EXHIBIT G

**IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
FOR THE SOUTHERN DISTRICT OF WEST VIRGINIA
AT CHARLESTON**

B.P.J., by her next friend and mother,
HEATHER JACKSON,

Plaintiff,

vs.

Civil Action No. 2:21-cv-00316
Hon. Joseph R. Goodwin

WEST VIRGINIA STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION; HARRISON COUNTY BOARD OF EDUCATION; WEST VIRGINIA SECONDARY SCHOOL ACTIVITIES COMMISSION; W. CLAYTON BURCH in his official capacity as State Superintendent; and, DORA STUTLER in her official capacity as Harrison County Superintendent,

Defendants.

DECLARATION OF DR. CHAD T. CARLSON, M.D., FACSM

I, Dr. Chad T. Carlson, pursuant to 28 U.S. Code § 1746, declare under penalty of perjury under the laws of the United States of America that the facts contained in my paper entitled "White Paper by Dr. Chad Thomas Carlson, MD, Concerning Injury Risks Associated with Transgender Participation in Female Athletics," attached hereto, are true and correct to the best of my knowledge and belief, and that the opinions expressed therein represent my own expert opinions.

Executed on June 22, 2021.

Dr. Chad T. Carlson, M.D.

White Paper by Dr. Chad Thomas Carlson, MD Concerning Injury Risks Associated With Transgender Participation in Female Athletics

June 22, 2021

Introduction

Up to the present, the great majority of news, debate, and even scholarship about transgender participation in female athletics has focused on track and field events and athletes, and the debate has largely concerned questions of fairness and inclusion. However, the transgender eligibility policies of the NCAA and many high school athletic associations in the United States apply with equal force to all sports, including sports in which players frequently collide with each other, or can be forcefully struck by balls or equipment such as hockey or lacrosse sticks. And in fact, biologically male, transgender athletes have competed in a wide range of high school, collegiate, and professional girls' or women's sports, including, at least, basketball,[*] soccer,[†] volleyball,[‡] softball,[§] lacrosse,[**] and even women's tackle football.[††]

The science of sex-specific differences in physiology, intersecting with the physics of sports injury, leaves little doubt that participation by biological males in

[*] https://www.espn.com/espnw/athletes-life/story/_/id/10170842/espnw-gabrielle-ludwig-52-year-old-transgender-women-college-basketball-player-enjoying-best-year-life (accessed 6/20/21)

[†] https://www.unionleader.com/news/education/nh-bill-limits-women-s-sports-to-girls-born-female/article_d1998ea1-a1b9-5ba4-a48d-51a2aa01b910.html; https://www.outsports.com/2020/1/17/21069390/womens-soccer-mara-gomez-transgender-player-argentina-primera-division-villa-san-marcos (accessed 6/20/21)

[‡] https://news.ucsc.edu/2016/09/challenging-assumptions.html (accessed 6/20/21); https://www.outsports.com/2017/3/20/14987924/trans-athlete-volleyball-tia-thompson (accessed 6/20/21)

[§] https://www.foxnews.com/us/californias-transgender-law-allows-male-high-schooler-to-make-girls-softball-team (accessed 6/20/21)

[**] https://savewomenssports.com/f/emilys-story?blogcategory=Our+Stories (accessed 6/20/21)

[††] https://www.outsports.com/2017/12/13/16748322/britney-stinson-trans-football-baseball (accessed 6/20/21); https://www.mprnews.org/story/2018/12/22/transgender-football-player-prevails-in-lawsuit (accessed 6/20/21)

these types of girls' or women's sports, based on gender identity, creates significant additional risk of injury for the biologically female participants competing alongside these transgender athletes.

In 2020, after an extensive review of the scientific literature, consultation with experts, and modeling of expected injuries, World Rugby published revised rules governing transgender participation, along with a detailed explanation of how the new policy was supported by current evidence. World Rugby concluded that "there is currently no basis with which safety and fairness can be assured to biologically female rugby players should they encounter contact situations with players whose biological male advantage persists to a large degree," and that after puberty, "the lowering of testosterone removes only a small proportion of the documented biological differences." Hence, World Rugby concluded that trans women should not compete in women's rugby.(World Rugby 2020 at 17.) World Rugby has been criticized by some for its new guidelines, but those criticisms have often avoided discussions of medical science entirely, or have asserted that modeling scenarios can overstate true risk. What cannot be denied however, is that World Rugby's approach is evidence-based, and rooted in concern for athlete safety. As a medical doctor who has spent my career in sports medicine, it is my opinion that World Rugby's assessment of the evidence is scientifically sound, and that injury modeling meaningfully predicts that biologically male transgender athletes do constitute a safety risk for the female athlete in women's sports.

Unfortunately, apart from World Rugby's careful review, the public discourse is lacking any careful consideration of the question of safety. As a physician who has spent my career caring for athletes, I find this silence about safety both surprising and concerning. It is my hope through this white paper to equip and motivate sports leagues and policy makers to give adequate attention to the issue of safety for female athletes. I first explain the nature and causes of common sports injuries. I then review physiological differences between male and female bodies that affect the risk and severity of injuries to females when biological males compete in the female category, and explain why testosterone suppression does not eliminate these heightened risks to females. Finally, I explain certain conclusions about those risks.

Credentials

1. I am a medical doctor practicing Sports Medicine, maintaining an active clinical practice at Stadia Sports Medicine in West Des Moines, Iowa. I received my M.D. from the University of Nebraska College of Medicine in 1994 and completed a residency in family medicine at the University of Michigan in 1997.

2. Following my time in Ann Arbor, I matched to a fellowship in Sports Medicine at Ball Memorial Hospital in Muncie, Indiana, training from 1997 to 1999, with clinical time split between Central Indiana Orthopedics, the Ball State Human Performance Laboratory, and the Ball State University training room. I received my board certification in Sports Medicine in 1999, which I continue to hold. Since

residency training, my practice has focused on Sports Medicine–the treatment and prevention of injuries related to sport and physical activity.

3. Since 1997, I have served in several clinical practices and settings as a treating physician, including time as team physician for both the University of Illinois and Ball State University, where I provided care to athletes in several sports, including ice hockey, basketball, field hockey, softball, gymnastics, soccer, and volleyball. In the course of my career, I have provided coverage for NCAA Power Five Conference championships and NCAA National Championship events in basketball, field hockey and gymnastics, among other sports, as well as provided coverage for national championship events for U.S.A. gymnastics, and U.S. Swimming and Diving. I have also covered professional soccer in Des Moines.

4. Since 2006, I have been the physician owner of Stadia Sports Medicine in West Des Moines, Iowa. My practice focuses on treatment of sports and activity-related injury, including concussive injury, as well as problems related to the physiology of sport.

5. I have served in, and provided leadership for several professional organizations over the course of my career. In 2004, I was designated a Fellow of the American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM). I have served on ACSM's Health and Science Policy Committee since 2010, and for a time chaired their Clinical Medicine Subcommittee. From 2009 to 2013, I served two elected terms on the Board of Directors of the American Medical Society for Sports Medicine (AMSSM), and during that time served as Chair of that body's Practice and Policy Committee.

I was subsequently elected to a four year term on AMSSM's executive committee in 2017, and from 2019-20, I served as AMSSM's President. AMSSM is the largest organization of sports medicine physicians in the world. I gained fellowship status through AMSSM in 2020–my first year of eligibility. My work for ACSM and AMSSM has brought with it extensive experience in public policy as relates to Sports Medicine.

6. In 2020, I was named as a board delegate to the newly-constituted Physical Activity Alliance. I am a named member of an NCAA advisory group on COVID-19, through which I provided input regarding the cancellation of the basketball tournament in 2020. I also serve as a member of the Iowa Medical Society's Sports Medicine Subcommittee, and have recently been asked to serve on the Iowa High School Athletic Association's newly-forming Sports Medicine Advisory Committee.

