## Disparities in information on Long-Acting Reversible Contraceptives available to college students on student health center websites in USA

Anagha Kulkarni<sup>1\*</sup>, Tejasvi Belsare<sup>1</sup>, Risha Shah<sup>1</sup>, Diana Yu Yu<sup>1</sup>, Carrie Holschuh<sup>2@§</sup>, Venoo Kakar<sup>4@§</sup>, Sepideh Modrek<sup>4,5</sup><sup>@§</sup>, Anastasia Smirnova<sup>3@§</sup>

1 Department of Computer Science, San Francisco State University, 1600 Holloway Ave, San Francisco, CA, USA

**2** School of Nursing, San Francisco State University, 1600 Holloway Ave, San Francisco, CA, USA

**3** Department of English Language and Literature, San Francisco State University, 1600 Holloway Ave, San Francisco, CA, USA

**4** Department of Economics, San Francisco State University, 1600 Holloway Ave, San Francisco, CA, USA

**5** Health Equity Institute, San Francisco State University, 1600 Holloway Ave, San Francisco, CA, USA

## Abstract

Long Acting Reversible Contraceptive (LARC) methods are among the most effective birth control approaches for adolescent and young adults yet information on these methods is not widespread. We examine LARC information provided by Student Health Centers (SHC) websites from Universities across the USA to document disparities in access to information on these important contraception methods for college students. We find that compared to EC, Condoms, (plus Pap smear as control), LARC is mentioned less frequently than the others and 73% of schools have no LARC content on their SHC websites. There is no standardization in how the sexual and reproductive health information does exist, readability and accessibility vary. Universities having high rates of the student body who are African American or female are less likely to provide LARC information on their SHC website and universities situated in more rural settings are less likely to post LARC information on their websites.

# 1 Introduction

Universities have historically been reluctant partners in providing access to reproductive 15 services through Student Health Centers (SHCs). In the U.S., external social and 16 political forces have played a major role in shaping SHCs' provision of contraception 17 care. Student activists have been the driving force pushing universities and their health 18 centers into providing these important services since the 1970s [1]. Laws like Title IX, 19 the 1972 civil rights law prohibiting sex discrimination in federally funded educational 20 programs, have been used to argue that SHCs must provide access to contraception in 21 order to maintain equal access to education based on sex. In addition, the enactment of 22

6

10

11

12

13

the Affordable Care Act (ACA) in 2010 required coverage of contraception as an 23 essential health benefit, thereby changing the contraception care landscape in the U.S., including at universities. This led to schools either dropping student insurance plans 25 altogether (such as Brigham Young University) or complying with the mandate of providing contraception coverage. The ACA prioritized reproductive health care in an 27 effort to reduce existing socioeconomic barriers to essential preventive care for women, in the hope of thereby addressing associated health-related disparities [2]. There is now evidence that impacts of the ACA include narrowing the gap in prescription contraception access between black and white women, where black women have historically accessed prescription forms of contraception at lower rates than white women [3].

SHCs must both provide services and adequately inform the student population about these services in order to ensure equitable access to reproductive health care for college students [4]. While much progress has been made in increasing basic access to contraception thorough SHC clinics and provider appointments [5,6], new barriers are emerging. Rather than physically visiting an SHC location on a university campus, most students now make their first contact with an SHC through the internet [7, 8].

#### 1.1Student health centers as sources of health information

SHCs and their websites are well positioned to serve as an equitable source of high-quality information to adolescent and young adult students [9]. As of 2016, approximate 41% of 18 to 24-year-olds were enrolled in college with a higher proportion of female than male attendees (43% female vs. 38% men) and growing racial/ethnic diversity of the student population. Moreover, in studies of sources of health information amongst college students, black and Hispanic students were more likely than white students to use SHC staff as a source of health information [10]. This suggests that as the student bodies of universities diversify, SHCs may take on a larger role in supporting student health through the equitable provision of appropriate education and services.

Given the central role that SHCs play in providing health information and services 50 to adolescents and young adults, there is growing interest in documenting the services 51 and information that they provide. A recent study that surveyed college SHCs about 52 their provision of sexual health services had a response rate of about 55% [6], reflecting 53 a strong level of interest in the issue of providing sexual health services through SHCs. 54 However, a key limitation in survey-based studies is that response rates may be biased 55 by issues such as the role of the survey respondent, the level of support for 56 contraceptive care at the SHC, or the resources devoted to reproductive health services 57 at a particular campus. To assess SHCs' role in contraceptive access and education for 58 students, an alternative strategy to administering a survey would be to systematically 59 assess information that SHCs provide to students through their websites. This approach 60 encompasses the online nature of most students' searches for contraceptive information 61 and services. It may allow for the assessment of factors which impact students' ability to 62 access high-quality information about effective and appropriate contraceptive options. 63

### 1.2Long-acting reversible contraception for the college-aged population

Long-acting reversible contraceptive (LARC) methods are among the most effective 66 birth control approaches [11]. LARC contraceptive methods include intrauterine 67 devices (IUD), the hormonal implant, and the shot. Nationally their use as primary 68 source of contraception has been rapidly increasing from 2.4% in 2002 to 11.6% in 2012, 69 a 5-fold increase in 10 years [12, 13]. Updated guidelines recommend these methods for 70 use in adolescents and young adults, as they are considered to be extremely effective 71

24

29

31

32

33

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

45

46

47

49

64

and safe for this population at high risk of unintended pregnancy [11]. The increase in 72 use has been most rapid for low-income adolescents, increasing 18-fold from 2005-2015 73 in 15-19 year old women who use federally funded clinics [14]. Meanwhile the rate of 74 unintended pregnancy in the United States has declined substantially. In particular, 75 teen birth rates have fallen by 53% between 2007 and 2015 [15]. Nobles et al. reported 76 15% higher Google searches for IUDs from November 1, 2016 to October 31, 2017 than 77 what was expected based on prior years' search trends, indicating increased awareness 78 and interest in LARC methods among the overall population of the country [16]. 79

