

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

B of T Report 1-I-22

Subject: Opposition to Requirements for Gender-Based Treatments for Athletes
(Resolution 19-A-19)

Presented by: Sandra Adamson Fryhofer, MD, Chair

Referred to: Reference Committee on Amendments to Constitution and Bylaws

1 Resolution 19-A-19, “Opposition to Requirements for Gender-Based Treatment for Athletes,”
2 sponsored by the Medical Student Section, was referred to the Board of Trustees. Resolution 19-A-
3 19 asked:

- 4
- 5 1. That our American Medical Association (AMA) oppose any regulations requiring
6 mandatory medical treatment or surgery for athletes with Differences of Sex Development
7 (DSD) to be allowed to compete in alignment with their identity; (New HOD Policy) and
8
- 9 2. That our AMA oppose the creation of distinct hormonal guidelines to determine gender
10 classification for athletic competitions. (New HOD Policy)

11
12 BACKGROUND

13
14 Resolution 19 reacts to guidelines issued in 2018 by the International Association of Athletics
15 Federations (IAAF)—now World Athletics—updating eligibility criteria for athletes with
16 differences of sex development (DSD) who wish to compete as women in certain international
17 track and field events. Under these guidelines, to be eligible to compete in the 400m, hurdles races,
18 800m, 1500m, one-mile races and combined events over the same distances, women with DSD
19 who have serum testosterone levels above 5 nmol/L and who are androgen sensitive must:

- 20
- 21 • be legally recognized as female or intersex
- 22 • reduce their circulating serum testosterone levels to below 5 nmol/L for a continuous
23 period of 6 months, and
- 24 • maintain their serum testosterone level below 5 nmol/L continuously for as long as they
25 wish to remain eligible to compete (regardless of whether they are in competition) [1].

26
27 Female athletes with DSD who choose not to reduce their serum testosterone levels will be eligible
28 to compete in all events that are not international competitions and in events in international
29 competitions other than those specifically prohibited [1].

30
31 In a separate report, World Athletics outlines eligibility criteria for transgender athletes competing
32 in international competitions. They specify that

- 33
- 34 • to be eligible to participate in the female category of competition, a transgender female
35 athlete must provide a written and signed declaration that her gender identity is female;

- 1 • she must demonstrate to the satisfaction of an expert panel that the concentration of
2 testosterone in her serum has been less than 5 nmol/L continuously for a period of at least
3 12 months; and
- 4 • she must keep her serum testosterone concentration below 5 nmol/L for so long as she
5 wishes to maintain her eligibility to compete in the female category [2].
6

7 They further specify that “no athlete will be forced to undergo any medical assessment and/or
8 treatment” and that neither “legal recognition of the athlete's gender identity” nor “surgical
9 anatomical changes” are required to compete [2].
10

11 These guidelines represent the most recent in a series of efforts by the international athletic
12 community to ensure fairness in women’s competitions that began with “gender verification”
13 policies in the 1960s. In 1968, following the extraordinary successes of Tamara and Irina Press in
14 the 1960 and 1964 Olympics, who were suspected of being male, female athletes were required to
15 prove their sex to be eligible to compete as women in international events [3]. Over time,
16 procedures to determine sex evolved from having female athletes parade naked before a panel of
17 judges, through gynecological examination of external genitalia, to the use of sex chromatin tests,
18 and ultimately DNA-based testing [3]. In 2000, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and
19 IAAF discontinued routine gender verification in favor of “suspicion-based testing,” reserving the
20 right to test if officials or competitors raised questions about a female athlete’s sex.
21

22 In 2011, in the wake of controversy over South African runner Caster Semenya, the IOC’s Medical
23 Commission recommended hormone-based testing, that is, that individuals recognized in law as
24 female be eligible to compete in women’s competitions so long as their serum testosterone levels
25 were “below the male range” or if they had an androgen resistance and derived no competitive
26 advantage from testosterone levels in the male range [3]. The IAAF adopted hormonal testing and
27 implemented new policy that routinely tested all female athletes and required those who tested
28 outside the normal range to undergo treatment to normalize their androgen levels to be eligible to
29 compete.
30

31 In March 2019 the United Nations Human Rights Council adopted Resolution 40/5, “Elimination
32 of discrimination against women and girls in sport,” noting concern that the IAAF/World Athletics
33 eligibility criteria
34

35 are not compatible with international human rights norms and standards, including the rights of
36 women with differences of sex development, and concerned at the absence of legitimate and
37 justifiable evidence for the regulations to the extent that they may not be reasonable and
38 objective, and that there is no clear relationship of proportionality between the aim of the
39 regulations and the proposed measures and their impact [4].
40

