

REPORT 9 OF THE COUNCIL ON SCIENCE AND PUBLIC HEALTH (A-08)
Optimizing Care for Gay Men and Lesbians
(Reference Committee E)

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Objective: To update the 1994 Council report on the health care needs of gay men and lesbians.

Methods: To supplement the literature search from the 1994 Council report, English-language reports on studies using human subjects were selected from a PubMed search of the literature from 1995 to April 2008 using the MeSh terms “homosexuality, male or female,” in combination with “statistics & numerical data,” “sexual behavior,” “risk-taking,” “epidemiology,” “sexually-transmitted diseases,” “ethnic groups,” “medical history taking,” “genetics, behavioral,” “health services/utilization,” “cancer,” “substance-related disorders,” “mental disorders/diagnosis,” “preventive health services,” and “prejudice or violence.” In addition, Web sites of the Gay and Lesbian Medical Association, American Academy of Pediatrics, National Institutes of Mental Health, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, American Psychiatric Association, American Academy of Family Physicians, and the American College of Physicians also were searched for relevant documents. Additional articles were identified by manual review of the references cited in these publications.

Results: Gay men and lesbians are confronted with many of the same health issues as their heterosexual counterparts, but in addition have certain unique conditions related either to sexual or other disease risk factors or to use of fewer preventive services. Emotional and mental health concerns related to stigmatization and societal discrimination, substance use, access to care, and partners’ involvement in medical decision-making create a backdrop against which other clinical issues are evaluated. Although attitudes among health care professionals have improved over the last two decades, barriers still exist to providing optimal care and eliminating disparities for gay men and lesbians, including reluctance on the part of some patients to disclose their sexual identity.

Additional issues facing gay men include sexually transmitted and other infectious diseases, and cancer risks related to human papillomavirus infection. Lesbians may have higher risks for breast and ovarian cancer, as well as cardiovascular disease, but utilize screening services at a low rate. Adolescents face a range of issues in dealing with their emerging sexual identity, and young gay men are exhibiting an increase in behaviors and practices that raise the risk of sexually transmitted diseases, including infection with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV).

Conclusion: Improvements are still needed to address disparities in health care for gay men and lesbians. Gay men and lesbians are disproportionately at risk for societal discrimination and violent hate crimes, STDs, a variety of mental health conditions, substance use, and certain cancers. Problems are encountered with access to quality care and counseling pertinent to actual lifestyle behaviors.⁵⁹ Physicians can assist by providing a welcoming practice environment, relevant educational materials, and inclusive patient intake and other forms, and by becoming familiar with the issues facing gay men and lesbians. When physicians and practices cannot accomplish these tasks, referral of the patient to another physician who can provide such care is imperative. With appropriate education and training, physicians can play a vital role in ensuring access to quality care for gay men and lesbians, and in helping them lead healthier lives.

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL ON SCIENCE AND PUBLIC HEALTH

CSAPH Report 9-A-08

Subject: Optimizing Care for Gay Men and Lesbians

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Referred to: Reference Committee E
(Shannon M. Kilgore, MD, Chair)

1 Introduction

2
3 This Council has previously addressed the health care needs of the homosexual community; first in
4 1981 as the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) epidemic was unfolding, and again in 1994 when
5 effective treatments for HIV were available, but disparities in providing quality care to gay men and
6 lesbians became more widely recognized.^{1,2}

7
8 Recently, the American Medical Association (AMA) Advisory Committee on Gay, Lesbian, Bisexual
9 and Transgender (GLBT) Issues requested that the Council again consider this topic. The Committee
10 supported its request by identifying topic areas that needed updating, based on new findings and
11 published data. The recognition that many lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender health issues were
12 not fully understood led the Institute of Medicine to issue a report in 1999 on the status of lesbians’
13 health.³ *Healthy People 2010* identifies gay men and lesbians as 1 of the 6 most underserved groups
14 subject to health disparities.⁴

15
16 The Council agreed to the request and this report represents a collaborative effort between the
17 Council and the GLBT Advisory Committee. The report focuses on the health care needs of gay men
18 and lesbians in the United States, including specific discussion and/or advice, for physicians on how
19 to optimize the care of these individuals.

20
21 The report does not examine the issue of same sex marriage nor specifically examine the
22 physiological and psychological well-being of children raised by same sex couples. However, the
23 Council notes that current AMA policy supports: (1) allowing the adoption of a child by the same sex
24 partner, or opposite sex nonmarried partner, who functions as a second parent or co-parent to that
25 child; and (2) equality in laws affecting health care of members (including dependent children) in
26 same sex partner households (Policies H-60.940 and D-65.995, AMA Policy Database). The
27 American Academy of Pediatrics also has concluded that “there is no relationship between parents’
28 sexual orientation and any measure of a child’s emotional, psychosocial, and behavioral adjustment”
29 and that “greater stability and nurturance within a family system [regardless of parents’ sexual
30 orientation] predicts greater security and fewer behavioral problems among children.”⁵ Similarly, the
31 American Academy of Family Physicians supports promoting a safe and nurturing environment,
32 including psychological and legal security, for all children, including those of adoptive or foster
33 parents, regardless of the parent’s sexual orientation.⁶ Nationally, 33% of female-partnered and 22%
34 of male-partnered households live with their children under the age of 18 years.⁷

35
36 This report also does not specifically address gender identity except to differentiate it from sexual
37 orientation (see below). Many gay men and lesbians have gender identities concordant with their
38 biological sex. However, transgender persons have a gender identity discordant from their biological
39 sex with psychological and social attributes that do not correspond to their physical bodies.

