# Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of Children Living and/or Working on the Streets in Ethiopia

Hisabu Hadgu\* and Workneh Kebede†

## **Abstract**

Children living/working in the streets across Ethiopia face sexual abuse and exploitation (SAE). This study examined the characteristics, typology and magnitude of SAE faced by children. It used quantitative and qualitative approaches to generate primary data. A total of 661 children (male, 42.8% and female, 57.2%) aged from 11 to 17 years and living/working in the streets across 21 cities from nine regional states and chartered cities of Ethiopia participated in this study. A total of 210 relevant stakeholders were also included in the study. The adapted version of "The Child Abuse Screening Tool" (ICAST-C) was employed to generate data from children. Key Informant Interview (KII) and Focus Group Discussion (FGD) were used for collecting data from the stakeholder participants. Findings suggested that the most prevalent form of SAE was verbal sexual abuse (27.1%), followed by molestation (23.0%) and exposure to pornography (19.4%). The least prevalent types were child trafficking (2.10%), forced commercial sex work (2.40%) and forced or induced marriage (3.50%). The study showed that the prevalence of SAE against children living/or working on the streets in different parts of Ethiopia was evident. The study highlighted that a significant proportion of children living/or working on the streets faced multiple instances of SAE with 26.5% of the children reporting two or more types of SAE. The current study recommends the reinforcement of alternative care solutions for children in collaboration with relevant stakeholders and through the allocation of further resources.

Keywords: Sexual abuse, exploitation, children living on the streets, Ethiopia

\* Minilik II Medical and Health Sciences College, Kotebe Metropolitan University. Email: -mathsupsych@gmail.com

155

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup> School of Psychology, College of Education and Behavioural Studies, AAU, Email: -workneh.kebede@aau.edu.et

# 1. Introduction

Street children are boys and girls under the age of 18 who have made "the street" (including unoccupied dwellings and wasteland) their home and/or source of livelihood, and who are inadequately protected or supervised (Inter-NGO, 1983). Tens of millions of children live in the streets of cities scattered all over the world (UNICEF, 2012). While their presence may be noticed in developed as well as developing countries, the majority of street children live in the poor nations of Asia, and Latin America, especially India and Brazil as well as Africa (The Children's Prison, 2005; UNICEF, 2012). The United Nations Special Rapporteurs on the sale and sexual exploitation of children gave an estimate of 150 million children living and working on the streets of major cities of the world (OHCHR, 2019). The situation in Ethiopia seems even grave. It is estimated that 600,000 children are taking part in street life in Ethiopia and that as many as 500,000 would be at high risk of becoming involved in it (Demelash and Addisie, 2013). While street children are mainly boys, the number of girls has been increasing (KIT, 2002, cited in Shimeles, 2015. Girls, however, may not be more visible on the street than boys due to the nature of their work. While girls tend to be maids in bars, back street hotels and private houses, street boys, on the other hand, typically are engaged in more visible activities such as car washing, shoe shining and peddling (Shimeles, 2015) and (Forum on Street Children-Ethiopia, 2003).

The vast majority of street children works and lives in large urban areas of developing countries. In recent years, we are witnessing that the problem is worsening in many countries of the globe due to economic problems, political instabilities causing civil unrest, increasing family separation and conflict, spread of epidemic diseases and natural disasters. The fast pace of urbanization combined with a rapid population growth in Africa and in Ethiopia, more specifically, have also been driving forces of children to the street phenomenon.

Children living and working in streets are exposed to a host of problems of which violence is a major encounter. Because they live and/or work in the streets, away from parental protection and/or in the absence of potent policy mechanisms and effective protection systems to safeguard their rights, street

children have been more vulnerable to different types of violence including physical, psychological and sexual violence as well as social isolation. This combination of risks exposes street children to ruinous ramifications ranging from ostensibly mild emotional injuries to lasting physical, reproductive, mental, psychological damages, syndromes, and disorders (Foy, 1998; Sanders-Phillips, 1997; Scheeringa, 1995). As a result, violence against children, particularly "street children," in Africa continues to be a major issue of concern (ACPF, 2014).

Sexual abuse and exploitation (SAE) is among the various forms of violence that children, in general, and street children, in particular, frequently face. Child SAE is extraordinarily complex in its characteristics, dynamics, causes, and consequences. Sexual abuse may occur in many forms such as verbal sexual abuse, molestation, exhibitionism, exposure to pornography, rape, forced or induced marriage or consensual union, forced commercial sex work, and child trafficking for sexual purposes. While both girls and boys of all ages are affected by it, several factors determine how and what type of violence is perpetrated. Among them are gender, age, migration status, housing, school attendance.

A large number of investigations were carried out on sexual abuse and exploitation of street children at different levels and settings in Ethiopia. Some of these studies include sexual abuse and exploitation of children in different cities including Desse (Woldekidan 2004), Shashemene and Dilla (FSCE. 2003), Addis Ababa (Gebre et al 2009, Molla et al. 2000; FSCE. 2008; Ermias Tesfaye. 2007; Belay Hagos. 2008, Ayalew Gebre. 2006). A limited number were focused on sexual abuse against boys (Getnet Tadele. 2009; Belay Tefera. 2007) while others examined sexual abuse and exploitation of girls (Molla et.al. 2000; Getnet and Desta, 2008; Molla et al. 2002). In fact, a study by Gebre et al (2009) even examined the resilience in children exposed to sexual abuse and sexual exploitation in Merkato, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Although these investigations were useful in so many ways, they were, however, limited spatially and thematically, not to mention that they all are outdated and failed to depict developments in more recent years.

In light of the relative scarcity of comprehensive and up-to-date data on the exposure to SAE of street children in Ethiopia and associated factors of vulnerability, the present study, therefore, explored the magnitude and typology of sexual abuse among children on the streets, its manifestations and characteristics, as well as gender, age, and disability-based differences in sexual abuse.

#### 2. Methods

In this study sexual abuse is understood as the exposure of a child living and/or working in the streets within the 12 months preceding the time of data collection to at least one of the above eight types of sexual abuse, namely, verbal sexual abuse, molestation, exhibitionism, exposure to pornography, rape, forced or induced marriage, forced commercial sex work, and child trafficking.

## 2.1 Survey Design

The study was a cross-sectional study that employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches to examine the characteristics, typology and magnitude of sexual abuse and exploitation that children living/working in the streets are facing.

# 2.2 Area Sampling

In the process of selecting the study sites the following procedures were used.

**Step one**: A total of 140 cities and sub-cities (in Addis Ababa) with population size of greater than 12,000 were ranked based on their population size across the nine regional states and the two chartered cities, Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa;

**Step Two:** Cities/sub-cities with a population of less than 50,000 were excluded except in cases where all cities in a given region had a population size of less than 50,000, as is the case in Afar Region (highest population being in Asayita, 20,900) and Benishangul-Gumuz Region (highest population being in Asossa, 34,300). The exclusion criterion was used to limit the number of the study sites to a manageable size while the exception rule was employed to guarantee that each and every region in the country was given fair representation.

**Step Three:** The selected cities/sub-cities were grouped in seven clusters for logistic purpose, namely, Cluster 1 (Tigray and Afar), Cluster 2 (Amhara); Cluster 3 (Oromia); Cluster 4 (Benishangul and Gambella); Cluster 5 (Somali, Harari and Dire Dawa) Cluster 6 (Southern Nations and Nationalities Peoples' Region); and Cluster 7 (Addis Ababa).

**Step Four**: In collaboration with the respective city/sub-city Women, Children, and Youth Affairs Bureau, five hotspots (specific geographic locations [in this case city/sub-city] where there was a high concentration of children living and/or working in the street, such as, market places, bus stops, etc) were selected in each city/sub-city using purposive sampling where the criterion was density of children living and working in the streets.

Thus, based on this procedure, as shown in Table 1, a total of 21 study sites were selected, which included, three sub-cities within Addis Ababa and 18 major cities outside of Addis Ababa. Following the identification of the cities/sub-cities, a total of five hotspots were selected in each city/sub-city making the total number of study sites 105.

Table 1: Selected Study sites - Cities/Sub-Cities

CLUSTER	REGIONS	TOTAL POPULATION	URBAN POPULATION	CITY / SUB- CITY	POPULATION
Cluster 1	Tiomary	4,316,988	844,040	1. Mek'ele	261,200
	Tigray	4,310,900	044,040	2. Adigrat	69,700
	Afar	1,390,273	185,135	3. Awash Sebat Kilo	19,400
	Amhara	17,221,976		4. Bahirdar	170,300
Cluster 2			2,112,595	5. Gonder	227,100
				6. Dessie	131,600
Cluster 3	Oromia	26,993,933	3,317,460	7. Adama	260,600
				8. Jimma	143,200
				9. Shashemene	118,900
				10. Debrezeyit (Bishoftu)	118,300
				<ol><li>Nekemte</li></ol>	89,000
Cluster 4	Benishangul- Gumuz	784,345	105,926	12. Assosa	34,300
	Gambella	307,096	77,925	13. Gambella	54,700
Cluster 5	Somali	4,445,219	623,004	14. Jigjiga	142,500
	Harari	183,415	99,368	15. Harar	108,200
	Dire Dawa	341,834	341,834	16. Dire Dawa	256,800
Cluster 6	SNNPR	14,929,548	1,495,557	17. Hawassa	200,400
Claster o	21.1111	1 .,,, 2,,,,,,	1, ., 5,557	18. Sodo	97,000

CLUSTER	REGIONS	TOTAL POPULATION	URBAN POPULATION	CITY / SUB- CITY	POPULATION	
Cluster 7	Addis Ababa	2,739,551	2,739,551	19. Arada	297,942	
				20. Kirkos	335,330	
				21. Nefas Silk	321,000	
				and Lafto		

## 2.3 Sample Size Determination for Quantitative Data Sources

The sample cases for the quantitative study were distributed geographically across the twenty-one major cities/sub-cities of Ethiopia selected as study sites. An effort was made to include both male and female respondents with equal gender balance within the chronological age bracket >11 and <17 years (in line with ICAST-C's age range), except in enumeration areas where the number of girls identified within the study period was not sufficient to match those of the male children or vice versa. Thus, after the selection of the study sites, the required sample was calculated as 630 after adjustment (Taherdoost, 2017). Taking this total sample size, the number of children to be sampled in each city / sub-city was set at 30.

$$n = (z^2) (r) (1-r) (deff) (k)/e^2$$

#### Where:

**n** (sample size in terms of number of children to be selected);

z (level of confidence) = 1.96;

r (an estimate of a key indicator to be measured by the survey) = 0.05;

*deff* (sample design effect) = 1.5;

k (amultiplier for non-response) = 1.1; and

e (margin of error) = .05.

$$n=1.96^2*0.5^2*1.5*1.1/0.05)^2)=633.9$$

**Table 2:** Ddistribution of sampled children living and working on the streets

	Adjusted Sample Size					
Sampling	Sam		Hotspots	Clusters		Total
1 0	ple size	City	Per city	Boys	Girls	Per city
Children Living and/or Working in the Streets	630	21	5	3	3	30

## 2.4 Sampling for Qualitative Data Sources

Qualitative data were collected both from children living and working in the streets and key informants, namely, policy makers (municipality officials directors/heads of departments of relevant sectors); the judiciary (judges, prosecutors, and police officers); non-governmental organizations working with and/or providing services to children living and/or working in the streets; faith-based organizations; and community-based organizations (community based organizations and leaders of women and youth associations).