7. I have served as a manuscript reviewer for organizational policy pronouncements, and for several professional publications, most recently a sports medicine board review book just published in April, 2021. I have published several articles on topics related to musculoskeletal injuries in sports and rehabilitation, which have been published in peer-reviewed journals such as Clinical Journal of Sports Medicine, British Journal of Sports Medicine, Current Reviews in Musculoskeletal Medicine, Athletic Therapy Today, and the Journal of Athletic Training. In conjunction with my work in policy advocacy, I have helped write several pieces of legislation, including the initial draft of what became the Sports

Medicine Licensure Clarity Act, signed into law by President Trump in 2018, which eases the restrictions on certain practitioners to provide health services to athletes and athletic teams outside of the practitioner's home state.

I. OVERVIEW

8. In this statement, I offer information and my own professional opinion on the potential for increased injury risk to females in sports when they compete against biologically male transgender athletes.* At many points in this statement, I provide citations to published, peer-reviewed articles that provide relevant and supporting information to the points I make.

9. The principal conclusions that I set out in this white paper are as follows:

> a. Government and sporting organizations have historically considered the preservation of athlete safety as one component of competitive equity.
>
> b. Injury in sport is somewhat predictable based on modeling assumptions that take into account relevant internal and external risk factors.
>
> c. Males exhibit large average advantages in size, weight, and physical capacity over females—often falling far outside female ranges. As a result, entry of male athletes, for any reason, into female competition in contact sports (broadly defined) will ultimately increase both the frequency and severity of injury suffered by female athletes who share playing space with these males.

* In the body of this paper, I use the terms “male” and “female” according to their ordinary medical meaning–that is to say, to refer to the two biological sexes. I also use the word “man” to refer to a biologically male human, and “woman” to refer to a biologically female human. In the context of this opinion, I include in these categories non-syndromic, biologically-normal males and females who identify as a member of the opposite sex, including those who use endogenous hormone suppression to alter their body habitus. In contexts that are not focused on questions of biology and physiology, terms of gender are sometimes used to refer to subjective identities rather than to biological categories – something I avoid for purposes of a paper focused on sports science.

d. Current research supports the conclusion that suppression of testosterone levels by males who have already begun puberty will not fully reverse the effects of testosterone on skeletal size, strength, or muscle hypertrophy, leading to persistence of sex-based differences in power, speed, and force-generating capacity.

10. In this white paper, I use the term "contact sports" to refer broadly to all sports in which collisions between players, or collisions between equipment such as a stick or ball and the body of a player, occur with some frequency (whether or not permitted by the rules of the game), and are well recognized in the field of sports medicine as causes of sport-related injuries.* The 1975 Title IX implementing regulations (34 CFR § 106.41) say that "for purposes of this [regulation] contact sports include boxing, wrestling, rugby, ice hockey, football, basketball, and other sports the purpose or major activity of which involves bodily contact," and certainly all of the sports specifically named in the regulation fall within my definition of "contact sport." Field hockey (Barboza 2018), soccer (Kuczinski 2018), rugby (Viviers 2018), lacrosse (Pierpoint 2019), volleyball,† baseball, and softball also routinely involve collisions that can and do result in collision-caused injuries, and so also fall within my definition.

* It is common to see, within the medical literature, reference to distinctions between "contact" and "collision" sports. For purposes of clarity, I have combined these terms, since in the context of injury risk, there is no practical distinction between them.

† See https://www.latimes.com/sports/story/2020-12-08/stanford-volleyball-hayley-hodson-concussions-cte-lawsuit, and https://volleyballmag.com/corinneatchison/ (both accessed 6/20/21)

II. A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE RATIONALE FOR SEPARATION OF SPORT BY SEX

11. World Rugby is correct when it notes that “the women’s category exists to ensure protection, safety, and equality” for women. (World Rugby 2020 at 15.) To some extent, those in charge of sport governing bodies in the modern era have always recognized the importance of grouping athletes together based on physical attributes, in order to ensure both safety and competitive balance. Weight classifications have existed in wrestling since it reappeared as an Olympic event in 1904. Women and men have participated in separate categories since the advent of intercollegiate sporting clubs early in the 20th century. When Title IX went into effect in 1975, there were just under 300,000 female high school athletes, and fewer than 10,000 female collegiate athletes. With the changes that resulted from Title IX, it was assumed that newly-available funds for women in sport would ensure the maintenance of existing, or creation of new, sex-segregated athletic teams that would foster greater participation by women. This has been borne out subsequently; by the first half of the 1980’s these numbers had risen to 1.9 million and nearly 100,000 respectively. (Hult 1989.)

12. The rationale for ongoing “separate but equal” status when it came to sex-segregated sports was made clear within the language of the original implementing regulations of Title IX , which, acknowledging real, biologically-driven differences between the sexes, created carve-out exceptions authorizing sex-separation of sport for reasons rooted in the maintenance of competitive equity. Importantly, the effect

of these innate sex-based differences on the health and safety of the athlete were acknowledged by the express authorization of sex-separated teams for sports with higher perceived injury risk—i.e., "contact sports." (Coleman 2020.)

13. In the almost half century since those regulations were adopted, the persistent reality of sex-determined differences in athletic performance and safety has been recognized by the ongoing and nearly universal segregation of men's and women's teams–even those that are not classically defined as being part of a contact or collision sport.

14. Now, however, many schools and sports leagues in this country are permitting males to compete in female athletics—including in contact sports—based on gender identity. In my view, these policies have been adopted without careful analysis of safety implications. Others have addressed questions of the negative impact of such policies on fairness, or equality of athletic experiences for girls and women, in published articles and in court submissions. One recent review of track and field performances, including sprints, distance races and field events, noted that men surpass the top female performance in each category between 1000 and 10,000 times *each year*, with hundreds or thousands of men beating the top women in each event. (Coleman & Shreve.) Although this was not their primary focus, World Rugby well-summarized the point when it observed that in a ranking list of the top thousand performances in most sports, every year, *every one* will have been achieved by a biological male. (World Rugby 2020 at 14.) In sum, a large and

unbridgeable performance gap between the sexes is well-studied and equally well-documented. In this white paper, I instead focus on the question of athlete safety.

III. UNDERSTANDING THE CAUSES OF SPORTS INJURIES

15. The causes for injury in sport are multifactorial. In recent decades, medical researchers have provided us an evolving understanding of how sports injuries occur, as well as the factors that make them more or less probable, and more or less severe. Broadly speaking, there are two ways of modeling injury: the epidemiological model, and the biomechanical model. These models are not mutually exclusive, but provide complementary conceptual frameworks to help us stratify risk in sport.

A. The epidemiological model of injury

16. From a practical standpoint, sports medicine researchers and clinicians often use the "epidemiological model" to explain, prevent and manage sports injuries. Broadly speaking, this model views an injury in sport as the product of internal and external risk factors, triggered by an inciting event. In other words, a given injury is "caused" by a number of different factors that are unique to a given situation. (Meeuwise 1994.) When the interplay of these factors exceeds the injury threshold, injury occurs. One example of how this interplay might work would be a female distance runner in track who develops a tibial stress fracture, with identified risks of low estrogen state from amenorrhea (suppression of menses), an aggressive winter training program on an indoor tile surface, and shoes that have been used for too many miles, and are no longer providing proper shock absorption. Most risk

factors ebb and flow, with the overall injury risk at any given time fluctuating as well. Proper attention to risk factor reduction *before* the start of the sports season (including appropriate rule-making) is the best way to reduce actual injury rates *during* the season.

17. As alluded to, the risk factors associated with injury can be broadly categorized as internal or external. Internal risk factors are internal to the athlete. These include relatively fixed variables, such as the athlete's age, sex, bone mineral density (which affects bone strength) and joint laxity, as well as more mutable variables such as body weight, fitness level, hydration state, current illness, prior injury, or psychosocial factors such as aggression.