The question remains as to whether the increase in LARC use has contributed to the decline in teen birth rates. In spite of the last decade's increase in LARC usage, overall LARC adoption rates remain relatively low, especially among adolescents. Less than 6% of U.S. adolescents have used LARC methods [17,18]. This is even more perplexing when the following factors are considered: 1. Adolescents and young adults are at a high risk of unintended pregnancy [15, 19, 20], 2. The U.S. continues to have the highest adolescent birth rates of any developed country [20], and 3. Unintended pregnancy has extremely severe lifetime consequences for adolescents, including the interruption or prevention of meaningful education [15, 19, 20].

Accurate information and adequate support in decision-making have been shown to significantly influence women's successful use of contraception [8,21]. Clinician bias or misinformation can be a barrier to adequate LARC access for adolescents and young adults [22,23]. Lack of knowledge was identified as the most common barrier to LARC use in one survey of 1,982 female undergraduate students. LARC usage among college students, while increasing, continues to trail usage of older and less reliable methods [4,24]. Many college students report concern over unplanned pregnancy as well as a lack of sufficient LARC education and access [4,25], as well as a desire for greater access to more effective methods including LARC [26]. Misconceptions about infertility and other harms have been identified as a common barrier to IUD uptake among female college students [27]. SHCs and their websites are well positioned to provide high-quality LARC information to diverse populations of students [9].

In this study, we take an equity lens and systematically document the information 101 provided by SHC websites at 4-year public universities across United States. We focus 102 on public institutions as they are obligated under Title IX to limit sex-related barriers 103 and required under ACA to provide coverage to contraception if they offer a student 104 health plan. We undertake 3 distinct studies/analyses that build on one another to 105 examine access to online information about LARC. In our first study we examine 106 information on SHC websites on LARC relative to other forms of contraception and 107 reproductive health services. In our second study we develop and deploy an algorithm to 108 search for LARC information on SHC website in a systematic way. In a third study, we 109 examine how the online information for LARC varies by university-level characteristics. 110

# 2 Study 1: Comparing information on common reproductive health services on SHC websites

The goal of this study is to understand the prevalence of LARC information on SHC websites and to compare it the prevalence of information of other contraception methods and common reproductive health services on SHC websites.

## 2.1 Study 1: Methods

For this study we focused on four categories: LARC methods, Emergency Contraception (EC) methods, Condoms, and Pap smear. Information about EC and condoms was assessed in order to provide a comparison between LARC and less effective, but more 119

80

81

82

84

85

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

95

96

97

98

99

100

111

112

113

114

115

Table 1. Summary statistics and significance testing for difference in prevalence of information of LARC methods compared to information of Emergency Contraception (EC), Condoms, and Pap smear, on SHC website. The *p*-values come from two-tailed paired t-tests.

	Mean	SD	t	df	р
LARC	0.29	0.41			
EC	0.30	0.41	0.49	187	0.62
Condoms	0.35	0.41	1.78	187	0.08
Pap smear	0.49	0.44	6.27	187	< 0.01

commonly used contraceptive methods. Pap smear information was measured in order 120 to compare SHCs' contraceptive information with their provision of information 121 regarding a routine, preventive, non-contraceptive reproductive health service. 122

Current literature regarding evidence-based standards for LARC in the U.S. [11] was 123 used to determine a list of available LARC methods (Intrauterine devices (hormonal and 124 copper), implant, and shot) and a range of acceptable terms for each method, including 125 brand names, pharmaceutical language and popular terms. This led to the development 126 of the following LARC keyword list: IUD, Progesterone IUD, Progestin, Hormonal IUD, 127 Mirena, Skyla, Kyleena, Liletta, Copper IUD, Non-Hormonal IUD, Paragard, 128 (contraceptive) implant, Nexplanon, (contraceptive) injection, Shot, Depo-Provera OR 129 Depo. Similarly for EC methods, the following keyword list was developed: emergency 130 contraception/contraceptives, morning after pill, Plan B (levonorgestrel), ella (ulipristal 131 acetate), copper IUD, Paragard, non-hormonal IUD. The keyword list for condoms 132 simply consisted of the term *condom*. Similarly for Pap smear it was *pap smear*. 133

The set of educational institutions for this study were chosen by first querying the National Center for Educational Statistics

(https://nces.ed.gov/collegenavigator/) to identify all 4-year, public institutions that grant bachelor's degrees in the U.S. This retrieved a set of 591 universities. Next, a 137 subset of 200 universities was randomly sampled from the 591 universities to define the 138 final set for this study (File S1 File.). 139

The SHC websites of the selected 200 universities were then analyzed manually for 140 presence of the four categories under study (LARC, EC, Condoms, Pap smear). 141 Specifically, annotators were instructed to: 1. locate the SHC website for a given 142 university, and 2. then search for the specified category's keywords on the SHC website. 143 Presence of any of the keywords from the category was recorded as value 1 for that category, and absence of all keywords was recorded as value  $\theta$  for that category. For 145 example, if a SHC website mentioned *Mirena* on one or more web-pages, then the 146 annotator would report 1 for the LARC category. Every category was annotated by two 147 independent coders. Cohen's kappa coefficient was computed for each category to 148 measure inter-annotator reliability. 149