41 The resolution further expressed concern that
42

43 discriminatory regulations, rules and practices that may require women and girl athletes with
44 differences of sex development, androgen sensitivity and levels of testosterone to medically
45 reduce their blood testosterone levels contravene international human rights norms and
46 standards ... [4]
47

48 In 2021 the IOC amended its stance and issued a new “Framework on Fairness, Inclusion and Non-
49 Discrimination on the Basis of Gender Identity and Sex Variations” that eliminated specific
50 instructions on eligibility to compete [5]. Rather, the framework sought to offer general guidance to
51 sports governing bodies:

1 to promote a safe and welcoming environment for everyone, consistent with the principles
2 enshrined in the Olympic Charter; it “acknowledges the central role that eligibility criteria play
3 in ensuring fairness, particularly in high-level organized sport in the women’s category” [5].
4

5 With the framework, the IOC recognized “that it is not in a position to issue regulations that define
6 eligibility for every sport” and explicitly left it “to each sport and its governing body to determine
7 how an athlete may be at disproportionate advantage to their peers” [5].
8

9 Also in 2021, the authors of a 2017 study on which World Athletics relied heavily in developing its
10 eligibility criteria published a correction in response to ongoing critique from independent
11 statisticians. The correction acknowledged that “there is no confirmatory evidence for causality in
12 the observed relationships reported” [6]. The authors further noted that the initial research was
13 “exploratory and not intend[ed] to prove a causal influence and that some statements in the original
14 publication could have been misleading” [6].
15

16 World Athletics has not modified its criteria [6], however, and controversy regarding participation
17 by female athletes with DSD continues.
18

19 The related controversy concerning participation of transgender athletes in all types of sports has
20 escalated in recent years. Since 2020, a number of state legislatures have introduced proposals to
21 prohibit transgender girls from competing in girls’ high school (and in some cases college) sports.
22 In March 2020, Idaho was the first state to impose a ban on transgender women and girls’
23 participation in school sports. In 2021, Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Mississippi, Montana,
24 Tennessee, and West Virginia passed similar bans, and South Dakota’s governor issued two
25 Executive Orders which implemented a similar prohibition. At the same time the Connecticut court
26 case *Soule et al v. CT Association of Schools et al* was in process. In this case the Alliance
27 Defending Freedom sought to ban two Black, transgender girls from competing in high school
28 track and field [7].
29

30 The Idaho ban was blocked by a federal court in August 2020. The AMA, along with the American
31 Academy of Pediatrics and other health care organizations, submitted an amicus brief with the
32 Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals noting that the law undermines the accepted approach for treating
33 gender dysphoria. The brief stated that prohibiting transgender females from participating in
34 school-sponsored sports in keeping with their gender identity interferes with the treatment of
35 gender dysphoria by preventing transgender females from living openly in accordance with their
36 true gender [8].
37

38 The AMA, together with five other healthcare organizations, also submitted an amicus brief in
39 *Soule et al v. CT Association of Schools et al*. In it, they emphasize that untreated gender dysphoria
40 can cause debilitating distress, depression, impairment of function, self-mutilation, other self-
41 injurious behaviors, and suicide. They also note that transgender individuals are subject to
42 discrimination in multiple areas of their lives, and this both exacerbates negative health outcomes
43 and reinforces the stigma associated with being transgender. Being subject to stigmatization is
44 psychologically harmful and so creates additional negative mental health consequences [9].
45

46 *Soule et al* was dismissed at the state level and (as of August 2022) an appeal in the 2nd Circuit
47 Court remains undecided. As of May 2022, eighteen states have enacted laws or issued rules that
48 either ban or limit the participation of transgender athletes in public school sports [10]. As a result,
49 in some states regulations are more restrictive at lower levels of competition and in recreational
50 programs than they are at higher levels.

1 For instance, the IOC guidelines amended in 2021 reflect an inclusive and non-discriminatory
2 position with respect to transgender athletes, consistent with their guidelines for athletes with
3 DSDs. They state that

- 4
- 5 • eligibility criteria should be established and implemented fairly and in a manner that does
6 not systematically exclude athletes from competition based upon their gender identity,
7 physical appearance and/or sex variations;
- 8 • no athlete should be subject to targeted testing because of, or aimed at determining, their
9 sex, gender identity and/or sex variations;
- 10 • athletes should not be pressured to undergo medically unnecessary procedures or treatment
11 to meet eligibility criteria; and
- 12 • criteria to determine eligibility should not include gynecological examinations or other
13 invasive physical examinations aimed at determining an athlete's gender or sex [5].

