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The impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on users, providers, and facilities: A systematic literature review.

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1 **The impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on users, providers, and**
2 **facilities: A systematic literature review**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Contraceptive stock-outs are a world-wide problem, yet published research on the impacts of
26 contraceptive stock-outs have not been comprehensively reviewed and synthesized. This
27 systematic review highlights findings about the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on users,
28 providers, and facilities and identifies topics that should be explored to ensure everyone can
29 access their preferred method of contraception. We systematically searched PubMed, Embase,
30 Web of Science, Popline, and JSTOR for studies addressing the impacts of contraceptive stock-
31 outs. Of 435 studies, 25 publications addressed the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs. Only two
32 articles focused solely on contraceptive stock-outs; the remaining studies examined stock-outs
33 alongside other factors that may influence contraceptive service provision. Studies discussed
34 how stock-outs limited individuals' ability to use their preferred contraceptive method,
35 influenced where contraceptive methods were obtained and how much they cost, and limited
36 providers' and facilities' abilities to provide contraceptive care. Comparing the impacts of
37 contraceptive stock-outs across studies was challenging, as reliability of stock was sometimes
38 not distinguished from overall method availability, and studies used variable methods to measure
39 stock-outs. Evidence presented in this review can inform efforts to ensure that preferred
40 contraceptive methods are consistently available and accessible to all.

41

42 **Key words:** contraceptive stock-out; contraceptive supply; contraceptive availability;
43 contraceptive access; family planning

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45

46

47 **Introduction**

48 Increasing access to contraception is a critical, highly cost-effective intervention for improving
49 maternal and newborn health, reducing maternal mortality, and supporting an individual’s ability
50 to exercise their reproductive rights. Decades of research have documented the benefits of
51 contraceptive access and use, but significant barriers remain (Agarwal, 2011; Singh S, Darroch J,
52 2013; Sonfield, 2011). In many developing countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa,
53 effective contraceptive method use remains low, myths about the side effects or health risks of
54 contraception are pervasive, and people have access to a limited range of methods (Agarwal,
55 2011; Darroch et al., 2011; Singh S, Darroch J, 2013).

56
57 As of 2017, the most recent year for which data are available, approximately 214 million women
58 in developing countries who want to avoid becoming pregnant have an unmet need for modern
59 contraception. A majority of these women (57%) live in Sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia
60 (Guttmacher Institute, 2017). Unintended pregnancies can lead to unplanned births, unsafe
61 abortions where high-quality services are not legally permitted or available, maternal deaths, and
62 the loss of healthy years of life (Guttmacher Institute, 2017).

63
64 Lack of contraceptive access is cited among the reasons for contraception nonuse among women
65 with an unmet need in various countries (Sedgh & Hussain, 2014). In several countries in West
66 and Central Africa, about 20% of women report lack of access as a reason for not using
67 contraception (Sedgh & Hussain, 2014). Women need better access—both physical and financial—
68 to a wide range of contraceptive services and supplies so they can choose a method that works
69 best for them (World Health Organization, 2014). However, even if individuals have access to a

70 facility where contraceptives are routinely provided and can afford their preferred method, they
71 may still be unable to obtain their method simply because it is not in stock.

72

73 A contraceptive stock-out occurs when a contraceptive method that, routinely or based on policy,
74 should be available at a health facility is not available due to a lack of supplies of the method
75 itself or other equipment needed to offer the method. Identifying mechanisms for preventing
76 contraceptive stock-outs was listed as one of the top 15 research priorities by a World Health
77 Organization global survey that asked experts to identify and rank research that would be needed
78 to reduce the unmet need for family planning (Ali M, Seuc A, Rahimi A, Festin M, 2014).
79 Despite the global emphasis on addressing stock-outs, there is no comprehensive review of
80 published literature on the effects of stock-outs, and it is unclear if studies have explicitly
81 documented the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on users, providers, or health facilities. This
82 review synthesizes and highlights existing findings on the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs
83 and identifies key areas where new research is needed.

84

85 **Methods**

86 The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines
87 were used to conduct this systematic review (Moher et al., 2009; Rethlefsen et al., 2019) (see
88 Supplementary Files 1 and 2). We initially searched the PubMed and JSTOR databases on
89 November 23, 2016 to identify studies that addressed the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs.
90 Search terms included variations of the word “contraception” in conjunction with “supply chain”
91 and various spellings of the term "stock-out". To expand the breadth of our search results, we
92 worked with a medical librarian (JBW) to conduct a search update on July 12, 2019 in PubMed,

93 Embase, Web of Science, and Popline. No date or language limits were used, and complete
94 search strategy details can be found in Supplementary File 3. A cited reference search of
95 included studies was also used to identify relevant studies. Studies were screened based on title,
96 abstract, and full text to determine if they contained original analysis about the impact of
97 contraceptive stock-outs on users, providers, or the functioning of facilities. Two reviewers (AW
98 and CZ) completed screening, with a third reviewer (KG) available to resolve discrepancies.
99 Studies were excluded if they were not in English, did not contain original analysis on primary or
100 secondary data, did not contain analysis about the impact of contraceptive stock-outs, or focused
101 on stock-outs of emergency contraception. Grey literature was excluded from this analysis. A
102 systematic review protocol was not submitted.

103

104 **Results**

105 *Study selection and characteristics*

106 Of 435 evaluated articles, a total of 25 studies contained original data or data analyses on the
107 impacts of contraceptive stock-outs. Figure 1 displays our selection process.

108 **[Insert Figure 1]**

109 A description of included studies is displayed in Supplementary File 4.

110 The majority of studies were conducted in sub-Saharan Africa (Akol et al., 2014; Baraka et al.,
111 2015; Burke & Ambasa-Shisanya, 2011; Chen & Guilkey, 2003; Cotten et al., 1992; Cover et al.,
112 2014; Daff et al., 2014; Farmer et al., 2015; Grindlay et al., 2016; Hutchinson et al., 2011; Hyttel
113 et al., 2012; Jalang'O et al., 2017; Lebetkin E, Orr T, Dzasi K, Keyes E, Shelus V, Mensah S,

114 2014; Mckenna et al., 2014; Mugisha J, 2008; Nakayiza et al., 2014; Nieto-Andrade et al., 2017;
115 Rutenberg & Baek, 2005; Silumbwe et al., 2018; Skiles et al., 2015; Tolley et al., 2014;
116 Tumlinson et al., 2015), and almost a third focused on injectables as a method of contraception
117 (Burke & Ambasa-Shisanya, 2011; Cover et al., 2014; Hyttel et al., 2012; Lebetkin E, Orr T,
118 Dzasi K, Keyes E, Shelus V, Mensah S, 2014; Mckenna et al., 2014; Nakayiza et al., 2014;
119 Skiles et al., 2015; Tolley et al., 2014). Studies varied in the amount of detail they provided on
120 the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs, with stock-outs being the primary topic of two studies
121 (Daff et al., 2014; Grindlay et al., 2016). One study explicitly addressed the impacts of
122 contraceptive stock-outs on women and providers in Uganda (Grindlay et al., 2016), and the
123 other study examined the supply chain before and after an intervention to address stock-outs in
124 Senegal (Daff et al., 2014). In the remaining 23 studies, the topic of contraceptive stock-outs was
125 discussed in passing as one factor related to the quality or accessibility of family planning
126 services.