1 Transsexuals, a subset of transgender, are people who have a strong and persistent cross-gender
2 identification, discomfort with their biological self (gender dysphoria), and desire to acquire the
3 characteristics of the other sex, which may lead them to seek sexual reassignment surgery. Sexual
4 orientation and gender identity are independent attributes and it is possible for a transgender
5 individual to have either opposite sex or same sex desires.

6 Methods

7
8
9 To supplement the literature search from the 1994 Council report, English-language reports on studies
10 using human subjects were selected from a PubMed search of the literature from 1995 to April 2008
11 using the MeSh terms “homosexuality, male or female,” in combination with “statistics & numerical
12 data,” “sexual behavior,” “risk-taking,” “epidemiology,” “sexually-transmitted diseases,” “ethnic
13 groups,” “medical history taking,” “genetics, behavioral,” “health services/utilization,” “cancer,”
14 “substance-related disorders,” “mental disorders/diagnosis,” “preventive health services,” and
15 “prejudice or violence.” In addition, Web sites of the Gay and Lesbian Medical Association,
16 American Academy of Pediatrics, National Institutes of Mental Health, Centers for Disease Control
17 and Prevention (CDC), American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, American
18 Psychiatric Association, American Academy of Family Physicians, and the American College of
19 Physicians also were searched for relevant documents. Additional articles were identified by manual
20 review of the references cited in these publications.

21 Definition of Terms

22
23
24 In order for physicians to better understand their gay and lesbian patients, the terminology and
25 demographics of homosexuality are briefly reviewed. Gay refers to a male who is emotionally,
26 romantically, sexually, and relationally attracted to other males. Popular usage also employs gay to
27 refer to men and women with same sex attractions. Lesbian refers to women who are emotionally,
28 romantically, sexually, and relationally attracted to other women.

29
30 Sexual Orientation vs Sexual Behavior. The distinction between sexual orientation (identity) and
31 sexual behavior is important when considering the medical care of gay men and lesbians. Sexual
32 orientation consists of 3 attributes: desire or attraction, behavior, and identity. These attributes
33 frequently do not co-exist. Individuals may identify with one sexual orientation, yet their sexual
34 behavior, either in the past or present, may not correspond. One widely quoted study found that for
35 men, 7.7% have same sex desires, 7.1% participated in same sex behaviors, and 2.8% self-identified
36 as being gay.⁸ This study found that for women, 7.5% express same sex desires, 3.8% participated in
37 same sex behaviors, and 1.4% self-identified as being lesbian.⁸ Thus, more individuals have
38 homosexual feelings than engage in homosexual behavior, and more engage in homosexual behavior
39 than develop lasting homosexual identification.⁸ Furthermore, an individual's sexual behaviors may
40 vary over time. For example, some gay men, lesbians, and bisexuals are or were married, and some
41 have children either from their own heterosexual relationships or by adoption.⁹ Self-identified
42 lesbians who want to have their own children may choose to be artificially inseminated, after which
43 the birth mother and her lesbian partner may seek to legally adopt the child.¹⁰

44
45 Prevalence of Gay Men and Lesbians. Differences regarding personal perception and accepted
46 definition of sexual orientation versus behavior contribute to the uncertainty about the prevalence of
47 gay men, lesbians and bisexuals. In addition, given the sensitive nature of the subject and the societal
48 stigmatization of homosexuality, underreporting may occur. An analysis of 5 surveys conducted
49 between 1970 and 1990 estimated that at least 5% to 7% of U.S. males report same-gender sexual
50 contact during adulthood.¹¹ When the largest metropolitan areas are surveyed, more than 9% of men
51 self-identify as gay.⁸ Surveys conducted from 1996 to 2000 indicate that the rate of men who have

1 sex with men (MSM) is in the range of 3.1% to 3.7%.¹² Per the definition of terms provided above,
2 some of these surveys blurred the lines among sexual behavior and sexual identity. The 2002 National
3 Survey of Family Growth (NSFG) report found that among males 15 to 44 years of age, 6% have had
4 oral or anal sex with another male.¹³ The proportion of men who had a male sexual partner in the last
5 12 months was 2.9%, or approximately 1.77 million men. The proportion of men who had only male
6 sexual partners in the last 12 months was 1.6%.

7
8 The NSFG also found that among women 15 to 44 years of age, 11% answered yes when asked,
9 “Have you ever had any sexual experience of any kind with another female?” The proportion of
10 women who had a female sexual partner in the last 12 months was 4.4%, or approximately 2.71
11 million women, and the proportion who had only female sexual partners in the last 12 months was
12 1.3%. In the Women’s Health Study of American Physicians, 2.6% of respondents self-identified as
13 lesbian.¹⁴ Information derived from exit polling and longitudinal health care studies reveals that
14 lesbian self-identification is somewhat higher in younger, compared with older individuals.^{15,16}

15
16 Thus, self-reports of sexual orientation vary across age groups, and also differ by geographical
17 locations. Gay men and lesbians are found in all communities, and therefore, comprise a portion of
18 the patient pool for health care services throughout the country.

19
20 Non-disclosure of sexual identity. Religious background, culture, and race affect and often
21 complicate how people self-identify (or misidentify) themselves. Gay-identified MSM face stigma in
22 various aspects of their lives. Shame and hostility surrounding lesbians and particularly gay men are
23 more prevalent in certain racial/ethnic communities. African-American and Latino MSM face racial
24 discrimination from society at large and homophobia from their own ethnic groups, often feel
25 unaccepted in the mainstream gay community, and are more likely to identify as heterosexual than
26 white MSM.¹⁷ When faced with fear of alienation and lack of community support, such individuals
27 may characterize their actions as sexual behavior as opposed to a sexual orientation,¹⁸ which prevents
28 MSM in both groups from identifying as gay and, thus, limits exposure and response to prevention
29 messages.