Appropriate focus group discussions, as planned a total of 40 FGDs, that is, 2 in each city, were conducted in the 20 cities for male and female children except in Gambella where discussions were aborted due to time limitations. With regards to members of the FGD group, the total number of children that participated in focus group discussion was 324 (168 male and 156 female). In all the cities the number of participants was maintained at 8 for a single FGD except in three cities where the total number of children was lower, that is in Jigjiga (male 4, female 4), Soddo (male 5, female 3), Assosa (male 3, female 3) due to unavailability of willing children to participate. Concerning in-depth semi-structured interviews with key informants, a total of 179 interviews were conducted successfully in the 21 cities / sub-cities. The distribution of the sex of the interviewees show that 136 (75.97%) were male and 43 (24.02%) were female. The participants were selected from 28 organizations in collaboration with their respective city/sub-city Women, Children, and Youth Affairs Bureaus by using purposive sampling method where the criteria were (1) official assignment by the represented organization and (2) access to relevant information such as being a focal person in the child protection division of the organization etc.

#### 2.5 Survey Instruments

For quantitative data, the study employed the International Society for the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect's (ISPCAN) tool, commonly known as the ISPCAN Child Abuse Screening Tools for Children (ICAST-C) (Daw, 2008). The ICAST-C was developed to research maltreatment in children and adolescents aged 11-18 years, and it consisted of 69 items. Before utilizing the ICAST-C for data collection, necessary customization was made to address cultural and language variations by using the process

of translation and semantic validation. Parallel to this instrument, other two instruments, namely, Key Informants' In-depth Semi-Structured Interview Guide (KII) and a Focus Group Discussion Guide (FGD-G) were used to gather qualitative data. Prior to the use of these instruments the necessary pilot study was conducted in Addis Ababa and appropriate amendments were made.

## 2.6 Data Collection and Management

Prior to the data collection, all supervisors and data collectors were given training using a manual developed for the purpose and data were collected within a period of twenty-five days. In all data collection procedures, strict ethical standards were followed. Thus, all necessary precautions were taken in relation with key issues, including, but not limited to, recruitment of data supervisors and collectors, informed consent, voluntary participation, anonymity and privacy of participants during data collection, confidentiality, payments of data collectors and supervisors.

## 2.7 Data Analysis and Management

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

Likewise, qualitative data were edited, coded and entered into an excel template developed for the purpose and this was exported into SPSS for cross and ordinal tabulations and descriptive analysis. Data security and confidentiality were maintained throughout the study and to this effect a

central database was created that allowed capturing of the data collected from different sites into one system.

#### 3. Results

## 3.1 Characteristics of Participants

The total number of child respondents was 661 and these were distributed across the 21 cities sampled from the nine regional states and the two chartered cities. Out of these, available female children were 283 (42.8%) and male children were 378 (57.2%). This difference was statistically significant (p < 0.001. However, according to Tukey HSD, the variation was limited in only two regions, namely Benishangul-Gumuz (Assosa) and Somali (Jigjiga), where male children were more represented than female children. The age distribution showed that all the age categories were fairly represented across the two sexes.

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

Table 1. Characteristics of participants

No of participants %		Age of participants		Skewness coefficient of age (g1)	
Male	283	57.2	Range	11-17	
Female	378	42.8	Median	years 14.00	052
Total	661	100	Median Male	years 14.11	.014
			Median Female	years 14.00 years	126

# 3.2 Prevalence and Typology of Sexual Abuse

The prevalence of sexual abuse, as seen in children who experienced, at least, one of the above-mentioned eight forms of sexual abuses, was high (44.6%). The most prevalent form of sexual abuse was verbal sexual abuse

(27.1%) followed by molestation (23.0%) and exposure to pornography (19.4%) (Figure 1).

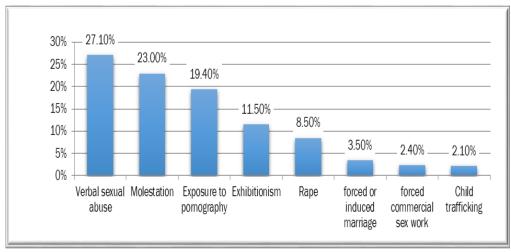


Figure 1. Prevalence and typology of sexual abuse

Regarding instances of multiple sexual abuses, data show that on the average a child is exposed to a total of four sexual abuses (Figure 2).

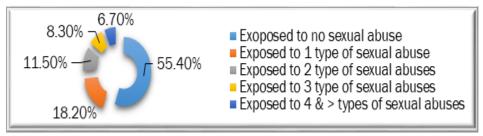


Figure 2: Prevalence and multiple sexual abuses

#### 3.3 Manifestation and characteristics of sexual abuse

#### 3.3.1 Verbal Sexual Abuse

In verbal sexual abuse, sexually suggestive or explicit language is used against a child. The study found out that 27.1% of the child respondents were subjected to verbal sexual abuse.

Still statistically significant variation was observed across regions ( $\chi 2 = 67.611$ , df10,  $\alpha$  .001) where the range extends from the lowest in Benishangul-Gumuz (3.3%) to the highest in Tigray (54.1%).

Likewise, similar statistically significant variation was observed across sex ( $\chi 2=89.106$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .001) male (13.0%) and female (45.9%) children indicating, consistent to commonsense, that more proportion of female children are exposed to verbal sexual abuse compared to male children. Similarly, age was found to have a statistically significant sex ( $\chi 2=39.265$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .001) relationship with the probability of being exposed to verbal sexual (Figure 3).

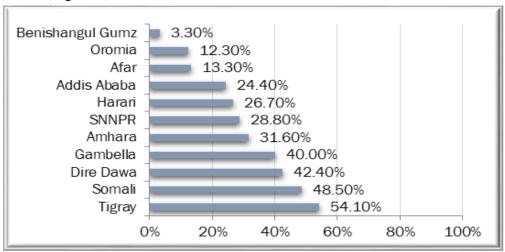


Figure 3. Exposure to verbal sexual abuse by study region

A Kendall's Tau-b correlation of  $\tau = 0.21$ , that is statistically significant at 0.01 level (male  $\tau = 0.16$ , female  $\tau = 0.28$ ) has shown that exposure to verbal sexual abuse increases as the children's age increases (within the age range 11 to 17 years) (Figure 4).

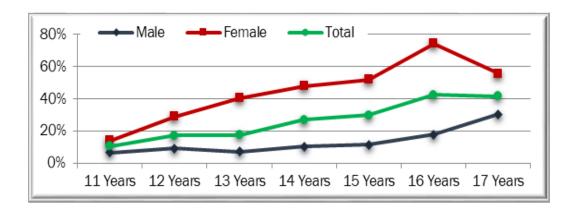


Figure 4. Children exposed to verbal sexual abuse by age

The line graph, above, shows that as age increases more and more children are exposed to verbal sexual abuse and the increment across the age continuum is more pronounced in female than male children.

In summary, the findings show that verbal sexual abuse differs from physical abuse and psychological abuse in that it is affected by sex and age of the children than any other variables such as sleeping place, migration status, school attendance, etc., and also female children are more affected than male children and even more so older female children are most exposed to verbal sexual abuse.

With regards to frequency of verbal sexual abuse among those affected children, data show that one third of the sampled children (33.5%) are exposed to verbal sexual abuse 1-3 times every week (Figure 5).

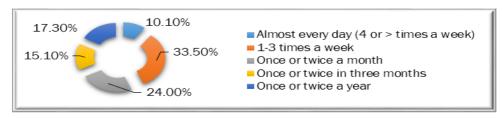


Chart 5. Frequency of verbal sexual abuse

Data on perpetrators of verbal sexual abuse have shown that the three major perpetrators are male street children, strangers or pedestrians, and street gang leaders. Detail data is presented in Figure 6.

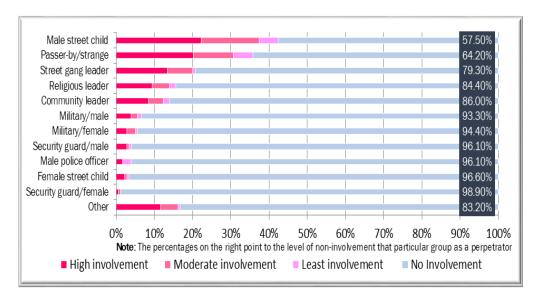


Figure 6: Perpetrators of verbal sexual abuse

In relation with reporting and/or sharing of information on incidents of these verbal sexual abuses, data show that only 23.7% of the children population has reported or shared the incident with a third party and the three main third parties the incidents were reported to or shared with were male or female friend (38.1), the police (16.7%), and other children living and/or working in the street (11.9%).

With reference to the response of the third parties it was found out that some responded with mistrust (26.2%) or indifference (9.5%) while others trusted the children (45.2%), attempted to assist them (9.5%) or gave them some assistance (4.8%). The type of assistance rendered to the children included consoling and soothing (4.8%), psychological counseling (2.4%), and legal counseling (2.4%) (see Figure 7).

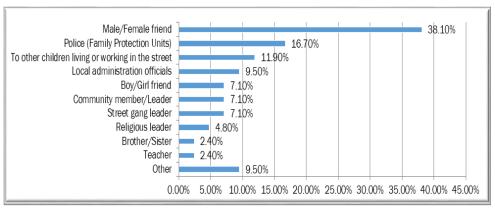


Figure 7: Third parties the children shared their experience about the violence with

#### 3.3.2 Molestation

The other type of psychological abuse assessed was molestation which was earlier defined as sexual abuse and exploitation in which culturally inappropriate touching, fondling in a sexual manner is used against a child. Accordingly, it was found out that 23.4% (male 11.1%, female 39.9%) are exposed to molestation.

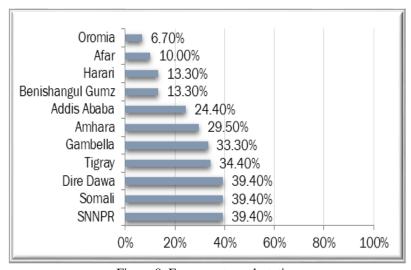


Figure 8: Exposure to molestation

Pearson Chi Square tests point to the fact that there are no statistically significant variations across disability, sleeping place, and migration status at alpha level 0.05.

On the contrary, statistically significant variation was observed across regions ( $\chi 2 = 58.163$ , df10,  $\alpha$  .001) where the range extends from the lowest in Oromia (6.7%) to the highest in SNNPR (39.4%) (Figure 8). Parallel to regions, statistically significant variations were observed across male (11.1%) and female (39.9%) children ( $\chi 2 = 74.874$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .001); those children attending school (18.2%) and out-of-school (28.0%) children ( $\chi 2 = 7.137$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .001); and age groups ( $\chi 2 = 29.927$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .001).

