



Preliminary Gender Profile of Ethiopia

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Addis Ababa, Ethiopia - November 2014



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List of Acronyms

ABE	Alternative Basic Education
ALDI	Agricultural Development-Led Industrialization
AM	Artisanal mining
ASM	Artisanal and small scale mining
BMI	Body Mass Index
BOWCYA	Bureau of Women, Children and Youth Affairs
BPA	Beijing Platform for Action
BPR	Business Processes Re-engineering
CEDAW	Convention on Elimination of Discrimination against Women
CRGE	Climate Resilient Green Economy
CSA	Central Statistics Agency
DGGE	Donors Group on Gender Equality
DFID	Department of International Development
EGLDAM	Ethiopian Goji Limadwi Diregitoch Aswegaj Mahiber
EDHS	Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey
EMB	Executive Management Body
EMDHS	Ethiopia Mini Demographic and Health Survey
ESDP	Education Sector Development Program
ESOG	Ethiopian Society of Gynecologists
EWLA	Ethiopian Women Lawyers Association
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FeMSEDA	Federal Micro and Small Enterprises Agency
FHH	Female Headed Households
FGM/C	Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting
GEAC	Girls Education Advisory Committee
GER	Gross Enrollment Rate
GRB	Gender Responsive Budgeting
GO	Government
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GTP	Growth and Transformation Plan
HEP	Health Extension Program
HEW	Health Extension Workers
ILO	International Labor Organization
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MMR	Maternal mortality ratio

MOI	Ministry of Industry
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
MOWA	Ministry of Women's Affairs
MOWCYA	Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs
MPs	Member of Parliaments
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
MOME	Ministry of Mines and Energy
MOM	Ministry of Mines
MSEs	Micro and Small Enterprises
NAP-GE	National Action Plan for Gender Equality
NER	Net Enrollment Rate
NGO	Non-Government Organizations
NHA	National Health Account
ODWaCE	Organization for Development of Women and Children in Ethiopia
PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty
PMO	Prime Minister's Office
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SOP	Standard Operational Plan
TB	Tuberculosis
TOT	Training of Trainers
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNCT	United Nations Country Team
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizations
URRAP	Universal Rural Road Access Program
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WAB	Women's Affairs Bureau
WAO	Women's Affairs Office
WAD	Women's Affairs Department
WDA	Women Development Army
WFP	World Food Program
WB	World Bank

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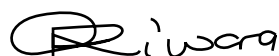
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Foreword

Women play a critical role in Ethiopia. They are in all segments of society and undertake the majority of household related tasks. Over the last decades the contribution women make to society and economic growth in Ethiopia has increasingly been recognized and appreciated. However, some challenges in achieving gender equality and women's empowerment remain and a lot of work still needs to be done.

It is well recognized that, the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia has made tremendous efforts towards gender equality and the empowerment of women. The Constitution of Ethiopia, adopted in 1995, assures women of equal rights with men in every sphere and emphasizes affirmative action to remedy the past inequalities suffered by women. It also reiterates the rights of women to own and administer property as well as access to reproductive health services. Additionally, the family law has been revised to align it with the constitutional rights of women. The country has put in place a Joint Land Certification Program which has a positive impact on various dimensions of women's livelihood and gender relations. The certified women are aware of their land rights and land related provisions, have a higher perceived level of tenure security, and are more willing to protect their land rights and more likely to participate in community activities, as leaders in their own right.

There are also a number of Regional and International provisions that the country has ratified in relation to women and girls human rights. Some of these instruments include: Protocol of the African Charter to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003), Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and Convention on the Rights of the Child, Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women.

The review of the Millennium Development Goals revealed that while Ethiopia is progressing in the implementation of all MDGs, it has limitations in achieving Goal 3 on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment. One of the reasons for this is limited allocation of resources for the implementation of gender equality and women's empowerment related programmatic interventions from both the national budget and the development partners. While gender equality and women's empowerment existed as a stand-alone pillar, it was not adequately mainstreamed in all sectors of growth due to a lack of evidence and data.

The continued action by government including its decision to have standalone strategic pillar for Promotion of Women and Youth Empowerment, ensuring their effective participation in the development and democratization process and enabling them to equitably benefit from the outcomes of development is encouraging. Yet, we aspire for all strategic pillars of GTP II will have gender sensitive indicators, implementations and respective monitoring and reporting along with allocation of adequate budget for this purpose. The progressive work on Gender Responsive Budgeting and Planning, Implementation and Reporting and accountability mechanisms that the government has embarked on over the years is highly appreciated. It is however expected to be further strengthened in GTP II and the tools to be applied by all sectors and development partners.

Hence the production of this Preliminary Gender Profile is timely providing the much needed gender specific data to inform upscaling of gender responsive planning, budgeting, monitoring, reporting and accountability by all actors and further motivate policy makers and development partners to invest in gender equality and women empowerment (GEWE).

The Preliminary Gender Profile, that has been finalized in 2014 is an initial step to provide analytical and data on the status of women and men in Ethiopia in key areas, including institutional and policy coordination mechanisms, women's participation in politics and decision-making organizations, in education, in healthcare, and both paid and unpaid economic activities, outlining progress made as well as remaining challenges for the promotion of gender equality. It is intended to indicate emerging trends, especially around the reduction of poverty, promotion of women's rights and freedom from violence, and strengthening national institutions to respond to gender equality and empowerment of women. This first attempt by EU and UN Women is to develop the preliminary gender profile that will serve as a base of a comprehensive survey to be undertaken with in the GTP II time frame (2016-2020).

We are confident that different Organizations, development partners and other stakeholders will find the preliminary Gender Profile useful in their planning and programming. Gender equality is a pre-requisite for development and the Gender Profile will be a first step to put gender at the center of all development efforts while at the same time addressing issues that hinder women's empowerment and participation at all levels of decision making, enjoying a life free from discrimination of any form.

Executive Summary

Introduction

Ethiopia has committed to standards for gender equality and women's human rights as a natural outcome of its own Constitution and its National Policy on Women (1993), which guarantee women's equality and the protection of women's human rights in various spheres of life. The Family Law (revised 2000) and the Penal Code (revised 2005) have been made more congruent with international and regional instruments. Ethiopia as a member of the international community has signed a number of agreements promoting and protecting the rights of women. It has ratified the Convention on the Political Rights of Women (CPRW) and the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). Ethiopia has also adopted the principles of the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action (BPA) and has endorsed and engaged with the Millennium Development Goals of 2000.

While global and regional instruments as well as domestic laws and policies for the advancement of women are crucial, their enforcement and implementation is equally important. The outstanding progress made over the year is often comprised by deep rooted prejudices and stereotype coupled with limited capacities at different levels.

Thus, with the objective of providing up to date data / information, UN women Ethiopia country office has developed a preliminary gender profile with a financial support secured from European commission. The Preliminary Gender Profile thus, gives a snapshot of women's positions in political, social and economic spheres and on the institutional coordination mechanisms, legal framework. It further emphasizes on the status of women in agriculture, trade, industry, infrastructure and mining.

Highlights of the key Findings

Women in Leadership/Power and Decision-making:

Women's representation in politics and decision-making has been increasing steadily, at various levels. The level of women's representation in the FDRE House of People's Representatives grew from 21.4 percent to 27.9 percent in 2005 and 2010 legislative election, respectively. This is a remarkable increase compared to the 1995 and 2000 elections in which women held only 2.83 percent, (13 of out of 547 seats) and 7.7 percent, (42 out of 547 seats), respectively. There is also a slight increase in the number women's representation in the executive branch. The recent appointment of a woman as a Deputy Prime Minister in 2014 is another milestone in women's advancement on the leadership ladder.

Findings indicate that measures put in place by the government to increase women's numbers and participation in leadership and governance are yielding results, however, there are still challenges. Women's numbers in the civil service, including the judiciary, national legislative assembly, or at senior/management levels have not reached the critical mass of 30% necessary to engender processes and decision-making and bring about change for women.

Education: National strategies to ensure equal access to education through the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP IV) and Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector (2014) are creating real progress in reducing educational disparities between boys and girls. These initiatives have led to marked achievements in increasing the number of enrolled girls and boys across different regions. Nevertheless, the gender parity index reveals gaps in all levels of education and most significantly in secondary and tertiary levels. For example, the gender parity index (GPI) at primary level which was 0.98 in 2009/10 has dropped to 0.96 in 2012/13 indicating higher gaps in the enrollment of girls. This is attributed to socio-economic challenges such as girls' responsibilities for time-taking household chores and institutional challenges including lack of gender sensitive facilities and services at all levels. In addition to this, lower completion rates of females along with lower performance in Grade 10 national examination is a major gap that the finding revealed. In TVET and higher-level education, females are underrepresented in certain fields of technology and science. Among the major causes for the gender disparity cited are the low number of female teachers and mentors for young girls, compounded with socio-cultural and economic factors that constrain females' participation and performance.

Health: In the past few years' women's health in relation to certain indicators such as HIV prevalence rate, reduced maternal mortality rates and increased access and use of contraceptives have shown some improvement, although the still high maternal mortality rate, poor nutritional status of women and gaps in knowledge about HIV mother to child transmission remain problematic. The HIV prevalence rate in Ethiopia has reduced significantly though women aged 30 to 34 years have the highest prevalence at 3.7 percent compared to (male). Gaps in knowledge about the prevention of mother to child transmission (MTCT) are seen most common among women with no education, and those residing in rural areas, who make up over 80% of the population. Other health concerns of women include poor nutritional status, and high proportion of deaths among women due to malaria. Though more numbers of women died from TB, malaria, intestinal worms, heart problems and hypertension than men, there is insufficient

information on female deaths compared to information on male deaths. Therefore, a policy requiring better recording of causes of death in women and men is required. Despite the higher percentage of reported illness among women, gender disparity is also visible in health seeking behavior, with more men accessing medical assistance.

Economy: The majority of Ethiopian women are engaged in the agriculture sector (add percentage). They have low levels of participation in formal sales and services, professional, technical, or managerial occupations. Women are overrepresented in formal unemployment, with the largest rates of unemployment recorded among adult and young women, by comparison with men and boys. Female unemployment rates measured between 2005 and 2013 have been significantly higher than that of males. Over this period male employment was 84.7 percent (2005) and 82.7 percent (2013) whereas women in employment was effectively static (69.0 percent and 69.8 percent respectively).

Even when employed, women face constraints in access to their wages. The majority of women who are engaged in the agriculture sector work for subsistence farming. Data showed that 56 percent of women engaged in agricultural work were unpaid workers (Source? 2011). In general, 30 percent of women were not paid at all for their work in 2011, and only 39 percent were paid in cash. In terms of land ownership, the CSA Agricultural Sample Survey of 2006/7 indicated that the number of male landowners (land certified) outnumbers the female landowners (land certified), almost by five times, 9.6 million vs. 2.3 million, respectively. The land certificate programme, which legally requires the issuance of land ownership certificate in the name of the husband and the spouse, has been a significant step forward which has contributed to raising women's social and economic status, both outside and inside the home.

Industry sector: Data indicates that more women are participating in certain manufacturing industries such as the food processing industry while they are less represented in others. The proportion of female owners of manufacturing industries is also found to be much lower than that of males. The finding showed that a total 138,954 persons were engaged in small scale manufacturing industries in the country during 2007/08 of which 89.9 percent were males. Of the total, around 40 percent were unpaid family workers, 3.1 percent were unpaid apprentices and 5.4 percent were seasonal and temporary workers. The proportion of permanent paid employees was 48.1 percent of the total. Of the total 14,100 women who took part in small scale manufacturing industries in 2010, 58.0 percent were unpaid family workers, while 4.1 percent were unpaid apprentices, 1.6 percent paid apprentices and the rest 37.4 percent permanent paid employees. In comparison to the above data, it was possible to infer that the proportion of women who are unpaid family workers was higher than

the proportion of men in the same status. Data for the same year shows that in general the proportion of male paid employees is higher than the proportion of female paid employees. However, in the efforts to assess trends on women's role and participation there are gaps in availability of most recent information in this sector. On top of these, much needed information is lacking on women's challenges, presence of special incentives for women and successes at the national scale.

Mining: According to the finding, men's engagement in the mining sector is three times more than women's, with exception of Benishangul-Gumuz and Tigray, where the participation of women is quite pronounced, at 68 and 42 percent respectively. In terms of Artisanal and Small Scale Mining (ASM), though there are no official statistics gathered in the sector, artisanal miners in Ethiopia are estimated to be 800,000 to 1,000,000; and women's involvement in artisanal mining ranges from 95 percent in Benishangul to 30 percent in Oromia. Give women's underrepresentation in the mining sector in general, the gender directorate of the then Ministry of Mines and Energy (MoME; now, the Ministry of Mines) has been advocating to engender the draft Mining Policy.

Infrastructure: An assessment of women's participation and benefits through national infrastructure revealed that further actions are required to enhance women's access to roads, potable water, food markets, and sources of energy. Nevertheless, significant achievements have been made in the sector through infrastructure development initiatives, and water and energy schemes. Efforts have also been made to improve women's access to low cost urban housing using a quota system, though further studies are recommended in order to determine the extent to which women actually access and benefit from this. In the telecommunication sector, there is a need for comprehensive information on women's actions as users of telecommunications, especially in reference to enhancing their livelihoods. While disaggregated information is available on the number of women and men engaged in Micro and Small Enterprises (MSEs) under the infrastructure sector, further studies are recommended to determine women's successes and challenges in benefitting from this scheme in particular, and the infrastructure sector in general.

The study has also looked into emerging issues and gender based violence that are threatening the lives of women and girls such as irregular migration and violence targeting women and girls. One of the emerging issues in Ethiopia is the increasing number of women domestic workers who migrate to other countries in search of employment. The number of migrants who used regular channels to other countries has grown significantly. In the five year period from 2008/09 to 2012/13 the total number of legal migrants reached 459,810, of which 94.3% were

females¹. Most migrants in this period travelled to Saudi Arabia, followed by Kuwait and Dubai. The major drivers of migration are cited as poverty, limited opportunities for employment, and lack of access to formal education for rural women. The Government of Ethiopia has currently placed a halt on migration to the Middle East for employment until a new policy is drafted to protect the rights of migrant workers; this is being done in partnership with the Governments of Middle East countries.

Likewise, the study has reported higher incidences of domestic violence among young adults. There is also a high occurrence of rape, especially through experience of coerced first sexual initiation. Despite the significant decrease in the incidence of HTPs inflicted on women, the prevalence is still high with varying degrees across the regions. Among the harmful traditional practices that are inflicted on women, Female Genital Mutilation or cutting (FGM/C), early marriage and marriage by abduction are the principle forms.

Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women: The institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women in the country have evolved over time in terms of structure, capacity and leadership. This includes decisions 471/2005 and 691/2010 which called for the establishment of Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA) and Ministry of Women, Children and Youth (MoWCYA), respectively. The capacity of the women's civil servants to act as a catalyst for the advancement of gender-aware policies and the implementation of laws has increased significantly over the course of the last decade, particularly at the federal level. On-going programs to develop sector-specific gender mainstreaming guidelines and gender audits demonstrate MoWCYA's increased capacity to carry out its mandate and coordination function, which is further supported by Regional Ministries of Women Affairs. Amongst others, achievements include the implementation of Gender Responsive Budgeting by the Gender Directorate of Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MOFED) and the development of gender mainstreaming guidelines and the appointment of inter-departmental gender focal points within the Ministry of Agriculture.

Nevertheless, the prioritization of gender equality by Departments and Ministries and consequently allocation of adequate resource remain challenging. Measuring and tracking progress and sex disaggregated data collection to inform national planning processes are a known constraint. A positive aspect of this is the background of information currently available from non-governmental actors.

1 Unpublished data from MOLSA, Employment Services Department, accessed on June 3, 2014

Coordination Mechanisms: The coordination mechanisms of the women's machinery is twofold: horizontal and vertical. While vertical coordination takes place through MoWCYA's working and reporting relationship with regional women's departments and programs, horizontal coordination takes place at the federal level with women's directorates of sector ministries, and other public organizations. MoWCYA plays a proactive role in coordinating gender activities in the country. Coordination with civil society organizations takes place through the Government Organizations (GO) and Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) Forum bringing together the two groups working on women, children and youth issues. In addition, there are also other thematic working groups on issues of early marriage, violence against women and children, and FGM/C that bring all the actors working along those themes together for coordination purposes. The Donor Group on Gender Equality (DGGE) is the main donor coordination mechanism that coordinates the work of all donor groups, bi-lateral and multi-lateral organizations on gender equality. The Ministry of Women Affairs also leads the coordination mechanism of the Government of Ethiopia/Joint Programme on Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (JP GEWE) which is made up of six contributing agencies of the UN (UN Women, UNDP, UNFPA, UNICEF, ILO and UNESCO).

Summary of Key Recommendations

Following are the key recommendation for action by government and development partners:

- Capacity building of law enforcement agents and judiciary on international and national legal instruments.
- Undertake an assessment of the institutional mechanisms for gender equality and empowerment of women in Ethiopia, at the federal and regional levels, and make recommendations to the Government of Ethiopia on strengthening the institutional mechanisms at the different levels. Using the existing studies from a wide variety of partners and sources.
- Carry out an in-depth analysis on the added value of the coordination mechanisms in promoting gender equality in Ethiopia during the future comprehensive study on gender profile
- In place strategies to improve female's completion rate and performance, and strategies to strengthen female's participation in long-term TVET programs.
- Analysis of variations between implementation strategies of national mandate on women, youth and children and their effects on linkages, coordination and synergies for gender mainstreaming and the promoting of the empowerment of women should be an area to analyze further and which could result in the identification of best practices.



Methodology and Scope of Work

Introduction

Ethiopia has prioritized the advancement of gender equality through the development and implementation of several national plans and frameworks which include the first National Policy on Women in 1993 followed by the promulgation of Constitution in 1995 that calls for equal rights of women, including Affirmative Action to bridge existing gaps. In line with this, Ethiopia has revised discriminatory legal provisions in the Family Law and Penal Code, showing a firm political commitment to gender equality and the advancement of women. Among the strategies applied to translate policies and legal provisions into actions is the setting up of institutional mechanism for the advancement of women ranging from the national to regional, extending to the lowest administrative units.

Women in Ethiopia account for 50 percent of the population but do not equally participate in and benefit from development and progress. Despite the positive policy environment created, and progress for women in Ethiopia, their participation in key anti-poverty and development programmes and sectors and their role in decision-making are still minimal.

While acknowledging the significant progress in laws, policies, and gender mainstreaming initiatives, constraints on data collection and access on the real state of women in Ethiopia remain. Nevertheless, information and sex disaggregated data is needed to inform policy decisions, resource allocation, and prioritization of actions, by all the stakeholders and duty-bearers alike, including Government, non-state actors (including civil society organizations) and development partners who are contributing to Ethiopia's Growth and Transformation Plan. Some de-

velopment partners, including the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA 2002), the African Development Bank (AFDB 2004) and the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA 2006), have attempted to develop gender profiles and gender disaggregated data for the country, however, there is still is no comprehensive gender profile in Ethiopia that uses sex disaggregated data and information by regions and focuses specifically on gender gaps and women's empowerment elements in areas responsible for economic growth. Furthermore, these gender profiles lack sufficient analysis of women's contribution to the economy and development in general.