30
31 Internalized homophobia and nondisclosure are maladaptive methods of trying to reconcile the shame
32 and guilt that occur when the beliefs of an individual’s religion, culture, or race differ from his or her
33 desires and behaviors. Internalization of these experiences influences health care utilization, HIV
34 testing, communication, and adherence behaviors among members of this population. This may lead
35 to seclusion and risk-taking behaviors. Thus, how men and women choose to self-identify is
36 important and should be considered by physicians and their staff when shaping communication and
37 prevention strategies in order to foster appropriate disclosure of sexual behaviors and identity;
38 nondisclosure can be harmful to the patient and his or her partners.⁶

40 General Issues Confronting Gay Men and Lesbians That Affect Well Being and Medical Care

41
42 Mental Health. The 1994 Council report highlighted an undercurrent of emotional concerns affecting
43 gay men and lesbians.² All patients, regardless of their sexual orientation, have a right to respect and
44 concern for their lives and values. However, as noted above, gay men and lesbians face ostracism
45 and discrimination from many elements of society, including some health care professionals.

46
47 Societal reactions force some gay men and lesbians to feel stigmatized and hide their true identity
48 from their co-workers, friends, family, and physicians. Societal and internalized homophobia may
49 affect access to appropriate care and directly impact mental health and well-being. Adolescents who
50 are ambivalent about their sexuality or who are aware of their homosexual orientation but isolated
51 from emotional support are especially vulnerable to societal reactions. As a result, gay men and

1 lesbians have a greater vulnerability to certain psychiatric disorders; the 12-month prevalence of
2 panic disorder, major depression, and generalized anxiety disorder is higher in gay men and
3 lesbians.¹⁹ Additionally, gay men and lesbians use mental health care services at a significantly
4 higher rate compared with heterosexual men and women.¹⁹

5
6 Psychiatric disorders develop (in part) as a result of leading marginalized lives; enduring the stress of
7 hiding one's sexuality; or facing sexual prejudice that manifests as verbal, emotional, or physical
8 abuse/violence from intolerant family members and communities.²⁰⁻²² According to 2004 Federal
9 Bureau of Investigation statistics, hate crimes based on sexual orientation constituted the third highest
10 category reported and made up 15.5% of all reported hate crimes; only race- and religion-based
11 prejudice crimes were more prevalent.²³ The prevalence of domestic violence among gay and lesbian
12 couples is as common as it is in heterosexual relationships.²⁴ While same sex battering mirrors
13 heterosexual battering both in type and prevalence, gay and lesbian victims may receive fewer
14 protections.²⁵

15
16 Additionally, many older gay men in particular, who lived through the acquired immunodeficiency
17 syndrome (AIDS) crisis, often continue to feel guilt for many years and sometimes throughout the
18 remainder of their lives. This guilt is due to the fact that they lost many friends and loved ones but are
19 still alive, even though they engaged in the same behaviors as those lost. While this may have
20 negative psychological implications, these individuals often have a greater understanding of
21 HIV/AIDS.

22
23 Substance Use. Substance use and substance use disorders are prevalent in all segments of American
24 society (see CSAPH Report 8, A-08). Counseling gay men and lesbians about smoking cessation is
25 important because they have significantly higher smoking rates than the general population.²⁶
26 Accurately establishing the epidemiology of substance use in gay men and lesbians is complicated by
27 sampling techniques and definitions used. Nevertheless, the reported rates of substance use and
28 substance use disorders, including alcohol, tobacco, and other drugs (eg, marijuana, cocaine,
29 methamphetamine), appear to be somewhat higher among gay men and lesbians, particularly in urban
30 areas, compared with their heterosexual counterparts.²⁷⁻³²

31
32 Patterns of substance use are in part influenced by the fact that bars are common meeting venues for
33 gay men and lesbians. So-called "club drugs" (3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine [MDMA;
34 Ecstasy]; gammahydroxybutyrate [GHB]) along with methamphetamine are popular among young
35 adults and urban MSM. Substance use can camouflage or exacerbate other underlying mental health
36 problems, and increases the probability of engaging in high-risk sexual behavior.^{33,34} In particular,
37 increased sexual risk behavior has been associated with the use of methamphetamine and inhaled
38 nitrites ("poppers").³⁵⁻³⁹

39
40 Access to Care. Access to health care is another important issue.^{3,4} Optimal health care requires
41 access to both knowledgeable physicians and appropriate prevention services. Impaired access to
42 health care and the resultant underservice can be caused by economic, geographic, cultural, linguistic,
43 or attitudinal barriers. Gay men and lesbians encounter barriers to accessing care, clustering around 4
44 main issues:⁴⁰ (1) reluctance of some gay men and lesbians to disclose sexual identity, in part
45 because of fear of negative reactions; (2) insufficient numbers of physicians who feel competent to
46 provide care; (3) barriers emanating from lack of financial resources, lack of insurance, or
47 impediments that limit visiting and medical decision-making rights (see below) for gay men and
48 lesbians and their partners; and (4) lack of culturally appropriate prevention services.

49
50 Surrogates and Medical Decision-Making. In regard to medical decision-making, particularly
51 concerning patient preferences for life-sustaining treatment, physicians need to consider the special

1 needs of gay men and lesbians who have significant partner relationships. Although biological
2 relatives are usually consulted in surrogate decision-making, many gay men and lesbians have not
3 informed their families of their homosexual relationships and many would prefer their partners to be
4 involved in proxy medical decisions. In 2006, our AMA adopted policy that encourages all hospitals
5 to add to their rules and regulations, and to their patient's Bill of Rights, language permitting same
6 sex couples and their dependent children the same hospital visitation privileges offered to married
7 couples. Whenever possible, physicians should explore surrogate decision-making preferences of
8 their homosexual patients before the need arises. To do this effectively, physicians and patients must
9 know their state and local laws on surrogate decision-making.