This shows that female children, out-of-school children and older children are more exposed to molestation compared to male, those children going to school and younger children, respectively.

First, regarding age further analysis has shown that there is a positive correlation between age and the probability of being exposed to molestation for all children living and/or working in the streets ( $\tau=0.16$ ) and female children ( $\tau=0.25$ ) but not for male children (male  $\tau=0.07$ , female) at  $\alpha=0.01$  level (Figure 9).

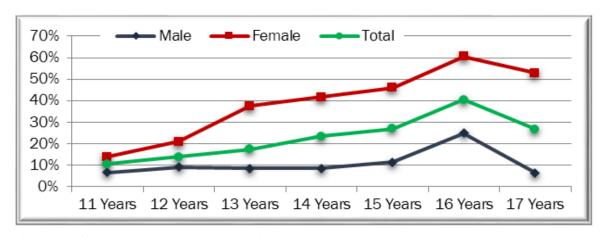


Figure 9. Children exposed to sexual molestation by age

As shown in the line chart, the proportion of children exposed to molestation overall increases with age, however, this is much more significant for the female child compared to male. What is worth noting here is that data in the case of molestation, consistent with data on verbal sexual abuse and, by and large, contrary to data on physical abuse and psychological abuse, age is an influential variable in defining the probability of being exposed to sexual abuse.

Data on frequency of sexual molestation, among those affected children, shows that molestation occurs at least once a month for more than one child out of every three (35.0%) (Figure 10).

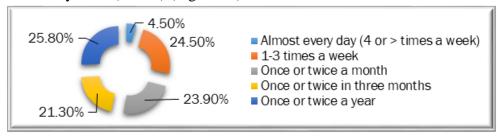


Figure 10. Frequency of exposure to sexual molestation

Data on perpetrators of molestation have shown that the three major perpetrators are male street children, strangers or pedestrians, and street gang leaders. Detail data is presented in Figure 11.

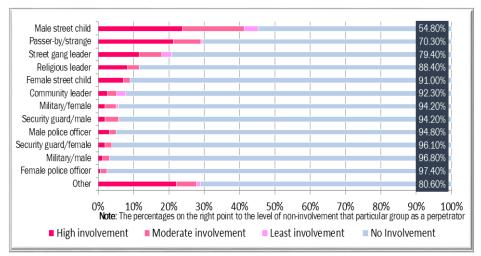


Figure 11. Perpetrators of molestation

With regards to reporting and/or sharing of information on incidents of molestation, data show that only 27.7% of the children population reported

or shared the violence with a third party and the three leading three parties were the police (18.6%), and street gang leaders (7.0%), and community-based organizations (7.0%) (Figure 12).

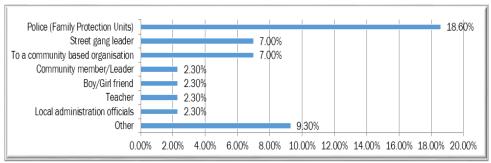


Figure 12. Third parties the children shared their experience about the violence with

In connection with responses of third parties it was reported that some received the report with mistrust (30.2%) or indifference (4.7%) while others trusted the children (41.9%), attempted to assist them (9.3%) or gave them some tangible assistance (14.0%). The type of assistance rendered to the children included consoling and soothing (7.0%), legal counseling (4.7%) psychological counseling (2.3%).

#### 3.3.3 Exhibitionism

Exhibitionism, defined as a sexual abuse and exploitation in which a child is cheated into, enticed, bribed, or forced to look at the private parts of another person who exposes his or her private parts intentionally and in a sexually suggestive manner, was another type of sexual abuse that was examined in this study.

Data have shown that 11.5% of the children (male 11.1%, female 12.0%) were exposed to exhibitionism in the 12 months prior to the time of data collection. When examined across other variables, it was found out that there are no statistically significant variations across sex, age, disability status, sleeping place, and migration status at alpha level 0.05.

On the other hand, statistically significant variation were found across regions ( $\chi 2 = 62.420$ , df10,  $\alpha$ .001) where the variation stretches from the lowest in Oromia (2.5%) to the highest in Somali (45.5%) (Figure 13). As

well, statistically significant variation was observed across those children attending school (5.0%) and those out-of-school (14.4%) children ( $\chi 2 = 12.505$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .001). This suggests that out-of-school children are more exposed to exhibitionism compared to those going to school.

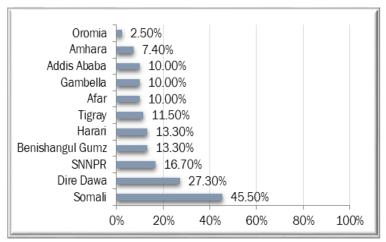


Figure 13. Exposure to exhibitionism across regions

Data on frequency of exhibitionism indicate that it is repeated at least once every month for more than one child out of every ten (14.4%) (Figure 14).

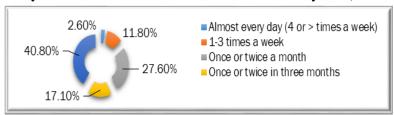


Figure 14: Frequency of exposure to exhibitionism

Data show that the three major perpetrators of exhibitionism are male street children, female street children, and street gang leaders. Detail data is presented in Figure 15.

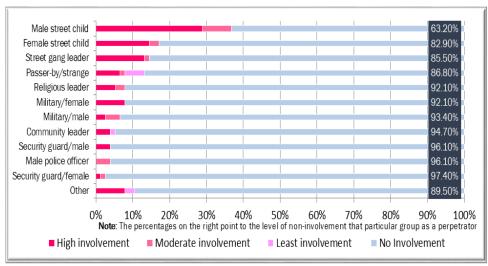


Figure 15. Perpetrators of Exhibitionism

Data on reporting and/or sharing of information on experienced exhibitionism by the children have indicated that only 32.0% of the children have reported the incident to a third party and the three main parties the incidents were reported to or shared with were male or female friend (32.0%), other children working and/or living in the street (16.0%), and community member/leader (16.0%) (Figure 16).

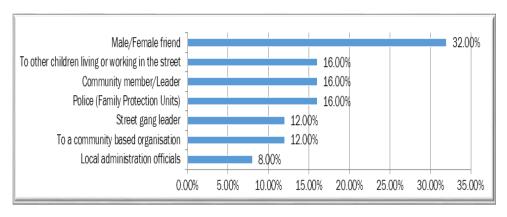


Figure 16. Third parties the children shared their experience about the violence with

Regarding the response of these third parties, it was found out that some received the news with mistrust (20.0%) or indifference (4.0%) while others trusted the children (56.0%), attempted to assist them (12.0%) or gave them

some assistance (4.0%). The type of assistance given to the children included consoling and soothing (12.0%), psychological counseling (8.0%), and legal counseling (8.0%).

# 3.3.4 Exposure to Pornography

Another type of sexual abuse examined was exposure to pornography defined as a form of sexual abuse in which a child is cheated into, enticed, bribed, or forced to watch age-inappropriate sexual materials, acts or events. Data show that overall one out of every five children, to be specific, 19.4% (n=128) of the children (male 19.8%, female 18.7%) have been exposed to pornography in the 12 months preceding the data collection.

Pearson Chi Square tests disclosed that there are no statistically significant variations across sex, disability, and sleeping place at alpha level 0.05. On the other hand, statistically significant variation were observed across regions ( $\chi 2 = 86.110$ , df10,  $\alpha$  .001) where the range extends from the lowest in Oromia (5.5%) to the highest in Somali (48.50%) (Figure 17).

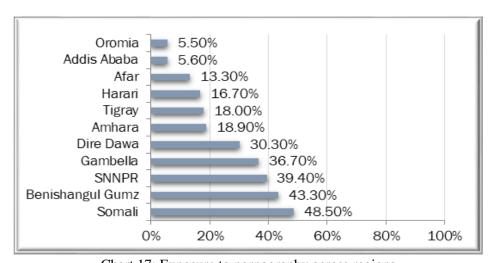


Chart 17: Exposure to pornography across regions

Parallel to regions, statistically significant variations were observed across those attending school (13.6%) and out-of-school (23.5%) children ( $\chi 2 = 8.455$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .002) showing that children going to school are less likely to be exposed to pornography than out-of-school children. Likewise, a

statistically significant variation was observed across age groups ( $\chi 2 = 16.216$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .013) and this is also substantiated with statistically significant positive correlations at  $\alpha = 0.01$  for the total population ( $\tau = 0.09$ ) and female population ( $\tau = 0.15$ ) but not for male child population  $\tau = 0.07$ ) (see Figure 18).

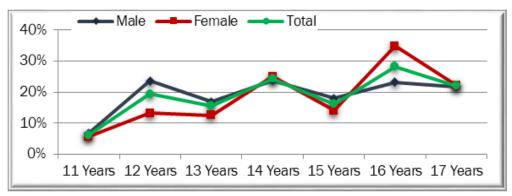


Figure 18. Children exposed to pornography across age

This, as presented in the line chart the proportion of children exposed to pornography increases as their age increases and this is more pronounced for female children compared to male children as pointed out by the correlation coefficients above.

In relation with the frequency of exposure to pornography among those affected children, data have shown that as many of as one child out of every seven (14.1%) is exposed to pornography at least once every week (Figure 19).

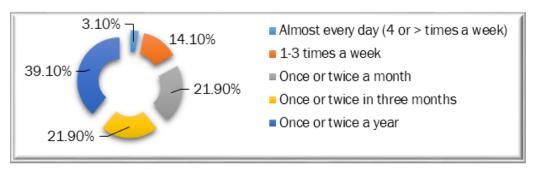


Figure 19: Frequency of exposure to pornography

Data on perpetrators of sexual abuse in the form of exposure to pornography have shown that the three major perpetrators are male street children, strangers or pedestrians, and female street children. Detail data is presented below in Figure 20.

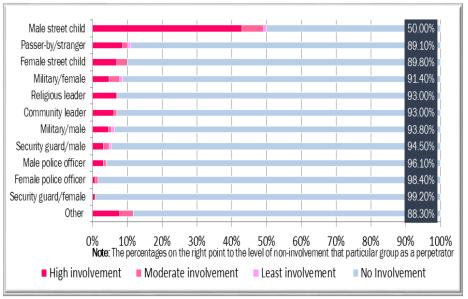


Figure 20. Perpetrators of exposure to pornography

Concerning reporting and/or sharing of information on incidents of exposure to pornography, data divulged that only 11.7% of the children population reported or shared information on exposure to pornography with a third party and the three main third parties the incidents were reported to were

male and female friend (20.0%), the police (20.0%), and boyfriend/girlfriend (20.0%) (Figure 21).

