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## The role of maternal health care services as predictors of time to modern contraceptive use after childbirth in North West Ethiopia: Application of the shared frailty survival analysis

--Manuscript Draft--

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<b>Full Title:</b>	The role of maternal health care services as predictors of time to modern contraceptive use after childbirth in North West Ethiopia: Application of the shared frailty survival analysis
<b>Short Title:</b>	Predictors of time to contraceptive use after birth
<b>Corresponding Author:</b>	Amanu Aragaw Emiru, Masters(PhD Candidate) Bahir Dar University Bahir Dar, ETHIOPIA
<b>Keywords:</b>	contraceptive; family planning; postpartum; survival; shared frailty
<b>Abstract:</b>	<p><b>Introduction:</b> The first year after birth is an ideal time to offer contraception services, as many women have many opportunities to be in contact with the health care system. Nevertheless, a large number of postpartum women in developing countries do not use the service owing to the interplay of factors operating at various stages. Therefore, this study aimed to assess predictors of modern contraceptive use in the extended postpartum period.</p> <p><b>Methods:</b> A community based retrospective cross-sectional study was done among 1281 women who gave birth within 12 months preceding the survey. Kaplan-Meier plots and log rank tests were used to explore the rate of modern contraceptive use. The Weibull regression survival model with multivariate frailty was employed to identify the predictors of time to contraception.</p> <p><b>Results:</b> Of the respondents, 59.1 % (95% CI: 56.8%–62.2%) had started using modern contraceptive methods within 12 months after birth. By the second month after birth, only 11.1 percent of the women surveyed started to use a contraceptive method, which increased steadily to 25.9%, 37.7%, and 59.5% at 6, 9, and 12 months, respectively. The most preferred contraceptive method was injectable (71.5%), followed by implants (21.5%). Women's education (aHR=1.29; 95%CI: 1.02, 1.66), four or more antenatal care (aHR=1.59; 95% CI: 1.22, 2.06), early initiation of antenatal care (aHR=2.03; 95% CI: 1.28, 3.21), and early postnatal checkup (aHR=1.39; 95% CI: 1.12, 1.73) were statistically significant predictors of earlier initiation of modern contraceptive methods.</p> <p><b>Conclusions:</b> A substantial proportion of women did not use modern contraceptive methods in the first year after birth. Maternal services were found to be the sole predictors in postpartum contraceptive use. Findings suggest the importance of linking postpartum family planning along the continuum of care. The observed heterogeneity at cluster level also urges the need of disaggregating data for decision making.</p>
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Predictors of time to contraceptive use after birth

1 The role of maternal health care services as predictors of time to  
2 modern contraceptive use after childbirth in North West  
3 Ethiopia: Application of the shared frailty survival analysis

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27 **Abstract**

28 **Introduction:** The first year after birth is an ideal time to offer contraception services, as  
29 many women have many opportunities to be in contact with the health care system. Nevertheless,  
30 a large number of postpartum women in developing countries do not use the service owing to the  
31 interplay of factors operating at various stages. Therefore, this study aimed to assess predictors  
32 of modern contraceptive use in the extended postpartum period.

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34 women who gave birth within 12 months preceding the survey. Kaplan-Meier plots and log rank  
35 tests were used to explore the rate of modern contraceptive use. The Weibull regression survival  
36 model with multivariate frailty was employed to identify the predictors of time to contraception.

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40 to 25.9%, 37.7%, and 59.5% at 6, 9, and 12 months, respectively. The most preferred  
41 contraceptive method was injectable (71.5%), followed by implants (21.5%). Women's  
42 education (aHR=1.29; 95%CI: 1.02, 1.66), four or more antenatal care (aHR = 1.59; 95% CI:  
43 1.22, 2.06), early initiation of antenatal care (aHR=2.03; 95% CI: 1.28, 3.21), and early postnatal  
44 checkup (aHR = 1.39; 95% CI: 1.12, 1.73) were statistically significant predictors of earlier  
45 initiation of modern contraceptive methods.

46 **Conclusions:** A substantial proportion of women did not use modern contraceptive methods  
47 in the first year after birth. Maternal services were found to be the sole predictors in postpartum



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48 contraceptive use. Findings suggest the importance of linking postpartum family planning along  
49 the continuum of care. The observed heterogeneity at cluster level also urges the need of  
50 disaggregating data for decision making.

51 **Key words:** contraceptive, family planning, postpartum, survival, shared frailty

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## 65 **Introduction**

66 At the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century maternal mortality remains a major public health challenge for  
67 many developing countries, and nowhere are global inequalities more starkly clear than in  
68 maternal death. The low-income countries accounted for 99% of these deaths of which two-third  
69 occurs in Sub-Saharan Africa where Ethiopia lies [1,2]. At 412 deaths per 100,000 live births[3],  
70 Ethiopia's maternal mortality ratio is one of the highest even by the standard of developing  
71 countries [4].

72 However, it is known that many of the maternal deaths can be prevented with appropriate  
73 maternal care during pregnancy, delivery and post natal periods [5,6]. With this in view, women  
74 access health services more often during the time of pregnancy, delivery, and the first year after  
75 birth than other periods [7]. These points of contact, whether part of a routine or emergency care,  
76 are opportunities for providers to screen for, counsel, and hence to address the contraceptive  
77 needs of postpartum women and couples[8]. Therefore, promoting contraceptive use during each  
78 contact in the continuum is considered an important strategy for addressing the widespread  
79 unmet needs in family planning [9].

