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IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
FOR THE NORTHERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA

**STATE OF CALIFORNIA, STATE OF
DELAWARE, STATE OF MARYLAND,
STATE OF NEW YORK, STATE OF
VIRGINIA,**

Plaintiffs,

v.

**DON J. WRIGHT, IN HIS OFFICIAL
CAPACITY AS ACTING SECRETARY OF THE
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH & HUMAN
SERVICES; U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES; R.
ALEXANDER ACOSTA, IN HIS OFFICIAL
CAPACITY AS SECRETARY OF THE U.S.
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR; U.S.
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR; STEVEN
MNUCHIN, IN HIS OFFICIAL CAPACITY AS
SECRETARY OF THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
THE TREASURY; U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
THE TREASURY; DOES 1-100,**

Defendants.

4:17-cv-05783-HSG

**DECLARATION OF DR. LAWRENCE
FINER IN SUPPORT OF PLAINTIFFS'
MOTION FOR PRELIMINARY
INJUNCTION**

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I, Lawrence Finer, declare as follows:

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1. I am the Vice President for Domestic Research at the Guttmacher Institute, where I have worked since 1998. I hold an A.B. in psychology from Harvard University and a Ph.D. in population dynamics from the Johns Hopkins University School of Public Health.

2. The Guttmacher Institute is a private, independent, nonprofit, nonpartisan corporation that advances sexual and reproductive health and rights through an interrelated program of research, policy analysis, and public education. The Institute’s overarching goal is to ensure quality sexual and reproductive health for all people worldwide by conducting research according to the highest standards of methodological rigor and promoting evidence-based policies. It produces a wide range of resources on topics pertaining to sexual and reproductive health and publishes two peer-reviewed journals. The information and analysis it generates on reproductive health and rights issues are widely used and cited by researchers, policymakers, the media and advocates across the ideological spectrum.

3. Over the course of more than 20 years, I have designed, executed, and analyzed numerous quantitative and qualitative research studies in the field of reproductive health care and the demographics of and trends in fertility behaviors in the United States. My peer-reviewed research has been published in dozens of articles, including first-authored work in the *New England Journal of Medicine*, the *American Journal of Public Health*, *Obstetrics & Gynecology*, *Contraception*, *Pediatrics*, and many other public health, medical and demographic journals. I have served as principal investigator on multiple competitively funded research grants from the National Institutes of Health. I have given dozens of presentations at meetings and conferences of social science and medical professionals on a variety of reproductive health-related topics. My education, training, responsibilities and publications are set forth in greater detail in my curriculum vitae, a true and correct copy of which is attached as Exhibit A. I submit this declaration as an expert on unintended pregnancy and the demographics of reproductive health behaviors in the United States.

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4. I understand that this lawsuit involves a challenge to the federal government’s interim final rules (“IFRs”) regarding the Affordable Care Act’s (“ACA”) contraceptive coverage mandate. As noted above and set forth in my attached curriculum vitae, I am the author of numerous studies on demographic trends in unintended pregnancy and disparities in its incidence, and on contraception, including its use, efficacy, and importance for the prevention of unintended pregnancy. I am also familiar with the research literature on the effects of increased and decreased access to various forms of contraception as well as the literature on public family planning programs. In my expert opinion, the IFRs will compromise women’s ability to obtain contraceptive methods, services and counseling and, in particular, to consistently use the best methods for them, thus putting them at heightened risk of unintended pregnancy.

Contraception Is Widely Used and the Majority of Women Rely on Numerous Contraceptive Methods for Decades of Their Lives

5. More than 99% of women aged 15–44 who have ever had sexual intercourse have used at least one contraceptive method; this is true across a variety of religious affiliations.¹ Some 61% of all women of reproductive age are currently using a contraceptive method.² Among women at risk of an unintended pregnancy (i.e., women aged 15–44 who have had sexual intercourse in the past three months, are not pregnant or trying to conceive, and are not sterile for noncontraceptive reasons), 90% are currently using a contraceptive method.³

6. A typical woman in the United States wishing to have only two children will, on average, spend three decades—roughly 90% of her reproductive life—avoiding unintended pregnancy.⁴

¹ Daniels K, Mosher WD and Jones J, Contraceptive methods women have ever used: United States, 1982–2010, *National Health Statistics Reports*, 2013, No. 62, <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/nhsr.htm>.

² Kavanaugh ML and Jerman J, Contraceptive method use in the United States: trends and characteristics between 2008, 2012 and 2014, *Contraception*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/article/2017/10/contraceptive-method-use-united-states-trends-and-characteristics-between-2008-2012>.

³ Kavanaugh ML and Jerman J, Contraceptive method use in the United States: trends and characteristics between 2008, 2012 and 2014, *Contraception*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/article/2017/10/contraceptive-method-use-united-states-trends-and-characteristics-between-2008-2012>.

⁴ Sonfield A, Hasstedt K and Gold RB, *Moving Forward: Family Planning in the Era of Health Reform*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2014, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/moving-forward-family-planning-era-health-reform>.

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7. Women and couples rely on a wide range of contraceptive methods: In 2014, 25% of female contraceptive users relied on oral contraceptives and 15% on condoms as their most effective method. That means that six in 10 contraceptive users relied on other methods: female or male sterilization; hormonal or copper intrauterine devices (IUDs); hormonal methods including the injectable, the ring, the patch and the implant; and behavioral methods, such as withdrawal and fertility awareness methods.⁵

8. Most women rely on multiple methods over the course of their reproductive lives, with 86% having used three or more methods by their early 40s.⁶ Sometimes, women and couples may try out different methods to find one that they can use consistently or that minimizes side effects. Other times, they may switch from method to method—such as from condoms to oral contraceptives to sterilization—as their relationships, life circumstances and family goals evolve.

9. Many people use two or more methods at once: 17% of female contraceptive users did so the last time they had sex.⁷ For example, they may use condoms to prevent STIs and an IUD for the most reliable prevention of pregnancy. Or they may use multiple methods simultaneously—for instance, condoms, withdrawal and oral contraceptives—to provide extra pregnancy protection.

Women Need Access to the Full Range of Contraceptive Options to Most Effectively Avoid Unintended Pregnancies

10. Using any method of contraception greatly reduces a woman's risk of unintended pregnancy. Sexually active couples using no method of contraception have a roughly 85% chance

⁵ Kavanaugh ML and Jerman J, Contraceptive method use in the United States: trends and characteristics between 2008, 2012 and 2014, *Contraception*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/article/2017/10/contraceptive-method-use-united-states-trends-and-characteristics-between-2008-2012>

⁶ Daniels K, Mosher WD and Jones J, Contraceptive methods women have ever used: United States, 1982–2010, *National Health Statistics Reports*, 2013, No. 62, <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/nhsr.htm>.

⁷ Kavanaugh ML and Jerman J, Concurrent multiple methods of contraception in the United States, poster presented at the North American Forum on Family Planning, Atlanta, Oct. 14–16, 2017.

1 of experiencing a pregnancy in a one-year period, while the risk for those using a contraceptive
2 method ranges from 0.05% to 28%.^{8,9}

3 11. All new contraceptive drugs and devices (just like other drugs and devices) must
4 receive approval from the U.S. Food and Drug Administration and must be shown to be effective
5 through rigorous scientific testing. Thus, the federal government itself provides the oversight to
6 ensure that contraception is effective in preventing pregnancy.

7 12. The government's effort to imply in the IFRs that there is doubt about whether
8 contraception reduces the risk of unintended pregnancy is simply unfounded, as the data above
9 illustrate. Its assertions to the contrary are flawed. For example, the government argues, "In the
10 longer term—from 1972 through 2002—while the percentage of sexually experienced women
11 who had ever used some form of contraception rose to 98 percent, unintended pregnancy rates in
12 the United States rose from 35.4 percent to 49 percent."¹⁰

13 13. However, the government's assertion that unintended pregnancy rates rose
14 between 1972 and 2002 is incorrect and based on faulty calculations and an inappropriate
15 comparison. First, the numbers cited (35.4% and 49%) are the *percentage* of all pregnancies that
16 were unintended, not the unintended pregnancy *rate*, which is the appropriate indicator for
17 assessing trends in unintended pregnancy because it is not affected by changes in the incidence of
18 *intended* pregnancy. Second, the 1972 figure includes only *births* (not all pregnancies), and then
19 only those births that were to married women.¹¹ Births to unmarried women and all abortions are
20 excluded; the proportion of both of these that were unintended were significantly higher, so
21 excluding them results in an artificially low percentage. The 2002 figure, on the other hand,
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24 ⁸ Sundaram A et al., Contraceptive failure in the United States: estimates from the 2006-2010 National Survey of
25 Family Growth, *Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 2017, 49(1):7-16,
<https://www.guttmacher.org/journals/psrh/2017/02/contraceptive-failure-united-states-estimates-2006-2010-national-survey-family>.

26 ⁹ Trussell J, Contraceptive efficacy, in: Hatcher RA et al., eds., *Contraceptive Technology*, 20th ed., New York:
27 Ardent Media, 2011, pp. 779-863.

28 ¹⁰ Department of the Treasury, Department of Labor and Department of Health and Human Services, Religious
exemptions and accommodations for coverage of certain preventive services under the Affordable Care Act, *Federal Register*, 82(197):47838-47862, <https://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/FR-2017-10-13/pdf/2017-21852.pdf>.

¹¹ Weller RH and Heuser RL, Wanted and unwanted childbearing in the United States: 1968, 1969, and 1972
National Natality Surveys, *Vital and Health Statistics*, 1978, No. 32.

1 includes all pregnancies to all women. An appropriate comparison of rates based on pregnancies
2 and on all women in the population shows a clear decline in the rate: In 1971, there were an
3 estimated 2.041 million unintended pregnancies (including births and abortions, but excluding
4 miscarriages),¹² and 43.6 million women of reproductive age (15–44),¹³ for an unintended
5 pregnancy rate (excluding miscarriages) of 47 per 1,000 women. By contrast, in 2011, the
6 unintended pregnancy rate *including* miscarriages was 45 per 1,000.¹⁴ Even when including
7 miscarriages in the later rate, it is lower than the earlier rate; because miscarriages typically
8 represent about 14% of all pregnancies,¹⁵ excluding them from the 2011 figure for comparability
9 would result in a rate of about 38 per 1,000, substantially lower than the 1971 rate.