In light of the above and in order to bridge the gap of accessing up-to-date information/data for policy makers, planners, development partners, UN Women and European Union through the Financing for Gender Equality Programme supported the Preliminary Gender Profile to assess the situation of women and gender equality in Ethiopia and to consequently identify key areas of a comprehensive gender profile that will be disaggregated by regions.

This Preliminary Gender Profile aims at providing a preliminary baseline document for Government ministries and institutions as well as development partners to indicate elements of the state of gender equality and the empowerment of women in Ethiopia. Along with this the Preliminary Gender Profile identifies (1) emerging trends especially around the reduction of poverty, promotion of women's rights and freedom from violence, and suggests way forward for (2) strengthening national institutions to respond to gender equality and empowerment of women.

1.1. Objectives of the Preliminary Gender Profile

The specific objectives of the Preliminary Gender Profile are as follows:

1. To assess, document and identify gaps of existing institutional, policy and legal frameworks in Ethiopia that support the advancement of women's empowerment and gender equality;
2. To assess and document facts and figures, gaps and opportunities on gender equality available with the Central Statistical Agency focusing on the status of gender equality across all relevant sectors;
3. To make recommendations on the gaps and challenges identified, and in particular, to make a case for a comprehensive gender profile that cuts across all sectors at the Federal and Regional Levels.

1.2. Methodology

Different data collection methods and tools have been applied to source data for the assignment. Given the primary objective of the study being to 'provide an indicative status of gender equality in Ethiopia', and in line with the TOR, secondary data was largely employed. Key-informant meetings and interview checklists were developed covering a wide range of issues, intending to identify women's activities in various fields, as well as their opportunities and constraints. The data collection approach is described below.

1.2.1 Literature review

As a primary tool of collecting data for this study, the literature review was used in the broadest way, covering government surveys, publications, policy documents, proclamations, sector guidelines, directives and research. The key objective was to inform the study with the best available current and up-to-date gender-disaggregated facts and figures about the status of women and gender equality in the country along the indicators covered in this document. Additional data was sought from institutional mechanisms supporting gender equality efforts and addressing challenges to women's empowerment and gender equality. A selection of relevant documents on women's status across sectors, produced by development partners including UN Agencies, financial and development institutions, and NGOs were also reviewed for background, to meet the required quality and standard.

1.2.2 Key-informant meetings and interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with relevant individuals from government, UN Agencies, civil society organizations, and others with insightful data and perspectives on gender equality issues in the country. Key-informant meetings were held with multiple actors encom-

passing Government, UN Agencies, EU and civil society groups. The meetings sought to clarify the general context of women's activities in Ethiopian life, along with the informant's conceptualization of the current status of women and men and their gender relations, challenges faced by women, and underlying assumptions informing their conceptualization.

Emphasis was also given to identifying trends in the formation and restructuring of women's machinery departments and initiatives, the coordination mechanisms in place, and other relevant issues that were not adequately addressed in the literature. To this end, a checklist covering a wide range of indicators was developed that has been reviewed and enriched by stakeholders involved, during the inception meeting (see, annexed, Table 2).

1.2.3 Consultation workshop

At the submission of the zero -draft study, a mini-consultation meeting was first conducted, with UN Women staff and relevant government sector ministries including MOWCYA, MoI, CSA, among others. Prior to the meeting, the report was distributed and thoroughly reviewed by selected partners. Having incorporated the comments and feedbacks provided, the first draft was produced.

Upon the submission of the first draft report, a consultation workshop was organized with a wider range of stakeholders. About 60 participants took part in the one-day consultation workshop comprising government sector ministries, development agencies, civil society groups, and bi-lateral and multi-lateral organizations, among many others (attach list of participants). The comments and feedbacks provided have been integrated in this final version of the Preliminary Gender Profile.

1.3. Scope of the Study

As the Gender Profile is meant to be preliminary, the study was carried out only at national level, not at the regional levels. A wide range of consultation was carried out with stakeholders across the various sectors working in the field. The consultation aimed at collecting the necessary information to analyse policies, available data and recommend strategic and actions in moving forward.

To this end, and in line with the Terms of Reference (TORs), the scope of this study encompasses the study of legal and policy frameworks for gender equality; institutional mechanisms and institutions for gender equality; coordination mechanisms for gender equality; women's participation in leadership and governance; women's participation in the economic sector and gender based violence.

1.4. Limitations of the Study

The study was primarily constrained by the limited time frame allocated. Although attempts were made to make as wide consultation as possible with key informants, it was not possible to cover consultations with all stakeholders. Furthermore, even though the study used national data and figures in relevant sectors, it was constrained by the fact that no field visits were carried out to validate data, thereby limiting the findings. Regional institutions, and their coordination, is a separate subject owing to the complexity of the legal status of each region and resulting in great variations of procedure and law enforcement and eventually varying progress towards gender equality across regions. An additional constraint was the limited capacity for timely responses by key informants which included responses to requests for meetings, interviews, or the provision of data. This in itself reveals challenges in knowledge management and access to information on gender equality and women's empowerment in Ethiopia.





Institutional frameworks for Gender Equality in Ethiopia

2.1. International and National Legal Frameworks Promoting Women's Rights

Ethiopia as a member of the global and African community has acceded to agreements and normative frameworks which protect and promote the rights of women and promote gender equality. It has ratified the Convention on the Political Rights of Women (CPRW) in 1953, and the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1981, and has made the provisions of these conventions an integral part of the law.²

Ethiopia has also adopted the principles of 1995 Beijing Platform for Action (BPA) as well as the political declaration and outcome document post Beijing +5, in 2000.³

The country has further endorsed the Millennium Development Goals of 2000. The MDGs outlines gender sensitive commitments with specific targets. These commitments include ensuring universal primary education for both boys and girls; elimination of gender disparity at all levels of education; and reducing maternal mortality ratio by three quarters between 1990 and 2015.

In terms of regional conventions, Ethiopia has ratified the African Charter on Human and People's rights, in 1998. It is, however, yet to ratify the Protocol to the African Charter on

Human and Peoples' Rights on Rights of Women in Africa⁴.

Ethiopia, having adopted these international legal and policy instruments, the Government of Ethiopia has progressed in domesticating these frameworks, implement and issues periodic progress reports for the Beijing Platform for Action and CEDAW.

At the national level, the National Policy on Women, formulated in 1993, was a landmark development as it was the first policy formulated on women. The policy encourages equal participation of women in the political, social and economic spheres of life in the country and subsequently institutionalized the rights of women by creating the appropriate institutional mechanisms within government institutions to ensure gender sensitivity of public regulations and interventions.

The 1995 Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, which is aligned with international legal instruments, guarantees the rights of women and equality with men. This is especially important in equality in regards to employment, marriage, property and land ownership. Having recognized the historical legacy of inequality and discrimination of women, the Constitution stipulates the right to affirmative action for women in order to fight prevailing inequalities and level the field for equal participation of women in political, social and economic life, inter alia.⁵

The revised Family Code of July 2000 introduced by the

2 Article 13 of the Constitution of Ethiopia states that all fundamental rights granted are to be interpreted in conformity with the principles of the signed conventions and declarations.

3 UN (2009). Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women: Combined sixth and seventh periodic report of States parties. Ethiopia.

4 Interview with W/o Aster Amare, Deputy Chair, Women Standing Committee, the National Assembly. June 3, 2014.

5 See article 25, 35 of the Constitution of Ethiopia, 1995.

federal legislative body brought a major reform to the 1960 Family Law. While the Family Law of 1969 had placed women subordinate to men, and defined women's roles as complementary, and supplementary, to men's roles and aims, the new Family Code established new standard for equality between women and men. This includes, for instance that girls' minimum age of marriage was elevated from 15 to 18 years, also entitled women, who have been in a union with a partner for three years or more, to share any assets that the household had accumulated.⁶ Nevertheless, given the legal powers at the level of the regions, some regional governments (for example, Afar and Somali) have not yet aligned their Regional Family Laws with the revised Family Code.

Revision of the 1949 Criminal Code was also undertaken in 2005 in an attempt to make it congruent to international and regional instruments. A landmark for gender equality is the new Penal Code which criminalizes domestic violence including in a union where partners live together but are not formally married. This is even more important considering that the previous Penal Code of 1949 had entitled a husband to discipline his wife under certain conditions, which encouraged wife battery. The 2005 Penal Code further criminalizes rape, female genital mutilation/cutting, abduction, and early marriage.

2.2. Institutional Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women in Ethiopia

The National Women Policy of 1993 underscored the need to move towards an institutionalized strategy for women's empowerment through policy frameworks and gender equality structures within government. The policy called for the establishment of women's machineries at all levels: federal, regional and sub-regional. This resulted in the establishment of the Women's Affairs Office (WAO) within the Prime Minister's Office and its subsidiary structures i.e. the Women's Affairs Departments (WADs) in all government ministries and public organizations and Women's Affairs Bureaus (WABs) in all regional government offices. The structure was replicated to the sub-regional levels where Women's Affairs Departments and Women's Affairs Divisions were formed at the Zonal and Woreda level respectively as well as Women's Affairs Units at the Kebele level. The policy stipulates coordination mechanisms and linkages amongst these structures and clearly outlines the roles and responsibilities of these machineries.

Initial institutional structures for the advancement of women have evolved over time in terms of coordination, capacity and leadership. In 2005, following the proclamation 471/2005 which called for the establishment of the Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA), the Women Affairs Office

(WAO) was elevated to Ministry level, headed by a Minister and thus a member of the Council of Ministers, the Cabinet. The heads of regional and woreda offices of Women's, Children and Youth Affairs Bureaus, also became members of the Cabinets at their respective levels. MOWA was entrusted with the responsibility of coordinating and following up on the implementation of the country's Women Policy, thus taking over the function of its predecessor. It was further mandated to create a favorable environment to ensure women's participation in political, economic and social arenas.

The Ministry of Women's Affairs also developed and launched the National Action Plan for Gender Equality (NAP-GE), 2006-10 to promote the implementation of Ethiopia's commitment to the Beijing Platform for Action⁷. The NAP-GE was later included in the Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP), the government's five year development program. The Ministry also introduced the Women's Change and Development Package in 2007, a principal strategy for the empowerment of women.

In 2010, the Ministry of Women's Affairs went through another restructuring under Proclamation 691/2010 which resulted in the establishment of the Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs (MoWCYA). The establishment also included an expansion of the mandate which now includes youth and children issues. MoWCYA's new mandate thus required a more holistic approach to address the constraints and opportunities for women, children and youth issues and to ensure the creation of opportunities for the participation of women and youth in political, economic, and social affairs of the country.⁸ It is important to note that in general the understanding of "youth" was automatically referring to males only which effected the development and implementation of programs and services.

Given decentralization and regional autonomy, it was the prerogative of regions to structure their own women's services, in accordance to the revised and expanded mandate. As a result the design and formation of women's affairs bureaus vary by region. For instance, Amhara region has incorporated youth and children affairs into their existing women's affair structure, while Tigray opted to address the three components separately. In Oromia, while women and children's affairs are merged together in one department, youth is addressed as a separate component. Therefore, the variations between implementation strategies and their effects on linkages, coordination and synergies for gender mainstreaming and the promoting of the empowerment of women should be an area to analyze further and which could result in the identification of best practices.

6 UNFPA (2008). Gender Inequality and Women's Empowerment: in depth analysis of the Demographic and Health Survey 2005

7 The BPA called for countries to design their own specific programs and activities in consultation with women's group and other stakeholder for its implementation

8 See proclamation 691/2010

In recent years, MoWCYA has embarked on building the capacity on gender equality at all levels. It in 2011 developed National Gender Mainstreaming (GM) Guidelines to be adopted by all sectors in line with their respective mandates. Inspired by these guidelines about 21 Gender Directorates in the line Ministries have developed their respective GM guidelines with both technical and financial support by MoWCYA. The GM guidelines have been developed to incorporate gender sensitivity and awareness from the onset of policy and program formulation to its implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This resulted in the creation of Gender Directorates in all Sector Ministries which, with support from the MoWCYA, have conducted gender audits to assess the level of gender sensitivity of their respective ministries.⁹ The Gender Directorate of the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MOFED) went further, by initiating Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB), which intends to make national budgets gender responsive. This resulted in the development of National Gender Responsive Budgeting Guidelines, in partnership with European Commission and UN Women, in order to mainstream gender at all levels of the national budgeting process. Significant progress was reported and GRB has been instrumental in ensuring the integration of “gender equity” as a parameter in the budget approval process.

In an attempt to build the sectors’ capacity on gender mainstreaming, MoWCYA in 2012 developed and popularized a national gender training manual. On the basis of this manual, training of trainers (TOT) trainings were provided to Gender Directorates of Line Ministries and Regional Bureaus of Women, Children and Youth Affairs (BoWCYA). According to MoWCYA, efforts were made to make sure that these trainings extended their reach to the regional level.

Overall, a key strength of Ethiopia’s gender equality mechanisms is the integration of gender in all sector ministries and government institutions, which include Commission, Agencies and democratic institutions at all levels. The fact that these mechanisms are also established in all the regions, sub-regions and at the lowest administrative unit, Kebele, indicates Government’s commitment to implementing the women’s policy and attaining gender parity.

This commitment is further enhanced by increasing levels of human and financial resources for engendered policy

development and implementation at the federal level¹⁰. In the framework of the GRB efforts, gender is now one of the criteria in approving Sector Ministries’ plans and budgets. Furthermore, under a new initiative by government, namely Business Process Re-engineering (BPR), the Gender Directorates in the sector Ministries have been restructured and upgraded to become members of the management teams in their respective ministries. In legislative bodies, standing committees for women’s affairs now exist at the Federal and regional levels to oversee policy implementation and to facilitate processes involved.

At the grassroots level, women’s associations have been established in almost all the regions. The government facilitated the establishment of the Women Development Army (WDA) among women living in the same neighborhoods. WDAs are groups of about 25 to 30 women, who create an environment where women solve their socio-economic problems on the basis of the priorities they identify. Group members are engaged in discussions with their communities on a wide range of issues, for example, society and economy, income generation schemes, natural resource management, promotion and use of energy saving technology, HTPs, hygiene, and following up on girls’ school attendance. The number of women participating in WDAs is estimated to be 3,673,395 women in Oromia Region, 2,643,920 in Amhara Region, 823,352 in Tigray Region and 1,021,072 women in SNNPR.¹¹

Even though a lot of progress has been made, most women’s departments are still challenged with inadequate capacity, both human and financial. Apart from being understaffed, many of the women’s affairs directorates in the line ministries note the inadequacy of their financial resources for executing some of their activities. These findings are, however, limited to the federal level as no field visits were carried out to assess the situation of women’s departments in the regions.

A serious constraint highlighted both in the informant meetings and later in the consultation workshop, was the fact most Gender Directorates are not part of core units in their respective ministries with the exception of the gender directorate in MOFED. Consequently, these posts and their occupants are regarded as “support” or mid-managerial level. If Gender Directorates were part of the core units, they would become an integral part of the core mandate of their respective ministries, ultimately with better attention and resource allocation. Therefore, gender issues are regarded as the sole responsibility of the Gender Directorates and are not mainstreamed throughout Ministries and institutions. Integrating GDs into Ministerial core units

9 On the basis of the gaps identified in the gender audit, MoA, for instance, has attempted to address the lack of gender sensitivity of the agriculture TVET curriculum, by assigning dedicated gender personnel to ensure accountability. Further, most of the MoA implementing/affiliated agencies only had gender focal persons, now upgraded to recruiting fully responsible gender personnel. While affirmative action provisions were not included in the human resource guideline such as in recruitment, promotion and in scholarship, there is a guideline now with these provisions in order to address the gender gap, in different areas. These are among the steps taken as the result of the gender audit the Ministry has conducted and its subsequent implementation of its recommendation, which pinpoints the added value of these initiatives, if properly implemented.

10 This however may not hold true for women’s affairs bureaus and departments in regions, or at woreda or kebele levels.

11 FDRE (2014), National Report on the Implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) and the Outcome of the 23rd Special Session of The United Nations General Assembly (2000)

is among the challenges this Preliminary Profile identifies.

2.3. Coordination Mechanisms

The coordination mechanisms of women's machinery are twofold: horizontal and vertical. Vertical coordination entails MoWCYA's working and reporting relationship with the regional women's institutions. Horizontal coordination involves the Gender Directorates of sectoral ministries and other public organizations at the federal level.

As part of its coordination role MoWCYA has established a bi-annual Gender Forum with women's machineries of the federal sector ministries, along with their heads; government institutions and their executive organs, including the judiciary. Development partners such as UN Agencies are also invited to this forum with UNICEF currently playing a key role in funding it. The forum was established in 2010 to create avenues for exchange and sharing challenges and best practices. It is also in this forum where these actors present their progress against indicators in the GTP, MDGs, CEDAW, and other measures, and assess their performances.

In terms of MoWCYA's vertical coordination with its corresponding structures in the regions, a quarterly meeting with regional Bureaus of Women, Children and Youth Affairs (BoWCYA) and grassroots women's associations takes place. The meeting's aim is joint planning around thematic areas of focus, and to monitor and evaluate performances. As a coordinating body of the women's machinery, MoWCYA receives regular annual reports both federal sector ministries and the regions. According to MoWCYA, substantive feedback is being provided to the reports as a way of monitoring progress. The weak coordination between planning units and gender directorates in sector ministries is identified as a challenge.

Another very important coordination mechanism is the Annual Women's Conference that brings all the Federal, Regional, UN agencies, NGOs and development partners to one forum where achievements, challenges and best practices on GEWE in Ethiopia are discussed and strategies developed on how to address constraints. The Annual Women's Conference also provides an opportunity to profile specific Regions in terms of gender equality, and for a week, brings critical policy makers together to discuss gender equality and the empowerment of women.

Coordination of gender equality work in Ethiopia with civil society organizations now involves the Government (GO) and Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) Forum, established in 2012. The Forum which takes place every six months is coordinated and chaired by the MoWCYA with the Ethiopian Women's Lawyer Association (EWLA) currently selected as the deputy chair. The purpose of this GO-NGO forum is to coordinate and align activities on GEWE by different stakeholders in order to avoid duplication of

efforts, align resources and share experiences in the efforts to realize national programs, plans and policies on women, children and youth. Prior to the establishment of this forum, there was no gender forum bringing government and NGOs together to pursue the common goal of gender equality and equity.

At the highest legislative body, there is a women's parliamentary forum/women's caucus that brings all women parliamentarians at the National Assembly together to identify common priorities, challenges, and integrate gender in the various Parliament Standing Committees, among many others. There is also a Women's Standing Committee forum that meets once a year with other member of Women's Standing Committees in the regional councils, intended to share experiences, network, and learn from each other's lessons.

