

1 **Trans and non-binary pregnancy, traumatic birth and perinatal mental health: A**
2 **scoping review**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14

15 ***Background***

16 Many trans and non-binary people wish to be parents. However, few countries record figures
17 for trans and non-binary people becoming pregnant/impregnating their partners. Pregnant
18 non-binary people and trans men may be growing populations, with heightened
19 vulnerabilities to traumatic birth and perinatal mental health difficulties (i.e. pregnancy-one
20 year postpartum).

21

22 ***Aim***

23 To conduct a scoping review on traumatic birth and perinatal mental health in trans and non-
24 binary people to identify research evidence, summarize findings and identify gaps.

25

26 ***Methods***

27 Electronic databases were searched to identify published English-language evidence.
28 Eligibility was not restricted by type of study, country, or date.

29

30 ***Findings***

31 All studies were from the Global North and most participants were white. The literature
32 focuses on structural and psychological barriers faced by non-binary people and trans men
33 and on the lack of reliable medical information available. There is a lack of empirical
34 research and, to date, no research into trans and non-binary parents' experiences has focused
35 on traumatic birth or perinatal mental health. However, common themes of dysphoria,
36 visibility, isolation, and the importance of individualized respectful care indicate potential

37 vulnerability factors. Trans women's and non-binary people's experiences are particularly
38 under-researched.

39

40 ***Discussion***

41 The themes of dysphoria, visibility, and isolation present a series of challenges to pregnant
42 non-binary people and trans men. These coalesce with external events and internal choices,
43 creating the potential to make the individual feel not man enough, not trans enough, not
44 pregnant enough, and not safe enough during pregnancy, birth, and the postpartum. Further
45 research involving trans people is needed to inform future services.

46

47 **Keywords**

48 Birth, dysphoria, mental health, non-binary, perinatal, pregnancy, transgender, trauma

49 **Introduction**

50 Currently, Australia is the only country that routinely collects data on gender in perinatal
51 services (Pearce, 2019). This means that in other countries trans and non-binary parents are
52 not identifiable within maternity data and we cannot examine differential experiences of
53 services and inequalities. For example, analysing by ethnicity reveals significant disparities in
54 mortality (Knight et al., 2019) and mental health morbidity (Watson et al., 2019) for Black
55 and Asian birthing parents in the UK.

56

57 Perinatal mental health (PMH) difficulties impact 1 in 5 birthing cisgender (cis) women
58 (NICE, 2014). In addition, 5-15% of cis fathers experience perinatal depression and anxiety
59 (Cameron et al., 2016; Leach et al., 2016). Relevant too are severe fear of childbirth
60 (tokophobia) and traumatic birth. Up to 30% of birthing parents in the UK experience
61 childbirth as a traumatic event, with many subsequently experiencing anxiety, depression, or
62 post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Slade, 2006). Figures are comparable across countries
63 with similar healthcare systems, 24% in Australia (Toohill et al., 2014) and 34% in the
64 United States (Soet et al., 2003). If left untreated, traumatic birth poses long-term effects,
65 including enduring mental health difficulties, depression in partners, compromised parent-
66 infant and inter-parent relationships, and challenging future reproductive decisions
67 (Greenfield et al., 2016). Partners may themselves experience birth as traumatic (Leach et al.,
68 2016).

69

70 Prevalence of PMH difficulties and traumatic birth in trans and non-binary parents is
71 unknown. Any parent can experience perinatal mental illness or traumatic birth. However,
72 pre-disposing factors include history of mental illness, trauma or abuse, lack of social
73 support, and poor care (Andersen et al., 2012; Lancaster et al., 2010; Leach et al., 2017).

74 Learning from the general transgender population (outside of the perinatal period) could
75 indicate increased vulnerability to traumatic birth and PMH difficulties. For example, trans
76 people experience high rates of mental health difficulties and suicidality, which have been
77 linked to stigma and traumatic encounters with transphobia (Bockting et al., 2013; McNeill et
78 al., 2017). LGBT+ people also face higher risk of lack of social support and experiencing
79 discrimination within their families (Ross et al., 2005).

80

81 It is increasingly recognized that trans and non-binary people are becoming parents; yet
82 invisibility continues in policy, with language of maternal mental health and paternal mental
83 health reflecting cis-heteronormativity (Riggs et al., 2016). To address trans and non-binary
84 parents' needs and experiences and to deepen understanding of PMH and traumatic birth, it is
85 timely to review the research evidence in this emerging field.

86

87 **Methods and materials**

88 This review aimed to:

- 89 i) identify and summarize the available research evidence about PMH difficulties
90 and traumatic birth amongst trans and non-binary parents,
- 91 ii) identify any evidence gaps and,
- 92 iii) make recommendations about future research priorities.

93

94 Scoping reviews are ideally suited to these aims, mapping an emerging and variable literature
95 (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). The methods followed the stages described elsewhere (Arksey
96 & O'Malley, 2005; Levac et al., 2010), and with the approach to thematic analysis specified
97 as following (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Relevant scoping review reporting guidelines (known

98 as PRISMA-ScR) were followed (Tricco et al., 2018) to increase methodological
99 transparency (for example, concerning searching and eligibility criteria).

100

101 Stage 1: Identifying the research question

102 The question was intentionally broad:

103

104 What does research evidence tell us about perinatal mental health difficulties and
105 traumatic birth amongst trans and non-binary parents?

