

A peer-reviewed version of this preprint was published in PeerJ on 3 November 2016.

[View the peer-reviewed version](https://peerj.com/articles/2675) (peerj.com/articles/2675), which is the preferred citable publication unless you specifically need to cite this preprint.

Singh A. 2016. Supply-side barriers to maternal health care utilization at health sub-centers in India. PeerJ 4:e2675
<https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.2675>

Supply-side barriers to maternal health care utilization at health sub-centres in India

Aditya Singh ^{Corresp.} ¹

¹ Global Health and Social Care Unit, School of Health Sciences and Social Work, University of Portsmouth

Corresponding Author: Aditya Singh
Email address: aadigeog@gmail.com

Introduction: There exist several barriers to maternal health service utilization in developing countries. Most of the previous studies conducted in India have focused on demand-side barriers, while only a few have touched upon supply-side barriers. None of the previous studies in India have investigated the factors that affect maternal health care utilization at Health Sub-Centers (HSC) in India, despite the fact that these institutions, as the nearest available public healthcare facilities in rural areas, play a significant role in providing affordable maternal health care. Therefore, this study aims to examine the supply-side determinants of maternal service utilization at HSCs in rural India.

Data and Methods: This study uses health facility data from the nationally representative District-Level Household Survey, which was collected in 2007–2008 to examine the effect of supply-side variables on the utilization of maternal healthcare services across HSCs in rural India. Since the dependent variables (the number of antenatal registrations, in-facility deliveries, and postnatal care services) are count variables with considerable dispersion, the data has been analyzed using negative binomial regression instead of Poisson regression.

Results: The results show that those HSCs run by a contractual auxiliary nurse midwife (ANM) are likely to offer a lower volume of services when compared to those run by a permanent ANM. The availability of obstetric drugs, weighing scale, blood pressure equipment is associated with the increased utilization of antenatal and postnatal services. The unavailability of labor/examination table and bed screen is associated with a reduction in the number of safe deliveries and postnatal services. The utilization of services is expected to increase if essential facilities, such as water, telephone, toilet, and electricity, are available at HSCs. Monitoring of an ANM's work by the Village Health and Sanitation Committee (VHSC) and the in-service training of ANMs appear to have a positive impact on the utilization of services. The distance of an ANM's actual residence from the sub-center village where she works is negatively associated with the utilization of delivery and postnatal services. These findings are robust to the inclusion of several demand-side factors.

Conclusion: To improve maternal healthcare utilization at sub-centers, the government should ensure the availability of basic infrastructure, drugs, and equipment at all sub-centers. Monitoring of ANMs' work by VHSCs could play an important role in improving healthcare utilization at the HSCs; therefore, it is important to establish VHSCs in each sub-center village. The issue of the relatively low utilization of maternity services in the HSCs that are run solely by contractual ANMs needs to be investigated further.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35

Supply-side barriers to maternal health care utilization at health sub-centers in rural India

Aditya Singh

PhD Student, Global Health and Social Care Unit, School of Health Sciences and Social Work, University of Portsmouth (United Kingdom)

Corresponding author: Aditya Singh Email: aadigeog@gmail.com

Postal Address: – 19, Milford Road, Portsmouth (UK) PO1 1LJ

36

37 **Supply-side barriers to maternal healthcare utilization at health sub-centers** 38 **in India**

39

40 **Introduction:** There exist several barriers to maternal health service utilization in developing countries.
41 Most of the previous studies conducted in India have focused on demand-side barriers, while only a few
42 have touched upon supply-side barriers. None of the previous studies in India have investigated the factors
43 that affect maternal health care utilization at Health Sub-Centers (HSC) in India, despite the fact that these
44 institutions, as the nearest available public healthcare facilities in rural areas, play a significant role in
45 providing affordable maternal health care. Therefore, this study aims to examine the supply-side
46 determinants of maternal service utilization at HSCs in rural India.

47 **Data and Methods:** This study uses health facility data from the nationally representative District-Level
48 Household Survey, which was collected in 2007–2008 to examine the effect of supply-side variables on the
49 utilization of maternal healthcare services across HSCs in rural India. Since the dependent variables (the
50 number of antenatal registrations, in-facility deliveries, and postnatal care services) are count variables with
51 considerable dispersion, the data has been analyzed using negative binomial regression instead of Poisson
52 regression.

53 **Results:** The results show that those HSCs run by a contractual auxiliary nurse midwife (ANM) are likely
54 to offer a lower volume of services when compared to those run by a permanent ANM. The availability of
55 obstetric drugs, weighing scale, blood pressure equipment is associated with the increased utilization of
56 antenatal and postnatal services. The unavailability of labor/examination table and bed screen is associated
57 with a reduction in the number of deliveries and postnatal services. The utilization of services is expected
58 to increase if essential facilities, such as water, telephone, toilet, and electricity, are available at HSCs.
59 Monitoring of an ANM's work by the Village Health and Sanitation Committee (VHSC) and the in-service
60 training of ANMs appear to have a positive impact on the utilization of services. The distance of an ANM's
61 actual residence from the sub-center village where she works is negatively associated with the utilization
62 of delivery and postnatal services. These findings are robust to the inclusion of several demand-side factors.

63 **Conclusion:** To improve maternal healthcare utilization at sub-centers, the government should ensure the
64 availability of basic infrastructure, drugs, and equipment at all sub-centers. Monitoring of ANMs' work by
65 VHSCs could play an important role in improving healthcare utilization at the HSCs; therefore, it is
66 important to establish VHSCs in each sub-center village. The issue of the relatively low utilization of
67 maternity services in the HSCs that are run solely by contractual ANMs needs to be investigated further.

68

69 **Introduction**

70 Although India appears to have missed its Millennium Development Goal (MDG)-5 target, which aimed to
71 reduce maternal mortality by two-thirds by the year 2015, the fact remains that it has witnessed a
72 considerable decline in maternal mortality during last 15 years or so (United Nations, 2016). This decline
73 is a result of concerted efforts made by the Government of India to improve financial and geographic access
74 to maternal healthcare services through the publicly-funded health system, especially in rural areas (Kumar,
75 2010). However, unfortunately, the utilization of maternal healthcare services is still low. For instance, the
76 proportion of Indian women who received full antenatal care, who had a delivery, and who underwent a

77 postnatal check-up was 18%, 51%, and 49%, respectively, in 2007–2008. The situation in rural areas is
78 even worse (International Institute for Population Sciences, 2010).

79 The utilization of health services depends on a number of factors. These factors can be understood through
80 the demand–supply framework (Ensor & Cooper, 2004). In a demand–supply framework, demand-side
81 determinants are defined as individual, household, or community characteristics that influence the demand
82 for health services. These factors may operate at the individual, household, or community level. In contrast,
83 supply-side factors are those characteristics of the health system that exist outside the control of potential
84 health service users such as health facilities, drugs, equipment, finances, human resources, geographic
85 distance, and so on (Peters, Garg, Bloom, Walker, Brieger, & Rahman, 2008).

86 A number of studies in the past have identified several demand-side factors as important obstacles to
87 healthcare utilization in developing countries (Ensor & Cooper, 2004; Kesterton, Cleland, Sloggett, &
88 Ronsmans, 2010; O'Donnell, 2007; Sarma, 2009). However, only a few have truly addressed supply-side
89 barriers (Metcalf & Adegoke, 2013). Although many studies have documented shortage of drugs,
90 equipment, physical infrastructure, finances, and human resources in the provision of healthcare (Bajpai,
91 Dholakia, & Sachs, 2008; Bajpai, 2014; Bhandari & Dutta, 2007; Hazarika, 2013; Raut-Marathe,
92 Sardeshpande, & Yakkundi, 2015; Varatharajan, Thankappan, & Jayapalan, 2004), the evidence on how
93 these supply-side factors affect service provision at publicly funded rural health facilities in India is still
94 very sparse (Kumar & Dansereau, 2014).