10 Response of the Medical Profession

11 The 1994 Council report chronicled relevant information about the views of physicians toward gay
12 men and lesbians. In 1973 the American Psychiatric Association (APA) officially removed
13 homosexuality from the list of diagnoses of mental disorders. In 1986 the APA deleted a diagnostic
14 category of "ego-dystonic homosexuality" for individuals diagnosed as overly concerned about their
15 homosexuality, but in succeeding years, the attitudes and beliefs of certain physicians have continued
16 to reflect the often negative or at best ambivalent views of the larger society toward homosexuality,
17 and a majority of physicians surveyed expressed discomfort regarding the care of gay men and
18 lesbians.⁴¹ Reparative therapy, or conversion therapy, is aimed at changing a person's sexual
19 orientation from homosexuality to heterosexuality. Many organizations, including both the AMA and
20 the APA warn that such attempts may be harmful to the patient (AMA Policy H-160.991).

21 More recent surveys suggest a substantial reduction in homophobia among physicians, but reflect
22 lingering uncertainties and discomfort in their abilities to provide optimal care, especially among
23 pediatricians treating adolescent gay males or lesbians.^{42,43} These and other barriers may lead to
24 delays in seeking care or an avoidance of preventive and treatment services. The Gay and Lesbian
25 Medical Association (GLMA) with assistance from our AMA is conducting a national survey to study
26 physicians' attitudes, knowledge, and beliefs about LGBT patients' unique health care needs in order
27 to improve knowledge and practices in this area.

28 Understanding Homosexuality. Better understanding about the origins of homosexuality could
29 improve attitudes and practices. Twins studies demonstrate that familial factors, a portion of which
30 are genetic, have a substantial impact on sexual orientation. Concordance rates of 48% to 60% were
31 found in studies of male and female pairs of monozygotic twins, in which at least one twin was
32 homosexual; one monozygotic triplet set has been identified with all 3 concordant for homosexual
33 orientation.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ In fraternal male twins, if one is gay, there is a 22% chance the second twin will also
34 be gay. Additionally, among those raised in the same household, 11% of the non-twin brothers are
35 gay, 9% if adopted. In fraternal female twins, there is a 16% chance the second twin will be lesbian.
36 Adopted sisters of lesbians have a 6% chance of being lesbian. These studies relied on recruitment of
37 subjects through publications targeting gay men and lesbians, potentially biasing the sample. Studies
38 that relied on self-report questionnaires in national twin samples and sibling pairs, or that were based
39 on volunteer twin registries also have demonstrated significant familial aggregation, but with a lower
40 concordance rate for homosexual orientation of approximately 30%.^{47,48} Heritability reflects the
41 degree to which a given trait is associated with genetic factors, but nothing about the specific genetic
42 factors involved or about the mechanisms through which they exert influence (i.e., direct or
43 permissive effects).

44 A consistent biodemographic correlate of sexual orientation in men is birth order, originally observed
45 in a Canadian sample in the 1990s, and since confirmed by others.^{49,50} Younger brothers are more
46 likely to be gay; older sisters neither enhance this effect nor negate it. Another correlate of sexual
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1 orientation in men is handedness. If no older brothers exist, 12% of heterosexual males and 16% of
 2 homosexual males are left-handed, respectively. However, fraternal birth order and handedness may
 3 interact in influencing sexual orientation.⁵¹ Both childhood social/rearing and prenatal mechanisms
 4 have been advanced to account for the “fraternal birth order” effect in men. A recent analysis of four
 5 samples of gay and heterosexual men, including individuals reared in nonbiological and blended
 6 families (i.e., raised with step-siblings or as adoptees) supports a prenatal origin to the fraternal birth
 7 order effect since only biological older brothers, including those not reared with the participant,
 8 increased the probability of homosexuality in men.⁵²

9
 10 Other findings point to discernible differences in neurodevelopment and neurophysiologic function
 11 between homosexual and heterosexual individuals, including variations in the size or volume of a
 12 putative sexually dimorphic area in the human brain (interstitial nucleus of the anterior
 13 hypothalamus), cochlear function and tone discrimination, and central nervous system processing and
 14 response to human pheromone-like substances.⁵³⁻⁵⁸

15 16 Optimizing Primary Care of Gay Men and Lesbians

17
 18 As noted above, creating a welcoming environment and engaging in nonjudgmental discussion are
 19 initially important to optimize the patient-physician relationship, and thus the care delivered for gay
 20 men and lesbians. A patient’s experience in a health care setting is influenced by all of the individuals
 21 encountered during the visit. Cogent advice on creating a safe health care environment for gay men
 22 and lesbians is available from the GLMA.⁵⁹ To educate a new generation of clinicians, the
 23 American College of Physicians also has published the first comprehensive text on the care of sexual
 24 and gender minority patients.⁶⁰ This text provides an extensive list of resources based on topic, as
 25 well as sample intake (and sexual history) forms for new patients that are available free online
 26 (www.acponline.org/acp_press/fenway/).