For subsequent analysis we computed Average Annotation Value (AAV) for each 150 data point (university) which is the average of the coders' response value. For example, 151 if both annotators agreed that one or more keywords were present for a category, then 152 then average was 1, if they agreed that keywords were absent, the average was 0, and if 153 they disagreed, the average was 0.5. The AAV essentially reflects the uncertainty 154 coming from the disagreement, while allowing us to keep the data point. This leads to 155 generation of 200 AAVs for each category. Using these AAVs, the LARC category were 156 compared with each of the remaining three categories (EC, Condoms, Pap smear) for 157 systematic differences using two-tailed paired t-test. 158

134

135

#### 2.2Study 1: Results

The results of the comparative analysis of the four categories are reported in Table 1. 160 The average of the 200 AAVs for each category is reported under the column Mean. 161 These values suggest that the overall prevalence of all four categories is low on SHC 162 websites. The lowest prevalence is for LARC methods (0.29), closely followed by EC 163 (0.30), Condoms (0.35), and Pap smear (0.49). The presence of Pap smear is 164 significantly more prevalent that of LARC methods on SHC websites (p < 0.01). The 165 difference between LARC and Condoms prevalence is marginally significant (p < 0.1). 166

If the three categories, EC, Condoms, and Pap smear, are collectively compared with 167 LARC then the difference is statistically significant (t(187) = 3.25, p = 0.001, two-tailed)168 with LARC (M = 0.29, SD = 0.41) and collective category (M = 0.38, SD = 0.35).<sup>1</sup> 169 LARC methods were mentioned less frequently on average than the other methods. 170

The inter-annotator reliability results are given next. Cohen's kappa coefficients were 0.64, 0.60, 0.44, and 0.51 for LARC, EC, Condoms, and Pap smear, respectively. These values are typically interpreted as moderate agreement. It could be argued that the coefficient for LARC (0.64) is bordering on substantial agreement.

We had expected much higher coefficients since we believed that the annotation task 175 (searching for specified keywords on a website) was straightforward and objective. 176 Neither of these assumptions were found to be true. Annotators reported that the 177 placement of relevant information was not always intuitive, which leads to annotation 178 errors. There is high variability in how the content on the SHC websites is organized, 179 which makes the annotation task longer, tedious, and further amplifies the possibility to 180 human error. The highest agreement on LARC methods also suggests that unconscious 181 bias might have been introduced into the annotated data – annotators might have been 182 extra careful when searching for LARC methods since it is the focus of the study. These 183 trends motivate the next study which employs computational approaches to avoid 184 human error and bias. 185

#### 3 Study 2: Automated methods to gather LARC 186 data on national sample of university SHC websites 187

The findings from Study 1 and our experience of conducting Study 1, motivates this 188 next study where the central goal is to expand the LARC data gathering efforts in order 189 to analyze national-level trends. Computational approaches lend well to this goal since 190 the LARC data that needs to be gathered is available in digital format on the World 191 Wide Wed (WWW), specifically the university student health center websites. 192 Employing computational approaches offers two important benefits: 1. efficient 193 scaling-up, and 2. effective tracking. Once the computational approaches are designed 194 and developed they can be applied to as many universities as needed without any additional cost (efficient scaling-up). These approaches can also be re-applied as many times as needed to track changes in the data (effective tracking). Achieving either of 197 this with traditional data gathering instruments such as, surveys or annotation efforts 198 (Study 1) is extremely difficult, inefficient, and expensive.

In this study we have developed computational approaches for 1. identifying the student health center website for a given university, 2. assessing the accessibility of LARC information available on SHC websites, and 3. assessing the quality of the LARC 202 information available on SHC websites.

159

171

172

173

174

195 196

200

201

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$ If instead of using 0.5 as an uncertainty value in the rows with a disagreement we simply treat them as missing values, the overall statistical t-test is t(156) = -1.84, p < .05, one-tailed.

3.1 Study 2: Methods	204
We commence the study by defining the set of universities that will be analyzed using the computational approaches. As in Study 1, we started with the list of all 4-year,	205 206
public, bachelor's granting institutions in the US. A list of 591 institutions. From this	200
list, nine Native American serving institutions and Veteran serving institutions were	208
dropped because they have their own separate comprehensive health care systems and thus do not have SHCs. Another 33 institutions did not have a SHC website as of	209
November 20, 2019 (File S2 File.). For the remaining 549 schools, the following fields	210 211
were retrieved: University name, address, website, university type, selectivity, and student demographics (i.e, percent white, African American, Hispanic and Asian).	212 213
3.1.1 Student Health Center (SHC) website identification	214
Since the goal of this study is to analyze the reproductive health and contraceptive	215
information provided on SHC websites, the first task we undertook was to find the SHC website, more specifically, the web address (URL) of the SHC website for a given	216
university. We have designed and developed an algorithmic approach for this task that	217 218
consists of four simple steps:	219
1. Construct a search query by joining the given university name with the phrase	220
"student health center" (e.g. "Texas A & M University Central Texas student	221
health center").	222
2. Run the search query using a commercial search engine (e.g. Google Custom Search API <sup>2</sup> ).	223 224
3. Retrieve the first result, specifically, the URL of the first result. If the URL is not	225
from ".edu" domain, then retrieve the next URL. Repeat this until the third URL is processed. If none of the top three URLs are from ".edu" domain, then	226
conclude that the SHC website cannot be found for this university and end.	227 228
4. Sanitize the retrieved URL to obtain the definitive URL for the SHC homepage.	229
To do that:	230
(a) Check if the URL redirects to another URL. If yes, then use the new URL.	231
(b) Remove sub-URLs such as "/contacts", "/appointments", "/location" from the URL.	232 233
This multi-step approach was needed because there are no set standards for where	234
and how the information related to student health services is hosted. There are no	235
naming conventions for the SHC web addresses and as a result the SHC web addresses demonstrate high variability. For example, the web addresses for SHCs at the following	236 237
five CSUs use five different naming styles:	238
1. California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo	239
https://hcs.calpoly.edu	240
2. California State University, Bakersfield	241
https://www.csub.edu/healthcenter	242
3. California State University, Stanislaus	243
https://www.csustan.edu/health-center	244
4. California State University, San Bernardino	245
https://www.csusb.edu/student-health-center	246