95 A Health Sub-Centre (HSC) is the first contact point between the government-funded health system and
96 those living in rural areas. It plays an important role in bringing about behavioral changes through
97 interpersonal communication, and it provides a wide range of services, including maternal and child
98 healthcare, family planning, nutrition, and immunization (Bhandari & Dutta, 2007). It has always been the
99 central focus of all maternal and child health programs. The Auxiliary Nurse Midwife (ANM), the sole
100 female functionary at the HSC level, is largely responsible for implementing maternal health programs in
101 rural India (Malik, 2009; Mavalankar & Vora, 2008). Unfortunately, the level of utilization of maternal
102 services at HSCs in most states is still very low (International Institute for Population Sciences, 2010).
103 Therefore, it is imperative to examine the factors responsible for the low utilization of maternal healthcare
104 services at this delivery point. In this regard, supply-side factors (health workers, drugs, equipment,
105 infrastructure, and training) are very important from a policy perspective, as managing these factors is far
106 easier and more effective than manipulating those factors that are known to improve the demand for health
107 services. Hence, using data from a large nationally representative cross-sectional household and health
108 facility survey, this study aims to examine the effect of supply-side factors on the utilization of maternal
109 health services at the HSC level.

110

111 Data and Methods**112 *What is a Health Sub-Centre?***

113 The public healthcare system in rural areas is a three-tiered hierarchical system with HSCs located at the
114 bottom tier, Primary Health Centres (PHC) in the middle, and Community Health Centres (CHC) at the top.
115 CHCs are 30-bed rural hospitals that are equipped with specialists, doctors, nurses, technicians, and other
116 facilities to provide effective referral support to a population of about 80,000 to 120,000 individuals. At the
117 middle of the hierarchy is the PHC, which serves a population of about 30,000 to 50,000 people. It is usually
118 staffed with a qualified allopathic doctor, a pharmacist, and a lab technician (Government of India, 2007).

119 Located at the bottom of the rural public health system hierarchy is the health sub-center (HSC). It is the
120 first contact point between the government-funded public health care system and people living in rural
121 areas. It is entrusted with a number of curative, preventive, and promotional healthcare-related tasks. It is
122 expected to bring about behavioral change through interpersonal communication and it provides basic
123 services related to maternal and child health, family planning, nutrition, immunization, communicable
124 diseases, and so on (Government of India, 2007).

125 Each HSC is staffed with a female health worker, officially known as an ANM, and a male health worker
126 (MHW), also known as a male multipurpose worker. In some HSCs, two ANMs are posted. As per Indian
127 Public Health Standards (IPHS), each HSC should have at least four workers – two ANMs, one MHW, and
128 a support worker (Pallikadavath, Singh, Ogollah, Dean, & Stones, 2013).

129

130 *Data Source*

131 This study used data from the third round of the District Level Household and Facility Survey (DLHS-3),
132 a cross-sectional survey that was administered in 2007–2008. The survey was designed to collect data on
133 various aspects of maternal and child healthcare utilization and to assess the capacity and preparedness of
134 publicly funded health facilities in terms of infrastructure, human resources, drugs, equipment, and training.
135 Data on the first aspect were collected through a household survey, while data on health facility capacity
136 and preparedness were collected through a facility survey. Apart from collecting information on the
137 resources available at these health facilities, the facility survey also gathered data on the utilization of
138 maternal and child health (MCH) services at the facilities during the month preceding the survey.

139 The DLHS-3 used a multistage, stratified probability proportional to size (PPS) sampling design. In each
140 district, 50 primary sampling units (PSUs), or census villages, were selected in the first stage by systematic
141 PPS sampling. From each PSU, households were selected using circular systematic sampling. The selection

142 of rural health facilities for the Facility Survey was linked with the sampled rural PSUs. The Facility Survey
143 included only those PHCs and HSCs that were located in proximity and expected to serve the healthcare
144 needs of the sampled rural PSUs. All CHCs and DHs were included in the survey (International Institute
145 for Population Sciences, 2010). The survey collected data through face-to-face interviews. In the Facility
146 Survey, some information was collected directly from official registers that were maintained by the health
147 facility itself. In all, the DHLS-3 household survey collected information from 720,320 households; there
148 were 643,944 ever-married women aged 15–49 years and 166,260 unmarried women aged 15–24 years.
149 The Facility Survey of the DLHS-3, on the other hand, surveyed 18,068 HSCs, 8,619 PHCs, 4,162 CHCs,
150 and 594 district hospitals. The overall household response rate was around 94%. The overall response rate
151 for ever-married women and unmarried women was 89% and 85%, respectively. The survey oversampled
152 households by 10% to serve as a cushion for non-responders. More information on the sampling procedures,
153 survey design implementation, and response rate for the DHLS-3 can be found in the DLHS-3 national
154 report, which can be accessed from http://rchiips.org/pdf/INDIA_REPORT_DLHS-3.pdf.

155 This study used information on 18,068 HSCs to examine the association between a number of supply-side
156 factors (health personnel, infrastructure, medical equipment, drug availability, and so on) and the delivery
157 of maternal health care services. As per the DLHS-3 report, about 91% of HSCs had a permanent ANM
158 and about 20% had a contractual ANM in place. The average population covered by the sampled HSCs was
159 8,372 (International Institute for Population Sciences, 2010).

160

161 ***Dependent Variables***

162 This study examined MCH service utilization at HSCs using three dependent variables – namely, the
163 number of antenatal care registrations (a proxy for antenatal care utilization), the number of deliveries
164 conducted, and the number of postnatal care services provided in each facility during the month preceding
165 the survey. Thus, the exposure period was the same for all health facilities. All of the aforementioned
166 variables were count variables. The proportion of HSCs with zero antenatal care registrations and postnatal
167 care services was about 3% and 9%, respectively. About 76% facilities did not perform any deliveries in
168 the month preceding the survey. The average number of women provided with antenatal care, deliveries,
169 and postnatal care was 15, 1, and 7, respectively.

170

171 ***Independent Variables***

172 The selection of independent variables in this study was guided by a demand–supply framework provided
173 by Ensor and Cooper (2004). The study included a number of supply- and demand-side variables that were
174 available in the DLHS-3 dataset. Most of these variables were found to be associated with healthcare

175 utilization in various settings around the world. For instance, the presence of an auxiliary nurse midwife
176 (ANM) was found to be associated with an increase in maternal healthcare utilization by a study in South
177 India (Navaneetham & Dharmalingam, 2002). Similarly, other supply-side factors such as drugs, physical
178 infrastructure, in-service training, equipment, and accessibility have also been found to be influential in
179 shaping healthcare utilization patterns (Agrawal et al., 2012; Blankart, 2012; Kesterton et al., 2010; Kumar
180 & Dansereau, 2014; Kumar & Prakash, 2013; Peters, Garg, Bloom, Walker, Brieger, & Hafizur Rahman,
181 2008; Shaikh & Hatcher, 2005; Valdivia, 2002; Yeager, 2012). These variables can be divided into seven
182 categories: a) health personnel, b) drugs, c) equipment, d) infrastructure, e) quality-related variables, f)
183 geographic variables, and g) socio-economic and demographic variables. Detailed descriptions of the
184 variables included in the analysis are given in the following paragraphs.

185 An HSC is ideally supposed to have two ANMs (one permanent and another contractual) and an MHW.
186 DLHS-3 asked a question pertaining to whether the position of a specific worker at an HSC was filled.
187 Using this information (by combining permanent and contractual ANM variables), a health worker variable
188 with four categories – namely, HSC without an ANM, HSC with only a permanent ANM (reference
189 category), HSC with only a contractual ANM, and HSC with both ANMs – was generated. The availability
190 of drugs was captured using two binary variables – one for iron-folic acid (IFA) tablets/syrup and another
191 for paracetamol tablets. An index was created to capture the availability of essential obstetric care drugs.
192 The index ranged from 0 to 5, with HSCs receiving one point for having each of the following obstetric
193 care drugs: gentamycin, magnesium sulfate, ampicillin, metronidazole, and misoprostol. To measure the
194 availability of medical equipment, the following binary variables were used: blood pressure instrument,
195 weighing scale for adults, and Sims speculum. Three other categorical variables, the availability of a labor
196 table, an examination table, and a bed screen (with the following categories: available and functional (a
197 reference category), available but unusable, and not available), were also included in the analysis.

198 The following variables were included to capture the availability of basic amenities and infrastructure: a
199 categorical variable for the supply of electricity (with categories – ‘regular supply’ (reference category),
200 ‘irregular supply’, and ‘no electricity connection’) and three binary variables for water, toilets, and
201 telephone facilities. To capture the quality of a health facility, and to check whether high-quality facilities
202 were likely to deliver a higher volume of services, three additional binary variables were included. The first
203 two of these binary variables captured the quality of an ANM by asking whether the ANM received in-
204 service ‘integrated skills development training’ and ‘skilled birth attendance training’ anytime during last
205 five years preceding the survey. The third binary variable that captured the quality of HSCs was whether
206 the Village Health and Sanitation Committee (VHSC) monitored the ANMs’ work on a regular basis.

