2010

Ethiopia young adult survey: A study in seven regions

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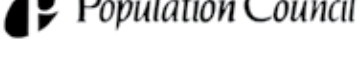

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The United Nations Population Fund, is an international development agency that promotes the right of every woman, man and child to enjoy a life of health and equal opportunity. UNFPA supports countries in using population data for policies and programmes to reduce poverty and to ensure that every pregnancy is wanted, every birth is safe, every young person is free of HIV/AIDS, and every girl and woman is treated with dignity and respect.

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Acknowledgments

A great many organizations and individuals contributed to the "Ethiopia Young Adult Survey: A Study in Seven Regions." The authors gratefully acknowledge the Ethiopia Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MOFED) at Federal, Regional, and District/Woreda levels for their support and facilitation. We thank kebele officials in the study sites for assistance provided to field staff, as well as Bureaus of Youth and Sport and youth center heads for support and facilitation. We are grateful to Presidents, Deans, and Proctors of six universities where interviewing took place.

In addition, we would like to extend a special thanks to the Central Statistical Agency head office, for their support and guidance, including provision of enumeration area maps. In particular, we acknowledge the contribution made by Ato Biratu Yigezu for his technical support, assistance with sample size, and research design, among numerous other technical insights. Ato Lemi Negeri was the national coordinator for the survey and we acknowledge his commitment and dedication to this study. Dr. Tekle Ab Mekbib assisted with coordination and facilitation throughout the course of this study and we thank him for his ongoing contribution to this work. Mitike Molla and Yamrot Girma coordinated the study in Addis Ababa and SNNPR. Awraris Alemayehu coordinated in-depth interviews and Kelemua Hailemariam managed the qualitative data and oversaw report production. Lucy N'gang'a of the Population Council Kenya office designed the data entry screen, and we thank all the interviewers, supervisors, coordinators, field guides, and data entry clerks for their hard work and dedication. Dr. Wendy Baldwin and Dr. Muna Abdullah made valuable comments on earlier versions of this report. Christina Tse and Bob Heidel edited the report.

UNFPA and DFID provided funding for this study. UNFPA's support came from grants from the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs which supports the "*UNFPA-UNICEF Joint Program on Rights Based Approaches to Adolescent and Youth Development in Ethiopia*," and the Spanish MGD Fund which supports the UNFPA-WFP program "*Leave No Woman Behind*." Finally, we would like to thank all the respondents from seven regions who took part in the study for sharing their experiences, thoughts, and ideas.

List Of Acronyms

ARH	Adolescent reproductive health
CSW	Commercial sex worker
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
EA	Enumeration area
EDHS	Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey
FGM/C	Female genital mutilation/cutting
FLE	Family life education
GBV	Gender-based violence
GDI	Gender development index
HTP	Harmful traditional practices
NGO	Nongovernmental organizations
PLWHA	People living with HIV/AIDS
RH	Reproductive health
SNNPR	Southern Nations, Nationalities, and People's Region
SRH	Sexual and reproductive health
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VAW	Violence against women
VCT	Voluntary counseling and testing

Executive Summary

Ethiopia Young Adult Survey in Seven Regions is a population-based survey that took place in 2009 in urban and rural areas of seven regions: Addis Ababa; Afar; Amhara; Beneshangul Gumuz; Oromiya; Southern Nations Nationalities, and People's Region (SNNPR); and Tigray. Nearly 10,000 young people aged 12–24 were interviewed. The survey provides a baseline for four new initiatives in Ethiopia, including programs devoted to adolescent and youth health and development, gender-based violence, women's/girls' empowerment, and female genital cutting/mutilation.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The sample was designed to be representative of the intervention and comparison districts/woredas identified for the four new initiatives on adolescent health and development, gender-based violence, women's empowerment, and female genital cutting/mutilation. A sample of 10,080 adolescent boys and girls aged 12–24 was drawn, with equal numbers of male and female adolescents selected. In each region, between three to six districts/woredas were selected. In all, 31 districts/woredas were selected for the study. Within selected districts/woredas, 252 enumeration areas (EAs) were selected, or 36 EAs per region. In all, 262 interviewers took part in the survey.

All EAs selected for the study first underwent a census of all households, or "household listing," in order to establish a sampling frame for the locations. Selection of respondents was random with 20 adolescent boys and 20 adolescent girls selected per EA. Only one respondent was selected in each household. Male interviewers interviewed male respondents selected for the survey; females interviewed females. Informed consent was obtained from respondents and their parents or guardians if they were below age 18. Data were entered at Population Council offices by 13 data entry clerks. Data were weighted in order to adjust for unequal probabilities of selection. The survey achieved a 97 percent response rate.

RESULTS

The survey revealed considerable differences in the situations of young men and young women, as well as differences in the experience of urban and rural youth.

Parental presence: A large proportion of young people had lost one or both parents (20 percent). Among all adolescents, significant proportions were not living with either parent, even when they had living parents. This is especially true for girls. Among girls aged 12-17, 25 percent are living with neither parent. This could be related to greater levels of early marriage and migration among girls.

Social participation: Boys' social networks and participation were greater than girls. Whereas 9 percent of boys reported having no friends, 21 percent of girls reported no friends. Eight percent of boys had visited a youth center in the last year, compared to 4 percent of girls. Limited social connections could be due to greater regulation of girls by their parents, husbands, or other senior members of the household. Nearly 90 percent of girls needed permission before leaving the house, compared to 77 percent of boys. Greater domestic work burdens may also result in girls' diminishing opportunities for social participation and access to programs.

Parent–child relationships & puberty: Less than one third of adolescents reported having discussions with their parents about HIV and AIDS, sex, and marriage. In addition, only a small minority of mothers or fathers talked to their children about menstruation or wet dreams, with many young people not having foreknowledge of either menstruation or wet dreams. The vast majority of both young people and parents wished that they could communicate more freely with each other. When asked about corporal punishment, boys seemed to be the target of parental beatings to a greater extent than girls.

Education: Young people's educational participation seems to be increasing, as reflected in increased rates of attendance across successive cohorts of young people. Young people, especially those in rural areas, start school extremely late. This is particularly true for rural boys whose mean age at school entry was over 10 years. Reasons for boys leaving school were mainly lack of financial support and farming and herding duties; reasons given by girls were marriage, followed by domestic duties. Less than one third of young people reported receiving family life education (FLE) in school. One in six girls reported that they had missed school in the previous year due to menstruation.

Livelihoods: Few young people have received skills training and, among those who have, most have not put the skills to use. Reasons for not putting the skills to use were largely inability to find a job or lack of startup capital. Roughly one third of young people have ever worked for pay. The type of paid work is highly gendered and boys engage in a wider array of work roles than do girls. Girls are mainly engaged in domestic work and petty trade; boys mainly work as farmers, or in a wide variety of other jobs, especially in urban areas. Working young people work extremely long hours, especially urban young people. Boys earn roughly 50 percent more than girls, in part because the jobs that girls are engaged in are low-paying, such as domestic work.

Alcohol and chat/khat: A minority of young people were regular drinkers; 8 percent of boys and 2 percent of girls report drinking alcohol two or more times in a week. On average, among those consuming alcohol, they drank 5 or 6 days in the previous month. Compared with alcohol, chat consumption was more regular among users. Twelve percent of boys and 3 percent of girls had tried chat, with 86 percent of male ever-users and 71 percent of female ever-users having chewed in the last month. Overall, 3 percent of male youth consider themselves addicted to chat. Among male users, 16 percent chew 6 to 7 days a week.

Female genital mutilation/cutting: Fifty-eight percent of girls in the sample were circumcised. As a practice, circumcision seems to be declining given the declining levels of circumcision across successive cohorts of girls. Circumcision is very high in Afar region (90 percent), where the most extreme form of circumcision is practiced. Fifty-nine percent of all circumcised girls oppose their own circumcision and 43 percent of Afar girls oppose it. Reasons for opposition are mainly founded in the medical complications and illegality of the practice; reasons for supporting FGM/C are overwhelmingly related to custom and tradition. In Afar, 58 percent of boys and 41 percent of girls report that they intend to circumcision their daughters.

Sexual activity: Sixteen percent of boys and 36 percent of girls are sexually experienced. Most sexual activity takes place in the context of marriage, especially among girls; 89 percent of girls first had sex with their husband. Girls' partners are significantly older than they are, with a mean age difference of 7 years, and 15 percent being over 10 years younger than their spouses/partners. Peer pressure was not a significant motivator for sex. Among boys, curiosity and showing love were the main reasons to have sex. For girls, spousal obligation was the main reason, as well as demonstration of love and coercion. One third of girls reported a coercive or nonconsensual condition during their first sexual experience.

Marriage: One third of girls had ever been married compared to 9 percent of boys. Five percent of girls were already divorced or widowed. The majority of marriages were arranged (70 percent of girls) with arranged marriages most common in Amhara and Tigray regions. One third of married girls did not want to get married at the time they did; 10 percent were made to leave school because of the marriage; 22 percent did not want their marital sexual initiation at the time it happened.

Family planning: Forty-six percent of sexually active married and unmarried females had ever used a family planning method; 35 percent were currently using a method (41 percent urban females; 26 percent rural females). The most common methods were injectables (33 percent ever used), followed by pills (13 percent ever used). Eight percent of women reported that their spouse does not know about their family planning use. Thirty-one percent of females had ever had a child, with less than half receiving at least one antenatal care visit and 80 percent delivering at home.

HIV and AIDS: Over 90 percent of respondents had heard of HIV and AIDS and over 90 percent named sexual intercourse as a mode of transmission. While knowledge was generally high, there are still misconceptions that HIV is mainly transmitted through sharp objects. Twenty-eight percent of males and 36 percent of females have received counseling and testing for HIV. Reasons for not testing among sexually experienced youth were mainly reporting one monogamous partner and not feeling at risk. Among married couples, over one quarter had tested, three quarters of whom tested as couples. Seven percent of married young women fear their husbands will give them HIV and 14 percent suspect their spouses of being unfaithful.

Sexual and gender-based violence: There is widespread acceptance of gender-based violence, especially among rural females. Fifteen percent of sexually experienced young women had ever experienced forced sex/rape and a considerable number blamed themselves for the occurrence and did not tell anyone about it. Ten percent of married young women have experienced physical domestic violence at the hands of their husbands.

Access to and utilization of services: Considering the qualities of health services that young people valued, the most important characteristic was the friendliness of the provider, followed by low-cost or free services and services close to their homes. Given the investment in youth centers in Ethiopia, a special study was conducted within 24 centers. Eleven percent of boys and 6 percent of girls had ever been to a youth center. Youth centers were dominated by boys, most of whom lived in the vicinities of the centers and visited multiple times in a week.

Recommendations: The study findings reveal many results with direct implications for programs:

- Given the large number of young people living away from parents, additional attention should be paid to this sub-group of youth, and to increasing the social networks and safety nets for the most vulnerable young people.
- Few young people received information on sexual and reproductive health or puberty. Boys, in particular, received health information mainly through friends. Additional attention should be given to providing reproductive health information, including information on puberty. This includes providing information through schools, and for young people who are outside of the school environment.
- Young men described considerable violence from parents and teachers. Programs for young men should address this early experience of violence and how this may translate into violence against women later in life. Young men should be given skills to express themselves beyond the use of force and violence.
- Work roles among young people were highly gendered with males engaged in a broader array of work compared to females. In addition, the work that males undertook was generally better paid than paid work of females. Livelihoods programs should go beyond skills training to include job placement and apprenticeship, facilitating a smoother transition for young people into the work world.
- Programs should focus additional attention on marriage as a key driver in early age at sexual initiation and place more emphasis on marital transmission of HIV. In addition, increased attention should be paid to nonconsensual sex, especially for girls.
- Youth centers should be redirected to address the dominance of males at these facilities, either by capitalizing on their presence and implementing programs for boys, or by providing structured sex-specific programs, including girls-only spaces.
- Religious institutions reach a large number of young people in both urban and rural areas. These institutions should be explored as to their potential to further engage in youth educational and development activities.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 BACKGROUND

Ethiopia is the second most populous country in sub-Saharan Africa with an estimated population of 74 million people. Eighty-four percent of the population resides in rural areas. Ethiopian women, adolescents, and youth are disadvantaged. Women's status is extremely low, with their situation reflected in extremely poor economic, social, and health indicators. Many Ethiopian young people face challenges in attaining educational and livelihoods goals, as well as facing reproductive health and HIV risks.

The status of women in Ethiopia

Girls and women in Ethiopia are at a distinct disadvantage compared to boys and men on a range of issues such as education and health. Ethiopia is ranked 129th out of 136 countries on the gender-related development index (GDI)[1] [2] While levels of educational attainment are low, the disparities between men and women are significant. According to the 2005 Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS), two thirds of Ethiopian women and girls have no education, compared to about half of men.[3] Disparities in educational attendance and attainment are particularly apparent at the higher levels, including secondary education and university.

The 2005 EDHS revealed high levels of acceptance of violence against women (VAW). However, few studies in Ethiopia have measured actual levels of sexual or domestic violence. In addition, Ethiopian girls and women experience high rates of maternal mortality and morbidity, including fistula and other reproductive health (RH) problems. Many of the circumstances that make women vulnerable are conditioned during the adolescent years, including lack of education or early school dropout; early marriage that is most often unwanted and without consent, and early first birth that is socially expected soon after marriage.

Young adulthood in Ethiopia

"Adolescents" are defined as the age group 10–19; those aged 15–24 are considered to be "youth." "Young people" encompasses these two categories and includes those aged 10–24. This is a study of young adulthood in Ethiopia, though the terms "adolescents," "youth," "young people" and "young adults" are used interchangeably throughout this report.

The disadvantage and vulnerability of women frequently has roots during adolescence, and Ethiopian girls face particular challenges including limited access to schooling, early and unwanted marriage, lack of parental presence, unsafe and exploitive work roles, and coercive sexual relations. Ethiopian boys face other risks and vulnerabilities. Boys and men are socially expected to dominant, and their role in the family is one of provider and protector. With many Ethiopians being economically challenged, lack of livelihoods opportunities may challenge the male role, perhaps promoting violence.

Studies have highlighted that sexual initiation and childbearing begin early in Ethiopia, with young people often having little knowledge and limited access to reproductive health services. High rates of early marriage take place in regions such as Amhara and Tigray, including marriage during girls' early adolescence, by their fifteenth birthday. These early marriages include early sexual initiation and early first birth. Further, in some regions, marriage by abduction is practiced, where an unmarried girl is forcefully taken, often followed by rape by her future husband or gang rape by her husband and friends.

[1] GDI is a composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions: health, education, and standard of living, adjusted to account for inequalities between men and women.
[2] United Nations Development Program (UNDP), Human Development Report: 2007/2008, New York: UNDP.
[3] Central Statistical Agency (CSA) and ORC Macro. 2006. Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey 2005., Addis Ababa, Ethiopia and Calverton MD.

Educational data from Ethiopia reflect recent gains in the expansion of schooling, particularly for urban populations and at the primary level. Urban–rural differentials in educational participation and attainment are considerable. Attainment of secondary education is significantly more common among urban young people, compared to rural youth.

Yet most programs for Ethiopian adolescents remain largely undifferentiated, generic, and gender-blind. Further, few engage in targeted strategies to identify and support the most vulnerable young people in the population, including rural youth, migrant populations, and married adolescent girls.

Reproductive health

In 2005, the estimated contraceptive prevalence rate was 14.7 (47 percent in urban areas versus 11 percent in rural areas). The country has one of the lowest rates of attended births in the world. The maternal mortality ratio is seven deaths per 1,000 live births (i.e., 673 per 100,000 live births), one of the highest in the region.[4] Female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C) is very common in Ethiopia. Estimates from 2005 suggest that 74 percent of Ethiopian women have undergone some form of FGM/C. In the Somali region, 84 percent of women have undergone FGM/C, mainly infibulation.[5]

The HIV epidemic in Ethiopia

In sub-Saharan Africa, girls and women are disproportionately affected by the HIV epidemic; 59 percent of all infections on the continent are among females.[6] It is estimated that 2.1 percent of the large population of Ethiopia is HIV positive, with the epidemic concentrated among women and in urban areas[7]. The HIV prevalence in urban areas of Ethiopia is an estimated 7.7 percent, with 9.3 percent prevalence among women and 6.2 prevalence among men—a female to male ratio of 1.5 to 1.[8] Moreover, the younger the age group, the greater the gender imbalance in rates of HIV infection, with far greater rates among young women compared to young men. Formerly married women have among the highest rates of infection, with 8.1 percent of divorced/separated women and 5.6 percent of widows living with HIV.[9]

1.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE SURVEY

This research contributes to up-to-date and nuanced understanding of HIV behavior, gender issues, and reproductive health among young people in seven regions of Ethiopia. Specific objectives are:

- To document knowledge, attitudes, and practices of adolescents and youth with respect to sexual and reproductive health (SRH), including HIV and gender-based violence (GBV);
- To determine access to and utilization of services related to SRH, HIV prevention and GBV; and
- To measure knowledge, attitudes, and experiences related to violence against women, such as domestic violence, coercion and rape, and FGM/C.

The information will serve as the baseline survey for four new initiatives in Ethiopia related to adolescent health and development, gender-based violence, women's empowerment, and female genital cutting/mutilation. Ultimately, the baseline estimates will be used to measure changes associated with the projects.

1.3 SAMPLE DESIGN

The Ethiopia Young Adult Survey in Seven Regions was designed as a baseline survey for four intervention projects in Ethiopia. The survey took place in the seven regions in which the interventions were intended to be implemented: Tigray; Afar; Amhara; Oromiya; Beneshangul Gumuz; Southern Nations, Nationalities, and People's Region (SNNPR); and Addis Ababa. Somali and Gambela Regions were not included in the study as interventions were not planned for these locations.

[4] Ibid.
[5] Ibid.
[6] UNAIDS/Global Coalition on Women & AIDS. 2006. "Keeping the Promise: Agenda for Action on Women & AIDS." Geneva: UNAIDS.
[7] Ministry of Health (MOH) & Federal HIV/AIDS Prevention & Control Office (HAPCO). 2007. "Single Point HIV Prevalence Estimate." June
[8] Ibid.
[9] Measure DHS/ CSA. 2006. "2005 Ethiopia Demographic & Health Survey: HIV Prevalence," Fact sheet. Calverton, MD, Addis Ababa.

The sample was designed to be representative of the intervention and comparison districts/woredas identified for the four initiatives on adolescent health and development, gender-based violence, women's empowerment, and female genital cutting/mutilation. For the youth survey, a sample of 12,600 individuals were drawn, including 10,080 adolescent boys and girls aged 12–24 and 2,520 male and female parents of adolescents. Equal numbers of male and female adolescents were selected, with 1,440 adolescents and 360 parents selected in each region.

The sample for the study was stratified and clustered. Within the study regions, districts/woredas were listed as to whether they had been identified for the planned interventions or could serve as a comparison area. The ratio of intervention-to-comparison respondents was 2 to 1. In each region, between three to six districts/woredas were selected, with a ratio of roughly two intervention districts selected for every one comparison district. The number of districts selected in a particular region was determined by the populations of the districts. For example, if districts had small populations, additional districts were selected to compensate. In all, 31 districts/woredas were selected for the study. Within selected districts/woredas, 252 enumeration areas (EAs) were selected, or 36 EAs per region (see Appendix Table A1).

Comparison districts were selected to be similar to the intervention districts in terms of population size, density, and socioeconomic activities. They were not contiguous with the intervention districts in order to control for potential contamination of the interventions.

1.4 QUESTIONNAIRES

Four separate questionnaires were designed for the study: a household listing, a questionnaire for young people aged 15–24, an abbreviated questionnaire for adolescents aged 12–14, and an instrument for parents. The questionnaires were drafted by Population Council staff drawing on previous questionnaires from the Population Council, the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), the Ethiopia Welfare Monitoring Surveys, and various instruments from the World Health Organization (WHO). For example, questions on domestic violence were taken from the specialized DHS module, as well as numerous questions on family planning and HIV. Household assets were largely adapted from the Ethiopia Welfare Monitoring Surveys and DHS. Questions on alcohol were adapted from instruments of the WHO. All questionnaires were reviewed during a series of consultation meetings by the Population Council–Ethiopia study team, as well as technical staff from UNFPA and UNICEF. Questionnaires were finalized in English and translated into three local languages: Amharic, Oromiffa, and Tigrigna. Back-translation was undertaken to ensure accuracy.

A household listing questionnaire was designed for the initial household census, to facilitate identification and selection of study respondents. The household listing format collected information on all household members in selected EAs. Information was collected on household members' age, sex, marital status, and relationship to the household head. Members were also listed as to whether they are parents of young people aged 12–24.

The adolescent questionnaire contained 16 sections:

1) Background characteristics of respondents;
2) Education and schooling experience;
3) Attitudes and self-esteem;
4) Migration;
5) Families;
6) Livelihoods;
7) Female genital mutilation/cutting;
8) Puberty;
9) Marriage;
10) Sexual experience;
11) HIV and STI knowledge, services, and prevention;
12) Family planning;
13) Maternal health;
14) Drugs and alcohol;
15) Violence; and
16) Service access and utilization.

In addition, the questionnaire had a cover page that collected identifier information as well as an informed consent page. For ethical reasons, younger adolescents aged 12–14 received a shorter questionnaire that omitted sensitive or upsetting questions such as those on marriage or violence. The parents' questionnaire was also abbreviated and included additional attitudinal and behavioral questions related to young people.

1.5 DATA COLLECTION

Pretesting

All questionnaires were pretested through four rounds, examining length, respondents' and interviewers' experience and perceptions of the questionnaire, understanding of the questions, and accuracy of skip patterns. Pretests were made among both rural and urban respondents outside of the study area, representing a range of ages. Revisions to the questionnaires were made at each round of pretest. In addition, questionnaires translated into local languages were pretested in those languages and additional revisions made after the pretests.

Training

In each region, a minimum of 36 interviewers, 6 supervisors, and 3 coordinators were recruited. Recruitment was undertaken with assistance of the Regional Bureaus of Statistics who conduct the EDHS and many other large surveys. Interviewers had a minimum of 10 years of education, were able to speak local languages, were familiar with the area, and had experience in previous surveys, especially the EDHS. In all, over 200 interviewers took part in the survey (See Appendix B).

Training was conducted in each region by Population Council staff. Interviewers were trained for seven days: one day on the household listing format and six days on the questionnaire. The questionnaires were reviewed item by item. Training included multiple practice interviews in pairs and in the larger group. Toward the end of the training, trainers organized a field visit where interviewers practiced the interview on young people recruited from local youth-serving organizations outside of the study areas. Interviewers subsequently discussed the experience of the interview and clarified any remaining queries they had on the instruments.

Household listing & selection

All EAs selected for the study first underwent a census of all households, or "household listing," in order to establish a sampling frame for the locations. Interviewers went house-to-house to enumerate members of the households in the sampled EAs. Guides from the local community were recruited to guide interviewers, ensure all households were covered, and facilitate compliance by households. Supervisors performed random checks to ensure accuracy and coverage of data. Once households were listed, selection of respondents were made using a random number function available in SPSS. In each EA, 20 boys aged 12–24, 20 girls aged 12–24, 20 women aged 25–49, 10 parents, and 10 husbands were selected at random. Only one respondent was selected in each household.

Fieldwork

Each data collection team included six interviewers and one supervisor. Regional coordinators worked across teams to facilitate sensitization of local leadership, field logistics, and data quality. At least one Population Council staff member oversaw the data collection in the regions.

Male interviewers interviewed male respondents selected for the survey; females interviewed females. Interviewers visited the selected household to locate and interview the selected respondent. Interviewers were trained to conduct the interview in a private place, out of earshot of other household or community members. If the respondent was not at home, an appointment was made for a follow-up visit. Interviewers paid up to three visits to the household to locate and interview the selected respondent. In cases where he/she refused or could not be located, no replacement of the respondent was made. Prior to the interview, informed consent was obtained from respondents. Where the respondent was below the age of 18, informed consent was also obtained from a parent or guardian.

Data processing

Data were entered at Population Council offices by 13 data entry clerks. Data were entered in an Epi-Info data entry screen that included embedded checks and skips to increase quality of entry. Two data managers checked and merged data being entered. Ultimately, these managers cleaned the data by referring to hard copies of the questionnaires to clarify and correct any inconsistencies or inaccuracies in the dataset. The questionnaires were labeled and stored by region and serial number. All data is stored under lock and key at Population Council offices.

Data were weighted in order to adjust for unequal probabilities of selection. Weights were calculated for each stage of sample selection, including selection of woredas, enumeration areas, and respondents within the household.

1.6 SPECIAL STUDIES

Interviews with parents

Selected parents of adolescents were interviewed, including both mothers and fathers of adolescents. Parents were sampled from households where adolescent respondents were not sampled, in order to limit study respondents to one per household. Parents were interviewed using a similar instrument to that used for young people. Out of 2,520 parents sampled, 2,361 were interviewed, amounting to a 94 percent response rate. In all, 947 fathers and 1,414 mothers were interviewed.

Studies of special populations

Smaller scale studies were undertaken to explore areas of particular interest. A study of special youth populations was undertaken, to understand adolescents in particular circumstances, who may not otherwise be sampled in a population and household-based study. Special populations included youth living in the street, commercial sex workers, pastoral youth, and university students. These populations were sampled using purposeful samples: recruiting young people in these categories from places where they congregate. The same questionnaire used for the general population of youth was administered to these special populations. This allows us to compare the background and situation of special categories of youth with the general population of young people. Disabled youth were sampled through the main survey.

Situation analysis of youth centers

The study team sought to understand the performance and utilization of youth centers, based on data from users and youth center staff. Four youth centers were selected in six of the seven study regions. No youth centers were selected in Beneshangul Gumuz as the study team was unable to identify any centers in that region. Centers were selected to represent the range of centers from both the government and nongovernmental organizational (NGO) sectors. Study teams composed of a supervisor and three interviewers visited each youth center for five days. All youth centers were inventoried and staff were interviewed, as well as selected youth center clients. During the five days at each center, all clients visiting the center were registered, with basic demographic details taken to build a profile of youth center visitors. In all, 6,738 visitors to the youth centers were registered in the 24 centers. From the register, clients were selected at random for exit interview. In all, 1,704 youth center clients were interviewed on exit.

In-depth interviews with selected youth

In-depth interviews were conducted among 56 youth in the seven study regions. An in-depth discussion guide was developed to reflect the same themes explored in the survey, allowing the research team to collect more detailed information and experiences within the study areas. In each region, one supervisor coordinated a team of two male and two female interviewers. In-depth interview respondents were chosen by convenience and all interviews were tape recorded. Recorded interviews were translated into English and transcribed by two transcribers at Population Council offices.

