

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

B of T Report 7-I-16

Subject: Supporting Autonomy for Patients with Differences of Sex Development (DSD)
(Resolution 3-A-16)

Presented by: Patrice M. Harris, MD, MA, Chair

Referred to: Reference Committee on Amendments to Constitution and Bylaws
(John P. Abenstein, MD, Chair)

1 At the 2016 Annual Meeting, the American Medical Association (AMA) House of Delegates
2 referred to the Board of Trustees Resolution 3-A-16, “Supporting Autonomy for Patients with
3 Differences of Sex Development (DSD),” introduced by the Medical Student Section. Resolution 3
4 asked:

5
6 That our AMA affirm that medically unnecessary surgeries in individuals born with
7 differences of sex development are unethical and should be avoided until the patient
8 can actively participate in decision-making.
9

10 Testimony was largely in favor of referral. Those offering testimony understood the key
11 developmental issues surrounding individuals born with DSD. However, testimony revealed gaps
12 in understanding about how to address appropriately surgical and medical options in providing
13 care, necessitating a call for further study.
14

15 BACKGROUND

16
17 The term “differences of sex development” (DSD) refers to congenital conditions in which
18 development of chromosomal, gonadal, or anatomic sex is atypical [1]. The frequency of DSDs
19 varies with etiology [2], but overall incidence of DSD is estimated to be one in 5,500 births; some
20 60 percent of affected children are now diagnosed prenatally [3]. Diagnosis of DSD is complex,
21 encompassing family and prenatal history, physical examination (particularly of genital anatomy),
22 and various laboratory tests, including determination of chromosomal sex. Diagnosis may also
23 involve ultrasound or other imaging studies, hormonal stimulation tests (eg, human chorionic
24 gonadotropin or adrenocorticotropin stimulation), and, in rare cases, laparotomy or laparoscopy [3].
25 Not all cases of DSD are diagnosed perinatally.
26

27 DSD include potentially life-threatening developmental anomalies that may require immediate
28 intervention, for example, hypotension resulting from salt-wasting nephropathy, which occurs in 75
29 percent of infants born with congenital adrenal hyperplasia. DSD also includes “cosmetic”
30 abnormalities for which elective interventions to normalize appearance can be undertaken at
31 various stages in the child’s life [2,4].
32

33 Historically, assigning gender in a newborn with ambiguous genitalia has been viewed as a
34 “medical emergency,” with immediate surgery recommended to match genitalia to the assigned
35 gender, on the rationale that uncertain gender is distressing for the family, may adversely affect the
36 child’s mental health, and can lead to stigmatization [3,5]. This view has been increasingly

1 challenged [2,4,6]. DSD communities and a growing number of health care professionals have
2 condemned such genital “normalizing,” arguing that except in the rare cases in which DSD
3 presents as life-threatening anomalies, genital modification should be postponed until the patient
4 can meaningfully participate in decision making [4,7,8].

5
6 In 2006, the National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases (NIDDK) observed
7 the lack of sufficient data to guide decisions about gender assignment and absence of clear
8 guidelines for clinical practice [9]. The NIDDK also noted that there are only limited long-term
9 outcome data on early surgical reconstruction, despite concern about irreversibility and possible
10 sensory damage to the genitalia. Finally, the NIDDK cited a lack of “systematic outcome data
11 about sexual function in individuals with disorders of sexual differentiation [sic]” and of data
12 “pertaining to the association of sexual function with genital appearance and types of genital
13 surgery.” It therefore called for prospective studies of gender identity, reproductive function, and
14 quality of life for patients with DSD “to guide clinicians and families in making decisions about
15 gender assignment and surgical reconstruction.”

16
17 Also in 2006, the Intersex Society of North America (ISNA) released its “Clinical Guidelines for
18 the Management of Disorders of Sex Development in Childhood,” gathering perspectives of
19 treating physicians, past patients, and parents who have been involved in the management of DSD
20 [1]. The guidelines address appropriate treatment options for common genital anomalies, focusing
21 on patient- and family-centered care provided by a well-trained multidisciplinary team. The
22 guidelines acknowledge that each patient requires unique attention and resources. Importantly,
23 ISNA guidelines note that gender assignment “is a social and legal process *not requiring medical*
24 *or surgical intervention*” (original emphasis) [1].

25
26 A small study carried out in 2011-2012 among medical students in Zurich found that how
27 physicians discussed treatment for a child with DSD influenced the choice for or against surgery,
28 despite respondents’ belief that their personal attitudes governed decision making [10]. Participants
29 watched brief counseling videos that offered either a “medicalized” or “demedicalized” approach.
30 That is, the video described DSD as a condition that is static, has an inherent psychosocial
31 component, and requires treatment, and for which predetermined treatment regimens focus on
32 biological function, or as a dynamic disorder characterized by context-dependent impairment for
33 which coping strategies should be fostered, with treatment geared to the individual’s interests and
34 capabilities. Sixty-six percent of participants who viewed the medicalized video said they would
35 choose early surgery for their child, compared to 23 percent of those who viewed the
36 demedicalized video.

