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Status and Characteristics of Children Living and/or Working in the Streets in Ethiopia

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Abstract: As the prevalence rate of street children is increasing and becoming a pressing problem in Ethiopia, the purpose of this study is to understand the background status of street children and to assess their current survival activities across the streets of 21 towns. This survey design study employed quantitative approaches, and the participants of the survey were street children (n = 661, i.e., 42.8% female and 57.2% male). ISPCAN Child Abuse Screening Tools for Children (ICAST-C) was used for data collection. Data collected in this study were analyzed using Univariate techniques of data analysis. Results of the assessment indicated a median age of 14 years, with average onset age of going into streets is 11.19 years. Furthermore, family background of the street children showed that 33.7% have both parents alive, whereas about a third and a fifth of the population have lost one and both parents respectively. More than half (n=373, 57.1%) spend their nights outdoors on the street, in which female children have more contact with surviving parents than male children. Educationally, only 14.2% of the street children were going to school (23.7% never been to school and 62.1% dropouts). The outcome also showed that 38.0% of the children were pushed out to the streets due to domestic violence, and 5.4% (n=36) have a disability; whereas, 54.6% were migrated into these towns from their natural place. Further details on the outcome, conclusion, and recommendations of the study were discussed.

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Introduction

Securing children's wellbeing is not only the basis for the safety of existing society but also it is launching a firm pillar for the welfare of future generations. As the African Child Policy Forum (2008) puts children's wellbeing as the foundation of societal wellbeing but not a consequence and extension of human welfare. Besides, Luzze's (2002) expression of African societies about a child's birth as the arrival of a "young tree" that spreads into the forest - represents the family and society. Despite these facts, in present-day societies, children are the most vulnerable group all over the globe in general and around low-income countries such as Ethiopia in particular.

There is no consensus on the definition of the term street children; according to UMP (Urban Management Programme, 2000), it refers to children in urban areas who have entirely or partly broken connection with their family and engage in various survival activities on the streets. Likewise, the estimates of street children were debatable (Ortiz, & Poertner, 1992) that it altered from time to time UNICEF's (1989; 2002), which later UNICEF (2005) concluded that it is impossible to quantify, but the prevalence of street children is escalating. Besides, UNICEF (1984) classifies street children into three main categories: children at risk, children on the street, and children of the street. Children at risk are those from the urban sparse population and considered as sources for the latter two, whereas, children on the street are those earn their living or beg for money on the street and return home at night and children of the street - are homeless children who live and sleep on the streets in urban areas (Lalor, 1999). In Ethiopia, a study by UNICEF (1993) estimated the prevalence of street children in Addis Ababa around 40,000, 25% of the children work and live or sleep in the streets without getting care or supervision from adults, while the other 75% return home at night. Therefore, to understand nature of the street children it is useful to consider to this classification because it helps to assess their status in relation to their family background, history of domestic violence, where they live, what they do (work or school) and factors that made them run away home. Previous studies indicate that the root causes and characteristics of street children vary across cultures (Aptekar, 1994). There are commonly observed themes across cultures such as poverty (Gordon, Pantazis, Pemberton & Townsend, 2003); family crisis - dysfunctional parenting styles that result in an environment where parents become physically and emotionally abusive to their children or towards each other; broken families (Aptekar & Stoecklin, 2014), cultures that tolerate child labor (Dzikus A. & Ochola L., 1996); death of parents (due to growing HIV/AIDS), large family size (inability to support the family); early marriage (especially in the cases of female domestics and prostitutes) and abusive work in homes where domestic workers are forced to run away(UMP,

2000). Lalor's (1999) study in Ethiopia showed that 60% of children living independently on the street are out of home because of family disharmony or due to being orphaned or displaced, but only 5.8% who work children on the street have reasoned family disharmony for their life in the street. Besides, 16% of the sample arrived on the streets from a two-parent household, 30% came from a female-headed household, and the remainder had either been orphaned or had previously lived in a wide variety of domestic situations, such as living with stepparents, mothers, aunts, uncles, grandparents, neighbors and adopting families (Lalor, 1999).

A study in Cairo and Alexandria showed that 70% had dropped out of school, and 30% had never been to school (UNODCCP, 2007). In Ethiopia, 66% of children on the streets attend school compared to 15% of children on the streets. Street life has not prevented most children on the streets to attend school; however, the majority of children of the street are marginalized from educational and health facilities. Previous studies indicated that the average age of street children ranges from 10 to 14 years. In Ethiopia, the mean age of street life onset is approximately eleven years, and half of street children in the country were estimated to be 12 years old or less (UNICEF, 1993). Previous studies on street children reported that social and economic factors appeared to be primary in pushing children onto the streets. Muchini's (2001) study on street children in Zimbabwe reported that poverty, disability (mostly blindness), and death of parent(s) appeared to be the key factors resulting in families' inability to look after their children properly. Children of blind parents, primarily girls, assist their mothers in begging and moving around town (Muchini, 2001).

A joint study undertaken by FSCE, PACT, and USAID (2003) in the town of Hawassa showed that out of registered total (N = 2,555) street children, about 77.8% were found in the street to earn their living. The origin of these children is mainly outside of the town. It was more than 57 percent of the children who have spoken of coming into Hawassa in search of better economic life. Nearly a third of these children have reported being currently attending schools. However, about 24% of them have never been to school and more than 46 percent have dropped out. On the streets they get involved in various petty occupations. The majority work as peddlers, others shoe shiners and others as carriers/messengers (35.2%, 19.4% and 19% respectively). Over two thirds of girls work as peddlers, while car washing, taxi-boy, shoe shining and carrying services are dominated by males. Some girls earn their living through prostituting (FSCE, PACT & USAID, 2003; Veale & Adefrisew, 1992).

Objectives

The objectives of this study are to examine the status and characteristics of children living and/or working in the streets in Ethiopia, to explore the types and nature of survival activities carried out by children living and/or working in the streets in Ethiopia, and to identify and investigate factors that account for the appearance of the street children phenomenon (Reasons for going out into the Street) in Ethiopia.

Methods

This survey design study employed quantitative approach to examine its objectives. Concerning sampling, first, all cities with a population of > 50,000 were included except in cases where all cities in a given region have a population size of < 50,000 and out of these 21 were selected using purposive sampling where the criteria were population size and relative socioeconomic status as perceived by experts. Finally, five hotspots were selected in each city / sub-city using purposive sampling, where the criterion was the density of children living and working in the streets, making the total number of primary enumeration units 105.