27
 28 Taking a Patient Sexual History. A major reason why physicians may not offer appropriate guidance
 29 for gay men and lesbians is a failure to identify such patients. Physicians begin their relationship with
 30 patients by taking a medical and pertinent social/family history; a sexual history is an important and
 31 often overlooked component of the medical history. Previous surveys indicated that communication
 32 between gay men and lesbians and their primary care physician may be limited on several levels, and
 33 that a minority of primary care physicians routinely conducted a sexual history of new adult patients.²
 34 These findings were duplicated in a recent survey, which found that although approximately 60% of
 35 primary care physicians asked about sexual activity at a routine visit, only 12% to 34% conducted a
 36 sexual history.⁶¹ Another survey found that less than 20% of obstetricians and family practitioners
 37 routinely assessed their patient’s sexual orientation.⁶² The goal of open communication is
 38 complicated by the fact that a significant percentage of gay men and lesbians do not routinely reveal
 39 their sexual orientation to their primary care physician because of fear of discrimination or
 40 ostracism.^{63,64} Less than 20% of gay men patients routinely discuss their risk of sexually transmitted
 41 diseases (STDs) with their physician, and of these, only 1 in 5 are prompted to do so by their
 42 physician.⁶⁵

43
 44 Thus, many physicians continue to experience awkwardness around issues of sexual health and
 45 HIV/AIDS, leading to incomplete discussions of these topics, despite interest from their patients.
 46 Patients usually feel comfortable talking with their physician about sexual practices and believe it is
 47 appropriate for physicians to question them in this area. When physicians do not ascertain sexual
 48 orientation and sexual behavior and assume patients are heterosexual, gay men and lesbians may not
 49 acknowledge or share these facts, which can contribute to the physician overlooking risk factors.
 50 Sample recommended questions for intake forms are available in the *Guidelines for Care of Lesbian,
 51 Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Patients.*⁵⁹ Taking an inclusive and nonjudgmental history and being

1 aware of the range of health-related behaviors and medicolegal issues pertinent to gay men and
2 lesbians enables physicians to perform relevant screening tests and to make appropriate referrals.
3 Indeed, the very act of taking a sexual history in a nonjudgmental and attentive manner with open-
4 ended questions can help the patient feel comfortable and willing to share information.

5
6 For the sexual history, general questions raising the topic of sexual activity without probing into
7 specific behaviors should be asked first (for example, lead-in questions might be, "Are you sexually
8 active or do you abstain from sex?" "When did you first engage in sexual activity?" or "Do you have
9 sex with men, women, both or neither?"). Questions that could confuse behavior with orientation (for
10 example, "Are you gay?") should be avoided, as many patients may have had sexual contact with
11 others of their own sex and yet would not consider themselves gay or lesbian by their understanding
12 of the term. These can be followed by more specific questions (which differ for men and women)
13 relating to actual activity and behavior to assist in risk assessment for STDs, including HIV.
14 Guidance for conducting a sexual risk assessment in MSM is available from the GLMA.⁶⁶ For
15 women, the CDC recommends asking about the "five P's": partners, practices, prevention of STDs,
16 past history of STDs, and prevention of pregnancy. Previous pregnancy, induced abortion, and
17 hormonal contraceptive use are common among women who report sex with women, regardless of
18 self-identification as lesbian.⁶⁷

19
20 Patient history-taking and evaluation is also an appropriate time to screen for sexual abuse, domestic
21 violence, and other life stressors among gay men, lesbians, and bisexuals that have implications for
22 mental health and well being (as noted above).

23 24 Diagnostic and Therapeutic Considerations

25
26 There is no disease that can be ruled in or out solely on the basis of a patient's sexual orientation or
27 sexual behavior. Generally, men and women who engage in same sex behavior suffer from the same
28 health afflictions as individuals who engage in opposite sex behavior. Physicians should be vigilant
29 for tobacco, alcohol, and other substance use, and allow for discussion of stress and other life events
30 that may affect well being, or increase the occurrence of mood and/or anxiety disorders in their gay
31 and lesbian patients. Some disease entities, however, are of particular concern to men and women
32 who engage in same sex behavior and care must be taken to consider them in the development of a
33 differential diagnosis and treatment plan.

34 35 Lesbians: Additional Considerations for Clinicians

36
37 Most major health issues confronting lesbians are similar to those of heterosexual women, but issues
38 that may require more attention include: fostering increased routine screening for breast and cervical
39 cancer and certain STDs; evaluating risk for cardiovascular disease; assessing substance use and
40 substance use disorders; assessing mental health and assisting patients in coping with sexual stigma
41 and sexual prejudice; and screening for domestic violence, hate crimes, and other sources of
42 significant ongoing stress.

43
44 Sexually Transmitted Diseases. Attempts to use national or local surveillance data to estimate the
45 risk of STD transmission between women are limited because many risk classification schemes have
46 either excluded same-gender sex among women or subsumed it under a hierarchy of other behaviors
47 viewed as higher risk.⁶⁸ This issue also is complicated by the fact that often times, women who have
48 sex with women (WSW) have had sex (or continue to have sex) with men.⁶⁹ Among such
49 individuals, acquisition of chronic virally transmitted diseases, including human papillomavirus
50 (HPV) genital herpes, and HIV from male partners, presumably occurs at a rate per contact similar to
51 that in heterosexual populations. Additionally, compared with heterosexual women, lesbians have

1 higher rates of sex with bisexual women and injection drug users.⁷⁰ These facts reinforce the need for
2 physicians to be aware of their patient's sexual history, regardless of their reported sexual orientation.
3

4 Although women who do not have sexual contact with men are at substantially reduced risk for
5 contracting syphilis, gonorrhea, and chlamydia, these cannot be eliminated from consideration on the
6 basis of sexual history alone. If symptoms or signs are present, these infections should be ruled out
7 with appropriate testing. Sexual transmission of HPV, herpes simplex (particularly HSV-1),
8 *Treponema pallidum*, *Trichomonas vaginalis*, *Chlamydia trachomatis*, and even gonorrhea and
9 hepatitis between women has been reported.⁷¹⁻⁷⁴ The prevalence of bacterial vaginosis among lesbians
10 is high; vaginitis in lesbians is caused by the same organisms as in heterosexual women and is treated
11 similarly.^{75,76}
12