127 Thirteen studies provided qualitative evidence on the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs
128 through interviews and focus group discussions with contraceptive users, providers, and policy
129 makers (Baraka et al., 2015; Burke & Ambasa-Shisanya, 2011; Cover et al., 2014; Dansereau et
130 al., 2017; Farmer et al., 2015; Grindlay et al., 2016; Hyttel et al., 2012; Jalang'O et al., 2017;
131 Mckenna et al., 2014; Mugisha J, 2008; Rutenberg & Baek, 2005; Silumbwe et al., 2018; Tolley
132 et al., 2014). Twelve studies provided quantitative data on the impact of stock-outs, with six
133 studies reporting descriptive statistics by analyzing survey data (Akol et al., 2014; Cotten et al.,
134 1992; Daff et al., 2014; Gribble et al., 2007; Lebetkin E, Orr T, Dzasi K, Keyes E, Shelus V,
135 Mensah S, 2014; Nieto-Andrade et al., 2017), and six including a measure of stock-out as a
136 variable in regression models (Chen & Guilkey, 2003; Hutchinson et al., 2011; Magnani et al.,

137 1999; Nakayiza et al., 2014; Skiles et al., 2015; Tumlinson et al., 2015). Only one of the six
138 studies assessing survey data provided a definition of a contraceptive stock-out, defining this as
139 “zero units available for sale at the facility on a day when the facility was open”(Daff et al.,
140 2014). In addition, each of the six studies using a measure of contraceptive stock in regression
141 models defined and measured this variable differently. Four of these studies scored health
142 facilities on how well they stocked contraceptives based on a different set of criteria. For
143 example, one paper examined if a method had been out of stock in the previous year and scored
144 facilities on a continuous scale from 0-8 (Tumlinson et al., 2015), while another scored facilities
145 on a scale of 0-2 depending on if the method was available the day data was collected and if
146 there had been a stock-out in the past six months (Magnani et al., 1999). Among the two studies
147 that did not score facilities, one defined their stock-out variable as the number of times a method
148 was in stock at a facility within 5 kilometers from a woman (Chen & Guilkey, 2003), and the
149 second specified their stock-out variable as whether women had ever experienced a stock-out of
150 a particular brand of an injectable contraceptive (Nakayiza et al., 2014).

151 *Impacts on users*

152 Eighteen studies reported on how stock-outs impacted use of contraception (Baraka et al., 2015;
153 Burke & Ambasa-Shisanya, 2011; Chen & Guilkey, 2003; Cotten et al., 1992; Daff et al., 2014;
154 Farmer et al., 2015; Gribble et al., 2007; Grindlay et al., 2016; Hyttel et al., 2012; Jalang’O et al.,
155 2017; Magnani et al., 1999; Mckenna et al., 2014; Mugisha J, 2008; Nieto-Andrade et al., 2017;
156 Rutenberg & Baek, 2005; Silumbwe et al., 2018; Skiles et al., 2015; Tumlinson et al., 2015).
157 Twelve studies that explored this topic through interviews or descriptive statistics reported that
158 stock-outs led to, or were associated with, discontinuation of the preferred method or a switch to
159 a less effective method, both of which increased the risk of unwanted and unplanned pregnancies

160 (Burke & Ambasa-Shisanya, 2011; Cotten et al., 1992; Daff et al., 2014; Farmer et al., 2015;
161 Gribble et al., 2007; Grindlay et al., 2016; Jalang'O et al., 2017; Mckenna et al., 2014; Mugisha
162 J, 2008; Nieto-Andrade et al., 2017; Rutenberg & Baek, 2005; Silumbwe et al., 2018). Reasons
163 for discontinuation included negative side effects from methods prescribed in lieu of the
164 preferred method, prohibitively high financial or time costs involved in obtaining the method
165 from another location, and difficulty or the inability to acquire the preferred method at all (Burke
166 & Ambasa-Shisanya, 2011; Farmer et al., 2015; Gribble et al., 2007; Grindlay et al., 2016;
167 Mugisha J, 2008; Nieto-Andrade et al., 2017; Silumbwe et al., 2018). Contraceptive stock-outs
168 may also impact demand for certain types of methods. Authors of a study conducted in Angola
169 hypothesized that stock-outs of long acting reversible contraceptive methods in public facilities
170 were likely a contributing factor to why condoms and oral contraceptives were the most widely
171 used methods (Nieto-Andrade et al., 2017).

172 Four studies identified determinants of contraceptive use by constructing multivariate models
173 (Chen & Guilkey, 2003; Magnani et al., 1999; Skiles et al., 2015; Tumlinson et al., 2015).

174 Although each study defined and measured stock-outs differently, results from these papers point
175 to the potential impact of reliability of contraceptive stock on utilization, especially for more
176 effective methods. In a study exploring quality of care and contraceptive use in five urban areas
177 of Kenya, a consistent stock of a mix of contraceptive methods was associated with current use
178 of a modern contraceptive method in high volume facilities (adjusted prevalence ratio 1.15; CI
179 (0.99, 1.34)) (Tumlinson et al., 2015). Similarly, a study in rural Tanzania found that an increase
180 in the number of methods in stock within five kilometers of where a woman lived increased the
181 probability of using a contraceptive method over no method (Chen & Guilkey, 2003). This
182 variable had the largest effect on the use of modern methods (excluding pills and condoms)

183 compared to no method (coefficient .090, $p = 0$) in a multinomial logit model (Chen & Guilkey,
184 2003). A study conducted in Malawi found that the probability of using injectables for women
185 with the most access to a reliable, nearby stock of injectables was 5.2 percentage points higher
186 compared to women with the least access, with a stronger effect among rural residents ($p < .001$;
187 no CI reported) (Skiles et al., 2015). This study operationalized the concept of a reliable supply
188 of contraceptives through constructing a monthly index of method availability (no stock-outs)
189 and combining this measure with distance to the nearest facility, using kernel density estimation
190 (Skiles et al., 2015). Another paper using data from household surveys in Morocco included
191 information on the availability of methods in their model as an index, with availability summed
192 over six months of data for methods mandated to be offered at public clinics. When examining
193 the interaction between prior intention and the availability of methods, women with no intention
194 of using contraception had an increased probability of use when methods were more readily
195 stocked at the nearest public health clinic, compared to women who intended to use
196 contraception within 12 months (Magnani et al., 1999). The researchers found that stock-outs
197 may have the biggest impact on the actual use of contraceptives among women who did not
198 intend to use a method (coefficient 1.20; $p < .001$) (Magnani et al., 1999).

199 Nine studies addressed how contraceptive stock-outs impacted where individuals chose to obtain
200 their preferred method of contraception (Akol et al., 2014; Daff et al., 2014; Dansereau et al.,
201 2017; Gribble et al., 2007; Grindlay et al., 2016; Jalang'O et al., 2017; Lebetkin E, Orr T, Dzasi
202 K, Keyes E, Shelus V, Mensah S, 2014; Nakayiza et al., 2014; Tolley et al., 2014). In instances
203 where one's preferred method was out of stock in the public sector, some would seek their
204 method in the private sector (Daff et al., 2014; Dansereau et al., 2017; Grindlay et al., 2016;
205 Tolley et al., 2014). In many cases, this increased the price one had to pay for contraception, as

206 private facilities charged more for methods and services that were provided for free or for a
207 lower cost at public facilities (Burke & Ambasa-Shisanya, 2011; Daff et al., 2014; Grindlay et
208 al., 2016; Tolley et al., 2014). In a study conducted in Senegal, contraceptive users who bought
209 their preferred method in the private sector after experiencing a stock-out at a public facility,
210 paid three to nine times the price they would have paid at a public facility (Daff et al., 2014). A
211 study in Ghana found that, among users of injectables who had purchased their method from a
212 chemical shop, 16% chose to buy the method at a chemical shop due to it being in stock
213 (Lebetkin E, Orr T, Dzasi K, Keyes E, Shelus V, Mensah S, 2014). Among women who could
214 name other locations where injectables were sold, 22% reported not visiting these locations
215 because of stock-outs (Lebetkin E, Orr T, Dzasi K, Keyes E, Shelus V, Mensah S, 2014). Similar
216 findings were reported in Uganda, with 10% of contraceptive users who had switched their
217 source of contraception from a public facility to a private drug shop citing stock-outs among the
218 reasons they switched (Akol et al., 2014). One study exploring the determinants of preference for
219 sources of a particular brand of injectable contraceptive in a district in Uganda found that the
220 majority of women preferred private sources over public ones (Nakayiza et al., 2014). The
221 authors reported that women who had never experienced a stock-out of this brand were more
222 likely to prefer private sources than their counterparts who had experienced stock-outs (Nakayiza
223 et al., 2014). Although the authors suggest that consistent supplies at private sources may explain
224 this preference, this result may also be capturing effects of socioeconomic status. Women able to
225 afford private sources would be less likely to experience a stock-out in the first place, while
226 women who experienced stock-outs most likely experienced them at public facilities and may
227 not have the financial resources to visit a private provider. Relatedly, one paper found that client
228 satisfaction with family planning services was higher in private facilities than in public ones in

229 Kenya and Tanzania, and the authors partly attribute this to their finding that private facilities in
230 both countries experience fewer contraceptive stock-outs (Hutchinson et al., 2011).

