

Socio-demographic factors associated with contraceptive use among young women in comparison with older women in Uganda

JOHN BOSCO ASIIMWE, PATRICIA NDUGGA*, JOHN MUSHOMI**

**School of Statistics and Planning, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.*

Abstract

Much of the research literature about the use of family planning generalizes contraceptive use among all women, using age as a covariate. In Uganda, a country with divergent trends in modern family planning use among younger and older married women, we hypothesize that factors associated with contraceptive use operate in a fundamentally different way among married women in the two age groups: 15-24 and 25-34. We tested this hypothesis using data from the Uganda Demographic and Health Survey (UDHS) in 2006 and 2011.

We restricted the sample to fecund, non-pregnant married women age 15-34 who were sexually active within one year prior to the survey, resulting in a sample of 2,802 women in 2006 and 2,814 women in 2011. We used multivariate logistic regression to model the relationship between selected independent variables and the outcome variable (current use of modern contraception).

In Uganda, as in most countries, the level of modern contraceptive use is much lower among younger married women compared with older women. Our study found that the key determinants for current use of modern contraceptives among young (15-24 years) married women were residence and desire for children, while among the older women (25-34 years) the determining factors were; a woman's level of education, household wealth and desire for children consistently as key factors over the time period of 2006 and 2011.

The findings suggest that improving the livelihood of the population is important. Family planning programs should be intensified to meet the needs of young and married women. Programmes intended to improve contraceptive use among married women should put into consideration age factor since most Ugandan women get initiated into sexual activities at an earlier age and consequently enter marriage.

Key words

Modern Contraception, young women, older women, use, non use, sexually active, Uganda

1. INTRODUCTION

For countries that have achieved Millennium Development Goal 5 on improving maternal health, meeting women's contraceptive needs has played an important role. MDG 5a aims to reduce the maternal mortality ratio by three-quarters between 1990 and 2015, and MDG 5b aims to achieve universal access to reproductive health, including family planning (United Nations 2012). According to the World Health Organization in 2012, satisfying the unmet need for family planning alone could cut the number of maternal deaths by almost a third. However, an estimated 215 million women who would prefer to delay or avoid pregnancy continue to lack access to safe and effective contraception (WHO, 2012). Thus along with providing skilled maternal care, offering family planning is crucial to averting maternal deaths.

Although many United Nations member countries, particularly those in the developed world, have strong family planning programs, this is not the case in sub-Saharan Africa, where despite a rise in contraceptive prevalence, many women continue to have unmet need for contraception (UNFPA, 2012; Cleland et al., 2006). The resultant high fertility is associated with high levels of maternal mortality, especially among the poorest communities.

Globally, the maternal mortality ratio remains high, at 287 maternal deaths per 100,000 births; a large proportion of these deaths occur among young women (WHO, 2010). In Uganda, the maternal mortality ratio was estimated to be much higher than the worldwide average in 2011, at 438 per 100,000 births (UBOS and ICF International, 2012). An estimated one-third of women who give birth in developing countries are below age 20, which exposes them to greater risk of illness and death related to maternal causes (WHO, 2010).

In Uganda as in many other countries, major factors associated with contraceptive use are women's age, education, and socioeconomic status. Ugandan women who are more educated and wealthier are more likely to use contraception compared with illiterate and less wealthy

women (UBOS and Macro International, 2007). Similarly, women who use contraceptives tend to have a better quality of life, higher social status, and greater autonomy. This association has been highlighted in a study in Nigeria by Osemwenkha, who emphasized that contraceptive use has the power to reduce fertility considerably and ultimately to improve maternal and child health (Osemwenkha, 2004).

Understanding the key factors influencing contraceptive use among young married women who are at risk of unwanted pregnancies is key to the development of effective family planning programs. Given the context of high fertility in Uganda, our study seeks to explore the socio-demographic factors associated with contraceptive use among young married women age 15-24 compared with older women age 25-34 in Uganda. The study focuses on married women because, in Uganda, the majority of births occur within marriage.

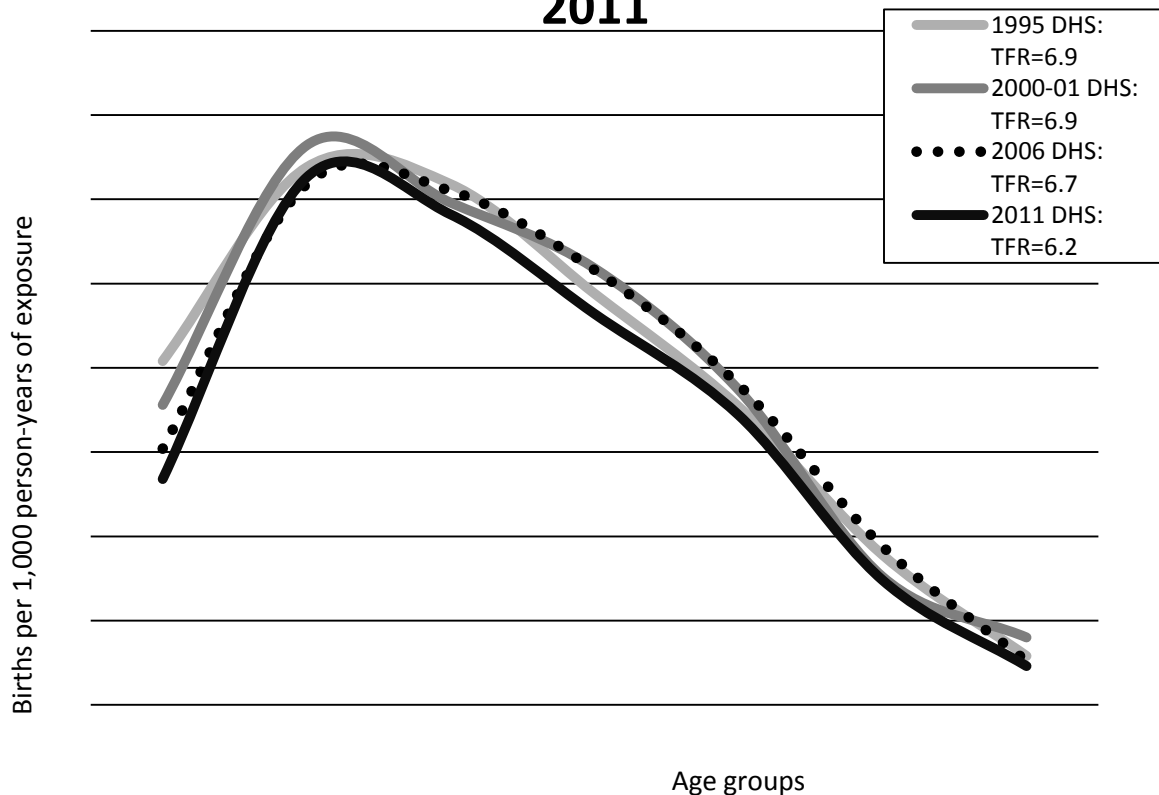
BACKGROUND

According to the 2011 Uganda Demographic and Health Survey (UDHS), Uganda has a young population (52% are below age 15, and 17% are age 15-24) and a high total fertility rate (TFR), at 6.2 children per woman. As this large cohort of young people enters the childbearing years, their reproductive behavior will determine the growth and size of Uganda's population for decades to come.