10 14. Although using any method of contraception is more effective in preventing
11 pregnancy than not using a method at all, having access to a *limited* set of methods is far different
12 than a woman being able to choose from among the full range of methods to find the *best*
13 methods for her at a given point in her life.

14 15. One important consideration for most women in a choosing a contraceptive
15 method is how well a method works for an individual woman to prevent pregnancy.¹⁶ IUDs and
16 implants, for example, are effective for years after they are inserted by a health care provider, and
17 do not require women using them to think about contraception on a day-to-day basis.¹⁷ By
18 contrast, birth control pills must be taken every day, at approximately the same time. Nearly half
19 of abortion patients who were users of birth control pills reported that they had forgotten to take
20 their pills, and another quarter reported a lack of ready access to their pills (16% were away from
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23 ¹² Tietze C, Unintended pregnancies in the United States, 1970–1972, *Family Planning Perspectives*, 1979,
11(3):186–188.

24 ¹³ National Center for Health Statistics, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Population by age groups, race,
and sex for 1960–1997, no date, <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/statab/pop6097.pdf>.

25 ¹⁴ Finer LB and Zolna MR, Declines in unintended pregnancy in the United States, 2008–2011, *New England Journal
of Medicine*, 2016, 374(9):843–852.

26 ¹⁵ Finer LB and Henshaw SK, Disparities in rates of unintended pregnancy in the United States, 1994 and 2001,
Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health, 2006, 38(2):90–96,
<https://www.guttmacher.org/journals/psrh/2006/disparities-rates-unintended-pregnancy-united-states-1994-and-2001>.

27 ¹⁶ Lessard LN et al., Contraceptive features preferred by women at high risk of unintended pregnancy, *Perspectives
on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 2012, 44(2):194–200.

28 ¹⁷ Winner B et al., Effectiveness of long-acting reversible contraception, *New England Journal of Medicine*,
366(21):1998–2007.

1 their pills and 10% ran out).¹⁸ Methods of contraception designed to be used during intercourse,
2 such as condoms or spermicide, must be available, accessible, remembered, and used properly
3 each time intercourse occurs.

4 16. Beyond effectiveness, there are many other features that people say are important
5 to them when choosing a contraceptive method.¹⁹ These include concerns about and past
6 experience with side effects, drug interactions or hormones; affordability and accessibility; how
7 frequently they expect to have sex; their perceived risk of HIV and other STIs; the ability to use
8 the method confidentially or without needing to involve their partner; and potential effects on
9 sexual enjoyment and spontaneity. For example, methods such as male condoms, fertility
10 awareness and withdrawal require the active and effective participation of male partners. By
11 contrast, methods such as IUDs, implants, and oral contraceptives can be more reliably used by
12 the woman alone in advance of intercourse.²⁰

13 17. Being able to select the methods that best fulfill a woman's needs and priorities is
14 important to ensuring she is satisfied with her chosen methods. Women who are satisfied with
15 their current contraceptive methods are more likely to use them consistently and correctly. For
16 example, one study found that 30% of neutral or dissatisfied users had a temporal gap in use,
17 compared with 12% of completely satisfied users.²¹ Similarly, 35% of satisfied oral contraceptive
18 users had skipped at least one pill in the past three months, compared with 48% of dissatisfied
19 users.²²

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23 ¹⁸ Jones RK, Darroch JE and Henshaw SK, Contraceptive use among U.S. women having abortions in 2000–2001, *Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 2002, 34(6): 294–303, <https://www.guttmacher.org/journals/psrh/2002/11/contraceptive-use-among-us-women-having-abortions-2000-2001>.

24 ¹⁹ Lessard LN et al., Contraceptive features preferred by women at high risk of unintended pregnancy, *Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 2012, 44(2):194–200.

25 ²⁰ Bailey MJ, More power to the pill: the impact of contraceptive freedom on women's life cycle labor supply, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 2006, 121(1): 289–320, <https://academic.oup.com/qje/article-abstract/121/1/289/1849021?redirectedFrom=fulltext>.

26 ²¹ Guttmacher Institute, Improving contraceptive use in the United States, *In Brief*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2008, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/improving-contraceptive-use-united-states>.

27 ²² Guttmacher Institute, Improving contraceptive use in the United States, *In Brief*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2008, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/improving-contraceptive-use-united-states>.

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18. Consistent contraceptive use helps women and couples prevent unwanted pregnancies and plan and space those they do want. The two-thirds of U.S. women (68%) at risk of unintended pregnancy who use contraceptives consistently and correctly throughout the course of any given year account for only 5% of all unintended pregnancies. In contrast, the 18% of women at risk who use contraceptives but do so inconsistently account for 41% of unintended pregnancies, and the 14% of women at risk who do not use contraceptives at all or have a gap in use of one month or longer account for 54% of unintended pregnancies.²³

19. In summary, the ability to choose from among the full range of contraceptive methods encourages consistent and effective contraceptive use, thereby helping women to avoid unintended pregnancies and to time and space wanted pregnancies.

Access to Contraception Does Not Increase Adolescent Sexual Activity

20. The federal government incorrectly suggests in the IFRs that increased access to contraception results in increased sexual behavior and has increased adolescent pregnancy rates in the “long term.” These assertions are unfounded and ignore rigorous research findings.²⁴

21. Adolescent pregnancy has declined dramatically over the past several decades: In 2013, the U.S. pregnancy rate among 15–19-year-olds was at its lowest point in at least 80 years and had dropped to about one-third of a recent peak rate in 1990.²⁵ The adolescent birthrate has continued to fall sharply from 2013–2016, suggesting that the underlying pregnancy rates have

²³ Sonfield A, Hasstedt K and Gold RB, *Moving Forward: Family Planning in the Era of Health Reform*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2014, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/moving-forward-family-planning-era-health-reform>.

²⁴ The government relies on one study to argue that “[p]rograms that increase access to contraception are found to decrease teen pregnancies in the short run but increase teen pregnancies in the long run.” This study is based on hypothetical models, with findings based on a set of assumptions feeding into a simulation, rather than evidence from actual programs and the resulting contraceptive behaviors. [See Arcidiacono, Khwaja A and Ouyang L, Habit persistence and teen sex: could increased access to contraception have unintended consequences for teen pregnancies? *Journal of Business and Economic Statistics*, 2012, 30(2):312–325.] By contrast, the bulk of the empirical literature demonstrates a clear connection between contraceptive use and lower rates of adolescent pregnancy. [See 21–24.]

²⁵ Kost K, Maddow-Zimet I and Arpaia A, *Pregnancies, Births and Abortions Among Adolescents and Young Women in the United States, 2013: National and State Trends by Age, Race and Ethnicity*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/us-adolescent-pregnancy-trends-2013>.

1 likely declined even further.²⁶ Over these decades, adolescents' sexual activity has not
2 increased—in fact, it has declined—while their contraceptive use has increased.

3 22. National data limited to adolescents attending high school document long-term
4 increases from 1991–2015 in the share of students using contraception, and decreases over the
5 same time period in the share of students who are sexually active.²⁷ Several studies have
6 validated that contraceptive access reduces adolescent pregnancy without increasing sexual
7 activity: The vast majority (86%) of the decline in adolescent pregnancy between 1995 and 2002
8 was the result of improvements in contraceptive use; only 14% could be attributed to a decrease
9 in sexual activity.²⁸ Further, when examining these same two factors, all of the decline in the
10 more recent 2007–2012 period was attributable to better contraceptive use: More adolescents
11 were using contraception, they were using more effective methods, and they were using them
12 more consistently, while adolescent sexual activity did not change.²⁹

13 23. Recent trends in adolescent contraceptive use buttress this point: During 2011–
14 2015, 81% of adolescent girls used contraception the first time they had sex, up from 75% in
15 2002; the share of adolescent girls who were sexually active stayed stable.^{30,31} Similarly, use of
16 emergency contraception among sexually active female adolescents increased from 8% in 2002 to
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21 ²⁶ Martin JA, Hamilton BE and Osterman MJK, Births in the United States, 2016, *NCHS Data Brief*, 2017, No. 287,
22 <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/databriefs.htm>.

23 ²⁷ National Center for HIV/AIDS, Viral Hepatitis, TD, and TB Prevention, Centers for Disease Control and
24 Prevention (CDC), *Trends in the Prevalence of Sexual Behaviors and HIV Testing National YRBS: 1991–2015*,
25 Atlanta: CDC, no date, https://www.cdc.gov/healthyouth/data/yrbs/pdf/trends/2015_us_sexual_trend_yrbs.pdf.

26 ²⁸ Santelli JS et al., Explaining recent declines in adolescent pregnancy in the United States: the contribution of
27 abstinence and improved contraceptive use, *American Journal of Public Health*, 2007, 97(1): 150–156,
28 <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1716232/>.

²⁹ Lindberg L, Santelli J and Desai S, Understanding the decline in adolescent fertility in the United States, 2007–
2012, *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 2016, 59(5): 577–583, [http://www.jahonline.org/article/S1054-139X\(16\)30172-0/fulltext](http://www.jahonline.org/article/S1054-139X(16)30172-0/fulltext).

³⁰ Martinez G, Copen CE and Abma JC, Teenagers in the United States: Sexual activity, contraceptive use, and
childbearing, 2006–2010 National Survey of Family Growth, *Vital Health Statistics*, 2011, Series 23, No. 31,
<https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/series/series23.htm>.

³¹ Abma JC and Martinez G, Sexual activity and contraceptive use among teenagers in the United States, 2011–2015,
National Health Statistics Reports, 2017, No. 104, <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/nhsr.htm>.