37 38 CURRENT AMA POLICY

39
40 Current AMA policy does not address treatment for patients with DSD directly. Rather, a limited
41 number of ethics and House policies speak to decisions for minors more broadly, as well as to
42 issues pertaining to gender identity, sexual orientation, transgender health, and discrimination
43 toward sexual minority communities:

- 44
- 45 • [Opinion 2.2.1](#), “Pediatric Decision Making,” encourages involving minor patients in decision
46 making at a developmentally appropriate level, including decisions that involve life-sustaining
47 interventions, and recommends that clinicians work with parents or guardians to simplify
48 complex treatment regimens for children with chronic health conditions.
 - 49 • [Opinion 2.2.4](#), “Treatment Decisions for Seriously Ill Newborns,” articulates the considerations
50 that must be taken into account when addressing emotionally and ethically challenging cases
51 involving newborns, including: the medical needs of the child; the interests, needs, and

1 resources of the family; available treatment options; and respect for the child’s right to an
2 “open future.” It calls on physicians to inform parents about available therapeutic options and
3 the nature of those options and to discuss the child’s expected prognosis with and without
4 intervention.

- 5 • [Opinion 2.2.5](#), “Genetic Testing of Children,” identifies conditions under which physicians
6 may ethically offer genetic testing for minor patients. It observes that testing implicates
7 important concerns about the autonomy and best interests of the minor patient and holds that
8 medical decisions made on behalf of a child should not abrogate the opportunity to choose to
9 know his or her genetic status as an adult.
- 10 • [H-525.987](#), “Surgical Modification of Female Genitalia,” opposes medically unnecessary
11 surgical modification of female genitalia and encourages the development of educational
12 programs to address complications and corrective procedures.
- 13 • [H-475.992](#), “Definitions of ‘Cosmetic’ and ‘Reconstructive’ Surgery,” distinguishes cosmetic
14 surgery, performed on normal bodily structures to improve patient appearance, from
15 reconstructive surgery, performed on abnormal bodily structures to improve function or
16 approximate normal appearance.

17 18 DECISIONS FOR PEDIATRIC PATIENTS

19
20 Parents (or guardians) are granted the authority to make health care decisions for their minor
21 children when the child lacks the ability to act independently or does not have the capacity to make
22 medical decisions [11]. Parents are deemed to be in a better position than others to understand their
23 child’s unique needs and interests, as well as their families’, and thus to be able to make
24 appropriate decisions regarding their child’s health care. Historically, the best interest standard has
25 predominated as the appropriate decision-making standard for medical decisions for minors.
26 Current consensus rests on a more nuanced view that encompasses not only the patient’s medical
27 interests, but psychosocial and familial concerns as well [11].

28
29 The “harm principle” has been suggested as a further refinement on the decision-making standard,
30 requiring not only that decision makers consider the patient’s best interests, broadly understood,
31 but also that a threshold of harm be identified, below which decisions should not be tolerated [11].
32 Parents (or guardians) are also recognized to have a responsibility to foster their children’s
33 autonomy and moral growth, a responsibility clinicians share. Providing information in a
34 developmentally appropriate way that respects the minor patient’s cognitive ability, engaging the
35 child in decision making to the extent possible, and seeking the child’s assent to proposed
36 interventions helps to fulfill that responsibility [11].

37
38 With respect to DSD specifically, it has been suggested that decisions should seek to foster the
39 well-being both of the current child and the adult he or she will become; respect the rights of
40 patients to participate or make decisions that affect them; and foster family and parent-child
41 relationships [4].

42
43 In cases of DSD, decisions about a child’s best interests and appropriate interventions involve
44 sensitive issues of sex, gender, and sexuality, and interventions that may be irreversible. Parents are
45 often concerned about the future well-being of their child with regard to self-identity, relationships,
46 and reproductive capacity [7]. Because of these concerns, they may be quick to want to establish
47 sex and gender identity for their child in order to promote “normalcy” and reduce stigmatization.
48 Moreover, when physicians perceive early intervention to be urgently needed or wholly beneficial,
49 they may not fully recognize that there is a decision to be made, or the complexity of that decision
50 for the family and patient.

1 A 2013 lawsuit, though unsuccessful, raised constitutional issues with respect to early surgical
2 intervention and sex assignment. In 2013, the adoptive parents of a South Carolina child, MC, born
3 with “ovotesticular DSD” filed suit in the US District Court for the District of South Carolina
4 against physicians who had performed feminizing genitoplasty on the child at age 16 months. At
5 the time of surgery, MC was under the legal custody of the South Carolina Department of Social
6 Services, which authorized the intervention. Despite initially being raised as a girl by his adoptive
7 parents, consistent with his surgically assigned sex, MC identified as a boy and at the time the
8 lawsuit was filed was living as a boy. Because of the surgery, MC is now sterile. Although the
9 action was dismissed on appeal by the US Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit (in January
10 2015) [12], the lower court had denied the defendants’ request for dismissal on the grounds that the
11 defendants may have violated MC’s constitutional right to procreate [13].
12

13 **RECOMMENDATION**

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15 The Board of Trustees recommends that the following be adopted in lieu of Resolution 3-A-16 and
16 the remainder of this report be filed:
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18 That our American Medical Association support optimal management of DSD through
19 individualized, multidisciplinary care that: (1) seeks to foster the well-being of the child and
20 the adult he or she will become; (2) respects the rights of the patient to participate in decisions
21 and, except when life-threatening circumstances require emergency intervention, defers
22 medical or surgical intervention until the child is able to participate in decision making; and
23 (3) provides psychosocial support to promote patient and family well-being. (New HOD
24 Policy)

Fiscal Note: Less than \$500.

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