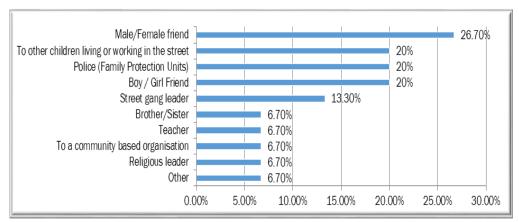


Figure 21. Third parties the children shared their experience about the violence with

Data on response of these third parties show that a considerable portion of them received the allegation with mistrust (40.0%) and indifference (4.0%) while others trusted the children (20.0%), even or gave them some assistance (33.0%). The type of assistance given, according to the children, included consoling and soothing (33.3%), psychological counseling (13.3%), and legal counseling (6.7%).

#### 3.3.4 Rape

The other type of sexual abuse assessed was rape, defined as, sexual abuse and exploitation in which a child is cheated into, enticed, bribed, or forced to commit vaginal, anal, or oral sex. Data on rape on children living and/or working in the streets divulged that on the whole 8.5% of the children (male 5.0%, female 13.1%) have been raped in the 12 months preceding the date of data collection. Here, it is worth noting that despite the contrary to the widely held notion that male children are free from rape, the data show that one out of every twenty male child in the streets is raped only in the 12 months preceding the data collection. Follow up analyses using Pearson Chi-Square tests pointed out that there is statistically significant variation across regions ( $\chi 2 = 31.428$ , df10,  $\alpha$  .001) where the range extends from the lowest in Oromia (2.5%) to the highest in Benishangul-Gumuz (30.0%) (Figure 22).

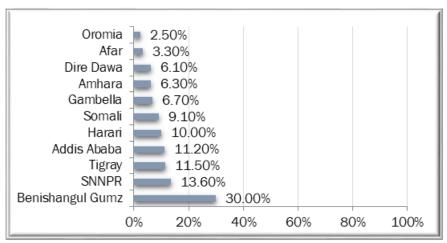


Figure 22: Exposure to rape across regions

Parallel to regions, statistically significant variations were witnessed across almost all variables assessed. Thus, statistically significant variation was observed between male (5.0%) and female (13.1%) children ( $\chi 2 = 13.627$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .001); those attending school (2.7%) and out-of-school (11.7%) children ( $\chi 2 = 14.375$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .001); children with disability (19.4%) and without (7.8%); those sleeping out-door in the streets (11.0%) and those who sleep in-door (5.4%) away from the streets ( $\chi 2 = 6.529$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .007); and finally, across those who are migrants (10.5%) and non-migrant (6.0%) children ( $\chi 2 = 4.277$ , df1,  $\alpha$  .026). This shows female children, out-of-school children, children with disability, those sleeping out-doors, and migrants are more exposed to rape compared to their respective counterparts.

A statistically significant variation was observed also across age categories ( $\chi 2 = 13.325$ , df6,  $\alpha$  .038). However, a closer look into the relationship between age and the probability of getting raped show that the statistically significant relationship is for the total population and female ( $\chi 2 = 24.683$ , df6,  $\alpha$  .001) population and not for male ( $\alpha$  .05) child population.

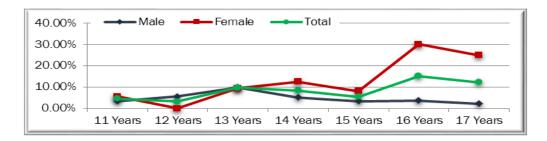


Figure 23. Children exposed to pornography across age

This is supported by statistically significant ( $\alpha=0.01$ ) positive correlations for the total population ( $\tau=0.09$ ) and female population ( $\tau=0.21$ ) but not for male child population ( $\tau=-0.05$ ). Hence, for the female child population the relationship is positive showing that the probability of exposure to rape increases along with age while for the male population the relationship, though isn't statistically significant, is a negative correlation suggesting that for the male child, the probability of getting raped decreases as age increases and this, consistent with common sense, indicates that younger male children are more likely to be raped than older male children.

Data on the frequency of exposure to rape among those children affected by it have shown that rape is repeated every month for every child out of every five (18.5%) and every month for more than one child (24.1%) out of every four children (Figure 24).

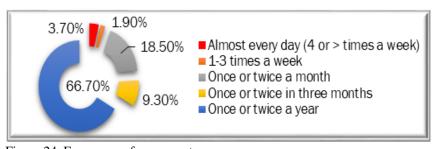


Figure 24. Frequency of exposure to rape

Data on perpetrators of sexual abuse in the form of rape showed three major perpetrators are male street children, strangers or pedestrians, and street gang leaders (Fig. 25).

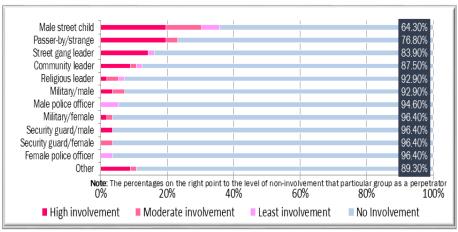


Figure 25. Perpetrators of Rape

Pertaining to reporting and/or sharing of information on incidents of rape, data indicated that slightly more than half of the children (57.4%) reported the incident while the remaining 42.6% kept it to themselves. Those who reported on the incident did so mainly to the police (32.3%), male/female friend (29.0%), and other children living and/or working in the street (19.4%) (Figure 26).

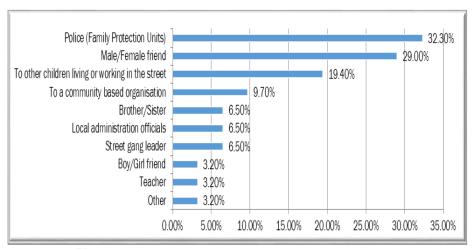


Figure 26. Third parties the children shared their experience about the violence with

Regarding response of third parties to whom the incident of rape was reported to or shard with, data show that some received the accusation with

mistrust (16.1%) and indifference (3.2%) while others trusted the children (45.2%), attempted to give some assistance (12.9%) or provided some tangible assistance (16.1%). The type of assistance reported included legal counseling (12.9%), consoling and soothing (9.7%), psychological counseling (9.7%).

## 3.3.5 Forced or Induced Marriage or Consensual Union

Forced or induced marriage or consensual union, was defined, in this study, as a form of sexual abuse and exploitation in which a child is cheated into, enticed, bribed, or forced marriage. Data in relation with forced or induced marriage or consensual union points out that only 3.5% of the children (n=23) were exposed to it.

Here, qualitative data, as noted earlier, suggests that the low prevalence in forced or induced marriage or consensual union doesn't point out to the relative low prevalence of this particular form of abuse in the street since the reason behind the observed low prevalence is that most of the children who have fallen victim to this form of abuse have already joined the rank of those suffering under sex slavery either as housewives or sex workers.

Still, for the purpose of this study, no statistical inferences were made owing to the limited sample size, however, overall distributions were tabulated across some major variables. Primarily, when we examine the distribution across the regions, it becomes evident that this form of sexual abuse is reported only in ten cities and among those cities where forced or induced marriage or consensual union was observed, the range extends from the lowest in Dire Dawa (3.0%) to the highest in Arada, Addis Ababa (20.0%). Likewise when we assess the distribution across sex of the children, the data indicate that forced or induced marriage or consensual union is more common among female (6.4%) children compared to male (1.3%). The distribution across age shows that all the children that reported to have been exposed to forced or induced marriage or consensual union are above 13 years of chronological age.

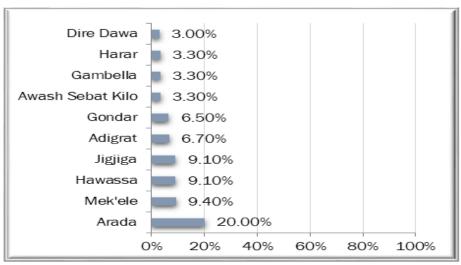


Figure 27. Exposure to forced or induced marriage or consensual union across cities

Similarly, more proportion of out-of-school children (5.3%) compared to those attending school (1.4%) and more children with disability (11.1%) compared to those without disability (2.9%) were found to have been exposed to forced or induced marriage or consensual union. On the other hand, comparable proportions were observed between those who sleep out-doors in the streets (3.8%) and those who sleep in-doors; and between migrants (4.2%) and non-migrants (2.7%). Data on perpetrators of forced or induced marriage or consensual union have shown that the three major perpetrators are male street children, religious leaders, strangers or pedestrians, and community leaders. Detail data is presented below in Figure 28.

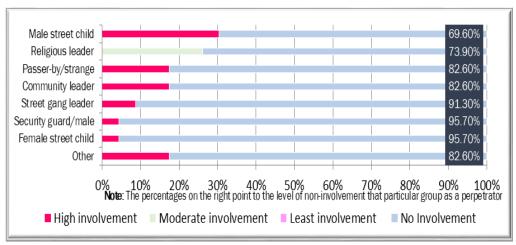


Figure 28. Perpetrators of forced or induced marriage or consensual union

Data on reporting and/or sharing of information on forced or induced marriage or consensual union show that about one-third of the children affected (36.4%) reported the incident to a third party. The three main parties these incidents were reported to include male/female friend (55.6%), teachers (22.2%), religious leaders (11.1%) and the police (11.1%) (Fig. 29).

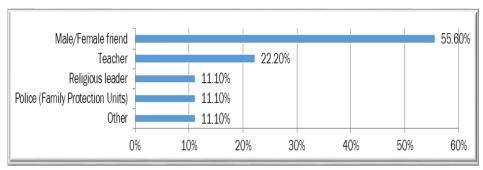


Figure 29. Third parties the children shared their experience about the violence with

Data on response of third parties to whom incidents of forced or induced marriage or consensual union were reported to or share with show that some received the allegation with mistrust (22.2%) while others trusted the children (66.7%) and some (11.1%) even attempted to offer help though no tangible assistance was reported to have been given to any of the children covered in the study.

#### 3.3.6 Forced Commercial Sex work

Forced commercial sex work, in this study, was defined as sexual abuse and exploitation in which a child is cheated into, enticed, bribed, or forced to engage in sex work or child prostitution. Data in relation with forced commercial sex work divulges that only 2.4% of the children (n=16) were exposed to it.

Similar to the previous case, that is, forced or induced marriage or consensual union, the sample size (n=16) or the proportion of children who have been forced into commercial sex in the 12 months preceding data collection was limited, thus, no inferential statistics tests were applied overall distributions were tabulated across some major variables.

Once again qualitative data divulged that children living and/or working in the street do widely engage in commercial sex work, however, unlike other group of children, spend their day time sleeping and resting since they have to come out in the night-time. Children that have participated in focus group have indicated that children who once were out with them in the streets and who later on decided to go into commercial sex work are working either in bars or work as street commercial sex worker unaccompanied thus couldn't be found in the street during the day time.

Additional data collected on this group of children have pointed out that these children are either recruited by brokers to work in bars or by pimps to work as street commercial sex worker within the age range 12 to 14 years. It was further pointed out that these children, in most cases, live in small houses that they hire in group thus don't spend their nights out in the streets.

Overall forced commercial sex work was reported only in ten cities in which the range extends from the lowest in Adama (3.0%) to the highest in Arada (20.0%).