Apart from the aforementioned coordination frameworks, there are also thematic working groups on early marriage, violence against women and children, and FGM. For example, the Alliance to End Child Marriage intends to eradicate child marriage in ten years. This forum which is chaired by MoWCYA, the vice chair being rotational. The Alliance was established in September 2013 and holds its meeting on a monthly basis. It brings together civil society, UN agencies, and bilateral organizations. One of its planned activities is to carry out a national mapping on child marriage.

The Network for the Abandonment of FGM is another thematic working group that envisages ending FGM by 2017. It is a network of all FGM working actors encompassing civil society organizations, UN agencies, and other actors. The network was established in 2009 and is coordinated by Organization for Development of Women and Children in Ethiopia (ODWaCE). The network intended to hold meetings every three months, but is currently not very functional, and intends to revisit its Memorandum of Understanding (MoU).

The Ministry of Justice (MoJ) established the working group on violence against women and children in 2010. It comprises sector ministries and CSOs, including a number of government bodies.¹² The purpose of this network is to coordinate activities of different stakeholders on EAWWG, through preparation of a coordinated plan of action.

Among UN Agencies, there is a United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) Technical Working Group whose fourth pillar is on Women, Youth and Children. This pillar also coordinates the Joint UN/Government flagship Program on Gender Equality and Women Empowerment (JP GEWE). Participating/supporting UN

¹² These include the Ministry of Health, Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs (MOLSA), Ministry of Education (MOE), MoWCYA, Federal Supreme Court, Addis Ababa Health Bureau, Federal Police Commission, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and Ethiopian Women Lawyers Association (EWLA), among others.

Agencies include ILO, UNICEF, UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and UNESCO with donor support from Norway, Sweden and Italy, and implemented by Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs and Regional Ministries of Women, Children and Youth Affairs. MoWCYA played a key role in initiating the Joint Program (JP) which started in 2011/12, has completed its 18-month pilot phase and is now running for a further period, from 2012 to June 2016.¹³ During discussions with UN Agencies, it was noted that the joint program (JP) is the biggest UN coordination mechanism on GEWE of its kind so far. The JP creates avenues for information flow and transparency, and helps reduce overlaps and duplication of effort, as expressed by one UN official¹⁴. While technical support to the JP is provided by the Technical Working Group, the political and managerial decisions are made by the Program Management Committee (PMC) under the Chair of the Honorable Minister, Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs.

Donor coordination is provided by the Donor Group on Gender Equality (DGGE), a Development Assistance Group (DAG) technical working group. The DGGE was established in 2007 and revived in 2013. The objectives of the DGGE are capacity building for institutions mandated to oversee mainstreaming of gender equality and women's empowerment in policies, programs and projects. It is also tasked to strengthen coordination and harmonization among agencies, technical working groups, government and other development partners for effective delivery of gender equality commitments. The group is currently co-chaired by UN Women and the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA). The chair is selected on a bi-annual basis.¹⁵

Apart from optimum utilization of resources, coordination leads to higher efficiency, by avoiding overlapping efforts and duplication of works. There are indeed encouraging coordination mechanisms on GEWE in Ethiopia. MoWCYA is playing a proactive role in coordinating gender activities in the country, be it with its corresponding structures, national and regional, or with NGOs. The role MoWCYA is playing to bring the women's departments together, periodically, to discuss their challenges and opportunities, as well as lead the various gender thematic groups, is promising. The formation of the GO and NGO forum is also commended, as previously there was no such forum and it is showing first results. Coordinating the work of the UN and NGOs, and the UN with Government, might create more opportunities for efficiency of effort and outlay of resources.

The scope of this study did not allow for a comprehensive review and analysis of the coordination roles being played by the Regional Bureaus for Women, Children and Youth Affairs, however, among the good practices identified within the regions, one example would be the coordination mechanism put in place to realize gender responsive budgeting (GRB) in Libo Kemkem Woreda in Amhara region. The attempt being made by the Woreda BOFED Bureau of Agriculture and other bureaus of the Woreda to align their work and develop one strategic gender plan is worthy of replication.

2.4. Women in Power and Decision-Making

Women's representation in politics and decision-making positions has been increasing steadily, at various levels, since Ethiopia embarked on democratic elections in 1994. The level of women's representation in the FDRE House of People's Representatives grew from 21.4 percent in 2005 to 27.9 percent in 2010. This is a significant increase from the 1995 elections, where women held 2.83 percent, (13 of out of 547 seats), or the 2000 election in which women held 7.7 percent, (42 out of 547 seats).¹⁶

There is also a slight increase in the number women's representation in the executive branch. While women's representation in the last executive body, in 2005, was 13 percent,¹⁷ when it is currently at 16.5 percent.¹⁸ In 2005 women made for 7 percent in Cabinet with an increase to 13 percent in 2014¹⁹. Out of the 16 standing committees at the Federal Parliament, women lead five of them and lead another five as deputy chair.²⁰ The Deputy Speaker of the House is also a woman (2010-2015). The number of women holding seats in the House of Federation in 2009 was 18.75 percent.²¹ Moreover, in 2010, women constituted 14.88 percent (8 woman, 44 men) of State Ministers, 20 percent (1 woman, 4 men) of Commissioners, 11.33 percent (6 women, 47 men) of Ambassadors.²² The recent appointment of a woman in April 2014 as a Deputy Prime Minister is a milestone in women's advancement on the leadership ladder.

13 Multi Partner Trust Fund (MPTF) primarily funds the JP. Agencies also contribute from their core budget.

14 Interview with Berhanu Legesse, Assistant Representative, UNFPA, April 28, 2014.

15 Current active members include UNFPA, UNDP, WFP, UN Women, Irish Aid, DFID, USAID, Netherlands Embassy, Sweden, Embassy of Finland, Italian Embassy, the US Embassy, WB, and AFDB.

16 UN, 2009. Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women: Combined sixth and seventh periodic report of States parties Ethiopia; FDRE (2014). National Report on the Implementation of Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and the Outcome of the 23rd Special Session of the United Nations of General Assembly (2000)

17 MOFED and UNICEF (2012) Investing in Boys and Girls in Ethiopia: Past, Present and future.

18 MOFED and UNCT (2012) Addressing Progress towards the Millennium Goals: Ethiopia's MDGs Report.

19 MOFED and UNICEF (2012) Investing in Boys and Girls in Ethiopia: Past, Present and future.

20 Interview with W/o Aster, vice Chair of the Women's Standing Committee on June 9, 2014, at 3 pm.

21 UN (2009) Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women: Combined sixth and seventh periodic report of States parties Ethiopia.

22 Unpublished document, African Center for Gender and Development, United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA), 2013

Women's representation in the judiciary currently stands at 30 percent.²³ Data from 2011/12 showed that out of 111 federal judges 23, which accounts for 21 percent, were women. At the judiciary administration council there are 2 women and 11 men.²⁴

In 2008/9 out of 7706 judges, 2515 were (33 percent). In 2009/10, the number female judges at the Federal and Regional Courts reached 16.9 percent, while women lawyers at the Federal Ministry of Justice constituted nearly 22 percent of the total percent (56 women, 203 men).²⁵

The participation of women in Regional Councils, though varying over the regions has also increased. Currently, Tigray region has the highest women's representation, at 48 percent. Overall the representation of women in has exceeded 30 percent in six of the nine regional states.²⁶

Without question women's participation in politics and decision-making has increased significantly over the course of four consecutive elections. Nevertheless, the level of women's participation in the national legislative assembly has yet to reach level the critical mass of 30 percent. Which reaches 27.8 % at the time of this report.

The need for removal of barriers for equal participation of women in the political arena has been emphasized in the Constitution, the National Women's Policy, and other related international and national legal frameworks²⁷, which have created a conducive legal environment for the increased participation of women. In addition, various actors, including civil society organizations, have also been playing a key role in advocating for gender parity in politics and other decision-making institutions and processes. Increasing women's participation in decision-making is also among one of the target of the GTP, under the promotion of gender and youth.²⁸

The number of women legislators has increased over the course of past elections, while at the same time their capacity to influence policies and decision-making at national level has improved²⁹ also due to various training programs carried out for women parliamentarians by different actors³⁰. The Women's Standing Committee in Parliament is playing a central role in creating gender awareness and building the capacity of women parliamentarians. Institutionally, the Women's Affairs Directorates are accountable to the Women's Standing Committee and the Committee receives quarterly reports from WADs and meets them once a year.

Women parliamentarians, the women's standing committees, and the women's caucus are recognized as very vocal, assertive, and informed in articulating pertinent issues touching the lives of women. This includes their review of budget allocations from a gender perspective. The attempt being made by the Women's Standing Committee and the women's caucus to integrate gender perspectives in the other 16 standing Committees of the Parliament as well monitoring the outcomes of the Committees is quite promising.

Regardless of the progress made, the majority of women still the have limited access to training and education in leadership and they continue to face discrimination in regards to stereotypical attitudes towards women in leadership. Moreover, women face economic and socio-cultural burdens to fully participate as equals in decision-making and leadership processes.

23 MOFED and UNCT (2012) Addressing Progress Towards the Millennium Goals: Ethiopia's MDGs Report

24 Interview with W/ro Aster Amare, Deputy Chair of the Women's Standing Committee on June 9, 2014, at 3 pm.

25 Unpublished document, African Center for Gender and Development, United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), 2013.

26 FDRE (2014). National Report on the Implementation of Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and the Outcome of the 23rd Special Session of the United Nations of General Assembly (2000)

27 The Beijing Platform for Action(BPA), Convention on the Political Rights of Women are among the international legal frameworks that calls for women's political rights and gender parity in politics and leadership.

28 MOFED (2010).Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP). 2010/11-20145.

29 An assessment of regions has not been carried out in this study hence the limitation in observing the change in the regions.

30 UN Agencies, UNDP, UN Women, British Council, Women Campaign International are among the organizations that have been engaged in building the capacity of women parliamentarians on various gender issues and beyond.



Women and Men: Demographics and Life Influences

3.1. Women and Men in Ethiopia - A Basic Profile

- Women make up 43,128,000 (49.74 percent) of the Ethiopian population in 2014, among the estimated population of 86,707,000.³¹
- Ethiopian households consist of an average of 4.8 persons
- Women head about 25 percent all Ethiopian households in 2011.³²
- 27 percent of women aged 15-49 have never been married, while 58 percent are married, 4 percent are living with a man, and 11 percent are divorced, separated or widowed. A very small proportion of women aged 45-49 (1 percent) have never been married.
- As compared to men aged 15-49, the proportion of women who have never married is lower at 44 and 27 percent respectively.³³
- 5 percent of men aged 15-49³⁴ have two or more wives. The highest proportion of men with more than one wife was found in Somali and Benishangul-Gumuz Regions, at 14 percent in both of the regions.
- A large proportion of women marry when they are age 25 or younger, in contrast to the majority of men who marry at or after 25. In 2011, the median age at first marriage among women aged 25-49 was found to be 16.5 years.³⁵ In comparison to the 2005 national statistics, very little difference was observed in the marital status of women and men.

31 CSA (2013), Population Projections for Ethiopia 2007-2037

32 CSA (2012), Welfare Monitoring Survey of 2011

33 CSA (2011), Ethiopian Demographic Health Survey

34 The 2011 Ethiopian Demographics Health Survey (EDHS)

35 Ibid

3.2. National Commitments and Actions on Education

The Constitution of Ethiopia equally entitles women and men, boys and girls, to education. Article 41 (4) obliges the State to allocate “ever increasing resources” to education. Similarly, Article 90 (1) requires national policies to aim for provisions to enable all Ethiopians to access education “to the extent the country’s resources permit”. This right has been integrated into the social sector development plan of the Growth and Transformation Plan for 2010/11-2014/15, categorized as Education and Training. The goal of the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP IV) in the GTP is “producing democratic, efficient, effective, knowledgeable, inspired and creative citizens who contribute to the realization of Ethiopia’s vision of being a middle income economy.” Particular emphasis is given to integrating a strategic direction that ensures equitable access to quality education at different levels of education - general, technical, vocational and higher education- in order to ensure the achievement of MDGs. In line with this, the GTP aims at eliminating gender disparity in education (0.93:1 in 2009/10) to 1:1 by the end of 2014/15.

A targeted education strategy for girls was developed in March 2014 by the Ministry of Education in partnership with UNICEF.³⁶ The Strategy aims to enhance and improve gender equality outcomes in education and training and proposed strategies for addressing key challenges in all the sub-sectors including pre-primary education, primary and secondary education. It furthermore integrates functional adult literacy, technical and vocational education

36 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, MOE (2014), Girls’ Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, March 2014

and training and higher education and addresses cross cutting issues such as gender equality in different field of studies, structural arrangements and budgeting. The strategy proposes the establishment of regular joint monitoring and review, including governmental and non-governmental partners working on gender equality in education. Amongst efforts to coordinate actions on gender equality in education, a technical committee, the Girls Education Advisory Committee (GEAC), was established and operates through the cooperation of relevant stakeholders and national partners, bilateral and multilateral organizations, NGOs, and the relevant government bodies. This technical committee also supports the annual Gender Forum prepared by the Ministry of Education.

3.3. Gender Equality Indicators in Education

3.3.1 Pre-primary Education

Pre-primary education includes kindergarten, class zero and child to child programs. The national school age population (aged 4 to 6 years) for the 2012/13 school year was 7,714,956, of which 50.9 percent were male and 49.1 percent female. Of these, 26.7 percent of the males and 25.5 percent of the females were enrolled into pre-primary education.³⁷ Though there are gaps in the enrollment of both female and male children, the percentage of school age females who are not enrolled is higher than males. For example, the gender parity index (GPI) in 2009/10 was 0.98 but dropped to 0.96 in 2012/13, indicating a gap between female and male enrollment. This is attributed to a number of reasons including socio-economic challenges, gender roles such as stereotypical girls' responsibilities for household chores, as well as institutional challenges including lack of gender sensitive facilities and gaps in gender equality skills in teachers for Early Childhood Care and Education.³⁸

3.3.2 Primary Education

The government of Ethiopia has progressed in the provision of primary education. Primary education is measured in various ways by the GoE, the Net Enrollment Rate, the Gross Enrollment Rate, and the Primary Completion Rates at Grades 5 and 8.

Table 1: Net Enrollment Rate (NER) Trends at Primary level, by sex

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
2001 E.C. (2008/09)	84.6	81.3	83.0
2002 E.C. (2009/10)	83.7	80.5	82.1

37 Annual Abstract Education Statistics of 2012/2013 by the Ministry of Education (2013)

38 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2014), Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, Ministry of Education March 2014

2003 E.C. (2010/11)	87.0	83.5	85.3
2004 E.C. (2011/12)	86.8	83.9	85.4
2005 E.C. (2012/13)	87.7	84.1	85.9

Source: Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

The Net Enrollment Rate (NER) measures students' enrolment in respective grade levels at the appropriate school age. The net enrollment rate for primary education (Grade 1-8) has increased from 77.5 percent in 2005/06 to 85.4 percent in 2011/12. NER in the lower primary school cycle (Grades 1 to 4) has increased from 77.5 percent in 2004/05 to 92.2 percent in 2011/12. In the upper cycle of primary education (Grades 5 to 8), growth over the same period was achieved from 37.6 percent to 48.1 percent.³⁹ As noted previously, the GPI at Primary Cycle 1 has reached 0.92, and at Primary Cycle 2, 0.98⁴⁰ indicating greater parity between boys and girls over the past five years (see Table 1).

The Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) compares the percentage of pupils (irrespective of age) at a particular grade level to the corresponding school age population. In 2012/13, the gross enrollment rate for Grades 1 to 4, including ABE (Alternative Basic Education), reached 124.9 percent. The rate for females was 119.8 percent and for males was 129.7 percent. The difference between male and female enrollment ratios was 5.8 for primary for Grades 1 to 8 overall. The gender gap was highest at Grades 1-4 at 9.9. The GER for Grades 5-8 grade was 63.5 percent for males and 62.2 percent for females, and the GER for the whole primary level cycle (grades 1 to 8) was 98.2 percent for males and 92.4 percent for females⁴¹ (see Table 1).

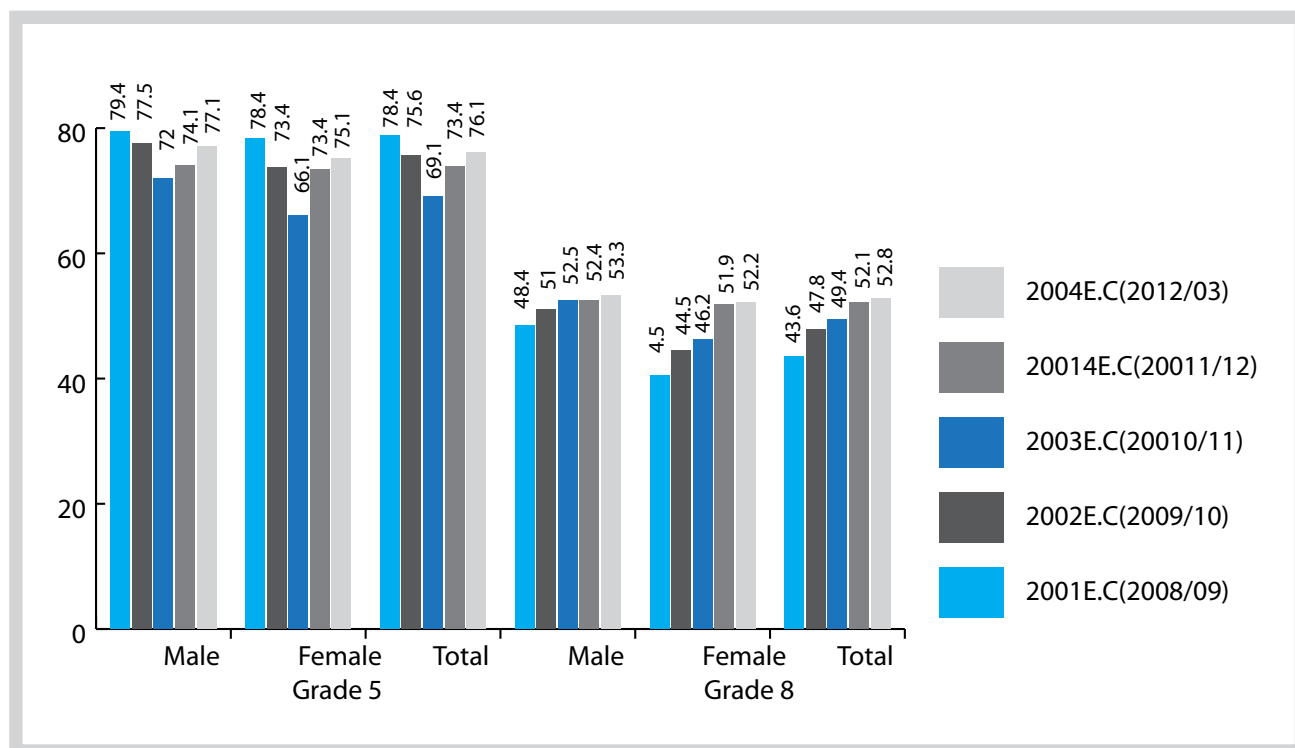
Gender disparities, especially in the second cycle of primary education, are widely attributed to gender roles and related tasks, especially at the household level, which are usually the responsibility of females. This often results in time poverty for females, which limits their participation and their ability to perform at higher levels of education. The causes of time poverty include earning school money, or contributing to the family's livelihood through petty trade or in employment, as well as unpaid domestic labor. According to the MoE2014 Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy, school related gender based violence is also one of the common challenges which affects girls' school attendance. Girls encounter violence in the classroom as well as on the journeys to and from school. It has to be noted that overall the perception prevails that reducing male violence may be seen as more difficult than taking girls out of school, in order to protect them. Other

39 MOFED and UNCT (2012) Addressing Progress towards the Millennium Goals: Ethiopia's MDGs Report.

40 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2014), Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, Ministry of Education March 2014

41 Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

Figure 1: Primary Completion Rate Trends by Sex



Source: Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

factors include the inadequate number of female teachers and role models as well as the distance to schools. These socio-economic factors affect completion rates.