Both male and female respondents were included with equal gender balance within the chronological age bracket 11> and <17. A required sample was calculated as 630 after adjustment setting the number of children to be sampled in each city / sub-city at 30.

$$n = (z\ 2)\ (r)\ (1\text{-}r)\ (deff)\ (k) / e2$$

Where:

n = (sample size in terms of number of children to be selected);
z = (level of confidence) = 1.96;
r = (an estimate of a key indicator to be measured by the survey) = 0.05;
deff = (sample design effect) = 1.5;
k = (a multiplier for non-response) = 1.1; and
e = (margin of error) = .05.
*n= 1.962*0.52*1.5*1.1/ 0.05)2) = 633.9*

Table 1: Sample Distribution of Children Living and Working in the Streets after Adjustment

Sampling	***Adjusted Sample Size***					
	Sample Size	*City*	*Hotspots Per City*	*Clusters*		*Total Per City*
				Boys	*Girls*	
Children Living and/or Working in the Streets	*630*	*21*	*5*	*3*	*3*	*30*

The study employed the Child Abuse Screening Tools for Children (ICAST-C) with the necessary customization to address cultural, language, and other realities. Prior to data collection, all supervisors and data collectors were given training using a manual developed for the purpose, and data were collected within a period of twenty-five days with

strict observation of ethical standards of the ACPF's Child Protection Policy.

Quantitative data was entered using Census and Survey Processing System (CSPro) and exported to IBM Statistics SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 20 for analysis. In the current study, Univariate techniques were used as deemed fitting, and all correlations and tests for variation were tested for statistical significance and reported when appropriate and a p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Univariate analyses employed Pearson Chi-Square, a goodness-of-fit test, to compare observed and expected frequencies in categorical variables; Independent sample T-Test, or Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for continuous variables; Pearson product-moment correlation and Kendall's tau_b for measuring associations symmetric quantitative and variables with ordered categories, respectively, and Tukey's HSD (honestly significant difference) for mean comparison.

Findings

Distribution of respondents across study sites

The total number of children interviewed was 661, and these were distributed across the 21 cities sampled from the nine regional states and the two chartered cities as presented below in a bar chart.

Out of these, 283 (42.8%) were female, while the remaining 378 (57.2%) were male children. As pointed out in the limitation of the study above, the number of male and female children was not maintained equal throughout due to unavailability of children. Thus, overall the number of male and female children shows a statistically significant variation across study sites F (10) = 8.548, p = .001, however, Tukey HSD results show that the variation in the number of male and female children is limited in only two regions namely Benishangul Gumuz (Assosa) and Somali (Jigjiga) where male children are more represented than female children.

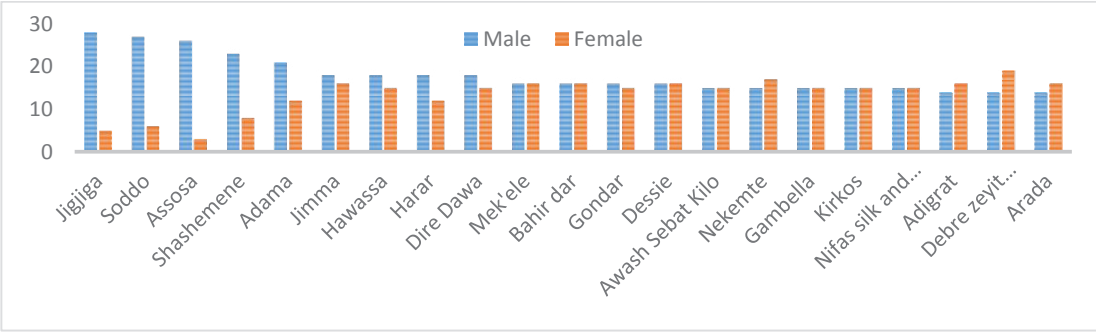


Chart 1: Distribution of Respondents by Sex across Cities

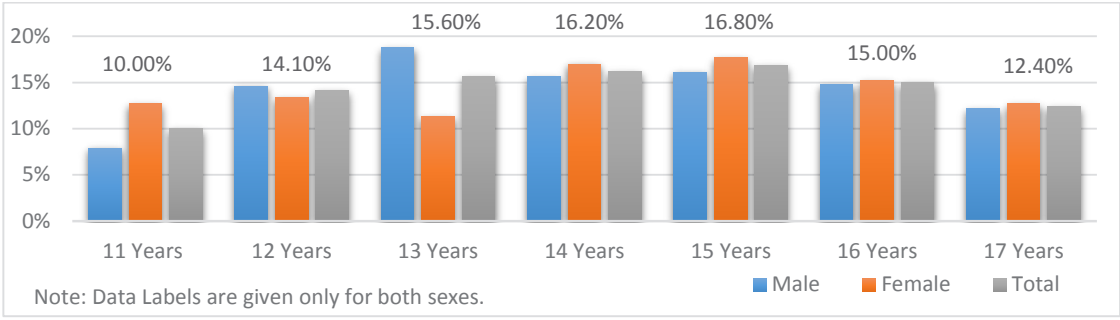


Chart 2: Distribution of Age by Sex

Age

The age distribution show that the age range extends from 11 to 17 with a median of 14 years (male 14.11, female 14.00) and a *skewness* coefficient of g1= - .052. (Male .014; Female -.126) which shows that all the age categories were fairly represented across the two sexes.

Onset age and duration of stay in the street

Data show that the average (arithmetic mean) onset age for going out into the street is 11.19 years (male 11.14, female 11.26) with a median of 11 years (skewness g1 = -1.09) and a range extending from birth to 17 years. The cumulative percentage shows that about 1.2% of all the children living and/or working on the street were born on the street. Furthermore, it was noted that more than one-third (n=228, 36.8%) and four out of five (n=513, 81.1%) of the children, respectively, go out into the street before they were 5 and 13 years old. The bar graph below clearly shows that the critical ages for going out into the street extend from 8 to 14 years.

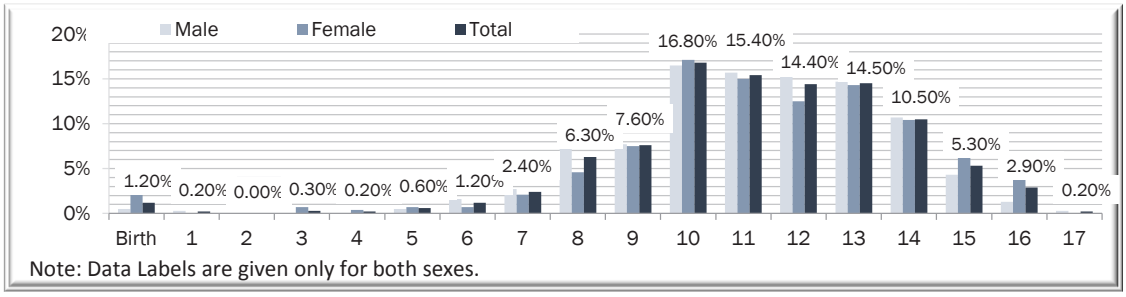


Chart 3: Distribution of Onset Age for Going Out into the Street by Sex

Test for possible variation in onset age using analysis of variance has shown that statistically significant variation exists across study sites, F (20) = 3.782, p = .001. Furthermore, a Tukey's HSD test has shown that the range for the average onset age stretches from 8.42 in Dire Dawa to 12.97 years in Mekele with three homogeneous groups.