18. External risk factors are, as the name suggests, external to the athlete. These include non-human risks such as the condition of the playing surface or equipment, athletic shoe wear, or environmental conditions. Other external risk factors come from the competitors themselves, and include such variables as opposing player size, speed, aggressiveness, and overall adherence to the rules of the game. As already mentioned, these risks can be minimized through the proper setting and enforcement of rules, as well as the appropriate grouping of athletes together for purposes of competition. To the latter point, children don't play contact sports with adults and, as has already been discussed, after the onset of puberty, men and women compete in categories specific to their own biological sex. Certainly these categorical separations are motivated in part by average performance differences and considerations of fairness and opportunity. But they are also

motivated by safety concerns. These divisions enhance safety because, when it comes to physical traits such as body size, weight, speed, muscle girth, and bone strength, although a certain amount of variability exists within each group, the averages and medians differ widely *between* the separated groups.[*]

19. Thus, each of these commonly utilized groupings of athletes represents a pool of individuals with predictable commonalities. Epidemiological risk assessment is somewhat predictable and translatable as long as their pool remains intact. But the introduction of outside individuals into the pool (e.g. an adult onto a youth football team, or males into women's sports) would change the balance of risk inside the pool. Simply put, when you introduce larger, faster, and stronger athletes from one pool into a second pool of athletes who are categorically smaller (whether as a result of age or sex), you have altered the characteristics of the second pool, and have increased the injury risk for the original athletes in that pool.

20. Most clinical studies of the epidemiology of sports injuries use a multivariate approach, not only identifying risk factors but also examining how these factors might interact, in order to distinguish between correlation and

[*] In some cases, safety requires even further division or exclusion. A welterweight boxer would not compete against a heavyweight, nor a heavyweight wrestle against a smaller athlete. In the case of youth sports, when children are at an age where growth rates can vary widely, leagues will accommodate for naturally-occurring large discrepancies in body size by limiting larger athletes from playing positions where their size and strength is likely to result in injury to smaller players. Thus, in youth football, players exceeding a certain weight threshold may be temporarily restricted to playing on the line and disallowed from carrying the ball, or playing in the defensive secondary, where they could impose high-velocity hits on smaller players.

causation (i.e. which factors are merely associated with an injury, and which are truly causes). (Meeuwise 1994.)

21. Determining causality in clinical injury research through a multivariate approach involves attempting to keep as many variables as possible the same, so as to isolate the effect of a single variable, such as biological sex, on injury risk. Researchers focusing on differences between male and female athletes, for example, would not compare concussion rates of a high school girls' soccer team to concussion rates of a professional men's soccer team, because differences in the concussion rate might be due to a number of factors besides sex, such as age, body mass, relative differences in skill, speed, or power, as well as differences in training volume and intensity.

22. As indicated earlier, an injury event is usually the end product of a number of different risk factors coming together. (Bahr 2005.) A collision between two soccer players who both attempt to head the ball, for example, might be the inciting event that causes a concussion. Although the linear and angular forces that occur through sudden deceleration would be the proximate cause of this injury, the epidemiological model of injury would also factor in "upstream" risks, predicting the possibility of an injury outcome for each athlete differently depending on the sum of these risks. If the collision injury described above occurs between two disparately-sized players, the smaller athlete will tend to decelerate more abruptly than the larger athlete, increasing the smaller athlete's risk for injury. Additional discrepancies in factors such as neck strength, running speeds, and muscle force

generation capacity all result in differing risks and thus, the potential for differing injury outcomes from the same collision. As I discuss later in this white paper, there are significant statistical differences between the sexes when it comes to each of these variables, meaning that in a collision sport where skeletally-mature males and females are playing against one another, there is a higher statistical likelihood that injury will result when collisions occur, and in particular there is a higher likelihood that a female will suffer injury. This is the basis for the recent decision by World Rugby to disallow the crossover of men into women's rugby, regardless of gender identity. (World Rugby 2020.) The decision-making represented by this policy change is rational and rooted in objective facts and objective risks of harm, because it takes real, acknowledged, and documented physical differences between the sexes, and models expected injury risk on the basis of the known differences that persist even after hormone manipulation.

B. The biomechanical model of injury

23. Sports medicine researchers and clinicians also consider a biomechanical approach when it comes to understanding sports injuries. In the biomechanical model of injury, injury is considered to be analogous to the failure of a machine or other structure. Every bone, muscle, or connective tissue structure in an athlete's body has a certain load tolerance. Conceptually, when an external "load" exceeds the load tolerance of a given structure in the human body, an injury occurs. (Fung 1993 at 1.) Thus, researchers focus on the mechanical load—the force exerted on a bone, ligament, joint or other body part—and the load tolerance of that impacted or

stressed body part, to understand what the typical threshold for injury is, and how predictable this might be. (McIntosh 2005 at 2-3.) Biomechanical models of injury usually consider forces in isolation. The more consistent the movement pattern of an individual, and the fewer the contributions of unexpected outside forces to the athlete, the more accurate biomechanical predictions of injury will be.

24. Biomechanical modeling can be highly predictive in relatively simple settings. For example, in blunt trauma injury from falls, mortality predictably rises the greater the fall. About 50% of people who fall four stories will survive, while only 10% will survive a fall of seven stories. (Buckman 1991.) As complexity increases, predictability in turn decreases. In sport, the pitching motion is highly reproducible, and strain injury to the ulnar collateral ligament (UCL) of the elbow can be modeled. The load tolerance of the UCL of a pitcher's elbow is about 32 Newton-meters, but the failure threshold of a ligament like this in isolation is not the only determinant of whether injury will occur. During the pitching motion, the valgus force imparted to the elbow (gapping stress across the inner elbow that stretches the UCL) routinely reaches 64 Newtons, which is obviously greater than the failure threshold of the ligament. Since not all pitchers tear their UCLs, other variables innate to an athlete must mitigate force transmission to the ligament and reduce risk. The load tolerance of any particular part of an athlete's body is thus determined by other internal factors such as joint stiffness, total ligament support, muscle strength across the joint, or bone mineral density.

25. Injury load can be self-generated, as in the case of a pitcher's elbow, or externally-generated, as in the case of a linebacker hitting a wide receiver. While load tolerance will vary by individual, as described above, and is often reliant on characteristics innate to a given athlete, external load is determined by outside factors such as the nature of the playing surface or equipment used, in combination with the weight and speed of other players or objects (such as a batted ball) with which the player collides. (Bahr 2005.)

26. As this suggests, the two "models" of sports injuries described above are not in any sense inconsistent or in tension with each other. Instead, they are complementary ways of thinking about injuries that can provide different insights. But the important point to make regarding these models is that in either model, injury risk (or the threshold for injury) rises and falls depending on the size of an externally-applied force, and the ability of a given athlete to absorb or mitigate that force.

IV. THE PHYSICS OF SPORTS INJURY

27. Sports injuries often result from collisions between players, or between a player and a rapidly moving object (e.g. a ball or hockey puck, a lacrosse or hockey stick). In soccer, for example, most head injuries result from collisions with another player's head or body, collision with the goal or ground, or from an unanticipated blow from a kicked ball. (Boden 1998; Mooney 2020.) In basketball, players often collide with each other during screens, while diving for a loose ball, or while driving

to the basket. In lacrosse or field hockey, player-to-player, or player-to-stick contact is common.

28. But what are the results of those collisions on the human body? Basic principles of physics can cast light on this question from more than one angle. A general understanding of these principles can help us identify factors that will predictably increase the risk, frequency, and severity of sports injuries, given certain assumptions.

29. First, we can consider **energy**. Every collision involves an object or objects that possess energy. The energy embodied in a moving object (whether a human body, a ball, or anything else) is called kinetic energy.