106

107 Stage 2: Identifying relevant studies

108 The following electronic databases were searched in 2019 and updated in 2020: Cochrane,
109 PsycINFO, PsycArticles, CINAHL, and MEDLINE. The search terms were:

110

111 Line 1: transgender OR nonbinary OR non-binary OR gender fluid OR gender-fluid OR

112 transmasculine OR gender-diverse OR gender-variant OR transexual OR transsexual AND

113 Line 2: pregnan* OR prenatal OR antenatal OR antepartum OR postnatal OR postpartum OR

114 perinatal OR *birth OR maternity

115 AND

116 Line 3: trauma* OR mental health OR depress* OR anxi* OR distress OR mental illness OR

117 psychopathology OR experience*

118

119 The electronic search was complemented by backward and forward citation chaining.

120

121 Stage 3: Study selection¹

122 The lead reviewer screened all titles and abstracts and obtained any potential includable
123 records in full. Papers were included if they discussed trans and non-binary people's
124 experiences of giving birth or being present at their child's birth or mental health or
125 psychological wellbeing in the perinatal period (including experiences, prevalence and
126 vulnerability factors). Literature was excluded if it focused on fertility, assisted conception,
127 or future reproductive plans, without discussion of birth experiences or PMH.

128

129 There was no restriction by study design; we included review papers, briefing notes, and
130 empirical studies. Single case studies published in a peer-reviewed academic or practitioner
131 journal were eligible; personal birth stories, blogs, and media articles were excluded. No date
132 restriction was applied. Eligibility was restricted to English-language publications due to the
133 reviewers' language limitations.

134

135 Stage 4: Charting the data

136 Both researchers reviewed the included papers to identify and chart emerging themes and
137 ideas. Data extraction included study aims, participant characteristics, data collection and
138 analysis, relevant findings, and recommendations. Following Levac et al. (2010), charting
139 was iterative and was further refined following Stage 6.

140

141 Stage 5a: Collating, summarizing and reporting the results

¹ Although quality assessment did not form part of eligibility assessment, one paper (Lothstein, L.M., 1988, was excluded on ethical grounds. In reporting the perinatal experiences of trans men, the author(s) referred to the participants as women, using female pronouns throughout. In addition, the author(s) underlying assumption positioned being transgender as a mental disorder and reported a psychiatric diagnosis for each of the participants. Given the authors' evident biases, it seemed questionable whether the points reflected represented the participants' perspectives.

142 A descriptive summary of the papers was generated to provide a coherent structure to the
143 literature before providing a thematic analysis of the included studies' findings. Consistent
144 with scoping review methodology, it was not the authors' aim to assess study quality.

145

146 Stage 5b: Thematic analysis

147 Thematic analysis followed the process described by Braun and Clarke (2006). Charting and
148 summarizing provided the necessary familiarization for both researchers. Initial codes were
149 generated inductively and then grouped together as themes. Each theme was named and
150 described, drawing on the extracted and charted data.

151

152 Stage 6: Informal consultation exercise

153 Arksey and O'Malley (2005) suggest an optional consultation stage with practitioners and
154 consumers to validate the review's direction and identify further literature. While we did not
155 conduct a formal consultation exercise, sharing the review's preliminary findings at the Trans
156 Pregnancy Conference in January 2020 offered the opportunity to invite feedback on early
157 findings and refine our thinking. Specifically, discussions with delegates (including parents
158 and academics) raised the issue that gender dysphoria could be experienced as either physical
159 or social, with potential implications for the strategies used by pregnant non-binary people
160 and trans men. This led us to revisit charting and naming of the themes that became
161 "Dysphoria" and "Visibility and recognition."

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Figure 1 – PRISMA-ScR (Tricco et al., 2018) Flow Diagram

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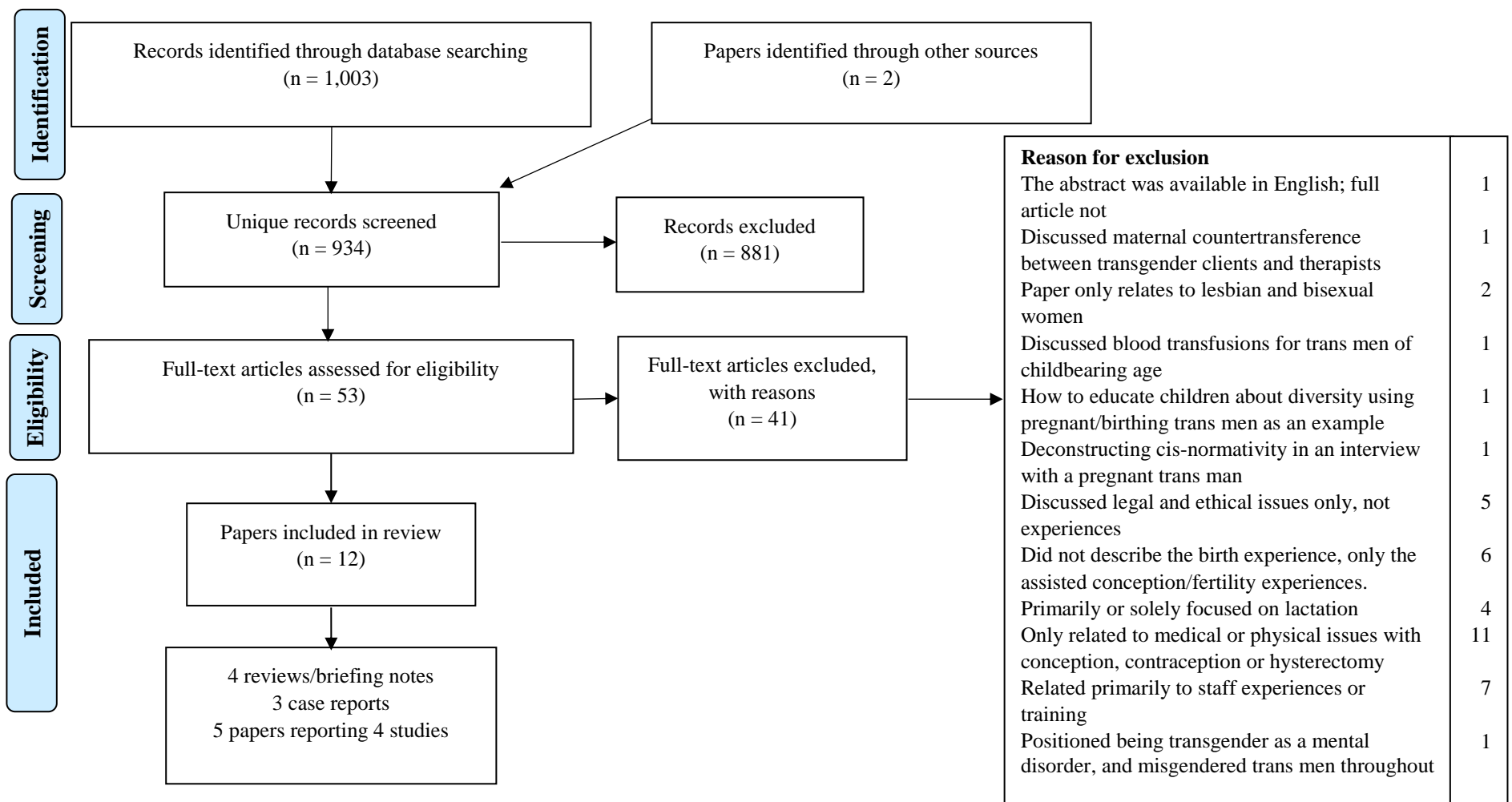
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187 **Findings**