Table 3: ANOVA – Onset Age for Going Out into the Street

Sources of Variation	*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	*485.042*	*20*	*24.252*	*3.782*	*.000*
Within Groups	*4066.043*	*634*	*6.413*		
Total	*4551.085*	*654*			

Thus, the results show that children in Dire Dawa, Kirkos (Addis Ababa) and Bahir Dar tend to go into the street much younger while those from Mekele go out relatively older compared to children from other cities. Detail data is presented below in a table across the three homogenous groups identified. The data further show that on the average (arithmetic mean) the children have stayed on the street for 2.9 years (median 2 years, skewness g1 = 2.102) with a range extending from 1 month to 16 years and six months. The majority of the children living and/or working on the street (n=560, 89.2%) have stayed on the street for less than five years and six months and only about 11.0% (n=50) children have stayed more than five years in the street.

TUKEY'S HSD Mean Comparison Test

City	N	Means Years for Homogeneous Groups		
		Group -1	Group - 2	Group - 3
Dire Dawa	33	8.42		
Kirkos	30	10.37	10.37	
Bahir Dar	32	10.72	10.72	10.72
Hawassa	33		10.79	10.79
Gondar	31		10.82	10.82
Adigrat	30		10.83	10.83
Shashemene	31		10.94	10.94
Soddo	33		10.97	10.97
Nifas silk and Lafto	28		11.07	11.07
Dessie	31		11.15	11.15
Jimma	34		11.28	11.28
Nekemte	32		11.30	11.30
Gambella	27		11.33	11.33
Assosa	29		11.36	11.36
Debrezeyit (Bishoftu)	33		11.47	11.47
Arada	30		11.53	11.53
Awash Sebat Kilo	30		11.63	11.63
Adama	33		11.82	11.82
Jigjiga	33		12.02	12.02
Harar	30		12.30	12.30
Mek'ele	32			12.97
Sig.		.052	.245	.065

Subset for alpha = 0.05

a) Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 31.081.

b) The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

An independent sample t-test has shown that there is no statistically significant variation across the sexes at alpha α = 0.05 showing that sex doesn't have any relationship with the number of years a given child lives and/or works in the street. The bar chart below shows the years the children stayed in the street for the general population and by sex.

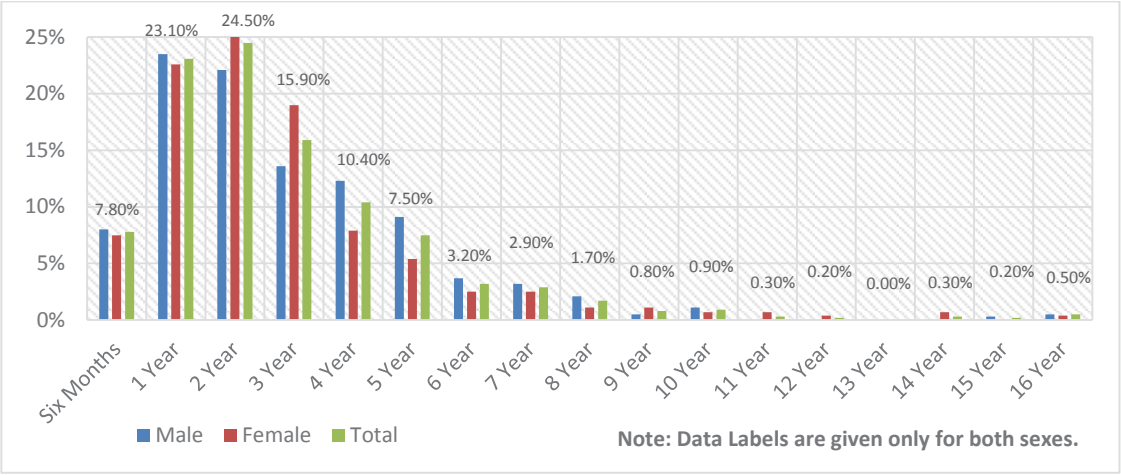


Chart 4: Duration of Stay in the Street in Years

Further test for possible variation across cities using analysis of variance has shown that there is a statistically significant variation across the study sites on duration of stay in the streets, F (20) = 4.844, p = .001. Furthermore, a Tukey's HSD test has shown that the average staying years extends from 1.59 years in Debre Zeit (Bishoftu) to 5.6 years in Dire Dawa.

The results also have shown that the suggested variation across cities creates three homogenous groups as shown in the table Tukey's HSD table below.

Table 4: ANOVA - Duration of Stay on the Street in Years

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	488.513	20	24.426	4.844	.000
Within Groups	3196.832	634	5.042		
Total	3685.345	654			

Tukey's HSD Mean Comparison Test

CITY	N	MEANS YEARS FOR HOMOGENEOUS GROUPS		
		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Debrezeyit (Bishoftu)	33	1.5909		
Nekemte	32	2.0469	2.0469	
Jigjiga	33	2.0758	2.0758	
Mek'ele	32	2.1250	2.1250	
Harar	30	2.2333	2.2333	
Adama	33	2.2727	2.2727	
Awash Sebat Kilo	30	2.5000	2.5000	
Dessie	31	2.5645	2.5645	
Jimma	34	2.6912	2.6912	
Assosa	29	2.7069	2.7069	
Shashemene	31	2.7742	2.7742	
Gambella	27	2.7778	2.7778	
Soddo	33	2.9091	2.9091	
Nifas silk and Lafto	28	2.9286	2.9286	
Bahir Dar	32	3.1563	3.1563	
Arada	30	3.4667	3.4667	
Adigrat	30	3.5333	3.5333	
Hawassa	33	3.6061	3.6061	3.6061
Gondar	31		3.7581	3.7581
Kirkos	30		3.8000	3.8000
Dire Dawa	33			5.6061
Sig.		.058	.209	.063

Subset for alpha = 0.05

a) Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 31.081.

b) The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Family Status

Data on family status indicate that slightly more than one-third) of the child population (n=223, 33.7%) has both parents alive while about one-third (n=292, 34.3%) and one-fifth of the population (n=133, 20.1%) are, respectively, single and double orphans.