1.7 RESPONSE RATES & SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

Response rates are a measure of data quality, with higher response rates reflecting higher quality and more representative data. Table 1.1 shows the individual response rates for the youth survey, by sex of the respondent. The total number of adolescents sampled was 10,080, with 9,728 of those selected eligible for the survey. Nearly 3 percent of sampled respondents were no longer eligible for the survey as they had moved between the time of household listing and survey, reflecting the relatively high mobility of this age group. Among those eligible for the survey, 97 percent of sampled males and 98 percent of sampled females were interviewed. Response rates were lower in Addis Ababa (94 percent, not shown) compared to the other regions in the study.

TABLE 1.1 Response rates of adolescent survey, by sex of respondent

	Boys aged 12–24		Girls aged 12–24		All young people aged 12–24	
Individuals sampled	**5,040**	**100%**	**5,040**	**100%**	**10,080**	**100%**
Ineligible for survey						
Moved away/away for extended period	152	3.0%	124	2.5%	276	2.7%
Structure not found/out of age range	46	0.9%	30	0.6%	76	0.8%
Total ineligible for survey	*198*	*3.9%*	*154*	*3.1%*	*352*	*3.5%*
Number of eligible individuals sampled	**4,842**		**4,886**		**9,728**	
Refused	9	0.2%	7	0.1%	16	0.2%
Not at home/unable to locate after three visits	42	0.9%	32	0.7%	74	0.8%
Incapacitated	12	0.2%	8	0.2%	20	0.2%
Other reasons	83	1.7%	39	0.8%	122	1.2%
Total nonresponse	*146*	*3.0%*	*86*	*1.8%*	*232*	*2.4%*
Eligible individuals interviewed /response rate	**4,696**	**97.0%**	**4,800**	**98.2%**	**9,496**	**97.6%**

Table 1.2 shows the background characteristics of the sample of young people aged 12–24. Weighted percentages are presented in the table, along with unweighted Ns. Ninety-one percent of boys aged 12–24 in the sample had never been married compared to 66 percent of girls. A larger proportion of boys were in school at the time of survey (55 percent), compared to girls (47 percent). Twenty-one percent of boys and 27 percent of girls had no education and most young people (60 percent of boys and 54 percent of girls) had attained only primary education. Two thirds of respondents were Orthodox Christian, 18 percent were Muslim and 15 percent were Protestant.

TABLE 1.2 Percent distribution of the sample, by sex of respondent and selected background characteristics

Characteristic	Males		Females		
	Weighted percent	Number of males	Weighted percent	Number of females	Total
Age					
12–14	33.0	1503	24.9	1228	2731
15–17	22.2	1071	22.4	1097	2168
18–20	26.0	1209	30.0	1401	2610
21–24	18.8	913	22.7	1074	1987
Marital status					
Never married	91.3	4220	65.9	3043	7263
Married/cohabiting	6.9	340	29.4	1468	1808
Divorced/separated/widowed	1.8	68	4.7	224	292
Residence					
Urban	37.3	1795	40.6	1816	3611
Rural	62.7	2901	59.4	2984	5885
Region					
Tigray	8.9	680	8.5	714	1394
Afar	4.9	682	4.4	689	1371
Amhara	32.2	690	33.0	691	1381
Oromiya	25.5	685	23.6	689	1374
Beneshangul Gumuz	1.7	685	1.6	692	1377
SNNPR	15.8	653	15.6	681	1334
Addis Ababa	11.0	621	13.3	644	1265
School status					
In school	55.1	2587	47.2	2265	4852
Out-of-school	44.9	2109	52.8	2534	4643
Educational attainment					
No education	20.7	956	27.4	1475	2431
Primary	59.5	2791	54.4	2545	5336
Secondary	18.8	875	17.4	731	1606
University	1.0	52	0.8	24	76
Religion					
Orthodox Christian	64.7	2489	66.6	2612	5101
Muslim	18.8	1463	16.7	1425	2888
Catholic	1.0	41	0.5	33	74
Protestant	14.8	607	15.4	648	1255
Other	0.7	73	0.8	64	137

Chapter Two: Household Characteristics

2.1 HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION

Table 2.1 shows the household size and headship among young people in Ethiopia. Overall, nearly 10 percent of young people aged 12–24 are heads of their households, with 13 percent of males and 7 percent of females being household heads. Among respondents below the age of 18, girls are slightly more likely to be heading households than boys (1.8 percent of girls; 1.6 percent of boys). Urban households are more likely to have an adolescent head (3 percent) than rural households (1 percent).

The average household size is over 5 members, which is comparable to the EDHS (2005). Young females tend to live in smaller households (mean 5.1 members) compared to young males (mean 5.5 members). Similar to findings from the EDHS, rural households are larger (mean 5.6 members) than urban households (mean 4.9 members).

TABLE 2.1 Household composition: Youth household heads and number of usual household members, by sex of respondent and urban–rural residence

Characteristic	Sex of respondent		Residence		
	Male (n=4,682)	Female (n=4,783)	Urban (n=3,597)	Rural (n=5,868)	Total (n=9,465)
Respondent is household head (all)	12.6	6.9	14.2	6.8	9.7
Underage respondent (<18 yrs) is household head	1.6	1.8	2.9	1.2	1.7
Number of usual household members					
1	2.9	2.1	4.8	1.0	2.5
2	8.3	11.5	13.7	7.5	9.9
3	12.0	15.7	15.3	13.0	13.9
4	12.0	15.8	13.1	14.5	14.0
5	15.0	14.7	16.5	13.8	14.8
6	17.3	12.4	13.4	15.7	14.8
7	13.8	12.0	9.3	15.2	12.9
8	9.7	7.8	6.3	10.3	8.7
9+	9.0	8.0	7.6	9.0	8.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mean household size	5.5	5.1	4.9	5.6	5.3

2.2 HOUSEHOLD POSSESSIONS & AMENITIES

Household facilities and possessions reflect the general status and well-being of members of the household, as well as potential health threats from unsafe facilities. Respondents were asked about sources of their household's drinking water, type of toilet, and other basic possessions in the household.

Most urban households had improved water sources including water piped into the compound (50 percent) and water from a public tap (32 percent). Most rural households had nonimproved sources such as rivers, lakes, or ponds (33 percent), or unprotected wells and springs (30 percent). Twenty percent of rural households have

access to piped water or water from a tap. While only 63 percent of respondents considered their drinking water unsafe, 90 percent did nothing to treat the drinking water.

Time to the source of drinking water varied between urban and rural areas. Most urban households (83 percent) took less than 10 minutes to and from the source of their drinking water and 6 percent travelled 30 minutes or more to and from the source. By contrast, 29 percent of rural respondents spent less than 10 minutes fetching water and 43 percent spent 30 minutes or longer. Among young people, 91 percent of female respondents and 56 percent of male respondents reported that they take part in fetching water (not shown).

TABLE 2.2 Household drinking water: Percentage of households by source of water, time to source, perceived safety, and access

Characteristic	Urban (n=3,599)	Rural (n=5,878)	Total (n=9,477)
Source			
Improved source	**91.3**	**37.2**	**58.3**
Public tap	32.1	19.4	24.3
Piped in compound	49.5	0.7	19.7
Protected well/spring	4.3	16.5	11.8
Piped in dwelling	5.0	0.1	2.0
Purchased bottled water	0.3	0.3	0.3
Rainwater	0.1	0.2	0.2
Nonimproved source	**8.7**	**62.8**	**41.7**
River, lake, or pond	1.6	33.2	20.9
Unprotected well/spring	7.1	29.6	20.8
Time to obtain drinking water (round trip)			
Less than 10 minutes	83.1	29.1	50.2
11–29 minutes	11.0	27.9	21.3
30 minutes or longer	5.9	43.0	28.5
Water treated prior to drinking			
Not treated	91.2	89.4	90.1
Boiled	2.1	1.8	1.9
Filtered	1.1	4.3	3.0
WaterGuard/Pur™	4.7	3.0	3.6
Two or more methods*	0.8	1.2	1.2
Other	0.1	0.3	0.2
Water considered "safe"/will not cause sickness			
Yes	33.2	39.1	36.6
No	66.8	60.9	63.4
Household's access to safe water increased, decreased, or unchanged in last year			
Increased	24.3	17.5	20.3
Decreased	15.2	18.0	16.8
Remained the same	57.8	63.3	61.1
Don't know/new member of household	2.7	1.2	1.8

* Indicates two or more methods including boiling, filtering, or use of WaterGuard/Pur.

Table 2.3 shows the toilet facilities and possessions of respondents' households. Eighty-nine percent of urban households had improved toilets whereas less than 48 percent of rural households had them. The most common type of toilet was a pit latrine (61 percent), followed by fields or forests (36 percent).

Compared to rural areas, urban households have significantly higher levels of ownership of personal effects. Seventy-seven percent of urban households own a radio compared to 34 percent of rural households; 51 percent of urban households possess a television, compared to 1 percent of rural households; 52 percent of urban households own a mobile phone compared to 4 percent of rural households.

In contrast, rural households are more likely to possess agricultural land or animals. Ninety percent of rural households possess agricultural land compared to 15 percent of urban households; 88 percent of rural households have farm animals compared to 16 percent of urban households.

TABLE 2.3 Household sanitation facilities and possessions: Percentage of households by type of toilet/latrine and possessing various household effects and assets

Characteristic	Urban (n=3,611)	Rural (n=5,885)	Total (n=9,496)
Type of toilet/latrine			
Improved	**88.7**	**47.8**	**63.7**
Pit latrine, private	39.2	41.4	40.6
Pit latrine, shared	43.2	5.5	20.1
Flush toilet, private	4.1	0.5	1.9
Flush toilet, shared	1.6	0.0	0.6
Other*	0.6	0.4	0.5
Nonimproved source	**11.3**	**52.2**	**36.3**
Container (from household items)	0.4	0.2	0.3
Field or forest	10.9	52.0	36.0
Household amenities and effects			
Radio	77.1	34.2	50.9
Television	50.7	1.2	20.5
Mobile phone	51.7	4.3	22.8
Nonmobile/fixed phone	36.2	0.6	14.4
Household has electricity	85.5	3.5	35.6
Ownership of agricultural land	14.6	89.9	40.7
Ownership of farm animals**	15.5	88.2	60.0

* Includes workplace such as office, school, and neighbor's toilet. ** Cattle, horse, mule, donkey, oxen.

Respondents were read a list of items and asked if they personally own or possess them (Table 2.4). Possessions included basic items such as shoes, a blanket, and a change of clothing, as well as status items such as a mobile phone. Personal ownership of all items was higher in urban areas compared to rural areas. Roughly 1 in 5 rural young people do not have shoes; one third of boys and half of girls do not have blanket. Boys were more likely to own radios or mobile phones compared to girls. Twenty-one percent of urban boys and 12 percent of rural boys owned their own radio, compared to 14 percent of urban girls and 6 percent of rural girls. Ownership of mobile phones was greater in urban areas (24 percent of boys and 18 percent of girls). Few rural young people owned mobile phones (2 percent of boys and <1 percent of girls) perhaps related to limited coverage of services in rural areas.

TABLE 2.4 Individual ownership of items, by sex and type of place of residence

Type of item	Males			Females		
	Urban (n=1,795)	Rural (n=2,901)	All (n=4,696)	Urban (n=1,816)	Rural (n=2,984)	All (n=4,800)
Shoes	95.3	78.3	85.1	95.4	79.2	85.9
Blanket	63.2	65.3	64.5	51.2	46.2	48.3
Change of clothing (3 or more outfits)	80.4	56.5	65.7	94.1	75.1	82.9
Radio	20.6	12.0	15.3	14.0	5.9	9.2
Mobile phone	23.7	2.2	10.5	17.7	0.7	7.7

2.3 PARENTAL PRESENCE & ORPHANHOOD

Overall, 27 percent of young people have lost at least one parent and 5 percent are double orphans. Among underage adolescents aged 12–17, 20 percent have lost at least one parent and 3 percent are double orphans. As expected, the percentage of young people who are orphans increases with age.

TABLE 2.5 Orphanhood status: Percent distribution of young people aged 12–24, by sex of respondent, survival status of parents, and background characteristics

Characteristic	Males (n=4,677)					Females (n=4,782)				
	Both parents alive	Only mother alive	Only father alive	Both parents dead	One or both parents dead	Both parents alive	Only mother alive	Only father alive	Both parents dead	One or both parents dead
Age										
12–14	82.3	12.0	3.4	2.3	17.7	83.7	9.9	4.2	2.2	16.3
15–17	73.2	17.2	6.5	3.1	26.8	77.6	14.0	4.7	3.7	22.4
18–20	68.9	19.3	6.3	5.5	31.1	67.1	19.8	8.6	4.5	32.9
21–24	63.2	22.6	7.6	6.6	36.8	63.5	20.3	7.5	8.7	36.5
Residence										
Urban	70.0	18.5	5.4	6.1	30.0	70.2	17.7	5.9	6.2	29.8
Rural	75.1	16.2	5.8	2.9	24.9	74.3	15.1	6.7	3.9	25.5
Region										
Tigray	83.5	12.1	3.1	1.3	16.5	73.1	18.2	5.8	2.9	26.9
Afar	70.3	18.8	5.2	5.7	29.7	65.6	19.9	7.8	6.7	34.4
Amhara	76.3	15.0	6.0	2.7	23.7	78.1	12.6	6.0	3.3	21.9
Oromiya	67.6	19.1	7.0	6.3	32.4	70.8	16.2	6.8	6.2	29.2
Beneshangul Gumuz	76.5	15.4	5.7	2.4	23.5	69.0	15.8	9.0	6.2	31.0
SNNPR	74.8	17.2	4.3	3.7	25.2	71.2	18.5	5.7	4.6	28.8
Addis Ababa	67.2	21.4	5.6	5.8	32.9	67.2	19.4	6.8	6.6	32.8
Educational attainment										
No education	68.5	19.9	6.8	4.8	31.5	65.7	18.4	9.2	6.7	34.3
Primary	74.8	15.7	5.6	3.9	25.2	76.1	14.3	5.3	4.3	23.9
Secondary	70.1	19.4	4.7	5.8	29.9	70.3	19.8	5.2	4.6	29.7
University	67.9	26.3	3.0	3.1	32.1	88.1	7.7	0.0	4.1	11.9
Youth 12–24	72.6	17.3	5.7	4.4	27.4	72.3	16.4	6.3	5.0	27.7
Total age <18	78.6	14.1	4.7	2.6	21.4	80.8	11.8	4.4	3.0	19.2

Urban areas were home to more orphans than rural areas. Thirty percent of urban young people had lost at least one parent compared to 25 percent of rural young people. Six percent of urban young people are double orphans. Among double orphans, 25 percent of males and 16 percent of females were heads of their households. Overall, young people's fathers were more likely to be dead than mothers.

When asked whether their parents had died of AIDS, 6 percent of young people with deceased parents reported at least one parental death due to AIDS. Thirty-two percent of respondents did not know whether or not AIDS caused the death of their parent(s) (data on cause of death not shown).

TABLE 2.6 Parental presence: Percent distribution of young people aged 12–24, by living arrangements with parents, by background characteristics

Characteristic	Males (n=4,641)				Females (n=4,758)			
	Live with both parents	Live with mother only	Live with father only	Not living with either parent	Live with both parents	Live with mother only	Live with father only	Not living with either parent
Age								
12–14	66.6	17.4	3.1	12.5	66.0	13.0	3.9	17.2
15–17	55.1	21.0	5.2	18.7	47.4	15.8	3.2	33.6
18–20	47.2	19.5	4.4	28.8	25.4	14.6	2.7	57.3
21–24	30.1	15.9	3.2	50.7	12.6	9.5	1.9	76.0
Residence								
Urban	39.0	19.7	3.3	38.0	27.0	15.4	2.3	55.3
Rural	60.3	17.8	4.3	17.6	44.8	11.9	3.3	39.9
Region								
Tigray	68.6	20.5	2.5	8.3	42.2	22.6	2.1	33.1
Afar	52.8	19.1	5.5	22.6	29.5	12.7	4.4	53.3
Amhara	54.3	17.1	4.2	24.4	39.6	10.7	2.7	46.9
Oromiya	49.0	19.2	4.8	27.1	37.9	11.4	2.8	47.9
Beneshangul Gumuz	59.1	15.9	5.3	19.8	35.4	10.1	2.8	51.8
SNNPR	48.9	16.8	3.4	30.9	39.5	14.8	3.7	41.9
Addis Ababa	44.7	21.8	2.4	31.2	29.9	15.9	2.8	51.4
Marital status								
Never married	55.4	19.3	4.0	21.3	52.4	17.3	3.6	26.7
Ever married	22.1	9.1	3.5	65.4	9.4	5.9	1.5	83.2
Youth 12–24	52.3	18.5	4.0	25.3	37.6	13.3	2.9	46.1
Total age <18	62.2	18.9	4.0	15.0	57.2	14.3	3.5	24.9

Table 2.6 shows the percentage of young people living with parent(s). Among young people aged 12–24, only 52 percent of boys and 38 percent of girls live with both parents; 25 percent of boys and 46 percent of girls live with neither parent. Among those under age 18, 14 percent of boys and 24 percent of girls live with neither parent. That girls are living away from parents at a young age is partly explained by many young girls being married at an early age. However, even among the never married, girls are more likely to live with neither parent than boys (27 percent of never married girls; 21 percent of never married boys). Where young people are living with a single parent, they are more likely to be living with their mother than their father.

2.4 MIGRATION

Considerably more females than males had migrated to the area. Twenty-nine percent of girls and 19 percent of boys had migrated to their current place of residence. More urban young people were migrants than rural young people; 38 percent of urban boys and 49 percent of urban girls had migrated compared to 8 percent of rural boys and 15 percent of rural girls. Reasons for migration differed by sex and urban–rural residence. Boys in urban areas mainly migrated for schooling (43 percent), work (35 percent), or simply to accompany other family members who were moving (25 percent). Girls in urban areas has migrated for schooling (35 percent), work (27 percent) to accompany family (19 percent) or to join a spouse (12 percent). Few young people in rural areas migrated there for schooling. A significant proportion of rural girls migrated to join a partner or after marriage (60 percent). Roughly 12 percent of rural young people migrated to their place of residence because of famine.

I don't know anything about my father because he left after I was born, but my mother died in 2008. I was there for her when she was sick for two years before she died. *Female, age 18, Amhara*

I cried, because I didn't want to leave my mother. She was weak and fragile. But she told me she wasn't able to care for us. She said, 'If you go with him [uncle] he will look after you…. As I now think over everything, I realize that he was using us as free labor. *Male, age 24, Addis Ababa*

A friend of mine told me that big cities have better work opportunities, and life is also better. *Female, age 22, Oromiya*

TABLE 2.7 Migration: Percentage of young people who are migrants to the area and reasons for migration, by sex and background characteristics

	Males (n=4,688)			Females (n=4,794)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
All respondents	37.6	7.6	18.8	48.6	15.2	28.7
Current age						
12–14	27.7	4.3	11.3	34.3	4.5	18.8
15–17	35.1	5.9	15.9	45.7	8.2	24.3
18–20	42.0	9.2	22.7	52.0	21.8	34.5
21–24	45.2	15.6	29.9	57.9	28.8	42.2
Region						
Tigray	50.6	5.3	12.6	58.9	13.8	22.5
Afar	35.8	5.7	15.9	56.2	14.4	33.2
Amhara	37.5	7.2	14.6	45.6	15.7	23.7
Oromiya	35.1	11.1	19.2	45.5	17.5	27.5
Beneshangul- Gumuz	37.3	15.3	18.4	49.9	26.8	30.7
SNNPR	52.9	3.8	23.8	46.7	10.7	24.8
Addis Ababa	29.2	0.0	29.2	51.0	0.0	51.0
Educational attainment						
No education	33.5	8.2	10.8	71.7	22.4	31.7
Primary	37.9	5.6	16.0	52.1	9.5	25.4
Secondary	38.2	25.2	35.5	36.9	26.4	35.0
University	44.1	0.0	44.0	18.3	100.0	20.0
Type of place of origin*						
Rural area	62.9	70.4	64.8	68.2	82.4	72.7
Small town	23.6	14.2	21.2	21.4	11.7	18.4
Big city	13.5	15.4	14.0	10.4	5.9	8.9
Reason(s) for migrating**						
For schooling	43.0	5.5	33.3	35.4	2.6	24.9
For work	35.0	36.6	35.4	26.5	7.2	20.4
Accompanying family	25.3	29.9	26.5	18.8	14.0	17.3
Personal problems at home	0.3	0.5	0.3	4.3	2.1	3.6
Death of parents/guardians	3.3	9.3	4.8	3.0	0.7	2.3
To live with spouse/partner	0.2	2.1	0.7	12.1	59.7	27.3
Famine/poverty in other area	1.1	13.1	4.2	4.2	11.3	7.6
Other	2.4	12.6	5.0	5.0	3.9	4.5

* Among migrants. ** Percentages may sum to over 100, as more than one response was possible.

Chapter Three: Participation & Parent-Child Relationships

3.1 BIRTH REGISTRATION

Six percent of respondents were registered at birth. A greater percentage of urban young people have been registered (17 percent of boys; 14 percent of girls), compared to rural young people (1 percent). Young people in Addis Ababa, especially young males, were more likely to have registered births (35 percent of Addis Ababa boys; 25 percent of Addis Ababa girls).

3.2 SOCIAL NETWORKS, SUPPORT & REGULATION

Having friends and the number of friends can reflect the extent of social engagement and participation by young people (Table 3.2). On average, boys reported having 2.5 friends while girls reported an average of 1.9 friends (not shown). In contrast, having no friends could reflect social isolation and limited participation. Among young people aged 12–24, 9 percent of boys and 21 percent of girls reported having no friends. Respondents who were out of school and married were more likely to report having no friends. Girls, in particular, were less likely to report having friends, especially urban girls (26 percent reported no friends), married girls (28 percent), and out-of-school girls (28 percent).

TABLE 3.1 Birth registration: Percentage of young people whose births are registered with civil authorities, by sex and background characteristics

Characteristic	Males (n=4,682)	Females (n=4,793)
Age		
12–14	5.9	5.4
15–17	7.2	6.4
18–20	6.0	5.7
21–24	8.1	7.3
Residence		
Urban	16.9	13.6
Rural	0.5	1.1
Region		
Tigray	3.2	2.1
Afar	1.3	0.9
Amhara	1.9	1.9
Oromiya	4.5	6.7
Beneshangul Gumuz	2.9	0.3
SNNPR	4.2	2.6
Addis Ababa	34.6	25.0
Educational attainment		
No education	0.5	1.2
Primary	4.5	4.3
Secondary	17.6	17.9
University	37.1	50.9
Total	**6.6**	**6.2**

TABLE 3.2 Friendship networks: Percent distribution of young people reporting friends, by sex and background characteristics

Characteristic	Males (n=4,685)			Females (n=4,792)		
	Has no friends	Has 1 to 5 friends	Has 6+ friends	Has no friends	Has 1 to 5 friends	Has 6+ friends
Age						
12–14	11.0	85.6	3.4	14.5	83.7	1.8
15–17	6.3	90.1	3.6	17.5	80.8	1.7
18–20	7.1	89.2	3.7	23.1	75.1	1.8
21–24	8.4	87.8	3.8	26.9	71.4	1.7
Residence						
Urban	7.3	88.6	4.1	25.8	72.9	1.3
Rural	9.2	87.5	3.3	17.0	80.9	2.1
School status						
In school	4.7	91.7	3.6	16.5	81.5	2.0
Out of school	13.1	83.3	3.6	28.2	70.5	1.3
Educational attainment						
No education	19.8	78.3	1.9	32.6	66.2	1.2
Primary	6.1	89.9	4.0	15.8	82.3	1.9
Secondary	4.1	91.6	4.3	15.8	81.7	2.3
University	1.3	93.5	5.2	30.2	69.8	0.0
Marital status						
Never married	8.2	88.2	3.6	16.5	81.5	2.0
Ever married	10.5	85.3	4.2	28.2	70.5	1.3
Youth 12– 24	8.5	87.9	3.6	20.5	77.7	1.8
Total age <18	9.2	87.3	3.5	15.8	82.4	1.8

Table 3.3 shows the extent of social support and regulation reported by male and female young people, by urban–rural residence. Compared to their urban counterparts, young people in rural areas tend to have more social support, as reflected in having a person from whom to borrow money, having an alternative place to stay, and having support in case of a medical problem. In particular, urban girls reported lower levels of social support on all dimensions.

TABLE 3.3 Social support and regulation: Percentage of young people who report support mechanisms and regulation, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,684)			Females (n=4,797)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Social support						
Has someone from whom to borrow money	46.5	48.9	48.0	37.1	45.3	41.9
Has a place to stay if encounters a problem	53.9	58.6	56.9	41.6	57.3	50.9
Has help in case of a medical emergency	59.2	69.5	65.6	53.2	64.7	60.1
Regulation						
Needs permission before leaving the house	63.2	85.8	77.4	82.9	94.1	89.5
Needs permission before going to a youth group	57.2	77.2	69.8	80.4	90.9	86.6
Parents/spouse know respondent's whereabouts at all times	68.4	85.3	79.0	81.3	95.0	89.4

Higher levels of regulation were reported among rural respondents, in particular by rural girls. Over 90 percent of rural girls reported needing permission before leaving the house or going to a youth club; 95 percent reported that their parents/spouse know their whereabouts at all times. Urban males reported the lowest levels of regulation.

Table 3.4 shows participation and exposure to institutions and programs in the year prior to survey. Religious institutions were visited by the majority of young people in both urban and rural areas. Youth centers, peer educators, and youth clubs were more common in urban areas than in rural areas. Participation in programs such as youth centers and community conversations were more common among urban boys (15 percent visited youth centers and 14 percent attended community conversations) compared to urban girls (7 percent visited youth centers and 9 percent attended community conversations). Health extension workers have reached a significant percentage of rural youth (16 percent of boys and 19 percent of girls).

TABLE 3.4 Exposure to youth programs, community conversations, health extension workers, and religious institutions in the last year, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,653)			Females (n=4,750)		
Type of institution/individual	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Church or Mosque	96.5	84.2	88.8	92.3	77.4	83.4
Health extension workers	6.0	16.2	12.4	6.2	18.5	13.6
"Community conversation"	13.6	11.8	12.5	8.6	8.2	8.4
Youth center	15.1	3.7	8.0	7.2	1.6	3.8
Peer educator	8.1	4.1	5.6	11.2	4.9	7.4
Youth club	10.6	2.8	5.7	9.9	3.7	6.2

3.3 PARENT–CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

Parent–child communication

Roughly one third of young people report that their parents have talked to them about HIV and AIDS (Table 3.5). A greater percentage of urban parents have discussed the topic than rural parents. At the same time, only 1 in 5 young people report that their parents have discussed sex with them, suggesting that the discussion on HIV and AIDS may not have been detailed or specific. One third of girls and 24 percent of boys report that their parents have discussed marriage with them. When asked whether they have discussed HIV, marriage, or sex with their children, a greater proportion of parents report having discussed the topic, compared to young people. For example, 18 percent of boys and 21 percent of girls report having discussed sex with their parents, whereas 28 percent of fathers and 29 percent of mothers report having had the discussion.