Figure 1 shows age-specific fertility rates in Uganda from 1995 to 2011. Fertility rates have remained persistently high over the past 16 years. As in other developing countries, Ugandan women age 20-24 have the highest contribution to the TFR. The largest decline in fertility has been among women age 15-19. The probable reasons for this decline could be the introduction of free Universal Primary Education, which has kept girls in school, resulting in delayed marriages.

Figure 1: Age-Specific Fertility Rates, Uganda, 1995-2011

Age-Specific Fertility Rates, Uganda, 1995-2011



Uganda still struggles with a low contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) of 30%, which is lower than that of her neighbors, Kenya, Rwanda, and Tanzania, which had a CPR of 46%, 52%, and 34%, respectively, at the time of their last surveys (ICF International, 2012).

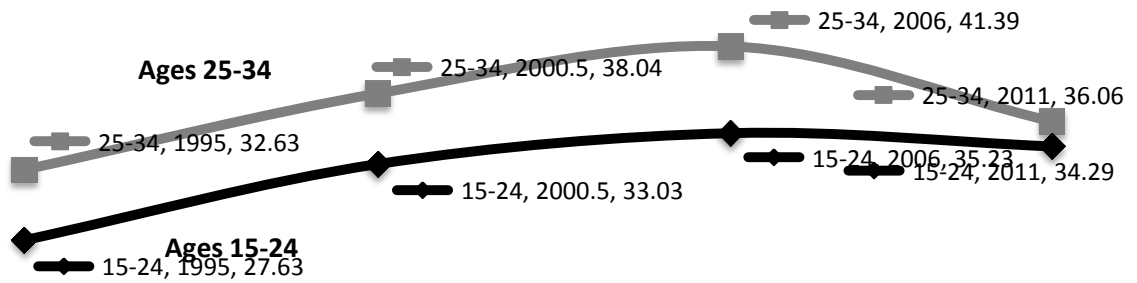
According to Blanc et al. (2009), in developing countries, contraceptive use among young women, whether married or unmarried, involves a lot of experimentation and is inconsistent. Additionally, young women face many barriers to the use of family planning services, which include fear, embarrassment, cost, and lack of knowledge (Blanc et.al., 2009). In the Ugandan context, only 10% of all Ugandan women and 14% of married women age 15-24 are using any contraceptive method (UBOS and Macro International, 2007).

Whereas age at first marriage has generally increased around the world, several parts of sub-Saharan Africa are struggling with a significant proportion of girls being married off before their

18th birthday (UNICEF, 2005). Early marriage exposes these women to frequent and unprotected sexual intercourse, which can lead to early and risky first birth (Mensch, 1998; Haberland, 2005). In Uganda, the median age at first marriage is 17.9 years, and young women are expected to prove their fertility soon after marriage (UBOS and ICF International, 2012). In addition, these women have a limited chance to space their births, since contraceptive use within marriage is not expected.

Figure 2 shows that levels of unmet need have increased among married women age 25-34 and age 15-24 over the last 25 years. From 2006 to 2011, unmet need decreased among married women age 25-34 and declined slightly among women age 15-24, and the level of unmet need between the two groups has nearly converged. Variations in unmet need by age group justify investigating whether any unique factors affect contraceptive use for married women age 15-24 compared with factors affecting married women age 25-34.

Figure 2. Unmet need for family planning, married women, Uganda, 1995-2011

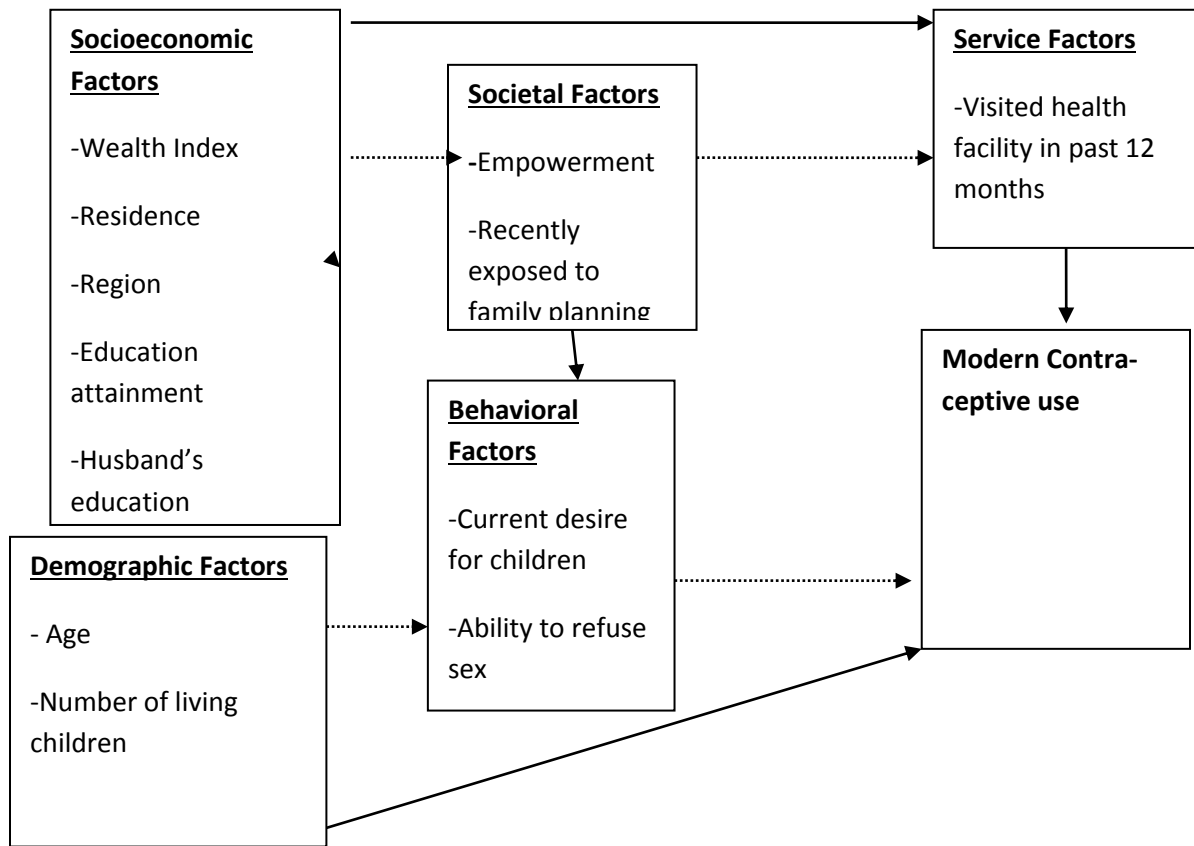


Note: Data was for ALL married women.
 Source: ICF International, 2012. MEASURE DHS STATcompiler - <http://www.statcompiler.com>. Accessed November 21 2012.