80 Despite this, the vast majority of postpartum women in developing countries missed the  
81 opportunities at each point of contact. With this, postpartum women are among those with the  
82 greatest unmet need for family planning than other periods [6,10,11]. In Ethiopia, unmet need for  
83 family planning in the postpartum period is also much higher than women outside of the  
84 extended postpartum period; while 16.2% women, in general, do have unmet need for family  
85 planning[12], the unmet need in the first year after childbirth reaches as high as 44 percent [13].

86 Women's decision to use modern contraceptives in the first year of postpartum is influenced by a  
87 complex array of factors within the community and health system[14,15]. Postpartum women

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88 often do not realize that they are at risk of pregnancy when they are amenorrheic or breastfeeding  
89 [15]. Postpartum contraception adoption has also a social connotation; the postpartum period is  
90 the time during which a woman needs to adjust herself to new roles to care for her newborn [16].  
91 Furthermore, male dominance and subordination of women, as well as mistaken beliefs, and  
92 religious faith of the population are other impediments to the acceptance of contraception in  
93 developing countries, including Ethiopia [15].

94 Beyond the socio-cultural barriers, insufficient contraceptive method mixes, and poor family  
95 planning service integration with other health services in many settings also appear to be  
96 formidable obstacles remaining to be correct [8,17].

97 Several studies have been carried out on postpartum contraceptive use in the study area in  
98 particular and Ethiopia at large [18-20]; yet, most of the earlier studies, if any, have ignored the  
99 hierarchical facts. It is, however, evidenced that clustering (frailty) has an effect on modeling the  
100 predictors of time to contraception[21]. Consequently, modeling time to contraceptive use  
101 ignoring the frailty terms may lead to biased estimates of parameters and their respective  
102 standard errors.

103 Furthermore, according to the current Ethiopian Demographic and health survey (EDHS),  
104 regional disparities in contraceptive adoption have been reported, with higher rates observed in  
105 the Amhara region(where the study area is found) and Addis Ababa(the capital city of the  
106 country) than the rest of the regions[3]. Nevertheless, this was a survey report rather than an  
107 empirical study, and the contribution of explanatory factors was not examined.

108 In this regard, addressing these gaps would have significant implications for policymakers,  
109 health planners, and clinicians. Therefore, considering the hierarchal nature of our data we  
110 attempted to provide an understanding of factors associated with the timing of postpartum  
111 contraceptive use using a shared frailty survival model.

## 112 **Materials and methods**

### 113 **Study setting**

114 The study was carried out in West Gojjam zone, which is one of the eleven zones found in the  
115 Amhara region of Ethiopia. Administratively, the zone is subdivided into 13 rural districts and 2  
116 town administrations with a projected total population of 2,611,925 (2,194,017 rural and 417,908  
117 urban) people. The number of females in the reproductive age group was 615,892, accounting for  
118 23.58 % of the total population[22].

119 The zone had over 598 health facilities (6 public primary hospitals, 103 health centers, 374  
120 functional health posts, 114 private clinics, and 1 private hospital) at the time of the survey.  
121 Family planning, antenatal care, labor and delivery, and postnatal services are provided free of  
122 charge in all the public health facilities[22].

### 123 **Study design and population**

124 A community-based retrospective cross-sectional study was conducted on reproductive-aged  
125 women whose most recent birth was within 12months preceding the survey.

### 126 **Sample size and sampling procedure**

127 The required sample size was done through the STAT CALC program of the Epi-Info statistical  
128 package V.7.0. This study was part of a large study done on the continuum of maternal health  
129 care with multiple objectives. For each objective alternative sample sizes were computed  
130 considering both the double and single population formulas; the detail of the sample size  
131 calculation and sampling procedure is publicly posted in the research square. Of the alternative  
132 sample sizes computed based on different indicators, the largest sample size (1294 women) was

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133 obtained when considering the following assumptions; 95% confidence level, 4% margin of error,  
134 16.5% proportion of PNC utilization[23], design effect of 2, and 10% non-response rate.  
135 However, during the time of data collection 1337 women who met the inclusion criteria were  
136 included in this study to increase the power of the study.

137 A multistage sampling technique was used to identify the study participants. First, five out of  
138 fifteen districts in the Zone (four rural districts and one town administration) were selected using  
139 simple random sampling. Second, thirteen kebeles (the smallest administrative units in Ethiopia)  
140 were chosen randomly by taking in to account the number of kebeles in each district. Then, a  
141 complete list of deliveries that took place within 12 months before the survey was identified  
142 from the family folder of health extension workers in the respective kebeles. Finally, 1337  
143 eligible women who met the inclusion criteria were selected.

## 144 **Study Variables and measurement**

145 The outcome variable was modern contraceptive use within 12 months following the last birth. A  
146 woman who started using modern contraceptives was coded as “1”, and otherwise “0”.

147 The explanatory variables included socioeconomic variables (such as place of residence,  
148 maternal/paternal education, household wealth index, and Primary Health care (PHC) facilities  
149 per 25,000 populations at district level), demographic characteristics (age of women, occupation  
150 of women and husbands), and reproductive variables (such as desirability of the pregnancy,  
151 family size, birth interval, number and timing of antenatal visits, mode of delivery, and Postnatal  
152 care).