Over 70 percent of boys believe their parents value schooling compared to only 63 percent of girls. Among rural girls, only 55 percent report that their parents value education, compared to 63 percent of rural boys, which may reflect differential opinions of parents related to girls' education versus boys'. Few young people believe their parents respect their opinion on marriage. In particular, only a minority of rural young people believe their parents respect their opinions on marriage (29 percent of rural boys and 25 percent of rural girls). The vast majority of both parents and young people wish they could discuss issues more freely.

TABLE 3.5 Parent–child communication: Percentage of young people and parents reporting discussion with parents/children and perception of parents, by topic, sex, and type of place of residence[1]

	Males (n=4,224)			Females (n=4,354)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Discussed topic						
HIV and AIDS	44.7	29.2	35.1	46.0	34.7	39.2
Marriage	25.1	22.7	23.6	35.5	31.3	32.9
Sex	19.6	16.5	17.7	25.7	18.7	21.4
Perception of parents						
Believe parents value education	84.8	63.1	71.1	75.8	55.1	63.4
Believe parents respect opinions on marriage	40.0	28.9	33.0	45.2	24.9	32.9
Would like to communicate more freely with parents	83.5	68.8	74.2	75.9	61.3	67.2
	Fathers (n=947)			Mothers (n=1,414)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Discussed topic						
HIV and AIDS	61.1	34.9	43.2	63.7	31.7	44.4
Marriage	38.1	23.7	28.3	46.3	26.8	34.4
Sex	39.2	22.7	28.0	45.7	17.2	28.5
Would like to communicate more freely with children	83.1	81.6	82.3	84.4	75.0	80.9

[1]Among respondents with parents.

Parental violence

Over 50 percent of adolescents report that their fathers drink and over 40 percent report that their mothers drink (Table 3.6). Compared to rural young people, more urban adolescents report that their parents abstain from drinking. About 4 percent of boys and 9 percent of girls report that their fathers drink frequently; fewer adolescents report that their mothers are frequent drinkers. Boys are more likely to be beaten with 50 percent of boys reporting that their fathers beat them compared to 37 percent of girls. One quarter of young people (24 percent) report that their fathers occasionally or frequently beat their mothers.

Interviewer: Who is more strict, your father or your mother? Respondent: They are both the same. (Laughing) My mother uses her mouth and my father uses his hands. *Female, age 24, SNNPR*

The society thinks that boys should be confident and strong, and girls should be honest and shy. If I stay home alone, people might say I am girlish… But if a girl is seen outside she might be insulted. *Male, age 20, Amhara*

He [father] used to get drunk and beat my mother… I remember once he kicked her and threw her out of the house, and we spent the night outside sleeping on the ground.

Female, age 24, Addis Ababa

TABLE 3.6 Parent–child relationships: Parental drinking and violence, by sex and type of place of residence[1]

	Males (n=4,381)			Females (n=4,451)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Parental alcohol consumption						
Father drinks						
Never	51.7	39.4	43.9	55.5	38.7	45.3
Occasionally	44.5	57.1	52.5	39.7	49.9	45.9
Frequently	3.8	3.5	3.6	4.8	11.4	8.8
Mother drinks						
Never	72.2	49.4	57.8	74.7	50.8	60.4
Occasionally	27.7	49.8	41.6	25.2	44.9	37.0
Frequently	0.1	0.8	0.6	0.1	4.3	2.6
Parental violence						
Father beats you						
Never	52.6	48.1	49.7	63.4	62.2	62.6
Occasionally	46.9	51.5	49.9	34.8	36.5	35.9
Frequently	0.5	0.4	0.4	1.8	1.3	1.5
Mother beats you						
Never	56.9	59.0	58.3	57.8	61.6	60.1
Occasionally	42.9	40.9	41.5	40.9	36.9	38.5
Frequently	0.2	0.1	0.2	1.3	1.5	1.4
Father beats mother						
Never	76.4	75.8	76.1	75.1	74.5	74.8
Occasionally	23.0	23.9	23.5	22.9	23.3	23.1
Frequently	0.6	0.3	0.4	2.0	2.2	2.1

[1] Among respondents with parents.

Chapter Four: Puberty

4.1 MENARCHE & MENSTRUATION

Seventy percent of girls in the sample had started menstruating, with mean age at menarche being 14.5 years. Rural girls experienced first menstruation slightly later than urban girls (mean age 14.8 years among rural girls; 14.3 years among urban girls—data not shown).

Among girls who had started menstruating, only 62 percent of girls knew about menstruation before it happened to them (70 percent of urban girls and 55 percent of rural girls). Younger age groups were more informed about menstruation than older age groups, suggesting improvements in communication to girls about menstruation. The most common sources of information on menstruation were teachers (42 percent), grandmothers (26 percent), and friends (24 percent). Only 8 percent of mothers gave their daughters information on menstruation beforehand.

Only 51 percent of respondents (62 percent of urban girls and 40 percent of rural girls) told anyone about their first menstruation (not shown).

TABLE 4.1 Menstruation: Percent distribution of girls who knew about menstruation before it happened and source of information, by type of place of residence

	Females (n=3,303)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
All ages	69.6	55.4	62.2
Age group			
12–14	81.5	67.4	76.0
15–17	73.6	57.6	66.3
18–20	67.7	53.9	59.9
21–24	66.1	54.6	59.9
Source of information on menstruation*			
Teacher	40.4	44.7	42.4
Grandmother	28.0	23.1	25.7
Friend	17.2	32.0	24.2
Aunt	18.2	9.8	14.3
Mother	9.4	7.2	8.4
Sister	8.2	7.1	7.7

* Percentages may sum to over 100, as more than one response possible.

Table 4.2 shows the main methods used by girls to manage their menstruation. Overall, use of rags is the most common among 59 percent of girls. Pads are also common (19 percent), but almost exclusively in urban areas, among 37 percent of urban girls and 2 percent of rural girls. A significant proportion of girls report doing nothing to manage menstruation: simply washing or secluding themselves in the forest, desert, or field; suggesting severe constraints to girls' activities during menstruation. This was reported by 25 percent of rural girls and 4 percent of urban girls.

TABLE 4.2 Menstruation: Main method of managing menstruation, by type of place of residence

	Females (n=3,303)		
Method used	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Rags	55.8	61.4	58.6
Pads	37.1	1.6	18.6
Nothing (washing only, go to forest, field, desert, etc.)	4.2	24.5	14.8
Additional clothes or underwear	2.2	8.4	5.4
Leaves/plants	0.0	0.3	0.2
Other	0.7	3.8	2.4

School absenteeism due to menstruation

Among girls who were in school at the time of survey, 17 percent reported having missed class due to menstruation in the last year, with roughly equal proportions of urban girls missing class compared to rural girls. The most common reasons cited for missing class were pain/discomfort (69 percent), fear of having an "accident" at school (19 percent), embarrassment (15 percent), and having nothing to manage their period (12 percent) (not shown). The likelihood of absenteeism seemed to vary by the ways girls manage their menstruation (Table 4.3). Girls who only put on additional clothing or did nothing/sequestered themselves during menstruation were more likely to miss school than those who used rags or pads. In addition, girls who had been teased in the past about menstruation were more likely to miss school compared to girls who had not been teased. The reported privacy of toilets at school was not associated with increased likelihood of missing school due to menstruation.

When it [my period] comes, I just don't want to go to school…Every month, when my period starts, I am absent from school.

Female, age 18, Amhara

I have never stayed home [from school because of my period] because I have good pads to manage it.

Female, age 18, Beneshangul Gumuz

Interviewer: Did you ever miss class because of menstruation?

Respondent: Yes, I was scared that the students may see it and laugh at me.

Female, age 22, Oromiya

TABLE 4.3 Menstruation: Percentage of female students missing class in the last year due to menstruation, methods of menstruation management, experience of teasing, and privacy of school toilets

Characteristic	Percentage of female students missing school (n=1,959)
Type of place of residence	
Urban	17.3
Rural	17.4
Method of managing menstruation	
Additional clothes	33.7
Nothing (washing only, go to forest, field, desert, etc.)	25.3
Rags	17.1
Pads	17.0
Ever teased about menstruation	
Yes	35.0
No	16.8
Toilets at the school are private	
Yes	18.8
No	15.3

4.2 SPERMARCHE & WET DREAMS

Fifty percent of boys reported having had wet dreams with more urban boys (63 percent) reporting the experience compared to rural boys (42 percent). On average, boys reported they had their first wet dream at 15.6 years (not shown). A minority of boys (42 percent) knew about wet dreams before they experienced them, with more urban boys being aware (48 percent), compared to rural boys (37 percent). Among boys with prior information, the main source of information was their friends (85 percent), followed by teachers (24 percent). Few boys had family members who gave them information about wet dreams.

TABLE 4.4 Wet dreams: Percent distribution of boys who knew about wet dreams before they happened and source of information, by type of place of residence

	Males (n=2,318)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
All ages	48.1	37.0	42.3
Source of information on wet dreams*			
Friend	80.1	91.2	85.1
Teacher	31.8	14.0	23.7
Brother	2.2	2.6	2.4
Uncle	0.4	2.7	1.5
Grandfather	0.2	0.6	0.4
Father	0.5	0.2	0.3

* Percentages may sum to over 100, as more than one response possible.

Chapter Five: Education

5.1 EDUCATIONAL PARTICIPATION & ATTAINMENT

Among young people aged 12–24, 80 percent of boys and 73 percent of girls have ever been to school (Table 5.1). Younger adolescents are more likely to have ever been to school, reflecting recent increases in school attendance. Increases in schooling are particularly apparent for girls. Among girls aged 21–24, only 58 percent had ever been to school, compared to 92 percent of girls aged 12–14. The highest level of ever-attendance of school occurs in Addis Ababa (97 percent of boys and 89 percent of girls), followed by SNNPR (95 percent of boys and 89 percent of girls) and Oromiya (83 percent of boys and 76 percent of girls).

TABLE 5.1 Education: Percentage of young people who have ever been to school and reasons for nonattendance, by sex and background characteristics

Characteristic	Males (n=4,689)	Females (n=4,794)
Current age		
12–14	80.3	91.9
15–17	84.8	81.3
18–20	79.8	62.9
21–24	73.9	58.4
Region		
Tigray	70.2	68.6
Afar	50.9	46.1
Amhara	71.9	61.9
Oromiya	82.5	76.4
Beneshangul- Gumuz	83.4	60.8
SNNPR	94.5	89.1
Addis Ababa	97.2	89.2
Type of place of residence		
Urban	94.9	87.5
Rural	71.1	63.1
Reason(s) for not attending school*		
Family does not approve	37.5	50.3
Family could not afford	34.1	23.1
Too many domestic/farming/herding duties	23.3	16.1
Got married	2.8	18.2
No school in vicinity/no school places	12.1	11.2
Death of parents or family members	6.8	5.8
No interest in schooling/formal school	3.5	2.6
Sickness or disability	1.3	1.3
Pregnancy	0.0	0.3
Other	3.7	1.6
All respondents	**80.0**	**73.0**

* Percentages may sum to more than 100, as more than one reason possible.

Reasons for not attending school differed for boys compared to girls. Among both boys and girls, family disapproval was the main reason for not attending. However, girls reported family disapproval to a far greater extent than boys (38 percent of boys and 50 percent of girls), probably reflecting families' disproportionately disapproving of girls getting an education. A considerable proportion of both boys and girls mentioned domestic duties as a reason for not attending school (23 percent of boys and 16 percent of girls) and 18 percent of girls mentioned marriage as the reason for not attending. Roughly 12 percent of young people reported no school in their vicinity.

TABLE 5.2 Education: Percentage currently in school, age at school entry, leaving, and reasons for leaving school, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,689)			Females (n=4,794)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
School status						
In school	65.7	48.8	55.1	55.6	41.6	47.2
Out of school	34.3	51.2	44.9	44.4	58.4	52.8
Age at entry into school						
Less than 6 years	11.0	1.3	5.6	10.6	1.5	5.6
6–8 years old	60.9	29.6	43.5	58.6	38.4	48.3
9–10 years old	15.4	26.6	21.6	16.3	30.9	23.9
11–12 years old	7.4	19.8	14.3	6.3	16.9	11.8
13+ years old	5.3	22.7	15.0	8.2	12.3	10.4
Mean age at entry into school	7.8	10.4	9.3	8.1	9.6	8.9
Age at school leaving						
Less than 10 years	3.5	2.8	3.1	3.4	3.0	3.2
10–12 years old	8.4	19.8	14.8	9.7	27.2	18.4
13–14 years old	13.5	20.0	17.2	13.7	19.5	16.6
15–17 years old	37.0	27.8	31.8	37.0	30.1	33.6
18+ years old	37.6	29.6	33.1	36.2	20.2	28.2
Mean age at school leaving	16.2	15.4	15.8	16.2	14.6	15.4
Reason(s) for leaving school*						
Family could not afford schooling	33.7	34.0	33.9	24.3	16.2	20.9
Too many domestic/farming/herding duties	22.1	34.0	28.7	22.1	24.3	23.1
Got married	2.9	4.3	3.7	21.2	39.6	28.9
Completed schooling cycle	19.3	4.2	10.9	13.9	3.2	9.4
No interest in school	7.4	8.4	8.0	8.2	8.9	8.5
Poor performance	11.8	4.6	7.6	10.1	3.0	7.0
Parents disapprove of school	2.1	10.6	6.8	2.5	11.8	6.4
Death/sickness of family member	4.6	7.8	6.4	4.9	7.0	5.7
Personal sickness or disability	3.3	6.9	5.5	5.1	5.5	5.3
To work/support oneself	9.0	1.0	4.1	3.3	1.5	2.5
School too far/no school places	1.7	4.6	3.3	2.3	4.3	3.1
Pregnancy	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.3	2.6	3.6
Other**	5.6	5.5	5.6	4.8	3.8	4.3

* Percentages may sum to over 100, as more than one reason is possible.

** Other includes migration, not knowing the language of instruction, disagreement with teacher or student, teacher violence, etc.

More boys than girls were in school (55 percent of boys and 47 percent of girls), and urban youth were more likely to be in school than rural youth (Table 5.2). While the official age for school entry in Ethiopia is 7 years, most young people started school after age 7. A significant number of rural youth started school extremely late, after age 10 (43 percent of rural boys and 29 percent of rural girls).

Reasons for leaving school differed by sex and urban–rural residence. The main reason cited by boys was poverty (34 percent), while the main reason cited by girls was marriage (29 percent); in particular, rural girls mentioned marriage as the reason for school leaving (40 percent). Many urban young people cited completion of a schooling cycle (either primary or secondary) as the reason for not being in school (19 percent of boys and 14 percent of girls). Poor performance and lack of interest were also significant reasons for nonattendance, among roughly 15 percent of respondents. Contrary to popular assumption, pregnancy was a negligible reason for girls dropping out (4 percent of females).

TABLE 5.3 Education: Literacy (among all respondents) and number of years of schooling attained (among those aged 15 and above), by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,689)			Females (n=4,794)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Literacy						
Reads easily	85.2	36.3	54.6	72.4	29.5	46.9
Reads with difficulty	10.0	28.9	21.8	12.1	21.6	17.8
Cannot read at all	4.8	34.8	23.6	15.5	48.9	35.3
Educational attainment						
None	6.9	30.3	20.7	14.9	47.7	33.4
1–4 years	9.0	30.4	21.6	13.0	23.2	18.7
5–8 years	27.5	29.6	28.8	26.6	22.0	24.0
9–10 years	46.7	9.3	24.6	38.3	6.7	20.5
11–12 years	6.3	0.4	2.8	4.9	0.4	2.4
University	3.6	0.0	1.5	2.3	0.0	1.0

Analysis of educational attainment was restricted to those aged 15 and above, in order to provide a better estimate of ultimate educational attainment, after the age of school leaving. Educational attainment is significantly lower among young people in rural areas; 61 percent of rural boys and 71 percent of rural girls have less than 5 years of education, compared to 16 percent of urban boys and 28 percent of urban girls. In contrast, 57 percent of urban boys and 46 percent of urban girls have over 8 years of education, compared to 10 percent of rural boys and 7 percent of rural girls. Only 1 percent of young people attained the university level of education.

Girls have housework, so boys get better grades… Our parents believe that a girl is born to work.

Female, age 20, Tigray

We sat on stones at my first school. It was in the 7th grade that I started to sit on chairs.

Male, age 21, Tigray

TABLE 5.4 Educational attainment: Mean years of schooling attained among those aged 15 and above, by sex, type of place of residence, age group and region

	Males (n=3,181)			Females (n=3,558)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Current age						
15–17	7.3	3.6	4.9	6.6	3.7	4.9
18–20	8.0	3.9	5.6	7.0	2.7	4.5
21–24	8.2	3.6	5.8	6.7	2.2	4.3
Region						
Tigray	8.2	3.8	4.5	7.5	3.1	3.9
Afar	5.8	1.7	3.1	4.1	0.9	2.4
Amhara	7.0	3.3	4.3	5.7	2.3	3.4
Oromiya	7.7	3.7	5.1	7.8	3.0	4.9
Beneshangul- Gumuz	6.5	4.7	5.0	4.6	2.8	3.1
SNNPR	8.8	5.6	7.0	7.5	4.2	5.7
Addis Ababa	8.3	-	8.3	6.9	-	6.9

Educational attainment was highest among urban boys in SNNPR (mean 8.8 years education), Addis Ababa (8.3 years), and Tigray (8.2 years) (Table 5.4). Lowest levels of attainment were among rural girls in Afar (<1 year), Amhara (2.3 years), and Beneshangul Gumuz (2.8 years). There were considerable gender differences in levels of educational attainment in Beneshangul Gumuz, with nearly 2 years difference between mean educational attainment of boys (5.0 years) compared to girls (3.1 years).

5.2 EXPERIENCE OF SCHOOLING

Government schools were, by far, the most common type of school that young people attended (89 percent), followed by private schools (5 percent) (Table 5.5). Virtually all schools attended by young people were mixed sex (98 percent). Most students lived with parents while they were schooling. Many urban boys rented a room (12 percent), while considerably fewer urban girls rented (6 percent). More urban girls lived with other relatives (17 percent), than did urban boys (10 percent). On average, young people spent about one hour a day traveling to and from school. Rural youth spent considerably more time in transit, an average of 77 minutes.

TABLE 5.5 Schooling experience: Type of school & living arrangements during most recent school, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=3,885)			Females (n=3,373)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Type of school*						
Government school	85.3	91.7	89.0	82.4	97.1	90.0
Private school	9.1	1.1	4.6	11.4	0.9	6.0
Public/community-run school	3.3	3.0	3.1	5.0	1.3	3.0
Church based/religious school	1.6	4.1	3.0	0.7	0.6	0.7
Nongovernmental organization school	0.7	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.3
Living arrangements during schooling*						
Living at home / with parents	74.6	89.9	83.2	70.3	91.6	81.3
Living with other relatives	10.4	4.9	7.3	17.0	5.0	10.8
Renting a room	11.5	3.2	6.8	5.8	1.4	3.6
Boarding in a dormitory	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.0	0.2
Other	3.0	1.9	2.4	6.4	2.0	4.1
Travel time to/from school (mean minutes)	50	74	62	53	82	70

* Current or most recent school.

Gender attitudes toward schooling

Many young people and their parents held inequitable attitudes about the relative abilities of girls and boys in school and the priority given to girls and boys. Nearly half of the respondents agreed with the statement that "Boys are usually better at math than girls," and over one third of young people agreed with the statement "Girls are usually lazy in school" (Table 5.6). However, parents' attitudes about education were not more inequitable than young people's attitudes. On three of the four statements related to education, a greater proportion of parents held equitable attitudes than young people. Parents were only slightly more likely to believe boys should be sent to school before girls when money is scarce.

TABLE 5.6 Education: Gender attitudes among young adults and parents toward education, by sex (percentage holding inequitable attitudes)

Attitude	Male youth (n=4,669)	Female youth (n=4,786)
Agree with "Boys are usually better at math than girls."	48.9	46.1
Agree with "Most girls are lazy in school."	36.2	33.6
Agree with "Girls are not as good as boys in school."	26.1	22.8
Agree with "When a family is poor and cannot send all children to school, boys should be sent before girls."	23.3	19.7
	Fathers (n=947)	**Mothers (n=1,414)**
Agree with "Boys are usually better at math than girls."	39.8	43.5
Agree with "Most girls are lazy in school."	29.3	30.6
Agree with "Girls are not as good as boys in school."	23.0	21.9
Agree with "When a family is poor and cannot send all children to school, boys should be sent before girls."	27.0	25.5

Discrimination, violence, and harassment

Most students (86 percent) reported that teachers in their current or most recent schools treated boys and girls equally (Table 5.7). Roughly one in ten young people reported that boys are favored by teachers over girls. Boys reported a greater degree of corporal punishment at the hands of teachers than did girls (20 percent of boys and 15 percent of girls). However, girls were more likely to report that they had been harassed by boys/men at school (8 percent) or harassed on the way to school (9 percent), than were boys (4–5 percent).

TABLE 5.7 Schooling experience: Treatment of teachers and experience of harassment, by sex*

Characteristic	Males (n=3,828)	Females (n=3,370)
Teacher treatment		
Most teachers treated boys and girls equally	86.3	86.5
Most teachers favor boys over girls	9.8	11.8
Harassment and corporal punishment		
A teacher of yours hit or beat you in the last year/school year	19.7	14.6
Students of the opposite sex tease(d) or harass(ed) you at school	4.6	8.2
People of the opposite sex bother(ed) or harass(ed) you on the way to and from school	4.3	9.3

* Current or most recent school

Family life education

Twenty-seven percent of respondents who had attended school reported receiving life skills/family life education in the course of their school (Table 5.8). Respondents who reported receiving family life education in school were asked about what they learned or topics covered, in an unprompted/spontaneous-response format. The most common topic mentioned was health and hygiene, followed by HIV and AIDS, and family planning. Only a minority of respondents reported that they learned about puberty or marriage in family life education.[10]

TABLE 5.8 Schooling experience: Percentage of students receiving life skills/family life education and topics covered, by sex and type of place of residence*

	Males (n=3,873)			Females (n=3,372)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Received family life education	29.8	25.7	27.4	28.2	26.1	27.1
Topics covered**						
Health and hygiene	57.2	75.0	66.8	62.3	78.0	70.1
HIV and AIDS	62.5	62.7	62.6	51.6	53.6	52.6
Family planning	39.6	46.8	43.5	37.2	46.0	41.5
Population	40.7	29.7	34.8	25.9	25.5	25.7
Self esteem	30.7	18.3	24.0	24.0	23.8	23.9
Communication	31.5	22.9	26.9	21.2	14.8	18.0
Puberty	16.7	11.0	13.6	19.2	11.2	15.2
Marriage	11.0	6.4	8.5	17.5	7.9	12.8

* Current or most recent school. ** Among those reporting life skills/family life education; unprompted format.

They [teachers] want to use power… It makes you hate them. They are not acting like teachers. They can even take a whip, and that scares me very much.

Male, age 19, Addis Ababa

I liked my teachers at times because they encouraged me. I loved the advice they used to give us to make us better people for tomorrow.

Male, age 23, SNNPR

[10] Underreporting of topics may be possible because of the unprompted format of the question.

CHAPTER SIX: LIVELIHOODS

6.1 SKILLS TRAINING

Only 3 percent of boys and 4 percent of girls have received vocational or skills training (Table 6.1). Less than 1 percent of rural adolescents have received vocational or skills training, while 7 percent of urban boys and 9 percent of urban girls have received such training. The most common types of vocational training received by males were auto mechanic (11 percent), woodworking (11 percent), metal work (10 percent), and construction (6 percent). The most common courses taken by females were accounting (8 percent), computer (7 percent), food preparation (7 percent), and textile production (6 percent) (information on types of training not shown).

TABLE 6.1 Livelihoods: Percentage of youth receiving vocational training, business training, or micro-credit, by sex

Characteristic	Males (n=4,666)	Females (n=4,782)
Ever received vocational or skills training	3.2	3.9
Completion of training*		
Completed training	48.1	38.3
Dropped out of training	15.6	14.3
Still in training	36.3	47.4
Has put skills to use		
Yes	34.1	27.1
No	65.9	72.9
Reason for not putting skills to use**		
Could not find a job	66.8	76.1
No start-up capital	11.2	12.6
Do not know how to start	15.2	7.6
No place to locate business	6.8	3.7
Ever received entrepreneurship/business skills training	1.3	1.1
Ever received micro-credit/small business loan	0.8	2.0

* Among those ever enrolled for training. **Among those who have completed training.

Most respondents had not put their skills to use and the most common reason given was not being able to find a job (67 percent of boys and 76 percent of girls), lack of start-up capital (11 percent of boys and 13 percent of girls), and not knowing how to start (15 percent of boys and 8 percent of girls). This suggests the need for more than just skills training, but additional entrepreneurship training and job placement. Only 1 percent of adolescents have received entrepreneurship training and 2 percent have received a micro-loan.

6.2 PAID WORK

Thirty-eight percent of males and 23 percent of females had ever worked for pay. Rural young people start working at considerably younger ages than urban youth. Among young people who had worked for pay, 54 percent of rural boys and 40 percent of rural girls started work before age 15, compared to 39 percent of urban boys and 27 percent of urban girls.

Types of paid work

Generally, urban young people were engaged in a much wider array of work roles than rural young people. The most common work roles for boys was farming or herding, among 71 percent of rural boys and 46 percent of boys, overall. Among girls, the most common form of paid work was domestic work/cleaner, especially among urban girls (37 percent), and 22 percent of girls, overall. Petty trade and construction absorbed significant proportions of young people. Thirteen percent of boys and 18 percent of girls were engaged in petty trade; 15 percent of boys and 10 percent of girls were engaged in construction/portering/daily labor.