The Primary Grade 5 and 8 completion rate is a main education indicator for the MDGs. Nationally, the completion rate at both grade levels is higher for males than females. At Grade 5, the rate is 75.1 percent for females and 77.1 percent for males. At Grade 8 the number reduces significantly to 52.2 percent for females and 53.3 percent for males. Despite a consistent increase over the past five years, the completion rate for grade 8 is in general low for both sexes and especially for females (see Figure 1).

Nevertheless, the completion rate of girls until grade 5 has improved compared to that of boys from 2007/08 to 2011/12.⁴² Repetition rates vary from year to year and overall male repetition rates are higher than for girls' in 2007/08, 2010/11, and 2011/12. The total repetition rate was lower in the year 2008/09 (see figure 2).⁴³

3.3.3 Secondary Level Education

Secondary education in Ethiopia is divided into a First Cycle (Grades 9-10), a Second Cycle (Grades 11-12) and additionally may be supplemented by Preparatory Second-

ary Education, which covers Grades 11 and 12. Two main forms of assessment of secondary are analyzed for the Preliminary Gender Profile, namely, enrollment rates and national examination results.

At grades 9 to 10 the gross enrollment rate reaches 38.4 percent of the age cohort, of which 39.9 percent are male and 36.9 percent female. In Preparatory Secondary Education, Ministry of Education data for the 2012/13 school year shows that 358,493 students were admitted to these schools, of which 44.4 percent are females and 55.6 percent males. Nevertheless, the gross enrollment ratio in this sector is still low for both, girls and boys, with little improvement from the 7 percent in 2009/10 to 9.5 percent in 2012/13.⁴⁴

Comparing the two cycles in the non-preparatory levels with each other shows that the gender disparity widens with higher-grade levels. At the secondary cycle 1 the GPI is 0.88 while it reaches 0.76 at Secondary Cycle 2⁴⁵.

Comparing enrolment GPI over time through the trends in GPI reveal that there was an increase between 2009/10 and 2012/13 for the first Cycle from 0.80 to 0.92. The GPI for grades 10-11 grew from 0.56 in 2009/10 to 0.81 in

42 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2014), Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, Ministry of Education March 2014

43 Ministry of Education and EMIS, Planning and Resource Mobilization Directorate (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

44 ibid

45 MOFED and UNCT (2012) Addressing Progress Towards the Millennium Goals: Ethiopia's MDGs Report

2012/13.⁴⁶ Despite these significant changes, the disparity is still critical and needs the concerted efforts by various stakeholders.

Learning results, as assessed by national examination results, is another parameter used to measure gender disparity in education. Results in the General Education National Examination for Grade 10 over the course of the past five years show that 51.4 percent of the females scored a grade average of 2.00, compared to 67.3 percent of males. Boys tended to outperform girls in math and science. National Learning Assessment reports conducted in 2008 and 2010 showed that the average score differences for boys and girls in math and science reached 7.66 points at Grade 12⁴⁷. It is widely accepted that limited number of role models and female teachers in math and science as well as gender stereotypes contribute to girls lower performance in math and science. As a result, women are significant underrepresented in science and technology sector.

The MoE indicates the following as the major reasons for lower enrolment rates of girls in secondary education:

- Gender roles and related household tasks which results in time poverty for girls
- Unfavorable cultural environment which include negative parental or community attitudes towards girl's education
- Harmful traditional practices, including early and child marriage and its physical and psychological
- Migration and trafficking
- Infrastructure, the distance between homes and secondary schools, placing girls at risk of violence or unaffordable expense for transport or housing.

3.3.4 Adult and Informal Education

Basic and entry-level adult education in Ethiopia include Alternative Basic Education (ABE), Adult Functional Literacy Programs and other forms of adult training.

ABE contributes to around 4 percent of the Gross Enrollment Rate in primary education. According to the Annual Education statistics for 2013, of the total 731,600 students enrolled in ABE during the 2012/13 school year 308,423 (42.2 percent) were females. Comparison of the 2008/09 and 2012/13 data showed that the total ABE enrollment rate and the number of females declined. One of the main reasons for this may be that as many of the ABE centers changed to formal primary schools⁴⁸ (see table).

46 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2014), Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, Ministry of Education March 2014

47 Ibid

48 Education Statistics Annual Abstracts of Ministry of Education reports include the contribution of Alternative Basic Education (ABE) enrolments into primary regular education, Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) and Net Enrollment Rate (NER) statistics.

Table 2: Alternative Basic Education Enrollment Trends by Sex (2008/09- 2012/13)

Year	01 E.C. (08/09)	02 E.C. (09/10)	03 E.C. (10/11)	04 E.C. (11/12)	05 E.C. (12/13)	AAGR
Male	422,512	531,203	459,816	405,104	407,503	-0.9%
Female	357,830	424,491	362,172	310,864	308,423	-3.6%
Total	780,342	955,694	821,988	715,968	731,600	-1.6%

Source: Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

As of 2014, 65.5 percent of all 20,451,706 adults lacking any literacy skills in Ethiopia are female⁴⁹. A welfare monitoring survey of 2011 shows significant differences between literacy of rural and urban populations with the literacy rate in urban areas at about 40 percent higher for men and more than double for women in rural areas. For instance, in rural areas the male literacy rate was 49.4 percent as against 87.8 percent for urban men. The rural female literacy was 29.8 percent and urban female literacy was 69.6 percent⁵⁰.

Assessing adult and informal education is problematic, as noted in the Education Annual Statistics of 2013. Firstly, the collection of accurate information and sex-disaggregated data can be challenging, as many programs are run by non-governmental organizations and actors. However, available data for adult and non-formal education enrollment for the 2012/13 school year shows that there were 3,415,776 adults enrolled in this period, of which 2,116,620, which equals 62 percent were males and 1,299,156, equaling 38 percent were females. Gross enrollment rate was at 55.4 percent of the total illiterate adult population, whereas the rate for males was much higher at 71.1 percent than for females at 41.0 percent.⁵¹ Gender disparity in enrollment is therefore higher in this group than in the formal primary level education. One strategy to address the gender disparity within the adult population is through the women's development army structure at the community level.

3.3.5 Technical and Vocational Education and Training

The GoE affirmed its commitment to ensuring gender equality in technical and vocational training through the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Proclamation No. 391/2004, where Article 56 (13) gives power to the TVET Sector of the Ministry of Education to devise a strategy for increasing the participation of women. Cognizant of this commitment 237,877 students were enrolled into the TVET program in the course of the 2012/13 academic year with 51.3 percent students being female.

49 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2014), Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, Ministry of Education March 2014

50 CSA (2011), Welfare Monitoring Survey

51 Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

However, most of the female students were enrolled in short term training programs that relate to jobs which are traditionally assigned for women, including business, computer related training and hairdressing. Long-term training in science, mechanics, technology, construction, with greater potential for higher incomes and executive functions, appear to be assumed to be male domains, with higher male enrollment in these fields⁵².

Lower female participation in these 'typically male dominated sectors' is attributed to a number of factors. These include a revival of traditionally negative attitudes and gender stereotypes and gender-based "roles", which preclude women from doing "men's work". There are also indications of personal discrimination by instructors and employers against female students who choose to engage in non-traditional programs. Hence, they have fewer prospects for accessing practical field assignments required to complete their coursework and consequently, fewer employment opportunities, compared to males⁵³. However, despite the fact that TVET numbers enrolled for 2012/13 were far below the planned 813,000 the percentage of females actually enrolled (51.3 percent) surpasses the planned 46.4 percent. This is a positive indication that women are aspiring to greater capacities and attainments in their lives.

3.3.6 Higher Education

Gender parity in tertiary education has improved from 0.22 in 1991 to 0.39 in 2011/12, but still remains low at 0.25 in graduate schools⁵⁴. The Ministry of Education reports increasing numbers of female students in higher learning institutions in Ethiopia which is a result of several initiatives. These include tutorial classes, a national code of conduct for the elimination of sexual harassment, and the preparation of a life skills module in University training packs. As a result, increases in young women's enrollment in higher learning institutions, and those completing post-graduate studies, have been reported for the period 2009/10 – 2012/13⁵⁵.

The MoE Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector (2014), aims at enhanced enrollment and retention of females should be achieved by a range of actions. These include the expansion of universities to under-served regions, the implementation of affirmative actions, and the formation of gender offices in all higher learning institutions. However, the existing gender disparity at higher education indicates

that implementation of these policies may be challenging, insufficiently supported, or insufficiently integrated with regional or local conditions affecting enrollment and completion. According to the key indicators of the Education Sector Development Program IV (ESDP IV), admissions into higher education in government undergraduate and regular program for females was set to grow from 26.3 percent in 2009/10 to 34.4 percent for 2012/13. However, female enrollment in 2012/13 was found to be 28.0 percent⁵⁶. Revisiting the implementation of policy in the light of women specific constraints to education and higher education in particular may be an action for Government to consider.

3.3.7 Proportion of Female Teachers

One of the indicators in assessing gender equality in access and the application of education is the increase in the share of employment by female teachers. Reports show that the share of female teachers by 2012/13 has grown to 37 percent for primary schools, 15 percent for secondary schools and 16.4 percent in TVET institutions⁵⁷. In Alternative Basic Education out of 12,488 trainers 75.6 percent are males and 24.4 percent females⁵⁸. In higher-level institutions, the percentage of female teachers dropped from 11.4 percent in 2009/10 to 10.6 percent in 2012/13⁵⁹. This decline in higher education posts occupied by women may be temporary but needs monitoring and targeted strategies to address the decline.

3.3.8 Dropout Rates

According to the Welfare Monitoring Survey of 2011, dropout rates for primary level education in rural areas have declined from 18.5 percent in 1996 to 4.7 percent in 2011. The dropout rate at secondary level in rural areas also declined from 29.3 percent in 1996 to 7.0 percent in 2011. Overall, there is a higher dropout rate among males than females both at primary and secondary level education in rural and urban areas recorded in 1996, 2000, 2004 and 2011⁶⁰ which reveals the fact that the challenges for girls and boys in rural schooling vary significantly. On the contrary, girls in urban secondary schools had a higher dropout rate than boys. Whereas 18.7 percent of the primary school dropouts said their reason for dropping out was "sickness", 27.5 percent said it was "the need to work". Among secondary school dropouts 13.8 percent attribute their dropout to "sickness" and 22.0 percent to a desire to work. Some of the major causes for dropouts at the pre-primary, primary, and lower-secondary levels also include parents' inadequate awareness about the benefits of education,

52 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2014), Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, Ministry of Education March 2014

53 MOE (2014), Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, FDRE Ministry of Education

54 MOFED and UNCT (2012) Addressing Progress towards the Millennium Goals: Ethiopia's MDGs Report.

55 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2014), Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, Ministry of Education March 2014

56 MOE (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

57 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2014), Girls' Education and Gender Equality Strategy for the Education and Training Sector, Ministry of Education March 2014

58 Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

59 *ibid*

60 CSA (2012), Welfare Monitoring Survey of 2011

negative attitudes towards girls' education, and lack of access to education for children with disabilities⁶¹.

Another main negative factor for children's school attendance is if they are orphaned. Children (aged 10 to 14) whose parents are both dead are less likely to attend school (69 percent) than children who have both parents alive and are living with at least one parent (76 percent)⁶². The 2011 EDHS also shows that male children in the same situation are less likely than female children to attend school (60 percent versus 80 percent) which can be attributed to boys and young men taking on new household responsibilities and overall intra-household dynamics.

3.4. Women and Health

The National Health Account (NHA IV) shows a significant improvement in financing health in Ethiopia. Total per capita health spending grew almost four-fold between NHA I and NHA IV to 16.10 USD in 2007/08⁶³. The World Bank reports that per capita health expenditure had risen again to USD 18 in 2012.

The health sector in Ethiopia operates in line with the National Health Policy (1993) and the subsequent Health Care and Financing Strategy (1998) which gave direction to the national five year Health Sector Development Strategies leading from HSDP I to the current HSDP IV. The major aim of the HSDP is to reduce maternal, newborn and child morbidity and mortality, and malnutrition as well as to control infections with TB, malaria, and HIV. In addition to this, the country developed an innovative approach to address basic health service needs of communities, the Health Extension Program (HEP) starting from 2002/03.

3.4.1 Fertility and Family Planning

For the three years preceding the 2014 MEDHS, the national total fertility rate was 4.1 children per woman⁶⁴, a reduction from the 5.4 children per woman recorded in 2005. Some of the reasons for high fertility rates include early age sexual intercourse and low rates of contraceptive use by men and women. In Ethiopia, as of 2011, the median age at first intercourse among urban women aged 25-49 was 17.8 years, and 16.4 years among for rural women.⁶⁵ This indicates that half the rural girl's experience first intercourse before the age of 16 years and 3 months. The median age at first sex for men aged 25-49 is 21.2 years.

Studies on family planning methods show that the cur-

rent contraceptive prevalence rate among all women is 29 percent. The prevalence among married women has increased significantly from 29 percent in 2011 to 42 percent in 2014⁶⁶. 40 percent of married women use modern contraceptives. 31 percent use injectables, 5 percent use implants and 3 percent the pill. Location and income are key factors for the use of contraceptives. Noteworthy regional variation were observed in the use of any contraceptive method, ranging from 64 percent in Addis Ababa to 2 percent in the Somali region. Women in the highest wealth quintile households are twice as likely as women in poor households to use any contraceptive method at 60 and 27 percent, respectively⁶⁷. Studies also show that women's self-image and sense of empowerment as well as resulting intra-household dynamics have a strong effect on their ability to use and negotiate the use of contraceptives as well as the method contraceptive used and the number of children. For example, in 2011, more women who participate in some decision-making in their households used contraceptives than those women who did not participate in any household decision-making⁶⁸.

3.4.2 Maternal and Child Health

The Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) in Ethiopia has decreased from 673 deaths per 100,000 births in 2000-2005 to 420 deaths per 100,000 in 2013⁶⁹. Even though numbers show progress, the country still has one of the highest maternal mortalities on the continent and is very unlikely not reach the MDG target of 267 per 100,000 by 2015⁷⁰.

Analysis of the 2000-2011 EDHS shows that there are regional variations in MMR, ranging from a high in Somali Region at 747 per 100,000 births to a low in Addis Ababa at 234 per 100,000⁷¹. Various factors contribute to higher levels of MMR in rural areas, including mothers' delays in seeking skilled emergency obstetric care, reaching health facilities, receiving timely care, and the presence of unmet family planning needs among girls of child-bearing age. Other contributing factors include high-risk pregnancies, closely spaced births and older maternal age, especially in rural, uneducated and poor households. In the five years preceding the 2011 EDHS, 56.7 percent of the women who gave birth were exposed to one or more fertility-related high-risk factors during their pregnancies, while 20 per-

66 Central Statistical Agency (2014), Ethiopia Mini Demographic and Health Survey (EMDHS), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

67 *ibid*

68 EDHS (2011)

69 FDRE (2014), National Report on the Implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) and the Outcome of the 23th Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly (2000)

70 MOFED and UNCT (2012) Addressing Progress towards the Millennium Goals: Ethiopia's MDGs Report.

71 UNFPA (2012), Trends in Maternal Health in Ethiopia: Challenges in Achieving the MDG for Maternal Mortality, In-depth Analysis of the EDHS 2000-2011, Addis Ababa

61 Ministry of Education and UNICEF – Ethiopia Country Office (2012), Study on Situation of Out of School Children in Ethiopia

62 EDHS (2011)

63 MOH (2014), National Health Account (NHA): Household Health Service Utilization and Expenditure Survey, April 2014

64 Central Statistical Agency (2014), Ethiopia Mini Demographic and Health Survey (EMDHS), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

65 EDHS (2011)

cent were exposed to two or more risks.⁷²

Another factor contributing to the high levels of maternal mortality in Ethiopia is the low percentage of deliveries attended by skilled health professionals. Reasons for this include shortages of trained birth attendants as well as persistent socio-cultural and economic factors that limit women's ability to seek professional health care. The percentage of births attended by skilled personnel is still low, at 15 percent, of which, about 4 percent were attended by a doctor and about 10 percent were attended by a nurse or midwife. Two percent of births were also assisted by a HEW. 51 percent of births were assisted by a relative or another person, while 27 percent were attended by a traditional birth attendant. The remaining 5 percent of births were unattended.⁷³

The percentage of births attended in a health facility in Ethiopia is in general very low at 15 percent, of which 14 percent were undertaken in a public facility and 1 percent in private facilities. However, this was an increase from the 10 percent reported in 2011⁷⁴. A general linkage between birth attended by skilled personnel and maternal and child mortality can be made drawing for example on the percentage of births delivered in a health facility, ranging from 87 percent in Addis Ababa to 6 percent in Afar. The Demographic Health Survey showed that women aged 20-24, who are highly educated, live in urban areas and are in the highest wealth quintiles most commonly use health services for delivery. The gap between if health facilities are visited or not is especially evident in the urban and rural births⁷⁵. Some of the major reasons mentioned for not delivering in a health facility are mothers' perception that it was not necessary (45 percent of births). Another reason is the belief that it was not customary (33 percent of births). In 22 percent of births outside health facilities, women found the health facilities to be too far or did not have transportation. At the regional level, the highest percentage of births without health care access was observed in Dire Dawa where 7/10 of births did not take place in a health facility due to distance to health facilities and lack of transportation⁷⁶. Therefore, socio-cultural attitudes and infrastructure are the major causes for deliveries outside health facilities.