13 Human papillomavirus (HPV) DNA has been detected in 13% to 30% of WSW. Self-identified
14 lesbians and women who have never had sex with men are less likely to undergo pelvic examinations
15 and Pap tests.⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹ However, squamous intraepithelial lesions are common among women who are
16 sexually active with women, and also occur among those who have never had sex with men.⁷⁹ Thus,
17 Pap test screening should not differ for WSW regardless of their sexual history, and current
18 recommendations on HPV vaccination should be followed.^{80,81} Vaccination is not a substitute for
19 routine cervical cancer screening, and vaccinated females should have cervical cancer screening as
20 recommended.
21

22 Women now comprise about 25% of newly diagnosed HIV/AIDS cases, with black women
23 representing the fastest growing segment, but female-to-female transmission of HIV has not been
24 conclusively demonstrated, despite various case reports. The well documented risk of female-to-male
25 transmission of HIV shows that vaginal secretions and menstrual blood contain the virus and that
26 mucous membrane exposure (e.g., oral, vaginal) to these secretions has the potential to cause HIV
27 infection.
28

29 Through December 2004, a total of 246,461 women in the United States were reported as HIV-
30 infected. Of these, 7,381 were reported to have had sex with women; however, most had other risk
31 factors, such as injection drug use; sex with men who are infected or who have risk factors for
32 infection; or, more rarely, receipt of blood or blood products.⁸² Among women who reported that
33 they have had sex only with women (n=534), 91% also had another risk factor—typically, injection
34 drug use. The CDC gives high priority for follow-up investigation to HIV-infected women whose
35 only initially reported risk factor is sex with women. As of December 2004, none of these
36 investigations had confirmed female-to-female HIV transmission, either because other risk factors
37 were later identified or because some women declined to be interviewed. A study of more than 1
38 million female blood donors found no HIV-infected women whose only risk factor was sex with
39 women. Despite the absence of confirmed cases of female-to-female transmission of HIV, current
40 findings do not negate the possibility.
41

42 Cancer. Based on survey data, self-identified lesbians as a group have more risk factors for certain
43 cancers compared with their heterosexual counterparts, including higher rates of smoking and alcohol
44 use; higher rates of overweight, central adiposity, and obesity; lower lifetime use of oral
45 contraceptives; fewer pregnancies (lower or nulliparity); and lower consumption of fruits and
46 vegetables.^{15,16,83} When addressed by standard risk assessment models, lesbians (as a group) have
47 higher 5-year and lifetime risks for developing breast cancer, and would appear to have higher risks
48 for ovarian cancer as well.⁸⁴ Additionally, lesbians are less likely to have had a mammogram in the
49 past 2 years than other women.⁸⁵ Because lesbians usually do not need contraceptives, they tend to
50 wait longer between Pap smears and general gynecological examinations. As noted above, lesbians
51 are less likely to undergo pelvic examinations and screening for cervical cancer. By not presenting

1 for regular Pap tests or screening mammograms, individuals miss the opportunity to receive other
2 preventive care.

3
4 Despite these findings and behaviors, there is no prospective population-based study of the
5 comparative incidence of cancers in lesbians, and no outcome data confirming that lesbians have
6 higher cancer rates. This lack of research is problematic because general epidemiological studies of
7 cancer in women have identified specific risk factors that are distributed differently in the lesbian
8 population. The only population-based cohort study that examined the subject found no evidence for
9 an increased rate of cancer in lesbians.⁸⁶ Physicians should screen lesbians for breast and cervical
10 cancer according to established guidelines for the general population. Further clinical decisions
11 should be based on evaluation of individual risk factors as determined by social and sexual history
12 and physical examination.

13
14 Cardiovascular Disease. As noted above, lesbians have more risk factors for heart disease than the
15 general population. One recent population-based study confirmed that lesbian women are more likely
16 to be overweight and obese.⁸⁷ Population-based data also suggest that lesbians are more likely to
17 report a diagnosis of heart disease than heterosexual women.⁸⁸ Increased attention to screening and
18 prevention of cardiovascular disease in these individuals is warranted.

19 20 Gay Men: Additional Considerations for Clinicians

21
22 Most major health issues confronting gay men are similar to those of heterosexual men, but several
23 unique issues exist including routine screening for HIV and other STDs, screening for and
24 immunizing against hepatitis viruses, and screening for HPV-related neoplasia. As noted above,
25 physicians also should be prepared to assess substance use and substance use disorders and mental
26 health status in patients who are coping with sexual stigma and sexual prejudice, or who may be
27 victims of domestic violence or hate crimes, and who are subject to other ongoing sources of
28 significant stress, such as discrimination or harassment in the workplace. Intimate partner violence
29 occurs at the same rate in same sex as in opposite sex relationships.⁸⁹

30
31 Sexually Transmitted Diseases. MSM may present with various syndromes typical of STDs.⁵⁹ HIV
32 infection remains a predominant health concern of the gay community; HPV and herpes simplex virus
33 infection also are common (see below). In 2006, 73% of HIV/AIDS diagnoses among adolescents
34 and adults were for males. Male-to-male sexual contact remains the primary transmission category for
35 new diagnoses, followed by injection drug use and high risk heterosexual contact.⁹⁰ MSM currently
36 account for ~70% of all HIV infections among male adults and adolescents; blacks are substantially
37 overrepresented, accounting for nearly half of new diagnoses.⁹¹