231 Three papers evaluated the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on users more broadly,
232 describing results from interviews with patients and providers (Burke & Ambasa-Shisanya,
233 2011; Cover et al., 2014; Grindlay et al., 2016). Stock-outs can potentially impact users' privacy
234 or ability to discreetly utilize contraception (Cover et al., 2014), as women may need to visit a
235 different provider or facility, or use an alternative method that is less discreet (Grindlay et al.,
236 2016). Stock-outs can also cause contraceptive users to become discouraged about finding their
237 preferred method (Burke & Ambasa-Shisanya, 2011) and users may experience stress from
238 worrying about unwanted or unplanned pregnancies (Grindlay et al., 2016). Study participants
239 also reported domestic violence brought on by attempting to abstain from sex, requesting their
240 partner use a condom, or experiencing unwanted pregnancies (Grindlay et al., 2016). Among
241 young individuals, consequences of a stock-out were magnified by the potential implications of
242 an unwanted pregnancy, including the possibility of dropping out of school, marrying early, or
243 undergoing an unsafe abortion (Grindlay et al., 2016).

244 *Impacts on healthcare providers and facilities*

245 Six studies discussed the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on providers or the functioning of
246 facilities (Baraka et al., 2015; Cover et al., 2014; Gribble et al., 2007; Grindlay et al., 2016;
247 Hyttel et al., 2012; Mugisha J, 2008). These studies were primarily qualitative or presented basic
248 characterizations of how providers altered clinical and administrative practices when faced with
249 contraceptive stock-outs. In Senegal, Tanzania, and Uganda, facilities reported having to
250 interrupt their family planning services or turn patients away due to stock-outs (Baraka et al.,

251 2015; Cover et al., 2014; Grindlay et al., 2016). Providers in Uganda also reported that the most
252 common barriers to providing quality family planning services were contraceptive stock-outs and
253 a lack of supplies (Mugisha J, 2008), and that stock-outs made providers feel emotionally
254 distressed and decreased their ability to provide long-term methods due to a lack of practice
255 (Grindlay et al., 2016). The latter study also reported that providers believed stock-outs
256 negatively impacted the performance of the facility itself because of a loss of trust among clients
257 who frequently experienced stock-outs (Grindlay et al., 2016). In rural Tanzania, providers
258 described having to reallocate funds for other services or charge for services that were usually
259 free in order to buy basic contraceptive supplies and equipment (Baraka et al., 2015). However,
260 even after taking these measures, stock-outs would interfere with the provision of contraceptive
261 care. A survey among family providers in Ministry of Health facilities in Peru revealed that
262 stock-outs led providers to advise their patients to temporarily use a different contraceptive
263 method (Gribble et al., 2007). The majority of these providers wrote a prescription for an
264 alternate method to be filled at a commercial pharmacy or outlet where the method would likely
265 be more expensive, whereas others changed the patient's method to one in stock at the public
266 facility. Table 1 summarizes the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on users, providers, and
267 facilities.

268 [Insert Table 1]

269 **Discussion**

270 Although all 25 studies reported on an at least one impact of a contraceptive stock-out, only two
271 studies focused primarily on stock-outs. The majority of studies in our review only addressed the
272 impacts of contraceptive stock-outs in passing, and did not include careful analyses of their

273 impacts. The dearth of comprehensive analyses on the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs
274 suggests that quantitative research is needed to explicitly document the wide-ranging effects
275 stock-outs can have on users, providers, and facilities.

276 Our results also indicate a need to standardize how contraceptive stock-outs are measured. Stock-
277 outs were defined and measured in a variety of ways, making it difficult to compare and evaluate
278 the reported impacts of contraceptive stock-outs across studies. In 2015, organizations working
279 in the global reproductive health community published a stock-out indicator guide, which aims to
280 standardize how contraceptive stock-outs are reported across organizations and countries
281 (Reproductive Health Supplies Coalition, 2015). The guide recommends one global stock-out
282 indicator for all organizations to use, as well as an array of clearly-defined indicators
283 organizations can choose from based on their needs and capacities (Reproductive Health
284 Supplies Coalition, 2015). A stock-out indicator (Indicator 10) has also been included in the list
285 of core indicators used to assess the progress of countries that have joined the the Family
286 Planning 2020 global movement and that are committed to expanding contraceptive access
287 (2020, n.d.; Track2020, n.d.). Efforts to increase education and adoption of standardized stock-
288 out indicators will help researchers better understand the prevalence and impact of contraceptive
289 stock-outs, and assist facilities with maintaining a consistent supply of contraceptives
290 (Reproductive Health Supplies Coalition, 2015).

291 Since only a handful of studies discussed the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on providers
292 and facilities (Baraka et al., 2015; Cover et al., 2014; Gribble et al., 2007; Grindlay et al., 2016;
293 Hyttel et al., 2012; Mugisha J, 2008), more data are needed to understand how providers cope
294 with stock-outs on a personal level, as well as how stock-outs affect provision of contraceptive
295 care. Future studies could investigate the extent to which stock-outs impact a facility's reputation

296 and overall performance in the provision of other types of health services in both the short- and
297 long-term. Existing literature on stock-outs of drugs for antenatal care and human
298 immunodeficiency virus have shown that stock-outs of these medications increased staff
299 workload, negatively influenced the quality of care provided, caused health facility staff to feel
300 blamed by the community for a lack of medicines and supplies, and negatively impacted staff
301 morale and confidence in providing care (Medley & Kennedy, 2010; Penfold et al., 2013).

302 One reason there may be limited literature on stock-outs as a key issue in quality of family
303 planning services is because stock-outs are not specifically a part of the Bruce-Jain framework,
304 which is considered a central framework for understanding the quality of family planning care
305 (Bruce, 1990). Although the framework encourages facilities to be well-prepared to offer family
306 planning services, it does not explicitly mention stock-outs or provide details on how to track
307 stocks of contraceptive supplies. As a result, the framework does not distinguish between
308 availability of methods and reliability of stock, both of which are critical to the provision of
309 services, and these factors must be examined separately due to their different causes and impacts
310 on facilities and users. Availability can be limited for reasons other than stock-outs, such as a
311 shortage of staff trained to provide certain contraceptives (Baraka et al., 2015) or by provider
312 bias about appropriate methods for a client based on her age or marital status (Speizer I,
313 Hotchkiss D, Magnani R, Hubbard B, 2000). Limited availability could also be due to the fact
314 that not all facilities carry all contraceptive methods, and it is possible for a facility to have never
315 carried a method in the first place. In contrast, reliability of stock can only be measured if a
316 method is expected to be consistently available, and there are many potential reasons a facility
317 may experience a stock-out. For instance, providers in Uganda reported that although
318 mechanisms were in place to report discrepancies between the stock required to be in drug kits

319 and those that are actually received, stock-outs occurred because the forms used to request
320 family planning supplies from national distribution facilities were not honored by these facilities
321 (Grindlay et al., 2016). Various factors can limit the supply of contraceptive methods, including
322 unreliable suppliers (Baraka et al., 2015), burdensome administrative barriers (Grindlay et al.,
323 2016), reallocation of funding (Mckenna et al., 2014), or a lack of trained staff to track and order
324 supplies (Daff et al., 2014; Hancock et al., 2015), all of which would require different solutions.
325 Identifying the reasons for method unavailability will allow interventions to carefully target the
326 cause of the limited methods offered to contraceptive users.