Postnatal care in the first two days after delivery is crucial in reducing maternal and child mortality rates, however, the GTP review report indicates that only 44.5 percent of

mothers used health services postnatal⁷⁷. According to the 2014 MEDHS, from 2009 - 2014, only 12 percent of women received postnatal care within the first two days of delivery. Women who are likely to have received postnatal checkups are under the age of 35, live in urban areas, especially Addis Ababa, delivered their first birth and are in the highest wealth quintiles. In light of research available and these finding, the government of Ethiopia along with the United National Country Team (UNCT) has developed the MDG Acceleration Framework (MAF) with the objective of reducing current maternal mortality, especially in developing regions and pastoralist communities.⁷⁸

3.5. Nutrition Status of Women

In Ethiopia, 27 percent of women aged 15 to 49 fell below a body mass index (BMI) of 18.5 in 2011, while 9 percent were moderately or severely mal and or undernourished⁷⁹. The health sector recognizes the poor nutritional status of children and women in Ethiopia and has included nutrition as part of the HSDP IV. The HSDP IV attempts to address and improve the nutritional status of women and children through different programs. According to the EDHS (2011), the nutritional status of women and children is affected by various factors with women being at a server risk of malnourishment at different stages in their life, especially during pregnancy and after delivery and children and infants' nutritional status and growth is affected by that of their mother's.

In 2011, 44 percent of children under age five were stunted, and 21 percent were severely stunted. The highest prevalence of chronic malnutrition was found in children aged 24 to 35 months (57 percent) and the lowest among children under six months old (10 percent). Micronutrient supplementation in mothers is important for fetal development as well as for the wellbeing of mothers. According to the 2011 EDHS, postpartum vitamin A supplements were taken by 16 percent of mothers who gave birth in the five years before 2011. Vitamin A supplements are more common in urban areas than rural areas (20 percent and 15 percent, respectively), and are more common among women with women who received secondary education than with women who received no formal education (28 percent and 14 percent respectively).

One of the targets of HSDP IV is to reduce iron-deficiency anemia in pregnant women, which is linked to the risk of premature delivery and low birth weight. Access to and use of supplements (and to iron-rich foods) is a challenge, though EDHS IV indicates that anemia in women has declined from 2005 levels of 27 percent to 17 percent in 2011.

72 UNFPA (2012), Trends in Maternal Health in Ethiopia: Challenges in Achieving the MDG for Maternal Mortality, In-depth Analysis of the EDHS 2000-2011, Addis Ababa

73 Central Statistical Agency (2014), Ethiopia Mini Demographic and Health Survey (EMDHS), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

74 Central Statistical Agency (2014), Ethiopia Mini Demographic and Health Survey (EMDHS), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

75 EDHS (2011)

76 Central Statistical Agency (2014), Ethiopia Mini Demographic and Health Survey (EMDHS), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

77 GTP-APR MoFED, 2011/12 as cited from MoFED and United Nations Country Team (UNCT) 2012

78 MoFED and United Nations Country Team (UNCT) 2012

79 Ibid

Anemia prevalence varies by level of education and urban versus rural areas. A higher proportion (18 percent) of women in rural areas are anemic than those in urban areas (11 percent). Equally those with no education (20 percent) are more likely to be anemic compared to those with more than secondary education (10 percent). The large majority, 83 percent of women, did not take iron tablets during their pregnancy 2011⁸⁰. The study indicates that iron tablet intake correlated with wealth and education. Nationally, anemia was also observed in 19 percent of the male population aged 50-59 in 2001.

3.6. Non-Obstetric Health Care

One of the indicators for measuring morbidity is an assessment of the prevalence of diseases among women, such as HIV, tuberculosis, and malaria.

A 2014 Ministry of Health study covering the previous twelve months of health data⁸¹ reported that nationally the highest reported causes of death in the last 12 months before the study were:

1. Accidents (15.50 percent)
2. Respiratory diseases and pneumonia (12.5 percent)
3. TB (8.70 percent)
4. Malaria (8.60 percent)
5. Complications during delivery/birth (3.23 percent).
6. Non-infectious diseases including diabetes, cancer, mental illness and hypertension (13 percent)

While accidents, respiratory diseases and cancer accounted for a larger share of deaths for males, prevalent causes of death in women were attributed to TB, malaria, intestinal worms, heart problems, and hypertension. However, the data also shows that the causes of 21.5 percent of women's deaths and 11.45 percent among men are not known, bringing into question the extent to which women's health problems are really identified and addressed.

3.6.1 HIV/AIDS

At the turn of the century Ethiopia was one of the most significantly HIV-affected countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Life expectancy had been reduced by up to seven years, access to anti-retroviral drug therapy was poor, and the rate of mother-to-child transmission was high. Data on HIV/AIDS prevalence at that time varies but one source⁸² cites a MoH figure of 4.4% of the population as PLWHA in 2003.

Figures from the UN and the MoH indicate that the prevalence of HIV in Ethiopia as of 2011 was 1.5 percent for the population aged 15-49.⁸³ This appears to reflect a reduc-

tion of about 25% over the period 2001-2009⁸⁴.

While the prevalence among women is higher (1.9 percent) than that of men (1.0 percent), HIV prevalence is highest for women aged 30 to 34 at 3.7 percent and for men aged 35 to 39 at 3.0 percent. EDHS 2011 also indicated that the widowed (12.2 percent) and divorced (5.2 percent) are more likely to be HIV positive than those currently or never married.

Several drivers of this significant reduction appear to be a combination of programs to improve knowledge and awareness about HIV/AIDS, improved access to testing and to ARTs and the provision of means to avoid transmission between sexual partners and from mother to child.

There seems to be an overall basic knowledge about HIV/AIDS with about 97 percent of women and 99 percent of men having general knowledge or have heard about HIV/AIDS. However, comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS including prevention and treatment is lower at 19 percent and 32 percent among women and men, respectively. Urban youth with 38 percent of young women and 49 percent of young men, are more likely to have comprehensive knowledge about HIV than rural youth (19 percent women and 30 percent of the men). Research shows that woman's educational level is likely to have a positive effect on her level of knowledge about HIV/AIDS. Only 7 percent of women with no education were reported in EDHS 2011 as having comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS transmission and prevention, compared with 54 percent of women who completed secondary education.

HIV testing coverage has increased since 2005. In the 2011 EDHS survey found 20 percent of women and 21 percent of men tested for HIV and receiving the results. In 2005, only 2 percent of women and men had tested and received their results on their HIV status.

Knowledge of prevention of mother to child transmission (MTCT) is highest among women and men with more than secondary education at 84 percent and 74 percent respectively, in comparison to those with no education at 28 percent of women and 31 percent of men. Urban women (71 percent) also have better knowledge about MTCT than rural women (32 percent)⁸⁵. The GoE and partners are scaling up the PMTCT program to reach the approximately 90,000 pregnant women who are PLWHA in order to advance in ending MTCT.

3.6.2 Tuberculosis

A TB prevalence survey carried out by FMOH in 2010/11⁸⁶

80 EDHS (2011)

81 MOH (2014), National Health Account: Household Health Service Utilization and Expenditure Survey, April 2014

82 <http://www.etharc.org/oromia/resources/kit/artinfotookit.pdf>

83 EDHS (2011)

84 <http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/presscentre/pressreleaseandstatementarchive/2011/december/20111204prethiopiampmtct>, and see, also, GoE (2014) Country Progress Report on the HIV Response in Ethiopia, 2014.

85 EDHS (2011)

86 MOH (2014), National Health Account: Household Health Service Utilization and Expenditure Survey, April 2014

also indicated lower prevalence of all forms of TB (at 240 per 100,000 people) and improved TB service indicators, such as treatment success and cure rate from previous estimates for the same period by World Health Organization estimates (585 per 100,000 population).⁸⁷ One of the core priorities of the Health Sector Development Program of Ethiopia is reducing the expansion of tuberculosis (TB). According to the 2011 EDHS, knowledge about TB is almost universal. 90 percent of the women and 95 percent among men aged 15 to 49 stated that they have heard about TB. As for HIV, more men than women know how the disease is spread (50 percent of women, 69 percent of men) knowledge of treatment is also gendered (80 percent of women, 89 percent of men).

3.6.3 Malaria

Malaria prevention and control is one of the priority areas in the Health Sector Development Program of Ethiopia. In 2009, malaria was one of the leading causes of outpatient visits to health facilities and admissions⁸⁸. The 2010/11 review process of the Government's Growth and Transformation Plan⁸⁹ indicates that there has been good progress in malaria prevention and control in Ethiopia. Bed nets were distributed to 65.6 percent of households in malaria prone areas, resulting in 42.5 percent of pregnant women and 42.1 percent of children under five to sleep under nets. However, better understanding through awareness raising on the constraints on accessing nets at regional and district levels would be an important element to this priority area. Recent data from the National Household Health Survey in 2014 shows that malaria accounts for 11.30 percent of all deaths among women as compared to 6.30 percent of deaths among men⁹⁰. Hence, the momentum of ongoing efforts on malaria prevention and control should continue in order to address one of the pressing health needs of women in Ethiopia.

3.7. Access to Health Care

Access to non-traditional health care (health workers, visitors, nurses, doctors, health care facilities such as outposts, clinics, or hospitals) varies by sex and by location. The National Health Account undertaken by MOH between mid-December 2012 and January 2013 shows that women's use of emergency care in Ethiopia is higher than that of males at 0.62 percent and 0.48 percent, respectively⁹¹. Comparing the self-reported illness and health

care seeking behavior by sex, the study also shows that nationally 12.76 percent of females and 10.35 percent of males were ill in the four weeks preceding the survey. Of these, 60.91 percent of females and 64.24 percent of males visited a health facility, indicating some gender disparity in health-seeking behavior. There were also differences between rural and urban women with 15.59 percent of females in urban areas self-reported as ill in comparison to the 12.44 percent in rural areas. A higher percentage of urban females visited a health clinic (65.19 percent) by comparison with rural women (60.31).

Constraints on women's access to health care in general, as for obstetric care, are well documented. 71 percent of the women in the 2011 EDHS said that transport to a facility was a critical constraint, followed by lack of money (68 percent), and long distances to a health facility (66 percent). In addition to this, a large portion (61 percent of women) reported being time poor and concerned about their workload inside and outside the home. More than half of the women (56 percent) expressed concern about absence of a health provider at the health facility, while 53 percent specifically pointed out concerns about not getting a female health provider. Concerns about getting permission to go for treatment was also found among 29 percent of the females.

87 FMoH. 2012b. HSDP IV Annual Performance Report 2011/2012, Version 1. Addis Ababa: Federal Ministry of Health as cited from MOH (2014), National Health Account: Household Health Service Utilization and Expenditure Survey

88 MOH 2010, as cited from MOFED and UNCT (2012) Addressing Progress towards the Millennium Goals: Ethiopia's MDGs Report.

89 As cited from MoFED and United Nations Country Team (UNCT) 2012

90 MOH (2014), National Health Account: Household Health Service Utilization and Expenditure Survey, April 2014

91 Ibid



Women and the economy

4.1. National Frameworks on Women and the Economy

Women's participation and role in the economy is important for national growth. In accordance to this, the government of Ethiopia tried to encourage women's economic development through the promotion of their employment rights and women's participation in the economy. One of the provisions in this regard is the anti-discrimination and affirmative action promotion provided in the FDRE Constitution and the Civil Servants Proclamation No. 515/2007 Article 13. As outlined in sub-article 3 (a), affirmative action is particularly indicated in ensuring women's recruitment, promotion and deployment process.

However, recent commitments and intentions of the Gender Directorates in MOFED and the Ministries of Industry and of Trade can be restated here as benchmark statements against which future implementations can be measured and profiled. For example, the 2012 Industry Development Sector Gender Mainstreaming Implementation Guideline states that *"the Ministry will work towards ensuring the presence of organized sex and gender disaggregated data in all processes, making information available and accessible to women and men, designing a system which presents equal opportunities for women and men in access to modern technology and skills in using the technology as per the vision, mission and values of the Ministry"*⁹². One of the key activities

will be ensuring that project profiles and feasibility studies take "women's environmental, social and economic benefits" into account. The gender mainstreaming guideline further emphasizes women's role, participation and needs in new investments and ongoing projects, as well as technology selection, negotiation, machinery planting, export support and various trainings of technical, marketing and management nature, among other issues.

Gender mainstreaming in national budgets is a key strategy in making women's lives visible and integrating women's economic power and activities into formal economic planning. An initial national guideline on Gender Responsive Budgeting was prepared by MOFED in 2008 and further refined and developed in 2012, along with a series of trainings for MOFED staff, budget experts, and gender experts in different sector Ministries. MOFED also set a system for integrating Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB) in the program budget trainings provided to different Ministries on an annual basis. It also investigates and verifies whether gender is mainstreamed into sector ministries' budget plans. Feedback is provided to sector Ministries in line with the parameters of 'gender equity' during the annual budget hearing meetings. This helps to facilitate revision of their budgets in accordance with the GRB objectives.

The Gender Directorate of MOFED is developing methods to replicate GRB in the regions. MOFED's focus in piloting these projects has involved establishing GRB task forces in

92 FMol(2012), Industry Development Sector Gender Mainstreaming Implemen-

tation Guideline, August 2012, Addis Ababa

Amhara, Tigray, SNNP and Dire Dawa. The task forces were provided with Training of Trainers (TOT) with the intention of piloting GRB at Kebele level. In line with this, Kebeles and Woredas have started taking on the ownership of the GRB in the piloted regions. This process has been especially effective in some areas, with early signs of positive impact registered in Amhara Lemo Kemkem, in the SNNPR Shebedino and in Oromiya Adama Woreda.

Bridging gender gaps through empowerment programs promoted by both governmental and non-governmental actors at the national level have started showing results. According to a MoFED and United Nations Country Team (UNCT) report of 2012 on the MDGs, such government actions focused on promoting women's entrepreneurship development by providing various trainings to women involved in micro and small businesses, and also creating access to credit and markets for this group. As a result of such interventions, many micro and small-scale businesses owned and operated by women were able to grow into medium-scale enterprises in 2010/11⁹³.

Given women's engagement and contribution to the agriculture sector, government efforts also aim at ensuring women's access to extension services, productive resources including land over which they have rights as well as other agricultural inputs.

4.2. Employment Status of Women and Men

According to the 2013 Labor Force Survey of CSA, of the estimated 80,444,148 population of Ethiopia, 55,629,497 individuals (69.2 percent) were aged 10 years and above, and therefore fall into the potentially economically active part of the population. From this group, 42,403,876 persons or 76 percent were employed in 2013. The employment to population ratio in the study shows that the proportion of employed males from the economically active male group is 82.7 percent and higher than that of employed females, which is at 69.8 percent⁹⁴ (See figure). Nonetheless, the disparity by sex is still visible across the data from 2005 to 2013, where male employment has always been significantly higher and the gap has essentially remained unchanged. Male employment declined slightly from 84.7 percent in 2005 to 82.7 percent in 2013 while female employment increased very slightly, from 69.0 percent in 2005 to 69.8 percent in 2013.⁹⁵

Women's unpaid labor that nevertheless contributes to the economy, and women's unrecognized economic activities, are areas being addressed over the longer term in Ethiopia. Hence, available data on "economically active" and "inactive" status of the population should be scruti-

nized and interpreted in a way that recognizes the various unpaid activities and roles of women.

Overall, national figures show that agriculture is one of the most important sectors in Ethiopia, which engages the majority of women and men. The level of education is closely linked to occupation and women with secondary or higher education qualifications are more likely to be in sales or services, and in professional, technical, and managerial occupations⁹⁶ with women in agriculture tending to have less education. The Demographic Health Survey of 2011 further shows that the proportion of women engaged in sales and services is lower among higher age groups, and increases among those women who were never married, have no living children, live in urban areas, and those in the higher education and wealth quintiles. The smallest portion of the population is engaged in trade in both study periods (2005 and 2013).

Urban employment declined over the years, though the decline is less pronounced especially among youth groups. For example, in the years from 2010/11 to 2011/12 urban unemployment declined from 18 percent to 17.5 percent, while urban youth unemployment fell only from 23.7 percent to 23.3 percent for the same period⁹⁷. National data for 2013 also shows that more female youth (9.1 percent) are unemployed as compared to male youth (4.6 percent). With regards to the number of unemployed youth at the rural and urban areas significant variations were seen at 3.1 percent and 21.6 percent respectively. Among the urban unemployed youth, the proportion of females is higher at 26.4 percent as compared to the males at 16.1 percent⁹⁸. While the study further affirms that the unemployment rate is higher among literate persons (7.0 percent) than the illiterate (2.9 percent), it also indicates that in general female unemployment rates are higher than male in both the literate and illiterate categories.

In comparing the employment status of women across different marital status and age groups in 2011, it appears that the proportion of women employed rises among women aged 15 to 19 to a peak among women aged 25 to 29, and then declines slightly for the older age groups⁹⁹. With regards to differences by marital status, the EDHS indicates that women who are divorced, separated, or widowed are most likely to be employed. Overall women's unemployment is mostly attributed to limited opportunities, capacities and skills including negotiation and decision making skills, domestic workloads and resulting time poverty and cultural perceptions about the role, capacity and skills of women.

93 MoFED and UNCT (2012). Addressing Progress Towards the Millennium Goals: Ethiopia's MDGs Report.

94 CSA (2014), Key findings on the 2013 National Labor Force Survey

95 CSA (2014), Key findings on the 2013 National Labor Force Survey

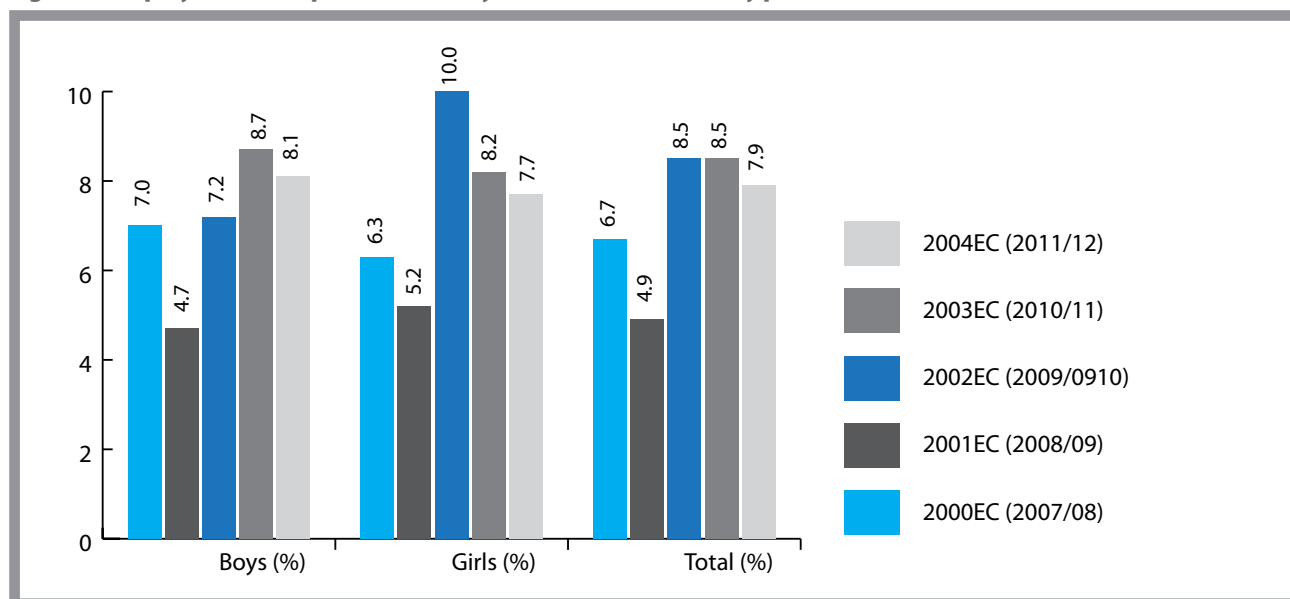
96 EDHS (2011)

97 MoFED and UNCT, 2012. Addressing Progress Towards the Millennium Goals: Ethiopia's MDGs Report.

98 CSA (2014), Key findings on the 2013 National Labor Force Survey

99 EDHS (2011)

Figure 2: Employment to Population ratio by sex, across three survey periods



Source: CSA (2014), Key findings on the 2013 National Labor Force Survey

Civil service and government jobs reflect these engendered employment patterns. Breaking down women's employment by category shows a gender segregated employment landscape. Apart from their lower representation in the formal sector, women often occupy lower level jobs, which are usually considered as 'women's work'. IN line with this trend women are barely represented in decision-making positions.