38
39 After declining during the 1980s and 1990s, the number of HIV diagnoses for MSM and the
40 occurrence of unsafe sex practices appear to be increasing.⁹² Individual, sociocultural, and biomedical
41 factors affect HIV risk behavior among MSM.⁹³ Sexual risk factors and apparent increases in
42 unprotected anal intercourse may be responsible, exacerbated in some cases by substance use;
43 additionally, advances in treatment for HIV infection have led to an increase in the number of persons
44 who are living with HIV infection. The availability of highly active antiretroviral therapy may lead to
45 the belief that improved treatment reduces infectiousness or makes HIV a less serious disease
46 (therapeutic optimism), causing some MSM to underestimate the risks associated with HIV
47 infection.^{92,94-96} Additionally, 1 in 4 persons in the United States who are infected with HIV are
48 unaware of their infection.⁹¹ Young MSM, particularly blacks, are even more likely to be unaware
49 they are HIV-positive and may lack perspective on the toll AIDS has taken on gay men.⁹⁷ HIV
50 prevention efforts can improve behavior and reduce sexual risk factors;^{98,99} such efforts include
51 making HIV testing a routine part of medical care, implementing new models for diagnosing HIV

1 infections outside of medical settings, and preventing new infections by working with HIV-infected
2 persons and their partners to reduce risky behaviors.

3
4 The rates of other STDs, including syphilis, gonorrhea, and chlamydia, have increased in some urban
5 areas, also affecting blacks and Hispanic disproportionately.^{92,100-102} Urethritis is the most common
6 presentation of chlamydia, but proctitis also may manifest. Other bacterial, protozoa, and viruses also
7 have been implicated in non-gonococcal urethritis in MSM.¹⁰³ Therefore, clinicians should routinely
8 assess the risks of STDs for all male patients. MSM should routinely undergo nonjudgmental
9 STD/HIV risk assessment and client-centered prevention counseling to reduce the likelihood of
10 acquiring, or for those who already infected, of transmitting HIV or other STDs. Current CDC
11 guidelines recommend that the following studies be performed at least annually for sexually active
12 MSM: HIV serology, if HIV-negative or not previously tested; syphilis serology; urethral culture or
13 urine nucleic acid amplification test for gonorrhea; urethral or urine test (nucleic acid amplification)
14 for chlamydia; pharyngeal specimen collection to test for gonorrhea in men with oral-genital
15 exposure; and rectal gonorrhea and chlamydia screening in men having receptive anal intercourse.¹⁰⁴

16
17 Hepatitis. All forms of hepatitis can be encountered in gay men. Hepatitis B disproportionately
18 affects MSM, accounting for 15% to 20% of new infections annually in the United States; however,
19 few adolescent and young adult MSM are vaccinated against HBV.^{105,106} The Advisory Committee
20 on Immunization Practices (ACIP) recommends universal hepatitis B vaccination for all unvaccinated
21 adults in settings in which a high proportion of adults have risks for HBV infection, such as health
22 care settings targeting services to MSM, STD/HIV testing and treatment facilities, and drug abuse
23 treatment and prevention settings. Hepatitis A also disproportionately affects MSM, accounting for
24 approximately 10% of all new HAV infection in this country; hepatitis A infection is generally based
25 on fecal-oral routes of transmission.¹⁰⁷ Therefore, vaccination against hepatitis A and B is
26 recommended for all MSM in whom previous infection or immunization cannot be documented.

27
28 Cancer. Anogenital HPV types are divided into low risk types, which are associated predominately
29 with anogenital warts and mild dysplasia, and high risk types (e.g., 16, 18, 31, and 45), which are
30 associated with high grade dysplasia and anogenital cancers. HPV infection is prevalent in gay
31 men.¹⁰⁸ The same strains of HPV that are associated with cervical cancer (usually 16 and 18) can also
32 develop into anal carcinoma. Anal cancer is a rare tumor in the general population (age adjusted
33 incidence of 1.5/100,000), but the incidence has risen over the last 25 years. Anal cancer is much
34 more common in HIV-positive MSM, with an estimated incidence of 35/100,000, a rate that exceeds
35 that of cervical cancer.¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹⁰ Another study estimated that the incidence of anal cancer is 80 times
36 higher in gay and bisexual men.¹¹¹ Anal cancer and its precursor lesion, anal high grade squamous
37 intraepithelial lesions (HSILs), are associated with HPV infection, anoreceptive intercourse, cigarette
38 smoking, and immunosuppression, as well as HIV infection; a high proportion of tumors have
39 detectable HPV.^{112,113} Anal HPV infection and anal SILs are most common in HIV-positive MSM
40 (perhaps because of persistent HPV infection), but sexually active HIV-negative MSM in all age
41 groups also have a high prevalence of SILs, as do HIV-positive heterosexual men.¹¹⁴

42
43 Similar to the cervical Pap smear, anal swabs for cytology are a possible screening method for anal
44 SILs and anal cancer and may be cost effective when administered every 2 to 3 years in HIV-negative
45 men 40 years of age and older; some experts recommend annually screening in HIV-positive
46 MSM.¹¹⁵⁻¹¹⁷ More studies are needed to confirm the utility of this screening approach, as well as the
47 potential value of HPV vaccination in men; the latter approach is currently being studied in clinical
48 trials.