1 22% in 2011–2013; there was no significant change in sexual activity during this time.³² And in a
 2 2010 review of seven randomized trials of emergency contraception, there was no increase in
 3 sexual activity (e.g., reported number of sexual partners or number of episodes of unprotected
 4 intercourse) in adolescents given advanced access to emergency contraception.³³

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 6 24. Along the same lines, studies of the availability of contraception in high schools
 7 provide evidence that it does not lead to more sexual activity. Rather, while several studies of
 8 school-based health care centers that provide contraceptive methods have shown contraceptives'
 9 availability increases students' use of contraception,^{34,35} other studies have not found any
 10 associated increases in sexual activity.³⁶ And a recent review of studies of school-based condom
 11 availability programs found condom use increased the odds of students using condoms, while
 12 none increased sexual activity.³⁷

13
 14 **Eliminating the Cost of Contraception Leads to Improved Contraceptive Use and
 Reduces Women's Risk of Unintended Pregnancy**

15 25. Extensive empirical evidence demonstrates what common sense would predict:
 16 eliminating costs leads to more effective and continuous use of contraception. This is because
 17 cost can be a substantial barrier to contraceptive choice. The contraceptive methods that can be
 18 purchased over the counter at a neighborhood drugstore for a comparatively low cost—male

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 22 ³² Martinez GM and Abma JC, Sexual activity, contraceptive use, and childbearing of teenagers aged 15–19 in the
 United States, *NCHS Data Brief*, 2015, No. 209, <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/databriefs.htm>.

23 ³³ Meyer JL, Gold MA and Haggerty CL, Advance provision of emergency contraception among adolescent and
 young adult women: a systematic review of literature, *Journal of Pediatric and Adolescent Gynecology*, 2011,
 24 24(1):2–9, [http://www.jpagonline.org/article/S1083-3188\(10\)00203-2/fulltext](http://www.jpagonline.org/article/S1083-3188(10)00203-2/fulltext).

25 ³⁴ Minguez M et al., Reproductive health impact of a school health center, *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 2015, 56(3):
 26 338–344, <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25703321>.

27 ³⁵ Knopf FA et al., School-based health centers to advance health equity: a Community Guide systematic
 review, *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 2016, 51(1): 114–126, [http://www.ajpmonline.org/article/S0749-3797\(16\)00035-0/fulltext](http://www.ajpmonline.org/article/S0749-3797(16)00035-0/fulltext).

28 ³⁶ Kirby D, *Emerging Answers 2007: Research Findings on Programs to Reduce Teen Pregnancy and Sexually
 Transmitted Diseases*, Washington, DC: The National Campaign to Prevent Teen and Unplanned Pregnancy,
 2007, https://thenationalcampaign.org/sites/default/files/resource-primary-download/EA2007_full_0.pdf.

³⁷ Wang T et al., The effects of school-based condom availability programs (CAPs) on condom acquisition, use and
 sexual behavior: a systematic review, *AIDS and Behavior*, 2017, <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28625012>.

1 condoms and spermicide—are far less effective than methods that require a prescription and a
2 visit to a health care provider,³⁸ which have higher up-front costs.³⁹

3 26. The most effective methods of contraception are long-acting reversible
4 contraceptives (“LARC”), such as implants and IUDs. Even with discounts for volume, the cost
5 of these devices exceeds \$500, exclusive of costs relating to the insertion procedure,⁴⁰ and the
6 total cost of initiating one of these methods generally exceeds \$1,000.⁴¹ To put that cost in
7 perspective, beginning to use one of these devices costs nearly a month’s salary for a woman
8 working full time at the federal minimum wage of \$7.25 an hour.⁴² These costs are dissuasive for
9 many women not covered by the contraceptive coverage guarantee; one pre-ACA study
10 concluded that women who faced high out-of-pocket IUD costs were significantly less likely to
11 obtain an IUD than women with access to the device at low or no out-of-pocket cost. And only
12 25% of women who requested an IUD had one placed after learning the associated costs.⁴³ Even
13 oral contraceptives, which are twice as effective as condoms in practice, require a prescription
14 and a cost that is incurred every month. And although some stores offer certain pill formulations
15 at steep discounts, requiring a woman to change to a different formulation because of cost has the
16 potential for adverse health effects.

17 27. The government acknowledges that without coverage, many methods would cost
18 women \$50 per month, or upwards of \$600 per year, and in doing so, implies that such costs are a
19 minimal burden.⁴⁴ This is not true. About one-third of uninsured people and lower-income people
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23 ³⁸ Trussell J, Contraceptive efficacy, in: Hatcher RA et al., eds., *Contraceptive Technology*, 20th ed., New York:
Ardent Media, 2011, pp. 779–863.

24 ³⁹ Trussell J et al., Cost effectiveness of contraceptives in the United States, *Contraception*, 2009, 79(1):5–14.

25 ⁴⁰ Armstrong E et al., *Intrauterine Devices and Implants: A Guide to Reimbursement*, 2015,

https://www.nationalfamilyplanning.org/file/documents---reports/LARC_Report_2014_R5_forWeb.pdf.

26 ⁴¹ Eisenberg D et al., Cost as a barrier to long-acting reversible contraceptive (LARC) use in adolescents, *Journal of
Adolescent Health*, 2013, 52(4):S59–S63, [http://www.jahonline.org/article/S1054-139X\(13\)00054-2/fulltext](http://www.jahonline.org/article/S1054-139X(13)00054-2/fulltext).

27 ⁴² 29 U.S.C. § 206(a)(1)(C). At 40 hours a week, that amounts to \$290 a week, before any taxes or deductions.

⁴³ Garipey AM et al., The impact of out-of-pocket expense on IUD utilization among women
with private insurance, *Contraception*, 2011, 84(6):e39–e42, <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/1dz6d3cx>.

28 ⁴⁴ The government includes IUDs as one of the methods that costs \$50 per month. That is not accurate because an
IUD cannot be paid month to month, but instead requires a high up-front cost. Perhaps the government has confused
an IUD with another method that has recurring monthly costs, such as the patch or the ring.

1 would be unable to pay for an unexpected \$500 medical bill, and roughly another third would
2 have to borrow money or put it on a credit card and pay it back over time, with interest.⁴⁵

3 28. Without insurance coverage to defray or eliminate the cost, the large up-front costs
4 of the more-effective contraceptive methods put them out of reach for many women who
5 otherwise would want to use them, and drive women to less expensive and less effective methods.
6 In a study conducted prior to the contraceptive coverage guarantee, almost one-third of women
7 reported that they would change their contraceptive method if cost were not an issue.⁴⁶ This
8 figure was particularly high among women relying on male condoms and other less effective
9 methods such as withdrawal. A study conducted after the ACA had similar findings: among
10 women in the study who still lacked health insurance in 2015, 44% agreed that having insurance
11 would help them to afford and use birth control and 44% agreed that it would allow them to
12 choose a better method; 48% also agreed that it would be easier to use contraception consistently
13 if they had coverage.⁴⁷ Among insured women who still had a copayment using a prescription
14 method (e.g., those in grandfathered plans), 40% agreed that if the copayment were eliminated,
15 they would be better able to afford and use birth control, 32% agreed this would help them choose
16 a better method, and 30% agreed this would help them to use their methods of contraception more
17 consistently. Other studies have found that uninsured women are less likely to use the most
18 expensive (but most effective) contraceptive methods, such as IUDs, implants, and oral
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24 ⁴⁵ DiJulio B et al., Data note: Americans' challenges with health care costs, 2017, https://www.kff.org/health-costs/poll-finding/data-note-americans-challenges-with-health-care-costs/?utm_campaign=KFF-2017-March-Polling-Beyond-The-ACA.

25 ⁴⁶ Frost JJ and Darroch JE, Factors associated with contraceptive choice and inconsistent method use, United States, 2004, *Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 2008, 40(2):94–104, <https://www.guttmacher.org/journals/psrh/2008/factors-associated-contraceptive-choice-and-inconsistent-method-use-united>.

26 ⁴⁷ Bearak JM and Jones RK, Did contraceptive use patterns change after the Affordable Care Act? A descriptive analysis, *Women's Health Issues*, 2017, 27(3):316–321, [http://www.whijournal.com/article/S1049-3867\(17\)30029-4/fulltext](http://www.whijournal.com/article/S1049-3867(17)30029-4/fulltext).

1 contraceptives,⁴⁸ and are more likely than insured women to report using no contraceptive
2 method at all.^{49,50}

3 29. Reducing financial barriers is key to increasing access to effective contraception.
4 Notably, before the ACA provision went into effect, 28 states required private insurers that cover
5 prescription drugs to provide coverage of most or all FDA-approved contraceptive drugs and
6 devices.⁵¹ These programs gave women access at lower prices than if contraception were not
7 covered, but (at the time) all states still allowed insurers to require cost-sharing. Experience from
8 these states demonstrates that having insurance coverage matters.⁵² Privately insured women
9 living in states that required private insurers to cover prescription contraceptives were 64% more
10 likely to use some contraceptive method during each month a sexual encounter was reported than
11 women living in states with no such requirement, even after accounting for differences including
12 education and income.⁵³

13 30. Although these state policies reduced women's up-front costs, other actions to
14 eliminate out-of-pocket costs entirely—which is what the federal contraceptive coverage
15 guarantee has done for most privately insured women—have even greater potential to increase
16 effective contraceptive use. For example, when Kaiser Permanente Northern California
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19 ⁴⁸ Culwell KR and Feinglass J, The association of health insurance with use of prescription contraceptives, *Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 2007, 39(4):226–230.

20 ⁴⁹ Culwell KR and Feinglass J, The association of health insurance with use of prescription contraceptives, *Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 2007, 39(4):226–230.

21 ⁵⁰ Culwell KR and Feinglass J, Changes in prescription contraceptive use, 1995–2002: the effect of insurance coverage, *Obstetrics & Gynecology*, 2007, 110(6):1371–1378, <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18055734>.

22 ⁵¹ Guttmacher Institute, Insurance coverage of contraceptives, *State Policies in Brief (as of July 2012)*, 2012.