In 2010/11 68.14 percent of women occupied clerical and financial jobs with no change in 2012/13, for this category which was still at 68.5 percent. In 2010/11 only 26.9 percent of employed women were in professional or scientific jobs. This figure decreased very slightly in 2012/13 to 26.3 percent. Women made up 35 percent of the administrative and 47 percent of custodian and manual jobs in 2012/13, essentially unchanged from the preceding two years¹⁰⁰.

The gender disparity is also evident in the level of educational qualification. Statistical information from the Civil Service Ministry shows that that as of 2010/11, of the total civil servant workforce holding a master's degree, only 10.2 percent are female, whereas men make up 89.8 percent. Of the total workforce holding a BA/BSc, 22.2 percent and 16.7% are women of those holding an LLB. The percentage of women medial doctors reaches 15 percent. Women who hold PhD qualifications made up 7.7 percent in 2010/11 and 6.7 percent in 2012/13 as opposed to 92.3 percent and 93.2 percent men holding PhDs in the same years. This shows that women's representation in civil service posts drops with increasingly higher educational qualification¹⁰¹.

In terms of salary scale, women who earn more than 4000 birr per month (b/mo) were only 11 percent in 2012/13 and

10 percent on average in the preceding two years, whereas women who earned 400 to 499 b/mo reached 53 percent in 2012/13 signifying that women appear mostly on the lower levels of the salary scale¹⁰².

Overall, gender disparities in civil service employment appear in the distribution of jobs and occupational levels, in educational qualifications, and in salaries. There is also correlation between the level of women's educational attainment and their level of employment occupation as well as its corresponding salary scale. As a result, upper and middle level jobs are predominately occupied by men and women's role in decision-making is marginal.

To address this disparity the Federal Civil Servants Proclamation 515/2007 calls for preference to be given to female candidates in processes of recruitment, promotion and deployment, given the have equal qualifications to other candidates. The proclamation also entitles women to maternity leave of 90 days and protects their right to work free from sexual violence and other forms of gender discrimination¹⁰³. The Directive on Selection and Recruitment also calls for the inclusion of female civil servants in the recruitment committees as a mechanism to ensure women's representation in the recruitment committees and to advocate for further recruitment of women, among others¹⁰⁴. While the Directive has improved the presence of women civil servants by 140 percent as opposed to men whose representation increased by 60 percent, from 1990/91-2003, women are still underrepresented in managerial positions.¹⁰⁵

¹⁰⁰ Data from Ministry of Civil Service.

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

¹⁰² Ibid.

¹⁰³ The Federal Civil Servant Proclamation 515/2007

¹⁰⁴ UN (2009) Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women: Combined sixth and seventh periodic report of States parties Ethiopia

¹⁰⁵ Ibid.

Table 3: Ministry of Civil-Service female and male workers by educational qualifications

Educational level	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Illiterate	602	72.4	230	27.6	832	1.1
Literate	583	48.2	627	51.8	1210	1.7
Grade 1-4	1276	57.7	934	42.3	2210	3
Grade 5-8	6959	62.1	4021	37.9	10616	14.6
Grade 9-12	7591	52.1	6969	47.9	14560	20.1
certificate	817	48.5	866	51.5	1683	2.3
Diploma 10+2	1925	45.1	2340	54.9	4265	5.9
Level 1	14	50	14	50	28	0
Level 2	23	16.3	63	73.3	86	0.1
Level 3	58	38.2	94	61.8	152	0.2
Level 4	146	59.8	98	40.2	244	0.3
College level (year 1-4)	358	58.4	255	41.6	613	0.8
Diploma College / 10+3	6832	50.4	6734	49.6	13566	18.7
BA/B.S.C	10373	77.8	2952	22.2	13325	18.7
LLB	444	83.3	89	16.7	533	0.7
MD	707	84.9	126	15.1	833	1.1
DVM	114	90.5	12	9.5	126	0.2
MA/MSC	4522	89.8	515	10.2	5037	6.9
LLM	116	88.5	15	11.5	131	0.2
PHD	679	92.3	57	7.7	736	1
Unspecified	1269	73.4	460	26.6	1729	2.4
TOTAL	45044	-	27471	-	72515	100
Percentage	62.12	-	37	-	-	-

Source: Civil Service human resource statistics, 2010/11

4.3. Disparity in Earnings and Access to Wages

Despite the fact that the majority of women are engaged in agriculture work, they are more likely to get paid when employed in the nonagricultural sector which resulted in 56 percent of women engaged in agricultural work unpaid workers in 2011. A determinant in this case could be the presence of large number of women in the agriculture sector (65 percent) who engage in subsistence farming and work for a family member. Studies show that 30 percent of women were not paid at all for their work in 2011, and only 39 percent were paid in cash¹⁰⁶. This indicates that a large number of women are denied their rights to their wages, which can be attributed to different factors including assumptions about what women. It is recommended that reasons behind women's low representation in the economy and in waged employment should be further explored in order to address the root causes of the problem.

In addition to disparities in wages, another important is-

sue is women's control over their own cash earnings. In the 2011 EDHS, married and employed women were asked about who the main decision maker is with regards to the use of their earnings. The study showed that women who are employed and have better earnings have more control over their cash. However, these findings also need to consider the fact that a large number of employed women were not able to receive their wages, as compared to men. Only 36 percent of the women said they have decision-making power over the use of their own cash earnings while 55 percent jointly decide over the use of their income with their spouses. For 8 percent of the women, the decision is being made by their husbands. With regards to the relative amounts paid to women and men, while 2 percent of the women's husbands have no earnings, 10 percent of the women said they earned more than their husbands, 67 percent earn than their husbands and 20 percent earn the same amount. The study also suggested that women who have more children, who are in the highest wealth quintile, who live in the urban areas and who are older have more decision making power over the use of their cash earnings than women in the other circumstances.

106 EDHS (2011)

4.4. Role and Representation of Women in Micro and Small Enterprises and Cooperatives

Cognizant of the role of micro and small enterprises (MSEs) for the socio-economic development of different communities, the GoE developed the 2011 MSE Development Strategy. In this context micro and small Scale enterprises are defined as industrial enterprises in manufacturing, construction and mining and that operate with 5 people or less including the owner with their total asset not exceed Birr 100,000. In the service sector, this includes enterprises with assets that do not exceed 50,000 birr and engage in retail, transport, hotel and tourism, ICT, or maintenance services.¹⁰⁷

Micro and small enterprises development in general is expected to pave the way for industrial development and to play a critical role in creating job opportunities and income for different segments of the population. In line with this, the strategy outlines the importance of engaging women and youth and the respective institutions in planning, implementing and evaluating the performances of MSEs. The strategy also indicates the need for engaging women and youth in activities that do not require start-up capital, since these people may not have acquired sufficient capital for new businesses. However, the strategy did not outline the number/proportion of women that should be targeted by different activities in its five-year plan (2011/12 to 2015/16), which will make monitoring of their involvement difficult.

Both women and men are targeted through different programs under the FeMSEDA (the Federal Micro and Small Enterprises Agency). For example, from the total of 2,174,290 individuals who received training between 2010 and 2013, 40 percent were women. In terms of other services, 39.9 percent of received technical support, 40 percent received access to loans and 39.9 percent of women benefitted from provision of production and market places. 40 percent of women received marketing linkage and 39.8 percent of women were supported in accessing technology, information and business development services. Hence, encouraging results were observed in ensuring that women get access to different services and benefits through these opportunities.

FeMSEDA data indicates that in the years from 2010 to 2013, a total of 3,964,621 persons benefitted from employment opportunities created, of which 39.9 percent were women¹⁰⁸. This is a decline from previous years (2005 to 2010) where women held 50 percent of the 1.5 million job opportunities created¹⁰⁹.

107 MSE Development Strategy (2011)

108 Unpublished Resource from FeMSEDA

109 MSE Development Strategy (2011)

Given the various challenges to women in the employment sector, the gender directorate at FeMSEDA intends to undertake a rapid assessment in three regions on women's participation, best practices, challenges, and their role in different kinds of enterprises in order to develop key interventions that promote women's participation.

With regard to the participation of women in cooperatives, information was gathered from the Federal Cooperative Agency, which organizes cooperatives, provides relevant trainings, links cooperatives with financial support services and other service providers and conducts annual audits of cooperatives. At present, there is lack of sex-disaggregated data at the Agency in order to determine the proportion of women and men engaged in different types of cooperatives. Research shows that more women than men are participating in Savings and Credit Cooperatives as the initial capital needed for this scheme is relatively small and profits generated from their engagement in such cooperatives help to augment women's income. With regards to the role and benefit of women from multi-purpose cooperatives that are engaged in a range of activities (such as agro processing or coffee production), further national level studies are needed to determine the level of engagement of women and in particular female heads of households as well as the extent to which married women benefit through their husbands' registration in such cooperatives.

4.5. Women and Agriculture

Agriculture is the cornerstone of the Ethiopia economy. It accounts to 46.3 percent and provides almost 80 percent of employment¹¹⁰. About 82.9 percent of the Ethiopian population live in rural areas, predominately dependent on agriculture and subsistent farming.

The country has developed the Agricultural Development-Led Industrialization (ADLI) Strategy, which regulates trade and market policies as well as promotes development in the agricultural sector in order to improve the lives of farmers. Among others things, ADLI intends to produce broad-based and fast development and raise productivity of the agriculture sector¹¹¹.

Nearly half of the agriculture labor force, 45 percent, is self-employed¹¹². Given rapid population growth, land holdings are getting smaller and fragmented, which creates challenges in order to earn a living exclusively through farming, especially in areas where cultivable land is insufficient¹¹³. Smallholder farmers cultivate majority of the ag-

110 See World Bank (WB), 2014. Decomposition of Gender Differentials in Agriculture Productivity in Ethiopia: Policy Research Working Paper, 6764

111 MOFED and UNICEF (2012). Investing in Boys and Girls in Ethiopia: Past, Present and Future.

112 Ibid

113 Ibid.

gricultural land reaching about 96 percent and producing largely subsistence cereal crops¹¹⁴.

Regardless of the challenges, an estimated 46 and 74 percent of all working women (aged 15-49) and men of the same age, are engaged in agricultural occupations, signifying a decrease from 2005 where numbers reached 52 percent and 84 percent, respectively¹¹⁵. In rural areas these figures increase to 57 percent and 88 percent respectively.¹¹⁶

Not only is agriculture a major area of occupation for women but it is also the highest recruiter, in all the wealth quintiles¹¹⁷. In spite of the centrality of their contribution to the sector and the economy, women are often disadvantaged and their contribution is less valued. Women, for instance, contribute as much as 70 percent of on-farm labor in post-harvest activities, for cereals and take 60 percent of labor marketing share¹¹⁸.

Women in agriculture also engage in livestock and crop production, both for subsistence and for commercial use¹¹⁹. Despite the lack of gender-disaggregated data, the participation of women in crop production is estimated to be 45 to 75 percent, depending on the crop and stage of the production¹²⁰. Women's role and participation in agriculture also varies by region, although stereotypical tasks for women in the agricultural sector such as weeding vary across regions due to cultural norms and values. For example, in some regions women are forbidden to plough, while in others, they are expected to plough. However, similarities also exist for instance that women often tend to cultivate vegetable crops on small plots of land located in their immediate area¹²¹. Marketing and decision making over revenues is usually regarded as the role of head of the house, which happens to be men, in many instances¹²². Overall, gender roles in agriculture and socio-cultural norms often restricts women's access to vital resources such as credit and extension services as well as other agricultural inputs. The CSA Agricultural Sample Survey of 2006/7 indicates that the number of male landowners (land certified) outnumber the female landowners (land certified), almost by five times,

9.6 million vs. 2.3 million respectively¹²³. Moreover, single women, both those who never married, or those who are divorced, are more likely to be landless, as most women tend to gain and keep access to land through marriage¹²⁴. Although the new Family Law gives inheritance rights to daughters as well as to sons, fragmentation of holdings remains an issue of concern and women's land rights are still a contested area in the courts. Overall it is still the case that women have less access to land ownership, productive farm inputs and credit services, less access to extension services and face more constraints in entering markets.

As a result, women farmers tend to produce less per hectare, compared to men¹²⁵. The CSA's Ethiopia Rural Socioeconomic Survey (ERSS) confirms this trend and indicates that female farm managers produce 23 percent less per hectare than their male counterparts. While the gap grows at median productivity level to 26 percent, it narrows down to 12 percent among the least productive farmers¹²⁶. Other studies report that female headed household farmed yields are 35 percent lower than male headed households¹²⁷.

Recognizing these obstacles for women farmers, the Government of Ethiopia has taken various steps to increase women's access to productive resources, such as land, and address the gender concerns of the land tenure system. The land certificate program, which legally requires the issuance of land ownership certificate in the name of the husband and his spouse, has been a major step forward to raising women's social and economic status¹²⁸. Despite the growing assumption that the land certificate program narrows the gender gap in productivity, at least one study has indicated¹²⁹ that land tenure is not directly linked to more gains for women¹³⁰. One of the major factors for productivity cited by Hoed, Shivered and Pender (2001), the FAO (2011) is labor constraints which is directly linked to socio-cultural norms of engendered labor like ploughing which is considered as a male task¹³¹. In some instances this leads to women renting out their entire land to relatives which may lead to ineffective command over their tenants and the cultivation of their plots, with subsequently less effort and poorer yields from their rented out land¹³². Lower levels of input use and

114 Ibid. See also the WB. Leveling the Field: Improving Opportunities for Women Farmers in Africa.

115 EDHS, 2011.

116 Which are 6 in every ten employed women and nine in every ten employed men, according to EDHS 2011.

117 Ibid.

118 Accelerating Ethiopian Agriculture Development for Growth, Food Security, and Equity Synthesis of findings and recommendations for the implementation of diagnostic studies in extension, irrigation, soil health/fertilizer, rural finance, seed systems, and output markets (maize, pulses, and livestock). July 2010.

119 FAO (2011). The State of Food and Agriculture 2010-11: Women in Agriculture. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

120 Accelerating Ethiopian Agriculture Development for Growth, Food Security, and Equity Synthesis of findings and recommendations for the implementation of diagnostic studies in extension, irrigation, soil health/fertilizer, rural finance, seed systems, and output markets (maize, pulses, and livestock). July 2010.

121 On average, male fields are 1.9 kilometers away from their home, while female fields are only 0.8 kilometers away, according to the WB study 2014.

122 WB (2014). Decomposition of Gender Differentials in Agriculture Productivity in Ethiopia: Policy Research Working Paper, 6764

123 CSA (2006/7). Agricultural Sample Survey

124 World Bank (2009). Ethiopia Unleashing the Potential of Ethiopian Women Trends and Options for Economic Empowerment

125 WB. Leveling the Field: Improving Opportunities for Women Farmers in Africa.

126 Ibid.

127 FAO (2011). The State of Food and Agriculture 2010-11: Women in Agriculture. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

128 See Gender Equality as Smart Statistics. A World Bank Group Action Plan. March 2008

129 See Bezabeh and Hoden (2010) The Role of Land Certification in Reducing Gender Gaps in Productivity. Environment for Development. Discussion Paper Series. November 2010. EFD DP 10-23

130 Ibid. Page 29.

131 FAO (2011). The State of Food and Agriculture 2010-11: Women in Agriculture. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

132 Bezabeh and Hoden (2010). The role of Land Certification in Reducing Gender Gaps in Productivity in Rural Areas. Discussion Paper. Environment for Development.

less access to extension advice are emphasized as further causes for the lower productivity of women's farms. In view of their triple role in society,¹³³ women also spend fewer hours in agricultural activities and face overall time poverty due to a high number of unpaid activities they have to perform. A World Bank study states that while male farmers spend about 23 hours a week on their farm, on average, females spend about 14.4¹³⁴.

Government policies have attempted to expand the provision of agricultural extension and credit services to farmers and despite some progress made, the gap between female and male farmers access to those services continues to remain¹³⁵. The GTP developed initial gender sensitive actions with a target of benefiting 30 percent of female-headed households in farming or in pastoralist and semi-pastoralist settings¹³⁶. While this is a great attempt, indicators only target female-headed households, missing out on the majority of women who are either single or married. However, the target is also ambitious as it accommodates areas where the number of FHH exceeds national average of 26 percent¹³⁷.

One of the other remaining main challenges is the collection of sex disaggregated data. To address this and other

133 Women largely bear family and community responsibilities apart from their reproductive and productive roles and take care of all the reproductive work apart from their productive role.

134 World Bank (2014). Decomposition of Gender Differentials in Agriculture Productivity in Ethiopia: Policy Research Working Paper, 6764

135 WB. Leveling the Field: Improving Opportunities for Women Farmers in Africa.

136 MOFED (2010). Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP). 2010/11-2014/15

137 About one-quarter, 26 percent, of Ethiopian households in Ethiopia are headed by women, an increase from 23 percent in 2005. EDHS, 2011.

challenges, the Gender Directorate of the MoA has developed not only a Gender Mainstreaming Manual (GMM) and signed a Memorandum of Understanding with regional counterparts, to ensure accountability¹³⁸. The GMM aims at informing on collecting gender and sex disaggregated information and data, at all levels. The existing initiative of also seeks to set up interdepartmental gender focal points in order to mainstream gender in various departments. This could provide an excellent model for the regions if the initiative shows results.

Given the potential and key role that the agriculture sector has in reducing poverty, closing the widespread gender gap would yield immense benefit not only for women but also to their families, communities and the country at large.

4.6. Women, Trade and the Industrial Sector

4.6.1 Women in Industry and Trade

The Gender Directorate in the Ministry of Trade assists in the coordination of women's associations and to link them with training opportunities, provide them with technical support in trade registration and license issues, and facilitate their access to external markets through exhibition bazaars, panel discussions, and other forms of outreach. However, the number of women entrepreneurs at the Federal level is still low, with 16.16 percent of their representation among owners of all types of trades registered under the Ministry.