327 There are several limitations to this study. First, reports by government agencies or non-
328 governmental organizations on contraceptive stock-outs were not included in our review, so we
329 may have missed some data on the impact of stock-outs included in these reports. The second
330 limitation is that we cannot generalize the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs based on the
331 studies reviewed, as qualitative and quantitative data on stock-outs were limited and often
332 applied to a certain method or set of facilities within a small geographical area. Studies
333 extracting information about stock-out impacts from other sources offered little information
334 about secondary data sources, making it difficult to clarify how questions on stock-outs were
335 presented in surveys (Gribble et al., 2007) or how variables that included stock-outs were defined
336 (Nakayiza et al., 2014). Considerable variation in how stock-outs were defined and measured
337 also made it challenging to compare the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs within and across
338 studies. Qualitative data on the impacts of stock-outs were limited by geography and sample size,
339 and perspectives of participants cannot be considered representative of the total population or
340 generalizable to regions beyond where the study took place. Despite these limitations, our review
341 consistently found that contraceptives stock-outs limit an individual's ability to use their

342 preferred method; influence where contraception is obtained and how much it costs, limit
343 facilities' and providers' ability to provide contraceptive care, and can have broad, negative
344 repercussions on users and communities, possibly leading to unintended pregnancies and
345 household violence.

346

347 **Conclusion**

348 Although there is increasing global interest among private, public, and non-governmental
349 organizations in addressing supply chain and stock-out issues (*Reproductive Health Supplies*
350 *Coalition, 2018*), quantitative data and comprehensive analyses on the direct and indirect impacts
351 of stock-outs on users are still needed. In addition, more data are needed on how providers cope
352 with stock-outs on a personal-level, how stock-outs affect provision of contraceptive care and
353 other types of health services in the short- and long-term, and how contraceptive stock-outs
354 impact the reputation of facilities. Research is also needed to tease apart the reasons for, and
355 effects of, overall availability of family planning methods and the reliability of stocks of these
356 methods. The synthesized evidence presented in this review can inform policy and advocacy
357 efforts to increase awareness about and adoption of global contraceptive stock-out indicators, as
358 well as inform interventions to address the consequences of stock-outs when facilities or
359 communities are faced with limited supplies.

360

361 **Acknowledgements**

362 Not applicable.

363

364 **Declaration of Interest**

365 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

366

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370 Health Supplies Coalition. Funders had no role in study design, data collection, analysis, or
371 manuscript preparation.

372

373 **Author contributions**

374 This review was conceptualized and designed by KB and KG. The literature search was
375 performed by CZ in 2016 and by JBW in 2019. Data screening and extraction, as well as data
376 analyses and interpretation were performed by AW and CZ. A first draft of the manuscript was
377 written by AW and CZ, and CZ prepared subsequent drafts of the paper. The paper was edited
378 and reviewed by AW, CZ, EDD, JBW, KB, KG, and SH.

379

380 **Supplementary Files**

381 Supplementary File 1. - Completed PRISMA Checklist

382 Supplementary File 2 - Completed PRISMA-S Chart

383 Supplementary File 3 - Search Strategy Details

384 Supplementary File 4 - Description of Studies Table

385

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546 **Table 1. The impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on users, providers, and facilities.**

Authors	Users	Providers and Facilities
Silumbwe et al. (2018)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock-outs of preferred methods negatively impacted contraceptive use and one woman described losing interest in trying to access contraceptives at a clinic experiencing frequent stock-outs 	
Dansereau et al. (2017)	<p><u>Source and Cost of Method</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some women were forced to purchase implants or injectables from a private provider or pharmacy because their local health facility experienced a stock-out of these methods • The cost of purchasing contraceptives from a pharmacy or private provider was a barrier for one focus group participant 	
Jalang’o et al. (2017)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women identified frequent stock-outs as a major challenge to accessing contraceptives, with at least one woman becoming pregnant while waiting to obtain her method <p><u>Source of Method</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequent stock-outs at public facilities forced women to go to private pharmacies for contraceptive supplies, even though many thought chemists were less qualified to provide care 	
Nieto-Andrade et al. (2017)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Almost one-fifth of female contraceptive users reported not using their preferred method, with the most common reasons being that their preferred method was difficult to obtain or not available • The authors note that stock-outs of IUDs or implants at public 	

	<p>facilities are likely a contributing factor for why condoms and oral contraceptives are the most widely used method, while LARCs are the least known and used in Luanda</p>	
<p>Grindlay et al. (2016)</p>	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock-outs led women to try new methods, and negative side effects caused women to discontinue use. • Older women were less flexible in terms of changing methods, and were likely to stop using a new method if they experienced any negative side effects. <p><u>Source and Cost of Method</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After facing stock-outs in public facilities, some women paid out-of-pocket for a method at private facility. • Women who visited multiple sources to access a method were concerned about high travel costs. Travelling to different facilities was more challenging for younger women. • Young women expressed confidentiality concerns when visiting a different provider, and not all providers were willing to offer them family planning methods. <p><u>Other</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women reported stress from worrying about the potential of an unwanted pregnancy, or from having to abstain from sex due to their inability to obtain their preferred method. • Some women experienced domestic violence spurred on by their attempts to abstain from sex or requests for their partner to use a condom. • Women reported abandonment or 	<p><u>Provider Morale</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providers felt stressed and demoralized at not being able to meet their patients’ needs and were often blamed for a lack of supplies. <p><u>Provision of Services</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock-outs of long-term methods made it difficult for providers to maintain the skill level to provide these methods. <p><u>Facility Performance</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock-outs were perceived to impact the performance of the facility itself with loss of trust among clients who had experienced persistent stock-outs.

	<p>divorce if they experienced an unintended pregnancy due to a stock-out.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some women believed that unmarried women were most impacted by stock-outs, as unwanted pregnancies could force them to drop out of school, marry a partner earlier, or undergo unsafe abortions. 	
Baraka et al. (2015)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock-outs were identified as one of the reasons clients did not receive method counseling at facilities. 	<p><u>Cost and Provision of Services</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providers reported using funds allocated for other primary health care activities to procure essential supplies locally, or charging fees for services that were supposed to be free. • Frequently, provision of family planning care was interrupted by stock-outs.
Farmer et al. (2015)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providers believed stock-outs caused women to stop using contraception, resulting in unwanted pregnancies. 	
Skiles et al. (2015)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The authors found an increase in injectable use and demand for birth spacing if a nearby facility had a reliable stock of that method. • The probability of using injectables was 3.3 - 5.2 percentage points higher for women with the most access to stocked facilities compared to women with the least access. • Among rural women, those with the best access to consistently stocked facilities were more likely to use injectables than those with least access (a 7.5 percentage point increase). • Among urban women, distance to a facility with a reliable supply of contraceptive injectables had a 	

	significant effect on demand for birth spacing.	
Tumlinson et al. (2015)	<u>Contraceptive Use</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A consistent stock of a mix of contraceptive methods was marginally associated with current modern method use in all facilities, and in higher-volume facilities. 	
Akol et al. (2014)	<u>Source of Method</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Of clients who had switched providers from their last contraceptive method (50% of drug shop clients), 10% of the clients who had switched from a government clinic/health center cited fewer stock-outs at drug-shops among their reasons for switching sources. 	
Cover et al. (2014)	<u>Other</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • According to clinic providers and community health workers, turning clients away due to stock-outs was costly, inconvenient, and less discreet for women. 	<u>Provision of Services</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clinic providers and community health workers discussed how stock-outs cause them to have to turn women away.
Daff et al. (2014)	<u>Contraceptive Use, Source, and Cost</u> <p>Among current users of contraception who had experienced a stock-out:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 55% switched methods, often to a less effective method. • 45% either discontinued use or went to the private sector, where they paid 3 to 9 times the price they would have paid at a public facility. 	
Lebetkin et al. (2014)	<u>Source of Method</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 16% percent of women interviewed purchased the injectable from chemical shops because the method was in stock. • 30% women who knew of other facilities that provided injectables, and of these women, 22% reported 	