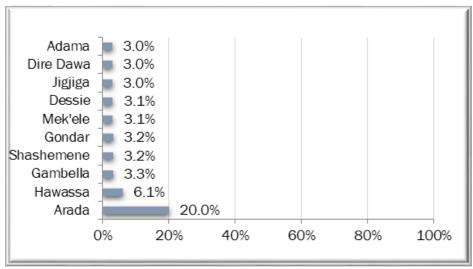


Figure 30: Exposure to forced commercial sex work

Qualitative data, however, points out that this reported low proportion is either, as indicated earlier, due to the absence of commercial sex workers during the day time or due to the fact that the children don't perceived commercial sex work as 'forced' since they believe that it is something that they go into willingly.

An examination into the distribution across sex also shows that forced commercial sex is more common among female (5.3%) children compared to male (0.3%) children.

The distribution across age shows that children as young as 12 years of age have been exposed to forced commercial sex work. Similarly, more proportion of out-of-school children (4.2%) compared to those attending school (0.5%); more proportion of children sleeping out-doors in the street (3.5%) compared to those sleeping in-doors (1.1%); and more proportion of migrants (3.9%) compared to non-migrants (0.7%) have been found to be more affected by forced commercial sex work.

Finally, with regards to disability, more children with disability (8.3%) were found to have been affected by forced commercial sex work compared to those without disability (2.1%). In relation with disability, it is interesting to

note that while the total proportion of children with disability in the total population is only 5.4% the proportion of children forced into commercial sex work is 18.8%, which in crude terms suggests that children with disabilities are four times more likely to be affected by forced commercial sex work compared to a child without disability.

With regards to the frequency of forced commercial sex work among those affected, about three out of every ten children (33.3%) reported to have been forced into commercial sex work at least once every week, once or twice a month (20.0%), and once or twice in three months (33.3%).

Data on perpetrators of sexual abuse in the form of forced commercial sex work have indicated that the three main perpetrators reported were female street children (43.8%), strangers or pedestrians (18.8%), and male street children (12.5%).

In relation with the reporting or sharing of information on incidents of forced commercial sex work, data indicate that only one in three children (33.3%) reported or shared the case with a third party and the only third party these incidents were reported to were male or female friend and no incidents of forced commercial sex work were reported to the police.

As to the response from the third party, one out of five children (20.0%) indicated that their friends didn't trust their stories while 80% claimed to have been received with trust, however, no tangible assistance has been reported to have been given to the survivors.

# 3.3.7 Child Trafficking for Sexual Purposes

The last type of sexual abuse assessed in this study was child trafficking for sexual purposes. Primarily child trafficking for sexual purposes was defined as a form of sexual abuse and exploitation in which a child is trafficked or moved from one place to another for sex work or child prostitution. Accordingly, it was found out that only 2.1% (n=14) of the children were exposed to child trafficking for sexual purposes. As was the case in the previous two forms of sexual abuse, that is, 'forced or induced marriage or

consensual union' and 'forced commercial sex work', the sample size of children exposed to child trafficking was small making it impossible to make inferences using statistical models, however, overall distributions were tabulated across some major variables.

Once again, qualitative data underlined that the low prevalence of survivors of child trafficking doesn't imply that children living and/or working in the street are unaffected by it but points out the fact that those children who have fallen victim of child trafficking are already taken away from the street to work as sex slaves either in the different cities of the country or in other countries in the middle east and those children who claim to have suffered child trafficking while still living in the streets are those who either are failures and throw-outs from the world of commercial sex work or who have chosen to fled from sex slavery and live and/or in the streets.

Qualitative data gathered from female children living and/or working in the street points out that getting recruited by brokers to be taken to the neighboring countries such as the Sudan or other countries in the Middle East is hardly perceived as child trafficking leading to sexual slavery but good fortune that rarely comes in the life of a street child.

An examination of the overall distribution across the regions show that child trafficking is reported in six major cities, namely, Arada (Addis Ababa), Mek'ele, Gondar, Nifas silk and Lafto (Addis Ababa), Harar, Dire Dawa, and Adama. As presented in the bar graph on the right, the range extends from the lowest in Adama to the highest in Arada, Addis Ababa (Figure 31).

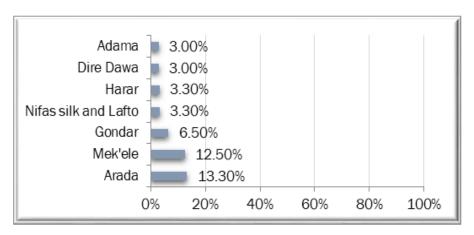


Figure 31. Exposure to child trafficking

Further descriptive analyses show that child trafficking is more common among female children (4.6%) compared to male children (0.3%); those attending school (3.9%) compared to out-of-school children (0.0%); children with disability (11.1%) compared to those without disability (1.6%); those who sleep out-doors in the streets (2.4%) compared to those who sleep in-doors (1.8%); and finally, migrants (3.0%) compared to nonmigrants (1.0%). Finally, in relation with age, data show that children as young as 14 years old have been exposed to child trafficking in the 12 months preceding the time for data collection. Data on perpetrators of sexual abuse in the form of child trafficking for sexual purposes have pointed out that the main perpetrators reported were male street children (42.9%), strangers or pedestrians (14.3%), religious leaders (7.1%), and the military (7.1%). The children were asked as their sharing tendency on sharing the experience they had had with a third party as in the police, family members, friends, etc. Accordingly, it was noted that among those who have experienced child trafficking only 20.3% shared it with a third party.

Finally, in relation with the reporting and/or sharing of information on incidents of child trafficking for sexual purposes, data indicate that about half of the survivors did share information about the violence and all indicated to have done so to a male or female friend. As to the response of the confidantes, it was noted that 57.1% were accepted by their friends

while 14.3% were mistrusted or were accepted with indifference (28.6%). No tangible assistance was reported by any of the child survivors.

# 4. Discussion

An attempt was made to show the picture of sexual abuse and exploitation faced by children living/or working on the streets in different parts of Ethiopia.

The finding of this study showed that, children who are living/or working on the streets across the regions of Ethiopia were significantly exposed to all forms of sexual abuse and exploitation (SAE) as 44.7 per cent of the respondents reported having experienced at least one of the eight forms of SAE under study. The findings of the study are similar with other studies conducted in Cambodia, Haiti, Kenya, Malawi, Swaziland, Tanzania, Romania, Uganda and Zimbabwe (Sumner; Mercy; Saul, et al., 2015). A contributing factor may have been rapid urbanization, which as described by Korbin (1991), fuelled by the migration of families from areas of conflict or rural distress, leads to isolation of children from protective kin and social networks, rendering them more vulnerable to sexual predators.

An examination of the typology of sexual abuses experienced by the children indicated that the most prevalent form of SAE was verbal sexual abuse (27.1%), followed by molestation (23.0%) and exposure to pornography (19.4%). These three forms of abuse can be considered relatively less prevalent than the three lest prevalent (child trafficking for sexual purposes (2.1%), forced commercial sex work (2.4%) and forced or induced marriage (3.5%)). However, findings from the qualitative data indicated that children that are victims of these types of abuses were less likely to be represented in the sample of the study due to the tendency of these crimes to occur off the streets and to seclude children in other types of abusive environments (e.g. private residences, private businesses, etc.). In addition, child trafficking may be perceived differently by street children as being recruited by brokers to be taken in neighboring countries such as the Sudan or countries of the Middle East was hardly perceived as child

trafficking leading to sexual slavery but rather as good fortune that rarely comes in the life of a street child. Hence, the prevalence of these types of SAE would be much higher than reported as part of the quantitative data analysis. Moreover, while considered a less serious type of SAE, the significant prevalence of verbal abuse in the lives of the respondents and its symbolic violence may lead to psychosocial and psychological vulnerabilities. Indeed, children victims of mental violence may experience a greater degree of trauma from ongoing abuse than from physical assaults (Davis and frieze, 2002; Hildyard and Wolfe, 2002; Guthrie, 2001; hildyard, K.l. & Wolfe, d.A.,2002). Combined with the physical and psychological damage caused by life on the streets, these vulnerabilities may in turn contribute to creating a fertile ground for exposure to more serious forms of SAE such as rape, child trafficking, forced commercial sex work and induced marriage.

Gender was found to have a significant influence on the exposure to SAE of street children. For all types of SAE, except for exposure to pornography, female children were found to be significantly more at risk than their male peers. It seems important to notice that, while exposure to pornography was found to affect younger boys more than younger girls, the trend shifted as age increased with older girls being more exposed to pornography than older boys. The more significant exposure to SAE of female street children has been confirmed by ACPF data looking at Kenya, Malawi, Uganda and Zimbabwe (African Child Policy Forum, 2014). Gender was observed to be the most significant vulnerability factor for exposure to SAE as part of this study.

Except for exhibitionism, it was found that there was a significant correlation between age and exposure to certain forms of SAE. In general, exposure to SAE was observed to increase with age (within the age range of 11-17) with a few exceptions. This finding is compounded by other researches (Pavan Kaliray and James Drife, 2004; Emebet Mulugeta, 2016). However, the probability for male children to be raped was observed to decrease with age whereas it increased with age for female children. In instances where exposure to a type of SAE increased for both genders, the

increment of exposure across the age continuum was more pronounced in female than male children.

In addition to gender, the study helped to identify several other factors of vulnerability to SAE in children such as the state of being out of school, which played a significant role in exposure to all types of SAE except for verbal abuse. This finding does not however identify school attendance as a direct protective factor from SAE. Schools may on the contrary be places where SAE perpetrated by peers or authorities occurs (UNICEF Ethiopia, 2018). A study points out to overwhelming evidence that sexual violence is persistent in secondary schools and other social contexts in Ethiopia (Altinyelken and Le Mat, 2017). On the other hand, school attendance may indicate the presence of "pre-requisites" in the life of a child, contributing to a more protective environment (e.g. housing, the presence of a caregiver, sufficient food, etc.).

Disabilities were also a crucial factor in influencing exposure to SAE with a significantly higher prevalence of rape, forced or consensual marriage, child trafficking for sexual purposes and forced commercial sex (4 out of 7 of the types of SAE under study) among children with disabilities. For the latter, while the total proportion of children with disabilities in the total population was only 5.4 per cent, their representation among victims of forced commercial sex was of 18.8 per cent, suggesting that a disabled child would be four times more at risk to be affected by forced commercial sex work compared to a child without disabilities. This finding correlates with a study by WHO which indicated that children with disabilities were 3.7 times more likely than non-disabled children to be victims of any sort of violence and 2.9 times more likely to be victims of sexual violence (WHO, 2012).

The fact of sleeping on the street and being a migrant child were significant factors of risk for three of the seven types of SAE under study (exposure to rape, forced commercial sex and child trafficking) as compounded by a global Survey on Violence against Children conducted by the Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence against Children which confirmed that the most vulnerable children are those at greatest risk of violence: those with disabilities, those who migrate, those

who are confined to institutions, and those whose poverty and social exclusion expose them to deprivation, neglect and, at times, to the inherent dangers of life on the streets (Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-general on Violence against Children, 2013).