153 The wealth index was generated from the household’s cumulative living standard based on  
154 ownership of specified assets using factor analysis and was later categorized into terciles (poor,  
155 middle and rich).

156 The two quantitative terms, survivor function  $S(t)$  and hazard function  $h(t)$ , are important in any  
157 survival analysis[21]. In relation to our study, the survivor function is the probability that a  
158 postpartum woman “survives” longer than some specified time “ $t$ ” without started taking modern  
159 contraceptive methods after childbirth, while the hazard function gives the instantaneous  
160 potential per unit time to start using modern contraception after time “ $t$ ”, given that the woman  
161 had not started taking any modern contraceptive up to time “ $t$ ”.

## 162 **Data collection process**

163 The household data were collected using a pre-tested interviewer-administered questionnaire,  
164 developed in the local language, Amharic. Fifteen nurses and five public health officers were  
165 deployed as data collectors and supervisors, respectively after receiving two days of intensive  
166 training. Data regarding socio-economic, demographic, and reproductive characteristics were  
167 collected among women who gave birth (either at home or in a health facility) to a baby within  
168 12 months before the survey. Besides, the number of PHC providing maternity and reproductive  
169 health services per total population was assessed at the district level, and the result had been  
170 linked to the individual woman in the corresponding household survey.

## 171 **Data processing and analysis**

172 The analysis was done using STATA 14.0. Both descriptive statistics and survival analysis  
173 techniques were used in analyzing the data. First, an assessment of the time-to-modern  
174 contraceptive use after birth was done using life tables based on the Kaplan-Meier (K-M)  
175 estimate. Second, the Log-rank Chi-square test was used to examine the differences in the  
176 survival curves for different categories of each study variable. **Third, the multivariate (or shared**

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177 frailty) survival analysis was done by assuming different parametric distributions for the baseline  
178 hazard function and using gamma for frailty distributions.

179 The shared frailty approach is a conditional independence model for time to event data, where  
180 the frailty term (the random effect) is common to all subjects in a cluster [21]. In our study  
181 women who were living in the same cluster (kebele) were more likely to have outcomes (post-  
182 partum contraceptive use) that are correlated with one another, and, thus independence between  
183 event times cannot be assumed. Moreover, it is unlikely to include all the relevant covariates in  
184 the model. With that in mind, using the cox proportional hazard model could not account for all  
185 the variability in the observed failure times. Therefore, it was reasonable to apply the shared  
186 frailty survival model, that accounts for heterogeneity caused by unmeasured covariates, as an  
187 alternative to the standard cox survival model [21,24]. The conditional hazard function for the  
188 Weibull shared frailty survival model used in this study is defined as:

$$189 \lambda(t_{ij}/Z_i) = Z_i \lambda_0(t_{ij}) \exp(\beta' x_{ij}), i=1, \dots, n; j = 1, \dots, k_i$$

190 Where;  $i$  indicate the  $i^{th}$  cluster (kebele),  $j$  indicates the  $j^{th}$  individual in the  $i^{th}$  cluster,  $t_{ij}$  is the  
191 observed failure time of a right censoring scheme for the  $k^{th}$  ( $k=1, \dots, n_j$ ) observation in the  $i^{th}$   
192 cluster,  $\lambda_0(.) = pt^{p-1}$  is the baseline hazard,  $X_{ij}$  is the vector of covariates for subject  $j$  in cluster  $i$ ,  
193  $\beta'$  is a vector of regression coefficients, and  $Z_i$  is the frailty term. In this study the frailty  $Z_j$  was  
194 supposed to follow a gamma distribution  $g(z; \theta, \theta)$ , which is the most common and widely used  
195 distribution for determining the frailty effect[24].

196 The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was used to select the appropriate model. Further, the  
197 Cox-Snell residual plot analysis was done to evaluate the overall model fitness. Furthermore,  
198 interaction between the independent variables for contraceptive use was tested. Finally, the  
199 frailty effects, Kendall's Tau, and hazard ratio at 95% confidence interval were estimated for the  
200 selected model.

## 201 **Ethical approval**

202 This study was approved by the Research Ethical review committee of the College of Medicine  
203 and Health Sciences, Bahir Dar University (reference number: 088/18-04). Letters of permission  
204 were secured from the Amhara Regional State Health Bureau and respective health offices. Also,  
205 oral informed consent was received from each study participant. The data obtained from each  
206 study participants was kept confidential throughout the process of study, and the name of the  
207 participants was replaced by code.

208

## 209 **Results**

### 210 **Background characteristics**

211 A total of 1281 reproductive- age women participated in this study giving a response rate of  
212 95.8%. More than half 674(52.6%) of the women were in the age group of 25–34 years with a  
213 mean ( $\pm$  SD) age of 30.3( $\pm$ 6.0) years. Little more than three-quarters, 978(76.3%), of the  
214 sampled women were rural residents, and 862(67.3%) of them belonged to the lower two wealth  
215 quintiles.

216 Concerning the reproductive characteristics, 511(39.9%) of them had at least 4 ANC visits,  
217 194(15.1%) had their first ANC visit within the first four months after conception. Also, the  
218 highest proportion, 672(52.5%) of women had deliveries at home and almost a similar proportion  
219 of 719 (56.1%) women did not have any health check within the six weeks of postpartum (Table  
220 1).

