

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**Demographic and Socio-Economic
Determinants of Urban Streetism
Among Children in Awassa**

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**A Thesis Presented to the School of Graduate Studies
Addis Ababa University
In Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Science in Demography**

By: Nigatu Regassa

May, 2001

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**Addis Ababa University
School of Graduate Studies**

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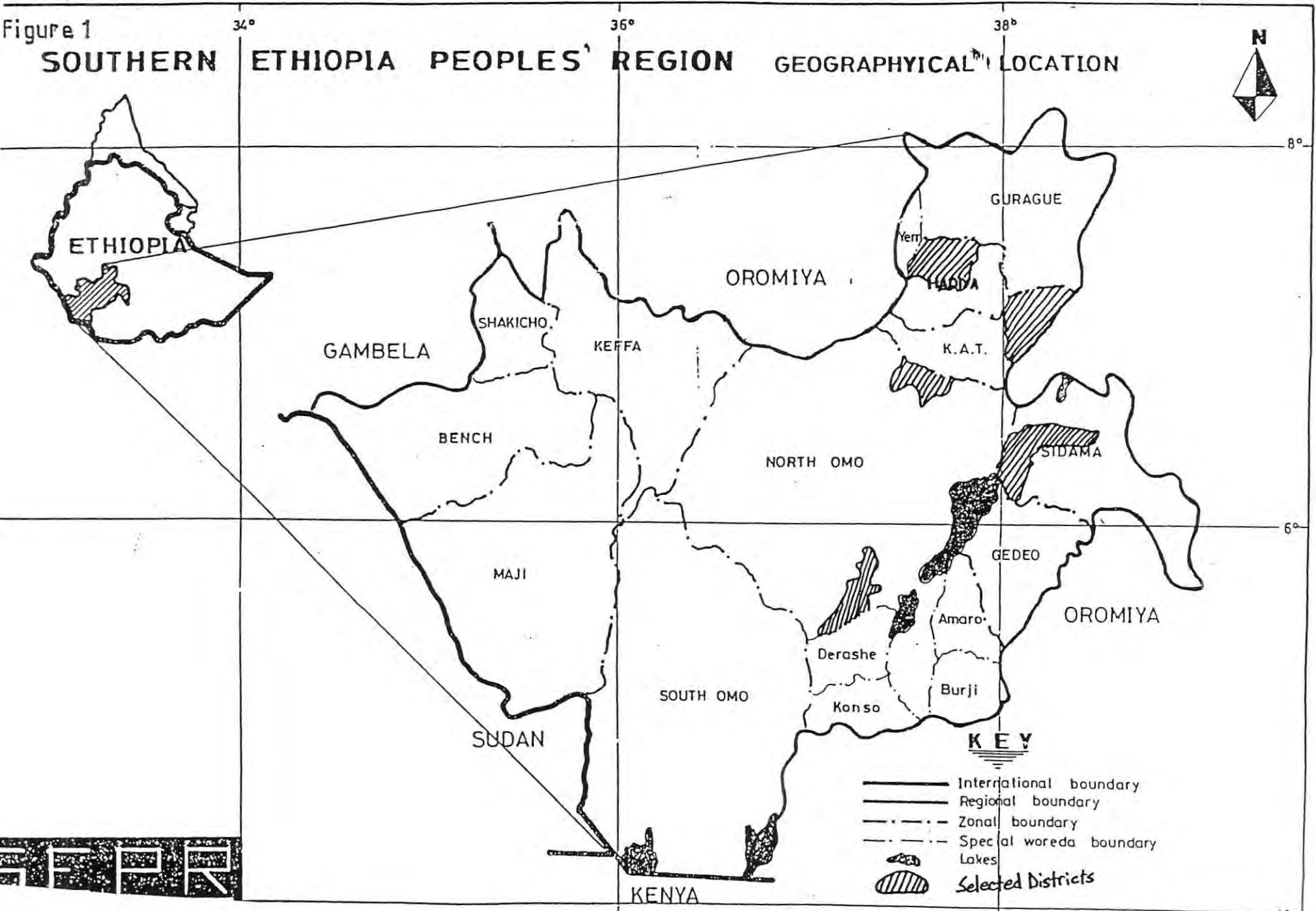
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Figure 1
SOUTHERN ETHIOPIA PEOPLES' REGION GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This thesis could not have been successfully completed without the unreserved and tireless contributions of many people and institutions.

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Nigatu Regassa

Dedication

Dedicated to Tsigereda Getnet for her love and uninterrupted
encouragement:

also equally,

Dedicated to my mother Debitu Kidane for her countless and unreturnable
care and warmth throughout my life.

ABBREVIATIONS

AA	Addis Ababa
AAU	Addis Ababa University
CEDC	Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances
CSA	Central Statistic Authority
DTRC	Demographic Training and Research Center
ILO	International Labour Organization
MOLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
PAI	Population Action International
SNNP	Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region
TGE	Transitional Government of Ethiopia
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
USA	United States of America

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>page</u>
Acknowledgment-----	i
Dedication-----	ii
List of Abbreviations-----	iii
Table of Contents-----	iv
List of Tables-----	vi
List of Figures-----	vii
List of Appendices-----	vii
Abstract-----	viii
CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background-----	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem-----	3
1.3 Objectives of the study-----	7
1.4 Definition of key terms-----	8
1.5 Review of related Literature-----	12
1.6 Conceptual Framework-----	27
1.7 Hypothesis to be tested-----	30
1.8 Major constraints (limitations) of the study-----	30
1.9 Significance of the study-----	31
1.10 Organization of the Study-----	32
CHAPTE TWO – SOURCE OF DATA AND METHODOLOGY	
2.1 Source of Data-----	33
2.2 Methodological problems in Studying streetism-----	33
2.3 Design-----	35
2.3.1 Study design-----	35
2.3.2 Sampling design-----	37
2.4 Data collection-----	39
2.4.1 Development of the instrument (the questionnaire)-----	39
2.4.2 Recruitment and Training of data collectors and supervisors--	40
2.4.3 Pre-Test-----	41
2.4.4 Field work-----	42
2.4.5 Monitoring and supervision-----	43
2.5 Data Processing and Analysis-----	44
2.5.1 Data entry-----	44
2.5.2 Data cleaning and editing-----	44
2.5.3 Data organization and Analysis-----	44
CHAPTER THREE – CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY AREA AND THE SAMPLE POPULATION	
3.1 Characteristics of the study area-----	47
3.2 Background Characteristics of the sample population-----	52
3.2.1 Demographic Characteristics of the respondents-----	52
3.2.2 Major Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents-----	55

CHAPTER FOUR - DIFFERENTIALS OF STREETISM	
4.1 Introduction -----	63
4.2 Demographic Differentials of Streetism-----	66
4.2.1 Age and Streetism -----	66
4.2.2 Sex and Streetism -----	67
4.2.3 Number of Siblings and streetism-----	68
4.2.4 Survival status of respondent's parents and streetism-----	70
4.2.5 Migration status of respondent and streetism -----	71
4.2.6 Marital Instability of Child's parents and streetism -----	74
4.2.7 Living with step mother and streetism -----	76
4.3 Socio-economic Differentials of streetism-----	77
4.3.1 Educational Level of respondent's parents and streetism-----	77
4.3.2 Exposure to Heavy work load and streetism-----	78
4.3.3 Severe physical punishment used by parents and streetism-----	80
4.3.4 Presence of other family member engaged in street activities and streetism-----	82
4.3.5 Occupational Status of respondent's parents and streetism-----	83
CHAPTER FIVE – DETERMINANTS OF STREETISM: MULTIVAR - IATE ANALYSIS	
5.1 The Model-----	85
5.2 Demographic Determinants of Streetism-----	91
5.2.1 Age and Streetism-----	92
5.2.2 Sex and Streetism-----	93
5.2.3 Number of Siblings and Streetism-----	94
5.2.4 Migration and Streetism -----	94
5.2.5 Marital Instability and Streetism-----	95
5.3 Socio Economic Determinants of Streetism -----	96
5.3.1 Education status of respondent's parents and streetism -----	97
5.3.2 Exposure to Heavy work load at home and streetism-----	98
5.3.3 Severe Physical Punishment used by Parents and streetism-----	99
5.3.4 Presence of other family members engaged in street activities and streetism -----	99
5.3.5 Occupational status of respondent's parents and streetims-----	100
CHAPTER SIX : SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
6.1 Summary-----	101
6.2 Conclusion -----	104
6.3 Recommendation -----	106
References -----	111
Appendices -----	115

LIST OF TABLES

<i>Table 3.2.1.1</i> Percentage Distribution of Sample Children by Major Demographic Characteristics 2001.-----	52
<i>Table 3.2.2.1</i> Percentage of Distribution Sample Children by Major Socio-Economic Background Characteristics, 2001.-----	55
<i>Table 3.2.2.2</i> Percentage of Street Children (Cases) by Reported Economic Characteristics.-----	61
<i>Table 4.1.1</i> Results of the Chi-Square Statistical Significance Test, 2001-----	64
<i>Table 4.2.1.1</i> Percentage of Children by Reported Age, 2001-----	66
<i>Table 4.2.2.1</i> Percentage of Sample Children by Sex, 2001-----	67
<i>Table 4.2.3.1</i> Percentage of Sampled Children by Reported Number of Siblings, 2001-----	68
<i>Table 4.2.4.1</i> Percentage of Sampled Children by Survival Status of there Parents, 2001-----	70
<i>Table 4.2.5.1</i> Percentage of Sample Children by their Migration Status, 2001-	71
<i>Table 4.2.5.2</i> Percentage of Migrant Children by Place of Origin, Migration Intention, Persons Accompanied and Migration Duration, 2001--	72
<i>Table 4.2.6.1</i> Percentage of Sample Children by Reported Marital Instability of Parents, 2001-----	74
<i>Table 4.2.7.1</i> Percentage of Sample Children by Presence of Absence of Step Mother -----	76
<i>Table 4.3.1.1</i> Percentage of Sample Children by Reported Educational Level of their Parents, 2001-----	77
<i>Table 4.3.2.1</i> Percentage of Sample Children by Report Frequent Exposure to Heavy Work Load at Home, 2001-----	78
<i>Table 4.3.3.1</i> Percentage Distribution of Sampled Children by Reported Physical Punishment used by their Parents /Guardians, 2001-----	80
<i>Table 4.3.4.1</i> Percentage of Sample Children by Reported Presence of other Family Members Engaged in Street Activities, 2001-----	82
<i>Table 4.3.5.1</i> Percentage Distribution of Sample Children by Reported Employment Status of their Parents, 2001-----	83
<i>Table 5.1.1</i> Results of Logistic Regression Showing the Relative Contribution (Partial correlation) of the Independent Variable, 2001-----	89
<i>Table 5.2.1</i> Results of Logistic Regression for Dmographic Determinants of Streetism, 2001-----	91
<i>Table 5.3.1</i> Results of Logistic Regression for socio-economic Determinants of Streetism, 2001-----	96

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 1</i> Conceptual Framework for the study of Basic Determinants of streetism Among Children -----	29
<i>Figure 2</i> Conceptual frame work for the study design -----	36

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1 The questionnaire -----	115
Appendix 2 Variables used in the study-----	124

ABSTRACT

Children's issues have become the concern of national governments as well as the international community during the last few decades. Children in Difficult circumstances (i.e. orphans, handicapped, Displaced children, Abused Children, and street children) which are increasingly becoming common in almost all parts of the developing world have now gained the attention of policy makers and programme initiators both in the developed and developing countries. Among other social problems, the ever and alarming increase in magnitude of streetism in the developing regions of Africa, Asia and Latin America called for special focus on research and action aiming at ameliorating the existing problem.

This thesis is an empirical study aimed at identifying the basic demographic, economic and social determinants of Streetism among children in Awassa town, the capital of Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples Region (SNNP).

First, all the available literatures were reviewed which later helped the development of five important hypothesis and the conceptual frame work. A questionnaire, consisting of about 53 items, was developed and a two days-training session was organized for investigators and supervisors. A pilot test was conducted on fifteen children who were selected through purposive sampling which helped the modification of the questionnaire. A Case-Control study design, which is known for treating both exposed (cases) and non exposed (controls), was used i.e. for each street child, included in the study, there was one corresponding non street child (control). In selecting the 540 cases and 540 controls, cluster sampling technique was used. Upon the successful completion of the field work, the data entry and analysis were done using the SPSS computer software package. Both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to analyze the data. The univariate analysis was used to see the percentage share of background variables. The relative contribution or the net effect of each independent variable to the dependent variable, controlling and confounding factors, was examined using the multivariate analysis.

The findings of the bivariate analysis using chi-square test, showed the existence of association between fifteen explanatory variables and streetism. The multivariate analysis using the logistic regression clearly revealed that age of the child, sex of the child, migration status, Marital instability of parents and number of sibling were found to be very important demographic determinants of streetism. Further, Educational level of child's parents, exposing children to heavy work load and severe physical, punishment at home, and the occupational status of father were found to be important socio-economic determinants of streetism.

Finally, on the basis of the findings, few policy recommendations were given by classifying them into preventive and rehabilitative measures. The need for advocacy, educating parents and the community about child rearing, strengthening the existing laws and policies related to street child, strengthening the extended family system, poverty reduction through devising income generation activities and family re-unification were among the most important policy recommendations suggested by the study.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Children account nearly half of the world population. All of these children living throughout the world have much in common: They want to live with family and friends and to feel safe in their homes and communities, they want clean water to drink and enough to eat, enough place where they can escape from noise and smell or garbage; they would like to be respected by adults and to have a real part in the lives of their communities. They want the kind of education that gives them a future. Above all, they need care, love and protection.

Today, however, we find large proportion of children living under various socio-economic and environmental crises. It is estimated that still about twelve million children under age five die every year, millions of them live in appealing conditions, over a million children each year are forced into prostitution, and many millions more work in hazardous and exhausting conditions (CDF, 1997; Bartlett, 1999, IX). Very recently, it is estimated that almost 15 percent of the world children are living in particularly difficult circumstances. There are more than 120 million working children, 50 million street children, more than 20 million refugees or displaced children, not to mention the children who have been physically or psychologically traumatized by conflict and victims of natural calamities (UNICEF, 1999, 29).

Among the above mentioned social problems, the alarming and ever increasing problems of streetism among children is becoming one of the many complex issues confronting our world. Out of the total number of 50 million street children estimated by UNICEF, large proportion of them are found in the different pockets of Latin America where Brazil ranks first (UNICEF, 1998, 11). In Ethiopia, it is estimated that there were 120,000 actual street children, 500,000 urban poor and out of school children, and one million urban children at risk of becoming street children (UNICEF 1993, 1995; MOLSA, 1996).

Besides the alarming increase in the size of the problem, the increase in its depth is also worthy of mentioning. Street children are susceptible to all of the dangers that result in various temporary and irreversible health and developmental consequences (DCI 1985; Bartlett S. 1999). For example, carrying heavy loads, sleeping in unsuitable environment and exposure to extreme cold and heat can permanently distort or disable growing bodies (ILO, 1995, 9). They are also exposed to different kinds of violence and crimes (Herman and Jup, 1988; Williams; 1983). Further, the incidence of malnutrition, long working hours, rejection, exploitation in the street, harassment by peers and adults, and other psycho-social consequences are among the common problems indicating the increased depth of the problem (Tedla, 1999, 1). Among others, street children are also at high risk of contracting HIV/AIDS (Linda, 1997, 65).

There might be various underlying causes for the high and increasing problem of streetism in Africa in general, and in Ethiopia, in particular. As many of the literatures reveal, the problem of streetism is not a new phenomenon, and its origin goes back many decades. It is believed that the repeatedly occurring drought, rural-urban migration that gave rise to ill-controlled urbanization, uninterrupted ethnic and religious wars, intermingling of culture and civilization and other environmental stress might have contributed to the origin and increased prevalence of streetism among children. Above all, however, the disintegration of traditional family values, the increased number of single parent families, deteriorated value towards children, and urban poverty are also usually mentioned as factors further aggravating the problem in many African countries. (Aptekar, 1988, 1994).

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Covering a total area of some 1,130,000 square kilometers, Ethiopia is a country of great geographical diversity with, rugged mountains, flat topped plateau, deep gorges and rolling plains. Its proximity to the equator and great latitudinal changes is believed to create various climatic zones.

With an estimated population of about 65 million, Ethiopia is the third populous country in Africa, next to Nigeria and Egypt. Fuelled by a high level of fertility rate and relatively declining mortality rate, the country is experiencing a very high annual growth rate of population which is about 2.8 (NOP, 2000). Out of the total

population of the country, more than 85 percent live in rural areas with recognizable dark shade of poverty and socio-economic stagnation, whereas only less than 15 percent of the total population is currently living in urban areas. The population density of 45/square kilometer is considered to be low compared to many countries of the world. Life expectancy at birth, as indicator of health status, is estimated to be around 48 years. However, a more sensitive indicator, infant and child mortality rates are 113 and 185 per 1000 live births respectively, whereas, the average sub-Saharan Africa infant mortality rate is 105 per 1000 live births (Population Action International, 1998, 79). Malnutrition is a characteristic of Ethiopian Children (41%) where daily per capita caloric supply does not exceed 1600, while the per capita average for sub-Saharan Africa is about 2011 calories (CSA, 1998; TGE/UNICEF, 1994).