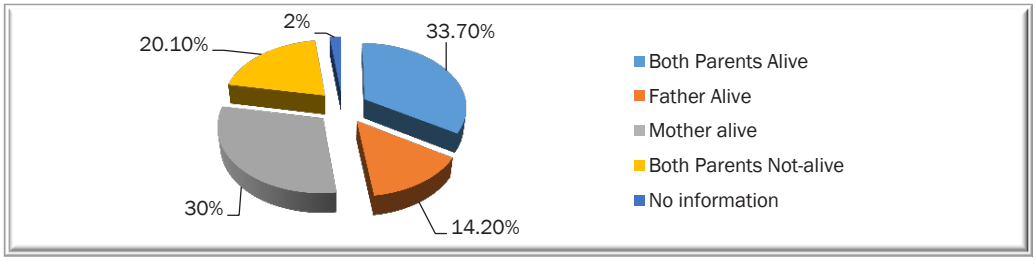


CHART 5: Family Status

With regards to sustained relationship with parents, 8.5% of the children (n = 56) live with both their parents (male n= 19, 5.0%; female n = 37, 13.1%); 8.5% (n=56) live only with their fathers (male n=36, 9.5%; female n=20, 7.1%); and 23.6% (n=156) live only with their mothers (male n=69, 18.3%; female n=87, 30.7%). Pearson Chi-Square tests have shown that there are statistically significant variations across the sexes in living with both parents (χ^2 = 11.626, df1, α .001) and with mothers only (χ^2 = 13.998, df1, α .001) suggesting that female children tend to stay more with their intact family and with their mothers compared to male children. In relation with sustained relationship with parents, the children were asked if their parents were aware that they are living and/or working on the street and only 49.5% (n=320) of the children indicated that their parents know of their status. On the contrary, about three children in ten (n=132, 20.4%) indicated that their parents don't know that they are living and/or working on the street while the remaining children (n=48, 7.4%) noted that they don't know if their parents knew that they are living and/or working on the street. A Pearson Chi-Square test has shown that there is a statistically significant variation across the sexes (χ^2 = 13.246, df1, α .004) and migration status (χ^2 = 77.252, df1, α .001) indicating that more parents of female children (54.5%) and non-migrants (63.4%), respectively, tend to be aware that their children are living and/or working in the street compared to male children (45.7%) and migrant children (38.0%) living and/or working in the streets.

Sleeping quarters

The majority of the children (n=373, 57.1%) spend their nights outdoors on the street, which includes, sidewalks (n=269, 41.2%), parks (n=4, 0.6%) under bridges (n=13, 2.0%), around churches / mosques (n=16, 2.5%), in market places (n=10, 1.5%), and bus stations (n=8, 1.2%), and other street corners (n=53, 8.1%). On the other hand, a total of 280 (42.9%) children indicated to spend their nights in-house, that is, in their family or own/rented houses (n=113, 17.3%), shelters (4, 0.6%), abandoned houses (n=9, 1.4%), or rooms rented in slum areas (n=154, 23.6%).

Pearson Chi-Square tests run have shown that there are statistically significant variations across the sexes in type of sleeping quarters (χ^2 = 49.933, df1, α .05) suggesting that male children (n=228, 67.5%) tend to spend their nights outdoor compared to female children (n=87, 37.5%). Similarly, a statistically significant variation was evidenced across parental status (χ^2 = 12.582, df1, α .006), thus, more proportion of double orphans (65.6%) and single orphans (60.1%) have been found to sleep out-doors compared to non-orphans (48.0%).

Another relevant finding divulged that only 7.8% of all children who sleep outdoors on the street have their own private place and sleep alone while the

remaining 91.7% share their sleeping place with other children (69.2%), children and homeless adults (16.8%), homeless adults (4.9%) exposing them for possible violence. The data also show that a considerable proportion of very young children, i.e., 47% of those 11 years old, 50.6% of 12 years old, and 61.4% of 13 years olds sleep outdoors with other children living and/or working in the street children living and/or working in the street.

Here it should be noted that the lower age boundary used in this study was 11 years and this suggests that even younger children could be sleeping on the street unaccompanied and exposed for possible sexual and other violence.

status didn't show any variation at alpha level 0.05.

On the other hand, Pearson Chi-Square tests have resulted with statistically significant variations across sex (χ^2 = 9.330, df1, α .002), that is, female (n=224, 80.0%) and male children (n=261, 69.4%) and across sleeping place (χ^2 = 41.123, df1, α .001), that is, those children sleeping in-doors (n=241, 86.4%) and those sleeping in-doors (n=236, 64.0%). This indicates that that male children and children sleeping out-doors tend to change their sleeping place more frequently compared to female children and those sleeping in-doors, respectively.

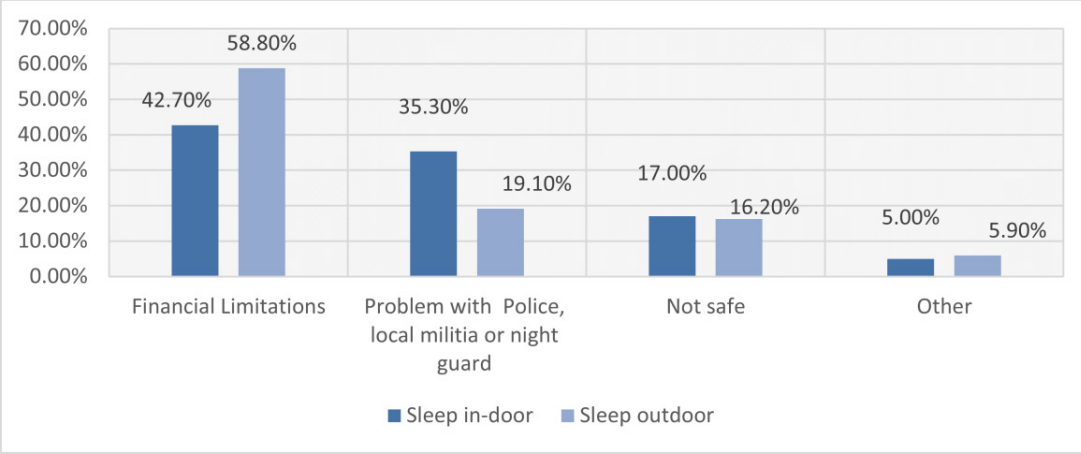


Chart 6: Difficulty in Securing a Permanent Sleeping Place

The majority of the children (n = 485, 73.9%) consider the sleeping place they were using during the data collection as their permanent sleeping space. A number of variables expected to yield variation in having stable sleeping place, namely, age, migration status, and orphan

In support of these results, more male children (n=228, 60.3%) compared to female children (n=94, 33.3%) and more of those sleeping out-doors (n=238, 63.8%) compared to those sleeping in-doors (n=79, 28.3%) reported that there

is a problem securing permanent sleeping place and both variations, i.e., across sex (χ^2 = 47.068, df1, α .001) and sleeping space status (χ^2 = 80.483, df1, α .05) were found to be statistically significant.