## ${}^{2} \tt{https:}//developers.google.com/custom-search/v1/overview}$

5.	California State Polytechnic University, Pomona	247
]	https://www.cpp.edu/~health	248
1.2	Assessing LARC information on SHC website	249

#### 3.1.2Assessing LARC information on SHC website

Once the SHC website is identified for a university, the LARC information provided on 250 the SHC website is studied next. To guide this study, a rubric was developed by a 251 certified nurse-midwife (one of the authors) and a nursing student research assistant. 252 Two key aspects of the LARC information on SHC websites – accessibility and quality – 253 were chosen for the rubric. These aspects of LARC information can empower college 254 students to pursue informed decisions about LARC, ultimately making a decision with 255 the support of a qualified healthcare provider. Accessibility of any information directly 256 impacts its use and application. In case of SHC websites, information that is posted on 257 their homepage has much higher accessibility than information on a web-page that is several clicks away from the SHC homepage. The quality of the provided information 259 also impacts its use and application. In the context of this study, quality is defined as 260 understandability of the information. If the LARC information provided on a SHC 261 website uses simple, easy to understand language then it is more likely to be understood 262 and in turn used. In contrast, if the LARC information on SHC website uses specialized 263 medical terminology, then an average college student is unlikely to find it useful. There 264 is an extensive body of research in the context of doctor-patient communication that 265 transfers over this study [28–31]. The details of how these two aspects were quantified 266 for a given SHC website are provided in the next two subsections. 267

### LARC Information Accessibility Metric: #Clicks

The #Clicks metric was developed to answers the question: "How quickly can LARC 270 information be reached from the SHC homepage?". #Clicks metric captures the 271 minimum number of clicks starting from the SHC homepage required to reach LARC 272 content. We have designed and developed an algorithmic solution to compute this 273 metric for any given SHC website, so as to facilitate large-scale analysis using this 274 metric. The pseudo-code for our approach is given in Algorithm 1. At a high-level, the 275 algorithm is designed to automate the website navigation and LARC information search 276 process starting from a given SHC homepage. In order to find the LARC content that is 277 closest to the SHC homepage (minimum number of clicks), this exploration is conducted 278 in a *breadth-first* manner where all the web-pages at the same level/depth are explored 279 before web-pages at deeper levels. To operationalize this logic, a *queue* is used to 280

268

prioritize the web-pages (URLs) that have to be explored iteratively.

Input: Student Health Center website (SHC URL)

Output: Minimum number of clicks to LARC content from SHC URL

- 1 Initialize: An empty queue, and #Clicks=-1;
- **2** Add the SHC URL to the *queue*;

3 while queue not empty do

- 4 Pop the URL at the head of the *queue*;
- 5 Search the content of the web-page at this URL for LARC terms;
- 6 Increase #Clicks by 1;
- **7 if** *LARC* content found **then**
- **8** return #Clicks;

else

- **9** Find all the URLs on the web-page that could lead to LARC content;
- Add all these URLs to the queue;
- end
- 11 | if #Clicks > 100 then

12 return -1;

end

 $\mathbf{end}$ 

10

### **Algorithm 1:** Algorithm to compute #Clicks Metric

As is shown in Algorithm 1, the expected input to this approach is the SHC website. 283 The URL of the SHC website is the first URL that is added to the queue (Line 2). At 284 each iteration, the URL at the head of the queue is obtained (Line 4), and the web-page 285 content at this URL is searched for LARC terms (Line 5). These LARC terms and 286 phrases used in Study 1 were reused here. Every time a URL is popped from the queue 287 and searched, the #Clicks is increased by one (Line 6) because these steps emulate the 288 action of user clicking a link and exploring the new web-page for LARC content. The 289 algorithm terminates as soon as the first instance of any of the LARC terms is found on 290 a web-page (Line 8). For instance, if SHC homepage has LARC content, then the 291 algorithm stops right after exploring the first URL (SHC homepage), and returns value 292 0 for #Clicks since no clicks were needed to reach LARC content. When a web-page 293 being explored does not contain LARC content, URLs on that web-page that may lead 294 to LARC content are identified and added to the queue (Line 9 and 10). To identify 295 such URLs, the text of the hyperlinks on the web-page is leveraged. Specifically, if the 296 hyperlink text contains any of the predefined keywords then the corresponding URL is 297 added to the queue. The set of keywords was defined based on the observed trends such 298 as SHC websites tend to provide LARC information under sections titled 'Clinical 200 Service', 'Women's health', 'Reproductive health'. The program is terminated if LARC 300 content has not been located even after exploring 100 URLs. It is assumed that LARC 301 content is not present on this SHC website, and a special value of -1 is returned for 302 #Clicks metric to indicate the same. The accuracy of this algorithmic approach was also analyzed and found to be 91% (Details in File S3 File.). 304

### LARC Information Quality Metric: Readability

To quantify the intuition of information understandability we employ the 307 Flesch-Kincaid readability tests<sup>3</sup>. The Flesch-Kincaid readability tests consist of two metrics that use linguistic properties of the textual content to estimate its readability - 309 the Flesch Reading Ease (FRE) metric, and the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (FKGL) 310 metric (formulations are given below). A higher score for FRE metric indicates easy to read material, and lower score indicates that the material is difficult to read. 312

305

306

281

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flesch-Kincaid\_readability\_tests

