Hepp et al. conducted a single-site (Zurich, Switzerland) prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design. There was some acquisition of retrospective data. The investigators assessed current and lifetime psychiatry co-morbidity using structured interviews for diagnosis of Axis 1 disorders (clinical syndromes) and Axis 2 disorders (developmental or personality disorders) and HADS for dimensional evaluation of anxiety and depression. Statistical description of the cohort and intra-group comparisons was performed. Continuous variables were compared using t-tests and ANOVA.

A total of 31 patients with gender dysphoria participated in the study: 11 (35.5%) female-to-male; 20 (64.5%) male-to-female (ratio 1:1.8). The overall mean age was 32.2±10.3 years. Of the participants, seven had undergone reassignment surgery, 10 pre- surgical patients had been prescribed hormone therapy, and 14 pre-surgical patients had not been prescribed hormone therapy. Forty five and one half percent of female-to-male and 20% of male-to-female patients did not carry a lifetime diagnosis of an Axis 1 condition. Sixty three and six tenths percent of female-to-male and 60% of male-to-female patients did not carry a current diagnosis of an Axis 1 condition. Lifetime diagnosis of substance abuse and mood disorder were more common in male-to-female patients (50% and 55% respectively) than female-to-male patients (36.4% and 27.3% respectively). Current diagnosis of substance abuse and mood disorder were present in male-to-female patients (15% and 20% respectively) and absent in female-to-male patients. One or more personality disorders were identified 41.9%, but whether this was a current or lifetime condition was not specified. Of the patients, five (16.1%) had a Cluster A personality disorder (paranoid-schizoid), seven (22.6%) had a Cluster B personality disorder (borderline, anti-social, histrionic, narcissistic), six (19.4%) had a Cluster C personality disorder (avoidant, dependent, obsessive-compulsive), and two (6.5%) were not otherwise classified.

HADS scores were missing for at least one person. The HADS test revealed non-pathologic results for depression (female-to-male: 6.64±5.03; male-to-female: 6.58±4.21) and borderline results for anxiety (female-to-male: 7.09±5.11; male-to-female: 7.74±6.13, where a result of 7-10 = possible disorder). There were no differences by natal gender. The investigators reported a trend for less anxiety and depression as measured by HADS in the patients who had undergone surgery.

Johansson A, Sundbom E, Höjerback T, Bodlund O. A five-year follow-up study of Swedish adults with gender identity disorder. Arch Sex Behav. 2010 Dec;39(6):1429-37. Epub 2009 Oct 9.

Johansson et al. conducted a two center (Lund and Umeå, Sweden) non-blinded, observational study using a semi-cross-sectional design (albeit over an extended time interval) using a self-designed tool and Axis V assessment. The study was prospective except for the acquisition of baseline Axis V data. There were no formal controls in this mixed population with and without surgery.

The investigators assessed satisfaction with the reassignment process, employment, partnership, sexual function, mental health, and global satisfaction in gender-reassigned persons from two disparate geographic regions. Surgical candidates were required to have met National Board of Health and Welfare criteria including initial and periodic psychiatric assessment, ≥1 year of real-life experience in preferred gender, and ≥1 year of subsequent hormone treatment. In addition, participants were required to have been approved for reassignment five or more years prior and/or to have completed surgical reassignment (e.g., sterilization, genital surgery) two or more years prior. The investigators employed semi-structured interviews covering a self-designed list of 55 pre-formulated questions with a three or five point ordinal scale. Clinician assessment of Global Assessment of Functioning (GAF; Axis V) was also conducted and compared to initial finding during the study. Changes or differences considered to be biologically significant were not pre- specified except for GAF, which pre-specified a difference to mean change ≥5 points. Statistical corrections for multiple comparisons were not included. There was no stratification by treatment.

Of the pool of 60 eligible patients, 42 (70.0% of eligible) (17 [40.5 %] female-to-male; 25 [59.5%] male-to-female;

ratio 1:1.5) were available for follow-up. Of these, 32 (53.3% of eligible) (14 [43.8%] female-to-male; 18 [56.2%] male-to-female [ratio 1:1.3]) had completed genital gender reassignment surgery (not including one post mastectomy), five were still in the process of completing surgery, and five (one female-to-male; four male- to-female; ratio 1:4) had discontinued the surgical process prior to castration and genital surgery.

The age (ranges) of the patients at entry into the program, reassignment surgery, and follow-up were 27.8 (18-46), 31.4 (22- 49), and 38.9 (28-53) years in the female-to-male group respectively and 37.3 (21-60), 38.2 (22-57), and 46.0 (25.0-69.0) years in the male- to-female group respectively. The differences in age by cohort group were statistically significant. Of participants, 88.2% of all enrolled female-to-male versus 44.0% of all enrolled female-to-male patients had cross-gender identification in childhood (versus during or after puberty) ($p<0.01$).

Although 95.2% of all enrolled patients self-reported improvement in GAF, in contrast, clinicians determined GAF improved in 61.9% of patients. Clinicians observed improvement in 47% of female-to-male patients and 72% of male-to- female patients. A ≥5 point improvement in the GAF score was present in 18 (42.9%). Of note, three of the five patients who were in the process of reassignment and five of the five who had discontinued the process were rated by clinicians as having improved.

Of all enrolled 95.2% (with and without surgery) reported satisfaction with the reassignment process. Of these 42 patients, 33 (79%) identified themselves by their preferred gender and nine (21%) identified themselves as transgender. None of these nine (eight male-to-female) had completed reassignment surgery because of ambivalence secondary to lack of acceptance by others and dissatisfaction with their appearance. Of the patients who underwent genital surgery (n=32) and mastectomy only (n=one), 22 (66.7%) were satisfied while four (three female-to-male) were dissatisfied with the surgical treatment.

Regarding relationships after surgery, 16 (38.1%) (41.2% of female- to-male; 36.0% of male-to-female patients) were reported to have a partner. Yet more than that number commented on partner relationships: (a) 62.2 % of the 37 who answered (50.0% of female- to- male; 69.6% of male-to-female patients) reported improved partner relationships (five [11.9%] declined to answer.); (b) 70.0% of the 40 who answered (75.0% of female-to-male; 66.7% of male-to-female patients) reported an improved sex life. Investigators observed that reported post-operative satisfaction with sex life was statistically more likely in those with early rather than late cross-gender identification. In addition 55.4% self-reported improved general health; 16.1% reported impaired general health; 11.9% were currently being treated with anti-depressants or tranquilizers.

This study subsumes earlier work by Bodlund et al. (1994, 1996). The nationwide mortality studies by Dhejne et al. (2011) may include all or part of this patient population.

Leinung M, Urizar M, Patel N, Sood S. Endocrine treatment of transsexual persons: extensive personal experience. Endocr Pract. 2013 Jul-Aug;19(4):644-50. (United States study)

Leinung et al. conducted a single-center (Albany, New York) a partially prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and descriptive statistics. There were no formal controls. The investigators assessed employment, substance abuse, psychiatric disease, mood disorders, Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) status in patients who had met WPATH guidelines for therapy, and who had initiated cross-sex hormone treatment.

A total of 242 patients treated for gender identity disorder in the clinic from 1992 through 2009 inclusive were identified. The number of those presenting for therapy almost tripled over time. Of these patients, 50 (20.7%) were female-to-male; 192 (79.3%) male-to-female (ratio 1:3.8).

The age of female-to-male and male-to-female patients with gender dysphoria at the time of clinic presentation was 29.0 and 38.0 years respectively.

The female-to-male and male-to-female patients with gender dysphoria at the time of hormone initiation were young: 27.5 and 35.5 years old respectively ($p<0.5$). Of the male-to-female cohort, 19 (7.8%) had received hormone therapy in the absence of physician supervision; Of the patient population, 91 (37.6%) had undergone gender-reassignment surgery (32 female-to-male [64.0% of all female-to- male; 35.2% of all surgical patients]; 59 male-to-female [30.7% of all male-to-female; 64.8% of all surgical patients]; ratio 1:1.8).

Psychiatric disease was more common in those who initiated hormone therapy at an older age (>32 years) 63.9% versus 48.9% at a younger age and by natal gender (48.0% of female-to-male; 58.3% male-to-female). Mood disorders were more common in those who initiated hormone therapy at an older age (>32 years) 52.1% versus 36.0% at a younger age and this finding did not differ by natal gender (40.0% of female-to-male; 44.8% male-to-female). The presence of mood disorders increased the time to reassignment surgery in male-to-female patients.

Motmans J , Meier P, Ponnet K, T'Sjoen G. Female and male transgender quality of life: socioeconomic and medical differences. J Sex Med. 2012 Mar;9(3):743-50. Epub 2011 Dec 21.

Motmans et al., conducted a prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and a non-specific quality of life tool. No concurrent controls were used in this study. Quality of life in this Dutch-speaking population was assessed using the Dutch version of a SF-36 (normative data was used). Participants included subjects who were living in accordance with the preferred gender and who were from a single Belgian university specialty clinic at Ghent. The Dutch version of the SF-36 questionnaire along with its normative data were used. Variables explored included employment, pension status, ability to work, being involved in a relationship. Also explored, was surgical reassignment surgery and the types of surgical interventions. Intragroup comparisons by transgender category were conducted, and the relationships between variables were assessed by analysis of variance (ANOVA) and correlations.

The age of the entire cohort (n=140) was 39.89±10.21 years (female-to-male: 37.03±8.51; male-to-female: 42.26±10.39). Results of the analysis revealed that not all female-to-male patients underwent surgical reassignment surgery and, of those who did, not all underwent complete surgical reassignment. The numbers of female-to-male surgical interventions were: mastectomy 55, hysterectomy 55, metaoidplasty eight (with five of these later having phalloplasty), phalloplasty 40, and implantation of a prosthetic erectile device 20. The frequencies of various male-to-female surgical interventions were: vaginoplasty 48, breast augmentation 39, thyroid cartilage reduction 17, facial feminization 14, and hair transplantation three.

The final number of subjects with SF-36 scores was 103 (49 [47.6%] female-to-male; 54 [52.4%] male-to-female; ratio 1:1.1). For this measure, the scores for the vitality and mental health domains for the final female-to-male cohort (n= 49 and not limited to those having undergone some element of reassignment surgery) were statistically lower: 60.61±18.16 versus 71.9±18.31 and 71.51±16.40 versus 79.3±16.4 respectively. Scores were not different from the normative data for Dutch women: vitality: 64.3±19.7 or mental health 73.7±18.2. None of the domains of the SF-36 for the final male-to-female cohort (n=54 and not limited to those having undergone some element of reassignment surgery) were statistically different from the normative data for Dutch women.

Analysis of variance indicated that quality of life as measured by the SF-36 did not differ by whether female-to-male patients had undergone genital surgery (metaoidoplasty or phalloplasty) or not. Also, ANOVA indicated that quality of life as measured by the SF-36 did not differ by whether male-to-female patients had undergone either breast augmentation or genital surgery (vaginoplasty) or not.

Whether there is overlap with the Ghent populations studied by Heylens et al. or Weyers et al. is unknown.

Newfield E, Hart S, Dibble S, Kohler L. Female-to-male transgender quality of life. Qual Life Res. 2006 Nov;15(9):1447-57. Epub 2006 Jun 7. (United States study)

Newfield et al. conducted a prospective, observational internet self-report survey of unknown blinding status using a cross- sectional design and a non-specific quality of life tool in a mixed population with and without hormone therapy and/or reassignment surgery. There were no formal controls.

The investigators recruited natal female participants identifying as male using email, internet bulletin boards, and flyers/postcards distributed in the San Francisco Bay Area. Reduction of duplicate entries by the same participant was limited to the use of a unique user name and password.

The investigators employed the Short-Form 36 (SF-36) Version 2 using U.S. normative data. They reported using both male and female normative data for the comparator SF-36 cohort. Data for the eight domains were expressed as normative scoring. The Bonferroni correction was used to adjust for the risk of a Type 1 error with analyses using multiple comparisons.

A total of 379 U.S. respondents classified themselves as males-or-females to males with or without therapeutic intervention. The mean age of the respondents who classified themselves as male or female-to-male was 32.6±10.8 years. Of these 89% were Caucasian, 3.6% Latino, 1.8% African American, 1.8% Asian, and 3.8% other. Of these, 254 (67.0%) reported prior or current testosterone use while 242 (63.8%) reported current testosterone use. In addition, 136 (36.7%) reported having had "top" surgery and 11 (2.9%) reported having "bottom" surgery.

Complete SF-36 data were available for 376 U.S. respondents. For the complete, non-stratified U.S. cohort the Physical Summary Score (53.45±9.42) was statistically higher (better) than the natal gender unspecified SF-36 normative score (50±10) (p=<0.001), but was within one standard deviation of the normative mean. The Mental Summary Score (39.63±12.2) was statistically lower (worse) than the natal gender unspecified SF-36 normative score (50±10) (p<0.001), but was well within two standard deviations of the normative mean. Subcomponents of this score: Mental Health (42.12±10.2), Role Emotional (42.42±11.6), Social Functioning (43.14±10.9), and Vitality (46.22±9.9) were statistically lower (worse) than the SF-36 normative sub-scores, but well within one standard deviation of the normative sub- score means. Interpretive information for these small biologic differences in a proprietary assessment tool was not provided.

Additional intragroup analyses were conducted, although the data were not stratified by type of therapeutic intervention (hormonal, as well as, surgical). Outcomes of hormone therapy were considered separately and dichotomously from reassignment surgery. The Mental Summary Score was statistically higher (better) in those who had "Ever Received Testosterone" (41.22±11.9) than those with "No Testosterone Usage" (36.08±12.6) (p=0.001). The Mental Summary Scores showed a trend towards statistical difference between those who "Ever Received Top Surgery" (41.21±11.6) and those without "Top Surgery" (38.01±12.5) (p=0.067). These differences were well within one standard deviation of the normative mean. Interpretive information for these small biologic differences in a proprietary assessment tool was not provided.

b. Observational, surgical series, without concurrent controls

Blanchard R, Steiner BW, Clemmensen LH. Gender dysphoria, gender reorientation, and the clinical management of transsexualism. J Consult Clin Psychol. 1985 Jun; 53(3):295-304.

Blanchard et al. conducted a single-center (Ontario, Canada), prospective, non-blinded, cross-sectional study using a self-designed questionnaire and a non- specific psychological symptom assessment with normative data. The investigators assessed social adjustment and psychopathology in patients with gender dysphoria and who were at least one year post gender reassignment surgery. Reassignment surgery was defined as either vaginoplasty or mastectomy/construction of male chest contour with or without nipple transplants, but did not preclude additional procedures. Partner preference was determined using Blanchard's Modified Androphilia-Gynephilia Index, and the nature and extent of any psychopathology was determined with the Symptom Check List 90-Revised (SCL-90R). Differences in test scores considered to be biologically significant were not pre-specified in the methods.

Of the 294 patients (111 natal females and 183 natal males, ratio: 1:1.65) initially evaluated, 263 were diagnosed with gender dysphoria. Of these 79 patients participated in the study (38 female-to-male; 32 male-to-female with male partner preference; 9 male-to-female with female partner preference). The respective mean ages for these 3 groups were 32.6, 33.2, and 47.7 years with the last group being older statistically (p=0.01).

Additional surgical procedures in female-to-male patients included: oophorectomy/hysterectomy (92.1%) and phalloplasty (7.9%). Additional surgical procedures in male-to-female patients with male partner preference included facial hair electrolysis 62.5% and breast implantation (53.1%). Additional procedures in male-to-female patients with female partner preference included facial hair electrolysis (100%) and breast implantation (33.3%). The time between reassignment surgery and questionnaire completion did not differ by group.

Psychopathology as measured by the Global Severity Index of the SCL-90R was absent in all three patient groups. Interpretation did not differ by the sex of the normative cohort.

Of participants, 63.2% of female-to-male patients cohabitated with partners of their natal gender; 46.9% of male-to-female patients with male partner preference cohabitated with partners of their natal gender; and no male-to-female patients with female partner preference cohabitated with partners of their natal gender.

Of participants, 93.7% reported that they would definitely undergo reassignment surgery again. The remaining 6.3% (one female-to-male; one male-to-female with male partner preference; three male-to-female with female partner preference) indicated that they probably would undertake the surgery again. Post hoc analysis suggested that the more ambivalent responders had more recently undergone surgery. Of responders, 98.7% indicated that they preferred life in the reassigned gender. The one ambivalent subject was a skilled and well compensated tradesperson who was unable to return to work in her male dominated occupation.

Eldh J, Berg A, Gustafsson M. Long-term follow up after sex reassignment surgery. Scand J Plast Reconstr Surg Hand Surg. 1997 Mar;31(1):39-45.

Eldh et al. conducted a non-blinded, observational study using a prospective cross-sectional design with an investigator designed questionnaire and retrospective acquisition of pre-operative data. The investigators assessed economic circumstances, family status, satisfaction with surgical results, and sexual function in patients who had undergone gender reassignment surgery.

Of the 175 patients who underwent reassignment surgery in Sweden, 90 responded. Of this number, 50 were female-to-male and 40 were male-to-female (ratio: 1:0.8). Patients reportedly were generally satisfied with the appearance of the reconstructed genitalia (no numbers provided). Of the patients who had undergone surgery prior to 1986, seven (14%) were dissatisfied with shape or size of the neo-phallus; eight (16%) declined comment. There were 14 (35%), with 12 having surgery prior to 1986 and two between 1986 and 1995 inclusive, were moderately satisfied because of insufficient vaginal volume; 8 (20%) declined comment. A neo-clitoris was not constructed until the later surgical cohort. Three of 33 reported no sensation or no sexual sensation. Eight had difficulties

comprehending the question and did not respond.

A total of nine (18%) patients had doubts about their sexual orientation; 13 (26%) declined to answer the question. The study found that two female-to- male patients and two male-to-female patients regretted their reassignment surgery and continued to live as the natal gender, and two patients attempted suicide.

Hess J, Rossi Neto R, Panic L, Rübben H, Senf W. Satisfaction with male-to-female gender reassignment surgery. Dtsch Arztebl Int. 2014 Nov 21;111(47):795-801.

Hess at al. conducted a prospective, blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and a self-designed anonymous questionnaire. The investigators assessed post-operative satisfaction in male-to-female patients with gender dysphoria who were followed in a urology specialty clinic (Essen, Germany). Patients had met the ICD-10 diagnostic criteria, undergone gender reassignment surgeries including penile inversion vaginoplasty, and a Likert-style questionnaire with 11 elements. Descriptive statistics were provided.

There were 254 consecutive eligible patients who had undergone surgery between 2004 and 2010 identified and sent surveys, of whom 119 (46.9%) responded anonymously. Of the participants, 13 (10.9%) reported dissatisfaction with outward appearance and 16 (13.4%) did not respond; three (2.5%) reported dissatisfaction with surgical aesthetics and 25 (21.0%) did not respond; eight (6.7%) reported dissatisfaction with functional outcomes of the surgery and 26 (21.8%) did not respond; 16 (13.4%) reported they could not achieve orgasm and 28 (23.5%) did not respond; four (3.4%) reported feeling completely male/more male than female and 28 (23.5%) did not respond; six (5.0%) reported not feeling accepted as a woman, two (1.7%) did not understand the question, and 17 (14.3%) did not respond; and 16 (13.4%) reported that life was harder and 24 (20.2%) did not respond.

Lawrence A. Patient-reported complications and functional outcomes of male-to-female sex reassignment surgery. Arch Sex Behav. 2006 Dec;35(6):717-27. Epub 2006 Nov 16. (United States study)

Lawrence conducted a prospective, blinded observational study using a cross-sectional design and a partially self-designed quality of life tool using yes/no questions or Likert scales. The investigator assessed sexual function, urinary function, and other pre/post-operative complications in patients who underwent male-to-female gender reassignment surgery. Questions addressed core reassignment surgery (neo-vagina and sensate neo-clitoris) and related reassignment surgery (labiaplasty, urethral meatus revision, vaginal deepening/widening, and other procedures), use of electrolysis, and use of hormones.

Questionnaires were designed to be completed anonymously and mailed to 727 eligible patients. Of those eligible, 232 (32%) returned valid questionnaires. The age at the time reassignment surgery was 44±9 (range 18-70) years and mean duration after surgery was 3±1 (range 1-7) years.

Happiness with sexual function and the reassignment surgery was reported to be lower when permanent vaginal stenosis, clitoral necrosis, pain in the vagina or genitals, or other complications such as infection, bleeding, poor healing, other tissue loss, other tissue necrosis, urinary incontinence, and genital numbness were present. Quality of life was impaired when pain in the vagina or genitals was present.

Satisfaction with sexual function, gender reassignment surgery, and overall QOL was lower when genital sensation was impaired and when vaginal architecture and lubrication were perceived to be unsatisfactory. Intermittent regret regarding reassignment surgery was associated with vaginal hair and clitoral pain. Vaginal stenosis was associated with surgeries performed in the more distant past; whereas, more satisfaction with vaginal depth and width was present in more recent surgical treatment.

Salvador J, Massuda R, Andreazza T, Koff WJ, Silveira E, Kreische F, de Souza L, de Oliveira MH, Rosito T, Fernandes BS, Lobato MI. Minimum 2-year follow up of sex reassignment surgery in Brazilian male-to-female transsexuals. Psychiatry Clin Neurosci. 2012 Jun; 66(4):371-2. PMID: 22624747.

Salvador et al. conducted a single center (Port Alegre, Brazil) prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design (albeit over an extended time interval) and a self-designed quality of life tool. The investigators assessed regret, sexual function, partnerships, and family relationships in patients who had undergone gender reassignment surgery at least 24 months prior.

Out of the 243 enrolled in the clinic over a 10 year interval, 82 underwent sex reassignment surgery. There were 69 participants with a minimum 2-year follow up, of whom 52 patients agreed to participate in the study. The age at follow-up was 36.3±8.9 (range 15-58) years with the time to follow-up being 3.8±1.7 (2-7) years. A total of 46 participants reported pleasurable neo-vaginal sex and post-surgical improvement in the quality of their sexual experience. The quality of sexual intercourse was rated as satisfactory to excellent, average, unsatisfactory, or not applicable in the absence of sexual contact by 84.6%, 9.6%, 1.9%, and 3.8% respectively. Of the participants, 78.8% reported greater ease in initiating and maintaining relationships; 65.4% reported having a partner; 67.3% reported increased frequency of intercourse; 36.8% reported improved familial relationships. No patient reported regret over reassignment surgery. The authors did not provide information about incomplete questionnaires.

Tsoi WF. Follow-up study of transsexuals after sex-reassignment surgery. Singapore Med J. 1993 Dec; 34(6):515-7.

Tsoi conducted a single-center (Singapore) prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and a self-designed quality of life tool. The investigator assessed overall life satisfaction, employment, partner status, and sexual function in gender-reassigned persons who had undergone gender reassignment surgery between 1972 and 1988 inclusive and who were approximately 2 to 5 years post-surgery. Acceptance criteria for surgery included good physical health, good mental health, absence of heterosexual tendencies, willingness to undergo hormonal therapy for ≥6 months, and willingness to function in the life of the desired gender for ≥6 months. Tsoi also undertook retrospective identification of variables that could predict outcomes.

The size of the pool of available patients was not identified. Of the 81 participants, 36 (44.4%) were female-to-male and 45 (55.6%) were male-to-female (ratio 1:1.25).

The mean ages at the time of the initial visit and operation were: female-to-male 25.4±4.4 (range 14-36) and 27.4 ±4.0; (range 14-36); male-to-female 22.9±4.6 (range 14-36) and 24.7±4.3 (14-36) years respectively. Of all participants, 14.8% were under age 20 at the time of the initial visit. All were at least 20 at the time of gender reassignment surgery. The reported age of onset was 8.6 years for female-to-male patients and 8.7 years for male-to-female patients.

All participants reported dressing without difficulty in the reassigned gender; 95% of patients reported good or satisfactory adjustment in employment and income status; 72% reported good or satisfactory adjustment in relationships with partners. Although the quality of life tool was self-designed, 81% reported good or satisfactory adjustment to their new gender, and 63% reported good or acceptable satisfaction with sexual activity. Of the female-to-male patients, 39% reported good or acceptable satisfaction with sex organ function in comparison to 91% of male-to-female patients ($p<0.001$). (The author reported that a fully functioning neo-phallus could not be constructed at the time.) The age of non-intercourse sexual activity was the only predictor of an improved outcome.

Weyers S, Elaut E, De Sutter P, Gerris J, T'Sjoen G, Heylens G, De Cuypere G, Verstraelen H. Long-term assessment of the physical, mental, and sexual health among transsexual women. J Sex Med. 2009 Mar;6(3):752-60. Epub 2008 Nov 17.

Weyers at al. (2009) conducted a prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and several measurement instruments including a non-specific quality of life tool and a semi-specific quality of life tool (using normative data) along with two self-designed tools.

The investigators assessed general quality of life, sexual function, and body image from the prior four weeks in Dutch-speaking male-to-female patients with gender dysphoria who attended a single-center (Ghent, Belgium), specialized, comprehensive care university clinic. Investigators used the Dutch version of the SF-36 and results were compared to normative data from Dutch women and U.S. women. The 19 items of the Dutch version of the Female Sexual Function Index (FSFI) were used to measure sexual desire, function, and satisfaction. A self-designed seven question visual analog scale (VAS) was used to measure satisfaction with gender related body traits and appearance perception by self and others. A self-designed survey measured a broad variety of questions regarding personal medical history, familial medical history, relationships, importance of sex, sexual orientation, gynecologic care, level of regret, and other health concerns. For this study, hormone levels were also obtained.

The study consisted of 50 (71.5% of the eligible recruits) participants. Analysis of the data revealed that the patient's average age was 43.1 ±10.4 years, and all of the patients had vaginoplasty. This same population also had undergone additional feminization surgical procedures (breast augmentation 96.0%, facial feminization 36.0%, vocal cord surgery 40.0%, and cricoid cartilage reduction 30.0%). A total of two (4.0%) participants reported "sometimes" regretting reassignment surgery and 23 (46.0%) were not in a relationship. For the cohort, estradiol, testosterone, and sex hormone binding globulin levels were in the expected range for the reassigned gender. The SF-36 survey revealed that the subscale scores of the participants did not differ substantively from those of Dutch and U.S. women. VAS scores of body image were highest for self-image, appearance to others, breasts, and vulva/vagina (approximately 7 to 8 of 10). Scores were lowest for body hair, facial hair, and voice characteristics (approximately 6 to 7 of 10).

The total FSFI score was 16.95±10.04 out of a maximal 36. The FSFI scores averaged 2.8 (6 point maximum): satisfaction 3.46±1.57, desire 3.12+1.47, arousal 2.95±2.17, lubrication 2.39±2.29, orgasm 2.82±2.29, and pain 2.21±2.46. Though these numbers were reported in the study, data on test population controls were not provided.

A post hoc exploration of the data suggested the following: perceived improvement in general health status was greater in the subset that had undergone reassignment surgery within the last year; sexual orientation impacted the likelihood of being in a relationship; SF-36 scores for vitality, social functioning, and mental health were nominally better for those in relationships, but that overall SF-36 scores did not differ by relationship status; sexual orientation and being in a relationship impacted FSFI scores; and reported sexual function was higher in those with higher satisfaction with regards to their appearance.

Wierckx K, Van Caenegem E, Elaut E, Dedecker D, Van de Peer F, Toye K, Weyers S, Hoebeke P, Monstrey S, De Cuypere G, T'Sjoen G. Quality of life and sexual health after sex reassignment surgery in transsexual men. J Sex Med. 2011 Dec;8 (12):3379-88. Epub 2011 Jun 23.

Wierckx at al. conducted a prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and several measurement instruments (a non-specific quality of life tool with reported normative data along with three self-designed tools). The investigators assessed general quality of life, sexual relationships, and surgical complications in Dutch-speaking female-to-male patients with gender dysphoria who attended a single-center, specialized, comprehensive care, university clinic (Ghent, Belgium). Investigators used the Dutch version of the SF-36 with 36 questions, eight subscales, and two domains evaluating physical and mental health. Results were compared to normative data from Dutch women and Dutch men. Self -designed questionnaires to evaluate aspects of medical history, sexual functioning (there were separate versions for those with and without partners), and surgical results were also used. The Likert-style format was used for many of the questions.

A total of 79 female-to-male patients with gender dysphoria had undergone reassignment surgery were recruited; ultimately, 47 (59.5%) chose to participate. Three additional patients were recruited by other patients. One of the 50 participants was later excluded for undergoing reassignment surgery within the one year window. The age of patients was: 30±8.2 years (range 16 to 49) at the time of reassignment surgery and 37.1 ±8.2 years (range 22 to 54) at the time of follow-up. The time since hysterectomy, oopherectomy, and mastectomy was 8 years (range 2 to 22). The patient population had undergone additional surgical procedures: metaidoiplasty (n=9; 18.4%), phalloplasty (n=8 after metaidoiplasty, 38 directly; 93.9% total), and implantation of erectile prosthetic device (n=32; 65.3%). All had started hormonal therapy at least two years prior to surgery and continued to use androgens.

The SF-36 survey was completed by 47 (95.9%) participants. The "Vitality" and the "Mental Health" scales were lower than the Dutch male population: 62.1±20.7 versus 71.9±18.3 and 72.6±19.2 versus 79.3±16.4 respectively. These subscale scores were equivalent to the mean scores of the Dutch women.

None of the participants were dissatisfied with their hysterectomy-oopherectomy procedures; 4.1% were dissatisfied with their mastectomies because of extensive scarring; and 2.2% were dissatisfied with their phalloplasties. Of the participants, 17.9% were dissatisfied with the implantation of an erectile prosthetic device; 25 (51.0%) reported at least one post-operative complication associated with phalloplasty (e.g., infection, urethrostenosis, or fistula formation); 16 (50.0% of the 32 with an erectile prosthetic device) reported at least one post-operative complication associated with implantation of an erectile prosthetic (e.g., infection, leakage, incorrect positioning, or lack of function).

A total of 18 (36.7%) participants were not in a relationship; 12.2% reported the inability to achieve orgasm with self-stimulation less than half the time; 12.2% did not respond to the question. Of those participants with partners, 28.5% reported the inability to achieve orgasm with intercourse less than half the time and 9.7% did not respond to this question. Also, 61.3% of those with partners reported (a) no sexual activities (19.4%) or (b) activities once or twice monthly (41.9%), and there were 12.9% who declined to answer.

c. Observational, surgical patients, cross-sectional, with controls

Ainsworth TA, Spiegel JH. Quality of life of individuals with and without facial feminization surgery or gender reassignment surgery. Qual Life Res. 2010 Sep;19(7):1019-24.

Ainsworth and Spiegel conducted a prospective, observational study using a cross-sectional design and a partially self-designed survey tool. The blind status is unknown. Treatment types served as the basis for controls.

The investigators, head and neck surgeons who provided facial feminization services, assessed perception of appearance and quality of life in male-to-female subjects with self-reported gender dysphoria. Patients could have received no therapeutic intervention, hormone therapy, reassignment surgery, and/or facial feminization surgery and an unrestricted length of transition. (Transition refers to the time when a transgender person begins to live as the gender with which they identify rather than the gender assigned at birth.) Criteria for the various types of interventions were not available because of the survey design of the study. Patients were recruited via website or at a 2007 health conference. Pre-specified controls to eliminate duplicate responders were not provided. The investigators employed a self-designed Likert-style facial feminization outcomes evaluation questionnaire and a "San Francisco 36" health questionnaire. No citations were provided for the latter. It appears to be the Short-form (SF) 36-version 2. Changes or differences considered to be biologically significant were not pre-specified. Power corrections for multiple comparisons were not provided.

The investigators reported that there were 247 participants. (The numbers of incomplete questionnaires was not reported.) Of the 247 participants, 25 (10.1%) received only primary sex trait reassignment surgery, 28 (11.3%)

received facial surgery without primary sex trait reassignment surgery, 47 (19.0%) received both facial and primary sex trait reassignment surgery, and 147 (59.5%) received neither facial nor reassignment surgery.

The mean age for each of these cohorts was: 50 years (no standard deviation [S.D.]) only reassignment surgery, 51 years (no S.D.) only facial surgery, 49 years (no S.D.) both types of surgery, and 46 years (no S.D.) (neither surgery). Of the surgical cohorts: 100% of those who had undergone primary sex trait reassignment surgery alone used hormone therapy, 86% of those who had undergone facial feminization used hormone therapy, and 98% of those who had undergone both primary sex trait reassignment surgery and facial feminization used hormone therapy. In contrast to the surgical cohorts, 66% of the "no surgery" cohort used hormonal therapy, and a large proportion (27%) had been in transition for less than one year.

The investigators reported higher scores on the facial outcomes evaluation in those who had undergone facial feminization. Scores of the surgical cohorts for the presumptive SF-36 comprehensive mental health domain did not differ from the general U.S. female population. Scores of the "no surgery" cohort for the comprehensive mental health domain were statistically lower than those of the general U.S. female population, but within one standard deviation of the normative mean. Mean scores of all the gender dysphoric cohorts for the comprehensive physical domain were statistically higher than those of the general female U.S. population, but were well within one standard deviation of the normative mean. Analyses of inter-cohort differences for the SF-36 results were not conducted. Although the investigators commented on the potential disproportionate impact of hormone therapy on outcomes and differences in the time in "transition", they did not conduct any statistical analyses to correct for putative confounding variables.

Kraemer B, Delsignore A, Schnyder U, Hepp U. Body image and transsexualism. Psychopathology. 2008;41(2):96-100. Epub 2007 Nov 23.

Kraemer et al. conducted a single center (Zurich, Switzerland) prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design comparing pre-and post- surgical cohorts. Patients were required to meet DSM III or DSM IV criteria as applicable to the time of entry into the clinic. Post-surgical patients were from a long-term study group (Hepp et al., 2002). Pre-surgical patients were recent consecutive referrals. The assessment tool was the Fragebogen zur Beurteilung des eigenen Korpers (FBeK) which contained three domains.

There were 23 pre-operative patients: 7 (30.4%) female-to-male and 16 (69.6%) male-to-female (ratio 1:2.3). There were 22 post-operative patients: 8 (36.4 %) female-to-male and 14 (63.6%) male-to-female (ratio 1:1.8). The mean ages of the cohorts were as follows: pre-operative 33.0±11.3 years; post-operative 38.2±9.0 years. The mean duration after reassignment surgery was 51±25 months (range 5-96).

The pre-operative groups had statistically higher insecurity scores compared to normative data for the natal sex: female-to-male 9.0±3.8 versus 5.1±3.7; male-to-female 8.1±4.5 versus 4.7±3.1 as well as statistically lower self-confidence in one's attractiveness: female-to-male 3.1±2.9 versus 8.9±3.1; male-to-female 7.0±2.9 vs 9.5±2.6.

Mate-Kole C, Freschi M, Robin A. Aspects of psychiatric symptoms at different stages in the treatment of transsexualism. Br J Psychiatry. 1988 Apr;152: 550-3.

Mate-Kole at al. conducted a single site (London, United Kingdom) prospective non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and two psychological tests (one with some normative data). Concurrent controls were used in this study design. The investigators assessed neuroticism and sex role in natal males with gender dysphoria. Patients at various stages of management, (i.e., under evaluation, using cross-sex hormones, or post reassignment surgery [6 months to 2 years]) were matched by age of cross-dressing onset, childhood neuroticism, personal psychiatric history, and family psychiatric history. Both a psychologist and psychiatrist conducted assessments. The

instruments used were the Crown Crisp Experiential Index (CCEI) for psychoneurotic symptoms and the Bem Sex Role Inventory. ANOVA was used to identify differences between the three treatment cohorts.

For each cohort, investigators recruited 50 male-to-female patients from Charing Cross Hospital. The mean ages of the three cohorts were as follows: 34 years for patients undergoing evaluation; 35 years for wait-listed patients; and 37 years for post-operative patients. For the cohorts, 22% of those under evaluation, 24% of those on hormone treatment only, and 30% of those post-surgery had prior psychiatric histories, and 24%, 24%, while 14% in each cohort, respectively, had a history of attempted suicide. More than 30% of patients in each cohort had a first degree relative with a history of psychiatric disease.

The scores for the individual CCEI domains for depression and somatic anxiety were statistically higher (worse) for patients under evaluation than those on hormone treatment alone. The scores for all of the individual CCEI domains (free floating anxiety, phobic anxiety, somatic anxiety, depression, hysteria, and obsessionality) were statistically lower in the post-operative cohort than in the other two cohorts.

The Bem Sex Role Inventory masculinity score for the combined cohorts was lower than for North American norms for either men or women. The Bem Sex Role Inventory femininity score for the combined cohorts was higher than for North American norms for either men or women. Those who were undergoing evaluation had the most divergent scores from North American norms and from the other treatment cohorts. Absolute differences were small. All scores of gender dysphoric patients averaged between 3.95 and 5.33 on a 7 point scale while the normative scores averaged between 4.59 and 5.12.

Wolfradt U, Neumann K. Depersonalization, self-esteem and body image in male-to-female transsexuals compared to male and female controls. Arch Sex Behav. 2001 Jun;30(3):301-10.

Wolfradt and Neumann conducted a controlled, prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design. The investigators assessed aspects of personality in male-to-female patients who had undergone vocal cord surgery for voice feminization and in healthy non-transgender volunteers from the region. The patients had undergone gender reassignment surgery 1 to 5 years prior to voice surgery. The volunteers were matched by age and occupation.

The primary hypothesis was that depersonalization, with the sense of being detached from one’s body or mental processes, would be more common in male-to- female patients with gender dysphoria. German versions of the Scale for Depersonalization Experiences (SDPE), the Body Image Questionnaire (BIQ), a Gender Identity Trait Scale (GIS), and the Self-Esteem Scale (SES) were used in addition to a question regarding global satisfaction. Three of the assessments used a 5 point scale (BIQ, GIS, and SDPE) for questions. One used a 4 point scale (SES). Another used a 7 point scale (global satisfaction). The study consisted of 30 male-to-female patients, 30 healthy female volunteers, and 30 healthy male volunteers. The mean age of study participants was 43 years (range 29- 67).

Results of the study revealed that there were no differences between the three groups for the mean scores of measures assessing depersonalization, global satisfaction, the integration of masculine traits, and body-image-rejected (subset). Also, the sense of femininity was equivalent for male-to-female patients and female controls and higher than that in male controls. The levels of self-esteem and body image-dynamic (subset) were equivalent for male-to-female patients and male controls and higher than that in female controls, and none of the numeric differences between means exceeded 0.61 units.

Kuhn A, Bodmer C, Stadlmayr W, Kuhn P, Mueller M, Birkhäuser M. Quality of life 15 years after sex reassignment surgery for transsexualism. Fertil Steril. 2009 Nov;92(5):1685-1689.e3. Epub 2008 Nov 6.

Kuhn et al. conducted a prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and semi-matched control cohort. The investigators assessed global satisfaction in patients who were from gynecology and endocrinology clinic (Bern, Switzerland), and who had undergone some aspect of gender reassignment surgery in the distant past, but were still receiving cross-sex hormones from the clinic. The quality of life assessment tools included a VAS and the King's Health Questionnaire (KHQ), which consists of eight domains with scores between zero and five or one and five, with lower scores indicating higher preference. The KHQ and the numerical change/difference required for clinical significance (≥5 points in a given domain, with higher scores being more pathologic) were included in the publication. Twenty healthy female controls from the medical staff who had previously undergone an abdominal or pelvic surgery were partially matched by age and body mass index (BMI), but not sex. No corroborative gynecologic or urologic evaluations were undertaken.

Of the 55 participants, three (5.4%) were female-to-male and 52 (94.5%) were male-to-female (ratio 1:17.3). Reassignment surgery had been conducted 8 to 23 years earlier (median 15 years). The median age of the patients at the time of this study was 51 years (range 39-62 years). The patients had undergone a median of nine surgical procedures in comparison to the two undergone by controls. Reassignment patients were less likely to be married (23.6% versus 65%; p=0.002); partnership status was unknown in five patients. The scores of VAS global satisfaction (maximal score eight) were lower for surgically reassigned patients (4.49±0.1 SEM) than controls (7.35±0.26 SEM) (p<0.0001).

The abstract stated that quality of life was lower in reassignment patients 15 years after surgery relative to controls. One table in the study, Table 2, delineated statistically and biologically significant differences for four of the eight KHQ domains between the patients and controls: physical limitation: 37.6±2.3 versus 20.9±1.9 (p<0.0001), personal limitation: 20.9±1.9 versus 11.6±0.4 (p<0.001), role limitation: 27.8+2.4 versus 34.6+1.7 (p=0.046), and general health: 31.7±2.2 versus 41.0±2.3 (p<0.02). There is a related paper by Kuhn et al. 2006.

Haraldsen IR, Dahl AA. Symptom profiles of gender dysphoric patients of transsexual type compared to patients with personality disorders and healthy adults. Acta Psychiatr Scand. 2000 Oct;102(4):276-81.

Haraldsen and Dahl conducted a single-center (Oslo, Norway) partially prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and a non-specific psychometric test. There was a control group, but it was not concurrent.

In the germane sub-study, the investigator assessed psychopathology in patients with gender dysphoria. Patients, who were independently evaluated by two senior psychiatrists, were required to meet DSM III-R or DSM IV diagnostic criteria and the Swedish criteria for reassignment surgery. The Norwegian version of the SCL-90 was used. The testing was conducted from 1987 to 1989 for those who had undergone reassignment surgery between 1963 and 1987 and from 1996 to 1998 for pre- surgical patients who had applied for reassignment surgery between 1996 and 1998. In addition, Axis I, Axis II, and Axis V (Global Functioning) was assessed.

Of 65 post–surgical and 34 pre-surgical patients, 59 post-surgical and 27 pre-surgical patients ultimately entered the study. The combined cohorts consisted of 35 (40.7%) female-to-male patients and 51 (59.3%) male-to-female patients (ratio 1:1.5). The ages were female-to-male 34±9.5 years and female-to-male 33.3±10.0 years. The other control group consisted of patients with personality disorder. Of these, 101 (27 men (33.9±7.3 years) and 74 women (31.6±8.2) were tested during a treatment program. One year later, 98% were evaluated. A total of 28 (32.5%) of the pre- and post- reassignment surgery patients had an Axis I diagnosis compared to 100 (99.0%) of those with personality disorders. Depression and anxiety were the most common diagnoses in both groups, but were approximately three to four times more common in the personality disorder cohort. Seventeen (19.8%) of the pre- and post-reassignment surgery patients had an Axis II diagnosis whereas the mean number of personality disorders in the personality disorder cohort was 1.7±1. The Global Assessment of Function was higher (better) in the gender

dysphoric groups (78.0±8.9) than in the personality disorder cohort (53.0±9.0).

Global Severity Indices (GSI) were highest for those with personality disorder regardless of gender and exceeded the cut-point score of 1.0. The GSI scores for females-to-males and males-to-females were 0.67±57 and 0.56±0.45. Although they were nominally higher than the healthy normative controls (males: 0.32±0.36 and females 0.41±0.43), they were well within the non- pathologic range. The same was true for the subscales.

SCL-90 GSI scores did not differ substantively between pre- and post-surgical patients, nor did the SCI subscale scores differ substantively between pre- and post-surgical patients. Any small non-significant differences tracked with the age and sex differences.

Beatrice J. A psychological comparison of heterosexuals, transvestites, preoperative transsexuals, and postoperative transsexuals. J Nerv Ment Dis. 1985 Jun;173(6):358-65. (United States study)

Beatrice conducted a prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and control cohorts in the U.S. The investigator assessed psychological adjustment and functioning (self-acceptance) in male-to-female patients with gender dysphoria (with and without GRS), transvestites from two university specialty clinics, and self-identified heterosexual males recruited from the same two universities. The criteria to qualify for the study included being known to the clinic for at least one year, cross-dressing for at least one year without arrest, attendance at 10 or more therapy sessions, emotionally self-supporting, and financially capable of payment for reassignment surgery, and all of these criteria were met by the pre-operative cohort as well as the post-operative cohort. The cohorts were matched to the post-operative cohort (age, educational level, income, ethnicity, and prior heterosexual object choice). The post-operative cohort was selected not on the basis of population representation, but on the basis of demographic feasibility for a small study. The instruments used were the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). Changes or differences considered to be biologically significant were not pre-specified.

Of the initial 54 recruits, ten subjects were left in each of the cohorts because of exclusions identified due to demographic factors. The mean age of each cohort were as follows: pre-operative gender dysphoric patients 32.5 (range 27-42) years, postoperative patients 35.1 (30-43) years old, transvestite 32.5 (29-37) years old, and heterosexual male 32.9 (28-38) years old. All were Caucasian. The mean age for cross-dressing in pre-operative patients (6.4 years) and post-operative patients (5.8 years) was significantly lower than for transvestites (11.8 years).

The scores for self-acceptance did not differ by diagnostic category or surgical status as measured by the TSCS instrument. As measured by the T-scored MMPI instrument (50±10), levels of paranoia and schizophrenia were higher for post-operative (GRS) patients (63.0 and 68.8) than transvestites (55.6 and 59.6) and heterosexual males (56.2 and 51.6). Levels of schizophrenia were higher for pre-operative patients (65.1) than heterosexual males (51.6). There were no differences between patients with gender dysphoria. Scores for the Masculine-Feminine domain were equivalent in those with transvestitism and gender dysphoria with or without surgery, but higher than in heterosexual males. The analysis revealed that despite the high level of socio-economic functioning in these highly selected subjects, the MMPI profiles based on the categories with the highest scores were notable for antisocial personality, emotionally unstable personality, and possible manic psychosis in the pre-operative GRS patients and for paranoid personality, paranoid schizophrenia, and schizoid personality in the post-operative GRS patients. By contrast, the same MMPI profiling in heterosexual males and transvestites was notable for the absence of psychological dysfunction.

d. Observational, surgical patients, longitudinal, with controls

Dhejne C, Lichtenstein P, Boman M, Johansson A, Långström N, Landén M. Long-term follow-up of transsexual persons undergoing sex reassignment surgery: cohort study in Sweden. PLoS One. 2011;6(2):e16885. Epub 2011 Feb 22.

Dhejne et al. conducted a retrospective, non-blinded, observational study of nation-wide mortality using a longitudinal and a population-based matched cohort. The investigators assessed conditions such as, but not limited to, mortality, suicide attempts, psychiatric hospitalization, and substance abuse in gender-reassigned persons and randomly selected unexposed controls matched by birth year and natal sex (1:10) as well as by birth year and the reassigned gender (1:10). Data were extracted from national databases including the Total Population Register (Statistics Sweden), the Medical Birth Register, the Cause of Death Register (Statistics Sweden), the Hospital Discharge Register (National Board of Health and Welfare), the Crime Register (National Council of Crime), and those from the Register of Education for highest educational level. The criteria required to obtain the initial certificate for reassignment surgery and change in legal status from the National Board of Health and Welfare were the 2002 WPATH criteria and included evaluation and treatment by one of six specialized teams, name change, a new national identity number indicative of gender, continued use of hormones, and sterilization/castration. Descriptive statistics with hazard ratios were provided.

Investigators identified 804 patients with gender identity disorder (or some other disorder) in Sweden during the period from 1973 to 2003 inclusive. Of these patients, 324 (40.3%) underwent gender-reassignment surgery (133 female-to-male [41.0%]; 191 male-to-female [59.0%]; ratio 1:1.4). The average follow-up time for all-cause mortality was 11.4 years (median 9.1). The average follow-up time for psychiatric hospitalization was 10.4 years (median 8.1).

The mean ages in female-to-male and male-to-female reassigned patients were: 33.3±8.7 (range 20–62) and 36.3± 10.1 (range 21–69) years, respectively. Immigrant status was two times higher in reassigned patients (n=70, 21.6%) than in either type of control (birth [natal] sex matched n=294 [9.1%] or reassigned gender matched n=264 [8.1%]). Educational attainment (10 or more years) was somewhat lower for reassigned patients (n=151 [57.8%]) than in either type of control (birth sex matched n=1,725 [61.5%] or reassigned gender matched n=1804 [64.3%]) (cohort data were incomplete). The biggest discordance in educational attainment was for female-to-male reassigned patients regardless of the control used. Prior psychiatric morbidity (which did not include hospitalization for gender dysphoria) was more than four times higher in reassigned patients (n=58, 17.9%) than in either type of control (birth sex matched n=123 [3.8%] or reassigned gender matched n=114 [3.5%]).

All-cause mortality was higher for patients who underwent gender reassignment surgery (n=27 [8.3%]) than in controls (hazard ratio 2.8 [CI 1.8-4.3]) even after adjustment for covariants (prior psychiatric morbidity and immigration status). Divergence in the survival curves began at 10 years. Survival rates at 20 year follow-up (as derived from figure 1) were: female control 97%, male controls 94%, female-to-male patients 88%, and male-to-female patients 82%. The major contributor to this mortality difference was completed suicide (n=10 [3.1%]; adjusted hazard ratio 19.1 [CI 5.8-62.9]). Mortality due to cardiovascular disease was modestly higher for reassigned patients (n=9 [2.8%]) than in controls (hazard ratio 2.5 [CI 1.2-5.3]).

Suicide attempts were more common in patients who underwent gender reassignment surgery (n= 29 [9.0%] than in controls (adjusted hazard ratio 4.9 [CI 2.9–8.5]). Male-to-female patients were at higher adjusted risk for attempted suicide than either control whereas female-to-male patients were at higher adjusted risk compared to only male controls and maintained the female pattern of higher attempted suicide risk. Hospitalizations for psychiatric conditions (not related to gender dysphoria) were more common in reassigned persons n= 64 [20.0%] than in controls (hazard ratio 2.8 [CI 2.0–3.9]) even after adjusting for prior psychiatric morbidity. Hospitalization for substance abuse was not greater than either type of control.

The nationwide mortality studies by Dhejne et al. (2011) includes much, if not all, of the Landén (1998) patient population and much of the Dhejne et al. (2014) population.

Dhejne C, Öberg K, Arver S, Landén M. An analysis of all applications for sex reassignment surgery in Sweden, 1960-2010: prevalence, incidence, and regrets. Arch Sex Behav. 2014 Nov;43(8):1535-45. Epub 2014 May 29 and Landén M, Wålinder J, Hambert G, Lundström B. Factors predictive of regret in sex reassignment. Acta Psychiatr Scand. 1998 Apr;97(4):284 (Dhejne et al., 2014; Landén et al., 1998) Sweden-All

Dhejne et al. conducted a non-blinded, observational study that was longitudinal for the capture of patients with "regret" in a national database. This same group (Landén et al., 1998) conducted a similar study along with retrospective acquisition of clinical data to explore the differences between the cohorts with and without regret. There were no external controls; only intra- group comparisons for this surgical series.

The investigators assessed the frequency of regret for gender reassignment surgery. Data were extracted from registries at the National Board of Health and Welfare to which patients seeking reassignment surgery or reversal of reassignment surgery make a formal application and which has maintained such records since a 1972 law regulating surgical and legal sex reassignment. The investigators reviewed application files from 1960 through 2010. The specific criteria to qualify for gender surgery were not delineated. Patients typically underwent diagnostic evaluation for at least one year. Diagnostic evaluation was typically followed by the initiation of gender confirmation treatment including hormonal therapy and real-life experience. After two years of evaluation and treatment, patients could make applications to the national board. Until recently sterilization or castration were the required minimal surgical procedures (Dhejne et al., 2011). Secular changes in this program included consolidation of care to limited sites, changes in accepted diagnostic criteria, and provision of non-genital surgery, e.g., mastectomy during the real- life experience phase, and family support.

There were 767 applicants for legal and surgical reassignment (289 [37.7%] female-to-male and 478 [62.3%] male-to-female; ratio 1:1.6). The number of applicants doubled each ten year interval starting in 1981.

Of the applicants, 88.8% or 681 (252 [37.0%] female-to-male and 429 [63.0%] male-to-female; ratio 1:1.7] had undergone surgery and changed legal status by June 30, 2011. This number included eight (four [50.0%] female-to-male and four [50.0%] male to female; ratio 1:1) people who underwent surgery prior to the 1972 law. This number appears to include 41 (two [4.9%] female-to-male and 39 [95.1%] male-to-female; ratio 1:19.5) people who underwent surgery abroad at their own expense (usually in Thailand or the U.S.). This cohort (6% of 681) includes one person who was denied reassignment surgery by Sweden.

Twenty-five (3.3%) of the applications were denied with the two most common reasons being an incomplete application or not meeting the diagnostic criteria. An additional 61(8.0%) withdrew their application, were wait-listed for surgery, postponed surgery (perhaps in hopes of the later revocation of the sterilization requirement), or were granted partial treatment.

The formal application for reversal of the legal gender status, the "regret rate", was 2.2%. No one who underwent sex- reassignment surgery outside of Sweden (36 of these 41 had surgery after 1991) has requested reversal. The authors noted, however, that this preliminary number may be low because the median time interval to reversal request was eight years-only three of which had elapsed by publication submission- and because it was the largest serial cohort. This number did not include other possible expressions of regret including suicide (Dhejne et al., 2011).

Dhejne et al. in 2014 reported that the female-to-male (n=5): male-to-female (n=10) ratio among those who made formal applications for reversal was 1:2. The investigators also reported that the female-to-male applicants for reversal were younger at the time of initial surgical application (median age 22 years) than the complete female-to-

male cohort at the time of surgical application (median age 27 years). By contrast the male-to-female applicants for reversal were older at the time of initial surgical application (median age 35 years) than the complete male-to-female cohort at the time of initial surgical application (median age 32 years). Other clinical data to explore the differences between the cohorts with and without regret were not presented in this update publication.

In their earlier publication, in addition to determining a regret rate (3.8%), Landén et al. extracted data from medical records and government verdicts. Pearson Chi-square testing with Yates' correction for small sample sizes was used to identify candidate variables predictive of regret. They observed that: (a) 25.0% of the cohort with regrets and 11.4% of the cohort without regrets were unemployed, (b) 16.7% of the cohort with regrets and 15.4% of the cohort without regrets were on "sick benefit", (c) 15.4% of the cohort with regrets and 13.9% of the cohort without regrets had problems with substance abuse, (d) 69.2% of the cohort with regrets and 34.6% of the cohort without regrets had undergone psychiatric treatment, (e) 15.4% of the cohort with regrets and 8.8% of the cohort without regrets had a mood disorder, and (f) 15.4% of the cohort with regrets and 1.5% of the cohort without regrets had a psychotic disorder.

The putative prognostic factors that were statistically different between the cohorts with and without regret included prior psychiatric treatment, a history of psychotic disorder, atypical features of gender identity, and poor family support. Factors that trended towards statistical difference included having an unstable personality, sexual orientation and transvestitism. Univariate regression analyses further clarified the most important variables. These variables were tested with logistic regression. Initial modeling included the variable "history of psychotic disorder". Although this variable was predictive, it was excluded from future analyses because it was already a contraindication to reassignment surgery. Additional multivariate regression analyses identified poor family support as the most predictive variable and atypical features of gender identity as the second most important variable. Presence of both variables had a more than additive effect.

The nationwide mortality studies by Dhejne et al. (2011) includes much, if not all, of the Landén (1998) patient population and most of the Dhejne (2014) population. There is a related paper by Landén et al. 1998b that included the criteria to qualify for surgical intervention at that time.

Heylens G, Verroken C, De Cock S, T'Sjoen G, De Cuypere G. Effects of different steps in gender reassignment therapy on psychopathology: a prospective study of persons with a gender identity disorder. J Sex Med. 2014 Jan;11(1):119-26. Epub 2013 Oct 28.

Heylens et al. conducted a prospective, non-blinded observational study using a longitudinal design in which patients served as their own controls. They used a non-specific psychiatric test with normative data along with two self-designed questionnaires. The investigators assessed psychosocial adjustment and psychopathology in patients with gender identity disorders. Patients were to be sequentially evaluated prior to institution of hormonal therapy, then 3 to 6 months after the start of cross-sex hormone treatment, and then again one to 12 months after reassignment surgery. The Dutch version of the SCL-90R with eight subscales (agoraphobia, anxiety, depression, hostility, interpersonal sensitivity, paranoid ideation/psychoticism, and sleeping problems) and a global score (psycho-neuroticism) was used serially. A seven parameter questionnaire was used serially to assess changes in social function. Another cross-sectional survey assessed emotional state. The cohorts at each time point consisted of patients who were in the treatment cohort at the time and who had submitted survey responses.

Ninety of the patients who applied for reassignment surgery between June 2005 and March 2009 were recruited. Fifty seven entered the study. Forty-six (51.1% of the recruited population) underwent reassignment surgery. Baseline questionnaire information was missing for 3 patients. Baseline SCL-90 scores were missing for 1 patient but included SCL-90 scores from some of the 11 recruits who had not yet undergone reassignment surgery. Time point 2 (after hormone therapy) SCL-90 information was missing for 10, but included SCL-90 scores from some of the 11

recruits who had not yet undergone reassignment surgery. At time point 3, 42 (91.3% of those who underwent reassignment surgery) patients completed some part of the SCL-90 survey and the psychosocial questionnaires. Some questionnaires were incomplete. The investigators reported response rates of 73.7% for the psychosocial questionnaires and 82.5% for the SCL-90.

Of those who responded at follow-up after surgery, 88.1% reported having good friends; 52.4% reported the absence of a relationship; 47.6% had no sexual contacts; 42.9% lived alone; 40.5% were unemployed, retired, students, or otherwise not working; 2.4% reported alcohol abuse; and 9.3% had attempted suicide. The frequency of these parameters reportedly did not change statistically during the study interval, but there was no adjustment for the inclusion of patients who did not undergo surgery.

In a cross-sectional, self-report mood survey, of the 42 study entrants who completed the entire treatment regimen including reassignment surgery and the final assessment (refers to the initial 57) reported improved body-related experience (97.6%), happiness (92.9%), mood (95.2%), and self-confidence (78.6%) and reduced anxiety (81.0%). Of participants, 16.7% reported thoughts of suicide. Patients also reported on the intervention phase that they believed was most helpful: hormone initiation (57.9%), reassignment surgery (31.6%), and diagnostic-psychotherapy phase (10.5%).

The global “psycho-neuroticism” SCL-90R score, along with scores of 7 of the 8 subscales, at baseline were statistically more pathologic than the general population. After hormone therapy, the score for global “psycho-neuroticism” normalized and remained normal after reassignment surgery. More specifically the range for the global score is 90 to 450 with higher scores being more pathologic. The score for the general population was 118.3±32.4. The respective scores for the various gender dysphoric cohorts were 157.7±49.8 at initial presentation, 119.7±32.1 after hormone therapy, and 127.9±37.2 after surgery. The scores for the general population and the scores after either hormone treatment or surgical treatment did not differ.

Kockott G, Fahrner EM. Transsexuals who have not undergone surgery: a follow-up study. Arch Sex Behav. 1987 Dec;16 (6):511-22.

Kockott and Fahrner conducted a single center (Munich, Germany) prospective, observational study using a longitudinal design. Treatment cohorts were used as controls, and patients served as their own controls. The investigators assessed psychosocial adjustment in patients with gender identity issues. Patients were to have met DSM III criteria. Trans-sexuality, transvestitism, and homosexuality were differentiated. The criteria required for patients to receive hormone therapy and/or reassignment surgery were not delineated. After receiving hormone therapy, patients were later classified by surgical reassignment status (pre-operative and post-operative) and desire for surgery (unchanged desire, hesitant, and no longer desired).

The first investigative tool was a semi-structured in-person interview consisting of 125 questions. The second investigative tool was a scale that organized the clinical material into nine domains which were then scored on a scale. The Psychological Integration of Trans-sexuals (PIT) instrument developed according to the scale used by Hunt and Hampson (1980) for assessment of 17 post-operative patients. There were 15 interviews and two separate interviewers. There were 80 patients identified, but 58 (72.5%) patients (26 pre-operative; 32 post-operative) were ultimately included in the analysis. The duration of follow-up was longer for post-operative patients (6.5 years) than for pre-operative patients (4.6 years) (including time for one patient subsequently excluded). The mean age of the post-operative patients was 35.5±13.1 years, and the age of the patients who maintained a continued desire for surgery was 31.7±10.2 years. The age of the patients who hesitated about surgery was somewhat older, 40.3±9.4 years. The age of the patients who were no longer interested in surgery was 31.8±6.5 years. All were employed or in school at baseline. Patients with hesitation were financially better-off, had longer-standing relationships even if unhappy, and had a statistical tendency to place less value on sex than those with an unchanged wish for surgery.

Post-operative patients more frequently reported contentment with the desired gender and the success of adaption to the gender role than the pre-operative patients with a persistent desire for surgery. Post-operative patients more frequently reported sexual satisfaction than pre-operative patients with a continuing desire for surgery. Post-operative patients also more frequently reported financial sufficiency and employment than pre-operative patients with a persistent desire for surgery. Suicide attempts were stated to be statistically less frequent in the post-surgical cohort.

Psychosocial adjustment scores were in the low end of the range with "distinct difficulties" (19-27) at the initial evaluation for the post-operative patients (19.7), the pre-operative patients with a persistent wish for surgery (20.2), and the hesitant patients (19.7). At initial evaluation, psychosocial adjustment scores for patients no longer wanting surgery were at the high end of the range with "few difficulties" (10-18). At the final evaluation, Psychosocial adjustment scores were at the high end of the range "few difficulties" (10-18) for the post-operative patients (13.2) and the patients no longer wanting surgery (16.5). Psychosocial adjustment scores at the final evaluation were in the borderline range between "few difficulties" (10-18) and "distinct difficulties" (19-27) for both the pre-operative patients with a persistent desire for surgery (18.7), and the hesitant patients (19.1).

The changes in the initial score and the final follow-up score within each group were tracked and reported to be statistically significant for the post-operative group, but not for the other groups. Statistical differences between groups were not presented. Moreover, the post-operative patients had an additional test immediately prior to surgery. The first baseline score (19.7) would have characterized the patients as having "distinct difficulties" in psychosocial adjustment while the second baseline score (16.7) would have categorized the patients as having "few difficulties" in psychosocial adjustment despite the absence of any intervention except the prospect of having imminent reassignment surgery. No statistics reporting on the change between scores of the initial test and the test immediately prior to surgery and the change between scores of the test immediately prior to surgery and the final follow-up were provided.

Meyer JK, Reter DJ. Sex reassignment. Follow-up. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 1979 Aug;36(9):1010-5. (United States study)

Meyer and Reter conducted a single-center (Baltimore, Maryland, U.S.) prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a longitudinal design and retrospective baseline data. Interview data were scored with a self-designed tool. There were treatment control cohorts, and patients served as their own controls. The investigators assessed patients with gender dysphoria. The 1971 criteria for surgery required documented cross-sex hormone use as well as living and working in the desired gender for at least one year in patients subsequently applying for surgery. Clinical data including initial interviews were used for baseline data. In follow-up, the investigators used extensive two to four hour interviews to collect information on (a) objective criteria of adaptation, (b) familial relationships and coping with life milestones, and (c) sexual activities and fantasies. The objective criteria, which were the subject of the publication, included employment status (Hollingshead job level), cohabitation patterns, and need for psychiatric intervention. The investigators designed a scoring mechanism for these criteria and used it to determine a global adjustment score. The score value or the change score that was considered to be biologically significant was not pre-specified in the methods.

The clinic opened with 100 patients, but when the follow-up was completed, 52 patients were interviewed and 50 gave consent for publication. Of these, 15 (four female-to-male, 11 male-to-female; ratio 1:2.8) were part of the initial operative cohort, 14 (one female-to-male; 13 male-to-female; ratio 1:13) later underwent reassignment surgery at the institution or elsewhere, and 21 (five female-to-male; 16 male-to-female; ratio 1:3.2) did not undergo surgery. The mean ages of these cohorts were 30.1, 30.9, and 26.7 years respectively. The mean follow-up time was 62 months (range 19-142) for those who underwent surgery and 25 months (range 15-48) for those who did not. Socioeconomic status was lowest in those who subsequently underwent reassignment surgery.

Of patients initially receiving surgery, 33% had some type of psychiatric contact prior to the initial clinic evaluation and 8% had psychiatric contact during the follow-up. Of the patients who had not under gone surgery or who had done so later, 72% had some type of psychiatric contact prior to the initial clinic evaluation and 28% had psychiatric contact during follow-up. There was a single female-to-male patient with multiple surgical complications who sought partial reassignment surgery reversal.

The adjustment scores improved over time with borderline statistical significance for the initial operative group and with statistical significance for the never operated group. The absolute score value at follow-up was the same for both groups (1.07+1.53 and 1.10+1.97 respectively). By contrast, the adjustment scores did not improve for those who were not in the cohort initially approved for surgery, but who subsequently underwent surgery later. This was particularly true if the surgery was performed elsewhere. The absolute score value at follow-up was 0.21+1.89.

Related papers include Meyer et al. (1971), Meyer et al. (1974a-d), and Derogatis et al. (1978) along with commentary response by Fleming et al. (1980).

Rakic Z, Starcevic V, Maric J, Kelin K. The outcome of sex reassignment surgery in Belgrade: 32 patients of both sexes. Arch Sex Behav. 1996 Oct;25(5):515-25.

Rakic et al. single-center (Belgrade, Yugoslavia) conducted a prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a cross-sectional design and an investigator- designed quality of life tool that asked longitudinal (pre- and post-treatment) questions. Patients served as their own controls. The authors state that the study was not designed to assess the predictors of poor outcomes.

The investigators assessed global satisfaction, body image, relationships, employment status, and sexual function in patients with gender dysphoria who underwent reassignment surgery between 1989 and 1993 and were at least six months post-operative. The criteria to qualify for gender surgery were delineated (1985 standards from the Harry Benjamin International Gender Dysphoria Association) and included cross-gender behavior for at least one year and sexual orientation to non-natal sex. The questionnaire consisted of 10 questions using yes/no answers or Likert-type scales. Findings were descriptive without statistical analysis. As such, changes or differences considered to be biologically significant were not pre-specified, and there were no adjustments for multiple comparisons.

Of the 38 patients who had undergone reassignment surgery, 34 were eligible for the study and 32 participated in the study (two were lost to follow-up and four were in the peri-operative period) - 10 (31.2%) female-to-male and 22 (68.8%) male-to-female (ratio 1:2.2). The duration of follow-up was 21.8 ±13.4 months (range 6 months to 4 years). The age was female-to-male 27.8±5.2 (range 23-37) and male-to-female 26.4±7.8 (range 19-47).

Using an investigator-designed quality of life tool, all patients reported satisfaction with having undergone the surgery. Of the total participants, four (12.5%) (all male-to-female) and eight (25%) (87.5% male-to-female) reported complete dissatisfaction or partial satisfaction with their appearance. Regarding relationships, 80% of female-to-male and 100% of male-to-female patients were dissatisfied with their relationships with others prior to surgery; whereas, no female-to-male patients and 18.1% of male-to-female patients were dissatisfied with relationships after surgery. Regarding sexual partners, 60% of female-to-male and 72.7% of male-to-female patients reported not having a sexual partner prior to surgery; whereas, 20% of female-to-male patients and 27.3% of male-to-female patients did not have a sexual partner after surgery. Of those with partners at each time interval, 100% of female-to-male and 50% of male-to-female patients reported not experiencing orgasm prior to surgery; whereas, 75% of female-to-male and 37.5% of male-to-female patients reported not experiencing orgasm after surgery.

Ruppin U, Pfäfflin F. Long-term follow-up of adults with gender identity disorder. Arch Sex Behav. 2015 Jul;44(5):1321-9. Epub 2015 Feb 18.

Ruppin and Pfafflin conducted a single-center (Ulm, Germany) partially prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a longitudinal design and non-specific psychometric tests and a self-designed interview tool and questionnaire. Patients served as their own controls.

The investigators assessed psychological symptoms, interpersonal difficulties, gender role stereotypes, personality characteristics, societal function, sexual function, and satisfaction with new gender role in patients with gender dysphoria. Patients were required to have met the ICD-10 criteria for trans-sexualism, been seen by the clinic by prior to 2001, and completed an official change in gender including name change prior to 2001. Assessment tools included German versions of standardized surveys with normative data: the SCL 90R, the Inventory of Interpersonal Problems (IIP), Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), and the Freiburg Personality Inventory (FPI-R), along with semi-structured interviews with self-designed questionnaires. The prospective survey results were compared to retrospective survey results. Changes or inter-group differences considered to be biologically significant were not pre-specified. Diagnostic cut points were not provided. Statistical corrections for multiple comparisons were not included.

Overall, 140 patients received recruitment letters and then 71 (50.7%) agreed to participate. Of these participants, 36 (50.7%) were female-to-male; 35 (49.3%) were male-to-female (ratio 1:0.97). The ages of the patients were: 41.2±5.78 years (female-to-male) and 52.9±10.82 years (male-to-female). The intervals for follow-up were 14.1±1.97 years and 13.7±2.17 years, respectively.

All female-to-male patients had undergone mastectomy; 91.7% had undergone oopherectomy and/or hysterectomy; 61.1% had undergone radial forearm flap phalloplasty or metaoidioplasty. Of male-to-female patients, 94.3% had undergone vaginoplasty and perhaps an additional procedure (breast augmentation, larynx surgery, or vocal cord surgery). Two male-to-female patients had not undergone any reassignment surgery, but were still included in the analyses.

A total of 68 patients ranked their well-being as 4.35±0.86 out of five (three patients did not respond to this question). Of respondents, 40% reported not being in a steady relationship. Regular sexual relationships were reported by 57.1% of 35 female- to-male respondents and 39.4% of 33 male-to-female respondents (three patients did not respond to this question). A total of 11 patients reported receiving out-patient psychotherapy; 69 did not express a desire for gender role reversal (two did not respond to this question). The response rate was less than 100% for most of the self-designed survey questions.

Changes from the initial visit to the follow-up visit were assessed for the SCL-90R in 62 of 71 patients. The effect size was statistically significant and large only for the “Interpersonal Sensitivity” scale (one of 10 parameters). The absolute magnitude of mean change was small: from 0.70±0.67 to 0.26±0.34 (scale range 0-4). The duration of follow-up did not correlate with the magnitude of change on the various scales. Differences in baseline SCL-90R scores of 62 participants were compared with the score of 63 of the 69 eligible recruits who declined to enter the study and were notable for higher “Depression” scores for the latter.

Changes from the initial visit to the follow-up visit were assessed for the IIP in 55 of 71 patients. The effect size was statistically significant and large only for the “Overly Accommodating” scale (one of eight parameters). The absolute magnitude of mean change was small: from 11.64±5.99 to 7.04±4.73 (scale range 0-32). The duration of follow-up did not correlate with the magnitude of change on the various scales.

Changes from the initial visit to the follow-up visit were assessed for the FPI-R in 58 of 71 patients. The effect size was statistically significant and large only for the “Life Satisfaction” scale (one of 12 parameters). The absolute magnitude of mean change was substantive: from 4.43±2.99 to 8.31±2.63 (scale range 0-12). The duration of follow-up did not correlate with the magnitude of change on the various scales.

Changes from the initial visit to the follow-up visit were assessed for the BSRI in 16 of 36 female to male patients and 19 of 35 male to female patients. The "Social Desirability" score increased for the female-to-male respondents. At endpoint, both categories of respondents reported androgynous self-images.

This current report is an update of prior publications by Pfafflin including work with Junge which was published in a variety of formats and initially in German.

Smith YL, Van Goozen SH, Kuiper AJ, Cohen-Kettenis PT. Sex reassignment: outcomes and predictors of treatment for adolescent and adult transsexuals. Psychol Med. 2005 Jan;35(1):89-99.