TABLE 6.2 Livelihoods: Percentage of young people who have ever worked for pay, age at first paid work, and type of work, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,652)			Females (n=4,762)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Ever worked for pay	37.8	37.8	37.8	29.8	18.7	23.2
Age first worked for pay						
Less than 10 years	4.9	8.5	7.2	3.9	6.5	5.1
10–14 years	33.8	45.9	41.4	23.1	33.2	27.9
15–19 years	48.1	40.5	43.3	51.3	48.7	50.2
Age 20+	13.2	5.1	8.1	21.7	11.6	16.8
Mean age first worked for pay	15.4	13.9	14.4	16.6	15.1	15.9
Current paid work*						
Farmer, shepherd, poultry keeper, etc.	8.8	71.3	46.2	1.2	29.8	14.1
Domestic worker, cleaner, nanny, etc.	1.4	0.4	0.8	37.4	3.6	22.2
Petty trade	20.2	7.7	12.7	14.5	22.6	18.1
Construction, porter, daily laborer	22.3	10.7	15.3	9.3	11.8	10.4
Trades (mechanic, carpenter, plumber, mason, electrician, etc.)	15.3	2.3	7.5	1.1	0.8	0.9
Professional, teacher	7.9	3.7	5.4	7.1	3.6	5.5
Salesperson, office assistant, messenger	4.1	0.7	2.1	4.9	0.1	2.7
Small-scale food or drink production	2.2	3.7	3.2	7.5	9.2	8.5
Waitress, waiter, bartender	1.8	0.6	1.1	8.6	0.4	4.9
Driver, assistant driver, car wash	4.5	0.4	2.0	0.3	0.0	0.2
Weavers, basketry, craftsmaker	2.2	0.2	1.0	1.6	2.1	1.8
Hairdresser, barber, dressmaker, tailor	2.8	0.2	1.3	4.1	0.2	2.4
Shoeshine	3.4	1.3	2.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	5.7	3.6	4.4	1.6	9.5	5.1

* Percentages may sum to over 100, as more than one form of work is possible.

Hours in paid work

Urban young people devoted considerably more hours to paid work than rural young people (Table 6.3). On average, urban girls working for pay worked 47 hours and urban boys worked 45 hours per week. Rural young people worked an average of 30 hours in paid work in the previous week (not shown). A considerable proportion of urban youth worked very long hours; 28 percent of urban girls and 22 percent of urban boys reported working over 60 hours in the previous week.

Earnings from paid work

On average, working urban boys earned the most (mean 455 Birr), followed by rural boys (mean 287 Birr) and urban girls (mean 250 Birr). Most young people earned only cash payment for their work (88 percent). Few earned payments in kind such as housing, food, or clothing. Eight percent of working females and 6 percent

of working males received food as part of their in-kind payment; 4 percent of males and 1 percent of females received housing (data not shown).

TABLE 6.3 Livelihoods: Hours devoted to paid work and cash earnings, by sex and type of place of residence*

	Males (n=1,368)			Females (n=907)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Hours in paid work (last week)						
1–20 hours	18.5	29.0	24.5	18.2	43.0	29.0
21– 40 hours	24.1	44.0	35.5	16.6	36.8	25.2
41–60 hours	35.6	21.5	27.5	37.0	18.3	29.0
Over 60 hours	21.8	5.5	12.5	28.2	1.9	16.8
Mean hours in paid work (last week)	44.5	32.5	37.6	47.3	26.8	38.4
Cash earnings in the last month						
Less than 100 Birr (<$8)	15.2	25.9	21.0	28.5	41.4	33.9
100 to 299 Birr ($8 up to $23)	27.0	37.0	32.5	42.8	35.5	39.8
300 to 499 Birr ($23 up to $38)	21.1	20.6	20.8	14.5	15.6	14.9
500 to 699 Birr ($38 up to $54)	14.9	8.7	11.5	8.0	4.0	6.3
700 + ($54 and over)	21.8	7.8	14.2	6.2	3.5	5.1
Mean cash earnings in the last month (Birr)	455 ($35)	287 ($22)	363 ($28)	250 ($19)	184 ($14)	222 ($17)

* Among respondents who worked for pay in the previous week.

Table 6.4 reveals the mean monthly income reported by various categories of work. Note that only cash earnings are included; in-kind payments such as food, seeds, or housing are not included in the calculation of earnings. The work with the lowest cash payment was domestic work (mean 142 Birr per month) followed by shoeshine (221 Birr per month). The best paid professions were the tradesmen, earning an average of 524 Birr per month, drivers (561 Birr per month) and professionals/teachers (681 Birr per month). Few respondents admitted to being engaged in sex work. However, those that did earned an average of 664 Birr per month.

There are things that are difficult for boys like making enjera.. Boys are better at jobs outside, like farming, electrician or working on factories. They are good at jobs that include labor.

Male, age 20, Amhara

As soon as I left home, I started working as a maid. After that, I asked my family to send me abroad to one of the Arab countries and I stayed there for two years [working as a maid], but then I came back to Ethiopia empty handed.

Female, age 23, SNNPR

After he [father] died, my mother went out to make a living for the family... but, she couldn't make it work… I try to send her money once or twice a month. She is always happy when I send her money - sometimes up to 200 Birr.

Male, age 24, Addis Ababa

TABLE 6.4 Livelihoods: Mean monthly earnings, by type of current work* (n=2,274)

Type of current work	Mean monthly earnings (Birr**)
Domestic worker, cleaner, nanny, etc.	142
Shoeshine	221
Farmer, shepherd, poultry keeper, etc.	257
Weavers, basketry, craftsmaker	283
Construction, porter, daily laborer	287
Waitress, waiter, bartender	312
Small-scale food or drink production	313
Petty trade	337
Hairdresser, barber, dressmaker, tailor	412
Salesperson, office assistant, messenger	441
Trades (mechanic, carpenter, plumber, mason, electrician, etc.)	524
Driver, assistant driver, car wash	561
Sex worker	664
Professional, teacher	681

* Does not include in-kind payments **At the time of printing $1=13.5 Birr

6.3 SAVINGS

Table 6.5 shows the proportion of respondents who have cash savings in case of emergencies or for future plans. Most savers store their savings at home, in particular, rural respondents (76 percent of rural males and 70 percent of rural females). Saving in a bank or with a traditional savings association, or "ekub," is more common among urban respondents; 28 percent of urban savers kept their money in the bank, compared to only 6 percent of rural males and 10 percent of rural females.

TABLE 6.5 Livelihoods: Percentage of respondents with personal cash savings, and method of storage, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,666)			Females (n=4,779)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Has personal cash savings	14.8	10.2	11.9	9.6	5.7	7.3
Where savings are kept*						
Home	40.6	75.5	59.3	46.0	69.6	57.0
Bank	27.6	6.3	16.2	27.6	10.4	19.5
Ekub	23.4	12.9	17.8	15.5	10.2	13.0
With friend or relative	5.9	6.1	6.0	8.3	2.6	5.6
Micro-finance organization	6.0	0.7	3.2	3.7	6.1	4.8
Other	1.4	1.2	1.3	4.2	1.1	3.0

* Percentages may sum to over 100, as more than one storage place is possible.

Chapter Seven: Alcohol & Chat (Khat)

7.1 ALCOHOL

The majority of young people do not drink alcohol (63 percent of boys and 83 percent of girls) (Table 7.1). A minority of young people drink regularly, at least two or more times a week (8 percent of boys and 2 percent of girls). Use of alcohol seems to increase with age; whereas 31 percent of boys 15–17 drink occasionally or regularly, 46 percent of boys aged 21–24 drink occasionally or regularly. Drinking alcohol is much more common in rural areas than urban areas. Eleven percent of rural boys drink during at least two occasions per week, compared to 4 percent of urban boys. Young people with no education appear to engage in drinking to a greater extent than young people with higher levels of education.

TABLE 7.1 Alcohol: Percentage of respondents 15–24 who drink alcohol, by frequency, sex, and selected background characteristics

	Males (n=3,193)				Females (n=3,572)			
	Never	Monthly or less	2 to 4 times a month	2+ times per week	Never	Monthly or less	2 to 4 times a month	2+ times per week
Age group								
15–17	69.6	10.9	14.2	5.3	86.0	8.3	4.7	1.0
18–20	64.8	10.5	15.9	8.8	80.7	10.6	5.7	3.0
21–24	54.3	14.4	21.0	10.3	81.5	9.6	6.0	2.9
Place of residence								
Urban	76.0	10.6	9.5	3.9	92.2	5.9	1.4	0.5
Rural	54.7	12.5	21.8	11.0	75.1	12.4	8.7	3.8
Region								
Tigray	34.0	27.6	31.5	6.9	39.2	31.5	27.1	2.2
Afar	96.8	1.4	1.8	0.0	97.2	2.7	0.0	0.1
Amhara	24.3	18.2	37.4	20.1	73.2	11.7	9.1	6.0
Oromiya	87.8	5.0	4.4	2.8	92.5	6.7	0.5	0.3
Beneshangul Gumuz	66.1	3.8	14.4	15.7	72.5	10.6	12.0	4.9
SNNPR	91.9	4.4	2.7	1.0	96.4	3.2	0.2	0.2
Addis Ababa	82.6	11.9	4.3	1.2	92.5	6.7	0.6	0.2
Education								
No education	44.5	17.4	23.0	15.1	73.8	13.7	7.4	5.1
Primary	60.3	10.5	19.1	10.1	82.7	8.3	7.1	1.9
Secondary & higher	74.2	10.3	12.2	3.3	89.8	7.1	2.6	0.5
All	**63.4**	**11.7**	**16.8**	**8.1**	**82.5**	**9.6**	**5.5**	**2.4**

Among males, the most common alcohol consumed was tela/boarde (89 percent of consumers), areke (19 percent), beer (13 percent), and tej (8 percent). Consumption patterns were similar for girls: tela/boarde (89 percent), areke (20 percent), tej (4 percent), wine (4 percent), and beer (3 percent) (data not shown).[11]

[11] Percentages may sum to over 100 as more than one type of alcohol may be consumed regularly.

Considering only respondents who consume alcohol, roughly 11 percent of boys and 16 percent of girls consume during 13 or more days in a month (Table 7.2). Rural alcohol consumers drink more frequently than urban consumers. On average rural males consumed 7 drinks in the previous month, and rural females consumed 6 drinks, compared to 5 drinks consumed by urban males and 2 drinks consumed by urban females. Only 4 percent of alcohol drinkers reported that they had been drunk in the previous three months (not shown).

While rural young people seemed to drink more than those in urban areas, the majority of rural consumers spend no money on alcohol (80 percent), compared to 61 percent of urban consumers (not shown). On average, urban male drinkers spent 13 Birr in the last month on alcohol compared to 3 Birr spent by rural males.

TABLE 7.2 Alcohol: Percentage of alcohol drinkers aged 15–24 by frequency of alcohol consumption in the last month, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=989)			Females (n=726)		
Characteristic	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Number of days drank in the last month*						
None	10.7	3.7	5.5	30.1	6.5	11.0
1 to 3 days	42.7	26.6	31.0	49.5	41.5	43.1
4 to 7 days	25.2	30.2	28.8	13.8	19.1	18.2
8–12 days	14.9	27.6	24.2	5.0	13.8	12.2
13 + days	6.5	11.9	10.5	1.6	19.1	15.6
Mean number of days consumed alcohol (last month)	4.8	6.8	6.2	2.1	6.4	5.2
Money spent in the last month on alcohol (Birr)	12.90	2.70	5.30	5.10	0.50	1.20

* Among regular consumers of alcohol.

I drink but never with my own money... People usually buy me drinks and it's not just one person who buys me drinks... but on the second drink, I'm not myself and by the third or fourth drink, I'm totally drunk.

Female, age 24, SNNPR

Men drink alcohol and, at times, they might spend the night out. Some come late and beat their wives or children. Alcohol hurts everyone.

Male, age 12, Amhara

7.2 CHAT (KHAT)

Twelve percent of boys and 3 percent of girls have ever chewed chat/khat (Table 7.3). As with alcohol, chat use increases with age, with 19 percent of boys aged 21–24 having tried chat, compared to 6 percent of boys aged 15–17. Chat use is more common in Afar and Oromiya than other regions. Thirty percent of Afar boys and 15 percent of Afar girls have tried chat; in Oromiya, 23 percent of boys and 5 percent of girls have tried chat. There do not seem to be significant urban–rural differentials in use of chat, though it is slightly more common in urban areas than rural areas.

TABLE 7.3 Chat: Percentage of respondents aged 15–24 who ever chewed chat, chewed in the last month, and frequency of chat consumption, by sex and selected characteristics

	Males (n=3,193)	Females (n=3,572)
Ever chewed chat (All respondents)	**11.7**	**2.6**
Age		
15–17	6.3	1.4
18–20	11.4	2.6
21–24	19.2	3.7
Place of residence		
Urban	13.6	2.9
Rural	10.7	2.4
Region		
Tigray	1.1	0.0
Afar	30.6	14.7
Amhara	3.2	1.2
Oromiya	22.5	4.7
Beneshangul Gumuz	9.3	2.6
SNNPR	10.2	1.4
Addis Ababa	14.3	1.1
Education		
No education	13.1	3.5
Primary	12.7	3.3
Secondary & higher	10.2	1.2
Chewed chat in the last month (all)	10.1	1.8
Chewed chat in the last month (ever users)	85.7	70.8
Considers oneself addicted to chat (all)	2.8	0.3
Considers oneself addicted to chat (ever users)	24.4	12.4
No of days chat is typically chewed in week*		
None	14.6	29.4
1–2 days	46.7	60.0
3–5 days	22.9	9.6
6–7 days	15.8	1.0
Where chat is typically chewed		
At home	34.7	81.7
At work	29.3	6.2
At friend's home	19.6	9.6
Chat shop	9.5	0.0
Other	6.9	2.5
Money spent in the last week on chat (Birr)	16 Birr	11 Birr

* Among respondents who have tried chat.

Habitual use of chat seems to be more common among those who have tried it compared to habitual use of alcohol. Among male chat users, 16 percent consume chat six or seven times a week. Overall, 10 of male youth have chewed chat in the last month and 3 percent consider themselves addicted.

Chat is most frequently consumed at one's home, especially among female chat consumers. In addition, 29 percent of boys and 6 percent of girls reported that they chew chat at work. Ten percent of boys reported chewing in chat shops, while no girl reported that practice. Among young people with living parents, 32 percent of boys and 34 percent of girls report that their parents do not know about their chat use. However, fully 66 percent of chat users report that at least one of their parents is aware of their use (not shown).

Seven percent of male alcohol consumers and 3 percent of females report that they usually chew chat during alcohol consumption. Respondents consuming both alcohol and chat simultaneously are mainly found in urban areas (12 percent of urban males and 5 percent of urban females; compared to 2 percent of rural males and 1 percent of rural females) (not shown).

Like a car doesn't move without petrol, some people can't move without chat.

Male, age 19, Addis Ababa

I know that it's not good, but my mother sells chat. I talked to my father a lot about his chat chewing. He used to start chewing in the morning.

Male, age 18, Afar

Chapter Eight: Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting & Male Circumcision

8.1 FEMALE GENITAL MUTILATION/CUTTING

Fifty-eight percent of females in the sample are circumcised and 13 percent do not know their circumcision status. Female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C) is more common in the older age groups, compared to younger age groups, suggesting that it is a practice that may be declining; among girls aged 21–24, 66 percent are circumcised compared to 56 percent of girls aged 15–17. Large proportions of girls are circumcised in Afar (90 percent), Oromiya (77 percent), and SNNPR (75 percent).[12] Among girls in Afar, 33 percent report being infibulated, the most severe form of FGM/C. Girls with no education are more likely to be circumcised (66 percent) compared to girls with higher levels of education (52 percent). Likewise, girls with no education are more likely to be infibulated (6 percent) compared to girls with at least 7 years of education (<1 percent).

TABLE 8.1: Female genital mutilation/cutting: Percentage of females aged 12–24 who are circumcised, by type of circumcision and selected characteristics

Characteristic	Percent circumcised (n=4,789)	Among circumcised girls*				
		Clitoridectomy	Excision	Infibulation	Don't know	Total
Age group						
12–14	46.2	61.8	0.6	2.3	35.3	100.0
15–17	55.6	66.8	2.1	1.9	29.2	100.0
18–20	63.6	62.4	3.9	2.8	30.9	100.0
21–24	66.4	69.1	4.3	2.9	23.7	100.0
Residence						
Urban	49.5	62.7	2.7	2.6	32.0	100.0
Rural	63.9	66.2	3.0	2.5	28.3	100.0
Region						
Tigray	32.5	69.5	0.6	0.0	29.9	100.0
Afar	90.3	32.3	9.2	33.0	25.5	100.0
Amhara	44.4	45.5	2.3	0.7	51.5	100.0
Oromiya	77.4	75.6	3.9	0.0	20.5	100.0
Beneshangul Gumuz	61.2	79.6	3.4	0.0	17.0	100.0
SNNPR	74.6	93.0	1.1	0.2	5.7	100.0
Addis Ababa	43.6	40.5	1.7	0.0	57.8	100.0
Educational attainment						
No education	66.6	58.0	5.0	5.0	32.0	100.0
Primary	56.7	67.0	2.5	1.5	29.0	100.0
Secondary	50.2	69.6	2.2	0.6	27.6	100.0
University	38.8	69.6	0.0	0.0	30.4	100.0

*Total number of girls in the sample corresponding to each characteristics category.

Circumstances of FGM/C

Table 8.2 shows the age at which girls were circumcised, the decisionmaker related to the circumcision, and the location of the circumcision. The table includes data for all girls who are circumcised in the seven regions as well as for Afar girls, specifically, given the high prevalence of the practice in that region. Given the young age at which many girls are circumcised, many respondents did not know the circumstances of their circumcision.

Mothers were the most common decisionmakers related to FGM/C (76 percent), followed by fathers (57 percent). Other female relatives reportedly played a relatively minor part in the decision, with only 5 percent of girls reporting that their grandmother or aunt took part in the decision. Four percent of respondents

[12]Percentages circumcised in this survey are comparable to those in the EDHS (2005).

reported they took part in the decision to be circumcised. Most circumcisions were performed by the traditional circumciser (61 percent). However, traditional birth attendants and relatives also performed some procedures (6 percent each). Over half of the circumcised girls said that they were the only recipient of the procedure at the time, whereas 37 percent reported having FGM/C as part of a group of girls.

Afar girls were more likely to be circumcised during infancy, below the age of 1, compared to the general population of Ethiopian girls. Afar girls reported relatively more involvement of their mothers and fathers than girls from other regions; 88 percent of girls reported their mother was involved in the decision and 70 reported their father was involved.

TABLE 8.2: Female genital mutilation/cutting: Age at FGM/C, decisionmaker, and profile of circumciser

Characteristic	All circumcised girls (n=2,895)	Circumcised girls, Afar (n=628)
Age at circumcision		
Less than 1 year	49.6	81.2
1– 5 years	17.3	7.7
6–10 years	24.9	6.1
Over age 10	8.2	5.0
Who decided upon circumcision*		
Mother	76.3	88.2
Father	57.0	70.1
Grandmother/aunt	5.1	3.1
Respondent	3.6	0.3
Other	2.4	0.8
Don't' know	16.2	8.7
Profile of circumciser		
Traditional circumciser	60.8	56.9
Traditional birth attendant	5.6	9.9
Relative	5.5	1.9
Other	2.5	0.2
Don't know	25.6	31.1
Context of circumcision		
Alone	55.0	66.3
In a group	37.3	22.7
Don't know	7.7	11.0
Location of circumcision		
Home	67.6	61.7
Another home or home of circumciser	10.0	8.7
Other (e.g., bush, health facility)	3.1	12.3
Don't know	19.3	17.3

* Percentages may sum to over 100, as more than one response is possible.

Experience of FGM/C

Five percent of circumcised girls report that they have experienced problems as a result of their circumcision (data not shown). Among girls who are infibulated, 22 percent report problems. Among girls reporting associated problems, the most common were pain during urination (59 percent), pain during healing (41 percent) and difficulty during childbirth (20 percent). Forty-four percent of circumcised girls wish they had not been circumcised with the most common reasons cited being medical complications (53 percent), the procedure being illegal (16 percent), belief that the tradition had lost its significance (11 percent), and because of the associated pain (10 percent).

Attitudes about FGM/C

Among circumcised girls, 42 percent support that they were circumcised while 59 percent oppose that they were circumcised (Table 8.3). Circumcised girls in Afar are more likely to support the practice (57 percent) compared to the general population of circumcised girls.

Among girls supporting the practice, the most common reason cited was custom and tradition (81 percent). Whereas a considerable number of Afar girls mentioned religion (44 percent) as the rationale for the practice, few mentioned marriage prospects (3 percent). Among the general population of circumcised girls, only 14 percent mentioned religion and 19 percent mentioned marriage prospects. Opposition to the practice was mainly based on medical complications (49-50 percent of girls) and the perception that it had lost its significance (44 percent of Afar girls; 38 percent of general population of girls). While relatively few Afar girls mentioned that the practice was illegal (19 percent), 44 percent of the general population of girls mentioned that FGM/C is illegal in citing motivations for opposition.

TABLE 8.3 Female genital mutilation/cutting: Percentage of girls supporting and opposing their own FGM/C and reasons, by profile of respondent

Characteristic	All circumcised girls (n=2,895)	Circumcised girls, Afar (n=628)
Support or oppose own circumcision		
Support	41.5	56.7
Oppose	58.5	43.3
Reason for support*		
Custom and tradition demand	81.3	86.7
Religion demands	14.1	44.0
Cleanliness	14.9	10.3
Better marriage prospects	19.2	2.7
Prevents immorality	3.9	1.4
Other	3.5	1.3
Reasons for opposition*		
Medical complications	50.3	49.4
Tradition lost significance	38.2	43.7
Painful experience	17.7	21.4
Illegal	44.2	18.9
Against dignity of girl	10.5	5.1
Prevents sexual satisfaction	3.5	4.6

* Percentages may sum to over 100, as more than one response is possible.

Table 8.4 shows attitudes related to FGM/C by urban–rural residence and within Afar region, specifically. Only about 1 in 10 urban young people believe their community or religion expects circumcision and that a girl should be circumcised before marriage. About one third of rural young people hold these views, with relatively little difference in opinion between males and females. In Afar, however, 59 percent of boys and 40 percent of girls believe their community expects circumcision and 66 percent of boys and 51 percent of girls believe it is an expectation of their religion.

TABLE 8.4 Female genital mutilation/cutting: Personal opinions about FGM/C, by sex, type of place of residence, and in Afar region

	Males (n=4,679)			Females (n=4,792)		
Percentage agreement with the statement	**Urban**	**Rural**	**Afar Reg.**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**Afar Reg.**
Your community expects you to circumcise your (future) daughters	10.3	36.4	59.1	9.9	32.0	40.3
Most boys in your community would not marry an uncircumcised girl	12.6	35.3	52.1	10.1	31.1	30.9
FGM/C is required by your religion	19.6	27.5	66.0	10.3	20.7	50.7
Not being circumcised is a dishonor for the girls' family	10.7	33.9	54.6	8.8	33.0	37.4
A girl should undergo FGM/C before she is married	10.4	37.0	52.8	10.3	33.9	41.7

Fifty-eight percent of boys in Afar and 41 percent of girls have the intention to circumcise their daughters in the future, with the same percentage believing the practice should continue. Over 70 percent of urban young people have heard a message related to FGM/C; in Afar, 45 percent of boys and 59 percent of girls have heard messages on FGM/C. The most common sources for FGM/C messages were radio (60 percent), television (28 percent), community-based agent (other than health extension worker) (17 percent), and healthcare provider (15 percent). Only 5 percent of Afar boys and 1 percent of girls have heard a public pledge against FGM/C in the last year (not shown).

TABLE 8.5 Female genital mutilation/cutting: Future intentions regarding FGM/C and exposure to messages, by sex, type of place of residence, and in Afar region

	Males (n=4,679)			Females (n=4,792)		
Percentage agreement with the statement	**Urban**	**Rural**	**Afar Reg.**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**Afar Reg.**
Believe that FGM/C should continue	7.9	32.2	58.0	8.3	29.8	41.1
Will circumcise (future) daughter(s)	6.8	32.3	58.3	7.0	28.7	40.5
Has heard a message related to FGM/C	72.1	41.8	44.9	77.3	51.8	59.1
Has heard a public pledge against FGM/C in the last year	14.1	8.2	4.5	11.4	10.5	1.3

There is good culture and there is also bad culture and FGM is one of the bad cultures.

Male, age 18, Beneshangul Gumuz

I once convinced my parents that there is no need to circumcise my little sister, but they told me that they couldn't handle the pressure from the neighbors… The old people in the neighborhood accused my parents of disrespecting their culture.

Female, age 19, Addis Ababa

8.2 MALE CIRCUMCISION

Ninety-one percent of boys are circumcised. Over 90 percent of boys are circumcised in all regions except SNNPR, where 70 percent of boys are circumcised. That fewer boys are circumcised in SNNPR could be a reflection of later age at circumcision, rather than not ultimately being circumcised. Mean age at circumcision in SNNPR was 10 years, compared to 1 year in Amhara, 2 years in Addis Ababa, and 3 years in Afar and Oromiya (not shown).

Few respondents were aware of the protective effective of male circumcision in relation to HIV transmission. Only 18 percent of boys and 10 percent of girls knew that a circumcised boy/man has a smaller chance of acquiring HIV infection compared to an uncircumcised boy/man. Twenty-three percent of respondents thought a circumcised man was at greater risk; 22 percent thought the risk was equal between the two groups, and 41 percent did not know (data not shown).

TABLE 8.6 Male circumcision: Percentage of males who are circumcised, by selected characteristics

	Percent (n=4,682)
All boys	91.4
Age at circumcision	
Less than 1 year	63.5
1-5	15.0
6-10	12.9
Above 10	8.6
Residence	
Urban	96.4
Rural	88.4
Total	91.4
Region	
Tigray	96.4
Afar	95.5
Amhara	93.5
Oromiya	96.8
Beneshangul Gumuz	94.7
SNNPR	69.6
Addis Ababa	97.2
Educational attainment	
No education	95.1
Primary	87.9
Secondary	97.8
University	100.0
Religion	
Orthodox Christian	95.1
Muslim	94.9
Catholic	61.3
Protestant	74.5
Other	55.6

Chapter Nine: Sexual Activity

Sixteen percent of boys and 36 percent of girls are sexually experienced (Table 9.1). As expected, the percent of young people who have sexual experience increases with age. Few never married young people are sexually experienced. Nine percent of never married males and 5 percent of never married females are sexually experienced. That some ever married respondents do not have sexual experience is probably related to early marriages that were not consummated.[13]

TABLE 9.1 Sexual activity: Percentage of respondents who are sexually experienced, by sex and selected characteristics

	Males (n=4,682)	Females (n=4,793)
All respondents	**15.5**	**35.6**
Age		
12–14	0.5	0.3
15–17	4.3	12.8
18–20	18.5	50.0
21–24	50.7	77.5
Marital status		
Never married	8.8	4.8
Ever married	81.9	93.7
Place of residence		
Urban	19.1	28.7
Rural	13.3	40.2
Region		
Tigray	6.0	35.7
Afar	26.4	52.5
Amhara	14.2	41.4
Oromiya	17.1	39.3
Beneshangul Gumuz	22.5	49.3
SNNPR	12.9	25.4
Addis Ababa	20.6	18.8
Educational attainment		
No education	22.1	72.0
Primary	10.2	21.0
Secondary	23.7	23.7
University	40.3	41.7

[13] Earlier studies of Ethiopian adolescents suggest that sexual activity may be delayed for some period following the marriage, especially within child marriage. See, for example, Erulkar AS, Mekbib T, Simie N, Gulema T. 2004. "*The experience of adolescence in rural Amhara region Ethiopia*" Accra: Population Council.