Seemly reasons behind the difficulty in securing a permanent sleeping place the When we examine these reasons across sleeping space status (indoor opposed to outdoor) we see that for those children sleeping indoors and outdoors, financial limitations (n=133, 46.5%) is by far the main problem behind getting a permanent sleeping space followed by problem with the Police or night guards who either ban or ask for bribes from the children to use places as sleeping quarters.

In relation with bedding, most widely used materials are plastic or corrugated packaging carton sheets (39.7%); grass mattress (22.3%); mat or rug (16.0%) while a considerable number of children (n = 62, 9.7%) indicated to use nothing and sleep on the ground. However, as expected bedding materials used by the children considerably vary across sleeping place thus those who sleep outdoor tend to mainly use corrugated packaging carton sheets (n=191, 53.4%) compared to those sleeping in-door (n=58, 21.2%); sleep on the ground without any bedding material (n=48, 15.9%) compared to those sleeping in-door (n=11, 4.0%) while those who sleep in door frequent grass mattress (n=104, 38.1%), mat or rug (n=71, 26.0%) and corrugated packaging carton sheets (n=58, 21.2%).

children pointed out three major reasons, namely, financial limitation to secure permanent sleeping place (46.7%); problem with law enforcement (the police and night guards in which case they are forced to leave the area or pay bribes) (31.6%) and safely (16.5%).

Disability

Data on disability show that about 5.4% (n=36) of the 656 (5missing) children have at least one type of disability and the disability types included physical (15, 2.3%), visual (9, 1.4%), hearing / speech (9, 1.4%), and intellectual (3, 0.5%). It should be noted here that those children reported to have hearing / speech and intellectual disability / disorder provided data without the support of a third party, thus, one can deduce from this that the disorders / disabilities reported were quite mild. Further analysis of the data show that the reported prevalence of disability among children living and/or working in the street is significantly higher than the 2007 census national estimates for the general population where the proportion of persons with disability for the total population and children within the age range of 10 to 19 years were estimated, respectively, as 1.09% and 0.81%.

Education

Data show that 23.7% (male 13.8%, female 9.9%) of the children has never been to school. A Pearson Chi-Square test run to find out a variation across the sexes and disability status confirmed that

there is no statistically significant variation at p-value <0.05.

Out of the total children who have ever been to school 62.1% dropped out and were not attending school at the time of the data collection. Pearson Chi-Square tests have divulged several statistically significant variations on attending school at the time of the data collection. Accordingly, statistically significant variations were observed between female children (n=132, 51.8%) and (α 2 = 37.315, df1, α .0001) male children (n=88, 27.0%); children without disability (n=214, 39.1%) and (α 2 = 3.504, df1, α .044) those without (n=6, 21.4%) signifying that female children and those without disability have a higher probability of continuing their education once they are enrolled compared to male children and those children with disability, respectively.

Similarly, family status has shown statistically significant variation on likelihood of continuing one's education following enrolment, thus, double orphans (n=30, 26.1%) have been found to fall behind when compared with single orphans (n=96, 37.8%) and non-orphans (n=91, 44.8%) in terms of continuing their education following enrolment. Both variations were found to be statistically significant (α 2 = 4.826, df1, α .018) and (α 2 = 37.315, df1, α .0001). Supporting this finding an examination into the probability of continuing one's education in relation with the child's relationship with one or both of biological parents have shown that there are statistically significant variations between those who live with one or both of their parents (n=127, 52.0%) and those who live away from their parents (n=93, 27.6%) (α 2 = 35.968, df1, α .001) and between those who live with their mothers (n=69, 50.4%) and those who don't live with their mothers (n=151, 34.0%) pointing to the fact that children living with their mothers are more inclined (α 2 = 11.904, df1, α .001) to continue going to school compared to those who are away from their mothers. Here it is striking that no statistically significant variation was witnessed in continuing one's education between those who live with and away from their fathers.

Family influence on continuing education, data have shown that there is a statistically significant variation (α 2 = 57.460, df1, α .001) between those who sleep out-door or in the streets (n=80, 24.6%) and in-door (n=138, 55.6%) confirming once more that parental relation and/or influence has significant impact on the likelihood of the child's continuing of her/his education once enrolled.

Another relevant finding in relation with the children's inclination with continuing their education once they are enrolled is that the duration, they stay on the street has a very weak Kendall's Tau-b correlation of α = 0.30 pointing to the weak relationship that isn't statistically significant at alpha level 0.05. This

finding suggests that children are inclined to drop out-of-school only because they stay longer in the streets. Another factor that was found to have a statistically significant relationship with the children's tendency to continue their education once they are enrolled is their migratory status. Accordingly, a statistically significant variation (α 2 = 27.272, df1, α .001) was witnessed between migrants (n = 85, 27.9%) and non- migrants (n = 135, 48.9%) which shows that migrating from one's birth place and living and/or working in the streets in another part of the country tends to significantly discourage the children from continuing their education.

With regards to the relationship between migration status and the probability of continuing one's education data also have shown that there is a statistically significant (α = .01) association (α = 0.30) between onset age for migration into the study area and probability of continuing one's education signifying that as the onset age for migration increases the probably of continuing one's education decreases or in other words, as clearly shown in the line graph below, children who migrated younger have a higher probability of continuing their education compared to those who migrate late in their teens. Please note here that children below 4 years old and above 16 years old are excluded since the former group migrated before the children reached school age and for the latter the number or sampled children was small for statistical analysis.