188 *Overview of included literature*

189 The database searches and complimentary strategies identified 934 unique records. Most
190 (881/934) were identified as ineligible based on title/abstract; for example, papers examining
191 antecedents of offspring being transgender or gender-inclusive contraception and pregnancy-
192 prevention.

193

194 Of the 53 full-text articles assessed, 12 met eligibility requirements. Reasons for exclusion
195 are outlined in Figure 1; a full list of records is available from the first author. The 12 eligible
196 articles included two literature reviews, a commentary, a briefing note based on existing
197 literature (Table 1), three case reports (Table 2), and five papers reporting four primary
198 studies that used interview and/or survey methods (Table 3).

199

200 The earliest research evidence included was published in 2014 (Study ID 11), with five
201 published since 2019. The literature comes from North America, Western Europe, and
202 Australia; all were from the Global North. The literature reviews, commentary, and briefing
203 report spanned wider aspects of trans parenthood and were targeted at learning for health
204 professionals; all included some mention of psychological aspects or mental health, with two
205 explicitly referring to postpartum depression (PPD), and one to the potential for “vaginal
206 birth [to be] traumatic and disturbing.” Issues concerning language are returned to in the
207 discussion. The three case reports varied concerning participant involvement, with some
208 based on reflective learning by practitioners. Their foci included gender-affirming perinatal
209 care, traumatic loss in an emergency department, and lactation and infant feeding.

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211 Recruitment strategies predominantly utilized social media and community support
212 organizations for LBGT+ people. Selection of participants varied, with some studies only
213 including trans men, whilst others included non-binary people too. Definitions of these terms
214 were not always given and, where they were, were not consistent between studies. Sample
215 size ranged from 1-2 in the three case studies, 8-17 in the four interview studies, and 25-41 in
216 surveys. Participants were of varied ages and sexual orientations. Ethnicity data was not
217 given in consistent categories; where it was given, participants were predominantly white.
218 Where relationship status was reported, some participants were currently single and others
219 were partnered. The literature focuses on structural and psychological barriers faced by
220 participants and on the lack of reliable medical information available. Only paper 12 focused
221 on PMH or traumatic birth and this was only the paper that concerned a mixed population
222 (lesbian and bisexual women and transgender people).

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Table 1 Literature reviews, commentary and briefing notes (n=4)

Paper ID, first author, year, country, aim	Methods	Relevant findings and/or recommendations
<p>1. Brandt 2019, USA</p> <p>Aim: discuss obstetrical issues for transgender men aged ≥35</p>	<p>- Literature review using systematic searching</p> <p>- Number/details of included studies not reported</p>	<p>Findings grouped as: preconception, antepartum, intrapartum and postpartum care.</p> <p><u>Findings</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - perinatal depression rates likely higher for transgender men, but prevalence and impact unknown - gendered experience of pregnancy and birth likely to exacerbate gender dysphoria - tools routinely used to assess perinatal depression do not assess gender dysphoria <p><u>Recommendations</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - monitor gender dysphoria and suicidal ideation in transgender men in obstetrical care - research, including short/long-term impact of pregnancy on gender dysphoria
<p>2. de Castro-Peraza 2019, Spain</p> <p>Aim: describe aspects of transgender biological-gestational parenthood, informed by a specific legal case</p>	<p>- Literature review using systematic searching</p> <p>- 69 included studies analysed inductively to produce themes</p>	<p>Findings grouped as: biological, psychological, social and legal aspects.</p> <p><u>Findings</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - “vaginal birth may be traumatic and disturbing” for trans men but wishes vary - pregnancy, childbirth and feeding can lead to dysphoria, including emotional ambivalence and lability related to hormonal changes - some trans men experience isolation, exclusion, and vulnerability; may be heightened by pregnancy loss, limited access to fertility services or appropriate support <p><u>Recommendations</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - “assess psychologically if the person is prepared for a natural birth”
<p>3. Wisner 2018, USA</p> <p>Aim: brief for perinatal nurses</p>	<p>- Briefing paper based on 3 studies</p>	<p><u>Findings</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - PPD rates likely higher in trans men and non-binary people given higher vulnerability (depression, psychological distress, attempted suicide) in the general population
<p>4. Obedin-Maliver 2016, USA</p> <p>Aim: provide guidance for clinicians</p>	<p>- Commentary based on literature review and the authors’ personal and professional experiences</p>	<p><u>Findings</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - request for caesarean birth may be higher in those who have use testosterone previously - choice of birth attendant is influenced by trans awareness/acceptance – influences mode and location of birth - pregnancy means acknowledgement of female reproductive organs which can be difficult, however rewarding the pregnancy is - pregnancy can lead to increased gender dysphoria - positive psychological outcomes depend on perinatal care experience being inclusive and affirmative <p><u>Recommendations</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - loneliness, dysphoria, and managing disclosure/non-disclosure may require support from mental health specialists