The three leading perpetrators of sexual abuse and exploitation on the street as found in the study were male street children, strangers/pedestrians and street gang leaders. Male street children and strangers/pedestrians especially emerged as major perpetrators in all types of sexual abuses and exploitation. The participation of various figures of authority in the perpetration of SAE against street children is also to be noted with a significant representation of religious leaders, community leaders, the military, law enforcement officers, security guards, etc.

In line with other studies conducted in other countries such as Canada (2018) and South Africa, (2012), reporting of SAE was observed to be low. All the more alarming is the fact that, when they reported what had happened to a third party, children usually faced significant mistrust and indifference. This may indicate that, in the future, the children who faced such reaction may not renew their reporting. In addition, findings show that the amount of assistance in the form of formal legal and psychological counselling was significantly low (almost non-existent).

### 5. Conclusions

The study showed that the prevalence of sexual exploitation and abuse (SAE) against children living/or working on the streets in different parts of Ethiopia was significantly high. 44.6 per cent of the respondent children had experienced at least one of the eight forms of SAE studied in the survey.

An examination of the typology of SAE experienced by the children indicated that the most prevalent form of SAE was verbal sexual abuse (27.1%), followed by molestation (23.0%) and exposure to pornography (19.4%). The least prevalent types of SAE faced by the respondents, as found in this study, were child trafficking (2.10%), forced commercial sex work (2.40%) and forced or induced marriage (3.50%).

Regarding instances of multiple SAE, data show that on the average a child is exposed to a total of one (0.98) sexual abuse. In addition, the study highlighted a significant proportion of children living/or working on the streets facing multiple instances of SAE with 26.5 per cent of the children reporting two or more types of SAE.

For all types of SAE except for exposure to pornography, female children were found to be more exposed than their male counterparts.

Except for exhibitionism, it was found that there was a significant correlation between age and exposure to sexual abuse in all forms sexual abuses; indicating that exposure to sexual abuse increases as age increases (within the age range of 11-17)

The three leading perpetrators of SAE on the street as found in the study were male street children, strangers/pedestrians and street gang leaders. Particularly, male street children and strangers/pedestrians emerged as major perpetrators in all types of SAE.

Statistically significant variations were found in the prevalence and types of sexual abuse and exploitation across all study geographic areas.

Very few victims reported SAE to third party interlocutors. When they did so, they face significant mistrust and indifference from others. In addition, the findings show that the amount of assistance in the form of formal legal and psychological counselling was significantly low (almost non-existent).

### 6. Recommendations

Based on the key findings of the study, the researchers were able to identify recommendations following two main axes: addressing the root causes of life on the street through preventive initiatives and more effectively addressing the protection needs of street children according to their best interest.

It appears important to address the root causes of life on the street. As per the dataset collected, more than 54.4 % of the street children interviewed have lost at least one parent. Instability in the household combined with rampant poverty appears to be determining factors for life on the street. To address this, it is recommended to reinforce alternative care solutions for children in collaboration with the Ministry of Women, Children and Youth, including through the allocation of further resources. Moreover, to prevent conflicts that may arise between children and their parents, it may be relevant to carry out increase follow-up of family situations through social workers and to address the root causes of conflict trough family counseling and psychosocial support. In the case of children without legal guardians, it is recommended that the assessment of the best interest of the child be mainstreamed throughout the child and social protection system.

Government and partners' programming should aim at the sustainable rehabilitation of street children, especially survivors of SAE. Rehabilitation support should be provided in a holistic manner, addressing the physical health, mental health and socioeconomic needs of children as per their best interest. Due to the significant exposure of street children to verbal sexual abuse and SAE in general, the psychological impact of SAE should not be overlooked and be thoroughly addressed. It is advised that time allocated for rehabilitation be sufficient for children to reach an acceptable of physical, mental and social well-being to become involved in the development of their own future projects. To do so, additional government-led shelters should be established and staffed with a wide range of professionals enabling to tend to the various individual needs of street children victims of SAE. In order to smoothen return and reintegration as well as alternative care, shelters should be embedded in strong multi-stakeholder systems addressing all stages of the rehabilitation and reintegration process.

The low rates of reporting and significant levels of mistrust and indifference faced by children while reporting SAE should be of specific concern. Law enforcement and frontline service providers should be sensitized on the risks faced by street children, particularly SAE. There should be strong and responsive referral mechanisms in place so children can receive the assistance they require in such situations, and to avoid children's direct interaction with law enforcement, which often generates anxiety and mistrust in street children.

#### References

Abrha Kiros. 2016. Onset, Experiences, and Termination of Streetism: An Ethnographic Case Study on Street Children in the City of Mekelle, Ethiopia.

- ACPF. 2014. The African Report on Violence against Children. Addis Ababa: The African Child Policy forum (ACPf).
- Adam J. Zolotora. (2009). ISPCAN Child Abuse Screening Tool Children's version (ICAST-C): Instrument development and multi-national pilot testing
- Altinyelken and Le Mat. 2018. Sexual Violence, schooling and silence: teacher narratives from a secondary school in Ethiopia. *A journal of Comparative and International Education.* V48, No 4, pp. 648-664.
- Ayalew Gebre. 2006. Migration Patterns of Children Exposed to Sexual Exploitation in Selected Zones of Amhara Region and Sub-Cities of Addis Ababa. A Study undertaken for Children Aid Ethiopia (CHAD-ET).
- Ayana C. and Amsale C. 2018. Sexual and physical abuse and its determinants among street children in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia 2016. *BMC Pediatrics 18:* 304 https://doi.org/10.1186/s12887-018-1267-8.
- Belay H. 2006. Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of male children in Addis Ababa.

  Save the Children, Denmark and Bright for Children Voluntary
  Association, Addis Ababa.

  <a href="https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID">https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID</a>
  =15815&LangID=E
- Belay H. 2008. Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of Boy Children in Addis Ababa. A Report Compiled by a Bright for Children Voluntary Association, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Beyene Y. and Berhane Y. 1998. Health and social problems of street children. Ethiopian J Health Dev. V12:49-55.
- CYFWO. (1992). Addressing the Situation of Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances: Draft National Plan of Action (1993-2000).
- CSC. (2009). Street Children in Ethiopia: Briefing to the IPU. Retrieved August 22 from http://www.streetchildren.org.uk/\_uploads/downloads/Street\_Children\_in\_E thiopia.pdf
- Daw, D. (2008). International Society for the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect. In C. Renzetti & J. Edleson, *Encyclopedia of Interpersonal Violence*. SAGE Publications, Inc. <a href="https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412963923.n241">https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412963923.n241</a>
- Dawud A. Perception of the risks of sexual activities among out-of-school adolescents in South Gonder Administrative Zone, Amhara Region, June 2003 (MPH thesis).

- Demelash H. and Addisie A. 2013. Assessment of sexual and reproductive health status of street children in Addis Ababa. Journal of Sexually Transmitted Diseases: 52407600ds
- Davis and frieze. 2002; Guthrie 2001; Hildyard, K.I. & Wolfe, D. A. (2002). Child Neglect: Developmental Issues and Outcomes. Child Abuse & neglect (The international Journal), Volume 26, 679-695.
- Emebet M. 2016. Mapping Report for Young Lives Research Policy Program on Violence Affecting Children and Youth (VACAY). Addis Ababa University and
  - Nia Centre for Children and Family Development (NiaCCFD), Addis Ababa. Retrieved https:// www. younglives-ethiopia.org/sites/ from www.younglives-ethiopia.org/files/2017-07/Report.VACAY.
  - Final\_.Oct11%20copy.pdf
- Ermias T. 2007. Response to Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children: The Case of
  - Children Aid Ethiopia and Forum on Street Children Ethiopia in Addis Ketema Sub-City. M.A. Thesis, Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa.
- Ejigayehu Y. 2007. Assessment of Reproductive Health Behavior and Needs of Street Youth in Dessie Town, Amhara Region
- Felix Holman and Tabor (Ud.). Street Children & Young People in Adama, Ethiopia: Needs Assessment Report
- Fantahun, M. and Chala F. 1996. Sexual Behavior, and Knowledge and Attitude towards HIV/AIDS among Out of School Youth in Bahir Dar Town, North West Ethiopia. Ethiopian Medical Journal 34: 233 – 42.
- Fitsum T. 1999. The Situation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child in Ethiopia and How It Affects Street Children. Unpublished Senior Essay in Sociology. AAU.
- Foy, D.W. & Goguen, C.A. 1998. Community violence-related PTSD in children and adolescents. PTSD Research Quarterly, V 9 No. 4, pp 1-6.
- FSCE. 2003. Sample Survey on "The Situation of Street Children in Eight Major Towns of Ethiopia", Final Report for Hawassa Town.
- FSCE. 2003. Study on Child Sexual Abuse and Exploitation in Shashemene and Dilla Towns. Unpublished report.
- FSCE. 2008. The Situation of Sexual Abuse and Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Girl Children in Addis Ababa. Unpublished report.

- Girmachew A. 2009. Church as a refuge for marginalized children in urban Ethiopia.
- Getnet T. 2009. Unrecognized victims': Sexual abuse against male street children in Merkato area, Addis Ababa. *Ethiop. J. Health Dev. V 23 No. 3 pp174-182*
- Gebre Y., Ayalew G., Rahel S., & Hiwot W. 2009. Resilience in Children Exposed to Sexual Abuse and Sexual Exploitation in Merkato, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Getnet T. and Desta A. 2008. The Situation of Sexual Abuse and Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Girl Children in Addis Ababa. A Commissioned Study Report for Forum on Street Children Ethiopia (FSCE).
- Gobena Daniel. 1994. Comparative Study of Development on Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances and Normal Children. Unpublished MA thesis in Developmental Psychology, AAU.
- Habtamu D. 2011. Organizational Responses and Sexual Reproductive Health Needs of Street Children in Addis Ababa.
- Habtamu D. 2013. Psycho-Social Problems of Street Children; the case of Menagesha St. Georgies Church Area Street Children, Addis Ababa.
- Hildyard, K. L and Wolfe, D. A. 2002. Child Neglect: Developmental Issues and Outcomes. *The International Journal of Child Abuse* and *Neglect. V2*, *No* (6-7), 679-695.
- Inter-NGO Programme on Street Children and Street Youth. 1983. *Sub-regional* seminar for the Mediterranean. Marseilles, 24<sup>th</sup>27<sup>th.</sup> Summary of proceedings. Inter-NGO Programme on Street Children and Street.
- Inter-NGO, 1985a. Project Profiles Series No 2.
- Inter-NGO, 1985b. Forum on street children and street youth. (Grand-Bassam) Geneva: International Catholic Child Bureau.
- Kebede A. 2003. Sexual behavior of urban and rural out of school youths towards STD/ HIV/AIDS and factors associated with these behaviors in Dera Woreda comparative cross sectional study.
- Kibrom B. 2008. Life in the Streets of Adama: The Situation of Street Children in a Fast Growing Ethiopian Town. Addis Ababa University.
- Kinfe, A. 2013. The Existing Situation of Street Children in Mekelle City, Ethiopia: Causes, Consequences and Possible Solutions.
- Leoulseged K. 2013. The Prevalence of Psycho-Social Problems and Coping Strategies of Street Children-The Case of Some Selected NGO's working on Street Children at Addis Ababa.