221



222 **Table 1. Background characteristics of postpartum women in West Gojjam Zone,**  
 223 **Northwest Ethiopia, 2018(n=1281).**

Variables	Survival Status		Total
	Failures (contraceptive users) n= 762	Censored (Nonusers ) n= 519	
<b>Residence</b>			
Rural	551	427	978(76.3)
Urban	211	92	303(23.7)
<b>Age of the women</b>			
15-24 years	165	61	226(17.6)
25-34 years	408	266	674(52.7)
>=35 years	189	192	381(29.7)
<b>Education status of women</b>			
No education	409	415	824(64.3)
Primary education	221	85	306(23.9)
Secondary and above	132	19	151(11.8)
<b>Education status of husbands(n=1213)</b>			
No education	354	302	656(54.1)
Primary education	246	133	379(31.2)
Secondary and above	150	28	178(14.7)
<b>Wealth status</b>			
Poor	349	243	592(46.2)
Middle	157	113	270(21.1)
Rich	256	163	419(32.7)
<b>Birth order of the last child</b>			
1	212	76	288(22.5)
2-4	392	269	661(51.6)
5+	158	174	332(25.9)
<b>Family size</b>			
1-3	212	98	310(24.2)
4-6	406	263	669(52.2)
>=7	144	158	302(23.6)
<b>Interval between the preceding non-first births(n=993)</b>			
< 24 months	23	23	46(4.6)
24-33 months	123	122	245(24.7)
34-59 months	358	272	630(63.4)
>=60 months	45	27	72(7.3)
<b>Intendedness of the last pregnancy</b>			
Intended	667	395	1062
Unintended	95	124	219
<b>Menses resumed after last birth</b>			
Yes	605	165	770(60.1)
No	157	354	511(39.9)
<b>Attended ANC (4+)</b>			

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Yes	390	121	511(39.9)
No	372	398	770(60.1)
<b>Initiation time of first ANC after conception (n=898)</b>			
First trimester	121	13	134(14.9)
Second trimester	409	206	615(68.5)
Third trimester	74	75	149(16.6)
<b>Place of delivery</b>			
Healthcare facility	482	127	609(47.5)
Home	280	392	672(52.5)
<b>Mode of delivery(n=615)</b>			
SVD	392	129	501 (81.5)
Others(C/S, Assisted)	94	20	114(18.5)
<b>At least one PNC within 6weeks after birth</b>			
Yes	457	105	562(43.9)
No	305	419	719(56.1)
<b>Early PNC (within 48-72 hours after birth)</b>			
Yes	172	20	192(15.0)
No	590	499	1089(85.0)

224 \*SVD= Spontaneous Vaginal Delivery; C/S=Caesarean Section; Assisted delivery includes vacuum and  
 225 forceps deliveries

## 226 Results from survival analysis

227 Among all the respondents, 59.5% (95% CI: 56.8%–62.2%) had started using any modern  
 228 contraceptive method after the last birth while the remaining were right- censored as of the time  
 229 of the survey. Contraceptive users have contributed 11,737 months (978 women-years) of follow  
 230 up, with an average follow-up time of 9.16 (95% CI=8.96-9.37) months (Fig 1).

### 231 **Fig1. Kaplan Meier survival function curve showing time to modern contraceptive use** 232 **after birth among reproductive-age women in West Gojjam Zone, Northwest Ethiopia, and** 233 **June 2018**

234 Using the life-table method, we presented the probability of initiating contraception at 2, 6, 9,  
 235 and 12 months after birth. By the second month after child birth, only 11.1 percent of the  
 236 postpartum women surveyed started to use a contraceptive method. The proportion of users then  
 237 increased steadily over the months reaching 25.9%, 37.7%, and 59.5% at 6, 9, and 12 months,  
 238 respectively (Table 2).

239 **Table 2. Survivor function of postpartum modern contraceptive use among postpartum**  
 240 **women in West Gojjam Zone, Northwest Ethiopia, June, 2018**

Beginning time (months)	Total number of exposure	Failure (contraceptive users)	Survivor function	SE	95%CI	
1	1281	4	0.9969	0.0016	0.9917	0.9988
2	1277	138	0.8891	0.0088	0.8707	0.9051
6	995	46	0.7408	0.0122	0.7159	0.7639
9	844	46	0.6230	0.0135	0.5958	0.6489
12	657	138	0.4052	0.0137	0.3782	0.4319

241  
 242 The illustrations in figure 2 provide insights into the features of the differences in the Kaplan-  
 243 Meier survival curves by selected maternal characteristics. Clearly, the overall estimated  
 244 survivor function showed that mothers started taking modern contraception after the 2<sup>nd</sup> month of  
 245 the last birth. It is also evident that the survival curves are substantially different among women  
 246 whose first antenatal visit was during the first trimester, during the second trimester, or started in  
 247 the third trimester. Similarly, the curves differ for various educational categories of women, the  
 248 number of antenatal follow-ups, place of residence, and history of menstrual resumption after  
 249 birth during the first 12 months following the last childbirth (**Fig 2a-f**).