49

Adolescents: Additional Considerations for Clinicians

When dealing with their sexual identity, adolescents face a major milestone in their development. Heterosexual adolescents who conform to the norms of society have their own set of concerns, but adolescents who think they may be homosexual confront an enormous psychosocial challenge. Gay and lesbian youth face unique developmental challenges to managing their emerging identity within the constraints of a heterosexual family, society, and tradition.¹¹⁸

Adolescents access to care is influenced by the balance between their minor status, their emerging sexuality, and the need for confidential, culturally competent care.⁵⁹ Often alienated from their families, schools, and communities, these youth are hindered by societal stigmatization and prejudice, limited knowledge of human sexuality, a need for secrecy, a lack of opportunities for open socialization, and limited communication with healthy role models. They may seek, but not find, understanding and acceptance by parents and others; such rejection may lead to isolation, runaway behavior, homelessness, depression, suicide, substance abuse, and school or job failure. A substantial number of gay and lesbian youth experience violence related to their sexual orientation and suffer harmful psychological and psychosocial consequences.⁵⁹

The psychosocial difficulties encountered by homosexual adolescents put them at risk for depression and suicide. According to the Secretary's Task Force on Youth Suicide issued nearly 20 years ago, gay male adolescents were 2 to 3 times more likely than their peers to attempt suicide.¹¹⁹ More recent analysis suggests that suicide attempts in gay and lesbian youth are significantly associated with gender nonconformity, early awareness of homosexuality, stress, violence, lack of support, family problems, school drop-out, and substance use or other psychiatric disorders.¹²⁰ The combination of substance use and unprotected sex is particularly problematic for gay and lesbian youth. Alcohol and substance use are significantly related to high risk sexual behavior.^{59,121} A significant number of gay youth engage in high risk sexual activity and unprotected anal intercourse, and are unaware of their HIV status.^{122,59}

Today, an increased number of resources are available to assist GLBT youth as well as their families and friends. Organizations such as Parents and Friends of Lesbians and Gays (PFLAG) and the Gay and Lesbian Straight Education Network (GLSEN) have become increasingly visible in communities across the country. These organizations work to educate both heterosexual and GLBT populations on the need for acceptance and understanding of individual differences, sexual orientations, and/or gender identities. Over the past 10 years, the GLSEN in particular has been very successful in bringing Gay/Straight Alliance student groups to schools across the country. Information about these organizations may be found at www.pflag.org and www.glsen.org.

Conclusion

Improvements are still needed to address disparities in health care for gay men and lesbians. Gay men and lesbians are disproportionately at risk for societal discrimination and violent hate crimes, STDs, a variety of mental health conditions, substance use, and certain cancers. Problems are encountered with access to quality care and counseling pertinent to actual lifestyle behaviors.⁵⁹ Physicians can assist by providing a welcoming practice environment, relevant educational materials, and inclusive patient intake and other forms, and by becoming familiar with the issues facing gay men and lesbians. When physicians and practices cannot accomplish these tasks, referral of the patient to another physician who can provide such care is imperative. With appropriate education and training, physicians can play a vital role in ensuring access to quality care for gay men and lesbians, and in helping them lead healthier lives.

1 RECOMMENDATION

2
3 The Council on Science and Public Health recommends that Policy H-160.991, Health Care Needs of
4 the Homosexual Population, be amended by insertion and deletion to read as follows:

5
6 **H-160.991 Health Care Needs of the Homosexual Population**

7
8 1. Our AMA: (a) believes that the physician's nonjudgmental recognition of sexual orientation and
9 behavior enhances the ability to render optimal patient care in health as well as in illness. In the case
10 of the homosexual patient this is especially true, since unrecognized homosexuality by the physician
11 or the patient's reluctance to report his or her sexual orientation and behavior can lead to failure to
12 screen, diagnose, or treat important medical problems. With the help of the gay and lesbian
13 community and through a cooperative effort between physician and the homosexual patient effective
14 progress can be made in treating the medical needs of this particular segment of the population; (b) is
15 committed to taking a leadership role in: (i) educating physicians on the current state of research in
16 and knowledge of homosexuality and the need to take an adequate sexual history; these efforts should
17 start in medical school, but must also be a part of continuing medical education; (ii) educating
18 physicians to recognize the physical and psychological needs of their homosexual patients; (iii)
19 encouraging the development of educational programs for homosexuals to acquaint them with the
20 diseases for which they are at risk; (iv) encouraging physicians to seek out local or national experts in
21 the health care needs of gay men and lesbians so that all physicians will achieve a better
22 understanding of the medical needs of this population; and (v) working with the gay and lesbian
23 community to offer physicians the opportunity to better understand the medical needs of homosexual
24 and bisexual patients; and (c) opposes, the use of "reparative" or "conversion" therapy that is based
25 upon the assumption that homosexuality per se is a mental disorder or based upon the a priori
26 assumption that the patient should change his/her homosexual orientation.

27
28 2. Our AMA will (a) educate physicians regarding: (i) the need for women who have sex exclusively
29 with women to undergo regular cancer and sexually transmitted infection screenings due to their
30 comparable or elevated risk for these conditions; and (ii) the need for comprehensive screening for
31 sexually transmitted diseases in men who have sex with men; and (b) support our partner medical
32 organizations in educating women who have sex exclusively with women on the need for regular
33 cancer screening exams, the risk for sexually transmitted infections, and the appropriate safe sex
34 techniques to avoid that risk.

35
36 3. Our AMA will use the results of the survey being conducted in collaboration with the Gay and
37 Lesbian Medical Association to serve as a needs assessment in developing such tools and online
38 continuing medical education (CME) programs with the goal of increasing physician competency on
39 gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender health issues.

40
41 4. Our AMA will continue to explore opportunities to collaborate with other organizations, focusing
42 on issues of mutual concern in order to provide the most comprehensive and up-to-date education and
43 information to physicians to enable the provision of high quality and culturally competent care to gay
44 men and lesbians. (Modify Current HOD Policy)

Fiscal Note: No significant fiscal impact

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