Like other developing countries, Ethiopia to date is experiencing high level of population pressure coupled with repeatedly occurring socio-economic, environmental and political unrest. As such huge number of its people is known to lie below the United Nations poverty line. The demobilization of more than 400,000 former soldiers, with an estimated 800,000 dependents, nearly 1.5 million refugees and internally displaced persons due to strife in neighboring countries forced resettlement and further aggravated the situation and brought about serious crisis on the social environment (TGE/UNICEF, 1993, 1994).

It should be noted that children, among other sections of the population, are the most vulnerable group whose mental and physical well being are affected by the prevailing socio-economic conditions. It is true that children need particular care with regard to health, physical, mental, moral and social development within the framework of legal environment for their normal growth in all dimensions. However, it is unfortunate that the majority of Ethiopian children are deprived of these indispensable elements due to the aforementioned reasons.

Like in other developing countries, Ethiopian children face a host of danger and life challenges, casualties of violence, displacement, abuse and neglect, and the like. As mentioned above, Ethiopia is a home of about 120,000 street children, one million poor children who are at higher risk of coming out to the street. Thus, the alarming increasing trend in the magnitude of streetism is becoming one of the complex social problems confronting Ethiopia today. As repeatedly revealed by MOLSA, the problem is sky rocketing in some major towns of the country such as Bahir Dar, Dire Dawa, Jima, Harar, Awassa etc.... (MOLSA, 1974, 1988, 1993, 1996).

Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples (SNNPR) is one of the nine regional states (federal states) of Ethiopia where the plight of street working children is a major social concern. The problem is becoming acute in the towns of Awassa, Yirgalem, Dilla, Yirgacheffe, Arbaminch, Welaita Sodo,... Hosana, Wolkite, Durame, and Alaba (Habtamu, 1997, 4).

Awassa, the newly and fast growing town of southern regional state (SNNPR), is one that hosts large number of street working children. Though there are no available data indicating the size of street children at Awassa, the region is estimated to have about 28,955 of such children (Habtamu, 1997, 6).

Since 1992, after Awassa became the regional capital city, there occurred escalation in the number of children who come out to the street. Today, it is very easy to observe numerous children sleeping and working on main roadsides and garbage places than ever seen before. No doubt that there are many other children on the verge of coming to street life.

In spite of the increasing complexity in the depth and magnitude of the problem, however, there are few studies conducted in this area. The ministry of labor and social affairs office of the region undertook few surveys, which aimed at knowing the overall situation of the children, and did not try to identify the basic determinants of streetism in the area. There were also very scanty attempts made by non-governmental organizations to study the basic determinants of streetism in the region. The underlying weakness of such previous attempts, among others, was to capitalize only on socio-economic factors and undermining the important role played by demographic factors in increasing the depth and magnitude of the problem. The fact that SNNPR consists of diverse ethnic groups with quite

different family dynamics and structures, it is very likely to expect multiple determinants pushing children to street life.

This study, thus, is probably the first attempt to investigate the demographic, economic and socio-cultural determinants of streetism among children in the region.

1.3 Objectives of the study

General Objective:

The major objective of this study is to identify or examine the basic determinants of streetism among children in one of the major cities of Ethiopia, Awassa.

Specific Objectives:

The specific objectives of this study include:-

1. To find out the contribution of certain demographic factors pushing children to urban streets.
1. To identify the contribution of the economic status of families to streetism.
1. To identify the contribution of selected socio- cultural factors pushing children to street.

1.4 Definition of key terms

- ***Child***

The term '*child*' does not have a generally accepted definition. In some cases, international instruments assign fifteen years as the highest age limit for childhood. In other cases, these international instruments seem to be flexible with a consensus that there are individuals who remain children both physically and mentally after age of fifteen.

The United Nations convention on the rights of the child defines the term '*child*' as every human being below the age of eighteen years, unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier (Article 1 of the convention, 1989). The Ethiopia civil code also defines a minor as a person of either sex who has not attained the full age of eighteen (Articles 193).

Eighteen years still forms some kind of a benchmark and we commonly find researchers adapting to such age limit.

Street child:

Many authors (ICCB,1985 ; Angelli,1986; Luccihni,1986; UNICEF,1988; Catriona ,1996) introduced various definitions and meanings of street children. We can summarize the conceptualization of street children in the following three major categories:

(a) colloquial terminology utilized in popular literature:

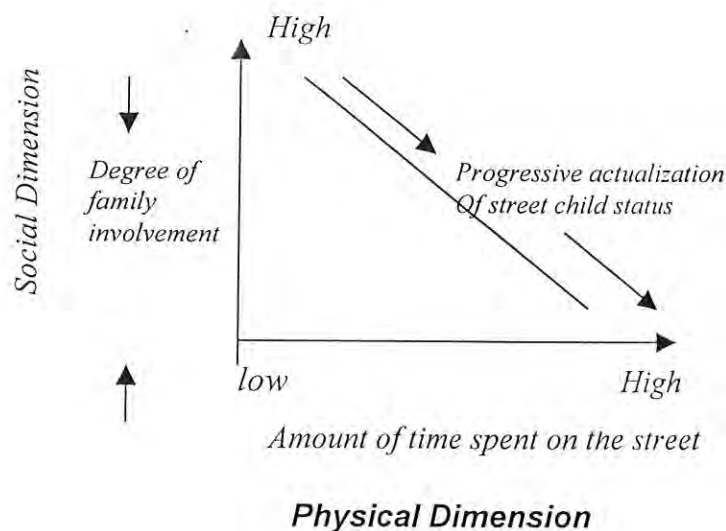
Angelli (1986), provides an interesting overview of the types of tables, which have been applied to street children world wide, and highlights their etymological understandings in terms of cultural meaning. For example, in Nepalese, the term “*suignizzo*’ is used to describe street children, meaning literally a ‘*spinning top*’ i.e. always on the move. The Peruvian term ‘*Pajero Frutero*’ (fruit bird) makes reference to these children constantly on the look out for the police at the fruit markets. In Colombia, the term “*ammine*’ (from the French word for” child’) is used, but with far greater negative connotations than its original meaning. In Rwanda, similarly, the label “*Saligomine*” (meaning dirty child) is widely used to describe street children. In South African term “*twilight*” children indicates the fragile existence of these kids. In Ethiopia, the term “*Godana Taddadari*”, (Poula, 2000) and other similar terms are used. These terms used in the different communities are indicative of a cultural bias against the behavioral norms of street children (Angelli ,1986).

(b) Time and familial involvement typologies

The second definition of street children is given on the basis of children’s involvement on the variables of time (time on the street) and family involvement. UNICEF (1988) in Brazil, stated that “*street children are most practically defined as those minors who spend at least a major part of their working hours working or wander in urban streets.*”Williams (1993), distinguished between ‘*home owning*’ and ‘*homeless*’. UNESCO(1993) cited two sub categories of street children;

'*pseudovagrants*' and '*vagrants*' highlighting the fact that some vagrants do actually have homes or familial shelters. The United States sub-committee on Juvenile Justices (1986) focussing on metropolitan countries, mentioned two sub-categories as being '*pushouts*' (thrown away) and '*runaways*'; the first category refers to abandoned or rejected children. The second category refers to children who have homes but who have been forced to leave through excessive rejection or abuse.

Lucchini (1989), conceptualized street children as comprising of two elements; the '*physical*' and the '*social*' dimensions. The physical dimension refers to the amount of time the child spends in the street, where the large amount of time spent is associated with high level of contact and vice versa. The social dimension refers to the existence or absence of a significant relationship with parents or adults (Lucchini, 1989).



(Source: Adapted form Luccihni, 1989.)

c) The International Catholic child Bureau (ICCB, 1985) defines street child as “any minor for whom the street (in the widest sense, including unoccupied dwellings, waste lands etc...) has become his or her habitual abode and/or source of income and who is inadequately protected supervised or directed by responsible adults”.

The definition is widely adopted by researchers and policy maker worldwide.

In its attempt to define the term ‘street child’ in the Ethiopian context, UNICEF developed the following typologies on the basis of the involvement of these children in street life and family contact (UNICEF, 1991):

- **Children at high risk:** are those children who because of extreme poverty or inadequate care and supervision, are at high risk of joining street life.
- **Children on the Street:** refers to those children who spend most of their time on the market places usually as workers. They have strong ties with their families. However, these children may join the rank of children off the street if situation do not change in a positive direction.
- **Children off the street:** are those children who have chosen to fully participate in street life not just at an economical level but all the time.

1.1 Review of Related Literature

Origin of street children worldwide

What accounts for the phenomena of street children in a particular culture is difficult to ascertain. In some countries of Latin America-most prominently Colombia, Brazil, and Mexico-street children have been around for more than a generation. But, Brazil, which actually has the highest number of street children in Latin America, is bordered by Uruguay, Argentina, and Bolivia, each of which has relatively few street children. Argentina and Uruguay have very few street children. Perhaps, these countries have more of a European heritage than they do an indigenous or African culture. This would explain why Columbia, Mexico and Brazil, which are influenced strongly by their African and indigenous cultures, have many street children. Yet the idea that some cultural groups are over or under represented in the population of street children is also difficult to accept. Cuba, for example, has few street children but a strong African culture'. Bolivia has a strong indigenous culture and few street children (Aptekar, 1994, 204).

Connolly (1990), in a comparative study of street children in Bogota and Guatemala city, found it very difficult to locate street children in Guatemala city, which has a far higher influence of indigenous culture than has Bogota, which has many street children. This would help to explain the situation in Bolivia but not in Peru, which has many street children (Connolly 1990, cited in Aptekar, 1994, 205).

The idea that there might be a link between a relatively recent, violent anti Colonial movement and the onset of street children is worth examining. Veale (1992), in a comparative study of street children in mid 19th century Ireland and the current Sudanese street children wrote that civil unrest was the reason for the origin of street children in both countries. There are also many street children in south Africa, where their high numbers have been related to the country's violent political problems (Swart, 1988). On the contrary some societies, such as Tanzania and Kenya have not had strong civil violence and have many street children. Argentina and Chile had relatively recent political violence and yet, they have fewer street children than do Brazil or Mexico, neither of which had recent political violence (Aptekar, 1994, 205).

Taking into account the above controversial issues regarding the origin of streetism in different regions, it is thus very important to identify the determinants of streetism in a specific culture.

In the following few pages, attempt has been made to present the most important literatures discussing the determinants of streetism.

Poverty and Streetism

Virtually studies of streetism in developing countries relate it most fundamentally to poverty. Poor families put their children to work much more than do families that are better off. This is a strategy not only to augment household income, but also to avoid the risks of losing one or another income source (UNICEF and Radda Barnen, 1978, 126). It is believed that most children in the developing world are in

the streets because of poverty. Most children in developing countries feel that they work in order to help their families. They also say that they begin to work because of the encouragement, request or command of their families. The decisions may be taken with the child's own willing support, or at the opposite extreme, may be even brutally imposed. Although, they are seldom asked, it is likely that, if given the opportunity most poor children would say that it is legitimate and reasonable that they be asked to help the family by contributing their work, especially when family survival and solidarity depend on it (UNICEF, 1988, 115).

In a study of 55 Nigerian street children under age 15 who were begging for a living, Ojanuga (1990) found that the children were on the streets because their families were poor and needed the money they earned. Indeed 80% of the children still lived with their families, and many of the children begged with them. (Ojanuga, 1990). Lusk (1991) who has studied street children in Juarez and Rio de Janeiro as well as in the countries of Colombia, Peru and the Dominican Republic reasserted poverty as an important immediate determinant of streetism. (Lusk, 1991).

UNICEF States that relatively few industrialized country children and adolescent claim to work on the street in order to contribute to their families but developing country children show much more interest in helping maintain family solidarity and economic viability. Typically, they also claim to receive emotional satisfaction from contributing to the family income and unity. For example, Ethiopian working

children in the Radda Barnen survey of children indicated that what they most like about their work is the good feeling they receive from being able to help their families (UNICEF, 1988, 15). Sometimes, this satisfaction reflects deeper dependency, as illustrated by a study of street children in Brazil;-

'While these children may be economically independent, they often remain deeply emotionally dependent and attached to the idea of 'family', when asked why they beg, steal, or why they live in streets, poor children in Brazil replied that they were doing it to help their mothers' (UNICEF, 1988, 117).

Rosa and Ebrahim (1992) in their study of eighty Brazilian street children aged nine to eighteen found that 82% of the children left home for economic reasons. Once on the streets, the children contributed half or more of what they earned to their families – hardly a sign of family discord. (Rosa and Ebrahim, 1992).

One possible correlates of low economic status is low educational level which in turn limits opportunities, particularly in an urban setting where the value of labor depends on the scarcity or otherwise of the skills on offer. Among the children surveyed by MOLSA, 31 percent of fathers and about 60 percent of mothers were reported by their children to be illiterate. Only 30 percent of fathers and 18 percent of mothers had attained education (MOLSA, 1993, 15). The low educational status of parents is a significant determinant of the type of jobs they are engaged in. The study conducted by MOLSA revealed that 16.4 percent of fathers are engaged in the informal economy, and of those who were government or private employees (30 percent and 43 percent respectively), the majority were

engaged in lower income occupations such as guards, drivers, or factory workers. In the same study, it was observed that 72 percent of the mothers of street children were engaged in income generating activities at the informal economy, which is a further indicator of the low income status of the households. As such, many of these impoverished families can hardly offer school fees, and thus, push their children to work on the street to supplement family income. Furthermore, the push effect on children of low income generating parents could be manifested by parents who encourage their children to earn additional income for the family because of parents failure to fulfill basic needs of children in which case the children themselves are inclined to satisfy their personal needs (MOLSA and Radda Barnen, 1995).

It is more interesting, perhaps, to examine the limits of poverty as an explanation for child work. If poverty was the sole determinant of the problem, one would expect to find the highest rates of child work in the poorest circumstances, but this is not always the case (UNICEF and Radda Barnen, 1978, 129). The relationship between poverty and streetism is sometimes vague, varied and indirect. Poverty is associated with a high incidence of child work in the developing regions. In rich countries, the relationship is reversed. In the United States, for example, a US government study found that teenage children from low income and minority families were only about half as likely to work as were well off children from households having annual income of at least US \$ dollar 60,000. (ILO,1995,26). Similarly, a study in England, reported that children aged 10 to 16 from the poorest

areas of the city were less likely to work than were their peers from neighborhoods. (ILO, 1995, 72).

Demographic Characteristics and Streetism

Another popular explanation for streetism is related to the various family dynamics and structures such as household size, birth order, single parent families, marital instability, female headed households, step parent and the like.

Since the 1990's, some researches have emphasized on the relationship between household size and the incidence of streetism among poor population in developing countries. A common finding is that children from households having large size are more likely to work than those belonging to smaller size households. This fits into a broader pattern in which larger household size is associated with many hindrances to child welfare and development, such as child morbidity and mortality, malnutrition, early school abandonment and so forth. (UNICEF 1995). Larger household size reduces parents' investment in schooling. This makes it likely that larger household size increases the probability that a child will come to street (ILO, 1995).

It is recognized that the effects of household size on streetism vary greatly with place, living conditions, occupation, and gender. Not all children in the same family are disadvantaged equally. For example, in some societies, it is very common for girls to be kept out of school to help in family work so that the boys can be free to

study .There is also some evidences that siblings early in the birth order are more likely to work than those who come later. (UNICEF, 1978, 138).

One family variable that seems to be very widely associated with higher levels of streetism is the occurrence of single parent families. These families are nearly every where among the poorest, and both mothers and their children are particularly vulnerable. In a study conducted in Latin America (Asuncion) indicates that 30 percent of the street children live with one of their parents, usually the mothers (27 percent) and in a few cases with the father (3 percent). (Bassilica, 1985, 23) Similarly, only 7 percent of the street children in a Jamaican study had two parent families (Brown, 1987) and 85 percent of the "parking boys" of Nairobi were brought up by a single parent in a female headed family (Wainaina, 1981)

It is also common to find separated/single parents establishing a stable relationship with another partner. This means that many children who live with only one parent have a stepfather (in some cases a step mother) and half brothers/sisters within their family nucleus. In many cases, the mother has several partners throughout her lifetime. For the child, a new companion for either the mother or the father can bring about major changes such as moving to another house or neighborhood with his new family, or having to accept new younger or older brothers and/or sisters. It is obvious that under these circumstances the child must develop a great ability to adapt to new people and situations in order to feel stable after changes in the

family structure. Among the street children in Asuncion with single parents, about 30 percent reported that they had stepfather. (Bassilica 1988, 24).