30. Importantly, the kinetic energy of a moving object is expressed as:

$$e = \frac{1}{2} Mass * velocity^2$$

That is, kinetic energy is a function of the mass of the object multiplied by the *square* of its velocity. (Dashnaw 2012.) To illustrate with a simple but extreme example: if athletes A and B are moving at the same speed, but athlete A is twice as heavy, athlete A carries twice as much kinetic energy as athlete B. If the two athletes weigh the same amount, but athlete A is going twice as fast, athlete A carries four times as much kinetic energy as athlete B. But as I have noted, the kinetic energy of a moving object is a function of the mass of the object multiplied by the square of its velocity. Thus, if athlete A is twice as heavy, and moving twice as fast, athlete A will carry eight times the kinetic energy of athlete B into a collision.*

31. The implication of this equation means that what appear to be relatively minor discrepancies in size and speed can result in major differences in energy imparted in a collision, to the point that more frequent and more severe injuries can occur. To use figures that correspond more closely to average differences between men and women, if Player M weighs only 20% more than Player F, and runs only 15% faster, Player M will bring *58% more kinetic energy* into a collision than Player F.†

32. The law of conservation of energy tells us that energy is never destroyed or "used up." If kinetic energy is "lost" by one body in a collision, it is inevitably transferred to another body, or into a different form. In the case of collision between players, or between (e.g.) a ball and a player's head, some of the energy "lost" by one player, or by the ball, may be transformed into (harmless) sound; some may result in an increase in the kinetic energy of the player who is struck (through acceleration, which I discuss below); but some of it may result in *deformation* of the player's body—which, depending on its severity, may result in injury. Thus, the greater the kinetic energy brought into a collision, the greater the potential for injury, all other things being equal.

* $2*(2)^2 = 8$

† $1.2*(1.15)^2 = 1.587$

33. Alternately, we can consider force and acceleration, which is particularly relevant to concussion injuries.

34. Newton's third law of motion tells us that when two players collide, their bodies experience equal and opposite forces at the point of impact.

35. Acceleration refers to the rate of change in speed (or velocity). When two athletes collide, their bodies necessarily accelerate (or decelerate) rapidly: stopping abruptly, bouncing back, or being deflected in a different direction. Newton's second law of motion tells us that Force = Mass * Acceleration (or, $A = F/M$). From this equation we see that when a larger and a smaller body collide, and (necessarily) experience equal and opposite forces, the smaller body (or smaller player, in sport) will experience more rapid acceleration. We observe this physical principle in action when we watch a bowling ball strike bowling pins: the heavy bowling ball only slightly changes its course and speed; the lighter pins go flying.

36. This same equation also tells us that if a given player's body or head is hit with a *larger* force (e.g., from a ball that has been thrown or hit faster), it will experience *greater* acceleration, everything else being equal.

37. Of course, sport is by definition somewhat chaotic, and forces are often not purely linear. Many collisions also involve angular velocities, with the production of rotational force, or torque. Torque can be thought of as force that causes rotation around a central point. A different but similar equation of Newtonian physics

governs the principles involved.* Torque is relevant to injury in several ways. When torque is applied through joints in directions those joints are not able to accommodate, injury can occur. In addition, rotational force can cause different parts of the body to accelerate at different rates—in some cases, very rapid rates, also leading to injury. For example, a collision where the body is impacted at the waist can result in high torque and acceleration on the neck and head.

38. Sport-related concussion—a common sports injury and one with potentially significant effects—is attributable to linear, angular, or rotational acceleration and deceleration forces that result from impact to the head, or from an impact to the body that results in a whiplash "snap" of the head. (Rowson 2016.) In the case of a concussive head injury, it is the brain that accelerates or decelerates on impact, colliding with the inner surface of the skull. (Barth 2001 at 255.)

39. None of this is mysterious: each of us, if we had to choose between being hit either by a large, heavy athlete running at full speed, or by a small, lighter athlete, would intuitively choose collision with the small, light athlete as the lesser of the two evils. And we would be right. One author referred to the "increase in kinetic energy, and therefore imparted forces" resulting from collision with larger, faster players as "profound." (Dashnaw 2012.)

* In this equation, Torque = Moment of Inertia x Angular Acceleration, where "Moment of Inertia" is defined as Mass x Distance to the Rotational Axis (squared).

V. GENDER DIFFERENCES RELEVANT TO INJURY

40. It is important to state up front that it is self-evident to most people familiar with sport and sport injuries that if men and women were to consistently participate together in competitive contact sports, there would be higher rates of injury in women. This is one reason that rule modifications often exist in leagues where co-ed participation occurs.* Understanding the physics of sports injuries helps provide a theoretical framework for why this is true, but so does common sense and experience. All of us are familiar with basic objective physiological differences between the sexes which become apparent after the onset of puberty, and persist throughout adulthood. And as a result of personal experience, all of us also have some intuitive sense of what types of collisions are likely to cause pain or injury. Not surprisingly, our "common sense" on these basic facts about the human condition are also consistent with the observations of medical science. Below, I provide quantifications of some of these well-known differences between the sexes that are relevant to injury risk, as well as some categorical differences that may be less well known.

A. Height and weight

41. It is an inescapable fact of the human species that males as a group are statistically larger and heavier than females. On average, men are 7% to 8% taller

* For example, see https://www.athleticbusiness.com/college/intramural-coed-basketball-playing-rules-vary-greatly.html (detailing variety of rule modifications applied in co-ed basketball). Similarly, coed soccer leagues often prohibit so-called "slide tackles," which are not prohibited in either men's or women's soccer. See, e.g.., http://www.premiercoedsports.com/pages/rulesandpolicies/soccer.

than women. (Handelsman 2018 at 818.) According to the most recently available Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) statistics, the weight of the average U.S. adult male is 16% greater than that of the average U.S. adult female. (CDC 2018.) This disparity persists into the athletic cohort. Researchers find that while athletes tend on average to be lighter than non-athletes, the weight difference between the average adult male and female athlete remains within the same range—between 14% and 23%, depending on the sport analyzed. (Santos 2014; Fields 2018.) Indeed, World Rugby estimates that the average male rugby player weighs 20% to 40% more than the average female rugby player. (World Rugby 2020 at 10.) This size advantage by itself allows men to bring more force to bear in a collision.

B. Bone and connective tissue strength

42. Men have bones in their arms, legs, feet and hands that are both larger and stronger per unit volume than those of women, due to greater cross-sectional area, greater bone mineral content, and greater bone density. The advantage in bone size (cross-sectional area) holds true in both upper and lower extremities, even when adjusted for lean body mass. (Handelsman 2018 at 818; Nieves 2005 at 530.) Greater bone size in men is also correlated with stronger tendons that are more adaptable to training (Magnusson 2007), and an increased ability to withstand the forces produced by larger muscles (Morris 2020 at 5). Male bones are not merely larger, they are stronger per unit of volume. Studies of differences in arm and leg bone mineral density – one component of bone strength – find that male bones are

denser, with measured advantages of between 5% and 14%. (Gilsanz 2011; Nieves 2005.)

43. Men also have larger ligaments than women (Lin 2019 at 5), and stiffer connective tissue (Hilton 2021 at Table 1), providing greater protection against joint injury.

C. Speed

44. When it comes to acceleration from a static position, and either sprinting or sustained running, men are consistently faster than women. World record sprint performance between the sexes remains significant at between 7% and 10.5%, with world record times in women now exhibiting a plateau (no longer rapidly improving with time) similar to the historical trends seen in men. (Cheuvront 2005.) This performance gap has to do with, among other factors, increased skeletal stiffness, greater cross-sectional muscle area, denser muscle fiber composition and greater limb length. (Handelsman 2018.) For all these reasons, males, on average, run about 10% faster than females. (Lombardo 2018 at 93.) This becomes important as it pertains to injury risk, because males involved in sport will often be travelling at faster speeds than their female counterparts in comparable settings, with resultant faster speed at impact in a given collision.

D. Strength/Power

45. In 2014, a male mixed-martial art fighter identifying as female and fighting under the name Fallon Fox fought a woman named Tamikka Brents, and

caused significant facial injuries in the course of their bout. Speaking about their fight later, Brents said:

> "I've fought a lot of women and have never felt the strength that I felt in a fight as I did that night. I can't answer whether it's because she was born a man or not because I'm not a doctor. I can only say, I've never felt so overpowered ever in my life, and I am an abnormally strong female in my own right."*

46. So far as I am aware, mixed martial arts is not a collegiate or high school interscholastic sport. Nevertheless, what Brent experienced in an extreme setting is true and relevant to safety in all sports that involve contact. In absolute terms, males as a group are substantially stronger than women.