23 ⁵² The government asserts in the IFRs that “Additional data indicates that, in 28 States where contraceptive coverage mandates have been imposed statewide, those mandates have not necessarily lowered rates of unintended pregnancy (or abortion) overall.” The study the government relies on for this assertion was published in a law review rather than in a peer-reviewed scientific journal. [See New MJ, Analyzing the impact of state level contraception mandates on public health outcomes, *Ave Maria Law Review*, 2015, 13(2):345–369.] One basic flaw in this article is that, at the time, none of the state contraceptive coverage laws eliminated out-of-pocket costs entirely, which is the major advance from the federal guarantee and the issue in this case. In addition, over the course of the period the article evaluated, many states enacted contraceptive coverage laws in quick succession. [Sonfield et al. U.S. insurance coverage of contraceptives and impact of contraceptive coverage mandates, 2002, *Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 2004, 36(2):72–79, <https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/pubs/journals/3607204.pdf>.] Contraceptive coverage became the norm in the insurance industry—even in states without mandates—thus minimizing potential differences between states with laws and states without them.

27 ⁵³ Magnusson BM et al., Contraceptive insurance mandates and consistent contraceptive use among privately insured women, *Medical Care*, 2012, 50(7):562–568.

1 eliminated patient cost-sharing requirements for IUDs, implants, and injectables in 2002, the use
2 of these devices increased substantially, with IUD use more than doubling.⁵⁴ Another example
3 comes from a study of more than 9,000 St. Louis-region women who were offered the reversible
4 contraceptive method of their choice (i.e., any method other than sterilization) at no cost for two
5 to three years, and were “read a brief script informing them of the effectiveness and safety of”
6 IUDs and implants.⁵⁵ Three-quarters of those women chose long-acting methods (i.e., IUDs or
7 implants), a level far higher than in the general population. Likewise, a Colorado study found that
8 use of long-acting reversible contraceptive methods quadrupled when offered with no out-of-
9 pocket costs along with other efforts to improve access.⁵⁶

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11 31. Government-funded programs to help low-income people afford family planning
12 services provide further evidence that reducing or eliminating cost barriers to women’s
13 contraceptive choices has a dramatic impact on women’s ability to choose and use the most
14 effective forms of contraception. Each year, among the women who obtain contraceptive services
15 from publicly funded reproductive health providers, 57% select hormone-based contraceptive
16 methods, 18% use implants or IUDs, and 7% receive a tubal ligation.⁵⁷ It is estimated that without
17 publicly supported access to these methods at low or no cost, nearly half (47%) of those women
18 would switch to male condoms or other nonprescription methods, and 28% would use no
19 contraception at all.⁵⁸

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22 ⁵⁴ Postlethwaite D et al., A comparison of contraceptive procurement pre- and post-benefit change, *Contraception*,
2007, 76(5): 360–365

23 ⁵⁵ Peipert JF et al., *Preventing unintended pregnancies by providing no-cost contraception*, *Contraception*, 2012,
120(6):1291–1297.

24 ⁵⁶ Ricketts S, Klinger G and Schwalberg G, Game change in Colorado: widespread use of long-acting reversible
25 contraceptives and rapid decline in births among young, low-income women, *Perspectives on Sexual and*
26 *Reproductive Health*, 2014, 46(3):125–132.

27 ⁵⁷ Frost JJ and Finer LB, Unintended pregnancies prevented by publicly funded family planning services: Summary
28 of results and estimation formula, memo to interested parties, New York: Guttmacher Institute, June 23, 2017,
[https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/pubs/Guttmacher-Memo-on-Estimation-of-Unintended-
Pregnancies-Prevented-June-2017.pdf](https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/pubs/Guttmacher-Memo-on-Estimation-of-Unintended-Pregnancies-Prevented-June-2017.pdf).

⁵⁸ Frost JJ and Finer LB, Unintended pregnancies prevented by publicly funded family planning services: Summary
of results and estimation formula, memo to interested parties, New York: Guttmacher Institute, June 23, 2017,
[https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/pubs/Guttmacher-Memo-on-Estimation-of-Unintended-
Pregnancies-Prevented-June-2017.pdf](https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/pubs/Guttmacher-Memo-on-Estimation-of-Unintended-Pregnancies-Prevented-June-2017.pdf).

1

The ACA's Contraceptive Coverage Guarantee Has Had a Positive Impact

2 32. By ensuring coverage for a full range of contraceptive methods, services and
3 counseling at no cost, the ACA's contraceptive coverage mandate has had its intended effect of
4 removing cost barriers to obtaining contraception. Between fall 2012 and spring 2014 (during
5 which time the coverage guarantee went into wide effect), the proportion of privately insured
6 women who paid nothing out of pocket for the pill increased from 15% to 67%, with similar
7 changes for injectable contraceptives, the vaginal ring and the IUD.⁵⁹ Similarly, another study
8 found that since implementation of the ACA, the share of women of reproductive age (regardless
9 of whether they were using contraception) who had out-of-pocket spending on oral contraceptives
10 decreased from 21% in 2012 to just 4% in 2014.⁶⁰ These trends have translated into considerable
11 savings for U.S. women: one study estimated that pill and IUD users saved an average of about
12 \$250 in copayments in 2013 alone because of the guarantee.⁶¹

13 33. Prior to the ACA, contraceptives accounted for between 30–44% of out-of-pocket
14 health care spending for women.⁶² Individual women themselves say that the ACA's
15 contraceptive coverage guarantee is working for them. In a 2015 nationally representative survey
16 of women aged 18–39, two-thirds of those who had health insurance and were using a hormonal
17 contraceptive method reported having no copays; among those women, 80% agreed that paying
18 nothing out of pocket helped them to afford and use their birth control, 71% agreed this helped
19 them use their birth control consistently, and 60% agreed that having no copayment helped them
20 choose a better method.⁶³

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23 ⁵⁹ Sonfield A et al. Impact of the federal contraceptive coverage guarantee on out-of-pocket payments for
contraceptives: 2014 update, *Contraceptive*, 2015, 91(1):44–48.

24 ⁶⁰ Sobel L, Salganicoff A and Rosenzweig C, *The Future of Contraceptive Coverage*, Kaiser Family Foundation
(KFF) Issue Brief, Menlo Park, CA: KFF, 2017, <https://www.kff.org/womens-health-policy/issue-brief/the-future-of-contraceptive-coverage/>.

25 ⁶¹ Becker NV and Polsky D, Women saw large decrease in out-of-pocket spending for contraceptives after ACA
26 mandate removed cost sharing, *Health Affairs*, 2015, 34(7):1204–1211.

27 ⁶² Becker NV and Polsky D, Women saw large decrease in out-of-pocket spending for contraceptives after ACA
mandate removed cost sharing, *Health Affairs*, 2015, 34(7):1204–1211.

28 ⁶³ Bearak JM and Jones RK, Did contraceptive use patterns change after the Affordable Care Act? A descriptive
analysis, *Women's Health Issues*, 2017, 27(3):316–321, [http://www.whijournal.com/article/S1049-3867\(17\)30029-4/fulltext](http://www.whijournal.com/article/S1049-3867(17)30029-4/fulltext).

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34. Demonstrating the population-level impact of the ACA's coverage provision is complicated, because the provision affects only a subset of U.S. women, and because there are so many additional variables that may have affected women's contraceptive use in a number of ways. The evidence on whether the ACA's provision has affected contraceptive use at the population level is not definitive, but some studies suggest the guarantee has had an impact on contraceptive use, among those benefiting from the provision.

35. A study using claims data from 30,000 privately insured women in the Midwest found that the ACA's reduction in cost sharing was tied to a significant increase in the use of prescription methods from 2008 through 2014 (before and after the ACA provision went into effect), particularly long-acting methods.⁶⁴ Another study of health insurance claims from 635,000 privately insured women nationwide showed that rates of discontinuation and inconsistent use of contraception declined from 2010 to 2013 (again, before and after the ACA provision went into effect) among women using generic oral contraceptive pills after the contraceptive guarantee's implementation (among women using brand-name oral contraceptives, only the discontinuation rate declined).⁶⁵

36. Two other studies, looking at the broader U.S. population, found no change in overall use of contraception or an overall switch from less-effective to more-effective methods among women at risk of unintended pregnancy before and after the guarantee's implementation.^{66,67} However, both studies identified some positive trends among key groups. One of them found that between 2008 and 2014, among women aged 20–24 (the age group at highest risk for unintended pregnancy), LARC use more than doubled, from 7% to 19%, without

⁶⁴ Carlin CS, Fertig AR and Down BE, Affordable Care Act's mandate eliminating contraceptive cost sharing influenced choices of women with employer coverage, *Health Affairs*, 2016, 35(9):1608–1615.

⁶⁵ Pace LE, Dusetzina SB and Keating NL, Early impact of the Affordable Care Act on oral contraceptive cost sharing, discontinuation, and nonadherence, *Health Affairs*, 2016, 35(9):1616–1624.

⁶⁶ Bearak JM and Jones RK, Did contraceptive use patterns change after the Affordable Care Act? A descriptive analysis, *Women's Health Issues*, 2017, 27(3):316–321, [http://www.whijournal.com/article/S1049-3867\(17\)30029-4/fulltext](http://www.whijournal.com/article/S1049-3867(17)30029-4/fulltext).

⁶⁷ Kavanaugh ML and Jerman J, Contraceptive method use in the United States: trends and characteristics between 2008, 2012 and 2014, *Contraception*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/article/2017/10/contraceptive-method-use-united-states-trends-and-characteristics-between-2008-2012>.

1 a proportional decline in sterilization.⁶⁸ The other study showed that between 2012 and 2015, use
2 of prescription contraceptive methods, and birth control pills in particular, increased among
3 sexually inactive women, suggesting that more women were able to start a method before
4 becoming sexually active or use a method such as the pill for noncontraceptive reasons after
5 implementation of the contraceptive coverage guarantee.⁶⁹

6 37. There is also considerable empirical data from controlled experiments to confirm
7 that the concept of removing cost as a barrier to women's contraceptive use is a major factor in
8 reducing their risk for unintended pregnancy, and the abortions and unplanned births that would
9 otherwise follow. For example, a study of more than 9,000 St. Louis-region women who were
10 offered the reversible contraceptive method of their choice at no cost found that the number of
11 abortions performed at St. Louis Reproductive Health Services declined by 21%.⁷⁰ Study
12 participants' abortion rate was significantly lower than the rate in the surrounding St. Louis
13 region, and less than half the national average.⁷¹ Similarly, when access to both contraception and
14 abortion increased in Iowa, the abortion rates actually declined.⁷² Starting in 2006, the state
15 expanded access to low- or no-cost family planning services through a Medicaid expansion and a
16 privately funded initiative serving low-income women. Despite a simultaneous increase in access
17 to abortion—the number of clinics offering abortions in the state actually doubled during the
18 study period—the abortion rate dropped by over 20%.