Depending on the case, the presence of the stepfather may imply the replacement of the lost father by a permanent father figure. The presence of a stepfather may also lead to a higher income and greater economic stability in the family nucleus, and thus, the child or children may be able to quit working in the streets. In many cases, however, having a stepfather creates greater problems for the child in his or her relationship with the mother who is divided between her loyalty to the child and to her companion. The companion, in turn does not easily accept the bond between his partner and the child or children of 'another man'. An even more difficult situation is that of girls whom do their stepfathers sexually molest. For many children, such a situation marks the beginning of a condition of factual and especially emotional instability which is difficult to face and which may become one of the factors responsible for being expelled from the family nucleus. (Bassilica, 1988; Benno Blausen, 1990, 25).

Similarly, a significant percentage of children in Ennew's study live with grand parents, uncles and aunts, stepparents or unrelated adults. The correlation with streetism is higher when children live either in stepparent families or with related adults other than parents than when they live with parents (Ennew, 1988, 33).

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Migration is another important demographic factor in streetism. In contrast to migration of adults, who might already be parents, little attention has been given to migration of children to urban areas. As some literatures reveal, child migration is becoming a significant urban phenomenon for many of the developing nations. Among persons arriving in urban localities in Indonesia for some ten years, for example, children account for 27 percent and youth 38 percent. Children and youth also represented a very important component of rural-urban migration in Thailand where 29 percent of rural –urban migrants were children during 1961-71 (UN, 1986, 39).

In Latin America, where more than 50 million street children are recorded, children's rural-urban migration is an important demographic factor. In Brazil, for example, 57.65 percent of urban residents, during the recent past were children. Study of migration to metropolitan areas in several Latin American countries showed children and youth to be important part of the total number of migrants (UN, 1986, 40).

Some writers have claimed that the rural urban migration is an important determinants of streetism (Galan, 1981; munoz and Pachon 1980, wright et al, 1993). There is, however, evidence that street children are not the children of recent migrants (Rosal et al, 1992, Tellez, 1976, villota, 1979).

In Ethiopia, as many findings revealed the plight of urban street children is mainly, the result of uninterrupted increase in the rural-urban migration (UNICEF 1993, MOLSA 1996). The rural poor migrate to the urban areas because of the deterioration of rural resources for livelihood or pulled by the promise of economic and social opportunities such as the possibility of job opportunities, better schooling, and better life. Migration involves one person from the family, usually the father or the family as a whole, or even the children alone and in all cases the incidence of family disintegration and the consequent exposure of the children to the problem of streetism is very high (MOLSA, 1988, 7). In the first instance disintegration of family begins when the family member who migrates to the city fails for one reason or another to subsidize that part of the family left behind in the rural areas. Under such circumstances, the children who are left with one parent are at risk and if they survive from death by starvation or disease, they migrate to the cities and in most cases join streetism. Likewise, family, which migrates as a unit, is in the danger of severe problems arising from inability to assimilate to socio-economic realities of the city life. When the 'promised land' rarely provides decent accommodation, easy access to employment, health facilities, education for children and the like, the children are encouraged or forced or on their will to help their parent or to set relief or for a better chance of survival join street life (MOLSA, 1988).

Among other groups of the population, migrant children are the most affected who are engulfed with various multi-tudinal urban street hazards. These migrant children (both unaccompanied and accompanied children) eke out a living through marginal occupations such as shoe shining, pottering, car washing, carrying bags, selling roasted beans, petty trading, and the like. On the contrary, those who are not successful in securing such marginal jobs, are forced to device another strategy for survival such as begging, stealing, delinquent acts, etc... It requires no logic to assure the fact that migrant children, rather than the non-migrants, face the urban stress, exploitation mistreatment, lack of services, and the like. In light of this UNFPA states:-

"Families and children migrating to cities and adopting urban lifestyles puts strains on families-parents and children cut off from extended family support become increasingly dependent on assistance from governments or the private sectors. Households headed by women are increasing in number, labour migration and heavy workloads in low paying informal jobs are braking down family ties. Millions of urban migrant children, some left to their own devices, subject to the risk of dropping out of school, of labour exploitation, unwanted pregnancies, drug and alcohol abuse, sexually transmitted disease and other social consequences threatening the normal phase of personality development" (UNFPA, 1996, p. 49).

The trends seen today in some African cities were evident many years ago, when people began to migrate from rural to urban areas in search of a higher standard of living. People coming to the urban areas were not the most prosperous members of the society. They were generally the rural poor, displaced for many reasons,

such as poverty or conflict in the rural areas where they were born. Many left in search of a better way of life, but instead found unemployment and greater poverty than they had left behind. They also face a great degree of rejection and lack of support from other members of the urban society. As a result, a large number of the children are pushed out to work in the street (UNESCO, 1995, 31).

There are also cases where child workers migrate from areas where there is a large surplus (ILO, 1995). Obviously migrant labour takes many different forms. It may be seasonal, or more or less permanent. Clearly migrant children can face a number of special problems and may have particular need for the provision of services. They may become extremely isolated from family and community and suffer as a result deficiencies in health and nutrition, quite apart from emotional deprivation. Being cut off from sources of protection, they are also prone to abuse. (Assefa et al, 1976, 2).

Finally, age and sex are also other demographic characteristics related to streetism. There are very few studies indicating the age and sex differentials of streetism among children. As Miller et'al (1992) in a national survey of runaways in the United states stated that the average runaways was 13-15 years of age. In other studies, the average age for initiation into the street culture in developing countries has been cited as far younger i.e. age eight years for boys or even as young as five when accompanied by gangs (Catriona, 1996, 12). Of the children surveyed in Nigeria, 84% reported that they began working on the street before

their ninth birth day. Very young children are encouraged to participate in street activities within the vicinity of their homes and under the supervision of elder brothers and sisters (Williams and Mayers, 1991, 18). Similar studies conducted by MOLSA in the major town of Ethiopia also revealed that the majority of street working children are in full age range 11-15 where the age for initiation into the street culture is around six and seven (MOLSA, 1993, 1996).

There are also few evidences indicating sex differentials in streetism among children. Indian and Latin America reported that the majority of street children are boys. Also girls engaged in such activities are more usually employed as domestic help and therefore are less visible groups on the street than boys who are primarily involved in formal street selling, shoe-shining and other similar activities (ILO 1992, 1994, 1995). Therefore, within the street child population of developing countries, boys seem to be more prevalent than girls. In contrast, Miller (1980) reports that 56% of the U.S. sample of runaway surveys were females. In a nationwide survey of 3000 street based children, the ministry of social service and development in the Philippines found that 80% were boys (Jo Boyden, 1991). Contrary to this, the Nigerian survey of street working children showed that girls tend to predominate (Williams and Mayers, 1991, 17).

Socio-Cultural Determinants of Streetism:

One factor that is missing from most studies is the role of socio cultural factors in explaining streetism. Certain cultural practices make it quite easy for children to

become street children: others make it impossible. Culture helps determine not only the different kinds of work children do and the context in which they perform it, but also prevailing opinions about the value of that work. Such opinions are tied to normative idea about the nature of childhood and how children should be raised and are emotionally charged. Each society tend to think that its way of raising children is the best way which may well be for that society's own reality and purposes and feels a sense of commitment to it (UNICEF, 1978, 141).

A sensibility notwithstanding culture is one of the most important influences determining child work and exploitation, and ideology about childhood and the raising of children is an extremely important aspect of it. For example, anthropological research into child hood in Bangladesh suggests that the culture of child raising calls for children to be coddled when very young, but to be treated rather severely from roughly 10 to 20 years of age in order to prepare them for the rigors of adult life (UNICEF, 1978, 142).

There are various cultural practices that possibly push children to street life. In Africa, early marriage, discouraging children from entering into earnest conversation with their parents (elders), discouraging children form developing their natural gifts, brutal treatment (several physical punishment) of children and the like are common socio-cultural practices. These are also quite common in Ethiopia (TGE/UNICEF, 1993).

The family is believed to be the most recognized environment for the physical, mental, social and spiritual development of children. On the contrary, however, parental rejection, anti-social parental model and mismanagement of parenthood was a part of many African communities. Several investigators have found a high incidence of antisocial traits in the parents of street youngsters. These traits include alcoholism, brutality, antisocial attitudes, failure to provide care, unnecessary absence from home and other characteristics that made the fathers an inadequate and an unacceptable model (Robert Carson et al, 1992, 549).

Similarly, Catriona shown that one of the major reasons for running away from home can range from a search for adventure to a desire to 'find themselves' and to make a social statement of rejection of home/family values in favor of a rebellious life style in the streets (Catriona,1996). The other reasons to be mentioned is as an attempt to escape from 'chaotic' family circumstances which can take the form of Abuse, Alcoholism and alienation (Catriona., 1996; 13).

In addition to the contribution of the above social factors, children have a tradition of following their parents 'foot steps'. If the family has a tradition of engaging in hazardous occupation, then there is every likelihood that the children will be caught up in the same process (ILO, 1998, 19). Similarly, Manzilla (1991) found that a third of the children in her school sample, and one half of those working in the markets had siblings who also worked.

1.6 Conceptual Framework

As clearly discussed in the literature review section and as revealed in figure 2, we find multitudinal factors bringing about streetism among children. The determinants are categorized into three major characteristics: Demographic, socio-cultural and economic that are expected to exert both direct and indirect impact on streetism among children. The indirect impact of some of these basic determinants is observed through certain intermediate factors such as dropping out from school.

The Variables:

1. The dependent variable:

The dependent variable of the study is 'streetism' which is a dichotomous variable categorized into two: those children who are exposed to the event (i.e. street children or cases) and those who are not exposed to the event (i.e. non-street children).

1. The Independent Variables:

There are many independent variables, which increase or decrease the risk of streetism among children. In this study, about twenty independent variables were identified at the beginning of the design of this study. Some of these independent variables, however, were excluded from the study since children did not adequately respond to some of the questions during the pilot study. The following independent variables are included in the study.

2.1 Demographic Characteristics

The demographic characteristics include household or family size, survival status of parents, family instability, age of the respondents, sex of the respondent, migration status of the respondents, and living with step parents. While some of these demographic variables may have positive relationship with the dependent variable, others may exert negative influence on the dependent variable.

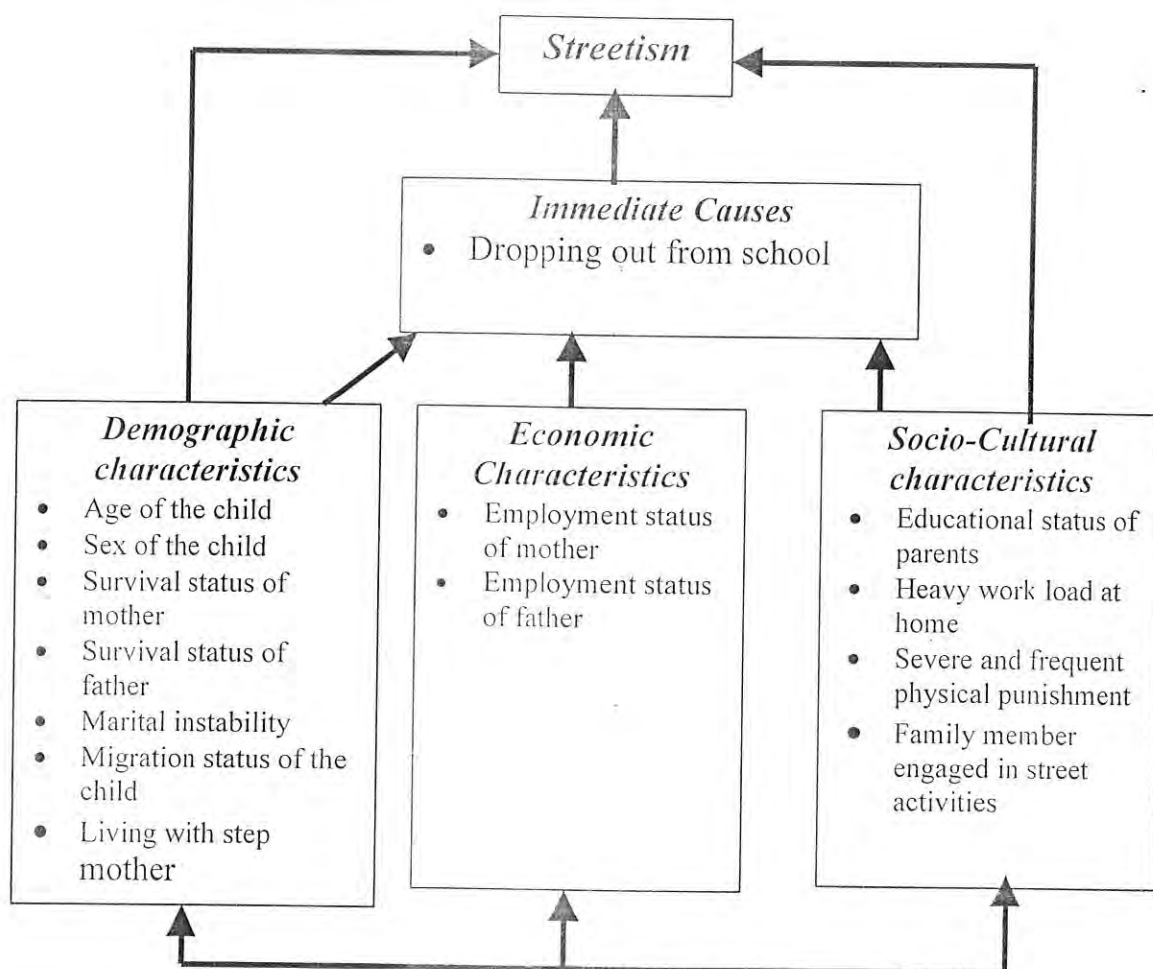
2.2 Economic Characteristics:

The economic status of respondent's parents has strong relationship with streetism. Since it is very difficult to get reliable information on family income, employment or work status of respondent's parents is taken as a proxy indicator of the economic status of family.

2.3 Socio-Cultural Characteristics

There are certain socio-cultural characteristics that may increase or decrease the risk of streetism among children. Educational status of respondent's parents or the literacy status, exposure to heavy workload at home, severe physical punishment used by parents, presence or absence of other family members engaged in street activities, are important socio-cultural determinants included in this section.

Figure: 1 Conceptual Framework for the Study of Basic Determinants of Streetism Among Children.



Source: Developed by the Author, 2001.

1.7. The study Hypothesis

- a. Marital instability of parents increases the risk of streetism among children.
- a. Migrant children are more likely to be exposed to streetism than the non-migrants
- a. The risk of streetism is higher among children with many siblings.
- a. Age and sex of children have strong relationship with the risk of streetism
- a. Workload at home and severe physical punishment used by parents increases the risk of streetism.

1.8. Limitations of the Study

This study came to an end after a lot of ups and downs throughout the research period. There were various human and non-human unavoidable factors intervening into the successful accomplishment of this study. The most important constraints/limitations of the study were:

- In order to elicit detailed information about the issue under discussion, there were about 92 questions prepared at the beginning of the study. Since most of the questions were not understood by the children during the pilot test, and because of resource constraint faced, only few questions were included in the interview schedule. This might have affected the coverage and depth of the study
- Since there are very scanty studies conducted on this issue, it was very difficult to get adequate literatures

- The fact that some children did not have adequate information about their family background might have affected the study. The inherent ability of the street children to manipulate and hide certain information may also be mentioned as an intervening factor during the fieldwork. Further because of the mobile nature of street children, it was very difficult to adopt reliable sampling design.

1.9 Significance of the Study

The results obtained from this study can be utilized in many ways. In the first place, knowledge of the determinants of streetism among children may help the governmental (such as MOLSA and planning office) and non-governmental organizations in their planning and implementation programs to reduce the alarming and ever increasing problem of streetism among Ethiopian children. Secondly, the results of the study may also be very useful in policymaking, monitoring and evaluation of the situation of these children. Finally, the results of this study will be an indispensable document and source of information for interested researchers who need to conduct further studies in the area.

1.10 Organization of the Study

This study contains five major chapters. Chapter one presents background of the study, objectives and statement of the problem, definition of key terms, review of related literature, conceptual framework, hypothesis and significance of the study. Chapter two discusses the methodology of the study (source of data, sampling, study design, method of data collection and analysis). Chapter three presents the background characteristics of the study area and study population. The differentials and determinants of streetism are thoroughly discussed in chapters four and five respectively. Finally, summary of the main findings, conclusions and policy recommendations of the study are dealt with in chapter six.

CHAPTER TWO

DATA SOURCE AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

2.1 Data Source

Attempt was made to find secondary data collected at national level satisfying the topic under discussion. The absence of data collected at national level urged the researcher to use primary data as a major source of information. The required data were collected through interview/questionnaire.