In Uganda, women get married when they are still young, and therefore most births are expected culturally to be within a marriage setting. Our study sought to further explore the determinants of contraceptive use among young and older married, fecund, sexually active, non-pregnant women in Uganda, for which existing literature does not provide concrete evidence.

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 3: Conceptual Framework: The Relationship between Socioeconomic, Demographic, Societal, and Behavioral Factors and Contraceptive Use



Many researchers have examined the determinants of contraceptive use, from both the providers' and clients' perspectives (Cleland et al., 2006). The customized conceptual framework builds on existing knowledge to analyze the socio-demographic factors associated with contraceptive use among young married women compared with older women in Uganda. The framework used is generalized for both the young women and older women, and the analysis will specifically identify the levels of determination for contraceptive use by comparing young and old women. We hypothesize that the factors associated with contraceptive use may

operate differently within each age group. This hypothesis is premised on the fact that, as in many of the least-developed countries, health services and policies in Uganda are not clearly streamlined to consider the special needs of young women (Healthy Action, 2011).

In our analysis we consider the socioeconomic and demographic factors associated with modern contraceptive use among young married women compared with older women. On an individual level, these factors include educational attainment, husband's education, marital status, age, and current desire for children.

Since individuals act and react within a society and culture, the analysis considers that these factors operate through intermediate factors that generally act as catalysts to increase or decrease contraceptive use among women. These factors are both societal and behavioral in nature. Factors measured include exposure to family planning messages in the mass media, women's empowerment, women's residence (rural or urban), wealth, and region of the country. To determine women's empowerment, the DHS survey asked women about their decision-making, as a proxy indicator. Women were asked who makes decisions on: visiting a family relative, large family purchases, daily household purchases, and own health care.

Other latent factors are associated indirectly with contraceptive use among young and older women and their decisions to use contraceptives. These include family planning providers' attitudes, women's access to family planning services, and availability of family planning services. These latent factors have not been included in the regression modeling but were important informative variables during our literature search.

3. DATA AND METHODS

Data source and data description

The paper used secondary data from the 2006 and 2011 Uganda Demographic and Health Surveys (UDHS). In both surveys, two-stage cluster sampling was used to generate a nationally representative sample of households. In the 2006 UDHS, some areas of the north (especially Karamoja region) were oversampled, including some refugee camps, to obtain specific indicators for these areas due to insecurity and the after-effect of Lord's Resistance Army

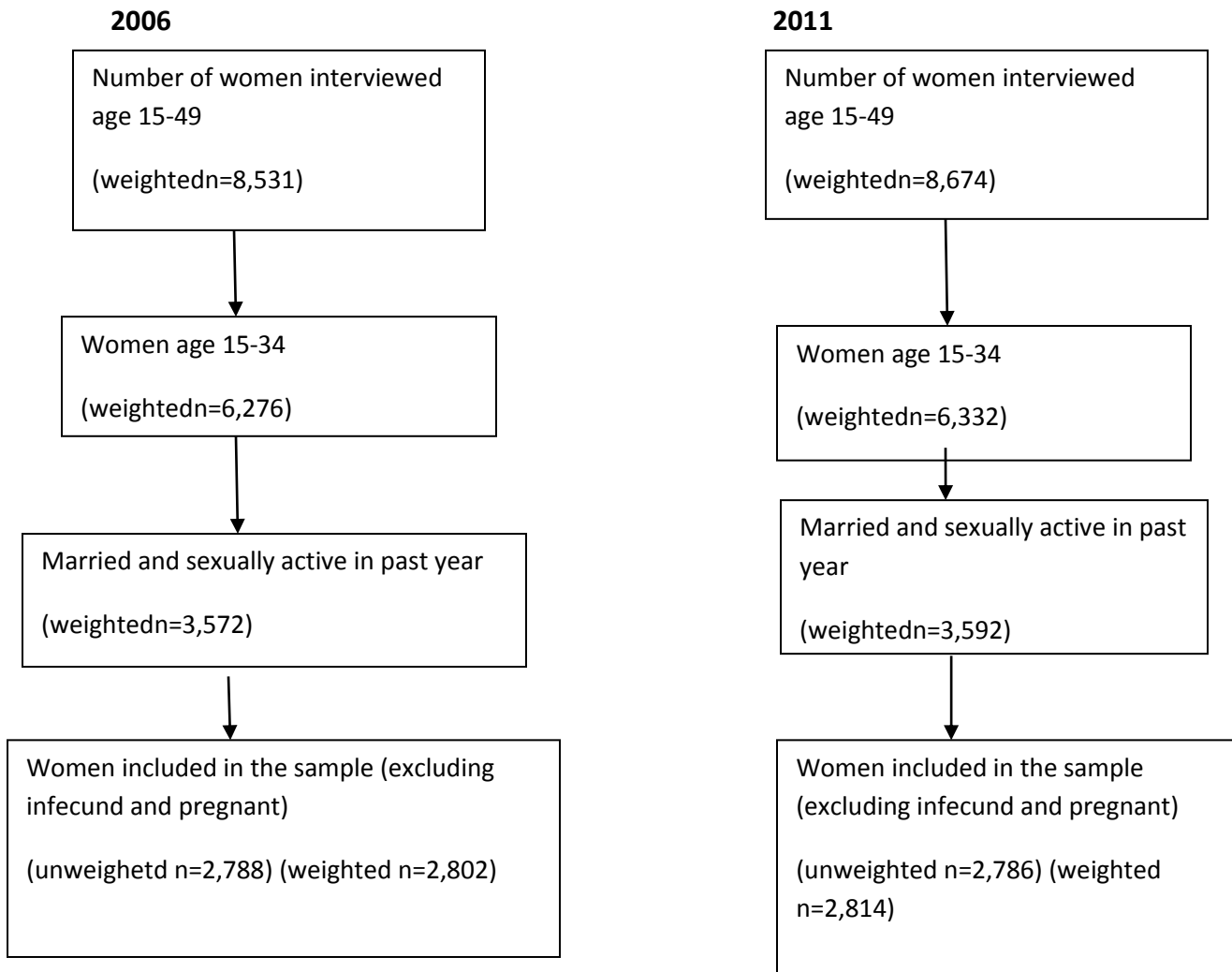
insurgency. For this reason, Karamoja is excluded from 2006 estimates and results from Northern region are not strictly comparable across both surveys. Sampling methods are detailed in each final report (UBOS and ICF International, 2007 and 2012). The first stage involved selecting the clusters, followed by the second stage, which selected households in each cluster. Stratification of urban and rural areas was taken into account. A sample of 404 Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) were covered and proportionally allocated among the 10 sub-national regions, and a total of 8,674 women age 15-49 were interviewed in 2011, and 8,531 in 2006.