47. Compared to women, men have "larger and denser muscle mass, and stiffer connective tissue, with associated capacity to exert greater muscular force more rapidly and efficiently." (Hilton 2021.) Research shows that on average, during the prime athletic years (ages 18-29) men have, on average, 54% greater total muscle mass than women (33.7 kg vs. 21.8 kg) including 64% greater muscle mass in the upper body, and 47% greater in the lower body. (Janssen 2000 at Table 1.) The cross-sectional area of muscle in women is only 50% to 60% that of men in the upper arm, and 65% to 70% of that of men in the thigh. This translates to women having only 50% to 60% of men's upper limb strength and 60% to 80% of men's lower limb strength. (Handelsman 2018 at 812.) Male weightlifters have been shown to be approximately 30% stronger than female weightlifters of equivalent

* https://bjj-world.com/transgender-mma-fighter-fallon-fox-breaks-skull-of-her-female-opponent/

stature and mass. (Hilton 2021 at 5.) But in competitive athletics, since the stature and mass of the average male exceeds that of the average female, actual differences in strength between average body types will, on average, exceed this. The longer limb lengths of males augment strength as well. Statistically, in comparison with women, men also have lower total body fat, and differently distributed and greater lean muscle mass, which increases their power-to-weight ratios and upper-to-lower limb strength ratios as a group. Looking at another common metric of strength, moderately trained males average 57% greater grip strength (Bohannon 2019) and 54% greater knee extension torque (Neder 1999).

48. Using their legs and torso for power generation, men can apply substantially larger forces with their arms and upper body, enabling them to generate more ball velocity through overhead motions, as well as generate more pushing or punching power. In other words, isolated sex-specific differences in muscle strength in one region (even differences that in isolation seem small) can, and do combine to generate even greater sex-specific differences in more complex sport-specific functions. One study looking at moderately-trained individuals found that males can generate 162% more punching power than females. (Morris 2020.) Thus, multiple small advantages aggregate into larger ones.

E. Throwing and kicking speed

49. One result of the combined effects of these sex-determined differences in skeletal structure is that men are, on average, able to throw objects faster than women. (Lombardo 2018; Chu 2009; Thomas 1985.) By age seventeen, the *average*

male can throw a ball farther than 99% of seventeen-year-old females—which necessarily means at a faster initial speed assuming a similar angle of release—despite the fact that factors such as arm length, muscle mass, and joint stiffness individually don't come close to exhibiting this degree of sex-defined advantage. One study of elite male and female baseball pitchers showed that men throw baseballs 35% faster than women—81 miles/hour for men vs. 60 miles/hour for women. The authors of this study attribute this to a sex-specific difference in the ability to generate muscle torque and power. (Chu 2009.) A study showing greater throwing velocity in male versus female handball players attributed it to differences in body size, including height, muscle mass, and arm length. (Van Den Tillaar 2012.) Interestingly, significant sex-related difference in throwing ability has been shown to manifest even before puberty, but the difference increases rapidly during and after puberty. (Thomas 1985 at 266.) These sex-determined differences in throwing speed are not limited to sports where a ball is thrown. Males have repeatedly been shown to throw a javelin more than 30% farther than females. (Lombardo 2018 Table 2; Hilton 2021 at 5.)

50. Men also serve and spike volleyballs with higher velocity than women, with a performance advantage in the range of 29-34%. (Hilton 2021) Analysis of first and second tier Belgian national elite male volleyball players shows ball spike speeds of 63 mph and 56 mph respectively. (Forthomme 2005.) NCAA Division I female volleyball players—roughly comparable to the second-tier male elite group referenced above—average a ball spike velocity of approximately 40 mph (18.1 m/s).

(Ferris 1995 at Table 2.) Notably, based on the measurements of these studies, male spiking speed in *lower* elite divisions is almost 40% greater than that of NCAA Division I female collegiate players. Separate analyses of serving speed between elite men and women Spanish volleyball players showed that the average power serving speed in men was 54.6 mph (range 45.3–64.6 mph), with maximal speed of 76.4 mph. In women, average power serving speed was 49 mph (range 41–55.3 mph) with maximal speed of 59 mph. This translates to an almost 30% advantage in maximal serve velocity in men. (Palao 2014.)

51. Recall that kinetic energy is dependent on mass and the square of velocity. A volleyball (with fixed mass) struck by a male, and traveling an average 35% faster than one struck by a female, will deliver 82% more energy to a head upon impact.

52. Men's greater leg strength and jumping ability confer a further large advantage in volleyball that is relevant to injury risk. In volleyball, an "attack jump" is a jump to position a player to spike the ball downward over the net against the opposing team. Research on elite national volleyball players found that on average males exhibited a 50% greater vertical jump height during an "attack" than did females. (Sattler 2015.) Similar data looking at countermovement jumps (to block a shot) in national basketball players reveals a 35% male advantage in jump height. (Kellis 1999.) In volleyball, this dramatic difference in jump height means that male players who are competing in female divisions will more often be able to successfully perform a spike, and this will be all the more true considering that the

women's net height is seven inches lower than that used in men's volleyball. Confirming this inference, research also shows that the successful attack percentage (that is, the frequency with which the ball is successfully hit over the net into the opponent's court in an attempt to score) is so much higher with men than women that someone analyzing game statistics can consistently identify games played by men as opposed to women on the basis of this statistic alone. These enhanced and more consistently successful attacks by men directly correlate to their greater jumping ability and attack velocity at the net. (Kountouris 2015.)

53. The combination of the innate male-female differences cited above, along with the lower net height in women's volleyball, means that if a reasonably athletic male is permitted to compete against women, the participating female players will likely be exposed to higher ball velocities that are outside the range of what is typically seen in women's volleyball. When we recall that ball-to-head impact is a common cause of concussion among women volleyball players, this fact makes it clear that participation in girls' or women's volleyball by biologically male individuals will increase concussion injury risk for participating girls or women.

54. Male sex-based advantages in leg strength also lead to greater kick velocity. In comparison with women, men kick balls harder and faster. A study comparing kicking velocity between university-level male and female soccer players found that males kick the ball with an average 20% greater velocity than females. (Sakamoto 2014.) Applying the same principles of physics we have just used above, we see that a soccer ball kicked by a male, travelling an average 20% faster than a

ball kicked by a female, will deliver 44% more energy on head impact. Greater force-generating capacity will thus increase the risk of an impact injury such as concussion.

VI. ENHANCED FEMALE VULNERABILITY TO CERTAIN INJURIES

55. Above, I have reviewed physiological differences that result in the male body bringing greater weight, speed, and force to the athletic field or court, and how these differences can result in a greater risk of injury to females when males compete against them. But it is also true that the female body is more vulnerable than the male body to certain types of injury even when subject to comparable forces. In this regard, I will focus on two areas of heightened female vulnerability to collision-related injury which have been extensively studied: concussions, and ACL injuries.

A. Concussions

56. Females are more likely than males to suffer concussions in comparable sports, and on average suffer more severe and long-lasting disability once a concussion does occur. (Harmon 2013 at 4; Berz 2015; Blumenfeld 2016; Covassin 2003; Rowson 2016.) Females also seem to be at higher risk for post-concussion syndrome than males. (Berz 2015; Blumenfeld 2016; Broshek 2005; Colvin 2009; Covassin 2012; Dick 2009; Marar 2012; Preiss-Farzanegan 2009.)

57. The most widely-accepted definition of sport-related concussion* comes from the Consensus Statement on Concussion in Sport (see below). (McCrory 2018.) To summarize, concussion is "a traumatically induced transient disturbance of brain function, involving a complex pathophysiological process that can manifest in a variety of ways." (Harmon 2013 at 1.)

58. Sport-related concussions have undergone a significant increase in societal awareness and concurrent injury reporting since the initial passage of the Zachery Lystedt Concussion Law in Washington State in 2009 (Bompadre 2014), and the subsequent passage of similar legislation governing return-to-play criteria for concussed athletes in most other states in the U.S. (Nat'l Cnf. of State Leg's 2018). Concussion is now widely-recognized as a common sport-related injury, occurring in both male and female athletes. (CDC 2007.) Sport-related concussions can result from player-surface contact or player-equipment contact in virtually any

* "Sport related concussion is a traumatic brain injury induced by biomechanical forces. Several common features that may be utilised in clinically defining the nature of a concussive head injury include:

► SRC may be caused either by a direct blow to the head, face, neck or elsewhere on the body with an impulsive force transmitted to the head.