Paper ID, first author, year, country, aim	Methods	Relevant findings and/or recommendations
		- train healthcare providers to ask all patients about their gender identity, assigned sex at birth, preferred name, pronouns

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226 **Table 2 Case reports (n=3)**

Paper ID, first author, year, country, Aim	Sample characteristics	Data collection and analysis	Relevant findings and/or recommendations
5. Hahn 2019, USA Aim: not stated	1 trans man (20) accessing perinatal care	Single case report Reflective account by service providers	<u>Recommendations</u> - gender-affirming and patient-centred perinatal care requires appropriate language (e.g. pronouns, anatomical terminology), choice and control
6. Stroumsa 2019, USA Aim: not stated	1 trans man (32) accessing emergency department	Single case report Chronological account (source unclear)	<u>Findings</u> - healthcare professionals' assumptions of binary gender (despite the patient identifying as a trans man and reporting a positive pregnancy test) affected a potentially preventable traumatic baby loss - major depressive episode followed; testosterone not resumed, despite menstruation-related dysphoria, due to fear of future pregnancy
7. Wolfe-Roubatis 2015, USA Aim: illustrate transgender men's concerns and experiences regarding lactation and infant feeding	2 participants (45 and late 20's) recruited via social media and word of mouth	Case studies, based on individual interviews with two parents and a nurse practitioner specialising in the care of gender diverse people	<u>Findings</u> - birth experience and language use during birth impacts chestfeeding and postnatal emotional wellbeing - control during birth important for wellbeing

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228 **Table 3 Primary studies using interview/survey methods (n=4, reported in 5 papers)**

Paper ID, first author, year, country, aim, design	Recruitment	Sample characteristics	Data collection and analysis	Relevant findings and/or recommendations relating to birth trauma and PMH
<p>8. Charter 2018, Australia</p> <p>Aim: explore how Australian trans men construct and experience i) their desire for parenthood and ii) gestational pregnancy</p> <p>Design: mixed methods (survey and interview)</p>	<p>Information sheet via transgender support groups/ community organizations, social media</p> <p>Survey participants indicated interest in interview</p>	<p>25 trans men who had been pregnant</p> <p>Mean age 25 (range 24-46). Gestational children aged 3-12 years. Majority 1 pregnancy (24/25). Majority parented other children. Majority partnered (13/21). Range of sexual orientations. Majority Australian. Ethnicity not reported. Majority University degree.</p>	<p>Online survey (closed/open-ended questions) (n=25), semi-structured telephone interviews (n=16)</p> <p>Thematic analysis for qualitative data</p>	<p>3 themes: perspectives on becoming a parent; pursuing pregnancy; the pregnant man.</p> <p><u>Findings</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - those seeking fertility treatment were not granted access, despite transgender discrimination laws; authors link this discrimination to mental health and wellbeing, and noted lack of formal support. - testosterone cessation may impact mental health and wellbeing - many participants experienced pregnancy-related dysphoria antenatally, and chest-dysphoria throughout the perinatal period, (size and feeding). Some reported detaching themselves from their bodies. Isolation as adaptive coping mechanism, but accompanied by loneliness - authors note that antenatal isolation and loneliness is linked to perinatal depression in cisgender women <p><u>Recommendations</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - better understanding of how to manage gender dysphoria when hormonal therapies are not possible - research on trans men's experiences of perinatal depression
<p>9. Ellis 2015, USA</p> <p>Aim: explore conception, pregnancy, and birth experiences of male and gender-variant gestational parents who had socially or medically transitioned prior to pregnancy</p> <p>Design: qualitative</p>	<p>Recruited by health/social care providers; some participants recruited others within community networks</p>	<p>8 male-identified or gender-variant gestational parents</p> <p>Mean age 33 (29-41). Gestational children aged <5 years. All 1-2 children. Majority partnered. Range of gender identities and sexual orientations. All participants were white. Range of educational experiences. Mixed urban/rural settings.</p>	<p>Video-call interviews supplemented by online demographic survey</p> <p>Grounded Theory</p>	<p>Overarching theme: loneliness; participants described internal and external processes of navigating identity.</p> <p><u>Findings</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - discontinuing hormonal therapy accompanied by emotional responses - some experienced deep “disconnection”, disembodiment and lack of connection to developing fetus - infertility and miscarriage can mix with dysphoria and internalized transphobia/guilt/shame - loss of control through pregnancy - some trans men may prefer caesarean birth (e.g. emotionally unsettling to have genitals exposed for extended time) whereas others may prefer vaginal birth (e.g. lack inhibition during birth, transcending their usual concerns)