Smith et al. conducted a single-center (Amsterdam, Netherlands) prospective, non-blinded, observational study using a longitudinal design and psychological function tools. Patients served as their own control prior to and after reassignment surgery. The investigators assessed gender dysphoria, body dissatisfaction, physical appearance, psychopathology, personality traits, and post-operative function in patients with gender dysphoria. Patients underwent some aspect of reassignment surgery. The test instruments included the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale (12 items), the Body Image Scale adapted for a Dutch population (30 items), Appraisal of Appearance Inventory (3 observers, 14 items), the Dutch Short MMPI (83 items), the Dutch version of the Symptom Checklist (SCL)(90 items), and clinic-developed or modified questionnaires. Pre-treatment data was obtained shortly after the initial interview. Post- surgery data were acquired at least one year post reassignment surgery.

Three hundred twenty five consecutive adolescents and adults were screened for the study. One-hundred three (29 [28.2%] female-to-male patients and 74 [71.8%] male-to-female patients [ratio 1:2.6]) never started hormone therapy; 222 (76 [34.2%] female-to-male patients and 146 [65.8%] male-to-female patients [ratio 1:1.9]) initiated hormone therapy. Of the patients who started hormone therapy, 34 (5 [14.7%] female-to-male patients and 29 [85.3%] male-to-female patients [ratio 1:5.8]) discontinued hormone therapy.

Subsequently, the study analysis was limited to adults. One hundred sixty-two (58 [35.8%] female-to-male and 104 [64.2%] male-to-female [ratio 1:1.8]) were eligible and provided pre-surgical test data, and 126 (77.8% of eligible adults) (49 [38.9%] female-to-male and 77 [61.1%] male-to-female [ratio 1:1.6]) provided post-surgical data. For those patients who completed reassignment, the mean age at the time of surgical request was 30.9 years (range 17.7-68.1) and 35.2 years (range 21.3-71.9) years at the time of follow-up. The intervals between hormone treatment initiation and surgery and surgery and follow-up were 20.4 months (range 12 to 73) and 21.3 months (range 12 to 47) respectively.

Of the 126 adults who provided post-surgical data, 50 (40.0%) reported having a steady sexual partner, three (2.3%) were retired, and 58 (46.0%) were unemployed. Regarding regret, six patients expressed some regret regarding surgery, but did not want to resume their natal gender role, and one male-to-female had significant regret and would not make the same decision.

Post-surgery Utrecht dysphoria scores dropped substantially and approached reportedly normal values. The patients' appearance better matched their new gender. No one was dissatisfied with his/her overall appearance at follow-up. Satisfaction with primary sexual, secondary sexual, and non-sexual body traits improved over time. Male-to-female patients, however, were more dissatisfied with the appearance of primary sex traits than female-to-male patients. Regarding mastectomy, 27 of 38 (71.1%) female-to-male respondents (not including 11 non-respondents) reported incomplete satisfaction with their mastectomy procedure. For five of these patients, the incomplete satisfaction was because of scarring. Regarding vaginoplasty, 20 of 67 (29.8%) male-to-female respondents (not including 10 non-respondents) reported incomplete satisfaction with their vaginoplasty.

Most of the MMPI scales were already in the normal range at the time of initial testing and remained in the normal

range after surgery. SCL global scores for psycho- neuroticism were minimally elevated before surgery 143.0±40.7 (scoring range 90 to 450) and normalized after surgery 120.3±31.4. (An analysis using patient level data for only the completers was not conducted.)

Udeze B, Abdelmawla N, Khoosal D, Terry T. Psychological functions in male-to- female people before and after surgery. Sexual and Relationship Therapy. 2008 May; 23(2):141-5. (Not in PubMed) and Megeri D, Khoosal D. Anxiety and depression in males experiencing gender dysphoria. Sexual and Relationship Therapy. 2007 Feb; 22(1):77-81. (Not in PubMed)

Udeze et al. conducted a single-center (Leicester, United Kingdom) prospective, non-blinded, longitudinal study assessing a randomized subset of patients who had completed a non-specific psychological function tool prior to and after male-to-female reassignment surgery. Patients served as their own controls. The investigators used the WPATH criteria for patient selection. Psychiatric evaluations were routine. All patients selected for treatment were routinely asked to complete the self-administered SCL-90R voluntarily on admission to the program and post-operatively. A post-operative evaluations (psychiatric and SCL-90R assessment) were conducted within six months to minimize previously determined loss rates. The patient pool was domestic and international. There were 546 gender dysphoric patients from all over the United Kingdom and abroad, of whom 318 (58.2%) progressed to surgery. Of these, 127 were from the local Leicester area in the United Kingdom and 38 (29.9%) progressed to surgery. The mean age for the selected male-to-female patients at the time of study was 47.33±13.26 years (range 25 to 80) and reflected an average wait time for surgery of 14 months (range 2 months to 6 years). For this investigation, 40 male-to-female subjects were prospectively selected.

The raw SCL-90 global scores for psycho-neuroticism were unchanged over time: 48.33 prior to surgery and 49.15 after surgery. If the scale was consistent with T-scoring, the results were non-pathologic. No psychiatric disorders were otherwise identified prior to or after surgery.

Investigators from the same clinical group (Megeri, Khoosal, 2007) conducted additional testing to specifically address anxiety and depression with the Beck Depression Inventory, General Health Questionnaire (with 4 subscales), HADS, and Spielberger State and Trait Anxiety Questionnaire (STAI-X1 and STA-X2). The test population and study design appear to be the same. No absolute data were presented. Only changes in scores were presented. There were no statistically significant changes.

e. Randomized, surgical patients, longitudinal, with controls

Mate-Kole C, Freschi M, Robin A. A controlled study of psychological and social change after surgical gender reassignment in selected male transsexuals. Br J Psychiatry. 1990 Aug;157:261-4.

Mate-Kole at al. conducted a prospective, non-blinded, controlled, randomized, longitudinal study using investigator-designed patient self-report questionnaires and non-specific psychological tests with some normative data. The investigators assessed neuroticism and sex role in natal males with gender dysphoria who had qualified for male-to-female reassignment surgery at a single-center specialty clinic (London, United Kingdom). Forty sequential patients were alternately assigned to early reassignment surgery or to standard wait times for reassignment surgery. Patients were evaluated after acceptance and 2 years later. The criteria used to qualify for gender surgery were the 1985 standards from the Harry Benjamin International Gender Dysphoria Association. These included a ≥2 year desire to change gender, a ≥1 year demonstrable ability to live and be self-supporting in the chosen gender, and psychiatric assessment for diagnosis and reassessment at six months for diagnostic confirmation and exclusion of psychosis.

Reassignment surgery was defined as orchidectomy, penectomy, and construction of a neo-vagina. The instruments used were the CCEI for psychoneurotic symptoms and the Bem Sex Role Inventory along with an incompletely

described investigator- designed survey with questions about social life and sexual activity.

The mean age and range of the entire cohort was 32.5 years (21-53). Members of the early surgery cohort had a history of attempted suicide (one patient), psychiatric treatment for non-gender issues (six patients), and first degree relatives with psychiatric histories (four patients). Members of the standard surgery cohort were similar, with a history of attempted suicide (two patients), psychiatric treatment for non-gender issues (five patients), and first degree relatives with psychiatric histories (six patients). The early surgery group had surgery approximately 1.75 years prior to the follow-up evaluation. In both groups, cross-dressing began at about age 6.

At baseline, the Bem Sex Role Inventory femininity scores were slightly higher than masculinity scores for both cohorts and were similar to Bem North American female normative scores. The scores did not change in either group over time.

At baseline, the scores for the CCEI individual domains (free floating anxiety, phobic anxiety, somatic anxiety, depression, hysteria, and obsessionality) were similar for the cohorts. The total CCEI scores for the two cohorts were consistent with moderate symptoms (Birchnell et al. 1988). Over the two year interval, total CCEI scores increased for standard wait group and approached the relatively severe symptom category. During the same interval, scores dropped into the asymptomatic rage for the post-operative patients.

The investigator-designed survey assessed changes in social and sexual activity of the prior two years, but the authors only compared patients in a given cohort to themselves. Though the researchers did not conduct statistical studies to compare the differences between the two cohorts, they did report increased participation in some, but not all, types of social activities such as sports (solo or group), dancing, dining out, visiting pubs, and visiting others. Sexual interest also increased. By contrast, pre-operative patients did not increase their participation in these activities.

2. External Technology Assessments

a. CMS did not request an external technology assessment (TA) on this issue.

b. There were no AHRQ reviews on this topic.

c. There are no Blue Cross/Blue Shield Health Technology Assessments written on this topic within the last three years.

d. There were two publications in the COCHRANE database, and both were tangentially related. Both noted that there are gaps in the clinical evidence base for gender reassignment surgery.
Twenty Years of Public Health Research: Inclusion of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Populations Boehmer U. Am J Public Health. 2002; 92: 1125–30.

"Findings supported that LGBT issues have been neglected by public health research and that research unrelated to sexually transmitted diseases is lacking."

A systematic review of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender health in the West Midlands region of the UK compared to published UK research. West Midlands Health Technology Assessment Collaboration. Health Technology Assessment Database. Meads, et al., 2009. No.3.

"Further research is needed but must use more sophisticated designs with comparison groups. This systematic review demonstrated that there are so many gaps in knowledge around LGBT health that a wide variety of studies are needed."

e. There were no National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) reviews/guidance documents on this

topic.

f. There was a technology assessment commissioned by the New Zealand Ministry of Health and conducted by New Zealand Health Technology Assessment (NZHTA) (Christchurch School of Medicine and the University of Otago).

Tech Brief Series: Transgender Re-assignment Surgery Day P. NZHTA Report. February 2002;1(1). http://nzhta.chmeds.ac.nz/publications/trans_gender.pdf

The research questions included the following:
1. Are there particular subgroups of people with transsexualism who have met eligibility criteria for gender reassignment surgery (GRS) where evidence of effectiveness of that surgery exists?

2. If there is evidence of effectiveness, what subgroups would benefit from GRS?"

The authors concluded that there was not enough evidence to answer either of the research questions.

3. Medicare Evidence Development & Coverage Advisory Committee (MEDCAC) Meeting

CMS did not convene a MEDCAC meeting.

4. Evidence-Based Guidelines

a. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG)

Though ACOG did not have any evidence-based guidelines on this topic, they did have the following document:
Health Care for Transgender Individuals: Committee Opinion
Committee on Health Care for Underserved Women; The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Dec 2011, No. 512. Obstet Gyncol. 2011;118:1454-8.

"Questions [on patient visit records] should be framed in ways that do not make assumptions about gender identity, sexual orientation, or behavior. It is more appropriate for clinicians to ask their patients which terms they prefer. Language should be inclusive, allowing the patient to decide when and what to disclose. The adoption and posting of a nondiscrimination policy can also signal health care providers and patients alike that all persons will be treated with dignity and respect. Assurance of confidentiality can allow for a more open discussion, and confidentiality must be ensured if a patient is being referred to a different health care provider. Training staff to increase their knowledge and sensitivity toward transgender patients will also help facilitate a positive experience for the patient."

b. American Psychiatric Association

Report of the American Psychiatric Association Task Force on Treatment of Gender Identity Disorder. Byne, W, Bradley SJ, Coleman E, Eyler AE, Green R, Menvielle EJ, Meyer-Bahlburg HFL, Richard R. Pleak RR, Tompkins DA. Arch Sex Behav. 2012; 41:759–96.

The American Psychiatric Association (APA) was unable to identify any Randomized Controlled Trials (RTCs) regarding mental health issues for transgender individuals.

"There are some level B studies examining satisfaction/regret following sex reassignment (longitudinal follow-up after an intervention, without a control group); however, many of these studies obtained data retrospectively and without a control group (APA level G). Overall, the evidence suggests that sex reassignment is associated with an

improved sense of well-being in the majority of cases, and also indicates correlates of satisfaction and regret. No studies have directly compared various levels of mental health screening prior to hormonal and surgical treatments on outcome variables; however, existing studies suggest that comprehensive mental health screening may be successful in identifying those individuals most likely to experience regrets."

Relevant Descriptions of APA Evidence Coding System/Levels:

[B] Clinical trial. A prospective study in which an intervention is made and the results of that intervention are tracked longitudinally. Does not meet standards for a randomized clinical trial."

[G] Other. Opinion-like essays, case reports, and other reports not categorized above."

c. Endocrine Society

Endocrine Treatment of Transsexual Persons: an Endocrine Society Clinical Practice Guideline.

Hembree WC, Cohen-Kettenis P, Delemarre-van de Waal HA, Gooren LJ, Meyer WJ 3rd, Spack NP, Tangpricha V, Montori VM; Endocrine Society. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2009; 94:3132-54.

This guideline primarily addressed hormone management and surveillance for complications of that management. A small section addressed surgery and found the quality of evidence to be low.

"This evidence-based guideline was developed using the Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development, and Evaluation (GRADE) system to describe the strength of recommendations and the quality of evidence, which was low or very low."

d. World Professional Association for Transgender Health (WPATH)

Standards of Care for the Health of Transsexual, Transgender, and Gender-Nonconforming People (Version 7). Coleman E, Bockting W, Botzer M, Cohen-Kettenis P, DeCuypere G, Feldman J, Fraser L, Green J, Knudson G, Meyer WJ, Monstrey S, Adler RK, Brown GR, Devor AH, Ehrbar R, Ettner R, Eyler E, Garofalo R, Karasic DH, Lev AI, Mayer G, Meyer-Bahlburg H, Hall BP, Pfäfflin F, Rachlin K, Robinson B, Schechter LS, Tangpricha V, van Trotsenburg M, Vitale A, Winter S, Whittle S, Kevan R. Wylie KR, Zucker K.
www.wpath.org/_files/140/files/Standards%20of%20Care,%20V7%20Full%20Book.pdf
Int J Transgend. 2011;13:165–232.

The WPATH is "an international, multidisciplinary, professional association whose mission is to promote evidence-based care, education, research, advocacy, public policy, and respect in transsexual and transgender health."

WPATH reported, "The standards of care are intended to be flexible in order to meet the diverse health care needs of transsexual, transgender, and gender-nonconforming people. While flexible, they offer standards for promoting optimal health care and guiding the treatment of people experiencing gender dysphoria—broadly defined as discomfort or distress that is caused by a discrepancy between a person's gender identity and that person's sex assigned at birth (and the associated gender role and/or primary and secondary sex characteristics) (Fisk, 1974; Knudson, De Cuypere, & Bockting, 2010b)."

The WPATH standards of care (SOC) "acknowledge the role of making informed choices and the value of harm-

reduction approaches."

The SOC noted, "For individuals seeking care for gender dysphoria, a variety of therapeutic options can be considered. The number and type of interventions applied and the order in which these take place may differ from person to person (e.g., Bockting, Knudson, & Goldberg, 2006; Bolin, 1994; Rachlin, 1999; Rachlin, Green, & Lombardi, 2008; Rachlin, Hansbury, & Pardo, 2010). Treatment options include the following:

- Changes in gender expression and role (which may involve living part time or full time in another gender role, consistent with one's gender identity);
- Hormone therapy to feminize or masculinize the body;
- Surgery to change primary and/or secondary sex characteristics (e.g., breasts/chest, external and/or internal genitalia, facial features, body contouring);
- Psychotherapy (individual, couple, family, or group) for purposes such as exploring gender identity, role, and expression; addressing the negative impact of gender dysphoria and stigma on mental health; alleviating internalized transphobia; enhancing social and peer support; improving body image; or promoting resilience."

e. American Psychological Association

Suggested citation until formally published in the American Psychologist: American Psychological Association. (2015): *Guidelines for Psychological Practice with Transgender and Gender Nonconforming People Adopted by the Council of Representatives, August 5 & 7, 2015. www.apa.org/practice/guidelines/transgender.pdf*

"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."

"These Guidelines refer to psychological practice (e.g., clinical work, consultation, education, research, training) rather than treatment."

5. Other Reviews

a. Institute of Medicine (IOM)

The Health of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender People: Building a Foundation for Better Understanding. Robert Graham (Chair); Committee on Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Health Issues and Research Gaps and Opportunities. (Study Sponsor: The National Institutes of Health). Issued March 31, 2011. http://www.nationalacademies.org/hmd/Reports/2011/The-Health-of-Lesbian-Gay-Bisexual-and- Transgender-People.aspx

"To advance understanding of the health needs of all LGBT individuals, researchers need more data about the demographics of these populations, improved methods for collecting and analyzing data, and an increased participation of sexual and gender minorities in research. Building a more solid evidence base for LGBT health concerns will not only benefit LGBT individuals, but also add to the repository of health information we have that pertains to all people."

"Best practices for research on the health status of LGBT populations include scientific rigor and respectful involvement of individuals who represent the target population. Scientific rigor includes incorporating and monitoring culturally competent study designs, such as the use of appropriate measures to identify participants and

implementation processes adapted to the unique characteristics of the target population. Respectful involvement refers to the involvement of LGBT individuals and those who represent the larger LGBT community in the research process, from design through data collection to dissemination."

b. National Institutes of Health (NIH)

National Institutes of Health Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender (LGBT) Research Coordinating Committee. Consideration of the Institute of Medicine (IOM) report on the health of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) individuals. Bethesda, MD: National Institutes of Health; 2013. http://report.nih.gov/UploadDocs/LGBT%20Health%20Report_FINAL_2013-01-03-508%20compliant.pdf

In response to the IOM report, the NIH LBGT research Coordinating Committee noted that most of the health research for this set of populations is "focused in the areas of Behavioral and Social Sciences, HIV (human immunodeficiency virus)/AIDS, Mental Health, and Substance Abuse. Relatively little research has been done in several key health areas for LGBT populations including the impact of smoking on health, depression, suicide, cancer, aging, obesity, and alcoholism."

6. Pending Clinical Trials

ClinicalTrials.gov
There is one currently listed and recently active trial directed at assessment of the clinical outcomes pertaining to individuals who have had gender reassignment surgery. The study appears to be a continuation of work conducted by investigators cited in the internal technology assessment.

NCT01072825 (Ghent, Belgium sponsor) European Network for the Investigation of Gender Incongruence (ENIGI) is assessing the physical and psychological effects of the hormonal treatment of transgender subjects in two years prior to reassignment surgery and subsequent to surgery. This observational cohort study started in 2010 and is still in progress.

7. Consultation with Outside Experts

Consistent with the authority at 1862(l)(4) of the Act, CMS consulted with outside experts on the topic of treatment for gender dysphoria and gender reassignment surgery.

Given that the majority of the clinical research was conducted outside of the United States, and some studies either took place in or a suggested continuity-of-care and coordination-of-care were beneficial to health outcomes, we conducted expert interviews with centers across the U.S. that provided some form of specialty-focused or coordinated care for transgender patients. These interviews informed our knowledge about the current healthcare options for transgender people, the qualifications of the professionals involved, and the uniqueness of treatment options. We are very grateful to the organizations that made time to discuss treatment for gender dysphoria with us.

From our discussions with the all of the experts we spoke with, we noted the following practices in some centers: (1) specialized training for all staff about transgender healthcare and transgender cultural issues; (2) use of an intake assessment by either a social worker or health care provider that addressed physical health, mental health, and other life factors such as housing, relationship, and employment status; (3) offering primary care services for transgender people in addition to services related to gender-affirming therapy/treatments; (4) navigators who connected patients with name-change information or other legal needs related to gender; (5) counseling for individuals, groups, and families; (6) an informed-consent model whereby individuals were often referred to as

"clients" instead of "patients," and (7) an awareness of depression among transgender people (often measured with tools such as the Adult Outcomes Questionnaire and the Patient Health Questionnaire).

8. Public Comments

We appreciate the thoughtful public comments we received on the proposed decision memorandum. In CMS' experience, public comments sometimes cite the published clinical evidence and give CMS useful information. Public comments that give information on unpublished evidence such as the results of individual practitioners or patients are less rigorous and therefore less useful for making a coverage determination. CMS uses the initial public comments to inform its proposed decision. CMS responds in detail to the public comments on a proposed decision when issuing the final decision memorandum. All comments that were submitted without personal health information may be viewed in their entirety by using the following link: https://www.cms.gov/medicare-coverage-database/details/nca-view-public-comments.aspx?NCAId=282&ExpandComments=n#Results

a. Initial Comment Period: December 3, 2015 – January 2, 2016

During the initial comment period, we received 103 comments. Of those, 78% supported coverage of gender reassignment surgery, 15% opposed, and 7% were neutral. The majority of comments supporting coverage were from individuals and advocacy groups.

b. Second Comment Period: June 2, 2016 – July 2, 2016

During the second 30-day public comment period, we received a total of 45 public comments, 7 of which were not posted on the web due to personal health information content. Overall, 82% supported coverage of gender reassignment surgery, 11% opposed, and 7% were neutral or silent in their comment whether they supported or opposed coverage. Half of the comments were submitted by individuals who expressed support for coverage of gender reassignment surgery (51%). We also received comments from physicians, providers, and other health professionals who specialize in healthcare for transgender individuals (17%). We received one comment from a municipality, the San Francisco Department of Public Health. Associations (American Medical Association, American College of Physicians, American Academy of Nursing, American Psychological Association, and LBGT PA Caucus) and advocates (Center for American Progress with many other signatories, Jamison Green & Associates) also submitted comments.

Below is a summary of the comments CMS received. In some instances, commenters identified typographical errors, context missed, and opportunities for CMS to clarify wording and classify articles for ease of reading in the memorandum. As noted earlier, when appropriate and to the extent possible, we updated the decision memorandum to reflect those corrections, improved the context, and clarified the language. In light of public comments, we re-evaluated the evidence and our summaries. We updated our summaries of the studies and clarified the language when appropriate.

1. Contractor Discretion and National Coverage Determination

Comment: Some commenters, including advocates, associations, and providers, supported CMS' decision for MAC contractor discretion/case-by-case determination for gender reassignment surgery. One stakeholder stated, "We agree with the conclusion that a NCD is not warranted at this time."

Response: We appreciate the support and understanding among stakeholders for our proposed decision to have the MACs determine coverage on a case-by-case basis. We have clarified in this final decision memorandum that

coverage is available for gender reassignment surgery when determined reasonable and necessary and not otherwise excluded by any other relevant statutory requirements by the MAC on a case-by-case basis. "The case-by-case model affords more flexibility to consider a particular individual's medical condition than is possible when the agency establishes a generally applicable rule." (78 Fed. Reg. 48165 (August 7, 2013)).

Comment: Some commenters cautioned that CMS' choice to not issue a NCD at this time must not be interpreted as a national non-coverage determination or used in any way to inappropriately restrict access to coverage for transgender Medicare beneficiaries or other transgender individuals. Multiple commenters indicated their disappointment that CMS did not propose a National Coverage Determination (NCD) and, instead, chose to continue to have local MACs make the coverage decisions on a case-by-case basis. Commenters stated this could result in variability in coverage.

Response: We appreciate the comments. We are not issuing a NCD at this time because the available evidence for gender reassignment surgery provides limited data on specific health outcomes and the characteristics of specific patient populations that might benefit from surgery. In the absence of a NCD, the MAC's use the same statutory authority as NCDs, section 1862(a)(1)(A) of the Social Security Act (the Act). Under section 1862(a)(1)(A) an item or service must be reasonable and necessary for the diagnosis or treatment of illness or injury or to improve the functioning of a malformed body member. While CMS did not have enough evidence to issue a NCD, we believe the MACs will be able to make appropriate coverage decisions on a case-by-case basis taking into account individual characteristics of the Medicare beneficiary.

Comment: Some commenters sought a NCD that would establish guidelines for coverage and include elements such as a prescribed set of surgeries and a shared decision making element.

Response: For the reasons stated above, we are not issuing a NCD at this time and, therefore, are not establishing specific gender reassignment surgery coverage guidelines for the Medicare program. We generally agree that shared decision-making is a fundamental approach to patient-centered health care decisions and strongly encourage providers to use these types of evidence based decision aids. We have not found a shared decision aid on GRS and encourage the development of this necessary element to conduct formal shared-decision making.

Comment: Some commenters expressed concern that there is a misunderstanding of transgender individuals as having a disorder or being abnormal. Some commenters indicated a history of bias and discrimination within society as a whole that has occurred when transgender individuals have sought health care services from the medical community. Some commenters are concerned that the decision not to make a NCD will subject individuals seeking these services to corporate bias by Medicare contractors.

Response: We acknowledge the public comments and that there has been a transformation in the treatment of individuals with gender dysphoria over time. In this NCA, we acknowledge that gender dysphoria is a recognized Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) condition. With respect to the concern about potential bias by Medicare contractors, we have no reason to expect that the judgments made on specific claims will be influenced by an overriding bias, hostility to patients with gender dysphoria, or discrimination. Moreover, the Medicare statue and our regulations provide a mechanism to appeal an adverse initial decision if a claim is denied and those rights may include the opportunity for judicial review. We believe the Medicare appeals process would provide an opportunity to correct any adverse decision that was perceived to have been influenced by bias.

Comment: Commenters mentioned the cost of gender reassignment surgery could influence MAC decision making.

Response: The decisions on whether to cover gender reassignment surgery in a particular case are made on the basis of the statutory language in section 1862 of the Social Security Act that establish exclusions from coverage and

would not depend on the cost of the procedure.

2. Coverage with Evidence Development and Research

Comment: In our proposed decision memorandum, we specifically invited comments on whether a study could be developed that would support coverage with evidence development (CED). One organization commented, "We strongly caution against instituting a CED protocol." Commenters were opposed to coverage limited in clinical trials, suggesting that such coverage would restrict access to care. Several commenters provided suggested topics for clinical research studies for the transgender population. For example, one commenter suggested a study of non-surgical treatment for transgender children prior to puberty.

Response: While we appreciate the comments supporting further research, in general, for gender reassignment surgery, we agree that CED is not the appropriate coverage pathway at this time. While CED is an important mechanism to support research and has the potential to be used to help address gaps in the current evidence, we are not aware of any available, appropriate studies, ongoing or in development, on gender reassignment surgery for individuals with gender dysphoria that could be used to support a CED decision.

3. Gender Reassignment Surgery as Treatment

Comment: One group of commenters requested that CMS consider that, "The established medical consensus is that GRS is a safe, effective, and medically necessary treatment for many individuals with gender dysphoria, and for some individuals with severe dysphoria, it is the only effective treatment."

Response: We acknowledge that GRS may be a reasonable and necessary service for certain beneficiaries with gender dysphoria. The current scientific information is not complete for CMS to make a NCD that identifies the precise patient population for whom the service would be reasonable and necessary.

4. Physician Recommendations

Comment: Several commenters stated that gender reassignment surgery should be covered as long as it was determined to be necessary, or medically necessary by a beneficiary's physician.

Response: Physician recommendation is one of many potential factors that the local MAC may consider when determining whether the documentation is sufficient to pay a claim.

5. WPATH Standards of Care

Comment: Several commenters suggested that CMS should recommend the WPATH Standards of Care (WPATH) as the controlling guideline for gender reassignment surgery. They asserted it could satisfy Medicare's reasonable and necessary criteria for determining coverage on a case-by-case basis.

Response: Based on our review of the evidence and conversations with the experts and patient advocates, we are aware some providers consult the WPATH Standards of Care, while others have created their own criteria and requirements for surgery, which they think best suit the needs of their patients. As such, and given that WPATH acknowledges the guidelines should be flexible, we are not in the position to endorse exclusive use of WPATH for coverage. The MACs, Medicare Advantage plans, and Medicare providers can use clinical guidelines they determine useful to inform their determination of whether an item or service is reasonable and necessary. When making this

determination, local MACs may take into account physician's recommendations, the individual's clinical characteristics, and available clinical evidence relevant to that individual.

6. Scope of the NCA Request

Comment: One commenter stated that CMS did not address the full scope of the NCA request.

Response: The formal request for a NCD is publicly available on our tracking sheet. (https://www.cms.gov/Medicare/Coverage/DeterminationProcess/downloads/id282.pdf) The letter did not explicitly seek a national coverage determination related to counseling or hormone therapies, but focused on surgical remedies. CMS is aware that beneficiaries with gender dysphoria use a variety of therapies.

Comment: Other commenters stated the scope of the proposed decision is unnecessarily broad because it discussed therapies other than surgery. They suggested this discussion could lead to the unintended consequence of restricting access to those services for transgender Medicare beneficiaries and other transgender individuals.

Response: As we noted in our proposed decision, our decision focused only on gender reassignment surgery. In the course of reviewing studies related to those surgeries, occasionally authors discussed other therapies that were mentioned in our summaries of the evidence. To the extent possible, we have modified our decision to eliminate the discussion of other therapies which were not fully evaluated in this NCA.

7. NCA Question

Comment: Some commenters expressed concern about the phrasing of the question in this NCA.

Response: The phrasing of the research question is consistent with most NCAs and we believe it is appropriate.

8. Evidence Summary and Analysis

Comment: Several commenters disagreed with our summary of the clinical evidence and analysis. A few commenters contended that the overall tone of the review was not neutral and seemed biased or flawed. One commenter noted that the Barrett publication was available on the Internet.

Response: We appreciate the comments that identified technical errors, and we made the necessary revisions to this document. However, we disagree with the contention that our evidence review was not neutral and seemed biased or flawed. We believe that the summary and analysis of the clinical evidence are objective. As with previous NCAs, our review of the evidence was rigorous and methodical. Additionally, we reviewed the Barrett publication, but it did not meet our inclusion criteria to be included in the Evidence section.

9. Evidence Review with Transgender Experts

Comment: Several commenters requested that CMS re-review the clinical evidence discussed in the proposed decision memorandum with outside experts in the field of transgender health and transition/gender reassignment-related surgeries. Several offered the expertise within their organization to assist in this effort.

Response: We appreciate these comments and the transgender health community's willingness to participate. For

this NCA we discussed gender reassignment surgery protocols with experts, primarily in coordinated care settings. Additionally, the public comment periods provide opportunities for expert stakeholder input. According to our process for all NCAs, we do not jointly review evidence with external stakeholders but have carefully reviewed the very detailed comments submitted by a number of outside experts in transgender health care.

10. Previous Non-Coverage NCD

Comment: One commenter noted that they thought research studies for gender reassignment surgery could not take place when the old NCD that prohibited coverage for gender reassignment surgery was in effect.

Response: CMS does not directly conduct clinical studies or pay for research grants. Some medical services are non-covered by Medicare; however, national non-coverage does not preclude research via a number of avenues and other funding entities such as the National Institutes of Health. In this instance, the previous NCD did not preclude interested parties from funding research for gender reassignment surgery that could have been generalizable to the Medicare population.

11. How the Medicare Population Differs from the General Population

Comment: One commenter questioned how the Medicare population differed from the general population, and why any differences would be important in our decision-making.

Response: The Medicare population is different from the general population in age (65 years and older) and/or disability as defined by the Social Security Administration. Due to the biology of aging, older adults may respond to health care treatments differently than younger adults. These differences can be due to, for example, multiple health conditions or co-morbidities, longer duration needed for healing, metabolic variances, and impact of reduced mobility. All of these factors can impact health outcomes. The disabled Medicare population, who are younger than age 65, is different from the general population and typical study populations due to the presence of the causes of disability such as psychiatric disorders, musculoskeletal health issues, and cardiovascular issues.

12. Medicare Evidence Development & Coverage Advisory Committee (MEDCAC)

Comment: One commenter suggested CMS should have convened a MEDCAC for this topic.

Response: We appreciate the comment. Given the limited evidence, we did not believe a MEDCAC was warranted according to our guidance document entitled "Factors CMS Considers in Referring Topics to the Medicare Evidence Development & Coverage Advisory Committee" (https://www.cms.gov/Regulations-and-Guidance/Guidance/FACA/MEDCAC.html).

13. §1557 of the Affordable Care Act (ACA)

Comment: Some commenters asserted that by not explicitly covering gender reassignment surgery at the national level, CMS was discriminating against transgender beneficiaries in conflict with Section 1557 of the Accountable Care Act (ACA).

Response: This decision does not affect the independent obligation of covered entities, including the Medicare program and MACs, to comply with Section 1557 in making individual coverage decisions. In accordance with Section 1557, MACs will apply neutral nondiscriminatory criteria when making case-by-case coverage determinations related

to gender reassignment surgery.

14. Medicaid

Comment: Some commenters observed that some states cover gender reassignment surgery through Medicaid or require commercial insurers operating in the state to cover the surgery.

Response: We appreciate the information about Medicaid and state requirements; however, State decisions are separate from Medicare coverage determinations. We make evidence-based determinations based on our statutory standards and processes.

15. Commercial Insurers

Comment: In several instances, commenters told us that the healthcare industry looks to CMS coverage determinations to guide commercial policy coverage.

Response: CMS makes evidence-based national coverage determinations based on our statutory standards and processes as defined in the Social Security Act, which may not be the same standards that are used in commercial insurance policies or by other health care programs. In addition as noted above, the Medicare population is different (e.g., Medicare covers 95% of adults 65 and older) than the typical population under commercial insurers. We do not issue coverage decisions to drive policy for other health organizations' coverage in one way or the other.

16. Healthcare for Transgender Individuals

Comment: Numerous professional associations wrote to CMS to explain their support for access to healthcare for transgender individuals.

Response: CMS recognizes that transgender beneficiaries have specific healthcare needs. Many health care treatments are available. We encourage all beneficiaries to utilize their Medicare benefits to help them achieve their best health.

17. Intended Use of the Decision Memorandum

Comment: Several commenters expressed concern that the analysis provided in the proposed and final decision memorandums may be used by individuals, entities, or payers for purposes unrelated to Medicare such as denial of coverage for transgender-related surgeries.

Response: The purpose of the decision memoranda is to memorialize CMS' analysis of the evidence, provide responses to the public comments received, and to make available the clinical evidence and other data used in making our decision consistent with our obligations under the § 1862 of the Act. The NCD process is open and transparent and our decisions are publicly available. Congress requires that we provide a clear statement of the basis for our determinations. The decision memoranda are an important part of the record of the NCD. Our focus is the Medicare population which, as noted above, is different than the general population in a number of ways. Other entities may conduct separate evidence reviews and analyses that are suited for their specific populations.

18. Cost Barriers to Care and Effects

Comment: A few commenters stated that without Medicare coverage, surgery is difficult to afford and there may be a risk of negative consequences for the individual. One commenter suggested that CMS should consider prior-authorization for these surgeries.

Response: CMS is aware that paying out-of-pocket for medical care is a strain on a beneficiary's finances. We are also aware of beneficiaries' hesitancy to undergo surgery prior to knowing whether or not Medicare will pay the claim. Gender reassignment surgeries are not the only procedures whereby payment is not determined until after the provider submits the claim to Medicare. Importantly, documentation for the claims need to be explicit about what procedures were performed and include the appropriate information in the documentation to justify using the code or codes for surgery. Of note, CMS has claims data that indicate Medicare has paid for gender reassignment surgeries in the recent past. Determining which services are designated for prior-authorization is outside of the scope of the NCA process.

19. Surgical Risks and Benefits

Comment: A number of commenters conveyed the benefits of gender reassignment surgery, while other commenters expressed concern that gender reassignment surgery was harmful.

Response: We appreciate these comments.

20. Expenditure of Federal Funds

Comment: Some commenters opposed spending Medicare program funds on gender reassignment surgery for a variety of reasons. For example, some commenters believe it is an "elective" procedure. Other commenters suggested that funds should first be spent on other priorities such as durable medical equipment (DME) or mobility items such as power chairs; increasing reimbursement to providers; or that spending should be limited to the proportion to the transgender adult population in the Medicare program.

Response: The purpose of this NCA is to determine whether or not CMS should issue a NCD to cover surgery for patients who have gender dysphoria. NCAs do not establish payment amounts or spending priorities and, therefore, these comments are outside the scope of this consideration.

VIII. CMS Analysis

National coverage determinations are determinations by the Secretary with respect to whether or not a particular item or service is covered nationally under § 1862(l)(6) of the Act. In general, in order to be covered by Medicare, an item or service must fall within one or more benefit categories contained within Part A or Part B and must not be otherwise excluded from coverage.

Moreover, in most circumstances, the item or service must be reasonable and necessary for the diagnosis or treatment of illness or injury or to improve the functioning of a malformed body member (§1862(a)(1)(A)). The Supreme Court has recognized that "[t]he Secretary's decision as to whether a particular medical service is 'reasonable and necessary' and the means by which she implements her decision, whether by promulgating a generally applicable rule or by allowing individual adjudication, are clearly discretionary decisions." Heckler v. Ringer, 466 U.S. 602, 617 (1984). See also, 78 Fed. Reg. 48,164, 48,165 (August 7, 2013)

When making national coverage determinations, we consider whether the evidence is relevant to the Medicare

beneficiary population. In considering the generalizability of the results of the body of evidence to the Medicare population, we carefully consider the demographic characteristics and comorbidities of study participants as well as the provider training and experience. This section provides an analysis of the evidence, which included the published medical literature and guidelines pertaining to gender dysphoria, that we considered during our review to answer the question:

Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that gender reassignment surgery improves health outcomes for Medicare beneficiaries with gender dysphoria?

CMS carefully considered all the studies listed in this decision memorandum to determine whether they answered the question posed in this NCA. While there appears to be many publications regarding gender reassignment surgery, it became clear that many of the publications did not meet our inclusion/exclusion criteria as explained earlier in the decision memorandum.

Thirty-three papers were eligible based on our inclusion/exclusion criteria for the subsequent review (Figure 1). All studies reviewed had potential methodological flaws which we describe below.

A. Quality of the Studies Reviewed

Overall, the quality and strength of evidence were low due to mostly observational study designs with no comparison groups, subjective endpoints, potential confounding (a situation where the association between the intervention and outcome is influenced by another factor such as a co-intervention), small sample sizes, lack of validated assessment tools, and considerable lost to follow-up (Appendices C and F). The impact of a specific therapeutic intervention can be difficult to determine when there are multiple serial treatments such as psychotherapy, hormone treatment and surgery. To reduce confounding, outcome assessment just prior to and after surgery such as in a longitudinal study would be helpful. The objective endpoints included psychiatric treatment, attempted suicide, requests for surgical reversal, morbidity (direct and indirect adverse events), and mortality (Appendix F). CMS agrees with the utility of these objective endpoints. Quality of life, while important, is more difficult to measure objectively (Appendix E).

Of the 33 studies reviewed, published results were conflicting – some were positive; others were negative. Collectively, the evidence is inconclusive for the Medicare population. The majority of studies were non-longitudinal, exploratory type studies (i.e., in a preliminary state of investigation or hypothesis generating), or did not include concurrent controls or testing prior to and after surgery. Several reported positive results but the potential issues noted above reduced strength and confidence. After careful assessment, we identified six studies that could provide useful information (Figure 1). Of these, the four best designed and conducted studies that assessed quality of life before and after surgery using validated (albeit non-specific) psychometric studies did not demonstrate clinically significant changes or differences in psychometric test results after GRS. (Heylens et al., 2014; Ruppin, Pfafflin, 2015; Smith et al., 2005; Udeze et al., 2008) (Appendix C Panel A and Appendix G.)

Two studies (three articles) assessed functional endpoints (request for surgical reassignment reversal and morbidity/mortality) (Dhejne et al., 2011; Dhejne et al., 2014 along with Landén et al., 1998) (Figure 1 and Appendix C, Panel A and Appendix G). Although the data are observational, they are robust because the Swedish national database is comprehensive (including all patients for which the government had paid for surgical services) and is notable for uniform criteria to qualify for treatment and financial coverage by the government. Dhejne et al. (2014) and Landén et al. (1998) reported cumulative rates of requests for surgical reassignment reversal or change in legal status of 3.3% while Dhejne et al. (2014) reported 2.2%. The authors indicated that the later updated calculation had the potential to be an underestimate because the most recent surgical cohorts were larger in size and had shorter periods of follow-up.

Dhejne et al., (2011) tracked all patients who had undergone reassignment surgery (mean age 35.1 years) over a 30 year interval and compared them to 6,480 matched controls. The study identified increased mortality and psychiatric hospitalization compared to the matched controls. The mortality was primarily due to completed suicides (19.1-fold greater than in control Swedes), but death due to neoplasm and cardiovascular disease was increased 2 to 2.5 times as well. We note, mortality from this patient population did not become apparent until after 10 years. The risk for psychiatric hospitalization was 2.8 times greater than in controls even after adjustment for prior psychiatric disease (18%). The risk for attempted suicide was greater in male-to-female patients regardless of the gender of the control. Further, we cannot exclude therapeutic interventions as a cause of the observed excess morbidity and mortality. The study, however, was not constructed to assess the impact of gender reassignment surgery *per se.*

We believe at minimum study designs should have a pre-test/post-test longitudinal design accompanied by characterization of all patients lost to follow-up over the entire treatment series as well as those patients who did not complete questionnaires, and the use of psychometric quality-of-life tools which are well validated with linkage to "hard" (objective) patient outcomes in this particular patient population (Trentacosti 2007, PRO 2009) (Appendices C and D).

Patient Care

Clinical evidentiary questions regarding the care of patients with gender dysphoria remain. Many of the publications focused on aspects of surgical technique as opposed to long-term patient outcomes. The specific type(s) of gender/sex reassignment surgery (e.g., genital, non-genital) that could improve health outcomes in adults remain(s) uncertain because most studies included patients who had undertaken one or more of a spectrum of surgical procedures or did not define the specific types of surgical procedures under study. Furthermore, surgical techniques have changed significantly over the last 60 years and may not reflect current practice (Bjerrome Ahlin et al., 2014; Doornaert, 2011; Green, 1998; Pauly, 1968; Selvaggi et al., 2007; Selvaggi, Bellringer, 2011; Tugnet et al., 2007; Doornaert, 2011).

The WPATH care recommendations present a general framework and guidance on the care of the transgender individual. The standards of care are often cited by entities that perform gender reassignment surgery. WPATH notes, "More studies are needed that focus on the outcomes of current assessment and treatment approaches for gender dysphoria." Appendix D in the WPATH Standards of Care briefly describes their evidence base and acknowledges the historical problems with evidentiary standards, the preponderance of retrospective data, and the confounding impact of multiple interventions, specifically distinguishing the impact of hormone therapy from surgical intervention.

Additionally, CMS met with several stakeholders and conducted several interviews with centers that focus on healthcare for transgender individuals in the U.S. Primary care rather than gender reassignment surgery was often the main focus. Few of the U.S.-based reassignment surgeons we could identify work as part of an integrated practice, and few provide the most complex procedures.

Psychometric Tools

CMS reviewed psychometric endpoints because gender dysphoria (inclusive of prior nomenclature) describes an incongruence between the gender assigned at birth and the gender(s) with which the person identifies.

The psychometric tools used to assess outcomes have limitations. Most instruments that were specific for gender dysphoria were designed by the investigators themselves or by other investigators within the field using limited populations and lacked well documented test characterization. (Appendices E and F) By contrast, test instruments with validation in large populations were non-specific and lacked validation in the gender dysphoric patient populations. (Appendices E and F). In addition, the presentation of psychometric results must be accompanied by

enough information about the test itself to permit adequate interpretation of test results. The relevant diagnostic cut-points for scores and changes in scores that are clinically significant should also be scientifically delineated for interpretation.

Generalizability

It is difficult to generalize these study results to the current Medicare population. Many of the studies are old given they were conducted more than 10 years ago. Most of these studies were conducted outside of the U.S. in very different medical systems for treatment and follow-up. Many of the programs were single-site centers without replication elsewhere. The study populations were young and without significant physical or psychiatric co-morbidity (Appendix D). As noted earlier, psychiatric co-morbidity may portend poor outcomes (Asscheman et al., 2011; Landén et al., 1998).

Knowledge Gaps

This patient population faces complex and unique challenges. The medical science in this area is evolving. This review has identified gaps in the evidentiary base as well as recommendations for good study designs. The Institute of Medicine, the National Institutes of Health, and others also identified many of the gaps in the data. (Boehmer, 2002; HHS-HP, 2011; IOM, 2011; Kreukels-ENIGI, 2012; Lancet, 2011; Murad et al., 2010; NIH-LGBT, 2013) The current or completed studies listed in ClinicalTrials.gov are not structured to assess these gaps. These gaps have been delineated as they represent areas in which patient care can be optimized and are opportunities for much needed research.

B. Health Disparities

Four studies included information on racial or ethnic background. The participants in the three U.S. based studies were predominantly Caucasian (Beatrice, 1985; Meyer, Reter, 1979; Newfield et al., 2006). All of the participants in the single Asian study were Chinese (Tsoi, 1993). Additional research is needed in this area.

C. Summary

Based on an extensive assessment of the clinical evidence as described above, there is not enough high quality evidence to determine whether gender reassignment surgery improves health outcomes for Medicare beneficiaries with gender dysphoria and whether patients most likely to benefit from these types of surgical intervention can be identified prospectively.

The knowledge on gender reassignment surgery for individuals with gender dysphoria is evolving. Much of the available research has been conducted in highly vetted patients at select care programs integrating psychotherapy, endocrinology, and various surgical disciplines. Additional research of contemporary practice is needed. To assess long-term quality of life and other psychometric outcomes, it will be necessary to develop and validate standardized psychometric tools in patients with gender dysphoria. Further, patient preference is an important aspect of any treatment. As study designs are completed, it is important to include patient-centered outcomes.

Because CMS is mindful of the unique and complex needs of this patient population and because CMS seeks sound data to guide proper care of the Medicare subset of this patient population, CMS strongly encourages robust clinical studies with adequate patient protections that will fill the evidence gaps delineated in this decision memorandum. As the Institute of Medicine (IOM, 2011) importantly noted: "Best practices for research on the health status of LGBT populations include scientific rigor and respectful involvement of individuals who represent the target population.

Scientific rigor includes incorporating and monitoring culturally competent study designs, such as the use of appropriate measures to identify participants and implementation processes adapted to the unique characteristics of the target population. Respectful involvement refers to the involvement of LGBT individuals and those who represent the larger LGBT community in the research process, from design through data collection to dissemination."

IX. Decision

Currently, the local Medicare Administrative Contractors (MACs) determine coverage of gender reassignment surgery on a case-by-case basis. We have a received a complete, formal request to make a national coverage determination on surgical remedies for gender identity disorder (GID), now known as gender dysphoria. The Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) is not issuing a National Coverage Determination (NCD) at this time on gender reassignment surgery for Medicare beneficiaries with gender dysphoria because the clinical evidence is inconclusive for the Medicare population.

In the absence of a NCD, coverage determinations for gender reassignment surgery, under section 1862(a)(1)(A) of the Social Security Act (the Act) and any other relevant statutory requirements, will continue to be made by the local MACs on a case-by-case basis. To clarify further, the result of this decision is not national non-coverage rather it is that no national policy will be put in place for the Medicare program. In the absence of a national policy, MACs will make the determination on whether or not to cover gender reassignment surgery based on whether gender reassignment surgery is reasonable and necessary for the individual beneficiary after considering the individual's specific circumstances. For Medicare beneficiaries enrolled in Medicare Advantage (MA) plans, the initial determination of whether or not surgery would be reasonable and necessary will be made by the MA plans.

Consistent with the request CMS received, the focus of this National Coverage Analysis (NCA) was gender reassignment surgery. Specific types of surgeries were not individually assessed. We did not analyze the clinical evidence for counseling or hormone therapy treatments for gender dysphoria. As requested by several public commenters, we have modified our final decision memorandum to remove language that was beyond the scope of the specific request. We are not making a national coverage determination relating to counseling, hormone therapy treatments, or any other potential treatment for gender dysphoria.

While we are not issuing a NCD, CMS encourages robust clinical studies that will fill the evidence gaps and help inform which patients are most likely to achieve improved health outcomes with gender reassignment surgery, which types of surgery are most appropriate, and what types of physician criteria and care setting(s) are needed to ensure that patients achieve improved health outcomes.

A. Appendix A

Diagnostic & Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) Criteria for Disorders of Gender Identity since 1980

DSM Version	**Condition Name**	**Criteria**	**Criteria**	**Comments**
DSM III 1980 *Chapter: Psychosexual Disorders*	**Trans-sexualism** *302.5x [Gender Identity*	Required A (cross-gender identification) and B (aversion to	Sense of discomfort and inappropriateness about one's anatomic sex. Wish to be rid of one's own genitals and	Further characterization by sexual orientation Distinguished

	Disorder of Child-hood (302.6)]	one's natal gender) criteria Dx excluded by physical intersex condition Dx excluded by another mental disorder, e.g., schizophrenia	to live as a member of the other sex. The disturbance has been continuous (not limited to periods of stress) for at least 2 years.	from Atypical Gender Identity Disorder 302.85
DSM III-Revised **1987** *TS classified as an Axis II dx (personality disorders and mental retardation) in a different chapter. GID included under Disorders Usually First Evident in Infancy, Childhood, Adolescence*	**Trans-sexualism** *(TS) (302.50) [GID of C]*	Required A and B criteria	Persistent discomfort and sense of inappropriateness about one's assigned sex. Persistent preoccupation for at least 2 years with getting rid of one's 1^{o} and 2^{o} sex characteristics and acquiring the sex characteristics of the other sex. Has reached puberty	Further characterization by sexual orientation Distinguished from Gender Identity Disorder of Adolescence or Adulthood, Non-trans-sexual Type • e.g., cross-dressing not for the purposes of sexual excitement Gender Identity Disorder Not Otherwise Specified 302.6 • e.g., intersex conditions Gender Identity Disorder Not Otherwise Specified 302.85 • e.g., persistent preoccupation with castration or penectomy w/o desire to acquire the sex traits of the other sex
	GID of adulthood,			

	non-trans-sexual type, added			
DSM IV **1994** *Chapter: Sexual & Gender Identity Disorders*	**Gender Identity Disorder** in Adolescents and Adults (302.85) (Separate criteria & code for children, but same name)	Required A and B criteria Dx excluded by physical intersex condition	Cross-gender identification • e.g., Stated desire to be another sex • e.g., Desire to live or be treated as a member of the other sex • e.g., conviction that he/she has the typical feelings and reactions of the other sex • e.g., frequent passing as the other sex Persistent discomfort with his/her sex or sense of inappropriateness in the gender role of that sex. • e.g., belief the he/she was born the wrong sex • e.g., preoccupation with getting rid of 1^{o} and 2 ^{o} sex characteristics &/or acquiring sexual traits of the other sex • Clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning	Further characterization by sexual orientation Distinguished from Gender Identity Disorder Not Otherwise Specified 302.6 • e.g., intersex conditions • e.g., stress related cross-dressing • e.g., persistent preoccupation with castration or penectomy w/o desire to acquire the sex traits of the other sex
DSM IV-Revised **2000** *Chapter: Sexual & Gender Identity Disorders*	**Gender Identity Disorder** (Term trans-sexual-ism eliminated)	Required A & B criteria Dx excluded by physical intersex condition	Cross-gender identification • e.g., stated desire to be the other sex • e.g., desire to live or be treated as the other sex • e.g., conviction that he/she has the typical feelings & reactions of the other sex	Outcome may depend on time of onset Further characterization by sexual orientation Distinguished from Gender Identity Disorder Not Otherwise

			• e.g., frequent passing as the other sex Persistent discomfort with his or her sex OR sense of inappropriateness in the gender role of that sex • e.g., belief the he/she was born the wrong sex • e.g., preoccupation with getting rid of 1^{o} and 2 ^{o} sex characteristics &/or acquiring sexual traits of the other sex Clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning	Specified 302.6 • e.g., intersex conditions • e.g., stress related cross-dressing • e.g., persistent preoccupation with castration or penectomy w/o desire to acquire the sex traits of the other sex
DSM V **2013** *Separate Chapter from Sexual Dysfunctions & Paraphilic Disorders*	**Gender Dysphoria** *(302.85)*	Gender nonconformity itself not considered to be a mental disorder The dysphoria associated with the gender incongruence is Eliminates A & B criteria Considers gender incongruence to be a spectrum Considers intersex/ "disorders of sex development" to be a	• Marked discordance between natal 1^{o} and 2^{o} sex characteristics* and experienced/expressed gender • Conviction that he/she has the typical feelings & reactions of the other sex (or some alternative gender) • Marked desire to be the other sex (or some alternative gender) • Marked desire to desire be treated as the other sex (or some alternative gender) • Marked desire to be rid of natal 1^{o} and 2^{o} sex characteristics** • Marked desire to acquire 1^{o} and 2^{o} sex characteristics of the other sex (or some alternative gender) Clinically significant	Includes diagnosis for post transition state to permit continued treatment access Includes disorders of sexual development such as congenital hyperplasia and androgen insensitivity syndromes

		subsidiary and not exclusionary to dx of GD	distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning * or in young adolescents, the anticipated 2^{o} sex characteristics ** or in young adolescents, prevent the development of the anticipated 2^{o} sex characteristics ≥ 6 month marked discordance between natal gender & experienced/expressed gender as demonstrated by ≥ 6 criteria: • Strong desire to be of the other gender or an insistence that one is of another gender. • Strong preference for cross-gender roles in make-believe play. • Strong preference for the toys, games, or activities of the other gender. • Strong preference for playmates of the other gender. • In boys, strong preference for cross-dressing; in girls, strong preference for wearing masculine clothing • In boys, rejection of masculine toys, games, activities, avoidance of rough and tumble play; in girls, rejection of feminine toys, games, and activities.	
	Unspecified Gender Dysphoria		This category applies to presentations in which sx c/w gender	

	(302.6) (F64.9)		dysphoria that cause clinically significant distress or impairment, but do not meet the full criteria for gender dysphoria & the reason for not meeting the criteria is not provided.	
	Specified Gender Dysphoria 302.6 (F64.8)		If the reason that the presentation does not meet the full criteria is provided then this dx should be used	

C/W=consistent with Dx=diagnosis GD=gender dysphoria Sx=symptoms TS=transsexual 1^{o}=primary 2^{o}=secondary

B. Appendix B

1. General Methodological Principles of Study Design

When making national coverage determinations, CMS evaluates relevant clinical evidence to determine whether or not the evidence is of sufficient quality to support a finding that an item or service is reasonable and necessary. The overall objective for the critical appraisal of the evidence is to determine to what degree we are confident that: 1) the specific assessment questions can be answered conclusively; and 2) the intervention will improve health outcomes for patients.

We divide the assessment of clinical evidence into three stages: 1) the quality of the individual studies; 2) the generalizability of findings from individual studies to the Medicare population; and 3) overarching conclusions that can be drawn from the body of the evidence on the direction and magnitude of the intervention's potential risks and benefits.

The methodological principles described below represent a broad discussion of the issues we consider when reviewing clinical evidence. However, it should be noted that each coverage determination has its unique methodological aspects.

Assessing Individual Studies

Methodologists have developed criteria to determine weaknesses and strengths of clinical research. Strength of evidence generally refers to: 1) the scientific validity underlying study findings regarding causal relationships between health care interventions and health outcomes; and 2) the reduction of bias. In general, some of the methodological attributes associated with stronger evidence include those listed below:

- Use of randomization (allocation of patients to either intervention or control group) in order to minimize bias.
- Use of contemporaneous control groups (rather than historical controls) in order to ensure comparability between the intervention and control groups.
- Prospective (rather than retrospective) studies to ensure a more thorough and systematical assessment of factors related to outcomes.
- Larger sample sizes in studies to demonstrate both statistically significant as well as clinically significant

outcomes that can be extrapolated to the Medicare population. Sample size should be large enough to make chance an unlikely explanation for what was found.

- Masking (blinding) to ensure patients and investigators do not know to which group patients were assigned (intervention or control). This is important especially in subjective outcomes, such as pain or quality of life, where enthusiasm and psychological factors may lead to an improved perceived outcome by either the patient or assessor.

Regardless of whether the design of a study is a randomized controlled trial, a non-randomized controlled trial, a cohort study or a case-control study, the primary criterion for methodological strength or quality is the extent to which differences between intervention and control groups can be attributed to the intervention studied. This is known as internal validity. Various types of bias can undermine internal validity. These include:

- Different characteristics between patients participating and those theoretically eligible for study but not participating (selection bias).
- Co-interventions or provision of care apart from the intervention under evaluation (performance bias).
- Differential assessment of outcome (detection bias).
- Occurrence and reporting of patients who do not complete the study (attrition bias).

In principle, rankings of research design have been based on the ability of each study design category to minimize these biases. A randomized controlled trial minimizes systematic bias (in theory) by selecting a sample of participants from a particular population and allocating them randomly to the intervention and control groups. Thus, in general, randomized controlled studies have been typically assigned the greatest strength, followed by non-randomized clinical trials and controlled observational studies. The design, conduct and analysis of trials are important factors as well. For example, a well-designed and conducted observational study with a large sample size may provide stronger evidence than a poorly designed and conducted randomized controlled trial with a small sample size. The following is a representative list of study designs (some of which have alternative names) ranked from most to least methodologically rigorous in their potential ability to minimize systematic bias:

Randomized controlled trials
Non-randomized controlled trials
Prospective cohort studies
Retrospective case control studies
Cross-sectional studies
Surveillance studies (e.g., using registries or surveys)
Consecutive case series
Single case reports

When there are merely associations but not causal relationships between a study's variables and outcomes, it is important not to draw causal inferences. Confounding refers to independent variables that systematically vary with the causal variable. This distorts measurement of the outcome of interest because its effect size is mixed with the effects of other extraneous factors. For observational, and in some cases randomized controlled trials, the method in which confounding factors are handled (either through stratification or appropriate statistical modeling) are of particular concern. For example, in order to interpret and generalize conclusions to our population of Medicare patients, it may be necessary for studies to match or stratify their intervention and control groups by patient age or co-morbidities.

Methodological strength is, therefore, a multidimensional concept that relates to the design, implementation and analysis of a clinical study. In addition, thorough documentation of the conduct of the research, particularly study selection criteria, rate of attrition and process for data collection, is essential for CMS to adequately assess and

consider the evidence.

Generalizability of Clinical Evidence to the Medicare Population

The applicability of the results of a study to other populations, settings, treatment regimens and outcomes assessed is known as external validity. Even well-designed and well-conducted trials may not supply the evidence needed if the results of a study are not applicable to the Medicare population. Evidence that provides accurate information about a population or setting not well represented in the Medicare program would be considered but would suffer from limited generalizability.

The extent to which the results of a trial are applicable to other circumstances is often a matter of judgment that depends on specific study characteristics, primarily the patient population studied (age, sex, severity of disease and presence of co-morbidities) and the care setting (primary to tertiary level of care, as well as the experience and specialization of the care provider). Additional relevant variables are treatment regimens (dosage, timing and route of administration), co-interventions or concomitant therapies, and type of outcome and length of follow-up.

The level of care and the experience of the providers in the study are other crucial elements in assessing a study's external validity. Trial participants in an academic medical center may receive more or different attention than is typically available in non-tertiary settings. For example, an investigator's lengthy and detailed explanations of the potential benefits of the intervention and/or the use of new equipment provided to the academic center by the study sponsor may raise doubts about the applicability of study findings to community practice.

Given the evidence available in the research literature, some degree of generalization about an intervention's potential benefits and harms is invariably required in making coverage determinations for the Medicare population. Conditions that assist us in making reasonable generalizations are biologic plausibility, similarities between the populations studied and Medicare patients (age, sex, ethnicity and clinical presentation) and similarities of the intervention studied to those that would be routinely available in community practice.

A study's selected outcomes are an important consideration in generalizing available clinical evidence to Medicare coverage determinations. One of the goals of our determination process is to assess health outcomes. These outcomes include resultant risks and benefits such as increased or decreased morbidity and mortality. In order to make this determination, it is often necessary to evaluate whether the strength of the evidence is adequate to draw conclusions about the direction and magnitude of each individual outcome relevant to the intervention under study. In addition, it is important that an intervention's benefits are clinically significant and durable, rather than marginal or short-lived. Generally, an intervention is not reasonable and necessary if its risks outweigh its benefits.

If key health outcomes have not been studied or the direction of clinical effect is inconclusive, we may also evaluate the strength and adequacy of indirect evidence linking intermediate or surrogate outcomes to our outcomes of interest.

Assessing the Relative Magnitude of Risks and Benefits

Generally, an intervention is not reasonable and necessary if its risks outweigh its benefits. Health outcomes are one of several considerations in determining whether an item or service is reasonable and necessary. CMS places greater emphasis on health outcomes actually experienced by patients, such as quality of life, functional status, duration of disability, morbidity and mortality, and less emphasis on outcomes that patients do not directly experience, such as intermediate outcomes, surrogate outcomes, and laboratory or radiographic responses. The direction, magnitude, and consistency of the risks and benefits across studies are also important considerations. Based on the analysis of

the strength of the evidence, CMS assesses the relative magnitude of an intervention or technology's benefits and risk of harm to Medicare beneficiaries.

Appendix C

Patient Population: Enrolled & Treated with Sex Reassignment Surgery Loss of Patients & Missing Data

Panel A (Controlled Studies)

Author	Study Type	Recruitment Pool	Enrolled	% GRS	Completion
Dhejne 2011	Longitudinal Controlled	804 w GD	324	324 (100%)	-
Dhejne 2014 Landén	Longitudinal for test variable Controlled	767 applied for SRS 25 applications denied. 61 not granted full legal status 15 formal applications for surgical reversal	681	681 (100%)	NA: Clinical data extracted retrospectively in earlier paper
Heylens	Longitudinal Controlled	90 applicants for SRS 33 excluded 11 later excluded had not yet received SRS by study close.	57 (→46)	46 (80.7%) Only those w SRS evaluated	Psycho-social survey missing data for 3 at baseline & 4 after SRS. SCL90 not completed by 1 at baseline, 10 after hormone tx, & 4 after SRS →missing data for another 1.1% to 11.1%.
Kockott	Longitudinal Controlled	80 applicants for SRS 21 excluded	59	32 (54.2%) went to surgery	1 preoperative patient was later excluded b/c lived completely in aspired gender w/o SRS. Questions on financial sufficiency not answered by 1 surgical pt. Questions on sexual satisfaction & gender contentment not answered by 1 & 2 patients awaiting surgery respectively.
Mate-Kole 1990	Longitudinal Controlled	40 sequential patients of accepted patients. The number in the available patient pool was not specified.	40	20 (50%) went to surgery	-
Meyer	Longitudinal Controlled	Recruitment pool: 100 50 were excluded.	50	15 (30%) had undergone surgery 14 (28%) underwent surgery later	The assessments of all were complete

Rakic	Longitudinal Controlled	92 were evaluated 54 were excluded from surgery 2 post SRS were lost to follow-up 2 post SRS were excluded for being in the peri-operative period	32	32 (100%)	Questionnaire completed by all.
Ruppin	Longitudinal Controlled	The number in the available patient pool was not specified. 140 received recruitment letters. 69 were excluded	71	69 (97.2%)	The SCL-90, BSRI, FPI-R, & IPP tests were not completed by 9, 34, 13, &16 respectively. Questions about romantic relationships, sexual relationships, friendships, & family relationships were not answered by 1, 3, 2, & 23 respectively. Questions regarding gender security & regret & were not answered by 1& 2 respectively.
Smith	Longitudinal Controlled	The number in the available adult patient pool was not specified. 325 adult & adolescent applicants for SRS were recruited. 103 were excluded from additional tx	162	162 (100%)	36 to 61 (22.2%-37.6% of those adults w pre-SRS data) did not complete various post-SRS tests.
Udeze Megeri	Longitudinal Controlled	International patient w GD 546 & post SRS 318. 40 M to F subjects were prospectively selected.	40	40 (100%)	-
Ainsworth	Internet/convention Survey Cross-sectional Controlled	Number of incomplete questionnaires not reported	247	72 (29.1%) 75 (30.6%) facial 147 (59.5%) had received neither facial nor reassignment surgery	-
Beatrice	Cross-sectional Controlled	14 excluded for demographic matching reasons	40	10 (25%)	The assessments were completed by all
Haraldsen	Cross-sectional Controlled	Recruitment pool: 99	86	59 (68.6%)	-
Kraemer	Cross-sectional	The number in the	45	22 (48.9%)	-

	Controlled	available patient pool was not specified.			
Kuhn	Cross-sectional Controlled	The number in the available patient pool was not specified.	75	55 (73.3%)	-
Mate-Kole 1988	Cross-sectional Controlled	150 in 3 cohorts. Matched on select traits. The number in the available patient pool was not specified.	150	50 (66.7%)	-
Wolfradt	Cross-sectional Controlled	The number in the available patient pool was not specified.	90	30 (33.3%)	-

Panel B (Surgical Series: No Concurrent Controls)

Author	Study Type	Recruitment Pool	Enrolled	% GRS	Completion
Blanchard et al.	Cross-sectional Control: Normative test data	294 clinic patients w GD had completed study questionnaire 116 authorized for GRS. 103 completed GRS & 1 yr post-operative. 24 excluded	79	79(100%)	-
Weyers et al.	Cross-sectional Control: Normative test data	>300 M to F patients had undergone GRS 70 eligible patients recruited 20 excluded	50	50 (100%)	SF-26 not completed by 1
Wierckx et al.	Cross-sectional except for recall questions Control: Normative test data	79 F to M patients had undergone GRS & were recruited. 3 additional non-clinic patients were recruited by other patients. 32 excluded initially; 1 later.	49	49 (100%)	SF-36 test not completed by 2. Questions regarding sexual re-lationship, sex function, & surgical satisfaction were answered by as few as 27, 28, 32 respectively.
Eldh et al.	Cross-sectional except for 1 variable Control: Self for 1 variable-employ-ment	136 were identified. 46 excluded	90	90 (100%)	Questions regarding gender iden-tity, sex life, acceptance, & overall satisfaction were not answered by 13, 14, 14 & 16 respectively. Employment data missing for 11.
Hess et al.	Cross-sectional No control	254 consecutive eligible patients post GRS identified & sent surveys. 135 excluded.	119	119 (100%)	Questions regarding the esthetics, functional, and social outcomes of GRS were not answered by 16 to 28 patients.
Lawrence	Cross-sectional	727 eligible patients	232	232	-

	No control	were recruited. 495 were excluded		(100%)	
Salvador et al.	Cross-sectional No control	243 had enrolled in the clinic 82 completed GRS 69 eligible patients were identified. 17 excluded.	52	52 (100%)	-
Tsoi	Cross-sectional No control	The number in the available patient pool was not specified.	81	81 (100%)	-

Panel C (Mixed Treatment Series: No Direct Control Groups)

Author	Study Type	Recruitment Pool	Enrolled	% GRS	Completion
Gómez-Gil et al. 2012	Cross-sectional No direct control: Analysis of variance	200 consecutive patients were recruited. 13 declined participation or were excluded for incomplete questionnaires.	187	79 (42.2%)	See prior box.
Hepp et al.	Cross-sectional No direct control: Analysis of variance	The number in the available patient pool was not specified.	31	7 (22.6%)	HADS test not completed by 1
Motmans et al.	Cross-sectional No direct control: Analysis of variance & regression	255 with GD were identified. 77 were excluded.	148 (→140)	Not clearly stated. At least 103 underwent some form of GRS.	8 later excluded for incomplete SF-36 tests. 37 w recent GRS or hormone initiation were excluded from analysis of SF-36 results→103.
Newfield et al.	Internet survey Cross-sectional No direct control: Analysis of variance	Number of incomplete questionnaires not reported 446 respondents; 384 U.S respondents 62 non-U.S. respondents excluded from SF-36 test results 8 U.S. respondents excluded	376 (U.S.)	139 to 150 (37.0-39.9%) in U.S.	-
Gomez-Gil et al. 2014	Cross-sectional No direct control: Analysis w regression	The number in the available patient pool was not specified. 277 were recruited. 25 excluded	252(→193)	80 (41.4%) non-genital surgery	59 were excluded for incomplete questionnaires. See prior box.
Asscherman	Longitudinal No analysis by tx	The number in the available patient pool	1331	1177 (88.4%)	-

	status	was not specified.			
Johansson et al.	Cross-sectional except for 1 variable No analysis by tx status except for 1 question	60 eligible patients 18 excluded.	42	32 (76.2% of enrolled & 53.3% of eligible) (genital surgery)	-
Leinung et al.	Cross-sectional No analysis by tx status	242 total clinic patients	242	91 (37.6%)	Employment status data missing for 81 of all patients

*Data obtained via a survey on a website and distributed at a conference
B/C=because
BSRI=Bem Sex Role Inventory
F=Female
FP-R=Freiberg Personality Inventory
GD=Gender dysphoria
GID=Gender identity disorder
HADS=Hospital Anxiety & Depression Scale
IPP=Inventory of Interpersonal Problems
M=Male
NA=Not applicable
SCL-90=Symptom Checklist-90
SF-36=Short Form 36
GRS=Sex reassignment surgery
Tx=Treatment
W/o=without

Appendix D

Demographic Features of Study Populations

Panel A (Controlled Studies)

Author	**Age (years; mean, S.D., range)**	**Gender**	**Race**
Ainsworth	Only reassignment surgery:50 (no S.D.) Only facial surgery: 51 (no S.D.) Both types of surgery: 49 (no S.D.) Neither surgery: 46 (no S.D.)	247 M to F	-
Beatrice	Pre-SRS M to F: 32.5 (27-42), Post-SRS: 35.1 (30-43)	20 M to F plus 20 M controls	100% Caucasian
Dehjne 2011	Post-SRS: all 35.1±9.7 (20-69), F to M 33.3+8.7 (20–62), M to F 36.3+ 10.1(21–69)	133 (41.0%) F to M, 191 (59.0%) M to F; ratio 1:1.4	-
Dhejne 2014 Landén	F to M SRS cohort: median age 27 M to F SRS cohort: median age 32 F to M applicants for reversal: median age 22 M to F applicants for reversal: median age 35	767 applicants for legal/surgical reassignment 289 (37.7%) F to M, 478 (62.3%) M to F; ratio 1:1.6 681 post SRS & legal change 252 (37.0%) F to M, 429 (63.0%) M to F; ratio 1:1.7	-

		15 applicants for reversal 5 (33.3%) F to M, 10 (66.7%) M to F; ratio 1:2	
Haraldsen	Pre-SRS & Post-SRS: F to M 34±9.5, F to M 33.3±10.0 Post-SRS cohort reportedly older. No direct data provided.	Pre & Post SRS 35 (40.7%) F to M, 51 (59.3%) M to F; ratio 1:1.5	-
Heylens	-	11 (19.3% of 57) F to M, 46 (80.7%); ratio 1:4.2 (80.7% underwent surgery)	-
Kockott	Pre-SRS (continued wish for surgery): 31.7±10.2 Post-SRS: 35.5±13.1	Pre-SRS (continued wish for surgery) 3 (25%) F to M, 9 (75%) M to F; ratio 1:3 Post SRS: 14 (43.8%) F to M, 18 (56.2%) M to F; ratio 1:1.3	-
Kraemer	Pre-SRS: 33.0±11.3, Post-SRS: 38.2±9.0	Pre-SRS 7 F to M (30.4%), 16 M to F (69.6%); ratio 1:2.3 Post-SRS 8 F to M (36.4%), 14 M to F (63.6%); ratio 1:1.8	-
Kuhn	All post SRS: median (range): 51 (39-62) (long-term follow-up)	3 (5.4%) F to M, 52 (94.5%) M to F; ratio 1:17.3.	-
Mate-Kole 1988	Initial evaluation: 34, Pre-SRS: 35, Post-SRS: 37	150 M to F	-
Mate-Kole 1990	Early & Usual wait SRS: 32.5 years (21-53)	40 M to F	-
Meyer	Pre-SRS: 26.7 Delayed, but completed SRS: 30.9 Post-SRS: 30.1	Pre-SRS: 5 (23.8%) F to M, 16 (76.2%) M to F; ratio 1:3.2 Delayed, but completed SRS: 1 (7.1%) F to M, 13 (92.9%) M to F; ratio 1:13 Post-SRS: 4 (26.7%) F to M, 11 (73.3%) M to F; ratio 1:2.8	86% Caucasian
Rakic	All: 26.8±6.9 (median 25.5, range 19-47), F to M: 27.8±5.2 (median 27, range 23-37), M to F: 26.4±7.8 (median 24, range 19-47).	10 (31.2%) F to M, 22 (68.8%) M to F; ratio 1:2.2	-
Ruppin	All: 47.0±10.42 (but 2 w/o SRS) (13.8±2.8 yrs post legal name change) (long-term follow-up) F to M: 41.2±5.78, M to F 52.9±10.82	36 (50.7%) F to M, 35 (49.3%) M to F; ratio 1:0.97	-
Smith	Time of surgical request for post-SRS: 30.9 (range 17.7-68.1) Time of follow-up for post-SRS: 35.2 (range 21.3-71.9)	Pre-SRS: 162: 58 (35.8%) F to M, 104 [64.2%] M to F; ratio 1:1.8 Post-SRS: 126: 49 (38.9%) F to M, 77 (61.1%) M to F; ratio 1:1.6	-
Udeze Megeri	M to F: 47.33±13.26 (range 25-80).	40 M to F	-
Wolfradt	Patients & controls: 43 (range 29-67).	30 M to F plus 30 F controls plus 30 M controls.	-