207 The main purpose of this study was to examine the effect of supply-side factors on the delivery of maternal
208 health care services at the HSC level. However, it also included a number of demand-side variables that
209 were previously found to affect the demand for healthcare services, such as socioeconomic, demographic,
210 and geographical factors (Metcalf & Adegoke, 2013; Midhet, Becker, & Berendes, 1998; Patel &
211 Ladusingh, 2015; Singh, Kumar, & Pranjali, 2014; Singh, Rai, Alagarajan, & Singh, 2012; Sunil, Rajaram,
212 & Zottarelli, 2006; ten Hoop-Bender, Liljestrand, & MacDonagh, 2006). All of these variables were
213 calculated for the district as a whole. These variables included a log of the population living in the catchment
214 area of the facility, a district-level fertility indicator (the total fertility rate was calculated using birth-order
215 information from the DLHS-3 ever-married women dataset), the average number of years of education
216 among mothers, the percentage of households in the lowest economic quartile (as defined by an asset score
217 calculated from the DLHS-3 household file), and the percentage of Hindu households in a given district.
218 All of the abovementioned variables were continuous variables. The analysis also included a categorical
219 variable to capture the effect of the distance of the ANMs' actual residence from the sub-center village
220 where they work. The variable has four categories: 'within 4 kilometers' (reference category), '5–20
221 kilometers', '21–40 kilometers', and 'more than 40 kilometers'.

222 In this study, a 'region' represented a group of Indian states. The north region (1), which was a reference
223 category for the variable 'region', includes Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan,
224 Haryana, Chandigarh (Union Territory – UT), and Delhi; the central region (2) includes the states of Uttar
225 Pradesh, Uttaranchal, Madhya Pradesh, and Chhattisgarh; the northeast region (3) includes the states of
226 Sikkim, Assam, Meghalaya, Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland, Tripura, and Arunachal Pradesh; the east region
227 (4) includes the states of Bihar, Jharkhand, West Bengal, and Orissa; the west region (5) includes the states
228 of Gujarat, Maharashtra, Goa, and the UTs of Dadra and Nagar Haveli, and Daman and Diu; the south
229 region (6) includes the states of Kerala, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, and the UTs of Andaman
230 and Nicobar Islands, Pondicherry, and Lakshadweep.

231

232 ***Statistical Analysis***

233 The study used negative binomial regression to examine the association between the availability of various
234 resources at HSCs and the volume of the maternal healthcare services they provided during the last month
235 preceding the survey. Since the dependent variables consisted of non-negative count data, the negative
236 binomial regression technique was chosen for the analysis (Coxe, West, & Aiken, 2009). The possibility of
237 using a Poisson regression model was ruled out because of its strict assumption that the conditional mean
238 and variance of the dependent variable should be the same (Land, McCall, & Nagin, 1996). None of the
239 dependent variables fulfilled this requirement; all of them exhibited clear over-dispersion. For instance, the

240 variable ‘antenatal registration’ had a mean of 14.7 and a variance of 364.5. Similarly, delivery (with a
241 mean of 1.1 and a variance of 10) and postnatal care (with a mean of 7.3 and a variance of 56.4) also
242 exhibited over-dispersion. In such cases, a Poisson regression model would usually produce inefficient
243 estimates. A negative binomial model did not require an assumption of equality of the mean and variance,
244 and it also allowed for unmeasured characteristics that generated over-dispersion in the count data (Gardner,
245 Mulvey, & Shaw, 1995). Hence, a negative binomial model was preferred over a Poisson model for the
246 current analysis.

247 The generalized form of the negative binomial regression model used in this study can be written as follows:

248

$$249 \quad Y_{fd} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + (\sigma_d) + \varepsilon_{fd}$$

250

251 where Y is the outcome variable (the number of health services delivered during the last month preceding
252 the survey) at the sub-center f in the district d , and X_n represents the facility and district-level demographic
253 factors affecting the outcome. ε_{fd} is the error term and σ_d is the random effect that varies at the district level.

254 The random intercept σ_d captures the effect of unobserved district-specific characteristics that cause some
255 districts to have facilities that produce a greater volume of services than others, such as the presence of
256 fewer private health facilities or the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of a given population,
257 that can potentially affect the demand for maternity services. The catchment population of HSC served as
258 ‘exposure variable’ in all models. Initially, individual covariates were tested individually for their
259 association with the dependent variables; the results are given under the ‘unadjusted’ tabs in Tables 2, 3,
260 and 4. Following that, full regression models with all covariates were run to obtain ‘adjusted’ coefficients.

261 After the regression, the residuals from each full model were tested for the presence of heteroscedasticity
262 using Park’s test. The test results of all three models confirmed the presence of heteroscedasticity (results
263 not shown; available on demand). In the presence of heteroscedasticity, although the estimated coefficient
264 remained unbiased and consistent, the estimated standard errors were not reliable. Hence, White’s robust
265 procedure (using the ‘robust’ command in Stata) was applied to obtain robust standard errors.

266 Alpha, the overdispersion parameter, is presented at the bottom of each model in Tables 2, 3, and 4. If alpha
267 is zero, then the data are not over-dispersed and a Poisson model is suitable. If alpha is greater than zero,
268 then the data are over-dispersed and the negative binomial distribution is able to model the data more
269 accurately than Poisson distribution. In order to test that the dispersion parameter alpha is equal to zero, a
270 likelihood ratio chi-square test was applied; the results are also presented in Tables 2, 3, and 4. Those large
271 test statistics with very small p-values suggest that the response variables were over-dispersed and they
272 were better estimated using a negative binomial than a Poisson model.

273 All models were tested for any potential multicollinearity among the independent variables using the
274 variance inflation factor (VIF) as a post-estimation procedure. The overall VIFs for the models were very
275 small (see the footnotes in Tables 2, 3, and 4), and wherever there was any evidence of high
276 multicollinearity, the variables/categories responsible for causing multicollinearity were dropped from the
277 analysis. Tables 1A, 1B, and 1C in the Appendix present detailed VIFs for each model. The analysis was
278 conducted using Stata (version 12.0) statistical software (Stata Corp, 2012).

279

280 **Results**

281 In this study, the analytical samples did not include any missing or ‘don’t know’ responses. Also, health
282 facilities with missing, zero, and ‘don’t know’ responses were not included in the analytical sample. As a
283 result, the analytical sample was reduced to 17,537 HSCs for antenatal care, 16,030 HSCs for delivery care,
284 and 17,112 HSCs for postnatal care.

285 The summary statistics for the dependent and independent variables are given in Tables 1a and 1b. Tables
286 2, 3, and 4 report the results from the negative binomial regression models for antenatal registrations,
287 deliveries, and postnatal services, respectively. The results are reported in the form of unadjusted and
288 adjusted incidence rate ratios (IRRs) along with their 95% confidence intervals (CIs). An IRR greater than
289 1 implies that an increase in the dependent variable is associated with an increase in the outcome variable,
290 and vice versa. The independent variables used in this study have been grouped under six previously
291 described categories: health personnel, drug availability, equipment, infrastructure, facility quality, and
292 socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the population.

293 [Tables 1a and 1b here]

294 The results of the analysis revealed that those HSCs run solely by a contractual ANM were associated with
295 a lower volume of maternal health care services compared to those run solely by a permanent ANM. The
296 delivery of antenatal and postnatal services in those sub-centers that were solely run by a contractual ANM
297 was about 8%–9% less than the sub-centers run solely by a permanent ANM. The volume of deliveries in
298 these HSCs decreased by about 30% [IRR=0.709, P=0.017]. The deployment of two ANMs was associated
299 with a slight increase in the volume of postnatal services [IRR=1.052, P=0.014]. The HSCs without an
300 ANM were expected to have a lower volume of antenatal registrations [IRR=0.846, P=0.001], deliveries
301 [IRR=0.579, P=0.000], and postnatal services [IRR=0.828, P=0.001].