19 **Expanding Exemptions Will Harm Women**

20 38. The IFRs will make it more difficult, once again, for those receiving insurance
21 coverage through companies or schools that use the exemption (i.e., employees, students and
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23 ⁶⁸ Kavanaugh ML and Jerman J, Contraceptive method use in the United States: trends and characteristics between
24 2008, 2012 and 2014, *Contraception*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/article/2017/10/contraceptive-method-use-united-states-trends-and-characteristics-between-2008-2012>.

25 ⁶⁹ Bearak JM and Jones RK, Did contraceptive use patterns change after the Affordable Care Act? A descriptive
26 analysis, *Women's Health Issues*, 2017, 27(3):316–321, [http://www.whijournal.com/article/S1049-3867\(17\)30029-4/fulltext](http://www.whijournal.com/article/S1049-3867(17)30029-4/fulltext).

27 ⁷⁰ Peipert JF et al., *Preventing unintended pregnancies by providing no-cost contraception*, *Contraception*, 2012,
120(6):1291–1297.

28 ⁷¹ Peipert JF et al., *Preventing unintended pregnancies by providing no-cost contraception*, *Contraception*, 2012,
120(6):1291–1297.

⁷² Biggs MA, Did increasing use of highly effective contraception contribute to declining abortions in Iowa?
Contraception, 2015, 91(2):167–173.

1 dependents) to access the methods of contraception that are most acceptable and effective for
2 them. That, in turn, will increase those women's risk of unintended pregnancy and interfere with
3 their ability to plan and space wanted pregnancies. These barriers could therefore have
4 considerable negative health, social and economic impacts for those women and their families.

5 39. Allowing employers or schools to exclude all contraceptive methods, services and
6 counseling from insurance plans—or to cover some contraceptive methods, services and
7 information but not others—will prevent women from selecting and obtaining the methods of
8 contraception that will work best for them. For example, Hobby Lobby objected to providing four
9 specific contraceptive methods, including copper and hormonal IUDs, which are among the most
10 effective forms of pregnancy prevention and also have among the highest up-front costs.

11 40. Allowing employers to restrict access to the full range of contraceptive methods
12 and to approve coverage only for those they deem acceptable places inappropriate constraints on
13 women who depend on insurance to obtain the methods best suited to their needs. Moreover, in
14 the absence of coverage, the financial cost of obtaining a method, and the fact that some methods
15 have higher costs than others, would incentivize women to select methods that are inexpensive,
16 rather than methods that are best suited to their needs and that they are therefore most likely to
17 use consistently and effectively (see 10–19, above).

18 41. Excluding coverage for some or all contraceptive methods, services and
19 counseling could deny women the ability to obtain contraceptive counseling and services from
20 their desired provider at the same time they receive other primary and preventive care.^{73,74} A
21 woman going to her gynecologist for an annual examination, for example, may have to go to a
22 different provider to be prescribed (or even discuss) contraception. This disjointed approach
23 increases the time, effort and expense involved in getting needed contraception and interferes
24 with her ability to obtain care from the provider of her choice.

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27 ⁷³ Leeman L, Medical barriers to effective contraception, *Obstetrics and Gynecology Clinics of North America*, 2007,
34(1):19–29.

28 ⁷⁴ World Health Organization, Selected Practice Recommendations for Contraceptive Use, Third Ed., 2016, WHO:
Geneva, Switzerland, <http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/252267/1/9789241565400-eng.pdf>.

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42. Isolating contraceptive coverage in this way also would interfere with the ability of health care providers to treat women holistically. A woman's choice of contraception can be affected by her other medical conditions (e.g., diabetes, HIV, depression/mental health), and certain medications can significantly reduce the effectiveness of some methods of contraception, so a woman's chosen provider should be able to manage all health conditions and needs at the same time.^{75,76}

43. To the extent that expanding the exemptions will burden women's contraceptive use in these ways, it will be harmful to women's health. Contraception allows women to avoid unintended pregnancies and to time and space wanted pregnancies, all of which have been demonstrated to improve women's health and that of their families. Specifically, pregnancies that occur too early or too late in a woman's life, or that are spaced too closely, negatively affect maternal health and increase the risk of harmful birth outcomes, including preterm birth, low birth weight, stillbirth, and early neonatal death.⁷⁷ Closely spaced pregnancies are associated with increased risk of harmful birth outcomes.^{78,79,80} Contraceptive use can also prevent preexisting health conditions from worsening and new health problems from occurring, because pregnancy can exacerbate existing health conditions such as diabetes, hypertension and heart disease.⁸¹ Unintended pregnancy also affects women's mental health; notably, it is a risk factor for

⁷⁵ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, *US Medical Eligibility Criteria for Contraceptive Use, 2016*, <https://www.cdc.gov/reproductivehealth/contraception/mmwr/mec/summary.html>.

⁷⁶ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, U.S. medical eligibility criteria for contraceptive use, 2010, *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*, May 28, 2010, Vol. 59, <https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/pdf/rr/rr59e0528.pdf>.

⁷⁷ Kavanaugh ML and Anderson RM, *Contraception and Beyond: The Health Benefits of Services Provided at Family Planning Centers*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2013, <http://www.guttmacher.org/report/contraception-and-beyond-health-benefits-services-provided-family-planning-centers>.

⁷⁸ Wendt A et al., Impact of increasing inter-pregnancy interval on maternal and infant health, *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology*, 2012, 26(Suppl. 1):239–258.

⁷⁹ Conde-Agudelo A, Rosas-Bermúdez A and Kafury-Goeta AC, Birth spacing and risk of adverse perinatal outcomes: a meta-analysis, *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 2006, 295(15):1809–1823.

⁸⁰ Gipson JD, Koenig MA and Hindin MJ, The effects of unintended pregnancy on infant, child, and parental health: a review of the literature, *Studies in Family Planning*, 2008, 39(1):18–38.

⁸¹ Lawrence HC, Testimony of American Congress of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, submitted to the Committee on Preventive Services for Women, Institute of Medicine, 2011, <http://www.nationalacademies.org/hmd/~media/8BA65BAF76894E9EB8C768C01C84380E.ashx>.

1 depression in adults.^{82,83} For these reasons, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
 2 included the development of and improved access to methods of family planning among the 10
 3 great public health achievements of the 20th century because of its numerous benefits to the
 4 health of women and children.⁸⁴

5 44. The government implies in the IFRs that contraception may have negative health
 6 consequences that outweigh its benefits. Again, this is demonstrably false, and the government
 7 itself provides the oversight to ensure that it is false. Notably, the U.S. Food and Drug
 8 Administration's approval processes require that drugs and devices, including contraceptives, be
 9 proven safe through rigorous controlled trials. In addition, the Centers for Disease Control and
 10 Prevention publish extensive recommendations to help clinicians and patients identify potential
 11 contraindications and decide which specific contraceptive methods are most appropriate for each
 12 patient's specific needs and health circumstances.^{85,86} Medical experts, such as the American
 13 College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, concur that contraception is safe and has clear health
 14 benefits that outweigh any potential side effects.⁸⁷

15 45. Expanding the exemptions to the contraceptive coverage requirement will also
 16 have negative social and economic consequences for women, families and society. By enabling
 17 them to reliably time and space wanted pregnancies, women's ability to obtain and effectively use
 18 contraception promotes their continued educational and professional advancement, contributing
 19 to the enhanced economic stability of women and their families.⁸⁸ Economic analyses have found
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21 ⁸² Herd P et al., The implications of unintended pregnancies for mental health in later life, *American Journal of*
 22 *Public Health*, 2016, 106(3):421–429.

23 ⁸³ U.S. Preventive Services Task Force, Screening for depression in adults: recommendation statement, *American*
 24 *Family Physician*, 2016, 94(4):340A–340D, <http://www.aafp.org/afp/2016/0815/od1.html>.

25 ⁸⁴ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Achievements in public health, 1900–1999: family planning,
 26 *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*, 1999, 48(47): 1073–1080.

27 ⁸⁵ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, *US Medical Eligibility Criteria for Contraceptive Use*, 2016,
 28 <https://www.cdc.gov/reproductivehealth/contraception/mmwr/mec/summary.html>.

⁸⁶ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, U.S. medical eligibility criteria for contraceptive use, 2010, *Morbidity*
 and *Mortality Weekly Report*, May 28, 2010, Vol. 59, <https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/pdf/rr/rr59e0528.pdf>.

⁸⁷ Brief of *Amici Curiae*, American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, Physicians for Reproductive Health,
 American Academy of Family Physicians, American Nurses Association, et al., *Zubik v. Burwell*, 2016,
<http://www.scotusblog.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/Docfoc.com-Amicus-Brief-Zubik-v.-Burwell.pdf>.

⁸⁸ Sonfield A et al., *The Social and Economic Benefits of Women's Ability to Determine Whether and When to Have*
Children, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2013, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/social-and-economic-benefits-womens-ability-determine-whether-and-when-have-children>.