138 This has not been the case in the other ministries and could be replicated.

Table 4: Number of trades which are registered at the Ministry of Trade, disaggregated by sex (unpublished data from Ministry of Trade, 2014)

Types of Trade	Number of businesses owned by females	Number of businesses owned by males
1 Agriculture, Forest Development and Fisheries	10 (3.21%)	302
2 Mining and quarrying	1 (6.67%)	14
3 Manufacturing	105 (10.12%)	933
4 Electricity, Fuel and Water Supply	(0%)	8
5 Construction	17 (4.72%)	344
6 Wholesale and retail, Maintenance of vehicles and motorcycles, Importers and exporters of household furniture	6,461 (16.17%)	33,502
7 Transport, Storage and Communication services	610 (19.04%)	2,594
8 Finance, insurance, real estate and Trade works	115 (10.90%)	940
Sub Total	7,630 (16.16%)	39,571 (83.84%)
Total Number of All Businesses	47,201	

Women have higher ownership of trades related to community, social and personal services¹³⁹ which may reflect their conversion of domestic roles into commercial initiatives.

139 Unpublished data from the Ministry of Trade, July 2014

4.6.2 Small Scale Manufacturing

Manufacturing establishments are divided into three ma-

nor groups. Large and Medium Scale Manufacturing establishments are classified as employing 10 or more people and operate a power driven machinery. Small scale man-

ufacturing establishments operate with less than 10 people who operate a power driven machinery, and cottage/handicraft manufacturing establishments who do not use power driven machinery. In looking at the participation of women and men in each type of manufacturing establishment, the data reveals that during 2007/08 89.9 percent were men, with about 40 percent being unpaid family workers, 3.1 percent unpaid apprentices and 5.4 percent seasonal and temporary workers. The proportion of permanent paid employees was at 48.1 percent¹⁴⁰.

Of the total 14,100 women who took part in small scale manufacturing industries in 2010, 58.0 percent were unpaid family workers, while 4.1 percent were unpaid apprentices, 1.6 percent paid apprentices, and the remaining 37.4 percent permanent and paid employees. Data shows that in general the proportion of male paid employees was higher than the proportion of female paid employees.

Assessing trends in women's role and participation in these industries is constrained by gaps in the availability of up to date sex disaggregated in this sector. Access to data from non-governmental sources (the universities, external donor partners) could make this hidden aspect of women's work more visible.

4.6.3 Medium and Large Scale Industries

Review of women's participation in medium and large scale manufacturing at both the public and private sector shows that women's participation increased from 35,000 in 2005/06 to 60,788 in 2009/10. The national survey also shows that women's participation is higher in specific sectors which could be described as 'traditional female sectors'. In 2009/10, a large proportion or 30 percent of women in the manufacturing sector were employed in the food and beverages industry, while 10 percent were in rubber and plastic, and 18 percent in the textile industry.¹⁴¹ These could be attributed to the fact that such sectors, especially the food and beverage sector, are extensions of women's traditional roles in the household. Women's predominant engagement in this sector correlates with findings of lower income in these sectors and therefore lesser gender disparities in income. Data from 2009/10 shows that the average annual income per head for females and males in the manufacture of textiles¹⁴² is equivalent at 8,274 and 8,232 birr respectively. However, when comparing the wages and income in the manufacture of food products and beverages, it is apparent that the average earning of a woman is significantly less at 9,585, compared to the average earn-

ing for a male at 12,848. The income disparity is higher in the manufacture of rubber and plastic products industry, where women on average earned 8,943 birr as compared to the males' 13,340 birr in 2009/10.

4.6.4 Ownership of Decision-Making in the Manufacturing Industry

Ownership of establishments for small, medium and large scale manufacturing industries shows that the number of women owners is lower than men in all sizes of industry. In 2007/08, 13.7 percent of the small scale manufacturing industries, were female-owned, while the remaining 86.3 percent were owned by men¹⁴³. Data for the large and medium scale manufacturing industries in 2011 also shows that women own fewer private establishments, whether as individual owners, share company members, private limited company owners or cooperative members. For example, in the manufacture of food products and beverages industry (from 2009-2010), women's ownership was limited to 31.1 percent of partnerships, 24 percent of individual owners, 28.3 percent of share companies, 32.9 percent of private limited company and 42.7 percent of cooperatives¹⁴⁴. Similarly, women's ownership of different assets in the major industry groups, namely manufacture of tobacco products, textiles, wearing apparel, tanning and leather products, as well as wood and products of wood, paper and paper products, and chemicals and chemical products is lower than that of men.

These major industries have two markets; the internal market in Ethiopia, where most Ethiopian manufactured products are sold, and the external export market but no sex disaggregated data for women's participation in the export market is available¹⁴⁵.

Though the decision making power of women was not clearly outlined in the surveys, data is available on the number of administrative, technical, clerical and office workers in public and private large and medium scale manufacturing and electricity industries for 2009/10. A total of 32,253 individuals were found in these posts, of which 10,270 (31.8 percent) were female and 21,983 (68.2 percent) were male¹⁴⁶ without further sex disaggregated data on women and men in certain positions.

4.6.5 Women and the Mining Sector

Ethiopia is a country endowed with natural and mineral resources. Mining operations include state-owned cooperation companies, private companies and Artisanal and

140 CSA (2010), Report on Small Scale Manufacturing Industries Survey, Addis Ababa

141 CSA (2011), Report on Large and Medium Scale Manufacturing and Electricity Industries Survey

142 Ibid

143 CSA (2010), Report on Small Scale Manufacturing Industries Survey, Addis Ababa

144 CSA (2011), Report on Large and Medium Scale Manufacturing and Electricity Industries Survey

145 CSA (2013), Report on The 1st Quarter of the 2005 E.F.Y. Manufacturing Business Survey

146 CSA (2011), Report on Large and Medium Scale Manufacturing and Electricity Industries Survey

Small-Scale Minerals (ASM) miners¹⁴⁷. Although the contribution of the mining and quarrying sector to GDP is less than one percent, it has recently been one of the fastest growing sectors, especially since 2008/09. Export earnings from gold, in particular, increased to over 15 percent of the total in 2010/11. An estimated 30 to 50 percent of gold export is being produced by ASM¹⁴⁸. Artisanal mining (AM) and marketing is also focus area of the GTP, which states that “women are encouraged and specifically supported to participate in and accordingly benefit from the sector”¹⁴⁹. MoME suggests that it has the potential to economically empower the poor and the disadvantaged living, in the mining areas, throughout the country¹⁵⁰.

There are various driving forces that motivate involvement in the mining sector. Being a lucrative field, the majority of men and women engage in mining activity for better income, 71 percent and 62 percent respectively¹⁵¹. An almost equal number of men (14 percent) and women (13 percent) are involved in mining due to lack of farmlands as well as an almost equal number of men and women who are in the mining sector due to fragmentation farmland is 8 and 9 percent respectively. Only 5 percent of male and 11 percent of female said that they mine seasonally¹⁵².

As this mostly informal sector only requires little education and investment and little starting capital it is an appealing employment area to the rural poor population in general and women in particular.

However, ASM is a rudimentary type of mining usually exploiting minerals with simple or rather outdated equipment done either by individuals or groups, legally or illegally. It is often a dangerous exercise creating an unhealthy and unsafe working environment. Some describe the sector as “chaotic with little respect for law and order in many mining areas”¹⁵³.

The number of artisanal miners in Ethiopia is estimated to be between 800,000 to 1,000,000. Women’s involvement in artisanal mining ranges from 95 percent in some areas in Benishangul-Gumuz (e.g. Kuttaworke or Menge) to 30 percent in Oromia¹⁵⁴. Given the nature of the work, which is informal, women frequently use ASM as a supplementary source of income, and are therefore often not considered when data is collected.

Women’s work in the mining sector is central to the suc-

cess of the venture, but less well paid. Women engage in clay soil mining, sifting gold diggings, transporting, washing, sorting, processing and trading. In addition to maintaining their traditional and domestic roles, women’s work in the mining area also encompasses catering, food vending, and sales of goods and services, from laundering to commercial sex work¹⁵⁵. Since women in the mining areas are often migrants from other regions of the country, who happen to be there seeking livelihood opportunities, they often resort to prostitution to supplement low pay, or to capitalize on the sexual harassment they encounter very commonly¹⁵⁶.

Given the nature of the work in hard rock mining, which requires force and physical strength, the mining sector tends to be male-dominated. In general, men’s engagement in the mining sector is three times higher than women’s, with exception of Benishangul-Gumuz and Tigray, where the participation of women in the mining workforce is quite pronounced, 68 and 42 percent respectively¹⁵⁷.

Women’s participation in mining also varies by the type of mineral being extracted. For instance, women’s engagement in salt extraction and stone-quarrying is nearly non-existent, and their participation in gemstone mining is very minimal. However, women’s involvement in gold mining, as miners, is rather recognizable, but varies across regions¹⁵⁸. It is worth noting that women appear to be underrepresented in most parts of the minerals value chain with the exception of gold.

147 Ministry of Mines and Energy (MoME), 2013. Socio-Economic base line survey of Artisanal and Small Scale Mining Communities in Rural Areas.

148 Ibid.

149 MOFED (2010). Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP). 2010/11-2014/15. P.67

150 MoME (2006). Artisanal Mining Sector Study

151 MoM (2013). Socio economic base line survey of Artisanal and Small Scale Mining communities in Rural Area.

152 Ibid

153 MoME (2006). Artisanal Mining Sector Study

154 Ministry of Mines (2012) Gender Mainstreaming Guideline and MoME (2006). Artisanal Mining Sector Study

155 Ibid.

156 Ibid. Among the reason is to supplement the little income women and girls have, by offering sex. Women and girls are also subject to sexual harassment and abuse.

157 Ibid. See also the base line survey.

158 Ministry of Mines (MoM) (2013) Socio Economic Base Line survey of Artisanal and Small Scale Mining communities in Rural Areas.

Table 5: Women in Mining: Gender division of labor along the key ASM value chain in Gold Mining

Activity	Sex	Tigray	Amhara	Oromia	SNNP	BGRS	Gambella	(n)	%
Mining- Breaking rock	Male	18.0%	1.0%	61.1%	51.6%	29.0%	36.0%	898	37.2%
	Female	1.5%	0.0%	0.3%	1.2%	6.5%	0.0%	55	2.3%
Mining-Digging	Male	72.1%	99.0%	82.5%	94.5%	76.2%	100.0%	1,975	81.7%
	Female	19.0%	0.0%	0.5%	3.7%	22.8%	0.0%	270	11.2%
Mining- Transporting ore to washing site	Male	49.3%	100.0%	73.9%	84.9%	40.8%	100.0%	1,534	63.5%
	Female	41.7%	0.0%	1.0%	5.5%	57.7%	0.0%	628	26.0%
Mining- Providing support services	Male	54.3%	100.0%	70.1%	84.1%	64.6%	100.0%	1,681	69.6%
	Female	39.4%	0.0%	0.3%	4.0%	33.3%	0.0%	457	18.9%
Processing-Washing/ panning	Male	47.9%	99.0%	71.8%	86.6%	31.9%	100.0%	1,465	60.6%
	Female	43.7%	0.0%	1.2%	5.7%	67.6%	0.0%	701	29.0%
Processing- Final concentration	Male	53.1%	99.0%	70.0%	84.4%	43.3%	100.0%	1,545	63.9%
	Female	37.1%	0.0%	1.0%	4.0%	55.4%	0.0%	580	24.0%
Processing-Collecting final produce	Male	56.4%	98.0%	62.0%	83.4%	46.4%	100.0%	1,531	63.4%
	Female	27.9%	0.0%	0.7%	4.2%	47.9%	0.0%	478	19.8%

Women's participation at the various stages of the ASM value chain is quite considerable in Tigray and Benishangul whereas the level of their participation in Amhara and Gambella is literally non-existent, which call for further investigation. Though limited and with varying degree, women's participation in mineral processing activities is relatively high¹⁵⁹. It's worth noting that women spend equal amounts of time with men in the mining fields, with little variations across the regions.

159 The mineral processing activities include digging, carrying the ore, fetching water, washing, panning, dumping the waste, concentrating the final product, etc.

The GTP recognizes the participation of women in the sector and calls for specific support to be provided for women in ASM. The establishment of a Gender Directorate in the Ministry of Mines from 2005 and the key role the directorate is playing to engender the Mining sector is promising. In an attempt to mainstream gender not only in policies and programs but also within the Ministry, the Ministry has developed a gender-mainstreaming manual and conducted an institutional gender audit. In the event that the outcome of the audit is addressed and implemented, it could play a crucial role in engendering the organization itself. Furthermore, having recognized the various challenges women face in the sector, the gender directorate is currently running a project, funded by the World Bank that intends to enhance the participation women in the sector in general and building the capacity of women artisanal miners in particular. Due to women's under-represented in the formal mining sector, the Gender Directorate of the Ministry of Mines and Energy (MoME) has been advocating for engendering the draft Mining Policy. As a result, the 10 policy measures, promoting the equal participation of women and their equal benefit from the mining industry is underscored.

In addition to unequal engagement in the mining sector women also face pay disparities compared to men with the average total income earned by men being 150 percent of that of women. A key factor for this seems to be women's lack of bargaining power and capacity, as they are not organized in cooperatives. Women miners sell 65

percent of their products to licensed and 43 percent to unlicensed traders, whereas male miners sell 37 percent to licensed traders and only 28 percent to unlicensed traders, and the remainder through cooperatives. Only 12 percent of women sell their product through cooperatives as opposed to 44 percent of men¹⁶⁰.

In light of the above, clearly, women are underrepresented in the mining sector and their participation is marginal. Reasons include customary laws, a lack of women friendly technologies and equipment, inadequate capacity and training of women miners, lack of health and child care facilities, sexual exploitation and abuse and limited access to finance and credit services. If these challenges are addressed and supported by gender sensitive policies, women can successfully contribute to enhance productivity of the sector.

160 Ibid.



Women and Infrastructure Development

As one of the most important and strategic directions of the GTP, was the allocation of resources for infrastructure development. As a result, according to the MOFED and UNCT report of 2012, more than 65 percent of public expenditure has been spent on pro-poor infrastructure: which include water, roads and energy. In the efforts to strengthen the economic sector along with industry and other development sectors, national efforts on infrastructure development are geared towards strengthening roads, railway transport, energy, telecommunication, potable water supply, irrigation development, transport services, maritime transport, air transport services, and urban construction and development issues ¹⁶¹.

The Five Year Urban and Construction sector Strategic Direction (2010/11- 2014/15) gives emphasis to the development of the construction industry through taking into account micro and small enterprise development, the subsequent capacity building issues and the full participation of women. It is also likely that gender-sensitive budgeting and gender audits will provide means for tracking government investment and policy implementations regarding essential infrastructure that meets the needs of women and men and therefore gives equitable access to infrastructure.

5.1. Roads

The Urban sector and the Construction Industry of Ethiopia aim at ensuring the provision of quality urban infrastructure services through improving urban main and feeder roads. Accordingly, under the Urban Infrastructure Development Program, a total of 245.49 km cobblestone

roads, 82.64 km drainage networks, 4 solid waste landfill sites, 1 liquid waste landfill sites, 2 market areas, 545 shades and 13 market centers were constructed between 2011 and 2012 ¹⁶². The government had planned to construct a total of 71,523 km of all-weather and year round roads in the five year period of the Road Sector Development Program (RSDP-IV).

Women cover an average distance of 2.11 km every day, spending an average of twenty-nine minutes on those trips¹⁶³. Without taking into account federal routine and rural road maintenance projects, in the first three years of the GTP, a total of 41,669 kilometers resulting in the federal and regional total road length reaching 58,338 kilometers (as of 2012/13) ¹⁶⁴.

Ethiopia's Universal Rural Road Access Program (URRAP) focuses on enhancing employment opportunities for women and youth in the sector through encouraging application of less labor intensive technologies. This is identified as one of the strengths of the program in addressing women's needs, however, the extent to which women are engaged in, and have profited from this is not well-documented. In addition, it is not yet known whether their access to roads has improved their access to a range of basic services such as food markets, schools, and health services and opportunities.

¹⁶² Annual Progress Report of Urban Sector and Construction Industry, 2011/12

¹⁶³ FDRE Roads Authority (2011), Road Sector Development Program 13 years Performance and Phase IV, Ministry of Transport

¹⁶⁴ FDRE MOFED (2014), Growth and Transformation Plan Annual Progress Report for F.Y. 2012/13

¹⁶¹ GTP 2010/11- 2014/15

In 2011, 40 percent of rural households were less than five kilometers away from the closest of all-weather road and around 51.0 percent still needed to travel five or more kilometers to reach the nearest all weather road. This was an improvement from 2004, where 58 percent needed to travel five or more kilometers to reach the nearest all weather road¹⁶⁵. Women's access to markets, school, and health services is affected by availability of all-weather roads as well as access to transportation, especially given their main responsibility as food providers in the household.

5.2. Energy

The quality of women and men's life is affected by the availability of energy and distance to a source of energy for lighting and cooking in the households. The distance to source of energy for cooking specifically impacts women's life quality, since women are usually the ones responsible for collecting firewood. According to the 2011 Welfare Monitoring Survey, nationally, 23 percent of the households used electricity as a source of lighting, while 52 percent used kerosene, 13 percent electricity from battery and 11 percent firewood. More households in the urban areas (88 percent) used electricity as a source in comparison to the 5 percent of households in the rural areas.

With consideration of the above constraints, the Alternative Energy Directorate of the Water, Irrigation and Sanitation Ministry, is undertaking activities in order to improve access to alternative sources of energy. Under the Climate Resilient Green Economy (CRGE) action, efforts are underway to mainstream gender through the preparation of a National Gender Action Plan for the Energy Sector. This is expected to bring gender into the forefront of climate and green initiatives, and to enhance the collection of sex-disaggregated data.

The Alternative Energy Directorate is also contributing towards enhancing women's access to alternative sources of energy, such as improved cook stoves and biogas. Given the fact that women undertake almost 100 percent of cooking at the household level, activities that improve fuel consumption, like fuel saving cook stoves, primarily address the needs of women. In addition to provision of the stoves, the Ministry specifically encouraged the participation of women in the production of such technologies thereby contributing to their incomes. In 2012/13 alone, 2,004,751 improved cook stoves were distributed at the national level to 3,491 individuals, of which 74.96 percent were females who received training on production of these cook stoves. However, there is a need for comprehensive information on the total size of the population, which has access to such services as well as the proportion of women, and female headed households who will directly benefit from such initiatives.