302 [Table 2 here]

303 The availability of essential obstetric drugs was associated with an increase in the volume of delivery
304 services [IRR=1.060, P=0.000]. In the case of antenatal registrations, the availability of IFA tablets/syrup

305 and paracetamol did not turn out to be statistically significant. The results also revealed that the availability
306 of a blood pressure instrument was expected to slightly increase the volume of antenatal registrations
307 [IRR=1.047, P=0.029] and postnatal care services [IRR=1.053, P=0.001]. The effect of the availability of
308 an examination table on the volume of health service delivery was also statistically significant. In HSCs,
309 where examination table was not available, the volume of antenatal registrations and postnatal services
310 decreased by about 4%–6%. A similar finding emerged in the case of labor table availability. The volume
311 of deliveries conducted decreased significantly if a labor table was ‘available but not functional’
312 [IRR=0.652, P=0.000] or not available at all [IRR=0.438, P=0.000]. Another variable that turned out to be
313 statistically significant in the analysis was the unavailability of a bed screen. The unavailability of a bed
314 screen decreased the volume of antenatal registrations and postnatal services by about 4%–5%. The
315 negative effect of the unavailability of bed screen was much stronger for delivery services [IRR=0.694,
316 P=0.000].

317 [Table 3 here]

318 A number of variables under the infrastructure category were significantly associated with the volume of
319 maternal health services provided at HSCs. Not having an electricity connection was associated with an
320 approximately 32% decrease in the volume of deliveries [IRR=0.678, P=0.000] and a nearly 9.5% decrease
321 in antenatal registrations [IRR=0.915, P=0.000]. The availability of water, telephones, and toilet facilities
322 was likely to increase the volume of deliveries at sub-centers by about 20%, 30%, and 44%, respectively.
323 The volume of postnatal services was also expected to increase in sub-centers that were equipped with
324 telephone and toilet facilities.

325 [Table 4 here]

326 In sub-centers where VHSCs monitored the ANMs’ work, the volume of antenatal registrations and
327 postnatal services was expected to increase by about 5% and 8%, respectively. Although ISD training was
328 not associated with the volume of antenatal registrations, it was significantly associated with a slight
329 increase in the volume of postnatal services [IRR=1.030, P=0.028]. Similarly, skilled birth attendance
330 training (SBAT) was also associated with an increase in the volume of postnatal services [IRR=1.034,
331 P=0.019] and deliveries [IRR=1.285, P=0.000]. Maternal health service utilization at sub-centers was found
332 to be inversely associated with the distance of an ANM’s actual residence from the sub-center village where
333 she works. This was particularly true for delivery and postnatal services. For instance, at HSCs where the
334 ANM lived 5–20 kilometers away from the sub-center village, the utilization of postnatal services decreased
335 by about 4%, and if the ANM lived more than 40 kilometers away, the utilization reduced by about 9%.

336

337 Discussion

338 Using the most recent data available in the public domain, this study has explored the association between
339 sub-center characteristics and the volume of maternal health services delivered by those sub-centers. The
340 results suggest that essential obstetric drugs, blood pressure instruments, labor/examination table, bed
341 screen, and basic amenities such as water, electricity, toilets, etc., are the main supply-side factors that
342 shape maternal healthcare utilization at sub-centers in India. The monitoring of ANM's work by VHSC,
343 the provision of an ANM's in-service training, and the distance of the ANM's residence from the sub-center
344 village also play important roles in maternal healthcare utilization at the sub-centers.

345 One significant finding of this study is that those sub-centers that are run solely by a contractual ANM
346 delivered fewer services than those sub-centers run by a permanent ANM, despite controlling for other
347 relevant factors. This applies to all three maternal health services considered in this study. This finding is
348 particularly important because one of the key strategies of the National Rural Health Mission, which served
349 as an immediate measure to increase the availability of health workers in publicly funded rural public health
350 facilities, has been to deploy contractual ANMs instead of recruiting permanent ANMs (Dhingra & Dutta,
351 2011). It is argued that recruiting contractual ANMs is both convenient and economical for the government
352 (Prinja et al., 2014). However, this study indicates that this measure, despite being convenient and
353 economically savvy for the government, does not seem to result in any substantial improvement in the
354 utilization of maternity services. The results of our study which show that the utilization of maternal
355 healthcare services at HSCs run solely by a contractual ANM are not at par with those solely run by
356 permanent ANMs. The volume of service delivery does not rise substantially, even when both ANMs run
357 a sub-center. In other words, deploying the second ANM to sub-centers on a contractual basis is not likely
358 to improve maternal health service utilization.

359 There may be a number of factors that may lead to the anomalous performance of ANMs in these two
360 streams. Previous studies have recorded how low motivation is an important factor that underlies the poor
361 performance of contractual workers. Low motivation is often the result of a number of factors such as job
362 insecurity, low salary and privileges, discrimination between regular and contractual staff by higher
363 authorities, the lack of a career path, and so on (Kumar, Khan, Inder, & Anu, 2014; Kumar, Khan, Inder, &
364 Mehra, 2014; Kumar, Khan, Inder, & Sharma, 2013). As for salary, there is a significant difference in pay
365 between contractual and regular employees. Contractual ANMs receive much less remuneration for the
366 same amount of work and responsibilities as a permanent ANM. For instance, a contractual ANM in the
367 state of Bihar earns a meager ₹11,500 per month when compared to a permanent ANM's salary of ₹25,000
368 per month (Government of Bihar, 2011, 2014). A similar difference is found in other states as well.

369 Therefore, the government and policymakers should look into this issue and develop a solution to ensure
370 that the investment they are making in deploying contractual ANMs is optimally utilized.

371 The provision of quality maternal care services not only depends on skilled health personnel, but it is also
372 reliant on the availability of essential drugs and supplies (Yeager, 2012). In line with previous studies, this
373 study finds that the availability of essential obstetric drugs is strongly associated with a higher volume of
374 delivery and postnatal care services at the sub-centers (Mkoka, Goicolea, Kiwara, Mwangi, & Hurtig,
375 2014). However, regrettably, about 42% of sub-centers are still devoid of all the essential obstetric drugs
376 recommended by the Indian Public Health Standards. Lack of essential obstetric drugs at the facility may
377 have huge implications for maternal mortality at the facility level. A recent study has concluded that
378 increased facility deliveries in India do not contribute to a reduction in maternal deaths because these
379 facilities often have a weak drug and medical supply system, which leads to poor obstetric care quality
380 (Randive, 2016). The lack of drugs has also been found to cause distrust between users and health care
381 providers; it creates a difficult working environment and decreases health workers' morale as well (Mkoka
382 et al., 2014). All of these factors, when combined, could result in the low utilization of health care services.

383 The study also finds that the non-availability of labor/examination table and bed screen significantly
384 reduced the volume of services delivered at the sub-centers. This finding is also in line with a previous
385 study (Kumar & Dansereau, 2014). Like labor or examination table, bed screen is also one essential item,
386 in the absence of which women do not feel comfortable while being checked. It must be noted that the
387 descriptive results indicate that about 60% of sub-centers do not have a labor table and about 74% do not
388 have a bed screen. Furthermore, about 40% do not have an examination table. It is clear that there is plenty
389 of room for improvement in these areas. Therefore, efforts should be made to equip sub-centers with these
390 essential items.

391 In this study, VHSC monitoring of the sub-center had a statistically significant effect on the antenatal and
392 postnatal care services provided. This finding is consistent with those of a recent study, which concluded
393 that the percentage of women seeking antenatal and postnatal care is higher in VHSC villages than in non-
394 VHSC villages (Sah et al., 2013; Srivastava et al., 2016). Unfortunately, about 28% of all sub-centers do
395 not have a VHSC constituted in their area. Furthermore, about 12% of all sub-centers that do have VHSCs
396 in their area are not monitored regularly. Given the evidence that regular monitoring of the ANMs' work
397 by the VHSC is associated with an increase in the volume of health services delivered, VHSCs should be
398 in place for all sub-centers in the country; the VHSCs should also regularly monitor the ANMs' work
399 (Kumar & Prakash, 2013).

400 The quality of maternal health care services at sub-centers largely depends on the effectiveness with which
401 health workers discharge their responsibilities which, in turn, would mainly depend on their training,

402 particularly their in-service training (Giri et al., 2012). There are two types of in-service training programs
403 for ANMs that are relevant to maternal health services being provided at the sub-center level. The first is
404 known as integrated skills development training (ISDT). It is meant to upgrade the ANM's clinical,
405 managerial, and communication skills. The second type of training is referred to as skilled birth attendance
406 training (SBAT). It is intended to enable ANMs to successfully conduct normal deliveries. The results of
407 this study show that both types of training are associated with a higher volume of maternal service
408 utilization at the sub-center. This finding is consistent with the results of two recent studies that investigated
409 the utilization of maternal and child health services at publicly funded health facilities in India (Kumar &
410 Dansereau, 2014; Sharma, Sharma, & Livesley, 2014). Unfortunately, the descriptive results show that the
411 ANMs in more than 51% of sub-centers did not undergo IST even once in the last five years. The case is
412 similar for SBAT, where the figure is even higher (67% of sub-centers). Therefore, the government should
413 take steps to impart these trainings at regular intervals.