► SRC typically results in the rapid onset of short-lived impairment of neurological function that resolves spontaneously. However, in some cases, signs and symptoms evolve over a number of minutes to hours.

► SRC may result in neuropathological changes, but the acute clinical signs and symptoms largely reflect a functional disturbance rather than a structural injury and, as such, no abnormality is seen on standard structural neuroimaging studies.

► SRC results in a range of clinical signs and symptoms that may or may not involve loss of consciousness. Resolution of the clinical and cognitive features typically follows a sequential course. However, in some cases symptoms may be prolonged.

The clinical signs and symptoms cannot be explained by drug, alcohol, or medication use, other injuries (such as cervical injuries, peripheral vestibular dysfunction, etc) or other comorbidities (eg, psychological factors or coexisting medical conditions).

sport. However, sudden impact via a player-to-player collision, with rapid deceleration and the transmission of linear or rotational forces through the brain, is also with a common cause of concussion injury. (Covassin 2016 at 242-243; Marar 2012; Barth 2001; Blumenfeld 2016; Boden 1998; Harmon 2013 at 4.)

59. A large retrospective study of U.S. high school athletes showed a higher rate of female concussions in soccer (79% higher), volleyball (0.6 concussions/10,000 exposures, with 485,000 reported exposures, vs. no concussions in the male cohort), basketball (31% higher), and softball/baseball (320% higher). (Marar 2012.) A similarly-sized, similarly-designed study comparing concussion rates between NCAA male and female collegiate athletes showed, overall, a concussion rate among females 40% higher than that of males. Higher rates of injury were seen across individual sports as well, including ice hockey (10% higher); soccer (54% higher); basketball (40% higher); and softball/baseball (95% higher). (Covassin 2016.) The observations of these authors, my own observations from clinical practice, and the acknowledgment of our own Society's Position Statement (Harmon 2013), all validate the higher frequency and severity of sport-related concussions in women and girls.

60. In addition, females on average suffer materially greater cognitive impairment than males when they do suffer a concussion. Group differences in cognitive impairment between females and males who have suffered concussion have been extensively studied. A study of 2340 high school and collegiate athletes who suffered concussions determined that females had a 170% higher frequency of

cognitive impairment following concussions, and that in comparison with males, female athletes had significantly greater declines in simple and complex reaction times relative to their preseason baseline levels. Moreover, the females experienced greater objective and subjective adverse effects from concussion even after adjusting for potentially protective effect of helmets used by some groups of male athletes. (Broshek 2005 at 856, 861; Colvin 2009; Covassin 2012.)

61. This large discrepancy in frequency and severity of concussion injury is consistent with my own observations across many years of clinical practice. The large majority of student athletes who have presented at my practice with severe and long-lasting cognitive disturbance have been adolescent girls. I have seen girls remain symptomatic for over a year, and lose ground academically and become isolated from their peer groups due to these ongoing symptoms. For patients who experience these severe effects, post-concussion syndrome can be life-altering.

62. Some of the anatomical and physiological differences that we have considered between males and females help to explain the documented differences in concussion rates and in symptoms between males and females. (Covassin 2016; La Fountaine 2019; Lin 2019; Tierney 2005; Wunderle 2014.) Anatomically, there are significant sex-based differences in head and neck anatomy, with females exhibiting in the range of 30% to 40% less head-neck segment mass and neck girth, and 49% lower neck isometric strength. This means that when a female athlete's head is subjected to the same load as an analogous male, there will be a greater tendency for head acceleration, and resultant injury. (Tierney 2005 at 276-277.)

63. When modeling the effect of the introduction of male mass, speed, and strength into women's rugby, World Rugby gave particular attention to the resulting increases in forces and acceleration (and injury risk) experienced in the head and neck of female players. Their analysis found that "the magnitude of known risk factors for head injury are . . . predicted by the size of the disparity in mass between players . . . . The addition of [male] speed as a biomechanical variable further increases these disparities," and their model showed an increase of up to 50% in neck and head acceleration that would be experienced in a typical tackle scenario in women's rugby. As a result, "a number of tackles that currently lie beneath the threshold for injury would now exceed it, causing head injury." (World Rugby 2020 at 12-13.) While rugby is notoriously contact-intensive, similar increases to risk of head and neck injury to women are predictable in any sport context in which males and females collide at significant speed, as happens from time to time in sports including soccer and basketball.

64. In addition, even when the heads of female and male athletes are subject to identical accelerative forces, there are sex-based differences in neural anatomy and physiology, cerebrovascular organization, and cellular response to concussive stimuli that make the female more likely to suffer concussive injury, or more severe concussive injury. For instance, hypothalamic-pituitary disruption is thought to play a role in post-concussion symptomatology that differentially impacts women. (McGroarty 2020; Broshek 2005 at 861.) Another study found that elevated progesterone levels during one portion of the menstrual cycle were associated with

more severe post-concussion symptomatology that differentially impacted women. (Wunderle 2014.)

65. As it stands, when women compete against each other, they already have higher rates of concussive injury than men, across most sports. The addition of biologically male athletes into women's contact sports will inevitably increase the risk of concussive injury to girls and women, for the multiple reasons I have explained. Because the effects of concussion can be severe and long-lasting, particularly for girls and women, we can predict with some confidence that if participation by biological males in women's contact sports based on gender identity becomes more common, more girls and women will suffer substantial concussive injury and the potential for long-term harm as a result.

B. Anterior Cruciate Ligament injuries

66. The Anterior Cruciate Ligament ("ACL") is a key knee stabilizer that prevents anterior translation of the tibia relative to the femur and also provides rotatory and valgus[*] knee stability. (Lin 2019 at 4.) Girls and women are far more vulnerable to ACL injuries than are boys and men. The physics of injury that we have reviewed above makes it inevitable that the introduction of biologically male athletes into the female category will increase still further the occurrence of ACL injuries among girls or women who encounter these players on the field.

[*] Valgus force at the knee is a side-applied force that gaps the medial knee open.

67. Sports-related injury to the ACL is so common that it is easy to overlook the significance of it. But it is by no means a trivial injury, as it can end sports careers, require surgery, and usually results in post-traumatic osteoarthritis, triggering long-term pain and mobility problems later in life. (Wang 2020.)

68. Even in the historic context in which girls and women limit competition to (and so only collide with) other girls and women, the rate of ACL injury is substantially higher among female than male athletes. (Flaxman 2014; Lin 2019; Agel 2005.) One meta-analysis of 58 studies reports that female athletes have a 150% relative risk for ACL injury compared with male athletes, with other estimates suggesting as much as a 300% increased risk. (Montalvo 2019; Sutton 2013.) Particularly in those sports designated as contact sports, or sports with frequent cutting and sharp directional changes (basketball, field hockey, lacrosse, soccer), females are at greater risk of ACL injury. In basketball and soccer, this risk extends across all skill levels, with female athletes between two and eight times more likely to sustain an ACL injury than their male counterparts. (Lin 2019 at 5.) These observations are widely validated, and consistent with the relative frequencies of ACL injuries that I see in my own practice.

69. When the reasons underlying the difference in the incidence of ACL injury between males and females were first studied in the early 1990s, researchers speculated that the difference might be attributable to females' relative inexperience in contact sports, or to their lack of appropriate training. However, a follow-up 2005 study looking at ACL tear disparities reported that, "Despite vast

attention to the discrepancy between anterior cruciate ligament injury rates between men and women, these differences continue to exist." (Agel 2005 at 524.) Inexperience and lack of training do not explain the differences. Sex seems to be an independent predictor of ACL tear risk.