9.1 CONTEXT OF SEXUAL INITIATION

The vast majority of girls first had sex with their spouse (89 percent), while boys' first sex was with spouses (43 percent), girlfriends (29 percent), or other friends (23 percent) (Table 9.2). Girls were significantly younger than their first sexual partners (mean 6.9 years), while boys were slightly older (mean 1.5 years). Fifty-six percent of girls were at least 6 years younger than their first sexual partner and 15 percent were more than 10 years younger than their first partner.

TABLE 9.2 Sexual activity: Context of first sex and profile of first partner, by sex and selected characteristics

	Males (n=867)	Females (n=1,789)
Profile of first partner		
Spouse	43.1	89.3
Boyfriend/girlfriend	29.0	6.6
Friend or other student	22.9	1.5
Other	5.0	2.6
Age difference with first partner		
Over 10 years younger than partner	0.1	15.2
6–10 years younger	1.9	40.5
1 to 5 years younger	11.8	42.7
Same age	12.2	1.1
1 to 5 years older	69.3	0.5
6–10 years older	4.7	0.0
10+ years older	0.0	0.0
Mean age difference with partner	1.5 years	–6.9 years

The majority of boys wanted to initiate sex at the time they did (97 percent) (Table 9.3). However, only three quarters of girls (73 percent) wanted their first sex and 22 percent did not want to have sex at the time they did.

Respondents were read a list of circumstances or motivations for sex and asked if the circumstance pertained to their first sexual experience. The most common reason for boys' first sex was curiosity; 51 percent of boys first had sex because they wanted to know what it felt like. Forty-three percent had sex to show their partner love and 32 percent had sex out of feelings of obligation as a husband or boyfriend. The most common reasons cited by girls were out of obligation as a partner (50 percent) and to show love (34 percent).

Peer pressure was not a significant factor in first sex. Only 13 percent of boys and 7 percent of girls reported pressure from peers. In contrast, many young men suspected their friends were having sex (26 percent) and cited this as a motivating factor for sex; 17 percent of girls thought their female friends were doing it and cited this as a motivation.

A considerable proportion of young women described coercive circumstances surrounding their sexual initiation. Seventeen percent of girls said their partner insisted and would not take "no" for an answer and 14 percent said that physical force, or rape, was used. Eleven percent reported receiving threats and 6 percent were hit or beaten during their first experience of sex. Overall, one third of girls experienced at least one circumstance that is considered coercive during their first sexual experience.

TABLE 9.3 Sexual activity: Motivation for and "wantedness" of first sex, by sex

	Males (n=867)	Females (n=1,789)
"Wantedness" of first sex		
Wanted to have sex	96.8	73.1
Was undecided	1.4	4.8
Did not want to have sex	1.8	22.1
Motivation for first sex*		
Noncoercive motivations		
To show love	42.7	33.5
Curiosity/wanted to see what sex is like	51.4	14.2
Obliged as a spouse/partner	32.0	49.5
Thought friends were doing it	26.3	17.2
Pressured by friends/peer pressure	13.4	6.7
Coercive motivations		
Partner insisted/would not take "no" for an answer	3.6	17.0
Physical force/rape	1.8	14.2
Partner threatened	4.4	10.6
Given money or gifts	4.2	10.1
Partner hit or beat	4.9	5.5
At least one coercive condition	*13.6*	*33.0*

* Motivations may sum to over 100, as more than one circumstance was possible.

9.2 SEXUAL FREQUENCY & LIFETIME PARTNERS

The frequency of sex varied with respondents' marital status (Table 9.4). Respondents who were currently married had much more frequent sex than unmarried respondents. Unmarried sexually experienced young people had had sex an average of two times among boys, and five times among girls, in the last three months. Married adolescents had an average of over 20 encounters in the previous three months. Unmarried sexually experienced young people were not necessarily sexually active. Sixty-one percent of sexually experienced boys and 76 percent of sexually experienced girls had not had sex in the previous three months. The vast majority of sexually experienced young people had had only one or two lifetime sexual partners.

Young people were read a list of profiles of people and asked if they had ever had sex with such a person. Less than one percent of both boys and girls reported having sex with a teacher or with an employer. Three percent of sexually experienced boys reported that they had had sex with a sex worker. Six percent of sexually experienced boys and 2 percent of girls reported that they had had sex with someone who was married to someone else. At the same time, it is likely that these circumstances were underreported, due to the sensitivity in admitting some of these experiences (not shown).

TABLE 9.4 Sexual activity: Frequency of sex and number of partners among sexually experienced respondents, by sex and current marital status

	Males		Females	
	Unmarried (n=526)	Married (n=340)	Unmarried (n=318)	Married (n=1,468)
Frequency of sex in the last three months				
Did not have sex	60.9	3.3	75.9	5.7
1–10 times	34.2	24.9	14.6	22.3
11–20 times	2.5	25.2	3.5	24.6
21– 30 times	1.7	21.0	1.1	15.8
Over 30 times	0.7	25.6	4.9	31.6
Mean number of sex acts in last three months	2.2	23.2	5.0	24.3
Number of lifetime partners				
One	66.8	82.1	86.3	88.0
Two	15.8	12.7	9.4	10.5
Three or more	17.4	5.2	4.3	1.5
Mean number of lifetime partners	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.2

They [boys] only want to have sex. I tell my friends that they shouldn't trust men… I tell them that [gifts from men] don't mean anything and they can buy these things for themselves if they work hard… Most of them are fooled by what they get…. jewelry and money. *Female, age 18, SNNPR*

There is business and there is true love. True love does not include money and has love as a base. 'Business love' means doing business with the man or the woman. If the girl into 'business love,' then she goes out with the man for money.

Male, age 22, Amhara

Usually boys tended to show domination over girls. For instance, if a boy asks a girl to become his girl friend and she refuses he might force her to be with him or he might hit her. *Female, age 24, SNNPR*

CHAPTER TEN: MARRIAGE

10.1 ATTITUDES TOWARD MARRIAGE

Respondents were asked what they consider to be the ideal age for boys and girls in their community to marry (Table 10.1). The ideal marriage age for girls was considerably younger than for boys. Overall, girls' ideal age at marriage was 17.9, while boys was 22.0. Roughly 40 percent of respondents named an ideal marriage age for girls below the legal age of 18. Conversely, only about 5 percent of respondents named an ideal marriage age for boys below the age of 18.

TABLE 10.1 Marriage: Ideal age for marriage of boys and girls, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,682)			Females (n=4,794)		
Ideal age for marriage	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Boys' ideal marriage age						
Less than 15	0.2	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6
15–17	1.5	5.7	4.2	1.7	4.3	3.2
18–20	38.4	58.1	50.7	32.7	55.6	46.4
21–25	41.1	31.5	35.2	40.1	32.6	35.7
Over 25	18.8	3.6	9.2	24.9	6.8	14.1
Ideal marriage age for boys (mean)	23.0	20.7	21.5	23.8	21.3	22.3
Girls' ideal marriage age						
Less than 15	1.9	5.6	4.3	2.5	7.7	5.6
15–17	20.7	45.5	36.2	14.9	44.1	32.2
18–20	55.5	46.7	50.0	58.4	45.4	50.7
21–25	17.6	1.8	7.7	19.2	2.1	9.1
Over 25	4.3	0.4	1.8	5.0	0.7	2.4
Ideal marriage age for girls (mean)	19.2	17.0	17.8	19.6	16.9	18.0

10.2 PREVALENCE & CONTEXT OF MARRIAGE DURING YOUNG ADULTHOOD

The majority of boys had never been married (91 percent), whereas 66 percent of girls had never been married and 34 percent of girls were ever-married (Table 10.2). Among respondents below the age of 18, less than 1 percent of boys were ever-married compared to 7 percent of girls. Five percent of girls were already divorced. Rural girls were more likely to be married than urban girls; 41 percent of rural girls were ever married compared to 23 percent of urban girls. Girls with no education had the highest rates of marriage. Seventy-two percent of girls with no education had ever been married compared to 22 percent of girls with 9 or more years of education. A considerable number of young women were already divorced or widowed, especially in regions such as Amhara (8 percent) and Afar (8 percent).

TABLE 10.2: Marriage: Percent distribution of young people's current marital status, by sex and selected characteristics

	Males (n=4,628)			Females (n=4,732)		
	Never married	Currently married	Div/Sep / Wid	Never married	Currently married	Div/Sep / Wid
All respondents	91.4	6.9	1.7	66.1	29.2	4.7
Respondents <18 yrs	99.4	0.1	0.5	92.9	5.4	1.7
Age						
12–14	100	0.0	0.0	98.9	0.7	0.4
15–17	98.2	0.4	1.4	86.2	10.7	3.1
18–20	89.8	8.3	1.9	51.8	41.1	7.1
21–24	69.9	24.9	5.2	29.2	62.9	7.9
Type of place of residence						
Urban	94.7	4.1	1.2	76.7	19.4	3.9
Rural	89.3	8.5	2.2	58.9	35.8	5.3
Region						
Tigray	95.9	4.1	0.0	65.2	30.7	4.1
Afar	88.8	10.1	1.1	51.0	41.5	7.5
Amhara	84.9	10.0	5.1	57.4	34.5	8.1
Oromiya	92.6	7.4	0.0	62.5	35.6	1.9
Beneshangul Gumuz	85.5	12.1	2.4	50.5	43.8	5.7
SNNPR	96.2	3.7	0.1	78.4	19.1	2.5
Addis Ababa	98.0	1.6	0.4	87.4	9.4	3.2
Educational attainment						
No education	80.7	15.3	4.0	28.1	63.2	8.7
Primary	93.6	5.0	1.4	79.4	17.1	3.5
Secondary	95.2	3.9	0.9	83.4	14.5	2.1
University	97.0	3.0	0.0	94.9	5.1	0.0

Table 10.3 shows the percentage of respondents who are married during adolescence, before age 15 and 18, among those aged 18 and above. Relatively few boys are married during their adolescence with 2 percent married by age 15 and 9 percent married by age 18. In contrast, nearly half of the girls in the sample (47 percent) were married by their eighteenth birthday and 18 percent were married by their fifteenth birthday. Girls with low levels of education and those residing in rural areas were more likely to be married early. Among girls who had never been to school, 35 percent were married by age 15 and 78 percent were married by age 18. Among rural girls, 26 percent are married by age 15 and 63 percent married by age 18.

TABLE 10.3: Marriage: Percentage of respondents married by age 15 and by age 18, among those aged 18 and above, by sex and selected characteristics

	Males (n=2,122)		Females (n=2,475)	
	Married by age 15	Married by age 18	Married by age 15	Married by age 18
All respondents	2.0	8.6	17.9	46.6
Type of place of residence				
Urban	0.9	3.7	7.7	25.8
Rural	2.8	12.5	25.7	62.6
Region				
Tigray	0.0	2.1	10.4	56.6
Afar	0.4	9.8	12.4	69.5
Amhara	5.8	18.2	39.1	63.3
Oromiya	0.9	5.6	9.8	41.6
Beneshangul Gumuz	1.0	16.7	23.9	74.8
SNNPR	0.0	4.2	5.0	33.0
Addis Ababa	0.0	1.0	1.0	12.2
Educational attainment				
No education	3.2	16.1	35.3	77.5
Primary	2.2	9.5	9.6	39.1
Secondary	1.1	2.7	2.1	10.0
University	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Most marriages of young people were arranged (65 percent of boys and 70 percent of girls), with marriages to rural young people more likely to be by arrangement (71 percent of boys and 81 percent of girls). Arranged marriage is very common is regions such as Amhara and Tigray where over 85 percent of marriages are arranged. Partnerships chosen by the bride and groom are most common in Addis Ababa (75 percent of girls) and SNNPR (66 percent of girls). In addition, 13 percent of girls in SNNPR report that their marriage was a result of abduction. Only 2 percent of marriages are polygamous, though 5 percent of boys anticipate marrying another wife in the future (not shown).

Age at marriage was examined among married young people in the sample. Note that the age at marriage is not representative of all young people as analysis includes only those married during their adolescent and young adult years. As such, estimates of age at marriage are lower than the general population and only represent the population of married adolescents, who married relatively earlier than the entire population. Among married adolescents, girls get married at considerably younger ages than boys (mean 18 for boys; 15 for girls). Among married girls in the sample, 34 percent married before the age of 15, compared to 16 percent of boys.

Married adolescent girls are generally younger than their husbands, with a mean spousal age difference between girls and their husbands of 7 years. Fifteen percent of married girls were more than 10 years younger than their spouse. Most married boys were married to girls only slightly younger than them. Eighty percent of married boys had wives who were the same age or 1 to 5 years younger than them.

A considerable proportion of married adolescents did not want to get married at the time they did. Nineteen percent of married boys and 31 percent of married girls did not want to get married when they did; an additional 10 percent of young people were undecided. Rural girls were most likely to experience an unwanted marriage, with 48 percent of rural girls not wanting to get married or being undecided. Five percent of married boys and 10 percent of married girls reported that they were required to leave school at the time of marriage.

TABLE 10.4: Marriage: Percent distribution of marriages that are arranged, chosen, the result of abduction, by sex and selected characteristics

	Male (n=412)				Female (n= 1,702)			
	Arranged	Chosen	Abducted	Total	Arranged	Chosen	Abducted	Total
All respondents	64.7	35.3	0.0	100.0	70.4	27.0	2.6	100.0
Residence								
Urban	42.4	57.6	0.0	100.0	43.2	55.4	1.4	100.0
Rural	71.4	28.6	0.0	100.0	80.8	16.1	3.1	100.0
Region								
Tigray	88.9	11.1	0.0	100.0	87.1	12.9	0.0	100.0
Afar	50.2	49.8	0.0	100.0	75.2	21.8	3.0	100.0
Amhara	88.2	11.8	0.0	100.0	94.4	5.6	0.0	100.0
Oromiya	27.0	73.0	0.0	100.0	51.9	43.7	4.4	100.0
Beneshangul Gumuz	54.4	45.6	0.0	100.0	75.6	23.9	0.5	100.0
SNNPR	9.0	91.0	0.0	100.0	21.6	65.5	12.9	100.0
Addis Ababa	22.2	77.8	0.0	100.0	25.1	74.9	0.0	100.0
Educ. attainment								
No education	75.3	24.7	0.0	100.0	84.7	13.7	1.6	100.0
Primary	60.0	40.0	0.0	100.0	56.9	38.0	5.1	100.0
Secondary	39.5	60.5	0.0	100.0	27.0	72.4	0.6	100.0
University	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0
Religion								
Orthodox Christian	77.1	22.9	0.0	100.0	81.1	17.8	1.1	100.0
Muslim	42.4	57.6	0.0	100.0	61.8	34.5	3.7	100.0
Catholic	32.8	67.2	0.0	100.0	29.4	70.6	0.0	100.0
Protestant	10.9	89.1	0.0	100.0	25.6	65.5	8.9	100.0
Other	56.7	43.3	0.0	100.0	95.3	4.7	0.0	100.0

TABLE 10.5 Marriage: Timing and context of marriage among married adolescents, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=412)			Females (n=1,702)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Age at marriage*						
Less than 10 years	4.6	1.5	2.3	3.8	8.3	7.0
11–14 years	9.3	12.5	11.8	19.8	29.7	26.9
15–17 years	16.8	17.4	17.2	34.1	38.2	37.1
18–19 years	47.2	47.9	47.7	31.2	20.5	23.5
20+ years	22.1	20.7	21.0	11.1	3.3	5.5
Mean age at marriage (years)	17.9	18.1	18.0	16.6	14.9	15.3
Age difference with spouse						
Over 10 years younger than partner	0.0	0.0	0.0	22.2	12.0	14.8
6–10 years younger	5.0	0.6	1.6	37.2	40.9	39.9
1–5 years younger	6.4	3.7	4.4	38.6	45.1	43.4
Same age	8.2	6.5	6.9	0.7	0.9	0.8
1–5 years older	76.6	71.8	72.8	1.3	1.0	1.1
6–10 years older	3.8	16.6	13.7	0.0	0.1	0.0
10+ years older	0.0	0.8	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
Mean age difference with spouse	1.8	3.1	2.8	–7.5	–6.5	–6.8
Consented/agreed to marriage (yes)	79.9	75.0	76.2	74.9	56.2	61.4
"Wantedness" of marriage at that time						
Wanted to get married	76.3	70.3	71.7	70.7	51.7	57.0
Was undecided	6.3	9.8	9.0	8.1	13.1	11.7
Did not want to get married	17.4	19.9	19.3	21.2	35.2	31.3
Was attending school at time of marriage	18.1	13.1	14.2	23.3	13.7	16.4
Was made to leave school at marriage**	3.6	5.7	5.2	12.6	8.3	9.5

* Estimate is not representative of entire population of young people as it only includes those in the sample who are married.
**Among all married youth.

10.3 MARITAL RELATIONSHIPS

Sexual relationships

The majority of married adolescents (93 percent), particularly rural youth (98 percent), first had sex with their spouse following the marriage. Only 7 percent of married adolescents had sex with their spouse before the marriage. Urban young people were more likely to have sex with their spouse before marriage: 20 percent of married boys and 19 percent of married girls.

Virtually all married boys wanted to have first sex with their wives and did so willingly. As a significant proportion of girls were married without their desire or consent, many girls experienced unwanted sex with their husbands and forced marital intercourse. Twenty-two percent of married girls did not want their first sex with their husbands and 18 percent reported that their marital sexual initiation was forced. Because some girls married at very early ages, many married girls first had sex with their spouse before menarche: 32 percent.

TABLE 10.6 Marriage: Context of marital sexual initiation among married adolescents, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=412)			Females (n=1,702)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Timing of first sex with spouse						
Before marriage	19.5	3.4	6.7	18.6	2.2	6.8
After marriage	80.5	96.6	93.3	81.4	97.8	93.2
"Wantedness" of first marital intercourse						
Wanted to have sex	98.1	96.7	97.0	82.1	69.4	73.0
Was undecided	1.9	1.4	1.5	3.9	6.0	5.4
Did not want to have sex	0.0	1.9	1.5	14.0	24.6	21.6
Had first marital intercourse willingly or by force						
Willingly	100.0	99.8	99.8	89.1	79.4	82.1
By force	0.0	0.2	0.2	10.9	20.6	17.9
Experienced menarche by first marital intercourse						
Yes	-	-	-	84.3	62.2	68.4
No	-	-	-	15.7	37.8	31.6

Husband–wife communication

There were significant differences in the extent of discussion between urban and rural couples. On all topics mentioned, urban couples were more likely to have discussed the topic compared to rural couples. Less than half of the rural married couples had discussed any of the topics mentioned, including faithfulness, HIV/AIDS, the number of children to have, and domestic duties. Only 28 percent of rural married girls and 36 percent of rural males reported that they had discussed antenatal and postnatal services with their spouses. In contrast, a majority of married young people in urban areas had discussed fidelity and HIV/AIDS.

TABLE 10.7 Marriage: Communication and decisionmaking within marriage, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=412)			Females (n=1,702)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Discussed being faithful	75.9	38.9	46.9	63.9	44.9	50.2
Discussed HIV and AIDS	74.3	35.9	44.2	62.1	39.0	45.5
Discussed number of children to have	62.7	39.5	44.7	51.8	39.7	43.0
Discussed sharing domestic duties	70.8	46.2	51.6	48.6	34.1	38.1
Discussed MCH services	61.3	36.4	41.5	52.3	28.2	34.8

CHAPTER ELEVEN: FAMILY PLANNING, PREGNANCY & CHILDBIRTH

11.1 FAMILY PLANNING KNOWLEDGE & ATTITUDES

Table 11.1 shows the percentage of respondents who have heard of family planning methods, among all respondents, currently married young people, and unmarried sexually active youth. Nearly all respondents knew of at least one family planning method (95 percent), with most young people knowing about injectables, pills, and condoms.

Sexually active unmarried youth appeared to be more aware of a range of methods compared to married youth. For example, 92 percent of sexually active unmarried boys and 63 percent of unmarried girls were aware of condoms, compared to 66 percent of married boys and 41 percent of married girls; 55 percent of unmarried sexually active boys and 50 percent of unmarried girls were aware of implants, compared to 35 percent of married boys and 39 percent of married girls. The greater knowledge of family planning among sexually active unmarried youth could be associated with the fact that these respondents are more likely to reside in urban areas and have higher levels of education than the married youth. In addition, unmarried youth may be more motivated to seek out information on family planning methods, as they presumably have a greater desire to prevent pregnancy than married youth.

TABLE 11.1 Family planning knowledge: Percentage of female and male respondents aged 15–24 knowing family planning methods, by marital status, sexual experience, and method

	Females (n=3,578)			Males (n=3,195)		
	All females	Currently married	Sexually active, unmarried	All males	Currently married	Sexually active, unmarried
Any method	93.8	96.3	95.0	92.2	94.1	96.6
Any modern method						
Injectable/Depo	91.2	94.5	93.5	84.0	91.7	92.4
Pill	89.6	92.0	93.0	83.3	88.0	93.3
Male condom	55.2	40.8	62.5	76.5	65.7	92.1
Jadelle/implant	42.2	39.2	50.3	36.1	34.7	55.1
Safe days	32.9	26.5	39.8	41.5	34.0	62.4
IUCD	31.1	22.6	40.2	31.6	23.6	50.1
Female condom	29.8	15.9	36.5	36.9	21.2	61.3
Vasectomy/tubal ligation	24.9	19.8	30.7	32.0	19.9	54.0
Withdrawal	18.7	4.6	27.1	37.1	14.5	63.0
Emergency contraception	16.1	10.6	21.0	21.8	12.6	37.5
Natural contraception	12.6	11.2	14.1	19.4	16.6	34.5
Foam/cream/jelly	6.9	14.3	8.4	16.1	26.9	27.4
Number of respondents	3578	1454	325	3195	339	527

11.2 USE OF FAMILY PLANNING

Forty-six percent of sexually experienced females and 48 percent of sexually experienced males aged 15–24 have ever used family planning. A greater proportion of unmarried sexually active youth have used a method compared to married youth. Method choice differs between the two groups. The most common method among currently married females is injectables (35 percent), followed by pills (13 percent). Unmarried sexually active girls have lower levels of injectable use (21 percent), compared to their married counterparts, and equivalent levels of pill use (15 percent). However, unmarried girls are more likely to use condoms than married girls (19 percent among unmarried versus 4 percent among married) and more likely to use safe days (4 percent among unmarried; <1 percent among married). Likewise, sexually active unmarried males are significantly more likely to have ever used condoms (49 percent) than married males (3 percent).

Thirty-five percent of sexually experienced females and 44 percent of sexually experienced males are currently using a method. Family planning use is significantly higher in urban areas than rural areas (55 percent of urban males; 41 percent of urban females; 17 percent of rural males; 26 percent of rural females) (not shown). Seven percent of married girls and 9 percent of married males reported that their spouse/partner does not know about their family planning use. Among unmarried sexually active youth, 10 percent of females said their family planning use is not known to their partner, compared with 3 percent of males.

TABLE 11.2 Ever use of contraception: Percentage of sexually active female and male respondents who or whose partner ever used contraceptive methods, by marital status and method

Characteristic	Females (n=1,786)			Males (n=859)		
	Currently married	Sexually active unmarried	All sexually active	Currently married	Sexually active unmarried	All sexually active
Ever used any method	44.9	50.1	45.9	37.4	55.9	48.1
Currently using any method	36.4	28.0	34.8	32.1	53.0	44.1
Method(s) ever used						
Injectable/Depo	35.1	21.1	32.5	32.4	8.7	18.8
Pill	13.1	14.5	13.4	9.6	6.6	7.9
Male condom	3.9	19.2	6.8	3.3	48.9	29.5
Safe days	0.5	3.5	1.1	0.7	1.5	1.1
IUCD	1.2	0.0	0.9	1.0	0.0	0.4
Vasectomy/tubal ligation	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
Jadelle/implant	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.1
Female condom	0.2	0.7	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Withdrawal	0.0	0.8	0.2	0.7	0.3	0.5
Emergency contraception	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Natural contraception	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.1
Spouse/partner knows about family planning use						
Yes	92.6	90.3	92.3	91.2	96.7	94.2
No	7.4	9.7	7.7	8.8	3.3	5.8

Among sexually active respondents who were not using family planning, 24 percent of females and 25 percent of males would have liked to use it (not shown). Main reasons for non-use were partner refusal (26 percent of females and 23 percent of males), experience or fear of side effects (23 percent of females and 19 percent of males), religion (10 percent of females and 13 percent of males), not knowing enough about family planning (10 percent of females and males), and the source of methods being too far (7 percent of females and 10 percent of males) (not shown).

11.3 CONDOMS

Among young people who were aware of condoms,[14] accurate knowledge about condoms was relatively high (Table 11.3). Seventy-nine percent of males and 84 percent of females knew that condoms are effective in preventing HIV; 95 percent of young people knew that they cannot be reused. However, a considerable number of young people held negative attitudes toward condoms. One third of young people felt that moral people do not use condoms, 48 percent of young people felt that condoms should not be used within marriage; roughly half felt that condoms are used by promiscuous people.

TABLE 11.3 Condoms: Percentage of young people with correct information about condoms and accepting attitudes toward condoms,* by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=2,665)			Females (n=2,303)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Correct information						
Disagree with "Condoms prevent pregnancy but not HIV"	94.2	88.6	92.1	89.0	83.9	86.7
Disagree with "Condoms can be reused"	97.7	93.1	95.3	97.5	92.8	95.5
Disagree with "Condoms are not effective in preventing HIV"	83.3	75.3	79.0	84.5	83.3	84.0
Attitudes toward condoms						
Disagree with "It is a man's responsibility to provide the condom"	72.1	54.3	62.6	80.5	52.3	68.1
Disagree with "Moral people do not use condoms"	76.5	61.4	68.5	75.4	59.2	67.9
Disagree with "Condoms should not be used within marriage"	65.8	40.7	51.9	59.2	43.5	51.8
Disagree with "People who use condoms are promiscuous"	62.7	35.2	47.8	63.3	40.2	52.6

* Among young people who know about condoms; others removed from analysis.

Three percent of sexually active females and 27 percent of sexually active males used a condom during their last sexual encounter (Table 11.4). Compared to those who were married, considerably more unmarried young people had used a condom (12 percent of unmarried females; 45 percent of unmarried males). Females relied on their partners for the condoms, with 48 percent getting condoms from their partners, followed by 20 percent obtaining condoms from a clinic and 17 percent obtaining from kiosks. Male users obtained condoms primarily from kiosks (45 percent), chemists (32 percent), and street vendors (30 percent).