414 Another important variable that is significantly associated with the volume of maternal health services is
415 the distance of the ANM's actual residence from the sub-center village. The effect is particularly strong in
416 the case of delivery care. The descriptive statistics show that about 45% of ANMs live more than five
417 kilometers away from the sub-center village. Health workers living away from the health facility where
418 they work is associated with increased absenteeism and reduced hours of work which, in turn, affect the
419 quality and quantity of the health services provided (Mahapatra, Thota, George, & Reddy, 2012;
420 Muralidharan, Chaudhury, Hammer, Kremer, & Halsey, 2011). Hence, it is not surprising that the utilization
421 of maternal healthcare services at those sub-centers with non-resident ANMs is lower than at those sub-
422 centers where the ANM lives within proximity of the sub-center village.

423 This study has several strengths. First, it contributes to the scant literature on the effect of facility
424 characteristics (supply-side factors) on maternal healthcare utilization at public health facilities in rural
425 India. Since most of the basic maternal and child healthcare services are provided through HSCs, it is
426 imperative to understand the barriers to the utilization of maternal health services at this particular level of
427 the public health system in rural areas. Second, the study uses a large-scale nationally representative survey;
428 hence, its results are fairly reliable and can be generalized to the national level. Third, the application of a
429 count model – i.e., a negative binomial model – provides us with better estimates than other count models,
430 particularly with variables like the ones used in this study; here, a count model is the best model to use.

431 This study has a few limitations as well. Firstly, the analysis does not include any indicators that represent
432 the availability of private sector healthcare services in the sub-center area. It is well known that a
433 considerable amount of the population in rural areas seeks healthcare services in private facilities, arguably
434 because of the poor quality of services in public health facilities. However, due to the lack of variables on

435 private health facilities in the dataset, the analysis could not control for private health facilities in the
436 analysis. For the same reason, the study could not incorporate any quality of care (e.g. behavior of health
437 workers with patients) related variables as well. Secondly, all demand-side variables are calculated at the
438 district-level; therefore, they may not be truly representative of the population's characteristics of the areas
439 that the sub-centers serve in the current analyses. Thirdly, the variable 'number of antenatal registrations'
440 does not represent the actual number of antenatal care services provided at the health facilities – a measure
441 that is more important from a policy perspective. Fourthly, since the data used in the study were collected
442 using face-to-face interviews, it is also likely that the data suffer from the response bias that arose from the
443 inability of respondents to answer questions accurately, as well as their unwillingness to respond honestly.
444 Lastly, since the study is based on cross-sectional data, causality cannot be inferred. One needs to conduct
445 a panel data study to address the issue of reverse causality or temporality.

446

447 **Conclusion**

448 Apart from highlighting the fact that a considerable number of HSCs are still understaffed and inadequately
449 equipped, this study has found that essential obstetric drugs, blood pressure instrument, labor/examination
450 table, bed screen, and basic amenities such as water, electricity, toilets, etc. are some important supply-side
451 factors affecting the utilization of health services at HSCs in rural India. Other factors include monitoring
452 of ANM's work by VHSC, provision of an ANM's in-service training, and distance of ANM's residence
453 from the sub-center village. The supply-side factors mentioned above, unlike socioeconomic factors, can
454 be easily influenced by government intervention in a short period of time. Hence, the future government
455 interventions to improve maternal healthcare utilization in rural areas should consider these factors as well.
456 Although the study has answered many questions, it has left behind some unanswered questions too. One
457 such question is why the volume of service utilization in the HSCs run solely by contractual ANMs is likely
458 to be lower than those HSCs run solely by permanent ANMs. Future studies can examine this anomaly in
459 detail and find out why contractual ANMs are associated with lower utilization of services. Since the
460 utilization of maternal healthcare is shaped by a complex mesh of supply and demand factors with multitude
461 of interactions, more research is needed to tease out these complex relationships.

462

463 **References**

464 Agrawal, P. K., Agrawal, S., Ahmed, S., Darmstadt, G. L., Williams, E. K., Rosen, H. E., ... Baqui, A. H.
465 (2012). Effect of knowledge of community health workers on essential newborn health care: a study from
466 rural India. *Health Policy and Planning*, 27(2), 115–26. <http://doi.org/10.1093/heapol/czr018>

467

- 468 Bajpai, N., Dholakia, R., & Sachs, J. (2008). *Scaling up Primary Health Services in Rural India: Public*
469 *Investment Requirements and Health Sector Reform* (Centre on Globalization and Sustainable
470 Development Working Paper Series No. 33).
471
- 472 Bajpai, V. (2014). The Challenges Confronting Public Hospitals in India, Their Origins, and Possible
473 Solutions. *Advances in Public Health, 2014*, 1–27. <http://doi.org/10.1155/2014/898502>
474
- 475 Bhandari, L., & Dutta, S. (2007). Health infrastructure in rural India. In P. Kalra & A. Rastogi (Eds.),
476 *India Infrastructure Report, 2007*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press. Retrieved from
477 www.iitk.ac.in/3inetwork/html/reports/II?R2007/11-Health.pdf
478
- 479 Blankart, C. R. (2012). Does healthcare infrastructure have an impact on delay in diagnosis and survival?
480 *Health Policy, 105*(2-3), 128–137. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthpol.2012.01.006>
481
- 482 Coxo, S., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2009). The Analysis of Count Data: A Gentle Introduction to
483 Poisson Regression and Its Alternatives. *Journal of Personality Assessment*. Retrieved from
484 <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/00223890802634175>
485
- 486 Dhingra, B., & Dutta, A. K. (2011). National rural health mission: a failing mission. *Indian Journal of*
487 *Pediatrics, 78*(12), 1520–1526.
488
- 489 Ensor, T., & Cooper, S. (2004). Overcoming barriers to health service access: Influencing the demand
490 side. *Health Policy and Planning, 19*(2), 69–79. <http://doi.org/10.1093/heapol/czh009>
491
- 492 Gardner, W., Mulvey, E. P., & Shaw, E. C. (1995). Regression analyses of counts and rates: Poisson,
493 overdispersed Poisson, and negative binomial models. *Psychological Bulletin, 118*(3), 392–404.
494 Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7501743>
495
- 496 Giri, K., Frankel, N., Tulenko, K., Puckett, A., Bailey, R., & Ross, H. (2012). *Keeping Up to Date:*
497 *Continuing Professional Development for Health Workers in Developing Countries*. Washington, DC:
498 Capacity Plus and IntraHealth International Inc. Retrieved from
499 [http://www.intrahealth.org/files/media/keeping-up-to-date-continuing-professional-development-for-](http://www.intrahealth.org/files/media/keeping-up-to-date-continuing-professional-development-for-health-workers-in-developing-countries/continuing-professional-development-health-workers.pdf)
500 [health-workers-in-developing-countries/continuing-professional-development-health-workers.pdf](http://www.intrahealth.org/files/media/keeping-up-to-date-continuing-professional-development-for-health-workers-in-developing-countries/continuing-professional-development-health-workers.pdf)
501
- 502 Government of Bihar. (2011). Financial instructions for salary of contractual auxiliary nurse midwives
503 and staff nurses under NRHM. Department of Health, Bihar Government.
504 <http://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004>
505
- 506 Government of Bihar. (2014). Advertisement for the post of Bihar Female Health Worker (ANM). Patna:
507 Bihar Service Selection Commission.
508