1 positive associations between women’s ability to obtain and use oral contraceptives and their
2 education, labor force participation, average earnings and a narrowing of the gender-based wage
3 gap.⁸⁹ Moreover, the primary reasons women give for why they use and value contraception are
4 social and economic: In a 2011 study, a majority of women reported that access to contraception
5 had enabled them to take better care of themselves or their families (63%), support themselves
6 financially (56%), stay in school or complete their education (51%), or get or keep a job or pursue
7 a career (50%).⁹⁰

8 46. The government argues that expanding the exemption will not impose any real
9 harm, suggesting that the women most at risk for unintended pregnancy are not likely to be
10 covered by employer-based group health plans or by student insurance sponsored by a college or
11 university. This argument is misleading. Low-income women, women of color and women aged
12 18–24 are at disproportionately high risk for unintended pregnancy,⁹¹ and millions of these
13 women rely on private insurance coverage—particularly following implementation of the ACA.
14 In fact, from 2013 to 2015, the proportion of women overall and of women living below the
15 poverty level who were uninsured each dropped by roughly one-third nationwide, declines driven
16 by substantial increases in both Medicaid and private insurance coverage.⁹² In addition, the ACA
17 specifically expanded coverage for people aged 26 and younger, allowing them to remain covered
18 as dependents on their parents’ plans, regardless of whether the young woman is working herself
19 or attending college or university.

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24 ⁸⁹ Sonfield A et al., *The Social and Economic Benefits of Women’s Ability to Determine Whether and When to Have Children*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2013, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/social-and-economic-benefits-womens-ability-determine-whether-and-when-have-children>.

25 ⁹⁰ Frost JJ and Lindberg LD, Reasons for using contraception: perspectives of U.S. women seeking care at
26 specialized family planning clinics, 2012, *Contraception*,
<http://www.guttmacher.org/pubs/journals/j.contraception.2012.08.012.pdf>.

27 ⁹¹ Finer LB and Zolna MR, Declines in unintended pregnancy in the United States, 2008–2011, *New England Journal of Medicine*, 2016, 374(9):843–852.

28 ⁹² Guttmacher Institute, Uninsured rate among women of reproductive age has fallen more than one-third under the Affordable Care Act, *News in Context*, Nov. 17, 2016, <https://www.guttmacher.org/article/2016/11/uninsured-rate-among-women-reproductive-age-has-fallen-more-one-third-under>.

Medicaid, Title X and State Coverage Requirements Cannot Substitute for the Federal Contraceptive Coverage Guarantee

47. The government claims that “[i]ndividuals who are unable to obtain contraception coverage through their employer-sponsored health plans because of the exemptions created in these interim final rules ... have other avenues for obtaining contraception...”⁹³ But the programs and laws the government highlights—the Title X national family planning program, Medicaid, and state contraceptive coverage requirements—simply cannot replicate or replace the gains in access made by the contraceptive coverage guarantee.

48. Many women who have the benefit of the ACA’s contraceptive coverage mandate are not eligible for free or subsidized care under Title X. Title X provides no-cost family planning services to people living at or below 100% of the federal poverty level (\$12,060 for a single person in 2017),⁹⁴ and provides services on a sliding fee scale between 100% and 250% of poverty; women above 250% of poverty must pay the full cost of care. By contrast, the federal contraceptive coverage guarantee eliminates out-of-pocket costs for contraception regardless of income.

49. Funding for Title X has not increased sufficiently for the program to even keep up with the increasing number of women in need of publicly funded care;⁹⁵ therefore, Title X cannot sustain additional beneficiaries as a result of the IFRs. From 2010 to 2014, even as the number of women in need of publicly funded contraceptive care grew by 5%, representing an additional 1 million women in need,⁹⁶ Congress cut funding for Title X by 10%.⁹⁷ With its current resources,

⁹³ Department of the Treasury, Department of Labor and Department of Health and Human Services, Religious exemptions and accommodations for coverage of certain preventive services under the Affordable Care Act, *Federal Register*, 82(197):47838–47862, <https://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/FR-2017-10-13/pdf/2017-21852.pdf>.

⁹⁴ Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, U.S. federal poverty guidelines used to determine financial eligibility for certain federal programs, 2017, <https://aspe.hhs.gov/poverty-guidelines>.

⁹⁵ Women in need of publicly funded contraceptive services are defined as those women who a) are younger than 20 or are poor or low-income (i.e., have a family income less than 250% of the federal poverty level) and b) are sexually active and able to become pregnant but do not want to become pregnant. See Frost JJ, Frohwirth L and Zolna MR, *Contraceptive Needs and Services, 2014 Update*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2016, https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/report_pdf/contraceptive-needs-and-services-2014_1.pdf.

⁹⁶ Frost JJ, Frohwirth L and Zolna MR, *Contraceptive Needs and Services, 2014 Update*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2016, https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/report_pdf/contraceptive-needs-and-services-2014_1.pdf.

⁹⁷ Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Population Affairs, Funding history, 2017, <https://www.hhs.gov/opa/title-x-family-planning/about-title-x-grants/funding-history/index.html>.

1 Title X is only able to serve one-fifth of the nationwide need for publicly funded contraceptive
2 care.⁹⁸

3 50. Similarly, many women who would lose private insurance coverage of
4 contraception under the federal government's expanded exemption would not be eligible for
5 Medicaid. Eligibility for Medicaid varies widely from state to state, particularly in the 19 states
6 that have not expanded Medicaid eligibility under the ACA. In 18 of those 19 states, nondisabled,
7 nonelderly childless adults do not qualify for Medicaid at any income level, and eligibility for
8 parents is as low as 18% of the federal poverty level in Texas.⁹⁹ Nine of these 19 states have
9 expanded eligibility specifically for family planning services to people otherwise ineligible for
10 full-benefit Medicaid; those income eligibility levels also vary considerably.^{100,101} Again, the
11 federal contraceptive coverage guarantee applies regardless of income. Notably, the U.S.
12 Supreme Court has ruled that states cannot be compelled by the federal government to expand
13 Medicaid eligibility, so the federal government cannot rely on Medicaid to fill in gaps in coverage
14 that would result from expanding the exemption.

15 51. The federal government's assertion that Title X and Medicaid can replace or
16 replicate the ACA's contraception coverage guarantee is additionally problematic given that the
17 government itself is at the same time proposing to cut funding for Title X and Medicaid or
18 otherwise undermine the programs. For example, the government's FY 2018 budget proposal
19 sought to exclude Planned Parenthood Federation of America and its affiliates from Title X,
20 Medicaid and other federal programs;¹⁰² Planned Parenthood health centers serve 32% of all
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22 ⁹⁸ Frost JJ, Frohwirth L and Zolna MR, *Contraceptive Needs and Services, 2014 Update*, New York: Guttmacher
23 Institute, 2016, https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/report_pdf/contraceptive-needs-and-services-2014_1.pdf.

24 ⁹⁹ Kaiser Family Foundation, Medicaid income eligibility limits for adults as a percent of the federal poverty level,
2017, State Health Facts, <https://www.kff.org/health-reform/state-indicator/medicaid-income-eligibility-limits-for-adults-as-a-percent-of-the-federal-poverty-level>.

25 ¹⁰⁰ Guttmacher Institute, Medicaid family planning eligibility expansions, *State Laws and Policies (as of October 2017)*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/state-policy/explore/medicaid-family-planning-eligibility-expansions>.

26 ¹⁰¹ Kaiser Family Foundation, Status of state action on the Medicaid expansion decision, 2017, State Health
27 Facts, <https://www.kff.org/health-reform/state-indicator/state-activity-around-expanding-medicaid-under-the-affordable-care-act/>.

28 ¹⁰² Hasstedt K, Beyond the rhetoric: the real-world impact of attacks on Planned Parenthood and Title X, *Guttmacher Policy Review*, 2017, 20:86–91, <https://www.guttmacher.org/gpr/2017/08/beyond-rhetoric-real-world-impact-attacks-planned-parenthood-and-title-x>.

1 female contraceptive clients who obtain care from a safety-net family planning center, and 41%
 2 of all Title X clients.¹⁰³ Moreover, the FY 2018 budget called for massive cuts to Medicaid
 3 (somewhere between \$610 billion and \$1.4 trillion over a 10-year period¹⁰⁴), and the Department
 4 of Health and Human Services has encouraged states to revamp their Medicaid programs in ways
 5 that would restrict program eligibility (e.g., by imposing work requirements) and thereby interfere
 6 with coverage and care.¹⁰⁵ In addition, a White House memo that was leaked to the press in
 7 October 2017 included a request to cut funding for Title X at least by half, which would
 8 fundamentally undermine the program's mandate to deliver affordable, high-quality contraceptive
 9 care.¹⁰⁶ The administration has strongly backed similar congressional proposals for cutting and
 10 limiting access to Title X and Medicaid.

11 52. Policymakers in many states have also restricted publicly funded family planning
 12 programs and providers, further undermining the ability of these programs to serve those affected
 13 by the expanded exemption.¹⁰⁷

14 53. Neither can state-specific contraceptive coverage laws replicate or replace the
 15 increase in access to contraception provided by the ACA's contraceptive coverage guarantee.
 16 Twenty-two states and the District of Columbia, home to 43% of women of reproductive age in
 17 2016,¹⁰⁸ have no such laws at all.¹⁰⁹ Of the 28 states that do have contraceptive coverage
 18 requirements, only four currently bar copayments and deductibles for contraception (and another
 19 four states have new requirements not yet in effect). Additionally, the federal requirement limits
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21 ¹⁰³ Frost JJ et al., *Publicly Funded Contraceptive Services at U.S. Clinics, 2015*, New York: Guttmacher Institute,
 22 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/publicly-funded-contraceptive-services-us-clinics-2015>.

23 ¹⁰⁴ Luhby T, Not even the White House knows how much it's cutting Medicaid, *CNN*, May 24, 2017,
 24 <http://money.cnn.com/2017/05/24/news/economy/medicaid-budget-trump/index.html>.

25 ¹⁰⁵ Sonfield A, Efforts to transform the nature of Medicaid could undermine access to reproductive health care,
 26 *Guttmacher Policy Review*, 2017, 20:97–102, [https://www.guttmacher.org/gpr/2017/10/efforts-transform-nature-](https://www.guttmacher.org/gpr/2017/10/efforts-transform-nature-medicaid-could-undermine-access-reproductive-health-care)
 27 [medicaid-could-undermine-access-reproductive-health-care](https://www.guttmacher.org/gpr/2017/10/efforts-transform-nature-medicaid-could-undermine-access-reproductive-health-care).