14 15 FAIRNESS IN SPORT

16
17 Regulations intended to promote fairness in sport by restricting the participation of individuals
18 whose genetic characteristics are deemed to give them unfair advantage over competitors raise a
19 series of questions about what the goals of sport are, what counts as an “unfair” advantage, and
20 what should be done to “level the playing field.”

21 22 *Biological Advantage*

23
24 Policy restricting competition by female athletes who have serum testosterone levels above a
25 designated “normal” range rests on (at least) two problematic assumptions. The first of those
26 assumptions is that there is a straightforward relationship between testosterone and athletic
27 performance that unequivocally gives these athletes significant advantage over female competitors
28 whose bodies do not produce “excess” endogenous testosterone. The second is that serum
29 testosterone levels can meaningfully be measured, and that prescribed levels can be safely and
30 effectively maintained. The specific contribution of testosterone to overall athletic performance
31 continues to be a subject of debate. Critics of the research on which the IAAF based its regulations
32 on endogenous testosterone have argued that a key study concluding that women with the highest
33 testosterone levels significantly and consistently outperformed other female competitors rests on
34 flawed data [11]. Concerns have also been raised about the rigor of its statistical analysis [12]. The
35 main author, moreover, was the director for the IAAF Science and Health Department, raising
36 questions about possible conflict of interest [13]. More importantly, demonstrating a correlation
37 between testosterone and athletic performance in female athletes falls short of establishing the
38 unfairness of such advantage [13].

39
40 However, even if the effect of testosterone on athletic performance was conclusively established,
41 single point-in-time tests for overall level of serum testosterone cannot provide conclusive
42 evidence that the individual has or will benefit. It is known that women with androgen insensitivity
43 disorder physiologically cannot gain benefit from excess endogenous testosterone. Multiple factors
44 affect serum concentrations of testosterone, including time of day; age- and gender-corrected
45 normal ranges using a standard assay have not been established; and there is no universally
46 recognized standard for calibrating testosterone [14].

47
48 Further, “the relevance of free testosterone vs [sic] the fraction actually available to tissues (the
49 “bio-testosterone”) is not well understood” [15]. Nor do the IAAF regulations take into account the
50 existing lack of consensus about “how to use medications safely to lower testosterone levels when

1 used off-label, the side effects of the medications, [or] the difficulties of maintaining the
2 testosterone levels below the levels requested by IAAF owing to natural fluctuations” [13].

3 *Leveling the Playing Field*

4
5 Assuming, for purposes of analysis, that testosterone does confer a significant competitive
6 advantage in sport, knowing that does not in itself determine what steps should be taken to “level
7 the playing field.” The latter decision is a normative matter, not an empirical one.

8
9 To be defensible, rules and practices intended to ensure that no individual athlete enjoys an unfair
10 advantage over competitors requires that rules treat all relevantly similar advantage-conferring
11 attributes in a like manner. Testosterone testing for female athletes who have been singled out on
12 the basis of their appearance or performance for all practical purposes subjects these individuals to
13 genetic testing not imposed on their competitors.

14
15 Fairness would require that sports organizations test for *any* “performance enhancing genes that
16 predispose [individual athletes] to be athletically superior” [16]. In the present state of knowledge,
17 this is no more realistic an approach than are current testosterone assays. The influence of genetic
18 factors on athletic performance is multifactorial and sport specific [17]. Organizations would
19 further have to regulate all such advantage-conferring attributes consistently.

20
21 One way to categorize fair versus unfair advantages is by conceptualizing advantages as stable
22 (fair) or dynamic (unfair) [18]. Fair advantages are those the athlete largely cannot affect, (such as
23 chronological age, height, genetics, etc.). Unfair advantages are those the athlete can affect (such as
24 speed, strength, endurance, etc.). On this account, genetic differences in testosterone would be
25 stable advantages that could be subject to leveling or more fine-grained classification.

26
27 Thinking specifically about leveling the playing field with respect to inequalities in testosterone
28 levels, three approaches present themselves [13]. First, sports organizations could require athletes
29 to lower testosterone levels that exceed a defined threshold to below a predetermined level.
30 Second, organizations could create separate categories for competition based on the level of
31 biological variations, allowing all athletes with serum testosterone within a certain range to
32 compete against one another, regardless of sex or gender identification [13]. Or, third, they could
33 create categories based on modifying the external conditions of competition instead of intervening
34 in athletes’ bodies. Handicapped horse racing offers a model [13].