2.2 Methodological Problems in the Study of Streetism.

Unlike other areas, conducting research on children involves various complexities, and thus, special care is usually taken particularly regarding the ethical and methodological issues while designing, collecting data, and processing. Felsman (1989), Leite and Esteves (1991) stated that getting accurate information from the children is quite difficult: they have developed an extra ordinary capacity to tell stories, lying about their ages, family background, the reason for being on the streets. Presenting information about themselves is part of their survival skills which, like those of other nomadic entertainers, rests on their ability to manipulate their audience (Aptekar, 1990).

There are other reasons why children manipulate information: manipulating information has psychological function that allows the children to get back at a society that devalues them. Falsified information also serves to keep society at

bay about the details of their lives. In many cases, the children purposely create a secrete code or a private language (Lemay, 1975: Ricurate, 1972, 1977) Accepting what the children say as fact is suspect and unreliable. Yet the most common form of gathering empirical data about street children has been to administer questionnaires through intermediaries and then accept the answer as if they were factual.

There are also sampling problems with reference to where the data are collected. Unless there is a definite reception centers, which are places that serve children meals and/or sleeping facilities, it seems very difficult to design reliable sampling technique. Also, street children are mobile and many of them have no definite address, which make sampling frame impossible. (Felsman, 1989; Leite and Esteves 1991).

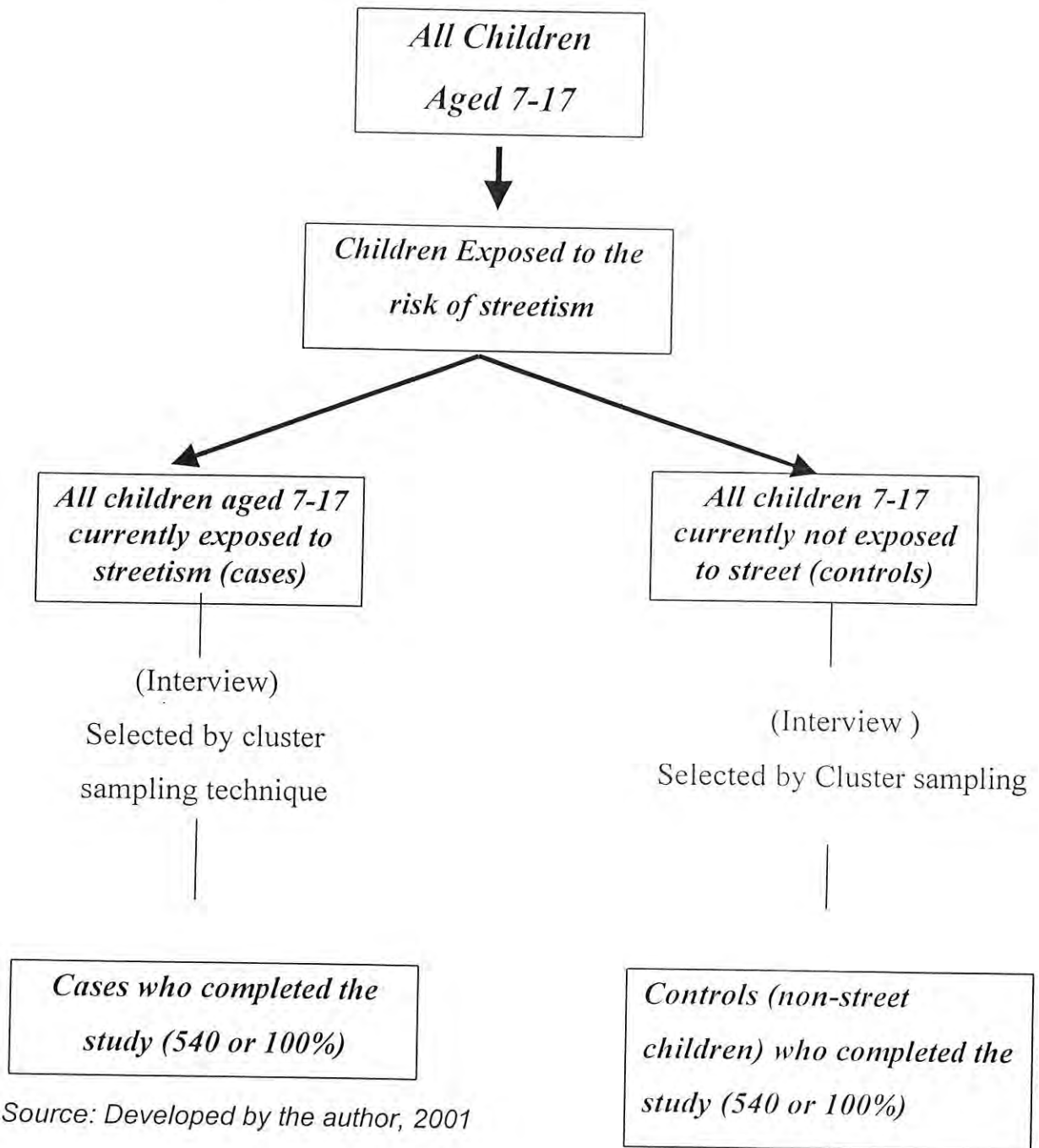
These are, thus, the major methodological problems associated with the study of street children. The more the children are studied in their natural habitat, the more difficult it is to have the type of control that empirical research implies. By combining different approaches, it may be possible to generate empirical information about the children with reasonable assurance.

2.3. Design

2.3.1 Study Type

In order to investigate the possible determinants of streetism among children the case-control study design is used. A case-control study design is one of the commonly used analytic studies in which subjects are selected on the basis of whether they do have particular outcome (cases) or not (controls). In this study, street children who are exposed to the outcome (i.e. streetism) represent the cases. On the other hand, non-street children who are not exposed to the outcome variable (i.e. streetism) represent controls .It is a population based case-control study where each case (street child) is matched with a corresponding control (non-street child) i.e. In other words,there is a one-to-one correspondence between cases and controls. Such one-to-one matching of cases and controls is known to provide better and valid results (Henekens et al, 19787; Mauser et al, 1986).

Fig. 2 conceptual Framework for the Study design



Source: Developed by the author, 2001

2.3.2 Sampling Design

In order to enhance generalization and validity of the study, taking adequate sample size and employing appropriate sampling technique were given special care and emphasis.

A total sample size of 1080 children (i.e. 540 street children and 540 non-street children) was taken using cluster sampling technique. This technique is known to be an important component of probability sampling. There are three indispensable reasons for employing cluster-sampling technique. First; the technique is strongly recommended when there is very limited financial resource. The technique is also highly recommended when sampling list of subjects is not available. (i.e. The fact that street children are mobile it is quite impractical to prepare sampling frame. Finally, the cluster sampling technique is also recommended when there is a need to save times and labors.

Once the sample size and sampling technique were determined, the next step was employing appropriate procedure of selecting the street children (cases) and non-street children (controls).

In selecting the street children (cases) two stage cluster-sampling technique was used. First, in consultation with professionals in SNNPR MOLSA office, a list of area clusters (street children corners) was prepared. From a total of eighteen

major area clusters, only nine area clusters (50 percent of the clusters) were selected using simple random sampling technique.

Before starting data collection from each of the selected area clusters, investigators were told to list all eligible street children available in one area cluster within few minutes, and then, 50 percent of the listed street children were selected for the interview using simple random sampling. Similar procedure was followed for all the nine selected area clusters. Here, it has to be noted that both the process of listing all eligible respondents and decisions on sampling are made in the field (on the spot) within less than an hour prior to starting data collection. Such sample selection technique and procedure, undoubtedly, gives equal probability to all the cases.

The selection of non-street children was automatic and straightforward. The selection of controls was done using three-stage cluster sampling technique. A list of 14 Kebeles was taken from which two 'Kebeles' were randomly selected. Here, Kebeles were used as clusters, and were also primary sampling unit. For the two selected Kebeles, a list of all eligible households (i.e. households where there are children in the age group 7 – 17) was prepared and there were about 382 and 270 eligible households for each of the selected Kebeles. Accordingly 191 and 135 eligible households (50 percent) were taken from the two Kebeles respectively using simple random sampling technique. Here, households were used as secondary sampling units. For these selected eligible households, a list of all

eligible children was prepared, and then 50 percent of them were selected alternatively using simple random sampling without replacement. In this case, children were the ultimate sampling unit.

2.4 Data Collection

2.4.1 Development of the Instrument

The only instrument used for the collection of the required data for the study was a questionnaire. So as to minimize potential complexities and data defects, many of the items were pre-coded with a great deal of caution. The first draft of the questionnaire was initially prepared in English and was given to, at least, two professionals and principal advisor for comments in light of the objectives of the study and its ability in eliciting pertinent data. On the basis of the comments, then, the necessary corrections were made and the final English version was prepared which is annexed to this report.

Since the study deals with children, the questionnaire was directly translated to Amharic using very simple words and phrases (by keeping original meaning intact) so that certain inconsistencies and communication barriers could be avoided. The fact that the translation was made by two different professionals, the reliability of the questionnaire was computed and yield reliability coefficient of 96.5% ($r = 0.9650$)

The final Amharic questionnaire, which was ultimately administered for generating the required information was ten pages long and consists of 55 items categorized in the following manner:-

- General information or respondent's background
- Migration status of the respondent
- Educational status of the respondent
- Information on overall family dynamics and structure
- Overall working conditions of the street children

2.4.2 Recruitment and Training of data Collectors, and Supervisors

The fact that interviewers and supervisors occupy the central position in this study, special attention was given to their recruitment and training. About seventeen data collectors with minimum qualification of 12+1 were recruited through certain agreed upon criteria in which competency was a guiding factor in recruiting interviewers. These interviewers then were given a two-days training program covering both 'theoretical and practical sessions.' The theoretical training session mainly focused on interviewing techniques and interviewing regulations. The practical training session, on the other hand, focused on field observation, pre-testing the questionnaire in the field for its validity, sharing of experiences among field investigators.

During training, a one-time assessment test was given to the class. The test was graded and the result was used to select interviewers. Those who showed a high level of understanding of the questionnaires and were also able to detect errors in completed questionnaires were later chosen to be field editor and supervisors.

Two supervisors and one editor participated in further training to discuss their duties and responsibilities. Ensuring data quality was emphasized. The supervisors were required to act as the leaders of the field team and to be responsible for the well-being and safety of team members as well as the completion of the assigned work load and maintenance of data quality. The major responsibilities of the editor included monitoring interviewer performance and checking all questionnaires for completeness and consistency. Close supervision of the interviewers and editing of completed questionnaires were emphasized to ensure accurate and complete data collection.

2.4.3 Pre-Test

Once the training session was over, the Amharic version of the questionnaire was pre-tested on fifteen children. The selection of the samples for the pre-test was purposive. The outcomes of the pre-test helped in re-phrasing some of the questions, necessitated further training of data collectors and data quality control during field work. The actual time required to fill a questionnaire was also estimated during the pre-test which helped the researcher in planning the field work in view of the tight schedule in which the data collection was required to be completed.

2.4.4 Field Work

Once training of field staff and pre testing were over, the questionnaire was duplicated and became ready for actual fieldwork. The fieldwork began on the fourth week of January and continued for ten consecutive days. The data collection was implemented by a total of seventeen persons. Four female interviewers, nine male interviewers, one editor, two supervisors, one intermediary and a driver participated.

In interviewing the street children (cases), data collectors were instructed to go around and observe eligible respondents before picking up a child for interview. Once identification of the eligible respondent was done, the investigators had to familiarize themselves in order to minimize hesitancy and any possible discomfort among respondents. This was one of the strategies used to elicit reliable information from respondents.

It could have been better if many of the respondents were willing to be interviewed in a quite place different from their natural habitats. It , however, became very difficult to alienate many of the street children from their activities, and thus, the interview was conducted in their natural setting.

In order to overcome some of the methodological problems mentioned above, such as hiding and refusal of information among the street children, incentives were given wherever appropriate and necessary. The incentive was also meant to

translation to Amharic made it more useful and easy to understand. Second; during the recruitment and training of interviewers, special emphasis and care were given on ways of maintaining data quality. Thirdly; during the fieldwork, the necessary supervision and editing were made on the spot. The quality control team (the supervisors, editor and the researcher) visited all the interviewers to check the quality of their work by reviewing completed questionnaires, observing interviews, checking whether eligible respondents were correctly identified.

2.5 Data Processing and Analysis

2.5.1 Data Entry

After the data collection and office editing were completed, the questionnaires were made ready for data entry. Data were entered into the computer using SPSS software. Data entry was done at DTRC by two data entry operators for nine consecutive days.

2.5.2 Data Cleaning and Editing:

Data cleaning and editing took about three days. Data cleaning was done case by case and variable by variable, and was 100 percent verified.

2.5.3 Data organization and Analysis

To analyze the data, univariate, bi-variate and multivariate analytical methods were used. The data were analyzed with SPSS statistical packages by orderly applying

Among the population aged ten years and over, 4,388,760 or 62.3 percent were reported to be economically active and 2,644,901 or 37.6 percent economically inactive. Among the male population aged ten years and over, 75.7 percent were economically active while in the case of females the same proportion was 49.3 percent. Among the economically active population of the region, the employed and unemployed populations were reported to be 98.4 percent and 1.6 percent respectively.

All in all, an agrarian form of economic activity characterizes the region. Though tourism and industry are not yet well developed, they are becoming very important economic activities. Since the time the region got federal status, 1992, many towns are becoming increasingly important. Towns like Awassa, Dilla, Wolaita Sodo and Arbaminch are among the fast growing towns of the region.

The study area, Awassa, is the capital city of the region, which is located at about 275 kms south of Addis Ababa.

Awassa was designed as a town in the year 1960, and has now become one of the largest capital Cities of the regional states in the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. Awassa is comprised of two weredas and fourteen 'Kebeles' (the smallest urban administrative units).

According to the National Housing and Population Census report, in 1994 the population of Awassa was 69,169 out of which males accounted for 35,029 and females 34,140. At present, the population is estimated to be about 100,000.

The fact that Awassa is located on the main highway from Addis Ababa to Kenya, contributes to its becoming one of the fast growing industrial, trade and business center of Ethiopia. During the last few years, thus, huge number of people flow from the surrounding rural and urban areas (RPO, 1996). Such pulling capacity of the town might have changed the situation on both positive and negative direction. Among the negative effects, the alarming increase in the number of street children can be mentioned as one in which this study is interested.

3.2 Background Characteristics of the Sample Population

3.2.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 3.2.1.1 Percentage distribution of sampled children by major Demographic characteristics, 2001.

Background Variable	Street children (cases)		Non-street children (controls)		Both groups	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
• Sex						
Male	466	86.3	291	53.9	757	70.1
Female	74	13.7	249	46.1	323	29.9
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0
• Age						
7-10	112	20.7	165	30.7	278	25.7
11-15	301	55.7	276	50.9	576	53.4
16-17	127	23.6	99	10.4	226	20.9
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0
• Marital status						
Ever married	18	3.3	6	1.1	24	2.2
Never married	522	96.7	534	98.9	1056	97.8
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0
• Number of siblings						
0-3	160	29.6	230	42.8	390	36.2
4-6	232	43.0	266	49.8	498	46.2
6+	148	27.4	44	7.9	192	17.6
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0
• Survival status of respondent's mother						
Alive	446	82.6	520	96.3	966	89.4
Dead	94	17.4	20	3.7	114	10.6
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0
• Survival status of respondent's father.						
Alive	398	73.7	495	82.7	893	82.7
Dead	142	22.3	45	7.3	187	17.3
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0
• Migration status of respondents						
Migrant	330	61.1	157	29.1	487	45.1
Non-migrant	210	38.9	383	70.9	593	54.9
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0

Source: Computed by using the primary data collected for the study, 2001.

As already revealed on the literature section, certain background characteristics of respondents may have significant association with streetism. It is, thus, very important to describe the overall background characteristics before looking into the differentials and the relative contribution of each independent variables.

Table 3.2.1.1 presents the major demographic background characteristics of the respondents. The sex distribution of the respondents shows that males account for about 70.1 percent while the proportion of females is only 29.9 percent of the total sample size. When comparison is made between cases and controls, we find higher proportion of males among cases than controls.

The age distribution of the respondents seems to have almost similar pattern for both cases and controls. Large proportion of the children are found in age group 11-15, while we have smaller proportions in the age groups 7-10 and 16-17. Information on age distribution helps us to know the average age of initiation into the street life.

Table 3.2.1.1 also reveals the marital status distribution of the respondents. On the assumption that early and forceful marriage may have association with streetism, respondents were asked to tell whether they have ever married or not. Accordingly, very small proportion of both street children and non-street children groups (3.3 and 1.1 percent respectively) have reported to be ever married. It is, therefore, less likely to expect possible association between marital status and

streetism, and thus, this variable will not be treated any more in the following sections.