Paper ID, first author, year, country, aim, design	Recruitment	Sample characteristics	Data collection and analysis	Relevant findings and/or recommendations relating to birth trauma and PMH
		<p>Most had given birth in hospital, 2 at home.</p> <p>Eligibility: pregnant in past 5 years resulting in live birth; not currently pregnant; self-identify as male or gender variant; disclosure of gender identity to at least some health care providers; English fluency.</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - different modes of birth may be meaningful or traumatic for different individuals - navigating parental identity and naming parenthood role can be challenging - some reported loss of trans community support
<p>10. Hoffkling 2017, USA and Western Europe</p> <p>Aim: understand the needs of transgender/transmasculine men who had given birth</p> <p>Design: qualitative</p> <p>Note: papers 10 and 11 taken from a larger mixed methods study</p>	<p>Recruited from an online survey (paper 11)</p> <p>Interviews were conducted until theoretical saturation reached</p> <p>Note: Recruitment method meant non-binary trans people were specifically excluded</p>	<p>10 transgender men who had given birth while identifying as male</p> <p>1-4 pregnancies; 1-3 live births. Range of relationship status (numbers not reported). 8 were from USA, 2 from Western Europe. Other demographics were not reported.</p> <p>Eligibility: see paper 11</p>	<p>Individual semi-structured interviews by video (n=8) or phone (n=2)</p> <p>Grounded Theory</p>	<p><u>Findings</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - some reported inappropriate medical care and fear or experience of transphobia, discrimination, and invasive experiences; one participant chose a homebirth despite not wanting one, due to fear of how he might be treated in hospital - some described pregnancy as very isolating - for some, “being seen and treated as male.... was critical to their sense of emotional safety and wellbeing” - used different strategies to navigate “degree of outness” (as male, as trans, as pregnant); some were accompanied by greater gender dysphoria, and some meant social support was missed - some had unanticipated emotional experiences associated with testosterone cessation, being pregnant, and/or the postpartum period - many did not remember PPD being discussed during/after birth and “felt ill-equipped to differentiate depression from less concerning mood swings.” Some wanted PPD discussed and to “normaliz[e] and contextualiz[e] these moods as part of rapid hormonal changes and not a sign of some other medically concerning problem.” One reported PPD. <p><u>Recommendations</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - various including for clinical setup and for interactions to normalize “emotions and hormones”: be vigilant for PPD and discuss with patient as may be exacerbated/alterd by hormones.

Paper ID, first author, year, country, aim, design	Recruitment	Sample characteristics	Data collection and analysis	Relevant findings and/or recommendations relating to birth trauma and PMH
<p>11. Light 2014, USA (majority)</p> <p>Aim: conduct a cross-sectional study of transgender men who had been pregnant after transitioning from female-to-male to help guide practice and further investigation</p> <p>Design: survey</p> <p>Note: papers 10 and 11 taken from a larger mixed methods study</p>	<p>Recruitment via LGBT+ community organisations and targeted social media, then utilized snowball methodology</p>	<p>41 self-described transgender men</p> <p>15 (37%) had ≥ 2 pregnancies. Mean age 28. Majority white. Majority completed some college. "Limited socioeconomic and racial diversity."</p> <p>Majority lived in USA (35/41; 85%).</p> <p>Eligibility: pregnant within past 10 years resulting in live birth; self-identify as male before pregnancy; aged 18+; English fluency</p>	<p>Online survey (closed/open-ended questions)</p> <p>Quantitative data analysed statistically. Grounded Theory used for qualitative survey data.</p>	<p>37 (73%) responded to open-ended questions. Themes were: effects of pregnancy on concepts of family structure; isolation; gender dysphoria and pregnancy; interactions with health care providers.</p> <p><u>Findings</u>- feeling isolated was common, and linked to invisibility, being "the only one" (p.1123), lack of support and resources</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - some "reported improvements in gender dysphoria, feeling new connections with their bodies" (p.1123) whereas others felt increased dysphoria, which sometimes continued postpartum - many reported experiences of "peripartum depression" despite the survey not specifically asking about this; "[this] seemed amplified by a lack of gender-sensitive resources for postpartum depression" (p.1124) - transgender men may be at high-risk of PPD <p><u>Recommendations</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - research on PPD in transgender men - assessment of PPD in transgender men
<p>12. Malmquist 2019, Sweden</p> <p>Aim: explore and describe thoughts about/experiences of pregnancy and childbirth in lesbian and bisexual women and transgender people (LBT) with an expressed Fear of Childbirth (FOC)</p> <p>Design: qualitative</p>	<p>Four participants were interviewed in a previous study, spontaneously mentioning fear of childbirth. 11 additional participants were recruited through social media groups for LGBT families.</p>	<p>17 self-identified LBTs</p> <p>Majority identified as lesbian or bisexual women, and "a few" identified as trans men or non-binary (numbers not reported but includes a trans male couple).</p> <p>Aged 25-42. 0-4 children. Diverse range of family formations. Majority were partnered. Majority University degree and employed.</p>	<p>Individual (n=9) and couple (n=4) semi-structured face-to-face interviews, supplemented in second set of participants by the Wijma Delivery Expectancy/Experience questionnaire</p> <p>Thematic analysis</p>	<p>Relevant themes were: "general fear of childbirth" and "minority stress – an additional layer of vulnerability".</p> <p><u>Findings</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - "Participants' fears were similar to those previously described in [cis] research on FOC... [but] minority stress, including fear and experiences of prejudicial treatment, in maternity care and at delivery wards add an additional layer to the FOC...LBTs with FOC are a particularly vulnerable group" (p.1). - most expressed strong FOC about giving birth themselves, some were afraid before their partners' births; authors noted "the experience of fear prior to the partner's birth giving might be different in couples where both partners have a childbearing capacity" (p.5) - tokophobia has an impact on the birth choices of trans men and non-binary people assigned female at birth