- Mekonnen M. 2011. Street Children in Addis Ababa: Exploring Policy Framework for Interventions
- Mekonnen T. 2005. Factors predisposing street children to HIV/AIDS in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Meseret T. 1998. Homeless Children in Ethiopia. FSCE- Addis Ababa.
- Molla, Mitike; Shabbir Ismail; Abera Kumie; and Kebede Fikreab. 2002. Sexual Violence among Female Street Children in Addis Ababa. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development V16, No. 2: pp. 119–128.*
- MoLSA. 1974. Survey of Street Children, Unpublished Report in Amharic.
- MoLSA. 1995. The National Study on Street Children: Nature and Magnitude of the Problem and Methods of Interventions. Addis Ababa: Ethiopia.
- MoLSA and Radda Barnen Sweden. 1998. Survey on Street Children in Selected areas in Addis Ababa. Addis Ababa: Ethiopia.
- MoLSA and UNICEF. 1995. Study on Street Children in Four Selected Towns of Ethiopia. Addis Ababa: Ethiopia.
- Kidist N. 2007. Survival Strategies of Street Children and High Risk Behaviors towards HIV/AIDS in Adama Town. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University.
- Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-general on Violence against Children. 2013. Towards a World Free from Violence Global Survey on Violence against Children.
- Pavan Kaliray and James Drife. 2004. Childhood sexual abuse and subsequent gynecological Conditions. *The Obstetrician and Gynecologist.* V6:209–214.
- Samuel W. 2004. Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of Children in Dessie City Administration.
- Seifu A. 2001. Reproductive health needs of urban and rural out of school adolescent in East Gojam.
- Shimelis K. 2015. The Situation of Street Children in Urban Centers of Ethiopia and the Role of NGO in Addressing their Socio-Economic Problems: The Case of Hawassa City. *International Journal of Academic Research in Education and Review. V3 No 3, pp. 45-57.*
- Solomon S. and Tesfaye K. 1999. Health problems of street children and women in Hawassa, Southern Ethiopia.
- Sorsa, Solomon; Tesfaye Kidanemariam; and Lopiso Erosie. 2002. Health Problems of Street Children and Women in Hawassa, Southern Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Health Development. V 16, No. 2 pp.129 37.*

- Sumner, Mercy; Saul, et al., 2015. Prevalence of Sexual Violence against Children and Use of Social Services Seven Countries, 2007–2013. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly; V 64: pp 565-569*.
- Tacon, Peter. 1991. Protection, respect, and opportunity for the street children of Ethiopia. Unpublished Consultant's Report to Representative of Unicef in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Tadelle G. 2000. Sexuality and HIV/AIDS Risk and Perception among Male Street Youths in Dessie. North East African Studies (new series), V7 No 1 pp. 109-126
- Taffa N. 1998. Sexual activity of out-of school youth, and their knowledge and attitude about STDs and HIV/AIDS in southern Ethiopia. *Ethiopian J Health Dev*; V12: pp.17-22.
- Taherdoost, H. (2017). Determining Sample Size; How to Calculate Survey Sample Size. *International Journal of Economics and Management Systems* V2: pp 237-239
- Tedla D. 1996. "Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances".
- Tefera A. 2007. Sexual Abuse against Male children in Addis Ababa. B.A. thesis, Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology, Addis Ababa, University.
- Tesgaye T. 2003. Streetism and the Risk of HIV Infection: The Case of Dire Dawa City. M.A. Thesis, Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa.
- UNICEF- Ethiopia. 2018. Fact Sheet, Girls' Education.
- United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). 2012. The State of the World's Children: Children in an Urban World. Sales No. E.12. XX.1. Available from
  - http://www.unicef.org/sowc2012/pdfs/SOWC%202012ain%2Report\_EN\_13 Mar2012.pdf.
- WHO Press Release. 2012. 'Children with disabilities more likely to experience violence' as cited the global Survey p. 13.
- Yimam E. 2007. Assessment of reproductive health behavior and needs of street youth in Dessie town, Amhara region.
- Gebre Y. 2007. Children at Risk: Insights from Researchers and Practitioners in Ethiopia; Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Ethiopian Society of Sociologists, Social workers and Anthropologist. Addis Ababa: USAID/Ethiopia.

- Sendek Y. and Asfaw G. 2014. Triggering Factors, Risky Behaviors and Resilience of Street Children in Gonder City, North West Ethiopia. *Journal of Social Sciences*, V2 No 4, pp. 42-50.
- Zenebe M. 1996. Street Children: Nature and Magnitude of the Problem and Methods of Intervention in Habtamu W. (Ed). *Research Papers on the Situation of Children and Adolescents in Ethiopia*. Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa Printing Press.

# **EDITORIAL POLICY**

- 1. The *Ethiopian Journal of Development Research (EJDR)* is a bi-annual journal dedicated to serve as an avenue for sharing useful findings in the multi-disciplinary study of development problems and issues focusing on Ethiopia in particular and the developing countries in general.
- 2. EJDR publishes original peer-reviewed articles that traverse through wide areas and themes of development. It also publishes short communiqué, synopses of major researches, dissertation abstracts, book reviews, and evidence-based commentaries, which may have both theoretical and empirical contents drawn using scientific methodological approaches. As such, it provides scholars, scientists and researchers in development research with an avenue for sharing and reflecting on research results.
- 3. EJDR publishes research articles that contribute to scholarly dialogue on the economic, social, political, and related problems of development in Ethiopia, and elsewhere. In addition to their scholarly quality, therefore, the major criterion used for selecting the articles to be published in EJDR is their contribution to the growth of knowledge about development in Ethiopia and other similar set ups.
- 4. Priority will be given to articles that deal with development practices, policies, strategies and institutions, especially those focusing on rural development. However, articles concerned with other development issues of the country and Africa are also welcome for publication so long as they have scholarly merit.
- 5. All articles submitted to EJDR will be referred by at least two scholars of proven competence in the particular field/s. Where the two may give divergent recommendations, a third opinion is sought. In short, the journal comes through rigorous peer-review and editorial processes and procedures.
- 6. However, the Editorial Board reserves the right of final acceptance, rejection and demanding editorial correction of papers submitted and the final decision regarding their publication.
- 7. All manuscripts should be set in the required style and format and should be submitted to the Managing Editor.
- 8. The responsibility for the views expressed in the articles that appear in EJDR is solely that of their authors, not of the editors or of the College of Development Studies, Addis Ababa University.

- 9. Multiple authorship articles receive priority over works by a single author.
- 10. EJDR does not accept articles and other contributions that have previously been published (be it in paper-based formats or Internet-based media, such as open-access journals) or are currently under review by other journals.
- 11. Articles submitted for publication in the EJDR must conform to the technical requirements set out in the "Guide to Authors" and the "Style and Format". It is not the editors' responsibility to correct style, incomplete references or factual fallacies.
- 12. Authors shall thus sign anti-plagiarism declaration both at initial submission of articles and when they submit the final revised version of same.
- 13. In addition to the regular issues, CoDS may publish special issues of the EJDR that will be devoted to specific themes or programmes selected by the editors.
- 14. All articles submitted to the EJDR will be acknowledged, and status communicated to authors, but those not accepted for publication will not be returned to the authors.
- 15. Authors of published articles will receive two copies of the particular issue and five off-prints of their articles.
- 16. The copyright on all the contributions published in EJDR is retained by the College of Development Studies, Addis Ababa University.
- 17. CDS shall consider requests of authors to reprint their contributions elsewhere provided that the request is made in writing and the conditions stated in the copyright agreement are fulfilled.
- 18. Plagiarism, including self-plagiarism and reproducing once-own work, is a serious academic dishonesty; and therefore, CoDS is opposed to it. Committing such an offence shall entail litigations leading to a series of severe consequences, including loss of all rights resulting from the plagiarized work, compensations for the harm caused to the original sources, compensations for the image damage caused to EJDR and the costs incurred in producing and disseminating that particular issue of the Journal.
- 19. For non-commercial purposes, such as research and teaching, articles can be reproduced and used with due acknowledgement.
- 20. Authors are required to strictly adhere to the Editorial Policy of the Journal.

## Ethiopian Journal of Development Research (EJDR)

# Language and Style Guides

#### I. General

Contributors are encouraged to submit good scientific papers, which should:

- present an accurate account of the research investigation;
- be clearly written and easily understood;
- follow the particular style of the scientific discipline;
- be free of jargon and local slang;
- have appropriate, relevant and adequate illustrative material;
- not contain any plagiarized material (plagiarism is a serious offence and is a serious charge against an author).

### Length: the manuscript should

- be double spaced on A4 paper size with 2.5cm margins on all sides (left, right, top and bottom).
- be 20–30 pages (for articles); 7-10 pages (for critical reviews and feature articles/commentaries); up to 3 pages (for book reviews and short communications).
- contain proportional and adequate presentation of the major sections of an article
- contain well-balanced graphics (tables, graphs, illustrations) and textual elements.

Before submitting the manuscripts for publication in EJDR, authors are required to follow the following styles and formats, which are widely used in academic journals in development studies and the social sciences.

**Structure:** articles should follow the TAIMRAD(C/R) format, where the acronym stands for: 1) Title page; 2) Abstract; 3) Introduction; 4) Materials and Methods; 5) Results and Discussion (either harmonised together or presented as subsequent sections); and 6) Conclusions/Recommendations, followed by the References section.

### **II. Specific Details**

### 1. Title Page

- 1.1. The Title Page shall contain the following shall details:
  - a. full title of the article, which should:
    - > contain not more than 250 words:
    - > avoid abbreviations, formulas and jargon;
    - specify the study period (for articles based on longitudinal and historical data);
  - b. name(s) of the author(s);
  - c. the titles(s), academic position(s), address (institutions of their affiliation, postal address, telephone, e-mail etc., for correspondence) of the author(s) footnoted at the bottom of the page with the use of asterisks;
  - d. other relevant information such as name and address of a corresponding author, if the paper was presented at a meeting or is part of a series study, should be noted at the end of the manuscript.
- 1.2. Information on authorship and degree of authors' contribution. It is the responsibility of the authors to list their names according to the degree of contribution made by each of them, in a decreasing order of contribution. Normally, the following rules apply:
  - Equal contribution is presumed when the names are written in alphabetical order; or
  - The degree of contribution shall be determined by the order in which the names appear, unless indications are given by the authors to the contrary.
- 1.3. All correspondences will be made with the author whose name appears first (unless otherwise specified).

#### 2. Abstract

The manuscript should have an abstract:

- not exceeding 250 words;
- that briefly introduces the problem, research gaps and the study area;
  - that outlines the methodology, mainly the study design, approaches, sampling strategies, materials used and methods of data collection and analysis;
  - containing the key findings of the study, their implications and conclusions or key recommendations.