One of the most important demographic background characteristics revealed in Table 3.2.1.1 is the reported number of siblings. It can be observed that higher percentage of street children than non-street children, reported that they have far larger number of siblings (6⁺). On the contrary, 42.8 percent of the non-street children reported that they have 0-3 siblings as opposed to the street children groups, which are only 29.6 percent.

The survival status of parents is another common demographic characteristics, which may have significant association with the occurrence of streetism. Table 3.2.1.1 reveals that 89.4 percent of the respondents reported that their mothers are alive during the survey while only 10.6 percent of the respondents' mothers were dead. Table 3.2.1.1 also portrays that about 82.7 percent of the respondents' fathers are alive. As indicated on the literature section, the death of one of the parents may have significant contribution to the occurrence of streetism.

Finally, the migration status of respondents, which is an important demographic interest, is revealed on table 3.2.1.1. It is observed that higher proportion of the street children (about 61.1 percent) reported that they migrated from other rural or urban areas. The contribution of migration status of respondents is investigated in the multivariate analysis.

2.2 Major Socio Economic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 3.2.2.1 Percentage distribution of sampled children by major socio economic background characteristics, 2001.

Background characteristics	Street children (cases)		Non-street children (controls)		Both groups	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
• Respondent's Religious status						
Orthodox	258	47.7	319	59.1	577	53.4
Catholic	16	3.0	12	2.2	28	2.6
Protestant	236	43.8	183	33.9	419	38.8
Muslim	29	5.3	9	1.7	38	3.5
Other	1	0.2	17	3.1	18	1.7
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0
• Ethnicity						
Amhara	79	14.6	159	29.4	238	22.0
Oromo	34	6.3	88	16.3	122	11.3
Tigre	9	1.7	47	8.7	56	5.2
Sidamo	38	7.1	73	13.5	111	10.3
Wolaita	303	56.1	103	19.2	406	37.6
Kembata	28	5.2	17	3.1	45	4.2
Guraghe	47	8.7	34	6.3	81	7.5
Hadya	2	0.3	14	2.6	16	1.5
Others	-	-	5	0.9	5	0.5
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0
• Literacy status of Respondent's mother						
Literate	178	39.9	392	75.4	570	58.8
Illiterate	268	60.1	128	24.6	398	41.2
Total	446	100.0	520	100.0	968	100.0
• Mother's Education						
Primary school (1-6)	99	60.0	131	32.4	230	40.3
JuniorSecondary(7-8)	44	26.7	84	20.6	130	22.9
Secondary (9-12)	15	9.1	138	34.1	153	26.8
Post secondary	6	3.6	52	12.9	56	9.8
Don't know	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.2
Total	165	100.0	405	100.0	570	100.0
• Literacy Status of respondent's father						
Literate	226	56.9	464	93.5	690	77.3
Illiterate	168	42.3	32	6.5	200	22.4
Don't know	3	0.8	-	-	3	0.3
Total	397	100.0	496	100.0	893	100.0

• Father's education						
Primary (1-6)	102	50.0	85	18.6	187	28.3
Junior secondary (7-8)	49	24.0	72	15.8	121	18.3
Secondary (9-12)	36	17.6	211	46.3	247	37.4
Post secondary	13	6.4	87	19.1	100	15.2
Don't know	4	2.0	1	0.2	5	0.8
Total	204	100.0	456	100.0	660	100.0
• Employment status of respondent's Mother						
Employed	165	37.0	223	42.8	386	39.9
Unemployed	282	63.0	298	57.2	580	60.1
Total	445	100.0	521	100.0	966	100.0
• Work status of respondent's father						
Employed	267	67.1	435	87.9	702	78.6
Unemployed	131	32.9	60	12.1	191	21.4
Total	398	100.0	495	100.0	893	100.0
• Mother's occupational status						
Professional	7	4.2	109	50.0	116	30.1
Trade	85	5.6	65	29.8	150	38.9
Laborer	55	32.7	35	16.1	90	23.3
Farmer	18	10.7	8	3.6	26	6.7
Other services	3	1.8	1	0.5	4	1.0
Total	168	100.0	218	100.0	386	100.0
• Father occupational status						
Professional	13	4.87	252	59.93	265	38.00
Trade	28	10.49	26	5.98	54	6.69
Laborer	150	56.18	12.6	28.96	276	39.12
Farmer	70	26.22	23	5.29	93	13.25
Other services	6	2.25	8	1.84	14	1.99
Total	267	100.0	435	100.0	702	100.0
• Literacy status of the Respondent						
Literate	340	62.9	517	95.7	857	79.4
Illiterate	200	32.1	23	4.3	223	20.6
Total	540	100.0	540	100.0	1080	100.0
• Education level of respondent						
Elementary (1-6)	263	80.2	347	67.2	610	72.3
Junior secondary (7-8)	48	14.6	89	17.2	137	16.2
Secondary (9-12)	17	5.2	80	15.5	97	11.5
Total	328	100.0	516	100.0	844	100.0
• School program						
Day time	189	62.37	492	94.4	681	83.76
Night time	114	37.63	18	3.53	132	16.24
Total	303	100.0	510	100.0	813	100.0

The literacy status of the respondent's father is another variable which may play an important role in streetism. Table 3.2.2.1 portrays almost similar pattern of literacy and educational level with that of the literacy status of mothers. We find higher proportion of the street children's fathers reported to be illiterate than those of the non-street children group (42.6 and 6.5 percent respectively). Most of the literate fathers reported by the cases did not go beyond the elementary school and that small proportion reached high school and college levels. Thus, if one tries to make any comparison between the literacy status or educational level attained by fathers of cases and control groups, one can easily observe considerable difference between the two.

The educational level or literacy status of respondent's parent is also very important variable from the point of view of totally or partially determining the employment/work status of the parents. In line with this, we observe very high gap between the cases and control groups in the reported employment status of parents (see Table 3.2.2.1). It is indicated that most of the mothers of street children are unemployed (63.0 percent) while 57.2 percent of the mothers of the non-street children are reported to be unemployed. Though large proportion of the fathers of both cases and controls are reported to be employed at the time of the survey, there still exists certain disparity between the two groups. We still find large percentage of fathers among the street children (32.9 percent) to be unemployed as opposed to the non-street children (12.1 percent).

Children were asked to tell the work status of their parents in which, some of them might have not properly reported the exact type of work their surviving parents are currently engaged in. On the basis of their report, we observe certain disparities in type of work parents do among the two groups, and higher variation is observed in the first category (i.e. managerial /clerical work/. Accordingly, we have only 4.20 percent of the mothers of street children reported to be engaged in professional or managerial/clerical/related high standard works, while we find very high percentage (50.0 percent) of the mothers of non-street children working in this category. The distributions of mothers 'work type for other services follow almost the same pattern for both cases and control groups. (see Table 3.2.2.1). When we come to the fathers work status, we find even worse disparity between the cases and controls. The proportion of fathers engaged in the managerial/professional activities reported by the street children was only 4.87 percent while we find 59.93 percent of fathers engaged in the same category for the non-street children group. The proportion of the fathers engaged in Farming is also reasonably different for the two groups (26.22 for street children and only 5.29 percent for the non-street children.) For the rest of the three work categories, very little difference is observed between the two groups (Table 3.2.2.1)

Table 3.2.2.1 also depicts the literacy and educational status of the respondents. The respondents were asked whether they can read and write and the highest-grade level they have attained during the interview. Accordingly, 62.9 percent of the cases and 95.7 percent of the controls were found to be literate, while 32.1

percent of the cases and only 4.3 percent of the controls were found to be illiterate. Among the literate street children, we still have higher proportion of them (about 80 percent) have attained or attending elementary school levels, and very small proportion in the junior secondary and high school level. Respondents were also asked to tell whether they are/were attending school during the day program or night. More cases (about 37.6 percent) than control group (only 3.5 percent) are found to attend their education during the night program.

To sum up, there are various disparities between the street children group and the non-street children group as far as background characteristics are concerned. Some of these variable will be presented in chapter four (which thoroughly discusses the differentials of streetism) and chapter five (which discusses the determinants using the logistic regression model).

Table 3.2.2.2 Percentage of street children (cases) by reported economic characteristics, 2001.

Background characteristics	Number	Percent
• Classification by major type		
Street 'on' children	354	65.3
Street 'of' children	186	34.7
Total	540	100.0
• Major sources of income (work status)		
Shoe shining	98	18.2
Petty Trading	98	18.2
Carrying bags	98	17.1
Begging	41	7.6
Multitudnal works	136	25.3
Others	76	13.6
Total	540	100.0
• Daily average income		
0-2 birr	188	34.8
3-5 birr	262	48.5
6-10 birr	83	15.4
above 10 birr	17	3.3
Total	540	100.0
• Percentage of daily income given to the parents (family).		
1-25 percent	103	19.2
26-50 percent	85	15.7
51-75 percent	51	9.4
76-100 percent	105	19.4
none	196	36.3
Total	540	100.0

Source: Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1

Though it is not the objective of this study to discuss the existing economic condition of the cases, attempt is made to highlight some of the indicators of the economic status of the street children. (See table 3.2.2.2 above). On the basis of the definition given in chapter one, attempt was made to classify the street children into 'street on' and 'street off'. It is found out that 65.3 percent of them were 'street on' i.e. making intermittent or even regular contact with their families. While the

CHAPTER FOUR

DIFFERENTIALS OF STREETISM

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the demographic and socio-economic differentials of streetism are presented. Before looking into the percentage distribution of each independent variable, the chi-square statistical result is presented (see table 4.1.1). The chi-square test was used to examine the possible association of each independent variable with the dependent variable (streetism). It should, however, be noted that, unlike the multivariate analysis that is presented in the proceeding chapter, the chi-square statistical analysis does not tell us the relative contribution or net effect of each independent variable, but only indicates the existence of association.

Once the chi-square result is presented, the differential of each independent variable is discussed thoroughly. In order to have a clear understanding, the independent variables are categorized into demographic, social and economic characteristics.

Table 4..1.1 Results of the Chi-Square statistical significance test, 2001.

Background Variable	Street children (cases)	Non-street children (controls)	Chi-square(x2) significance
	Percent	Percent	(P-value)
✓ Age			
7-10	20.7	30.7	****
11-15	55.7	50.9	.0 0052
16-17	23.6	18.4	
✓ Sex of the child			
Male	86.3	53.9	****
Female	13.7	46.1	.00000
• Number of siblings			
0-3	29.6	42.8	
4-6	43.0	50.0	****
6 and above	27.4	8.2	.00000
✓ Survival status of mother			
Alive	82.6	96.3	****
Dead	17.4	3.7	.00000
✓ Survival Status of Father			
Alive	73.7	91.7	****
Dead	26.3	8.3	.00000
✓ Migration status of respondent			
Migrant	61.1	29.1	****
Non-migrant	38.9	70.9	.00000
✓ Marital Instability of child's parents			
Intact	59.6	86.5	****
Dissolved	40.4	13.5	.00000
✓ Presence of other Family members engaged in street activities			
Yes	49.6	15.7	****
No	50.4	84.3	.00000
✓ Employment Status of child's Mother			
Employed	35.9	42.8	**
Unemployed	64.1	57.2	.02952
✓ Employment status of child's Father			
Employed	67.9	87.9	****
Unemployed	32.1	12.1	.0 0000
✓ Living with step mother			
Yes	9.1	3.2	****
No	90.9	96.8	.00005
• Living with step Father			
Yes	2.9	1.8	
No	97.1	98.2	.23361

✓ Educational level of respondent's mother			
Primary (1-6)	50.0	32.4	**
Junior Second.(7-8)	24.0	20.6	0.03641
Secondary (9-12)	17.6	34.1	
Post secondary	6.4	12.9	
Don't know	2.6	-	
• Educational Status of respondent's father			
Primary (1-6)	50.4	18.6	**
Junior Secondary(7-8)	24.0	15.8	0.02443
Secondary(9-12)	17.0	46.3	
Post secondary	6.4	19.1	
Don't know	2.0	0.2	
✓ Exposure to Heavy work load at home			
Yes	64.7	12.4	****
No	35.3	87.6	00000
✓ Severe Physical punishment used by parents/ guardians			
Yes	76.5	55.2	****
No	23.5	44.8	00000

Source: Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1

Note: **** - significant at $p \leq 0.0001$

** - Significant at $p \leq 0.05$

As clearly shown in table 4.1.1, the Pearson Chi-square statistical significance test is used to see the association of each independent variable with the dependent variable. Among the sixteen independent variables, only one variable (i.e. living with stepfather) is found to have insignificant association (P - value of 0.23361), and hence, this variable is deleted in the further analysis and discussion. The next few pages discuss those fifteen significant independent variables.

4.2 Demographic Differentials of Streetism

4.2.1 Age and Streetism

Table 4.2.1.1 Percentage of children by reported age, 2001.

Background variable	Street children (Cases) n=540	Non-street children (controls) n = 540	Both groups N= 1080
• Respondent's age			
7-10	20.7	30.7	25.7
11-15	55.7	50.9	53.3
16-17	23.6	18.4	20.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

32.4

Source: Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1

Table 4.2.1.1 presents the relationship between age and streetism. Though it is very difficult to get the exact age of initiation into the street, it is very easy to identify the age range when many of them become active participants of the street life. As clearly shown in table 4.2.1.1, large proportions of the street children (55.7 percent) are found to be in the age group 11-15. This age range is known to be very critical from both psychosocial and biological point of view. It is said that the period is typically characterized by various dynamic physicals, emotional and social changes taking place among the children. It is also a period when an individual seeks to be emancipated from full parental control where there occur frequent rebellion and disobedience arising from the need for self-administration. It is also a period when individuals come to understand problems and needs of the world around them. In either cases, a child who is already entered into this age group is more likely to fit to the street than children in the age groups 7-10 years, and the proportion also declines after age fifteen (see table 4.2.1). The age distribution, generally, give us a clue on when children are first initiated to street life, and also

indicates, the extent to which these children face the risk of exploitations, abuse and other forms of hazards. The relationship between age and streetism was also shown by many studies such as William and Miller (1991), MOLSA (1996), Catriona (1996.) .

4.2.2 Sex and Streetism

Table 4.2.2.1 percentage of sampled children by sex, 2001.

<i>Background variable</i>	<i>Street children n = 540</i>	<i>Non-street children n= 540</i>	<i>Both groups N = 1080</i>
Respondent's sex			
Male	86.3	53.9	70.1
Female	13.7	46.1	29.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source : Same as Table 3.2.1.1

As the chi-square test revealed, there is significant association between sex of the child and streetism. Table 4.2.2.1 portrays that about 86 percent of the street children and 53.9 percent of the non-street children are males while we have only 13.7 and 46.1 percent females respectively. The higher difference in the proportion of males and females among the cases than the controls is a clear indication of the presence of sex differential. In other words, more males than females are susceptible to streetism. The major reason for such sex differential in streetism may be due to the fact that in most of our communities usually female children are expected to do household works are compared to males. Females, generally, are unpaid family workers who immensely contribute to lowering the burden of their mothers. Parents traditionally better calculate the benefits of retaining females at home than sending them to participate in other income generating activities. On the contrary, boys are usually perceived to have very little

contribution in reducing the workload of their mothers, and hence, parents usually expect boys to participate in income generating activities outside of the home. It is true that many of parents encourage, in some cases, force the boys to participate in income generation activities outside home.

The second major reason for the sex differentials of streetism relates to the existing differential hazards of the street occurring on boys and girls. As indicated in the review of literature part, various physicals, social and psychological hazards and risks accompany street life. No doubt, these risks and hazards are even worse for girls than boys and repel girls from joining street life. Similar findings were observed in the studies done by So Boyden(1991), MOLSA(1993,1994,1996.)

4.2.3 Number of Siblings and Streetism

Table 4.2.3.1 Percentage of sampled Children by reported number of siblings, 2001

Background Variable	Street children n = 540	Non – street children n = 540	Both groups N = 1080
Number of siblings			
0-3 siblings	29.6	42.8	36.2
4-6 siblings	43.0	49.3	46.2
6+ siblings	27.4	7.9	18.0
Total	100	100	100

Source : Same as Table 3.2.1.1

As indicated by the Chi-Square result and also revealed in the table mentioned above, the number of siblings and streetism have quite significant association (see table 4.1.1 and table 4.2.3.1). Quite reasonable difference is observed in the

proportion of the number of siblings reported by street children and the non-street children.

The inclusion of reported number of siblings in this study is aimed at looking into the possible relationship between the increase in members of a family and the limited resources. It is quite logical to say that the increased number of siblings in any household undoubtedly sharpens the competition for household resources among them. Parents thus, may not be able to fulfill the increasing demand of the children with the very limited household resources.

In addition to its consequence of increasing competition for household resources, having large number of siblings may also create congestion and crowd which makes life very difficult for some of its members, which ultimately tend to push some of the household members (usually children) to find other means of survival. Coming out to the street is one of the many solutions for many children from such poor and large family size. Consistent with this finding UNICEF (1978) and ILO (1995), also found significant association between number of siblings and streetism.