*Data obtained via a survey on a website and distributed at a conference SD=Standard deviation

Panel B (Surgical Series: No Concurrent Controls)

Author	Age (years; mean, S.D., range)	Gender	Caucasian
Blanchard et al.	F to M: 32.6, M to F w M partner preference: 33.2, F to M w F partner preference: 47.7 years	Post-GRS: 47 (45.6%) F to M, 56 (54.4%) M to F; ratio 1:1.19. In study: 38 (48.1%) F to M, 32 (40.5%) M to F w M partner preference, 9 (11.4%) M to F w F partner preference; ratio 1:0.8: 0.2	-
Weyers et al.	Post-GRS M to F: 43.1 ±10.4 (long-term follow-up)	50 M to F	-
Wierckx et al.	Time of GRS: 30±8.2 years (range 16 to 49) Time of follow-up: 37.1 ±8.2.4 years (range 22 to 54)	49 M to F	-
Eldh et al.	-	50 (55.6%) F to M, 40 (44.4%) M to F; ratio 1:0.8 There is 1 inconsistency in the text suggesting that these should be reversed.	-
Hess et al.	-	119 M to F	-
Lawrence	Time of GRS: 44±9 (range 18-70)	232 M to F	-
Salvador et al.	Time of follow-up for post-GRS: 36.28±8.94 (range 18-58) (Duration of follow-up: 3.8±1.7 [2-7])	52 M to F	-
Tsoi	Time of initial visit: All: 24.0±4.5, F to M: 25.4±4.4 (14-36), M to F: 22.9±4.6 (14-36). Time of GRS: All: 25.9±4.14, F to M: 27.4±4.0 (20-36), M to F: 24.7+4.3 (20-36).	36 (44.4%) F to M, 45 (55.6%) M to F; ratio 1:1.25	0% 100% Asian

Panel C (Mixed Treatment Series: No Direct Control Groups)

Author	Age (years; mean, S.D., range)	Gender	Caucasian
Gómez-Gil et al. 2012	W & W/O GRS: All: 29.87±9.15 (range 15-61), W/O hormone tx: 25.9±7.5, W current hormone tx: 33.6±9.1. (At hormone initiation: 24.6±8.1).	W/O hormone tx: 38 (56.7%) F to M, 29 (43.3%) M to F; ratio 1:0.8. W hormone tx: 36 (30.0%) F to M, 84 (70.0%) M to F; ratio 1:2.3. Post-GRS: 29 (36.7%) F to M, 50 (63.3%) M to F; ratio 1:1.7.	-
Hepp et al.	W & W/O GRS: 32.2±10.3	W & W/O GRS: 11 (35.5%) F to M; 20 (64.5%) M to F; ratio 1:1.8.	-
Motmans et al.	W & W/O GRS: All (n=140) : 39.9±10.2, F to M: 37.0±8.5, M to F: 42.3±10.4	W & W/O GRS: N=140 63(45.0%) F to M, 77 (55.0%) M to F; ratio 1:1.2 N=103 49 (47.6%) F to M; 54 (52.4%) M toF; ratio 1:1.1	-
Newfield et al.	W & W/O GRS: U.S.+ non-U.S. : 32.8±11.2, U.S. 32.6±10.8	W & W/O GRS: U.S.+ non-U.S.: F to M, 438, U.S.: F to M: 376	89% of 336 respondents Caucasian
Gomez-Gil, et al. 2014	W & W/O Non-genital GRS: 31.2±9.9 (range 16-67).	W & W/O Non-genital GRS: 74 (38.3%) F to M, 119 (61.7%) M to	-

		F; ratio1:1.6.	
Asscherman	Time of hormone tx: F to M: 26.1±7.6 (16–56), M to F: 31.4±11.4 (16–76)	Met hormone tx requirements: 365 (27.4%) F to M, 966 (72.6%) M to F; ratio 1:2.6. Post-GRS: 343 (29.1%) F to M, 834 (70.9%) M to F; ratio 1:2.4.	-
Johanssen	Time of initial evaluation: F toM: 27.8 (18-46), M to F 37.3 (21-60). Time of GRS: F to M: 31.4 (22-49), M to F 38.2 (22-57). Time of follow-up for post-GRS: F to M: 38.9 (28-53), M to F 46.0 (25-69) (Long-term follow-up)	Approved for GRS: 21 (35%) F to M, 39 (65%) M to F; ratio 1:1.9) Post GRS: 14 (43.8%) F to M; 18 (56.2%) M to F; ratio 1:1.3)	-
Leinung et al.	Time of hormone initiation : F to M: 27.5, M to F 35.5	W & W/O GRS: 50 (20.7%) F to M, 192 M to F (79.3%); ratio 1:3.8. Post-GRS: 32 F to M (35.2%); 59 (64.8%) M to F; ratio 1:1.8.	-

Appendix E

Psychometric and Satisfaction Survey Instruments

Instrument Name and Developer	**Development and Validation Information**
APGAR Family Adaptability, Partner-ship Growth, Affection, and Resolve *Smilkstein*	Published in 1978 Initial data: 152 families in the U.S. A "friends" component was added in 1983. Utility has challenged by many including Gardner 2001
Beck Depression Inventory *Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, & Erbaugh*	Published initially in 1961 with subsequent revisions It was initially evaluated in psychiatric patients in the U.S.A. Salkind (1969) evaluated its use in 80 general outpatients in the UK. Itis copyrighted and requires a fee for use
Bem Sex Role Inventory *Bem*	Published 1974 Initial data: 100 Stanford Undergraduates 1973 update: male 444; female 279 1978 update: 470; female 340
Body Image Questionnaire *Clement & Lowe*	Validity study published 1996 (German) Population: 405 psychosomatic patients, 141 medical students, 208 sports students
Body Image Scale *Lindgren & Pauly (Kuiper, Dutch adaptation 1991)*	1975 Initial data: 16 male and 16 female transsexual patients in Oregon
Crown Crisp Experiential Index (formerly Middlesex Hospital Questionnaire)	Developed circa 1966 Manual published 1970 Initial data: 52 nursing students while in class in the UK

Crown & Crisp	
(2nd) European Quality of Life Survey *Anderson, Mikuliç, Vermeylen, Lyly-Yrjanainen, & Zigante,*	Published in 2007 The pilot survey was tested in the UK and Holland with 200 interviews. The survey was revised especially for non-response questions. Another version was tested in 25 persons of each of the 31 countries to be surveyed. Sampling methods were devised. 35,634 Europeans were ultimately surveyed. Additional updates
Female Sexual Function Index *Rosen, Brown, Heiman, Leiblum, Meston, Shabsigh, Ferguson, D'Agostino Wiegel, Meston, & Rosen*	Published in 2000 Initial data: 131 normal controls & 128 age-matched subjects with female sexual arousal disorder from 5 U.S. research centers. Updated 2005: the addition of those with hypoactive sexual desire disorder, female sexual orgasm disorder, dyspareunia/vaginismus, & multiple sexual dysfunctions (n=568), plus more controls (n=261).
Fragebogen zur Beurteilung des eigenen Korpers *Strauss*	Published 1996 (German)
Freiberg Personality Inventory *Fahrenberg, Hampel, & Selg*	7th edition published 2001, 8th edition in 2009 (Not in PubMed) German equivalent of MMPI
"gender identity disorder in childhood" *Smith, van Goozen, Kuiper, & Cohen-Kettenis*	11 items derived from the Biographical Questionnaire for Trans-sexuals (Verschoor Poortinga 1988) (Modified by authors of the Smith study)
Gender Identity Trait Scale *Altstotter-Gleich*	Published 1989 (German)
General Health Questionnaire *Goldberg & Blackwell (initial study)* *Goldberg & Williams (manual)*	Initial publication 1970 Manual published ?1978, 1988 (Not in PubMed) Initial data: 553 consecutive adult patients in a single UK primary care practice were assessed. Sample of 200 underwent standardized psychiatric interview. Developed to screen for hidden psychological morbidity. Proprietary test. Now 4 versions.
Hospital Anxiety & Depression Scale *Zigmond & Snaith*	Published in 1983 Initial data: Patients between 16 & 65 in outpatient clinics in the UK >100 patients; 2 refusals. 1st 50 compared to 2nd 50.
Inventory of Interpersonal Problems *Horowitz*	Published 1988 Initial data: 103 patients about to undergo psychotherapy; some patients post psycho-therapy (Kaiser Permanente-San Francisco) Proprietary test
King's Health Questionnaire	1997 Initial data: 293 consecutive women referred for urinary

Kelleher, Cardozo, Khullar, & Salvatore	incontinence evaluation in London Comparison to SF-36
Minnesota Multi-phasic Personality Inventory *Hathaway & McKinley* *Butcher, Dahlstrom, Graham, & Tellegen*	Published in 1941 Updated in 1989 with new, larger, more diverse sample. MMPI-2: 1,138 men & 462 women from diverse communities & several geographic regions in the U.S.A. The test is copyrighted.
Modified Androphia-Gynephilia Index	Neither the underlying version or the Blanchard modified version could be located in PubMed (Designed by the author of the Blanchard et al. study)
"post-operative functioning 13 items" *Doorn, Kuiper, Verschoor, Cohen-Kettenis*	Published 1996 (Dutch) (Not in PubMed) (Designed by 1 of the authors of the Smith study)
"post-operative functioning 21 items" *Doorn, Kuiper, Verschoor, Cohen-Kettenis*	Published 1996 (Dutch) (Not in PubMed) (Designed by 1 of the authors of the Smith study)
Scale for Depersonalization Experiences *Wolfradt*	Unpublished manuscript 1998 (University of Halle) (Designed by 1 of the authors of the Wolfradt study)
"sex trait function" *Cohen-Kettenis & van Goozen*	Published 1997 Assessed in 22 adolescents (Designed by 1 of the authors of the Smith Study)
Self-Esteem Scale *Rosenberg*	Published 1965 (Not in PubMed) Initial data: 5,024 high-school juniors & seniors from 10 randomly selected New York schools
Short-Form 36 *RAND* *Ware & Sherbourne1992* *McHorney, Ware, & Raczek 1993*	Originally derived from the Rand Medical Outcomes Study (n=2471 in version 1; 6742 in version 2 1989). The earliest test version is free. Alternative scoring has been developed. There is a commercial version with a manual.
Social Anxiety & Distress Scale *Watson & Friend*	Initial publication in1969 Requires permission for use
Social Support Scale *Van Tilburg 1988*	Published 1988 (Dutch) (Not in PubMed)
Spielberger State & Trait Anxiety Questionnaire *Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg, & Jacobs*	Current format published in 1983 Proprietary test
Symptom Checklist-90 *Derogatis, Lipman, Covi* *Derogatis & Cleary*	Published in 1973 & 1977 Reportedly with normative data for psychiatric patients (in- & out-patient) & normal subjects in the U.S. Has undergone a revision Requires qualification for use
Tennessee Self-Concept	In use prior to 1988 publication.

Scale *Fitts & Warren*	Initial data: 131 psychiatric day care patients. Updated manual published 1996. Update population >3000 with age stratification. No other innformation available. Requires qualification for use
Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale *Cohen-Kettenis & van Goozen*	Published in 1997 Initial population: 22 transgender adolescents who underwent reassignment surgery. (Designed by 1 of the authors of the Smith study)
WHO-Quality of Life (abbreviated version) *Harper for WHO group*	Field trial version released 1996 Tested in multiple countries. The Seattle site consisted of 192 of the 8294 subjects tested). Population not otherwise described. The minimal clinically important difference has not been determined. Permission required

Althof et al., 1983; Greenberg, Frank, 1965; Gurtman, 1996; Lang, Vernon, 1977; Paap et al., 2012; Salkind et al., 1969; Vacchiano, Strauss, 1968.

Appendix F

Endpoint Data Types and Sources

Panel A (Controlled Studies)

Author	National Data	Instrument w Substantive Normative Data	Instrument w/o Substantive &/or Accessible Normative Data	Investigator-designed	Other	Other
Dhejne 2011	Yes	-	-	-	-	Mortality (Suicide, Cardiovascular Disease [possible adverse events from Hormone Tx], Cancer), Psych hx & hospitalization, Suicide attempts
Dhejne Landén	Yes	-	-	-	Includes demographics*	Education, Employment, Formal application for reversal of status, Psych dx & tx, Substance abuse** More elements in earlier paper
Beatrice	-	MMPI form R, TSCS	-	-	Demographic	Education, Income, Relationships

Haraldsen	-	SCL-90/90R	-	-	Demographic	DSM Axis 1, II, V (GAF), Substance abuse
Heylens	-	SCL-90	-	Yes-2	Demographic	Employment, Relationships, Substance abuse, Suicide attempts
Ainsworth	-	Likely SF-36v2*	-	Yes-1	Demographic	-
Ruppin	-	SCL-90R	BSRI, FPI-R, IIP	Yes-2	Demographic	Adverse events from surgery, Employment, Psych tx, Relationships, Substance abuse
Smith	-	MMPI-short, SCL-90?R	BIS, UGDS, ? Cohen-Kettenis', Doorn's x2, (Gid-c, SSS)	Yes-1 or 2	Demographic	Adverse events from surgery, Employment, Relationships
Udeze Megeri	-	SCL-90R	BDI, GHQ, HADS,STAI-X1, STAI-X2	-	-	Psych eval & ICD-10 dx
Kuhn	-	-	KHQ	Yes-1	Demographic	Relationships
Mate-Kole 1990	-	-	BSRI, CCEI	Yes-1	Demographic	Employment (relative change), Psych hx, Suicide hx
Wolfradt	-	-	BIQ, GITS, SDE, SES	Yes-1	-	-
Kraemer	-	-	FBeK	-	Demographic	-
Mate-Kole 1988	-	-	BSRI, CCEI	-	Demographic	Employment, Psych hx, Suicide hx,
Kockott	-	-	-	Yes-1	Demographic	Employment, Income, Relationships, Suicide attempts
Meyer	-	-	-	Yes-1	Demographic	Education, Employment, Income, Psych tx, Phallus removal request
Rakic	-	-	-	Yes-1	Demographic	Employment, Relationships

Panel B (Surgical Series: No Concurrent Controls)

Author	**National Data**	**Instrument w Substantive Normative Data**	**Instrument w/o Sub-stantive &/or Accessible Normative Data**	**Investigator-designed**	**Other**	**Other**
Weyers	-	SF-36	FSFI	Yes-2	Demographic	Hormone levels, Adverse events from surgery, Relationships
Blanchard	-	SCL-90R	(AG)	Yes-1	Demographic	Education, Employment, Income,

						Relationships, Suicide (Incidental finding)
Wierckx	-	SF-36	-	Yes-3	Demographic	Hormone levels, Adverse events from surgery, Relationships
Eldh	-	-	-	Yes-1	-	Adverse events from surgery, Employment, Relationships, Suicide attempts
Hess	-	-	-	Yes-1	-	-
Lawrence	-	-	-	Yes-4	Demographic	Adverse events from surgery
Salvador	-	-	-	Yes-1	Demographic	Relationships
Tsoi	-	-	-	Yes-1	Demographic	Education, Employment, Relationships (relative change)

Panel C (Mixed Treatment Series: No Direct Control Groups)

Author	**National Data**	**Instrument w Substantive Normative Data**	**Instrument w/o Sub-stantive &/or Accessible Normative Data**	**Investigator-designed**	**Other**	**Other**
Asscheman et al.	Yes	-	-	-	Demographic	Mortality (HIV, Possible adverse events from Hormone Tx, Substance abuse, Suicide)
Motmans et al.	-	SF36 EQOLS (2nd)	-	-	Demographic	Education, Employment, Income, Relationships
Newfield et al.	-	SF-36v2	-	-	Demographic	Income
Gómez-Gil et al. 2014	-	WHOQOL-BREF	APGAR	Yes-1	Demographic	Education, Employment, Relationships
Gómez-Gil et al. 2012	-	-	HADS, SADS	-	Demographic	Education, Employment, Living arrangements
Hepp et al.	-	-	HADS	-	Demographic	DSM Axis 1& II Psych dx
Johansson et al.	-	-	-	Yes-1	Demographic	Axis V change (Pt & Clinician) Employment (relative change) Relationship (relative change)

Leinung et al.	-	-	-	-	Demographic	Employment, Disability, DVT, HIV status, Psych dx

*Listed as San Francisco-36 in manuscript

** From medical charts & verdicts ?=Possibly self-designed

AG=Androphilia-Gynephilia Index (investigator designed 1985) (used more for classification)

APGAR=Family Adaptability, Partnership growth, Affection, and Resolve

BDI=Beck Depression Inventory

BIQ=Body Image Questionnaire

BIS=Body Image Scale

BSRI=Bem Sex Role Inventory

CCEI=Crown Crisp Experiential Index

Cohen-Kettenis'= Sex trait function (An author helped design)

Dorn's x2= Post-operative functioning 13 items (An author helped design)

Post-operative functioning 21 items (An author helped design)

EQOLS (2nd)=2nd European Quality of Life Survey

FBeK=Fragebogen zur Beurteilung des eigenen Korpers

FPI-R=A version of the Freiberg Personality Inventory

FSFI+Female Sexual Function Index

GHQ=General Health Questionnaire

Gid-c=Gender identity disorder in childhood (used more for predictors) (An author helped design)

GITS=Gender Identity Trait Scale

HADS=Hospital Anxiety Depression Scale

IIP=Inventory of Interpersonal Problems

KHQ=King's Health Questionnaire

MMPI=Minnesota Multi-phasic Personality Inventory

SADS=Social Anxiety & Distress Scale

SCL-90 (±R)=A version of the Symptom Checklist 90

SDE=Scale for Depersonalized Experiences (An author designed)

SES=Self-Esteem Scale

SF-36 (v2)=Short Form-36(version2)

SSS=Social Support Scale (used more for predictors)

STAI-X1, STAI-X2=Spielberger State and Trait Anxiety Questionnaire

TSCS=Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

UGDS=Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale (An author helped design)

WHOQOL-BREF=World Health Organization-Quality of Life (abbreviated version)

Appendix G.

Longitudinal Studies Which Used Patients as Their Own Controls and Which Used Psychometric Tests with Extensive Normative Data or Longitudinal Studies Which Used National Data Sets

Author		Test	Patient and Data Loss	Results
	Psychometric Test			
Heylens et al. Belgium 2014		SCL-90R	90 applicants for SRS were recruited. • 8 (8.9%) declined participation.	At t=0, the mean global "psychoneuroticism" SCL-90R score, along with scores of 7 of 8 subscales, were statistically

			• 12 (13.3%) excluded b/c GID-NOS dx. • 12 (13.3%) did not complete the treatment sequence b/c of psychiatric/physical co-morbidity, personal decision for no tx, or personal decision for only hormone tx. • 1 (1.1%) committed suicide during follow-up. 57 (63.3% of recruited) entered the study. • 1 (12.2% of initial recruits) had not yet received SRS by study close. →**46 (51.1% of recruited) underwent serial evaluation** • The test was not completed by 1 at t=0, 10 at t=1 (after hormone tx), & 4 at t=2 (after SRS) →**missing data for another 1.1% to 11.1%.**	more pathologic than the general population. After hormone tx, the mean score for global "psychoneuroticism" normalized & remained normal after reassignment surgery.
Ruppin,Pfafflin, Germany 2015		SCL-90R	The number in the available patient pool was not specified. 140 received recruitment letters. • 2 (1.4% of those with recruitment letters) had died. • 1 (0.7%) was institutionalized. • 5 (3.6%) were ill. • 8 (5.7%) did not have time. • 8 (5.7%) stated that GD was no longer an issue. • 8 (5.7%) provided no reason. • 28 (20.0%) declined further contact. • 9 (6.4%) were lost to follow-up. →**71 (50.7%) agreed**	At t=0, the "global severity index "SCL-90R score was 0.53±0.49. At post-SRS follow-up the score had decreased to 0.28±0.36. The scores were statistically different from one another, but are of limited biologic significance given the range of the score for this scale: 0-4. In the same way, all of the subscale scores were statistically different, but the effect size was reported as large only for "interpersonal sensitivity": 0.70±0.67 at t=0 and 0.26±0.34 post-SRS.

			to participate. • **2 (1.4%) had not undergone SRS** • The test was not completed by 9. →**missing data for another 6.4%.**	
Smith et al. Holland 2005		MMPI SCL-90	The number in the available adult patient pool was not specified. 325 adult & adolescent applicants for SRS were recruited. • 103 (31.7%) were not eligible to start hormone tx & real-life experience. • 34 (10.7%) discontinued hormone tx 162 (an unknown percentage of the initial recruitment) provided pre-SRS test data. • **36 to 61 (22.2%-37.6% of those adults w pre-SRS data) did not complete post-SRS testing.**	Most of the MMPI scales were already in the normal range at the time of initial testing. At t=0, the global "psychoneuroticism" SCL-90 score, which included the drop-outs, was 143.0±40.7. At post SRS-follow-up, the score had decreased to 120.3±31.4. The scores were statistically different from one another, but are of limited biologic significance given the range of the score for this scale: 90 to 450, with higher scores consistent with more psychological instability.
Udeze, et al. 2008 Megeri, Khoosal 2007 UK		SCL-90R	The number in the available patient pool was not specified. 40 subjects were prospectively selected. • Post-operative testing was conducted within 6 months to minimize previously determined loss rates.	At t=0, the mean raw global score was 48.33. At post-SRS follow-up, the mean score was 49.15. There were no statistically significant changes in the global score or for any of the subscales.
	National Databases			
Dehjne Sweden 2011		Swedish National Records	804 with GID in Sweden 1973 to 2003 were identified. • 480 (59.7%) did not apply or were not approved for SRS 324 (40.3%) underwent SRS. • All were followed. 3240 controls of the natal sex and 3240 controls of the reassigned gender	All cause mortality was higher (n=27[8%]) than in controls (H.R 2.8 [1.8-4.3]) even after adjustment for covariants. Divergence in survival curves was observed after 10 years. The major contributor was completed suicide (n=10 [3%]; adjusted H.R. 19.1 [5.8-62.9]). Suicide attempts were more

		were randomly selected from national records	common (n= 29 [9%]) than in controls (adjusted H.R. 4.9 [2.9–8.5]). Hospitalizations for psychiatric conditions (not related to gender dysphoria) were more common n= 64 [20%] than in controls (H.R. 2.8 [2.0–3.9]) even after adjusting for prior psychiatric morbidity.
Dhejne et al. 2014 Landén et al. 1998 Sweden	Swedish National Registry	767 applied for SRS/legal status (1960-2010) • 25 (3.3%) applications denied. • 61 (8.0%) not granted full legal status 681 (88.7%) underwent SRS. • All were followed.	15 formal applications for reversal to natal/original gender (2.2% of the SRS population) were identified thus far (preliminary number). (Does not reflect other manifestations of regret such as suicide.)

GID-NOS=Gender Identity Disorder-Not Otherwise Specified HR=Hazard Ratio SRS=Sex reassignment surgery Tx=Treatment

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Mission:
To protect, promote & improve the health of all people in Florida through integrated state, county & community efforts.

Ron DeSantis
Governor

Joseph A. Ladapo, MD, PhD
State Surgeon General

Vision: To be the **Healthiest State** in the Nation

Treatment of Gender Dysphoria for Children and Adolescents

April 20, 2022

The Florida Department of Health wants to clarify evidence recently cited on a fact sheet released by the US Department of Health and Human Services and provide guidance on treating gender dysphoria for children and adolescents.

Systematic reviews on hormonal treatment for young people show a trend of low-quality evidence, small sample sizes, and medium to high risk of bias. A paper published in the International Review of Psychiatry states that 80% of those seeking clinical care will lose their desire to identify with the non-birth sex. One review concludes that "hormonal treatments for transgender adolescents can achieve their intended physical effects, but **evidence regarding their psychosocial and cognitive impact is generally lacking**."

According to the Merck Manual, “gender dysphoria is characterized by a strong, persistent cross-gender identification associated with anxiety, depression, irritability, and often a wish to live as a gender different from the one associated with the sex assigned at birth.”

Due to the lack of conclusive evidence, and the potential for long-term, irreversible effects, the Department's guidelines are as follows:

- Social gender transition should not be a treatment option for children or adolescents.
- Anyone under 18 should not be prescribed puberty blockers or hormone therapy.
- Gender reassignment surgery should not be a treatment option for children or adolescents.
    - Based on the currently available evidence, "encouraging mastectomy, ovariectomy, uterine extirpation, penile disablement, tracheal shave, the prescription of hormones which are out of line with the genetic make-up of the child, or puberty blockers, are all clinical practices which run an **unacceptably high risk of doing harm**."
- Children and adolescents should be provided social support by peers and family and seek counseling from a licensed provider.

These guidelines do not apply to procedures or treatments for children or adolescents born with a genetically or biochemically verifiable disorder of sex development (DSD). These disorders include, but are not limited to, 46, XX DSD; 46, XY DSD; sex chromosome DSDs; XX or XY sex reversal; and ovotesticular disorder.

The Department’s guidelines are consistent with the federal Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services age requirement for surgical and non-surgical treatment. These guidelines are also in line with the guidance, reviews, and recommendations from Sweden, Finland, the United Kingdom, and France.

Parents are encouraged to reach out to their child’s health care provider for more information.

Florida Medicaid

Generally Accepted Professional Medical Standards Determination on the Treatment of Gender Dysphoria

June 2022

Ron DeSantis, Governor
Simone Marstiller, Secretary

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Contents

Introductory Remarks and Abstract

Generally Accepted Professional Medical Standards

The Secretary of the Florida Agency for Health Care Administration requested that the Division of Florida Medicaid review the treatment of gender dysphoria for a coverage determination pursuant to Rule 59G-1.035, Florida Administrative Code (F.A.C.) (See Attachment A for the Secretary's Letter to Deputy Secretary Tom Wallace). The treatment reviewed within this report included "sex reassignment treatment," which refers to medical services used to obtain the primary and/or secondary physical sexual characteristics of a male or female. As a condition of coverage, sex reassignment treatment must be "consistent with generally accepted professional medical standards (GAPMS) and not experimental or investigational" (Rule 59G-1.035, F.A.C., see Attachment B for the complete rule text).

The determination process requires that "the Deputy Secretary for Medicaid will make the final determination as to whether the health service is consistent with GAPMS and not experimental or investigational" (Rule 59G-1.035, F.A.C.). In making that determination, Rule 59G-1.035, F.A.C., identifies several factors for consideration. Among other things, the rule contemplates the consideration of "recommendations or assessments by clinical or technical experts on the subject or field" (Rule 59G-1.035(4)(f), F.A.C.). Accordingly, this report attaches five assessments from subject-matter experts:

- **Attachment C:** Romina Brignardello-Petersen, DDS, MSc, PhD and Wojtek Wiercioch, MSc, PhD: *Effects of Gender Affirming Therapies in People with Gender Dysphoria: Evaluation of the Best Available Evidence*. 16 May 2022.
- **Attachment D:** James Cantor, PhD: *Science of Gender Dysphoria and Transsexualism*. 17 May 2022.
- **Attachment E:** Quentin Van Meter, MD: *Concerns about Affirmation of an Incongruent Gender in a Child or Adolescent*. 17 May 2022.
- **Attachment F:** Patrick Lappert, MD: *Surgical Procedures and Gender Dysphoria*. 17 May 2022.
- **Attachment G:** G. Kevin Donovan, MD: *Medical Experimentation without Informed Consent: An Ethicist's View of Transgender Treatment for Children*. 16 May 2022.

Abstract

Available medical literature provides insufficient evidence that sex reassignment through medical intervention is a safe and effective treatment for gender dysphoria. Studies presenting the benefits to mental health, including those claiming that the services prevent suicide, are either low or very low quality and rely on unreliable methods such as surveys and retrospective analyses, both of which are cross-sectional and highly biased. Rather, the available evidence demonstrates that these treatments cause irreversible physical changes and side effects that can affect long-term health.

Five clinical and technical expert assessments attached to this report recommend against the use of such interventions to treat what is categorized as a mental health disorder (See attachments):

- **Health Care Research:** Brignardello-Petersen and Wiercioch performed a systematic review that graded a multitude of studies. They conclude

that evidence supporting sex reassignment treatments is low or very low quality.

- **Clinical Psychology:** Cantor provided a review of literature on all aspects of the subject, covering therapies, lack of research on suicidality, practice guidelines, and Western European coverage requirements.
- **Plastic Surgery:** Lappert provided an evaluation explaining how surgical interventions are cosmetic with little to no supporting evidence to improve mental health, particularly those altering the chest.
- **Pediatric Endocrinology:** Van Meter explains how children and adolescent brains are in continuous phases of development and how puberty suppression and cross-sex hormones can potentially affect appropriate neural maturation.
- **Bioethics:** Donovan provides additional insight on the bioethics of administering these treatments, asserting that children and adolescents cannot provide truly informed consent.

Following a review of available literature, clinical guidelines, and coverage by other insurers and nations, Florida Medicaid has determined that the research supporting sex reassignment treatment is insufficient to demonstrate efficacy and safety. In addition, numerous studies, including the reports provided by the clinical and technical experts listed above, identify poor methods and the certainty of irreversible physical changes. Considering the weak evidence supporting the use of puberty suppression, cross-sex hormones, and surgical procedures when compared to the stronger research demonstrating the permanent effects they cause, these treatments do not conform to GAPMS and are experimental and investigational.

Health Service Summary

Gender Dysphoria

Frequently used to describe individuals whose gender identity conflicts with their natural-born sex, the term gender dysphoria has a history of evolving definitions during the past decades (Note: This report uses the term "gender" in reference to the construct of male and female identities and the term "sex" when regarding biological characteristics). Prior to the publication of the *Fifth Edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM-V), the American Psychiatric Association (APA) used the diagnosis of gender identity disorder (GID) to describe individuals who sought to transition to the opposite gender. However, behavioral health clinicians sought a revision after determining that using GID created stigma for those who received the diagnosis. This is despite the APA having adopted GID to replace the previous diagnosis of transsexualism for the exact same reason (APA, 2017).[1]

When crafting its new definition and terminology, the APA sought to remove the stigma of classifying as a disorder the questioning of one's gender identity by focusing instead on the psychological distress that such questioning can evoke. This approach argues that individuals seeking behavioral health and transition services are doing so due to experiencing distress and that gender non-conformity by itself is not a mental health issue. This led to the adoption of gender dysphoria in 2013 when the APA released the DSM-V. In addition to using a new term, the APA also differentiated the diagnosis between children and adolescents and adults, listing different characteristics for the two age groups (APA, 2017).

According to the DSM-V, gender dysphoria is defined as "the distress that may accompany the incongruence between one's experienced or expressed gender and one's assigned gender." As for the criteria to receive the diagnosis, the APA issued stricter criteria for children than adolescents and adults. For the former, the APA states that a child must meet six out of eight behavioral characteristics such as having "a strong desire to be of the other gender or an insistence that one is the other gender" or "a strong preference for cross-gender roles in make-believe or fantasy play." The criteria for adults and adolescents are less stringent with individuals only having to meet two out of six characteristics that include "a strong desire to be the other gender" or "a strong desire to be rid of one's primary and/or secondary sexual characteristics." The APA further notes that these criteria can also apply to young adolescents (DSM-V, 2013).

In 2021, the Merck Manual released a slightly different definition for gender dysphoria, citing that the condition "is characterized by a strong, persistent cross-gender identification associated with anxiety, depression, irritability, and often a wish to live as a gender different from the one associated with the

[1] The concept of gender being part of identity and disconnected from biological sex originated during the mid-twentieth century and was publicized by psychologist John W. Money. His research asserted that gender was a complete social construct and separate from biology, meaning that parents and/or caregivers could imprint on a young child (under three years) the identity of a boy or girl. In 1967, Money's theories led to a failed experiment on twin boys where physicians surgically transitioned one to appear as a girl. The twin that underwent sex reassignment never fully identified as a female. However, Money never publicly acknowledged this and reported the experiment as a success. Furthermore, he promoted his conclusions across the scientific community, concealing what actually unfolded. As a result, Money's ideas on gender fluidity served as a basis for performing procedures on children with hermaphroditic features or genital abnormalities. The case reveals how the understanding of a concept (e.g., gender) at any given time can lead to incorrect medical decisions with irreversible consequences (Gaetano, 2015).

sex assigned at birth." Additionally, the Merck Manual further states that "gender dysphoria is a diagnosis requiring specific criteria but is sometimes used more loosely for people in whom symptoms do not reach a clinical threshold" (Merck Manual, 2021). This definition is largely consistent with the DSM-V but does not emphasize the distress component to the same extent.[2]

Like other behavioral health diagnoses classified in the DSM-V, gender dysphoria has the following subtypes:

- **Early-Onset Gender Dysphoria:** This subtype begins during childhood and persists through adolescence into adulthood. It can be interrupted by periods where the individual does not experience gender dysphoria signs and may classify as homosexual (DSM-V, 2013).
- **Late-Onset Gender Dysphoria:** Occurring after puberty or during adulthood, this subtype does not begin until late adolescence and can emerge following no previous signs of gender dysphoria. The APA attributes this partially to individuals who did not want to verbalize their desires to transition (DSM-V, 2013).

Further studies have identified additional subtypes of gender dysphoria. In 2018, Lisa Littman introduced the concept of a rapid-onset subtype. Classified as rapid-onset gender dysphoria (ROGD), it features characteristics such as sudden beginnings during or following puberty. However, it differs from the DSM-V definitions because ROGD is associated with other causes such as social influences (e.g., peer groups, authority figures, and media). In other words, adolescents who had no history of displaying typical gender dysphoria characteristics go through a sudden change in identity following intense exposure to peers and/or media that heavily promotes transgender lifestyles (Littman, 2018). While more long-term studies are needed to confirm whether ROGD is a temporary or long-term condition, Littman's study has initiated discussions regarding potential causes of gender dysphoria as well as introduced a potential subtype.

Additionally, the frequent use of gender dysphoria in clinical and lay discourse has led to a fracturing of the definition. Studies on the topic frequently do not apply the DSM-V's criteria for the diagnosis and overlook certain key features such as distress. In a 2018 review by Zowie Davy and Michael Toze, the authors evaluated 387 articles that examine gender dysphoria and noted stark departures from the APA's definition. They further asserted that the APA intended to "reduce pathologization" by establishing a new definition for gender dysphoria in the DSM-V. This in turn would reduce diagnoses, although as Davy and Toze note, the tendency for the literature to diverge from the APA's definition may result in increased numbers of individuals classified as having gender dysphoria when they do not meet the DSM-V's criteria (Davy and Toze, 2018). This further raises the question of whether individuals are receiving potentially irreversible treatments for the condition when they might not actually have it.

The current usage of gender dysphoria is the result of discussions spanning across decades as demonstrated in the past editions of the DSM. Until 2013, the APA considered having gender identity issues a mental disorder by itself regardless of the presence of psychological distress. That perspective has since shifted to only consider the adverse psychological effects of questioning one's gender as a disorder. In addition, the APA considers gender as part of one's identity, which is not subject to a diagnosis. Whether the APA has shifted its terminology and criteria for gender identity issues due to

[2] Following the release of the Florida Department of Health's guidelines for treating gender dysphoria, Merck removed its definition for "gender dysphoria" from the Merck Manual (Fox News, 2022).

emerging clinical data or cultural changes is another question. In 1994, the APA replaced transsexualism with gender identity disorder as part of the "effort to reduce stigma" (APA, 2017). This raises questions about what influences decisions to revise definitions and criteria; is it social trends or medical evidence?

Behavioral Health Issues Co-Occurring with Gender Dysphoria

Because gender dysphoria pertains directly to the distress experienced by an individual who desires to change gender identities, secondary behavioral health issues can co-occur such as depression and anxiety. If left untreated, these conditions can lead to the inability to function in daily activities, social isolation, and even suicidal ideation. Studies do confirm that adolescents and adults with gender dysphoria report higher levels of anxiety, depression, and poor peer relationships than the general population (Kuper et al, 2019). Other associated conditions include substance abuse, eating disorders, and compulsivity. A significant proportion of individuals with gender dysphoria also have autism spectrum disorder (ASD) (Saleem and Rizvi, 2017). Although the number reporting secondary issues is increased, individuals diagnosed with gender dysphoria do not necessarily constitute the entire population that is gender non-conforming (i.e., does not identify with natal sex), and no information is available breaking down the percentage of those who are non-conforming with gender dysphoria and those who are non-conforming with no distress. Additionally, available research raises questions as to whether the distress is secondary to pre-existing behavioral health disorders and not gender dysphoria. This is evident in the number of adolescents who reported anxiety and depression diagnoses prior to transitioning (Saleem and Rizvi, 2017).

Furthermore, conventional treatments for secondary behavioral health issues are available. These include cognitive behavioral therapy, medication, and inpatient services. The APA reports that treatments for these are highly effective with 80% to 90% of individuals diagnosed with depression responding positively (APA, 2020). In addition, a high percentage of adolescents diagnosed with gender dysphoria had received psychiatric treatment for a prior or co-occurring mental health issue. A 2015 study from Finland by Kaltiala-Heino et al noted that 75% of children seeking sex reassignment services had been treated by a behavioral health professional (Kaltiala-Heino et al, 2015).

Diagnosing Gender Dysphoria

Prior to the publication of the DSM-V, diagnosing individuals experiencing gender identity issues followed a different process. Behavioral health clinicians could assign the diagnosis based on gender non-conformance alone. That has changed since 2013. Today, non-conforming to one's gender is part of personal identity and not a disorder requiring treatment. This change has led professional associations to shift the diagnostic criteria for gender dysphoria to focus on the distress caused by shifting identities (DSM-V, 2013).

For adolescents, the APA identifies "a marked incongruence between one's experienced/expressed gender and natal sex, of at least 6 months' duration" as the core component of gender dysphoria (DSM-V, 2013). What the APA does not elucidate is the threshold for "marked." This raises questions as to whether practitioners exercise uniformity when applying the diagnostic criteria or if they do so subjectively. For example, the WPATH's *Standards of Care for the Health of Transsexual, Transgender, and Gender Non-Conforming People* provides guidance on the processes mental health practitioners should use when assessing for gender dysphoria but offers no benchmarks for meeting diagnostic criteria (WPATH, 2012).

Such processes include evaluating for gender non-conforming behaviors and other co-existing mental disorders like anxiety or depression. This involves not only interviewing the adolescent but also the family in addition to reviewing medical histories. WPATH also asserts that gender dysphoria assessments need to account for peer relationships, academic performance, and provide information of potential treatments. This last component is necessary because it might affect an individual's choices regarding transitioning, particularly if the information does not correspond to the desired outcome (WPATH, 2012).

The diagnosis of gender dysphoria is a relatively recent concept in mental health, being the product of decades of discussion and building upon previous definitions. Instead of treating gender non-conformity as a disorder, behavioral health professionals acknowledge it as part of one's identity and focus on addressing the associated distress. Considering the new criteria, this changes the dynamics of the population who would have qualified for a diagnosis before 2013 and those who would today. Given that desiring to transition into a gender different from natal sex no longer qualifies as a disorder, behavioral health professionals are treating distress and referring adolescents and adults to therapies that are used off-label and pose irreversible effects.

Current Available Treatments for Gender Dysphoria

At present, proposed treatment for gender dysphoria occurs in four stages, beginning with psychological services and ending with sex reassignment surgery. As an individual progresses through each stage, the treatments gradually become more irreversible with surgical changes being permanent. Because of the increasing effects, individuals must have attempted treatment at the previous stage before pursuing the next one (Note: late adolescents and adults have already completed puberty and do not require puberty blockers). Listed in order, the four stages are as follows:

- **Behavioral Health Services:** Psychologists and other mental health professionals are likely the first practitioners individuals with gender dysphoria will encounter. In accordance with clinical guidelines established by the World Professional Association for Transgender Health (WPATH)[3], behavioral health professionals are supposed to "find ways to maximize a person's overall psychological well-being, quality of life, and self-fulfillment." WPATH further discourages services for attempting to change someone's gender identity. Instead, it instructs practitioners to assess for the condition and readiness for puberty blockers or cross-sex hormones while offering guidance to function in a chosen gender. WPATH does assert that the clinicians do need to treat any other underlying mental health issues secondary or co-occurring with gender dysphoria (WPATH, 2012). However, the organization provides conflicting guidance because it also advises practitioners to prescribe cross-sex hormones on demand (Levine, 2018).
- **Puberty Suppression:** Used only on individuals in the earliest stages of puberty (Tanner stage 2), preventing pubertal onset provides additional time to explore gender identities before the physical characteristics of biological sex develop. This treatment is intended to reduce distress and anxiety related to the appearance of adult sexual physical features. To suppress puberty, pediatric endocrinologists inject gonadotropin releasing hormone (Gn-RH) at specific intervals (e.g., 4 weeks or 12 weeks). The Gn-RH suppresses gonadotropin receptors that allow for the

[3] The World Professional Association for Transgender Health asserts that it is a professional organization. However, it functions like an advocacy group by allowing open membership to non-clinicians (WPATH, 2022).

development of primary and secondary adult sexual characteristics. Prior to receiving puberty suppression therapy, individuals must have received a diagnosis of gender dysphoria and have undergone a mental health evaluation (Kyriakou et al, 2020).

- **Cross-Sex Hormones:** For adults and late adolescents (16 years or older), the next treatment phase recommended is taking cross-sex hormones (e.g., testosterone or estrogen) to create secondary sex characteristics. In men transitioning into women, these include breast development and widening around the pelvis. Women who transition into men experience deeper voices, redistribution of fat deposits, and growing facial hair. According to the Endocrine Society, late adolescents who qualify for cross-sex hormones must have a confirmed diagnosis of gender dysphoria from a mental health practitioner with experience treating that population. Some physical changes induced by these hormones are irreversible (Endocrine Society, 2017).
- **Sex Reassignment Surgery:** Sometimes referred to as "gender affirming" surgery, this treatment does not consist of just one procedure but several, depending on the desires of the transitioning individual. Primarily, sex reassignment procedures alter the primary and secondary sexual characteristics. Men transitioning into women (trans-females) undergo a penectomy (removal of the penis), orchiectomy (removal of the testes), and vulvoplasty (creation of female genitals). Other procedures trans-females may undergo include breast augmentation and facial feminization. For women that transition into men (trans-males), procedures include mastectomy (removal of the breasts), hysterectomy (removal of the uterus), oophorectomy (removal of the ovaries), and phalloplasty (creation of male genitals). Because of the complexities involved in phalloplasty, many trans-males do not opt for this procedure and limit themselves to mastectomies. Additionally, the effects of sex reassignment surgery, such as infertility, are permanent (WPATH, 2012).

While some clinical organizations assert that they are the standard of care for gender dysphoria, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) currently has not approved any medication as clinically indicated for this condition (Unger, 2018). Although puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones are FDA approved, the FDA did not approve them for treating gender dysphoria, meaning that their use for anything other than the clinical indications listed is off-label (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2014). As for surgical procedures, the FDA does not evaluate or approve them, but it does review all surgical devices (FDA, 2021). In addition, the Endocrine Society concedes that its practice guidelines for sex reassignment treatment does *not* constitute a "standard of care" and that its grades for available services are low or very low (Endocrine Society, 2017).[4]

[4] Disagreement over how to treat gender dysphoria, gender identity disorder, and transsexualism has persisted since sex reassignment surgery first became available in the 1960s. In a 2006 counterargument, Paul McHugh highlights how individuals seeking surgery had other reasons that extended beyond gender identity, including sexual arousal and guilt over homosexuality. In addition, he asserts that undergoing sex reassignment procedures did not improve a patient's overall behavioral health and that providing a "surgical alteration to the body of these unfortunate people was to collaborate with a mental disorder rather than to treat it" (McHugh, 2006).

Literature Review: Introduction

Currently, an abundance of literature and studies on gender dysphoria is available through academic journals, clinical guidelines, and news articles. Similar to other mental health issues, the material addresses a broad range of topics consisting of available treatments, etiology (i.e., causes), risks, benefits, and side effects. Although most stories reported by the media indicate that treatments such as cross-sex hormones and sex reassignment surgery are the most effective, research reveals that numerous questions still exist. These include what are the long-term health effects of taking cross-sex hormones, what are the real causes of gender dysphoria, and how many individuals that transition will eventually want to revert to their natal sex. Additionally, much of the available research is inconclusive regarding the effectiveness of sex reassignment treatments with multiple studies lacking adequate sample sizes and relying on subjective questionnaires. While much of the scientific literature leans in favor of cross-sex hormones and surgery as options for improving the mental health of individuals with gender dysphoria, it does not conclusively demonstrate that the benefits outweigh the risks involved, either short or long-term. What studies do reveal with certainty is that sex reassignment surgery and cross-sex hormones pose permanent effects that can result in infertility, cardiovascular disease, and disfigurement. All of this indicates that further research is necessary to validate available treatments for gender dysphoria. Thus, physicians, who recommend sex reassignment treatment, are not adhering to an evidence-based medicine approach and are following an eminence-based model.

The following literature review addresses the multiple facets of this condition and presents areas of ongoing debate and persisting questions. Beginning with the condition's etiology and continuing with evaluations of puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, and surgery, the review explains each area separately and in context of gender dysphoria at large. Additionally, the review provides an analysis on available research on mental health outcomes as well as the condition's persistence into adulthood. Taken as a whole, the available studies demonstrate that existing gender dysphoria research is inconclusive and that current treatments are used to achieve cosmetic benefits while posing risky side effects as well as irreversible changes.

Literature Review: Etiology of Gender Dysphoria

What causes gender dysphoria is an ongoing debate among experts in the scientific and behavioral health fields. Currently, the research indicates that diagnosed individuals have higher proportions of autism spectrum disorder (ASD), history of trauma or abuse, fetal hormone imbalances, and co-existing mental illnesses. Also, experts acknowledge that genetics may factor into gender dysphoria. Another potential cause is social factors such as peer and online media influence. At the moment, none of the studies provides a definite cause and offer only correlations and weakly supported hypotheses. In addition, evidence favoring a biological explanation is highly speculative. However, the research does raise questions about whether treatments with permanent effects are warranted in a population with disproportionately high percentages of ASD, behavioral health problems, and trauma.

In a 2017 literature review by Fatima Saleem and Syed Rizvi, the authors examine gender dysphoria's numerous potential causes and the remaining questions requiring further research. In conclusion, the pair indicate that associations exist between the condition and ASD, schizophrenia, childhood abuse, genetics, and endocrine disruption chemicals but that more research is needed to improve understanding of how these underlying issues factor into a diagnosis. Throughout the review, Saleem and Rizvi identify the following as potential contributing elements to the etiology of gender dysphoria:

- **Neuroanatomical Etiology:** During fetal development, the genitals and brain develop during different periods of a pregnancy, the first and second trimesters respectively. Because the processes are separate, misaligned development is possible where the brain may have features belonging to the opposite sex. The authors identify one study where trans-females presented with a "female-like putamen" (structure at the base of the brain) when undergoing magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans.[5]
- **Psychiatric Associations:** Saleem and Rizvi identify multiple studies reporting that individuals with gender dysphoria have high rates of anxiety and depressive disorders with results ranging as high as 70% having a mental health diagnosis. In addition, the pair note that schizophrenia may also influence desires to transition. However, the review does not assess whether the mental health conditions are secondary to gender dysphoria.
- **Autism Spectrum Disorder:** Evidence suggests a significant percentage of individuals diagnosed with gender dysphoria also have ASD. The authors note that the available studies only establish a correlation and do not identify mechanisms for causation.
- **Childhood Abuse:** Like the above causes, Saleem and Rizvi note that those with gender dysphoria tended to experience higher rates of child abuse across all categories, including neglect, emotional, physical, and sexual.
- **Endocrine Disruptors:** Although this cause still requires substantial research, it is a valid hypothesis regarding how phthalates found in plastics can create an imbalance of testosterone in fetuses during gestation, which can potentially lead to gender dysphoria. The authors point to one study that makes this suggestion.

[5] Research on neuroanatomical etiology for gender dysphoria remains highly speculative due to limitations of brain imaging (Mayer and McHugh, 2016). In addition, neuroscience demonstrates that exposures to certain environments and stimuli as well as behaviors can affect brain changes (Gu, 2014). Furthermore, available research indicates that male and female brains have different physical characteristics but cannot be placed in separate categories due to extensive overlap of white/grey matter and neural connections (Joel et al, 2015).

Saleem and Rizvi's review reveal that gender dysphoria's etiology can have multiple factors, most of which require treatments and therapies not consisting of cross-sex hormones or surgery. (Saleem and Rizvi, 2017).

Out of the research on the condition's etiology, a large portion focuses on the correlation with ASD. One of the more substantial studies by Van der Miesen et al published in 2018 evaluates 573 adolescents and 807 adults diagnosed with ASD and compares them to 1016 adolescents and 846 adults from the general population. The authors' findings note that adolescents and adults with ASD were approximately 2.5 times more likely to indicate a desire of becoming the opposite sex. Although the methodology used to reach this conclusion consisted of surveys where respondents had a choice of answering "never," "sometimes," or "often," the results correspond with those of similar studies. Van der Miesen et al also indicate that most responses favoring a change in gender responded with "sometimes." Additionally, the authors do not state how many in their sample group actually had a gender dysphoria diagnosis. (Van der Miesen et al, 2018).

Another study by Shumer et al from 2016 utilizes a smaller sample size (39 adolescents) referred to an American hospital's gender clinic. Unlike Van der Miesen et al's research, Shumer et al evaluate subjects with a diagnosis of gender dysphoria for possible signs of ASD or Asperger's syndrome. Their findings revealed that 23% of patients presenting at the clinic would likely have one of the two conditions. Possible explanations for the high percentage are the methods used to gather the data. Shumer et al requested a clinical psychologist to administer the Asperger Syndrome Diagnostic Scale to the parents of the sample patients, four of whom already had an ASD diagnosis. The authors conclude that the evidence to support high incidence of gender dysphoria in individuals with ASD is growing and that further research is needed to determine the specific cause (Shumer et al, 2016).

Research indicating a strong correlation between ASD and gender dysphoria is not the only area where new studies are emerging. Discussions about the effects of prenatal testosterone levels are also becoming more prevalent. One such example is Sadr et al's 2020 study that looks at the lengths of the index and ring fingers (2D:4D) of both left and right hands of 203 individuals diagnosed with gender dysphoria. The authors used this method because prenatal testosterone levels can affect the length ratios of 2D:4D. By comparing the ratios of a group with gender dysphoria to a cohort from the general population, Sadr et al could assess for any significant difference. Their results indicated a difference in trans-females who presented with more feminized hands. For trans-males, the difference was less pronounced. The results for both groups were slight, and the meta-analysis that accompanies the study notes no statistically significant differences in multiple groups from across cultures. However, Sadr et al further assert that the evidence strongly suggests elevated prenatal testosterone levels in girls and reduced amounts in boys may contribute to gender dysphoria, requiring additional research (Sadr et al, 2020).

In addition to biological factors and correlations with ASD, researchers are exploring psychological and social factors to assess their role in gender dysphoria etiology. This literature examines a range of potential causative agents, including child abuse, trauma, and peer group influences. One such study by Kozlowska et al from 2021 explores patterns in children with high-risk attachment issues who also had gender dysphoria. The authors wanted to assess whether past incidents of abuse, loss, or trauma are associated with higher rates of persons desiring to transition. As a basis, Kozlowska et al cite John Bowlby's research on childhood brain development, noting that the process is not linear and depends

heavily on lived experiences. The study further acknowledges that biological factors combined with life events serve as the foundation for the next developmental phase and that early poor-quality attachment issues increase the risk for psychological disorders in adolescence and adulthood. Such disorders include mood and affective disorders, suicidal ideations, and self-harm. Kozlowska et al also cite other studies that indicate a high correlation between gender dysphoria and "adverse childhood events" and further assert that the condition "needs to be conceptualized in the context of the child's lived experience, and the many different ways in which lived experience is biologically embedded to shape the developing brain and to steer each child along their developmental pathway" (Kozlowska et al, 2021).

For their study, Kozlowska et al recruited 70 children diagnosed with gender dysphoria and completed family assessments going back three generations. This in-depth level was necessary to ascertain any and all events that could affect a child's developmental phases. Additionally, the researchers individually assessed the diagnosed children. To establish comparisons, Kozlowska et al performed assessments on a non-clinical group and a mixed-psychiatric group. Their results demonstrate that children with gender dysphoria have significantly higher rates of attachment issues as well as increased reports of "adverse childhood events" such as trauma (e.g., domestic violence and physical abuse). Furthermore, the authors indicate that a high proportion of families reported "instability, conflict, parental psychiatric disorder, financial stress, maltreatment events, and relational ruptures." These results led Kozlowska et al to conclude that gender dysphoria can be "associated with developmental pathways – reflected in at-risk patterns of attachment and high rates of unresolved loss and trauma – that are shaped by disruptions to family stability and cohesion." The study also cites that treatment requires "a comprehensive biopsychosocial assessment with the child and family, followed by therapeutic interventions that address, insofar as possible, the breadth of factors that are interconnected with each particular child's presentation" (Kozlowska et al, 2021).

This recent study raises questions regarding the medical necessity of gender dysphoria treatments such as puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones for adolescents. If high percentages of children diagnosed with gender dysphoria also have histories of trauma and attachment issues, should conventional behavioral health services be utilized without proposing treatments that pose irreversible effects? Would that approach not provide additional time to address underlying issues before introducing therapies that pose permanent effects (i.e., the watchful waiting approach)?

Aside from the notion that childhood abuse and adversity can potentially cause gender dysphoria, other possible explanations such as social factors (e.g., peer influences and media) may be contributing factors. Research on rapid onset gender dysphoria (ROGD) links this phenomenon to peer and social elements. In an analysis utilizing parent surveys, Lisa Littman asserts that the rapid rise of ROGD is not associated with the traditional patterns of gender dysphoria onset (i.e., evidence of an individual's gravitation to the opposite sex documented over multiple years) but rather exposure to "social and peer contagion." Littman uses this term in the context of definitions cited in academic literature, stating that "social contagion is the spread of affect or behaviors through a population" and that "peer contagion is the process where an individual and peer mutually influence each other in a way that promotes emotions and behaviors that can potentially undermine their own development or harm others." Examples of the latter's negative effects include depression, eating disorders, and substance abuse. What prompted this study is a sudden increase of parents reporting their daughters declaring themselves to be transgender without any previous signs of gender dysphoria. Littman also indicates

that these parents cite that their daughters became immersed in peer groups and social media that emphasized transgender lifestyles (Littman, 2018).

In addition to identifying characteristics of ROGD, the study examines social media content that provides information to adolescents regarding how to obtain cross-sex hormones through deception of physicians, parents, and behavioral health professionals. Such guidance includes coaching on how to fit a description to correspond to the DSM-V and pressures to implement treatment during youth to avoid a potential lifetime of unhappiness in an undesirable body. Littman further states that "online content may encourage vulnerable individuals to believe that non-specific symptoms and vague feelings should be interpreted as gender dysphoria." The study also notes that none of the individuals assessed using the parental surveys qualified for a formal diagnosis using the DSM-V criteria (Littman, 2018).

The survey responses revealed similar data to Kozlowska et al's study with 62.5% of the adolescents having a mental health or neurodevelopmental disorder. Furthermore, the responses indicate a rapid desire to bypass behavioral health options and pursue cross-sex hormones. 28.1% of parents surveyed stated that their adolescents did not want psychiatric treatments. One parent even reported that their daughter stopped taking prescribed anti-depressants and sought advice only from a gender therapist. Littman's research further reveals that 21.2% of parents responded that their adolescent received a prescription for puberty blockers or cross-sex hormones at their first visit (Littman, 2018). These responses indicate that practitioners do not uniformly follow clinical guidelines when making diagnoses or prescribing treatment.

In the discussion, Littman proposes two hypotheses for the appearance of ROGD. The first states that social and peer contagion is one of the primary causes, and the second asserts that ROGD is a "maladaptive coping mechanism" for adolescents dealing with emotional and social issues. While the surveyed parents did not report early signs of gender dysphoria, a majority noted that their daughters had difficulty in handling negative emotions. Littman concludes that ROGD is distinct from gender dysphoria as described in the DSM-V and that further research is needed to assess whether the condition is short or long-term (Littman, 2018). What the study does not explore, but raises the question, is what proportion of those being treated for gender dysphoria are adolescents with ROGD.

Littman's study along with the others reveal that the causes of gender dysphoria are still a mystery and could have multiple biological and social elements. Because of this ongoing uncertainty, treatments that pose irreversible effects should not be utilized to address what is still categorized as a mental health issue. That allows adequate opportunity for individuals to receive treatment for co-existing mental disorders, establish their gender dysphoria diagnoses, and understand how cross-sex hormones and surgery will alter the appearance of their bodies as well as long-term health.

Literature Review: Desistance of Gender Dysphoria and Puberty Suppression

The World Professional Association for Transgender Health (WPATH) and the Endocrine Society both endorse the use of gonadotropin releasing hormones (Gn-RH) to suppress puberty in young adolescents who have gender dysphoria. Both organizations state that the treatment is safe and fully reversible. In addition, they state that delaying pubertal onset can provide extra time for adolescents to explore the gender in which they choose to live. The associations further state that puberty suppression is necessary to prevent the development of primary and secondary sexual characteristics that can inhibit successful transitions into adulthood (WPATH, 2012; Endocrine Society, 2017). Of the two groups, WPATH offers clinical criteria an individual should meet to qualify for puberty suppression such as addressing psychological co-morbidities and assessing whether gender dysphoria has intensified (WPATH, 2012).

Neither organization explains that the majority of young adolescents who exhibit signs of gender dysphoria eventually desist and conform to their natal sex and that the puberty suppression can have side effects. Both organizations neglect to mention that using Gn-RH for gender dysphoria by altering the appearance is not an FDA-approved clinical indication. Furthermore, the research used to justify puberty suppression is low or very-low quality and little information is available on long-term effects (Hruz, 2019). Additionally, in his assessment, Quentin Van Meter explained that physical differences between central precocious puberty and natural onset puberty demonstrate that Gn-RH does not have permanent adverse effects for those treated for the former but can for the latter such as insufficient bone-mineral density and neural development (Van Meter, 2022). Also, as recently as May 17, 2022, during a U.S. Senate Committee on Appropriations hearing, Lawrence Tabak, acting director of the National Institutes of Health, responded to Senator Marco Rubio, acknowledging that no long-term studies are available evaluating the effects of puberty blockers when used for gender dysphoria (U.S. Senate Committee on Appropriations, 2022).

Currently, some studies provide weak support for this treatment but leave too many questions as to its effectiveness and medical necessity, especially considering how many children decide against transitioning. In addition, puberty blockers halt development of primary and secondary sexual characteristics and deny opportunities for adolescents to adapt and become comfortable with their natal sex. Instead, puberty blockers can serve as a potential “gateway drug” for cross-sex hormones by denying them the experience of physically maturing (Laidlaw et al, 2018).

A 2013 study by Steensma et al offers data on the percentage of children who opt not to transition after experiencing gender dysphoria. The authors follow 127 adolescents (mean age of 15 during the evaluation period) for four years who had been referred to a Dutch gender dysphoria clinic. Out of this cohort, 47 (37%; 23 boys and 24 girls) continued experiencing the condition and applied for sex reassignment treatment. The other 80 adolescents never returned to the clinic. Because this clinic was the only one that treated gender dysphoria in the Netherlands, Steensma et al assumed that those who did not return no longer desired transitioning. The study indicates one of the key predictors for persisting gender dysphoria was the age of first presentation. Older adolescents that started going to the clinic were more likely to persist, while younger adolescents tended not to follow through. Steensma et al provide further insight into other predicting factors, particularly on how each individual views his or her gender identity. The authors note that adolescents who “wished they were the other sex” were more likely to become desisters and that those who “believed that they were the other sex” persisted

and later sought sex reassignment treatment (Steensma et al, 2013). While the study focuses on factors that contribute to the condition's persistence or desistance, it raises the question as to whether puberty suppression is necessary when age plays such an important role regarding the decision to transition.

WPATH and the Endocrine Society state that the primary reason for initiating pubertal suppression is not to treat a physical condition but to improve the mental health of adolescents with gender dysphoria. However, available research does not yield definitive results that this method is effective at addressing a mental health issue. The "gold standard" for medical studies is the randomized-controlled trial (RCT). Because RCTs utilize large sample sizes, have blind testing groups (i.e, placebos), and use objective controls, they can offer concrete conclusions and shape the array of established treatments. In addition, RCTs require comparisons between cohort outcomes and ensure that participants are randomly assigned to each group. These measures further reduce the potential for bias and subjectivity (Hariton and Locascio, 2018).

Presently, no RCTs that evaluate puberty suppression as a method to treat gender dysphoria are available. Instead, the limited number of published studies on the topic utilize small sample sizes and subjective methods (Hruz, 2019). A 2015 article by Costa et al is one such example. The study asserts that "psychological support and puberty suppression were both associated with an improved global psychological functioning in gender dysphoric adolescents." To reach this conclusion, the authors selected 201 children diagnosed with the condition and divided them into two groups, one to receive psychological support only and the other to get puberty blockers in addition to psychological support. Costa et al did not create a third group that lacked a gender dysphoria diagnosis to serve as a control. To assess whether puberty suppression is an effective treatment, the authors administered two self-assessments (Utrect Gender Dysphoria Scale and Children's Global Assessment Scale)[6] to the groups at 6-month intervals during a 12-month period. Because the study relies heavily on self-assessments, the conclusions are likely biased and invalid. Another problem that is also present and common throughout articles supporting puberty suppression is the short-term period of the study. Costa et al's conclusions may not be the same if additional follow-ups occurred three or five years later (Costa et al, 2015). This further raises the question whether low-quality studies like Costa et al's should serve as the basis for clinical guidelines advising clinicians to prescribe drugs for off-label purposes.

Aside from questionable research, information regarding the full physical effects of puberty suppression is incomplete. In a 2020 consensus parameter prepared by Chen et al, 44 experts in neurodevelopment, gender development, and puberty/adolescence reached a conclusion stating that "the effects of pubertal suppression warrant further study." The basis for this was that the "full consequences (both beneficial and adverse) of suppressing endogenous puberty are not yet understood." The participating experts emphasized that the treatment's impact on neurodevelopment in adolescents remains unknown. Chen et al explain that puberty-related hormones play a role in brain development as documented in animal studies and that stopping these hormones also prevents neurodevelopment in addition to sexual maturation. The authors further raise the question whether normal brain development resumes as if it had not been interrupted when puberty suppression ceases. Because this

[6] Behavioral health practitioners use the Children's Global Assessment Scale (CGAS) to measure child functioning during the evaluation process to determine diagnoses. Available evidence indicates that the CGAS is not effective for evaluating children who experienced trauma and presented with mental health symptoms (Blake et al, 2006).

question remains unanswered, it casts doubt on the veracity of organizations' assertions that puberty suppression is "fully reversible" (Chen et al, 2020).

In addition to the unanswered questions and low-quality research, puberty suppression causes side effects, some of which have the potential to be permanent. According to a 2019 literature review by De Sanctis et al, most side effects associated with Gn-RH are mild, consisting mostly of irritation around injection sites. However, clinicians have linked the drug to long-term conditions such as polycystic ovarian syndrome, obesity, hypertension, and reduced bone mineral density. While reports of these events are low and the authors indicate that Gn-RH is safe for treating central precocious puberty (Note: De Sanctis et al do not consider gender dysphoria in their analysis), the review raises questions about whether off-label use to treat a psychological condition is worth the risks (De Sanctis et al, 2019).

Furthermore, De Sanctis et al cite studies noting increased obesity rates in girls who take Gn-RH but that more research is needed to gauge the consistency. Additionally, the authors note that evidence is strong regarding reduced bone mineral density during puberty suppression but indicate that the literature suggests it is reversible following treatment (De Sanctis et al, 2019). While research leans toward the reversibility of effects on bone mineral density, the quantity of studies available on this subject are limited. Also, no long-term research has been completed on how puberty suppression affects bone growth. This is significant because puberty is when bone mass accumulates the most (Kyriakou et al, 2020). One example of a complication involving bone growth and Gn-RH is slipped capital femoral epiphysis. This condition occurs when the head of the femur (i.e., thighbone) can slip out of the pelvis, which can eventually lead to osteonecrosis (i.e., bone death) of the femoral head. Although the complication is rare, its link to puberty suppression indicates that the "lack of adequate sex hormone exposure" could be a cause (De Sanctis et al, 2019).

The current literature on puberty suppression indicates that using it to treat gender dysphoria is off-label, poses potentially permanent side effects, and has questionable mental health benefits. The limited research and lack of FDA approval for that clinical indication prompt questions about whether medications with physically altering effects should be used to treat a problem that most adolescents who experience it will later overcome by conforming to their natal sex. Additional evidence is required to establish puberty suppression as a standard treatment for gender dysphoria.

Literature Review: Cross-Sex Hormones as a Treatment for Gender Dysphoria

Currently, the debate surrounding the use of cross-sex hormones to treat gender dysphoria revolves around their ability to improve mental health without causing irreversible effects. It is not about whether taking cross-sex hormones can alter someone's appearance. The evidence demonstrating the effectiveness of cross-sex hormones in achieving the secondary sexual characteristics of the opposite sex is abundant. Also, the overall scientific consensus concludes that individuals who take cross-sex hormones will reduce the primary sexual function of his or her natal sex organs. What researchers continue evaluating are the short and long-term effects on mental health, impacts on overall physical health, and how the changes affect the ability to detransition. Of these, benefits to mental health overshadow the other discussions. Prescribers of cross-sex hormones focus so heavily on behavioral health outcomes that they de-emphasize that these drugs cause permanent physical changes and side effects that can lead to premature death (Hruz, 2020). Some clinical guidelines such as WPATH's do not even indicate that some of the changes are irreversible.

Like puberty suppression, the Endocrine Society and WPATH provide guidance on administering cross-sex hormones to individuals with gender dysphoria. Both organizations state that this treatment should not be administered without a confirmed diagnosis of gender dysphoria and only after a full psychosocial assessment. In addition, behavioral health practitioners must ensure that any mental comorbidities are not affecting the individual's desire to transition. WPATH and the Endocrine Society further state that clinicians should administer hormone replacements such as testosterone and Estradiol (estrogen) in gradual phases, where the dose increases over several months. For trans-females, the organizations state that progesterone (anti-androgen) is also necessary to block the effects of naturally produced testosterone (WPATH, 2012; Endocrine Society, 2017). When taking cross-sex hormones, trans-males need increased doses for the first six months. After that, the testosterone's effects are the same on lower doses. Once started, individuals cannot stop taking hormones unless they desire to detransition (Unger, 2016).

Although the two groups provide similar guidance, they vary on statements that can have significant impact on long-term outcomes, particularly regarding age. According to WPATH's standards, 16 years is the general age for initiating cross-sex hormones, but the organization acknowledges that the treatment can occur for younger individuals depending on circumstances (WPATH, 2012). This differs from the Endocrine Society, which states no specific age for appropriateness and explains the disagreements in assigning a number. The group highlights that most adolescents have attained sufficient competence by age 16 but may not have developed adequate abilities to assess risk (Endocrine Society, 2017). This raises the question whether adolescents can make sound decisions regarding their long-term health. Additionally, the varying guidance raises an issue with WPATH not only using age 16 as a standard but also indicating that younger adolescents are capable of making that choice.

WPATH's guidance also does not stress the irreversible nature of cross-sex hormones, citing the treatment as "partially reversible" and not indicating which changes are permanent. Furthermore, parts of WPATH's information are misleading and directly conflict with guidance issued by clinics and other sources. One such example consists of WPATH stating that "hormone therapy *may* (emphasis added) lead to irreversible changes." This statement is misleading in light of existing research, which indicates that multiple physical changes are permanent. In addition, WPATH claims that certain effects of cross-

sex hormones such as clitoral enlargement can last one to two years when it is actually irreversible (UCSF, 2020). WPATH also does not explain the risks to male fertility, noting that lowered sperm count or sterility is "variable." The University of California at San Francisco (UCSF) provides starkly different information by stating that trans-females should expect to become sterile within a few months of starting cross-sex hormones. UCSF also advises trans-females to consult a sperm bank if they may want to father children after transitioning (WPATH, 2012; UCSF, 2020). Below is a chart that outlines the effects of cross-sex hormones and identifies which ones are reversible or permanent.

Physical Changes Effectuated by Cross-Sex Hormones	
Physical Changes in Trans-Males (Female-to-Male Transitions)	
Physical Change	**Reversible or Irreversible**
Oily Skin or Acne	Reversible
Facial and Body Hair Growth	Irreversible
Male-Pattern Baldness	Irreversible
Increased Muscle Mass	Reversible
Body Fat Redistribution	Reversible
Ceasing of Menstruation	Reversible
Enlarged Clitoris	Irreversible
Vaginal Atrophy	Reversible
Deepening of Voice	Irreversible
Physical Changes in Trans-Females (Male-to-Female Transitions)	
Body Fat Redistribution	Reversible
Decreased Muscle Mass	Reversible
Skin Softening or Decrease in Oiliness	Reversible
Lower Libido	Reversible
Fewer Spontaneous Erections	Reversible
Male Sexual Dysfunction	Possibly Irreversible
Breast Growth	Irreversible
Decrease in Testicular Size	Reversible
Decrease in Sperm Production or Infertility	Likely Irreversible
Slower Facial and Body Hair Growth	Reversible

Sources: UCSF, 2020; WPATH, 2012; Endocrine Society, 2017[7]

The above chart demonstrates that trans-males and trans-females experience different effects from cross-sex hormones that can cause myriad issues in later life. For example, trans-males who opt to detransition may face challenges related to permanent disfigurement (e.g., facial hair and deepened voices). Trans-females, on the other hand, may not endure the same issues pertaining to visible physical changes but might become despondent over being unable to reproduce. This can occur regardless of whether the transitioning individual is satisfied with sex reassignment. Given that the clinical guidelines do not provide uniform information on the permanent effects of cross-sex hormones, clinicians are unable to make sound recommendations to patients. This treatment can supposedly alleviate symptoms

[7] This chart consists of conclusions regarding physical changes made by three different clinical organizations. If one organization determined that a physical change was irreversible, that was sufficient to meet the criteria to be listed as "irreversible" in the chart.

of distress. However, cross-sex hormones' permanent effects also have the potential to cause psychological issues.

Arguments favoring cross-sex hormones assert that the desired physical changes can alleviate mental health issues in individuals with gender dysphoria but do not consider that hormones used in this manner, like puberty blockers, are off-label. While the FDA has approved estrogen and testosterone for specific clinical indications (e.g., hypogonadism), it has not cleared these drugs for treating gender dysphoria. Additionally, these arguments do not acknowledge that the U.S. Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) lists testosterone as a Schedule III controlled substance, meaning that it has a high probability of abuse (DEA, 2022). Furthermore, evidence of psychological benefit from cross-sex hormones is low-quality and relies heavily on self-assessments taken from small sample groups (Hruz, 2020).