250 **Fig 2: Kaplan Meier estimate curve of postpartum family planning use within 12 months**  
 251 **from childbirth by selected characteristics of women, Northwest Ethiopia, June 2018**

252  
 253 Before we fit the final model, the observed difference in survival experiences in different groups  
 254 was also assessed using the log-rank test. The variables considered include maternal age,  
 255 maternal and paternal educational attainment, frequency and timing of first ANC follow up, type  
 256 of delivery, postnatal care within the first two days after birth, PHC to population ratio, family  
 257 size, and household wealth index.

258 The log-rank test result revealed that each of the covariates, except for facility to population  
 259 ratio, has a significant Wald test when using  $\alpha = 20\%$ . However, we kept facility to population

260 ratio in the final model as access to the healthcare facility was considered an important variable  
 261 in different literature. Moreover, the sample size is sufficient to accommodate more predictors.

262 Then, all the covariates that were selected in the log- rank test at a 20% level of significance  
 263 were fitted in the parametric shared frailty models of exponential, Weibull, log-logistic, and log-  
 264 normal distributions by using cluster (kebele) as frailty term. The shared frailty model with the  
 265 Weibull baseline hazard function had the smallest AIC value (Table 2) than the other frailty  
 266 models and hence was selected to describe time-to-postpartum contraception data. The AIC  
 267 values for all the parametric frailty models are summarized in table 3 below.

268 **Table 3. Comparison of fitness of different parametric frailty models based on the Akaike**  
 269 **information criteria, June 2018.**

Baseline distribution	Frailty distribution	Log-likelihood	K	c	AIC Value
Exponential	Gamma	-1403.4963	10	1	2828.9926
Weibull	Gamma	-602.7483	10	2	1229.4960
Log-logistic	Gamma	-1343.2516	10	2	2710.5032
Log-normal	Gamma	-1333.658	10	2	2691.316

270 \*AIC =  $-2\ln L + 2(k + c)$ , where c is the number of model-specific distributional parameters & k is the  
 271 number of model covariates.

272 **Tests of Unobserved Heterogeneity**

273 The effect of clustering (unobserved heterogeneity) between the clusters (Kebeles) was tested  
 274 using the likelihood ratio test (LRT). The results of this test revealed that the variance of the  
 275 random term,  $\theta$  (theta), was estimated to be 0.056 and it was statistically significant at the 5%  
 276 level of significance. This indicated that the variance is significantly different from zero, and  
 277 unobservable factors cannot be ignored. Also, Kendall’s tau ( $\tau$ ) value of 0.027, suggests a  
 278 positive correlation between times to contraception within the clusters (Table 4).

## 279 **Goodness of fit of the final model**

280 The overall goodness of fit for the final model was checked by the Cox-Snell residuals plot. As  
281 depicted in figure 3 below, the plot of the residuals of the fitted model is fairly closer to the 45<sup>0</sup>  
282 straight line of the origin with slight variability in the right-hand tail, indicating that this model  
283 had a better fit to the data. Note that some variability about the 45° line is expected even with  
284 well-fitted survival models, particularly in the right-hand tail, because of the reduced effective  
285 sample caused by prior failures and censoring[25] (Figure3).

286 **Figure 3. Cumulative hazard of Cox-Snell residuals**

287

## 288 **Multivariable Survival Analysis result**

289 After controlling for other factors, the use of maternal health care services, and educational status  
290 of the women were found to be the sole predictors of postpartum modern contraceptive methods  
291 use.

292 The likelihood of initiating contraceptive use for women who had four or more antenatal visits  
293 was 59 percent (aHR =1.59; 95% CI: 1.22–2.06) higher than for women who had less number of  
294 visits. Similarly, women who did start their first antenatal visit within the first trimester were  
295 twice (aHR =2.03; 95% CI: 1.28–3.21) more likely to initiate contraceptive use during the first  
296 year postpartum than women who made the service in the third trimester. Women who received  
297 postnatal care within the first three days after birth were also 1.39 times more likely to use  
298 modern contraceptive methods during the extended postpartum period than their counterparts  
299 (aHR =1.39; 95% CI: 1.12–1.73).

300 Women's educational status was positively related to the early initiation of modern contraceptive  
301 methods. The likelihood of initiating modern contraceptives in the extended postpartum was

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302 30% higher among women who attained at least primary education compared with those who  
 303 had no formal education, (aHR =1.30; 95% CI: 1.02–1.66).

304 However, in this multivariable analysis, no statistical difference was observed in contraceptive  
 305 uptake between women of different wealth status, area of residence, mode of delivery, and the  
 306 number of health facilities per total population (facility density) in the district.