TABLE 11.4 Condoms: Percentage of sexually active female and male respondents who used a condoms at last sex, partner profile and source of condoms, by sex and marital status

Characteristic	Females (n=1,786)			Males (n=859)		
	Currently married	Sexually active unmarried	All sexually active	Currently married	Sexually active unmarried	All sexually active
Used a condom at last sex	1.0	12.1	3.1	1.7	45.4	26.8
Source of condoms*						
Kiosk	9.9	22.2	16.7	65.9	44.6	45.5
Chemist	13.1	12.1	12.6	30.5	32.2	32.1
Street vendor	5.1	16.2	11.3	19.7	30.6	30.1
Clinic	16.5	23.5	20.4	24.6	22.9	23.0
Bar / nightclub	2.6	4.1	3.4	0.0	6.0	5.8
Peer educator	0.0	5.8	3.2	0.0	1.2	1.1
Partner	56.0	42.1	48.4	0.0	0.4	0.4

* Sources may sum to over 100, as more than one source was possible

[14] A considerable percentage of young people had never heard of condoms or had no exposure to them. These respondents were removed from analysis and only young people with knowledge of condoms were included.

11.4 PREGNANCY & CHILDBIRTH

Attitudes about pregnancy and childbirth

All young people were read a series of statements related to attitudes and perceptions of pregnancy and childbirth (Table 11.5). Attitudes varied between young people in urban and rural areas, especially in relation to the location of childbirth. A considerable proportion of young people felt that women should give birth to sufficient numbers of children in case some die in infancy (84 percent of boys and 74 percent of girls). Sixty-one percent of young people felt that death to a woman during childbirth is God's will, with nothing that could have been done to prevent it. A considerable proportion of young people—especially rural young people—felt that most women prefer to deliver at home and the community expects it.

TABLE 11.5 Parenthood: Percent distribution of attitudes related to childbirth and maternal mortality among young people, by sex, type of place of residence, and background characteristics

	Males (n=3,195)			Females (n=3,572)		
Percentage agreeing with the statement	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Women should have enough children to be taken care of in old age, in case some die	79.4	87.2	84.0	71.8	75.4	73.8
When a woman dies in childbirth, there is nothing that could have been done; it is God's will	53.7	68.5	62.4	53.1	67.4	61.1
Most women in your community prefer to deliver at home	50.3	86.6	71.7	31.3	82.7	60.2
Your community expects women to deliver at home	48.8	87.2	71.4	28.9	82.1	58.8

Young women were asked whether they had discussed antenatal care and place of delivery with their spouses/partners, and if the spouse or family could help them in pregnancy or in a pregnancy-related emergency (Table 11.6). Few couples have discussed antenatal care or where to deliver, especially rural couples (less than 40 percent of rural girls). Only about half of the respondents said that their spouse helps them with domestic work or childcare during pregnancy. Fifty-eight percent of girls said their family would have enough money to take them to a clinic in case of an emergency during childbirth.

TABLE 11.6 Parenthood: Percent distribution of spousal discussion and support on matters related to childbirth among young women with partners, by type of place of residence

	Females (n=1,763)		
Percentage agreeing with the statement	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
You and your spouse have discussed medical care during pregnancy	51.4	33.4	39.2
You and your spouse have discussed where you should deliver	49.7	35.6	40.1
Medical services for pregnancy are too far away for you to access them	27.7	51.1	40.8
Your spouse helps you care for children when you are pregnant	54.3	50.2	51.5
Your spouse helps you with work when you are pregnant	55.6	53.3	54.0
If you had an emergency during childbirth, your family would have enough money to take you to the clinic	60.3	55.5	57.6
If you had an emergency during childbirth, your family would take you to the clinic	81.3	69.7	74.7

Thirty-one percent of young women had given birth to a child and 6 percent of young men had fathered a child (Table 11.7). Rural young people were more likely to be parents, especially rural girls; 39 percent of rural girls have ever given birth, compared to 21 percent of urban girls and 8 percent of rural boys. Very few never-married respondents were parents, whereas 40 percent of ever-married boys and 66 percent of ever-married girls had had children. Young people with no education were more likely to have children; 57 percent of girls with no education had a child compared to 13 percent of girls with 9 or more years of education.

Not all pregnancies were wanted at the time. Whereas 95 percent of fathers wanted the pregnancy at the time, 83 percent of girls wanted their first pregnancies at that time (77 percent of urban girls and 85 percent of rural girls). Twelve percent of girls would have preferred that the pregnancy occur later and 6 percent did not want the pregnancy at all (data not shown).

TABLE 11.7 Parenthood: Percentage of young people who have ever given birth to or fathered a child, by sex, type of place of residence and background characteristics

	Males (n=3,190)			Females (n=3,564)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
All respondents	2.8	7.5	5.6	21.3	38.7	31.1
Age group						
12–14	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
15–17	0.0	0.4	0.3	3.0	3.1	3.0
18–20	1.9	3.2	2.7	18.5	39.7	30.8
21–24	6.2	24.7	15.8	41.9	74.7	59.3
Region						
Tigray	2.3	2.7	2.6	41.7	36.3	37.3
Afar	8.0	7.1	7.4	41.2	45.0	43.2
Amhara	1.5	9.0	6.8	26.7	38.6	35.1
Oromiya	5.0	8.7	7.4	23.7	43.1	35.6
Beneshangul Gumuz	7.0	8.5	8.3	37.2	48.5	46.4
SNNPR	2.8	5.4	4.3	15.9	29.9	23.8
Addis Ababa	1.3	-	1.3	13.1	-	13.1
Marital status						
Never married	0.2	0.1	0.2	2.6	1.7	2.2
Ever married	32.4	41.9	39.6	64.6	66.4	65.9
Educational attainment						
No education	10.2	13.0	12.6	52.6	58.4	57.3
Primary	4.0	5.5	5.0	22.1	22.0	22.0
Secondary	1.1	3.2	1.5	10.0	13.0	10.5
University	2.2	0.0	2.2	17.5	0.0	17.2

Table 11.8 shows the percentage of young people or their female partners who received at least one antenatal care visit during their first pregnancy, as well as reasons for not receiving care. Only 47 percent of girls reported receiving at least one antenatal care visit and 37 percent of boys reported that their partners received care. That fewer boys reported their partners' receiving care than girls may be a reflection of boys' not knowing about the care received by their partners. Considerably more urban girls received antenatal care (76 percent) compared to rural girls (36 percent). Only 57 percent of girls reported they were accompanied to the health service by their partners. However, 77 percent of girls reported that their partners helped to pay for the medical care.

Among those who did not receive antenatal care, the most common reason cited for not getting care was the perception that there was no problem during the pregnancy and that care was not needed (55 percent of boys; 40 percent of girls). After that, perceptions that antenatal care is not practiced in the community were cited by 21 percent of boys and 22 percent of girls. A considerable proportion of young people did not know where to get services or reported that the services are too far (17 percent of boys; 29 percent of girls). It is noteworthy that few respondents reported cost or partner refusal as barriers to antenatal care.

TABLE 11.8 Parenthood: Percentage of young people/female partners who received antenatal care and reasons for not receiving antenatal care, by sex, type of place of residence, and background characteristics

	Males (n=177)			Females (n=1,161)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Received antenatal care/partner received antenatal care (at least one visit)	54.2	32.5	37.1	75.5	35.5	47.4
Male partner accompanied spouse to antenatal care	68.0	45.4	52.4	56.6	5.4	57.0
Male partner helped pay for antenatal care	85.3	85.7	85.6	79.0	75.7	77.3
Reason for not receiving antenatal care						
No problem during pregnancy/not needed	62.0	53.4	54.7	40.3	40.1	40.2
Not done in the community	25.9	19.8	20.8	12.7	23.4	21.9
Services too far	0.0	8.4	7.1	17.2	15.5	15.8
Don't know where to get services	0.0	11.7	9.9	17.4	12.4	13.1
Services too costly	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.9	1.6
Partner refused	0.0	3.3	2.8	3.6	1.0	1.3
Other	0.7	3.3	2.9	5.5	4.3	4.5
Don't know	11.4	0.1	1.8	3.3	1.4	1.6

Table 11.9 shows the location of the first birth. Consistent with other studies, most births took place in the home, either the marital home, natal home, or the home of another relative. Eighty percent of girls reported that their first birth took place at home, with 92 percent of rural girls and 51 percent of urban girls reporting the first birth at home. Twenty percent of first births took place in a clinic or hospital, with most of these births among urban girls (49 percent of urban girls; 8 percent of rural girls). Most first births were attended by one's mother, mother-in-law, aunt or sister (48 percent of girls). Twenty-five percent of first births were attended by a traditional birth attendant and 20 percent were attended by a health professional.

TABLE 11.9 Parenthood: Place of first birth and assistance during childbirth, by sex, type of place of residence, and background characteristics

	Males (n=177)			Females (n=1,161)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Location of first birth						
Home	52.4	92.1	83.7	50.7	91.8	79.8
Clinic/health facility other than hospital	19.2	4.0	7.2	16.6	4.5	8.0
Hospital	27.5	1.2	6.7	32.2	3.2	11.7
Forest/field/desert	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
Other	0.9	2.6	2.3	0.5	0.4	0.4
Assistance during delivery						
Mother/mother-in-law/other relative	25.8	67.8	59.2	19.4	60.4	48.3
Traditional birth attendant	17.9	22.4	21.5	27.4	24.2	25.1
Doctor/nurse/health officer	53.7	5.1	15.0	48.6	8.4	20.3
Health extension worker/Community-based reproductive health agent	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	1.6	1.3
No one	1.9	4.0	3.6	1.6	0.6	0.9
Other	0.7	0.7	0.7	2.4	4.8	4.1

One percent of girls report that they have had a pregnancy that ended in miscarriage, stillbirth, or abortion. Less than one percent of girls admit that they had done something to make a pregnancy end. However, 4 percent of girls report that their best friend has induced an abortion (5 percent of urban girls; 2 percent of rural girls), which may suggest some underreporting of induced abortion (data not shown).

Chapter Twelve: HIV & AIDS Knowledge And Practices

12.1 HIV & AIDS KNOWLEDGE

Over 90 percent of both males and females had heard of AIDS (91 percent of males and 92 percent of females) (Table 12.1). Awareness levels increased with age; among young people over the age of 20, 98 percent of boys and 95 percent of girls had heard of AIDS. Knowledge levels were highest in Addis Ababa (99 percent), SNNPR (94 percent) and Tigray (93 percent). Lowest levels of awareness of HIV/AIDS were in Afar (84 percent). Awareness levels were lower among young people with no education (80 percent), compared to those with higher levels of education.

TABLE 12.1 HIV and AIDS: Percent distribution of youth who have heard of AIDS, by sex and background characteristics

Background Characteristics	Males (n=4,661)	Females (n=4,763)
All respondents	91.3	92.3
Age Group		
12-14	82.5	89.9
15-17	93.6	92.4
18-20	95.3	92.1
21-24	98.2	95.0
Marital Status		
Never Married	90.7	93.0
Currently Married	97.9	91.0
Divorced/separated/widowed	98.9	93.1
Place of residence		
Urban	98.9	98.3
Rural	86.7	88.2
Region		
Tigray	92.8	94.2
Afar	85.2	83.7
Amhara	90.1	90.0
Oromiya	88.3	92.0
Beneshangul Gumuz	92.0	82.7
SNNPR	93.7	94.7
Addis Ababa	99.2	98.2
Educational attainment		
No education	76.1	82.6
Primary	93.7	94.7
Secondary	99.7	99.4
University	100.0	100.0

The majority of respondents knew that HIV can be transmitted through sexual intercourse (95 percent of males and 92 percent of females). After intercourse, the modes of transmission mentioned by respondents were injections with unsterilized needles (72 percent of males and 59 percent of females), and circumcision with unsterilized tools (49 percent of males and 34 percent of females). Mother-to-child transmission was mentioned less often; only 21 percent of respondents mentioned transmission through breast milk and 13 percent mentioned transmission during childbirth. Only 2 percent of young people do not know any mode of HIV transmission.

TABLE 12.2 HIV and AIDS: Knowledge of modes of HIV transmission,* by method of transmission, sex, and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,346)			Females (n=4,364)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Mode of transmission						
Sexual intercourse	95.4	94.8	95.0	95.1	89.6	92.0
Injection with unsterilized needles	73.0	70.4	71.5	61.1	57.9	59.3
Circumcision with unsterilized tools	53.2	46.2	49.0	37.6	31.1	33.9
Transfusion with infected blood	44.4	33.1	37.7	31.3	24.6	27.5
Through breast milk	21.8	14.0	17.1	26.6	22.4	24.2
Sex with commercial sex workers	20.4	22.8	21.9	12.5	14.1	13.4
Through childbirth	18.9	10.8	14.1	16.9	8.6	12.2
During pregnancy	16.9	7.9	11.6	10.4	5.8	7.8
Does not know how HIV is transmitted	1.3	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.5

* Spontaneous responses.

Table 12.3 shows the extent of misconceptions about HIV and AIDS among youth as well as levels of knowledge. The most widely held misconception—commonly held in Ethiopia—was that most people contract HIV from accidents with sharp objects (54 percent of boys and 58 percent of girls). As well, a considerable proportion of young people believed that one can contract HIV from eating utensils (51 percent). Relatively few young people believed one could get HIV from mosquito bites or that there was a cure for AIDS.

Only about 60 percent of young people knew that having another sexually transmitted infection increased ones chances of getting HIV. Likewise, only about 60 percent of young people knew about anti-retroviral therapy (ART). Knowledge of ART was considerably higher among urban young people compared to rural young people. While only 49 percent of rural youth knew about ART, 76 percent of urban youth knew about it, perhaps reflecting differential exposure and access to the therapy.

I heard about a girl being abused by a teacher and I also heard the teacher was HIV positive. When this girl heard about the teacher's situation, she fainted.

Male, age 20, Afar

Everybody should talk openly about HIV and teach the people. People should talk openly without fear.

Male, age 24, Addis Ababa

TABLE 12.3 HIV and AIDS: Misconceptions and knowledge about HIV and AIDS, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,346)			Females (n=4,364)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Misconceptions						
Most people contract HIV from accidents with sharp objects	41.5	62.2	53.8	45.1	67.3	57.7
One can get HIV from sharing eating utensils such as knives and forks	42.4	60.0	52.8	40.0	58.3	50.4
One can get HIV from mosquito bites	17.8	26.8	23.1	15.4	28.0	22.5
There is now a cure for AIDS	13.0	16.0	14.8	13.3	14.8	14.1
Knowledge						
Having an STI can increase one's chances of getting HIV	67.5	56.1	60.7	70.3	48.9	58.1
There is now a medical treatment for PLWHA to improve their quality of life (ART)	74.6	51.3	60.7	77.3	46.8	60.0
A healthy-looking person can be infected with HIV	92.7	87.8	89.8	89.4	80.2	84.2
Comprehensive knowledge about AIDS*	41.8	23.6	31.0	42.3	21.3	30.4

* Respondent knows that HIV is transmitted through sexual intercourse, that a healthy looking person can have the AIDS virus, and rejects two common misperceptions: that one can get HIV from mosquito bites and utensils.

12.2 STIGMA & DISCRIMINATION

Four out of five respondents disagreed with the statement that "an HIV positive child should not go to school with healthy children." Most respondents reported that they are willing to share food with a person with AIDS and were also willing to care for a person with AIDS. More males than females expressed willingness to share food with an HIV positive person or care for the person with AIDS. Only a minority of respondents (28 percent) felt that an HIV positive teacher should be allowed to continue teaching. Stigma against people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) was higher in rural areas than urban areas. Urban respondents were considerably more likely to be willing to share food with PLWHA or care for them, compared to respondents from rural areas.

TABLE 12.4 HIV and AIDS: Accepting attitudes toward those living with HIV and AIDS, by sex and type of place of residence (percent agreeing or disagreeing with the statement)

	Males (n=4,346)		Females (n=4,364)			
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Disagree with: "A child who is HIV+ should not go to school with healthy children"	91.5	72.1	79.9	88.7	71.7	79.0
Agree with: "You would be willing to share food with a person with AIDS"	82.3	51.3	63.9	76.7	44.6	58.4
Agree with: "You would be willing to take care of a person with AIDS"	84.6	57.8	68.7	75.6	43.8	57.5
Agree with: "If a person is HIV+, he/she should be allowed to keep it private and not be forced to tell his/her community"	30.4	33.0	31.9	34.3	41.7	38.5
Agree with: "An HIV+ teacher should be allowed to continue teaching"	16.9	33.8	26.9	20.3	34.0	28.1

12.3 COUNSELING & TESTING FOR HIV

Twenty-eight percent of males and 36 percent of females have received counseling and testing for HIV. A greater number of urban young people have been tested (34 percent of boys and 49 percent of girls) compared to rural young people (23 percent of boys and 26 percent of girls). Compared to other regions, considerable proportions of young people have been tested in SNNPR, Oromiya, Tigray, Beneshangul Gumuz and Addis Ababa. Two percent of young people report that they have been turned away from a facility when they attempted to get counseling and testing.

TABLE 12.5. HIV and AIDS: Percentage of youth aged 15–24 who have ever been counseled or received testing for HIV, by sex and selected characteristics

Background characteristics	Males (n=3,050)	Females (n=3,283)
All respondents	27.6	36.2
Age		
15–17	16.8	20.8
18–20	29.2	38.0
21–24	37.8	48.9
Marital status		
Never married	26.9	34.1
Currently married	35.4	41.0
Divorced/separated/widowed	25.8	29.7
Place of residence		
Urban	33.9	48.9
Rural	22.9	25.5
Region		
Tigray	30.9	42.5
Afar	19.5	24.9
Amhara	21.2	20.1
Oromiya	28.2	50.7
Beneshangul Gumuz	33.6	41.0
SNNPR	38.0	40.9
Addis Ababa	29.2	42.4
Educational attainment		
No education	12.4	22.1
Primary	24.6	33.5
Secondary	42.1	56.5
University	36.3	79.8

When asked the reasons for testing, most young people cited curiosity or wanting to know their status (91 percent of males; 73 percent of females) (Table 12.6). Females frequently cited testing before marriage (18 percent) or within the context of pregnancy (14 percent). A considerable proportion of young people were advised to take the test from healthcare workers or friends (9 percent).

Respondents received tests through a variety of locations including: government health centers (32 percent), government hospitals (21 percent), schools (13 percent), private clinics/NGO facilities (15 percent), mobile services (9 percent), and government health posts (8 percent). Ninety-seven percent of urban respondents and 93 percent of rural respondents received their results. A considerable proportion of those who tested did not tell anyone their result (21 percent of males; 26 percent of females) (data not shown).

TABLE 12.6 HIV and AIDS: Main reasons* for having counseling and testing for HIV, by sex

	Males (n=894)	Females (n=1,189)
Curiosity/want to know status	91.0	72.5
Before marriage	8.1	18.3
Part of pregnancy/antenatal care	0.0	13.5
Advised by healthcare worker or friend	10.6	8.5
Was sick	1.9	4.7
Going abroad	0.2	1.8
Received testing at school	1.8	1.5
Suspected spouse/partner	0.7	0.7
Other	2.0	3.2

* Percentages may sum to over 100 as more than one reason is possible.

Young people who had never received counseling and testing were asked the main reason that they have never tested (Table 12.7). Among sexually experienced youth, the main reason for not testing was having one partner that they trust (43 percent), followed by the perception that they are not at risk (36 percent). A considerable proportion of young people felt that, because they did not feel sick, they did not need to get the test (7 percent).

TABLE 12.7 HIV and AIDS: Main reason for not receiving counseling and testing for HIV, among sexually experienced youth, by sex

	Males (n=2,120)	Females (n=2,057)
Have one partner I trust	33.1	47.2
Not at risk	42.8	33.6
Don't feel sick	4.8	8.2
Don't know where to get the test	3.2	7.2
Never thought of it	3.0	1.1
No service in vicinity	1.3	1.0
No sex/no current partner	1.3	0.3
Use condom consistently	5.2	0.1
Other*	5.3	1.3

* Includes against religion, too young, afraid, cannot afford.

Marital counseling, testing, and risk

Married young people were asked if they had had counseling and testing for HIV within their marriage, and whether the results were shared with their spouse (Table 12.8). For the most part, either both partners had tested or both partners had not tested. In less than 10 percent of couples had one partner tested but the other had not. Married couples in urban areas were significantly more likely to have been tested compared to those in rural areas; 53 percent of married females in urban areas report that both partners have been tested compared

to 18 percent of married girls in rural areas. A large percentage of couples had tested together (84 percent of males and 78 percent of females), reflecting feasibility and popularity of couples' testing for HIV. However, husbands were considerably more likely to know the results of their wives, than wives were to know the results of their husbands. This was particularly true among rural couples. Whereas 94 percent of rural married men report that they know their wives' result, only 86 percent of rural women know their husbands' result. Likewise, 83 percent of rural men report that their wives know their result.

TABLE 12.8 HIV and AIDS: Percent distribution of married adolescents who have had marital counseling and testing, context of testing, and perception of marital risk

	Males (n=410)			Females (n=1,680)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Marital partners have tested for HIV						
Neither have tested	47.9	77.7	70.9	37.1	76.4	65.4
Respondent only has tested	4.7	3.1	3.5	8.4	3.8	5.1
Spouse of respondent has tested	0.4	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.4
Both husband and wife have tested	47.0	17.4	24.1	53.1	18.3	28.1
Context of testing						
Alone	12.2	18.1	15.6	20.4	23.2	21.7
As a couple	87.8	81.9	84.4	79.6	76.8	78.3
Respondent knows spouse's result	92.4	94.3	93.5	91.5	85.9	88.7
Spouse knows respondent's result	92.1	83.2	86.8	94.1	88.1	91.2
Feels scared that spouse will give respondent HIV	0.8	2.5	2.1	9.3	5.5	6.5
Suspects spouse of being unfaithful*	3.9	5.2	4.8	16.9	12.2	13.5

* Those responding "yes" and "don't know" to the question: "Have you ever suspected your spouse of being unfaithful?"

Married females are considerably more likely than males to fear their spouses giving them HIV, and to suspect infidelity by their husbands. Seven percent of married females are scared that their husbands will give them HIV (9 percent of urban females; 6 percent of rural females). Likewise, 14 percent of married girls suspect their spouse of being unfaithful, compared to 5 percent of married boys.

Chapter Thirteen: Sexual & Gender-Based Violence

13.1 ATTITUDES TOWARD GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

Table 13.1 shows young people's attitudes toward gender-based violence (GBV) and the acceptability of wife beating. Just over half of both males and females believe that a wife should not be able to refuse her husband sex and that it is a man's right to have sex with his wife whenever he wants. The belief is more widely held among rural young people than urban young people. Only about one in ten young people believe that beating is a reflection of marital love.

TABLE 13.1 Gender-based violence: Percent distribution of respondents aged 15–24 holding conservative views related to gender relations and violence, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=3,988)			Females (n=3,827)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Agree with "A wife should not be able to refuse her husband sex"	46.1	68.1	59.7	47.3	63.4	56.5
Agree with "It's a man's right to have sex with his wife whenever he want."	41.2	70.3	59.1	37.4	62.8	52.6
Agree with "If a man doesn't beat his wife, it means he doesn't love her."	6.1	12.7	10.2	4.3	15.8	11.0
Believe beating a woman is justified in the following instances:						
If she burns the food	6.8	19.6	14.3	10.4	33.4	23.2
If she argues with her husband	13.5	25.8	20.8	17.4	41.7	31.1
If she goes to the neighbors without telling him	10.0	24.1	18.3	13.2	33.3	24.5
If she refuses to have sex with him	9.5	19.7	15.5	14.8	36.2	29.4
If she neglects the children	18.9	29.7	25.3	19.8	36.9	29.4
At least one circumstance mentioned above	28.9	51.6	42.2	32.5	65.0	50.8

Respondents were read a series of statements regarding possible actions of a wife—including burning the food, arguing with her husband, and refusing to have sex with him—and asked if her beating was justified in each instance mentioned. Rural young people were significantly more likely than urban young people to consider beating justified. For example, 26 percent of rural males and 42 percent of rural females felt a wife's beating was justified if she argued with her husband; 24 percent of rural males and 33 percent of rural females felt he was justified to beat her if she went to the neighbors without telling him. Overall, rural females were the most likely to consider beating justified. Sixty-five percent of rural females believed a beating was justified for at least one of the circumstances mentioned; 52 percent of rural males felt that beating was warranted in at least one of the circumstances.

13.2 FORCED SEX/RAPE

Table 13.2 shows the percent of young people who report that they have ever been forced to have sex, either during their first sexual encounter or subsequent encounters. Fifteen percent of girls report having ever been forced to have sex (16 percent of rural girls; 12 percent of urban girls). Two percent of boys reported having experienced forced sex. Reactions of female victims in urban areas differed significantly from those in rural areas. Thirty-eight percent of urban victims blame themselves for what happened to them, compared to 14 percent of rural victims. Urban victims were significantly more likely to tell someone and seek assistance; 25

percent of urban girls told someone about the experience compared to 6 percent of rural girls. Fifteen percent of urban girls sought medical care and 22 percent sought legal assistance, compared to only 7 percent of rural girls seeking medical care and <1 percent of rural girls seeking legal assistance.

TABLE 13.2 Gender-based violence: Percent distribution of sexually experienced respondents having ever experienced forced sex/rape, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=821)			Females (n=1,757)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Ever experienced forced sex/rape	1.4	2.8	2.2	12.0	15.9	14.7
Actions taken following forced sex/rape*						
Blame yourself for what happened	-	-	-	37.8	13.9	18.5
Told someone about it	-	-	-	25.4	5.8	10.5
Sought medical assistance	-	-	-	14.6	6.7	8.1
Sought legal assistance	-	-	-	21.7	0.7	4.7
Sought psychological support/counseling	-	-	-	3.6	4.5	4.3

* Among respondents reporting rape; boys excluded due to too few cases.

13.3 DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

Married young people were asked about experiences of domestic violence, using a specialized module developed by the DHS. Young people were read a series of violent acts and asked if their current or most recent spouse/partner had ever done this to them (Table 13.3). Wives were much more likely to experience violence at the hands of their partners, compared to husbands. The most common violent acts experienced by young women were being slapped (7 percent), being insulted (6 percent), being humiliated (5 percent), and being pushed or having something thrown at you (5 percent). Urban females were more likely to report being victims of violent acts from their husband including 10 percent reporting having been slapped and 8 percent having been pushed or having something thrown at them.

Overall, 17 percent of urban females had experienced at least one form of violence from their husbands as well as 11 percent of rural females. Considering acts of physical violence only (excluding insults and humiliation), 13 percent of urban females and 9 percent of rural females had experienced physical violence at the hands of their husbands. Six percent of men had experienced physical violence from their wives with more rural men reporting physical violence from their wives.

I used to beat the girls and do bad things to them…this happened because I used to have a bad opinion about females in general.

Male, age 20, Afar

We know girls and boys are equal, but we tease them anyway…We tell them that a females should be beaten up once a week, whether or not they do something wrong.