35 36 THE ROLE OF PHYSICIANS

37
38 World Athletics eligibility criteria take the first of these approaches: intervening in the bodies of
39 transgender athletes and athletes with DSDs. In doing so, they virtually require the participation of
40 physicians helping athletes achieve and maintain the stipulated levels of serum testosterone. To the
41 extent that medical interventions to lower testosterone may not be *clinically* indicated, is physician
42 participation appropriate? Overall, existing policies of the American Medical Association and the
43 World Medical Association (WMA) argue against physicians cooperating in the implementation of
44 these regulations.

45
46 Existing AMA policy in H-470.978, “[Blood Doping](#),” and H-470.976, “[Abuse of Anabolic](#)
47 [Steroids](#),” prohibit physician participation in blood doping or prescribing anabolic steroids. H-
48 470.994, “[Non-Therapeutic Use of Pharmacological Agents by Athletes](#),” opposes the use of
49 interventions to enhance athletic performance but is silent with respect to physicians’ specific
50 responsibilities.

1 [Principle VIII](#) of the AMA *Principles of Medical Ethics* states that “A physician shall, while caring
2 for a patient, regard responsibility to the patient as paramount.” Opinion 1.2.5, “[Sports Medicine](#),”
3 in the AMA *Code of Medical Ethics* limits its focus to physicians present during athletic events. It
4 directs those who “serve in a medical capacity at athletic, sporting, or other physically demanding
5 events should protect the health and safety of participants.” This is particularly relevant to minors
6 who wish to participate in sports in line with their gender identity, since CEJA Report 3-I-18
7 “Pediatric Decision-making” specifies that the best interests of a minor should be “understood
8 broadly” and treatment decisions should be made in light of “likely impact on the child’s
9 psychosocial wellbeing”[19]. Opinion 5.5, “[Medically Ineffective Interventions](#),” which
10 specifically addresses the use of life-sustaining interventions in contexts of terminal illness,
11 provides that physicians “should only recommend and provide interventions that are medically
12 appropriate.” It also notes that patients should not receive specific interventions simply because
13 they request them.

14
15 Further, Opinion 8.5, “[Disparities in Health Care](#),” states that “differences in treatment that are not
16 directly related to individual patients' clinical needs or preferences constitute inappropriate
17 variations in health care.” This can be construed as ruling out unnecessary testing or alteration of
18 treatment related to gender identity when these are required by third parties for participation in
19 sports. In Opinion 1.1.2, “[Prospective Patients](#),” physicians are required to refrain from
20 discrimination on the basis of gender and gender identity, which in accordance with principles of
21 justice, should extend to declining to participate in (and so refusing to legitimize) discriminatory
22 practices that violate patients' human rights.

23
24 In a press release in April 2019, the [World Medical Association](#) demanded that the IAAF
25 “immediately withdraw” its new eligibility regulations for classifying female athletes and urged
26 physicians to “take no part” in implementing them. In October 2021 WMA updated “[Declaration](#)
27 [on Principles of Health Care in Sports Medicine](#)” to oppose World Athletics eligibility regulations
28 and condemn “medical treatment solely to alter athletic performance,” as “unethical.”

29
30 These provide strong arguments that, as professionals committed to promoting first and foremost
31 the well-being of their patients, it is not appropriate for physicians to provide medical interventions
32 required to fulfill the World Athletics regulations mandating specific testosterone levels for either
33 athletes with DSDs or transgender athletes. These arguments also suggest it is inappropriate for a
34 physician to cooperate with any public school or recreational team that requires medical testing
35 and/or physician confirmation that an athlete is a particular gender in order for them to participate.

36 37 RECOMMENDATION

38
39 In view of these considerations, your AMA recommends that the following recommendations be
40 adopted in lieu of Resolution 19-A-19 and the remainder of this report be filed:

- 41
42 1. That our American Medical Association (AMA) oppose mandatory testing, medical treatment
43 or surgery for transgender athletes and athletes with Differences of Sex Development (DSD),
44 and affirm that these athletes be permitted to compete in alignment with their identity; (New
45 HOD Policy)
- 46
47 2. That our AMA oppose the use of specific hormonal guidelines to determine gender
48 classification for athletic competitions. (New HOD Policy)

- 1 3. That our AMA oppose physician participation in any practices intended to officially certify or
2 confirm an athlete's gender for the purposes of satisfying third party requirements. (New HOD
3 Policy)

Fiscal note: Less than \$500.

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