- 509 Government of India. (2007). Indian Public Health Standards. Retrieved March 4, 2014, from
510 <http://nrhm.gov.in/nhm/nrhm/guidelines/indian-public-health-standards.html>
511
- 512 Hazarika, I. (2013). Health workforce in India: assessment of availability, production and distribution.
513 *WHO South-East Asia Journal of Public Health*, 2(2), 106. <http://doi.org/10.4103/2224-3151.122944>
514
- 515 International Institute for Population Sciences. (2010). *District Level Household and Facility Survey*
516 *(DLHS-3), 2007-2008*. Mumabi.
517
- 518 Kesterton, A. J., Cleland, J., Sloggett, A., & Ronsmans, C. (2010). Institutional delivery in rural India: the
519 relative importance of accessibility and economic status. *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth*, 10(1), 30.
520 <http://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2393-10-30>
521
- 522 Kumar, P., Khan, A. M., Inder, D., & Anu. (2014). Provider's Constraints and Difficulties in Primary
523 Health Care System. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 3(2), 102– 6.
524 <http://doi.org/10.4103/2249-4863.137610>
525
- 526 Kumar, P., Khan, A. M., Inder, D., & Mehra, A. (2014). A comparative study of job satisfaction among
527 regular and staff on contract in the primary health care system in Delhi, India. *Journal of Family &*
528 *Community Medicine*, 21(2), 112–8. <http://doi.org/10.4103/2230-8229.134768>
529
- 530 Kumar, P., Khan, A. M., Inder, D., & Sharma, N. (2013). Job satisfaction of primary health-care
531 providers (public sector) in urban setting. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 2(3), 227–33.
532 <http://doi.org/10.4103/2249-4863.120718>
533
- 534 Kumar, S. (2010). Reducing maternal mortality in India: policy, equity, and quality issues. *Indian Journal*
535 *of Public Health*, 54(2), 57–64. <http://doi.org/10.4103/0019-557X.73271>
536
- 537 Kumar, S., & Dansereau, E. (2014). Supply-side barriers to maternity-care in India: a facility-based
538 analysis. *PloS One*, 9(8), e103927. <http://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0103927>
539
- 540 Kumar, S., & Prakash, N. (2013). Impact of the Village Health and Sanitation Committee on health-care
541 utilisation: findings from propensity score matching in India. *The Lancet*, 381, S77.
542 [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(13\)61331-8](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(13)61331-8)
543
- 544 Land, K. C., McCall, P. L., & Nagin, D. S. (1996). A Comparison of Poisson, Negative Binomial, and
545 Semiparametric Mixed Poisson Regression Models: With Empirical Applications to Criminal Careers
546 Data. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 24(4), 387– 442. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0049124196024004001>
547

- 548 Mahapatra, P., Thota, D., George, C. K., & Reddy, N. S. (2012). Availability of doctors at primary health
549 centres of Andhra Pradesh, India. *The National Medical Journal of India*, 25(4), 230–3. Retrieved from
550 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23278784>
- 551
- 552 Malik, G. (2009). Role of Auxiliary Nurse Midwives in National Rural Health Mission. *The Nursing*
553 *Journal of India*, C(3). Retrieved from <http://www.tnaionline.org/april-09/8.htm>
- 554
- 555 Mavalankar, D., & Vora, K. (2008). *The Changing Role of Auxiliary Nurse Midwife (ANM) in India :
556 Implications for Maternal and Child Health (MCH)* (IIMA Working Paper Series No. 2008-03-01).
557 Ahmedabad.
- 558
- 559 Metcalfe, R., & Adegoke, A. A. (2013). Strategies to increase facility-based skilled birth attendance in
560 South Asia: a literature review. *International Health*, 5(2), 96–105.
561 <http://doi.org/10.1093/inthealth/ihs001>
- 562
- 563 Midhet, F., Becker, S., & Berendes, H. W. (1998). Contextual determinants of maternal mortality in rural
564 Pakistan. *Social Science & Medicine* (1982), 46(12), 1587–98. Retrieved from
565 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9672397>
- 566
- 567 Mkoaka, D. A., Goicolea, I., Kiwara, A., Mwangi, M., & Hurtig, A.-K. (2014). Availability of drugs and
568 medical supplies for emergency obstetric care: experience of health facility managers in a rural District of
569 Tanzania. *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth*, 14(1), 108. <http://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2393-14-108>
- 570
- 571 Muralidharan, K., Chaudhury, N., Hammer, J., Kremer, M., & Halsey, F. (2011). Is There a Doctor in the
572 House? Medical Worker Absence in India Karthik Muralidharan. *Harvard University*. Retrieved from
573 <http://www.hrhresourcecenter.org/node/3964>
- 574
- 575 Navaneetham, K., & Dharmalingam, A. (2002). *Utilization of maternal health care services in Southern*
576 *India. Social Science & Medicine* (Vol. 55).
- 577
- 578 O'Donnell, O. (2007). Access to health care in developing countries: breaking down demand side
579 barriers. *Cadernos de Saúde Pública*, 23(12), 2820–34. Retrieved from
580 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18157324>
- 581
- 582 Pallikadavath, S., Singh, A., Ogollah, R., Dean, T., & Stones, W. (2013). Human resource inequalities at
583 the base of India's public health care system. *Health & Place*, 23, 26–32.
584 <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2013.05.003>
- 585
- 586 Patel, R., & Ladusingh, L. (2015). Do Physical Proximity and Availability of Adequate Infrastructure at
587 Public Health Facility Increase Institutional Delivery? A Three Level Hierarchical Model Approach. *PloS*
588 *One*, 10(12), e0144352

589

590 Peters, D. H., Garg, A., Bloom, G., Walker, D. G., Brieger, W. R., & Hafizur Rahman, M. (2008).
591 Poverty and Access to Health Care in Developing Countries. *Annals of the New York Academy of*
592 *Sciences*, 1136(1), 161–171. <http://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1425.011>

593

594 Prinja, S., Jeet, G., Verma, R., Kumar, D., Bahuguna, P., Kaur, M., & Kumar, R. (2014). Economic
595 analysis of delivering primary health care services through community health workers in 3 North Indian
596 states. *PloS One*, 9(3), e91781. <http://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0091781>

597

598 Randive, B. (2016). *Study of conditional cash transfer programme Janani Suraksha Yojana for promotion*
599 *of institutional births : Studies from selected provinces of India*. Umeå universitet. Retrieved from
600 <http://umu.diva-portal.org/smash/record.jsf?pid=diva2%3A882982&dswid=-4910>

601

602 Raut-Marathe, S., Sardeshpande, N., & Yakkundi, D. (2015). What Causes Medicine Shortages in
603 Primary Health Centres?: A Case Study of Availability and Supply System of Medicines in Select PHCs
604 from Maharashtra. *Journal of Health Management*, 17(1), 86–97.
605 <http://doi.org/10.1177/0972063414560873>

606

607 Sah, P. K., Raut, A. V., Maliye, C. H., Gupta, S. S., Mehendale, A. M., & Garg, B. S. (2013). Performance
608 of village health, nutrition and sanitation committee: A qualitative study from rural Wardha, Maharashtra
609 « The Health Agenda. *The Health Agenda*, 1(4), 112– 117. Retrieved from
610 [http://www.healthagenda.net/performance-of-village-health-nutrition-and-sanitation-committee-a-](http://www.healthagenda.net/performance-of-village-health-nutrition-and-sanitation-committee-a-qualitative-study-from-rural-wardha-maharashtra/)
611 [qualitative-study-from-rural-wardha-maharashtra/](http://www.healthagenda.net/performance-of-village-health-nutrition-and-sanitation-committee-a-qualitative-study-from-rural-wardha-maharashtra/)

612

613 Sarma, S. (2009). Demand for outpatient healthcare: empirical findings from rural India.

614

615 *Applied Health Economics and Health Policy*, 7(4), 265–77. [http://doi.org/10.2165/10899650-](http://doi.org/10.2165/10899650-000000000-00000)
616 [000000000-00000](http://doi.org/10.2165/10899650-000000000-00000)

617

618 Shaikh, B. T., & Hatcher, J. (2005). Health seeking behaviour and health service utilization in Pakistan:
619 challenging the policy makers. *Journal of Public Health (Oxford, England)*, 27(1), 49–54.
620 <http://doi.org/10.1093/pubmed/fdh207>

621

622 Sharma, D., Sharma, P., & Livesley, N. (2014). Improving the process of antenatal care to increase
623 detection of women with high-risk conditions in Zonal Hospital of Mandi, Himachal Pradesh, India. New
624 Delhi: United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Retrieved from
625 https://www.usaidassist.org/sites/assist/files/india_improving_the_process_of_anc_man_di_may_2014.pdf

626

627 Singh, A., Kumar, A., & Pranjali, P. (2014). Utilization of maternal healthcare among adolescent mothers
628 in urban India: evidence from DLHS-3. *PeerJ*, 2(1), e592. <http://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.592>