70. In fact, as researchers have continued to study this discrepancy, they have determined that multiple identifiable anatomical and physiological differences between males and females play significant roles in making females more vulnerable to ACL injuries than males. (Flaxman 2014; Lin 2019; Wolf 2015.) Summarizing the findings of a number of separate studies, one researcher recently cited as anatomical risk factors for ACL injury smaller ligament size, decreased femoral notch width, increased posterior-inferior slope of the lateral tibia plateau, increased knee and generalized laxity, and increased body mass index (BMI). With the exception of increased BMI, each of these factors is more likely to occur in female than male athletes. (Lin 2019 at 5.) In addition, female athletes often stand in more knee valgus (that is, in a "knock-kneed" posture) due to wider hips and a medially-oriented femur. Often, this is also associated with a worsening of knee valgus during jump landings. The body types and movement patterns associated with these valgus knee postures are more common in females and increase the risk for ACL tear. (Hewett 2005.)

71. As with concussion, the cyclic fluctuation of sex-specific hormones in women is also thought to be a possible risk factor for ACL injury. Estrogen acts on ligaments to make them more lax, and it is thought that during the ovulatory phase

of menses (when estrogen levels peak), the risk of ACL tear is higher. (Chidi-Ogbolu 2019 at 1; Herzberg 2017.)

72. Whatever the factors that increase the injury risk for ACL tears in women, the fact that a sex-specific difference in the rate of ACL injury exists is well established and widely accepted.

73. Although non-contact mechanisms are the most common reason for ACL tears in females, tears related to contact are also common, with ranges reported across multiple studies of from 20%-36% of all ACL injuries in women. (Kobayashi 2010 at 672.) For example, when a soccer player who is kicking a ball is struck by another player in the lateral knee of the stance leg, the medially-directed force can tear the medial collateral ligament (MCL), the ACL, and the meniscus. Thus, as participation in the female category based on identity rather than biology becomes more common, and as collision forces suffered by girls and women increase accordingly, the risk for orthopedic injury and in particular ACL tears among impacted girls and women will inevitably rise.

74. Of course there exists variation in all these factors within a given group of males or females. However, it is also true that within sex-specific pools, size differential is somewhat predictable and bounded, even considering outliers. When males are permitted to enter into the pool of female athletes based on gender identity rather than biological sex, there is an increased possibility that a statistical outlier in terms of size, weight, speed, and strength—and potentially an extreme outlier—is now entering the female pool. Although injury is not guaranteed, risks to

female participants will increase. And as I discuss later, the available evidence together suggests that this will be true even with respect to males who have been on testosterone suppression for a year or more. World Rugby relied heavily upon this when they were determining their own policy, and I think it is important to reiterate that this policy, rooted in concern for athlete safety, is justifiable based upon current evidence from medical research and what we know about biology.

VII. TESTOSTERONE SUPPRESSION WILL NOT PREVENT THE HARM TO FEMALE SAFETY IN ATHLETICS

75. A recent editorial in the New England Journal of Medicine opined that policies governing transgender participation in female athletics “must safeguard the rights of all women—whether cisgender or transgender.” (Dolgin 2000.) Unfortunately, the physics and medical science reviewed above tell us that this is not practically possible. If biological males are given a “right” to participate in the female category based on gender identity, then biological women will be denied the right to reasonable expectations of safety and injury risk that have historically been guaranteed by ensuring that females compete (and collide) only with other females.

76. Advocates of unquestioning inclusion based on gender identity often contend that hormonal manipulation of a male athlete can feminize the athlete enough that he is comparable with females for purposes of competition. The NCAA’s Office of Inclusion asserts that “It is also important to know that any strength and endurance advantages a transgender woman arguably may have as a result of her prior testosterone levels dissipate after about one year of estrogen or testosterone-

suppression therapy." (NCAA 2011 at 8.) Whether or not this is true is a critically important question.

77. At the outset, we should note that while advocates sometimes claim that testosterone suppression *can* eliminate physiological advantages in a biological male, none of the relevant transgender eligibility policies that I am aware of require any demonstration that it has *actually* achieved that effect in a particular male who seeks admission into the female category. The Connecticut policy that is currently at issue in ongoing litigation permits admission to the female category at the high school level without requiring any testosterone suppression at all. The NCAA policy requires no demonstration of any reduction of performance capability, change in weight, or regression of any other physical attribute of the biological male toward female levels. It does not require achievement of any particular testosterone level, and does not provide for any monitoring of athletes for compliance. The IOC policy likewise requires no showing of any diminution of any performance capability or physical attribute of the biological male, and requires achievement and compliance monitoring only of a testosterone level below 10nmol/liter—a level far above levels occurring in normal biological females (0.06 to 1.68 nmol/L[*]). Indeed, female athletes with polycystic ovarian disorder—a condition that results in elevated testosterone levels—rarely exceed 4.8 nmol/L, which is the basis for setting the testing threshold to detect testosterone *doping* in females at 5.0 nmol/L. Thus,

[*] Normal testosterone range in a healthy male averages between 7.7 and 29.4 nmol/L)

males who qualify under the current IOC policy to compete as transgender women may have testosterone levels—even after hormone suppression—*double* the level that would disqualify a biological female for doping with testosterone.

78. As Dr. Emma Hilton has observed, the fact that there are over 3000 sex-specific differences in skeletal muscle alone makes the hypothesis that sex-linked performance advantages are attributable solely to current circulating testosterone levels improbable at best. (Hilton 2021 at 2-3.)

79. In fact, the available evidence strongly indicates that no amount of testosterone suppression can eliminate male physiological advantages relevant to performance and safety. Several authors have recently reviewed the science and statistics from numerous studies that demonstrate that one year (or more) of testosterone suppression does not substantially eliminate male performance advantages. (Hilton 2021; DeVarona 2021; Harper 2021.) As a medical doctor, I will focus on those specific sex-based characteristics of males who have undergone normal sex-determined pubertal skeletal growth and maturation that are relevant to the *safety* of female athletes. Here, too, the available science tells us that testosterone suppression does not eliminate the increased risk to females or solve the safety problem.

80. The World Rugby organization reached this same determination based on the currently available science, concluding that male physiological advantages that "create risks [to female players] appear to be only minimally affected" by testosterone suppression. (World Rugby 2020 at 15.)

81. Surprisingly, so far as public information reveals, the NCAA's Committee on Competitive Safeguards is not monitoring and documenting instances of transgender participation on women's teams for purposes of injury reporting. In practice, the NCAA is conducting an experiment which in theory predicts an increased frequency and severity of injuries to women in contact sports, while at the same time failing to collect the relevant data from its experiment.

A. <u>Size and weight</u>

82. Males are, on average, larger and heavier. As we have seen, these facts alone mean that males bring more kinetic energy into collisions, and that lighter females will suffer more abrupt deceleration in collisions with larger bodies, creating heightened injury risk for impacted females.

83. I start with what is obvious and so far as I am aware undisputed—that after the male pubertal growth spurt, suppression of testosterone does not materially *shrink* bones so as to eliminate height, leverage, performance, and weight differences that follow from simply having longer, larger bones, and being subsequently taller.

84. In addition, multiple studies have found that testosterone suppression may modestly reduce, but does not come close to eliminating the male advantage in muscle mass and lean body mass, which together contribute to the greater average male weight. Researchers looking at transitioning adolescents found that the weight of biological male subjects *increased* rather than decreased after treatment with an antiandrogen testosterone suppressor. (Tack 2018.) In one recent meta-analysis,

researchers looking at the musculoskeletal effects of hormonal transition found that even after males had undergone 36 months of therapy, their lean body mass and muscle area remained above those of females. (Harper 2021.) Another group in 2004 studied the effects of testosterone suppression to less than 1 nmol/L in men by the end of the first year, and continuing, but still found only a 12% total loss of muscle area by the end of three years. (Gooren 2004.)

B. Bone density

85. Bone mass (which includes both size and density) is maintained over *at least* two years of testosterone suppression (Singh-Ospina 2017; Fighera 2019), and one study found it to be preserved even over a median of 12.5 years of suppression (Hilton 2021; Ruetsche 2005).