	they did not visit these locations because of stock-outs.	
McKenna et al. (2014)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy makers and service providers explained that stock-outs limited access to effective methods of contraception, forcing women to use condoms or other less-effective methods as a stop-gap to prevent pregnancy. 	
Nakayiza et al. (2014)	<p><u>Source of Method</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Among other determinants, evidence of a stock-out was significantly related to preference of source for DMPA. • Women who had never experienced a stock-out of DMPA were more likely to prefer private to public sources compared to those who had experienced a stock-out (RR=-2.77). The authors largely attributed this to the fact that supply at private sources was continuous and women appreciated this quality. 	
Hyttel, M (2012)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policymakers were concerned that without a wide mix of contraceptive methods, women experiencing negative side effects would have very limited options for an alternative method. 	<p><u>Provision of Services</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policymakers mentioned that stock-outs and other factors negatively impacted the provision of family planning services, as providers were unable offer women a wide range of affordable contraceptive methods.
Tolley et al. (2012)	<p><u>Source of Method</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Although injectables were free at public facilities, stock-outs at these facilities led some women to buy injectables from the private sector. 	
Burke and Ambasa-Shisanya (2011)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock-outs were identified as a logistical reason for discontinuing use of a contraceptive. • When clinics run out of 	

	<p>injectables, women were asked to buy the method at a pharmacy and then return to the clinic for the injection. The time and financial resources needed to do this prevented women from returning to the clinic.</p> <p><u>Other</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock-outs also caused users to become discouraged because there was not an affordable place to access their preferred method. 	
<p>Hutchinson et al. (2011)</p>	<p><u>Other</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Client satisfaction with family planning services is higher in private rather than public facilities, and the authors partly attribute this to their finding that private facilities were less likely to experience a stock-out of contraceptive methods and supplies. • Clients were significant more likely to report that “availability of medicines or methods” was not a problem at private health centers and clinics in Tanzania and Kenya, compared to private facilities. • In bivariate analysis, availability of contraceptive methods was reported as a problem more frequently in public facilities in Tanzania and Kenya. Two indicators of quality of care, “stock inventory, organization, and quality” and “number of family planning methods offered” were significantly different between public and private facilities in these two countries. • In multivariate analysis, “Quality stock inventory” was a significant factor of client satisfaction in hospitals in Ghana 	

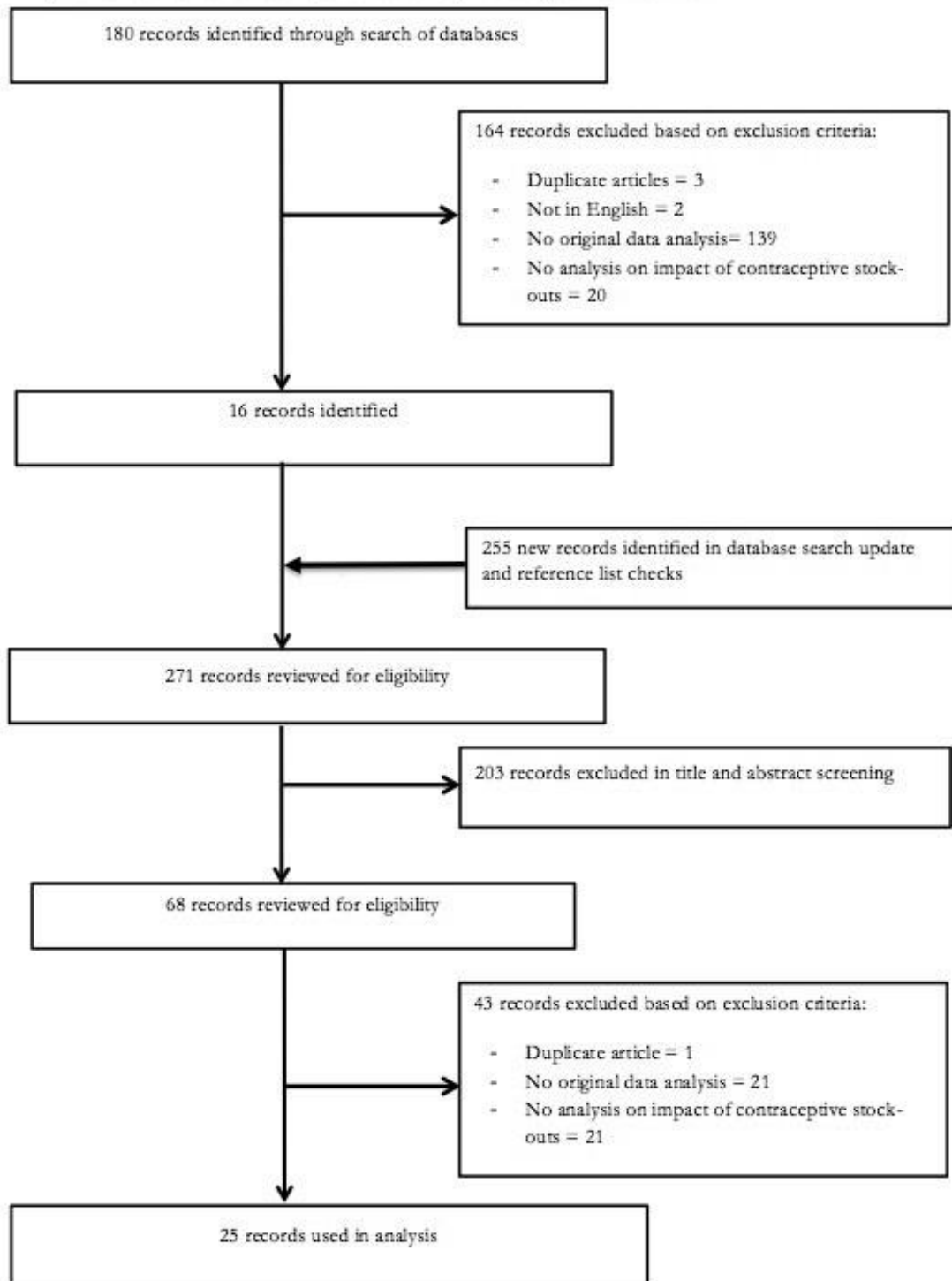
<p>Gribble et al. (2007)</p>	<p><u>Source of Method</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock-outs caused women to obtain their contraceptive method at a commercial outlet or pharmacy at a higher cost, rather than at a public facility. <p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women whose preferred contraceptive method was out-of-stock were sometimes prescribed a different method. <p><u>Other</u></p> <p>Authors hypothesize that commodity stock-outs in facilities played a role in the increase in the number of abortions.</p>	<p><u>Provision of Services</u></p> <p>83% of providers advised their patients to use another method temporarily when facing a contraceptive stock-out, particularly of oral contraceptives and injectables:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 60% provided a prescription to be filled at a commercial outlet or pharmacy. • 23% changed the patient’s contraceptive method to one in stock.
<p>Mugisha and Reynolds (2007)</p>	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock-outs were reported to lead to discontinuation of methods and unwanted pregnancies. • Discontinuation was common according to providers, as some stock-outs reportedly lasted 3 to 6 months and women had strong preferences for certain methods. 	<p><u>Provision of Services</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of supplies and stock-outs were reported as a common barrier to quality services for family planning. • Providers reported longer wait-times as a result of stock-outs.
<p>Rutenberg and Baek (2005)</p>	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providers attributed stock-outs at PMTCT sites to a decline in the prevalence of women’s use of certain methods and an increase in the number of pregnancies among HIV-positive women. 	
<p>Chen and Guilkey (2003)</p>	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The multivariate results suggested that an increase in the number of methods in stock increased the probability of using a contraceptive method versus using none. • The largest effect sizes were observed for “other modern method” versus no method, followed by condom versus no 	