A 2019 study by Kuper et al seeks to demonstrate that adolescents desiring cross-sex hormones have elevated rates of depression, anxiety, and challenges with peer relationships. To make their findings, the authors provided questionnaires to 149 adolescents who presented at a gender clinic in Dallas, Texas and concluded that half of the sample group experienced increased psychological issues. One problem with the study is that it relies on parent or self-assessments such as the Youth-Self Report, Body-Image Scale, and the Child Behavior Checklist. While these assessments have strong reliability, the sample is cross-sectional, consisting of gender dysphoric individuals who presented for an initial visit at the clinic. Also, Kuper et al do not directly link these psychological symptoms to gender dysphoria but rather insinuate a strong connection. Without an analysis of the longitudinal histories of the participants, the study cannot demonstrate whether gender dysphoria was a direct cause of the psychological issues, which could possibly result from trauma, abuse, or family dysfunction. Kuper et al's study only presents weak correlation between adolescents who report symptoms of distress and gender dysphoria. While the authors do not claim that the participants' psychological problems caused the condition, they fail to explicitly state that no demonstrable relationship exists and explain that their findings are "broadly consistent with the previous literature" (Kuper et al, 2019).

Additionally, a more comprehensive literature review from 2019 by Nguyen et al evaluates the effect of cross-sex hormones on mental health outcomes. Although the authors argue that the evidence supports the treatment, they do note that available studies use "uncontrolled observational methods" and "rely on self-report." The review also asserts that "future research should focus on applying more robust study designs with large sample sizes, such as controlled prospective cohort studies using clinician-administered ratings and longitudinal designs with appropriately matched control groups." All of these are characteristics of RCTs. While Nguyen et al highlight flaws in the studies in their conclusion, they do not emphasize them in their analysis, opting to focus primarily on results. Another problem with the studies selected for the review is the short-term periods for evaluation. Out of 11 studies Nguyen et al discuss, only one tracks its participants for 24 months. The others only follow their cohorts for 6 or 12 months (Nguyen et al, 2019). Without long-term data to support assertions that cross-sex hormones substantially improve the mental health of individuals with gender dysphoria, the review cannot make definitive conclusions on the treatment's benefits.

Basing their stances on this low-quality evidence, clinical associations such as the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) and the American Psychology Association endorse the use of cross-sex hormones as treatments for gender dysphoria. In particular, the AAP discourages use of the term "transition" and

asserts that medical treatments used to obtain secondary characteristics of the opposite sex are "gender affirming." This decision mirrors the DSM-V's interpretation of gender being part of identity. The AAP further states that taking cross-sex hormones is an "affirmation and acceptance of who they (i.e., patient) have always been" (AAP, 2018). The American Psychological Association also takes a similar stance in its *Resolution on Gender Identity Change Efforts* by asserting that medical treatments such as puberty suppression, cross-sex hormones, and surgery improve mental health and quality of life and reinforce the notion that transitioning and seeking sex reassignment therapies do not constitute a psychological disorder (American Psychological Association, 2021). Stances like these can substantially influence practitioners and their treatment recommendations. Given that low-quality evidence serves as the basis for supportive positions, this raises questions about whether clinicians can make informed decisions for their patients that will promote the best outcomes.

James Cantor published a critique in 2020 of the AAP's endorsement of "gender affirming" treatments, arguing that the organization did not base its recommendations on established medical evidence. He asserts that the AAP's position is based on research that does not support intervention but rather supports "watchful waiting" because most transgender youths desist and identify as their natal sex during puberty. Cantor further argues that the AAP not only disregards evidence but also cites "gender affirming" interventions as the only effective method. To conclude, he states the organization is "advocating for something far in excess of mainstream practice and medical consensus" (Cantor, 2020).

Given those evidentiary problems, those who rely on the AAP's endorsement as a basis for "gender affirming" treatments are practicing eminence-based medicine as opposed to evidence-based medicine. Eminence-based medicine refers to clinical decisions made by relying on the opinions of prominent health organizations rather than relying on critical appraisals of scientific evidence (Nhi Le, 2016). While it is true that the AAP has more knowledge than a lay person and a degree of credibility in the medical community, the opinions of such organizations are not valid unless they are based on quality evidence.

Research on sex reassignment also does not adequately address the reasons for and prevalence of detransitioning. Although no definite numbers are available regarding the percentage of transgender people who decide to detransition, research indicates that roughly 8% decide to return to their natal sex. The reasons range from treatment side effects to more self-exploration that provided insight on individuals' gender dysphoria. In a 2020 study by Lisa Littman, 101 people who had detransitioned provided their basis for doing so. Out of the sample group, 96% had taken cross-sex hormones and 33% had sex reassignment surgery. The average age for transitioning was 22 years, and the mean duration for the transition was 4 years. This indicates that even allowing additional time beyond the recommended age of 16 years can still lead to regrets. The study also raises the question as to whether individuals who transitioned at 16 or younger wanted to detransition in greater numbers. The author further offers reasons why these individuals sought cross-sex hormones and surgery, which include having endured trauma (mental or sexual), homophobia (challenged to accept oneself as a homosexual), peer and media influences, and misogyny (applicable only to trans-males). To obtain the results, the participants responded to a survey that asked about their backgrounds (e.g., reasons for transitioning, mental health comorbidities), and motivations for detransitioning. Littman noted that half of the women (former trans-males) had a mental health disorder and/or had experienced trauma within a year of deciding to transition. Men (former trans-females) reported much lower numbers of behavioral health issues and trauma after de-transitioning. Additionally, 77% of men surveyed identified as the opposite gender prior to transition, whereas just 58% of women had (Littman, 2020).

Of the reasons cited for detransitioning, the majority (60%) noted that they became more comfortable with their natal sex. Other reasons included concerns over complications from the treatments, primarily cross-sex hormones, and lack of improved mental health. Other less-cited explanations include concerns about workplace discrimination and worsening physical health. The study also notes that approximately 36% of participants experienced worse mental health symptoms. Based on the findings, Littman concludes that more research is needed in tracking the transgender population to obtain accurate percentages of those who decide to detransition and that men and women reported varying reasons for deciding to transition and later return to their natal sex. The author notes that higher rates of trauma and peer group influences might have contributed to women's decisions, which Littman attributes partially to rapid onset gender dysphoria (Littman, 2020). What the study also indicates is that cross-sex hormones are not a validated treatment for gender dysphoria. Nearly all of the participants had taken them and decided against maintaining the physical changes. Given that the majority of surveyed detransitioners cited that they were comfortable with their biological sex, the study indicates that gender dysphoria is not necessarily a lifelong issue. This necessarily raises doubts about whether cross-hormones, which cause permanent physical damage, is justified.

In addition to the psychological factors, cross-sex hormones pose significant long-term health risks to transitioning individuals. Currently, little information is available given that researchers have not had adequate time to study the effects in this population. However, use of hormones for other conditions has yielded data on how these drugs can affect the body and the cardiovascular system in particular. Because of the high dosages required to achieve physical change and the need to continuously take the drugs, cross-sex hormones can potentially harm quality of life and reduce life expectancy for transitioning individuals. According to Dutra et al, trans-females are three times more likely to die from a cardiovascular event than the general population. In their 2019 literature review, Dutra et al examined the results of over 50 studies evaluating the effects of cross-sex hormones on not only transgender individuals but those with menopause and other endocrine disorders, all of which indicate that use of estrogen or testosterone can increase risks for cardiovascular disease. Throughout their review, Dutra et al cite examples of trans-females having higher triglyceride levels after 24 months of cross-sex hormones and how researchers halted a study on estrogen due to an increase in heart attacks among participants. Another article the authors reference indicates a higher risk for thromboembolisms (i.e., blood clots) in trans-females. For trans-males, Dutra et al explain that research shows significant increased risk for hypertension, high cholesterol, obesity, and heart attacks. One study noted that trans-males have a four times greater risk of heart attack compared to women identifying as their natal sex. Dutra et al conclude that most transgender individuals are younger than 50 and that more studies are needed as this population ages. They do note that available studies indicate that cross-sex hormones pose dangers to long-term cardiovascular health (Dutra et al, 2019).

In sum, the literature reveals that the evidence for cross-sex hormones as a treatment for gender dysphoria is weak and insufficient. Between the permanent effects, off-label use, and consequences to long-term health, cross-sex hormones are a risky option that does not promise a cure but does guarantee irreversible changes to both male and female bodies. Additionally, the inadequate studies serving as the basis for recommendations by clinical associations can lead to providers making poorly informed decisions for their patients. Research asserting that taking cross-sex hormones improves mental health is subjective and short-term. More studies that utilize large sample sizes and appropriate

methods is required before the medical profession should consider cross-sex hormones as one of gender dysphoria's standard treatments.

Literature Review: Sex Reassignment Surgery

The final phase of treatment for gender dysphoria is sex reassignment surgery. This method consists of multiple procedures to alter the appearance of the body to resemble an individual's desired gender. Some procedures apply to the genitals (genital procedures) while others affect facial features and vocal cords (non-genital procedures). While the surgery creates aesthetical aspects, it does not fully transform someone into the opposite biological sex. Transgender persons who undergo the procedures must continue taking cross-sex hormones to maintain secondary sexual characteristics. Additionally, all physical changes are irreversible, and the success rate of a surgery varies depending on the procedure and the population. For example, surgeries for trans-females have much better results than those for trans-males. Complications such as post-operative infections can also arise with the urinary tract system. However, sex reassignment surgery supposedly can provide drastic, if not complete, relief from gender dysphoria (Endocrine Society, 2017). The following is a list of procedures (both genital and non-genital) for trans-females and trans-males that create physical features of the desired sex.

Procedures for Trans-Females

- **Genital Surgeries:** These consist of penectomy (removal of the penis), orchiectomy (removal of the testicles), vaginoplasty (construction of a neo-vagina), clitoroplasty (construction of a clitoris), and vulvoplasty (construction of a vulva and labia). To perform, a surgeon begins by deconstructing the penis and removing the testicles. The penile shaft and glans are repurposed to serve as a neo-vagina and artificial clitoris (Note: These are not actual female genitalia but tissue constructed to resemble female anatomy). If the shaft tissue is insufficient, the surgeon may opt to use a portion of intestine to build a neo-vagina. The scrotum serves as material for fashioning a vulva and labia. In addition to constructing female genitalia, the surgeon reroutes the urethra to align with the neo-vagina. Genital surgeries for trans-females result in permanent sterility (Bizic et al, 2014).
- **Chest Surgery:** To attain full breasts, trans-females can undergo enlargement. The procedure is similar to breast augmentation for women where a surgeon places implants underneath breast tissue. Prior to surgery, trans-females need to take cross-sex hormones for roughly 24 months to increase breast size to get maximum benefit from the procedure (Endocrine Society, 2017).
- **Cosmetic and Voice Surgeries:** Designed to create feminine facial features, fat deposits, and vocal sounds, these procedures are secondary to genital procedures and intended to alter trans-females' appearances to better integrate into society as a member of the desired gender (WPATH, 2012).

Procedures for Trans-Males

- **Mastectomy:** This is the most performed sex reassignment surgery on trans-males because cross-sex hormones and chest-binding garments are often insufficient at diminishing breasts. To remove this secondary sexual characteristic, trans-males can undergo a mastectomy where a surgeon removes breast tissue subcutaneously (i.e., under the skin) and reconstructs the nipples to appear masculine. The procedure can result in significant scarring (Monstrey et al, 2011).
- **Genital Surgeries:** Unlike the procedures for trans-females, genital surgeries for trans-males are more complex and have lower success rates. Consisting of hysterectomy, oophorectomy

(removal of the ovaries), vaginectomy (removal of the vagina), phalloplasty (construction of a penis), and scrotoplasty (construction of prosthetic testicles), a team of surgeons must manufacture a penis using skin from the patient (taken from an appendage) while removing the vagina and creating an extended urethra. The functionality of the artificial penis can vary based on how extensive the construction was. Attaining erections requires additional surgery to implant a prosthesis, and the ability to urinate while standing is often not achieved. Genital procedures for trans-males result in irreversible sterility (Monstrey et al, 2011).

- **Cosmetic Surgeries:** Similar to trans-females, these procedures create masculine facial features, fat deposits, and artificial pectoral muscles. They aid trans-males with socially integrating as their desired gender. Surgery to deepen voices is also available but rarely performed (WPATH, 2012).

Because sex reassignment surgery is irreversible, the criteria for receiving these procedures is the strictest of all gender dysphoria treatments. WPATH and the Endocrine Society suggest rigorous reviews of patient history and prior use of other therapies before approving. Furthermore, the two organizations recommend that only adults (18 years old) undergo sex reassignment surgery.[8] WPATH and the Endocrine Society also recommend ensuring a strongly documented diagnosis of gender dysphoria, addressing all medical and mental health issues, and at least 12 months of cross-sex hormones for genital surgeries. Although the organizations agree on most criteria, they differ on whether hormones should be taken prior to mastectomies. WPATH asserts that hormones should not be a requirement, whereas the Endocrine Society advises up to 2 years of cross-sex hormones before undergoing the procedure (WPATH, 2012; Endocrine Society, 2017). What this indicates is that trans-males might undergo breast removal without having first pursued all options if their clinician adheres to WPATH's guidelines, which can lead to possible regret over irreversible effects.

As with cross-sex hormones, sex reassignment surgery's irreversible physical changes can potentially show marked mental health improvements and prevent suicidality in people diagnosed with gender dysphoria. In April 2022, the chair of the University of Florida's pediatric endocrinology department, Dr. Michael Haller, advocated for the benefits of "gender affirming" treatments (WUSF, 2020). However, the available evidence calls such statements into question. Recent research assessing both cross-sex hormones and sex reassignment surgery indicate that the effects on "long-term mental health are largely unknown." In studies regarding the benefits of surgery, the results have the same weaknesses as the research for the effectiveness of cross-sex hormones. These include small sample sizes, self-report surveys, and short evaluation periods, all of which are insufficient to justify recommendations for irreversible treatments (Bränström et al, 2020).

Two studies conducted in Sweden provide insight on the effectiveness of sex reassignment surgery in improving the behavioral health of transgender persons. Because Sweden has a nationalized health system that collects data on all residents, this country can serve as a resource to assess service utilization and inpatient admissions. Both studies, one by Dhejne et al from 2011 and another by Bränström et al published in 2020, assessed individuals who had received sex reassignment surgery and examined outcomes over several decades. Dhejne et al's findings indicate that sex reassignment

[8] Although practice guidelines indicate the minimum age to undergo sex reassignment surgery is 18, available evidence demonstrates that mastectomies have been performed on adolescent girls as young as 13 who experience "chest dysphoria" (Olson-Kennedy et al, 2018).

procedures do not reduce suicidality. The authors explained that individuals who underwent sex reassignment surgery were still more likely to attempt or commit suicide than those in the general population. This study is unique because it monitored the subjects over a long period of time. Dhejne et al note that the transgender persons tracked for the study did not show an elevated suicide risk until ten years after surgery (Dhejne et al, 2011). Given that a high proportion of research follows sex reassignment patients for much shorter timeframes, this evidence indicates that surgery might have little to no effect in preventing suicides in gender dysphoric individuals over the long run.

In addition to having an increased suicide risk, Dhejne et al discuss how individuals who underwent sex reassignment procedures also had higher mortality due to cardiovascular disease. The authors do not list the specific causes but establish the correlation. Given that cross-sex hormones can damage the heart, the increased risk could be related to the drugs and not the surgery. Furthermore, the study explains that the tracked population had higher rates of psychiatric inpatient admissions following sex reassignment. Dhejne et al established this by examining the rates of psychiatric hospitalizations in these individuals prior to surgery and noted higher utilization in the years following the procedures. These results are in comparison to the Swedish population at large. While the study contradicts other research emphasizing improvements in mental health issues, it has its limitations. For example, the sample size is small. Dhejne et al identified only 324 individuals who had undergone sex reassignment surgery between 1973 and 2003. In addition, the authors noted that while the tracked population had increased suicide risks when compared to individuals identifying as their natal sex, the rates could have been much higher if the procedures were not available (Dhejne et al 2011). What this study postulates is that sex reassignment surgery does not necessarily serve as a "cure" to the distress resulting from gender dysphoria and that ongoing behavioral health care may still be required even after a complete transition.

Bränström et al's study evaluating the Swedish population used a larger sample (1,018 individuals who had received sex reassignment surgery) but tracked them for just a ten-year period (2005 to 2015).[9] Unlike Dhejne et al, the authors did not track suicides and focused primarily on mood or anxiety disorder treatment utilization. Their results indicate that transgender persons who had undergone surgery utilized psychiatric outpatient services at lower rates and were prescribed medications for behavioral health issues at an annual decrease rate of 8%. Bränström et al also did not limit comparisons to Sweden's overall population and factored in transgender persons who take cross-sex hormones but have not elected to have surgery. Those results still presented a decrease in outpatient mental health services. However, Bränström et al note that individuals only on cross-sex hormones showed no significant reduction in that category, which calls into question claims regarding effectiveness of cross-sex hormones in ameliorating behavioral issues.

The Bränström et al study prompted numerous responses questioning its methodology. The study lacked a prospective cohort or RCT design, and it did not track all participants for a full ten-year period (Van Mol et al, 2020). These criticisms resulted in a retraction, asserting that Bränström et al's conclusions were "too strong" and that further analysis by the authors revealed that the new "results demonstrated no advantage of surgery in relation to subsequent mood or anxiety disorder-related

[9] Although Bränström et al claim to follow individuals for a ten-year period, peer reviews of the research revealed that this was not the case, noting the authors had varying periods of tracking, ranging from one to ten years (Van Mol et al, 2020).

health care visits or prescriptions or hospitalizations following suicide attempts in that comparison" (Kalin, 2020).

There are multiple explanations for why the Bränström et al study reached different results than the Dhejne et al study. For starters, Bränström et al tracked a larger sample group over a later period (2005 to 2015 as opposed to 1973 to 2003) during which gender dysphoria underwent a dramatic shift in definition. Also, Dhejne et al did not see elevated suicides until after ten years, raising the question as to whether sex reassignment surgery has temporary benefits on mental health rather than long-term or permanent benefits. Like the other Swedish study, Bränström et al's findings are a correlation and do not specifically state that the procedures cause reduced psychiatric service utilization (Bränström et al, 2020).

A 2014 study by Hess et al in Germany evaluated satisfaction with sex reassignment procedures by attempting to survey 254 trans-females on their quality of life, appearance, and functionality as women. Out of the participants selected, only 119 (47%) returned completed questionnaires, which Hess et al indicate is problematic because dissatisfied trans-females might not have wanted to provide input. The results from the collected responses noted that 65.7% of participants reported satisfaction with their lives following surgery and that 90.2% indicated that the procedures fulfilled their expectations for life as women. While these results led Hess et al to conclude that sex reassignment surgery generally benefits individuals with gender dysphoria, the information is limited and raises questions (Hess et al, 2014). Such questions include whether the participants had mental health issues before or after surgery and did their satisfaction wane over time. Hess et al only sent out one questionnaire and not several to ascertain consistency over multiple years. Questions like these raise doubts about the validity of the study. Although Hess et al's research is just one study, numerous others utilize the same subjective methods to reach their conclusions (Hruz, 2018).

In his assessment, Patrick Lappert contributes additional insight on the appropriate clinical indications for mastectomies, noting that removal of breast tissue is necessary following the diagnosis of breast cancer or as a prophylactic against that disease. He cites that this basis is verifiable through definitive laboratory testing and imaging, making it an objective diagnosis, whereas gender dysphoria has no such empirical methods to assess and depends heavily on the patient's perspective. Also, Lappert notes that trans-males who make such decisions are doing so on the idea that the procedure will reduce their dysphoria and suicide risk. However, they are making an irreversible choice based on anticipated outcomes supported only by weak evidence, and thus cannot provide informed consent (Lappert, 2022).

The literature is inconclusive on whether sex reassignment surgery can improve mental health for gender dysphoric individuals. Higher quality research is needed to validate this method as an effective treatment. This includes studies that obtain detailed participant histories (e.g., behavioral diagnoses) and track participants for longer periods of time. These are necessary to evaluate the full effects of treatments that cause irreversible physical changes. In addition, sex reassignment procedures can result in severe complications such as infections in trans-females and urethral blockage in trans-males. Health issues related to natal sex can also persist. For example, trans-males who undergo mastectomy can still develop breast cancer and should receive the same recommended screenings (Trum et al, 2015). Until more definitive evidence becomes available, sex reassignment surgery should not qualify as a standard treatment for gender dysphoria.

Literature Review: Quality of Available Evidence and Bioethical Questions

Quality of Available Evidence

Clinical organizations that have endorsed puberty suppression, cross-sex hormones, and sex reassignment surgery frequently state that these treatments have the potential to save lives by preventing suicide and suicidal ideation. The evidence, however, does not support these conclusions. James Cantor notes that actual suicides (defined as killing oneself) are low, occur at higher rates for men, and that interpretations of available research indicate a blurring of numbers between those with gender dysphoria and homosexuals (Cantor, 2022). Although information exists that contradicts certain arguments, media outlets continue to report stories emphasizing the "lifesaving" potential of sex reassignment treatment. A May 2022 story by NBC announced survey results under the headline "Almost half of LGBTQ youths 'seriously considered suicide in the past year'" (NBC, 2022). This is a significant claim that can have a sensational effect on patients and providers alike, but how strong is the evidence supporting it? Almost all of the data backing this assertion are based on surveys and cross-studies, which tend to yield low-quality results (Hruz, 2018). In addition, how many gender dysphoric individuals are seeing stories in the media and not questioning the narrative? Because research on the effectiveness of treatments is ongoing, a debate persists regarding their use in the adolescent and young-adult populations, and much of it is due to the low-quality studies serving as evidence.

In their assessment, Romina Brignardello-Petersen and Wojtek Wiercioch examined the quality of 61 articles published between 2020 and 2022 (Note: See Attachment A for the full study). They identified research on the effectiveness of puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, and sex reassignment surgery and assigned a grade (high, moderate, low, or very low) in accordance with the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation (GRADE) approach. Out of the articles reviewed, all with a few exceptions received grades of low or very low quality when demonstrating outcomes regarding improvements in mental health and overall satisfaction with transitioning. For puberty blockers, Brignardello-Petersen and Wiercioch identified low quality evidence for alleviating gender dysphoria and very low quality for reducing suicidal ideation. The authors also had nearly identical findings for cross-sex hormones. However, they noted moderate quality evidence for the likelihood of cardiovascular side effects. Regarding surgery, Brignardello-Petersen and Wiercioch graded articles that examined overall satisfaction and complication rates. None of the studies received grades higher than low quality. These findings led the authors to conclude that "there is great uncertainty about the effects" of sex reassignment treatments and that the "evidence alone is not sufficient to support" using such treatments. Among the studies graded was one the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services cited in its information on "gender affirming" treatments. The authors noted this research had a "critical risk of bias" and was of low quality (Brignardello-Petersen and Wiercioch, 2022).

For his part, James Cantor provided a review of available literature, which addresses studies on etiology, desistance, effectiveness of puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones, suicidal behaviors, and clinical association and international guidelines. Throughout his analysis, Cantor cites weak evidence, poor methodologies (e.g., retrospective versus prospective studies), and lack of professional endorsements in research that indicates the benefits of sex reassignment treatment. Additionally, he notes that improvements in the behavioral health of adolescents who take cross-sex hormones can be attributed to the counseling they receive concurrently and that suicidality is not likely to result from gender

dysphoria but from co-occurring mental disorders. The reasoning behind the third point is based on the blending of suicide and suicidality, which are two distinct concepts. The former refers specifically to killing oneself, and the second regards ideation and threats in attempts to receive help. Cantor specifically notes that actual suicides are highly unlikely among gender dysphoric individuals, particularly trans-males. His other conclusions indicate that young children who experience gender identity issues will most likely desist by puberty, that multiple phenomena can cause the condition, and that Western European health services are not recommending medical intervention for minors. The basis for these statements is the paucity of high to moderate quality evidence on the effectiveness of sex reassignment treatments and numerous studies demonstrating desistance (Cantor, 2022).

Despite the need for stronger studies that provide definitive conclusions, many practitioners stand by the recommendations of the AAP, Endocrine Society, and WPATH. This is evident in a letter submitted to the *Tampa Bay Times*, which was a rebuttal to the Florida Department of Health's (DOH) guidance on treatment for gender dysphoria (Note: The guidance recommends against using puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, or surgery for minors) (DOH, 2022). The authors, led by six professors at the University of Florida's College of Medicine, state that recommendations by clinical organizations are based on "careful deliberation and examination of the evidence by experts." However, evaluations of these studies show otherwise. Not only does the available research use cross-sectional methods such as surveys, but it provides insufficient evidence based on momentary snapshots regarding mental health benefits. These weak studies are the foundation for the clinical organizations' guidelines that the University of Florida professors tout as a gold standard. In addition, the letter's authors state that DOH's guidance is based on a "non-representative sample of small studies and reviews, editorials, opinion pieces, and commentary" (Tampa Bay Times, 2022). That statement misses the point when it comes to evidence demonstrating whether treatments with irreversible effects are beneficial because the burden of proof is on those advocating for this treatment, not on those acknowledging the need for further research. This raises the question concerning how much academic rigor these professors are applying to practice guidelines released by clinical organizations and whether they also apply the same level of rigor to novel treatments for other conditions (e.g., drugs, medical devices).

Another example of a lack of rigor is a 2019 article by Herman et al from the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) that evaluated responses to a 2015 national survey on transgender individuals and suicide. Unlike other studies, this one utilized a large cohort with 28,000 participants from across the U.S. responding. However, the researchers used no screening criteria and did not randomly select individuals. In addition, responses consisted entirely of self-reports with no supporting evidence to even prove a diagnosis of gender dysphoria. Although Herman et al conclude that the U.S. transgender population is at higher risk for suicidal behaviors, the authors' supporting evidence is subjective and serves as a weak basis. Additionally, the survey results do not establish gender dysphoria as a direct cause of suicide or suicidal ideation. The questions required participants to respond about their overall physical and mental health. Out of those that indicated "poor" health, 77.7% reported suicidal thoughts or attempts during the previous year, whereas just 29.1% of participants in "excellent" health had. These percentages indicate that causes beyond gender dysphoria could be affecting suicidal behaviors. Other reasons cited include rejection by family or religious organizations and discrimination. The authors also acknowledge that their findings are broad, not nationally representative, and should serve as a basis for pursuing future research (Herman et al, 2019).

Yet another example is a study published in 2022 by Olson et al tracks 300 young children that identify as transgender over a 5-year period, and asserts low probabilities for detransitioning, while supporting interventions such as puberty blockers. The authors found that children (median age of 8 years) who identified as a gender that differed from their natal sex were unlikely to desist at a rate of 94% and conclude that "transgender youth who socially transitioned at early ages" will continue "to identify that way." While this appears to contradict earlier studies that demonstrate most young adolescents who change gender identities return to their "assigned gender at birth," the authors note differences and limitations with the results. For example, Olson et al notes that they did not verify whether the participants met the DSM-V's diagnostic criteria for gender dysphoria and that the children's families supported the decisions to transition. Instead, the authors relied on a child's chosen pronouns to classify as transgender. Also, Olson et al acknowledged that roughly 66% of the sample was biologically male. This is particularly significant considering that the majority of transitioning adolescents in recent years were natal females. Another issue with the study includes the median age at the end of follow-up (13 years), which is when boys begin puberty. Furthermore, the authors cite that the participants received strong parental support regarding the transitions, which constitutes positive reinforcement (Olson et al, 2022). Other research demonstrates that such feedback on social transitioning from parents and peers can prevent desistance following pubertal onset (Zucker, 2019). Despite these limitations, the New York Times announced the study's publication under the headline "Few Transgender Children Change Their Minds After 5 Years" (New York Times, 2022). Such a title can add to the public's perception that gender dysphoria requires early medical intervention to address.

Bioethical Questions

The irreversible physical changes and potential side effects of sex reassignment treatment raise significant ethical questions. These questions concern multiple bioethical principles including patient autonomy, informed consent, and beneficence. In a 2019 article, Michael Laidlaw, Michelle Cretella, and Kevin Donovan argue that prescribing puberty blockers or cross-sex hormones on the basis that they will alleviate psychological symptoms should not be the standard of care for children with gender dysphoria. Additionally, the three authors assert that such treatments "constitute an unmonitored, experimental intervention in children without sufficient evidence of efficacy or safety." The primary ethical question Laidlaw, Cretella, and Donovan pose is whether pushing physical transitioning, particularly without parental consent, violates fully informed consent (Laidlaw et al, 2019).

In accordance with principles of bioethics, several factors must be present to obtain informed consent from a patient. These consist of being able to understand and comprehend the service and potential risks, receiving complete disclosure from the physician, and voluntarily providing consent. Bioethicists generally do not afford the ability of giving informed consent to children who lack the competence to make decisions that pose permanent consequences (Varkey, 2021). Laidlaw, Cretella, and Donovan reinforce this point regarding sex reassignment treatment when they state that "children and adolescents have neither the cognitive nor the emotional maturity to comprehend the consequences of receiving a treatment for which the end result is sterility and organs devoid of sexual function" (Laidlaw et al, 2019). This further raises the question whether clinicians who make such treatment recommendations are providing full disclosure about the irreversible effects and truly obtaining informed consent.

Another issue is the conflict between consumerism and the practitioner's ability to provide appropriate care. Consumerism refers to patients learning about treatments through media/marketing and requesting their health care provider to prescribe it, regardless of medical necessity. Considering that social media is rife with individuals promoting "gender affirmative" drugs and surgeries, children are making self-assessments based on feelings they may not understand and that can lead to deep regret in the future (Littman, 2018). This can contribute to patients applying pressure on their doctors to prescribe medications not proven safe or effective for the condition. Consumerism can also affect bioethical compliance because it constrains clinicians from using their full "knowledge and skills to benefit the patient," which is "tantamount to a form of patient abandonment and therefore is ethically indefensible" (Varkey, 2021).

In his assessment, G. Kevin Donovan explains the bioethical challenges related to sex reassignment treatment, emphasizing the lack of informed consent when administering these services. He asserts that gender dysphoria is largely a self-diagnosis practitioners cannot verify with empirical tests (e.g., labs and imaging) and that providing such treatments is experimental. Because of the lack of consent and off-label use of puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones, Donovan raises the question as to how "experienced and ethical physicians so mislead others or be so misled themselves?" He further attributes this phenomenon to societal and peer pressures that influence self-diagnosis and confirm decisions to transition. As a result, these pressures lead to individuals wanting puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, and surgery. Donovan goes on to identify several news stories where embracing sex reassignment treatment is a "cult-like" behavior. To conclude, he links these factors back to the failure to obtain informed consent from transgender patients and how that violates basic bioethical principles (Donovan, 2022).

Coverage Policies of the U.S. and Western Europe

U.S. Federal Level Coverage Policies

Medicare: In 2016, the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS) published a decision memo announcing that Medicare Administrative Contractors (MACs) can evaluate sex reassignment surgery coverage on a "case-by-case" basis.[10] CMS specifically noted that the decision memo is not a National Coverage Determination and that "no national policy will be put in place for the Medicare program" (CMS, 2016). This memo was the result of CMS reviewing over 500 studies, reports, and articles to the validity of the procedures. Following its evaluation, CMS determined that "the quality and strength of evidence were low due to mostly observational study designs with no comparison groups, subjective endpoints, potential confounding . . . small sample sizes, lack of validated assessment tools, and considerable (number of participants in the studies) lost to follow up." In 2017, CMS reinforced this position with a policy transmittal that repeated the 2016 memo's criteria (CMS, 2017).

The basis for Medicare's decision is that the "clinical evidence is inconclusive" and that "robust" studies are "needed to ensure that patients achieve improved health outcomes." In its review of available literature, CMS sought to answer whether there is "sufficient evidence to conclude that gender reassignment surgery improves health outcomes for Medicare beneficiaries with gender dysphoria." After evaluating 33 studies that met inclusion criteria, CMS's review concludes that "not enough high-quality evidence" is available "to determine whether gender reassignment surgery improves health outcomes for Medicare beneficiaries with gender dysphoria and whether patients most likely to benefit from these types of surgical intervention can be identified prospectively." Additionally, out of the 33 studies, just 6 provided "useful information" on the procedures' effectiveness, revealing that their authors "assessed quality of life before and after surgery using validated (albeit non-specific) psychometric studies" that "did not demonstrate clinically significant changes or differences in psychometric test results" following sex reassignment surgery (CMS, 2016).

U.S. Department of Defense – Tricare: Tricare does not cover sex reassignment surgery, but it will cover psychological services such as counseling for individuals diagnosed with gender dysphoria and cross-sex hormones when medically necessary (Tricare, 2022).[11]

U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs: The U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) does not cover sex reassignment surgery, although it will reimburse for cross-sex hormones and pre- and post-operative care related to transitioning. Because the VA only provides services to veterans of the U.S. armed forces, it cannot offer sex reassignment treatment to children (VA, 2020).[12]

[10] The Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services is part of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Its primary functions are to administer the entire Medicare system and oversee federal compliance of state Medicaid programs. In addition, CMS sets reimbursement rates and coverage criteria for the Medicare program.
[11] Tricare is the insurance program that covers members of the U.S. armed forces and their families. This includes children of all ages.
[12] The U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs oversees the Veterans Health Administration (VHA), which consists of over 1,000 hospitals, clinics, and long-term care facilities. As the largest health care network in the U.S., the VHA provides services to veterans of the U.S. armed forces.

State-Level Coverage Policies

Florida: In April 2022, DOH issued guidance for the treatment of gender dysphoria, recommending that minors not receive puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, or sex reassignment surgery. [13] The justification offered for recommending against these treatments is that available evidence is low-quality and that European countries also have similar guidelines. Accordingly, DOH provided the following guidelines:

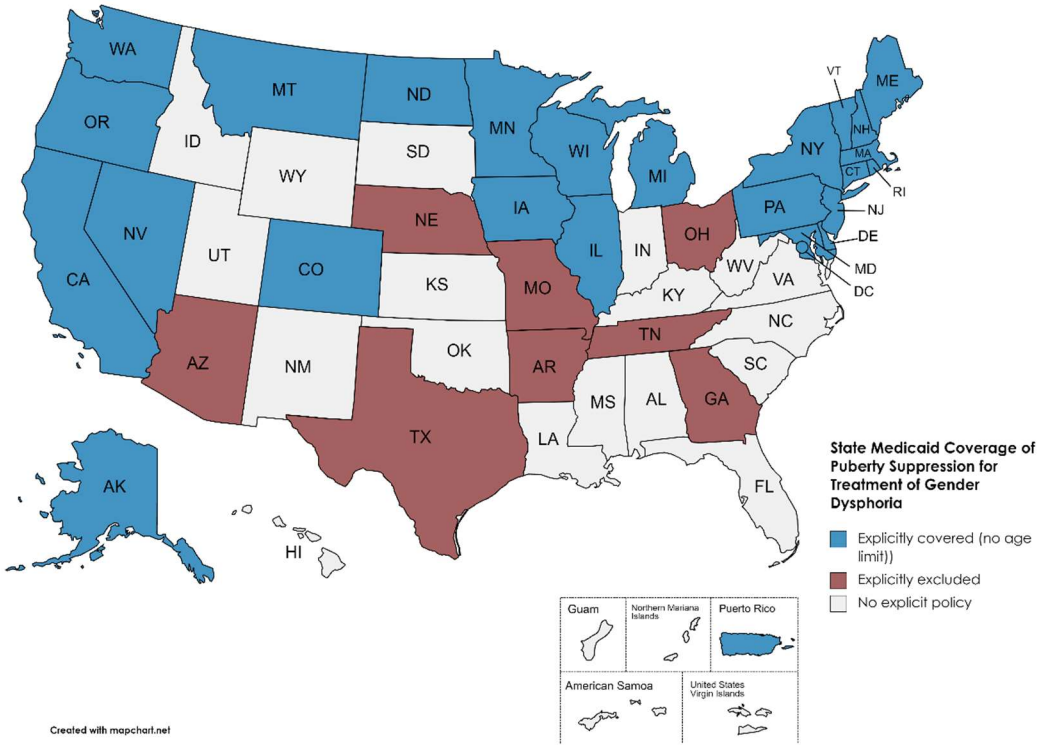
- "Social gender transition should not be a treatment option for children or adolescents."
- "Anyone under 18 should not be prescribed puberty blockers or hormone therapy."
- "Gender reassignment surgery should not be a treatment option for children or adolescents."
- "Children and adolescents should be provided social support by peers and family and seek counseling from a licensed provider."

In a separate fact sheet released simultaneously with the guidance, DOH further asserts that the evidence cited by the federal government cannot establish sex reassignment treatment's ability to improve mental health (DOH, 2022).

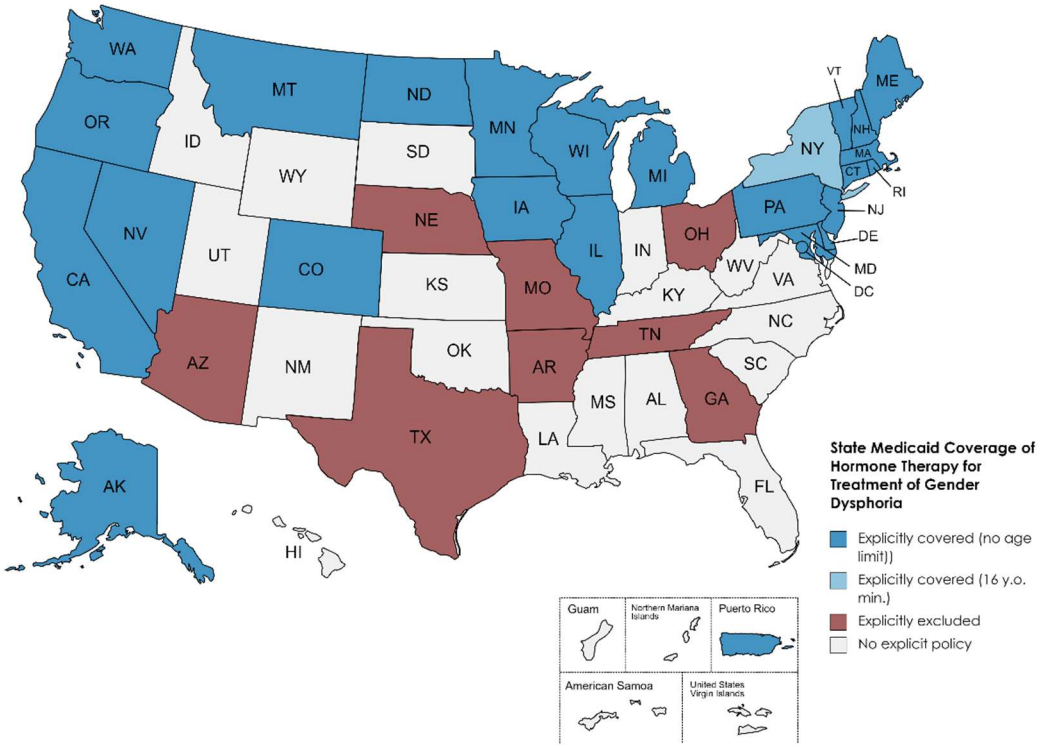
State Medicaid Programs: Because individual states differ in health services offered, Medicaid programs vary in their coverage of sex reassignment treatments. The following maps identify states that cover sex reassignment treatments, states that have no policy, and states that do not cover such treatments.

[13] Unlike the federal government, the State of Florida delegates responsibilities for Medicaid and health care services to five separate agencies (Agency for Health Care Administration, Department of Health, Department of Children and Families, Department of Elder Affairs, and Agency for Persons with Disabilities). Each agency has its own separate head (secretary or surgeon general), which reports directly to the Executive Office of the Governor. As Florida's public health agency, DOH oversees all county health departments, medical professional boards, and numerous health and welfare programs (e.g., Early Steps and Women, Infants, and Children). Because it oversees the boards, DOH has authority to release practice guidelines.

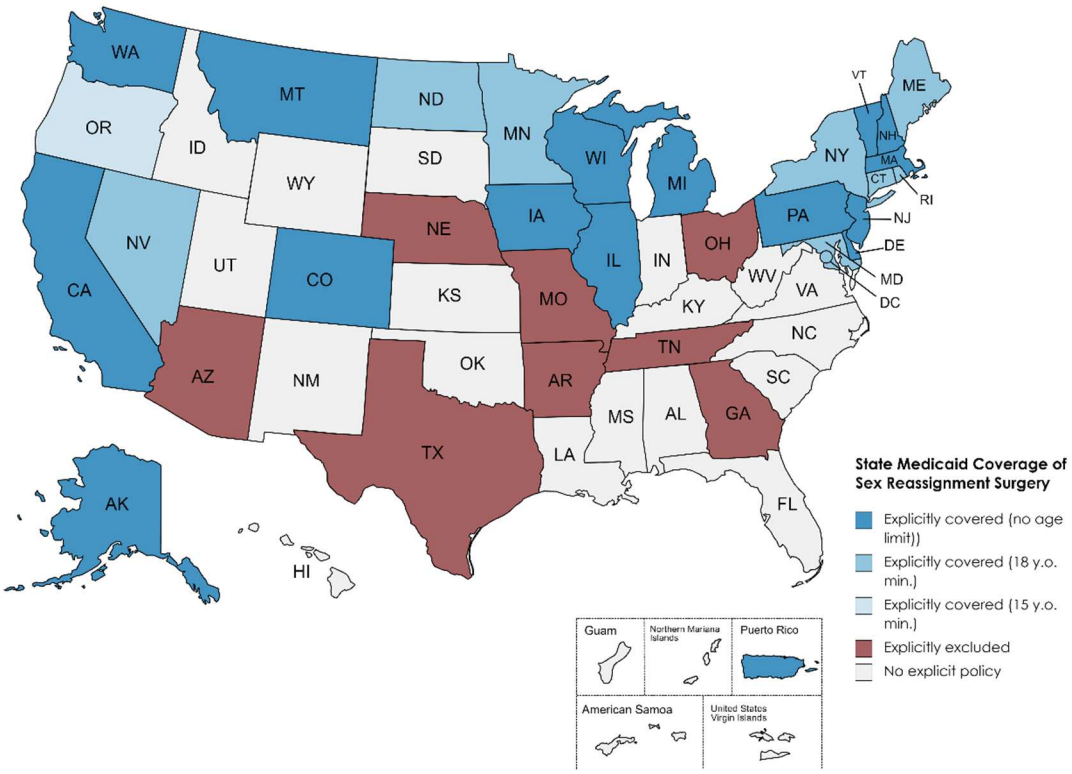
State Medicaid programs with coverage decisions regarding puberty blockers:



State Medicaid programs with coverage decisions regarding cross-sex hormones:



State Medicaid programs with coverage decisions regarding sex reassignment surgery:



Western Europe

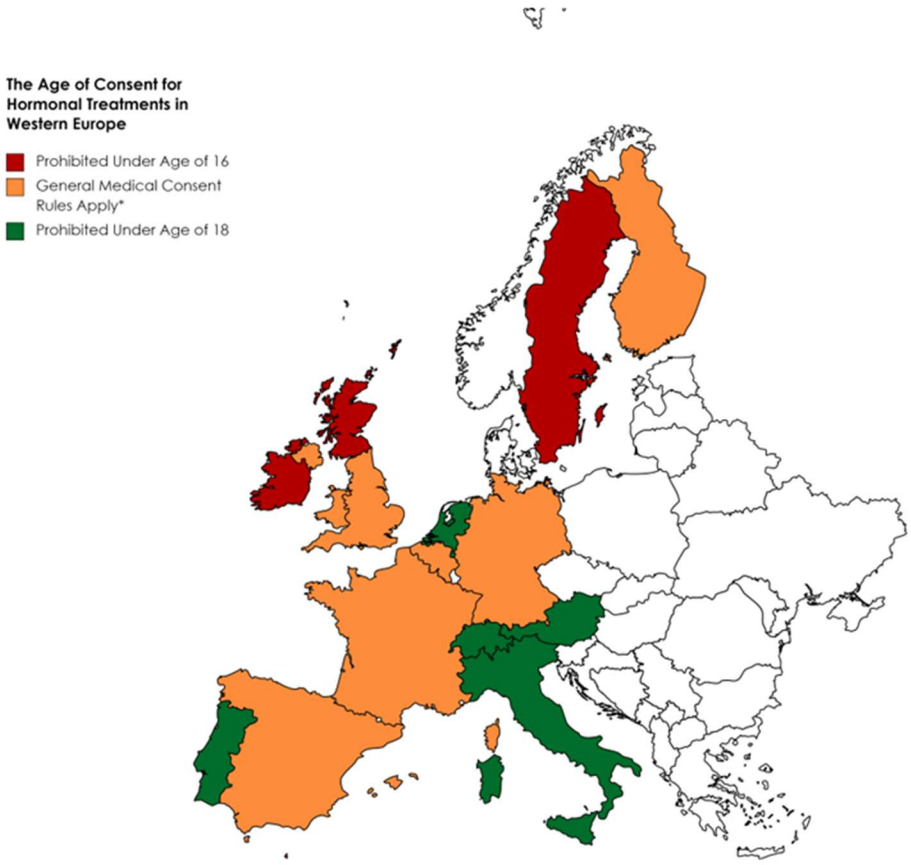
Scandinavian countries such as Sweden and Finland have released new guidelines on sex reassignment treatment for children. In 2022, the Swedish National Board of Health stated that "the risks of hormonal interventions for gender dysphoric youth outweigh the potential benefits." With the exception of youths who exhibited "classic" signs of gender identity issues, adolescents who present with the condition will receive behavioral health services and gender-exploratory therapy (Society for Evidence Based Gender Medicine, 2022).

In Finland, the Palveluvalikoima issued guidelines in 2020 stating that sex reassignment in minors "is an experimental practice" and that "no irreversible treatment should be initiated." The guidelines further assert that youths diagnosed with gender dysphoria often have co-occurring psychiatric disorders that must be stabilized prior to prescribing any cross-sex hormones or undergoing sex reassignment surgery (Palveluvalikoima, 2020).

The United Kingdom (U.K.) is also reassessing the use of irreversible treatments for gender dysphoria due the long-term effects on mental and physical health. In 2022, an independent interim report commissioned by the U.K.'s National Health Service (NHS) indicates that additional research and systematic changes are necessary to ensure the safe treatment of gender dysphoric youths. These include reinforcing the diagnosis process to assess all areas of physical and behavioral health, additional training for pediatric endocrinologists, and informing parents about the uncertainties regarding puberty blockers. The interim report is serving as a benchmark until the research is completed for final guidelines (The Cass Report, 2022).

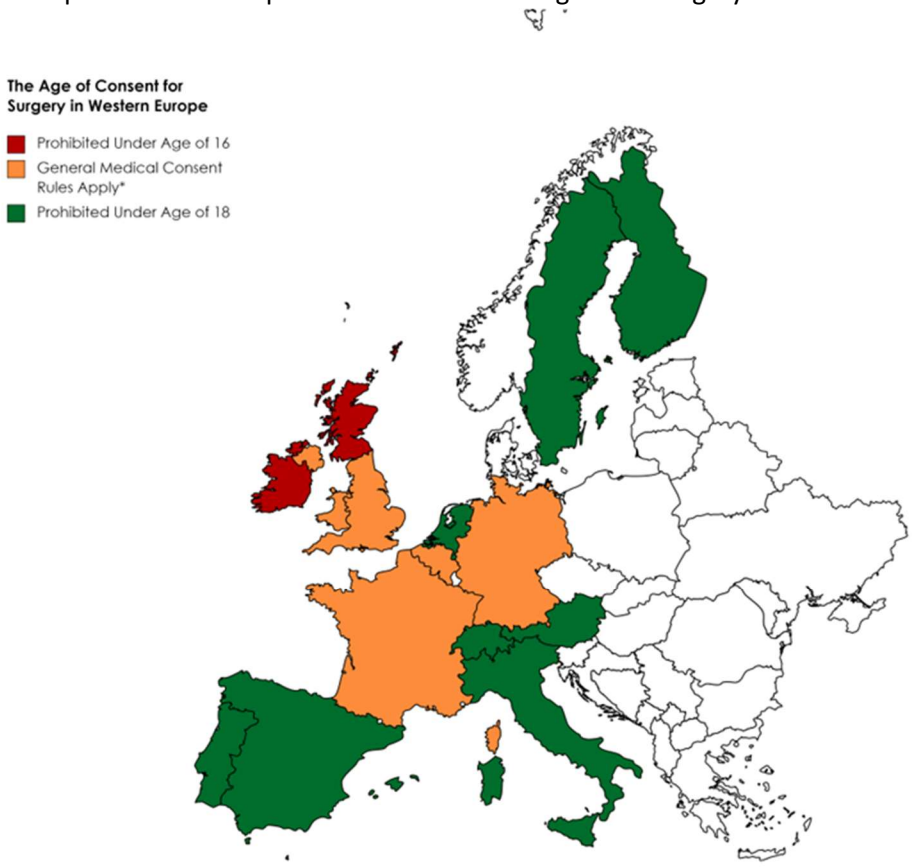
Like state Medicaid programs, health systems across Western Europe also vary in their coverage of sex reassignment treatment.

Western European nations' requirements for cross-sex hormones:



In this context, the age requirement for access to any medical treatment without consent of parents or of a public authority. This age may range from 16 to 18 years depending on each country's laws.

Western European nations' requirements for sex reassignment surgery:



In this context, the age requirement for access to any medical treatment without consent of parents or of a public authority. This age may range from 16 to 18 years depending on each country's laws.

Generally Accepted Professional Medical Standards Recommendation

This report does not recommend sex reassignment treatment as a health service that is consistent with generally accepted professional medical standards. Available evidence indicates that the services are not proven safe or effective treatments for gender dysphoria.

Rationale

The available medical literature provides insufficient evidence that sex reassignment through medical intervention is a safe and effective treatment for gender dysphoria. As this report demonstrates, the evidence favoring "gender affirming" treatments, including evidence regarding suicidality, is either low or very low quality:

- **Puberty Blockers:** Evidence does not prove that puberty blockers are safe for treatment of gender dysphoria. Evidence that they improve mental health and reduce suicidality is low or very low quality.
- **Cross-Sex Hormones:** Evidence suggesting that cross-sex hormones provide benefits to mental health and prevents suicidality is low or very low quality. Rather, evidence shows that cross-sex hormones cause multiple irreversible physical consequences as well as infertility.
- **Sex Reassignment Surgery:** Evidence of improvement in mental health and reduction in suicidality is low or very low quality. Sex reassignment surgery results in irreversible physical changes, including sterility.

While clinical organizations like the AAP endorse the above treatments, none of those organizations relies on high quality evidence. Their eminence in the medical community alone does not validate their views in the absence of quality, supporting evidence. To the contrary, the evidence shows that the above treatments pose irreversible consequences, exacerbate or fail to alleviate existing mental health conditions, and cause infertility or sterility. Given the current state of the evidence, the above treatments do not conform to GAPMS and are experimental and investigational.

__✓__**Concur** ____**Do not Concur**

Comments:

_____

_____

_____

_____ _____

Deputy Secretary for Medicaid (or designee) *Date*

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Attachments

Attachment A: Secretary for the Florida Agency for Health Care Administration's Letter to Deputy Secretary Thomas Wallace. 20 April 2022.

Attachment B: Complete text of Rule 59G-1.035, F.A.C.

Attachment C: Romina Brignardello-Petersen, DDS, MSc, PhD and Wojtek Wiercioch, MSc, PhD: *Effects of Gender Affirming Therapies in People with Gender Dysphoria: Evaluation of the Best Available Evidence*. 16 May 2022.

Attachment D: James Cantor, PhD: *Science of Gender Dysphoria and Transsexualism*. 17 May 2022.

Attachment E: Quentin Van Meter, MD: *Concerns about Affirmation of an Incongruent Gender in a Child or Adolescent*. 17 May 2022.

Attachment F: Patrick Lappert, MD: *Surgical Procedures and Gender Dysphoria*. 17 May 2022.

Attachment G: G. Kevin Donovan, MD: *Medical Experimentation without Informed Consent: An Ethicist's View of Transgender Treatment for Children*. 16 May 2022.

ATTACHMENT A

RON DESANTIS
GOVERNOR

SIMONE MARSTILLER
SECRETARY

April 20, 2022

Tom Wallace
Deputy Secretary for Medicaid
Agency for Health Care Administration
2727 Mahan Drive
Tallahassee, FL 32308

Dear Deputy Secretary Wallace:

On April 20, 2022, the Florida Department of Health released guidance on the treatment of gender dysphoria for children and adolescents.[1] The Florida Medicaid program does not have a policy on whether to cover such treatments for Medicaid recipients diagnosed with gender dysphoria. Please determine, under the process described in Florida Administrative Code Rule 59G-1035, whether such treatments are consistent with generally accepted professional medical standards and not experimental or investigational. Pursuant to Rule 59G-1035(5), I look forward to receiving your final determination.

Sincerely,

Simone Marstiller
Secretary

[1] *See* https://www.floridahealth.gov/newsroom/2022/04/20220420-gender-dysphoria-press-release.pr.html (last visited Apr. 20, 2022).

ATTACHMENT B

59G-1.035 Determining Generally Accepted Professional Medical Standards.

(1) Definitions.

(a) Generally accepted professional medical standards – Standards based on reliable scientific evidence published in peer-reviewed scientific literature generally recognized by the relevant medical community or practitioner specialty associations' recommendations.

(b) Health service(s) – Diagnostic tests, therapeutic procedures, or medical devices or technologies.

(c) Relevant – Having a significant and demonstrable bearing on the matter at hand.

(2) Pursuant to the criteria set forth in subparagraph 59G-1.010(166)(a)3., Florida Administrative Code (F.A.C.), the Agency for Health Care Administration (hereafter referred to as Agency) will determine when health services are consistent with generally accepted professional medical standards and are not experimental or investigational.

(3) Health services that are covered under the Florida Medicaid program are described in the respective coverage and limitations handbooks, policies, and fee schedules, which are incorporated by reference in the F.A.C. The public may request a health service be considered for coverage under the Florida Medicaid program by submitting a written request via e-mail to HealthServiceResearch@ahca.myflorida.com. The request must include the name, a brief description, and any additional information that supports coverage of the health service, including sources of reliable evidence as defined in paragraph 59G-1.010(84)(b), F.A.C.

(4) To determine whether the health service is consistent with generally accepted medical standards, the Agency shall consider the following factors:

(a) Evidence-based clinical practice guidelines.

(b) Published reports and articles in the authoritative medical and scientific literature related to the health service (published in peer-reviewed scientific literature generally recognized by the relevant medical community or practitioner specialty associations).

(c) Effectiveness of the health service in improving the individual's prognosis or health outcomes.

(d) Utilization trends.

(e) Coverage policies by other creditable insurance payor sources.

(f) Recommendations or assessments by clinical or technical experts on the subject or field.

(5) Based upon the information collected, a report with recommendations will be submitted to the Deputy Secretary for Medicaid (or designee) for review. The Deputy Secretary for Medicaid (or designee) will make a final determination as to whether the health service is consistent with generally accepted professional medical standards and not experimental or investigational.

(6) In order for the health service to be covered under the Florida Medicaid program, it must also meet all other medical necessity criteria as defined in subsection 59G-1.010(166), F.A.C., and funded through the General Appropriations Act or Chapter 216, F.S.

Rulemaking Authority 409.919 FS. Law Implemented 409.902, 409.906, 409.912, 409.913 FS. History–New 2-26-14, Amended 9-28-15.

ATTACHMENT C

Effects of gender affirming therapies in people with gender dysphoria: evaluation of the best available evidence

Romina Brignardello-Petersen, DDS, MSc, PhD
Wojtek Wiercioch, MSc, PhD

1. Introduction

We prepared this report to fulfill a request from the Florida Agency for Health Care Administration. This report contains three documents: 1. Main document (this document) summarizing the methodology used and the findings, 2. Methods document, which provides a detailed description of the systematic methodology used to find, prioritize, appraise, and synthesize the evidence, and 3. Results document, which describes the evidence available, the estimates of the effects of gender affirming therapies, and the certainty (also known as quality) of the evidence.

This document is organized in four parts. First, we describe the credentials and expertise of the health research methodologists conducting this evidence evaluation. Second, we summarize the methodology used. Third, we summarize the main findings. Finally, we briefly discuss strengths and limitations of our process and of the evidence.

2. Credentials and expertise

Two experts in health research methodology, who specialize in evidence synthesis to support decision making, prepared this report. Their relevant credentials and expertise are described below.

Dr. Romina Brignardello-Petersen: Assistant Professor at the Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence, and Impact, at McMaster University. Dr. Brignardello-Petersen obtained a DDS degree (University of Chile) in 2007, an MSc degree in Clinical Epidemiology and Health Care Research (University of Toronto) in 2012, and MSc in Biostatistics (University of Chile) in 2015, and a PhD in Clinical Epidemiology and Health Care Research (University of Toronto) in 2016. Dr. Brignardello-Petersen has worked in evidence synthesis projects since 2010, and her research has focused on the methodology for the development of Systematic Reviews and Clinical Practice Guidelines since 2012. Through January 2022, she has published 122 peer reviewed scientific articles (24 as a first author and 9 as a senior author). Dr. Brignardello-Petersen has acted as a research methodologist for several groups and organizations, including the World Health Organization, the Pan-American Health Organization, the American Society of Hematologists, the American College of Rheumatology, and the Society for Evidence Based Gender Medicine, among others. Her research program has been awarded over $2M CAD from the Canadian Institutes for Health Research. Dr. Brignardello-Petersen has no lived experience as a person or family member of a person with gender dysphoria, and her research interests are not in this area.

Dr. Wojtek Wiercioch: Postdoctoral Research Fellow at the Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence, and Impact, at McMaster University. Dr. Wiercioch obtained an MSc degree (2014, McMaster University) and a PhD degree (2020, McMaster University) in Health Research Methodology. Dr. Wiercioch has worked in evidence syntheses projects since 2011, and his research focuses on evidence synthesis, guideline development methodology, and the guideline development process. Through April

2022, he has published 86 peer-reviewed scientific articles. Dr. Wiercioch has acted as a guideline methodologist for several groups and organizations, including the World Health Organization, the American Society of Hematologists, the Endocrine Society (of America), and the American Association for Thoracic Surgeons, among others. Dr. Wiercioch has no lived experience as a person or family member of a person with gender dysphoria, and his research interests are not in this area.

3. Methods

We conducted an overview of systematic reviews. We used a reproducible approach to search, select, prioritize, appraise, and synthesize the available evidence, following high methodological standards. We describe full details of the methodology in an accompanying document.

In brief, we searched for systematic reviews published in English language in Epistemonikos, OVID Medline, and grey literature sources, through April 30, 2022. We selected systematic reviews which included studies on young individuals with a diagnosis of gender dysphoria, who received puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, or surgeries; and in which authors reported data regarding outcomes important to patients: gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, quality of life, suicidal ideation, suicide, adverse effects, and complications. Systematic reviews could have included any type of primary study design.

The two reviewers screened all titles and abstracts, followed by full text of potentially relevant systematic reviews. We then prioritized the most useful systematic review providing evidence for each of the outcomes, using pre-established criteria that considered date of publication, applicability, availability of outcome data, methodological quality of the systematic review, and usefulness of the data synthesis conducted in the systematic review (see methods document for details).

After abstracting data from the systematic reviews, we synthesized the best available evidence for each of the outcomes, and assessed the certainty (also known as quality) of the evidence using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation (GRADE) approach. We conducted GRADE assessments using the information provided by the systematic review authors (risk of bias of primary studies, characteristics of included studies, results reported by the studies). We present the all the information about outcomes in GRADE summary of findings tables.

In addition, to evaluate the robustness of our conclusions, we systematically searched for and evaluated primary studies answering the questions of interest published after the authors of the included systematic reviews conducted their searches.

4. Results

We included 61 systematic reviews, from which 3 addressed the effects of puberty blockers, 22 addressed the effects of cross-sex hormones, 30 addressed the effects of surgeries, and 6 addressed the effects of more than one of these interventions. After our prioritization exercise, we included information from 2 systematic reviews on puberty blockers, 4 on cross-sex hormones, and 8 on surgeries.

4.1 Puberty blockers

For most outcomes (except suicidality), there is no evidence about the effect of puberty blockers compared to not using puberty blockers. In other words, no studies compared the outcomes between a group of people with gender dysphoria using puberty blockers and another group of people with gender dysphoria not using them. Therefore, it is unknown whether people with gender dysphoria who use puberty blockers experience more improvement in gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, and quality of life than those with gender dysphoria who do not use them. There is very low certainty about the effects of puberty blockers on suicidal ideation.

The studies included in the systematic review reported outcomes among a group of people with gender dysphoria after receiving puberty blockers. Low certainty evidence suggests that after treatment with puberty blockers, people with gender dysphoria experience a slight increase in gender dysphoria, and an improvement in depression, and anxiety. Low certainty evidence also suggests that a moderate percentage of patients experience adverse effects. The findings must be interpreted considering that these studies did not have a comparison group, and that it is unknown if people with gender dysphoria that do not use puberty blockers experience similar or different outcomes.

4.2 Cross sex hormones

For almost all outcomes (except breast cancer) there is no evidence about the effect of cross sex hormones compared to not using cross sex hormones. In other words, no studies compared the outcomes between a group of people with gender dysphoria using cross sex hormones and another group of people with gender dysphoria not using them. Therefore, it is unknown whether people with gender dysphoria who use cross-sex hormones experience more improvement in gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, quality of life, and suicidality than those with gender dysphoria who do not use cross-sex hormones. There is low certainty evidence suggesting that cross-sex hormones may not increase the risk of breast cancer.

The studies included in the systematic reviews reported changes in the outcomes among a group of patients with gender dysphoria after the use of cross-sex hormones. Low certainty evidence suggests that after treatment with cross-sex hormones, people with gender dysphoria experience an improvement in gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, and suicidality. There is very low certainty evidence about the changes in quality of life. There is moderate certainty evidence suggesting a low prevalence of venous thromboembolism after treatment with cross-sex hormones. The findings must be interpreted considering that these studies did not have a comparison group, and that it is unknown if people with gender dysphoria that do not use cross-sex hormones experience similar or different outcomes.

4.3 Surgeries

There were no systematic reviews and studies reporting on gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, and suicidality. Therefore, the effects of surgeries on these outcomes (when compared to a group of patients with gender dysphoria who do not undergo surgery), or the changes in these outcomes (improvements or deterioration) among patients who undergo any gender-affirming surgery is unknown. Because of the lack of comparative studies, it is also unknown whether people with gender dysphoria who undergo surgeries experience more improvement in quality of life or less regret than those with gender dysphoria who do not undergo any surgeries. There is low certainty evidence suggesting that a low percentage of participants experience regret, and very low certainty evidence about changes in quality of life after surgery.

In assigned females at birth, low certainty evidence suggests that a high percentage of people are satisfied after chest surgery. There is very low certainty evidence, however, about satisfaction after bottom surgery, and about complications after both chest and bottom surgery. In assigned males at birth, low certainty evidence suggests a high percentage of people satisfied and a low percentage of people experiencing regret after vaginoplasty. There is very low certainty, however, about satisfaction with chest surgery and complications and reoperations after bottom surgery.

4.4 Evidence published after the systematic reviews selected

We found 10 relevant studies that were published after the systematic reviews were conducted. This evidence was not sufficient to importantly change the conclusions previously made.

5. Discussion

5.1 Summary of the evidence

In this report, we systematically summarized the best available evidence regarding the effects of puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, and surgeries in young people with gender dysphoria. We did not find evidence about the effect of these interventions on outcomes important to patients when compared to not receiving the intervention. We found low and very low certainty evidence suggesting improvements in gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, and quality of life, as well as low rates of adverse events, after treatment with puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones.

5.2 Completeness and applicability

There are several gaps in the evidence regarding the effects of puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, and surgeries in patients with gender dysphoria. Although we found some evidence for all the outcomes of interest, the evidence is suboptimal: several limitations included the lack of studies with a comparison group, and the risk of bias and imprecision, resulting in low or very low certainty evidence for all outcomes.

The applicability of the evidence may also be limited. Although we only rated down for indirectness when it was considered a serious problem (i.e., in evidence about the effects of surgeries, which was collected from people who were importantly older than the target population in this report), there are also potential applicability issues to consider in the evidence regarding the effects of puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones. It is not clear to what extent the people included in the studies were similar enough to the people seeking these treatment options today. For example, some of the included studies were conducted in people who had a diagnosis of gender dysphoria confirmed with strict criteria, as well as a supportive environment. It is important to take into account to what extent this may compromise the applicability of the results to people who are not in the same situation.

5.3 Strengths and limitations of the process for developing this report

We followed a reproducible process for developing this report. We used the highest methodological standards and the approach to evidence synthesis we generally use when supporting organizations in the development of their guidelines. This approach is based on prioritizing the sources of evidence most likely to be informative (i.e., to identify and use the evidence with the highest certainty level).

To follow the principles for evidence-based decision making, which require using the best available evidence to inform decisions, we summarized the best available evidence. Because knowing the best

available evidence necessitates being aware of all the available evidence, we based this report on systematic reviews of the literature. We chose the most trustworthy and relevant systematic reviews among many published reviews.

One potential limitation of the process is that, due to feasibility concerns, we relied on the information reported by the systematic reviewers. Most of the systematic reviews we used, unfortunately, were judged at moderate or low methodological quality, which may raise concerns about the trustworthiness of the evidence presented in this report. We believe, however, that the results and conclusions of this report would not be importantly different had the systematic reviews been conducted following higher methodological standards. Because there are no randomized controlled trials, well-conducted comparative observational studies, or very large case series (which include a large sample of consecutive patients who are representative of the whole population) addressing the effects of puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, and surgeries; the certainty of the evidence about the effects of these interventions is likely to continue being low or very low, even if a few more studies are included (as observed after searching for primary studies published after the reviews were conducted) or some data points were reported inaccurately in the systematic reviews.

Also due to feasibility concerns, the scope of this report was limited to outcomes that are important to patients. Although some may question the decision of not including surrogate outcomes for which there is evidence available (e.g. bone density, blood pressure), decision makers should rarely consider these outcomes and should instead focus on outcomes that do matter to people and stakeholders (e.g., fractures, cardiovascular events).

5.4 Implications

The evidence evaluating the effects of puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, and surgeries in people with gender dysphoria has important limitations. Therefore, decisions regarding their use should carefully consider other relevant factors. At a patient level, these factors include patients' values and preferences (how patients trade off the potential benefit and harms - what outcomes are more important to them), and resources needed to provide the interventions (and the availability of such resources). At a population level, in addition to these factors, it would be important to consider resources needed to implement the interventions, feasibility, acceptability by relevant stakeholders, and equity.

It is important to note that when there is low or very low certainty evidence, it is rarely appropriate to make decisions that will be applied to the majority of the patients (equivalent to strong recommendations). This implies, at the patient level, that shared decision making is a key part of the decision-making process. At a policy level, extensive debate may be needed.

6. Conclusions

Due to the important limitations in the body of evidence, there is great uncertainty about the effects of puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, and surgeries in young people with gender dysphoria. This evidence alone is not sufficient to support whether using or not using these treatments. We encourage decision makers to be explicit and transparent about which factors play an important role in their decision, and how they are weighed and traded off.

Methods

To ensure completeness and feasibility of the evidence review, we used an approach in which we prioritized the types of studies according to the design that was more likely to provide the best available evidence. First, we searched for systematic reviews of the literature. Second, we appraised all existing systematic reviews to select the most trustworthy (highest methodological quality, most up-to-date, most applicable) from which to draw conclusions. Third, we used the information presented in the systematic reviews to abstract information regarding the effects of the interventions of interest. Fourth, we assessed the certainty of the evidence (also known as quality of the evidence) abstracted from the selected systematic reviews. We planned to search for primary studies if systematic reviews were not found.

Information sources: We searched for existing systematic reviews in:

1. Epistemonikos (https://www.epistemonikos.org), an electronic database that focuses on systematic reviews. We used a comprehensive search strategy based on the population, using the terms “gender dysphoria”, “gender identity disorder” and “transgender”. We conducted this search on April 23, 2022.
2. OVID Medline. We used a search strategy based on the population and the interventions of interest, as well as an adaptation of a filter for systematic reviews from the Health Information Research Unit at McMaster University. We conducted this search on April 23, 2022.
3. Grey literature: we conducted a manual search in the websites of specific health agencies: National Institutes for Health and Care Excellence (NICE), Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ), Canada’s Drug and Health Technology Agency (CADTH), and the website from the Society for Evidence-Based Gender Medicine (SEGM). We conducted these searches between April 27-30, 2022.

We used no date limits for the searches, but we did limit to systematic reviews published in English. Search strategies are available in Appendix 1.

Eligibility criteria: We included systematic reviews, which we defined as:

1. Reviews in which the authors searched for studies to include in at least one electronic database, and in which there were eligibility criteria for including studies and a methodology for assessing and synthesizing the evidence, or
2. Reviews in which the authors searched for studies to include in at least one electronic database, and although there was no description of eligibility criteria or methodology, the presentation of the results strongly suggested that the authors used systematic methods (e.g. flow chart depicting study selection, tables with the same information from all included studies, synthesis of data at the outcome level).

We screened systematic reviews using the following criteria for inclusion:

- ***Type of participants:*** Young individuals (< 25 years old) with a diagnosis of gender dysphoria/gender identity disorder. We included reviews in which authors used any label and diagnostic criteria for this condition. We included reviews in which the participants in the reported studies were older if it was the only evidence available for a specific question. We excluded reviews with mixed populations (i.e. with and without gender dysphoria) in which people without gender dysphoria constituted more than 20% of the total sample.

- ***Type of Interventions*:** Puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, gender affirming surgeries. We included any type of puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones, provided with any regimen. We included the following surgeries: phalloplasty, vaginoplasty, and chest surgery (mastectomy or breast implants/augmentation). We only included these when they were performed for the first time (i.e., not revision surgeries).

- ***Type of comparison:*** When the systematic reviews included comparative studies, the comparator of interest was no intervention. Participants could have received psychotherapy or counselling as a cointervention (in both groups).

- ***Type of outcomes:*** Gender dysphoria*,* mental health outcomes (depression and anxiety), quality of life, suicidal ideation, suicide*,* adverse effects (for puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones only), and satisfaction, complications, reoperation, and regret (for surgeries only). We included any length of follow-up. We excluded surrogate outcomes such as blood pressure, bone mineral density, kidney or liver function test values, etc.

- ***Type of studies included in the systematic reviews****:* Any clinical study (studies in which the researchers recruited and measured outcomes in humans) regardless of study design. This included randomized clinical trials, comparative observational studies, and case series. Because we could not quantify effect measures, incidence, or prevalence, we excluded case reports.

We excluded systematic reviews published only in abstract format, and those that we could not retrieve in full text (no access through the McMaster University library, or open access online).

Selection process: The two reviewers screened all titles and abstracts independently and in duplicate, followed by screening of full texts of potentially eligible systematic reviews independently and in duplicate, using the systematic review online application Covidence (https://www.covidence.org). We solved disagreements by consensus.

To select the most useful systematic reviews among all of those that met the eligibility criteria, we used the following prioritization criteria:

1. Date of publication: we prioritized systematic reviews published within the last 3 years (2020-2022)

2. Match between eligibility criteria of the review and the question of interest: we prioritized reviews in which the authors specifically included the population, intervention, comparison, and outcomes of interest for this evidence review
3. Outcome data available: we prioritized systematic reviews in which the authors report outcome data
4. Methodological quality: we used a modified version of the items in AMSTAR 2.[1] We modified the items to ensure assessment of methodological rather than reporting quality (Table 1). We rated each systematic review as having high, moderate, low, or critically low methodological quality, according to the guidance from the developers of the tool.[1] We reached consensus on critical items that determined this rating (Table 1). We prioritized selection of systematic reviews with highest methodological quality.