Paper ID, first author, year, country, aim, design	Recruitment	Sample characteristics	Data collection and analysis	Relevant findings and/or recommendations relating to birth trauma and PMH
				<p>- >80% who completed the questionnaire exceeded the cut-off for “severe fear” (tokophobia)</p> <p>- “fear of insufficient care” can cause tokophobia amongst LBT populations</p> <p>- previous experiences of transphobia and misgendering may contribute to tokophobia, either directly or through hypervigilance</p> <p>- cis-hetero-normative assumptions/language created additional stress in an already traumatic birth</p> <p><u>Recommendations</u></p> <p>- tools are needed to treat tokophobia amongst LBT populations</p>

230 *Themes*

231 Although no research has focused on traumatic birth or PMH among non-binary people and
232 trans men, six themes relevant to psychological wellbeing were identified.

233

234 Dysphoria

235 The literature discusses the varied impact of pregnancy, birth, and the postpartum on gender
236 dysphoria, with specific points including: discontinuing testosterone therapy, changes to the
237 chest, being socially read as pregnant, giving birth, and lactation. In this review, and guided
238 by discussion in the consultation exercise, we broadened our approach to dysphoria to
239 explicitly address both embodied experiences that may be considered “physical dysphoria”
240 and extrinsic “social dysphoria,” relating to anticipated or experienced reactions or treatment
241 by others. Within the literature the distinction between the two was either not made explicit
242 or dysphoria was used only to refer to intrinsic physical dysphoria, with extrinsic social
243 dysphoria described differently. For example, paper 9 describes participants as experiencing
244 “conflict... between their internal sense of self and dominant social norms that define a
245 pregnant person as *woman*” (9). However, elsewhere, MacDonald et al. (2016) identified that
246 trans men’s chest dysphoria during lactation can be either social or physical.

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248 Other included papers discussed that some participants experienced disconnection or
249 alienation from the pregnant body (4), terming this “disembodiment” (9). It appears that this
250 disconnection could follow the changes to the body caused by pregnancy or could be pre-
251 emptive, anticipating changes (4, 9). Assisted conception and perinatal loss appeared to
252 exacerbate these feelings, as individuals experienced a loss of control over their bodies,
253 feelings of frustration, and shame that their body was not working as they felt it should (9).

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255 No studies report that individuals had neutral feelings about their pregnant bodies. Some
256 pregnant participants found the bodily changes of pregnancy distressing (11), whilst others
257 enjoyed them and “felt more attractive” during pregnancy, although this could itself provoke
258 internal conflict at feeling “less of a man” (8). A similar split seems to occur in feelings about
259 birth. Some participants found even the idea of vaginal birth traumatic, with particular
260 emphasis given to concerns about having their genitals exposed for a prolonged period (1, 9).
261 In the same studies, other participants found a vaginal birth to be meaningful for them and
262 experienced “a lack of inhibition during labor and birth that transcended their usual concerns
263 about gender identity and revealing their bodies to others” (9).

264

265 Visibility and recognition

266 Visibility emerges as a complex issue for pregnant non-binary people and trans men to
267 navigate. This links to challenges concerning identity when met with lack of social and legal
268 recognition as a parent and negotiating dysphoria (9). Being visible may require being
269 permanently “out” (10) and for some, this can be uncomfortable (2), or even potentially
270 dangerous (8; 10). Although none of the studies linked this to traumatic birth, entering labour
271 or birth feeling unsafe or threatened is a factor which makes traumatic birth more likely
272 (Slade, 2009). In one study, authors report that feeling physically unsafe as visibly-pregnant
273 men led some to a decision to simply cope with social misperception either as fat cis men or
274 pregnant cis women (2).

275

276 Neither of these options appears to be without further consequence. Being socially
277 misperceived as a fat cis man was identified as in paper 8 as leading to emotional isolation
278 and being unable to enjoy the pregnancy fully. Being socially misperceived as a pregnant cis
279 woman (2) has further implications for potentially increasing dysphoria (10). Individuals’

280 strategies to navigate visibility may be interpreted as increasing both physical safety and
281 safety from social dysphoria. Participants in several studies reported high need for gender
282 affirmation during the perinatal period from healthcare professionals, with recognition
283 centred around pronoun and language use (4; 5; 7; 8; 10).

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285 Isolation and exclusion

286 Physical, social, and emotional isolation and exclusion were identified as common features of
287 non-binary people and trans men's pregnancies and some individuals' early postpartum
288 experiences (2; 4; 8; 9; 10; 11). This isolation and exclusion was intimately linked with the
289 experiences of either physical or social dysphoria and visibility. Some men chose physical
290 isolation as a strategy for limiting their discomfort with being a visibly-pregnant man (8).
291 Physically isolating was described as avoiding the potential risks to physical and emotional
292 safety without being socially misperceived as a pregnant cis woman (2) or needing to conceal
293 the pregnancy.