	<p>method, and oral contraceptive use versus no method.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The only statistically significant relationship was found for “other modern method” versus no method. • In simulating the impact of the results, an increase in the number of methods found to be in stock within 5 km was associated with a decrease in a simulated percentage of nonuse and an increase in simulated use for all other methods. • The largest increases were observed for "other modern methods" and oral contraceptives. 	
Magnani et al. (1999)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Method availability at the nearest public health clinic was associated with contraceptive intentions and use. • Results suggested that women with no intention to use contraception were influenced to a greater extent by the availability of methods than those women who had already intended to use a method. • The authors noted that causality may be reversed; services may be allocated in response to demand. 	
Cotten et al. (1992)	<p><u>Contraceptive Use</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Among users of injectables, stock-outs were identified a major reason for discontinuation. • In Niger, 13% of women who discontinued a method reported stock-outs as a major reason for stopping use. • Among users of other methods, and among all users in the Gambia, stock-outs were not one of the top four reasons for discontinuation. 	

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Fig 1. Flow chart of the selection process to identify articles eligible for this review.



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PRISMA 2009 Checklist

Section/topic	#	Checklist item	Reported on page #
TITLE			
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both.	1
ABSTRACT			
Structured summary	2	Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria, participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number.	2
INTRODUCTION			
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known.	3-4
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS).	4
METHODS			
Protocol and registration	5	Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number.	4-5
Eligibility criteria	6	Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale.	4-5
Information sources	7	Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched.	4-5
Search	8	Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.	Supplementary File 3
Study selection	9	State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis).	Figure 1; 4-5
Data collection process	10	Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators.	5
Data items	11	List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made.	5, Supplementary File 4 & Table 1
Risk of bias in individual studies	12	Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how this information is to be used in any data synthesis.	N/A
Summary measures	13	State the principal summary measures (e.g., risk ratio, difference in means).	5



PRISMA 2009 Checklist

Synthesis of results	14	Describe the methods of handling data and combining results of studies, if done, including measures of consistency (e.g., I^2) for each meta-analysis.	N/A
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Section/topic	#	Checklist item	Reported on page #
Risk of bias across studies	15	Specify any assessment of risk of bias that may affect the cumulative evidence (e.g., publication bias, selective reporting within studies).	N/A
Additional analyses	16	Describe methods of additional analyses (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression), if done, indicating which were pre-specified.	N/A
RESULTS			
Study selection	17	Give numbers of studies screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally with a flow diagram.	Figure 1
Study characteristics	18	For each study, present characteristics for which data were extracted (e.g., study size, PICOS, follow-up period) and provide the citations.	Supplementary File 4
Risk of bias within studies	19	Present data on risk of bias of each study and, if available, any outcome level assessment (see item 12).	Supplementary File 4
Results of individual studies	20	For all outcomes considered (benefits or harms), present, for each study: (a) simple summary data for each intervention group (b) effect estimates and confidence intervals, ideally with a forest plot.	5-12, Table 1
Synthesis of results	21	Present the main results of the review. If meta-analyses are done, include for each, confidence intervals and measures of consistency	5-12
Risk of bias across studies	22	Present results of any assessment of risk of bias across studies (see Item 15).	N/A
Additional analysis	23	Give results of additional analyses, if done (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression [see Item 16]).	N/A
DISCUSSION			
Summary of evidence	24	Summarize the main findings including the strength of evidence for each main outcome; consider their relevance to key groups (e.g., healthcare providers, users, and policy makers).	12-16
Limitations	25	Discuss limitations at study and outcome level (e.g., risk of bias), and at review-level (e.g., incomplete retrieval of identified research, reporting bias).	15-16
Conclusions	26	Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence, and implications for future research.	16
FUNDING			
Funding	27	Describe sources of funding for the systematic review and other support (e.g., supply of data); role of funders for the systematic review.	17



PRISMA 2009 Checklist

From: Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, The PRISMA Group (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement. PLoS Med 6(7): e1000097. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed1000097

For more information, visit: www.prisma-statement.org.

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Section/topic	#	Checklist item	Reported on page #	Reported in abstract	Reported in Suppl.
DATABASES					
Databases	1	Describe fully all databases searched.	4	x	
Database name	1A	Name each individual database searched.	4	x	
Interface	1B	State the platform, interface, provider, vendor, or host system for each database searched.	n/a		
Dates of Coverage	1C	List the dates of coverage for each database searched.			x
Multidatabase Searching	1D	If databases were searched simultaneously through a single interface, state the name of the interface and list all of the databases included and their dates of coverage individually.	n/a		
ADDITIONAL INFORMATION SOURCES					
Additional information sources	2	Describe all other information sources and methods used as part of the search process.	4-5		
Online resources	2A	List any trials registries, web search engines, specific web sites, conference proceedings, or other resource searched, including their dates of coverage.	n/a		
Manual searching	2B	If manual searching or handsearching was conducted, list the names of all handsearched sources, including the dates of coverage.	n/a		
Citation searching	2C	Indicate whether cited references or citing references were examined, and describe any methods used for locating cited/citing references (e.g., manual search; name, platform, and dates of coverage for any citation index used; email alerts).	5		
Text analysis methods	2D	Describe or cite pre-defined individual or sets of records and/or software or applications used for textual analysis to derive search terms or for other automated text-mining techniques.	n/a		
Contacts	2E	Indicate whether additional studies or data were sought by contacting authors, experts, manufacturers, or other contacts.	n/a		
Other methods	2F	Describe any additional supplementary search methods used.	n/a		
LIMITS AND RESTRICTIONS					
Limits and restrictions	3	Specify that no limits were used or describe any limits or restrictions applied to each search and provide justification for their use, including: a. Date or time period; b. Language; c. Publication status; d. Human or Organism; e. Study design; f. Database subsets; g. Pre-specified cut-off points for inclusion of search results (e.g. from internet searches); h. Other restriction	4-5		x
FILTERS AND PRIOR WORK					
Search filters	4	Indicate and cite when published search filters or hedges were used for any search, and whether they were modified or adapted from their published versions.	n/a		
Prior work	5	Indicate and cite when search strategies from other literature reviews were adapted or reused for part or all of the search.	n/a		
FULL SEARCH STRATEGIES					
Full search strategies	6	Include the search strategies for each database and resource, copied and pasted exactly as run, including any updates.			x
DATES OF SEARCHES					
Dates of searches	7	For each source, provide the date when the search and any subsequent update(s) occurred.	4		x
UPDATES					
Updates	8	Report the methods used to update the search(es).	4		x
SEARCH DESIGNER(S)					
Search designer(s)	9	Describe who designed and/or executed the search.	4		
PEER REVIEW					
Peer review	10	Describe any search peer review process.	n/a		
MANAGING RECORDS					
Total records	11	Document the total number of references identified from each database and additional information source.			x
Deduplication	12	Describe the processes and any software used to deduplicate records from multiple database or other resource searches.			
Records screened	13	Document the number of records for screening after duplicates removed.			x

Supplementary File 3. Search strategy details.

The initial search was conducted on November 23, 2016.

Database	Search strategy	Number of results
PubMed	("contraceptive" OR "contraception" OR "contraceptives") AND ("stockout" OR "stockouts" OR "stock-out" OR "stock-outs" OR "stock out" OR "stock outs" OR "supply chain")	31
JSTOR	("contraceptive" OR "contraception" OR "contraceptives") AND ("stockout" OR "stockouts" OR "stock-out" OR "stock-outs" OR "stock out" OR "stock outs" OR "supply chain")	149
Total		180

The search update was run on July 12, 2019. No date or language limits were used.