(Information on interpretation of FRE scores in File S4 File.) The score computed by 313 Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level metric corresponds to U.S. grade levels. We apply both 314 these metrics to assess the quality (understandability) of the LARC information 315 provided on SHC websites. To operationalize this efficiently we have designed and 316 developed computational approach that consists of four steps: 317

- 1. Construct a disjunctive query with all the LARC keywords.
- 2. Use a commercial search engine (e.g. Google Custom Search API) to conduct a 319 site-specific search with the above query against the SHC website. (Site-specific 320 search returns only those result web-pages that are hosted under the specified site, 321 in our case, the SHC website.) Download all the results web-pages. 322
- 3. For each web-page, locate every sentence containing any of the LARC keywords, 323 extract this sentence and 5 sentences before and after it. This step ensures that 324 only that content which is about LARC and in the vicinity of LARC is used to 325 compute the readability scores.
- 4. Count the number of syllables, words, and sentences for the content extracted in 327 the above step<sup>4</sup>. Compute the Flesch Reading Ease metric: 328

$$FRE = 206.835 - 1.015 * \frac{\#words}{\#sentences} - 84.6 * \frac{\#syllables}{\#words}$$

Compute the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level metric:

$$FKGL = 0.39 * \frac{\#words}{\#sentences} + 11.8 * \frac{\#syllables}{\#words} - 15.59$$

#### 3.2Study 2: Results

#### 3.2.1SHC website identification

The seemingly simple task of finding SHC homepage for a university illustrates why 332 many of these tasks are challenging to accomplish programmatically. The lack of 333 standardization leads to large variance in how the SHC websites are named and 334 organized. Many universities offer Wellness Center that are separate from SHC but are 335 hard for search engines to distinguish. The SHC website identification approach 336 described in Section 3.1.1 is designed to handle most of the above situations. To 337 evaluate the effectiveness of this approach, the ground truth data, that is, the correct 338 SHC websites, were manually identified for all 549 universities. When compared to this 339 ground truth data, the SHC website identification approach is 96.36% accurate (529 out 340 of 549 universities). Error analysis shows that majority of the identification errors are 341 caused due to one or more of the following reasons. 342

<sup>4</sup>NLP library was used for this: spaCy, https://spacy.io/

Table 2. #Clicks Metric: Minimum no. of clicks to LARC content from SHC homepage

#Clicks	Number of universities (Percentage)
0	13 (2.36%)
1	64 (11.65%)
2	60 (10.92%)
3	13 (2.36%)
4	1 (0.7%)
No LARC content	398 (72.49%)

329

318

	Table 5. Reading Level of Entree Information on Site website					
Reading Level of LARC Information		% of Univ.	% of Univ.			
		as per FRE	as per FKGL			
	Less than 10th Grade (Plain English)	75%	81%			
	10th to 12th Grade (Fairly Difficult)	16%	14%			
	More than 12th Grade (Difficult)	9%	5%			

 Table 3. Reading Level of LARC Information on SHC website

- 1. SHC and Wellness Center: In case of some universities the Wellness Center 343 website also contains many of the search query terms and is ranked higher than 344 SHC website by the search engine. For instance, the search query "Alabama A&M 345 University student health center" retrieves their Wellness Center website at top 346 rank and the SHC website is ranked second. The reason for this is that the 347 Wellness Center homepage mentions "student health" several times including in 348 its title. The SHC homepage, on the other hand, has the following title "John and 349 Ella Byrd McCain Health and Counseling Center - Alabama A&M University" 350 and just one instance of "student health" on the homepage. 351
- 2. Inconsistent Domain Name: Some SHC website use different domain name than 352 university. For example, the SHC website for University of Maine is 353 https://northernlighthealth.org/Locations/ 354 Eastern-Maine-Medical-Center/Locations/Primary-Care-Umaine. The 355 computational approach however identifies a different URL under umaine.edu 356 domain as the SHC website: https: 357 //umaine.edu/studentlife/parents-and-family/campus-healthcare/. This 358 web-page provides information about the SHC but it is not the SHC website; it 359 does not even include a hyperlink to the correct SHC website.
- 3. Mutable Ground Truth Data: Due to the dynamic nature of online content, the ground truth data for the task at hand may change. For instance, the SHC
   website for Wayne State College few months ago was
   https://www.wsc.edu/info/20026/campus\_life/80/student\_health\_office
   but now it has changed to https://health.wayne.edu. The algorithmic
   approach retrieves the correct URL but it does not match the now defunct ground
   truth URL.

### 3.2.2 LARC information accessibility measure: #Clicks

The accessibility measure, #Clicks, was applied to all 549 university SHC websites, to 369 compute the minimum number of clicks needed to reach LARC information on each 370 SHC website. The corresponding results are summarized in Table 2. A very small 371 fraction of the universities (2.36%) place LARC information on SHC homepage. A 372 quarter of the universities (25.15%) place LARC information 1 to 4 clicks away from the 373 SHC homepage. Majority of the schools (72.49%) do not provide any LARC information on their SHC website. If we consider 0-1 clicks as high accessibility, 2-3375 as moderate accessibility, and 4+ as low accessibility, then approximately the same 376 number of universities (70) are in the high and moderate accessibility range. Only one 377 university SHC is in the low accessibility range. 378

## 3.2.3 LARC information quality measure: Readability

The results for the two readability metrics, Flesch Reading Ease (FRE) and Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (FKGL), are summarized in Table 3. Of the 549 universities, 171 university SHC websites have LARC content. Majority of this subset (75% as per 382

368

FRE, and 81% as FKGL) provide LARC information in plain English (reading level 383 below 10th grade). Only 9% as per FRE, and 5% as per FKGL, universities had 384 information that would be considered difficult, higher than 12th grade level (File S5 File 385 provides a list of these universities.). The overall trend is that when LARC information 386 is provided on SHC website, it is generally readable/understandable to college students. 387

### STUDY 3: Factor analysis of LARC measures with 4 regional and other external factors 389

Access to LARC information can be associated with a myriad of factors ranging from 390 the institutional factors to contextual factors related to location [16, 17]. We examine a 391 few institutional level demographic variables (racial composition, gender composition) 392 and urbanicity at the county level as key factors related to university providing LARC 393 information on SHC website. Institutional level data is from Integrated Postsecondary 394 Education Data System and county level urbanicity is based on designations from the 395 Center of Disease Control 396

(https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data\_access/urban\_rural.htm).