For surgical interventions, in addition, we prioritized systematic reviews that covered all gender affirming surgeries (instead of focusing on a specific type of surgery).

We selected a systematic review specifically for each of the outcomes of interest. In other words, we chose the best systematic review to inform each outcome. Each systematic review, however, could inform more than one outcome.

Table 1: Items used to rate the methodological quality of the eligible systematic reviews

AMSTAR Item	Modification to measure methodological quality
1. Did the research questions and inclusion criteria for the review include the components of PICO?	Does the review have a clear question and are the eligibility criteria for studies consistent with the question?
2. Did the report of the review contain an explicit statement that the review methods were established prior to the conduct of the review and did the report justify any significant deviations from the protocol?	No modification needed
3. Did the review authors explain their selection of the study designs for inclusion in the review?	No modification needed
4. Did the review authors use a comprehensive literature search strategy?	Did the authors search in at least 2 electronic databases, using a reproducible search strategy?
5. Did the review authors perform study selection in duplicate?	No modification needed
6. Did the review authors perform data extraction in duplicate?	No modification needed
7. Did the review authors provide a list of excluded studies and justify the exclusions?	No modification needed
8. Did the review authors describe the included studies in adequate detail?	No modification needed
9. Did the review authors use a satisfactory technique for assessing the risk of bias (RoB) in individual studies that were included in the review?	No modification needed

10. Did the review authors report on the sources of funding for the studies included in the review?	Did the review authors consider conflicts of interest and how they may have affected the results of the primary studies?
11. If meta-analysis was performed, did the review authors use appropriate methods for statistical combination of results?	Was the synthesis of evidence done appropriately? (outcome level, appropriate meta analysis or narrative synthesis)
12. If meta-analysis was performed, did the review authors assess the potential impact of RoB in individual studies on the results of the meta-analysis or other evidence synthesis?	Did authors use subgroup or sensitivity analysis to assess the effect of risk of bias in meta-analytic results? Likely not applicable to most cases
13. Did the review authors account for RoB in primary studies when interpreting/discussing the results of the review?	Did the review authors incorporate an assessment of risk of bias at the outcome level when drawing conclusions?
14. Did the review authors provide a satisfactory explanation for, and discussion of, any heterogeneity observed in the results of the review?	Did the review authors incorporate an assessment of heterogeneity at the outcome level when drawing conclusions?
15. If they performed quantitative synthesis did the review authors carry out an adequate investigation of publication bias (small study bias) and discuss its likely impact on the results of the review?	Did the authors address publication bias? (regardless of whether synthesis was using a meta-analysis or narrative)
16. Did the review authors report any potential sources of conflict of interest, including any funding they received for conducting the review?	Did the authors report conflicts of interest and did they manage any existing conflict of interest appropriately?

Shaded items were items considered critical.

Data abstraction: We abstracted outcome data from each of the systematic reviews. To ensure feasibility, we used the data as reported by the authors of the review and did not re-abstract data from the primary studies. One reviewer abstracted the data and a second reviewer checked the data for accuracy.

Data synthesis: Using the systematic reviews prioritized, we synthesized the evidence at the outcome level. Because of the higher likelihood of it resulting in higher certainty of evidence (details below) for each outcome, when there was comparative data (i.e. comparison of outcomes between an untreated and a treated group) and non-comparative data (i.e. changes from before to after treatment in one group, or only outcomes after treatment), we prioritized comparative data.

We prioritized numerical results (i.e. magnitudes of effect) and reported estimates and their 95% confidence intervals (CIs). When results were not reported in that way, we calculated the estimates and CIs when systematic review authors provided sufficient information. When necessary, we assumed moderate correlation coefficients for the changes between baseline and follow up (coefficient= 0.4). When this information was not available we reported narratively the effect estimates and ranges.

When a specific study reported the same outcome measured by more than one scale, we chose the scale presented first. We highlighted situations when the results obtained with other scales were importantly different.

When the same outcome was reported by more than one study but we could not pool the results, we created narrative syntheses.

Certainty of evidence: For each outcome, we assessed the certainty of the evidence (also known as quality of the evidence) using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation (GRADE) approach.[2] The certainty of evidence can be rated as high, moderate, low, or very low (Table 2). For effects of interventions, the certainty of the evidence started as high and could be rated down due to serious concerns about risk of bias, inconsistency, indirectness, imprecision, and publication bias. For inferences about the effect of using a treatment versus no treatment, when there was no comparison group, we assessed risk of bias as very serious and rated down the certainty of the evidence 2 levels by default. We used the same principles when assessing the certainty of the evidence in estimates of prevalence or rates, but did not judge risk of bias as resulting in very serious concerns due to lack of a comparison group. For all assessments, we used the information presented by the authors of the systematic review (e.g. assessments of risk of bias of the included studies, effect estimates from studies).

Table 2: GRADE levels of certainty of the evidence

Certainty level	Definition
High ⊕⊕⊕⊕	We are very confident that the true result (effect estimate/ prevalence/ mean, etc.) lies close to that of the estimate of the result
Moderate ⊕⊕⊕◯	We are moderately confident in the result: the true result is likely to be close to the estimate of the result, bur there is a possibility that it is substantially different
Low ⊕⊕◯◯	Our confidence in the result is limited: the true result may be substantially different from the estimate of the result
Very low ⊕◯◯◯	We have very little confidence in the result: the true result is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of the result

Presentation of results: We created GRADE Summary of Findings tables in which we describe the evidence available for each of the outcomes, and the certainty of the evidence. These tables contain the following information:

- Outcomes: measurement method (including scales, if applicable) and follow-up
- Estimates of effect: absolute and relative estimates of effect, and their corresponding 95% CIs.
- Number of studies and participants providing evidence for the outcome
- GRADE certainty of the evidence, with a link to detailed explanations (provided at the bottom of the table) of why the certainty of the evidence was rated at a specific level
- A narrative statement about what happens with the outcome, based on the estimate of effect and certainty of evidence.

Searching for new evidence not included in the systematic reviews: To assess if newer evidence not included in the included systematic reviews would change the conclusions importantly, we searched for and assessed primary studies answering the questions of interest that were published after the authors of such systematic reviews conducted their searches. We defined an important change in conclusions as a change in the certainty of the evidence (from low/ very low/ not available to high/ moderate).

We searched OVID Medline from January 1, 2019 through May 12, 2022, for studies published in English. We included studies if they enrolled young individuals (< 25 years old, with at least 20% of the people being this age) with a diagnosis of gender dysphoria/gender identity disorder, who received puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, or surgeries; and measured any of the outcomes of interest.

For outcomes that should be evaluated in a comparative manner (e.g., depression, anxiety, etc.), because they are the only type of study design that would change the conclusions importantly, we selected comparative clinical studies (studies in which the researchers recruited and measured outcomes in humans, and compared a group of people who received the intervention with another one who did not receive the intervention). This included randomized clinical trials, and comparative observational studies. For outcomes that can only occur when the treatment is administered, we included non-comparative observational studies (case series). For these to change conclusions, they should have a sufficiently large sample size, and therefore we excluded case series in which the researchers reported information from <100 people.

Two reviewers screened the potentially relevant articles at title and abstract and full text screening stage. We abstracted relevant study characteristics and outcome data, and assessed risk of bias of comparative studies using the most relevant domains of the Risk of Bias for non-Randomized studies of Interventions (ROBINS-I) tool[3] (table 3). For non-comparative studies, we used a list of custom items that captured the most important potential risk of bias concerns of case series (table 4). We judged the risk of bias of each study as the highest risk of bias of any of the domains assessed (e.g., one domain judged at critical risk of bias resulted in the study judged at critical risk of bias). We summarized this information at the study and judged whether it would have changed the conclusions importantly if added to the body of evidence from the systematic reviews.

Table 3: Domains used to assess risk of bias of comparative studies

Domain	Low	Critical
Confounding	Adjusted for all relevant confounding factors	No adjustment
Classification of intervention	Intervention recorded prospectively or from medical records	Asked patients to recall whether they received the intervention
Deviation from intended interventions	No cointerventions or cointerventions balanced between the groups	Cointerventions unbalanced between the groups

Missing data	More than 90% of patients who started the study provided outcome data	Less thank 50% of patients who started the study provided outcome data
Measurement of outcome	All outcomes measured in the same way in both groups	Outcomes measured differently in both groups

Each domain could be judged at low, moderate, serious, or critical risk of bias. In addition, information could be insufficient to make a judgment. The table describes the criteria used to judge a domain in the extreme categories.

Table 4: Domains used to assess risk of bias of non- comparative studies

Domain	Low	High
Representativeness of the sample	Included all consecutive patients	Highly selected sample based on specific characteristics related with the prognosis after treatment
Classification of the intervention	Intervention recorded prospectively or from medical records	Asked patients to recall whether they received the intervention
Deviation from intended interventions	No cointerventions outside what would be observed in practice (or in a small proportion of patients)	Most patients received co interventions that could influence the outcomes
Missing data	More than 90% of patients who started the study provided outcome data	Less thank 50% of patients who started the study provided outcome data
Measurement of outcome	Outcomes measured prospectively or from medical records	Outcomes reported by the patients and/ or needed to recall what happened a long time ago

Each domain could be judged at low, moderate, or high risk of bias. In addition, information could be insufficient to make a judgment. The table describes the criteria used to judge a domain in the extreme categories.

References

1. Shea BJ, Reeves BC, Wells G, et al. AMSTAR 2: a critical appraisal tool for systematic reviews that include randomised or non-randomised studies of healthcare interventions, or both. *Bmj* 2017;358:j4008. doi: 10.1136/bmj.j4008 [published Online First: 2017/09/25]
2. Blashem H, Helfand M, Schunemann HJ, et al. GRADE guidelines: 3. Rating the quality of the evidence. *Journal of clinical epidemiology* 2011;64:401-06.
3. Sterne JA, Hernan MA, Reeves BC, et al. ROBINS-I: a tool for assessing risk of bias in non-randomised studies of interventions. *BMJ (Clinical research ed)* 2016;355:i4919. doi: 10.1136/bmj.i4919 [published Online First: 2016/10/14]

Search Strategies

Questions Covered:

PICO questions:

1. For children, adolescents, and young adults (<21) with gender dysphoria, what are the effects of treatment with **puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone (GnRH) analogues)** compared to no puberty blockers?

2. For children, adolescents, and young adults (<21) with gender dysphoria, what are the effects of treatment with **cross-sex hormones** compared to no cross-sex hormones?

3. For children, adolescents, and young adults (<21) with gender dysphoria, what are the effects of **gender-affirming surgeries** compared to no surgery?

Search Strategies:

Note: Population, puberty blocker, cross-sex hormones search blocks adapted from NICE (2020) evidence reviews. Gender-affirming search block adapted from Wernick *et al.* 2019. Systematic reviews filter adapted from McMaster University Health Information Research Unit (HIRU).

Databases: Medline, Epistemonikos
Grey Literature: CADTH, AHRQ, SEGM, NICE

Medline

OVERVIEW	
Interface:	Ovid
Databases:	OVID Medline Epub Ahead of Print, In-Process & Other Non-Indexed Citations, Ovid MEDLINE(R) Daily and Ovid MEDLINE(R) 1946 to Present
Study Types:	Systematic Reviews
Search Run:	April 23, 2022

Search Strategy: search terms [number of results]

Population

1	exp "Sexual and Gender Minorities"/	12385
2	Gender Dysphoria/	774
3	Gender Identity/	20481
4	Gender Role/	197
5	"Sexual and Gender Disorders"/	81
6	Transsexualism/	4236
7	Transgender Persons/	5303
8	Health Services for Transgender Persons/	186

9 exp Sex Reassignment Procedures/ 1208
10 gender identity disorder.mp. 492
11 non-binary.mp. 566
12 transgender.mp. 9989
13 (gender* adj3 (dysphori* or disorder* or distress or nonconform* or non-conform* or atypical or incongru* or identi* or disorder* or confus* or minorit* or queer* or variant or diverse or creative or explor* or question* or expan* or fluid)).tw. 16428
14 ((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition* or expression*)).tw. 13749
15 (transgend* or transex* or transsex* or transfem* or transwom* or transma* or transmen* or transperson* or transpeopl*).tw. 19665
16 (genderfluid or genderqueer or agender).mp. 130
17 ((correct or chosen) adj3 name).mp. 591
18 (trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*).tw. 135313
19 ((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition* or expression*)).tw. 13749
20 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m).tw. 148579
21 or/1-20 342948

Cross-Sex Hormones

22 Hormones/ad, tu, th 4676
23 exp Progesterone/ad, tu, th 11265
24 exp Estrogens/ad, tu, th 29635
25 exp Gonadal Steroid Hormones/ad, tu, th 35375
26 (progesteron* or oestrogen* or estrogen*).tw. 223307
27 ((cross-sex or crosssex or gender-affirm*) and (hormon* or steroid* or therap* or treatment* or prescri* or pharm* or medici* or drug* or intervention* or care)).tw. 1488
28 exp Estradiol/ad, tu, th 11197
29 exp Testosterone/ad, tu, th 8710
30 (testosteron* or sustanon* or tostran or testogel or testim or restandol or andriol or testocaps* or nebido or testavan).tw. 86509
31 (oestrad* or estrad* or evorel or ethinyloestrad* or ethinylestrad* or elleste or progynova or zumenon or bedol or femseven or nuvelle).tw. 100252
32 or/22-31 345895

Puberty Blockers

33 Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone/ 28809
34 (pubert* adj3 block*).ti,ab. 141
35 ((gonadotrophin or gonadotropin) and releasing).ti,ab. 20121
36 (GnRH adj2 analog*).ti,ab. 2878
37 GnRH*.ti,ab. 24390
38 "GnRH agonist*".ti,ab. 4749
39 Triptorelin Pamoate/ 1981
40 triptorelin.ti,ab. 821
41 arvekap.ti,ab. 1

42	("AY 25650" or AY25650).ti,ab.	1
43	("BIM 21003" or BIM21003).ti,ab.	0
44	("BN 52014" or BN52014).ti,ab.	0
45	("CL 118532" or CL118532).ti,ab.	0
46	Debio.ti,ab.	119
47	diphereline.ti,ab.	28
48	moapar.ti,ab.	0
49	pamorelin.ti,ab.	1
50	trelstar.ti,ab.	3
51	triptodur.ti,ab.	1
52	("WY 42422" or WY42422).ti,ab.	0
53	("WY 42462" or WY42462).ti,ab.	0
54	gonapeptyl.ti,ab.	0
55	decapeptyl.ti,ab.	225
56	salvacyl.ti,ab.	0
57	Buserelin/	2137
58	buserelin.ti,ab.	1395
59	onist.ti,ab.	0
60	("hoe 766" or hoe-766 or hoe766).ti,ab.	72
61	profact.ti,ab.	2
62	receptal.ti,ab.	31
63	suprecur.ti,ab.	5
64	suprefact.ti,ab.	25
65	tiloryth.ti,ab.	0
66	histrelin.ti,ab.	78
67	"LHRH-hydrogel implant".ti,ab.	1
68	("RL 0903" or RL0903).ti,ab.	1
69	("SPD 424" or SPD424).ti,ab.	1
70	goserelin.ti,ab.	1016
71	Goserelin/	1643
72	("ici 118630" or ici118630).ti,ab.	51
73	("ZD-9393" or ZD9393).ti,ab.	0
74	zoladex.ti,ab.	388
75	leuprorelin.ti,ab.	525
76	carcinil.ti,ab.	0
77	enanton*.ti,ab.	26
78	ginecrin.ti,ab.	0
79	leuplin.ti,ab.	15
80	Leuprolide/	3018
81	leuprolide.ti,ab.	2004
82	lucrin.ti,ab.	16
83	lupron.ti,ab.	183
84	provren.ti,ab.	0
85	procrin.ti,ab.	3
86	("tap 144" or tap144).ti,ab.	41
87	(a-43818 or a43818).ti,ab.	3
88	Trenantone.ti,ab.	2
89	staladex.ti,ab.	0

90 prostap.ti,ab. 6
91 Nafarelin/ 327
92 nafarelin.ti,ab. 263
93 ("76932-56-4" or "76932564").ti,ab. 0
94 ("76932-60-0" or "76932600").ti,ab. 0
95 ("86220-42-0" or "86220420").ti,ab. 0
96 ("rs 94991 298" or rs94991298).ti,ab. 0
97 synarel.ti,ab. 13
98 deslorelin.ti,ab. 306
99 gonadorelin.ti,ab. 237
100 ("33515-09-2" or "33515092").ti,ab. 0
101 ("51952-41-1" or "51952411").ti,ab. 0
102 ("52699-48-6" or "52699486").ti,ab. 0
103 cetrorelix.ti,ab. 520
104 cetrotide.ti,ab. 52
105 ("NS 75A" or NS75A).ti,ab. 0
106 ("NS 75B" or NS75B).ti,ab. 0
107 ("SB 075" or SB075).ti,ab. 1
108 ("SB 75" or SB75).ti,ab. 67
109 gonadoliberin.ti,ab. 151
110 kryptocur.ti,ab. 7
111 cetrorelix.ti,ab. 520
112 cetrotide.ti,ab. 52
113 antagon.ti,ab. 18
114 ganirelix.ti,ab. 160
115 ("ORG 37462" or ORG37462).ti,ab. 3
116 orgalutran.ti,ab. 26
117 ("RS 26306" or RS26306).ti,ab. 5
118 ("AY 24031" or AY24031).ti,ab. 0
119 factrel.ti,ab. 13
120 fertagyl.ti,ab. 12
121 lutrelef.ti,ab. 5
122 lutrepulse.ti,ab. 3
123 relefact.ti,ab. 10
124 fertiral.ti,ab. 0
125 (hoe471 or "hoe 471").ti,ab. 6
126 relisorm.ti,ab. 4
127 cystorelin.ti,ab. 19
128 dirigestran.ti,ab. 5
129 or/33-128 47108

Gender-affirming Surgeries

130 virilization/ 2309
131 (virilism or virili?ation or masculini?ation).mp. 5657
132 feminization/ 797
133 femini?ation.mp. 3420
134 (vaginoplasty or vaginoplasties).mp. 1022

135 exp Vagina/ or *Reconstructive Surgical Procedures/ 78841
136 (vaginoplasty or vaginoplasties).mp. 1022
137 (phalloplasty or phalloplasties).mp. 561
138 exp Penile Prosthesis/ 1636
139 "penile reconstruction".mp. 292
140 (vagina reconstruction or vaginal reconstruction).mp. 549
141 (genitoplasty or genitoplasties).mp. 263
142 transsexualism/su [Surgery] 1007
143 sex reassignment.mp. 1668
144 sex transformation.mp. 42
145 or/130-144 91560

Systematic Review Filter

147 meta-analysis/ 158633
148 (meta anal* or meta-anal* or metaanal*).ti,ab. 231876
149 ((systematic or evidence) adj2 (review* or overview*)).ti,ab. 279806
150 ((pool* or combined) adj2 (data or trials or studies or results)).ab. 65411
151 (search strategy or search criteria or systematic search or study selection or data extraction).ab. 70886
152 (search* adj4 literature).ab. 84593
153 or/146-152 521554

Combine Interventions and Population

154 32 or 129 or 145 459771
155 21 and 154 17838

Limit to Systematic Reviews in English Language

156 153 and 155 295
157 limit 156 to english language 288

Epistemonikos

OVERVIEW	
Interface:	https://www.epistemonikos.org/
Database:	Epistemonikos
Study Types:	Systematic Reviews
Search Run:	April 23, 2022

Search Strategy: search terms [number of results]

Population

(title:((title:(gender dysphoria) OR abstract:(gender dysphoria)) OR (title:(gender identity disorder) OR abstract:(gender identity disorder)) OR (title:(transgender) OR abstract:(transgender))) OR abstract:((title:(gender dysphoria) OR abstract:(gender dysphoria)) OR (title:(gender identity disorder) OR abstract:(gender identity disorder)) OR (title:(transgender) OR abstract:(transgender))))

Limit to Systematic Reviews

*Limited by publication type "systematic review" [425]

Canadian Agency for Drugs and Technologies in Health (CADTH)

OVERVIEW	
Interface:	https://www.cadth.ca/
Database:	CADTH
Study Types:	Systematic Reviews, Health Technology Reviews
Search Run:	April 27, 2022

Search Strategy: search terms [number of results]

"gender dysphoria" [10]
Limit to Health Technology Review [2]

"transgender" [9]
Limit to Health Technology Review [5]

"gender identity disorder" [1]

Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ)

OVERVIEW	
Interface:	https://search.ahrq.gov/
Database:	AHRQ
Study Types:	Evidence Based Practice (EPC) Centre Reports, Full Research Reports, Health Technology Assessments
Search Run:	April 29, 2022
Search Strategy: search terms [number of results]	
Search titles only: "gender identity disorder" "gender dysphoria" "transgender" [7]	

Society for Evidence-based Gender Medicine (SEGM)

OVERVIEW	
Interface:	https://segm.org/news
Database:	SEGM News
Study Types:	Systematic Reviews
Search Run:	April 30, 2022
Search Strategy: search terms [number of results]	
Find in page: "systematic" [5]	

National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE)

OVERVIEW	
Interface:	https://www.nice.org.uk/
Database:	NICE
Study Types:	Systematic Reviews, Guidelines with Systematic Reviews
Search Run:	April 30, 2022
Search Strategy: search terms [number of results]	
gender dysphoria [1] *Limit to Guidance* [1] transgender [10] *Limit to Guidance* [7]	

gender identity disorder [9] *Limit to Guidance* [8]

Search Strategies – Individual Studies

Questions Covered:

PICO questions:

1. For children, adolescents, and young adults (<21) with gender dysphoria, what are the effects of treatment with **puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone (GnRH) analogues)** compared to no puberty blockers?

2. For children, adolescents, and young adults (<21) with gender dysphoria, what are the effects of treatment with **cross-sex hormones** compared to no cross-sex hormones?

3. For children, adolescents, and young adults (<21) with gender dysphoria, what are the effects of **gender-affirming surgeries** compared to no surgery?

Search Strategies:

Note: Population, puberty blocker, cross-sex hormones search blocks adapted from NICE (2020) evidence reviews. Gender-affirming search block adapted from Wernick *et al.* 2019.

Databases: Medline

Medline

OVERVIEW	
Interface:	Ovid
Databases:	OVID Medline Epub Ahead of Print, In-Process & Other Non-Indexed Citations, Ovid MEDLINE(R) Daily and Ovid MEDLINE(R) 1946 to Present
Study Types:	Any
Search Run:	May 12, 2022

Search Strategy: search terms [number of results]

Population

1	exp "Sexual and Gender Minorities"/	12631
2	Gender Dysphoria/	781
3	Gender Identity/	20586
4	Gender Role/	204
5	"Sexual and Gender Disorders"/	81
6	Transsexualism/	4259
7	Transgender Persons/	5371
8	Health Services for Transgender Persons/	187
9	exp Sex Reassignment Procedures/	1211
10	gender identity disorder.mp.	492

11 non-binary.mp. 574
12 transgender.mp. 10079
13 (gender* adj3 (dysphori* or disorder* or distress or nonconform* or non-conform* or atypical or incongru* or identi* or disorder* or confus* or minorit* or queer* or variant or diverse or creative or explor* or question* or expan* or fluid)).ti,ab. 16546
14 ((sex or gender*) adj3 (reassign* or chang* or transform* or transition*)).ti,ab. 9375
15 (transgend* or transex* or transsex* or transfem* or transwom* or transma* or transmen* or transperson* or transpeopl*).ti,ab. 19788
16 (genderfluid or genderqueer or agender).mp. 132
17 ((correct or chosen) adj3 name).mp. 591
18 (trans or crossgender* or cross-gender* or crossex* or cross-sex* or genderqueer*).ti,ab. 135744
19 (male-to-female or m2f or female-to-male or f2m).ti,ab. 149067
20 or/1-19 341083

Cross-sex Hormones

21 Hormones/ad, tu, th 4690
22 exp Progesterone/ad, tu, th 11270
23 exp Estrogens/ad, tu, th 29646
24 exp Gonadal Steroid Hormones/ad, tu, th 35401
25 (progesteron* or oestrogen* or estrogen*).ti,ab. 223689
26 ((cross-sex or crosssex or gender-affirm*) and (hormon* or steroid* or therap* or treatment* or prescri* or pharm* or medici* or drug* or intervention* or care)).ti,ab. 1507
27 exp Estradiol/ad, tu, th 11200
28 exp Testosterone/ad, tu, th 8722
29 (testosteron* or sustanon* or tostran or testogel or testim or restandol or andriol or testocaps* or nebido or testavan).ti,ab. 86670
30 (oestrad* or estrad* or evorel or ethinyloestrad* or ethinylestrad* or elleste or progynova or zumenon or bedol or femseven or nuvelle).ti,ab. 100411
31 or/21-30 346508

Puberty Blockers

32 Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone/ 28845
33 (pubert* adj3 block*).ti,ab. 142
34 ((gonadotrophin or gonadotropin) and releasing).ti,ab. 20158
35 (GnRH adj2 analog*).ti,ab. 2879
36 GnRH*.ti,ab. 24437
37 "GnRH agonist*".ti,ab. 4763
38 Triptorelin Pamoate/ 1983
39 triptorelin.ti,ab. 822
40 arvekap.ti,ab. 1
41 ("AY 25650" or AY25650).ti,ab. 1
42 ("BIM 21003" or BIM21003).ti,ab. 0
43 ("BN 52014" or BN52014).ti,ab. 0
44 ("CL 118532" or CL118532).ti,ab. 0

45	Debio.ti,ab.	119
46	diphereline.ti,ab.	28
47	moapar.ti,ab.	0
48	pamorelin.ti,ab.	1
49	trelstar.ti,ab.	3
50	triptodur.ti,ab.	1
51	("WY 42422" or WY42422).ti,ab.	0
52	("WY 42462" or WY42462).ti,ab.	0
53	gonapeptyl.ti,ab.	0
54	decapeptyl.ti,ab.	225
55	salvacyl.ti,ab.	0
56	Buserelin/	2137
57	buserelin.ti,ab.	1396
58	onist.ti,ab.	0
59	("hoe 766" or hoe-766 or hoe766).ti,ab.	72
60	profact.ti,ab.	2
61	receptal.ti,ab.	31
62	suprecur.ti,ab.	5
63	suprefact.ti,ab.	25
64	tiloryth.ti,ab.	0
65	histrelin.ti,ab.	78
66	"LHRH-hydrogel implant".ti,ab.	1
67	("RL 0903" or RL0903).ti,ab.	1
68	("SPD 424" or SPD424).ti,ab.	1
69	goserelin.ti,ab.	1017
70	Goserelin/	1644
71	("ici 118630" or ici118630).ti,ab.	51
72	("ZD-9393" or ZD9393).ti,ab.	0
73	zoladex.ti,ab.	388
74	leuprorelin.ti,ab.	529
75	carcinil.ti,ab.	0
76	enanton*.ti,ab.	26
77	ginecrin.ti,ab.	0
78	leuplin.ti,ab.	15
79	Leuprolide/	3018
80	leuprolide.ti,ab.	2003
81	lucrin.ti,ab.	16
82	lupron.ti,ab.	183
83	provren.ti,ab.	0
84	procrin.ti,ab.	3
85	("tap 144" or tap144).ti,ab.	41
86	(a-43818 or a43818).ti,ab.	3
87	Trenantone.ti,ab.	2
88	staladex.ti,ab.	0
89	prostap.ti,ab.	6
90	Nafarelin/	327
91	nafarelin.ti,ab.	263
92	("76932-56-4" or "76932564").ti,ab.	0

93 ("76932-60-0" or "76932600").ti,ab. 0
94 ("86220-42-0" or "86220420").ti,ab. 0
95 ("rs 94991 298" or rs94991298).ti,ab. 0
96 synarel.ti,ab. 13
97 deslorelin.ti,ab. 310
98 gonadorelin.ti,ab. 238
99 ("33515-09-2" or "33515092").ti,ab. 0
100 ("51952-41-1" or "51952411").ti,ab. 0
101 ("52699-48-6" or "52699486").ti,ab. 0
102 cetrorelix.ti,ab. 520
103 cetrotide.ti,ab. 52
104 ("NS 75A" or NS75A).ti,ab. 0
105 ("NS 75B" or NS75B).ti,ab. 0
106 ("SB 075" or SB075).ti,ab. 1
107 ("SB 75" or SB75).ti,ab. 67
108 gonadoliberin.ti,ab. 152
109 kryptocur.ti,ab. 7
110 cetrorelix.ti,ab. 520
111 cetrotide.ti,ab. 52
112 antagon.ti,ab. 18
113 ganirelix.ti,ab. 161
114 ("ORG 37462" or ORG37462).ti,ab. 3
115 orgalutran.ti,ab. 26
116 ("RS 26306" or RS26306).ti,ab. 5
117 ("AY 24031" or AY24031).ti,ab. 0
118 factrel.ti,ab. 13
119 fertagyl.ti,ab. 12
120 lutrelef.ti,ab. 5
121 lutrepulse.ti,ab. 3
122 relefact.ti,ab. 10
123 fertiral.ti,ab. 0
124 (hoe471 or "hoe 471").ti,ab. 6
125 relisorm.ti,ab. 4
126 cystorelin.ti,ab. 19
127 dirigestran.ti,ab. 5
128 or/32-127 47179

Surgery

129 virilization/ 2309
130 (virilism or virili?ation or masculini?ation).mp. 5664
131 feminization/ 798
132 femini?ation.mp. 3425
133 (vaginoplasty or vaginoplasties).mp. 1032
134 (vaginoplasty or vaginoplasties).mp. 1032
135 (phalloplasty or phalloplasties).mp. 561
136 exp Penile Prosthesis/ 1642
137 "penile reconstruction".mp. 292

138	(vagina reconstruction or vaginal reconstruction).mp.	550
139	(genitoplasty or genitoplasties).mp.	263
140	transsexualism/su [Surgery]	1007
141	sex reassignment.mp.	1674
142	sex transformation.mp.	42
143	or/129-142	14290
	Any intervention AND population	
144	31 or 128 or 143	386835
145	20 and 144	16516
	Limit to Humans	
146	animals/ not humans/	4972586
147	145 not 146	9281
148	limit 147 to humans	7901
	Limit to Publication Year 2019 to Current	
149	limit 148 to yr="2019 -Current"	1859

Results

Search results and eligible reviews: After screening 647 records found through our searches, we found 61 eligible systematic reviews. From these, 27 were published between 2020 and 2022 (Figure 1). Overall, 4% (1/27) of the reviews were judged to be of high methodological quality, 15% (4/27) were moderate methodological quality, 37% (10/27) were low methodological quality, and 44% (12/27) were critically low methodological quality.

We provide reasons for excluding systematic reviews in appendix 1.

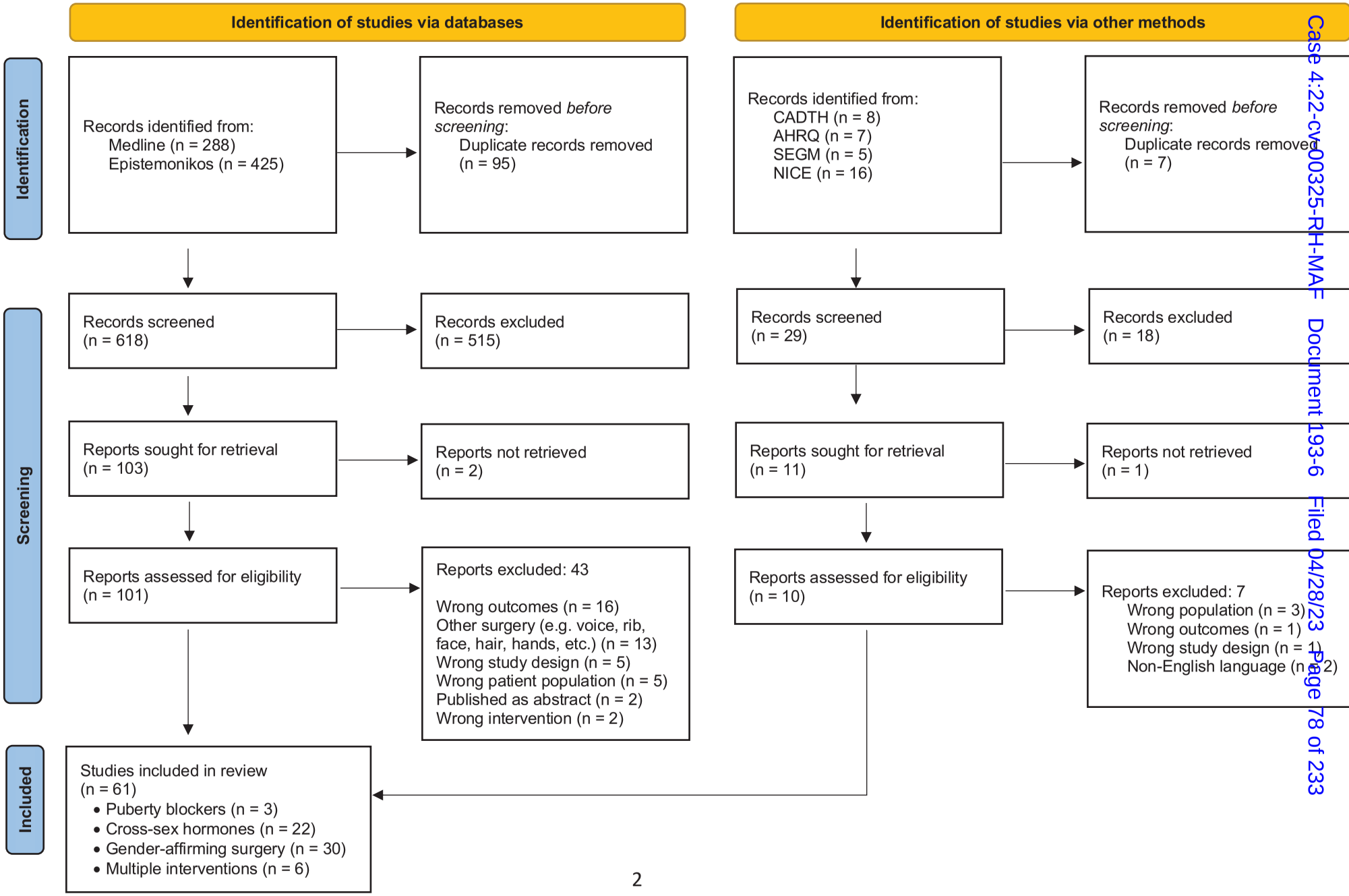

Figure 1: PRISMA flow diagram for the selection of systematic reviews. *From:* Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. BMJ 2021;372:n71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71. For more information, visit: http://www.prisma-statement.org/

Outcomes:

1. **Puberty blockers:** We found 4 systematic reviews assessing the effects of puberty blockers published between 2020 and 2022.[1-4] From these, we judged 2 as having moderate methodological quality, and 2 as having critically low methodological quality. Details of the assessment are provided in Figure 2.

   Table 1 summarizes the evidence about the effects of puberty blockers on the outcomes of interest. We used information from 2 systematic reviews.[2 3] For most outcomes (except suicidality), there is no evidence about the effect of puberty blockers compared to not using puberty blockers. In other words, no studies compared the outcomes between a group of people with gender dysphoria using puberty blockers and another not using them. Therefore, it is unknown whether people with gender dysphoria who use puberty blockers experience more improvement in gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, and quality of life than those with gender dysphoria who do not use them. There is very low certainty about the effects of puberty blockers on suicidal ideation (see details in Table 1).

   Studies, however, reported outcomes among a group of people with gender dysphoria after receiving puberty blockers. The findings are:
   - There is low certainty evidence suggesting that treatment with puberty hormones may slightly increase gender dysphoria severity (mean change score in the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria scale, 0.7 points [95% CI, -4.2 to 5.6], range 12-60, with higher scores reflecting more severe gender dysphoria)
   - There is low certainty evidence suggesting that treatment with puberty blockers may decrease depression (mean change score in the Beck Depression Inventory, -3.4 [95% CI, -5.7 to -1.0], range 0-63, with higher scores reflecting more severe depression)
   - There is low certainty evidence suggesting that treatment with puberty blockers may decrease anxiety (mean change score in the Trait Anxiety Scale, trait subscale, -1.5 [95% CI, -4.7 to -1.8], range 0-80, with higher scores reflecting more severe anxiety)
   - There is low certainty evidence suggesting a moderate percentage of patients reporting adverse events after treatment with puberty blockers (see Table 1 for details)
   - There is very low certainty evidence about how puberty blockers affect suicidality

Figure 2: AMSTAR assessment judgements for systematic reviews addressing puberty blockers

Review ID	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7	Item 8	Item 9	Item 10	Item 11	Item 12	Item 13	Item 14	Item 15	Item 16	Methodological quality
AHRQ 2021																	MODERATE
NICE 2020a																	MODERATE
Ramos 2020																	CRITICALLY LOW
Rew 2020																	CRITICALLY LOW

Figure legend:

Yes

Probably yes

Probably no

No

Not applicable

Table 1: Puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone analogues) compared to no puberty blockers in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone analogues)
Comparison: no puberty blockers

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no puberty blockers	**Risk / mean with puberty blockers**				
Gender dysphoria assessed with: difference (effect) in gender dysphoria proportion or severity	Not reported					The effects of puberty blockers on gender dysphoria are unknown
Gender dysphoria assessed with: mean change score in the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale (12-60, higher scores reflect more gender dysphoria, 40 points or more indicate a diagnosis of gender dysphoria) (NICE, 2020a) Follow up: mean 1.9 years (range 0.4 to 5.1 years)	NA	0.7 (-4.2 to 5.6)	NA	41 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	The mean gender dysphoria score may increase by 0.7 points after puberty blockers
Depression assessed with: difference (effect) in depression proportion or severity	Not reported					The effects of puberty blockers on depression are unknown

Table 1: Puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone analogues) compared to no puberty blockers in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone analogues)
Comparison: no puberty blockers

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no puberty blockers	**Risk / mean with puberty blockers**				
Depression assessed with: mean change score in Beck Depression Inventory-II scale (0-63, higher scores represent more severe depression) (NICE, 2020a) Follow up: mean 1.9 years (range 0.4 to 5.1 years)	NA	-3.4 (-5.7 to -1.0)	NA	41 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	The mean depression score may decrease by 3.4 points after puberty blockers
Anxiety assessed with: difference (effect) in anxiety proportion or severity	Not reported					The effects of puberty blockers on anxiety are unknown
Anxiety assessed with: mean change score in STAI-Trait scale (0-80, higher scores represent more severe anxiety) (NICE, 2020a) Follow up: mean 1.9 years (range 0.4 to 5.1 years)	NA	-1.5 (-4.7 to 1.8)	NA	41 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	The mean anxiety score may decrease by 1.5 points after puberty blockers

Table 1: Puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone analogues) compared to no puberty blockers in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone analogues)
Comparison: no puberty blockers

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no puberty blockers	**Risk / mean with puberty blockers**				
Quality of life assessed with: any measure	Not reported					The effects of puberty blockers on quality of life are unknown
Suicidal ideation difference (effect) in suicidal ideation (Rew, 2020) Follow-up: cross-sectional survey	The authors report that "compared to youth who did not receive pubertal suppression, those who did showed lower lifetime rates of suicidal ideation".			89 (1 study)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[2]	We are very uncertain about the effect of puberty blockers on suicidal ideation
Adverse effects assessed with: proportion of patients reporting adverse effects (NICE, 2020a) Follow up: mean 2.3 years (range 0.0 to 11.3 years)	NA	11%[3] (2% to 29%)	NA	27 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[4]	The proportion of patients reporting adverse effects after treatment with puberty blockers may be 11%

STAI-Trait: Trait Anxiety Scale. Range: 0-80
CI: Confidence interval
NA: Not applicable

Table 1: Puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone analogues) compared to no puberty blockers in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: puberty blockers (gonadotrophin releasing hormone analogues)
Comparison: no puberty blockers

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no puberty blockers	**Risk / mean with puberty blockers**				

GRADE Working Group grades of evidence
High certainty: We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect
Moderate certainty: We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different
Low certainty: Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect
Very low certainty: We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect

Explanations

1. Mean change rated down due to risk of bias and imprecision. According to the systematic review authors, the study had poor methodological quality. In addition, there are too few participants included, which is not sufficient to make trustworthy inferences (does not meet the optimal information size).
2. The authors of Rew 2020 narratively summarized the outcome of Turban *et al.* 2020; a cross-sectional online survey study. According to the systematic review authors, Turban et al. did not describe the study participants and the setting in detail and it was unclear whether outcomes were measured in a valid and reliable way. We therefore, downgraded the certainty of evidence by one level from low to very low due to high risk of bias.
3. The authors reported 3/27 (11%) participants treated with GnRHa developed side effects: 1 participant developed sterile abscesses; they were switched from leuprolide acetate to triptorelin, 1 participant developed leg pains and headaches, which eventually resolved without treatment, 1 participant gained 19 kg within 9 months of initiating GnRH analogues.
4. Proportion of adverse effects rated down due to risk of bias and imprecision. According to the systematic review authors, the cohort study Khatchadourian *et al.* 2014 was assessed at high risk of bias due to incomplete reporting of its cohort. In addition, there are too few participants included, which is not sufficient to make trustworthy inferences (does not meet the optimal information size).

2. **Cross-sex hormones:** We found 9 systematic reviews assessing the effects of cross-sex hormones published between 2020 and 2022.[4-12] One of these, however, included both puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones combined in their evidence synthesis as was not prioritized.[5] From the 8 remaining reviews, we judged 1 as having high methodological quality, 2 as having moderate methodological quality, 2 as having low methodological quality, and 3 as having critically low methodological quality. Details of the assessment are provided in Figure 3. Because of its eligibility criteria related to study design, the systematic review judged at high methodological quality[7] did not include any studies and therefore we could not use it to inform any outcome.

   Table 2 summarizes the evidence about the effects of cross-sex hormones on the outcomes of interest. We used information from 4 systematic reviews.[6 9 11 12] For most outcomes (all except risk of breast cancer), there is no evidence about the effect of cross-sex hormones compared to not using cross-sex hormones. In other words, no studies compared the outcomes between a group of people with gender dysphoria using cross-sex hormones and another not using it. Therefore, it is unknown whether people with gender dysphoria who use cross-sex hormones experience more improvement in gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, quality of life, and suicidality than those with gender dysphoria who do not use them. There is low certainty evidence suggesting that cross-sex hormones may not increase or decrease the risk of breast cancer (see details in Table 2).

   Studies, however, reported outcomes among a group of people with gender dysphoria after receiving cross-sex hormones. The findings are:
   - There is low certainty evidence suggesting that treatment with cross-sex hormones may decrease gender dysphoria severity (mean change score in the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria scale, -42.4 points [95% CI, -44.1 to -40.1], range 12-60, with higher scores reflecting more severe gender dysphoria)
   - There is low certainty evidence suggesting that treatment with cross-sex hormones may decrease depression (measured with different scales, see Table 4 for details) and the need for treatment for depression (change in percentage, -39%)
   - There is low certainty evidence suggesting that treatment with cross-sex hormones may decrease anxiety (measured with different scales, see Table 4 for details) and the need for treatment for anxiety (change in percentage, -32%)
   - There is very low certainty about the change in quality of life after treatment with cross-sex hormones.
   - There is low certainty evidence suggesting that treatment with cross-sex hormones may decrease suicidality degree (mean change score in the Ask Suicide-Screening questions scale, -0.84 points [95% CI, -1.30 to -0.44], range 0-4, with higher scores reflecting more severe suicidality) and the percentage of patients with need for treatment due to suicidality/self-harm (change in percentage, -31%). There is very low certainty evidence about the percentage of people with suicidal ideation and suicide attempts after treatment with cross-sex hormones.

- There is low certainty evidence suggesting a low prevalence of venous thromboembolism after treatment with cross-sex hormones (see Table 2 for details)

Figure 3: AMSTAR assessment judgements for systematic reviews addressing cross-sex hormones

Review ID	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7	Item 8	Item 9	Item 10	Item 11	Item 12	Item 13	Item 14	Item 15	Item 16	Methodological quality
AHRQ 2021																	MODERATE
Baker 2021																	MODERATE
Fledderus 2020																	CRITICALLY LOW
Haupt 2020																	HIGH
Karalexi 2020																	LOW
Kotamarti 2021																	CRITICALLY LOW
Mattawanon 2021																	CRITICALLY LOW
NICE 2021b																	MODERATE
Totaro 2021																	LOW

Figure legend:

Yes

Probably yes

Probably no

No

Not applicable

Table 2: Cross-sex hormones compared to no cross-sex hormones in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: cross-sex hormones
Comparison: no cross-sex hormones

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no cross-sex hormones	**Risk/ mean with cross-sex hormones**				
Gender dysphoria assessed with: difference (effect) in gender dysphoria percentage or severity	Not reported					The effects of cross-sex hormones on gender dysphoria are unknown
Gender dysphoria assessed with: mean change score in the Utrecht Gender Dysphoria Scale (12-60, higher scores reflect more gender dysphoria, 40 points or more indicate a diagnosis of gender dysphoria) (NICE, 2020b) Follow up: 1 year	NA	-42.4 (-44.1 to -40.1)	NA	23 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	The mean gender dysphoria score may decrease by 42 points after cross-sex hormones
Depression assessed with: difference (effect) in depression percentage or severity	Not reported					The effects of cross-sex hormones on depression are unknown

Table 2: Cross-sex hormones compared to no cross-sex hormones in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: cross-sex hormones
Comparison: no cross-sex hormones

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no cross-sex hormones	**Risk/ mean with cross-sex hormones**				
Depression assessed with: mean change score in depression scales (higher scores represent more severe depression) (NICE, 2020b) Follow up: 1 year	NA	The mean depression score reduction was 9.6 points when using the BDI-II scale (n=23) and 7.5 when using the CESD-R scale (n=50). The authors report that both reductions were statistically significant[2]	NA	73 (2 studies)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	The mean depression score may decrease after cross-sex hormones
Depression assessed with: change in percentage of patients with need for treatment (NICE, 2020b) Follow-up: 1 year	NA	The percentage of participants requiring treatment was reduced by 39% (from 54% at baseline), which was statistically significant	NA	52 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	The percentage of participants requiring treatment may be reduced by 39% after cross-sex hormones
Anxiety assessed with: difference (effect) in anxiety percentage or severity	Not reported					The effects of cross-sex hormones on anxiety are unknown

Table 2: Cross-sex hormones compared to no cross-sex hormones in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: cross-sex hormones
Comparison: no cross-sex hormones

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no cross-sex hormones	Risk/ mean with cross-sex hormones				
Anxiety assessed with: mean change score in anxiety scales (higher scores represent more severe anxiety) (NICE, 2020b) Follow up: 1 year	NA	The mean anxiety score reduction was 16.5 points when using the STAI-State scale and 14.5 when using the STAI-Trait scale. The authors report that both reductions were statistically significant	NA	23 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	The mean anxiety score may decrease after cross-sex hormones
Anxiety assessed with: change in percentage of patients with need for treatment (NICE, 2020b) Follow-up: 1 year	NA	The percentage of participants requiring treatment was reduced by 32% (from 48% at baseline), which was statistically significant	NA	52 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	The percentage of participants requiring treatment may be reduced by 32% after cross-sex hormones
Quality of life assessed with: difference (effect) in quality of life improvement	Not reported					The effects of cross-sex hormones on quality of life are unknown

Table 2: Cross-sex hormones compared to no cross-sex hormones in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: cross-sex hormones
Comparison: no cross-sex hormones

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no cross-sex hormones	**Risk/ mean with cross-sex hormones**				
Quality of life assessed with: mean change score in QLES-Q-SF score (higher scores represent better quality of life) (NICE, 2020b) Follow up: 1 year	NA	The mean quality of life score improved, but the differences were not statistically significant. The magnitudes were not reported	NA	50 (1 study)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[3]	We are very uncertain about the quality of life change after cross-sex hormones
Suicide/ suicidal ideation assessed with: difference (effect) in suicide or suicidal ideation	Not reported					The effects of cross-sex hormones on suicide/ suicidal ideation are unknown
Suicidality assessed with: change in score from ASQ instrument (higher scores represent greater degree of suicidality) (NICE, 2020b) Mean follow up: 1 year	NA	-0.84 (-1.30 to -0.44)	NA	39 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	Suicidality scores may decrease by 0.84 points after cross-sex hormones

Table 2: Cross-sex hormones compared to no cross-sex hormones in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: cross-sex hormones
Comparison: no cross-sex hormones

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no cross-sex hormones	Risk/ mean with cross-sex hormones				
Suicidal ideation assessed with: percentage of participants with suicidal ideation measured with PHQ-9 (NICE, 2020b) Follow-up: 1 year	NA	The percentage of participants with suicidal ideation decreased by 6% (from 10% at baseline). The authors did not conduct a statistical analysis	NA	50 (1 study)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[3]	We are very uncertain about the change in percentage of patients in suicidal ideation after cross-sex hormones
Suicide attempts assessed with: not reported (NICE, 2020b) Follow up: not reported	NA	The percentage of people with lifetime suicide attempts was 15%, those with attempts 3 months before treatment was 2%, and those with attempts at follow up was 5%	NA	130 (1 study)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[3]	We are very uncertain about the percentage of people with suicide attempts after cross-sex hormones
Suicidality/ self-harm assessed with: change in percentage of patients with need for treatment (NICE, 2020b) Follow-up: 1 year	NA	The percentage of participants requiring treatment was reduced by 31% (from 35% at baseline), which was statistically significant	NA	52 (1 study)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[1]	The percentage of participants requiring treatment may be reduced by 31% after cross-sex hormones
Venous thromboembolism assessed with: Risk of VTE	Not reported					The effects of cross-sex hormones on the risk of VTE are unknown

Table 2: Cross-sex hormones compared to no cross-sex hormones in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: cross-sex hormones
Comparison: no cross-sex hormones

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no cross-sex hormones	Risk/ mean with cross-sex hormones				
Venous thromboembolism assessed with: Prevalence among assigned males at birth (Totaro, 2021) Mean follow up: 4.1 years	NA	**20 per 1,000** (10 to 30)	NA	11,542 (18 studies)	⊕⊕⊕◯ MODERATE[4]	The prevalence of VTE among assigned males at birth is probably 2% after cross-sex hormones
Venous thromboembolism assessed with: Prevalence among assigned females at birth (Kotamarti, 2021) Mean follow up: 5.7 years	NA	**6 per 1,000** (CI not reported)[5]	NA	4,218 (8 studies)	⊕⊕⊕◯ MODERATE[6]	The prevalence of VTE among assigned females at birth is probably 0.6% after cross-sex hormones
Breast cancer assessed with: Risk of breast cancer (Fledderus, 2020) Follow up: not reported	Two studies compare the risk of beast cancer between assigned females at birth using versus not using testosterone, and found no differences (0 vs 1 case [total n= 130], and 1 vs 6 [total n=1579]). A third study compared assigned females at birth with non transgender women and found a lower risk in the former (magnitude not reported)		NA	2,938 (3 studies)	⊕⊕◯◯ LOW[7]	The risk of breast cancer may not increase or decrease due to the use of cross-sex hormones

Table 2: Cross-sex hormones compared to no cross-sex hormones in youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: youth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: cross-sex hormones
Comparison: no cross-sex hormones

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no cross-sex hormones	Risk/ mean with cross-sex hormones				

ASQ: Ask Suicide-Screening Questions. Range 0-4
BDI-II: Beck Depression Inventory. Range: 0-63
CESD-R: Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale. Range: 0-60
CI: Confidence interval
NA: Not applicable
PHQ-9: Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) Modified for Teens. For suicidal ideation, it is a single question (yes/no)
QLES-Q-SF: Quality of Life Enjoyment and Satisfaction Questionnaire. Range: 15-75
STAI: State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. Range: 0-80

GRADE Working Group grades of evidence
High certainty: We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect
Moderate certainty: We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different
Low certainty: Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect
Very low certainty: We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect

Explanations

1. Mean change rated down due to risk of bias and imprecision. According to the systematic review authors, the studies had poor methodological quality. In addition, there are too few participants included, which is not sufficient to make trustworthy inferences (does not meet the optimal information size)
2. Similar results when this outcome was measured using the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) Modified for Teens in one of the same studies
3. Rated down due to risk of bias, imprecision, and indirectness. According to the systematic review authors, the studies had poor methodological quality. In addition, there are too few participants included, which is not sufficient to make trustworthy inferences (does not meet the optimal information size). Finally, 30% of the participants did not have a diagnosis of gender dysphoria.
4. Prevalence rated down due to risk of bias. According to the systematic review authors, only 6 out of the 18 studies (representing 16.5% of the weight of the studies) were at low risk of bias.

5. A meta-analysis of independent studies reported in this systematic review suggested that the prevalence of VTE in non-transgender females at birth was 1.7% (based on 7 studies and 18,748 persons)
6. Prevalence rated down doe to risk of bias. According to the systematic review authors, all studies had at least one domain judged as problematic.
7. Risk rated down 2 levels because of risk of bias. The researchers did not account for confounding in any of the studies.

3. **Surgeries:** We found 15 systematic reviews assessing the effects of gender-affirming surgeries published between 2020 and 2022. We judged 8 as having low methodological quality and 7 as having critically low methodological quality. Details of the assessment are provided in Figure 4. We present the results regarding the effects of surgeries in three parts. First, we describe the effects of all surgeries on mental health outcomes in all patients. Second, we describe the effects of all surgeries on surgical outcomes in assigned females at birth (transgender males). Finally, we describe the effects of all surgeries on surgical outcomes in assigned males at birth (transgender females).

3.1 Effects of surgeries on mental health outcomes: Table 3 summarizes the evidence about the effects of all surgeries on mental health outcomes in all patients. We used information from 2 systematic reviews.[13 14] There were no systematic reviews and studies reporting on gender dysphoria, depression, anxiety, and suicidality. Therefore, the effects of surgeries on these outcomes (when compared to a group of patients with gender dysphoria who do not undergo surgery), or the changes in these outcomes (improvements or deterioration) among patients who undergo surgeries is unknown.

The systematic reviews addressed quality of life and depression, but none of the included studies included a comparison group. Thus, it is unknown whether people with gender dysphoria who undergo surgeries experience more improvement in quality of life or less regret than those with gender dysphoria who do not undergo surgeries.

Studies, however, reported the following outcomes among a group of people with gender dysphoria after undergoing surgeries. The findings are:

- There is low certainty evidence suggesting that the percentage of people who experience regret after surgery is low (1%)
- There is very low certainty evidence about how surgeries affect quality of life (see Table 3 for details)

Figure 4: AMSTAR assessment judgements for systematic reviews addressing gender-affirming surgery

Review ID	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7	Item 8	Item 9	Item 10	Item 11	Item 12	Item 13	Item 14	Item 15	Item 16	Methodological quality
Bustos SS 2021																	LOW
Bustos VP 2021																	LOW
Bustos VP 2021b																	LOW
Dunford 2021																	LOW
Eftekhar, 2020																	LOW
Falcone 2021																	CRITICALLY LOW
Hu, 2022																	CRITICALLY LOW
Huayllani 2021																	CRITICALLY LOW
Jolly 2021																	LOW
Nassiri 2020																	CRITICALLY LOW
Oles 2022																	LOW
Oles 2022b																	LOW
Salibian 2021																	CRITICALLY LOW
Sijben 2021																	CRITICALLY LOW
Tay 2021																	CRITICALLY LOW

Figure legend:

Yes

Probably yes

Probably no

No

Not applicable

Table 3: All surgeries compared to no surgeries in young people (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: young people (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: surgeries
Comparison: no surgeries
Outcomes: Mental health and regret

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no surgery	Risk/ mean with surgery				
Gender dysphoria assessed with: any measure	Not reported					The effects of surgery on gender dysphoria, the changes in gender dysphoria severity after surgery, and the prevalence of gender dysphoria after surgery are unknown
Depression assessed with: any measure	Not reported					The effects of surgery on depression, the changes in depression severity after surgery, and the prevalence of depression after surgery are unknown
Anxiety assessed with: any measure	Not reported					The effects of surgery on anxiety, the changes in anxiety severity after surgery, and the prevalence of anxiety after surgery are unknown
Suicidality assessed with: any measure	Not reported					The effects of surgery on suicidality, the changes in anxiety severity after surgery, and the prevalence of anxiety after surgery are unknown
Quality of life assessed with: difference (effect) in quality of life	Not reported					The effects of surgery on quality of life are unknown
Quality of life assessed with: change in quality of life	Not reported					The change in quality of life after surgery is unknown

Quality of life assessed with: mean score in the Short Form-36 Scale (0-100, higher scores reflect better quality of life) (Eftekhar Ardebili, 2020) Follow up: cross-sectional	NA	59.17 (48.59 to 69.74)[1]	NA	633 (5 studies)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[2]	We are very uncertain about the quality of life after surgeries
Regret assessed with: difference (effect) in percentage of people with regret	Not reported					The effects of surgery on regret are unknown
Regret assessed with: percentage of people with regret (Bustos, 2021) Mean follow up: 4 years	NA	1% (0 to 2%)[3]	NA	7928 (27 studies)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[4]	The percentage of people who experience regret is low

CI: Confidence interval
NA: Not applicable

GRADE Working Group grades of evidence
High certainty: We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect
Moderate certainty: We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different
Low certainty: Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect
Very low certainty: We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect

Explanations

1. Similar scores for assigned males at birth and assigned females at birth.
2. Mean score rated down for risk of bias and inconsistency. According to the systematic review authors, all studies had concerns related to risk of bias. In addition, the smaller studies showed better quality of life than the larger study.
3. Similar percentage for assigned males at birth and assigned females at birth, and for different types of surgeries (all pooled percentages below 2%).
4. Percentage rated down due to risk of bias and indirectness. According to the authors, many of the studies had moderate or high risk of bias. The mean age of the participants at the time of surgery was higher than the target population. Because it was considered to not have an important effect on the pooled estimate, we did not rate down for statistical heterogeneity

3.2 **Effects of surgeries on assigned females at birth:** Table 4 summarizes the evidence about the effects of all surgeries on surgical outcomes among assigned at birth females. We used information from 3 systematic reviews.[13-17] Due to the nature of the outcomes (i.e. they can only be experienced by people who undergo surgeries), there cannot be studies comparing the outcomes between a group of people with gender dysphoria who undergo surgeries and another who does not.

Studies, therefore, assessed the outcomes among a group of people with gender dysphoria after surgery. The findings are:

- There is low certainty evidence suggesting that the percentage of people who are satisfied after chest surgery is high (92%)
- There is very low certainty evidence about the rate of surgical complications after chest surgery
- There is very low certainty evidence about the percentage of people who are satisfied, and the rate of surgical complications after bottom surgeries (see Table 4 for details)

Table 4: All surgeries compared to no surgeries in assigned females at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: assigned females at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: surgeries
Comparison: no surgeries

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no surgery	Risk/ mean with surgery				
Chest surgery						
Satisfaction assessed with: percentage of people who reported being satisfied (Bustos VP, 2020b) Range of follow up: 6 weeks to 46 months[1]	NA	92% (88% to 96%)[2]	NA	733 (14 studies)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[3]	The percentage of people who reports being satisfied may be 92%
Surgical complications assessed with: rate of complications across patients (Oles, 2022) Range of follow up: 8 weeks to 1 year	NA	16.8% Range (5.5% to 80.0%)	NA	1255 (7 studies)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[4]	We are very uncertain about the rate of surgical complications
Reoperation assessed with: rate of reoperation across patients (Oles, 2022) Range of follow up: 8 weeks to 1 year	NA	6.2% Range (0.7% to 11.2%)	NA	1214 (6 studies)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[4]	We are very uncertain about the rate of reoperation
Bottom surgery						

Table 4: All surgeries compared to no surgeries in assigned females at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: assigned females at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: surgeries
Comparison: no surgeries

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no surgery	Risk/ mean with surgery				
Satisfaction assessed with: percentage of people who reported being satisfied (Oles, 2022b) Range of follow up: 6 weeks to 46 months	NA	89.6% (45% to 100%)[5]	NA	1458 (27 studies)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[4]	We are very uncertain about the percentage of people who reports being satisfied
Surgical complications-Major assessed with: percentage of people experiencing major complications (Oles, 2022b) follow up: not reported	NA	The percentage was - 2.3% (range 0 to 20%) experiencing total flap loss - 19.5% (range 0 to 72%) experiencing prosthesis issues - 24.5% (range 0 to 86%) experiencing urethral issues	NA	3177 (42 studies)[6]	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[4]	We are very uncertain about the percentage of people who experience major surgical complications
Surgical complications-Minor assessed with: percentage of people experiencing major complications (Oles, 2022b) follow up: not reported	NA	The percentage varied from 9.3% (range 0% to 45.5%) experiencing donor site issues, to 24% (range 10 to 93%) experiencing urethral issues[7]	NA	4466 (52 studies)[8]	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[4]	We are very uncertain about the percentage of people who experience minor surgical complications

Table 4: All surgeries compared to no surgeries in assigned females at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: assigned females at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: surgeries
Comparison: no surgeries

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no surgery	Risk/ mean with surgery				
Reoperation assessed with: rate of reoperation across patients (Oles, 2022b) follow up: not reported	NA	27.6% Range (2.5% to 40%)	NA	1624 (15 studies)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[4]	We are very uncertain about the percentage of people who undergo reoperations

CI: Confidence interval
NA: Not applicable

GRADE Working Group grades of evidence
High certainty: We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect
Moderate certainty: We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different
Low certainty: Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect
Very low certainty: We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect

Explanations

1. Studies used different scales to assess satisfaction
2. The percentage was similar when the analysis was done by type of surgery and by follow up time (< 1 year vs 1 year or more). Another systematic review (Oles, 2022) also investigated this outcome, and reported a very similar percentage of satisfaction (91.8%, range 73% to 100%)
3. Percentage of patients satisfied rated down due to risk of bias and indirectness. According to the systematic review authors, several studies were judged at moderate and high risk of bias. In addition, the median of the mean age of patients included in the studies was 28 years
4. Rated down due to risk of bias, inconsistency/ imprecision, and indirectness. Even though the review authors did not assess risk of bias, these studies were included in other systematic reviews in which the authors judged several of them at high risk of bias. The studies report inconsistent results (some high and other low rates). The patients are older than the target population.
5. Results for phalloplasty. Similar results for metoidioplasty (91.3%).

6. People and studies for urethral complications. 2671 people (37 studies) for prosthesis issues, and 1548 people (22 studies) for total flap loss.
7. Percentage of wound dehiscence 9.8% (range, 2.9% to 75%), percentage of infection/ partial necrosis 10.3% (range, 0 to 45.8%), percentage of prosthesis issues 14.2% (range, 1.6 to 41.9%), percentage of incontinence 15.3% (range, 5.4% to 59.1%)
8. People and studies for infection/ partial necrosis. 2389 people (31 studies) for urethral issues, 1736 people (17 studies) for wound dehiscence, 1080 (10 studies) for prosthesis issues, 1053 people (8 studies) for donor site issues, 131 people (3 studies) for incontinence

3.3 **Effects of surgeries on assigned males at birth**: Table 5 summarizes the evidence about the effects of all surgeries on surgical outcomes among assigned at birth males. We used information from 3 systematic reviews.[16 18 19] Due to the nature of the outcomes (i.e. they can only be experienced by people who undergo surgeries), there cannot be studies comparing the outcomes between a group of people with gender dysphoria who undergo surgeries and another who does not.

Studies, therefore, assessed the outcomes among a group of people with gender dysphoria after surgery. The findings are:

- There is low certainty evidence suggesting that the percentage of people who are satisfied after vaginoplasty is high (91%)
- There is very low certainty evidence about the percentage of people who are satisfied, the rate of complications, and the rate of reoperations after chest surgery (see Table 5 for details)
- There is low certainty evidence suggesting that the percentage of people who have regret after vaginoplasty is low (2%)
- There is very low certainty evidence about the rate of complications and the rate of reoperations after vaginoplasty (see Table 5 for details)

Table 5: All surgeries compared to no surgeries in assigned males at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: assigned males at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: surgeries
Comparison: no surgeries

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no surgery	Risk/ mean with surgery				
Chest surgery						
Satisfaction assessed with: percentage of people who reported being satisfied (Oles 2022) Range of follow up: 12 months to 17 years	NA	Range 75% (80/107) to 95% (33/35)[1]	NA	142 (2 studies)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[2]	We are very uncertain about the percentage of people who report being satisfied
Surgical complications assessed with: rate of complications across patients (Oles 2022) Range of follow up: 2 weeks to 16 years	NA	The complication rates were: - 3.8% (range 0% to 5.5%) of capsular contracture - 2.2% of major hematoma - 2.2% of implant extrusion[3]	NA	432 (5 studies)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[2]	We are very uncertain about the rate of surgical complications
Reoperation assessed with: rate of reoperation across patients (Oles 2022) Range of follow up: Not reported	NA	8.6% Range (4.4% to 10.4%)	NA	291 (2 studies)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[2]	We are very uncertain about the rate of reoperation
Bottom surgery						

Table 5: All surgeries compared to no surgeries in assigned males at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: assigned males at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: surgeries
Comparison: no surgeries

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no surgery	Risk/ mean with surgery				
Satisfaction assessed with: percentage of people who reported being satisfied for overall outcomes (Bustos SS, 2021) Range of follow up: 1 week to 11.3 years	NA	91% (81% to 98%)[4]	NA	1230 (12 studies)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[5]	The percentage of people who report being satisfied with overall outcomes may be 91%
Regret assessed with: percentage of people who reported regret (Bustos SS, 2021) Range of follow up: 2 months to 24.1 years	NA	2% (1% to 3%)	NA	1137 (15 studies)	⨁⨁◯◯ LOW[6]	The percentage of people who report regret may be 2%
Surgical complications assessed with: rate of complications across patients (Bustos SS, 2021) Range of follow up: 3 weeks to 24.1 years	NA	The complication rates were: - 1% (95% CI, <0.1% to 2%) of fistula - 11% (95% CI, 8% to 14%) of stenosis and/or strictures - 4% (95% CI, 1% to 9%) of tissue necrosis - 3% (95% CI, 1% to 4%) of prolapse[7]	NA	4196 (42 studies)[3]	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[8]	We are very uncertain about the rate of surgical complications

Table 5: All surgeries compared to no surgeries in assigned males at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria

Patient or population: assigned males at birth (<21 years old) with gender dysphoria
Intervention: surgeries
Comparison: no surgeries

Outcomes	Anticipated absolute effects* (95% CI)		Relative effect (95% CI)	№ of participants (studies)	Certainty of the evidence (GRADE)	What happens
	Risk / mean with no surgery	Risk/ mean with surgery				
Reoperation assessed with: rate of reoperation across patients (Tay, 2021) Range of follow up: 6 weeks to 14.8 months	NA	One study reported a surgical revision rate of 9% (1/11 patients), and a second study reported that 13% (19/145) patients required repeat surgery due to complications.	NA	156 (2 studies)	⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW[9]	We are very uncertain about the percentage of people who undergo reoperations

CI: Confidence interval
NA: Not applicable

GRADE Working Group grades of evidence
High certainty: We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect
Moderate certainty: We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different
Low certainty: Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect
Very low certainty: We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect

Explanations

1. Another systematic review, Sijben 2021, reported satisfaction from 3 additional studies: 82% (113/138) were satisfied or very satisfied, 93% (32/34) were happier and more satisfied with their chest, and 79% (28/36) were very satisfied with the overall cosmetic result (very low certainty of evidence due to risk of bias, imprecision, and indirectness).
2. Rated down due to risk of bias, indirectness (the included studies were not restricted to youth or young adults), and imprecision (too few participants included, not meeting optimal information size).

3. Another systematic review, Sijben 2021, reported similar ranges for rates of complication requiring reoperation from 7 studies (835 patients): capsular contraction (range 0.0-5.6%), asymmetry (3.6%), hematoma (range 0.0-2.9%), infection (range 0.0-0.9%), striae distensae (0.7%), implant rupture (0.7%), abscess (0.4%), scarring (0.0%), hypersensitivity (0.0%), and numbness (0.0%) (very low certainty of evidence due to risk of bias, imprecision, and indirectness)
4. Bustos SS *et al.* 2021 additionally reported on satisfaction for functional (87%, 95% CI 77% to 94%) and aesthetic (90%, 95% CI 84% to 94%) outcomes. Another systematic review and meta-analysis, Oles 2022b, similarly reported that 92.3% (range 23.1% to 100%) of patients (2410/2601) were satisfied after vaginoplasty (very low certainty of evidence due to risk of bias, imprecision, and indirectness).
5. Rated down due to risk of bias (the systematic review authors reported the quality of the included studies to be low to moderate using the New Castle Ottawa scale), and indirectness as the included studies were not restricted to youth or young adults. We did not rate down for imprecision or inconsistency despite high I^2 values as a satisfaction rate of 80% or above was deemed as a minimum threshold for clinical importance.
6. Rated down due to risk of bias (the systematic review authors reported the quality of the included studies to be low to moderate using the New Castle Ottawa scale), and indirectness as the included studies were not restricted to youth or young adults.
7. Another systematic review, Oles 2022b, similarly reported the percentage of patients experiencing complications from 51 studies, ranging from 2.4% to 12.0% (range 0% to 88%) for minor complications (intraoperative injury, wound dehiscence, superficial necrosis, infection, urinary issues, vaginal prolapse, stenosis, and bleeding) and 1.6% to 2.1% (range 0% to 31%) for major complications (flap/graft necrosis and infection) after genitoplasty (very low certainty of evidence due to risk of bias, imprecision, and indirectness).
8. Rated down due to risk of bias (the systematic review authors reported the quality of the included studies to be low to moderate using the New Castle Ottawa scale), imprecision and inconsistency, with wide confidence intervals and I^2 values ranging from 65.8% to 94.3%, and indirectness as the included studies were not restricted to youth or young adults.
9. Rated down due to risk of bias, indirectness (the age range of patients in the included studies was 24 to 39 years; the studies included were restricted to those that investigated the use of peritoneum in neovagina construction), and imprecision (too few participants included, not meeting optimal information size).

Effects of gender affirming therapies in people with gender dysphoria: evaluation of the best available evidence. Dr. Romina Brignardello-Petersen and Dr. Wojtek Wiercioch; Results; May 16, 2022

Results from search for studies not included in the systematic reviews: After screening 1854 records found through our searches, we found 10 eligible studies (figure 5). From these, 8 were comparative observational studies[20-27] and 2 were non- comparative[28 29]. We provide reasons for excluding studies in appendix 2.