629

- 630 Singh, P. K., Rai, R. K., Alagarajan, M., & Singh, L. (2012). Determinants of maternity care services
631 utilization among married adolescents in rural India. *PloS One*, 7(2), e31666.
632 <http://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0031666>
633
- 634 Srivastava, A., Gope, R., Nair, N., Rath, S., Rath, S., Sinha, R., ... Bhattacharyya, S. (2016). Are village
635 health sanitation and nutrition committees fulfilling their roles for decentralised health planning and
636 action? A mixed methods study from rural eastern India. *BMC Public Health*, 16(1), 59.
637 <http://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-016-2699-4>
638
- 639 Sunil, T. S., Rajaram, S., & Zottarelli, L. K. (2006). Do individual and program factors matter in the
640 utilization of maternal care services in rural India? a theoretical approach. *Social Science & Medicine*
641 (1982), 62(8), 1943–57. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2005.09.004>
642
- 643 ten Hoop-Bender, P., Liljestrand, J., & MacDonagh, S. (2006). Human resources and access to maternal
644 health care. *International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics: The Official Organ of the International*
645 *Federation of Gynaecology and Obstetrics*, 94(3), 226–33. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijgo.2006.04.003>
646
- 647 United Nations. (2016). Millennium Development Goals Country Snapshot: India. Retrieved April 9,
648 2016, from <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Host.aspx?Content=Data/snapshots.htm>
649
- 650 Valdivia, M. (2002). Public health infrastructure and equity in the utilization of outpatient health care
651 services in Peru. *Health Policy and Planning*, 17 Suppl, 12–9. Retrieved from
652 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12477737>
653
- 654 Varatharajan, D., Thankappan, R., & Jayapalan, S. (2004). Assessing the performance of primary health
655 centres under decentralized government in Kerala, India. *Health Policy and Planning*, 19(1), 41–51.
656 <http://doi.org/10.1093/heapol/czh005>
657
- 658 Yeager, B. (2012). Improving Access to Maternal Health Commodities: A Systems Approach. Retrieved
659 April 9, 2016, from [https://www.msh.org/blog/2012/09/05/improving-access-to-maternal-health-
660 commodities-a-systems-approach](https://www.msh.org/blog/2012/09/05/improving-access-to-maternal-health-commodities-a-systems-approach)
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668
669

670
671
672
673
674
675
676
677
678
679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686

687 **Table 1a: Distribution of health sub-center characteristics, 2007–2008 (n=17667)**

688

<i>Dependent variable</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Percent</i>			
Health personnel	Auxiliary Nurse Midwife (ANM)		Infrastructure	Labor table		Other variables	Skilled birth training				
	None	624		3.53	Available and usable		5,420	30.68	No	11,886	67.28
	Only Permanent ANM	13,486		76.33	Available and unusable		1,028	5.82	Yes	5,781	32.72
	Only Contractual ANM	756		4.28	Not available		11,219	63.5	Monitoring by VHSC		
	Both	2,801		15.85	Bed screen				No	7,000	39.62
Drug availability	Paracetamol		Available and usable	4,032	22.82	Yes	10,667	60.38			
	Yes	12,576	71.43	Available and unusable	643	3.64	Region				
	No	5,030	28.57	Not available	12,992	73.54	North	1,911	10.82		
Equipment	Iron and folic acid		Quality variables	Electricity		Central	7,511	42.51			
	Yes	12,825		72.72	Regular supply	3,756	21.26	Northeast	1,451	8.21	
	No	4,811		27.28	Irregular supply	5,676	32.13	East	1,815	10.27	
	Blood pressure instrument			No connection	8,235	46.61	West	1,845	10.44		
	Yes	13,884		78.59	Water supply			South	3,134	17.74	
	No	3,783		21.41	No	4,721	26.72	ANM's residence from SC (km)			
	Weighing scale			Yes	12,946	73.28	<4	7,197	41.07		
	Yes	14,101		79.82	Toilet			5-20	6,923	39.51	
	No	3,566		20.18	No	9,105	51.54	21–40	2,814	16.06	
	Sims speculum			Yes	8,562	48.46	>40	588	3.36		
Yes	10,666	60.37	Telephone			No	15,979	90.45			
No	7,001	39.63	Yes	1,688	9.55	Integrated skills development training					
Examination table		Available and usable	9,598	54.33	No	9,034	51.13				
Available and unusable	996	5.64	Yes	8,633	48.87						
Not available	7,073	40.04									

689

690 **Table 1b: Descriptive statistics of the variables (n=17,667)**

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean/Percent</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
<i>Essential obstetric drugs</i>	1.5	1.7	0	5
<i>Log of catchment population</i>	8.6	0.7	1.6	13.8
<i>% population in lowest wealth quintile</i>	3.4	6.2	0.0	49.5
<i>Total fertility rate</i>	3.1	1.0	1.4	5.9
<i>% Hindu population</i>	81.6	24.3	0.0	100.0
<i>Average years of schooling among mothers</i>	4.4	2.4	0.5	11.5

691

693 **Table 2: Unadjusted and adjusted incidence rate ratios for the volume of antenatal care registrations at**
 694 **health sub-centers in India, 2007-08 (n=16537)**

Outcome: Number of antenatal registrations.							
	Unadjusted			Adjusted			
	IRR	P-value	95% CI	IRR	P-value	95% CI	
Health personnel							
Auxiliary Nurse Midwife (ANM)							
None	0.795	0.000	0.745,0.849	0.846	0.001	0.763	0.938
Only Contractual ANM	0.923	0.021	0.862,0.988	0.901	0.014	0.829	0.979
Both	1.085	0.000	1.043,1.128	1.042	0.178	0.982	1.105
Drug availability							
Paracetamol							
No	1.002	0.884	0.972,1.034	0.997	0.879	0.954	1.041
Iron and folic acid							
No	1.013	0.464	0.979,1.048	0.992	0.735	0.946	1.040
Equipment							
BP instrument							
Yes	1.045	0.002	1.016,1.075	1.047	0.029	1.005	1.092
Weighing scale							
Yes	1.044	0.004	1.014,1.074	1.023	0.276	0.982	1.066
Examination table							
Available but unusable	0.926	0.003	0.880,0.975	0.943	0.130	0.874	1.017
Not available	0.921	0.000	0.896,0.947	0.956	0.025	0.919	0.994
Bed screen							
Available but unusable	0.940	0.064	0.881,1.003	0.968	0.477	0.886	1.058
Not available	0.930	0.000	0.903,0.958	0.956	0.032	0.917	0.996
Infrastructure							
Electricity							
Irregular supply	0.926	0.000	0.891,0.963	0.933	0.011	0.885	0.984
No connection	0.896	0.000	0.864,0.929	0.915	0.000	0.871	0.962
Water supply							
Yes	1.056	0.000	1.028,1.085	1.026	0.180	0.988	1.066
Toilet							
Yes	1.045	0.001	1.019,1.072	0.997	0.882	0.961	1.034
Telephone							
Yes	1.050	0.164	0.980,1.125	1.039	0.443	0.942	1.145
Quality variables							
ISD training in last 5 years							
Yes	1.036	0.004	1.011,1.062	1.014	0.416	0.980	1.050
VHSC monitoring work							
Yes	1.037	0.010	1.009,1.066	1.054	0.010	1.013	1.096
Other variables							
Region							
Central	1.458	0.000	1.280,1.661	0.978	0.792	0.832	1.151
Northeast	0.943	0.476	0.801,1.109	1.015	0.845	0.871	1.184
East	1.576	0.000	1.328,1.870	1.006	0.941	0.849	1.193
West	1.232	0.013	1.044,1.455	0.993	0.924	0.860	1.146
South	0.947	0.479	0.815,1.101	0.801	0.004	0.689	0.931
ANM's residence from SC (in km)							
5-20	0.974	0.172	0.938 1.011	0.994	0.765	0.956	1.033
21 -40	0.916	0.011	0.857 0.98	0.940	0.071	0.879	1.005
>40	0.882	0.063	0.772 1.007	0.906	0.152	0.792	1.037
Log of catchment population	1.303	0.000	1.275,1.332	1.326	0.000	1.267,	1.386
Socioeconomic variables							
% population in lowest wealth quintile	0.993	0.051	0.986,1.000	1.004	0.149	0.999	1.009
Total fertility rate	1.230	0.000	1.183,1.280	1.112	0.000	1.051	1.176
% Hindu population	1.006	0.000	1.004,1.007	1.004	0.000	1.002	1.005
Maternal education (in years)	0.910	0.000	0.895,0.925	0.945	0.000	0.926	0.964
Dispersion parameter (alpha)				0.444	0.000	0.417	0.472
Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0: Chi² Statistic = 2230.01 (p = 0.000)							

695 Note: IRR- Incidence Rate Ratio, CI- Confidence Interval, ANM- Auxiliary Nurse Midwife, VHSC- Village Health and Sanitation
 696 Committee, SC- Sub-Centre/Health Sub-Centre, BP – Blood Pressure, ISDT- Integrated Skills Development Training. Variance
 697 Inflation Factor – 1.61 (for detailed VIF, see Appendix)