294

295 Although described as an adaptive coping mechanism and beneficial to some pregnant trans
296 people's psychological wellbeing (8), physical isolation may be accompanied by loneliness
297 (9). Isolation was noted repeatedly (2; 4; 8; 9; 10; 11), with participants voicing feeling that
298 they are the only person in this situation. Feelings of social exclusion appear to be
299 exacerbated by healthcare services, where pregnant men may be uncomfortably visible in
300 physical and notional spaces that are usually exclusive to cisgender women (2). Some
301 participants felt further isolated by the complete lack of healthcare images and language
302 reflecting pregnant trans men (11). Whilst there is no research into the effects of loneliness
303 and isolation during pregnancy on non-binary people's and trans men's PMH, these
304 experiences are known to be linked to PPD in cisgender women (8).

305

306 Anticipated and experienced poor care

307 Poor care featured in paper 12 and in other studies where it was identified as a factor
308 impacting the psychological wellbeing of birthing non-binary people and trans men (4; 8; 11).
309 Non-binary people's and trans men's anticipation of poor perinatal care experiences appear
310 shaped by community and individual previous experiences, reflecting wider transphobia and
311 inexperience amongst healthcare providers (9; 10). Examples included preventable baby loss
312 (6), fertility treatment being inaccessible (8), and a lack of appropriate services for postnatal
313 support (7; 11). Culturally-competent care for birthing non-binary people and trans men
314 includes both medically correct care and the use of appropriate individualized and respectful
315 language (4; 5). Some authors (4;5) emphasize that understanding the importance of
316 individualized and respectful perinatal care for this population can have a positive impact on
317 PMH.

318

319 Choice and control

320 The literature identified that trans men participants made diverse birth choices concerning
321 mode and place of birth; these may include more homebirths (1) and elective caesarean births
322 (11). Sometimes these choices are not initially positive, instead driven by fear of poor care
323 and choosing the perceived least bad option (10) in order to retain control during birth. Which
324 choice offers an individual a feeling of greater control may depend on the interplay of one's
325 personal history with social and physical dysphoria. The importance of having birth and
326 language choices respected is attested to across all the papers with only one exception (6).

327

328 Increased vulnerability to PMH difficulties and traumatic birth

329 Prevalence rates of PMH difficulties and traumatic births among trans men are unknown (1).
330 However, several articles proposed that non-binary people and trans men may face increased
331 vulnerability (1; 3; 8; 10; 11). The loss of control experienced during pregnancy and birth
332 may impact PMH (9) and there may be additional vulnerability to severe fear of childbirth
333 and traumatic birth due to feared or experienced prejudicial treatment and hypervigilance
334 because of experiences of transphobia and misgendering (12). Although most of the studies
335 discussed dysphoria, only a minority framed this as a potential risk or contributory factor to
336 depression (11). Isolation was also linked to depression (11) and poorer PMH (4).

337

338 Despite potential increased vulnerability, in the single study that commented on awareness of
339 PMH, participants did not recall health professionals discussing PPD (10). Furthermore, it
340 appeared that some participants may struggle to identify differences between, for example,
341 depression, mood swings, and dysphoria (10).

342

343

344 **Discussion**

345

346 This review shows that little is known about the PMH and traumatic birth *experiences* or
347 *prevalence* in non-binary people and trans men. However, several authors propose
348 vulnerability may be heightened. Reported difficulties relevant to psychological wellbeing
349 share some similarities with those reported by cis women; for example, concerning
350 loneliness, poor care, and a loss of choice and control.

351

352 Research with cis women and cis men finds they share common psychosocial risk factors for
353 perinatal anxiety and depression. It seems likely that these risk factors will also be relevant

354 for trans and gender-diverse parents but that some may be particularly salient; for example,
355 mental health history, history of trauma (including by healthcare providers), and poor social
356 support. Psychosocial risk factors for traumatic birth include previous traumatic experiences,
357 pre-existing mental health difficulties, poor care (or the perception of poor care) during
358 labour, and loss of choice and control during birth (Czarnocka & Slade, 2010; Greenfield et
359 al., 2016; O'Donovan et al., 2014), all of which may be more likely in pregnant non-binary
360 people and trans men when compared to pregnant cis women.

361

362 For example, transgender populations are disproportionately affected by violence (Lombardi
363 et al., 2008) and other forms of trauma (Mizock & Lewis, 2008), increasing the likelihood of
364 entering pregnancy with a history of previous trauma. Non-binary and binary transgender
365 people in the general population face mental health inequalities, including higher rates of
366 diagnosed mental health conditions (Jones et al., 2019). As the included studies have shown,
367 poor care during labour and birth is experienced by some non-binary people and trans men,
368 and previous experiences of poor care from healthcare providers may result in
369 hypervigilance, thus increasing the perception of poor care. Loss of choice and control is also
370 indicated here, linked to misgendering, fear of poor care, and not feeling the full range of
371 choices are truly available for pregnant non-binary people and trans men.

372

373 Pregnant non-binary people and trans men may also face distinct vulnerability to traumatic
374 birth or PMH difficulties that cis women do not. These factors include dysphoria, isolation
375 and exclusion, and culturally incompetent care. Additionally, we propose that gender
376 dysphoria warrants specific consideration in addressing the PMH of non-binary people and
377 trans men and with attention both to physical embodied dysphoria and to extrinsic social
378 aspects. Taken together, the themes of visibility, isolation and dysphoria can be conceived of

379 as presenting a series of challenges to some pregnant trans men, with external events and
380 internal choices having the potential to make the individual feel not man enough (8; 9; 10;
381 11), not trans enough (9), not pregnant enough (8; 9; 10), and not safe enough during
382 pregnancy, birth and the postpartum (8; 10; 12). This must also be balanced with the
383 recognition that these experiences will not be shared by all trans and non-binary parents and
384 that some participants report improvements in gender dysphoria (10), feeling “new
385 connection” to their body (11), and finding vaginal birth “a meaningful experience” (9).