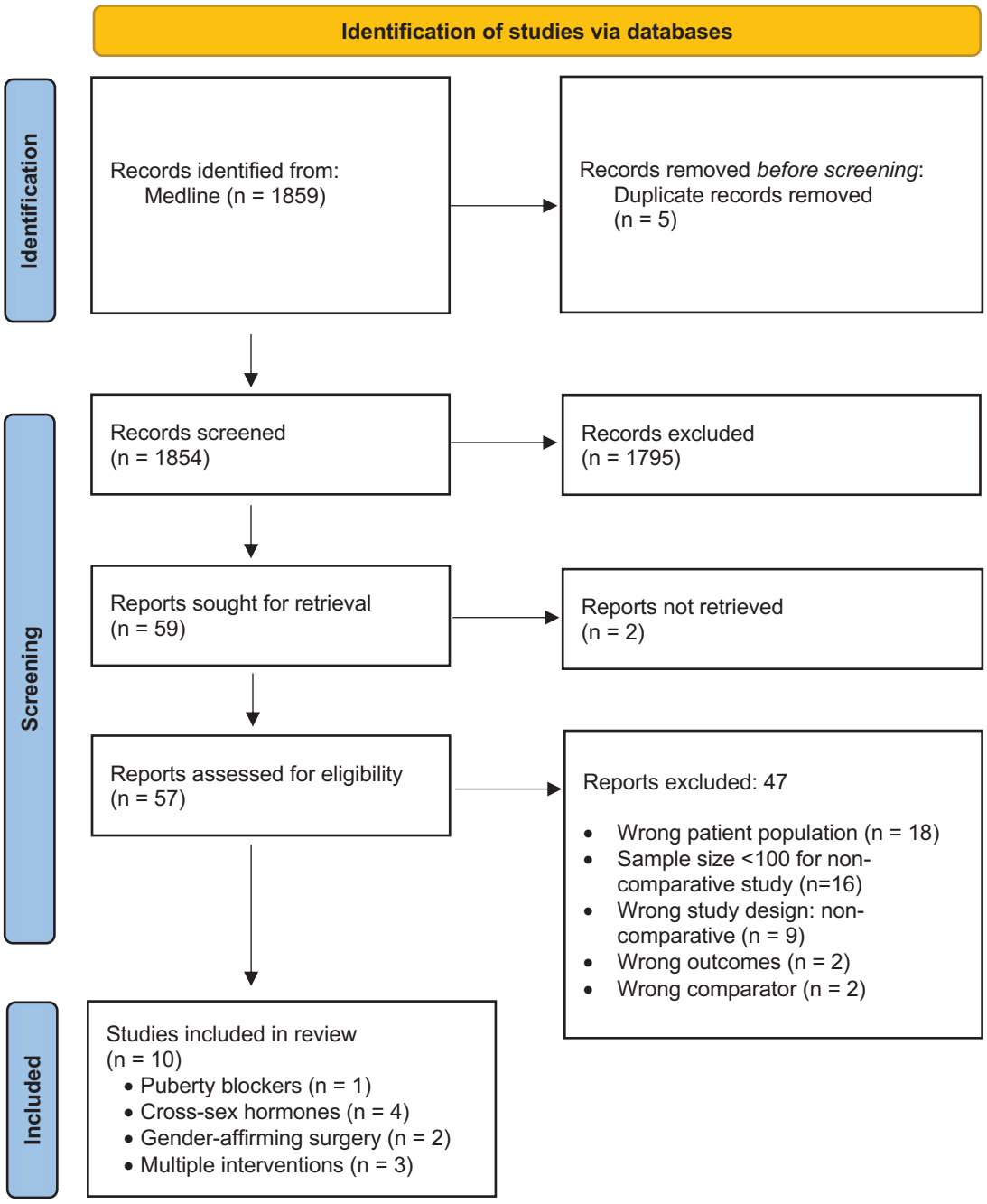

Figure 5: PRISMA flow diagram for the selection of primary studies. *From:* Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. BMJ 2021;372:n71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71. For more information, visit: http://www.prisma-statement.org/

None of the studies were judged as likely to importantly change the conclusions obtained from the systematic reviews (Tables 6 and 7). The main limitations of the comparative studies were risk of bias concerns (Figures 6 and 7) due to confounding, classification of intervention, and missing data; as well as small sample sizes. Although non-comparative studies were at lower risk of bias, because their results were consistent with those of the included evidence, they were also judged as unlikely to change the conclusions importantly.

Table 6: Characteristics of eligible comparative observational studies

Study ID	Sample size*	Study design	Intervention	Comparator	Outcomes measured	Likely to change conclusions	Reasons
VanDerMiesen, 2020	450	Retrospective cohort study	Puberty blockers	Waiting for puberty blockers	Self-harm/ suicidality, internalizing behaviors	No	Reports a small benefit on suicidality and moderate on internalizing behaviours, but high risk of bias
Becker-Hebly, 2021	75	Prospective cohort study	1. Puberty blockers 2. Cross-sex hormones 3. Surgery	No medical intervention yet; psychosocial intervention only	Health-related quality of life	No	Critical risk of bias (missing data due to low response rate, and confounding). Reports small benefit in mean change score for mental and physical dimension QoL as compared to no medical treatment. Imprecision; the 95% CIs for mean change scores are wide.
Green, 2021	3235	Cross-sectional study	Cross-sex hormones	Would like to take cross-sex hormones	Depression, suicidality	No	Critical risk of bias, no follow up of patients (measurement of current outcomes and not adjusting for baseline)
Tordoff, 2022	84	Prospective cohort study	1. Puberty blockers 2. Cross-sex hormones	No intervention	Depression, anxiety, suicidal thoughts	No	Moderate risk of bias, small sample size
Turban, 2022	9341	Cross-sectional study	Cross-sex hormones	Desired but never accessed gender affirming hormones	Suicidal ideation, suicidal attempt	No	Critical risk of bias, no follow up of patients (measurement of current outcomes and not adjusting for baseline)
Grannis, 2021	47	Cross-sectional study	Cross-sex hormones	No intervention yet	Anxiety, depression	No	Critical risk of bias, no follow up of patients, small sample size
Fontanari, 2020	350	Cross-sectional study	1. Cross-sex hormones 2. Cross-sex hormones or surgery	1. Waiting for cross-sex hormones 2. No intervention	Anxiety, depression, gender distress	No	Critical risk of bias (confounding, self-reported classification of interventions). Online cross-sectional survery reported small benefit in anxiety and depression mean scores, and little to no effect on gender distress with cross-sex hormones and/or surgery. Non-randomized comparative study provides very low certainty evidence due to

							very serious risk of bias and serious imprecision (95% CIs include little to no effect)
Castelo-Branco, 2021	205	Cross-sectional study	Cross-sex hormones	No intervention	Anxiety, depression	No	Critical risk of bias due to confounding (non-adjusted analysis). Reported no difference observed in anxiety and depression mean scores (Symptom Checklist-90-Revised scale) between groups. Non-randomized comparative study provides low certainty evidence.

*Considered the number of participants relevant to the questions of this report, not all people included in the studies

Table 7: Characteristics of eligible non- comparative observational studies

Study ID	Sample size	Intervention	Outcomes measured	Likely to change conclusions	Reasons
Bordas, 2021	813	FtM bottom surgery	Surgical complications, satisfaction	No	Reports rate of complications (10.5%) and satisfaction (79% totally satisfied, 20% mainly satisfied) within range of effects reported by studies already included in systematic reviews. Unlikely to reduce imprecision and inconsistency within body of evidence (3177 and 1458 people, respectively) of non-comparative studies (42 and 27, respectively) to increase certainty of evidence
Elias, 2022	110	FtM top surgery	Complications	No	Reports rate of complications (16%) and revision surgery (5%), which is consistent with the rates reported in the studies included. Unlikely to increase the certainty of evidence

Figure 6: Risk of bias judgements for comparative studies

Study ID	Intervention	Confounding	Classification of the intervention	Deviations from intended interventions	Missing data	Measurement of outcome	Overall
Becker-Hebly, 2021	Puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones, or surgery						CRITICAL
Castelo-Branco, 2021	Cross-sex hormones						CRITICAL
Fontanari, 2020	Cross-sex hormones, cross-sex hormones or surgery						CRITICAL
Grannis, 2021	Cross-sex hormones						CRITICAL
Green, 2021	Cross-sex hormones						CRITICAL
Tordoff, 2022	Puberty blockers, cross-sex hormones						MODERATE
Turban, 2022	Cross-sex hormones						CRITICAL
Van Der Miesen, 2020	Puberty blockers						SERIOUS

Figure legend:

Low

Moderate

Serious

Critical

Unclear

Figure 7: Risk of bias judgements for non-comparative studies

Study ID	Intervention	Representativeness of sample	Classification of intervention	Deviation from intended interventions	Missing data	Measurement of outcome	Overall
Bordas, 2021	FtM bottom surgery						LOW
Elias, 2022	FtM top surgery						MODERATE

Figure legend:

Low

Moderate

High

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ID	Study	Reason
#534	Abu-Ghname 2020	Wrong population: non transgender men
#434	Aires 2022	Wrong interventions: Other type of surgery: glottoplasty
#514	Angus 2021	Wrong outcomes: It does not include any outcome of interest. Includes: serum total testosterone concentration, body fat redistribution, breast development, and facial/body hair reduction
#318	Baddredine 2022	Wrong intervention. Continuing vs stopping estrogen during perioperative period of vaginoplasty
#40	Baram 2019	Wrong outcomes: only clinical outcomes are sperm count, testicular histology, hormone levels, etc.
#145	Barcelos 2022	Wrong outcomes: sexual satisfaction, desire, and function outcomes only
#60	Boczar 2021	No outcome data
#386	Bouman 2014	Wrong population: unclear that more than 80% are transgender
#208	Bustos 2021	Wrong intervention: niple areola reconstruction
#54	Connelly 2021	Wrong outcomes: Blood pressure
#43	Coon 2022	Wrong intervention: facial gender surgery
#34	D'Angelo 2018	Wrong design: narrative review
#165	Delgado-Ruiz 2019	Wrong outcomes: bone density
#355	Escandon 2022	Other type of surgery: facial surgery
#129	Fighera 2019	Wrong outcomes: bone mass
#597	Hembree 2017	Practice guideline, does not report the methods/ results of the systematic review in details
#120	Kakadekar 2021	Wrong outcomes: histological findings
#451	Kennedy 2021	Wrong intervention: self administered hormones
#375	Kloer 2021	Wrong outcomes: sexual health and satisfaction outcomes only
#439	Kovar 2019	More than 20% participants did not have gender dysphoria
#297	Kristensen 2021	Wrong outcomes: agression and hostility
#637	Leclere 2015	Wrong design: commentary of a systematic review
#293	Miranda 2021	Published in abstract format only
#624	Morrison 2016	Wrong intervention: facial feminization surgery
#270	Narayan 2021	Wrong design: narrative review
#119	Nolan 2019	Wrong intervention: phonosurgery
#167	Patel 2021	Wrong intervention: facial hair transplantation
#287	Ray 2020	Wrong population: cisgender is the population of interest, transgender included as indirect evidence and not in a systematic manner
#518	Rozga 2020	Published in abstract format only
#265	Sariyaka 2017	Wrong population: More than 20% participants did not have gender dysphoria
#35	Sayegh 2019	Wrong intervention: facial masculinization surgery
#124	Schwarz 2017	Wrong intervention: laryngeal surgery

#97	Siringo 2021	Wrong intervention: facial feminization surgery
#253	Song 2016	Wrong intervention: phonosurgery
#250	Song 2017	Wrong intervention: phonosurgery
#104	Spanos 2020	Wrong outcomes: lean mass, fat mass or insulin resistance
#257	Therattil 2017	Wrong intervention: thyroid chartilage reduction surgery
#328	Tirrell 2022	Wrong intervention: facial feminization surgery
#676	Traish 2010	Wrong design: narrative review
#279	VanDamme 2017	Wrong intervention: voice pitch raising surgery
#171	Vellho 2017	Wrong outcomes: BMI, blood pressure, hematocrit, hemoglobin, lipid profile, and liver enzymes
#112	Wilson 2020	Wrong outcomes: prolactine related outcomes (levels, hyperprolactinemia, prolactinoma)
#245	Worth 2018	Unable to access full text
#122	Ziegler 2018	Wrong outcomes: voice parameters and satisfaction with voice
#499	Zucker 2021	Unable to access full text

ID	Study	Reason
#1458	Al-Tamimi 2019	Wrong patient population
#287	Al-Tamimi 2020	Wrong study design: non comparative
#403	Alcon 2021	Wrong study design: non comparative
#214	Aldridge 2021	Wrong study design: non comparative
#54	Almazan 2021	Wrong patient population
#1387	Boas 2019	Wrong patient population
#1323	Branstrom 2020	Wrong patient population
#1447	Breidenstein 2019	Wrong study design: non comparative
#114	Briles 2022	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1804	Butler 2019	Wrong patient population
#716	Carmichael 2021	Wrong study design: non comparative
#622	Cocchetti 2021	Wrong outcomes
#1067	Coon 2020	Wrong patient population
#1835	Cristofari 2019	Wrong patient population
#1486	Cuccolo 2019	Wrong patient population
#1276	deBlok 2020	Wrong patient population
#577	deRooij 2021	Wrong patient population
#1625	DeWolf 2019	Wrong patient population
#1759	Djordjevic 2019	Wrong patient population
#244	Falcone 2020	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#258	FosterSkewis 2021	Wrong comparator
#1583	Gallagher 2019	Wrong patient population
#139	Gumussoy 2022	Wrong study design: non comparative
#515	Hisle-Gorman 2021	Wrong study design: non comparative
#350	Hougen 2021	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1007	Meyer 2020	Wrong study design: non comparative
#499	Miller 2021	Wrong patient population
#621	Mullins 2021	Wrong study design: non comparative
#1653	Naeimi 2019	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1691	Namba 2019	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1770	Neuville 2019	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#623	Neuville 2021	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#644	Nieder 2021	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1624	Nikkels 2019	Wrong patient population
#353	Opsomer 2021	Wrong patient population
#1306	Papadopulos 2020	Wrong comparator
#640	Papadopulos 2021	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1472	Pigot 2019	Wrong patient population
#899	Pigot 2020	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1212	Segev-Becker 2020	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1351	Staples 2020	Wrong outcomes
#645	Staud 2021	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#864	Terrier 2020	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1083	vanderSluis 2020	Insufficient Sample Size <100

#1204	Veerman 2020	Insufficient Sample Size <100
#1409	Watanabe 2019	Wrong patient population
#512	Waterschoot 2021	Insufficient Sample Size <100

ATTACHMENT D

THE SCIENCE OF GENDER DYSPHORIA AND TRANSSEXUALISM

REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE FLORIDA AGENCY FOR HEALTHCARE ADMINISTRATION

JAMES M. CANTOR, PHD

17 MAY 2022

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. Background & Credentials

1. I am a research scientist and clinical psychologist and am currently the Director of the Toronto Sexuality Centre in Canada. For my education and training, I received my Bachelor of Science degree from Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, where I studied mathematics, physics, and computer science. I received my Master of Arts degree in psychology from Boston University, where I studied neuropsychology. I earned my Doctoral degree in psychology from McGill University, which included successfully defending my doctoral dissertation studying the effects of psychiatric medication and neurochemical changes on sexual behavior, and included a clinical internship assessing and treating people with a wide range of sexual and gender identity issues.

2. Over my academic career, my posts have included Senior Scientist and Psychologist at the Centre for Addiction and Mental Health (CAMH), Head of Research for CAMH's Sexual Behaviour Clinic, Associate Professor of Psychiatry on the University of Toronto Faculty of Medicine, and Editor-in-Chief of the peer reviewed journal, *Sexual Abuse*. That journal is one of the top-impact, peer-reviewed journals in sexual behavior science and is the official journal of the Association for the Treatment of Sexual Abusers. In that appointment, I was charged to be the final arbiter for impartially deciding which contributions from other scientists in my field merited publication. I believe that appointment indicates not only my extensive experience evaluating scientific claims and methods, but also the faith put in me by the other scientists in my field. I have also served on the Editorial Boards of the *Journal of Sex Research*, the *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, and *Journal of Sexual Aggression*. Thus, although I cannot speak for other scientists, I regularly interact with and am routinely exposed to the views and opinions of most of the scientists active in our field today, within the United States and throughout the world.

3. My scientific expertise spans the biological and non-biological development

of human sexuality, the classification of sexual interest patterns, the assessment and treatment of atypical sexualities, and the application of statistics and research methodology in sex research. I am the author of over 50 peer-reviewed articles in my field, spanning the development of sexual orientation, gender identity, hypersexuality, and atypical sexualities collectively referred to as *paraphilias*. I am the author of the past three editions of the gender identity and atypical sexualities chapter of the *Oxford Textbook of Psychopathology*. These works are now routinely cited in the field and are included in numerous other textbooks of sex research.

4. I began providing clinical services to people with gender dysphoria in 1998. I trained under Dr. Ray Blanchard of CAMH and have participated in the assessment and treatment of over one hundred individuals at various stages of considering and enacting both transition and detransition, including its legal, social, and medical (both cross-hormonal and surgical) aspects. My clinical experience includes the assessment and treatment of several thousand individuals experiencing other atypical sexuality issues. I am regularly called upon to provide objective assessment of the science of human sexuality by the courts (prosecution and defense), professional media, and mental health care providers.

5. A substantial proportion of the existing research on gender dysphoria comes from two clinics, one in Canada and one in the Netherlands. The CAMH gender clinic (previously, Clarke Institute of Psychiatry) was in operation for several decades, and its research was directed by Dr. Kenneth Zucker. I was employed by CAMH between 1998 and 2018. Although I was a member of the hospital's adult forensic program, I remained in regular contact with members of the CAMH child psychiatry program (of which Dr. Zucker was a member), and we collaborated on multiple research projects.

II. Summary of Conclusions

- The scientific research consistently demonstrates that there is more than one distinct phenomenon that can lead to gender dysphoria. These types are distinguished by differing epidemiological and demographic patterns, unique psychological and behavioral profiles, and differing responses to the treatment options.
- Studies show that otherwise mentally healthy adults—undergoing thorough assessment (1−2 year Real Life Experience) and supervised by clinics engaged in gate-keeping roles—adjust well to life as the opposite sex.
- Regarding pre-pubescent children with gender dysphoria, there have been 11 outcomes studies. All 11 reported the majority of children to cease to feel dysphoric by puberty. They typically report being gay or lesbian instead.
- Regarding pubescent and adolescent age minors, there have been (also) 11 follow-up studies of puberty blockers and cross-sex hormones. In four, mental health failed to improve at all. In five, mental health improved, but because psychotherapy and medical interventions were both provided, which one caused the improvement could not be identified. The two remaining studies employed methods that did permit psychotherapy effects to be distinguished from medical effects, and neither found medical intervention to be superior to psychotherapy-only.
- The research importantly distinguishes completed suicides—which occur primarily in biological males and involve the intent to die—from suicidal ideation, gestures, and attempts—which occur primarily in biological females and represent psychological distress and cries for help. The evidence is minimally consistent with transphobia being the predominant cause of suicidality. The evidence is very strongly consistent with the hypothesis that other mental health issues, such as Borderline Personality Disorder (BPD), cause suicidality and unstable identities, including gender identity confusion.
- The international consensus of public health care services is that there remains no evidence to support medicalized transition for youth. The responses in the U.S. stand in stark contrast with Sweden, Finland, France, and the United Kingdom, which are issuing increasingly restrictive statements and policies, including bans on all medical transition of minors.

III. Science of Gender Dysphoria and Transsexualism

6. One of the most widespread public misunderstandings about transsexualism and people with gender dysphoria is that all cases of gender dysphoria represent the same phenomenon; however, the clinical science has long and consistently demonstrated that gender dysphoric children (cases of *early-onset* gender dysphoria) do not represent the same phenomenon as adult gender dysphoria

(cases of *late-onset* gender dysphoria),[1] merely attending clinics at younger ages. That is, gender dysphoric children are not simply younger versions of gender dysphoric adults. They differ in every known regard, from sexual interest patterns, to responses to treatments. A third presentation has recently become increasingly observed among people presenting to gender clinics: These cases appear to have an onset in adolescence in the absence of any childhood history of gender dysphoria. Such cases have been called adolescent-onset or "rapid-onset" gender dysphoria (ROGD). Very many public misunderstandings and expert misstatements come from misattributing evidence or personal experience from one of these types to another.

A. Adult-Onset Gender Dysphoria

7. People with adult-onset gender dysphoria typically attend clinics requesting transition services in mid-adulthood, usually in their 30s or 40s. Such individuals are nearly exclusively biological males.[2] They typically report being sexually attracted to women and sometimes to both men and women. Some cases profess asexuality, but very few indicate any sexual interest in or behavior involving men.[3] Cases of adult-onset gender dysphoria are typically associated with a sexual interest pattern (medically, a *paraphilia*) involving themselves in female form.[4]

1. Outcome Studies of Transition in Adult-Onset Gender Dysphoria

8. Clinical research facilities studying gender dysphoria have repeatedly reported low rates of regret (less than 3%) among adult-onset patients who underwent complete transition (*i.e.*, social, plus hormonal, plus surgical transition). This has been widely reported by clinics in Canada,[5] Sweden,[6] and the Netherlands.[7]

9. Importantly, each of the Canadian, Swedish, and Dutch clinics for adults

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1 Blanchard, 1985.
2 Blanchard, 1990, 1991.
3 Blanchard, 1988.
4 Blanchard 1989a, 1989b, 1991.
5 Blanchard, *et al.*, 1989.
6 Dhejneberg, *et al.*, 2014.
7 Wiepjes, *et al.*, 2018.

with gender dysphoria all performed "gate-keeping" procedures, disqualifying from medical services people with mental health or other contraindications. One would not expect the same results to emerge in the absence of such gate-keeping or when gate-keepers apply only minimal standards or cursory assessment.

10. An important caution applies to interpreting these results: The side-effect of removing these people from the samples of transitioners is that if a researcher compared the average mental health of individuals coming into the clinic with the average mental health of individuals going through medical transition, then the post-transition group would appear to show a substantial improvement, even though transition had *no effect at all*: The removal of people with poorer mental health created the statistical illusion of improvement among the remaining people.

2. Mental Health Issues in Adult-Onset Gender Dysphoria

11. The research evidence on mental health issues in gender dysphoria indicates it to be different between adult-onset versus adolescent-onset versus prepubescent-onset types. The co-occurrence of mental illness with gender dysphoria in adults is widely recognized and widely documented.[8] A research team in 2016 published a comprehensive and systematic review of all studies examining rates of mental health issues in transgender adults.[9] There were 38 studies in total. The review indicated that many studies were methodologically weak, but nonetheless demonstrated (1) that rates of mental health issues among people are highly elevated both before *and after* transition, (2) but that rates were less elevated among those who completed transition. Analyses were not conducted in a way so as to compare the elevation in mental health issues observed among people newly attending clinics to improvement after transition. Also, several studies showed more than 40% of patients to become "lost to follow-up." With attrition rates that high, it is unclear to what

[8] *See, e.g.*, Hepp, *et al.*, 2005.
[9] Dhejne, *et al.*, 2016.

extent the information from the remaining participants would accurately reflect the whole population. The very high rate of "lost to follow-up" leaves open the possibility of considerably more negative results overall.

12. The long-standing and consistent finding that gender dysphoric adults continue to show high rates of mental health issues after transition indicates a critical point: To the extent that gender dysphoric children resemble adults, we should not expect mental health to improve as a result of transition—that is, transition does not appear to be what causes mental health improvement. Rather, mental health issues should be resolved before any transition, as has been noted in multiple standards of care documents, as detailed in their own section of this report.

B. Childhood Onset (Pre-Puberty) Gender Dysphoria

1. Follow-up Studies Show Most Children Desist by Puberty

13. Prepubescent children (and their parents) have been approaching mental health professionals for help with their unhappiness with their sex and belief they would be happier living as the other for many decades. The large majority of childhood onset cases of gender dysphoria occur in biological males, with clinics reporting 2–6 biological male children to each female.[10]

14. In total, there have been 11 outcomes studies of these children, listed in Appendix 1. In sum, despite coming from a variety of countries, conducted by a variety of labs, using a variety of methods, all spanning four decades, every study without exception has come to the identical conclusion: Among prepubescent children who feel gender dysphoric, the majority cease to want to be the other gender over the course of puberty—ranging from 61–88% desistance across the large, prospective studies. Such cases are often referred to as "desisters," whereas children who continue to feel gender dysphoric are often called "persisters."

15. Notably, in most cases, these children were receiving professional

[10] Cohen-Kettenis, *et al.*, 2003; Steensma, *et al.,* 2018; Wood, *et al.*, 2013.

psychosocial support across the study period aimed, not at affirming cross-gender identification, but at resolving stressors and issues potentially interfering with desistance. While beneficial to these children and their families, the inclusion of therapy in the study protocol represents a complication for the interpretation of the results: It is not possible to know to what extent the outcomes were influenced by the psychosocial support or would have emerged regardless. In science, this is referred to as a confound.

16. While the absolute number of those who present as prepubescent children with gender dysphoria and "persist" through adolescence is very small in relation to the total population, persistence in some subjects was observed in each of these studies. Thus, a clinician cannot take either outcome for granted.

17. It is because of this long-established and unanimous research finding of desistance being probable but not inevitable, that the "watchful waiting" method became the standard approach for assisting gender dysphoric children. The balance of potential risks to potential benefits is very different for groups likely to desist versus groups unlikely to desist: If a child is very likely to persist, then taking on the risks of medical transition might be more worthwhile than if that child is very likely to desist in transgender feelings.

18. The consistent observation of high rates of desistance among pre-pubertal children who present with gender dysphoria demonstrates a pivotally important—yet often overlooked—feature: because gender dysphoria so often desists on its own, clinical researchers cannot assume that therapeutic intervention cannot facilitate or speed desistance for at least some patients. That is, gender identity is not the same as sexual orientation, and it cannot be assumed that gender identity is as unchangeable as is sexual orientation. Such is an empirical question, and there has not yet been any such study.

19. It is also important to note that research has not yet identified any reliable

procedure for discerning which children who present with gender dysphoria will persist, as against the majority who will desist, absent transition and "affirmation." Such a method would be valuable, as the more accurately that potential persisters can be distinguished from desisters, the better the risks and benefits of options can be weighted. Such "risk prediction" and "test construction" are standard components of applied statistics in the behavioral sciences. Multiple research teams have reported that, on average, groups of persisters are somewhat more gender non-conforming than desisters, but not so different as to usefully predict the course of a particular child.[11]

20. In contrast, one research team (the aforementioned Olson group) claimed the opposite, asserting that they developed a method of distinguishing persisters from desisters, using a single composite score representing a combination of children's "peer preference, toy preference, clothing preference, gender similarity, and gender identity."[12] They reported a statistical association (mathematically equivalent to a correlation) between that composite score and the probability of persistence. As they indicated, "Our model predicted that a child with a gender-nonconformity score of .50 would have roughly a .30 probability . . . of socially transitioning. By contrast, a child with gender-nonconformity score of .75 would have roughly a .48 probability."[13] Although the Olson team declared that "social transitions may be predictable from gender identification and preferences,"[14] their actual results suggest the opposite: The gender-nonconforming group who went on to transition (socially) had a mean composite score of .73 (which is less than .75), and the gender-nonconforming group who did not transition had a mean composite score of .61, also less than .75.[15] Both of those are lower than the value of .75, so both of those would be more likely than not

11 Singh, *et al.* (2021); Steensma *et al.*, 2013.
12 Rae, *et al.*, 2019, at 671.
13 Rae, *et al.*, 2019, at 673.
14 Rae, *et al.*, 2019, at 669.
15 Rae, *et al.*, 2019, Supplemental Material at 6, Table S1, bottom line.

to desist, rather than to proceed to transition. That is, Olson's model does not distinguish likely from unlikely to transition; rather, it distinguishes unlikely from even less likely to transition.

21. Although it remains possible for some future discovery to yield a method to identify with sufficient accuracy which gender dysphoric children will persist, there does not exist such a method at the present time. Moreover, in the absence of long-term follow-up, it cannot be known what proportions come to regret having transitioned and then *de*transition. Because only a minority of gender dysphoric children persist in feeling gender dysphoric in the first place, "transition-on-demand" increases the probability of unnecessary transition and unnecessary medical risks.

2. "Watchful Waiting" and "The Dutch Protocol"

22. It was this state of the science—that the majority of prepubescent children will desist in their feelings of gender dysphoria and that we lack an accurate method of identifying which children will persist—that led to the development of a clinical approach, The Dutch Protocol,[16] including its "Watchful Waiting" period. Internationally, the Dutch Protocol remains the most empirically supported protocol for the treatment of children with gender dysphoria.

23. The purpose of the protocol was to compromise the conflicting needs among: clients' initial wishes upon assessment, the long-established and repeated observation that those wishes will change in the majority of (but not in all) childhood cases, and that cosmetic aspects of medical transition are perceived to be better when they occur earlier rather than later.

24. The Dutch Protocol was developed over many years by the Netherlands' child gender identity clinic, incorporating the accumulating findings from their own research as well as those reported by other clinics working with gender dysphoric

[16] Delemarre-van de Waal & Cohen-Kettenis (2006).

children. They summarized and explicated the approach in their peer-reviewed report, *Clinical management of gender dysphoria in children and adolescents: The Dutch Approach*.[17] The components of the Dutch Approach are:

- no social transition at all considered before age 12 (watchful waiting period),
- no puberty blockers considered before age 12,
- cross-sex hormones considered only after age 16, and
- resolution of mental health issues before any transition.

25. For youth under age 12, "the general recommendation is watchful waiting and carefully observing how gender dysphoria develops in the first stages of puberty."[18]

26. The age cut-offs of the Dutch Approach were not based on any research demonstrating their superiority over other potential age cut-off's. Rather, they were chosen to correspond to the ages of consent to medical procedures under Dutch law. Nevertheless, whatever the original rationale, the data from this clinic simply contain no information about the safety or efficacy of employing these measures at younger ages.

27. The authors of the Dutch Approach repeatedly and consistently emphasize the need for extensive mental health assessment, including clinical interviews, formal psychological testing with validated psychometric instruments, and multiple sessions with the child and the child's parents.

28. Within the Dutch approach, there is no social transition before age twelve. That is, social affirmation of the new gender may not begin until age 12—as desistance is less likely to occur past that age. "Watchful Waiting" refers to a child's developmental period up to that age. Watchful waiting does not mean do nothing but passively observe the child. Rather, such children and families typically present with substantial distress involving both gender and non-gender issues, and it is during the watchful waiting period that a child (and other family members as appropriate) would

[17] de Vries & Cohen-Kettenis, 2012
[18] de Vries & Cohen-Kettenis, 2012, at 301.

undergo therapy, resolving other issues which may be exacerbating psychological stress or dysphoria. As noted by the Dutch clinic, "[T]he adolescents in this study received extensive family or other social support . . . [and they] were all regularly seen by one of the clinic's psychologists or psychiatrists."[19] One is actively treating the person, while carefully "watching" the dysphoria.

3. Follow-Up Studies of Puberty Blockers and Cross-Sex Hormones

29. Very many strong claims have appeared in the media and on social media asserting that transition results in improved mental health or, contradictorily, in decreased mental health. In the highly politicized context of gender and transgender research, many outlets have cited only the findings which appear to support one side, cherry-picking from the complete set of research reports. It total, there have been 11 prospective outcomes studies following up gender dysphoric children undergoing medically induced suppression of puberty or cross-sex hormone treatment. Four studies failed to find evidence of improvement in mental health functioning at all, and some groups deteriorated on some variables.[20] Five studies successfully identified evidence of improvement, but because patients received psychotherapy along with medical services, which of those treatments caused the improvement is unknowable.[21] In the remaining two studies, both psychotherapy and medical interventions were provided, but the studies were designed in such a way as to allow the effects of psychotherapy to be separated from the effects of the puberty-blocking medications.[22] As detailed in the following, neither identified benefits of medication over psychotherapy alone.

a. Four studies found no mental health improvement

30. Carmichael, *et al.* (2021) recently released its findings from the Tavistock

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19 de Vries, *et al.*, 2011, at 2280-2281.
20 Carmichael, *et al.*, 2021; Hisle-Gorman, *et al.*, 2021; Kaltiala, *et al.,* 2020; Kuper, *et al.*, 2020.
21 de Vries, *et al.,* 2011; Tordoff, *et al.,* 2022; van der Miesen, *et al.,* 2020.
22 Achille, *et al.*, 2020; Costa, *et al.,* 2015.

and Portman clinic in the U.K.[23] Study participants were ages 12–15 (Tanner stage 3 for natal males, Tanner stage 2 for natal females) and were repeatedly tested before beginning puberty-blocking medications and then every six months thereafter. Cases exhibiting serious mental illnesses (*e.g.*, psychosis, bipolar disorder, anorexia nervosa, severe body-dysmorphic disorder unrelated to gender dysphoria) were excluded. Relative to the time point before beginning puberty suppression, there were *no* significant changes in any psychological measure, from either the patients' or their parents' perspective.

31. In Kuper, *et al.* (2020), a multidisciplinary team from Dallas published a prospective follow-up study which included 25 youths as they began puberty suppression.[24] (The other 123 study participants were undergoing cross-sex hormone treatment.) Interventions were administered according to practice guidelines from the Endocrine Society.[25] Their analyses found *no statistically significant changes* in the group undergoing puberty suppression on any of the nine measures of wellbeing measured, spanning tests of body satisfaction, depressive symptoms, or anxiety symptoms.[26] Notably, whereas the Dutch Protocol includes age 12 as a minimum for puberty suppression treatment, this team provided such treatment beginning at age 9.8 years (full range: 9.8–14.9 years).[27]

32. Hisle-Gorman, *et al.* (2021) analyzed military families' healthcare data to compare 963 transgender and gender-diverse youth before versus after hormonal treatment, with their non-gender dysphoric siblings as controls. The study participants included youth undergoing puberty-blocking as well as those undergoing cross-sex hormone treatment, but these subgroups did not differ from each other. Study participants had a mean age of 18 years when beginning the study, but their

[23] Carmichael, *et al.*, 2021.
[24] Kuper, *et al.*, 2020, at 5.
[25] Kuper, *et al.*, 2020, at 3, referring to Hembree, *et al.*, 2017.
[26] Kuper, *et al.*, 2020, at Table 2.
[27] Kuper, *et al.*, 2020, at 4.

initial clinical contacts and diagnoses occurred at a mean age of 10 years. According to the study, "mental health care visits overall did not significantly change following gender-affirming pharmaceutical care,"[28] yet, "psychotropic medication use *increased,*"[29] indicating *deteriorating* mental health.

33. Kaltiala et al. (2020) similarly reported that after cross-sex hormone treatment, "Those who had psychiatric treatment needs or problems in school, peer relationships and managing everyday matters outside of home continued to have problems during real-life."[30] They concluded, "Medical gender reassignment is not enough to improve functioning and relieve psychiatric comorbidities among adolescents with gender dysphoria. Appropriate interventions are warranted for psychiatric comorbidities and problems in adolescent development."[31]

b. Five studies confounded psychotherapy and medical treatment

34. The initial enthusiasm for medical blocking of puberty followed largely from early reports from the Dutch clinical research team suggesting at least some mental health improvement.[32] It was when subsequent research studies failed to replicate those successes that it became apparent that the successes were due, not to the medical interventions, but to the psychotherapy that accompanied such interventions in most clinics, including the Dutch clinic.

35. The Dutch clinical research team followed up a cohort of youth at their clinic undergoing puberty suppression[33] and later cross-hormone treatment and surgical sex reassignment.[34] The youth improved on several variables upon follow-up as compared to pre-suppression measurement, including depressive symptoms and

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28 Hisle-Gorman, et al., 2021, at 1448.
29 Hisle-Gorman, et al., 2021, at 1448, emphasis added.
30 Kaltiala et al., 2020, at 213.
31 Kaltiala et al., 2020, at 213.
32 de Vries, *et al.,* 2011; de Vries, *et al.,* 2014
33 de Vries, *et al.*, 2011.
34 de Vries, *et al.,* 2014.

general functioning. No changes were detected in feelings of anxiety or anger or in gender dysphoria as a result of puberty suppression; however, natal females using puberty suppression suffered *increased* body dissatisfaction both with their secondary sex characteristics and with nonsexual characteristics.[35]

36. As the report authors noted, while it is possible that the improvement on some variables was due to the puberty-blockers, it is also possible that the improvement was due to the mental health support, and it is possible that the improvement occurred only on its own with natural maturation. So any conclusion that puberty blockers improved the mental health of the treated children is not justified by the data. Because this study did not include a control group (another group of adolescents matching the first group, but *not* receiving medical or social support), these possibilities cannot be distinguished from each other. The authors of the study were explicit in noting this themselves: "All these factors may have contributed to the psychological well-being of these gender dysphoric adolescents."[36]

37. In a 2020 update, the Dutch clinic reported continuing to find improvement in transgender adolescents' psychological functioning, reaching age-typical levels, "after the start of specialized transgender care involving puberty suppression."[37] Unfortunately, because the transgender care method of that clinic involves both psychosocial support and puberty suppression, it again cannot be known which of those (or their combination) is driving the improvement. Also, the authors indicate that the changing demographic and other features among gender dysphoric youth might have caused the treated group to differ from the control group in unknown ways. As the study authors noted again, "The present study can, therefore, not provide evidence about the direct benefits of puberty suppression over time and long-

35 Biggs, 2020.
36 de Vries, *et al*. 2011, at 2281.
37 van der Miesen, *et al*., 2020, at 699.

term mental health outcomes."[38]

38. Allen, *et al.* (2019) reported on a sample of 47 youth, ages 13–20, undergoing cross-sex hormone treatment. They reported observing increases in measures of well-being and decreases in measures of suicidality; however, as the authors also noted, "whether a patient is actively receiving psychotherapy" may have been a confounding variable.[39]

39. Tordoff, *et al.* (2022) reported on a sample of youth, ages 13–20 years, treated with either puberty blockers or cross-sex hormones. There were improvements in mental health functioning; however, 62.5% of the sample was again receiving mental health therapy.[40]

c. Two studies showed no superiority of medical intervention above psychotherapy

40. Costa, *et al.* (2015) reported on preliminary outcomes from the Tavistock and Portman NHS Foundation Trust clinic in the UK. They compared the psychological functioning of one group of youth receiving psychological support with a second group receiving both psychological support as well as puberty blocking medication. Both groups improved in psychological functioning over the course of the study, but no statistically significant differences between the groups was detected at any point.[41] As those authors concluded, "Psychological support and puberty suppression were both associated with an improved global psychosocial functioning in GD adolescence. Both these interventions may be considered effective in the clinical management of psychosocial functioning difficulties in GD adolescence."[42] Because psychological support does not pose the physical health risks that hormonal interventions or surgery does (such as loss of reproductive function) however, one

38 van der Miesen, *et al.*, 2020, at 703.
39 Allen, *et al.,* 2019.
40 Tordoff, et al., 2022, Table 1.
41 Costa, *et al.*, at 2212 Table 2.
42 Costa, *et al.*, at 2206.

cannot justify taking on the greater risks of social transition, puberty blockers or surgery without evidence of such treatment producing superior results. Such evidence does not exist. Moreover, this clinical team subsequently released the final version of this preliminary report, finding that neither group actually experienced significant improvement,[43] making moot any discussion of the source any improvement.

41. Achille, *et al.* (2020) at Stony Brook Children's Hospital in New York treated a sample of 95 youth with gender dysphoria, providing follow-up data on 50 of them. (The report did not indicate how these 50 were selected from the 95.) As well as receiving puberty blocking medications, "Most subjects were followed by mental health professionals. Those that were not were encouraged to see a mental health professional."[44] The puberty blockers themselves "were introduced in accordance with the Endocrine Society and the WPATH guidelines."[45] Upon follow-up, some incremental improvements were noted; however, after statistically adjusting for psychiatric medication and engagement in counselling, "*most predictors did not reach statistical significance*."[46] That is, puberty blockers did not improve mental health any more than did mental health care on its own.

d. Conclusions

42. The authors of the original Dutch studies were careful not to overstate the implications of their results, "We *cautiously* conclude that puberty suppression *may be* a valuable *element* in clinical management of adolescent gender dysphoria."[47] Nonetheless, many other clinics and clinicians intrepidly proceeded on the basis of only the perceived positives, broadened the range of people beyond those represented in the research findings, and removed the protections applied in the procedures that

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43 Carmichael, et al., 2021.
44 Achille, *et al.*, 2020, at 2.
45 Achille, *et al.*, 2020, at 2.
46 Achille, *et al.*, 2020, at 3 (italics added).
47 de Vries, *et al.* 2011, at 2282, italics added.

led to those outcomes. Many clinics and individual clinicians have reduced the minimum age for transition to 10 instead of 12. While the Dutch Protocol involves interdisciplinary teams of clinicians, many clinics now rely on a single assessor, in some cases one without adequate professional training in childhood and adolescent mental health. Comprehensive, longitudinal assessments (*e.g.*, 1 to 2 *years*[48]) became approvals after one or two assessment sessions. Validated, objective measures of youths' psychological functioning were replaced with clinicians' subjective (and first) opinions, often reflecting only the clients' own self-report. Systematic recordings of outcomes, so as to allow for detection and correction of clinical deficiencies, were eliminated.

43. Notably, Dr. Thomas Steensma, central researcher of the Dutch clinic, has decried other clinics for "blindly adopting our research" despite the indications that those results may not actually apply: "We don't know whether studies we have done in the past are still applicable to today. Many more children are registering, and also a different type."[49] Steensma opined that "every doctor or psychologist who is involved in transgender care should feel the obligation to do a good pre- and post-test." But few if any are doing so.

4. Mental Health Issues in Childhood-Onset Gender Dysphoria

44. As shown by the outcomes studies, there is little evidence that transition improves the mental well-being of children. As shown repeatedly by clinical guidelines from multiple professional associations, mental health issues are expected or required to be resolved *before* undergoing transition. The reasoning behind these conclusions is that children may be expressing gender dysphoria, not because they are experiencing what gender dysphoric adults report, but because they mistake what their experiences indicate or to what they might lead. For example, a child

[48] de Vries, *et al.*, 2011.
[49] Tetelepta, 2021.

experiencing depression from social isolation might develop the hope—and the unrealistic expectation—that transition will help them fit in, this time as and with the other sex.

45. If a child undergoes transition, discovering only then that their mental health or social situations will not in fact change, the medical risks and side-effects (such as sterilization) will have been borne for no reason. If, however, a child resolves the mental health issues first, with the gender dysphoria resolving with it (which the research literature shows to be the case in the large majority), then the child need not undergo transition at all, but retains the opportunity to do so later.

46. Elevated rates of multiple mental health issues among gender dysphoric children are reported throughout the research literature. A formal analysis of children (ages 4–11) undergoing assessment at the Dutch child gender clinic showed 52% fulfilled criteria for a DSM axis-I disorder.[50] A comparison of the children attending the Canadian versus Dutch child gender dysphoria clinic showed only few differences between them, but a large proportion in both groups were diagnosable with clinically significant mental health issues. Results of standard assessment instruments (Child Behavior Check List, or CBCL) demonstrated that the average score was in the clinical rather than healthy range, among children in both clinics.[51] When expressed as percentages, among 6–11-year-olds, 61.7% of the Canadian and 62.1% of the Dutch sample were in the clinical range.

47. A systematic, comprehensive review of all studies of Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASDs) and Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) among children diagnosed with gender dysphoria was recently conducted. It was able to identify a total of 22 studies examining the prevalence of ASD or ADHD I youth with gender dysphoria. Studies reviewing medical records of children and adolescents

[50] Wallien, *et al.*, 2007.
[51] Cohen-Kettenis, *et al.*, 2003, at 46.

referred to gender clinics showed 5–26% to have been diagnosed with ASD.[52] Moreover, those authors gave specific caution on the "considerable overlap between symptoms of ASD and symptoms of gender variance, exemplified by the subthreshold group which may display symptoms which could be interpreted as either ASD or gender variance. Overlap between symptoms of ASD and symptoms of GD may well confound results."[53] As noted elsewhere herein, when two or more issues are present at the same time, researchers cannot distinguish when a result is associated with or caused by the issue of interest or one of the side issues.[54] The rate of ADHD among children with GD was 8.3–11%. Conversely, in data from children (ages 6–18) with Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASDs) show they are more than seven times more likely to have parent-reported "gender variance."[55]

C. Adolescent-Onset Gender Dysphoria

1. Features of Adolescent-Onset Gender Dysphoria

48. In the social media age, a third profile has recently begun to present clinically or socially, characteristically distinct from the two previously identified profiles.[56] Unlike adult-onset or childhood-onset gender dysphoria, this group is predominately biologically female. This group typically presents in adolescence, but lacks the history of cross-gender behavior in childhood like the childhood-onset cases have. It is that feature which led to the term Rapid Onset Gender Dysphoria (ROGD).[57] The majority of cases appear to occur within clusters of peers and in association with increased social media use[58] and especially among people with autism or other neurodevelopmental or mental health issues.[59]

49. It cannot be easily determined whether the self-reported gender dysphoria

52 Thrower, *et al.*, 2020.
53 Thrower, *et al.*, 2020, at 703.
54 Cohen-Kettenis *et al.,* 2003, at 51; Skelly *et al.,* 2012.
55 Janssen, *et al.*, 2016.
56 Kaltiala-Heino, *et al.*, 2015; Littman, 2018.
57 Littman, 2018.
58 Littman, 2018.
59 Kaltiala-Heino, *et al.*, 2015; Littman, 2018; Warrier, *et al.*, 2020.

is a result of other underlying issues or if those mental health issues are the result of the stresses of being a sexual minority, as some writers are quick to assume.[60] (The science of the *Minority Stress Hypothesis* appears in its own section.) Importantly, and unlike other presentations of gender dysphoria, people with rapid-onset gender dysphoria often (47.2%) experienced *declines* rather than improvements in mental health when they publicly acknowledged their gender status.[61] Although long-term outcomes have not yet been reported, these distinctions demonstrate that one cannot apply findings from the other types of gender dysphoria to this type. That is, in the absence of evidence, researchers cannot assume that the pattern found in childhood-onset or adult-onset gender dysphoria also applies to adolescent-onset gender dysphoria. The multiple differences already observed between these groups argue against predicting that features present in one type would generalize to be present in all types of gender dysphoria.

2. Social Transition and Puberty Blockers with Adolescent Onset

50. There do not yet exist prospective outcomes studies either for social transition or for medical interventions for people whose gender dysphoria began in adolescence. That is, instead of taking a sample of individuals and following them forward over time (thus permitting researchers to account for people dropping out of the study, people misremembering the order of events, etc.), all studies have thus far been *retrospective*. It is not possible for such studies to identify what factors caused what outcomes. No study has yet been organized in such a way as to allow for an analysis of the adolescent-onset group, as distinct from childhood-onset or adult-onset cases. Many of the newer clinics (not the original clinics which systematically tracked and reported on their cases' results) fail to distinguish between people who had childhood-onset gender dysphoria and have aged into adolescence versus people

60 Boivin, *et al.*, 2020.
61 Biggs, 2020; Littman, 2018.

whose onset was not until adolescence. (Analogously, there are reports failing to distinguish people who had adolescent-onset gender dysphoria and aged into adulthood from adult-onset gender dysphoria.) Studies selecting groups according to their current age instead of their ages of onset produces confounded results, representing unclear mixes according to how many of each type of case wound up in the final sample.

3. Mental Illness in Adolescent-Onset Gender Dysphoria

51. In 2019, a Special Section appeared in the *Archives of Sexual Behavior* titled, "Clinical Approaches to Adolescents with Gender Dysphoria." It included this brief yet thorough summary of rates of mental health issues among adolescents expressing gender dysphoria, by Dr. Aron Janssen of the Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry of New York University:[62] The literature varies in the range of percentages of adolescents with co-occurring disorders. The range for depressive symptoms ranges was 6–42%,[63] with suicide attempts ranging 10 to 45%.[64] Self-injurious thoughts and behaviors range 14–39%.[65] Anxiety disorders and disruptive behavior difficulties including Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder are also prevalent.[66] Gender dysphoria also overlaps with Autism Spectrum Disorder.[67]

52. Of particular concern in the context of adolescent onset gender dysphoria is Borderline Personality Disorder (BPD; diagnostic criteria to follow). It is increasingly hypothesized that very many cases appearing to be adolescent-onset gender dysphoria actually represent cases of BPD.[68] That is, some people may be misinterpreting their experiencing of the broader "identity disturbance" of symptom Criterion 3 to represent a gender identity issue specifically. Like adolescent-onset

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62 Janssen, *et al.*, 2019.
63 Holt, *et al.*, 2016; Skagerberg, *et al.*, 2013; Wallien, *et al.*, 2007.
64 Reisner, *et al.,* 2015.
65 Holt, *et al.*, 2016; Skagerberg, *et al.*, 2013.
66 de Vries, *et al.*, 2011; Mustanski, *et al.*, 2010; Wallien, *et al.*, 2007.
67 de Vries, *et al.*, 2010; Jacobs, *et al.*, 2014; Janssen, *et al.*, 2016; May, *et al.*, 2016; Strang, *et al.*, 2014, 2016.
68 *E.g.*, Anzani, *et al.,* 2020; Zucker, 2019.

gender dysphoria, BPD begins to manifest in adolescence, is three times more common in biological females than males, and occurs in 2–3% of the population, rather than 1-in-5,000 people. (Thus, if even only a portion of people with BPD experienced an identity disturbance that focused on gender identity and were mistaken for transgender, they could easily overwhelm the number of genuine cases of gender dysphoria.)

53. DSM-5-TR Diagnostic Criteria for Borderline Personality Disorder:

> A pervasive pattern of instability of interpersonal relationships, self-image, and affects, and marked impulsivity beginning by early adulthood and present in a variety of contexts, as indicated by five (or more) of the following:
>
> 1. Frantic efforts to avoid real or imagined abandonment. (Note: Do not include suicidal or self-mutilating behaviour covered in Criterion 5.)
> 2. A pattern of unstable and intense interpersonal relationship characterized by alternating between extremes of idealization and devaluation.
> 3. *Identity disturbance: markedly and persistently unstable self-image or sense of self.*
> 4. Impulsivity in at least two areas that are potentially self-damaging (e.g., spending, sex, substance abuse, reckless driving, binge eating). (Note: Do not include suicidal or self-mutilating behavior covered in Criterion 5.)
> 5. *Recurrent suicidal behaviour, gestures, or threats, or self-mutilating behavior.*
> 6. Affective instability due to a marked reactivity of mood (e.g., intense episodic dysphoria, irritability, or anxiety usually lasting a few hours and only rarely more than a few days).
> 7. Chronic feelings of emptiness.
> 8. Inappropriate, intense anger or difficulty controlling anger (e.g., frequent displays of temper, constant anger, recurrent physical fights).
> 9. Transient, stress-related paranoid ideation or severe dissociative symptoms.

(Italics added.)

54. Mistaking cases of BPD for cases of Gender Dysphoria may prevent such youth from receiving the correct mental health services for their condition, and a primary cause for concern is symptom Criterion 5: Recurrent suicidality. (The research on suicide and suicidality are detailed in their own section herein.)

Regarding the provision of mental health care, the distinction between these conditions is crucial: A person with BPD going undiagnosed will not receive the appropriate treatments (the currently most effective of which is Dialectical Behavior Therapy). A person with a cross-gender identity would be expected to feel relief from medical transition, but someone with BPD would not: The problem was not about *gender* identity, but about having an *unstable* identity. Moreover, after a failure of medical transition to provide relief, one would predict for these people increased levels of hopelessness and increased risk of suicidality.

55. Regarding research, there have now been several attempts to document rates of suicidality among gender dysphoric adolescents. The scientific concern presented by BPD is that it poses a potential confound: Samples of gender dysphoric adolescents could appear to have elevated rates of suicidality, not because of the gender dysphoria (or transphobia in society), but because of the number of people with BPD in the sample.

IV. Other Scientific Claims Assessed

A. Suicide and Suicidality

56. Social media increasingly circulate demands for transition accompanied by hyperbolic warnings of suicide should there be delay or obstacle. Claims accompany admissions that "I'd rather have a trans daughter than a dead son," and such threats are treated as the justification for referring to affirming gender transitions as 'life-saving' or 'medically necessary'. Such claims convey only grossly misleading misrepresentations of the research literature, however, deploying terms for their shock value rather than accuracy, and exploiting common public misperceptions about suicide. Indeed, suicide prevention research and public health campaigns repeatedly warn against circulating such exaggerations, due to the risk of copy-cat

behavior they encourage.[69]

57. Despite that the media treat them as near synonyms, suicide and suicidality are distinct phenomena. They represent different behaviors with different motivations, with different mental health issues, and with different clinical needs. *Suicide* refers to completed suicides and the sincere intent to die. It is substantially associated with impulsivity, using more lethal means, and being a biological male.[70] *Suicidality* refers to parasuicidal behaviors, including suicidal ideation, threats, and gestures. These typically represent cries for help rather than an intent to die and are more common among biological females. Suicidal threats can indicate any of many problems or represent emotional blackmail, as typified by "If you leave me, I will kill myself." Professing suicidality is also used for attention-seeking or for the support or sympathy it evokes from others, denoting distress much more frequently than an intent to die.

58. Notwithstanding public misconceptions about the frequency of suicide and related behaviors, the highest rates of suicide are among middle-aged and elderly men in high income countries.[71] Biological males are at three times greater risk of death by suicide than are biological females, whereas suicidal ideation, plans, and attempts are three times more common among biological females.[72] In contrast with completed suicides, the frequency of suicidal ideation, plans, and attempts is highest during adolescence and young adulthood, with reported ideation rates spanning 12.1–33%.[73] Relative to other countries, Americans report elevated rates of each of suicidal ideation (15.6%), plans (5.4%), and attempts (5.0%).[74] Suicide attempts occur up to 30

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69 Gould & Lake, 2013.
70 Freeman, *et al.,* 2017.
71 Turecki & Brent, 2016
72 Klonsky et al., 2016; Turecki & Brent, 2016
73 Borges et a., 2010; Nock et al., 2008
74 Klonsky, et al., 2016.

times more frequently than completed suicides.[75] The rate of completed suicides in the U.S. population is 14.5 per 100,000 people.[76] The widely discrepant numbers representing completed suicides versus transient suicidal ideation has left those statistics open to substantial abuse in the media and social media. Despite public media guidelines urging "Avoid dramatic headlines and strong terms such as 'suicide epidemic'," [77] that is exactly what mainstream outlets have done.[78]

59. There is substantial research associating sexual orientation with suicidality, but much less so with completed suicide.[79] More specifically, there is some evidence suggesting gay adult men are more likely to die by suicide than are heterosexual men, but there is less evidence of an analogous pattern among lesbian women. Regarding suicidality, surveys of self-identified LGB Americans repeatedly report rates of suicidal ideation and suicide attempts 2–7 times higher than their heterosexual counterparts. Because of this association of suicidality with sexual orientation, one must apply caution in interpreting findings allegedly about gender identity: Because of the overlap between people who self-identify as non-heterosexual and as non-cis-gendered, correlations detected between suicidality and gender dysphoria may instead reflect (be confounded by) homosexuality. Indeed, other authors have made explicit their surprise that so many studies, purportedly of gender identity, entirely omitted measurement or consideration of sexual orientation, creating the situation where features that seem to be associated with gender identity instead reflect the sexual orientation of the members of the sample.[80]

60. Among post-transition transsexuals, completed suicide rates are elevated,

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75 Bachman, 2018.
76 World Health Organization, 2022.
77 Samaritans, 2020.
78 E.g., MSNBC, 2015, *Trans youth and suicide: An epidemic.*
79 Haas, *et al.,* 2011.
80 McNeil, *et al.* (2017)

but are nonetheless rare.[81] Regarding suicidality, there have been three recent, systematic reviews of the research literature.[82] All three included specific methods to minimize any potential effects of cherry-picking findings from within the research literature. Compiling the results of 108 articles reported from 64 research projects, Adams and Vincent (2019) found an overall average rate of 46.55% for suicidal ideation (ranging 18.18%–95.5%) and an overall average rate of 27.19% for suicidal attempts (ranging 8.57%–52.4%). These findings confirmed those reported by McNeil, *et al.* (2017), whose review of 30 articles revealed a range of 37%–83% for suicidal ideation and 9.8%–43% for suicidal attempts. Thus, on the one hand, these ranges are greater than those reported for the mainstream population—They instead approximate the rates reported among sexual orientation minorities. On the other hand, with measures so lacking in reliability that they produce every result from 'rare' to 'almost everyone', it is unclear which, if any of them, represents a valid conclusion.

61. McNeil *et al.* (2017) observed also the research to reveal rates of suicidal ideation and suicidal attempts to be related—not to transition status—but to the social support received: The studies reviewed showed support to decrease suicidality, but transition not to. Indeed, in some situations, social support was associated with *increased* suicide attempts, suggesting the reported suicidality may represent attempts to evoke more support.[83]

62. Marshall et al. (2016) identified and examined 31 studies, again finding rates of suicidal ideation and suicide attempts to be elevated, particularly among biological females, indicating that suicidality patterns correspond to biological sex rather than self-identified gender.[84]

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81 Wiepjes, *et al.,* 2020.
82 Adams & Vincent, 2019; Marshall, *et al.,* 2016; McNeil, *et al.* (2017).
83 Bauer, *et al.*, 2015; Canetto, et al., 2021.
84 Marshall, et al., 2016.

63. Despite that mental health issues, including suicidality, are repeatedly required by clinical standards of care to be resolved before transition, threats of suicide are instead oftentimes used as the very justification for labelling transition a 'medical necessity'. However plausible it might seem that failing to affirm transition causes suicidality, the epidemiological evidence indicates that hypothesis to be incorrect: Suicide rates remains elevated even after complete transition, as shown by a comprehensive review of 17 studies of suicidality in gender dysphoria.[85]

64. The scientific study of suicide is inextricably linked to that of mental illness, and Borderline Personality Disorder is repeatedly documented to be greatly elevated among sexual minorities[86].

B. Conversion Therapy

65. Activists and social media increasingly, but erroneously, apply the term "conversion therapy" moving farther and farther from what the research has reported. "Conversion therapy" (or "reparative therapy" and other names) was the attempt to change a person's sexual orientation; however, with the public more frequently accustomed to "LGB" being expanded to "LGBTQ+", the claims relevant only to sexual orientation are being misapplied to gender identity. The research has repeatedly demonstrated that once one explicitly acknowledges being gay or lesbian, this is only very rarely are mistaken. That is entirely unlike gender identity, wherein the great majority of children who declare cross-gender identity cease to do so by puberty, as already shown unanimously by all follow-up studies. As the field grows increasingly polarized, any therapy failing to provide affirmation-on-demand is mislabeled "conversion therapy."[87] Indeed, even actions of non-therapists, unrelated

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85 McNeil, *et al.,* 2017.
86 Reuter, *et al.,* 2016; Rodriguez-Seiljas, *et al.,* 2021; Zanarni, *et al.,* 2021.
87 D'Angelo, *et al.,* 2021.

to any therapy, have been labelled conversion therapy, including the prohibition of biological males competing on female teams.[88]

C. Assessing Demands for Social Transition and Affirmation-Only or Affirmation-on-Demand Treatment in Pre-Pubertal Children.

66. Colloquially, affirmation refers broadly to any actions that treat the person as belonging to a new gender. In different contexts, that could apply to social actions (use of a new name and pronouns), legal actions (changes to birth certificates), or medical actions (hormonal and surgical interventions). That is, social transition, legal transition, and medical transition (and subparts thereof) need not, and rarely do, occur at the same time. In practice, there are cases in which a child has socially only partially transitioned, such as presenting as one gender at home and another at school or presenting as one gender with one custodial parent and another gender with the other parent.

67. Referring to "affirmation" as a treatment approach is ambiguous: Although often used in public discourse to take advantage of the positive connotations of the term, it obfuscates what exactly is being affirmed. This often leads to confusion, such as quoting a study of the benefits and risks of social affirmation in a discussion of medical affirmation, where the appearance of the isolated word "affirmation" refers to entirely different actions.

68. It is also an error to divide treatment approaches into affirmative versus non-affirmative. As noted already, the widely adopted Dutch Approach (and the guidelines of the multiple professional associations based on it) cannot be said to be either: It is a staged set of interventions, wherein social transition (and puberty blocking) may not begin until age 12 and cross-sex hormonal and other medical interventions, later.

69. Formal clinical approaches to helping children expressing gender dysphoria

[88] Turban, 2021, March 16.

employ a gate-keeper model, with decision trees to help clinicians decide when and if the potential benefits of affirmation of the new gender would outweigh the potential risks of doing so. Because the gate-keepers and decision-trees generally include the possibility of affirmation in at least some cases, it is misleading to refer to any one approach as "the affirmation approach." The most extreme decision-tree would be accurately called affirmation-*on-demand,* involving little or no opportunity for children to explore at all whether the distress they feel is due to some other, less obvious, factor, whereas more moderate gate-keeping would endorse transition only in select situations, when the likelihood of regretting transition is minimized.

70. Many outcomes studies have been published examining the results of gate-keeper models, but no such studies have been published regarding affirmation-on-demand with children. Although there have been claims that affirmation-on-demand causes mental health or other improvement, these have been the result only of "retrospective" rather than "prospective" studies. That is, such studies did not take a sample of children and follow them up over time, to see how many dropped out altogether, how many transitioned successfully, and how many transitioned and regretted it or detransitioned. Rather, such studies took a sample of successfully transitioned adults and asked them retrospective questions about their past. In such studies, it is not possible to know how many other people dropped out or regretted transition, and it is not possible to infer causality from any of the correlations detected, despite authors implying and inferring causality.

D. Assessing the "Minority Stress Hypothesis"

71. The elevated levels of mental health problems among lesbian, gay, and bisexual populations is a well-documented phenomenon, and the idea that it is caused by living within a socially hostile environment is called the *Minority Stress Hypothesis*.[89] The association is not entirely straight-forward, however. For example,

[89] Meyer, 2003.

although lesbian, gay, and bisexual populations are more vulnerable to suicide ideation overall, the evidence specifically on adult lesbian and bisexual women is unclear. Meyer did not include transgender populations in originating the hypothesis, and it remains a legitimate question to what extent and in what ways it might apply to gender identity.

72. Minority stress is associated, in large part, with being a visible minority. There is little evidence that transgender populations show the patterns suggested by the hypothesis. For example, the minority stress hypothesis would predict differences according to how visibly a person is discernable as a member of the minority, which often changes greatly upon transition. Biological males who are very effeminate stand out throughout childhood, but in some cases can successfully blend in as adult females; whereas the adult-onset transitioners blend in very much as heterosexual cis-gendered males during their youth and begin visibly to stand out in adulthood, only for the first time.

73. Also suggesting minority stress cannot be the full story is that the mental health symptoms associated with minority stress do not entirely correspond with those associated with gender dysphoria. The primary symptoms associated with minority stress are depressive symptoms, substance use, and suicidal ideation.[90] The symptoms associated with gender dysphoria indeed include depressive symptoms and suicidal ideation, but also include anxiety symptoms, Autism Spectrum Disorders, and personality disorders.

74. A primary criterion for readiness for transition used by the clinics demonstrating successful transition is the absence or resolution of other mental health concerns, such as suicidality. In the popular media, however, indications of mental health concerns are instead often dismissed as an expectable result caused by Sexual Minority Stress (SMS). It is generally implied that such symptoms will resolve

[90] Meyer, 2003.

upon transition and integration into an affirming environment.

V. Assessing Statements from Professional Associations

A. Understanding the Value of Statements from Professional Associations

75. The value of position statements from professional associations should be neither over- nor under-estimated. In the ideal, an organization of licensed health care professionals would convene a panel of experts who would systematically collect all the available evidence about an issue, synthesizing it into recommendations or enforceable standards for clinical care, according to the quality of the evidence for each alternative. For politically neutral issues, with relevant expertise contained among association members, this ideal can be readily achievable. For controversial issues with no clear consensus, the optimal statement would summarize each perspective and explicate the strengths and weaknesses of each, providing relatively reserved recommendations and suggestions for future research that might resolve the continuing questions. Several obstacles can hinder that goal, however. Committees within professional organizations are typically volunteer activities, subject to the same internal politics of all human social structures. That is, committee members are not necessarily committees of experts on a topic—they are often committees of generalists handling a wide variety of issues or members of an interest group who feel strongly about political implications of an issue, instead of scientists engaged in the objective study of the topic.

76. Thus, documents from professional associations may represent required standards, the violation of which may merit sanctions, or may represent only recommendations or guidelines. A document may represent the views of an association's full membership or only of the committee's members (or majorities thereof). Documents may be based on systematic, comprehensive reviews of the available research or selected portions of the research. In sum, the weight best placed

on any association's statement is the amount by which that association employed evidence versus other considerations in its process.

B. Misrepresentations of statements of professional associations.

77. In the presently highly politicized context, official statements of professional associations have been widely misrepresented. In preparing the present report, I searched the professional research literature for documentation of statements from these bodies and from my own files, for which I have been collecting such information for many years. I was able to identify statements from six such organizations. Although not strictly a medical association, the World Professional Association for Transgender Health (WPATH) also distributed a set of guidelines in wide use and on which other organizations' guidelines are based.

78. Notably, despite that all these medical associations reiterate the need for mental health issues to be resolved before engaging in medical transition, only the AACAP members have medical training in mental health. The other medical specialties include clinical participation with this population, but their assistance in transition generally assumes the mental health aspects have already been assessed and treated beforehand.

79. With the broad exception of the AAP, their statements repeatedly noted instead that:

- Desistance of gender dysphoria occurs in the majority of prepubescent children.
- Mental health issues need to be assessed as potentially contributing factors and need to be addressed before transition.
- Puberty-blocking medication is an experimental, not a routine, treatment.
- Social transition is not generally recommended until after puberty.

Although some other associations have published broad statements of moral support for sexual minorities and against discrimination, they did not include any specific standards or guidelines regarding medical- or transition-related care.

1. World Professional Association for Transgender Health (WPATH)

80. The WPATH standards as they relate to prepubescent children begin with the acknowledgement of the known rates of desistance among gender dysphoric children:

> [I]n follow-up studies of prepubertal children (mainly boys) who were referred to clinics for assessment of gender dysphoria, the dysphoria persisted into adulthood for only 6–23% of children (Cohen-Kettenis, 2001; Zucker & Bradley, 1995). Boys in these studies were more likely to identify as gay in adulthood than as transgender (Green, 1987; Money & Russo, 1979; Zucker & Bradley, 1995; Zuger, 1984). Newer studies, also including girls, showed a 12–27% persistence rate of gender dysphoria into adulthood (Drummond, Bradley, Peterson-Badali, & Zucker, 2008; Wallien & Cohen-Kettenis, 2008).[91]

81. That is, "In most children, gender dysphoria will disappear before, or early in, puberty."[92]

82. Although WPATH does not refer to puberty blocking medications as "experimental," the document indicates the non-routine, or at least inconsistent availability of the treatment:

> Among adolescents who are referred to gender identity clinics, the number considered eligible for early medical treatment—starting with GnRH analogues to suppress puberty in the first Tanner stages—differs among countries and centers. Not all clinics offer puberty suppression. If such treatment is offered, the pubertal stage at which adolescents are allowed to start varies from Tanner stage 2 to stage 4 (Delemarre-van de Waal & Cohen-Kettenis, 2006; Zucker et al., [2012]).[93]

83. WPATH neither endorses nor proscribes social transitions before puberty, instead recognizing the diversity among families' decisions:

> Social transitions in early childhood do occur within some families with early success. This is a controversial issue, and divergent views are held by health professionals. The current evidence base is insufficient to predict the long-term outcomes of completing a gender role transition during early childhood.[94]

84. It does caution, however, "Relevant in this respect are the previously described relatively low persistence rates of childhood gender dysphoria."[95]

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91 Coleman, *et al.*, 2012, at 172.
92 Coleman, *et al.*, 2012, at 173.
93 Coleman, *et al.*, 2012, at 173.
94 Coleman, *et al.*, 2012, at 176.
95 Coleman, *et al.*, 2012, at 176 (quoting Drummond, *et al.*, 2008; Wallien & Cohen-Kettenis, 2008).

85. The WPATH standards have been subjected to standardized evaluation, the Appraisal of Guidelines for Research and Evaluation ("AGREE II") method, as part of an appraisal of all published Clinical Practice Guidelines (CPGs) regarding sex and gender minority healthcare.[96] Utilizing community stakeholders to set domain priorities for the evaluation, the assessment concluded that the guidelines regarding HIV and its prevention were of high quality, but that "[t]ransition-related CPGs tended to lack methodological rigour and rely on patchier, lower-quality primary research."[97] The WPATH guidelines were recommended for use. Indeed, the WPATH guidelines received unanimous ratings of "Do not recommend."[98]

86. Finally, it should be noted that WPATH is in stark opposition to international standards: Public healthcare systems throughout the world have instead been ending the practice of medical transition of minors, responding to the increasingly recognized risks associated with hormonal interventions and the now clear lack of evidence that medical transition was benefitting most children, as opposed to the mental health counseling accompanying transition.

2. Endocrine Society (ES)

87. The 150,000-member Endocrine Society appointed a nine-member task force, plus a methodologist and a medical writer, who commissioned two systematic reviews of the research literature and, in 2017, published an update of their 2009 recommendations, based on the best available evidence identified. The guideline was co-sponsored by the American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists, American Society of Andrology, European Society for Paediatric Endocrinology, European Society of Endocrinology, Pediatric Endocrine Society (PES), and the World Professional Association for Transgender Health (WPATH).

88. The document acknowledged the frequency of desistance among gender

96 Dahlen, *et al.,* 2021.
97 Dahlen, *et al.*, 2021, at 6.
98 Dahlen, *et al.,* 2021, at 7.

dysphoric children:

> Prospective follow-up studies show that childhood GD/gender incongruence does not invariably persist into adolescence and adulthood (so-called "desisters"). Combining all outcome studies to date, the GD/gender incongruence of a minority of prepubertal children appears to persist in adolescence. . . . In adolescence, a significant number of these desisters identify as homosexual or bisexual.[99]

89. The statement similarly acknowledges inability to predict desistance or persistence, "With current knowledge, we cannot predict the psychosexual outcome for any specific child."[100]

90. Although outside their area of professional expertise, mental health issues were also addressed by the Endocrine Society, repeating the need to handle such issues before engaging in transition, "In cases in which severe psychopathology, circumstances, or both seriously interfere with the diagnostic work or make satisfactory treatment unlikely, clinicians should assist the adolescent in managing these other issues."[101] This ordering—to address mental health issues before embarking on transition—avoids relying on the unproven belief that transition will solve such issues.

91. The Endocrine Society did not endorse any affirmation-only approach. The guidelines were neutral with regard to social transitions before puberty, instead advising that such decisions be made only under clinical supervision: "We advise that decisions regarding the social transition of prepubertal youth are made with the assistance of a mental health professional or similarly experienced professional."[102]

92. The Endocrine Society guidelines make explicit that, after gathering information from adolescent clients seeking medical interventions and their parents, the clinician "provides correct information to prevent unrealistically high expectations [and] assesses whether medical interventions may result in unfavorable

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99 Hembree, *et al.*, 2017, at 3876.
100 Hembree, *et al.*, 2017, at 3876.
101 Hembree, *et al.*, 2017, at 3877.
102 Hembree, *et al.*, 2017, at 3872.

psychological and social outcomes."[103]

3. Pediatric Endocrine Society and Endocrine Society (ES/PES)

93. In 2020, the 1500-member Pediatric Endocrine Society partnered with the Endocrine Society to create and endorse a brief, two-page position statement.[104] Although strongly worded, the document provided no specific guidelines, instead deferring to the Endocrine Society guidelines.[105]

94. It is not clear to what extent this endorsement is meaningful, however. According to the PES, the Endocrine Society "recommendations include evidence that treatment of gender dysphoria/gender incongruence is medically necessary and should be covered by insurance."[106] However, the Endocrine Society makes neither statement. Although the two-page PES document mentioned insurance coverage four times, the only mention of health insurance by the Endocrine Society was: "If GnRH analog treatment is not available (insurance denial, prohibitive cost, or other reasons), postpubertal, transgender female adolescents may be treated with an antiandrogen that directly suppresses androgen synthesis or action."[107] Despite the PES asserting it as "medically necessary," the Endocrine Society stopped short of that. Its only use of that phrase was instead limiting: "We recommend that a patient pursue genital gender-affirming surgery only after the MHP and the clinician responsible for endocrine transition therapy both agree that surgery is medically necessary and would benefit the patient's overall health and/or well-being."[108]

4. American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry (AACAP)

95. The 2012 statement of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry (AACAP) is not an affirmation-only policy. It notes:

Just as family rejection is associated with problems such as depression,

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103 Hembree, *et al.*, 2017, at 3877.
104 PES, online; Pediatric Endocrine Society & Endocrine Society, Dec. 2020.
105 Pediatric Endocrine Society & Endocrine Society, Dec. 2020, at 1; Hembree, *et al.*, 2017.
106 Pediatric Endocrine Society & Endocrine Society, Dec. 2020, at 1.
107 Hembree, *et al.* 2017, at 3883.
108 Hembree, *et al.*, 2017 at 3872, 3894.