Study sample

The statistical analysis focuses only on married¹ women age 15-34 years who were sexually active in the last year before the survey and who are not pregnant or infecund, comprising a weighted sample size of 2,802 in 2006 and 2,814 in 2011. Figure 4 shows how this subsample was derived in each survey. In order to ensure representativeness across the country and to correct for non-response, data used were weighted and took into consideration the complex survey design in the analyses, using the SVY command in Stata.

¹ In the DHS, women are considered to be currently married if they report that they are “married or living with a man as if married.”

Figure 4: Sample Selection Flow Diagram



Variables

The main variable of interest (dependent variable) was modern contraceptive use, which is binary in nature (non-use or use). Modern methods of family planning refer to safe, effective and legal methods to prevent pregnancy such as the pill, condoms, injectables, and the Intra-Uterine Device (IUD).

The explanatory (independent) variables in the study are women's education, wealth index, region of the country, residence (urban or rural), exposure to family planning messages on

radio, television, or newspapers in the past few, desire for children, husband's education, women's empowerment, ability to refuse sex, and visited health facility in the past 12 months.

In the final model, only variables that passed the multi-collinearity test were included, with none of the variables having a VIF greater than 3 (see Appendix 1). Empowerment was thought to be an important variable in the analysis. As mentioned above, the survey asked women about who makes decisions about four areas: major household purchases, daily household purchases, visits to family relatives, and own health care. The possible answers to these questions were: woman alone, woman with husband, husband alone, or another person altogether.

If the woman indicated that she had a say in a decision, whether by herself or jointly with her husband, she received a score of 1. Based on the responses to these four questions, an empowerment index was constructed. Respondents were classified into three groups: low (0), medium (1-2), and high (3-4), depending on the number of decisions in which the woman said that she had a say.

A woman's ability to refuse sex with her husband, also asked in the surveys, was considered separately from the empowerment index, both because it is more directly related to use of family planning and because the measure is constructed differently than the measure of empowerment. That is, women were asked whether they could refuse sex or not.

Family planning use in the highest wealth quintile is nearly double that of the next quintile, leading us to hypothesize that the top quintile should be considered separately from other groups. Therefore, wealth scores were collapsed into three groups: bottom 40%, middle 40% and top 20%.

The education variable was divided into three categories—no education, primary, and secondary, based on the highest grade of schooling the respondent had attended. Attending

school rather than obtaining a degree was used as a metric of education so that teenage women attending school or who might soon attend secondary school would not be excluded from those over age 18, who have had a chance to complete their degree.

Methods

The paper starts with descriptive exploration of both dependent and independent variables. At the multivariate level, the relationship between selected variables of interest and the dependent variable (current use of modern contraception) was estimated using a binary logistic regression model. This is so, because the dependant variable is dichotomous, with the two outcomes, 1 for use of modern contraceptives and 0 for not using a modern method. Given that the core analytical strategy in this paper focuses on two age groups of women, young and older, the models are separated by age groups within each year of the survey.

Dummy variables were created and used to select socioeconomic and demographic variables in the logistic regression model. Results were accepted at the 95% confidence level. The full regression model was also tested for goodness of fit using the Archer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test in Stata (2006). This model is based on the earlier Hosmer-Lemeshow test (1980) but adjusts for complex survey samples. The null hypothesis under the goodness of fit is that the model is a good fit, implying that probabilities greater than 0.05 using the 95% level of confidence were taken to be a good fit.

Data Limitations

One major limitation of this dataset was heaping in some categories, for example education level. In this instance, women who had stopped at primary level three were considered to be equal to those who had completed primary level seven. This categorization was necessary because women under age 18 might currently be pursuing secondary education but might not yet have had the chance to complete their education.

Another limitation of the study was that some desired aspects in the conceptual framework, for example experience of an abortion and woman's HIV status, could not be adequately operationalized to allow analysis using the available dataset.

4. RESULTS

This study provides descriptive statistics about sexually active, fecund, non-pregnant married women age 15-24 (young) and age 25-34 (older). Table 1 shows the composition of women in each age group by year characteristics from the conceptual framework, including women's education, wealth index, region of the country, residence (urban or rural), and exposure to family planning messages. Statistically significant differences were tested using the chi-square test between the two groups of women in each survey year.

Table 1 shows that in 2006 and 2011, younger women were better educated than women age 25-34. For example, in 2006, 87% of women age 15-24 compared with 79% of women age 25-34 reported primary, secondary, or higher education. Between the two surveys, education attainment seems dramatically improved in both groups.

In regard to household wealth status, younger women seem to be more financially disadvantaged than older women in our sample, both in 2006 and 2011. In 2006, 46% of women age 15-24 were in the bottom 40% wealth group compared with 37% of women age 25-34. Young women's situation (relative to others) improved slightly in 2011.

In most regions, distributions of the two age groups were similar. The exception of Northern region in 2011, where the overall percentage was only about 18% compared to 31% from the Central region.

The majority of women studied wanted to have the next child two years later. In both surveys, younger women showed stronger fertility desire than older women. A smaller percentage of women age 15-24 than age 25-34 wanted to limit or delay childbearing at least two years. In 2011, 26% of women age 15-24 wanted a child within two years compared with 16% among women age 25-34.

Younger women generally appear to be less empowered than older women. In 2006, for example, 15% of married women age 25-34 had a low empowerment score compared with 20% among the younger group, age 15-24. The difference was similar in 2011. Conversely, older women were more likely to have high empowerment scores, at 59% of women age 25-34 in 2006 compared with 48% among women age 15-24. However, women’s empowerment appears to have weakened between the two surveys. A smaller percentage of women in both age groups had high empowerment scores in 2011 than in 2006 (see Table 1).

Nonetheless, women’s ability to refuse sex increased between 2006 and 2011. In the 2006 survey 78% of all women studied said they could refuse sex; in 2011 the comparable percentage was 86%. The percentages were similar for both age groups.

Exposure to family planning message was particularly high in 2011. In both age groups 76% of women reported to have been exposed to family planning message in the media (radio, television, newspaper) in the past few months preceding the survey. In both surveys, the difference between the two age groups is not significant.