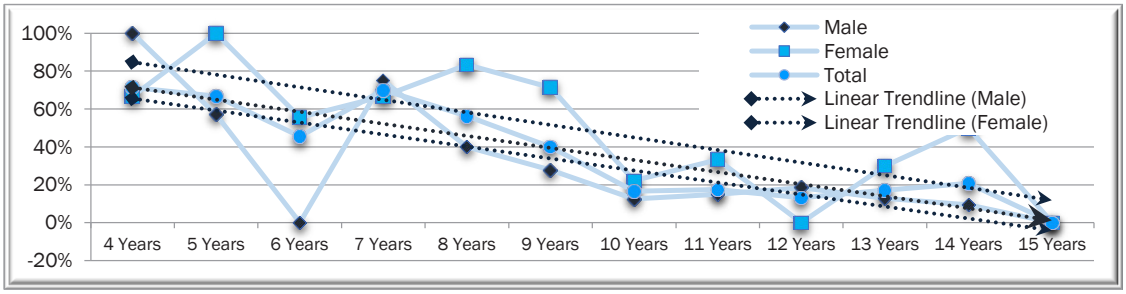


Chart 7: Proportion of Children Attending School across Age of Migration

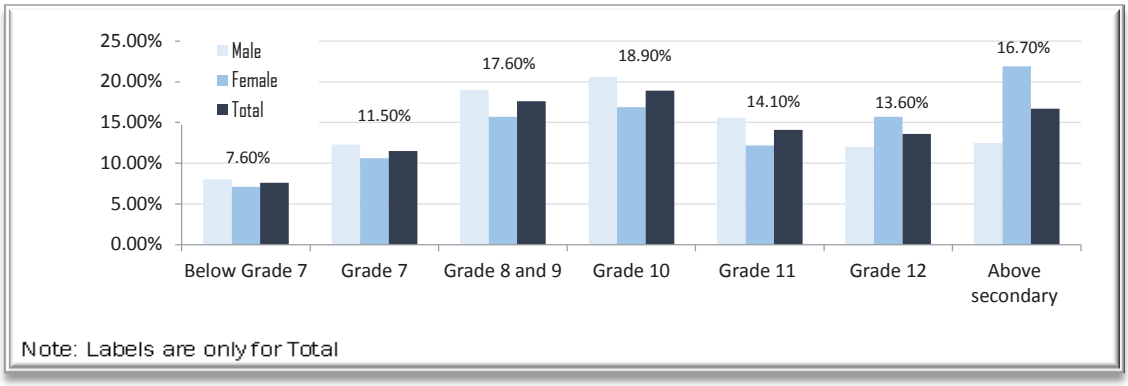


Chart 8: Highest Grade Attained by the Children

An investigation into the highest level of education as measured by highest grade level completed show that the range for all children living and/or working in the streets extends from kindergarten to grade 10 with a median of grade 4 (mean 4.42, *skewness* $g^1 = 0.233$).

Though independent sample t-tests didn't yield statistical significance, data across sex and disability have shown that female children (median grade 5) and children without disability (median 4) tend to reach higher grade levels compared to male children (median 4) and children with disability (median 3.41), respectively. It should be noted that this finding corroborates or strengthens the validity of the previous finding which points out that female children, compared to males, and children without disability, as opposed to those with disability, are inclined to persist on continuing their education once they are enrolled. Independent sample t-tests have also confirmed that both variations, i.e., across male (M=4.21, SD=1.904) and female (M=4.79, SD=2.193) conditions; t (519)= -3.256, p = 0.001 and children with disability (M=3.41, SD=2.043) and those without disability (M=4.46, SD=2.059) t (542) = 2.591, p = 0.010, are statistically significant thus pointing to the fact that, in terms of attaining higher levels of education (as measured by grade levels) female children and those without disability perform better than male children and children with disability, respectively.

Seemly perceived reasons for not attending school at the time of the data collection those children who have dropped out-of-school noted that the main reasons are financial limitations (n=176, 50.4%) and engagement in child work (n=82, 23.5%). Other reasons cited include unwillingness/inability of parents to send the child to school (n=26, 7.4%), failing school exam (n=9, 2.6%), the child's indifference to the benefits of education (n = 5, 1.4%), and remoteness of school (n=2, 0.6%).

Migration

Data on migration show slightly less than half (it must be more than half) of the child population (n=361, 54.6%) was born in another part of the country and migrated to the city of data collection. As can be seen in the bar chart below there is a statistically significant variation ($\chi 2$ = 104.000, df1, α .001) in the proportion of migrated children across the sample cities.

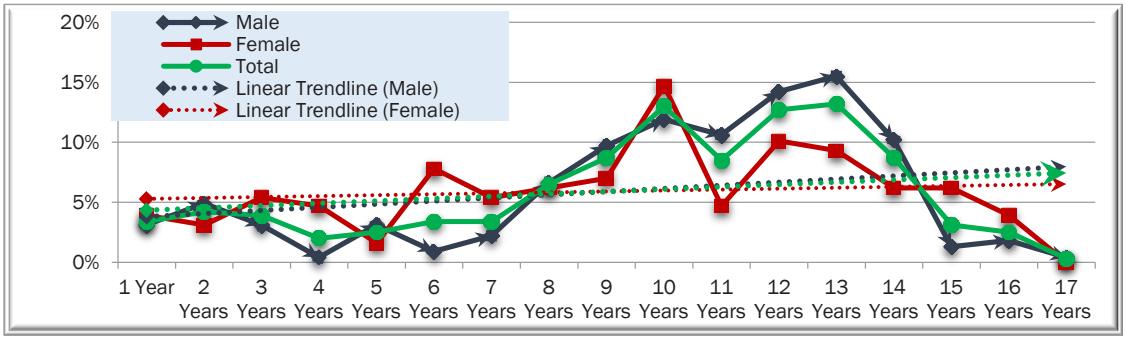


Chart 10: Proportion of Migrant Children across Onset Age for Going Out into the Street

Data also have shown that a considerable portion of the children migrated to the city of data collection alone (total 35.2%, male 46.2%, female 15.7%) however a meticulous examination divulges that female children, though vary across age, in general frequent to migrate with a family friend while male children are inclined on migrating alone. The following bar chart provides detail data on accompaniment on migration across the sexes.

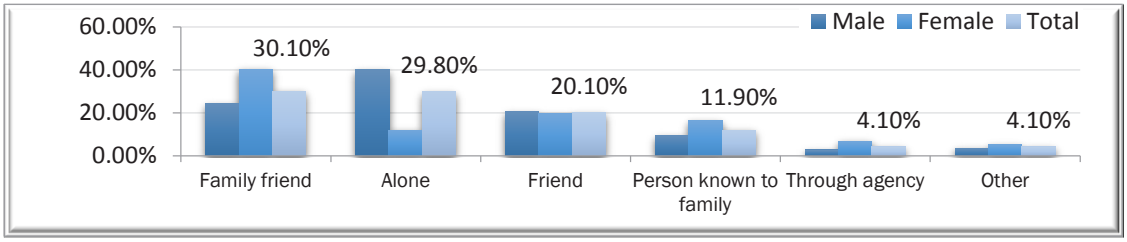


Chart 11: Accompany During Migration by Sex of Child

The last variable examined in relation with migration was the identity of the individual who paid for the transport during the child's migration. Data in this regard show that 30.8% of the children paid for their own transport and the remaining 22.0% travelled with a financial support from a family friend. The following pie charts provide data across the two sexes.