698

699

700 **Table 3: Unadjusted and adjusted incidence rate ratios for delivery services at health sub-centers in India,**
 701 **2007-08. (n=16030)**

Outcome: Number of deliveries conducted							
Health personnel	Unadjusted			Adjusted			
	IRR	P-value	95% CI	IRR	P-value	95% CI	
Auxiliary Nurse Midwife (ANM)							
None	0.496	0.000	0.376 0.654	0.579	0.000	0.441 0.760	
Only Contractual ANM	0.640	0.002	0.484 0.846	0.709	0.017	0.534 0.940	
Both	0.874	0.087	0.749 1.02	0.863	0.053	0.743 1.002	
Drug availability							
Essential obstetric drugs	1.103	0.000	1.067 1.141	1.060	0.000	1.026 1.096	
Equipment							
Sims speculum							
No	0.685	0.000	0.616 0.762	0.901	0.053	0.811 1.002	
Labor table							
Available but unusable	0.569	0.000	0.475 0.682	0.652	0.000	0.545 0.780	
Not available	0.314	0.000	0.284 0.348	0.438	0.000	0.394 0.487	
Bed Screen							
Available but unusable	0.805	0.072	0.636 1.019	0.970	0.793	0.771 1.220	
Not available	0.474	0.000	0.425 0.528	0.694	0.000	0.623 0.774	
Infrastructure							
Electricity							
Irregular supply	0.879	0.077	0.761 1.014	0.934	0.342	0.813 1.075	
No connection	0.470	0.000	0.410 0.539	0.678	0.000	0.590 0.779	
Water supply							
Yes	1.726	0.000	1.546 1.928	1.200	0.001	1.073 1.342	
Toilet							
Yes	2.100	0.000	1.912 2.306	1.440	0.000	1.306 1.588	
Telephone							
Yes	1.695	0.000	1.354 2.122	1.307	0.015	1.054 1.621	
Quality variables							
SBA training in last 5 years							
Yes	1.486	0.000	1.350 1.637	1.285	0.000	1.168 1.413	
VHSC monitoring work							
Yes	1.086	0.121	0.978 1.206	0.942	0.250	0.851 1.043	
Other variables							
Region							
Central	2.517	0.000	1.692 3.744	0.914	0.695	0.581 1.435	
Northeast	0.685	0.146	0.411 1.141	0.599	0.032	0.375 0.956	
East	0.338	0.000	0.196 0.583	0.310	0.000	0.177 0.541	
West	2.680	0.000	1.631 4.402	1.374	0.188	0.856 2.206	
South	0.828	0.421	0.522 1.312	0.578	0.018	0.367 0.910	
ANM's residence from SC (in km)							
5-20	0.480	0.000	0.432 0.533	0.643	0.000	0.580 0.713	
21-40	0.473	0.000	0.388 0.577	0.637	0.000	0.525 0.773	
>40	0.482	0.000	0.327 0.709	0.707	0.067	0.488 1.025	
Log of catchment population	1.198	0.000	1.097 1.307	1.111	0.016	1.020 1.210	
Socioeconomic variables							
% population in lowest wealth quintile	0.995	0.677	0.974 1.017	1.011	0.265	0.992 1.030	
Total fertility rate	1.292	0.000	1.133 1.473	1.144	0.095	0.977 1.339	
% Hindu population	1.017	0.000	1.012 1.022	1.013	0.000	1.007 1.018	
Maternal education (in years)	0.861	0.000	0.813 0.911	0.846	0.000	0.788 0.908	
Dispersion parameter (alpha)				3.959	0.000	3.765 4.162	
Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0: Chi² Statistic = 990.07 (p = 0.000)							

702 Note: IRR- Incidence Rate Ratio, CI- Confidence Interval, ANM- Auxiliary Nurse Midwife, VHSC- Village Health and Sanitation
 703 Committee, SC- Sub-Centre/Health Sub-Centre, SBA- Skilled Birth Attendance. Variance Inflation Factor – 1.63 (for detailed VIF,
 704 see Appendix)
 705
 706
 707
 708
 709
 710
 711
 712

713
714
715
716**Table 4: Unadjusted and adjusted incidence rate ratios for postnatal care utilization at health sub-centers in India, 2007-08. (n= 17112)**

Outcome: Number of postnatal care services provided							
Health personnel	Unadjusted			Adjusted			
	IRR	P-value	95% CI	IRR	P-value	95% CI	
Auxiliary Nurse Midwife (ANM)							
None	0.783	0.000	0.698 0.877	0.832	0.000	0.775 0.894	
Only Contractual ANM	0.887	0.007	0.813 0.968	0.901	0.004	0.839 0.968	
Both	1.081	0.003	1.026 1.138	1.052	0.014	1.010 1.095	
Drug availability							
Essential obstetric drugs	1.002	0.753	0.989 1.015	0.999	0.759	0.989 1.008	
Equipment							
BP instrument							
Yes	1.076	0.000	1.045 1.109	1.053	0.001	1.022 1.086	
Weighing scale							
Yes	1.068	0.000	1.036 1.101	1.034	0.034	1.003 1.067	
Examination table							
Available but unusable	0.935	0.014	0.887 0.987	0.984	0.109	0.908 1.010	
Not available	0.911	0.000	0.886 0.937	0.939	0.000	0.921 0.976	
Bed Screen							
Available but unusable	0.951	0.142	0.889 1.017	0.957	0.642	0.920 1.052	
Not available	0.904	0.000	0.876 0.932	0.948	0.000	0.910 0.969	
Infrastructure							
Electricity							
Irregular supply	0.997	0.875	0.958 1.038	1.000	0.995	0.961 1.041	
No connection	0.936	0.000	0.902 0.971	0.973	0.162	0.936 1.011	
Water supply							
Yes	1.024	0.099	0.996 1.054	0.984	0.272	0.955 1.013	
Toilet							
Yes	1.077	0.000	1.049 1.105	1.029	0.040	1.001 1.056	
Telephone							
Yes	1.163	0.000	1.083 1.248	1.084	0.021	1.012 1.162	
Quality variables							
ISD training in last 5 years							
Yes	1.067	0.000	1.04 1.094	1.030	0.028	1.003 1.057	
SBA training in last 5 years							
Yes	1.075	0.000	1.046 1.105	1.034	0.019	1.006 1.064	
VHSC monitoring work							
Yes	1.092	0.000	1.061 1.124	1.083	0.000	1.052 1.114	
Other variables							
Region							
Central	1.517	0.000	1.330 1.732	1.149	0.063	0.992 1.330	
Northeast	0.893	0.182	0.757 1.054	1.029	0.705	0.887 1.194	
East	1.599	0.000	1.345 1.901	1.222	0.025	1.026 1.455	
West	1.561	0.000	1.320 1.845	1.268	0.003	1.084 1.482	
South	1.458	0.000	1.253 1.698	1.191	0.017	1.031 1.376	
ANM's residence from SC (in km)							
5-20	0.941	0.000	0.914 0.968	0.962	0.009	0.935 0.991	
21-40	0.901	0.000	0.868 0.935	0.940	0.001	0.907 0.976	
>40	0.853	0.000	0.795 0.915	0.918	0.015	0.856 0.984	
Log of catchment population	1.350	0.000	1.317 1.384	1.318	0.000	1.286 1.352	
Socioeconomic variables							
% population in lowest wealth quintile	1.005	0.195	0.998 1.012	1.007	0.024	1.001 1.013	
Total fertility rate	1.071	0.002	1.026 1.117	1.011	0.675	0.960 1.065	
% Hindu population	1.008	0.000	1.006 1.009	1.004	0.000	1.002 1.006	
Maternal education (in years)	0.949	0.000	0.933 0.966	0.952	0.000	0.931 0.973	
Dispersion parameter (alpha)							
				0.419	0.000	0.407 0.432	
Likelihood-ratio test of alpha=0: Chi ² Statistic = 1894.2 (p = 0.000)							

717 Note: IRR- Incidence Rate Ratio, CI- Confidence Interval, ANM- Auxiliary Nurse Midwife, VHSC- Village Health and Sanitation
 718 Committee, SC- Sub-Centre/Health Sub-Centre, ISDT- Integrated Skills Development Training, SBA – Skilled Birth Attendance.
 719 Mean Variance Inflation Factor – 1.63 (for detailed VIF, see Appendix)