28 ¹⁰⁶ Beutler B, Leaked memo reveals White House wish list, *Crooked*, Oct. 19, 2017,
<https://crooked.com/article/leaked-memo-reveals-white-house-wish-list/>.

¹⁰⁷ Gold RB and Hasstedt K, Publicly funded family planning under unprecedented attack, *American Journal of*
Public Health, 2017, 107(12):1895–1897, <http://ajph.aphapublications.org/doi/pdf/10.2105/AJPH.2017.304124>.

¹⁰⁸ Department of Health and Human Services, National Center for Health Statistics, Bridged-Race Population
 Estimates, United States July 1st resident population by state, county, age, sex, bridged-race, and Hispanic origin,
 accessed on Nov. 3, 2017, <http://wonder.cdc.gov/bridged-race-v2016.html>.

¹⁰⁹ Guttmacher Institute, Insurance coverage of contraceptives, *State Laws and Policies (as of October 2017)*,
 2017, <http://www.guttmacher.org/state-policy/explore/insurance-coverage-contraceptives>.

1 the use of formularies and other administrative restrictions on women's use of contraceptive
2 services and supplies, by making it clear that health plans can only influence a patient's choice
3 within a specific contraceptive method category (e.g., to favor one hormonal IUD over another)
4 and not across methods (e.g., to favor the pill over the ring).¹¹⁰ Few of the state laws include
5 similar protections. Similarly, most of the 28 state requirements do not specifically require
6 coverage of all 18 distinct methods that the federal requirement encompasses. For example, only
7 three states currently require coverage of female sterilization, and few state laws make explicit
8 distinctions between methods that some insurance plans have attempted to treat as
9 interchangeable (such as hormonal versus copper IUDs, or the contraceptive patch versus the
10 contraceptive ring).¹¹¹ Finally, state laws cannot regulate self-insured employers at all, and those
11 employers account for 60% of all workers with employer-sponsored health coverage.¹¹²

State-Specific Impacts

13 54. The interim final rules will have public health and fiscal impacts in states across
14 the country. If unable to access contraception coverage through their employer or university,
15 some lower-income women who meet the strict income requirements of public programs will rely
16 on publicly funded services to access this beneficial service. Many women who lose or lack
17 contraceptive coverage because their employer or university objects, however, will not meet the
18 strict income and eligibility requirements of public programs, and if as a result they are not using
19 their preferred or the most effective methods for them, or if cost forces them to forgo
20 contraceptive use periodically or altogether, they will be at increased risk of unintended
21 pregnancy. The costs of the resulting unintended pregnancies often then fall to the states because
22 the federal government cannot or will not withstand these costs.

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26 ¹¹⁰ Department of Labor, FAQs about Affordable Care Act implementation (part XXVI), May 11, 2015,
<https://www.dol.gov/sites/default/files/ebsa/about-ebsa/our-activities/resource-center/faqs/aca-part-xxvi.pdf>.

27 ¹¹¹ Guttmacher Institute, Insurance coverage of contraceptives, *State Laws and Policies (as of October 2017)*,
2017, <http://www.guttmacher.org/state-policy/explore/insurance-coverage-contraceptives>.

28 ¹¹² Claxton G et al., *Employer Health Benefits: 2017 Annual Survey*, Menlo Park, CA: Kaiser Family Foundation;
and Chicago: Health Research & Educational Trust, 2017, <https://www.kff.org/report-section/ehbs-2017-section-10-plan-funding/>.

1

California

2 55. In California, some women impacted by the IFRs will not qualify for Medicaid,
3 the state's Medicaid family planning expansion (Family PACT) or Title X because they will not
4 meet the income eligibility requirements for coverage or subsidized care under these programs.

5 56. For example, in California, childless adults and parents are only eligible for full-
6 benefit Medicaid if they have incomes at or below 138% of the federal poverty level,¹¹³ and
7 individuals are eligible for coverage of family planning services specifically under Family PACT
8 up to 200% of poverty.¹¹⁴ This means that affected women who lose coverage as a result of the
9 rules may not be eligible.
10

11 57. As a result, some women will be at increased risk of unintended pregnancy, either
12 because they are not able to afford the methods that work best for them, or because cost will force
13 them to forgo contraception use entirely.
14

15 58. Other women will be eligible for and rely on publicly funded family planning
16 services through programs such as Medicaid, Family PACT and Title X. Those women could be
17 denied the ability to obtain contraceptive counseling and services from their desired provider at
18 the same time they receive other primary and preventive care, increasing the time, effort and
19 expense involved in getting needed contraception. In addition, isolating contraceptive coverage in
20 this way will interfere with the ability of health care providers to manage all of a woman's health
21 conditions and needs at the same time.
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23 59. The increase in the number of women relying on publicly funded services will add
24 additional strain to the state's family planning programs and providers, making it more difficult
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26 ¹¹³ Kaiser Family Foundation, Medicaid income eligibility limits for adults as a percent of the federal poverty level,
27 2017, State Health Facts, <https://www.kff.org/health-reform/state-indicator/medicaid-income-eligibility-limits-for-adults-as-a-percent-of-the-federal-poverty-level>.

28 ¹¹⁴ Guttmacher Institute, Medicaid family planning eligibility expansions, *State Laws and Policies (as of October 2017)*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/state-policy/explore/medicaid-family-planning-eligibility-expansions>.

1 64. For example, in Delaware, childless adults and parents are only eligible for full-
2 benefit Medicaid if they have incomes at or below 138% of the federal poverty level.¹¹⁸
3 (Delaware has not expanded Medicaid eligibility specifically for family planning services.) This
4 means that affected women who lose coverage as a result of the rules may not be eligible.

5 65. As a result, some women will be at increased risk of unintended pregnancy, either
6 because they are not able to afford the methods that work best for them, or because cost will force
7 them to forgo contraception use entirely.

8 66. Other women will be eligible for and rely on publicly funded family planning
9 services through programs such as Medicaid and Title X. Those women could be denied the
10 ability to obtain contraceptive counseling and services from their desired provider at the same
11 time they receive other primary and preventive care, increasing the time, effort and expense
12 involved in getting needed contraception. In addition, isolating contraceptive coverage in this way
13 will interfere with the ability of health care providers to manage all of a woman's health
14 conditions and needs at the same time.

15 67. The increase in the number of women relying on publicly funded services will add
16 additional strain to the state's family planning programs and providers, making it more difficult
17 for them to meet the existing need for publicly funded care. In 2014, 50,000 women were in need
18 of publicly funded family planning in Delaware, and the state's family planning network was only
19 able to meet 30% of this need.¹¹⁹

20 68. Another indicator of the existing unmet need for contraception in Delaware is that
21 substantial numbers of state residents experience unintended pregnancy each year. In 2010,
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26 ¹¹⁸ Kaiser Family Foundation, Medicaid income eligibility limits for adults as a percent of the federal poverty level,
27 2017, State Health Facts, <https://www.kff.org/health-reform/state-indicator/medicaid-income-eligibility-limits-for-adults-as-a-percent-of-the-federal-poverty-level>.

28 ¹¹⁹ Frost JJ, Frohwirth L and Zolna MR, *Contraceptive Needs and Services, 2014 Update*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2016, https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/report_pdf/contraceptive-needs-and-services-2014_1.pdf.

1 11,000 unintended pregnancies occurred among Delaware residents, a rate of 62 per 1,000
2 women aged 15–44.¹²⁰

3 69. Of those unintended pregnancies that ended in birth, 71% were paid for by
4 Medicaid and other public insurance programs. Unintended pregnancies cost the state
5 approximately \$36 million and the federal government approximately \$58 million in 2010.¹²¹ The
6 IFRs are likely to increase the number of unintended pregnancies experienced by state residents,
7 and thus to increase state and federal expenditures.

8 70. In conclusion, adding to the number of women at risk of unintended pregnancy by
9 expanding the exemption is not in the public health or economic interest of Delaware or its
10 residents.
11

12 **Maryland**

13 71. In Maryland, some women impacted by the IFRs will not qualify for Medicaid or
14 Title X because they will not meet the income eligibility requirements for coverage or subsidized
15 care under these programs.

16 72. For example, in Maryland, childless adults and parents are only eligible for full-
17 benefit Medicaid if they have incomes at or below 138% of the federal poverty level,¹²² and
18 individuals are eligible for coverage of family planning services specifically up to 200% of
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24 ¹²⁰ Kost K, *Unintended Pregnancy Rates at the State Level: Estimates for 2010 and Trends Since 2002*, New York:
25 Guttmacher Institute, 2015, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/unintended-pregnancy-rates-state-level-estimates-2010-and-trends-2002>.

26 ¹²¹ Sonfield A and Kost K, *Public Costs from Unintended Pregnancies and the Role of Public Insurance Programs in*
27 *Paying for Pregnancy-Related Care: National and State Estimates for 2010*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2015,
28 <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/public-costs-unintended-pregnancies-and-role-public-insurance-programs-paying-pregnancy>.

¹²² Kaiser Family Foundation, Medicaid income eligibility limits for adults as a percent of the federal poverty level, 2017, State Health Facts, <https://www.kff.org/health-reform/state-indicator/medicaid-income-eligibility-limits-for-adults-as-a-percent-of-the-federal-poverty-level>.

1 poverty.¹²³ This means that affected women who lose coverage as a result of the rules may not be
2 eligible.

3 73. As a result, some women will be at increased risk of unintended pregnancy, either
4 because they are not able to afford the methods that work best for them, or because cost will force
5 them to forgo contraception use entirely.

6 74. Other women will be eligible for and rely on publicly funded family planning
7 services through programs such as Medicaid and Title X. Those women could be denied the
8 ability to obtain contraceptive counseling and services from their desired provider at the same
9 time they receive other primary and preventive care, increasing the time, effort and expense
10 involved in getting needed contraception. In addition, isolating contraceptive coverage in this way
11 will interfere with the ability of health care providers to manage all of a woman's health
12 conditions and needs at the same time.