Male, age 20, Amhara

TABLE 13.3 Domestic violence: Percent distribution of married adolescents who have experienced domestic violence from their spouse/partner, by type of violence, sex and type of place or residence

	Males (n=351)			Females (n=1,407)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Type of domestic violence						
Slapped you	2.9	4.4	4.1	10.4	5.3	6.8
Insulted to make you feel bad about yourself	4.4	5.8	5.5	9.4	5.2	6.4
Humiliated in front of others	1.7	1.1	1.2	7.7	3.8	4.9
Pushed you or threw something at you	0.3	3.2	2.6	7.5	3.8	4.8
Punched with fist	0.9	2.6	1.8	4.2	3.1	3.4
Kicked or beat up	0.9	2.1	1.8	4.2	3.1	3.4
Twisted arm or pulled hair	0.3	2.5	2.0	5.3	2.4	3.3
Forced sex when you didn't want it	0.0	0.1	0.1	2.5	1.8	2.0
Threaten to hurt/harm someone close to you	0.0	1.3	1.0	3.3	1.3	1.9
Choked or burned you	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	1.4	1.3
At least one violent act (physical & emotional)	5.4	9.8	8.8	16.6	10.9	12.5
At least one violent act (physical only)*	3.9	6.5	5.9	13.2	8.6	9.9
Has been hit, slapped, beaten in last 3 months	0.1	0.8	0.6	5.0	3.6	4.0
Think they deserved last beating**	-	-	-	3.7	21.7	15.2
Spouse had been drinking/doing drugs during last beating**	-	-	-	5.6	15.6	11.6
Told someone about the beating**	-	-	-	38.0	21.3	27.9

*Does not include humiliation, insults, and threats. **Among those who were beaten in the last three months.

Among young women who experienced recent beating, 15 percent felt they deserved it. In particular, rural women were more likely feel deserving of violence (22 percent of rural women; 4 percent of urban women). In many instances, the beating was in the context of drinking (12 percent). Urban women were more likely to confide in someone about the beating (38 percent) than rural women (21 percent).

My father was very aggressive. He used to beat us harshly. He also hit my mother... He used to beat us for any reason. My father used to work in another region. Once, when I was a child, he had arrived home one day and my mother was still at the market... As soon as my mother got home, she brought him something to eat and some water so that he could wash his hands. Instead, he splashed the water on her face and started beating her with a stick... My mother lost unconsciousness... Everybody had feared that she was going to die. This was how some husbands beat their wives.

Female, age 24, SNNP

13.4 INFORMATION ON GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

Only one quarter of boys and 21 percent of girls have heard a message about gender-based violence in the previous year. Urban young people were significantly more likely to have heard a message compared to rural young people; 42 percent of urban boys and 36 percent of urban girls have heard a message related to GBV, compared to 13 percent of rural boys and 9 percent of rural girls. The most common sources of information on GBV were radio, television, newspaper, and teachers. Among rural young people, teachers, health workers, and community meetings were more important sources of information on GBV, compared to young people in urban areas.

TABLE 13.4 Gender-based violence: Percent distribution of young people who have heard a message/received information on gender-based violence in the last year and sources of information, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=3,188)			Females (n=3,561)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Heard message/received information on gender-based violence in the last year	42.4	13.4	25.3	36.0	9.2	20.9
Source of information						
Radio	86.0	64.8	79.4	79.9	35.6	68.9
Television	59.0	7.9	43.1	62.7	2.6	47.9
Newspaper	37.0	9.7	28.4	17.3	6.8	14.7
Teacher	13.4	16.9	14.5	16.8	33.1	20.9
Friend	9.7	21.1	13.3	13.2	46.1	21.4
Police	4.5	11.6	6.7	5.6	7.5	6.0
Health worker	2.3	12.6	5.5	0.9	7.7	2.6
Billboard	6.1	0.6	4.4	1.1	0.0	0.8
Community meeting	1.4	9.6	4.0	2.1	9.9	4.1
Pamphlet	3.3	0.4	2.4	2.7	0.5	2.2
Priest	1.1	4.9	2.3	0.5	0.9	0.6
Parent	1.2	4.6	2.2	4.1	14.6	6.7
Kebele official	0.2	4.2	1.5	1.0	9.4	3.1

Chapter Fourteen: Access & Utilization Of Services

14.1 PERCEPTIONS OF YOUTH-FRIENDLY SERVICES

Respondents were asked to imagine that they needed reproductive health services such as family planning, pregnancy-related services, or services related to HIV and AIDS. They were read a list of service characteristics that are often associated with "youth friendliness" and asked to rate the importance of the characteristic in the context of health services. Table 14.1 shows the percent of young people rating service characteristics as "very important" to them. Both males and females rated the friendliness of the staff and provider as the most important characteristic of a service, followed by low-cost or free services, proximity to one's place of residence, and short waiting times. Having providers that are the same sex as the client, or having young people involved at the service site were the least important to respondents.

TABLE 14.1 Youth-friendly services: Percentage of respondents considering characteristic as "very important" to them in choosing a health facility, by sex

	Males (n=4,641)	Females (n=4,743)
Service characteristic		
Friendly staff	72.0	65.1
Low-cost or free service	69.1	63.1
Near to place of residence	68.3	63.1
Short waiting time	69.2	61.3
Provider keeps information confidential	65.3	61.1
Provider is not rushed	61.8	59.2
Convenient hours	64.2	59.1
Provider is the same sex	48.7	46.8
Youth are involved in running the facility	48.6	45.8

14.2 UTILIZATION OF SERVICES & BARRIERS TO UTILIZATION

Table 14.2 shows the percent of young people who have utilized or been exposed to various services and facilities in the last year. Exposure to religious institutions was highest, with over 80 percent of young people having visited a religious institution in the last year. The next most common institutions visited were hospitals (20 percent), private clinics (19 percent), health extension workers (13 percent), and health centers/health posts (12 percent each). Specialized youth programs such as peer education, youth clubs, and youth centers were accessed to a far lesser extent than religious or health institutions.

Utilization of services may be related to travel time to and from the service (Table 14.3). Based on travel time to and from the service or facility, religious institutions seem to be the most accessible, with rural respondents spending an average of 54 minutes traveling to and from a service. Community conversations which are typically held in the community itself were also located close to respondents, with rural respondents taking, on average, 62 minutes to travel to and from the activity. Health centers, private clinics and hospitals required over two hours in travel time for rural respondents.

TABLE 14.2 Service utilization and barriers: Exposure to health institutions, youth programs, community conversations, and religious institutions in the last year, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,652)			Females (n=4,750)		
Type of institution/individual	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**All**
Church or mosque	96.5	84.2	88.8	92.3	77.4	83.4
Hospital	38.8	7.2	19.0	36.4	10.1	20.8
Private clinic	33.8	11.9	20.1	31.1	7.3	16.9
Health extension workers	6.0	16.2	12.4	6.2	18.5	13.6
Health center	17.4	7.3	11.1	19.4	9.1	13.3
Health post	10.2	13.6	12.3	8.7	16.0	13.0
"Community conversation"	13.6	11.8	12.5	8.6	8.2	8.4
Peer educator	8.1	4.1	5.6	11.2	4.9	7.4
Youth club	10.6	2.8	5.7	9.9	3.7	6.2
Youth center	15.1	3.7	8.0	7.2	1.6	3.8

TABLE 14.3 Service utilization and barriers: Mean travel time in minutes by users to and from institutions (two-way), by type of place of residence

Type of institution/individual	**Urban**	**Rural**
Church or mosque	36	54
"Community conversation"	36	62
Youth center	46	68
Youth club	44	68
Health post	50	90
Health center	54	134
Private clinic	54	140
Hospital	84	220

14.3 YOUTH CENTERS

Eleven percent of boys and 6 percent of girls have ever been to a youth center (Table 14.4). Considerably more urban young people have been to youth centers compared to rural young people. When asked the main reason for not visiting youth centers, the most common reasons were not knowing enough about the centers, what is offered, or where they are (40 percent of boys; 55 percent of girls), followed by not having a youth center in their vicinity (53 percent of boys; 38 percent of girls). Rural young people were more likely not to have a youth center in their vicinity, reported by 63 percent of rural boys and 47 percent of rural girls. Five percent of girls reported their parents or spouse does not approve of the centers.

TABLE 14.4 Youth centers: Percent distribution of respondents who have been to a youth center and reasons for not utilizing services and facilities, by sex and type of place of residence

	Males (n=4,652)			Females (n=4,750)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
Ever been to a youth center	19.4	5.4	10.6	9.9	2.4	5.5
Never been to youth center	80.6	94.6	89.4	90.1	97.6	94.5
Main reason(s) for not going to youth center*						
Do not know about youth centers/what's offered/ where located	32.2	44.1	40.1	46.8	59.4	54.6
No service in vicinity	34.4	62.6	53.1	23.0	46.7	37.6
No need for services	24.3	10.3	15.0	23.0	11.1	15.6
No time to go	18.0	2.7	7.8	18.1	4.2	9.6
Parents/spouse disapprove	2.4	1.2	1.6	6.6	3.4	4.6
No money for services/transport to services	2.5	1.7	2.0	2.5	1.3	1.8
Other**	2.4	0.5	1.2	1.8	1.0	1.3

*Percentages may sum to over 100 percent as more than one reason possible.
** Other includes considers oneself too young or too old, does not want to, sickness/disability.

Twenty-four youth centers were included in the study over six regions. The research team registered details of each of the youth center visitors during the five days of data collection. On average, each youth center had 56 visitors per day, ranging from 9 to 109 visitors per day (Table 14.5).

The vast majority of youth center visitors are male (83 percent). Other than Aksume Youth Center in Tigray region, all youth centers were dominated by male clients, with some having as many as 99 percent of their clients being male. Likewise, the vast majority of clients were in school (83 percent), with the exception of Aksume Youth Center. The age distribution of clients at the centers varied. Overall, 15 percent were younger adolescents, below the age of 15, and 6 percent were overage, aged 25 and above. Fifty-nine percent of youth center clients were in the age group 15–19.

TABLE 14.5 Youth centers: Volume and demographic profile of youth center visitors, by youth center

	Ave. visitors/day	Sex		Age group				School status	
		% Male	% Female	<15	15–19	20–24	25+	In	Out
All youth center visitors	56	82.9	17.1	15.0	59.3	19.7	6.0	82.9	17.1
Tigray									
Aksume YC	37	22.4	77.6	0.5	38.8	51.9	8.8	27.9	72.1
FGAE YC	62	77.5	22.5	26.1	57.7	16.0	0.2	95.8	4.2
Mayechew YC	55	73.5	26.5	18.9	53.5	25.5	2.1	87.6	12.4
Mekele YC	108	89.6	10.4	7.2	77.4	14.4	1.0	94.8	5.2
Afar									
Awash Dahgudina YC	26	90.8	9.2	10.0	53.8	30.0	6.2	81.5	18.5
Elewuha Kebele 1 YC	20	93.8	6.2	21.9	24.0	25.0	29.1	52.6	47.4
Haile Ela	22	91.0	9.0	8.1	59.5	20.7	11.7	77.5	22.5
Semar YC	19	99.0	1.0	23.8	25.0	36.9	14.3	73.8	26.2
Amhara									
Andinet YC	33	85.3	14.7	19.0	63.2	17.2	0.6	65.0	35.0
Azezo YC	60	94.0	6.0	9.3	31.0	33.0	26.7	52.7	47.3
Bahir Dar FGAE	65	64.5	35.5	11.0	53.5	30.6	4.9	75.2	24.8
Debre Markos Red Cross	21	86.4	13.6	0.0	55.4	41.7	2.9	77.7	22.3
Oromiya									
Abudu Bouro YC	86	88.0	12.0	11.6	61.0	18.8	8.6	85.6	14.4
Nekemte Town YC	52	89.2	10.8	2.7	53.3	34.5	9.5	70.9	29.1
Sofen Arejo YC	34	98.8	1.2	14.8	57.4	25.4	2.4	78.1	21.9
Woliso FGAE	51	66.5	33.5	15.4	46.5	22.0	16.1	66.1	33.9
SNNPR									
Beza YC	109	98.7	1.3	31.9	57.1	7.9	3.1	91.4	8.6
Biruh Tesfa	9	90.7	9.3	20.9	55.8	18.6	4.7	74.4	25.6
Bodeti Millennium YC	88	92.8	7.2	12.4	47.1	28.1	12.4	76.9	23.1
Debub Kilil YC	98	81.0	19.0	11.0	73.2	11.5	4.3	96.5	3.5
Addis Ababa									
Addis Ketema subcity YC	98	76.6	23.4	12.1	75.8	11.7	0.4	94.3	5.7
Alem Bank Millenn. YC	63	83.8	16.2	23.8	67.3	8.6	0.3	93.6	6.4
FGAE	56	91.0	9.0	15.5	68.3	14.0	2.2	90.3	9.7
Kolfe Koranyo YC	77	69.1	30.9	23.1	72.2	4.2	0.5	98.7	1.3

Source: Attendance register at youth centers.

Most young people found out about the youth center from friends (67 percent) followed by simply seeing the facility in their neighborhood (22 percent) (Table 14.6). Most clients at the youth centers seem to live in the vicinity of the youth centers as their travel time to the facilities is low. Twenty-eight percent of young people take less than 10 minutes to travel to the youth center and two thirds (67 percent) have to travel less than 20 minutes from their home to reach the center. The vast majority of youth center clients travel by foot to the centers (95 percent).

TABLE 14.6 Youth centers: Access to the youth centers and frequency of visits, by sex of youth center clients

	Males (n=1,466)	Females (n=235)	All (n=1,701)
How heard about the center			
Friends	68.2	62.5	67.4
Saw facility in neighborhood	22.2	19.6	21.9
Relatives (parents, siblings, aunts, uncles)	3.2	8.1	3.8
Youth center staff	3.5	5.5	3.8
Other*	2.9	4.3	3.1
Time to travel to center			
Less than 10 minutes	29.5	20.0	28.2
10–19 minutes	39.6	34.9	38.9
20–29 minutes	14.4	10.6	13.9
30+ minutes	16.5	34.5	19.0
Travel to center by foot	96.0	91.1	95.3
Number of visits in the last month			
Less than 10	39.0	48.4	40.2
10–19 visits	29.1	22.6	28.2
20–29 visits	25.2	24.7	25.2
30 + visits	6.7	4.3	6.4
Mean number of visits in last month	13.5	11.5	13.2
Needs permission before going to the center	37.6	61.7	40.9

Source: Exit interview with youth center clients.
* Other includes kebele officials, radio, TV, teachers. **Responses sum to over 100 as more than one reason possible.

Most youth center clients were frequent visitors to the centers; nearly 60 percent visited the centers at least 10 times a month, or one in three days. The average number of monthly visits was 14 visits by male clients and 12 visits by female clients. Most female clients of youth centers need permission before going to the youth centers (62 percent); most male clients of the youth centers do not need permission (62 percent).

When asked how youth center clients had used the center in the last month, the vast majority reported for recreational purposes (78 percent) (Table 14.7). Patterns of youth center utilization were different for boys compared to girls. Boys were considerably more likely to report using the center for recreation than girls (84 percent of boys; 41 percent of girls). After recreation, use of the library was a popular reason for going to the center (50 percent), mentioned by similar proportions of girls and boys. Girls were more likely than boys to report going to the center for personal development or services. For example, more girls reported visiting the center for skills training (14 percent of girls; 2 percent of boys), or for healthcare and family planning (8 percent of girls; 1 percent of boys).

TABLE 14.7 Youth centers: Patterns of youth center utilization among youth center clients, by sex

	Males (n=1,466)	Females (n=235)	All (n=1,701)
Reasons for coming to the center in the last month			
Recreation/to meet friends	83.7	41.3	77.8
Use the library	50.8	49.8	50.7
Attend a program (music, drama, etc.)	6.6	9.8	7.1
See staff, peer educators, get counseling	4.4	8.5	5.1
Computer use, internet access	4.4	5.6	4.6
Skills training	2.0	13.6	3.6
Healthcare, family planning	1.0	7.7	1.9
Other	2.1	4.7	2.5
Ever received RH or other healthcare (over all visits to youth center)			
Ever taken condoms	6.6	1.3	5.8
Ever received family planning	0.1	6.0	0.9
Ever seen health provider	3.1	7.3	3.7
Ever been counselor	8.4	7.1	8.2
Ever discussed with a peer educator	9.1	7.4	8.8
Experiences at the youth center			
Made new friends at the center	48.8	35.7	47.0
Ever teased by clients of the opposite sex at center	3.6	9.0	4.5
Ever teased by clients of the same sex at the center	8.3	4.7	7.8

Considering all the clients' visits to the center, few received condoms, healthcare or family planning, or discussed issues with a counselor. Only 8 percent of youth center clients had ever discussed issues with a counselor or peer educator; 4 percent of clients saw a healthcare provider and 6 percent obtained condoms at the centers.

Nearly half of the youth center clients report that they made new friends at the center (49 percent of boys; 36 percent of girls). Nine percent of girls report that they have been teased by boys at the center; 8 percent of boys report that they have been teased by other boys.

Chapter Fifteen: Young People In Special Circumstances

The general youth questionnaire asked about young people with disabilities. In addition, special surveys were undertaken among commercial sex workers, street youth, pastoral youth, and university students, who may not be easily sampled in household-based surveys.

15.1 DISABLED YOUNG PEOPLE

Two percent of young people reported themselves as disabled (2 percent of boys; 1 percent of girls) (Table 15.1). A slightly greater proportion of the urban population was disabled and the prevalence of disabilities seemed to increase with age, probably reflecting disabilities that are acquired through accident or illness.

TABLE 15.1. Disabled young people: Percentage of youth reporting themselves as disabled, by sex and selected characteristics

Background characteristics	Males (n=4,687)			Females (n=4,794)		
	Urban	Rural	All	Urban	Rural	All
All respondents	2.2	1.5	1.8	1.3	1.1	1.2
Age						
12–14	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.6	1.7	1.3
15–19	2.4	2.0	2.1	0.8	0.8	0.8
20–24	2.9	2.1	2.5	2.1	0.9	1.5
Marital status						
Never married	2.3	1.6	1.9	1.4	1.7	1.5
Currently married	0.0	0.9	0.7	1.1	0.1	0.4
Divorced/separated/widowed	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.9	1.9
Region						
Tigray	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.0	1.6	1.3
Afar	2.0	1.5	1.7	0.4	0.4	0.4
Amhara	2.3	0.8	1.1	0.5	0.8	0.7
Oromiya	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.2	1.2	1.6
Beneshangul Gumuz	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.7	1.1	1.1
SNNPR	2.7	2.2	2.4	0.8	1.4	1.2
Addis Ababa	1.8	-	1.8	1.8	-	1.8

Table 15.2 shows the nature of young people's disability as reported by respondents themselves. Most disabled young people described themselves as having a motor or limb disability as a result of polio, amputation, or another problem (39 percent). Thirty-seven percent of disabled young people reported themselves as blind or partially blind and 7 percent were deaf or hard of hearing. The majority of disabled young people acquired the disability (90 percent) rather than being born with it (10 percent).

TABLE 15.2. Disabled young people: Nature of disability and timing of disability, by sex

	Males (n=78)	Females (n=56)	All (n=134)
Type of disability (self reported)			
Motor disability/lame/amputee/polio	44.5	34.1	39.9
Blind/partially blind	27.8	47.6	36.5
Deaf/hard of hearing	6.0	9.4	7.4
Learning disability	5.8	0.0	3.3
Other	15.9	8.9	12.9
Timing of disability			
Born with disability	9.2	10.1	9.6
Acquired disability	90.8	89.9	90.4

Young people were asked a series of agree–disagree statements related to their experience as disabled young people (Table 15.3). Nearly half of disabled young people report that they did not go to school because of their disability (44 percent of boys; 53 percent of girls) and 33 percent report that their disability contributed to their dropping out of school. Forty-one percent report that they have been teased or harassed and 31 percent do not make friends easily. Sixty percent of disabled young people report that their families are supportive and 24 percent have a role model who is disabled.

TABLE 15.3. Disabled young people: Self-reported experience of disability, by sex

	Males (n=78)	Females (n=56)	All (n=134)
Disadvantage and lack of participation			
Did not go to school because of disability	43.7	53.0	47.8
Has been teased or harassed because of disability	43.9	36.4	40.6
Dropped out of school because of disability	33.9	32.7	33.3
Feel they do not make friends easily because of disability	36.5	24.3	31.2
Group membership and social support			
Family is supportive and understanding of disability	58.7	60.8	59.6
Have a role model who is disabled	28.9	18.4	24.3
Belong to a group for disabled people	19.5	19.0	19.3

Disabled young people were less likely to have ever been to school and to be in school at the time of the survey, compared to young people who were not disabled (Table 15.4). Disabled girls, in particular, were less likely to be in school; 23 percent of disabled girls were in school compared to 48 percent of non-disabled girls and 55 percent of nondisabled boys. Disabled girls were more likely to report having no friends (25 percent) compared to other categories of young people. Disabled males experienced more physical violence than their nondisabled counterparts; 6 percent of disabled boys had been beaten in the last three months, compared to 2 percent of nondisabled boys. Among young people who were sexually experienced a significant percent of disabled girls had experienced forced sex (33 percent).

TABLE 15.4 Disabled young people: Percent distribution of disabled and nondisabled young people in school, having no friends, and experiencing violence, by sex and disability status

	Males (n=4,687)		Females (n=4,794)	
	Nondisabled	Disabled	Nondisabled	Disabled
Education				
Ever been to school	80.0	75.8	73.1	64.3
Currently in school	55.3	41.8	47.5	23.4
Friendships and participation				
Reports having no friends	8.4	14.7	20.5	24.9
Violence				
Has been hit or beaten in the last three months	2.0	5.6	1.9	1.5
Has been forced to have sex (among sexually experienced)	2.2	0.0	14.6	33.1

15.2 COMMERCIAL SEX WORKERS

In all, 210 commercial sex workers (CSW) were purposely sampled in urban areas of the seven study regions. In each region, 30 CSWs were interviewed. Table 15.5 compares the background characteristics of girls in commercial sex work with the general population of urban girls. Girls in CSW were slightly less likely to have ever been to school than other urban girls (76 percent of CSWs had ever been to school compared to 86 percent of the general population of urban girls). Four percent of CSWs were currently enrolled in school. CSWs were significantly more likely to be migrant to the area (82 percent) compared to the general population (52 percent). While 24 percent of urban girls were married and 5 percent were divorced or separated, among CSWs in the sample, not one girl was currently married but 15 percent were divorced. A significant proportion of CSWs were double orphans (24 percent) or single orphans (29 percent), compared to the general population of girls (7 percent double orphans; 25 percent single orphans).

TABLE 15.5 Commercial sex workers: Percent distribution of general population of urban girls 15–24 and commercial sex workers, by background characteristics

	Urban females, general population (n=1,460)	Urban females in commercial sex work (n=210)
Age group		
15–19	53.0	44.8
20–24	47.0	52.9
Education		
Ever been to school	85.5	76.2
Currently in school	47.6	4.3
Mean years educational attainment	6.8	5.3
Migrant to the area		
Yes	52.0	81.9
No	48.0	18.1
Marital status		
Never married	71.4	84.8
Currently married	23.9	0.0
Divorced or widowed	4.7	15.2
Orphanhood status		
Double orphan	7.1	23.8
Single orphan	25.0	28.6
Both parents living	67.9	47.6
Friendships and participation		
Reports having no friends	26.2	20.7

Table 15.6 shows the sexual experience of CSWs versus the general population of urban girls. Mean age at first sex was slightly younger for commercial sex workers (16.5 years) compared to the general population (17.2 years). However, commercial sex workers were considerably more likely to have experienced coerced first sex (38 percent) compared to other urban girls (11 percent). Only 5 percent of CSWs reported that their first sexual partner was a paying client. Sixty-one percent reported that their first sexual partner was a boyfriend and 11 percent first had sex with a spouse. However, a large percentage (12 percent) reported that their first sex was with a complete stranger, which may be indicative of rape (data on rates not shown). Ninety-nine percent of CSWs report that they used condoms during their last intercourse and 75 percent have undergone voluntary counseling and testing (VCT).

Previous to sex work, many CSWs worked as waitresses or barmaids (29 percent), domestic workers (16 percent), renting beds (3 percent), or in petty trade (2 percent). On average, CSWs reported that they worked an average of 42 hours in the last week and earned an average of 1027 Birr (US $ 79) in the previous month (not shown).

TABLE 15.6 Commercial sex workers: Percent distribution of general population of urban girls 15–24 and commercial sex workers, by patterns of sexual behaviour

	Urban females, general population (n=1,460)	Urban females in commercial sex work (n=210)
Sexually experienced (yes)	35.5	100.0
Age at first sex*	17.2	16.5
First sex was coerced (yes)*	11.3	38.1
Number of sex partners in last three months (mean)*	0.8	29.2
Used a condom at last sex*	7.5	99.0
Had symptoms of a sexually transmitted infection*	1.8	2.9
Ever had VCT	49.1	74.6

* Among sexually experienced females

15.3 STREET BOYS

Thirty street children were interviewed in urban areas of each of the seven regions, totaling 210 street children interviewed. Only 28 of these respondents were female, and street girls' experiences likely differ significantly from those of males. As there were too few female respondents to analyze, they were removed from analysis. Therefore, results are based on interviews with 182 street boys in seven regions.

Street boys in the sample averaged 16.8 years of age, with 29 percent being in the younger age group, 12–14. Eighty-two percent had been to school and 18 percent reported that they were currently in school, all of them in government-run schools. A significant proportion were migrant to the area (78 percent). A considerable proportion of street boys interviewed were orphans. Forty-seven percent reported that they are double orphans and 26 percent were single orphans. Only 26 percent had two surviving parents.

Seventy-two percent of street boys had ever worked for pay (not shown). On average, working street boys started working at age 13. The most common types of work were daily laborer (23 percent), shoeshine (19 percent), construction work (14 percent), farmer/herder (10 percent), and car wash (7 percent). Working street boys worked an average of 38 hours in the previous week and earned an average of 190 Birr (US $ 14.60) in the previous month.

Twenty-six percent of street boys report that they have had sexual intercourse (data not shown). Among sexually experienced street boys, the majority first had sex with a commercial sex worker (39 percent), followed by a friend/social acquaintance (26 percent) or a girlfriend (26 percent). Most street boys first had sex out of curiosity (46 percent), because they thought their friends were doing it (38 percent) or out of peer pressure (29 percent). Forty-four percent report that they used a condom during their first intercourse.

Among those reporting their first sex was with a CSW, 61 percent said that a condom was used. On average, sexually active street boys have had 2.8 lifetime partners and 1 partner in the last three months. Ninety-one percent of boys used a condom during their last intercourse. Thirty-six percent have had VCT.