#### 4.1Study 3: Methods

Our main analyses examine the associations between institutional demographic 399 variables and county urbanicity and having LARC information on the SHC website. We 400 estimate the association using standard logistic regression models. We present a series 401 of bivariate associations and multivariate association where we account for demographic 402 and urbanicity characteristics simultaneously and control for census region. This 403 analysis was conducted on same set of universities (549) as Study 2.

For the subset of 171 universities where LARC information was found on their SHC 405 website, we also analyzed the associations between demographic and urbanicity factors 406 with #Clicks (the minimum number of clicks to the LARC information on SHC website) 407 and the readability scores of the LARC information. Given the small sample we 408 examine difference using Chi-squared test for this analysis. 409

#### Study 3: Results 4.2

Table 4 presents odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for the association between 411 university demographic and location characteristics and having LARC information on 412 the SHC website. Columns 1-4 present bivariate relationship and column 5 presents the 413 multivariate relationship. Results from column 1 and 3 suggests that universities having 414 high rates of the student body who are African American (AA) or female are less likely 415 to provide LARC information on their SHC website. Results from column 4 suggest 416 that universities situated in more rural settings are less likely to provide LARC 417 information on their SHC websites. These three characteristics remain statistically 418 significant in multivariate regressions though the two demographic characteristics 419 become only marginally significant (column 5). 420

For the subset of universities that provide LARC information on their SHC websites, 421 we examine #Clicks values and readability scores. LARC information was usually found 422 between 0 to 4 clicks. Most schools with LARC information have details within 1 click 423 from the SHC homepage. There were limited systematic differences, except that at 424 universities with the highest proportion of African American students the number of 425 clicks was lower  $(\chi^2(6, N = 148) = 15.45, p < 0.05)$ . There were no systematic 426 differences for the readability scores. 427

398

404

307

Table 4. University Characteri	stics Associated with Having	g LARC information on				
SHC Website						
Outcome: Found Information about LARC on SHC Website						
Unversity Student Composition	0.00	0.501*				

Outcome: Found Information about LARC on SHC Website Unversity Student Composition					
Tertile of AA Students	0.69				$0.591^{*}$
2nd Tertile AA	(0.438 - 1.086) 0.576**				(0.335 - 1.041) 0.524*
3rd Tertile AA	(0.362 - 0.917)				(0.267 - 1.026
Tertile of Hisp Students		1.259			1.114
2nd Tertile Hisp		(0.786 - 2.018) 1.401			(0.666 - 1.863) 0.971
3rd Tertile Hisp		(0.878 - 2.234)			(0.535 - 1.761)
Tertile of Female Students					
2nd Tertile Female			0.751 (0.479 - 1.176)		0.79 (0.485 - 1.285
3rd Tertile Female			0.523***		0.609*
Urbanicity (Omitted group: Large central metro)			(0.326 - 0.839)		(0.360 - 1.030
Large fringe metro $(1M+)$				1.043 (0.557 - 1.954)	1.298 (0.673 - 2.501
Medium Metro (250,000-999,999)				0.658	0.573*
Small Metro (less than 250,000)				(0.377 - 1.147) 0.577*	(0.319 - 1.028 0.452**
Micropolitan (small town)				(0.314 - 1.061) 0.461**	(0.229 - 0.893 0.351***
No central town/rural				(0.245 - 0.866) 0.127***	(0.165 - 0.746) 0.103***
<b>a</b>				(0.0285 - 0.565)	
Constant	$0.508^{***}$ (0.373 - 0.692)	$0.312^{***}$ (0.221 - 0.439)	$0.508^{***}$ (0.373 - 0.692)	$0.563^{***}$ (0.374 - 0.846)	0.694 (0.283 - 1.700
Observations	543	543	543	544	541
Area Controls	No	No	No	No	Census Region

Notes. Robust 95% Confidence Intervals in parentheses. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1

# 5 Discussion

Together the results of our three studies suggest that LARC methods, despite being 429 among the most effective forms of contraception, are less well represented on SHC 430 websites compared to other common reproductive health services such as EC, condoms, 431 and Pap smears. In addition to finding that LARC methods were mentioned less often 432 than the other methods, Study 1 findings suggest that manual annotation may not be 433 the gold standard for research questions regarding online health information access. 434 Study 2 shows that while only 27.5% of the SHCs at U.S. public universities mention 435 LARC methods on their websites, at SHCs where LARC information is provided it has 436 fair accessibility in terms of navigation and readability. In addition, in Study 3 we 437 found that public universities with higher proportions of African American students and 438 female students were less likely to mention LARC information on their SHC websites. 439 Our results suggest that institutional demographic characteristics are associated with 440 access to LARC information for college students. Most importantly, informational 441 disparities may hinder access to and use of LARC methods in ways that could 442 potentially exacerbate pre-existing disparities by putting students at increased risk for 443 unplanned pregnancy. 444

Systematic manual and automated reviews as we have done here may offer an 445 innovative alternative to surveys in the assessment of reproductive health information 446 provided by SHCs. When previous studies have relied on surveys, there has been the 447 risk of low response rates and likely highly select responses from universities with strong 448 SHCs. In addition, surveys of staff and students at SHCs may not accurately reflect the 449 experiences of the full range of students attempting to access contraceptive information 450 through the SHCs. Our results suggest that human annotation is variable even with 451 simple predetermined rubrics, and thus automated methods may promise greater 452 reliability, especially for online information. The above studies demonstrate that the 453 data gathering process for online LARC information can be automated with high 454 accuracy. Study 3 results are supported by literature showing that African American 455 women access prescription contraceptive methods such as LARC at lower rates than 456

white women even after passage of the ACA [3]. There is also evidence that care provided at rural public health clinics may pose unnecessary barriers to LARC access or simply not provide LARC services [32].