13 75. The increase in the number of women relying on publicly funded services will add
14 additional strain to the state's family planning programs and providers, making it more difficult
15 for them to meet the existing need for publicly funded care. In 2014, 298,000 women were in
16 need of publicly funded family planning in Maryland, and the state's family planning network
17 was only able to meet 25% of this need.¹²⁴

18 76. Another indicator of the existing unmet need for contraception in Maryland is that
19 substantial numbers of state residents experience unintended pregnancy each year. In 2010,
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27 ¹²³ Guttmacher Institute, Medicaid family planning eligibility expansions, *State Laws and Policies (as of October 2017)*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/state-policy/explore/mcicaid-family-planning-eligibility-expansions>.

28 ¹²⁴ Frost JJ, Frohwirth L and Zolna MR, *Contraceptive Needs and Services, 2014 Update*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2016, https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/report_pdf/contraceptive-needs-and-services-2014_1.pdf.

1 71,000 unintended pregnancies occurred among Maryland residents, a rate of 60 per 1,000
2 women aged 15–44.¹²⁵

3 77. Of those unintended pregnancies that ended in birth, 58% were paid for by
4 Medicaid and other public insurance programs. Unintended pregnancies cost the state
5 approximately \$181 million and the federal government approximately \$285 million in 2010.¹²⁶
6 The IFRs are likely to increase the number of unintended pregnancies experienced by state
7 residents, and thus to increase state and federal expenditures.
8

9 78. In conclusion, adding to the number of women at risk of unintended pregnancy by
10 expanding the exemption is not in the public health or economic interest of Maryland or its
11 residents.
12

13 **New York**

14 79. In New York, some women impacted by the IFRs will not qualify for Medicaid or
15 Title X because they will not meet the income eligibility requirements for coverage or subsidized
16 care under these programs.

17 80. For example, in New York, childless adults and parents are only eligible for full-
18 benefit Medicaid if they have incomes at or below 138% of the federal poverty level,¹²⁷ and
19 individuals are eligible for coverage of family planning services specifically up to 223% of
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24 ¹²⁵ Kost K, *Unintended Pregnancy Rates at the State Level: Estimates for 2010 and Trends Since 2002*, New York:
25 Guttmacher Institute, 2015, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/unintended-pregnancy-rates-state-level-estimates-2010-and-trends-2002>.

26 ¹²⁶ Sonfield A and Kost K, *Public Costs from Unintended Pregnancies and the Role of Public Insurance Programs in*
27 *Paying for Pregnancy-Related Care: National and State Estimates for 2010*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2015,
28 <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/public-costs-unintended-pregnancies-and-role-public-insurance-programs-paying-pregnancy>.

¹²⁷ Kaiser Family Foundation, Medicaid income eligibility limits for adults as a percent of the federal poverty level, 2017, State Health Facts, <https://www.kff.org/health-reform/state-indicator/medicaid-income-eligibility-limits-for-adults-as-a-percent-of-the-federal-poverty-level>.

1 poverty.¹²⁸ This means that affected women who lose coverage as a result of the rules may not be
2 eligible.

3 81. As a result, some women will be at increased risk of unintended pregnancy, either
4 because they are not able to afford the methods that work best for them, or because cost will force
5 them to forgo contraception use entirely.

6 82. Other women will be eligible for and rely on publicly funded family planning
7 services through programs such as Medicaid and Title X. Those women could be denied the
8 ability to obtain contraceptive counseling and services from their desired provider at the same
9 time they receive other primary and preventive care, increasing the time, effort and expense
10 involved in getting needed contraception. In addition, isolating contraceptive coverage in this way
11 will interfere with the ability of health care providers to manage all of a woman's health
12 conditions and needs at the same time.

13 83. The increase in the number of women relying on publicly funded services will add
14 additional strain to the state's family planning programs and providers, making it more difficult
15 for them to meet the existing need for publicly funded care. In 2014, 1.2 million women were in
16 need of publicly funded family planning in New York, and the state's family planning network
17 was only able to meet 32% of this need.¹²⁹

18 84. Another indicator of the existing unmet need for contraception in New York is that
19 substantial numbers of state residents experience unintended pregnancy each year. In 2010,
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27 ¹²⁸ Guttmacher Institute, Medicaid family planning eligibility expansions, *State Laws and Policies (as of October 2017)*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/state-policy/explore/medicaid-family-planning-eligibility-expansions>.

28 ¹²⁹ Frost JJ, Frohwirth L and Zolna MR, *Contraceptive Needs and Services, 2014 Update*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2016, https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/report_pdf/contraceptive-needs-and-services-2014_1.pdf.

1 246,000 unintended pregnancies occurred among New York residents, a rate of 61 per 1,000
2 women aged 15–44.¹³⁰

3 85. Of those unintended pregnancies that ended in birth, 70% were paid for by
4 Medicaid and other public insurance programs. Unintended pregnancies cost the state
5 approximately \$601 million and the federal government approximately \$938 million in 2010.¹³¹
6 The IFRs are likely to increase the number of unintended pregnancies experienced by state
7 residents, and thus to increase state and federal expenditures.
8

9 86. In conclusion, adding to the number of women at risk of unintended pregnancy by
10 expanding the exemption is not in the public health or economic interest of New York or its
11 residents.
12

13 Virginia

14 87. In Virginia, some women impacted by the IFRs will not qualify for Medicaid or
15 Title X because they may not meet the income eligibility requirements for coverage or subsidized
16 care under these programs. Virginia women may be particularly likely to be impacted by the IFRs
17 because the state does not have its own policy requiring some level of contraceptive coverage
18 among private insurance plans.

19 88. For example, in Virginia, parents are only eligible for full-benefit Medicaid if they
20 have incomes at or below 38% of the federal poverty level and childless adults are entirely
21 ineligible for full-benefit Medicaid;¹³² individuals are only eligible for coverage of family
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24 ¹³⁰ Kost K, *Unintended Pregnancy Rates at the State Level: Estimates for 2010 and Trends Since 2002*, New York:
25 Guttmacher Institute, 2015, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/unintended-pregnancy-rates-state-level-estimates-2010-and-trends-2002>.

26 ¹³¹ Sonfield A and Kost K, *Public Costs from Unintended Pregnancies and the Role of Public Insurance Programs in*
27 *Paying for Pregnancy-Related Care: National and State Estimates for 2010*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2015,
28 <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/public-costs-unintended-pregnancies-and-role-public-insurance-programs-paying-pregnancy>.

¹³² Kaiser Family Foundation, Medicaid income eligibility limits for adults as a percent of the federal poverty level,
2017, State Health Facts, <https://www.kff.org/health-reform/state-indicator/medicaid-income-eligibility-limits-for-adults-as-a-percent-of-the-federal-poverty-level>.

1 planning services specifically up to 205% of poverty.¹³³ This means that affected women who
2 lose coverage as a result of the rules may not be eligible.

3 89. As a result, some women will be at increased risk of unintended pregnancy, either
4 because they are not able to afford the methods that work best for them, or because cost will force
5 them to forgo contraception use entirely.

6 90. Other women will be eligible for and rely on publicly funded family planning
7 services through programs such as Medicaid and Title X. Those women could be denied the
8 ability to obtain contraceptive counseling and services from their desired provider at the same
9 time they receive other primary and preventive care, increasing the time, effort and expense
10 involved in getting needed contraception. In addition, isolating contraceptive coverage in this way
11 will interfere with the ability of health care providers to manage all of a woman's health
12 conditions and needs at the same time.

13 91. The increase in the number of women relying on publicly funded services will add
14 additional strain to the state's family planning programs and providers, making it more difficult
15 for them to meet the existing need for publicly funded care. In 2014, 448,000 women were in
16 need of publicly funded family planning in Virginia, and the state's family planning network was
17 only able to meet 17% of this need.¹³⁴

18 92. Another indicator of the existing unmet need for contraception in Virginia is that
19 substantial numbers of state residents experience unintended pregnancy each year. In 2010,
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27 ¹³³ Guttmacher Institute, Medicaid family planning eligibility expansions, *State Laws and Policies (as of October 2017)*, 2017, <https://www.guttmacher.org/state-policy/explore/medicaid-family-planning-eligibility-expansions>.

28 ¹³⁴ Frost JJ, Frohwirth L and Zolna MR, *Contraceptive Needs and Services, 2014 Update*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2016, https://www.guttmacher.org/sites/default/files/report_pdf/contraceptive-needs-and-services-2014_1.pdf.

1 84,000 unintended pregnancies occurred among Virginia residents, a rate of 51 per 1,000 women
2 aged 15–44.¹³⁵

3 93. Of those unintended pregnancies that ended in birth, 45% were paid for by
4 Medicaid and other public insurance programs. Unintended pregnancies cost the state
5 approximately \$195 million and the federal government approximately \$312 million in 2010.¹³⁶
6 The IFRs are likely to increase the number of unintended pregnancies experienced by state
7 residents, and thus to increase state and federal expenditures.
8

9 94. In conclusion, adding to the number of women at risk of unintended pregnancy by
10 expanding the exemption is not in the public health or economic interest of Virginia or its
11 residents.
12

13 ***

14 Ample evidence demonstrates that the IFRs will interfere with women’s ability to identify
15 and consistently use the contraceptive methods that will work best for them, thus putting them at
16 heightened risk of unintended pregnancy and the health, social and economic harms that will
17 result.

18 I declare under penalty of perjury that the foregoing is true and correct and of my own
19 personal knowledge.

20 Executed on the 9th day of November, 2017, in New York, New York.

21
22 

23 Lawrence B. Finer
24 Vice President for Domestic Research
25 The Guttmacher Institute

26 ¹³⁵ Kost K, *Unintended Pregnancy Rates at the State Level: Estimates for 2010 and Trends Since 2002*, New York:
27 Guttmacher Institute, 2015, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/unintended-pregnancy-rates-state-level-estimates-2010-and-trends-2002>.

28 ¹³⁶ Sonfield A and Kost K, *Public Costs from Unintended Pregnancies and the Role of Public Insurance Programs in Paying for Pregnancy-Related Care: National and State Estimates for 2010*, New York: Guttmacher Institute, 2015, <https://www.guttmacher.org/report/public-costs-unintended-pregnancies-and-role-public-insurance-programs-paying-pregnancy>.