TABLE 15.7 Street boys: Percent distribution of street boys aged 12–24, by background characteristics

	Urban street boys (n=182)
Age group	
12–14	28.6
15–19	47.3
20–24	24.1
Education	
Ever been to school	82.3
Currently in school	18.3
Mean years educational attainment	4.1
Migrant to the area	
Yes	77.9
No	22.1
Marital status	
Never married	98.8
Currently married	0.6
Divorced or widowed	0.6
Orphanhood status	
Double orphan	47.2
Single orphan	26.4
Both parents living	26.4

15.4 UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

A total of 355 university students were interviewed at six universities: Adama, Dilla, Gondar, Hawassa, Nekemt, and Semera. Nearly equal numbers of males and females were interviewed (178 males; 177 females). On average, young people in the sample were 20 years of age. The vast majority were migrant to the area, presumably moving to attend the university, and most had never been married (Table 15.8). Compared to the general population of young people and to other categories of youth such as street boys or commercial sex workers, university students were considerably more likely to have two living parents, 75 percent of boys and 79 percent of girls.

TABLE 15.8 University students: Percent distribution of university students, by background characteristics and sex

	Males (n=178)	Females (n=177)
Age group		
15–19	12.5	31.6
20–24	87.5	68.4
Migrant to the area		
Yes	98.9	100.0
No	1.1	0.0
Marital status		
Never married	98.9	96.6
Currently married	1.1	2.8
Divorced or widowed	0.0	0.6
Orphanhood status		
Double orphan	3.4	4.5
Single orphan	22.0	16.4
Both parents living	74.6	79.1

Among the university students interviewed, 30 percent of boys and 9 percent of girls were sexually experienced (Table 15.9). Among sexually experienced females, first partners were either spouses/fiancés or boyfriends. Among boys, first sexual partners were mainly acquaintances or fellow students (53 percent), girlfriends (30 percent), or spouses/fiancées (11 percent). Only a minority of sexually experienced university students were sexually active in the last three months (25 percent of boys and 50 percent of girls). Only a minority of sexually experienced boys had multiple partnerships. Fifteen percent of boys reported having four or more lifetime partners.

While ever use of condoms was relatively high (64 percent of boys and 40 percent of girls), condom use during first sex was modest (28 percent of boys; 19 percent of girls). Only one boy reported having had burning pain during urination and discharge; three girls reported having burning during urination (not shown). Sixty-two percent of males and 66 percent of females have had VCT.

TABLE 15.9 University students: Sexual behavior and condom use among university students, by sex

	Males (n=178)	Females (n=177)
Ever had sex	29.8	9.0
Profile of first sex partner		
Boyfriend/girlfriend	30.2	50.0
Acquaintance/fellow student	52.9	0.0
Spouse/fiancé	11.3	50.0
Other*	5.6	0.0
Had sex in the last three months		
No	75.5	50.0
Yes	24.5	50.0
Number of lifetime partners		
One	58.5	93.8
Two or three	26.4	6.3
Four or more	15.1	0.0
Condom use		
Used a condom at first sex	28.3	18.8
Used a condom at last sex	56.6	33.5
Ever used a condom	64.2	40.0
Ever had VCT	61.9	65.9

* Other includes relative and CSW.

15.5 PASTORAL YOUTH

Pastoral youth were interviewed in Afar region, 119 in all. This population was characterized by low levels of schooling, particularly among girls. Only 11 percent of pastoralist girls had ever been to school compared to 65 percent of pastoralist boys (Table 15.10). At the time of survey, 5 percent of girls were attending school, compared to 47 percent of boys. A considerable proportion of girls had ever been married (61 percent), compared to 9 percent of boys.

Ninety-three percent of girls interviewed said that they were circumcised and 4 percent did not know (not shown). Among circumcised girls, 53 percent reported being infibulated, 36 percent reported excision, 1 percent had clitoridectomy, and 10 percent did not know the type of FGM/C they had. Thirty-two percent of girls were circumcised in infancy and the average age at circumcision was 5 years. A considerable number of girls (69 percent) opposed their own circumcision, though none reported that anyone else opposed it, to their knowledge.

TABLE 15.10 Pastoral youth: Percent distribution of pastoral youth, by background characteristics and sex

	Males (n=43)	Females (n=76)
Age group		
12–14	13.6	15.8
15–19	61.4	40.8
20–24	25.0	43.4
Ever been to school		
Yes	65.1	10.5
No	34.9	89.5
Currently in school		
Yes	46.5	5.3
No	53.5	94.7
Marital status		
Never married	90.7	38.7
Currently married	9.3	56.0
Divorced or widowed	0.0	5.3
Orphanhood status		
Double orphan	14.0	17.1
Single orphan	39.5	26.3
Both parents living	46.5	56.6

Chapter Sixteen: Implications For Youth Programs

The survey findings underscore the differing experiences of boys and girls as well as the varying conditions in urban and rural areas of Ethiopia. The divergent experiences and conditions imply that tailored strategies are needed to reach rural boys, rural girls, urban boys, and urban girls. In addition, young people in special circumstances, such as disabled youth, street youth, and young women in commercial sex work, exhibit widely varying experiences.

Myth: *Most young people live in two-parent households.*
Reality: *Many young people do not live with parents at all, especially girls.*
Recommendation: *Develop programs to support young people living outside of traditional family settings.*

Many youth programs assume that young people live with their parents, and strategies of youth programs include increasing parent–child communication. However, one out of five young people under age 18 had lost at least one parent and 3 percent of those under age 18 were double orphans. Many programs in Ethiopia do work to support orphans, especially those working within the context of the HIV epidemic. At the same time, among all children under 18, 15 percent of boys and 25 percent of girls were living with neither parent, though many had surviving parents. Some of these young people may be married, or may have migrated for jobs, education, or to escape early marriage or other hardships. Living away from parents is likely an indication of increased vulnerability including poverty, limited education and social support, and lack of a caring adult in one's life. Few programs address the significant proportions of young people—particularly urban girls—living away from their parents, who, as a group, warrant additional programmatic attention.

Myth: *All young people have friends and peers.*
Reality: *Many young people, especially girls, have no social networks or peer support.*
Recommendation: *Programs should seek to increase girls' social networks and safety nets.*

Programs such as peer education are designed with the assumption that young people have friends, peers, and social networks. A considerable number of young people—especially girls—report having no friends or other mechanisms of social support such as an alternative place to stay or someone from whom to borrow money. There is an emerging body of evidence suggesting that social connections and "social capital" may have a protective effect for young people. Programs should target the most marginalized youth and explicitly address their isolation and lack of participation. Strategies may include social mobilization and group formation, with the explicit objective of increasing social networks and safety nets, especially for urban girls and married girls.

Myth:*These days, young people receive information on puberty in school or from parents, aunts, uncles, and other family members.*
Reality: *Only one quarter of young people reported receiving family life education in school and a relatively small proportion of young people knew about puberty before it happened to them.*
Recommendation: *Increase programmatic attention to menarche and spermarche.*

Few young people were given any information before they had their first menstruation or wet dreams. In particular, very few boys were given information by anyone other than friends. Reproductive health programs should increase information given to girls and boys about menstruation and wet dreams, and encourage parents, teachers, and extended family members to discuss the experience with their children. About 1 in 6 girls missed school in the last year, with absenteeism associated with how effectively girls manage their menstruation. Programs should expand information and material support to girls on menstruation management.

Myth: *Boys and young men do not need specialized life skills and reproductive health education.*
Reality: *Boys experience special challenges during their early years and require special programmatic content.*
Recommendation: *Expand programs addressing the special needs of boys including RH information and attention to violence.*

Young men in the study were more likely than girls to experience corporal punishment from their parents or teachers, and teasing from other boys. Boys reported less communication with their parents on reproductive health topics and received information on puberty primarily from their peers. Additional efforts are needed to address the violence experienced by boys early on and teach them not to be violent in their later lives, with their wives, children and other men. Dedicated communication with boys on reproductive health topics and non-violence is needed in a safe space where boys can discuss their concerns and not feel pressure to prove their manhood.

Myth: *Young people lacking skills is the main barrier to positive livelihoods.*
Reality: *Skills training is insufficient to support the transition to positive livelihoods.*
Recommendation: *Livelihoods programs should go beyond skills training to job placement and apprenticeship.*

Few young people had received skills training. However, among those who had, two thirds had not put the skills to use, citing lack of ability to find a job. Livelihoods programs need to go beyond skills training to include job placement and apprenticeship, allowing young people to transition more easily into paid work in their chosen profession.

Myth: *Most young people in Ethiopia have premarital sex.*
Reality: *The majority of Ethiopian young people experience sex within marriage, especially girls and young people in rural areas.*
Recommendation: *Programs should address early marriage of girls as a main driver of early sexual initiation and first birth.*

A substantial number of programs in Ethiopia focus on premarital sexual activity, ignoring the fact that most young people in Ethiopia have first sex within the context of marriage. As such, the timing of marriage is the most influential predictor of the timing of sexual initiation. Delaying marriage would have the effect of delaying first sex, especially for girls, and related reproductive risks such as HIV and AIDS, early first birth, and fistula. Additional programs are needed to address early marriage, not only in rural areas, but in urban areas as well.

Myth: *Peer pressure is a major factor in young people initiating sex.*
Reality: *Young men tend to initiate sex out of curiosity or love; young women have sex because they feel obligated, feel love, or are coerced.*
Recommendation: *Increase attention to addressing feelings of obligation and nonconsensual sex within programs.*

Among girls, peer pressure was not as important a factor in sexual initiation as was nonconsensual sex. Yet few programs for young people include content on nonconsensual or coercive sex. Girls, in particular those in rural areas, tend not to tell anyone about the experience of forced sex and do not seek medical, psychological, or legal assistance. Programs should equip girls to avoid situations where they may experience undue pressure or forced sex. Programs should include messages to boys about sexual rights and what constitutes violations of those rights against girls and women. Both boys and girls need additional skills to adequately communicate their views and negotiate with partners.

Myth: *Marriage is a safety zone from HIV infection.*
Reality: *Many people contract HIV from their spouses and a number of married girls perceive their husbands as putting them at risk.*
Recommendation: *Increase attention to marital transmission of HIV/AIDS and use of condoms within marriage.*

Sexual frequency was much higher among married adolescents than among unmarried, sexually experienced youth. Moreover, use of condoms was virtually nonexistent within marital unions and many young people feel that it is a woman's obligation to have sex with her husband whenever he wants it. At the same time, many young married women suspected that their spouse had been unfaithful and worried about contracting HIV within their marital relationships. Yet, few HIV programs address marital transmission of HIV or use of condoms within

marital relationships. Condom use is needlessly stigmatized within marriage and yet HIV programs do not address the stigma. Additional programmatic attention to marital transmission of HIV is warranted.

Myth: *Youth-friendly facilities require high-cost inputs such as special corners for youth or special days and times for young people.*
Reality: *The quality that young people valued most highly in clinical facilities was the friendliness of the staff and low cost of services.*
Recommendation: *Retrain providers in existing facilities to provide services to young people in a nonjudgmental and friendly environment.*

The greatest proportion of young people considered friendly staff and low-cost services as the main qualities they looked for in a reproductive health facility. Having young people involved in running the facility was the least important aspect of the service. Existing clinical services can improve their "youth friendliness" by simple, low-cost methods such as training providers to be friendly and nonjudgmental. High-cost strategies such as having peer educators available at the facility do not seem to be of significant importance to young people.

Myth: *Youth centers reach a range of young people of both sexes.*
Reality: *Youth centers reach mainly boys and young men and mainly in-school populations.*
Recommendation: *Reorient youth centers to engage in specific targeting of young people in specific circumstances.*

Only a minority of young people had been to a youth center and twice as many boys had been to one compared to girls. The vast majority of youth center visitors were boys; and these were mainly boys who lived in the vicinity of the centers and came numerous times in a month. For the most part, they came for recreation, sports, television, and to meet their friends. Few girls attended and, in fact, in environments dominated by boys, such spaces could be intimidating for girls. Youth centers should redirect efforts. Centers could take advantage of the boys attending and offer intensified RH education and communication to boys, including programmatic content on nonviolence and supporting girls and women. As well, centers can set up sex-specific programs, so that spaces are not so intimidating for girls and more acceptable to their parents.

Myth: *Additional infrastructure such as youth centers is needed to reach out-of-school youth.*
Reality: *Existing institutions in the community, such as religious institutions, reach a significant proportion of young people.*
Recommendation: *Design additional strategies to reach young people through religious institutions.*

Over 80 percent of young people had visited a religious institution in the previous year. In addition, among both urban and rural youth, religious institutions seemed to be relatively accessible with the shortest travel time reported for distance to a church or mosque. Additional efforts to engage religious institutions in youth education and development should be explored in order to capitalize on the current reach of these institutions in Ethiopia.

Appendix A: Sample Information

TABLE A1: Study districts/woredas and sample per site, by region and type of respondent

Region & district/woreda	Number of enumeration areas (EAs)	Experiment or Control	Adolescent Boys 12–24	Adolescent Girls 12–24	Parents of adolescents 12–24	TOTAL
Tigray						
Naeder Adet	8	Experiment	160	160	80	640
Samre Saharti	8	Experiment	160	160	80	640
Gulo Mehada	8	Experiment	160	160	80	640
Kola Temben	12	Control	240	240	120	960
			720	**720**	**360**	**2880**
Afar						
Dubti	8	Experiment	160	160	80	640
Awash Fentale	8	Experiment	160	160	80	640
Argoba Liyu/Gach	8	Experiment	160	160	80	640
Afambo	6	Control	120	120	60	480
Mile	6	Control	120	120	60	480
			720	**720**	**360**	**2880**
Amhara						
Gonder	6	Experiment	120	120	60	480
Enarj Enawga	6	Experiment	120	120	60	480
Sekela	6	Experiment	120	120	60	480
Sekota	6	Experiment	120	120	60	480
Machakel	6	Control	120	120	60	480
Ambasel	6	Control	120	120	60	480
			720	**720**	**360**	**2880**
Oromiya						
Sekoru	6	Experiment	120	120	60	480
Sululta	6	Experiment	120	120	60	480
Adama	6	Experiment	120	120	60	480
Nekemtie	6	Experiment	120	120	60	480
Tiro Afeta	6	Control	120	120	60	480
Lome	6	Control	120	120	60	480
			720	**720**	**360**	**2880**
Beneshangul Gumuz						
Pawi	12	Experiment	240	240	120	960
Homosha	6	Experiment	240	240	120	960
Sherkole	6	Experiment	240	240	120	960
Dibate	12	Control	240	240	120	960
			720	**720**	**360**	**2880**
SNNPR						
Sodo Zuria	12	Experiment	240	240	120	960
Hawasa Zuria	12	Experiment	240	240	120	960
Dale	12	Control	240	240	120	960
			720	**720**	**360**	**2880**
Addis Ababa						
Kolfe Keraniyo	12	Experiment	240	240	120	960
Addis Ketema	12	Experiment	240	240	120	960
Gulele	12	Control	240	240	120	960
			720	**720**	**360**	**2880**
Total sample			**5040**	**5040**	**2520**	**12,600**

Appendix B: Data Collection Staff

SURVEY COORDINATOR LEMI NEGERI

Coordinators

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Berhane W/Gebrael
Berhanu Arba
Desalegn Doja
Esubalew Derseh
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Hafiz Shahawol
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Markos Shimels
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Sheko Guru
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Sori Dadi
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Tesfaye Azimera
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Supervisors

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Aster Eyob
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Ayelech Habte
Ayub Temam
Birhanu Demeke
Eneyew Temesgen
Esayas Fekadeselase
Eyeberu Demsash
Faitu Adere
Getahun Teferi
Kalayu Halefom
Kassahun Tilahun
Kenaw Babu
Kibrom Abadi
Merga Abetu
Mihretu Gezahegn
Shimels Getahun
Takele Negewo
Temesgen Eneyew
Temesgen Nigatu
Teshale Hirphasa
Teshome Tadesse
Tewodros Lulu
Tsegaye Alemu
Tsegaye Kejela
Tsegeberhan G/Hiwot
Tsige Yohannes
Yasabu Shiferaw
Zer'u Berhane

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Abdulkerim Benur
Abeba Belay
Abebe Ayalew
Abebech Tsegaye
Abel G/Egziabher
Aberash Girmay
Aberash Halefom
Aberham Afeta
Abiot Saketa
Abrehet Tekle Geworgis
Adane Shibesh
Adanech Chemeda
Addis Tsegaye
Addise Zegeye
Adugna Kenaw
Africawit Awel
Agegnehu G/Selase
Agegnehush Asires
Alemayehu Abebe
Alemayehu Deme
Alemtsehay Tadesse
Alemtsehay Wana
Etsifi Afework
Eyerus Ano
Fasika Esubalew
Fekadu Geta
Fekadu Mitku
Fekadu Shinkute
Feleke Chamo
Felekech Kifle
Fiker Ayele
Fikrte Chane
Gebrekiros Woldegerima
Gebresilase G/Tsadik
Gemechu Meta
Genet Kebede
Getachew Berhe
Girma Tesema
Gitu Khassay
Guday Tamre
Habtam Yirgete
Habtam Zemene
Haile Michael Girma
Hailu Banjaw
Haimanot Libenu
Mulunesh Mengstu
Negashe Negussa
Raheel Hailu
Rahel Yaregal
Ribka Yimer
Sahlitu Made Birhan
Samson Abdisa
Seble Hailu
Seid Mohammed
Selamawit Jemal
Semhar Tesfatsion
Senait Degefa
Senait Tadese
Senay Atsebeha
Sewunet Tadesse
Shewazewud Berhanu
Shewit G/Tsadik
Shibre Yadeta
Shiwaye Negewo
Simegn Siyum
Simegnaw Maru
Sisay Tsegaye
Solomon Gidey

Almaz Girma
Amelework Mamo
Ansha Yimer
Aregash Assefa
Aregash Yigezu
Asaye Tadele
Asegidew Abebe
Askalu Tekle
Asmaru Tsegaw
Asnake Teka
Asnakech Asefa
Asresash Alemu
Aster Sehul
Ayalew Alemu
Ayalew Belay
Ayalkibet Guta
Ayinalem Berhanu
Azalesh Tekle
Badege Ayele
Basmit Solomon
Bayiray Arefe
Bayush Adane
Bayush Sisay
Behailu Belache
Bejigie Olana
Belay Nigatu
Beletu Duguma
Bereket Desta
Berhanu G/Meskel
Berhe Kunuye
Betelhem Berhanu
Birhane Assefa
Birhanu Hirpa
Birkie Wubshet
Birtukan Muluneh
Buzuna Negewo
Chala Terefa
Dasash Menge
Dawit Daka
Dawit Futra
Debre Getachew
Degu Girma
Denkinesh Haile Gebrael
Dereje Gobena
Desalegn Bekele
Desta Gibore
Emebet Alemu
Esmael Asefa
Estalu Belay
Etaferahu Mega
Etenesh Mahammed
Hana Kemal
Haregewoin Addis
Haregewoin Tekle
Helen Adhanom
Helen Arage
Helen Eliyas
Henock Ayele
Hiwot G/Medihn
Hurube Fekadu
Jember Worku
Kalyu Atsebeha
Kassa Alemu
Kebede Gudisa
Kebrikulu Mengistu
Kelemu Bayle
Lemlem Khassay
Lensa Bikela
Lensa Dereje
Letegebrael G/Medihn
Leyikun Derb
Libsework Abebaw
Mahlet Demssie
Mahlet Gashaw
Marta Madebo
Marta Yimam
Mastewal Kassahun
Me'aza Aberham
Me'aza Haile
Mekonnen Amare
Mekonnen Yami
Melat Tilahun
Melkam Amsalu
Mengist Abdis
Mengistu Chala
Meresa Giday
Meron Dibekulu
Meseret Bihonegn
Meseret Demlew
Meseret Getachew
Meseret Lema
Mesfin Merkeb
Mesmer Mekonnen
Mesrach Belachew
Mihret Arefayine
Moges Melese
Mohammed Jelan
Mohammed Mussa
Mulu G/Michael
Mulualem Azimera
Mulugeta G/Tsadik
Mulunesh Megaro
Sultan Jundi
Tamirat Endale
Tamiru Bekele
Tegbaru Batire
Teguade Mihretu
Tejitu Shiferaw
Teka Tareke
Tenanesh Wondimu
Tesfaye Degefu
Tesfaye Molla
Tibebu Tefera
Tigst Demelash
Tirsit Berhanu
Tiru Bekele
Tirukelem Mulu
Tisemialesh Mekonnen
Tisit Seyoum
Tsegamlak Endale
Tsehay Tadesse
Tsigereda Bayileyegn
Wolday G/Hiwot
Worku Meles
Wozam G/Medihn
Wubayehu Admas
Wubshet Oycha
Wudnesh Alemu
Yalemzerf Motayfir
Yared Tefera
Yayesh Desalegn
Yekatit Tefera
Yemata Asefa
Yemsrach Mulatu
Yeshi Argeta
Yeshimebet Mengiste
Yeshiwork Haile
Yeshmebet Mengistu
Yihenew Abebe
Yirgalem Biratu
Yirgalem Tesfaye
Zahra Mohammed
Zelalem Beza
Zemenay Yigzaw
Zenebech Dibaba
Zertihun Abebe
Zertihun Degu
Zewude Eniyew
Zewude Sertse
Zewuditu Alemayehu
Zinash Gemechu
Zufan Tesfaye

Appendix C: Standard Errors

TABLE A2: Adolescent boys: Table of standard errors (based on unweighted data)

Category	Estimate	Standard Error	CV (%)	95% confidence interval		Design effect	Number of observations
				Lower	Upper		
Type of place of residence							
Urban	0.382	0.008	2.2	0.366	0.399	1.41	1,795
Rural	0.618	0.008	1.36	0.601	0.634	1.41	2,901
Ever been to school							
No	0.198	0.008	3.79	0.183	0.213	1.67	930
Yes	0.8	0.008	0.94	0.786	0.815	1.66	3,759
NA	0.001	0.001	37.77	0	0.003	1	7
Years of education							
None	0.806	0.006	0.75	0.794	0.818	1.09	3,785
1–8 yrs	0.192	0.006	3.13	0.18	0.204	1.09	902
NA	0.002	0.001	33.3	0.001	0.003	1	9
Marital status							
Currently married	0.072	0.004	5.37	0.065	0.08	1.06	340
Separated	0.004	0.001	24.05	0.002	0.006	1.1	19
Divorced	0.01	0.001	14.82	0.007	0.013	1.04	47
NA	0.913	0.004	0.47	0.905	0.921	1.07	4,288
Widowed	0	0	70.7	0	0.001	1	2
Main water source							
Purchased bottle	0.002	0.001	31.6	0.001	0.003	1	10
Tap in compound, private	0.103	0.005	4.78	0.093	0.113	1.23	484
Tap in compound, shared	0.08	0.004	5.13	0.072	0.088	1.08	377
Public tap	0.25	0.007	2.72	0.237	0.264	1.16	1,176
Protected well	0.154	0.006	4.06	0.142	0.166	1.4	723
Unprotected well	0.156	0.006	3.84	0.145	0.168	1.28	734
Tap inside	0.02	0.002	10.63	0.016	0.024	1.07	93
River, ponds	0.231	0.007	3.09	0.217	0.245	1.34	1,084
Rain	0.002	0.001	35.33	0.001	0.003	1	8
NA	0.001	0.001	37.73	0	0.003	1	7
Number of friends							
None	0.899	0.005	0.5	0.89	0.908	1.06	4,221
1–5 friends	0.094	0.004	4.69	0.085	0.103	1.07	442
NA	0.007	0.001	17.27	0.005	0.009	0.99	33
Ever heard of HIV							
Yes	0.921	0.005	0.51	0.912	0.93	1.42	4,325
No	0.072	0.005	6.37	0.063	0.08	1.47	336
NA	0.007	0.001	16.83	0.005	0.01	1	35
Frequency of sex							
1–10 Times	0.32	0.01	3.12	0.3	0.34	2.15	1,503
11–20 Times	0.379	0.008	2.18	0.363	0.395	1.36	1,781
21–30 Times	0.301	0.007	2.46	0.286	0.315	1.22	1,412

TABLE A3: Adolescent girls: Table of standard errors (based on unweighted data)

Category	Estimate	Standard Error	CV (%)	95% confidence interval		Design Effect	Number of observations
				Lower	Upper		
Type of place of residence							
Urban	0.378	0.008	2.07	0.363	0.394	1.25	1,816
Rural	0.622	0.008	1.26	0.606	0.637	1.25	2,984
Ever been to school							
Yes	0.697	0.007	1.07	0.682	0.712	1.27	3,345
No	0.302	0.007	2.48	0.287	0.317	1.27	1,449
NA	0.001	0.001	40.76	0	0.002	1	6
Years of education							
None	0.717	0.007	0.95	0.704	0.73	1.09	3,441
1–8 yrs	0.281	0.007	2.41	0.268	0.295	1.09	1,350
NA	0.002	0.001	33.3	0.001	0.003	1	9
Marital status							
Currently married	0.306	0.007	2.42	0.291	0.32	1.24	1,468
Separated	0.011	0.002	14.19	0.008	0.014	1.04	51
Divorced	0.033	0.003	7.8	0.028	0.038	1.01	160
Widowed	0.003	0.001	27.7	0.001	0.004	1	13
NA	0.648	0.008	1.2	0.632	0.663	1.27	3,108
Main water source							
Tap inside dwelling	0.03	0.003	8.62	0.025	0.035	1.09	142
Tap in compound, private	0.097	0.005	4.71	0.088	0.106	1.14	464
Tap in compound, shared	0.092	0.004	4.72	0.083	0.1	1.08	441
Public tap	0.265	0.007	2.51	0.252	0.278	1.09	1,270
Protected well	0.147	0.006	3.76	0.136	0.157	1.17	704
Unprotected well	0.129	0.005	3.88	0.12	0.139	1.07	621
Rain	0.003	0.001	24.92	0.002	0.005	1	16
River, ponds	0.231	0.007	2.9	0.218	0.244	1.21	1,108
Purchased bottle	0.005	0.001	21.25	0.003	0.006	1	22
NA	0.003	0.001	28.85	0.001	0.004	1	12
Number of friends							
None	0.636	0.008	1.23	0.62	0.651	1.26	3,051
1–5 friends	0.36	0.008	2.17	0.345	0.376	1.27	1,730
NA	0.004	0.001	22.86	0.002	0.006	1	19
Ever heard of HIV							
Yes	0.902	0.005	0.53	0.893	0.912	1.24	4,331
No	0.09	0.005	5.14	0.081	0.099	1.25	432
NA	0.008	0.001	16.79	0.005	0.01	1.05	37
Frequency of sex							
1–10 Times	0.256	0.009	3.41	0.239	0.273	1.92	1,228
11–20 Times	0.394	0.008	1.97	0.379	0.41	1.21	1,893
21–30 Times	0.35	0.008	2.15	0.335	0.365	1.19	1,679