## 5.1 Strengths and limitations

This study has several important strengths, the first being that it applies an 461 interdisciplinary approach to a traditional public health question, leveraging the 462 strengths of several disparate fields for a new and innovative approach. Moreover, our 463 results show that automated approaches can be used to efficiently scale data gathering 464 efforts in a systematic way, which can support longitudinal tracking studies that observe 465 the changes in online informational health data provided by organizations. Specifically, 466 while the results from the SHC website identification task revealed a lack of 467 standardization for SHC web addresses, the now-vetted algorithm could be deployed 468 periodically in the future to capture and monitor the dynamic nature of online LARC 469 information. Furthermore, we have shown that computational approaches could be 470 easily generalized to gather data from SHC websites about other health topics for 471 example the prevention of sexually transmitted infections such as HIV. 472

This study also has several limitations. Firstly, there is the contextual issue of ACA 473 coverage, which mandates contraceptive provision by SHCs but does not require that all 474 types of contraceptives be available and covered at SHCs. An inherent assumption of 475 our study is that one could expect accurate, accessible information about LARC 476 methods to be offered on an SHC website even if the services are not provided by the 477 SHC. The rationale for this is that posting the information on the website has a positive 478 impact on choice and safety for students [4] and is essentially low-cost or free. Yet given 479 the information available on the websites (or lack thereof), it was not possible for us to 480 fully ascertain which schools may be providing these services in their clinics. Additional 481 research is needed to understand the link between LARC information offered on SHC 482 website and service provision in SHC clinics. Another key limitation is that only a few 483 variables were examined as factors associated with LARC information and the 484 evaluation occurred at one point in time. To understand whether these associations are 485 casual, future studies would be needed in order to build a panel of relevant changes in 486 student demographics and LARC information. 487

# 6 Conclusion

SHCs have the potential to positively impact health-related outcomes for U.S. college 489 students by providing access to high-quality contraceptive information on their websites, 490 including information on LARC. Improving the low rate at which SHC websites 491 currently provide LARC information would be an effective and low-cost method of 492 improving health outcomes and well-being for college students. In addition, 493 interdisciplinary automated approaches for data collection such as the one we have 494 developed here hold promise for the future study of public health questions involving 495 online information. With repeated use, an automated approach could provide a reliable 496 method for monitoring changes in online health-related information over time. In 497 contrast to traditional survey research, our systematic approach revealed that even 498 groups perceived to be socioeconomically privileged, such as U.S. college students, can 499 experience different levels of access to basic health information and services such as 500 LARC methods based on predictors such as race and urban or rural geographic area. 501 This hidden disparity is often overlooked based on the commonly held assumption that 502 the provision of online information related to a health service can be interpreted as 503 evidence of the provision of that service, without taking into account the accessibility of 504

460

the online information regarding services for the target population. Future research is needed to test that assumption and explore the role of online information provision and accessibility in health service access, particularly for under-served populations.

Suppo	Supporting information			
<b>S1 File.</b> 1.	Table S1. List of 200 universities sampled for manual annotation in Study	509 510		
<b>S2 File.</b> 20, 2019.	Table S2. List of 33 universities that did not have SHC website as of Nov	511 512		
S3 File.	<b>File S3.</b> Details about evaluation of $\#$ Clicks algorithm.	513		
S4 File.	Table S4. Flesch Readability Ease (FRE) score interpretation table.	514		
<b>S5 File.</b> for LARC	<b>Table S5.</b> List of Universities with Reading Level higher than 12th grade information on their SHC website.	515 516		

# Acknowledgments

We thank students who contributed to data collection [list of students in alphabetical order]: Sabrina Gonzaga, Fungai Gora, Byron Mills. Student time was supported by a training grant from the National Institutes of Health, R25 MD011714.

# References

1.	Prescott HM. Student Bodies, Past and Present. Journal of American College	522
	Health. 2011;59(6):464–469. doi:10.1080/07448481.2011.562579.	523

- Cottrell E, Darney BG, Marino M, Templeton AR, Jacob L, Hoopes M, et al. Study protocol: a mixed-methods study of women's healthcare in the safety net after Affordable Care Act implementation–EVERYWOMAN. Health research policy and systems. 2019;17(1):58.
- 3. Johnston EM, McMorrow S. The Relationship Between Insurance Coverage and Use of Prescription Contraception by Race and Ethnicity: Lessons From the Affordable Care Act. Women's Health Issues. 2019;.
- Logan RG, Thompson EL, Vamos CA, Griner SB, Vázquez-Otero C, Daley EM. Is Long-Acting Reversible Contraceptive Use Increasing? Assessing Trends
   Among US College Women, 2008–2013. Maternal and child health journal. 2018;22(11):1639–1646.
- 5. Buhi ER, Marhefka SL, Hoban MT. The State of the Union: Sexual Health Disparities in a National Sample of US College Students. Journal of American College Health. 2010;58(4):337–346. doi:10.1080/07448480903501780.
- 6. Habel MA, Coor A, Beltran O, Becasen J, Pearson WS, Dittus P. The state of sexual health services at U.S. Colleges and Universities. Journal of American College Health. 2018;66(4):259–268. doi:10.1080/07448481.2018.1431896.