Database	Search strategy	Number of results
PubMed (1966-)	((("contraceptive agents"[Pharmacological Action] OR "contraceptive devices"[MeSH Terms] OR ("contraceptive"[All Fields] AND "devices"[All Fields]) OR "contraceptive devices"[All Fields] OR "contraceptive"[All Fields] OR "contraceptive agents"[MeSH Terms] OR ("contraceptive"[All Fields] AND "agents"[All Fields]) OR "contraceptive agents"[All Fields]) OR ("contraception"[MeSH Terms] OR "contraception"[All Fields]) OR ("contraceptive agents"[Pharmacological Action] OR "contraceptive agents"[MeSH Terms] OR "contraceptive"[All Fields])	58

	AND "agents"[All Fields] OR "contraceptive agents"[All Fields] OR "contraceptives"[All Fields])) AND (stockout[All Fields] OR stockouts[All Fields] OR "stock out"[All Fields] OR "stock outs"[All Fields] OR stock-out[All Fields] OR stock- outs[All Fields] OR "supply chain"[All Fields])	
Embase (1947-)	('contraceptive'/exp OR contraceptive OR 'contraception'/exp OR contraception OR 'contraceptives'/exp OR contraceptives) AND (stockout OR stockouts OR 'stock out' OR 'stock outs' OR 'supply chain'/exp OR 'supply chain')	83
Web of Science (1900-)	((contraceptive OR contraception OR contraceptives) AND (stockout OR stockouts OR "stock out" OR "stock outs" OR stock-out OR stock-outs OR "supply chain"))	42
Popline (1970-)	(contraceptive OR contraception OR contraceptives) AND (stockout OR stockouts OR "supply chain")	197
Total		380
Number of duplicates		130
Total after de-duplication		251

Description of Included Studies Table

Authors	Geography	Study Objective	Sample Size	Methods and Measures of Stock-out Impact ^a
Silumbwe et al. (2018)	Kabwe District, Zambia	To explore barriers and facilitators to provision and use of family planning services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 12 focus group discussions (FGDs) were conducted with 114 community members of reproductive age 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In FGDs, participants discussed barriers and facilitators to contraceptive use
Dansereau et al. (2017)	Chiapas, Mexico	To understand the views of and barriers to family planning services in the poorest regions of Chiapas, Mexico in order to design interventions that are effective and culturally appropriate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 44 FGDs with 292 women, adolescent women, and men 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In FGDs, participants discussed family planning topics, including their ability to access contraceptives
Jalang'o et al. (2017)	Rural Kenya	To establish determinants of contraceptive uptake among postpartum women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2 FGDs with a total of 20 postpartum women 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> In FGDs, mothers were asked about their views on family planning methods, use, availability, access, and barriers to access
Nieto-Andrade et al. (2017)	Luanda, Angola	To assess the link between women's choice of contraceptive methods and availability of these methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Original analyses from three surveys: a 2012 family planning survey, a 2014 retail survey, and a 2015 retail survey 	<u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descriptive statistics of the 2012 survey include the unmet need for preferred contraception, which is defined as the percentage of sexually active women who are currently using contraception but are not

				<p>using their preferred method.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For both retail surveys, availability of contraceptive methods on the market was calculated for each year and was defined as the percentage of public and private sector facilities that reported distributing or selling different types of contraceptive methods
Grindlay et al (2016)	Kamuli and Mbarara districts, Uganda	To explore the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs on women and providers, as well as to examine how policymakers perceived and managed stock-outs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 8 FGDs with a total of 50 women • 24 in-depth interviews (IDIs) with providers and health facility managers • 11 IDIs with policymakers and decision makers 	<p><u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In FGDs, women who had ever used or tried to use a method of contraception discussed their experiences obtaining contraceptives and mechanisms for coping with stock-outs, as well as the impacts of stock-outs on themselves and others • IDIs covered mechanisms to deal with stock-outs and perceptions of the impacts of stock-outs
Baraka et al (2015)	Kilombero district, Morogoro Region, Tanzania	To identify providers' perspectives on the challenges of addressing unmet need for contraception	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 22 key informant interviews (medical officers, district health coordinators, nurses, and clinical officers) • 4 FGDs with 6-8 providers each 	<p><u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In IDIs and FGDs, providers discussed societal, cultural, and economic factors that influence their ability to provide services, as well as logistical and operational challenges

Farmer et al (2015)	Kayonza district, Rwanda	To identify factors contributing to and hindering use of family planning services, and to understand community perspectives on the quality of services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 96 IDIs with male and female community members • 48 IDIs with community health workers • 15 IDIs with health facility nurses representing all 8 health centers in the catchment area of the district's Rwinkwavu Hospital 	<p><u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IDIs covered a range of topics related to reproductive health, including experiences using or promoting contraceptive methods
Skiles et al (2015)	Malawi	To link individual-level data on women's use of injectable contraceptives with logistics data from service delivery points to better understand how facilities and product supply impact contraceptive use and demand for services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 423 injectable contraceptive service delivery sites • 22,480 women aged 15-49 years 	<p><u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Linear probability models were used to understand associations between access to services, reliability of supplies on injectable use, and demand for birth spacing • The variable capturing contraceptive stock-outs was defined as a woman's distance to a facility with a reliable stock of injectable contraceptives; the reliability component was measured using an index composed of monthly data on availability of injectables; this operationalization of the variable makes it hard to isolate the effect of stock-outs independent of distance • The analysis excluded private sites <i>a priori</i> and

				<p>excluded any public site with missing facility geographic coordinates, potentially introducing omitted variable bias, although >90% of women in urban areas accessed injectables at public facilities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women could not be matched to individual facilities they actually used, so women were linked to all facilities in a cluster that offered injectables
Tumlinson et al (2015)	5 urban areas of Kenya	To investigate the relationship between the quality of family planning services and contraceptive use among women living in urban areas of Kenya	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual survey data from 3,990 women • Facility audits of 260 facilities in 5 urban areas of Kenya 	<p><u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A multivariate model aimed to identify the aspects of family planning service quality that influenced contraceptive use, with contraceptive stock-outs included as a covariate • The measure of stock-outs included in this model was defined as the number of methods provided at a facility that have not been stocked out in the previous year (measured on a scale from 0-8)
Akol et al. (2014)	Lowero, Nakasongol, Mayuge, and Bugiri districts, Uganada	To assess family planning services provided at private-sector drug shops after training staff to provide contraceptive methods.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 585 structured questionnaire for clients of 54 drug-shops. 	<p><u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questionnaires asked users if they had received their last contraceptive method elsewhere. Those that had switched providers selected their reason(s) for doing so. • Results were limited to understanding the choice

				of a drug-shop as a source of family planning services over other sources.
Cover et al (2014)	Three districts in Senegal and two districts in Uganda	The study assessed the brand Sayana Press compared to traditional intramuscular Depo-Provera or DMPA (brand of depot medroxyprogesterone acetate) injectables	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 58 semi-structured IDIs with clinic providers and community health workers 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IDIs discussed supply management challenges with DMPA injectables • Limited focus on the impact of contraceptive stock-outs as study was primarily about the introduction of Sayana Press
Daff et al (2014)	Pikine and Guediawaye districts, Dakar Region, Senegal	To review the results of a supply-chain study in order to better understand the magnitude and reasons for contraceptive stock-outs and to explain the effects of the designed intervention to address the identified root causes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveys of 156 contraceptive users 	<u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contraceptive user surveys asked consumers who had experienced stock-outs how stock-outs impacted their use of contraception
Lebetkin et al (2014)	Amansie West and Ejisu-Juabeng Districts, Ghana	To assess if allowing licensed chemical shops to sell injectables would increase access to and use of the method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 298 telephone surveys with women who purchased an injectable from chemical seller shop. Open-ended questions about reasons for purchasing the injectable at a chemical shop rather than a 	<u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clients were asked to name reasons they purchased the injectable from chemical shops, as well as reasons why they did not obtain the method from other locations if they could name other locations • Data were collected via mobile telephones, potentially excluding