Table1: Composition of Sexually Active Married Women by Age Group, 2006 and 2011

<i>Background Characteristics</i>	<i>2006</i>			<i>2011</i>		
	<i>Age Group</i>		<i>Total</i>	<i>Age Group</i>		<i>Total</i>
	<i>15-24</i>	<i>25-34</i>		<i>15-24</i>	<i>25-34</i>	
<i>Education Attainment</i>						
No education	12.8	21.0	17.7	5.0	13.3	10.1
Primary	67.8	60.6	63.6	66.9	59.4	62.3
Secondary+	19.4	18.4	18.8	28.1	27.3	27.6
p-value	0.0000			0.0000		
<i>Wealth Index</i>						
<i>Lowest 40%</i>	45.9	36.8	40.5	43.0	36.5	39.0

	2006			2011		
	Age Group		Total	Age Group		Total
Background Characteristics	15-24	25-34		15-24	25-34	
<i>Middle40%</i>	33.3	40.9	37.8	34.5	36.5	35.7
<i>Highest 20%</i>	20.9	22.3	21.7	22.5	27.0	25.3
<i>p-value</i>	0.0002			0.0130		
Region						
<i>Central</i>	25.9	28.2	27.3	29.9	31.0	30.6
<i>East</i>	24.4	23.7	24.0	30.3	24.1	26.5
<i>North</i>	22.1	20.9	21.4	17.6	17.9	17.8
<i>West</i>	27.6	27.2	27.4	22.3	27.0	25.2
<i>p-value</i>	0.7393			0.0093		
Residence						
<i>Urban</i>	16.8	14.8	15.6	19.5	20.1	19.9
<i>Rural</i>	83.2	85.2	84.4	80.5	79.9	80.1
<i>p-value</i>	0.2681			0.7339		
Family Planning Messages						
<i>Did not hearfamily planning message in past few months</i>	40.4	37.0	38.4	23.9	24.1	24.0
<i>Heard family planning message on radio, TV, or newspaper in past few months</i>	59.6	63.0	61.6	76.1	75.9	76.0
<i>p-value</i>	0.0838			0.9124		

<i>Background Characteristics</i>	<i>2006</i>			<i>2011</i>		
	<i>Age Group</i>		<i>Total</i>	<i>Age Group</i>		<i>Total</i>
	<i>15-24</i>	<i>25-34</i>		<i>15-24</i>	<i>25-34</i>	
Desire for children						
Wants within 2 years	30.2	18.1	23.0	25.7	16.4	20.0
Wants after 2 years	65.8	74.6	71.0	72.4	78.0	75.8
Do not want any more	4.0	7.4	6.0	2.0	5.6	4.2
<i>p-value</i>	0.0000			0.0000		
Husband's education level						
	6.8					
	59.4	9.7	8.5	5.3	7.0	6.4
No education/primary	33.8	60.4	60.0	51.0	53.2	52.4
Secondary+	0.0001	29.9	31.5	43.7	39.8	41.2
<i>p-value</i>				0.0000		
Can refuse sex						
No	23.1	21.7	22.2	13.4	13.7	13.6
Yes	76.9	78.3	77.8	86.6	86.3	86.4
<i>p-value</i>	0.4188			0.8577		
Empowerment Index						
Low	20.1	15.0	17.0	22.3	17.0	
Medium	30.7	26.1	28.0	40.0	35.7	19.0
High	48.2	58.9	55.0	37.8	47.4	37.3
<i>p-value</i>	0.0001			0.0004		43.7

<i>Background Characteristics</i>	<i>2006</i>			<i>2011</i>		
	<i>Age Group</i>		<i>Total</i>	<i>Age Group</i>		<i>Total</i>
	<i>15-24</i>	<i>25-34</i>		<i>15-24</i>	<i>25-34</i>	
Visited health facility in last 12 months						
No	26.5	24.0	25.0	24.1	22.7	23.2
Yes	73.5	76.0	75.0	75.9	77.3	76.8
p-value	0.1805			0.4879		
Average number of living children	1.7	4.0	3.1	1.7	3.7	2.9
Number of women(weighted)	1,144	1,658	2,802	1,076	1,738	2,814

Figure 5 shows the proportion of married sexually active women using modern methods by age group, for both survey years. In 2011, contraceptive use among sexually active women (excluding pregnant and infecund women) age 15-24 was lower, at 34%, than among women age 25-34, at 50%. Contraceptive use increased more among the older group of women than the young group between 2006 and 2011 (see Figure 5).

Figure 5: Current use of modern contraception by married sexually active women age 15-24 and age 25-34, 2006 and 2011, Uganda

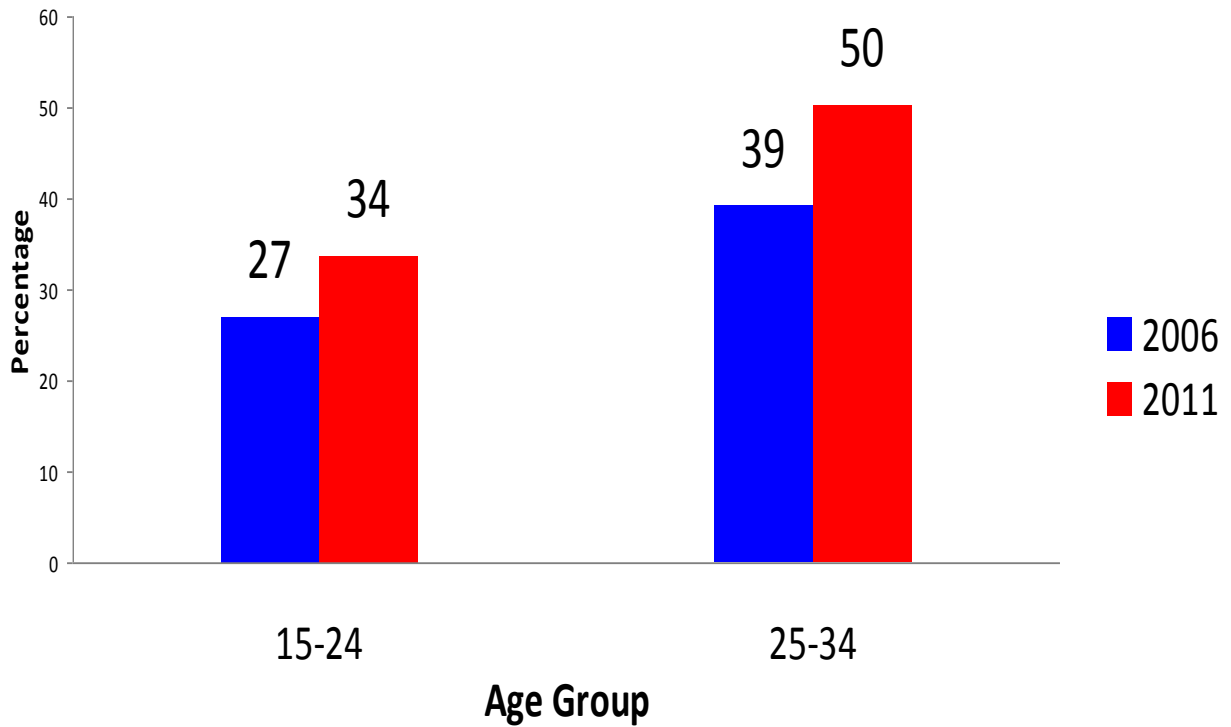
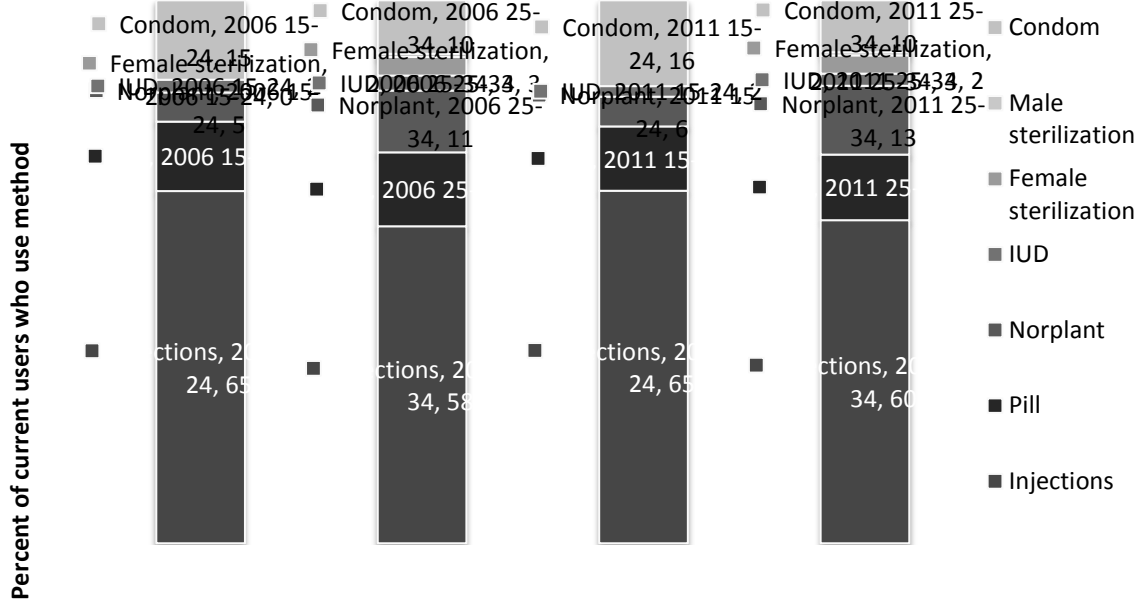