C. Strength

86. A large number of studies have now observed minimal or no reduction in strength in male subjects following testosterone suppression. In one recent meta-analysis, strength loss after twelve months of hormone therapy ranged from negligible to 7%. (Harper 2021.) Given the baseline male strength advantage in various muscle groups of from 30% to 100% above female levels that I have noted in Section VI.D above, even a 7% reduction leaves a large retained advantage in strength. Another study looking at handgrip strength—which is a proxy for general strength—showed a 9% loss of strength after two years of hormonal treatment in males who were transitioning, leaving a 23% retained advantage over the female baseline. (Hilton 2021.) Yet another study which found a 17% retained grip strength

advantage noted that although this placed transitioning males at the 25th percentile for grip strength in men, it placed them in the 90th percentile for grip strength in women. (Scharff 2019.) Researchers looking at transitioning adolescents showed no loss of grip strength after hormone treatment. (Tack 2018.)

87. One recent study on male Air Force service members undergoing transition showed that they retained more than two thirds of pretreatment performance advantage over females in sit-ups and push-ups after between one and two years of testosterone-reducing hormonal treatment. (Roberts 2020.) Another recently-published observational cohort study looked at thigh strength and thigh muscle cross-sectional area in men undergoing hormonal transition to transgender females. After one year of hormonal suppression, this group saw only a 4% decrease in thigh muscle cross-sectional area, and a negligible decrease in thigh muscle strength. (Wiik 2020.) Wiik and colleagues looked at isokinetic strength measurements in individuals who had undergone at least 12 months of hormonal transition and found that muscle strength was comparable to baseline, leaving transitioned males with a 50% strength advantage over reference females. (Wiik 2020.) Finally, one cross-sectional study that compared men who had undergone transition at least three years prior to analysis, to age-matched, healthy males found that the transgender individuals had retained enough strength that they were still outside normative values for women. This imbalance continued to hold even after *eight* years of hormone suppression. The authors also noted that since males who identify as women often have lower baseline (i.e., before hormone

treatment) muscle mass than the general population of males, and since baseline measures for this study were unavailable, the post-transition comparison may actually represent an overestimate of muscle mass regression in transgender females. (Lapauw 2008; Hilton 2021.)

88. World Rugby came to the same conclusion based on its own review of the literature, reporting that testosterone suppression "does not reverse muscle size to female levels," and in fact that "studies assessing reductions in mass, muscle mass, and/or strength suggest that reduction in these variables range between 5% and 10%. Given that the typical male vs female advantages range from 30% to 100%, these reductions are small." (World Rugby 2020 at 15-16.)

89. It is true that most studies of change in physical characteristics or capabilities over time after testosterone suppression involve untrained subjects rather than athletes, or subjects with low to moderate training. It may be assumed that all of the Air Force members who were subjects in the study I mention above were physically fit and engaged in regular physical training. But neither that study nor those studies looking at athletes quantify the volume or type of strength training athletes are undergoing. The important point to make is that the only effect strength training could have on these athletes is to *counteract* and reduce the limited loss of muscle mass and strength that does otherwise occur to some extent over time with testosterone blockade. There has been at least one study that illustrates this, although only over a short period, measuring strength during a twelve-week period where testosterone was suppressed to levels of 2 nmol/L. During

that time, subjects actually increased leg lean mass by 4%, and total lean mass by 2%, and subject performance on the 10 rep-max leg press improved by 32%, while their bench press performance improved by 17%. (Kvorning 2006.)

90. The point for safety is that superior strength enables a biological male to apply greater force against an opponent's body during body contact, or to throw, hit, or kick a ball at speeds outside the ranges normally encountered in female-only play, with the attendant increased risks of injury that I have already explained.

D. Speed

91. As to speed, the study of transitioning Air Force members found that these males retained a 9% running speed advantage over the female control group after one year of testosterone suppression, and their average speed had not declined significantly farther by the end of the 2.5 year study period. (Roberts 2020.) Again, I have already explained the implications of greater male speed on safety for females on the field and court, particularly in combination with the greater male body weight.

Conclusion

Since the average male athlete is larger, and exerts greater power than the average female athlete in similar sports, male–female collisions will produce greater energy at impact, and impart greater risk of injury to a female, than would occur in most female-female collisions. We have seen that males who have undergone hormone therapy in transition toward a female body type nevertheless retain musculoskeletal "legacy" advantages in muscle girth, strength, and size. We have also seen that the additive effects of these individual advantages create multiplied advantages in terms of power, force generation and momentum on the field of play. In contact or collision sports, sports involving projectiles, or sports where a stick is used to strike something, the physics and physiology reviewed above tell us that permitting male-bodied athletes to compete against, or on the same team as females—even when undergoing testosterone suppression—must be expected to create predictable, identifiable, substantially increased, and unequal risks of injuries to the participating women.

Based on its independent and extensive analysis of the literature coupled with injury modeling, World Rugby recognized the inadequacy of the International Olympic Committee's policy to preserve safety for female athletes in their contact sport (the NCAA policy is even more lax in its admission of biological males into the female category). Among the explicit findings of the World Rugby working group were the following:

- Forces and inertia faced by a smaller and slower player during collisions are significantly greater when in contact with a larger, faster player.
- Discrepancies in mass and speed (such as between two opponents in a tackle) are significant determinants of various head and other musculoskeletal injury risks.
- The risk of injury to females is increased by biological males' greater ability to exert force (strength and power), and also by females' reduced ability to receive or tolerate that force.
- Testosterone suppression results in only "small" reductions in the male physiological advantages. As a result, heightened injury risks remain for females who share the same field or court with biological males.

- These findings together predict a significant increase in injury rates for females in rugby if males are permitted to participate based on gender identity, *with or without testosterone suppression*, since the magnitude of forces and energy transfer during collisions will increase substantially, directly correlated to the differences in physical attributes that exist between the biological sexes.

Summarizing their work, the authors of the World Rugby Guidelines stated that, "World Rugby's number one stated priority is to make the game as safe as possible, and so World Rugby cannot allow the risk to players to be increased to such an extent by allowing people who have the force and power advantages conferred by testosterone to play with and against those who do not." (World Rugby 2020 at 3.) As my own analysis above makes clear, I agree with World Rugby's conclusions regarding risk to female athletes. Importantly, I also agree that it must be a high priority for sports governing bodies to make each sport as safe as reasonably possible. And in my view, medical practitioners with expertise in this area have an obligation to advocate for science-based policies that promote safety.

The *performance* advantages retained by males who participate in women's sports based on gender identity are readily recognized by the public. When an NCAA hurdler who ranked 200th while running in the collegiate male division transitions and immediately leaps to a number one ranking in the women's division;[*] when a high school male sprinter who ranked 181st in the state running in the boys' division transitions and likewise takes first place in the girls' division (DeVarona 2021), the problem of fairness and equal opportunities for girls and

[*] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cece_Telfer (accessed 6/20/21).

women is immediately apparent, and indeed this problem is being widely discussed today in the media.

The causes of sports injuries, however, are multivariate and not always as immediately apparent. While, as I have noted, transgender individuals have indeed competed in a variety of girls' and women's contact sports, the numbers up till now have been small. But recent studies have reported very large increases in the number of children and young people identifying as transgender compared to historical experience. For example, an extensive survey of 9th and 11th graders in Minnesota found that 2.7% identified as transgender or gender-nonconforming—well over 100 times historical rates (Rider 2018), and many other sources likewise report this trend.* Faced with this rapid social change, it is my view as a medical doctor that policymakers have a pressing duty not to wait while avoidable injuries are inflicted on girls and women, but instead to proactively establish policies governing participation in female athletics that give proper and scientifically-based priority to safety in sport for girls and women. Otherwise, the hard science that I have reviewed in this white paper leaves little doubt that current eligibility policies based on ideology rather than science will result in increased, and more serious, injuries to girls and women who are forced to compete against biologically male transgender athletes. When basic science and physiology both predict increased

* https://www.nytimes.com/2016/07/01/health/transgender-population.html?.?mc=aud_dev&ad-keywords=auddevgate&gclid=Cj0KCQjwkZiFBhD9ARIsAGxFX8BV5pozB9LI5Ut57OQzuMhurWThvBMisV9NyN9YTXIzWl7OAnGT6VkaAu0jEALw_wcB&gclsrc=aw.ds (accessed 6/20/21).

injury, then leagues, policy-makers, and even legislators have a responsibility to act.

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