			health facility were also asked.	populations without access to a phone and biasing the sample toward a higher socioeconomic group <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Results were limited to understanding the choice of a chemical shop as a source of injectables
McKenna et al (2014)	Kenya and Rwanda	To understand barriers and facilitators to delivering a novel longer-acting injectable (LAI) services in Kenya and Rwanda	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IDIs with 27 service providers and 19 policymakers and program implementers 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IDIs discussed factors around introducing a potential LAI, including distribution approaches, although the focus was primarily on considerations for a novel LAI versus how the current supply environment impacted contraceptive use
Nakayiza et al (2014)	Nakasongola District, Uganda	To identify the determinants of preferred source of Depo-Provera (DMPA) among rural women in Uganda	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survey data from 642 adult women who began using Depo-Provera three years prior to the evaluation 	<u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A variable representing experiences of DMPA stock-outs was included in the multivariate regression, measured from the users' perspective; the outcome of interest in the model was preference for private source of DMPA over a public source • Authors offered little explanation of the variable "Ever experienced a stock-out;" we assumed the variable included experiences of stock-outs in public or private facilities
Hyttel, M (2012)	Uganda	To understand the physiological and social experiences of using	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews with 10 male and five female policymakers 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • During interviews, policymakers discussed

		injectables and how these experiences impact daily life and the development of community-based knowledge about side effects		how limited availability, accessibility and affordability of contraceptive methods negatively affected the delivery of family planning services <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited exploration on the topic of stock-outs in this paper
Tolley et al (2012)	Kenya and Rwanda	To better understand the experiences, attitudes, and perspectives of women, providers, and policymakers on injectables and potential LAI products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 19 FGDs with a total of 177 women • 27 IDIs with service providers • 19 IDIs with policy makers 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FGDs and IDIs discussed knowledge and experience related to DMPA, new approaches to long-acting injectables, and characteristics of potential users, although the focus on stock-outs was limited • Population of women was drawn from health facilities and excluded women who did not access family planning services through clinics or who do not use contraception at all
Burke and Ambasa-Shisanya (2011)	Nyando District, Kenya	To understand reasons women discontinue injectable contraceptives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 14 FGDs were conducted: 4 with current contraceptive injectable users, and 2 with each of the following groups: husbands, mothers-in-law, community leaders, and service providers 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FGDs were conducted to identify reasons for discontinuation of contraceptives among women using services from Ministry of Health clinics

<p>Hutchinson et al. (2011)</p>	<p>Tanzania, Kenya, and Ghana</p>	<p>To quantify differences in the quality of family planning services at public and private providers, and assess how these differences impact client satisfaction</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data was collected from 386 facilities in Ghana, 323 in Kenya, and 482 in Tanzania • 611 interviews with family planning clients were conducted in Ghana, 628 in Kenya, and 1,005 in Tanzania 	<p><u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A facility inventory questionnaire was used to obtain data on family planning medicines and supplies offered. The indicator related to stock-outs was “stock inventory, organization, and quality.” This variable included inventory of contraceptive supply present at the facility, stock organized by expiration date, and contraceptives protected from heat, water, and pests. Multivariate regression was used to examine the relationship between client satisfaction and quality measures, including facility inventory and total number of contraceptive methods offered. • Exit interviews were conducted with clients after their visit with a provider to determine their satisfaction with the services provided. Clients were asked if they encountered any problems that day during their visit, including “availability of medicines or methods at this facility”. If a problem was identified, clients were asked if the problem was large or small for them. A binary measure of client satisfaction was created to compare clients that reported “no
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				problem” versus those reporting any problem.
Gribble et al (2007)	Peru	To provide insight on how family planning policies changed and affected access to services in Peru	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survey of 243 family planning providers operating in Ministry of Health facilities between 2002 and 2004 	<u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The evidence addressing the impacts of stock-outs came from the survey of family planning providers; this survey asked providers how they responded when facing stock-outs of contraceptive commodities • The paper offered limited information on the how stock-outs were measured in the survey.
Mugisha and Reynolds (2007)	Bushenyi, Iganga, Lira and Mpigi districts, Uganda	To document providers’ perspectives on societal and organizational factors influencing the quality of care and services they offer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •4 FGDs with 38 female nurses and midwives •16 IDIs with female nurses and midwives •9 IDIs with family planning managers 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FGD and IDI topics included providers’ perceptions of quality of care and barriers to providing services
Rutenberg and Baek (2005)	Cameroon, Kenya, Namibia, South Africa, Uganda, Brazil, the Dominican Republic, India and Thailand	To evaluate the availability of family planning services for HIV-positive women during antenatal and postpartum care as well as the demand and use of these services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 27 interviews with national program managers and stakeholders • Visits to 13 Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission 	<u>Qualitative Measure of Impact</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providers discussed the topic of stock-outs including the impacts of stock-outs on women’s use of the stocked-out method and the PMTCT program

			(PMTCT) program sites in Kenya, Uganda, the Dominican Republic, India, and Thailand and 32 interviews with site managers and providers (2-3 per site)	
Chen and Guilkey (2003)	Rural Tanzania	To examine how three major components of Tanzania's family planning program (logistical support, trained providers, and communications programs) impact method choice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 12,816 women pooled from 4 years of Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) data 	<p><u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This study used multiple datasets from DHS, as well as facility surveys conducted in the same communities; women were linked to the closest facility of each type (hospital, health center, and dispensary) within 5 km of the community surveyed through the Tanzania Service Availability Survey and the Tanzania Reproductive and Child Health Facility survey • A multinomial logit was constructed, with both individual level covariates and covariates measuring exposure to family planning messages and supply-side variables • The variable in the model on contraceptive stock was the number of times a method was in stock at a facility within 5 km from a woman; this variable is an index of whether 5 different

				<p>methods are in stock at 3 different facility types; this measure potentially included the effect of overall availability of contraceptive methods because some facility types may not offer all methods</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not all facilities could be matched between surveys, potentially biasing the sample
Magnani et al (1999)	Morocco	To quantify the effects of family planning programs on contraceptive use and intention by using data collected from household surveys in 1992 and 1995	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 910 married women who were not using a contraceptive method in 1992 answered questions in the 1992 and 1995 DHS surveys 	<p><u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A two-equation bivariate model was constructed to understand determinants of intentions of contraceptive use and actual use, incorporating the effects of contraceptive intention on actual use in the second equation; data on supply side factors were included from a service availability module accompanying the household survey • A method availability index for public clinics was constructed by summing scores assigned to methods mandated to be offered at public clinics, factoring in availability on the date of data collection and stock-outs during the previous 6 months • The sample was limited to women who were interviewed included in both survey rounds, potentially introducing non-response bias

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Although method availability was included as an independent variable in the model, the casual direction was not clear; the authors suggested having available stock of contraceptive methods may influence intention; services may be allocated in response to demand
Cotten et al (1992)	Clinic site in Niger and two rural clinics in the Gambia	To identify the extent of, and reasons for, contraceptive discontinuation among new users	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 650 women surveyed in Niger • 570 women surveyed in The Gambia 	<p><u>Quantitative Measure of Impact</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New family planning clients were followed for 6-8 months and asked to participate in 3 surveys at study admission, at the end of the study, and a home-visit questionnaire for women at least one month late for a scheduled follow-up visit; the exit survey asked women to identify the reasons they discontinued a method • The authors only listed the top four reasons named for discontinuation by method type and country

* Sample size and methods described in Table 1 only pertain to the portion of the study that addressed the impact of contraceptive stock-outs. Study limitations influencing data on the impacts of contraceptive stock-outs are noted in the methods and measures column.