4.2.4 Survival Status of Respondent's Parents and Streetism

Table 4.2.4.1 Percentage of sampled children by survival status of their parents, 2001

Background variable	Street children n = 540	Non-street children n = 540	Both groups N = 1080
• Survival status of child's mother			
Alive	82.6	93.3	89.4
Dead	17.4	3.7	10.6
Total	100	100	100
• Survival status of child's Father			
Alive	73.7	91.7	82.7
Dead	26.3	8.3	17.3
Total	100	100	100

Source : Same as Table 3.2.1.1

Table 4.2.4.1 above reveals the percentage distribution of survival status of respondent's parents. As indicated in the chi-square test also, the survival status of the child's mother has significant association with streetism (p-value of 0.00000). Very large proportion of both street children and non-street children (82.6 and 93.3 percent respectively) reported that their mothers are alive during the interview, while there still exists difference in the proportion reported death of mothers (17.4 and 3.7 percent).

Table 4.2.4.1 also portrays that quite large proportion of both street children and non-street children (73.7 and 91.7 percent respectively) reported that their fathers are alive during the time of the interview. While there still exists variation in the proportion of reported deaths of fathers, (26.3 and 8.3 percent for street children and non-street children respectively).

When comparison is made between reported deaths of mother and father among street children, the death of the father surpasses the death of mother. It is true that the survival of the mother plays multiple roles in the lives of a child. The net effect of survival status of parents is tested using logistic regression in chapter five.

4.2.5 Migration status of the child and Streetism

Table 4.2.5.1 percentage of sampled children by their migration status, 2001.

Background variable	Street children n = 540	Non-street children n = 540	Both groups N = 1080
• Migration status			
Migrant	61.1	29.1	45.1
Non migrant	38.9	70.9	54.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

9.8

Source: Same as Table 3.2.1.1

Migration is an important and growing demographic phenomena, which may affect the quality of life of both the migrant and non-migrants. Though migration has wide range of contribution to modernization and development of an area, its role in increasing the prevalence of street children may be considered as the other side of the coin.

During the survey, respondents were asked whether they were born in the study area or migrated from other areas. Accordingly, 61.1 percent of the street children and only 29.1 percent of the non street children were reported to have migrated from other rural or urban areas (see table 4.2.5.1).

It is thus clear that migration has significant relationship with streetism among children i.e. migrant children are far more susceptible to streetism than non-migrants. Consistent with this finding Galan (1981), Rosa et al (1992), Tellez

(1976), showed the association of the two variables. Whether migrant person will have better socio-economic status or not is known to be determined by many personal and environmental factors. Unlike adult migrants, who may be having numerous opportunities at the place of destination, migrant children may be left at the bottom of the socio-economic ladder, and streetism is among the many fates of these migrant children.

Table 4.2.5.2 Percentage of migrant children by place of origin, migration intention, person accompanied, and migration duration, 2001.

<i>Background variable</i>	<i>Street children n = 330</i>	<i>Non street children n = 157</i>	<i>Both groups N = 487</i>
• Place of origin			
Rural	74.8	29.9	60.3
Urban	25.2	70.1	39.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
• Migration Intention			
Education	15.3	67.8	33.3
Employment	72.9	12.9	52.2
Visiting relatives	2.4	0.6	1.8
other reasons	9.5	18.7	12.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
• Who accompanied			
Parent	15.3	71.3	35.1
Brother	14.6	5.7	11.5
Sister	3.8	3.8	3.8
Friend	15.7	1.9	10.8
Relatives	16.7	11.5	14.9
Alone	30.3	5.2	21.4
others	3.5	0.6	2.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
• Migration duration			
Below one year	10.7	21.0	15.1
1-5	74.5	46.6	48.3
5-10	13.0	23.0	27.4
above 10 years	1.8	9.4	9.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Same as Table 3.2.1.1

Table 4.2.5.2 Further describes some of the major issues related to migration. In order to grasp better knowledge on the role of migration in streetism, migrants

were asked to indicate their place of origin, migration intention, who accompanied them, and number of years lived at the place of last destination (migration duration). Regarding the place of origin, 74.8 of the street children and 29.9 percent of the non-street children have reported to come from rural areas while the proportion who came from other urban areas were 25.2 and 70.1 percent respectively (see table 4.2.5.2 above). Finding that the larger proportion of street children is migrating from rural areas urges us to still emphasize on the important role played by rural –to- urban migration. It is also observed that larger proportion (72.9 percent) of the migrant street children first came to the place with a major intention of getting employment opportunities while larger proportion (67.8 percent) of the non-migrants have reported to migrate with a major intention of getting better education at the place of destination. In this regard, if many of the street activities are considered as ethical means of survival for the children, we can clearly say that larger proportion of the street children have fulfilled their initial migration intention. On the contrary, if one considers many of the street activities as quite unethical and hazardous to the children, one can say that these children have not done well to themselves from health point of view by migrating to the area of destination.

Child migration may take place in two forms; either the child migrates alone or with adults. In this survey, larger proportion (30.3%) of the street children and only 5.1 percent of the non-street children reported to have migrated alone. On the contrary, quite large proportion (71.3 percent) of the non-street children and only 15.3 percent of the street children reported to have been accompanied by parents.

Table 4.2.6.1 portrays the relationship between marital instability of respondent's parents and streetism. As revealed in the Chi-square test, marital instability has positive association with streetism (see table 4.1.1). It is observed that 40.3 percent of the street children and only 13.5 percent of the non-street children reported to have come from parents who experienced marital disruption. As indicated in the literature review section, the family is the smallest but the basic unit of any society. Today, there are numerous factors threatening the solidarity of a family group than any other times in the history of our world. Permanent and temporary marital dissolution is becoming common in many societies. Whatever the cause might be, marital disruption has adverse and undeniable consequences on both the partners and the children.

Children living with single or remarried mothers are of disadvantage on several dimension of well being, compared to children living with both original parents. (Amato and Keith, 1991; Cited in NSFH, 1992, p. 2). A single parent family which experiences drastic loss of income after the occurrence of marital disruption, will remain below a minimum level of socio-economic well being and for the development of child's health. This stress of socio-economic hardship may adversely affect the parent's socialization of the child.

Among other members of a family unit, children aged 0-15 face irreversible psychosocial and economic consequences. Upon the occurrence of marital disruption, a single parent family may not be able to fulfill the basic needs (food,

clothing, health and the like) of its members and, in one way or another, may be forced to look for possible survival strategies. Encouraging or urging children to participate in income generating activities outside the home is one of the many survival strategies of a family group. The problem becomes even worse when the father, the bread winner, is absent from the family circle.

4.2.7 Living with stepmother and Streetism.

Table 4.2.7.1 Percentage of sampled children by presence or absence of step mother ,2001

Background variable	Street children n = 330	Non street children n = 157	Both groups N = 487
• Presence of step mother			
Yes	9.1	3.1	6.1
No	90.9	96.9	93.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

878

Source: Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1.

It is recalled from table 4.1.1 that the chi-square test revealed the existence of association between living with stepmother and streetism (p-value of 0.00005). A single parent family may find it important to enter into second or successive marriage in view of reassuring the family solidarity and keep a better socio-economic environment for children. At the same time, however, children who are not born from one of the partners, usually from the mother, may find it difficult to survive. They may be mistreated, neglected or face partiality. Stepfamilies are not economically disadvantaged in comparison to original two parent families (Holden and Smock, 1991), but stepparents appear to provide lower level of support to children, in comparison to original parents (Thomson et al, 1992). In the mildest of consistent and open neglect, mistreatment, open partiality, little care and protection

given, a stepchild may be forced to look for alternative life style where streetism may be one of the many choices open to him/her. Consistent with this finding Ennew (1988) and Bassillica (1990) found significant contribution of stepparents to streetism.

4.3 Socio-Economic Differentials of Streetism

4.3.1 Educational Status of Respondent's Parents and Streetism.

Table 4.3.1.1 Parentage of Sampled Children by Reported Educational Level of their Parents, 2001.

<i>Background Variable</i>	<i>Street children</i>	<i>Non –street children</i>	<i>Both groups</i>
• Educational level of mother			
Primary (1-6)	60.0	32.4	40.4
Junior Secondary (7-8)	26.7	20.6	22.9
Secondary	9.0	34.1	26.8
Post Secondary	3.7	12.9	9.8
Don't know	0.6	-	0.2
Total	100 (n= 165)	100 (n = 405)	100 (n = 570)
• Educational level of the father			
Primary (1-6)	50.0	18.6	28.3
Junior Secondary (7-8)	24.0	15.8	18.3
Secondary (9-12)	17.6	46.3	37.4
Post Secondary	6.4	19.1	15.2
Don't know	2.0	0.2	0.8
Total	100 (n = 204)	100 (n = 456)	100 (n = 660)

Source: Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1.

Education is an important social variable used in this study. During the survey, respondents were asked to report the educational level of their parents. Though some of the respondents might have failed to exactly respond to the question, we still base our analysis on the reported response. As table 4.3.1.1 reveals, higher proportion of mothers of street children (60 percent) did not attend beyond primary level, and only 9.0 percent and 3.7 percent of them reached junior and secondary

levels. We also find almost similar pattern of reported educational level of fathers. When we see the reported educational level of non-street children's parents, we find higher proportion of them attaining secondary and post secondary level. We can, thus, say that there is clear differential in the educational level of parents of cases and controls.

It is logical to expect large number of well-educated parents to be better off in terms of handling their children. It is true that parents with better education may do all the necessary follow up; they try to fulfill basic needs of their children; rarely show brutality, also educate their child and create conducive environment for child's growth and development. In such circumstances, the likelihood of a child coming to the street is very slim.

4.3.2 Frequent Exposure to heavy work load at home and streetism.

Table 4.3.2.1 Percentage of sampled children by reported frequent exposure to heavy workload at home, 2001.

Background variable	Street children n= 540	Non-street children n = 504	Both groups N = 1080
• Frequent exposure to heavy work load at home (domestic labour abuse)			
Yes	64.7	12.4	38.5
No	35.3	87.6	61.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1.

Many of the previous studies conducted on the topic under discussion, failed to raise the possible pushing effect of exposing children to frequent and heavy work load at home.

Table 4.3.2.1 depicts the possible association between exposing children to frequent heavy workload and streetism. As indicated in the chi-square test, the two variables were found to have very strong relationship (see table 4.1.1).

This issue of child labor exploitation can be seen at both macro and micro level. The child labor exploitation drama occurring at home (i.e. micro level), which this study is interested in, is very common in many poor communities of the World (ILO, 1995). As table 4.3.2.1 clearly depicts large proportion (64.7 percent) of the street children reported to have been unwillingly exposed to various difficult workload at home. It is to be noted that frequent exposure of children to heavy workload (labor exploitation) has a lot of permanent and temporary adverse effects. Among the permanent effects, physical and mental damages, feeling of helplessness, and feeling of defeat are very common. Poor academic performance, health problems, school drop out and escape or delinquency are some of the immediate effects of exposing children to concurrent labor exploitation (UNICEF, 1993). Among others, children living in the agrarian communities are the one who shoulder many of the indoor and out-door activities (such as fetching water, herding, working on farms etc). Some of these children may find it better to migrate to nearby urban centers and participate in gainful employment rather than living in the world of ignorance and abuse. Once a child migrated to urban area, there is a high chance of becoming street worker particularly when the child has migrated alone.

4.3.3 Frequent and Severe Physical Punishment used by Parents and Streetism.

Table 4.3.3.1 Percentage distribution of sampled children by reported physical punishment and type of physical punishment, 2001.

Background variable	Street children n = 540	Non-street children n = 540	Both groups N = 1080
• Frequent severe physical punishment used by parents/guardians			
Yes	76.5	55.2	65.8
No	23.5	44.8	34.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
• Person administering the punishment			
Mother	37.4	47.8	42.0
Father	44.7	33.2	40.1
Brother	11.6	10.2	11.0
Sister	2.5	3.4	3.0
Step mother	0.2	0.3	0.2
Step father	3.0	4.1	3.6
Others	0.5	1.0	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
• Type of Physical Punishment used			
Beating	69.2	36.6	60.7
Pinching	20.3	48.6	27.1
Tie	1.4	1.4	1.4
With holding meals	1.2	2.7	1.8
Slapping	2.2	1.7	2.0
All types	5.1	6.5	5.7
Other	0.6	2.5	1.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

31.6

41.8

59.4

Source: Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1

The relationship between exposing children to heavy and frequent physical punishment and streetism is one of the least investigated socio-cultural variables. In this study, attempt was made to see whether there exists an association between frequent physical punishment used by parents and streetism. During the

survey both cases and control groups were asked to indicate if they were exposed to frequent severe physical punishment at home.

Accordingly, far larger proportion of the street children (76.5 percent) and relatively smaller proportion (55.2 percent) of the non-street children responded to have been exposed to the said phenomenon (See table 4.3.3.1). This disparity clearly indicates the differential effects of severe physical punishment on streetism. Other researchers such as Osofsky et al (1994)', Bartlett(1999) reached the same conclusion.

The autocratic parental style or child rearing practice, which is quite common in many traditional societies, believes that physical punishment brings about the habits necessary for life and such parental style punishment is used for controlling misbehaviors. This is more likely to be the case when physical punishment is accepted within the community. There is increasing evidence that violence used against children tends to breed violence in children: violence may undermine their basic sense of trust and cause them to respond to the world with fear and confusion. Instead of eagerly exploring their surroundings they are likely to become withdrawn and aggressive (Osofsky et al, 1994). For a child who is exposed to frequent physical punishment, running away or escape from parental control is one of the last resorts.

Under most circumstances, children tend to follow the footprint of their parents or other important figures in the family circle. During the survey, respondents were asked if there is/are any family member(s) already engaged in street activities. As table 4.3.4 .1 shows, about half of the street children and only 15.7 percent of the non-street children, reported the presence of other family members engaged in street activities. Here, the assumption is that once a family member (especially elder sibling or parent) is involved in the different street activities, then there is very high chance for young children to be attracted into the street culture.

4.3.5 Employment Status of Respondent's Parents and Streetism

Table 4.3.5.1 Percentage distribution of sample children by reported employment status of their parents, 2001.

<i>Background variable</i>	<i>Street children</i>	<i>Non street children</i>	<i>Both groups</i>
• Work status of mother			
Employed	35.9	42.8	39.6
Unemployed	64.1	57.2	60.4
Total	100 (n = 446)	100 (n = 520)	100 (n = 966)
• Work status of Father			
Employed	67.9	87.9	79.1
Unemployed	32.1	12.1	20.9
Total	100 (n = 398)	100 (n = 495)	100 (n = 893)

20-8

58.2

Source : Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1

Income, household ownership, food consumption, employment status of parents and the like usually measure the economic status of a family. In this survey, information on family income and employment status of parents was generated

from the respondents. It was, however, found out that many of the street children could not exactly know or estimate the average income of their parents, which made the comparison very difficult during analysis. The employment status of parents, thus, was taken as a proxy determinant of income, in this study. As shown in table 4.3.5.1, 64.1 percent of the street children and 57.2 percent of the non-street children reported to have unemployed mother. Thus, very little difference is observed in the employment status of mothers, which in turn indicates its little significance to the occurrence of streetism. In a society like ours, large number of mothers (women) are not engaged in gainful employment, and hence, depend on the income generated by husband or other male adult members of the household.

In comparison, the employment status of the father becomes very crucial to the family groups and survival of the children. As table 4.3.5.1 reveals 32.1 percent of the cases and only 12.1 percent of the control group reported to have unemployed father. When comparison is made between the proportion of employed and unemployed fathers, the employed fathers by far exceeds the proportion of unemployed fathers for both cases and controls. Since there is wide gap between the proportion of unemployed fathers reported by cases and controls, this variable has significant association with the dependent variable. In general, streetism is closely associated to the father's employment status, in which case, the incidence of streetism among children increases when the father has no regular employment. Consistent to this finding, ILO (1988), MOLSA (1995) found similar results.

CHAPTER FIVE

DETERMINANTS OF STREETISM : MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS

5.1 The Model

It is recalled from chapter four that an attempt was made to show the association (not the net effect of each independent variable) using the chi-square statistical test. In order to examine the relative importance (partial correlation or level of strength) of each independent variable to the dependent variable, by controlling all the confounding effects, multivariate analysis (using logistic regression technique) was employed.

The logistic regression technique is used when the dependent variable is dichotomous (binary) in which case the event either "occurs" or "does not occur". In this study, the dependent variable is "streetism" where a child will fall in one of the two categories: a child is either "street child" or "non-street child".