307 **Table 4. Results of Multivariable analysis of time-to-contraceptive after child birth by**  
 308 **women aged 15–49 who had their most recent birth within 12 months preceding the survey,**  
 309 **West Gojjam Zone, Ethiopia, June 2018**  
 310

Variables	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)			
	Unadjusted HR	95% CI	aHR	95% CI
<b>Residence</b>				
Urban	1.77	1.46, 2.15	0.98	0.74,1.32
Rural	1.00	-----	1.00	.....
<b>Age of women</b>	0.95	0.94, 0.97	0.99	0.97,1.02
<b>Educational status of women</b>				
No education	1.00	-----	1.00	-----
Primary education	1.95	1.66,2.30	1.298	1.02,1.66**
At least secondary	3.37	2.75,4.12	1.344	0.98,1.84
<b>Family size</b>	0.88	0.84,0.91	0.99	0.91,1.09
<b>Wealth status</b>				
Poor	1.00	---	1.00	---
Medium	1.03	0.85, 1.25	0.96	0.73,1.25
Rich	0.99	0.84,1.18	1.06	0.85,1.32
<b>Population per PHC</b>				
<= 25,000 population	1.01	0.71,1.44	1.42	0.94,2.12
>25,000population	1.00	-----	1.00	----
<b>Attended 4+ANC visits</b>				
Yes	2.48	2.13,2.88	1.59	1.22,2.06**
No	1.00	-----	1.00	----
<b>Timing of the first ANC</b>				
First trimester	4.49	3.32,6.08	2.03	1.28,3.21**
Second trimester	1.67	1.30,2.15	1.43	0.97,2.12
Third trimester	1.00	-----	1.00	-----
<b>Mode of delivery</b>				
SVD	0.79	0.63,0.99	0.81	0.62,1.04
Other (c/s, instrumental)	1.00	-----	1.00	---
<b>Early PNC care (within 2-3 days after birth)</b>				
Yes	3.31	2.78, 3.96	1.39	1.12,1.73**

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No	1.00	----	1.00	---
<b>θ value (theta)</b>			0.056	
<b>τ (tau Kendall)</b>			0.027	
<b>Log-likelihood(LL)</b>			-602.7483	

311 *\*\* significant at 0.05level of significance, HR=Hazard Ratio; Ahr=Adjusted Hazard Ratio; CI=Confidence Interval;*  
 312 *C/S=Caesarian Section*  
 313 *LRT= Likelihood ratio test of theta (θ) = 0 at chi-squares with 0 and 1 degrees of freedom; Kendall’s tau (τ) = θ/ θ+2, where*  
 314 *τ=ε (0, 1). 95% Confidence interval*

315 **Discussion**

316 This study has investigated the association of socioeconomic, demographic, and environmental  
 317 factors with the likelihood of postpartum contraceptive use by accounting for gamma- distributed  
 318 shared frailties at cluster-level.

319 In this study, we used kebele as a clustering (frailty) effect on modeling the determinants of  
 320 time-to-contraception after birth. The statistically significant effect of the frailty terms between  
 321 different clusters revealed that the observed covariates included in the analysis were not able to  
 322 account for all the variability in women’s survivorship. We postulate this variability to be the  
 323 combined effect of various factors that cannot be easily measured or observed at community or  
 324 health facility levels including culture and social norms[15]. The significant level of frailty terms  
 325 in our study might have biased our results if we had not taken them into account [21]. Our  
 326 interpretation, therefore, was based on the shared survival frailty model that accounts for the  
 327 heterogeneity.

328 In this study, modern contraceptive practice during the extended postpartum period was found to  
 329 be 59.5% (95% CI: 56.8–62.2%). The finding is comparable with the finding of the study done in  
 330 Debre Tabor town, Northwest Ethiopia 63.0% (95% CI: 59%; 67.4%) [26]. This result was,  
 331 however, higher than the 31.7% prevalence in Southern Ethiopia[20], 45.4 % in western

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332 Ethiopia[27], and 29.3% in Northern Ethiopia[19], and lower when compared to the studies  
333 done in Hosana town (72.9%), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (80.3%), and 86.3% of Kenya [28-30].  
334 The low level of contraceptive use found in this study might reflect the over- reliance of lactating  
335 women on breastfeeding and menstruation status. It is evidenced that these group of women  
336 oftentimes do not realize that they are at risk of pregnancy when they are amenorrheic or  
337 breastfeeding [15,20,26]. Though breastfeeding is universal in Ethiopia, and exclusive  
338 breastfeeding up to 6 months after birth is an important contraceptive method which is highly  
339 recommended by the Ministry of Health of Ethiopia, the status of exclusive breastfeeding in the  
340 country is less than the global recommendations [31].

341 The main finding of this analysis is that women who started using modern contraceptive methods  
342 during the extended postpartum period were characterized by high coverage (four or more visits)  
343 and proper timing (first visit in first trimester) of antenatal care. Yet, the results of studies done  
344 in Ethiopia and elsewhere [10,18,28]showed that postpartum use of modern contraception was  
345 not affected by antenatal care. The variation could be attributed to the difference in the study  
346 design; whereas our study accounted for the hierarchical structure and tried to adjust for  
347 individual and community characteristics, the other studies were done using flat models that  
348 inherently assume the population to be homogeneous. It is evidenced that frailty models offer  
349 unobserved heterogeneity into models for survival data as random effects [21].

350 Nonetheless, the observed association between prenatal care and contraceptive use is not unique  
351 to this study and has been reported in earlier studies from Ethiopia [20,27,32], and other  
352 countries [8,16]. These studies showed a dose-response type of relationship between antenatal  
353 care and postpartum contraception adoption; that is the likelihood of using postpartum  
354 contraception increased when women had frequent antenatal contacts. Our result also



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355 demonstrated a significant association between postpartum contraceptive use and early postnatal  
356 care, which is in agreement with other studies [20,27].