> suicidality, and substance abuse in gay youth, the proposed benefits of treatment to eliminate gender discordance in youth must be carefully weighed against such possible deleterious effects. . . . In general, it is desirable to help adolescents who may be experiencing gender distress and dysphoria to defer sex reassignment until adulthood, or at least until the wish to change sex is unequivocal, consistent, and made with appropriate consent.[109]

96. The AACAP's language repeats the description of the use of puberty blockers only as an exception: "For situations in which deferral of sex reassignment decisions until adulthood is *not clinically feasible*, one approach that has been described in case series is sex hormone suppression under endocrinological management with psychiatric consultation using gonadotropin-releasing hormone analogues."[110]

97. The AACAP statement acknowledges the long-term outcomes literature for gender dysphoric children: "In follow-up studies of prepubertal boys with gender discordance—including many without any mental health treatment—the cross gender wishes usually fade over time and do not persist into adulthood,"[111] adding that "[c]linicians should be aware of current evidence on the natural course of gender discordance and associated psychopathology in children and adolescents in choosing the treatment goals and modality."[112]

98. The policy similarly includes a provision for resolving mental health issues: "Gender reassignment services are available in conjunction with mental health services focusing on exploration of gender identity, cross-sex treatment wishes, counseling during such treatment if any, and *treatment of associated mental health problems*."[113] The document also includes minority stress issues and the need to deal with mental health aspects of minority status (*e.g.*, bullying).[114]

99. Rather than endorse social transition for prepubertal children, the AACAP

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[109] Adelson & AACAP, 2012, at 969.
[110] Adelson & AACAP, 2012, at 969 (italics added).
[111] Adelson & AACAP, 2012, at 963.
[112] Adelson & AACAP, 2012, at 968.
[113] Adelson & AACAP, 2012, at 970 (italics added).
[114] Adelson & AACAP, 2012, at 969.

indicates: "There is similarly no data at present from controlled studies to guide clinical decisions regarding the risks and benefits of sending gender discordant children to school in their desired gender. Such decisions must be made based on clinical judgment, bearing in mind the potential risks and benefits of doing so."[115]

5. American College of Obstetricians & Gynecologists (ACOG)

100. The American College of Obstetricians & Gynecologists (ACOG) published a "Committee Opinion" expressing recommendations in 2017. The statement indicates it was developed by the ACOG's Committee on Adolescent Health Care, but does not indicate participation based on professional expertise or a systematic method of objectively assessing the existing research. It includes the disclaimer: "This document reflects emerging clinical and scientific advances as of the date issued and is subject to change. The information should not be construed as dictating an exclusive course of treatment or procedure to be followed."[116]

101. Prepubertal children do not typically have clinical contact with gynecologists, and the ACOG recommendations include that the client additionally have a primary health care provider.[117]

102. The ACOG statement cites the statements made by other medical associations—European Society for Pediatric Endocrinology (ESPE),, PES, and the Endocrine Society—and by WPATH.[118] It does not cite any professional association of *mental* health care providers, however. The ACOG recommendations repeat the previously mentioned eligibility/readiness criteria of having no mental illness that would hamper diagnosis and no medical contraindications to treatment. It notes: "*Before* any treatment is undertaken, the patient must display eligibility and readiness (Table 1), meaning that the adolescent has been evaluated by a mental

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115 Adelson & AACAP, 2012, at 969.
116 ACOG, 2017, at 1.
117 ACOG, 2017, at 1.
118 ACOG, 2017, at 1, 3.

health professional, has no contraindications to therapy, and displays an understanding of the risks involved."[119]

103. The "Eligibility and Readiness Criteria" also include, "Diagnosis established for gender dysphoria, transgender, transsexualism."[120] This standard, requiring a formal diagnosis, forestalls affirmation-on-demand because self-declared self-identification is not sufficient for DSM diagnosis.

104. ACOG's remaining recommendations pertain only to post-transition, medically oriented concerns. Pre-pubertal social transition is not mentioned in the document, and the outcomes studies of gender dysphoric (prepubescent) children are not cited.

6. American College of Physicians (ACP)

105. The American College of Physicians published a position paper broadly expressing support for the treatment of LGBT patients and their families, including nondiscrimination, antiharassment, and defining "family" by emotional rather than biological or legal relationships in visitation policies, and the inclusion of transgender health care services in public and private health benefit plans.[121]

106. ACP did not provide guidelines or standards for child or adult gender transitions. The policy paper opposed attempting "reparative therapy;" however, the paper confabulated sexual orientation with gender identity in doing so. That is, on the one hand, ACP explicitly recognized that "[s]exual orientation and gender identity are inherently different."[122] It based this statement on the fact that "the American Psychological Association conducted a literature review of 83 studies on the efficacy of efforts to change *sexual orientation*."[123] The APA's document, entitled "Report of the American Psychological Task Force on appropriate therapeutic responses to

[119] ACOG, 2017, at 1, 3 (citing the Endocrine Society guidelines) (italics added).
[120] ACOG, 2017, at 3 Table 1.
[121] Daniel & Butkus, 2015a, 2015b.
[122] Daniel & Butkus, 2015b, at 2.
[123] Daniel & Butkus, 2015b, at 8 (italics added).

sexual orientation" does not include or reference research on gender identity.[124] Despite citing no research about transgenderism, the ACP nonetheless included in its statement: "Available research does not support the use of reparative therapy as an effective method in the treatment of LGB*T* persons."[125] That is, the inclusion of "T" with "LGB" is based on something other than the existing evidence.

107. There is another statement,[126] which was funded by ACP and published in the Annals of Internal Medicine under its "*In the Clinic*" feature, noting that "'In the Clinic' does not necessarily represent official ACP clinical policy."[127] The document discusses medical transition procedures for adults rather than for children, except to note that "[n]o medical intervention is indicated for prepubescent youth,"[128] that a "mental health provider can assist the child and family with identifying an appropriate time for a social transition,"[129] and that the "child should be assessed and managed for coexisting mood disorders during this period because risk for suicide is higher than in their cisgender peers."[130]

7. American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP)

108. The policy of the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) is unique among the major medical associations in being the only one to endorse an affirmation-on-demand policy, including social transition before puberty without any watchful waiting period. Although changes in recommendations can obviously be appropriate in response to new research evidence, the AAP provided none. Rather, the research studies AAP cited in support of its policy simply did not say what AAP claimed they did. In fact, the references that AAP cited as the basis of their policy instead outright contradicted that policy, repeatedly endorsing watchful waiting.[131] Moreover, of all

[124] APA, 2009 (italics added).
[125] Daniel & Butkus, 2015b, at 8 (italics added).
[126] Safer & Tangpricha, 2019.
[127] Safer & Tangpricha, 2019, at ITC1.
[128] Safer & Tangpricha, 2019, at ITC9.
[129] Safer & Tangpricha, 2019, at ITC9.
[130] Safer & Tangpricha, 2019, at ITC9.
[131] Cantor, 2020.

the outcomes research published, the AAP policy cited *one*, and that without mentioning the outcome data it contained.[132].

109. Immediately following the publication of the AAP policy, I conducted a point-by-point fact-check of the claims it asserted and the references it cited in support. I submitted that to the *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy*, a well-known research journal of my field, where it underwent blind peer review and was published. I append that article as part of this report. *See* Appendix 2. A great deal of published attention ensued; however, the AAP has yet to respond to the errors I demonstrated its policy contained. Writing for *The Economist* about the use of puberty blockers, Helen Joyce asked AAP directly, "Has the AAP responded to Dr Cantor? If not, have you any response now?" The AAP Media Relations Manager, Lisa Black, responded: "We do not have anyone available for comment."

8. The ESPE-LWPES GnRH Analogs Consensus Conference Group

110. Included in the interest of completeness, there was also a collaborative report in 2009, between the European Society for Pediatric Endocrinology (ESPE) and the Lawson Wilkins Pediatric Endocrine Society (LWPES).[133] Thirty experts were convened, evenly divided between North American and European labs and evenly divided male/female, who comprehensively rated the research literature on gonadotropin-release hormone analogs in children.

111. The effort concluded that "[u]se of gonadotropin-releasing hormone analogs for conditions other than central precocious puberty requires additional investigation and cannot be suggested routinely."[134] However, gender dysphoria was not explicitly mentioned as one of those other conditions.

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[132] Cantor, 2020, at 1.
[133] Carel et al., 2009.
[134] Carel et al. 2009, at 752.

VI. International Health Care Consensus

1. United Kingdom

112. The National Health Service (NHS) of the United Kingdom centralizes gender counselling and transitioning services in a single clinic, the Gender Identity Development Service (GIDS) of the Tavistock and Portman NHS Foundation Trust. Between 2008 and 2018, the number of referrals to the clinic had increased by a factor of 40, leading to a government inquiry into the causes[135]. The GIDS was repeatedly accused of over-diagnosing and permitting transition in cases despite indicators against patient transition, including by 35 members of the GIDS staff, who resigned by 2019[136].

113. The NHS appointed Dr. Hilary Cass, former President of the Royal College of Paediatrics and Child Health, to conduct an independent review[137]. That review included a systematic consolidation of all the research evidence, following established procedures for preventing the "cherry-picking" or selective citation favouring or down-playing any one conclusion[138]. The review's results were unambiguous: "The critical outcomes for decision making are the impact on gender dysphoria, mental health and quality of life. The quality of evidence for these outcomes was assessed as very low"[139], again using established procedures for assessing clinical research evidence (called GRADE). The review also assessed as "very low" the quality of evidence regarding "body image, psychosocial impact, engagement with health care services, impact on extent of an satisfaction with surgery and stopping treatment"[140]. The report concluded that of the existing research, "The studies included in this evidence review are all small, uncontrolled observational studies, which are subject to bias and confounding….They suggest little change with GnRH analogues [puberty

135 Marsh, 2020; Rayner, 2018.
136 BBC, 2021; Donnelly, 2019.
137 National Health Service, 2020, Sept. 22.
138 National Institute for Health and Care Excellence, 2020.
139 National Institute for Health and Care Excellence, 2020, p. 4.
140 National Institute for Health and Care Excellence, 2020, p. 5.

blockers] from baseline to follow-up"[141].

2. Finland

114. In Finland, the assessments of mental health and preparedness of minors for transition services are centralized by law into two research clinics, Helsinki University Central Hospital and Tampere University Hospital. The eligibility of minors began in 2011. In 2019, Finnish researchers published an analysis of the outcomes of adolescents diagnosed with transsexualism and receiving cross-sex hormone treatment[142]. That study showed that despite the purpose of medical transition to improve mental health: "Medical gender reassignment is not enough to improve functioning and relieve psychiatric comorbidities among adolescents with gender dysphoria. Appropriate interventions are warranted for psychiatric comorbidities and problems in adolescent development"[143]. The patients who were functioning well after transition were those who were already functioning well before transition, and those who were functioning poorly, continued to function poorly after transition.

115. Consistent with the evidence, Finland's health care service (Council for Choices in Health Care in Finland—COHERE) thus ended the surgical transition of minors, ruling in 2020 that "Surgical treatments are not part of the treatment methods for dysphoria caused by gender-related conflicts in minors" (COHERE, 2020). The review of the research concluded that "[N]o conclusions can be drawn on the stability of gender identity during the period of disorder caused by a psychiatric illness with symptoms that hamper development." COHERE also greatly restricted access to puberty-blocking and other hormonal treatments, indicating they "may be considered if the need for it continues *after* the other psychiatric symptoms have

141 National Institute for Health and Care Excellence, 2020, p. 13.
142 Kaltiala et al., 2020.
143 Kaltiala et al., 2020, p. 213.

ceased and adolescent development is progressing normally"[144]. The council was explicit in noting the lack of research needed for decision-making, "There is also a need for more information on the *disadvantages* of procedures and on people who regret them"[145].

3. Sweden

116. Sweden's national health care policy regarding trans issues has developed quite similarly to that of the UK. Already in place 20 years ago, Swedish health care policy permitted otherwise eligible minors to receive puberty-blockers beginning at age 14 and cross-sex hormones at age 16.) At that time, only small numbers of minors sought medical transition services. An explosion of referrals ensued in 2013–2014. Sweden's Board of Health and Welfare reported that, in 2018, the number of diagnoses of gender dysphoria was 15 times higher than 2008 among girls ages 13–17.

117. Sweden has long been very accepting with regard to sexual and gender diversity. In 2018, a law was proposed to lower the age of eligibility for surgical care from age 18 to 15, remove the requirement for parental consent, and lower legal change of gender to age 12. A series of cases of regret and suicide were reported in the Swedish media, leading to questions of mental health professionals failing to consider. In 2019, the Swedish Agency for Health Technology Assessment and Assessment of Social Services (SBU) therefore conducted its own comprehensive review of the research[146]. Like the UK, the Swedish investigation employed methods to ensure the encapsulation of the all the relevant evidence[147].

118. The SBU report came to the same conclusions as the UK commission. From 2022 forward, the Swedish National Board or Health and Welfare therefore

144 Council for Choices in Health Care in Finland, 2020; italics added.
145 Council for Choices in Health Care in Finland, 2020; italics added.
146 Orange, 2020, Feb 22.
147 Swedish Agency for Health Technology Assessment and Assessment of Social Services, 2019.

"recommends restraint when it comes to hormone treatment…Based on the results that have emerged, the National Board of Health and Welfare's overall conclusion is that the risks of anti-puberty and sex-confirming hormone treatment for those under 18 currently outweigh the possible benefits for the group as a whole"[148]. Neither puberty blockers nor cross-sex hormones would be provided under age 16, and patients ages 16–18 would receive such treatments only within research settings (clinical trials monitored by the appropriate Swedish research ethics board).

4. France

119. In 2022, the Académie Nationale de Médecine of France issued a strongly worded statement, citing the Swedish ban on hormone treatments. "[A] great medical caution must be taken in children and adolescents, given the vulnerability, particularly psychological, of this population and the many undesirable effects, and even serious complications, that some of the available therapies can cause…such as impact on growth, bone fragility, risk of sterility, emotional and intellectual consequences and, for girls, symptoms reminiscent of menopause"[149]. For hormones, the Académie concluded "the greatest reserve is required in their use," and for surgical treatments, "[T]heir irreversible nature must be emphasized." The Académie did not outright ban medical interventions, but warned "the risk of over-diagnosis is real, as shown by the increasing number of transgender young adults wishing to "detransition". Rather than medical interventions, it advised health care providers "to extend as much as possible the psychological support phase." The Académie reviewed and emphasized the evidence indicating the very large and very sudden increase in youth requesting medical transition. It attributed the change, not to society now being more accepting of sexual diversity, but to social media, "underlining the addictive character of excessive consultation of social networks which is both

148 Swedish National Board of Health and Welfare, 2022.
149 Académie Nationale de Médecine, 2022, Feb. 25.

harmful to the psychological development of young people and responsible, for a very important part, of the growing sense of gender incongruence."

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

The Outcomes Studies of Childhood-Onset Gender Dysphoria

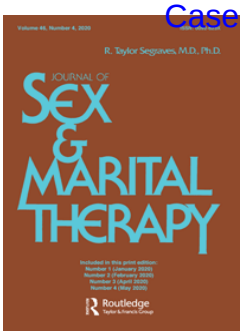
Appendix 2

Peer-reviewed article:

Cantor, J. M. (2020). Transgender and gender diverse children and adolescents: Fact-checking of AAP policy. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy, 46,* 307–313. doi: 10.1080/0092623X.2019.1698481

Prospective Outcomes Studies of Gender Dysphoric Children

2/16 4/16 10/16	gay trans-/crossdress straight/uncertain	Lebovitz, P. S. (1972). Feminine behavior in boys: Aspects of its outcome. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 128,* 1283–1289.
2/16 2/16 12/16	trans- uncertain gay	Zuger, B. (1978). Effeminate behavior present in boys from childhood: Ten additional years of follow-up. *Comprehensive Psychiatry, 19, 363–369.*
0/9 9/9	trans- gay	Money, J., & Russo, A. J. (1979). Homosexual outcome of discordant gender identity/role: Longitudinal follow-up. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology, 4,* 29–41.
2/45 10/45 33/45	trans-/crossdress uncertain gay	Zuger, B. (1984). Early effeminate behavior in boys: Outcome and significance for homosexuality. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 172,* 90–97.
1/10 2/10 3/10 4/10	trans- gay uncertain straight	Davenport, C. W. (1986). A follow-up study of 10 feminine boys. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 15,*511–517.
1/44 43/44	trans- cis-	Green, R. (1987). *The "sissy boy syndrome" and the development of homosexuality*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
0/8 8/8	trans- cis-	Kosky, R. J. (1987). Gender-disordered children: Does inpatient treatment help? *Medical Journal of Australia, 146,* 565–569.
21/54 33/54	trans- cis-	Wallien, M. S. C., & Cohen-Kettenis, P. T. (2008). Psychosexual outcome of gender-dysphoric children. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 47,* 1413–1423.
3/25 6/25 16/25	trans- lesbian/bi- straight	Drummond, K. D., Bradley, S. J., Badali-Peterson, M., & Zucker, K. J. (2008). A follow-up study of girls with gender identity disorder. *Developmental Psychology, 44*, 34–45.
47/127 80/127	trans- cis-	Steensma, T. D., McGuire, J. K., Kreukels, B. P. C., Beekman, A. J., & Cohen-Kettenis, P. T. (2013). Factors associated with desistence and persistence of childhood gender dysphoria: A quantitative follow-up study. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 52,* 582–590.
17/139 122/139	trans- cis-	Singh, D., Bradley, S. J., and Zucker, K. J. (2021) A follow-up study of boys with gender identity disorder. Frontiers in Psychiatry, 12, 632784. doi: 10.3389/fpsyt.2021.632784



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Transgender and Gender Diverse Children and Adolescents: Fact-Checking of AAP Policy

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ABSTRACT

The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) recently published a policy statement: *Ensuring comprehensive care and support for transgender and gender-diverse children and adolescents*. Although almost all clinics and professional associations in the world use what's called the *watchful waiting* approach to helping gender diverse (GD) children, the AAP statement instead rejected that consensus, endorsing *gender affirmation* as the only acceptable approach. Remarkably, not only did the AAP statement fail to include any of the actual outcomes literature on such cases, but it also misrepresented the contents of its citations, which repeatedly said the very opposite of what AAP attributed to them.

The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) recently published a policy statement entitled, *Ensuring comprehensive care and support for transgender and gender-diverse children and adolescents* (Rafferty, AAP Committee on Psychosocial Aspects of Child and Family Health, AAP Committee on Adolescence, AAP Section on Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Health and Wellness, 2018). These are children who manifest discontent with the sex they were born as and desire to live as the other sex (or as some alternative gender role). The policy was quite a remarkable document: Although almost all clinics and professional associations in the world use what's called the *watchful waiting* approach to helping transgender and gender diverse (GD) children, the AAP statement rejected that consensus, endorsing only *gender affirmation*. That is, where the consensus is to delay any transitions after the onset of puberty, AAP instead rejected waiting before transition. With AAP taking such a dramatic departure from other professional associations, I was immediately curious about what evidence led them to that conclusion. As I read the works on which they based their policy, however, I was pretty surprised—rather alarmed, actually: These documents simply did not say what AAP claimed they did. In fact, the references that AAP cited as the basis of their policy instead outright contradicted that policy, repeatedly endorsing *watchful waiting*.

The AAP statement was also remarkable in what it left out—namely, the actual outcomes research on GD children. In total, there have been 11 follow-up studies of GD children, of which AAP cited one (Wallien & Cohen-Kettenis, 2008), doing so without actually mentioning the outcome data it contained. The literature on outcomes was neither reviewed, summarized, nor subjected to meta-analysis to be considered in the aggregate—It was merely disappeared. (The list of all existing studies appears in the appendix.) As they make clear, *every* follow-up study of GD children, without exception, found the same thing: Over puberty, the majority of GD children cease to want to transition. AAP is, of course, free to establish whatever policy it likes on

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whatever basis it likes. But any assertion that their policy is based on evidence is demonstrably false, as detailed below.

AAP divided clinical approaches into three types—conversion therapy, watchful waiting, and gender affirmation. It rejected the first two and endorsed *gender affirmation* as the only acceptable alternative. Most readers will likely be familiar already with attempts to use conversion therapy to change sexual orientation. With regard to gender identity, AAP wrote:

> "[C]onversion" or "reparative" treatment models are used to prevent children and adolescents from identifying as transgender or to dissuade them from exhibiting gender-diverse expressions. … Reparative approaches have been proven to be not only unsuccessful[38] but also deleterious and are considered outside the mainstream of traditional medical practice.[29,39–42]

The citations were:

38. Haldeman DC. The practice and ethics of sexual orientation conversion therapy. *J Consult Clin Psychol.* 1994;62(2):221–227.

29. Adelson SL; American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry (AACAP) Committee on Quality Issues (CQI). Practice parameter on gay, lesbian, or bisexual sexual orientation, gender nonconformity, and gender discordance in children and adolescents. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry.* 2012;51(9):957–974.

39. Byne W. Regulations restrict practice of conversion therapy. *LGBT Health.* 2016;3(2):97–99.

40. Cohen-Kettenis PT, Delemarrevan de Waal HA, Gooren LJ. The treatment of adolescent transsexuals: changing insights. *J Sex Med.* 2008;5(8):1892–1897.

41. Bryant K. Making gender identity disorder of childhood: historical lessons for contemporary debates. *Sex Res Soc Policy.* 2006;3(3):23–39.

42. World Professional Association for Transgender Health. *WPATH De-Psychopathologisation Statement.* Minneapolis, MN: World Professional Association for Transgender Health; 2010.

AAP's claims struck me as odd because *there are no studies of conversion therapy for gender identity*. Studies of conversion therapy have been limited to *sexual orientation,* and, moreover, to the sexual orientation *of adults,* not to gender identity and not of children in any case. The article AAP cited to support their claim (reference number 38) is indeed a classic and well-known review, but it is a review of sexual orientation research *only*. Neither gender identity, nor even children, received a single mention in it. Indeed, the narrower scope of that article should be clear to anyone reading even just its title: "The practice and ethics of *sexual orientation* conversion therapy" [italics added].

AAP continued, saying that conversion approaches for GD children have already been rejected by medical consensus, citing five sources. This claim struck me as just as odd, however—I recalled associations banning conversion therapy for sexual orientation, but not for gender identity, exactly because there is no evidence for generalizing from adult sexual orientation to childhood gender identity. So, I started checking AAP's citations for that, and these sources too pertained only to sexual orientation, not gender identity (specifics below). What AAP's sources *did* repeatedly emphasize was that:

A. Sexual orientation of adults is unaffected by conversion therapy and any other [known] intervention;
B. Gender dysphoria in childhood before puberty desists in the majority of cases, becoming (cis-gendered) homosexuality in adulthood, again regardless of any [known] intervention; and
C. Gender dysphoria in childhood persisting after puberty tends to persist entirely.

That is, in the context of GD children, it simply makes no sense to refer to externally induced "conversion": The majority of children "convert" to cisgender or "desist" from transgender

regardless of any attempt to change them. "Conversion" only makes sense with regard to adult sexual orientation because (unlike childhood gender identity), adult homosexuality never or nearly never spontaneously changes to heterosexuality. Although gender identity and sexual orientation may often be analogous and discussed together with regard to social or political values and to civil rights, they are nonetheless distinct—with distinct origins, needs, and responses to medical and mental health care choices. Although AAP emphasized to the reader that "gender identity is not synonymous with 'sexual orientation'" (Rafferty et al., 2018, p. 3), they went ahead to treat them as such nonetheless.

To return to checking AAP's fidelity to its sources: Reference 29 was a practice guideline from the Committee on Quality Issues of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry (AACAP). Despite AAP applying this source to *gender identity,* AACAP was quite unambiguous regarding their intent to speak to sexual orientation and *only* to sexual orientation: "Principle 6. Clinicians should be aware that there is no evidence that *sexual orientation* can be altered through therapy, and that attempts to do so may be harmful. There is no established evidence that change in a predominant, enduring *homosexual* pattern of development is possible. Although sexual fantasies can, to some degree, be suppressed or repressed by those who are ashamed of or in conflict about them, sexual desire is not a choice. However, behavior, social role, and—to a degree—identity and self-acceptance are. Although operant conditioning modifies sexual fetishes, it does not alter *homosexuality*. Psychiatric efforts to alter *sexual orientation* through 'reparative therapy' *in adults* have found little or no change in *sexual orientation,* while causing significant risk of harm to self-esteem" (AACAP, 2012, p. 967, italics added).

Whereas AAP cites AACAP to support gender affirmation as the only alternative for treating GD children, AACAP's actual view was decidedly neutral, noting the lack of evidence: "Given the lack of empirical evidence from randomized, controlled trials of the efficacy of treatment aimed at eliminating gender discordance, the potential risks of treatment, and longitudinal evidence that gender discordance persists in only a small minority of untreated cases arising in childhood, further research is needed on predictors of persistence and desistence of childhood gender discordance as well as the long-term risks and benefits of intervention before any treatment to eliminate gender discordance can be endorsed" (AACAP, 2012, p. 969). Moreover, whereas AAP rejected watchful waiting, what AACAP recommended was: "In general, it is desirable to help adolescents who may be experiencing gender distress and dysphoria to defer sex reassignment until adulthood" (AACAP, 2012, p. 969). So, not only did AAP attribute to AACAP something AACAP never said, but also AAP withheld from readers AACAP's actual view.

Next, in reference 39, Byne (2016) also addressed only sexual orientation, doing so very clearly: "Reparative therapy is a subset of conversion therapies based on the premise that *same-sex attraction* are reparations for childhood trauma. Thus, practitioners of reparative therapy believe that exploring, isolating, and repairing these childhood emotional wounds will often result in reducing *same-sex attractions*" (Byne, 2016, p. 97). Byne does not say this of gender identity, as the AAP statement misrepresents.

In AAP reference 40, Cohen-Kettenis et al. (2008) did finally pertain to gender identity; however, this article never mentions conversion therapy. (!) Rather, in this study, the authors presented that clinic's lowering of their minimum age for cross-sex hormone treatment from age 18 to 16, which they did on the basis of a series of studies showing the high rates of success with this age group. Although it did strike me as odd that AAP picked as support against conversion therapy an article that did not mention conversion therapy, I could imagine AAP cited the article as an example of what the "mainstream of traditional medical practice" consists of (the logic being that conversion therapy falls outside what an 'ideal' clinic like this one provides). However, what this clinic provides is the very *watchful waiting* approach that AAP rejected. The approach

espoused by Cohen-Kettenis (and the other clinics mentioned in the source—Gent, Boston, Oslo, and now formerly, Toronto) is to make puberty-halting interventions available at age 12 because: "[P]ubertal suppression may give adolescents, together with the attending health professional, more time to explore their gender identity, without the distress of the developing secondary sex characteristics. The precision of the diagnosis may thus be improved" (Cohen-Kettenis et al., 2008, p. 1894).

Reference 41 presented a very interesting history spanning the 1960s–1990s about how feminine boys and tomboyish girls came to be recognized as mostly pre-homosexual, and how that status came to be entered into the DSM at the same time as homosexuality was being *removed* from the DSM. Conversion therapy is never mentioned. Indeed, to the extent that Bryant mentions treatment at all, it is to say that treatment is entirely irrelevant to his analysis: "An important omission from the *DSM* is a discussion of the kinds of treatment that GIDC children should receive. (This omission is a general orientation of the DSM and not unique to GIDC)" (Bryant, 2006, p. 35). How this article supports AAP's claim is a mystery. Moreover, how AAP could cite a 2006 history discussing events of the 1990s and earlier to support a claim about the *current* consensus in this quickly evolving discussion remains all the more unfathomable.

Cited last in this section was a one-paragraph press release from the World Professional Association for Transgender Health. Written during the early stages of the American Psychiatric Association's (APA's) update of the DSM, the statement asserted simply that "The WPATH Board of Directors strongly urges the de-psychopathologisation of gender variance worldwide." Very reasonable debate can (and should) be had regarding whether gender dysphoria should be removed from the DSM as homosexuality was, and WPATH was well within its purview to assert that it should. Now that the DSM revision process is years completed however, history has seen that APA ultimately retained the diagnostic categories, rejecting WPATH's urging. This makes AAP's logic entirely backwards: That WPATH's request to depathologize gender dysphoria was *rejected* suggests that it is *WPATH's* view—and therefore the AAP policy—which fall "outside the mainstream of traditional medical practice." (!)

AAP based this entire line of reasoning on their belief that conversion therapy is being used "to prevent children and adolescents from identifying as transgender" (Rafferty et al., 2018, p. 4). That claim is left without citation or support. In contrast, what is said by AAP's sources is "delaying affirmation should *not* be construed as conversion therapy or an attempt to change gender identity" in the first place (Byne, 2016, p. 2). Nonetheless, AAP seems to be doing exactly that: simply relabeling any alternative approach as equivalent to conversion therapy.

Although AAP (and anyone else) may reject (what they label to be) conversion therapy purely on the basis of political or personal values, there is no evidence to back the AAP's stated claim about the existing science on gender identity at all, never mind gender identity of children.

AAP also dismissed the watchful waiting approach out of hand, not citing any evidence, but repeatedly calling it "outdated." The criticisms AAP provided, however, again defied the existing evidence, with even its own sources repeatedly calling watchful waiting the current standard. According to AAP:

> [G]ender affirmation is in contrast to the outdated approach in which a child's gender-diverse assertions are held as "possibly true" until an arbitrary age (often after pubertal onset) when they can be considered valid, an approach that authors of the literature have termed "watchful waiting." This outdated approach does not serve the child because critical support is withheld. Watchful waiting is based on binary notions of gender in which gender diversity and fluidity is pathologized; in watchful waiting, it is also assumed that notions of gender identity become fixed at a certain age. The approach is also influenced by a group of early studies with validity concerns, methodologic flaws, and limited follow-up on children who identified as TGD and, by adolescence, did not seek further treatment ("desisters").[45,47]

The citations from AAP's reference list are:

45. Ehrensaft D, Giammattei SV, Storck K, Tishelman AC, Keo-Meier C. Prepubertal social gender transitions: what we know; what we can learn—a view from a gender affirmative lens. *Int J Transgend.* 2018;19(2):251–268

47. Olson KR. Prepubescent transgender children: what we do and do not know. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry.* 2016;55(3):155–156.e3

I was surprised first by the AAP's claim that watchful waiting's delay to puberty was somehow "arbitrary." The literature, including AAP's sources, repeatedly indicated the pivotal importance of puberty, noting that outcomes strongly diverge at that point. According to AAP reference 29, in "*prepubertal* boys with gender discordance—including many without any mental health treatment—the cross gender wishes usually fade over time and do not persist into adulthood, with only 2.2% to 11.9% continuing to experience gender discordance" (Adelson & AACAP, 2012, p. 963, italics added), whereas "when gender variance with the desire to be the other sex is present *in adolescence,* this desire usually does persist through adulthood" (Adelson & AACAP, 2012, p. 964, italics added). Similarly, according to AAP reference 40, "Symptoms of GID *at prepubertal ages* decrease or even disappear in a considerable percentage of children (estimates range from 80–95%). Therefore, any intervention in childhood would seem premature and inappropriate. However, GID persisting *into early puberty* appears to be highly persistent" (Cohen-Kettenis et al., 2008, p. 1895, italics added). That follow-up studies of prepubertal transition differ from postpubertal transition is the very meaning of non-arbitrary. AAP gave readers exactly the reverse of what was contained in its own sources. If AAP were correct in saying that puberty is an arbitrarily selected age, then AAP will be able to offer another point to wait for with as much empirical backing as puberty has.

Next, it was not clear on what basis AAP could say that watchful waiting withholds support—AAP cited no support for its claim. The people in such programs often receive substantial support during this period. Also unclear is on what basis AAP could already know exactly which treatments are "critical" and which are not—Answering that question is the very purpose of this entire endeavor. Indeed, the logic of AAP's claim appears entirely circular: It is only if one were already pre-convinced that gender affirmation is the only acceptable alternative that would make watchful waiting seem to withhold critical support—What it delays is gender affirmation, the method one has already decided to be critical.

Although AAP's next claim did not have a citation appearing at the end of its sentence, binary notions of gender were mentioned both in references 45 and 47. Specifically, both pointed out that existing outcome studies have been about people transitioning from one sex to the other, rather than from one sex to an in-between status or a combination of masculine/feminine features. Neither reference presented this as a reason to reject the results from the existing studies of complete transition however (which is how AAP cast it). Although it is indeed true that the outcome data have been about complete transition, some future study showing that partial transition shows a different outcome would not invalidate what is known about complete transition. Indeed, data showing that partial transition gives better outcomes than complete transition would, once again, support the watchful waiting approach which AAP rejected.

Next was a vague reference alleging concerns and criticisms about early studies. Had AAP indicated what those alleged concerns and flaws were (or which studies they were), then it would be possible to evaluate or address them. Nonetheless, the argument is a red herring: Because all of the later studies showed the same result as did the early studies, any such allegation is necessarily moot.

Reference 47 was a one-and-a-half page commentary in which the author off-handedly mentions criticisms previously made of three of the eleven outcome studies of GD children, but does not provide any analysis or discussion. The only specific claim was that studies (whether early or late) had limited follow-up periods—the logic being that had outcome researchers lengthened the follow-up period, then people who seemed to have desisted might have returned to the clinic as

cases of "persistence-after-interruption." Although one could debate the merits of that prediction, AAP instead simply withheld from the reader the result from the original researchers having tested that very prediction directly: Steensma and Cohen-Kettenis (2015) conducted another analysis of their cohort, by then ages 19–28 (mean age 25.9 years), and found that 3.3% (5 people of the sample of 150) later returned. That is, in long-term follow-up, the childhood sample showed 66.7% desistence instead of 70.0% desistance.

Reference 45 did not support the claim that watchful-waiting is "outdated" either. Indeed, that source said the very opposite, explicitly referring to watchful waiting as the *current* approach: "Put another way, if clinicians are straying from SOC 7 guidelines for social transitions, not abiding by the watchful waiting model *favored by the standards,* we will have adolescents who have been consistently living in their affirmed gender since age 3, 4, or 5" (Ehrensaft et al., 2018, p. 255). Moreover, Ehrensaft et al. said there are cases in which they too would still use watchful waiting: "When a child's gender identity is unclear, the watchful waiting approach can give the child and their family time to develop a clearer understanding and is not necessarily in contrast to the needs of the child" (p. 259). Ehrensaft et al. are indeed critical of the watchful waiting model (which they feel is applied too conservatively), but they do not come close to the position the AAP policy espouses. Where Ehrensaft summaries the potential benefits and potential risks both to transitioning and not transitioning, the AAP presents an ironically binary narrative.

In its policy statement, AAP told neither the truth nor the whole truth, committing sins both of commission and of omission, asserting claims easily falsified by anyone caring to do any fact-checking at all. AAP claimed, "This policy statement is focused specifically on children and youth that identify as TGD rather than the larger LGBTQ population"; however, much of that evidence was about sexual orientation, not gender identity. AAP claimed, "Current available research and expert opinion from clinical and research leaders … will serve as the basis for recommendations" (pp. 1–2); however, they provided recommendations entirely unsupported and even in direct opposition to that research and opinion.

AAP is advocating for something far in excess of mainstream practice and medical consensus. In the presence of compelling evidence, that is just what is called for. The problems with Rafferty, however, do not constitute merely a misquote, a misinterpretation of an ambiguous statement, or a missing reference or two. Rather, AAP's statement is a systematic exclusion and misrepresentation of entire literatures. Not only did AAP fail to provide compelling evidence, it failed to provide the evidence at all. Indeed, AAP's recommendations are *despite* the existing evidence.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author.

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Appendix

Count	Group	Study
2/16 4/16 10/16	gay* trans-/crossdress straight*/uncertain	Lebovitz, P. S. (1972). Feminine behavior in boys: Aspects of its outcome. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 128,* 1283–1289.
2/16 2/16 12/16	trans- uncertain gay	Zuger, B. (1978). Effeminate behavior present in boys from childhood: Ten additional years of follow-up. *Comprehensive Psychiatry, 19,* 363–369.
0/9 9/9	trans- gay	Money, J., & Russo, A. J. (1979). Homosexual outcome of discordant gender identity/role: Longitudinal follow-up. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology, 4,* 29–41.
2/45 10/45 33/45	trans-/crossdress uncertain gay	Zuger, B. (1984). Early effeminate behavior in boys: Outcome and significance for homosexuality. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 172,* 90–97.
1/10 2/10 3/10 4/10	trans- gay uncertain straight	Davenport, C. W. (1986). A follow-up study of 10 feminine boys. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 15,* 511–517.
1/44 43/44	trans- cis-	Green, R. (1987). *The "sissy boy syndrome" and the development of homosexuality*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
0/8 8/8	trans- cis-	Kosky, R. J. (1987). Gender-disordered children: Does inpatient treatment help? *Medical Journal of Australia, 146,* 565–569.
21/54 33/54	trans- cis-	Wallien, M. S. C., & Cohen-Kettenis, P. T. (2008). Psychosexual outcome of gender-dysphoric children. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 47,* 1413–1423.
3/25 6/25 16/25	trans- lesbian/bi- straight	Drummond, K. D., Bradley, S. J., Badali-Peterson, M., & Zucker, K. J. (2008). A follow-up study of girls with gender identity disorder. *Developmental Psychology, 44*, 34–45.
17/139 122/139	trans- cis-	Singh, D. (2012). *A follow-up study of boys with gender identity disorder*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto.
47/127 80/127	trans- cis-	Steensma, T. D., McGuire, J. K., Kreukels, B. P. C., Beekman, A. J., & Cohen-Kettenis, P. T. (2013). Factors associated with desistence and persistence of childhood gender dysphoria: A quantitative follow-up study. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 52,* 582–590.

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

ATTACHMENT E

Concerns about Affirmation of an Incongruent Gender in a Child or Adolescent

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May 17, 2022

Qualifications

I received my B.A. in Science at the College of William and Mary and my M.D. from the Medical College of Virginia, Virginia Commonwealth University. I am currently a pediatric endocrinologist in private practice in Atlanta, Georgia. I am the President of Van Meter Pediatric Endocrinology, P.C. I am on the clinical faculties of Emory University School of Medicine and Morehouse College of Medicine, in the role of adjunct Associate Professor of Pediatrics. I am board certified in Pediatrics and Pediatric Endocrinology. I have been licensed to practice medicine in Georgia since 1991. I have been previously licensed to practice medicine in California, Louisiana, and Maryland.

I did my Pediatric Endocrine fellowship at Johns Hopkins Hospital from 1978-1980. The faculty present at that time had carried on the tradition of excellence established by Lawson Wilkins, M.D. Because of the reputation of the endocrine program as a center for exceptional care for children with disorders of sexual differentiation, I had well-above average exposure to such patients. As a Pediatric Fellow, I was also exposed to adults with Gender Identity Disorder, then called Trans-Sexuality, and received training from John Money, Ph.D., in his Psycho-hormonal Division. Over the past 44 years, I have closely followed the topic of incongruent gender in children adolescents and adults, but I am focusing in this document on working with children and adolescents. To get a more solid understanding of how male and female human beings develop in utero, it is important to start at the point when a sperm meets an egg.

Differentiation in the Fetus

From the moment of conception, a fetus is determined to be either a male (XY), female (XX), or in rare cases, to have a combination of sex-determining chromosomes, many of which are not compatible with life, and some of which are the cause of identifiable clinical syndromes. The presence of a Y chromosome in the developing fetus directs the developing gonadal tissue to develop as a testicle. The absence of a functional Y chromosome allows the gonadal tissue to develop as an ovary. Under the influence of the mother's placental hormones, the testicle will produce testosterone which directs the genital tissue to form a penis and a scrotum. Simultaneously, the testicle produces anti-Müllerian Hormone (AMH) which regresses development of the tissue that would otherwise develop into the uterus, fallopian tubes, and upper third of the vagina. This combination of actions in early fetal development is responsible for what we subsequently see on fetal sonograms, and what we observe at birth as male or female genitalia. It is only when the genital structures are ambiguous in appearance that sex determination is withheld until a thorough expert team evaluation has occurred.

For reasons most often occurring as random events, there are malfunctions of the normal differentiation. These aberrations of normal development are responsible for what we classify as Disorders of Sexual Differentiation (DSD), and they represent a very small fraction of the human population. The incidence of such circumstances occurs in 1:4500 to 1:5500 births.[1] Sex is binary, male or female, and is determined by chromosomal complement and corresponding reproductive role. The exceedingly rare DSDs are all medically identifiable deviations from this sexual binary norm. The 2006 consensus statement of the Intersex Society of North America and the 2015 revision of the Statement do not endorse DSD as a third sex.[2] DSD outcomes range from appearance of female external genitalia in an XY male (complete androgen insensitivity syndrome) to appearance of male external genitalia in an XX female (severe congenital adrenal hyperplasia).

As one would expect, there are variations of the degree of hormonally driven changes that create ambiguous genital development that prevent assigning of a specific classification as either male or female at birth. DSD patients are not "transgender"; they have an objective, physical, medically verifiable, physiologic condition. Transgender people generally do not have intersex conditions or any other verifiable physical anomaly. People who identify as "feeling like the opposite sex" or "somewhere in between" do not comprise a third sex. They remain biological men or biological women.

In some DSDs there exist more than one set of chromosomes. When there is a divergence of the appearance of the external genitalia from the chromosomally determined sex due to the presence of both an ovarian and testicular cell lines in a patient simultaneously, the patient is classified as having ovo-testicular DSD (formerly termed a true hermaphrodite). When there is a disruption in the development of genital structures but there is solely testicular tissue present in the chromosomal male or solely ovarian tissue in the chromosomal female, the term 46 XY DSD or 46 XX DSD is used instead respectively (formerly termed male pseudohermaphrodite or female pseudohermaphrodite).

The decision to assign a sex of rearing is complex and is specific to the diagnosis. Patients with complete androgen insensitivity (CAIS) are XY DSD but are never reared as a male. Because testosterone never influences development, they become happy, functional female adults with infertility. Females with severe congenital adrenal hyperplasia (CAH) are XX DSD but are not reared as males despite the male appearance of the genitalia at birth. Although these girls may show a tendency for male play behaviors as children, they generally assume a female sexual identity. Therapeutic interventions in the DSD individuals from infancy onward are aimed at what function can be expected from their disordered sexual anatomy in terms of function and fertility. Most often, the chromosomal sex aligns with the sex of rearing.

Gender Identity

"Gender" is a term that refers to the psychological and cultural characteristics associated with biological sex. It is a psychological concept and sociological term, not a biological one. The term gender possessed solely a linguistic meaning prior to the 1950s. This changed when sexologists of the 1950s and 1960s co-opted the term to conceptualize cross-dressing and transsexualism in their psychological practice. "Gender identity" is a term coined by my former endocrine faculty member John Money in the 1970s and has come to refer to an individual's mental and emotional sense of being male or female. The norm is for individuals to have a gender identity that aligns with one's biological sex.

Gender discordance (formerly Gender Identity Disorder) is used to describe a psychological condition in which a person experiences marked incongruence between his experienced gender and the gender associated with his biological sex. He will often express the belief that he is the opposite sex. Up until 2010, gender discordance occurred in 0.001% of biological females and in 0.0033% of biological males.[3] Exact numbers are hard to document since reporting is often anecdotal. Gender discordance is not considered a normal developmental variation.

"Gender Dysphoria" is a diagnostic term to describe the emotional distress caused by gender incongruity.[4] John Money played a prominent role in the early development of gender theory and transgenderism. He understood gender to be "the social performance indicative of an internal sexed identity."[5] He joined the Johns Hopkins faculty in 1951 specifically to have access to children diagnosed with DSD, hoping to prove his theory that gender was arbitrary and fluid. Money experimented with DSD infants by assigning them to the opposite biological sex through surgical revision, counseling, and hormonal manipulation during puberty. His mode of operation was to have a theory and then experiment with patients to see how his theory worked.

Ethics in Clinical Research on Human Subjects

It is important to discuss the need for ethics to play a role in the design of clinical studies involving human patients. To have a hypothesis, as did John Money, is not at issue. However, to clearly elucidate the potential for harm and balance that knowledge with the potential benefits is key and essential. After the travesties of open-ended experimentation in the Nazi concentration camps, international guidelines were established to protect human subjects from just such experimentation.[6] John Money ignored these guidelines as he assigned genders to infants and toddlers with ambiguous genitalia. There was no informed consent of the patients, who were infants and toddlers, and their parents were just told to follow the advice of Dr. Money and to trust that he had the correct information. There was no standardized protocol to follow, and no known outcome that could be guaranteed. This kind of endeavor did not anticipate or prevent adverse outcomes and was the antithesis of ethical science. Money never submitted his research proposals for review by an independent external review board. This left the patients unprotected and vulnerable to harm, and, indeed, in the case of the Reimer twins, to death due to drug addiction/overdose in one brother to and suicide in the other.[7]

Near the end of my fellowship training at Johns Hopkins, a male infant was sent to our clinic to assess the cause of his very small penis and testicles. My attending physician and I laid out a diagnostic work-up based on the known science which would help us understand whether the problem was due to a pituitary deficiency or an inability of tissue response to hormones. We purposely left John Money off the care "team," having some serious concerns about his tendency to dismiss science and to experiment. We sent the family home with their son and were quite surprised when the mother returned six weeks later with a baby wearing a pink dress and an eyelet bonnet. Without our knowledge, Dr. Money had intervened and told the family that our protocol was nonsense and the baby needed to be reared as female. On physical exam, there was clear evidence that not only was the baby able to produce testosterone, but his penis responded well, as expected, to the hormone production by his own body. The family was relieved but had not been spared suffering under the experimentation by Dr. Money. They had suffered deeply when they divulged to their extended family that their baby boy was actually a baby girl, and then they suffered even more when they recanted and resumed calling him a boy.

Because of his experience with infants, Money initially garnered support from endocrine colleagues and surgical colleagues, and Johns Hopkins became a renowned center for care of patients with DSD in the 1970s, receiving referrals from around the world. Follow-up studies on these infants later showed, however, that altering their natal sexual identity via social intervention could lead to severe psychological harm. Clinical case reports of children with DSD have revealed that gender identity is indeed not immune to environmental input.[8]

Meanwhile, Money had expanded into the field of adult patients with persistent gender identity disorder. This very small group of patients chose voluntarily, as adults, to enter a very precise protocol which began with living socially as the opposite sex for a year, eventually receiving hormonal therapy to change their physical appearance to some extent. The final step was surgical revision of the body structures that would otherwise be at odds with their desired gender identity. This small group of patients was followed for a number of years past their final surgical procedures and required continuous counseling. These patients expressed some degree of subjective satisfaction but showed no objective improvement in overall wellbeing.[9] The legacy of John Money fell into disrepute and the transsexual treatment program at Johns Hopkin was closed in the 1980s based on the lack of evidence that this protocol produced an effective cure.

Etiology of Gender Disorders

Transgender affirming professionals claim transgender individuals have a "feminized brain" trapped in a male body at birth and vice versa based upon various brain studies. Diffusion-weighted MRI scans have demonstrated that the pubertal testosterone surge in boys increases white matter volume. A study by Rametti and colleagues found that the white matter microstructure of the brains of female-to-male (FtM) transsexual adults, who had not begun testosterone treatment, more closely resembled that of men than that of women.[10] Other

diffusion-weighted MRI studies have concluded that the white matter microstructure in both FtM and male-to-female (MtF) transsexuals falls halfway between that of genetic females and males.[11] These studies, however, are of limited clinical significance due to the small number of subjects and failure to account for neuroplasticity.

Neuroplasticity is the well-established phenomenon in which long-term behavior alters brain microstructure. For example, the MRI scans of experienced cab drivers in London are distinctly different from those of non-cab drivers, and the changes noted are dependent on the years of experience.[12] There is no evidence that people are born with brain microstructures that are forever unalterable, but there is significant evidence that experience changes brain microstructure.[13,14] Therefore, any transgender brain differences would more likely be the result of transgender behavior than its cause.

Furthermore, infants' brains are imprinted prenatally by their own endogenous sex hormones, which are secreted from their gonads beginning at approximately eight weeks' gestation.[15,16,17] There are no published studies documenting MRI-verified differences in the brains of gender-disordered children or adolescents. The DSD guidelines also specifically state that current MRI technology cannot be used to identify those patients who should be raised as males or raised as females.[18] Behavior geneticists have known for decades that while genes and hormones influence behavior, they do not hard-wire a person to think, feel, or behave in a particular way. The science of epigenetics has established that genes are not analogous to rigid "blueprints" for behavior. Rather, humans "develop traits through the dynamic process of gene-environment interaction. ... [genes alone] don't determine who we are." [19]

Regarding transgenderism, twin studies of adults prove definitively that prenatal genetic and hormone influence is minimal. The largest twin study of transgender adults found that only 20 percent of identical twins were both transgender-identified.[20] Since identical twins contain 100 percent of the same DNA from conception and develop in exactly the same prenatal environment exposed to the same prenatal hormones, if genes and/or prenatal hormones contributed to a significant degree to transgenderism, the concordance rates would be close to 100 percent. Instead, 80 percent of identical twin pairs were discordant. This difference would indicate that at least 80 percent of what contributes to transgenderism as an adult in one co-twin consists of one or more non-shared post-natal experiences including but not limited to non-shared family experiences. These findings also mean that persistent GD is due predominately to the impact of nonshared environmental influences. These studies provide compelling evidence that discordant gender is not hard-wired genetically.

Gender Dysphoria vs. Gender Identity Disorder

Up until the recent revision of the DSM-IV criteria, the American Psychological Association (APA) held that Gender Identity Disorder (GID) was the mental disorder described as a discordance between the natal sex and the gender identity of the patient. Dr. Kenneth Zucker, who is a highly respected clinician and researcher from Toronto, carried on evaluation and

treatment of GID patients for forty years. His works, widely published, found that the vast majority of boys and girls with GID identify with their biological sex by the time they emerge from puberty to adulthood, through either watchful waiting or family and individual counseling.[21] His results were mirrored in studies from Europe.[22,23]

When the DSM-V revision of the diagnosis of GID was proposed by the APA committee responsible for revision, Dr. Zucker strongly opposed the change to the term Gender Dysphoria, which purposefully removed gender discordance as a mental disorder apart from the presence of significant emotional distress. With this revision, Gender Dysphoria describes the mental anguish which is experienced by the gender discordant patient. The theory that societal rejection is the root cause of Gender Dysphoria was validly questioned by a study from Sweden which showed that the dysphoria was not eliminated by hormones and sex reassignment surgery even with widespread societal acceptance.[24]

Treatment of Gender Dysphoria

The treatment of children and adolescents with gender discordance and accompanying gender dysphoria should include an in-depth evaluation of the child and family dynamics. This evaluation provides a basis on which to proceed with psychologic therapy. The entire biologic and social family should be involved in psychological therapy designed to assist the patient, if at all possible, to align gender identity with natal sex. Psychological support by competent counselors with an intent of resolving the gender conflict should be provided as long as the patient continues to suffer emotionally. Given the high degree of eventual desistance of gender discordance/dysphoria by the end of puberty, it would be ethical and logical to counsel the patient and family to rear the child in conformity with natal sex.

There should be no interruption of natural puberty. Natural pubertal maturation in accordance with one's natal sex is not a disease. It is designed to carry malleable, immature children forward to be healthy adults capable of conceiving their own progeny by providing either a sperm or an egg. Puberty affects physical changes, some of them painful, unique to the natal sex to reflect the laws of nature. Interruption of puberty has been reserved for children who begin puberty at an age much younger than normal in an effort to preserve final height potential and avoid the social consequences of precocious maturation.[25]

There are a number of physical changes that are a consequence of normally timed puberty that could be classified as disadvantageous: changes in body proportions can alter success with dance and gymnastics; acne can be severe and disfiguring; a boy soprano can suddenly hardly carry a tune. It has not been the ethical standard of care to stop puberty so that these changes can be circumvented. Erikson described the stage of adolescence as "Identity versus Role Confusion" during which the teen works at developing a sense of self by testing roles then integrating them into a single identity.[26] This process is often unpleasant regardless of the presence or absence of gender identity conflicts. The major benefit of enduring puberty in a GD patient is that it provides a strong likelihood of alignment of his gender identity with his

natal sex. There is no doubt that these patients need compassionate care to get them through their innate pubertal changes.

The light at the end of the tunnel is the proven scientific evidence that 80%- 95% of pre-pubertal children with GD will come to identify with their biological sex by late adolescence. Some will require lifelong supportive counseling while others will not.[27] Intervention at a young age with gonadotropin releasing hormone analogs (often referred to as puberty blockers) to either stop puberty early on or prevent it from starting before it naturally occurs is suggested by guidelines developed by WPATH without scientific basis. These guidelines are essentially nothing more than an open-ended experiment in the manner of John Money. They represent the ideas of their authors with clear admission that there is no long-term evidence that harm will exceed benefits as these patients grow to old age. There is evidence that bone mineral density is irreversibly decreased if puberty blockers are used during the years of adolescence.[28] To treat puberty as a pathologic state of health that should be avoided by using puberty blockers (GnRH analogs) is to interrupt a major necessary physiologic transformation at a critical age when such changes can effectively happen. We have definite evidence of the need for estrogen in females to store calcium in their skeleton in their teen years. That physiologic event can't be put off successfully to a later date. It is very difficult to imagine ethical controlled clinical trials that could elucidate the effects of delaying puberty until the age of consent.

The use of cross-sex hormones during this same time frame has no basis of safety and efficacy. The use of such treatment in adults raises scientifically valid concerns that were amply expressed in the 2009 Endocrine Society Guidelines on Transgender treatment. The next step in WPATH-recommended intervention is to use cross-sex hormone therapy during the time when the patient would naturally be experiencing endogenous pubertal changes. This too is not based on scientifically proven theories. The use of cross-sex hormones can cause permanent infertility.[29]

The final recommended step is so-called "sex reassignment surgery," which can include surgical removal of the breasts in natal females, or removal of the penis and scrotum in natal males. Each of these steps has adverse outcomes, some reversible and others not. Mastectomies leave scars, and there is great difficulty in creating a functional vaginal-like orifice, and certainly no success in creating an innervated erectile penis where none existed previously. Sex reassignment surgery is, by nature, permanent.

Recurrent Themes that Are Repeatedly Published

Puberty blockers are stated to be completely reversible in their effects on the adolescent who has entered puberty based on clinical studies in young children with precocious puberty who have been treated with these drugs. This is comparing apples to oranges. Precocious puberty, by definition, is defined as puberty which starts before the 8th birthday for a female child or the before the 9th birthday in a male child. The end of treatment is carefully timed so that resumption of puberty occurs at the average age for females (10.5 years) and males (11.5

years). This allows the necessary functions of puberty to prepare the body for reproduction and affects the bones, gonads, and brain, among other body systems. On the other hand, blocking puberty at the age of normal puberty prevents the needed accretion of calcium into the skeleton and prevents the maturation of the gonads. There is no long-term data that compares bone, gonad, and brain health in pubertal-aged patients who have had puberty interrupted and those who have not, as was noted as a concern in the Endocrine Society Guidelines. There are no such ongoing studies completed that guarantee the full reversibility of blocking puberty in this age group, but there is evidence that normal bone density can't be fully reestablished. Without any verifiable safety data, using the puberty blockers for interrupting normal puberty is not a sanctionable off-label use of these drugs and is therefore to be considered uncontrolled, non-consentable experimentation on children.

Advocates for the social, medical and surgical affirmation of gender incongruent children insist that they are only following established standards of care. There are no standards of care for transgender health. Standards of care established by broad consensus are reached by inclusion of the whole spectrum of opinions, clinical experience and published science in the formation thereof. The guidelines published by WPATH[30], the Endocrine Society,[29,31] the American Academy of Pediatrics[32], and the Pediatric Endocrine Society[33] are solely the opinions of like-minded practitioners who excluded any contrary opinion. The Endocrine Society Guidelines, as mentioned before, clearly stated that they are not to be considered standards of care. Before true consensus-driven standards of care are established for the treatment of transgender patients of all ages, following the current guidelines is risky experimentation in a manner reminiscent of John Money's tactics.

What We Do Know and Do Not Know

We do know that social affirmation of an incongruent gender tears the fabric of the patient's life into pieces- pitting family members against each other, ruining child friendships and it introduces the child to a fantasy world, much of it on the internet. Kenneth Zucker aptly documented the detrimental effects of such affirmation and the immense amount of work it takes to undo these effects when the child does come to realize they can't change their sex and wants to go back to identifying with their sex[34]. We do not know that social affirmation does anything other than push the child away from the proven, 80-90% effective, so-called watch-and wait treatment option. Embarrassingly unscientific short term convenience sample studies purport to show that all gender incongruent children who are socially affirmed have improved mental health and are therefore better off than those children who are not allowed to socially transition.[35]

We do know that blocking puberty during the age when puberty naturally happens lessens accretion of calcium into the skeleton and that this can't be regained by allowing puberty to resume or by using cross sex hormones. We do know that the ovary and testicle cease to mature with treatment. What we do not know is whether allowing puberty to resume will allow the ovary and testicle to fully mature and have full function in terms of fertility. We do

not know if brain development that is halted with puberty blockers can return to full . function once puberty is allowed to resume.

We do know that elevated levels of testosterone in females and of estrogen in males create significant medical morbidity. This knowledge comes from the evaluation and treatment of naturally occurring disease states in children and adults. Treatment of these conditions is aimed at returning hormone levels to normal, thereby avoiding cancers, heart disease, and stroke. We do not know that elevating testosterone in females and estrogen in males to levels ten-fold higher than these known disease states is safe, but common sense would say it can't possibly be safe.

The Myth of Increased Suicide

The affirmation advocates repeatedly refer to the established increased risk of suicide if any of the affirmation strategies are not followed to completion. They point to their own published studies touting dramatic improvement in mental health status of patients who are affirmed in all three ways, but they cite data from convenience sampling, which never should be sued to prove anything other than association, at best. Such studies can never prove causation. There are only two total population studies in the peer-reviewed medical literature.[24,36,37] They show that when every recorded case in the population of Sweden was analyzed, neither medical affirmation nor medical affirmation followed by surgical affirmation improved the mental health of the patients in the long run.

What of the Nearly Logarithmic Increase in Incidence of Gender Incongruence?

Data collection in this regard is subject to estimates based on surveys, which can easily alter the numbers upward or downward, depending on who designed the survey and to whom it was presented. Fear, self-loathing or suicide will necessarily lower the numbers of survey participants whose lives are made miserable by the choice to affirm an incongruent gender. Instant gratification, payback to strict parents, and current celebrity will draw survey participants to express euphoric satisfaction with their decision to affirm their incongruent gender, especially when the surveys are circulated by trans-activist organizations, such as the Trevor Project. What had been in 2010 a nearly invisible fraction of adults who admitted to living with an incongruent gender has exponentially increased in frequency to as many as one out of five students in a suburban Pittsburgh school district in 2021. After I completed my fellowship at Johns Hopkins in 1980, it was not until 1993 that a biologic male presented to my private practice office with a desire to be treated with estrogen to feminize his body so that he could appear to be a female and identify as such. There was nothing in published medical literature that I could find to guide my treatment options. I canvassed my broad contact pediatric endocrinology network across the United States, and nobody had heard of such a clinical case, and none had any suggestions about what I should do. In the ensuing 19 years, the number of transgender treatment centers have burgeoned from zero to several hundred between university-based centers and Planned parenthood. Minority stress theory is frequently used to cover this explosion in numbers, but that is utterly impossible. What does

explain this increase is online recruiting and grooming of vulnerable children and adolescents by a generously funded political movement aimed at dissolving the reality and birthright of biologic sex. This will not end well. By the time a plethora of legal action against those who promoted and engineered the social, medical, and surgical affirmation of incongruent gender knocks down this house of cards, millions of children and adolescents will have been medically, surgically, and mentally maimed as well sterilized.

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ATTACHMENT F

Florida Medicaid Project: Surgical Procedures and Gender Dysphoria

Patrick Lappert, M.D.

May 17, 2022

Florida Medicaid Project: Surgical Procedures and Gender Dysphoria

Patrick Lappert, M.D.

Overview

The "Gender Affirmation" care model for children who suffer from gender identity issues is experimental in nature because it is based in low to very low-quality scientific evidence. There is no body of quality scientific evidence to support the hypothesis that gender dysphoria with its associated problems of self-harm and suicide, is improved long-term by gender affirmation surgical procedures.

The best evidence available today demonstrates that transgender is not a single condition that can be explained by any single factor. There are vast differences in age of presentation, predominant sex, persistence into adulthood, and resolution during adolescent development. Moreover, there are numerous and common co-morbid conditions such as autism-spectrum disorder, major anxiety disorders, and clinical depression that severely affect any sense of certainty about the true cause of the child's dysphoria, as well as their capacity to understand and give assent to irreversible medical and surgical procedures that lead to permanent sterility, sexual impotence, and a lifetime of medical problems associated with affirmation care.

The process of obtaining medical informed consent as part of gender affirming surgery is morally indefensible, and likely legally indefensible as well. Parents of suffering children are led by medical professionals to believe that there is only one valid option of care (affirmation medicine and surgery), utterly concealing the historic reality that greater than 92% of children desist in their cross-sex self-identification when treated using the "watchful waiting" therapeutic strategy. Parents are told that if they do not consent to affirmation care, there is a high likelihood that their child will die from suicide. This is not informed consent, but rather consent under duress.

Gender identity is being presented as a fixed and unchanging, biologically determined, personal characteristic. It is not. The medical literature has consistently shown over many years that the vast majority of children with cross-sex gender identity resolve the issue during adolescence and adopt a gender identity that is congruent with their biological sex.

Because surgeons who perform gender affirmation surgeries have no diagnostic test to predict who among the self-identified transgender minors would have persisted in their cross-sex self-identification into adulthood, and who among those children would have desisted, they have no way to know, in any particular case if the irreversible surgery is being performed on a person who would have continued to self-identify in the cross-sex persona into adulthood. Given the historically well-known desistance rate, it is possible that as many as 90% of children are undergoing surgery based upon an incorrect diagnosis.

“Gender Affirming” breast surgery for self-identifying transgender minors is not medically and ethically equivalent to similar procedures performed for objectively identifiable medical conditions. Transgender breast surgery is always cosmetic (aesthetic) in nature because the indication is a hoped-for improvement in the interior emotional life of the patient. Transgender surgery is not based in any medical diagnosis and does not seek to restore any form or function that may have been lost due to trauma, disease, or developmental accident. It begins with normal structures and changes their appearance in order to achieve a subjective improvement and is therefore cosmetic surgery.

Because gender affirming surgery is cosmetic (aesthetic) in nature, such surgeries must never be offered if they are known to predictably produce an irreversible loss of function. To knowingly sacrifice a human capacity (breast feeding, capacity for sexual intimacy, fertility) in the pursuit of a cosmetic result in a minor who is incapable of giving informed consent, is morally indefensible. The hoped-for subjective improvement that is sought in transgender surgery is a short-lived improvement and is only supported by low to very low-quality scientific evidence. Long term longitudinal cohort studies that are based in level III evidence show that affirmation surgical care is of no benefit in reducing self-harm including suicide.

Problems with Informed Consent

The protection of children in situations requiring informed consent is a crucial problem that the state has a historic and abiding interest in. In the particular situation of self-identified transgender children, it becomes a most significant problem, given that they are being submitted for permanently life-altering interventions. In my opinion as a plastic and reconstructive surgeon, the life-altering nature of hormonal and surgical interventions needs to be addressed from the moment of the child’s entry into the gender-transition system, given the fact that the overwhelming majority of children who first begin puberty blockade, go onto the physically altering and permanent changes produced by cross sex hormones, and many ultimately also pursue surgery, as is attested to by multiple papers, the content of which is examined below. Informed consent has several requirement that need to be met if such consent is to be deemed valid. These requirements include a thorough discussion of the details of the proposed procedure including risks, known complications, and some measure of the likelihood of a favorable outcome. The discussion must include alternative treatments, and their risks, known complications and their likelihood of a favorable outcome. In the case of the interventions associated with gender-transition medicine and surgery, the favorable outcomes should be evident over the lifetime of the patient, given that they are permanently sacrificing structures and capacities (breasts and breast-feeding, or genitals and fertility).

Because the commonly cited medical literature used in support of these surgeries is of low to very low quality, it must be recognized that such surgeries must be considered experimental in nature given the unknown long-term effects of treatment, and the vast uncertainty in the patient selection and diagnostic processes. Yet the experts who provide opinion in support of these surgeries speak with absolute certainty of their efficacy, and the absence of any alternative treatment. Considering these factors severally and together it becomes difficult to imagine a

more flawed consent process. It also becomes understandable how parents can be drawn into uninformed participation given the simultaneous presentation of dire consequences if gender dysphoria is left untreated, and the insistence that affirmation care including surgery is the only way to bring lasting happiness to the child.

Chest Masculinization" in Natal Females is Not Ethically Equivalent to Mastectomies for Breast Cancer

When mastectomy is performed for the management of breast cancer, or to mitigate the proven risk of developing breast cancer in women, it is done on the basis of objective diagnoses either by pathological examination of biopsy tissue, or as in the case of prophylactic mastectomy, on the basis of genetic analysis that shows known markers of increased risk of developing breast cancer. These tests (microscopic examination of tissue specimens, detection of cell surface markers with proven association with malignancy, and genetic screening of at-risk patients) have known positive predictive value for the diagnosis of breast cancer, and these tests have known error rates that can be used when obtaining informed consent for mastectomy. The validity of these tests has been proven using scientific methodologies that produce high quality evidence in longitudinal population studies with control populations, and very long follow up. As the result, when a woman gives consent for mastectomy to control or prevent the potentially lethal disease, it is with a clear and proven evaluation of the risks and benefits that consent is obtained. Mastectomy is being performed based upon an objective diagnosis of a potentially lethal condition, and the surgical procedure has proven benefit in management of that condition.

In stark contrast, this is not the case when mastectomy is performed to "masculinize" the chest of girls and women who self-identify as transgender or who self-report symptoms of dysphoria. In the self-identified transgender adolescent, breasts are being removed on the basis of a diagnosis that is made by the patient since there are no tests with known error rates that can be used to predict who will benefit from this disfiguring and irreversible surgery. The claim is made that chest masculinization has proven benefit in reducing dysphoria and the associated risk of suicide. But published studies that make this claim of benefit offer evidence that is low to very low quality, typically small case collections with self-selection bias, very short follow up, and no case controls.

The best data presently available on the long-term effects of medical and surgical transitioning are long-term, longitudinal, population-based studies. For example, Dehjne, et al., examined the putative long-term benefit of full transitioning (including hormonal and surgical treatments) found in the Swedish medical database. (See Long-Term Follow-Up of Transsexual Persons Undergoing Sex Reassignment Surgery: Cohort Study in Sweden; Cecilia Dhejne, Paul Lichtenstein, Marcus Boman, Anna L. V. Johansson, Niklas Långström, Mikael Landén; PLOSOne February 22, 2011 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0016885). That database includes all persons in the Swedish medical system, from pre-natal to death. It reports all episodes of care and all demographic information in a uniform vocabulary. Furthermore, Sweden has been on the forefront of "gender affirmation" long before the American medical

system seriously considered its claims. Because of the nature of Sweden's database, it is possible to study a cohort of patients that very closely matches the inquiry group with regards to age, sex, economic status, etc. It is possible to ask with great precision such questions as, "What is the likelihood that a fully transitioned transgender male will be hospitalized for psychiatric illness when compared to the age/sex matched control group?" Even more, one could urgently ask, "What is the relative risk of suicide in transgender persons, when compared to age/sex matched controls?"

Why are such longitudinal, population-based studies superior to the case-collection/case series methodology? Because confounding variables such as age, sex, and self-selection biases are removed. In the flawed case-collection methodology, the reported cases are typically only those who return for follow up. You have no way of knowing if the patient had a good outcome or didn't return for follow up because they were in a psychiatric hospital, were incarcerated, or committed suicide. In the Swedish longitudinal study, the suicide is in the same database, as are the other issues of hospitalization, incarceration, and addiction treatment, among other rates of comorbidity. Thus the longitudinal population study can give us what is called a "hazard ratio" for a particular study population (patients who have completed transgender transition in this case).

What this Swedish study shows us that the risk of completed suicide in all transgender persons is 19.1 times higher than in the control cohort. If you look only at patients who have transitioned — patients after "treatment" — from female to "male presentation," the risk of completed suicide is 40 times higher than in the general population. (Note: this finding is consistent with the historic Branstrom 10-year follow up study, which found no benefits to "transitioning treatments" but did note an increased risk of serious suicide attempts and anxiety disorders AFTER "treatment.") (Correction to Bränström and Pachankis, Am J Psychiatry 177:8, August 2020; see detailed citations in the "Notes" section of this report below).

Another cautionary note was added to the literature by the reputed Cochrane Review, a UK based international association of researchers who examine the quality of scientific evidence used in medical decision making. The Cochrane Review recently published findings concerning the medical evidence used to support the decision to give young women cross sex hormones as part of the transition process. The authors summarize the world literature review thus: "We found insufficient evidence to determine the efficacy or safety of hormonal treatment approaches for transgender women in transition. This lack of studies shows a gap between current clinical practice and clinical research." (Does hormone therapy help transgender women undergoing gender reassignment to transition? See, Haupt C, Henke M, Kutschmar A, Hauser B, Baldinger S, Saenz SR, Schreiber G., Cochrane Review, 28 Nov 2020).

Similar issues of very poor, low quality scientific support for chest masculinization surgery can be seen in a recent article by Tolstrup et al. published in the journal Aesthetic Plastic Surgery (See Anders Tolstrup, Dennis Zetner, Jacob Rosenberg, Outcome Measures in Gender-Confirming Chest Surgery: A Systematic Scoping Review, Aesthetic Plast Surg 2020 Feb;44(1):219-228. doi: 10.1007/s00266-019-01523-1. Epub 2019 Oct 29). The article reports a

comprehensive review of the world literature concerning the efficacy of "gender confirming" chest surgery in transgender patients. The authors found 849 articles on the subject, published in peer reviewed medical journals. Of these 849 articles, only 47 could be included in the review. This means that only 5.5% of all the published, peer-reviewed transgender surgery articles demonstrated even rudimentary scientific rigor. Of those 47 articles, the authors report that only 29 of the articles addressed mental health outcomes (3.4% of all the articles). What is startling is that the mental health outcomes were judged only on the basis of uncorroborated, untested, and unassessed patient subjective reporting with descriptors that varied so widely from article to article that results could not even be compared. The authors summarize by saying, "Evaluation of outcomes in gender-confirming chest surgery showed large variations in reporting, and further streamlining of reporting is therefore required to be able to compare surgical outcomes between studies." None of these negligent articles even bothered to examine rates of psychiatric hospitalization, substance abuse, self-harm behaviors, and suicide. This tells us that the main reason for performing these surgeries (psychological distress and suicide risk) isn't even evaluated with regard to efficacy.