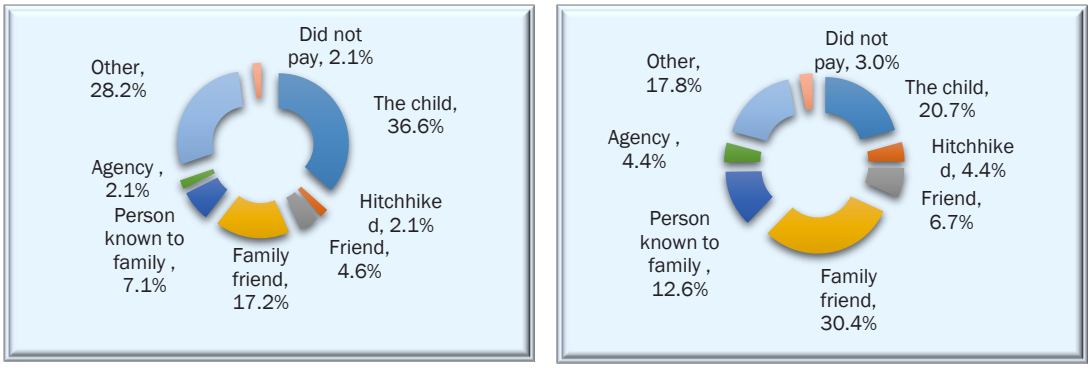


Chart 12: Financial Source for Travel during Migration (Pie Chart 1- Male and Pie Chart 2-Femal

Child Work

The children's engagement in income generating activity in the streets was another variable studied and data show that all of the children (100%) engage in some form of work that generates monetary income. This is basically since the study was limited the age group from 11 to 17 years.

Data on economic activity indicates that female children typically engage in selling small items such as sanitary paper tissues, sweets, chewing gum, roaster cereals, etc. (33.20%); assisting shop owners (17.00%); begging (19.80%); sex work (8.20%), and collecting waste (8.20%). Similarly, male children for the most part engage in carrying items, such as, luggage (49.80%); shoe shinning (15.60%); selling small items such as sanitary paper tissues and chewing gum, etc. (13.20%); washing cars / shop windows (12.20%), and collecting waste (11.60%). Furthermore, data show that one child in every ten

(10.3%) of the children (male n=21, 5.6%; female n=47, 16.6%) beg and 4.4% (male n=7, 1.9%; female n=22, 7.8%) of the children engage in commercial sex work. The bar chart below provides detail information on the type and frequency of economic activity across sex.

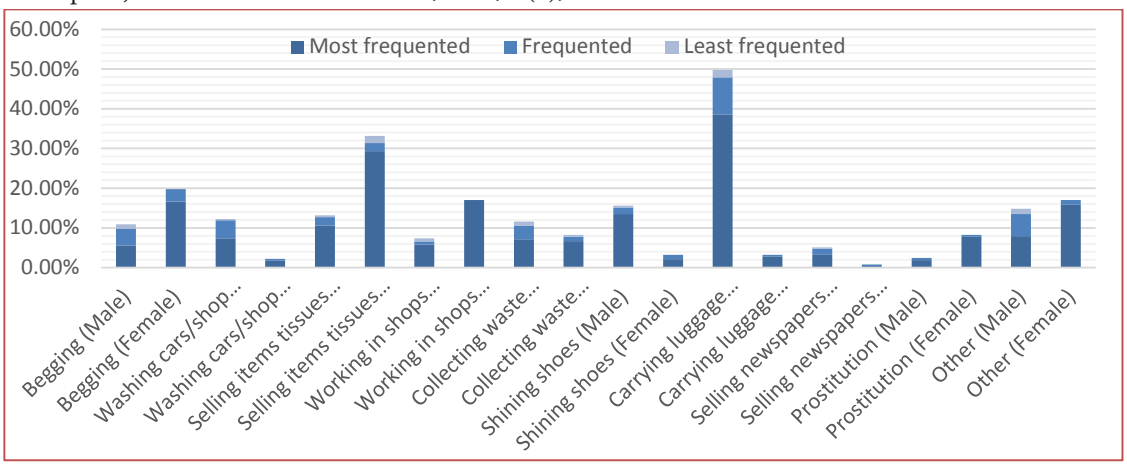


Chart 13: Type and Frequency of Economic Activity across Sex

Reasons for going out into the Street

The study also examined reasons for going out into the street to find out the relative influence that violence has in pulling and/or pushing children to join the streets. Accordingly, it was found out that violence in home environment is responsible in pushing the children to go out into the street for more than one-third of the children (38.0%). As can be seen in the bar chart below, while a number of other push or pull factors exist, violence at home (or more explicitly, child labor at home, dispute with parents, neglect at home, and physical, psychological and sexual abuse at home) explains a significant portion of the child population's presence in the streets.

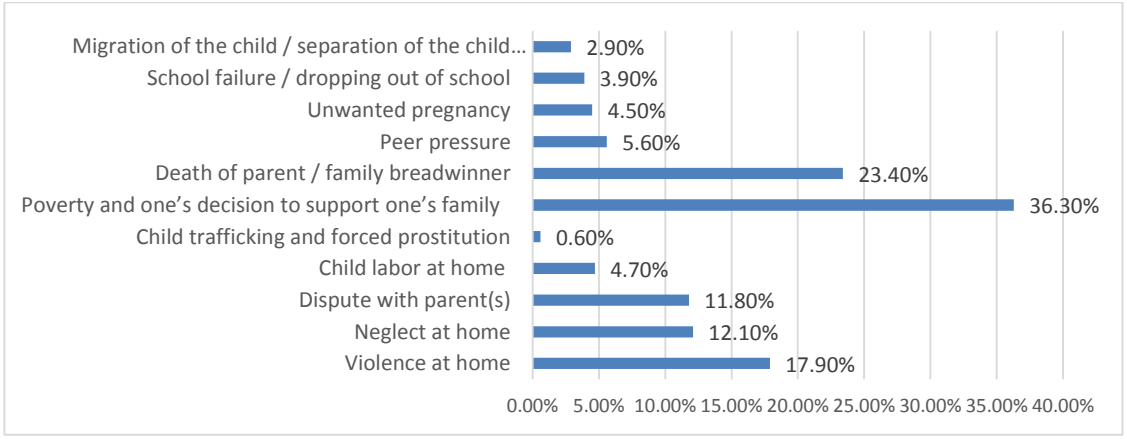


Chart 14: Violence versus Non-Violent Reasons for Going Out into the Street

A Pearson Chi-Square test further divulged that there is a statistically significant variation across the sexes (α 2 = 6.254, df1, α .044) indicating that violence plays the central role for more male children (n=157, 41.5%) to go out into the street compared to female children (n=94, 33.2%).