357 The positive effects of maternity services on contraceptive uptake might be explained due to the  
358 effect of the counseling sessions and promotional efforts made during each visit. It has been  
359 indicated that each maternity services improve clients' relationships with health workers and  
360 their familiarity with the health care systems [33]. Besides, counseling and information can help  
361 women avoid social barriers and, in turn, encourage them to use health services in the future  
362 [34]. Therefore, cognizant of the fact that only a few Ethiopian women have gotten antenatal and  
363 early postnatal services [3], there is a strong need to promote programs that target women who  
364 do not get these services as a strategy to promote postpartum modern contraceptive use.

365 There are inconsistent pieces of evidence in the correlation between women's education and  
366 postpartum contraception adoption. A study done in Northwest Ethiopia, for example, did not  
367 show any association between female education and postpartum contraceptive uptake[18]. On  
368 the other hand, in line with the previous researches[10,15], the result of our study also confirms  
369 that educated women have a higher hazard of contraceptive use when compared to mothers with  
370 no formal education. Women's education could impact modern contraceptive uptake in different  
371 mechanisms: improving access to contraceptive alternatives, and helping them in understanding  
372 the health benefits of the available contraceptive commodities [35] might be among the possible  
373 reasons. Education might also improve the bargaining power of women to negotiate sex, and  
374 their ability to make their own decisions, including fertilities desires [36].

375 Results from various studies have found conflict of evidence on the link between household  
376 wealth status and the use of postpartum contraception; in some settings, it appears to be  
377 associated with contraceptive use; Hounton and colleagues, for example, reported financial  
378 constraint as a barrier to adopt postpartum contraception[10]. However, no statistically

379 significant difference was observed in contraceptive uptake between women of different wealth  
380 status in our study, which is in line with the results of some other studies[15,28]. This lack of  
381 variation in contraceptive use by wealth status in our study might be attributed to the  
382 introduction of healthcare financing reforms by the government of Ethiopia, which includes  
383 social and community based health insurance schemes, and charge free maternity services in  
384 public health facilities, among others[37]. Concerning this, Dzakpasu et al reported that poor  
385 women were unwilling to use the formal health sector if they must pay for maternal health  
386 services[38]. The Health Extension Program in Ethiopia, which brought family planning services  
387 to the community where they live, might be another reason for the lack of variation between rich  
388 and poor women. Health extension workers are deployed in pairs, two for every kebele, and  
389 affiliated with each kebele's health post to provide key health services at a community level,  
390 including family planning services since launched in 2003 [39].

391  
392 Despite we tried to estimate unbiased parameter estimates after accounting for the frailty effect,  
393 the study results should also be interpreted in light of certain limitations. The reliability of this  
394 study depends on the mother's recall of past events regarding the processes of maternal health  
395 care and therefore may be subject to recall bias. In addition, the study focused merely on the  
396 health coverage of maternal services as main predictors, yet coverage alone might not be a  
397 warranty for postpartum contraceptive use if quality was insufficient[40].

## 398 **Conclusions**

399 In conclusion, the use of postpartum modern contraception was low despite the provision of  
400 charge-free services in all public health facilities. Postpartum modern contraception use was  
401 associated with increased coverage of the key maternal services, particularly the antenatal and

402 postnatal cares . The observed strong effect of antenatal and early postnatal services strengthens  
403 the argument that integrating the key maternity could enhance the use of postpartum modern  
404 contraception. Moreover, the significant level of variance of unobserved community effect also  
405 underscores the importance of disaggregated data for evidence-based policymaking and program  
406 designing in the study area in particular and the country in general.

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409 Gojjam Zone Health Department, and district health offices. We also extend our  
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## 411 **Author contributions**

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417 **Writing – original draft:** Amanu Aragaw Emiru

418 **Writing –review & editing:** Amanu Aragaw Emiru, Getu Degu Alene , Gurmesa Tura Debelew

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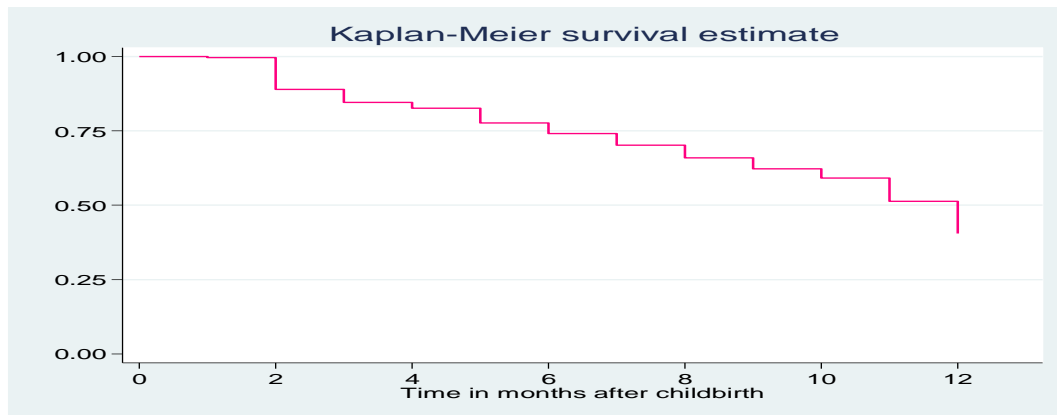