#### 3. Introduction

In this section, the author(s) should:

- give background to the study problem and the rationales;
- present statements of the problem, setting the contexts, the nature and extent of the problem studied;
- indicate the study area and objectives of the research;
- introduce the research questions or hypotheses;
- present adequate review of the literature (both conceptual —including theoretical and conceptual frameworks— and empirical) related to the research;
- do all these in no more than five pages.

#### 4. Materials and Methods

In here, authors are required to present clear account of:

- 4.1. the philosophical underpinnings, study design, approaches, sampling strategies, and methods of data collection and analysis. In so doing,
  - standard methods need only be mentioned, or may be described by reference to the literature as long as it is readily available.
  - modifications of standard techniques should be described.
  - if the method is new, it should be described in detail.
- 4.2. design of the experiment, including the number of replications (if the article results from experimental or quasi-experimental research);
- 4.3. materials used, including:
  - chemicals, laboratory equipment with the necessary technical specifications; standard units of measurement;
  - any plants or animals involved, with exact descriptions of genus, species, strain, cultivar, line, etc.);
- 4.4. justifications as to why the materials and methods used were chosen over others.

#### 5. Results and Discussion

Depending on the craft and choice of authors, as well as on what the subject matter warrants, results and discussion can be either intertwined together or presented under separate sections. In any case,

- > present only results that add new insights to existing knowledge;
- > only results based on data and information scientifically-drawn from sources, but free from authors' personal dispositions and biases.

- results should be simply and clearly stated;
- reduce large masses of data to means, along with the standard error or standard deviation:
- include only tables, figures and graphs that are necessary, clear and worthy reproducing;
- repeat in the text only the most important findings shown in tables and graphs;
- refer in the text each table and figure by its number;
- ➤ include negative data—what was not found— if they affect the interpretation of results;
- ➤ give only data that relate to the subject of the paper (in other terms, include concomitant/related findings only if they are important);
- ➤ provide adequate answers to all the research questions or pursue all the hypotheses/assumptions made at start of the study.

### 6. Interpretation of the Results

This section, which should preferably be embedded with the 'Discussion' section, should:

- > not repeat what has already been said in the review of literature;
- > show significance of the results;
- relate the results to the initially-stated objectives and research questions or hypotheses that were set out in the introduction;
  - ➤ show how the results and their interpretations relate to (agree or disagree with) previous findings and their interpretations.

### 7. Conclusion and Implications/or Recommendation

This is the section where,

- ➤ the author(s) draw, based on the findings and discussions of their implications, logical conclusions about each research question or hypothesis;
- nothing (methods, observations or results) should come as a surprise (should not be mentioned for the first time);
- authors should avoid unnecessary detail or repetition from preceding sections;
- show implications for theory, policy, practice, and/or further research to follow up the results.

### 8. Citation and Referencing

- 8.1. All materials, referred to or quoted must be acknowledged properly. Plagiarism is a serious academic dishonesty, which is unethical and illegal.
- 8.2. EJDR uses the *author-date* system of citations in all of its publications. Thus, authors have to ensure that author-date citations in the text agree exactly with corresponding entries in the reference list and that all publication details are accurate.
- 8.3. Citation and referencing should be complete according to this Style Guide, which is adapted with modifications from the Chicago Manual of Style 16<sup>th</sup> Edition.

The author-date citation in a running text or at the end of a block quotation consists of the author's/editor's last name, and the year of publication. Examples:

- Author, year, page no.: (Johnson 1987: 22–25).
- Two sources, with one author having two works: (Sen 1999; Jenden 1978a&b).
- More than three authors/editors: (Kassoguè et al. 1996).
- Organisation, year, volume, page no.: (World Bank 1988, 2:47).
- 8.4. Direct quotations should be as short as possible and all details should be reproduced exactly (spelling, punctuation and paragraphing).
  - Short quotes should be placed in quotation marks.
  - Long quotations should appear indented and centered in the text without quotation marks.
- 8.5. References in the text should read as follows:
  - \* Brown (1975: 63) has argued that the ...

OR

\* One economist (Brown 1975: 63) has argued that...

Use "et al." when citing work by more than two authors. Example: A new treaty (Goody et al. 1976) suggests...

The letters a, b, c, and so on should be used to distinguish citations of different works by the same author in the same year. Example: Brown (1985a, 1985c) insist that...

- 8.6. Essential additional notes should be indicated by consecutive superscript numbers in the text and collected on a separate page at the end of the text, titled *End Notes* and placed before the 'References'.
  - Numbered notes should be used to denote clarifications about the references used, to include points left out in the text, to add some items which readers may want to know. If the citations or references in the text are too long, or consist of more than three names, it may be advisable to put them in the <u>Notes</u> at the end.
- 8.7. All references cited in the text and other supporting material should be listed alphabetically by author in a section titled <u>References</u>. Ethiopian authors should be listed alphabetically by first name first. Shiferaw Bekele, for example, should be listed under S and not under B. The same holds for Chinese names. Write out Ethiopian names in full in the Reference list (i.e., first and second names) as they are given in the publications cited. Do not abbreviate, for instance, as Shiferaw B. In the text, references may use first names only, or full names. Avoid, as much as possible, using honorific titles, such as Ato, Wzro, Dr., etc., in citations or references.

The following are examples of presenting bibliographical details of different entries

#### Articles in Journals

- Alemayegu Lirenso. 1988. Food Aid and Agricultural Production in Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Development Research*, 10 (1): 59–90. (The last parts of the Journal can also be given as *Ethiopian Journal of Development Research*, Vol. 10, No 1, pp. 59–90.)
- Cowley, R. 1967. The Standardization of Amharic Spelling. *Journal of Ethiopian Studies*, V. 2: 1–8.
- **Note:** The volume and issue numbers should be entered as they are given in the journals cited, i.e., if the numbers are in Roman or Arabic numerals, they should not be changed.

#### ☞ Books

- Bahru Zewude. 1991. *A History of Modern Ethiopia*, 1955–1974. London: James Curry.
- Clapham, C. 1988. *Transformation and Continuity in Revolutionary Ethiopia*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Donham, D. and Wendy James (Eds.). 1096. *The Southern Marches of Imperial Ethiopia*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Listing of several works by the same author should be by year of publication, the earlier work preceding the recent. example:

Levine, Donald. 1965. Wax and Gold: Tradition and Innovation in Ethiopian Culture. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

\_\_\_\_\_\_. 1974. *Greater Ethiopia: The Evolution of Multiethnic Society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

### Book chapters and other contributions in books

Wood, A.P. 1982. Spontaneous Agricultural Resettlement in Ethiopia, 1950–1974. *In*: J. Clarks and L. Konsinski (Eds.), *Redistribution of Population in Africa*, pp. 1150–82. London: Heinemann.

## ← Contributions in proceedings

Taddesse Tamirat. 1984. Feudalism in Heaven and on Earth: Ideology and Political Structure in Mediaeval Ethiopia. *In: Proceedings of the Seventh International Conference of Ethiopian Studies, University of Lund 26-29 April 1982*, pp. 195–200, Edited by S. Rubenson. Addis Ababa: Institute of Ethiopian Studies.

#### Conference papers

Hyden, H. 1990. 'Ideology and the Social Sciences: The African Experience'.

Paper presented at the OSSREA Social Science Conference, 8–10 May,
Kampala, Uganda.

#### **☞** Unpublished works

Messing, S. 1957. 'The Highland-Plateau Amhara of Ethiopia'. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pennsylvania.

Alula Abate, *et al.* [these should be listed]. 1986. Evaluation of the Impact of UNICEF-Assisted Water Supply Projects in Bale, Harerge, Shewa and Wello- Ethiopia. Programme Cycle 1980–1983. *Research Report No. 30*, Institute of Development Research, Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa.

#### Official publications

Central Statistical Office. 1975. Results of the National Sample Survey Second Round, Vol. V. Land Area and Utilization. Addis Ababa: CSA.

World Bank. 1973. 'Agricultural Sector Survey, Vol. I, The General Report. Report no. PA-143a.' Washington: World Bank.

\_\_\_\_\_\_. 1989. Sub-Saharan Africa: From Crisis to Sustainable Growth. Washington: World Bank.

#### ← Online sources

Further to the details in the above categories, include the date of access and the URL of the site whereat the material was accessed.

#### 9. Format

A4 paper size with 2.5cm margins shall be the standard page size.

#### **9.1. Title**

Titles should be set in title case, NOT in all caps and should not contain acronyms and abbreviations.

#### 9.2. Endnotes

Authors are advised to use endnotes instead of footnotes.

Endnotes should be numbered consecutively throughout each chapter or article, and placed at the end of a work, in a section titled "Notes", after any appendix and before the reference list.

### 9.3. Acknowledgements

These should be placed at the end of the text next to the appendix but before the endnotes.

### 9.4. Headings

Major chapter headings must be in Title Case and centered on the page. Subheadings must also be in Title Case but aligned with the left margins. A manuscript with subsections should be presented as follows:

1.	2.	3.
1.1	2.1	3.1
1.2	2.2	3.2

However, authors are advised to avoid using more than three levels of subheadings unless the complexity of the argument warrants it. Preceded by the decimal notations indicated above.

- 1st level titles should be set in Times New Roman 14pts, bold;
- 2<sup>nd</sup> level titles should be set in Times New Roman 12pts, bold;

• 3<sup>rd</sup> level titles should be set in Times New Roman 12pts, bold-italics, runon with text.

#### 9.5. Text

Text should be set in Times New Roman, 12pt font size, double-spaced.

Block quotes should be indented from both sides and set in 11pt font.

### 9.6. Tables and Figures

- Tables should be used only where the data requires at least 2 rows/columns by 3 rows/columns. Shorter details shall be presented in text form.
- All tables and figures should be consecutively numbered and referred at the right place in the text.
- Titles of tables and figures should short and not in form.
- Each column and row of a table should have a proper title.
- All footnotes to, and sources of tables and figures, should be placed below them.
- Captions to figures should be placed immediately below the figures, followed by source information and Notes (if any) on some variables in the tables/figures.
- Keys to the different components of figures or graphs shall be placed at upper right corner within the boundary of the figure.
- Tables and figures should be used to present details and thus they should not be duplicated in text form. Unnecessary and lengthy tables and figures should be avoided, or, if important, should be annexed.

#### 9.7. Abbreviations

Avoid use of dots in all familiar abbreviations, such as CSA, EEC, FAO, UNESCO, USA. However, dots should be placed at the end of the followings: e.g., etc., *et al.*, and other similar entries.

### 9.8. Language

- English is the medium of the Journal. Use one form of spelling, preferably the UK English (English English), throughout the article. Do not mix or switch between the two forms.
- All authors must avoid gender-biased and racist language.
- Use of discriminatory, inflammatory, and unethical expressions (derogatory, inciting, defamatory, etc. language) is unacceptable.

## 10. Copyright

The copyright on articles that would be published in EJDR would be relinquished to and retained by CoDS, AAU.