In logistic regression, we directly estimate the probability of an event occurring. For more than one independent variable, that is, for k independent variables (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k), the model can be written as:

$$\Pi(X) = \frac{\text{EXP}(\beta_0 + \sum \beta_i X_i)}{1 + \text{EXP}(\beta_0 + \sum \beta_i X_i)} \text{-----eq(1)} \quad i=1,2,\dots,k.$$

Derivation of the logit model can be performed as follows.

$$\text{Let } p = \Pi(X) \text{ and } Z = (\beta_0 + \sum \beta_i X_i).$$

Substituting for eq(1) would result

$$P = \frac{\exp(z)}{1 + \exp(z)} \text{-----eq(2)}$$

$$1 - P = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(z)} \text{-----eq(3)}$$

$$\frac{P}{1 - P} = \exp(z) = \text{odds} \text{-----eq(4)}$$

Taking the natural logarithm of eq(4) would result:

$$\ln \left\{ \frac{P}{1 - P} \right\} = \ln \left\{ \frac{\Pi(X)}{1 - \Pi(X)} \right\} = \text{LOGIT} \{ \Pi(X) \} = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_i X_i$$

$$\frac{P}{1 - P} = e^{\beta_0 X_0} * e^{\beta_1 X_1} * e^{\beta_2 X_2} * \dots * e^{\beta_n X_n}$$

1-P

or equivalently,

$$\ln \left(\frac{P}{1 - P} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \dots + \beta_n X_n$$

Where P = chance of a child coming out to the street (i.e probability of the event occurring)

1-P = chance of a child not coming out to street (i.e probability of an event not occurring)

$\ln \left(\frac{P}{1 - P} \right)$ = is the probability or risk of the event occurring which is the odds of being street child.

$X_i = X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, \dots, X_n$ are the independent variables used in the model.

$\beta_i = \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \dots, \beta_n$ are the regression coefficients indicating the magnitude of change (increased or decreased risk) in the independent variable.

In logistic regression, the parameters of the model are estimated using the maximum likelihood method. That is, the coefficients that make our observed result

more "likely" are selected. In the logistic regression model, estimates of relative risk is computed either based on the odds ratios (which is defined as the ratio of the probability that the event will occur to the probability that it will not; $P/1-p = e^{\beta} * e^{\beta_1 X_1} * e^{\beta_n X_n}$) or log of odds ratio (which is defined as the logarithm or logit of the ratio of the probability that the event will occur to the probability that it will not occur; $\log (P) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 \dots \beta_n x_n$).

Since it is easier to think of odds, rather than log odds, this study will use the odd ratio through out interpreting the relative risk of each independent variable. In the odds ratio, e^{β} is the factor by which the odds change when the i^{th} independent variable increases by one unit. If β_i is positive, this factor will be greater than one, which means that the odds are increased (increased risk of streetism), If β is negative, the factor will be less than one ($e^{\beta_i} < 1$), which means that the odds are decreased (decreased risk of streetism); when β is zero, the factor equals one ($e^{\beta_i} = 1$) which leaves the odds unchanged.

Before running the logistic regression model three important pre-requisites were fulfilled: deciding the reference category, determining the cut of point or the significance level (P-Value), and assessing the adequacy of the model .

For each variable, there is a reference category against which all other values are compared. For this study, the reference category for each variable was set to be "the first" in an ordinal series. By default, the values of the reference category are given a regression estimate of 1.00 by which the results of other remaining

categories will either be higher or lower than the reference category (see table 5.1.1). The significance level of regression coefficients or the cut off point for rejecting/accepting the null hypothesis used in this study is P-value of 0.05. At last, the adequacy of the model was examined to assess how well the model fits the data. Accordingly, the adequacy of the model is found to be 87.47percent (0.8747) which is very nearer to the perfect model (see table 5.1.1 and appendix 3). In order to determine the relative contribution or importance of each independent variable the, R statistics was computed: given by

$$R = \left(\frac{\text{wald statistics} - 2}{\text{df}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$-2LL(0)$$

**Table 5.1.1 Results of logistic Regression showing the relative contribution
(Partial Correlation) of the independent variables, 2001**

Variable	Wald (W)	Partial Correlation®	Sign. T
• Exposing children to frequent and heavy work load of home	75.5835	-.2220	.0000****
• Sex of the child	40.7331	-.1611	.0000****
• Presence of other family member engaged in street activities	33.6148	.1310	.0000****
• Educational level of the child's father	33.6148	-.1415	.0000****
• Migration status of the respondent	20.6803	.1119	.0000****
• Martial instability of the child's parents	18.0440	.1037	.0000****
• Occupational status of the child's father	22.6803	.0981	.0004***
• Number of siblings	16.4350	.0913	.0003***
• Educational level of child's mother	11.2714	-.0468	.0237**
• Exposure to severe physical punishment	4.2045	-.0384	.0403**
• Age of child	4.9327	.0250	.0549**
• Survival status of the child's father	2.4154	-.0167	.1202
• Survival status of the child's mother	2.1753	.0108	.1402
• Occupational status of the child's mother	4.9385	.0000	.2939
• Presence of step mother	.1760	.0000	.6748
• Constant	23.9035		.0000
• N	1080		
• 2 Loglikelihood	630.2		
• Model Adequacy	0.8747		

Source: Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1.

Note:- **; Significant at $P \leq 0.05$

***; Significant at $P \leq 0.001$

N; Sample size

Before presenting the detailed description how each variable is associated with the dependent variable, it is very important to know the relative contribution or the level of strength of each independent variable. Column two of Table 5.1.1 portrays the relative importance of each of the independent variables entered into

the logistic regression model. About eleven socio-economic and demographic variables were found to have significant relationship while we have only four variables with insignificant association with the dependent variables (Note – P-value of 0.05 was used as a cut of point to decide the significance).

In the following few pages, attempt is made to present and discuss only the significant variables.

5.2. Demographic Determinants of streetism

Table 5.2.1 Results of Logistic Regression for demographic determinants of streetism, 2001.

Background variable	β	S.E	Sig. T	Exp (β)
• Age				
7-10 ^{RC}	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
11-15	.04354	0.2497	.0513**	1.5455
16-17	.06891	.3287	.0360**	1.9919
• Sex				
Male ^{RC}	Reference:	Reference	Reference	Reference
Female	-1.5402	.2413	0.0000****	.2143
• Number of siblings				
0-3 ^{RC}	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
4-6	-.1136	.2366	.6312	.8926
6+	1.0924	.3150	.0005***	2.9814
• Migration status of the child				
Non migrant ^{RC}	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
Migrant	1.0106	.2222	.0000****	2.7471
• Martial instability of child's parents				
Intact ^{RC}	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
Dissolved	1.1276	.2654	.0000****	3.0881
Constant	3.2645	.6677	.0000	
N	1080			
-2 Loglikelihood	630.2			
Model Adequacy	0.8747(87.47%)			

Source- Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1.

Note B- Regression coefficient

S.E – Standard Error

RC- Reference category

5.2.1 Child's Age and Streetism

Controlling for all other variables, the association between child's age and streetism was examined through the logistic regression model. The model clearly revealed the existence of positive and significant association between age of the child and streetism (NB-Hypothesis four is accepted). The odds of becoming street child increases by 54.55 percent ($e^{\beta} = 1.5455$) and 99.19 percent ($e^{\beta} = 1.9919$) for the age interval 11-15 and 16-17 respectively as compared to the reference category. The model also revealed increased risk of streetism as age of a child increases. The age at which children participate in street activities is significant in two ways. First, it is associated with the amount of energy that they can summon without experiencing fatigue. Second, it may determine the extent to which children are vulnerable to negative aspects of street work such as road accidents, abduction, assault and sexual exploitation. The age interval 11-15 is particularly important from the viewpoint of streetism. This period, as already discussed in chapter four, is a period when children go through multiple psychosocial and physical changes. Increase in height and weight, increase in body strength, mental and social maturity is some of the major changes occurring during the age interval 11-15. Such abrupt changes which physiologists call "growth spurt", may make children more appropriate candidates for street life. Similar findings related to the contribution of age to the risk of streetism are revealed in the study conducted by Williams and Mayers(1991).

5.2.2 Sex of the child and Streetism

By controlling for all the confounding factors, the logistic regression model has revealed a negative and significant relationship between sex and streetism (NB-Hypothesis four is accepted). The odds ratio shown in table 5.1.1 indicates that females are at lower risk of streetism as compared to their counterpart male children (reference category). This result is similar with the findings of Jo Boyden(1991) and MOLSA(1995,1996).

There are about four major reasons for finding boys at higher risk of streetism. The first and most important reason is related to the fact that many of our culture give boys greater freedom to leave the home, and also puts too much expectation on boys to generate income for the family or to themselves by working outside the home. Many poor parents do this partly because retaining boys at home have no value, except becoming burden to the very limited resources of the household. The second reason is that street activities are perceived to require better physical strength which boys possess better than girls, make them better candidates for street life. The third reason is that street life is full of dangers and risks such as physical assault, sexual exploitation, and the like. The presence of such potential dangers, thus, repels many girls of poor family to stay home at any cost. Finally, the higher value of girls for household work usually urges parents to retain girls at home rather than forcing or encouraging them generate income outside the home. These and other similar factors will undoubtedly decrease the risk of streetism among girls.

5.2.3 Number of siblings of the child and Streetism

The net effect of the number of siblings to the risk of streetism was examined through the logistic regression model. Controlling for the effects of other variables the model revealed that having larger number of siblings is a risk factor for streetism (NB-Hypothesis three is accepted). The odds of streetism increases by 198 percent ($e^{\beta} = 2.98$) for children who reported to have six and above siblings as compared to the reference category (See table 5.1.1). This finding is consistent with UNICEF (1978) and ILO (1995). It should be noted that as the number of siblings' increases, there will be increased competition for very limited available resources, such as, food water, bed, and the like. When the situation worsens, some of the family members may find other survival strategies in which streetism may be the last resort.

5.2.4 Migration Status of the child and streetism

Migration status of the child, which is one of the most important demographic characteristics, was entered into the logistic regression model. As clearly indicated in the review of literature section and reaffirmed in the chi-square test, migration has significant association with streetism. The logistic regression result, controlling for all other confounding risk factors, reveals that migration status has positive and significant contribution to streetism (NB-Hypothesis two is accepted). The likelihood of streetism increases by 2.75 times ($e^{\beta} = 2.7471$) for migrant children as compared to the non-migrants (See table 5.2.1). Similar findings were observed in

the studies conducted by Galan,1981; Rosa et'al,1992; Tellez,1976; UNICEF 1993; and MOLSA,1996.

5.2.5 Marital Stability of Respondent's Parents and Streetism

Marital stability of respondent's parents was one of the important demographic characteristics entered into the logistic model. By controlling for the effect of all the other variables, the logistic model showed negative and significant association of the variable with the dependent variable. i.e the likelihood of streetism among children who reported to come from parents having unstable marriage is 3.09 times greater than the reference category.

No doubt that children living with single parents face multiple life challenges. They encounter stress, little attention., little socialization, care and protection. The absence of the father may bring about loss of income which implies that the children have to find other means of survival.

5.3 Socio-Economic Determinants of Streetism: Multivariate Analysis

Table 5.3.1 Results of Logistic Regression for socio-Economic determinants of Streetism 2001.

Background Variable	β	S.E	Sig. T	Exp(β)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Educational level of respondent's mother 				
Illiterate ^{RC}	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
Primary (1-6)	-.3301	.2606	.2052	.7189
Junior secondary (7-8)	-.2490	.3519	.4793	.7796
Secondary (9-12)	-1.4805	.4684	.0016***	.2276
Post Secondary	-1.1666	.7684	.1290	.3114
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Educational level of respondent's father 				
Illiterate ^{RC}	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
Primary (1-6)	-.8820	.3317	.0078***	.4139
Junior secondary (7-8)	-1.6263	.3871	.0000****	.1976
Secondary (9-12)	-1.9616	.3638	.0000****	.1404
Post Secondary	-1.4393	.5612 ⁴	.0102**	.2371
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exposure to frequent heavy work load at home 				
Yes ^{RC}	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
No	-2.0326	.2338	.0000****	.1310
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Severe physical punishment used by parents/guardians 				
Yes ^{RC}	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
No	-.4636	.2261	.0403**	.6290
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Presence of other family members engaged in street activities 				
Yes ^{RC}	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
No	-1.2922	.2288	.0000****	.2747

• Occupation status of child's father				
Unemployed ^{RC}	RC Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
Professional	-1.7434	.4298	.0000****	.1749
Trader	-.1249	.4802	.7948	.8826
Labourer	-.0575	.3088	.8524	1.0591
Farmer	-.3475	.4581	.4481	.7064
Other service	-.7310	.8579	.3941	.4814
Constant	3.2645	.6677	.0000	
N	1080			
-2Loglikelihood	630.2			
Overall correct classification	.8747(87.47%)			

Source: - Same as that of Table 3.2.1.1.

Note; B – Regression coefficient

S.E: Standard Error

RC: Reference Category

** Significant at $P \leq 0.05$

*** Significant at $P \leq 0.001$

**** Significant at $P \leq 0.0001$

N; Sample size

5.3.1 Educational Level of Child's Parents and Streetism

Controlling for the effect of all other confounding factors, the net effect of educational status of parents was examined. (See table 5.3.1). It is seen that the odds of streetism decreases by 77.24 percent ($e^{\beta}=0.2276$) for children whose mother attained secondary education level as compared to the reference category (i.e no education of mothers). Similarly, the odds of streetsim decreases by 58.61, 80.24, 85.96 and 76.29 percent for fathers who attained Primary, Junior secondary, Secondary and post secondary level respectively.

It is quite logical to assume that educated parents, as compared to less educated one, are better in terms of childcare and handling. As many studies indicate educated parents do not show brutality, rarely use severe physical punishment, give opportunity to express ideas, and above all, create conducive environment to the growth and development of their child. It is, thus, less likely that children will run away to streets. Studies conducted by ILO (1993,1995); MOLSA (1995,1996) also showed the same result.

5.3.2 Exposure to Heavy Work load at home and streetism

Table 5.3.1 reveals the net effect or association of exposing children to frequent and heavy workload and streetism. Accordingly, the odds of streetism decreases by 86.90 percent ($e^B=0.1310$) for those children who are not exposed to heavy and frequent workload at home (NB-Hypothesis five is accepted). In traditional societies like ours, poor parents usually urge or expose their children to various in door and outdoor activities. This problem may be pronounced in rural areas where children are the backbone of survival of the extended family. They participate in farming, firewood collecting, fetching water, herding...etc. No doubt that these heavy and frequent heavy workloads have both short term and long term consequences. Among the immediate outcomes of exposing children to such workload are school dropouts, fatigue migration to urban areas to mention a few. Streetism, thus, may be viewed as last resort to escape.

5.3.3 Severe Physical Punishment used by Parents and Streetism

Many researchers fail to see the possible association between exposing children to frequent and severe physical punishment and streetism. In this study, attempt was made to, examine the net effect of this variable to streetim (see table5.2.1).

Accordingly, it became clear that the odds of streetism decreases by 37.10 percent ($e^{\beta}=0.6290$) for those children who are not exposed to frequent and sever physical punishment.

5.3.4 Presence of other Family Members Engaged in Street Activities and Streetism

As indicated in the review of literature section and chapter four, there is clear evidence of association between existence of other family members engaged in street activities and streetism.

After controlling for the effect of other confounding factors, the variable showed negative and significant association with the dependent variable (See table 5.2.1 and 5.3.1) That is, the odds of streetism decreases by 72.53 percent ($e^{\beta}= .2747$)- for children who do not reported to have other family member engaged in street activities. Here, the assumption is that if any of the older family members (mother, father, sister, and brother) is already engaged in street activities, there is every likelihood for a young child to participate in street activities. This street culture is a

typical characteristic of the poor families and single parent families where the income generated by one family member is insufficient.

5.3.5 Occupation status of respondent's parents and streetism

Controlling for the effect of all other confounding factors, the net contribution of this variable to streetism was examined. The occupational status of the respondent's father turns out to have negative and significant association with the dependent variable. The odds of streetism decreases by 82.51 percent ($e^{\beta} = 0.1749$) for children reporting to have fathers engaged in professional or managerial status job as compared to the reference category. On the contrary, there is found to be insignificant association between other occupational classification and streetism.

Concerning the association between the occupational status of child's mother and streetism, the logistic regression result showed insignificant relationship between these two variables. (See table 5.2.1).

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 SUMMARY

Streetism is one of the growing problems of many developing countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America. Though Latin America hosts more than half of the street children found in the entire world, the problem is also recently becoming very sensitive social issue in the regions of Africa and Asia. Ethiopia, being one of the least developed countries of the world, is currently a home of more than 120,000 street children and other 1.5 million children at the verge (high risk) of becoming street children. As indicated in the first chapter, the size and depth of the problem differ from place to place and from situation to situation. Taking into consideration the alarming increase in streetism and the various psychosocial and developmental consequences of streetism, identification of the basic causes of streetism is undoubtedly the first step towards any action plan aimed at ameliorating the situation.