Fig 1

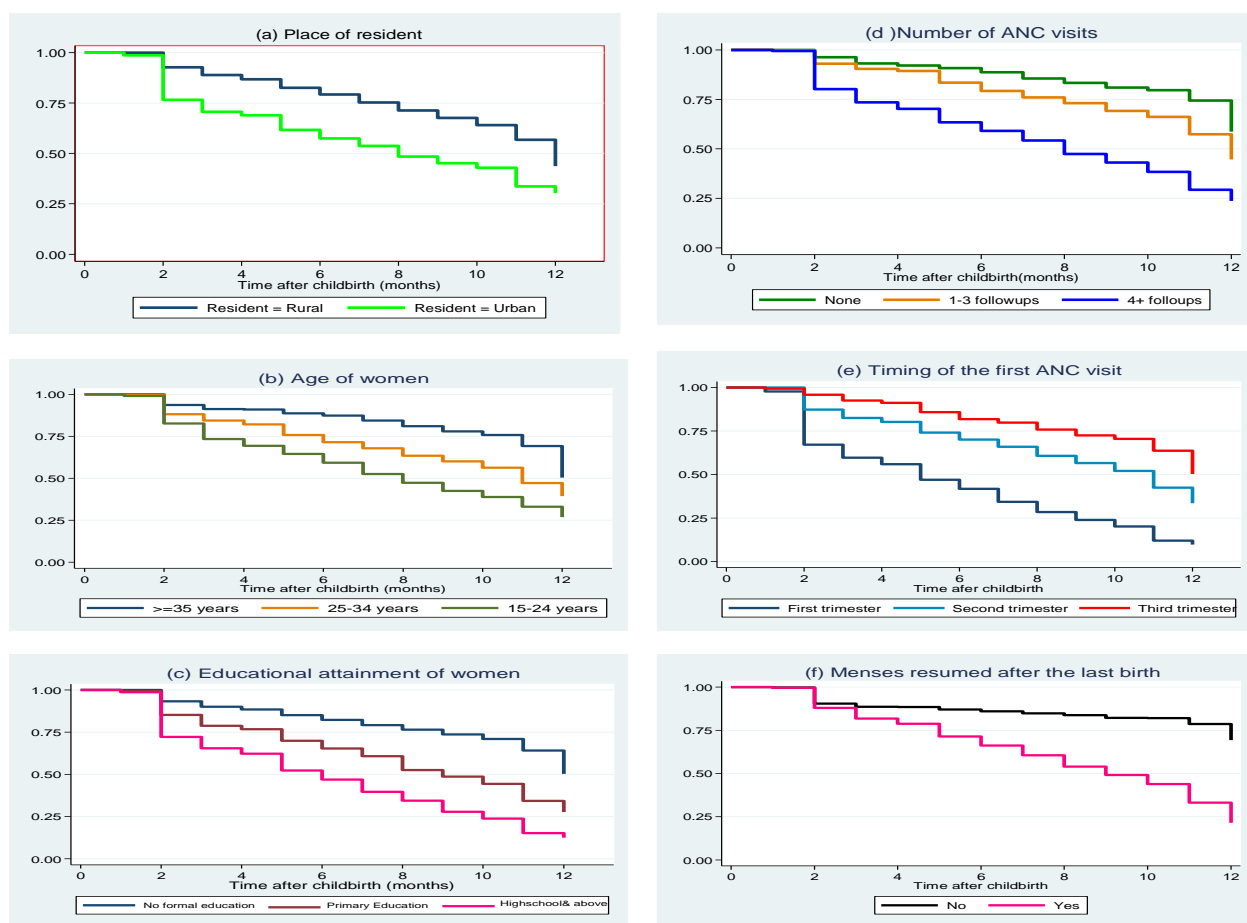


Fig 2

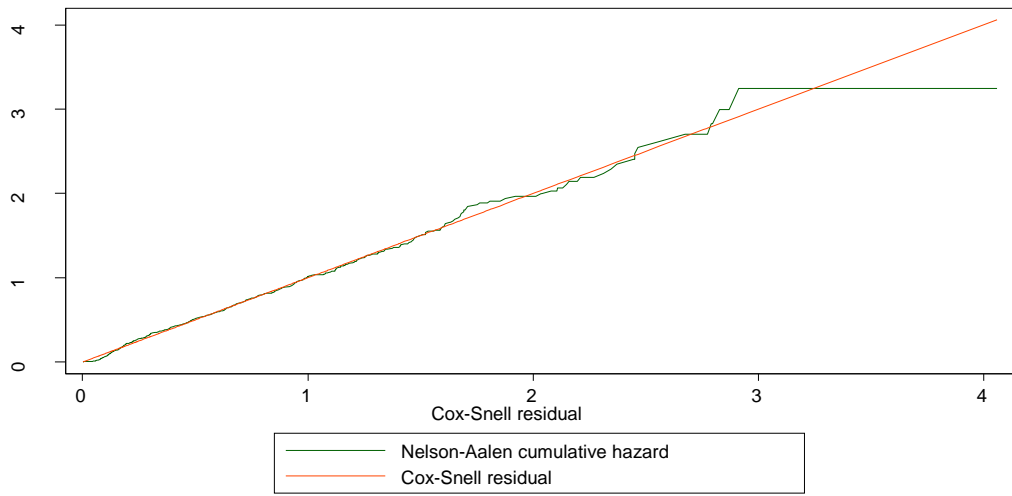


Fig 3