386

387 *Identified gaps and research priorities*

388 Our review confirmed that research about trans and non-binary birthing parents is a newly
389 emerging field, with the earliest literature relating to traumatic birth and PMH published in
390 2014. To date, research focused on PMH or traumatic birth has not examined the experiences
391 of trans parents.

392

393 Within a newly emerging research evidence base, gaps are inevitable. The primary focus of
394 this literature is on the structural and psychological barriers faced by trans men and non-
395 binary people pursuing parenthood, and the limited availability of reliable medical
396 information informing those pursuits. This is situated against a background where accessing
397 appropriate healthcare is difficult for many trans and non-binary people, with healthcare
398 professionals rarely having medically-appropriate knowledge (Grant et al., 2010). Indeed, up
399 to a third of trans patients in the USA and UK report that healthcare professionals have
400 refused to treat them because they are transgender (Roller et al., 2015).

401

402 We identified that pregnant non-binary people were often either directly excluded from
403 research or were assumed to have identical needs to those of pregnant trans men. This

404 position as a minority group within a minority population means that it is difficult to draw
405 conclusions about the perinatal needs of non-binary people. There is also no research into
406 trans women's experiences of pregnancy and birth, for example as the lesbian partner of a
407 pregnant cisgender woman, and no research into lesbian birth experiences has identified trans
408 women's experiences separately from cisgender women's.

409

410 To date, no research has included the experience of non-gestational parents, either as the
411 partner of a pregnant non-binary person or trans man, or as a transgender parent themselves.
412 In the literature reviewed, only one paper (12) references trans men as partners of the birthing
413 parent, hypothesising that partners' fear of childbirth could be different where both partners
414 have childbearing capacity. However, the paper does not report on this as an experience, only
415 as a theoretical possibility. Further, intersectionality has not yet featured in this literature,
416 foregrounding gender and not yet having considered this alongside other characteristics
417 including socioeconomic factors, race and ethnicity, or age. This is particularly troubling in
418 the context of established inequalities concerning race and ethnicity; for example, concerning
419 parents' mortality (Knight et al., 2019) and PMH morbidity (Watson et al., 2019) in the
420 perinatal period.

421

422 Also troubling are instances where authors use language that is inaccurate, inappropriate, or
423 potentially excluding; for example "breastfeeding" (paper 9), "vaginal birth" (1;9), "vaginal
424 delivery" (2;5;11), "passing as a woman" (9;10), and "impersonate cisgender women" (2).

425 This is particularly pertinent given that the theme of anticipated and experienced poor care
426 illustrates the need for culturally-competent care that uses individualized and respectful
427 language. Just as in practice, there needs to be progress made with language, this is also true
428 for research communities.

429

430 In many high-income settings, PMH is now routinely assessed in birthing parents. PMH
431 research identifies potential gendered differences in the symptoms expressed by cis women
432 and cis men, leading to calls for male-specific measures (Matthey & Della Vedova, 2020) or
433 “gender-inclusive” approaches to mental health (Martin et al., 2013). One paper (1) noted that
434 routine assessment of all birthing parents focuses on depression and is not designed to assess
435 dysphoria, and the authors of another paper (10) noted the need for health professionals’
436 vigilance in monitoring mental health, reporting that parents may struggle to differentiate
437 between, for example, depression, mood swings, and dysphoria. However, we found no
438 studies examining mental health assessment in trans parents and recommend that this be
439 addressed by research conducted in applied settings.

440

441 *Strengths and limitations*

442 A limitation of scoping reviews is that they are not considered sufficiently rigorous to form
443 the basis of policy and practice recommendations (Grant & Booth, 2009). With a literature
444 this small and diverse, it is inevitable that there are issues relating to the quality and
445 robustness of some literature. We do not propose directly influencing current practice but
446 rather sought to demonstrate the current research evidence on PMH and traumatic birth in
447 trans men and non-binary people and identify research priorities. We only included published
448 articles which had been subjected to peer-review and intentionally excluded first-person
449 accounts in books, blogs, and forums. Such restrictions are commonly used to promote rigour
450 and clearly identify research evidence gaps but we note that this limits the role of self-
451 directed trans people’s voices here.

452

453 A strength of this review was the informal consultation exercise at the Trans Pregnancy
454 conference where we were able to share early findings with academics, healthcare providers,
455 and trans and non-binary parents. This allowed us to refine our analysis and become more
456 sensitive to nuances related to the complexities of dysphoria. Additionally, we were able to
457 confirm that our search strategy had effectively identified relevant literature and although
458 further studies, including the Trans Pregnancy Project (ESRC grant ES/N019067/1), had
459 explored relevant topics, their findings about birth experiences and PMH were not yet
460 published.

461

462 *Conclusion*

463 Existing literature suggests factors such as dysphoria, isolation, and exclusion, and poor care
464 may make transgender and non-binary parents more vulnerable to PMH difficulties and
465 traumatic birth. However, trans and non-binary parents' PMH experiences remain under-
466 researched. There are indications that without better information and awareness amongst
467 parents and professionals, there may be distinct barriers to identifying PMH needs and
468 accessing relevant support.

469

470 Without the ability to accurately record gender data within perinatal services, robust
471 assessments of prevalence rates and longevity of specific diagnosable conditions will remain
472 difficult to obtain; potential inequalities will remain hidden, and the ability to commission or
473 adapt services to meet local needs will be limited. Voices of trans and non-binary people are
474 needed in PMH research to inform future services and improve outcomes for all parents and
475 families.

476

477 **Disclosure statement**

478 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest.

479

480 **Ethics**

481 Ethical review was not required due to this being a review.

482

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486

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