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This study, thus, was devoted to examining the basic demographic and socio-economic determinants of streetism in one of the growing towns of Ethiopia, Awassa. The absence of adequate studies of the determinants of streetism in the area was cited as the foremost important reason for conducting this study in Awassa.

In order to make this study comparable with other previous studies, various related literatures were reviewed. In the midst of very scanty literatures available in libraries and elsewhere, every effort was made to review and include all potential variables, which were thought to be important for the topic under discussion. The review of related literature, thus, later served as a springboard for developing five different alternative hypotheses. These hypotheses were required to be tested for the association and relative contribution of selected demographic, social and economic variables. The review of related literature also served as a point of reference for developing the conceptual framework of the study.

The methodology section (which consisted of data sources, design, data collection, data organization and analysis) was one of the most important parts of the study to which the author paid a great deal of attention. The absence of data collected at national level satisfying the requirement of this topic urged the author to use primary data as the major data source. A questionnaire, consisting of fifty-three items, was developed and was used to elicit the required information from the respondents. The case-control study, which is commonly used in most scientific researches, was found to be an appropriate design for this study. In this design, the street children were represented by "cases" while the non-street children were a comparative group represented by "controls". The impossibility and impracticability of studying the determinants of streetism using street-children (cases) alone, thus, necessitated the inclusion of comparative group (i.e the controls). The selection of cases and controls took almost the same pattern though

there were very minor uncontrollable factors while selecting the controls. About 540 cases and 540 controls were selected using the cluster sampling technique. This technique, one of the probabilities sampling technique, is usually the last resort in a situation where there is no sampling frame available for subjects or when there are shortages of financial, time and human resources.

Recruitment and training of investigators was one of the first steps towards data collection endeavor. On the basis of certain criteria, qualified data collectors, supervisors and editor were recruited and exposed to a two days training covering both theoretical and practical aspects. Then, a pre-test aiming at assessing the efficiency of the questionnaire and the field work, was conducted on fifteen children who were selected through purposive sampling. The actual data collection was successfully completed after tireless effort made for ten consecutive days.

Following the fieldwork, the organization and analysis of the data were the other major component of the study, which required enormous time, labor, and care. Using the SPSS computer software, the collected information were entered into the computer, precoded, cleaned and made ready for analysis. Both univariate and multivariate techniques were used for analyzing the data. The univariate analysis was used to depict the background characteristics of the study population and differentials in streetism. The chi-square test was used to examine the association of each independent variable with the dependent variable. The relative importance or contribution of each independent variable (controlling for all other variables) was

assessed in the multivariate analysis section using the logistic regression technique.

The bi-variate result, using the chi-square test, proved the existence of strong association between each of the fifteen independent variables and the dependent variable (i.e streetism). These fifteen independent variables were later entered into the logistic regression model to examine their relative importance in influencing the risk of streetism. Accordingly, out of the fifteen independent variables entered, eleven of them were found to be significant risk factors for streetism. Taking the R-statistics as a measuring index of the relative contribution or strength of each independent variable, exposure to heavy work load at home, child's sex, presence of other family members engaged in street activities, and migration status respectively are very important variables determining streetsim (See appendix 3)

6.2 Conclusion

On the basis of the data collected from 1080 children, objectives and hypotheses set, and analysis made, the following major conclusions can be drawn:-

a. Certain demographic characteristics are found to be highly significant determinants of streetism among children in Awassa.

- Males are at higher risk of streetism than females.
- Children in the age group 11-17 as compared to lower age group are more susceptible to the risk of streetism. Also, the risk of streetism increases as age increases.

- The higher the number of siblings that a child has, the more will be the likelihood of coming to streets.
- Migrant children are at higher risk of streetism than the non-migrants.
- Marital instability of parents increases the likelihood of streetism
- Survival status of parents has relatively little contribution to streetism among children.
- Presence of stepmother does not significantly influence streetism.

b. Certain socio-economic characteristics have significant contribution to the risk of streetism among children in Awassa.

- Children of less educated mothers are at higher risk of coming out to street. Equally important is the educational level of the father, in which case, children from educated fathers are relatively at lower risk of becoming street children.
- Children having fathers whom are engaged in professional working categories are at lower risk of streetism than children are whose fathers in other job categories. On the contrary, the occupational status of the mothers became insignificant factor for streetism.
- Frequent use of severe physical punishment by parents or guardians significantly increases the likelihood of streetism.
- Exposing children to frequent heavy workload at home increases the risk of streetism.
- The presence of other family members who are already involved in street activity increases the likelihood of a child to come out to street.

Finally, it should be mentioned that streetism is a function of many factors and, no single factor alone determine the occurrence of the dependent variable. It is, however, true that one factor may better predict or influence the dependent variable.

6.3 Recommendations

Having identified many demographic and socio-economic factors determining the risk of streetism among children, it is the felt need of the author to bring to the surface some of the strategies and forward valuable recommendations that can help in reducing the problem. It should be noted that any attempt to be made towards avoiding the risk of streetism or ameliorating the existing problem should, in the first place, be viewed in terms of two major broad categories: **Prevention** and **Rehabilitation**. The **preventive** aspect refers to eliminating the underlying social and economic conditions that produce streetism among children. Preventive measures take longer time and require more powerful instruments of social reform than rehabilitative measures. They include the basic polices, laws, and programs that combat poverty, provide basic services, develop understanding among people. The preventive measures must usually be taken before the occurrence of the problem. The **rehabilitative** measure, on the other hand, recognizes and reaches out to individuals who are already in the world of streetism. It works towards reducing its dangerous effects on the children.

On the basis of the above two broad strategies, the following few policy recommendations are given:

1. Preventive measures

1.1 **Advocacy:** The fact that the increased risk of streetism is proved to be highly related to ignorance, creating awareness and advocacy is one of the many preventive measures. Considerable advocacy works are needed to be made by governmental and non-governmental organizations focusing on the family and community. This is very necessary because many families do not perform their function as the first line of reference for their own working children. The advocacy program, thus, should focus on teaching parents the existence of street hazards, cohesion and solidarity of families, and teaching proper childcare and rearing method. Creating public awareness, sympathy and understanding of the rights of children, aiming at preventing child abuse and exploitation occurring at home, is also another component of such program. In this regard effective use of mass media and creative acts such as drama, poem and music are very crucial.

1.2 **Education:** The discussion section of this study has revealed that large proportion of the street children surveyed are found to be illiterate and some of them dropped out of school. If free education is provided, children may not think of the other alternative (i.e streetism). Besides free education, the government needs to make schools attractive and practical so that parents find it worthy of educating their children rather than encouraging them to

work in streets. Generally, making education free, as right and duty can undoubtedly prevent many children from going out to streets.

1.3 Laws and policies: The fact that streetism is also the result of mismanaging children at home (i.e abuse and exploitation) the government should enforce laws and policies governing the protection of the rights of the child. Though the Ethiopian government has already developed legislation in view of protecting children from any form of abuse, its enforcement and implementation is still questionable.

1.4 Strengthening the extended families: As indicated on the discussion part of the study, migration and family breakdown were two important demographic variables increasing, the risk of streetism. This is so because of the increasing deterioration of extended families and values. It is, thus, very important to strengthen the solidarity of the extended family system through devising various socio-economic programs.

1.5 Poverty reduction: As indicated in chapter four, large proportion of the street children were found to have unemployed mother and father, which in turn indicates that streetism is, at times, a last result of poverty. A lot of efforts, thus, have to be done to reduce poverty such as by creating income generation activities for parents, establishing credit and saving scheme for poor families, creating employment opportunities, enhancing food security and the like.

2. Rehabilitative Measures

- 2.1 ***Education and Training:*** one important community based rehabilitative approach is providing alternative education to street children. Because of the irregular house and variable conditions of their work, many street children can not take good advantage of the regular school system, which observes relatively inflexible hours and curriculum. It is, therefore, very important to provide them with non-formal education, "Street schools" or "schools without walls" or "mobile schools". In Philippines, Brazil, Columbia, Ecuador, and many other counties, this approach is proved to be very successful.
- 2.2 ***Street based Advocacy programs:*** Through organizing street educators, such advocacy work is needed aimed at promoting awareness about the risks and consequences of street life. Strong sensitization program on how the street children protect their own rights should be provided. Community based activities should be undertaken to provide them voice and forum to participate in decisions that affect them. In this regard, children themselves should participate in advocating for their needs.
- 2.3 ***Family re-unification:*** As the findings of this study shows, large proportion of the street children are migrants (accompanied and unaccompanied) who are far from parental protection and care. Many of the unaccompanied children may be highly interested to return to their families. The

governmental and other non-governmental organization thus, should devise means of re-unifying these children with their families.

2.4 ***Income Generation activities*** It is recalled from the finding section, large percentage of children are engaged in street activities which is not worthy of gaining substantial amount of income (i.e hand –to- mouth). It is very important to create better income generating activities by which these children may get sustainable income to support themselves and their parents.

Finally, it is recommended that both preventive and rehabilitative measures must be combined in any attempt to reduce or ameliorate the growing problem of streetism.

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APPENDIX 1 QUESTIONNAIRE

Identification
• Place name -----
• Name of interviewee -----
• Town -----
• Woreda -----
• Cluster number -----

Interviewer's visit
• Interviewer's Name -----
• Interviewer's call No. -----
• Time taken to complete -----
• Result
• Completed -----
• Partially Completed -----
• Other (specify) -----

<i>Supervisor</i>	<i>Field editor</i>	<i>Office editor</i>
Name-----	Name-----	Name-----
Date -----	Date -----	Date -----
Signature -----	Signature -----	Signature -----

INFORMED CONSENT

Hello : my name is ----- and I am working with (Name of the organization). We are conducting a survey on the major determinants of streetism among children in Awassa. The data and information gathered through this questionnaire are confidential and will be used for research proposes alone.

Participation in this survey is voluntary and you can choose not to answer any individual question or all of the questions. However, we hope that you will participate in the survey since your views are very important.

At this time, do you want to ask me anything about the survey.

May I begin the interview now?

Signature of interviewer _____ Date _____

I. Respondent's Family Backgrounds

	Questions	Coding	Skip.
1.	Sex of the respondent	Male ----- 1 Female----- 2	
2.	How old are you now? (*Age in completed year:- Exclude those children whose age is 18 and above and below 7).	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
3.	What is your religion?	Orthodox -----1 Catholic -----2 Muslim -----3 Protestant -----4 Traditional -----5 Other specify-----6	
4.	Have you ever been married?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
5.	Have your parents or guardians ever attempted to forcefully marry you?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
6.	Which ethnic group do you belong?	Amhara -----1 Oromo -----2 Tigre -----3 Sidama -----4 Wolaita -----5 Kembata -----6 Guraghe -----7 Other (specify)	
7.	How many brothers are sisters do you have?	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
8.	Are you first born among your brothers and sisters?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
9.	Are you last born among your brothers and sisters	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
10.	Is your mother alive?	Yes -----1 No -----2	15

11.	Is your mother literate (can read and write)?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	13
12.	What is the highest level of school your mother attended?	Primary (1-6) -----1 Junior Secondary(7-8) ----2 Secondary (9-12) -----3 Post Secondary (12 ⁺)--4 Other (specify) -----5	
13.	Was your mother employed?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	15
14.	What was your mother's regular occupation? (*Include any type of income generating activity.)	_____ (Specify)	
15.	Is your father alive?	Yes ----- 1 No ----- 2	20
16.	Can your father read and write? (is your father literate?)	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	18
17.	What is the highest level of school your father attended?	Primary (1-6) -----1 Junior Secondary (7-8)-2 Secondary (9-12) ----- 3 Post Secondary (12 ⁺)---4 Other (specify) -----5	
18.	Was your father employed?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
19.	What was your father's regular occupation?	_____ (Specify)	
20.	What is the average income of your family (Parents)?	_____ (Specify)	

29.	How many places have you lived before coming to this town?	_____	
		(specify)	
30.	Which means of transport did you use when you first come to this town?	Bus/Taxi-----1 Foot -----2 Animals -----3 Other -----4	

III. Respondent's Educational Status

	Questions	Coding	Skip
31.	Can you read and write?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	36
32.	Have you ever-attended school?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	36
33.	What is the highest level of school you attended?	Primary (1-6) -----1 Junior Secondary (7-8)- ----2 Secondary (9-12) --- ---3 Post secondary (12+)- --4 Other (specify) -----5	
34.	Are you currently attending school?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	36
35.	Which program are you attending school now?	Day programme -----1 Night programe -----2 Other (specify) -----3	

IV. Information on Overall Family life Environment

	Questions	Coding	Skip
36.	Were your parents living together?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	40
37.	If your answer for question No. 36 is 'no', what was the reason?	Death of mother -----1 Death of Father-----2 Divorce -----3 TemporarySeparation (work) -----4 Don't know -----5 Other (specify) -----6	

38.	Were you living with stepmother?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
39.	Were you living with stepfather?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
40.	Were you being frequently forced by your parents or guardians to do heavy household works?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
41.	Did your parents/guardians use frequent severe physical punishment?	Yes -----1 No -----2	44
42.	Who usually administered the punishment?	Mother -----1 Father -----2 Brother -----3 Sister -----4 Stepmother -----5 Stepfather -----6 Other (specify)-----7	
43.	What type of punishment was usually administered?	beating -----1 pinching -----2 Tying -----3 Withholding meals---- 4 Slapping -----5 Heavy work load-----6 Any type -----7 Other (specify) -----8	
44.	Is there any family member engaged in street activities?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
45.	Do you feel that your parents or guardians were providing you all the necessary needs (food, shelter, education, love....)	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	

OVERALL WORKING AND LIVING CONDITIONS OF STREET CHILDREN

46.	Are you totally working and living in the street?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
47.	How old were you when you first came out to the street?	_____ (Specify)	
48.	What was your parent's or guardian's impression when you first come to the street life?	Encouraged -----1 Became unhappy-----2 No response -----3 Other (specify) -----4	
49.	Were you attending school before you come to the street life?	Yes ----- 1 No -----2	
50.	Which street income generating activities you are engaged in now?	Shoe Polishing -----1 Petty Trading -----2 Carrying bags -----3 Begging -----4 Multitudnal -----5 Other (specify) -----6	
51.	What is your average income per day?	_____ (Specify)	
52.	What proportion of the daily income do you give to your parents/ guardians?	Upto 25 percent----- 1 26-50 percent ----- 2 51-75 percent ----- 3 76-100 percent -----4 none-----5	
53.	What is your over all impression (future goal) and expectation?	_____ (State briefly)	

Note: Questions No 46-53 are asked exclusively to street children (cases).

INTERVIEWER'S OBSERVATION

Comment about Respondent:

Comment on specific question:

Any other comments:

SUPERVISOR'S OBSERVATIONS

Name of the supervisor _____ Date _____

EDITOR'S OBSERVATIONS

Name of the supervisor _____ Date _____

Appendix 2

Variables used in the Study

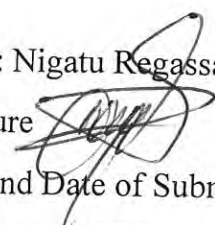
	Variables	Categorization
I.	Dependent variables	
	• Streetism	Street children -----(1) non street children -----(2)
II	Independent variables	
	2.1 Demographic variables	
	• Migration status of respondents	Migrant -----(1) Non migrant -----(2)
	• Number of siblings	0-3 siblings -----(1) 4-6 siblings -----(2) 6+ -----(3)
	• First birth order	Yes ----- (1) No -----(2)
	• Last birth order	Yes ----- (1) No -----(2)
	• Survival status of child's mother	Alive -----(1) Dead -----(2)
	• Survival status of child's father	Alive -----(1) Dead -----(2)
	• Marital Dissolution (instability)	Intact -----(1) Disolved----- (2)
	• Presence of step mother	Yes ----- (1) No -----(2)
	• Living with step father	Yes ----- (1) No -----(2)
	• Sex of respondent	Male ----- (1) Female----- (2)
	2.2 Socio Economic variables	
	• Highest Education level attended by respondent's mother	Primary school -----(1) Junior secondary----- (2) Secondary school----- (3)

		Post secondary -----(4) Other -----(5)
	•Highest education level attended by respondent's father.	Primary school -----(1) Junior secondary-----(2) Secondary school-----(3) Post secondary -----(4) Other -----(5)
	•Exposure to heavy work load in the household	Yes -----(1) No -----(2)
	•Employment status of respondent's mother	Employed -----(1) Unemployed ----- (2)
	•Employment status of respondent's father	Employed -----(1) Unemployed -----(2)
	•Severe physical punishment used by parents	Yes ----- (1) No -----(2)
	•Presence of others family members engaged in street activities	Yes ----- (1) No -----(2)

DECLARATION

I, undersigned declare that this thesis is my original work, has not been present for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis been duly acknowledged.

Name : Nigatu Regassa

Signature 

Place and Date of Submission

AAU, June , 2001

Dr. A.P. Deshpande
Advisor

Deshpande AP June 21, 2001
Signature Date