Figure 6 shows the contraceptive method mix among sexually active married women for 2006 and 2011. Injections were the predominantly used method among both the young and the older women. Use of injections was greater among young women than older women. The figure also shows that use of condoms and the pill was second to use of injections, though at relatively low levels.

Figure 5: Contraceptive method mix, sexually active married women, 2006 (n=640) and 2011 (n=897)



This study also explored factors that might be associated with contraceptive use at a bivariate level of analysis, using the chi-square test to compare family planning use within each age group by survey year. Table 2 shows the percentage of women in each age group currently using a modern contraceptive method by selected characteristics of the women, including education, household wealth status, region, residence, exposure to family planning messages, fertility desire, partners' education, women's ability to refuse sex, empowerment index, and contact with family planning health facilities.

Results reveal that, in each age group, education level, wealth index, region, residence (urban-rural), and desire for children are significantly associated with contraceptive use, both in 2006 and in 2011. The likelihood of using contraception is associated with women's educational attainment. The more schooling a woman has, the more likely she is to report use of a modern contraceptive method. In each age group, over one-third of women with secondary or higher education, but far fewer women with no education, reported modern contraceptive use.

Comparing the two age groups, education seems to have a stronger effect on older women than on younger women. In 2006, for instance, 45% of sexually active married women age 25-34 who had attained secondary level and above were currently using modern contraceptive methods compared with 34% among women age 15-24. In 2011, however, this gap was much narrower (see Table 2).

In both surveys, modern contraceptive use is positively associated with level of household wealth. For both age groups, use of modern methods is highest among women from the richest households. Wealth-related disparities in contraceptive use are greater among younger women.

Regional variation in contraceptive use is great especially for the age group 15-24 years for both the period of 2006 and 2011. For instance, in 2006 9% of the young from the Northern region were using contraceptives compared to 29% from the Central region. This trend is also

observed in 2011 where 15% of the young married, sexually active women were using contraceptives compared to 34% from the Central region. Also, women in urban areas are more likely to use contraception than women in rural areas. Urban-rural differentials are relatively larger among younger women compared with older women.

Women who wanted a child within two years reported the lowest levels of contraceptive use. Conversely, women who did not want any more children had the highest levels. Nevertheless, among women who did not want any more children, far fewer women age 15-24 reported current use of a contraceptive method compared with women age 24-35(see Table 2).

Women’s empowerment does not appear to be associated with contraceptive use, for either age group. In 2006, women age 15-24 with low or medium empowerment scores reported similar levels of contraceptive use, while women age 15-24 with a high empowerment score were generally somewhat less likely to use contraception (see Table 2). Also, higher levels of contraceptive use were observed among women who said they could refuse sex with their husbands compared with women who said they could not refuse sex.

Table2: Proportion of married sexually active women currently using a modern method of contraception, by survey year and age group

Background Characteristics	2006		2011	
	15-24	25-34	15-24	25-34
Education Attainment				
No education	5.7	12.5	16.7	22.9
Primary	17.1	24.4	22.3	32.9
Secondary+	33.8	44.6	34.5	35.8
p-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0010	0.0000
Wealth Index				
Lowest 40%	12.8	13.1	19.1	25.8
Middle 40%	13.0	25.8	24.8	36.1
Highest 20%	41.5	45.9	38.7	49.1
p-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Region				
Central	29.0	40.8	34.1	41.7

Background Characteristics	2006		2011	
	15-24	25-34	15-24	25-34
East	20.8	21.9	23.0	32.9
North	9.4	12.7	14.8	31.3
West	15.3	22.9	25.6	34.7
p-value	0.000	0.000	0.022	0.060
Residence				
Rural	14.2	22.2	21.8	33.1
Urban	41.9	44.9	40.3	47.0
p-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Family Planning Messages				
Did not hear family planning message in past few months	13.7	18.9	23.2	25.1
Heard family planning message in past few months	22.4	29.5	26.2	39.3
p-value	0.0009	0.0001	0.4047	0.0000
Desire for children				
Wants within 2 years	12.2	13.4	15.2	19.2
Wants after 2 years	21.4	27.4	28.8	38.3
Don't want any more	28.4	37.5	33.9	50.8
p-value	0.0033	0.0000	0.0000	0.0010
Husband's education level				
No education	6.8	8.2	22.6	22.6
Primary	15.9	22.5	24.1	33.8
Secondary+	26.1	35.6	26.8	41.8
Don't know	15.5	27.3	35.4	35.8
p-value	0.0001	0.0000	0.5375	0.0072
Can refuse sex				
No	16.1	19.6	15.4	24.7
Yes	19.7	27.2	27.0	37.6
p-value	0.2313	0.0171	0.0128	0.0005
Empowerment Index				
Low	19.5	21.4	24.8	34.2
Medium	19.7	26.3	28.2	37.7
High	15.4	27.0	22.9	35.1
p-value	0.4217	0.2734	0.3952	0.5942

Background Characteristics	2006		2011	
	15-24	25-34	15-24	25-34
Visited by family planning provider in last 12 months				
No	12.8	21.8	26.1	35.5
Yes	21.0	26.8	25.3	36.0
p-value	0.0045	0.0800	0.8251	0.8886
Number of women(weighted)	1,144	1,658	1,076	1,738

Our study also carried out further analysis to find factors that might be associated with modern contraceptive use (outcome variables), regressed over a number of independent factors. Table 3 shows the details of the regression results.