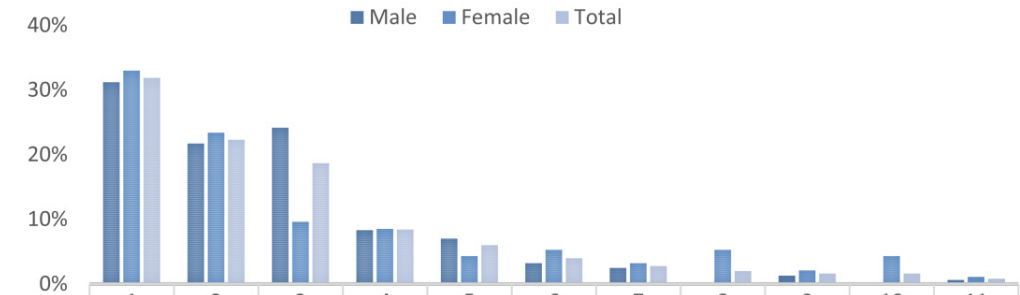
Table 5: Reasons for going out into the street as perceived by FGD participants

Familial violence (abuse (mainly by step father/mother) but also by one's parents), neglect (nutritional, educational, health, etc.) exploitation and discrimination	18.53%
Misconduct (theft, substance abuse, failure in school, unwanted pregnancy) and in search of the relative freedom and independence	17.74%
Familial Poverty	16.88%
Peer / Sibling pressure	16.23%
Parental death and familial disruption as in divorce	16.23%
To support family by working on the street	13.25%
Migration to cities in search of a better life, education and/or employment	3.90%
Violence (abuse, neglect and exploitation) in the hands of relatives who bring children to cities promising a better life and education	3.25%
Being born in the street (second generation street children)	0.65%

Typology and Mix of Violence against the Child in Home Environment

As a logical follow-up of the finding that violence at home is a major pushing factor that forces children to go out into the street, the study examined the typology and mix of violence against children in home environment. In this regard, data have shown that the major types of violence at home against the child serving as a pushing factor are:

- Physical abuse and emotional abuse (total n = 80, 31.9%; male n = 49, 31.2%; female n = 31, 33.0%);
- Physical abuse (total n = 56, 22.3%; male n = 34, 21.7%; female n = 22, 23.4%); and
- Emotional abuse (total n = 47, 18.7%; male n = 38, 24.2%; female n = 9, 9.6%).
- While these three types rank top, as presented below in a bar chart, other types of violence have also been reported.



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Male	31.20%	21.70%	24.20%	8.30%	7.00%	3.20%	2.50%	0.00%	1.30%	0.00%	0.60%
Female	33.00%	23.40%	9.60%	8.50%	4.30%	5.30%	3.20%	5.30%	2.10%	4.30%	1.10%
Total	31.90%	22.30%	18.70%	8.40%	6.00%	4.00%	2.80%	2.00%	1.60%	1.60%	0.80%

Physical abuse and emotional abuse = 1
Physical abuse = 2
Emotional Abuse = 3
Physical abuse, emotional abuse and child labor and exploitation = 4
Child labor / exploitation = 5
Physical abuse and child labor and exploitation = 6
Emotional Abuse and child labor and exploitation = 7

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to understand the background status of street children and to assess their current survival activities across the street of 21 towns. The participants in the survey were n = 661. The study has explored numerous areas to understand the status and characteristics of children. Therefore, in relation to onset age and duration, stay in the streets with a median age of 11 and a range which is extended from birth to -17 years. Moreover, according to this study, 1.2% of the children were born in the streets. In addition to this, some difference in terms of onset age was seen across town. It was found that children from Mekele tend to go to the streets when older than those who are in Dire Dawa, Bahirdar, and Addis Ababa (Kirkos). Furthermore, regarding the duration of stay majority of children living/working in the street (n=560, 89.2%) have stayed on the street for less than five years and six months and only about 11.0% (n=50) children have stayed more than five years in the street. no statistically significant variation was found across sexes and the number of years a given child lives and/or works in the street.

In the case of the family status of the children, about 33.7% of them have their parents alive, whereas 33.3% of children have lost one of their parents. In addition to this, 20.1% of the children have lost both of their parents. Statistically significant variations across the sexes were found to be female children tend to stay more with their intact family and

with their mothers compared to male children.

The majority of the children use sidewalks (41.2), and other places including parks, under bridges, churches and mosques, market place and bus stations were included. On the contrary, 42.9% of children spend 42.9% the night indoors. Frequently reported placers were in their families home or rented houses 17.3%). Statistically, significant variation was found across the sexes in the sleeping quarters and parental status in which male children67.5%) found to spend their nights outdoor compared to female children 37.5%. Also, children who have lost both of their parents 65.6% and one of their parents 60.1% have been found to sleep out-doors compared to non-orphans (48.0%).

Findings regarding education and disability showed that 5.4% of the children have at least one type of disability, which includes physical, visual, hearing as well as intellectual disabilities. On the other hand, 23.7% of the children have never been to school, and 62.1% have dropped out. A statistically significant variation was found in family status and the likelihood of continuing education in which children who have lost both of their parents tend to fall behind when compared to those who have lost one parent37.8% and non-orphans 44.8%.

In the case of migration, 54.6% of the children were born in another part of the country and migrated to the cities moreover a statistically significant variation was found across the sexes in which male children (60.6%) tend to migrate more than female (46.6%) children to live and/or work on the street. In relation to child work engagement, major finding s were that all children engage in work activities in different ways. While female children involved in selling small items33.20% assisting shop owners17.00%, begging 19.80% as well as sex work 8.2 %. on the other hand, male children engage in carrying items 49.80% and shoe shinning 15.60%. Finally, reasons for going out to streets violence at home were found to be a leading reason for children to go out to streets; moreover, a statistically significant variation was found in which male children go out to the streets than females following violence in home environment.

Recommendations

- Collaborative work with Schools could have a significant role in reaching children who are at risk of joining street life following a school dropout or migration.
- Non-governmental and charity organizations that work in issues related to street must give emphasis to family support in financial as well as psychological in their reunification programs.
- Future studies should focus on identifying terminologies that define than labeling the lives of children living/working on the streets.

- Concerned bodies should look for strategies to create an accurate representation of public awareness about the lives of children living/working in the streets.
- Governmental and non-governmental bodies and organizations should work on preventive programs with an emphasis on a conducive school environment and public awareness.

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