517

7.	Buhi ER, Daley EM, Oberne A, Smith SA, Schneider T, Fuhrmann HJ. Quality and accuracy of sexual health information web sites visited by young people. Journal of adolescent health. 2010;47(2):206–208.	541 542 543
8.	Harris K, Byrd K, Engel M, Weeks K, Ahlers-Schmidt CR. Internet-based information on long-acting reversible contraception for adolescents. Journal of primary care & community health. 2016;7(2):76–80.	544 545 546
9.	Walsh-Buhi ER, Helmy HL. Trends in long-acting reversible contraceptive (LARC) use, LARC use predictors, and dual-method use among a national sample of college women. Journal of American College Health. 2018;66(4):225–236.	547 548 549
10.	Vader AM, Walters ST, Roudsari B, Nguyen N. Where Do College Students Get Health Information? Believability and Use of Health Information Sources. Health Promotion Practice. 2011;12(5):713–722. doi:10.1177/1524839910369995.	550 551 552
11.	ACOG Committee Opinion No. 735: Adolescents and Long-Acting Reversible Contraception: Implants and Intrauterine Devices. Obstetrics & Gynecology. 2018;120(4):983–8.	553 554 555
12.	Finer LB, Jerman J, Kavanaugh ML. Changes in use of long-acting contraceptive methods in the United States, 2007–2009. Fertility and sterility. 2012;98(4):893–897.	556 557 558
13.	Kavanaugh ML, Jerman J, Finer LB. Changes in use of long-acting reversible contraceptive methods among US women, 2009–2012. Obstetrics and gynecology. 2015;126(5):917.	559 560 561
14.	Romero L, Pazol K, Warner L, Gavin L, Moskosky S, Besera G, et al. Vital signs: trends in use of long-acting reversible contraception among teens aged 15–19 years seeking contraceptive services—United States, 2005–2013. MMWR Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 2015;64(13):363.	562 563 564 565
15.	Finer LB, Zolna MR. Declines in unintended pregnancy in the United States, 2008–2011. New England Journal of Medicine. 2016;374(9):843–852.	566 567
16.	Nobles AL, Dredze M, Ayers JW. "Repeal and replace": increased demand for intrauterine devices following the 2016 presidential election. Contraception. 2019;99(5):293–295.	568 569 570
17.	Abma JC, Martinez GM. Sexual activity and contraceptive use among teenagers in the United States, 2011-2015. National health statistics reports. 2017;(104):1–23.	571 572 573
18.	Branum AM, Jones J. Trends in long-acting reversible contraception use among US women aged 15-44. 2015. US Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and; 2015.	574 575 576
19.	Sedgh G, Finer LB, Bankole A, Eilers MA, Singh S. Adolescent pregnancy, birth, and abortion rates across countries: levels and recent trends. Journal of Adolescent Health. 2015;56(2):223–230.	577 578 579
20.	ACOG Committee Opinion No. 699: Adolescent Pregnancy, Contraception, and Sexual Activity. Obstetrics & Gynecology. 2017;129(5):142–9.	580 581
21.	Donnelly KZ, Foster TC, Thompson R. What matters most? The content and concordance of patients' and providers' information priorities for contraceptive decision making. Contraception. 2014;90(3):280–287.	582 583 584

2018;97(5):405-410.

22.	Gibbs SE, Rocca CH, Bednarek P, Thompson KM, Darney PD, Harper CC. Long-acting reversible contraception counseling and use for older adolescents and nulliparous women. Journal of Adolescent Health. 2016;59(6):703–709.	585 586 587
23.	Pritt NM, Norris AH, Berlan ED. Barriers and facilitators to adolescents' use of long-acting reversible contraceptives. Journal of pediatric and adolescent gynecology. 2017;30(1):18–22.	588 589 590
24.	Hall KS, Ela E, Zochowski MK, Caldwell A, Moniz M, McAndrew L, et al. "I don't know enough to feel comfortable using them:" Women's knowledge of and perceived barriers to long-acting reversible contraceptives on a college campus. Contraception. 2016;93(6):556–564.	591 592 593 594
25.	Cabral MA, Schroeder R, Armstrong EM, El Ayadi AM, Gürel AL, Chang J, et al. Pregnancy Intentions, Contraceptive Knowledge And Educational Aspirations Among Community College Students. Perspectives on sexual and reproductive health. 2018;50(4):181–188.	595 596 597 598
26.	Hopkins K, Hubert C, Coleman-Minahan K, Stevenson AJ, White K, Grossman D, et al. Unmet demand for short-acting hormonal and long-acting reversible contraception among community college students in Texas. Journal of American College Health. 2018;66(5):360–368.	599 600 601 602
27.	Payne JB, Sundstrom B, DeMaria AL. A qualitative study of young women's beliefs about intrauterine devices: Fear of infertility. Journal of midwifery & women's health. 2016;61(4):482–488.	603 604 605
28.	Hadlow J, Pitts M. The understanding of common health terms by doctors, nurses and patients. Social science & medicine. 1991;32(2):193–196.	606 607
29.	Koch-Weser S, Dejong W, Rudd RE. Medical word use in clinical encounters. Health Expectations. 2009;12(4):371–382.	608 609
30.	Thompson CL, Pledger LM. Doctor-patient communication: is patient knowledge of medical terminology improving? Health Communication. 1993;5(2):89–97.	610 611
31.	Fields AM, Freiberg CS, Fickenscher A, Shelley KH. Patients and jargon: are we speaking the same language? Journal of clinical anesthesia. 2008;20(5):343–346.	612 613
32.	Bornstein M, Carter M, Zapata L, Gavin L, Moskosky S. Access to long-acting reversible contraception among US publicly funded health centers. Contraception.	614 615