Results indicated that in 2006, after controlling for other covariates, contraceptive use among women aged 15-24 is significantly associated with educational attainment, urban-rural residence, desire for children and number of living children. Among women age 25-34, the significant variables were educational attainment, region, household wealth, and desire for children and women empowerment. In 2011, the significant variables for younger women were only residence and desire for children while for older women education attainment, household wealth, exposure to family planning message, desire for children, and perceived ability to refuse sex.

In 2006, educational attainment has a strong positive relationship with modern contraceptive use among both younger women and older women. For women age 15-24, the odds of using a modern method are 2.8 times higher for women with primary education and 3.5 times higher for women with secondary education compared with women with no education. The effect of education is slightly weaker for women age 25-34, reflected by smaller odds ratios. In contrast, in 2011 education is not significantly associated with contraceptive use.

In 2006, education and desire for children were positively associated with contraceptive use among women in both age groups. In 2011, the positive association for the two variables (education and desire for children) remained for women age 25-34. The odds of using contraception for women in the higher categories of education attainment are more than twice the odds for women with no education level. Similarly, the odds of using contraception for women who did not want any more children are more than twice the odds for women who wanted more children.

Results show that region was a significant variable only for older age groups in 2006. Living in urban areas was associated with more contraceptive use among women aged 15-24 in both 2006 and 2011.

Desire to have children was significantly associated with contraceptive use for both younger and older women in 2011, and only for older women in 2006. Compared with women who want a child within next two years, the odds of using contraception are over five times higher for women who do not want any more children in both surveys. The odds ratio for women who want to delay childbearing ranges from 2.3 for women age 15-24 in 2011 to 2.9 for women age 25-34 in the same survey.

Recent exposure to family planning messages and perceived ability to refuse sex are only significantly associated with contraceptive use for older women in 2011. Analysis shows that women’s empowerment show a significant relationship with contraceptive use among older married sexually active women by 2006 and 2011.

Overall, there were relatively few significant covariates in 2011 compared to 2006. For example, residence and desire for children were the only significant variables for women aged 15-24 in 2011. Results from Hosmer-Lemeshow (1980) goodness of fit for 2006 were 0.410 for women age 15-24 and 0.682 for women age 25-34. Similarly, results using the 2011 data were 0.311 and 0.477, respectively. The null hypothesis under the goodness of fit is that the model is a good fit, implying that probabilities greater than 0.05 using the 95% level of confidence were taken to be a good fit. However, there were few significant covariates with likelihood that unobserved characteristics could have affected the model.

Table 3: Results from logistic regression for factors associated with use of contraception among sexually active married women, using UDHS 2006 and 2011 data

	2006	2011
--	------	------

	15-24		25-34		15-24		25-34	
	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI
Education level (Reference=None)								
Primary	2.86**	1.29-6.36	1.70**	1.11-2.60	1.20	0.44 – 3.28	1.29	0.77 – 2.17
Secondary+	3.57**	1.35-9.47	2.28**	1.34-3.90	1.80	0.60 – 5.36	1.97**	1.02 – 3.80
Wealth Index (Reference=Lowest40%)								
Middle 40%	0.74	0.45-1.22	1.57**	1.08-2.27	1.16	0.74 – 1.84	1.47**	1.08 – 2.00
Highest 20%	2.06	0.33-1.31	2.18**	1.32-3.61	1.38	0.72– 2.64	2.20**	1.35 – 3.57
Region (Reference = Central)								
East	1.42	0.61 – 2.04	0.63**	0.44 – 0.89	0.84	0.52 – 1.36	0.97	0.67 – 1.40
North	0.65	0.31 – 1.31	0.38**	0.24 – 0.62	0.62	0.32 – 1.22	1.29	0.83 – 2.01
West	1.11	0.61 – 2.04	0.62**	0.43 – 0.89	1.01	0.62 – 1.65	1.07	0.75 – 1.52
Residence (Reference=Rural)								
Urban	2.51**	1.46 – 4.31	1.41	0.94-2.12	1.76**	1.06 – 2.93	1.09	0.76 – 1.55
Heard family planning messages on radio/TV/newspaper (Reference=No)								
Yes	1.35	0.90-2.04	1.20	0.88-1.64	0.99	0.67 – 1.47	1.39**	1.42 – 1.96
Desire for children (Reference=Wants within 2 years)								
Wants after 2 year	1.58	0.97-2.56	2.46**	1.60-3.79	2.18**	1.25 – 3.79	2.87**	1.82 – 4.53
No more	2.55**	1.00-6.48	5.12**	2.81-9.31	2.24	0.63 – 8.00	5.33**	2.78 – 10.23
Partners education (Reference=No education)								
Primary	1.72	0.47-6.35	1.83	0.87-3.85	0.94	0.36 – 2.43	1.34	0.68 – 2.67
Secondary	1.79	0.52-6.18	1.97	0.88-4.38	0.78	0.31– 1.97	1.25	0.61 – 2.59
Higher	2.01	0.45 8.10	1.97	0.85 4.53	0.58	0.18 – 1.89	1.06	0.49 – 2.33
Don't know	0.54	0.10-2.85	1.37	0.48-3.87	1.35	0.38 – 4.78	0.96	0.38 – 2.40

Can refuse Sex (Reference=No)								
Yes	1.09	0.70-1.70	1.20	0.84-1.72	1.63	0.86 –3.08	1.52**	1.07 – 2.16
Empowerment Index (Reference= low)								
Medium	0.88	0.56-1.38	1.47**	1.00-2.16	1.17	0.74 – 1.85	1.10	0.75 – 1.62
High	0.70	0.39-1.27	1.67**	1.05-2.64	0.93	0.57 – 1.51	0.99	0.69 – 1.41
Visited by family planning provider last 12 months (Reference=No)								
Yes	1.39	0.88-2.19	1.19	0.85-1.66	0.82	0.55 – 1.23	0.89	0.66 – 1.22
Number of living children	1.34**	1.13-1.60	0.99	0.91-1.08	1.11	0.94-1.31	1.01	0.93-1.10
Number of women (weighted)	1,144		1658		1,076		1738	

** Significant at 95% Confidence Interval

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study analyzed the socio-economic and demographic factors associated with contraceptive use in Uganda among young women (age 15-24) and older women (age 25-34) who were married, fecund, non-pregnant, and sexually active in the last year before the survey, in 2006 and 2011. All determinant factors for contraceptive use revealed that young women's levels of contraceptive use were lower among the young compared to the older women. More socio-economic and demographic factors were found to be associated with contraceptive use among older women compared to the young ones. This result is not a surprise in Uganda, and possibly elsewhere, because young women are less empowered in almost all aspects compared with older women.

Results showed that residence and women's desire for children were significantly associated with contraceptive use among young women in 2006 and 2011. Contraceptive use among older women was more associated with education attainment, desire for children and wealth index.