An example of an article with very low-quality data, reckless (now banned practices), and methodology, published in a "leading journal," and promoted as evidence for the efficacy of "chest masculinization" surgery makes this fact very clear. The lead author (Olson-Kennedy, a leading national advocate for the transgender treatment enterprise) is a board-certified pediatrician who leads the gender clinic for the Los Angeles Children's Hospital. The article appeared in 2018 (See J. Olson-Kennedy, J. Warus, MD1, et al., Chest Reconstruction and Chest Dysphoria in Transmasculine Minors and Young Adults; Comparisons of Nonsurgical and Postsurgical Cohorts., JAMA Pediatr. 2018;172(5):431-436. doi:10.1001/jamapediatrics. 2017.5440. In their summary of findings, the authors reported that "chest dysphoria" is common among "trans males" (natal females seeking to present as males) and claimed that dysphoria is "decreased by surgery." They claim that regret for surgery is "rare." The article reports breast removal surgery on at least one girl aged 13 years. (Note that this reckless, experimental practice has now apparently been abandoned as unethical/experimentation on children by England, Sweden, and Finland. The average age of patients in the study was 19. Children were entered into the study through recruitment from among patients visiting the clinic and by telephone over a six-month period. The authors found that, of the patients recruited from among visitors to the clinic (convenience sampling), there was an over-representation of non-operated patients, so the authors were forced to reach out to all the post-surgical patients by phone. Twenty-six percent of the clinic's post-surgical patients could not be reached for various reasons including no working phone, or failure to respond to multiple messages. The 26% drop-out rate is never even questioned by these authors. Were surgical patients lost to follow up because of dissatisfaction, psychiatric hospitalization, or suicide? This problem is called "self-selection bias," and it is evidence of careless study design. Of the remaining 74% of patients, only 72% completed the survey. This is a second example of self-selection bias. Why would some post-surgical patients who had been successfully contacted, not complete the survey? The authors — demonstrating multiple levels of confirmation bias — do not even ask such essential questions. (See detailed citations in the "Notes" section of this report below).

In the study, dysphoria was evaluated using what the author called "a novel measure," which amounted to a series of subjective questions about happiness that was in part designed by the adolescent test subjects themselves. Essentially, the methodology used an entirely unvalidated ("junk science") test instrument, with no known error rates and no proven predictive power. Furthermore, the post-surgical patients were administered the survey at widely varying time intervals post-surgery. The longest interval between surgery and the satisfaction survey was 5 years, but children less than a year post-surgery were included in this obviously flawed sample, and yet the authors claim evidence of "negligible regret." This is a remarkable, misleading, and deceptive claim given that long-term, longitudinal population studies show that there is a dramatic rise in post-surgical problems such as depression, hospitalization, substance abuse, and suicide beginning at around seven years post-surgery (Ibid). Surely the authors are familiar with the world literature on transgender outcomes?

Having deceptively or negligently promised in the introduction to their paper that "chest dysphoria" is reduced by surgery, at the conclusion the authors confessed to the fact that the study design and execution produced very low-quality data that is not useful for patient selection, or prediction of outcomes. They even confessed that the study does not address the efficacy of surgery in improving outcomes regarding the single most compelling reason for performing the operation: mitigation of depression and suicide. The authors write, "An additional limitation of the study was the small sample size. The nonsurgical cohort was a convenience sample, recruited from those with appointments during the data collection period. There could be unknown imbalances between the nonsurgical and postsurgical cohorts that could have confounded the study findings."

Finally, the authors did not even bother to validate their "Chest Dysphoria Scale." Such a "made-up" scale is unlikely to accurately represent distress or correlate with properly validated measures of quality of life, depression, anxiety, or functioning. Their own analysis at the conclusion or the paper directly contradicts the deceptive claim made in their introduction.

This is the kind of "junk science" that is used to support transgender medicine and surgery. The paper is only a few years old. It was written by board certified physicians who practice in one of the nation's largest pediatric gender clinics and was published in a peer-reviewed medical journal. It is essentially useless in making any clinical decisions regarding who should be offered surgery, what is the likelihood they will benefit from it, and what is the likelihood they will regret their decision. Most importantly, it does not even measure the effect of therapy on suicide risk. The very morbidity (the risk of suicide) that they claim is improved by surgery is not even measured in their low-quality study.

Because of the very low-quality scientific support for mastectomy in the management of gender dysphoria, valid consent would demand that these procedures be described as experimental, would need the approval of ethics panels to monitor human experimentation, and would require the use of valid controls found in long-term, longitudinal population-based study models. These are the kinds of patient protections now endorsed in England, Sweden and Finland but still

ignored in the US environment where proper scientific critiques of such studies can get faculty "cancelled."

Even though the transgender treatment industry has been performing these surgeries for over 50 years, gender treatment centers continue to publish the same low quality, methodologically defective studies based upon collected cases that are degraded in value by self-selection bias, confirmation bias, and short-term follow-up, while continuing to deceptively claim that such defective research provides a sufficient scientific basis for performing irreversible, disfiguring, and ultimately sterilizing hormonal treatments and surgeries on children.

"Chest Masculinization" in Natal Females is Not Ethically Equivalent to Gynecomastectomy

Gynecomastectomy is the surgical treatment of gynecomastia, a fairly common condition in which males develop female-type breast gland tissue. Proponents of "masculinization" mastectomy in natal females erroneously equate the ethics of removing healthy breast tissue from gender dysphoric children with the removal of abnormal breast tissue in men (gynecomastia). In the case of gynecomastectomy in male patients, the operation is performed to remove the objectively diagnosed presence of female type glandular breast tissue present in a male patient. Physical examination demonstrates the presence of a dense retro-areolar mass which is tender and sometimes disfiguring. Pathological examination of the removed tissue will demonstrate the presence of female-type fibroglandular tissue in a male patient. This is an objectively abnormal condition. It should further be noted that the absence of such abnormal, female-type fibroglandular tissue in the submitted surgical specimen places the chest recontouring in the category of cosmetic surgery and is therefore not typically paid for by third-party payors.

A comprehensive literature review on the subject of gynecomastectomy and suicidal behavior conducted by Sollie in 2018 (Management of gynecomastia—changes in psychological aspects after surgery—a systematic review: Gland Surg. 2018 Aug; 7(Suppl 1): S70–76.doi: 10.21037/gs.2018.03.09) did not produce a single paper claiming improvement in suicide rate in patients who underwent this surgery. There were many reports concerning improvement in the pain that men with this objective condition suffer with. The remainder of the reported data was in the category of subjective "satisfaction survey". This tells us that the author did not distinguish between medically indicated and aesthetic surgeries. Nonetheless, no claim is made of decreased suicide rates in a suicidal population of male patients. This is because any male patient seeking removal of abnormal, female-type, breast tissue who reported suicidal ideation would be considered incompetent to give consent and would require a psychiatric evaluation and treatment to manage suicidal thinking before being considered for surgery. This kind of decision in favor of psychiatric support does not appear to be at work in the transgender affirmation world. There, and there alone, is suicidal thinking considered a qualification for a surgery.

"Chest Masculinization" in Natal Females is Not Ethically Equivalent to Breast Reduction

It should be obvious that "Chest Masculinization" surgery in natal females is not ethically equivalent to breast reduction surgery in non-transgender females. In the case of breast reduction for females with excessively large breasts (macromastia, or gigantomastia), the operation is performed to relieve a debilitating orthopedic complaint of neck, back, and shoulder pain associated with the postural/mechanical effects of the weight of the breasts. These patients experience significant activity restriction and chronic pain that is not relieved by medical management or physical therapy. Furthermore, there is voluminous actuarial data, based upon many years of longitudinal population-based study by medical insurance agencies that is used to predict who will benefit from surgery, and who will not. These physical, objective tests, based upon the actual measurement of the breasts, and the patient's overall body habitus, have known error rates that can be used to predict the likelihood that a breast reduction will relieve the orthopedic complaints of neck, back, and shoulder pain. When the tissue specimens are submitted to pathology, they are weighed in order to ensure that enough tissue has been removed so that there will be a very high likelihood that the surgery will relieve the orthopedic condition of neck, back, and shoulder pain (Accuracy of Predicted Resection Weights in Breast Reduction Surgery, Theodore A. Kung, MD, Raouf Ahmed, MBBS1 Christine O. Kang, MPH,1 Paul S. Cederna, MD, and Jeffrey H. Kozlow, MD; Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open. 2018 Jun; 6(6): e1830.

Based upon that, adequate pre-operative consent can be obtained. The supporting data is based in very high-quality methodology. There is no quality research data, no pre-operative test or study, and no known error rates that can be used to predict the likelihood that any child suffering from gender dysphoria will benefit from the experimental procedures of mastectomy and chest "masculinization." As noted above, because of the very low quality data, transgender chest masculinization is at best experimental and at worst, should be viewed as a form of medical child abuse — it is important to note that Finland, Sweden, and the UK apparently now all agree with this analysis, as they have all retreated from such reckless surgical procedures for (See detailed citations in the "Notes" section of this report below).

It is crucial to remember that "chest masculinization-affirmation surgery" of healthy breast tissue results in a complete loss of function, that this loss is two-fold (breast feeding and erotic sensibility), and the cause of the loss is two-fold (gland removal and severing of the intercostal nerve). (See Breast Reduction with Use of the Free Nipple Graft Technique; Stephen R. Colen, MD; Aesthetic Surgery Journal, (Breast Reduction with Use of the Free Nipple Graft Technique; Stephen R. Colen, MD; Aesthetic Surgery Journal, Volume 21, Issue 3, May 2001, Pages 261–271, https://doi.org/10.1067/maj.2001.116439).

If a patient who undergoes "chest masculinization" should regret the surgery, they do have the option of breast reconstruction. However, all that will be produced is a counterfeit of a breast. The patient will have lost the function of breast feeding. Additionally, the most commonly performed "masculinization" surgery involves the removal of the nipples, and subsequent re-

attachment in the form of a nipple graft. Those nipples will have lost their native nerve connections that provoke erotic sensibility. All that can be hoped for is the eventual random ingrowth of local skin sensation, but there will never be erotic sensation because the particular branch of the fourth intercostal nerve which communicates with particular centers in the brain responsible for oxytocin release and erotic provocation will have been permanently severed. This means that breast function has been completely and irreversibly sacrificed for the sake of producing a cosmetic result (a masculine appearing chest). This is the exact opposite of the goals of any reconstructive surgery. It must therefore be understood that "chest masculinization" is a cosmetic procedure that has violated the most essential principle of cosmetic surgery: never sacrifice function for the sake of a cosmetic result.

Erroneous use of the word "Reconstructive" to describe Gender Affirmation Surgeries

The transgender treatment enterprise uses the word "reconstructive" to characterize a group of surgical treatments that seek to alter the sexed appearance of the person. It is important to understand that these procedures, because of the indications for surgery, the motivations for surgery, and the outcomes of surgery, are not reconstructive, but are to be properly understood to be cosmetic in nature.

Reconstructive surgeries are procedures that seek to establish or restore structures and their functioning that have been lost due to trauma, disease, in-utero developmental abnormalities, or surgical treatment for disease. Such reconstructive surgeries must begin with the objective characterization of the defect, including abnormalities of form, and associated loss of function. This process of defining the defect begins with a thorough understanding of normal human form and function and seeks to select, develop, and execute procedures that will restore both. In some cases function may be emphasized more than form, as when the mangled hand of a man is reconstructed. In other cases, reconstruction of form is all that is possible because as yet there are no techniques to restore function. An example of this is seen in the reconstruction of a woman's breast following cancer care. All that can be offered is the appearance of a breast; she will never be able to feed an infant through the reconstructed part.

This is to be contrasted with cosmetic, or aesthetic surgery in which the appearance of a structure is modified in order to produce a subjective (aesthetic) result for the patient. No functional restoration is addressed because no functional or structural loss exists. The object of the surgery is aesthetic. There is no lost form or function that needs to be reconstructed. It is aesthetic surgery because the motivation is aesthetic (subjective feelings about appearance). Further evidence for this is the fact that nearly the entirety of the outcome studies cited in support of these surgeries use subjective questionnaires which the patient fills out. The questions used are typical of those used to evaluate any aesthetic surgery. They are called "satisfaction surveys". Such surveys are prone to suffer from self-selection bias, confirmation bias, and high drop-out rates.

One of the key problems that the transgender treatment enterprise faces on a daily basis is the issue of third-party payment for services. No health insurance provider, including federal and state agencies will pay for cosmetic surgery. For this reason, it is necessary, in order for the business model to succeed, that providers characterize their services as reconstructive. This is doubly difficult given the intense political pressure that has been exerted upon the medical community to "de-pathologize" the condition of transgender. This is seen in the abandoning of the diagnostic nomenclature of "body dysmorphic disorder", and "gender identity disorder" in favor of the more recent DSM manual using the term "gender dysphoria". This leads transgender treatment providers into the difficult situation of claiming that transgender is not a pathology, while at the same time insisting that the services are medically necessary and describing the procedures as reconstructive without characterizing any physical/ functional defect.

As we consider the specific "gender affirming" surgical procedures we will see that comparison to medically indicated surgeries on both men and women actually serves to reinforce the evidence that these surgeries are essentially and fundamentally cosmetic.

Masculinizing and Feminizing Chest Surgeries are Not "Medically Necessary"

Supporters of "transitioning" treatments justify surgical treatment based upon "medical necessity." They claim that gender dysphoria can lead to debilitating anxiety and depression, as well as serious incidents of self-harm, including self-mutilation, suicide attempts, and suicide. Yet with only a single exception, in the studies they cite no measures are made of the effects of surgery on what is claimed to constitute the "medical necessity" for these procedures.
In contrast, the Branstrom study[1] documented no reliable benefits for transgender surgery/hormonal treatments and no reduction in suicide and even an increase in serious suicide attempts requiring hospitalization in patients receiving surgery. These recent, long-term, published, peer reviewed, credible research findings are quite contrary to the claims of supporters of "transitioning treatments" — as are the National Science Reviews in this area from England-NICE, Sweden, and Finland. (See detailed citations in the Notes section in this declaration).

Scientific rigor would demand an examination of objective outcomes such as: rates of substance abuse, psychiatric hospitalization, self-harm, or suicide, and how they were changed by surgery. One paper does ask these crucial questions concerning efficacy is a very comprehensive, long term, longitudinal population cohort study which actually shows the opposite of what experts claim for these patient outcomes. When followed beyond eight years post operatively, this paper shows that patients receiving these treatments have the same alarmingly high rates of hospitalization, substance abuse, self-harm, and completed suicide as persons who have had no medical or surgical intervention.

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[1] *Correction of a key study: No evidence of "gender-affirming" surgeries improving mental health.* Home. (2020, August 30). Retrieved May 17, 2022, from https://segm.org/ajp_correction_2020

In summary, on the issue of the efficacy of these surgeries, the scientific support is very weak, while the scientific evidence rejecting the hypothesis of efficacy is remarkably strong (See Long-Term Follow-Up of Transsexual Persons Undergoing Sex Reassignment Surgery: Cohort Study in Sweden; Cecilia Dhejne, Paul Lichtenstein, Marcus Boman, Anna L. V. Johansson, Niklas Långström, Mikael Landén; PLOS One February 22, 2011 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0016885).

The surgical removal of the breasts, and the re-contouring of the chest through liposuction is a common procedure for women who seek to present as men. These operations are performed in both men and women, for a variety of reasons. They are generally very safe, and typically performed in the outpatient setting. It is important to understand that the only way of distinguishing cosmetic breast surgery from "medically necessary" surgery is based upon the diagnosis of underlying pathology. For example, breast reduction may be cosmetic, or it may be medically indicated. In both cases, the patient presents with a complaint that her breasts are too big. The distinction between cosmetic breast reduction and medically indicated breast reduction is based upon the presenting symptoms of orthopedic problems when working, such as chronic neck back and shoulder pain caused by the weight of the breasts. But even then, the weight of the removed tissue is factored into the objective verification that the surgery was "medically necessary." There is a vast body of medical and actuarial data that demonstrates the relationship between the weight of the breast tissue removed and the probability that back pain will be cured by performing a breast reduction.

The same issues are at stake in breast enhancement for men seeking to present as women. Cross-sex hormones will have caused varying degrees of gynecomastia (breast enlargement in men). Surgical enhancement procedures are exactly the same in both men and women.

Medically necessary surgery in women is based upon the diagnosis of an objective medical condition, such as Poland's syndrome (congenital absence of a breast), surgical absence of the breast following cancer care. In men, the objective diagnosis of gynecomastia might warrant surgery based upon medical necessity, but it would be the removal of tissue that has objective pathological features (breast gland proliferation in a man). A rare diagnosis of breast cancer in a man might warrant chest wall reconstruction after cancer care. On the other hand, cosmetic surgery of the breast is entirely about the subjective feelings of the patient, and that is all that we find in the case of the self-identified transgender patient.

In the case of transgender chest surgery, the diagnosis is based on the patient's subjective report of dysphoria, but the medical necessity is based on the expectation that surgery will relieve the patient of the risk of, among other things, major depression, self-harm behaviors, and suicide. None among the many papers typically cited by supporters of "transitioning treatments" address themselves to the question of medical necessity for either masculinizing surgery, or feminizing surgery. They only address technical issues, management of complications, and subjective outcomes that employ precisely the same language that is used to assess every

other cosmetic surgery of the breast. Such papers often begin with standard language about the suffering of self-identified transgender adolescents, and their risk of self-harm. They will claim that the reported surgeries somehow reduce the risk of suicide, or the frequency or severity of self-harm, but they never report actual results of improvement in the risk of suicide, or substance abuse, or cutting, or sexual risk taking. The claim of benefit is unsupported in the scientific literature.

In summary, the medical necessity of transgender chest surgery is not supported by scientific evidence and appears to be firmly in the category of cosmetic surgery. What is more, the surgeries when performed on natal females causes a life-long loss of function, placing those surgeries in the category of malpractice. No other cosmetic procedure is expected to produce major functional loss. Such a result would only be the result of a complication, or other surgical misadventure. To actually have a 100% certainty of loss when surgical consent is being obtained constitutes a complete neglect of one of the foundational principles in plastic surgery: Never sacrifice function for the sake of a cosmetic result.

About the Author

Education and Training: I received my Bachelor of Arts in Biological Sciences at the University of California, Santa Barbara, 1979. There I was engaged in research in cell membrane physiology with Dr. Philip C. Laris, studying stoichiometry of the sodium: potassium ATPase pump. I received my M.D., Doctor of Medicine degree at the Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, 1983 at Bethesda, Md. I served my General Surgery Residency at the Naval Hospital Oakland/UC Davis East Bay Consortium, 1987-1991 and served as Chief Resident, Department of Surgery, Naval Hospital Oakland, 1990-1991. I also served a Plastic Surgery Residency at the University of Tennessee-Memphis, 1992-1994. My professional background, experience, and publications are described in more detail in my curriculum vitae, which is attached as Exhibit A to this declaration.

Board Certifications in Medicine: I have been Board Certified in Surgery (American Board of Surgery, 1992), in Plastic Surgery (American Board of Plastic Surgery, 1997; American Board of Plastic Surgery, 2008).

Medical Staff Appointments: I served as the Staff General Surgeon at the Naval Hospital Oakland, CA 1991-1992 and as Associate Professor of Surgery, UC Davis-East Bay, 1991-1992. I also served as a Plastic and Reconstructive Surgeon, Naval Medical Center, Portsmouth, Virginia, 1994-2002 and as Chairman, Department of Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery, Naval Hospital Portsmouth, Virginia, 1996-2002. I later served as Clinical Assistant Professor, Department of Surgery, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, 1995-2002 and as Founding Director, Pediatric Cleft Palate and Craniofacial Deformities Clinic, Naval Hospital Portsmouth, Virginia, 1996-2002 also as the Founding Director, Wound Care Center, Naval Hospital Portsmouth, Virginia, 1995-2002. I have also served as a Staff Plastic Surgeon in Nebraska and Alabama.

U.S. Surgeon General Service: I served as a Specialty Leader, Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery, Office of the Surgeon General-USN, 1997-2002.

Faculty Appointments: I served as Teaching Faculty at Eastern Virginia Medical School, Division of Plastic Surgery, 1995-2002. I also served on the teaching faculty of the Via College of Osteopathic Medicine, 2017-2020.

Military Service: I served as an Aviation Officer Candidate, Naval Aviation Schools Command, NAS Pensacola, 1978 and was Commissioned an Ensign, MC, USNR 1979 and Commissioned as a Lieutenant, MC, USN 1983. I served as a Designated Naval Flight Surgeon, Naval Aerospace Medical Institute, 1985, and I was Assigned Marine Fighter/Attack Squadron-451, serving as Flight Surgeon, and serving as Radar Intercept Officer in the Marine F4S Phantom, accumulating 235 flight hours, and trained for qualification as an Air Combat Tactics Instructor. I was deployed to the Western Pacific as UDP forward deployed fighter squadron in Korea, Japan, and the Philippines. I served in the US Navy for 24 years, and I served in the USMC for 3 years. I retired with the rank of Captain, USN in 2002.

Publications - Peer Reviewed Medical Journals: Lappert PW. Peritoneal Fluid in Human Acute Pancreatitis. Surgery. 1987 Sep; 102(3):553-4; Toth B, Lappert P. Modified Skin Incisions for Mastectomy: The Need for Plastic Surgical Input in Preoperative Planning. J Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery. 1991; 87 (6): 1048-53; Lappert P. Patch Esophagoplasty. J Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery. 1993; 91 (5): 967-8; Smoot E C III, Bowen D G, Lappert P, Ruiz J A. Delayed development of an ectopic frontal sinus mucocele after pediatric cranial trauma. J Craniofacial Surg. 1995;6(4):327–331; Lappert PW. Scarless Fetal Skin Repair: "Unborn Patients" and "Fetal Material". J Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery. 1996 Nov; 98(6): 1125; Lappert PW, Lee JW. Treatment of an isolated outer table frontal sinus fracture using endoscopic reduction and fixation. Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery 1998; 102(5): 1642-5.

Publications - Medical Textbooks: Wound Management in the Military. Lappert PW, Weiss DD, Eriksson E. Plastic Surgery: Indications, Operations, and Outcomes, Vol. 1; 53-63. Mosby. St. Louis, MO 2000.

Operations and Clinical Experience: Consultations and Discussions: As a physician and surgeon, I have treated many thousands of patients in 7 states and 4 foreign nations. My practice has included Primary Care, Family Medicine, Aerospace Medicine, General Surgery, Reconstructive Surgery for combat injured, cancer reconstructive surgeries including extensive experience with microvascular surgery, Pediatric Congenital Deformity, and the care of chronic wounds. I have practiced in rural medicine, urban trauma centers, military field hospitals, university teaching hospitals, and as a solo private practitioner. In my private practice I have had occasion to treat many self-identified transgender patients for skin pathologies related to their use of high dose sex steroids, laser therapies for management of facial hair both in transitioners and detransitioners. I have performed breast reversal surgeries for detransitioning patients. My practice is rated as "LGBTQ friendly" on social media. I have consulted with families with children who are experiencing gender discordance. I have given many presentations to professional meetings of educators and counselors on the subject of transgender, and the present state of the science and treatment. I have discussed the scientific issues relevant to the case with many physicians and experts over a number of years and also discussed related issues with parents and others.

ATTACHMENT G

Florida Medicaid Project: Treatment for Transgender Children

Medical Experimentation without Informed Consent:

An Ethicist's View of Transgender Treatment for Children

G. Kevin Donovan, MD, MA
5-12-2022

Florida Medicaid Project: Treatment for Transgender Children

Medical Experimentation without Informed Consent: An Ethicist's View of Transgender Treatment for Children

I. The Issue

Growing controversy attends the diagnosis and treatment of individuals identifying as transgender, particularly those who are still children or adolescents. As was recently pointed out, leading medical, mental health, and public health organizations support understanding gender-diverse youth and providing gender-affirming medical (hormonal) and other(surgical) care as the standard of care, including the American Academy of Pediatrics, American Psychological Association, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Society for Adolescent Health and Medicine, and the American Medical Association. Major nursing organizations—the American Nurses Association and the American Academy of Nursing— have made statements that young people's access to inclusive, safe, and competent health care is a human rights issue. (Wolfe, I., & Goepferd, A. "Child Abuse in Texas." *The Hastings Center*. 14 Mar. 2022) However, this widespread support is not going unchallenged, even by those who have been providing medical interventions for these children and adolescents.

Recently, questions have arisen about the appropriateness of both the diagnosis, and the safety and efficacy of these interventions that have been strongly encouraged up until now. Currently, less than half of state Medicaid programs provide gender affirming care. (Mallory, C., & Tentindo,W. "Medicaid coverage of gender-affirming care." Williams Institute, UCLA School of Law. Oct 2019). The Florida Surgeon General has said that minors should not undergo gender transition procedures, puberty blockers and hormone treatments. "Florida Department of Health Releases Guidance on Treatment of Gender Dysphoria for Children and Adolescents." 20220420-Gender-Dysphoria-Press-Release | Florida Department of Health.) In Texas, the state attorney general issued a decision that gender-affirming medical treatments such as puberty-suppressing hormones fall under the definition of child abuse in Texas state law. In fact, 34 states have introduced legislation to limit hormonal and surgical interventions for such transgender patients. This aligns with similar reassessments and limitations in the United Kingdom, Sweden, Finland, and France. A new position statement from the Royal Australian and New Zealand College of Psychiatrists (RANZCP) stresses the importance of a mental health evaluation for people with gender dysphoria — in particular for children and adolescents — before any firm decisions are made on whether to prescribe hormonal treatments to transition or to perform surgeries, often referred to as "gender-affirming care." "There is a paucity of quality evidence on the outcomes of those presenting with gender dysphoria. In particular, there is a need for better evidence in relation to outcomes for children and young people," the guidance states.

Given the legitimate concerns about the diagnosis, treatment, and the paucity of supportive, scientific studies in regard to the interventions being offered to minors who identify as transgender, I will offer a view of these from the perspective of an ethicist and pediatrician. This will be done in the face of strong and sometimes heated opposition to any variance from the currently prevailing recommendations. Each category of currently recommended or potential treatments will be briefly considered within this framework. The evidence base for these will be reviewed, and an overall argument made that such interventions must be considered as medical experimentation, subject to the requirements of research in childhood with informed consent. Finally, I will conclude with an examination of the fundamental flaw of the transgender project in childhood, and how it is leading to inevitable and controversial challenges.

In order to do this, we must review the ethical requirements for medical research in childhood and the elements of **informed consent**. Because of numerous abuses in the past, a strong system of regulations and oversight has been developed for the protection of human subjects in the United States. This began with the Belmont Report: (https://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/regulations-and-policy/belmont-report/index.html) The report not only described the ethical principles listed below, but led to guidelines for research protections that are now codified in Federal regulations (Code of Federal Regulations, or 'CFR') and monitored by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS). These led to the establishment of IRBs (Institutional Review Boards) which are responsible for the protection of human subjects in federally funded research—IRBs are the Federally mandated committees that review research activities for the protection of human subjects. The Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) provides leadership in the protection of the rights, welfare, and wellbeing of subjects involved in research conducted or supported by the DHHS. The OHRP helps ensure this by providing clarification and guidance, developing educational programs and materials, maintaining regulatory oversight, and providing advice on ethical and regulatory issues in biomedical and social-behavioral research. These measures have laid the ground rules for human research, in adults and children including the need for informed consent.

Although adults may be included in research, this should only be done with *fully informed consent*, and the requirements will differ for children and other vulnerable subjects. The bedrock of these protections lies in obtaining the informed consent from the participant. Informed consent to medical treatment and research involvement is fundamental to both ethics and law. The process requires that a *fully autonomous patient* have the ability to *understand relevant medical information* about the proposed interventions, including the *risks, benefits if any, and alternatives* (including doing nothing/non-participation). and consent *voluntarily* without *coercion*. This is rooted in respect for the **ethical principles** of **autonomy**, **beneficence**, and **justice**.

Autonomy is derived from respect for persons, which requires that we not only respect those who are fully autonomous but protect those individuals that are not fully autonomous. Vulnerable subjects such as children cannot legally or ethically participate in the consent process due to their age and maturity level. The rules for their involvement are set out by the Code of Federal Regulations (46 CFR 401-409). While consent cannot be given for another person, parents or guardians can give "permission" and children can give assent to the extent that they are able. The process of obtaining assent should be appropriate to the age, maturity, and psychological development of the child. The consent process must contain three ethically required components: *information*, *comprehension*, and *voluntariness*. Deficiencies in any of these categories would invalidate the process. The main contention here is that deficiencies in *all* these categories can be found in the current approach to minors who identify as transgender, and current attempts at treatment should not proceed as they are now practiced.

Beneficence is reflected in the complementary expressions of (1) do no harm and (2) maximize possible benefits and minimize possible harms. An assessment of risks and benefits will depend heavily on the delivery of accurate and complete information as described above. An assessment of risk will include both the probability and the severity of envisioned harms, both physical and psychological.

Finally, ***justice*** requires fairness in distribution of risks and benefits. It suggests that not only should like cases be treated alike, but different approaches are appropriate for different circumstances. This is highly relevant in the selection process for those being subjected to the various interventions while still minors.

Thus the process of informed consent must proceed with a correct diagnosis, the nature and purpose of recommended interventions, the known burdens and benefits of all options, including doing nothing or forgoing the intervention. While not able to do an exhaustive review of these elements as they apply to the main treatment approaches recommended for transgender minors, we can briefly examine each category to assess for obvious deficiencies. The issue of deficient information will be significant in each category, and questions of comprehension and voluntariness will be addressed at the end.

II. The Interventions

Surgery

A variety of surgeries have been performed on transgender adults. These range from removal of both breasts (bilateral mastectomy) and associated chest reconstruction, nipple repositioning, dermal implant and tattooing, to gender surgery for trans men which includes construction of a penis (phalloplasty or metoidioplasty), construction of a scrotum (scrotoplasty) and testicular implants, or a penile implant. Removal of the womb (hysterectomy) and the ovaries and fallopian tubes (salpingo-oophorectomy) may also be considered. Surgery for trans women includes removal of the testes (orchidectomy), removal of the penis (penectomy), construction of a vagina (vaginoplasty), construction of a vulva (vulvoplasty), construction of a clitoris (clitoroplasty), as well as breast implants for trans women, facial feminisation surgery and hair transplants. Certainly there are multiple known risks to this long list of surgeries. These used to be described as "sex-change" operations: they are now termed "gender affirming surgeries." The semantic shift is important, as we will see.

Most, but not all, practitioners would delay undertaking these permanent alterations in minor children and adolescents. This may be as much for legal reasons as for medical considerations. However, the lack of sexual maturity in younger patients, especially if previously delayed by puberty blocking agents, makes the sparse tissue more difficult to work with and outcomes less favorable, with problems such as wound rupture more likely. These are not challenges that are routinely described to minors at the beginning of their treatment progression with puberty blocking agents or hormones. This deficit of information would be a major failing.

Hormonal Treatment

Treatment with cross-sex hormones is a mainstay of gender affirming care. These result in the changes in body habitus, facies, voice tone, and hair development that transgender patients seek. They are described as "gender affirming", "life-saving" and "a human right" by their proponents. They have been prescribed by Planned Parenthood clinics and others after a first visit for gender dysphoria (https://www.plannedparenthood.org/planned-parenthood-greater-texas/patient-resources/transgender-healthcare). Surely no one would argue that such a precipitous practice has been accompanied by a full psychological evaluation, or disclosure of medical risks. Chief among these is the fact that the resulting bodily changes will not disappear, even if the initial desire for them changes. And this change is no unlikely development – upwards of 80% of minors who identify as transgender will reverse this identity by the time they reach their mid-20's if left untreated, and revert to their previous identification, albeit possibly with a same-sex attraction. It is more than simply changes in one's body that are at risk; sex hormones have an important and lasting effect on brain development and adolescent psychology. To not fully appreciate this fact, or to not have it delineated in the first place, is an egregious failure of informed consent.

Puberty Blockers

Perhaps the greatest failure of informed consent, and non-disclosure of human experimentation outcomes, is found in the supposedly benign use of puberty blocking agents in minors. They are routinely and widely prescribed with the thought that this will "buy time" for those questioning their gender as minors. Children and their supportive parents are assured that they are a benign intervention whose effects are easily reversible, just in case the child decides not to transition. Some potential effect on the development of bone density may be mentioned. The extent of this danger is just now being appreciated, with severe and disabling osteoporosis described in at least one child in Sweden. This led to new guidelines for gender-affirming care issued in February by the National Board of Health and Welfare. It stated that, based on current knowledge: "the risks of puberty suppressing treatment with GnRH-analogues and gender-affirming hormonal treatment currently outweigh the possible benefits, and that the treatments should be offered only in exceptional cases." However, the effect of puberty blocking agents (started in early adolescent development) on long-term sexual function seems to be largely unstudied. Current guidelines recommend starting puberty blockers at the earliest stage of sexual maturation in children (Tanner two). These will not only prevent the enlargement of penile tissue, it will desensitize the orgasmic potential for tissues later exposed to cross-sex hormones. Simply put, transgender adults treated in early adolescence with puberty blockers may never experience orgasm. When children with gender dysphoria are given these powerful hormones (around age 11) they are too young to appreciate the implications of what will happen.

It is not simply a matter of chronology. As children mature into adolescents and adults, their brains are also being formed and reformed under the influence of sex hormones. There is evidence for structural changes, and these are likely to be demonstrated in cognitive and behavioral changes. In fact, the development of the adolescent brain and the maturation of its rational and executive functions does not typically complete until one's early 20s. Although the deleterious effects on sexual development and function in adulthood from puberty blockers may be predicted, no one is entirely certain of the effects on other critical areas such as brain development and bone density. Carefully constructed and monitored studies have not been done. *Until they are, these off-label treatments with puberty blockers and cross sex hormones can only be considered experimental.* Experimental interventions should be done as carefully as any other research, and fully informed consent is the only ethical way to enter into such studies. Clearly, this is not the current practice.

III. The Fundamental Flaw

There appears to have been a headlong rush in the past decade towards the process of gender affirming care described above. After close scrutiny, it can only be seen as off label experimentation, despite the fact that informed consent practices do not conform to this reality. Given this, we must ask ourselves: how can experienced and ethical physicians so mislead others or be so misled themselves? In 2013, the American Psychiatric Association published their update of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, the DSM-5. In it the diagnosis of "gender identity disorder" was replaced with "gender dysphoria." This was done to "avoid stigma and ensure clinical care for individuals who see and feel themselves to be a different gender" other than the one to which they were born. The APA stated that "it is important to note the gender nonconformity is not in itself a mental disorder. The critical element of gender dysphoria is the presence of clinically significant distress associated with the condition." Dysphoria is a state of uneasiness, unhappiness, or dissatisfaction. With this change in terminology there was also a shift from seeking or correcting the underlying cause of the dysphoria, and a focus on transitioning to the preferred gender.

This revision has probably done more harm than good by accepting a self-diagnosis characterized by the belief that the patient (or their essence) is "trapped in the wrong body." This concept relies on the Cartesian duality, a body-self dichotomy. It reverts to the fallacious "ghost in the machine" concept. In reality, we cannot be trapped in the wrong body; we **are** our bodies, which are an integral and inseparable part of ourselves. To assert that there is a female self inside a male body (or the reverse), is to fail to achieve a full understanding that we are embodied persons, unified body and mind, if you will. A generation ago, sex and gender were taken to be synonyms for the same phenomena. Even now, a transgender female, no matter how much or how long of a hormonal therapeutic regimen they undergo, is still genetically male. Ignoring this fact has led to a contradiction, where sympathetic practitioners recommend "holistic care" while insisting on a fragmented concept of the self. This approach has been warmly embraced, even insisted upon, by many practitioners while viewed as nonsensical and even ludicrous by many laypersons.

Inevitably this has led to added difficulties. Even young patients are encouraged to begin puberty blockers and then hormones based on a self-diagnosis. Self-diagnosing psychiatric conditions is always fraught with the possibility of error. In this case, there can be no confirmatory lab tests, radiologic exams, or genetic findings. Moreover, the dysphoria can only be diagnosed and opened to treatment if it is causing significant trauma to the individual. The clinically significant distress manifests itself in underlying psychiatric diagnoses such as depression and suicidality. It is argued that embarking on affirmative treatment as early as possible is urgently needed to prevent further psychiatric complications, a contested assertion. Studies have shown that adult transgender persons continue to have evidence of depression and suicidality following treatment. The rate of suicide among post-operative transgender adults in a study from Sweden found an incidence 20 times greater than that of the general population. Such treatment may not be urgently needed to protect adolescents; it may not even be effective protection for their adult counterparts.

The claim of urgency coupled with an impulse toward nonjudgmental empathy for the disturbed patients has led to a frantic insistence on a single approach that may seem almost cult like in its insularity and opposition to outside challenges. Both parents (Trinko, K.(Nov. 19, 2018 "What It's Like to Lose Your Children to the 'Transgender Cult,' From a Mom Who Knows." *The Daily Signal*, 30 Oct. 2019) and teachers (Manning, M. for The Mail on Sunday. "Whistleblower Teacher Makes Shocking Claim That 'Most Are Autistic'." *Daily Mail Online*, Associated Newspapers, 19 Nov. 2018, https://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-6401593/Whistleblower-teacher-makes-shocking-claim-autistic.html.) report that their children or students are being wrongly encouraged at school to think of themselves as transgender. Sometimes this is the result of overenthusiastic acceptance or "love bombing". Sometimes it appears to influence the susceptible, as in autistic children. Sometimes transgender counseling is taking place even without the parents' knowledge, and this troubling approach has been supported in the literature with statements that adolescents should be legally empowered to obtain puberty-blocking without parental consent (Priest, M. Transgender Children and the Right to Transition: Medical Ethics When Parents Mean Well but Cause Harm. Am J Bioeth. 2019 Feb;19(2):45-59).

Inevitably, this has resulted in complications and conflicts. The media have been replete with reports of such things as contested accessibility of transgender females to such things as domestic abuse shelters, female prisons, and female sports competitions. Similar issues regarding bathroom accessibility in schools recently came to a boil in Virginia, when it came to light that a sexual assault by a self-described trans- female (with a penis) was repeated in another school after the perpetrator was transferred. (Poff, J. "Loudoun superintendent failed to inform state of school sexual assault." Washington Examiner, 4 May 2022.) These issues are far from any resolution by debate, discussion, or legislation. In fact, both sides of the debate have doubled down with insistence that the opposing viewpoint must not only be rejected but considered unethical and made illegal.

Some disturbing trends have developed resulting not only from this dichotomy of opinion about the proper treatment approach, but ultimately based in the acceptance of the mind-body dichotomy. There has been a change in the diagnosed population. As Abigail Schrier pointed out:

> For the nearly 100-year diagnostic history of gender dysphoria, it overwhelmingly afflicted boys and men, and it began in early childhood (ages two to four). According to the DSM-V, the latest edition of the historical rate of incidence was 0.01 percent of males (roughly one in 10,000).
>
> For decades, psychologists treated it with "watchful waiting" — that is, a method of psychotherapy that seeks to understand the source of a child's gender dysphoria, lessen its intensity, and ultimately help a child grow more comfortable in her own body. Now such an approach is disdained by the term "conversion therapy", and labelled as unethical, and even made illegal.

She continues:

> Since nearly seven in 10 children initially diagnosed with gender dysphoria eventually outgrew it, the conventional wisdom held that, with a little patience, most kids would come to accept their bodies. The underlying assumption was children didn't always know best. But in the last decade, watchful waiting has been supplanted by "affirmative care," which assumes children do know what's best. Affirmative care proponents urge doctors to corroborate their patients' belief that they are trapped in the wrong body. The family is pressured to help the child transition to a new gender identity — sometimes having been told by doctors or activists that, if they don't, their child may eventually commit suicide. From there, pressures build on parents to begin concrete medical steps to help children on their path to transitioning to the "right" body. That includes puberty blockers as a preliminary step. Typically, cross-sex hormones follow and then, if desired, gender surgery. (Shrier, A. "Top Trans Doctors Blow the Whistle on 'Sloppy' Care." Emmaus Road Ministries, 5 Oct. 2021)

These pressures apply not only to parents, but to the children themselves because of the strong emphasis on affirmative support for anyone declaring themselves transgender. As one mother described: "A lot of these kids have concurrent mental health issues, and they find a place to fit in because as soon as you say that you're trans, you get love-bombed," she reflects. "You get love-bombed online, you get love-bombed on at school … As soon as you say you're trans, you turn into a star. And kids are thirsty for that kind of affirmation." (Trinko, 2019)

Two phenomena may be associated with this. Strong affirmation for the diagnosis and hormonal treatment may be altering the natural course of the phenomenon in childhood. It may not only be easier to identify as transgender in today's environment; it may be more difficult to turn ones back on the diagnosis. This may help explain a recent report that found that an average of 5 years after their initial social transition, 7.3% of youth had retransitioned (changed gender identity) at least once. At the end of this period, most youth identified as binary transgender youth (94%), including 1.3% who retransitioned to another identity before returning to their binary transgender identity. 2.5% of youth identified as cisgender and 3.5% as nonbinary. Later cisgender identities were more common amongst youth whose initial social transition occurred before age 6 years; the retransition often occurred before age 10. Unlike previous studies of transgender youth, males were not predominant, but were outnumbered by 2 to 1. Moreover, this is a direct contradiction of previous data showing a high rate of reversion towards a sex/gender coherence in children as they mature. (Olson, Kristina R., Durwood, Lily, Horton, Rachel, Gallagher, Natalie M., & Devor, Aaron; Gender Identity 5 Years

After Social Transition. Pediatrics 2022; 10.1542/peds.2021-056082) We must ask if this represents a shift towards being trapped in a wrong diagnosis, rather than a child being trapped in a wrong body.

In fact, there has been another shift. Unlike in the past, we now see increased numbers of females identifying as transgender, and later in their adolescence. Sometimes this occurs in large cohorts within a single school or peer group, a phenomenon labelled "rapid onset gender dysphoria." Both these phenomena call into question the underlying cause for the concept of gender dysphoria. Rather than approaching it as an accurate self-diagnosis that must be affirmed and treated to change the outward sexual appearance, isn't there a better model? We may be making a fundamental mistake in approaching transgender phenomena, not as a disease or disorder, but at most a dysphoria that is a cause for affirmation. This contrasts with our approach to similar conditions claiming a mind- body divergence, such as anorexia nervosa or body integrity identity disorder. The former is familiar to most Americans. The latter is a rare mental disorder characterized by a desire to have a physical disability, claiming discomfort with being able-bodied and often resulting in a request for amputation of the body part that makes them uncomfortable. People with this condition may refer to themselves as "trans abled."

In all three of these conditions there is a claim for a mismatch between one's mental bodily image and physical body. All tend to find an onset in prepubescence and are frequently associated with other mental disturbances. "Affirmative care" is the only recommended standard for transgender patients. It is horribly disturbing to contemplate amputation of a healthy limb because of a mental disorder (although this has been done). No one would seriously consider surgery to limit caloric intake or weight gain for a patient with anorexia nervosa, in order to support and affirm her distorted body image. Nevertheless, sex change operations have been recast as "gender affirming surgeries". The change in language reflects the change in attitude that distorts the approach to treatment for a psychiatric, not medical/surgical, disorder.

Finally, what are we to make of this situation, as a medical profession, and as a society? This question cannot be answered until both the affected people and profession can overcome our collective hubris. It is not enough to admit we don't know all the answers. We must see that we are not yet certain of all the questions that must be answered. In such a situation, competing interests must not pretend to take the moral high ground when no one can be certain where it will be located. First and foremost, we must back off from our current approaches until questions can be answered with proper studies, done with sufficient patients, and sufficient controls, over a sufficient period of time. Any insistence on a single course of therapy without this information could prove to be the same type of morally unacceptable interventions that caused formal research protections to be created in the first place.

In the meantime, we must adopt a more respectful tone with those whom we disagree. As John Milton said, "Where there is much desire to learn, there of necessity will be much arguing, much writing, many opinions; for opinion in good men is but knowledge in the making." Most important of all, in order to protect the current and future well-being of these affected children, we must rely on the ancient principal of medical ethics "In the first place, do no harm." Until we can demonstrate the efficacy and safety of any proposed treatment or intervention, its usage must properly be considered a medical experimentation and require fully informed consent. Anything less is a betrayal of both our principles and our progeny.

About the author: *Dr. Donovan's observations flow from his professional experience. He has been a Board-certified pediatrician for over 40 years, as an academic physician who rose to Vice-chair of the Department of Pediatrics and ultimately interim Chair at the University of Oklahoma in Tulsa. His professional role and interests expanded in the 1990's after he took a sabbatical in medical ethics at*

Georgetown University under the world-famous Dr. Edmund Pellegrino, a founding father of modern bioethics. He subsequently went on to earn a master's degree in Bioethics and founded the first bioethics center in his home university, where he was responsible for ethics training and education for students and physicians. He also served as clinical ethics consultant for three teaching hospitals. He was chair of the Section on Bioethics for the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) for three years and then their first liaison member of the AAP Committee on Bioethics. He has also served as the chair for a hospital Intuitional Review Board for 17 years. Finally, he was asked to become Director for the Center for Clinical Bioethics at Georgetown University School of Medicine, where he served from 2012-2020. His duties included teaching, consultation, publishing papers and speaking on bioethics extensively at the local, national, and international level on four continents. He has been interviewed and quoted on National Broadcasting Company (NBC), National Public Radio (NPR), Eternal Word Television Network (EWTN), and Al Jazeera, as well as the New York Times and the Washington Post, among others. He was awarded the Humanism in Medicine award from the Gold Foundation, which recognizes physicians to have successfully integrated humanism into the delivery of care to their patients and families. He has also offered formal testimony on bioethical issues before state legislatures and the U.S. Congress.

Socialstyrelsen
THE NATIONAL BOARD OF HEALTH AND WELFARE

Care of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria

Summary

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Summary

The National Board of Health and Welfare (NBHW) has been commissioned by the Swedish government to update the national guidelines on care of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, first published in 2015 [1]. Guidelines chapters are updated stepwise and this report contains revised guidance on psychosocial support and diagnostic assessment, and on puberty suppressing treatment with GnRH-analogues and gender-affirming hormonal treatment. This report thus replaces the corresponding chapters in the publication from 2015. Remaining chapters and the updated guidelines as a whole will be published later in 2022. In response to comments received during external review, two new chapters have been added, named *New recommendations on hormonal treatment – their reasons and consequences and Non-binary gender identity – current knowledge and a need for clarification*. Another difference compared to the guidelines from 2015 [1] is that the term "gender incongruence" is used alongside the term "gender dysphoria". For explanations of terms and abbreviations, see Appendix 2. For a description of the scientific evidence and clinical experience underlying the recommendations and the work process, see Appendices 3 and 4.

The guidelines apply to children and adolescents, i.e. people under 18 years of age. In the medical text sections, the term children (barn) refers to persons who have not yet entered puberty, while the term adolescents (ungdomar) refers to people whose puberty has started. In the text sections relating to juridical regulations, only the term children (barn) is used and denotes people younger than 18 years of age. Finally, the term "young people" (unga) is sometimes used in text sections addressing both children and adolescents.

Introductory comment

The summary that follows and the introductory chapter describe that the updated recommendations for puberty suppression with GnRH-analogues and gender-affirming hormonal treatment have become more restrictive compared to 2015, and the reasons that they have changed. The new recommendations entail that a larger

proportion than before, among adolescents with gender incongruence referred for diagnostic assessment of gender dysphoria, will need to be offered other care than hormonal treatments. Questions on how to ensure that all young people suffering from gender dysphoria be taken seriously and confirmed in their gender identity, well received and offered adequate care are becoming increasingly relevant, and will need to be answered during the ongoing restructuring of certain care for gender dysphoria into three national specialised medical care services (NBHW decision in December 2020). The care for children, adolescents and adults with gender dysphoria in these three national specialised units aims to improve equality in care, coordination and dialogue, and may enhance the implementation of national guidelines.

Recommendations and criteria for hormonal treatment

For adolescents with gender incongruence, the NBHW deems that the risks of puberty suppressing treatment with GnRH-analogues and gender-affirming hormonal treatment currently outweigh the possible benefits, and that the treatments should be offered only in exceptional cases. This judgement is based mainly on three factors: the continued lack of reliable scientific evidence concerning the efficacy and the safety of both treatments [2], the new knowledge that detransition occurs among young adults [3], and the uncertainty that follows from the yet unexplained increase in the number of care seekers, an increase particularly large among adolescents registered as females at birth [4].

A systematic review published in 2022 by the Swedish Agency for Health Technology Assessment and Assessment of Social Services [2] shows that the state of knowledge largely remains unchanged compared to 2015. High quality trials such as RCTs are still lacking and the evidence on treatment efficacy and safety is still insufficient and inconclusive for all reported outcomes. Further, it is not possible to determine how common it is for adolescents who undergo gender-affirming treatment to later change their perception of their gender identity or interrupt an ongoing treatment. An important difference compared to 2015 however, is that the occurrence of

detransition among young adults is now documented [3], meaning that the uncertain evidence that indicates a low prevalence of treatment interruptions or any aspects of regret is no longer unchallenged. Although the prevalence of detransition is still unknown, the knowledge that it occurs and that genderconfirming treatment thus may lead to a deteriorating of health and quality of life (i.e. harm), is important for the overall judgement and recommendation.

To minimize the risk that a young person with gender incongruence later will regret a gender-affirming treatment, the NBHW deems that the criteria for offering GnRH-analogue and gender-affirming hormones should link more closely to those used in the Dutch protocol, where the duration of gender incongruence over time is emphasized [5-7]. Accordingly, an early (childhood) onset of gender incongruence, persistence of gender incongruence until puberty and a marked psychological strain in response to pubertal development is among the recommended criteria. The publications that describe these criteria and the treatment outcomes when given in accordance [5, 6, 8] consitute the best available knowledge and should be used as guidance.

To ensure that new knowledge is gathered, the NBHW further deems that treatment with GnRH-analogues and sex hormones for young people should be provided within a research context, which does not necessarily imply the use of randomized controlled trials (RCTs). As in other healthcare areas where it is difficult to conduct RCTs while retaining sufficient internal validity, it is also important that other prospective study designs are considered for ethical review and that register studies are made possible. Until a research study is in place, the NBHW deems that treatment with GnRH-analogues and sex hormones may be given in exceptional cases, in accordance with the updated recommendations and criteria described in the guidelines. The complex multidisciplinary assessments will eventually be carried out in the three national units that are granted permission to provide highly specialized care services.

In accordance with the DSM-5, the recommendations in the guidelines from 2015 applied to young people with gender dysphoria in general, i.e. also young people with a non-binary gender identity. Another criterion within the Dutch protocol is that the child has had a binary ("cross-gender") gender identity since childhood [5, 6].

It has emerged during the review process, that the clinical experience and documentation of puberty-suppressing and hormonal treatment for young people with non-binary gender identity is lacking, and also that it is limited for adults. The NBHW still considers that gender dysphoria rather than gender identity should determine access to care and treatment. An urgent work thus remains, to clarify criteria under which adolescents with non-binary gender identity may be offered puberty-suppressing and gender-affirming hormonal treatment within a research framework.

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Socialstyrelsen
THE NATIONAL BOARD OF HEALTH AND WELFARE

Care of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria

Summary of national guidelines
December 2022

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Summary

The National Board of Health and Welfare has been commissioned by the Swedish government to update the national guidelines entitled Good care of children and adolescents with gender dysphoria, published in 2015 [1]. The parts of the guidelines have been updated and published in stages. This is a summary of the final report published in December 2022, which contains the updated guidelines in its entirety, and thus replaces both previous interim reports and the guidelines from 2015.

For decision-makers

For several years, care for people with gender dysphoria has been characterised by accessibility problems and inadequate knowledge about the results of treatments. The National Board of Health and Welfare emphasises the importance of decision-makers in the health regions acting to promote improvement on both issues, and stresses that this needs to happen in the near future.

Young people suffering from gender dysphoria need to be promptly assessed and offered appropriate treatment measures, based on health care needs assessments. Good psychosocial care is essential. The patient group is heterogeneous and psychosocial care needs to clearly include young people with a non-binary gender identity. Gender-affirming treatments need to be offered when these are deemed indicated.

The 2015 guidelines stressed the importance of monitoring and evaluating the treatment interventions offered in the context of clinical work. The quality registry (gender dysphoria registry) that was planned at the time has so far not been able to meet existing needs. It is urgent that the health regions act to ensure that systematic documentation and monitoring of care at national level are realised. Longitudinal data are required to provide a coherent picture of this patient population, from referral to any diagnosis of gender dysphoria and with follow-ups of patients that are offered various treatment interventions.

The Swedish Agency for Health Technology Assessment and Assessment of Social Services (SBU) concludes that existing scientific evidence is insufficient for assessing the effects of puberty suppressing and gender-affirming hormone therapy on gender dysphoria, psychosocial health and quality of life of adolescents with gender dysphoria [2]. Knowledge gaps need to be addressed and the National Board of Health and Welfare recommends that these treatments be provided in the context of research. Here too, the health regions have a responsibility to provide support so that relevant research can begin in the near future. Research questions that need to be answered for the healthcare area are listed in the SBU's database of knowledge gaps. Priority needs to be given to studies that can answer the salient questions, as far as possible.

Caution in the use of hormonal and surgical treatment

At group level (i.e. for the group of adolescents with gender dysphoria, as a whole), the National Board of Health and Welfare currently assesses that the risks of puberty blockers and gender-affirming treatment are likely to outweigh the expected benefits of these treatments. The National Board of Health and Welfare therefore gives the following weak, negative recommendations as guidance to the healthcare system:

- Treatment with GnRH analogues, gender-affirming hormones, and mastectomy can be administered in exceptional cases.

Care must be provided on the basis of scientific evidence and proven experience and according to the principle of doing good and not harm. In revising its recommendations, the National Board of Health and Welfare has taken account of the fact that the efficacy and safety, benefits and risks of treatments are not proven [2] and that three factors have shifted the balance between benefit and risk in a negative direction:

- The uncertainty resulting from the lack of clarity about the causes, that the number of people diagnosed with gender dysphoria has continued to rise since the publication of the guidelines in 2015, particularly in the 13 to 17 age group and especially among people whose registered sex at birth is female.

- The documented prevalence among young adults of medical detransition, which is the process by which a person discontinues gender-affirming medical treatment for any reason or seeks to reverse the medical effects of completed gender-affirming treatment [3, 4]. According to the SBU, it is not possible to assess how common it is for young people to later change their perception of their gender identity or to discontinue a gender-affirming treatment [2].
- The experience-based knowledge of participating experts is less uniform than it was in 2015.

Decisions on treatment in an individual case

To guide the decision on puberty-suppressing treatment for an adolescent in Tanner Stage 3 and for gender-affirming hormone therapy, the National Board of Health and Welfare recommends the criteria whose use has been documented and monitored within the framework of the "Dutch protocol" [5-7]. The criteria include the existence of the incongruence since childhood, the stability of gender identity over time, clear distress caused by the onset of puberty, and the absence of factors that complicate the diagnostic assessment. According to the participating experts, puberty-suppressing treatment can in some cases be considered to be of great benefit even in Tanner stages 4 and 5, particularly for young people with a registered sex of male at birth whose masculinisation in later puberty makes it very difficult to pass as an adult.

The documented experience with the Dutch protocol includes only adolescents with binary gender identity, and among participating experts there is a lack of clinical experience with puberty-suppressing and gender-affirming hormone therapy for adolescents with non-binary gender identity. The National Board of Health and Welfare notes that there is a lack of knowledge to guide decisions on hormonal treatments for adolescents with non-binary gender identity, but still believes that gender dysphoria rather than gender identity should guide access to care and treatment. Urgent work that remains when updating the guidelines for adults with gender dysphoria [8] is to map the experience of assessment and gen-

der-affirming treatment for patients with non-binary gender identity in adult health care.

Other recommendations

Other recommendations include that health services should:

- Offer psychosocial support for unconditional exploration of gender identity during the diagnostic assessment. As in 2015, the National Board of Health and Welfare emphasises exploration as a prerequisite for good and safe care.
- Systematically search for signs of autism spectrum disorder (ASD) and ADHD/ADD before, or at an early stage of the assessment. In case of signs of ASD, neuropsychiatric assessment should be initiated.

The recommendations of the National Board of Health and Welfare remain as before, that the health care system should offer the following measures to adolescents with gender dysphoria:

- Sexology counselling and treatment
- Fertility preservation
- Voice and communication treatment
- Hair removal

The expected benefit to patients of the measures are considered high and the risks comparatively low. It is important that these measures are also documented for follow-up when they are offered, in order to enable increased and comprehensive knowledge regarding the patient group and care.

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STM038:00/2020

Recommendation of the Council for Choices in Health Care in Finland (PALKO / COHERE Finland)

Medical Treatment Methods for Dysphoria Related to Gender Variance In Minors

Concepts

Suppression treatment	Pubertal suppression with GnRH analogues (drugs that inhibit gonadotropin-releasing hormone activity) to halt the development of secondary sex characteristics of the biological sex.
Cisgender/Cis person	A person whose gender identity matches the sex determined at birth (identifies, and is satisfied with, the sex determined at birth and generally expresses his/her gender accordingly).
Other gender identity	A person who does not identify as a man or a woman, but rather somewhere along the continuum or outside of it; genderless, nonbinary, or multigendered.
Transgender	A person whose gender identity differs from the legal and biological sex determined at birth but instead aligns with the opposite sex.

STM038:00/2020

Content

1. Basis for Preparing These Recommendations

As the number of patients, including minors, referred to the Helsinki University Hospital (HUS) and the Tampere University Hospital (TAYS) multidisciplinary outpatient clinics for assessment and treatment of gender dysphoria has increased, PALKO (Council for Choices in Healthcare in Finland / COHERE Finland) decided to prepare recommendations for medical treatments of gender dysphoria, i.e., distress which is associated with a minor's gender variance and impairs function. Gender variance refers to a spectrum of gender experience anywhere on the male-female identity continuum or outside it, and is not exclusively confined to the dichotomized male/female conception of gender. Not all patients with gender variance experience significant suffering or functional impairments, and not all seek medical treatment.

These recommendations are based on the legislation in force at the time of the adoption of the recommendation, the available research evidence, and the clinical experience of multidisciplinary teams with expertise in gender dysphoria assessment and treatment at HUS and TAYS. The knowledge base supporting these recommendations is detailed in a separate Preparatory Memorandum and appendices and includes a description of planning and implementation of medical treatments, a literature review of medical treatments, an extensive ethical analysis, and feedback following meetings with patients and the advocacy groups who represent them.

Finnish legislation defines the requirements for the legal gender recognition of transsexuals (Act on Legal Recognition of the Gender of Transsexuals (Trans Act) 536/2002). The detailed requirements for providing the assessment and treatment to enable legal gender recognition are spelled out further in a Decree of the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health (1053/2002). The Trans Act and the related Decree apply to adults. For those who are not of legal age, there are no laws governing the provision and needs of transgender healthcare; however, these are subject to the Health Care Act of Finland (1326/2010), in particular section 7 (criteria for integrated care), section 7a (criteria for treatment options), section 8 (evidence-based, high quality, safe and appropriate care) and section 10 (rationale for centralization); and also to the Constitution of Finland (731/1999)'s section 6 on equality and section 19 on the right to adequate social and healthcare services. Finland's Act on the Status and Rights of Patients, (785/1992), and especially sections 5, 6, and 7, are also relevant.

2. Recommendations' Target Population

These recommendations apply to minors suffering from dysphoria related to gender variance who are seeking a consultation regarding an evaluation of medical examination and treatment needs; the children and adolescents may identify with the opposite sex (transgender), or may identify as genderless, non-binary, or anywhere along or outside the male/female gender identity continuum (other gender).

3. Procedures Assessed

These recommendations focus on medical treatment procedures that aim to decrease suffering and functional impairment of gender-dysphoric minors.

4. Current Care

Cross-sex identification in childhood, even in extreme cases, generally disappears during puberty. However, in some cases, it persists or even intensifies. Gender dysphoria may also emerge or intensify at the onset of puberty. There is considerable variation in the timing of the onset of puberty in both sexes. The first-line treatment for gender dysphoria is psychosocial support and, as necessary, psychotherapy and treatment of possible comorbid psychiatric disorders.

Consultation appointments (for parents / caregivers) regarding pre-pubescent children's cross-sex identification or gender dysphoria are provided by the research group on the gender identity of minors at TAYS or HUS. However, ongoing support or other treatment of psychiatric disorders are provided through the local municipal services.

In clear cases of pre-pubertal onset of gender dysphoria that intensified during puberty, a referral can be made for an assessment by the research group at TAYS or HUS regarding the appropriateness for puberty suppression. If no contraindications to early intervention are identified, pubertal suppression with GnRH analogues (to suppress the effect of gonadotropin-releasing hormone) may be considered to prevent further development of secondary sex characteristics of the biological sex.

Adolescents who have already undergone puberty, whose gender dysphoria occurs in the absence of co-occurring symptoms requiring psychiatric treatment, and whose experience of transgender identity failed to resolve following a period of reflection, can be referred for assessment by the research group on the gender identity of minors at TAYS or HUS. Hormone therapy (testosterone/estrogen and anti-androgen) can be started after the diagnostic evaluations, but no earlier than age 16. Additionally, patients under 18 receive three to six months of GnRH analogue treatment prior to the initiation of cross-sex hormones in order to suppress the hormonal activity of the gonads. No gender confirmation surgeries are performed on minors.

5. Risks, Benefits and Uncertainty

The literature review identified two studies with the total of 271 persons diagnosed with childhood-onset gender identity disorder and associated gender or body dysphoria that intensified after the onset of puberty (Preparatory Memorandum Appendix 1, Tables 15 and 16, pages 46-48).

In a smaller study of 70 adolescents, puberty was suppressed with the GnRH analogue at the average age of 14.8 (12-18 years) and puberty blockade continued for an average of 2 years. During the treatment period, the adolescents' mood improved, and the risk of behavioral disorders diminished, but gender dysphoria itself did not diminish, and there were no changes in body image. In a larger study consisting of 201 adolescents, 101 patients with the average age of 15.5 (12-18 years) started an 18-month psychological supportive intervention, and, additionally at six months, pubertal development was suppressed by starting GnRH analogue treatment. The other cohort of 100 only received psychological supportive intervention for 18 months. In both groups, statistically significant increases in global psychosocial functioning were found at 12 and 18 months; among those having received psychological intervention alone, the improvement in global functioning was already significant at the 6-month mark. Both studies lack long-term treatment follow-up into adulthood.

A recent Finnish study, published after the completion of this literature review, reported on the effect of initiating cross-sex hormone therapy on functioning, progression of developmental tasks of adolescence, and psychiatric symptoms. This study found that during cross-sex hormone therapy, problems in these areas did not decrease.

Potential risks of GnRH therapy include disruption in bone mineralization and the as yet unknown effects on the central nervous system. In trans girls, early pubertal suppression inhibits penile growth, requiring the use of alternative sources of tissue grafts for a potential future vaginoplasty. The effect of pubertal suppression and cross-sex hormones on fertility is not yet known.

6. Ethical Assessment

Although the ethics analysis did not systematically address the issues pertaining to children and adolescents, they have been discussed in several areas in the related documents (Preparatory Memorandum pages 52-62; Appendix 5).

According to the Health Care Act (section 8), healthcare services must be based on evidence and recognized treatment and operational practices. As far as minors are concerned, there are no medical treatment that can be considered evidence-based. At the same time, the numbers of minors developing gender dysphoria has increased. In this situation, it is vital to assure that children and young people are able to talk about their feelings, and that their feelings are acknowledged. The opportunity to reflect on one's experience should be easily accessible through the local health system (i.e., school or student health care, primary care). A young

person's feelings should not be interpreted as immediately requiring specialized medical examinations or treatments.

In cases of children and adolescents, ethical issues are concerned with the natural process of adolescent identity development, and the possibility that medical interventions may interfere with this process. It has been suggested that hormone therapy (e.g., pubertal suppression) alters the course of gender identity development; i.e., it may consolidate a gender identity that would have otherwise changed in some of the treated adolescents. The reliability of the existing studies with no control groups is highly uncertain, and because of this uncertainty, no decisions should be made that can permanently alter a still-maturing minor's mental and physical development.

From the point of view of patient advocacy groups, halting puberty is providing young people with a period of reflection, rather than consolidating their gender identity. This is based on the premise that halting the development of one's permanent sex characteristics will improve the minor's social interactions, while allowing more time for diagnostic evaluations. Additionally, patient advocacy groups assert that early intervention with hormonal treatments will lead to improved outcomes for the patients who do eventually pursue gender reassignment. Professionals, for their part, consider it important to ensure that irreversible interventions, which may also have significant adverse effects, both physical and mental, are only performed on individuals who are able to understand the permanence of the changes and the potential for harm, and who are unlikely to regret such interventions. It is not known how the hormonal suppression of puberty affects young people's judgement and decision-making.

The Act on the Status and Rights of Patients (1992/785) states that the patient shall be provided with information about his/her state of health, the significance of the treatment, various alternative forms of treatment and their effects, and about other factors concerning treatment that have an effect on treatment decision-making. In a situation where a minor's identification with the opposite sex causes long-term and severe dysphoria, it is important to make sure that he/she understands the realistic potential of gender reassignment treatments to alter secondary sex characteristics, the reality of a lifelong commitment to medical therapy, the permanence of the effects, and the possible physical and mental adverse effects of the treatments. Although patients may experience regret, after reassignment treatments, there is no going back to the non-reassigned body and its normal functions. Brain development continues until early adulthood – about age 25, which also affects young people's ability to assess the consequences of their decisions on their own future selves for rest of their lives.

A lack of recognition of comorbid psychiatric disorders common among gender-dysphoric adolescents can also be detrimental. Since reduction of psychiatric symptoms cannot be achieved with hormonal and surgical interventions, it is not a valid justification for gender reassignment. A young person's identity and personality development must be stable so that they can genuinely face and discuss their gender dysphoria, the significance of their own feelings, and the need for various treatment options.

For children and adolescents, these factors are key reasons for postponing any interventions until adulthood.

7. Conclusions

The first-line intervention for gender variance during childhood and adolescent years is psychosocial support and, as necessary, gender-explorative therapy and treatment for comorbid psychiatric disorders. Uncertainty related to gender identity should be dealt with according to the severity of symptoms and the need for treatment and should be handled at the school / student health care, primary health care at the local level, or in specialty care.

In adolescents, psychiatric disorders and developmental difficulties may predispose a young person to the onset of gender dysphoria. These young people should receive treatment for their mental and behavioral health issues, and their mental health must be stable prior to the determination of their gender identity.

Clinical experience reveals that autistic spectrum disorders (ASD) are overrepresented among adolescents suffering from gender dysphoria; even if such adolescents are presenting with gender dysphoria, rehabilitative interventions for ASD must be properly addressed.

In light of available evidence, gender reassignment of minors is an experimental practice. Based on studies examining gender identity in minors, hormonal interventions may be considered before reaching adulthood in those with firmly established transgender identities, but it must be done with a great deal of caution, and no irreversible treatment should be initiated. Information about the potential harms of hormone therapies is accumulating slowly and is not systematically reported. It is critical to obtain information on the benefits and risks of these treatments in rigorous research settings.

At a minimum, a consultation for a pre- pubescent child at the specialist setting at the TAYS includes an extensive assessment appointment costing EUR 369. If necessary, a day-long outpatient consultation can be arranged, costing EUR 1,408.

The consultation and assessment process for minors at the specialist settings of TAYS or HUS costs EUR 4,300. If it is determined that this process would be untimely, the minimum cost is EUR 640. An initial assessment / consultation by phone costs EUR 100.

The planning and monitoring costs for pubertal suppression are EUR 2,000 for the first year, and EUR 1,200 for subsequent years. The costs for the planning and monitoring of hormone treatments are a minimum of EUR 400 per year.

These costs do not take into account the additional costs of psychosocial support provided in the local level, the possible need for psychiatric treatment, or hormone treatment medication costs.

8. Summary of the Recommendations

PALKO / COHERE maintains the following:

1. For the treatment of gender dysphoria due to variations in gender identity in minors, psychosocial support should be provided in school and student healthcare and in primary healthcare, and there must be sufficient competency to provide such support.
2. Consultation with a child or youth psychiatrist and the necessary psychiatric treatment and psychotherapy should be arranged locally according to the level of treatment needed.
3. If a child or young person experiencing gender-related anxiety has other simultaneous psychiatric symptoms requiring specialised medical care, treatment according to the nature and severity of the disorder must be arranged within the services of their own region, as no conclusions can be drawn on the stability of gender identity during the period of disorder caused by a psychiatric illness with symptoms that hamper development.

PALKO / COHERE considers that the consultation, periods of assessment, and treatments by the research group on the gender identity of minors at TAYS or HUS must be carried out according to the following principles:

1. Children who have not started puberty and are experiencing persistent, severe anxiety related to gender conflict and/or identification as the other sex may be sent for a consultation visit to the research group on the gender identity of minors at TAYS or HUS. Any need for support beyond the consultation visit or need for other psychiatric treatment should be addressed by local services according to the nature and severity of the problem.

2. If a child is diagnosed prior to the onset of puberty with a persistent experience of identifying as the other sex and shows symptoms of gender-related anxiety, which increases in severity in puberty, the child can be guided at the onset of puberty to the research group on the gender identity of minors at TAYS or HUS for an assessment of the need for treatment to suppress puberty. Based on these assessments, puberty suppression treatment may be initiated on a case-by-case basis after careful consideration and appropriate diagnostic examinations if the medical indications for the treatment are present and there are no contraindications. Therapeutic amenorrhea, i.e. prevention of menstruation, is also medically possible.

3. A young person who has already undergone puberty can be sent to the research clinic on the gender identity of minors at TAYS or HUS for extensive gender identity studies if the variation in gender identity and related dysphoria do not reflect the temporary search for identity typical of the development stage of adolescence and do not subside once the young person has had the opportunity to reflect on their identity but rather their identity and personality development appear to be stable.

4. Based on thorough, case-by-case consideration, the initiation of hormonal interventions that alter sex characteristics may be considered before the person is 18 years of age only if it can be ascertained that their identity as the other sex is of a permanent nature and causes severe dysphoria. In addition, it must be confirmed that the young person is able to understand the significance of irreversible treatments and the

benefits and disadvantages associated with lifelong hormone therapy, and that no contraindications are present.

5. If a young person experiencing gender-related anxiety has experienced or is simultaneously experiencing psychiatric symptoms requiring specialized medical care, a gender identity assessment may be considered if the need for it continues after the other psychiatric symptoms have ceased and adolescent development is progressing normally. In this case, a young person can be sent by the specialized youth psychiatric care in their region for an extensive gender identity study by the TAYS or HUS research group on the gender identity of minors, which will begin the diagnostic studies. Based on the results of the studies, the need for and timeliness of medically justified treatments will be assessed individually.

Surgical treatments are not part of the treatment methods for dysphoria caused by gender-related conflicts in minors. The initiation and monitoring of hormonal treatments must be centralized at the research clinics on gender identity at HUS and TAYS.

9. Additional Evidence Gathering and Monitoring the Effectiveness of Recommendations

Moving forward, the following information must be obtained about the patients diagnosed and receiving treatments in Finland before re-evaluating these recommendations:

- Number of new patient referrals
- Number of patients starting the assessment period, and numbers of new transgender (F64.0) vs “other gender” (F64.8) diagnoses
- Whether the diagnosis remains stable or changes during the assessment phase
- Number of patients discontinuing the assessment period and the reasons for the discontinuation
- Adverse effects of treatments (especially long-term effects and effect on fertility)
- Number of patients regretting hormone therapy
- Analysis of the effects of the assessment and the treatment period on gender dysphoria outcomes, as measured by the Gender Congruence and Life Satisfaction Scale (GCLS)
- Analysis of the effects of the assessment and the treatment period on functional capacity and quality of life
- The prevalence of co-occurring psychiatric diagnoses (especially neurodevelopmental diagnoses F80-F90) among those diagnosed with / seeking treatment for gender dysphoria, and whether the presence of these co-occurring diagnoses impacts the ability to achieve the desired outcome (e.g. decreased dysphoria) in the assessment or the treatment phase.
- Whether the assessment and treatment periods lead to a reduction of suicide attempts
- Whether the assessment and treatment periods lead to a reduction in depression and distress

10. Appendices

Preparatory Memorandum, with Appendices 1-5.