Further analysis at the multivariate level revealed that women's desire for children was the key significant socio-demographic factor associated with modern contraceptive use, both among young and older sexually active married women. These findings are similar to those of a longitudinal study in Bangladesh which concluded that contraceptive use and desire for additional children are significant predictors of subsequent contraceptive use (Chowdhury and Phillips, 1989). An earlier study in Pakistan revealed that women who had more children than their ideal number of children and who did not want any more children were four times more likely to have used contraceptives compared with women who had fewer children than their ideal and who wanted more children (Shah and Palmore, 1979).

Our study results revealed a large disparity in modern contraceptive use between the two age groups. Married women aged 15-24 consistently had lower levels of contraceptive use than women aged 25-34 over the time period 2006 and 2011. Variations in contraceptive use among the young and the older women varied according to the different independent factors that were explored. For instance exposure to family planning messages, ability to refuse sex and rank in the wealth index were key among older women in 2011. Women's empowerment was thought to be an important predictor of contraceptive use but was found to be significant among older sexually active married women only in 2006. Study results indicated that empowerment was not associated with contraceptive use among young married women.

The findings suggest that improving the livelihood of the population is important. Family planning programs should be intensified to meet the needs of young and married women. Programmes intended to improve contraceptive use among married women should put into consideration age factor since most Ugandan women get initiated into sexual activities at an earlier age and consequently enter marriage. Finally, making longer-term modern contraceptives, especially injections, available to more women would go a long way toward reducing levels of unmet need for family planning in Uganda.

Acknowledgment

We gratefully acknowledge USAID and ICF International for funding this research.

REFERENCES

- Blanc, A., Tsui A., Croft T. and Trevitt J. 2009. Patterns and trends in adolescents' contraceptive use and discontinuation in developing countries and comparisons with adult women. *International Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*. Volume 35, Issue 2, June 2009.
- Archer K. and Lemeshow S. 2006. Goodness-of-fit test for a logistic regression model fitted using survey sample data. *Stata Journal*, 6(1): 97-105.
- Chowdhury A. and Phillips J. 1989. Predicting contraceptive use in Bangladesh: a logistic regression analysis. *Journal of Biosocial Science*, 21(2):161-168.
- Cleland J., Bernstein S., Ezeh A., Faundes A. and Glasier A. 2006. Family planning: the unfinished agenda. *Lancet*, 368(9549):1810–1827.
- Gorgen R., Yansane M., Marx M. and Millimounou D. 1998. Sexual behavior and attitudes among unmarried urban youths in Guinea. *International Family Planning Perspectives*, 10.2307/2991927.
- Haberland N., Chong E., Bracken H. and Parker C. 2005. Early marriage and adolescent girls. YouthLens on Reproductive Health and HIV/AIDS, Research Triangle Park, NC, USA: YouthNet, 2005, No. 15.
- Healthy Action. 2011.
http://www.healthyaction.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Studies_and_reports/Uganda/HealthyAction_budget_study_Uganda_FINAL_25April2011.pdf. Accessed on 14 January 2013.
- Henshaw S. 1998. Unintended pregnancy in the United States, *Family Planning Perspectives*, 30(1):24-29 & 46.
- Hosmer, D. W., and Lemeshow, S. (1980). Goodness-of-fit tests for the multiple logistic regression model. *Communications in Statistics: Theory and Methods* 9(10), 1043–1069.
- ICF International. 2012. MEASURE DHS STATcompiler. <http://www.statcompiler.com>. Accessed on 19 September 2012.
- Ross J. and Winfrey W. 2002. Unmet need for contraception in the developing world and the former Soviet Union: an updated estimate. *International Family Planning Perspectives*, 28, 3, September.

- Kane T., DeBuysscher R., Thomas T. et al. 1993. Sexual activity, family life education and contraceptive practice among young adults in greater Banjul, The Gambia. *Studies in Family Planning*, 24(1):50-61.
- Maternity Worldwide. 2013. The MilleniumDevelopment Goals (MDGs). <http://www.maternityworldwide.org/the-issues/mfgs/> Accessed on 14 January 2013.
- Mensch B., Bruce J. and Greene M. 1998. *The Uncharted Passage: Girls' Adolescence in the Developing World*, New York: Population Council, 1998.
- Molla M., Berhane Y. and Lindtjorn B. 2008. Traditional values of virginity and sexual behaviour in rural Ethiopian youth: results from a cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health*, Vol. 8, Art. 9. Accessed on 20 February 2009.
- Osemwenkha S. 2004. Gender issues in contraceptive use among educated women in Edo state, Nigeria. *African Health Sciences*, 4(1), 40–9.
- Shah N. and Palmore J. 1979. Desired family size and contraceptive use in Pakistan, *International Family Planning Perspectives*, 5(4):143-150.
- UBOS and ICF International Inc. 2012. Uganda Demographic and Health Survey 2011. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) and Calverton, Maryland: ICF International Inc.
- UBOS and Macro International Inc. 2007. Uganda Demographic and Health Survey 2006. Calverton, Maryland, USA: Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) and Macro International Inc.
- UNFPA. 2012. Reproductive Health. Ensuring that Every Pregnancy is Wanted. <http://www.unfpa.org/rh/planning.htm>: Accessed on 14 January, 2013.
- United Nations. 2012. Millenium Development Goal 5: Improving Maternal Health. <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/maternal.shtml> Accessed 11 November 2012.
- United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). 2005. *Early Marriage: A Harmful Traditional Practice*, New York: UNICEF.
- Wang, W., Wang S., Pullum TPullumT.. and Ametepi P. 2012. How Family Planning Supply and the Service Environment Affect Contraceptive Use: Findings from Four East African Countries. *DHS Analytical Studies* 26.
- WHO. 2012. MDG 5: Improve Maternal health http://www.who.int/topics/millennium_development_goals/maternal_health/en/index.html Accessed on 2 January 2013.

WHO/UNICEF/UNFPA/World Bank. *Trends in maternal mortality: 1990 to 2008. Estimates developed by WHO, UNICEF, UNFPA, and the World Bank.* Geneva, World Health Organization, 2010.

Appendix 1: Multicollinearity Diagnostics Test

Variable	2006		2011	
	VIF ¹	R-Squared	VIF	R-Squared
Education	1.52	0.3407	1.55	0.3560
Wealth index	1.90	0.4724	2.03	0.5062
Region	1.31	0.2341	1.23	0.1839
Residence (urban-rural)	1.51	0.3370	1.73	0.4224
Exposed to family planning messages from radio/TV/newspaper	1.12	0.1092	1.17	0.1424
Desire for children	1.25	0.1990	1.13	0.1188
Partner's education	2.63	0.6193	2.80	0.6427
Can a woman refuse sex	1.82	0.4500	2.21	0.5475
Empowerment index	1.68	0.4035	1.92	0.4802
Visited by family planning provider	1.19	0.1575	1.15	0.1313
Number of living children	1.72	0.4191	1.79	0.4427

1. Variance inflation factor