¹⁶⁵ CSA (2012) Welfare Monitoring Survey of 2011

5.3. Portable Water

The Water and Sanitation Directorate at the Ministry of Water, Irrigation and Energy in cooperation with a range of development partners has been able to increase communities' access to water in line with the Growth and Transformation Plan, which sets to achieve national potable water access to 98.5 percent of the population by the end of 2015. Annual progress reports of the Directorate also initiatives such as water schemes construction as well as projects on expansion and rehabilitation works that promote access to water. In line with this, national water access in Ethiopia has reached 61.6 percent with 66.3 percent in rural and 82.4 percent in urban areas in 2012/13¹⁶⁶. This entails the provision of 15 liters of safe water per person within a 1.5 km radius in rural areas, and 20 liters per person in a radius of 500 meters in urban areas. Such developments are expected to benefit both women and men in the community but especially women and girls who usually have the main responsibility of fetching water for household consumption.

Even though there is increased access to water in rural households, more interventions are still required in order to address the rural community needs. In regards to this, Annual Reports of the Ministry show that water schemes construction and projects for the expansion and rehabilitation works have contributed to the provision of services to 10,028,081 more people in 2012/13, of which more than 50 percent were women¹⁶⁷. Such schemes are expected to address gaps in access to safe drinking water, which has an impact on the welfare of women, men and children. It also aims at reducing the distance to sources of drinking water, which affects women's welfare as it reduces women's exposure to physical hardship, sexual and physical violence associated with travelling long distances and fetching water. The sector outlines the importance of undertaking activities towards ensuring women's increased participation in water scheme management in their roles as community members and as board members and directors. The water and sanitation sector has also been able to create jobs for 26,810 people in 2012/13 of which 32.15 percent were women¹⁶⁸. The sector will also continue to create jobs in service delivery and maintenance work.

5.4. Urban Development and Construction

The Urban Development and Construction sector in Ethiopia operates under the auspices of the Ministry of Urban Development, Housing and Construction, which considers the development of Micro and Small Enterprises (MSEs) as

¹⁶⁶ FDRE MOFED (2014), Growth and Transformation Plan Annual Progress Report for F.Y. 2012/13

¹⁶⁷ Annual Progress Report of the Water and Sanitation Directorate at the Ministry of Water, Irrigation and Energy, 2012/13

¹⁶⁸ Annual Report of the Water and Sanitation Directorate at the Ministry of Water, Irrigation and Energy for 2012/13

a key strategy. Accordingly, the sector implemented actions towards increasing the quantity and improving the quality of micro and small enterprises in the construction sector. In doing so, the sector aims at reducing unemployment and poverty through enhancing the benefits for women and youth engaged in the sector¹⁶⁹. In this regard, the sector provided support to micro and small enterprises (MSEs) through creating employment opportunities to its members. In 2011/12 a total of 1,148,000 members benefitted from this scheme of which 40 percent were women. In addition to these, MSE members received training in entrepreneurship, business management and other technical skills¹⁷⁰.

Another aspect address through this sector is low cost housing development in order to address the needs of the low and middle-income families in Ethiopia, particularly in Addis Ababa. The sector also emphasizes the added value of creating MSEs employment opportunities among those engaged in the construction sector¹⁷¹. In the delivery of low cost condominiums, measures were taken to ensure the benefit of women through introduction of the quota system, where 30 percent of all the constructed houses were first allocated to women and the remaining 70 percent were given away through the lottery system for both women and men. Though this method could help to ensure women's improved access to urban houses and bridge past inequalities in access and ownership of property, further studies will be important to identify actual utilization of local housing by women following the allocation process.

According to the Housing Development Program (2006-2010) implementation report, the Ministry of Works and Urban Development signed a Memorandum of Understanding with the Commercial Bank of Ethiopia and the Regions in order to transfer houses, which were constructed in 2006/07 and 2007/08¹⁷². Pertaining to this, the size of bond disbursed from 2006/07 to 2007/08 and the number of housing units constructed and transferred in six regions showed that of the percentage of women beneficiaries from total number of housing units transferred consisted of only 37 percent of the housing stock. The same report also indicates that more women in Addis Ababa have benefitted from the housing development program in 2006/07 to 2007/08, receiving more than 50 percent of the housing units¹⁷³. Such practices will contribute towards improving women's ownership of productive resources as well as their economic empowerment and decision-making power.

169 Annual Progress Report of Urban Sector and Construction Industry, 2011/12

170 *ibid*

171 *ibid*

172 MWUD (2010), Housing Development Program 2006-2010 Plan Implementation Report

173 MWUD (2010), Housing Development Program 2006 – 2010 Plan Implementation Report

5.5. Telecommunication

The expansion of telecommunication services even in rural areas resulted in increased mobile telephone access and the reduction of costs for mobile phones. However, there is lack of sex-disaggregated data on service users, which presents a constraint in assessing women's access to different telecommunication services. In addition to this, further studies are needed in order to assess the extent to which access to such services has affected women's health, education, income, access to different information and services and their overall socio-economic development. To address this gap, Ethio Telecom is undertaking a project to set up an electronic data system that will present sex disaggregated data on access and use of telecommunication and IT in Ethiopia. However, it is likely that women's access to information, communication and technology in general will be lower than that of men due to gaps in women's education and awareness especially in information and technology fields, their financial capacity to cover the cost of mobile telephone apparatus, and their decision making power at the household level, among other issues.

The telecommunication sector engaged a total of 10,497 staff in 2014, out of which 26 percent were female. The majority of female representation is found at the administration level, constituting 31 percent of the administrative staff. The lowest level of women representation is to be found at the managerial level, with only 1/16 being female. At the manager level, women constitute 11 percent of the staff.

Table 6: Number of women and men employed in different positions in Ethio Telecom, (unpublished data from Ethio Telecom, 2014)

Job Level	Male	Female	Total	Percentage of female
A-(Support)	284	42	326	13%
B-(Support)	1619	396	2015	20%
C -(Administrators)	4412	2012	6424	31%
D- (Supervisor and/ or specialist)	1179	215	1394	15%
E- (Manager/ Section Head)	245	29	274	11%
F- (Officer)	43	5	48	10%
G-(Chief Officer)	15	1	16	6%
Total	7797	2700	10497	26%

In addition to this, in the Executive Management Body (EMB) of Ethio Telecom consist of three women (15 percent) among the 20 members. In general, women's representation in the sector and especially in middle and top management levels is limited. This could be attributed to society's perceptions about women's capacities and "role" in information and technology fields. This is identified as another of the areas where further comprehensive studies



Social Constraints to Women and Girls

6.1. Women and Migration

While it is difficult to obtain information on the total number of internal migrants within Ethiopia, and the numbers of migrants using irregular channels to other countries, a database on migrants using regular channels is available at the Ministry of Social and Labor Affairs. The number of migrants who used regular channels to migrate to other countries has grown almost nine times from 2008 to 2013, from 21,268 to 182,696. Overall, in the period from 2008 to 2013 the total number of legal migrants reached 459,810 of which 94.3 percent were females. During this period, the proportion of female migrants from the total legal migrant population has grown from 81.78 percent in 2008/09 to 96.02 percent in 2012/13¹⁷⁴. It has been suggested that gender based discrimination along with limited opportunities for employment is considered to be a main driver or “push” factor, which contributed towards the migration of more women to other countries¹⁷⁵. It is also likely that the number of male migrants may have been significantly underreported given that irregular means of migration are often presumed to be used by a larger number of males than females.

Females in the most productive age groups are more inclined to migrate in search of a better life and employment opportunities. According to information obtained from MOLSA, migrants are found in age groups ranging from 20-65 years and older. The majority of female migrants in 2012/13 were found aged 25 to 29 years (66.62 percent)

174 Unpublished data from MOLSA

175 ILO (2011), *Trafficking in persons overseas for labor purposes: The case of Ethiopian domestic workers*, ILO Country Office Addis Ababa in collaboration with the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, the Ethiopian Employers' Federation and the Confederation of Ethiopian Trade Unions.

while the smallest numbers were in the 60 to 64 years age range at 0.01 percent. Data from MOLSA also revealed that the majority of female legal migrants from 2008 to 2013 have elementary level education (61.9 percent), followed by 8.8 percent who had non-formal education, and 8.2 percent junior secondary level education¹⁷⁶. This suggests that women who have not attained higher levels of education and therefore do not have many options for employment are predisposed to opt for migration to other countries.

The destination of the largest number of migrants is Saudi Arabia, with 78.1 percent travelling there from 2008 to 2013, while the next most travelled destinations are Kuwait and Dubai. The majority of female migrants in the time-frame are from Oromia Region (34.2 percent), followed by Amhara Region (31.1 percent) and Addis Ababa (16.2 percent). The lowest number of female migrants for the same year is from Gambella Region (0.02 percent).

The type of employment most Ethiopian women and men migrants engage in does not require advanced education and is related to their traditional gender roles. While most male migrants engage in activities such as construction, waste disposal, and camel and goat herding or slaughtering, the majority of female migrants from Ethiopia engage in household related activities, such as cleaning, laundry, washing cars, cooking, waste disposal, babysitting, nursing, looking after the elderly, and occasionally waitressing (e.g., in Djibouti and Yemen) as well as commercial sex work (e.g., Djibouti, Yemen and Sudan among others)¹⁷⁷.

176 Unpublished data from MOLSA

177 ILO (2011), *Trafficking in persons overseas for labor purposes: The case of Ethiopian domestic workers*, ILO Country Office Addis Ababa in collaboration with the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, the Ethiopian Employers' Federation and the Confederation of Ethiopian Trade Unions.

Despite the fact that the situation of women migrants varies, cases of women who suffered from forms of physical and sexual violence as well as emotional abuse in the hands of their employers are known¹⁷⁸. According to the ILO, very poor families go to the extent of borrowing from credit facilities, drawing from their savings and selling their productive assets (milk cows, cart horses, and other farming requirements)¹⁷⁹ to afford migration.

6.2. Trafficking of Women

Women and men traveling to countries outside of the Ethiopia, through legal means, are protected by the laws of Ethiopia. Employment Exchange Services Proclamation No. 632/2009 is applicable for any Ethiopian going abroad for employment through a private employment agency or a public employment service, as well as for Ethiopians going abroad for employment to work for personal service of non-profit making purpose. According to Article 16 (2) of this proclamation, any private employment agency, which sends workers for employment abroad, shall not recruit a job seeker below the age of 18 years. Article 20(1) also has provisions about the right of workers abroad, and stresses that minimum working conditions according to the laws of Ethiopia should be applicable, or that it "shall in no circumstance be less favorable than the rights and benefits of those who work in similar type and level of work in the country of employment"¹⁸⁰. This proclamation is currently under revision by MOLSA, with the intention of identifying and addressing any gaps in the provisions.

There is a lack of data which provides information on the number of trafficked women from Ethiopia nationally as well as internationally. To address the concern of trafficking, migration to Middle Eastern Countries for domestic work is suspended until the government of Ethiopia secures and ensures better standards of work for female migrants. Despite the importance of such measures for the safety and wellbeing of female migrant workers, it may lead to women resorting to irregular means of migration in the absence of this regular means of migration increasing their risk of exploitation. Reports show that traffickers try to use legal/regular channels, falsifying the records of the migrants and charging them excess rates. For example, cases were found where girls younger than 18 were trafficked through legal channels after falsification of their records¹⁸¹.

Women who are trafficked are often exposed to sexual, physical, and psychological forms of gender based violence. In the absence of protection, they are exploited by

178 Ibid

179 Ibid.

180 Employment Exchange Services Proclamation No 632/ 2009

181 ILO (2011), Trafficking in persons overseas for labor purposes: The case of Ethiopian domestic workers, ILO Country Office Addis Ababa in collaboration with the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, the Ethiopian Employers' Federation and the Confederation of Ethiopian Trade Unions.

traffickers and exposed to unbearable working conditions, including long working hours, restricted movement and communication, excessive workload, denial of payment, isolation and sexual harassment and abuses.

The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women acknowledges that Ethiopia has taken strides towards combating trafficking in human beings by criminalizing it, raising awareness about the issue and signing agreements with neighboring countries. However, the need for more comprehensive data on internal trafficking of women and children has been emphasized¹⁸². The committee also recommends for to adopt a national plan of action to combat trafficking in human beings and in line with this to address root causes of trafficking by enhancing women's economic opportunities and access to land, amongst others. In addition it was recommended to as well as establish response mechanisms to trafficking, which include early identification, referral systems, assistance and support for victims of trafficking.¹⁸³

6.3. Gender Based Violence

6.3.1 Interpersonal Violence

The Beijing Platform for Action (1995) defines "violence against women" as any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering of women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life. Accordingly, violence against women encompasses but is not limited to the following:

- a. Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family, including battering, sexual abuse of female children in the household, dowry-related violence, marital rape, female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence and violence related to exploitation;
- b. Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring within the general community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women and forced prostitution;
- c. Physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the State, wherever it occurs."

As a global accountability framework, the Beijing Platform for Action also declares the need for action towards the prevention and elimination of all forms of violence against women and girls and urges for actions towards reviewing and amending of criminal laws and procedures if necessary, to eliminate any discrimination against women and

182 UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2011), Concluding observations of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women: Ethiopia, 49th session

183 Ibid

to guarantee women effective protection and services for survivors of violence.

International human rights instruments also outline the need for the protecting of women from gender based violence. According to CEDAW reports¹⁸⁴ the importance of development of national legislation on the prevention and combatting violence against women has been emphasized, along with the need for data collection on the number of victims of violence, convictions against perpetrators and what practical measures have been undertaken to prevent violence, to protect victims and work with perpetrators. Cognizant of these, the government of Ethiopia has ratified CEDAW on September 10, 1981, and affirms its commitment for the eradication of gender based violence through the revision of the Penal Code in 2005, the Family Law in 2000 and the integration of actions to end GBV in national packages. The Ethiopian Women's Development Package interprets this as a call to "Apply affirmative action in addressing gender related injustices such as abduction, rape, domestic violence, and refusal by spouses to share resources with their Wives upon divorce"¹⁸⁵. Another key priority in the Women's Development Package is the provision of legal support for survivors.

The revised penal code of Ethiopia also addresses issues related to rape, abduction, domestic violence, female genital mutilation and abortion and considers rape, physical assaults and damages which cause physical injuries as criminal offenses. Besides, causing physical harm acts of harmful traditional practices that harm pregnant women and children are punishable. Article 567 addresses domestic violence and states that one who commits violence against his/her spouse or sexual partner will be penalized as per Articles 558-563. However, the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women expressed concern that the penalties for FGM in Articles 561-563, 567 and 569-570 of the Criminal Code (2005) are light, in face of the high FGM prevalence especially in rural and pastoralist communities¹⁸⁶.

A range of different actors are involved in the treatment and handling of GBV cases and service provision to survivors. Hence, different partners came together and developed the Standard Operational Plan (SOP) in 2013, which is going to be a binding document for all parties, thereby defining rules, job descriptions and their respective operations. The Ministry of Health took the initiative of coordinating and leading the development of the SOP in collaboration with the Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs, the Federal Supreme Court, the Federal Police Commission, the Addis Ababa Police Commission, the

Ethiopian Society of Gynecologists (ESOG) and experts from service providing institutions. The SOP is expected to define the guiding principles for all stakeholders, along with mechanisms for reporting and referral of incidences of sexual violence, thereby improving overall responses and services for survivors.

Different stakeholders use a range of strategies in preventing and responding to GBV, among which are, awareness raising, legal literacy, research, media engagement, legal aid programs and the establishment of safe houses. The Ethiopian Human Rights Commission also provides free legal aid services to survivors of GBV in 111 centers across the country. With the purpose of providing coordinated services for survivors of violence, the Flagship Joint Program on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment enabled the establishment of the four safe houses in Addis Ababa, Oromia, and SNNPR as well as two One Stop Centers in Addis Ababa (Mahteme Gandhi Hospital) and Dire Dawa.

The availability of research on GBV is expected to improve with the presentation of research from different stakeholders. For example, UNFPA is in the process of finalizing a baseline study on the Management and Prevention of GBV in Ethiopia, which is expected to reveal information on gaps and opportunities to prevent and manage GBV by different stakeholders, including law enforcement bodies, national machineries, higher education and health facilities. An assessment of violence against women in Ethiopia was undertaken in 2013 by MOWCYA with the purpose of identifying the forms, prevalence, causes and consequences of violence against women, along with an analysis on the implementation of policies, legal instruments and programs formulated to address the problems related to VAW. The study highlights the lack of data on violence against women, especially in the workplace setting.

6.3.2 Domestic Violence

Domestic Violence is one of the most common, yet one of the most unreported forms of violence in Ethiopia that many women face in their everyday lives, aggravated by women's poverty and economic dependence. Domestic violence can take place in different forms of physical and psychological abuse and can erode women's self-confidence and development and has major economic impacts for societies. Children are also affected by domestic violence and are either physically or mentally affected since are usually witnesses to the violent acts.

In a study undertaken in 2010 on young adults aged 15 to 24 years it was found that 10 percent of married young women have experienced forms of physical domestic violence by their husbands¹⁸⁷. A National Gender Survey in

184 UN (2013), Report of the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Violence Against Women, General Assembly Official Records, Sixty Eighth Session, Supplement No. 38

185 Ethiopian Women's Development Package

186 Ibid

187 Population Council and UNFPA (2010), Ethiopia Young Adult Survey: A Study in Seven Regions

2010 shows that 10 percent of ever-married women had experienced physical violence from their husbands in the three months before the survey. The most common types of violence were slapping (7 percent), being pushed (5 percent), and being beaten (3 percent). This study also showed that the 7 percent of the ever-married women reported experiencing psychological abuse and insults. High level of acceptance of domestic violence was also shown in the report among 10 percent of the female victims who said they deserved the beating. 35 percent said that domestic violence is justified if the woman argues with her husband and 32 percent think violence is acceptable if the woman refuses sex. Another 31 percent accepted that neglecting of children could be a reasonable cause for domestic violence and 69 percent of respondents the national survey in general think that one of the above mentioned circumstances could be enough reasons to justify a acts of violence ¹⁸⁸. These findings are equivalent to the result of the 2011 EDHS where 68 percent of women agreed that wife beating is justified in at least one specified situation¹⁸⁹. These statistics indicate the extent to which women lack self-esteem and have awareness about their rights while feeling that men are superior. Though acceptance of domestic violence is still high, it has gone down from 81 percent in 2005 ¹⁹⁰ as a study indicates. Studies indicate that women with no education are more likely to accept violence than women with more than secondary education.

A high incidence of domestic violence was also reported among young adults in Ethiopia where 17 percent of urban and 11 percent of the rural females reported experiencing some form of violence from their husbands. 7 percent of young women experienced slapping, 6 percent insults, 5 percent humiliation and 5 percent were pushed or had something thrown at them. While 13 percent of the urban and 9 percent of the rural females specifically experienced physical violence at the hands of their husbands, 6 percent of men also reported experiencing physical violence from their wives¹⁹¹.

With regards to men's attitudes about wife beating, it was noted that there is higher acceptance of wife beating for one specified reason among the divorced, separated, and widowed and men with no education and men living in rural areas. Regional differences were also observed with highest acceptance rates among men in Somali (58 percent) and SNNP (56 percent)¹⁹².

6.3.3 Rape

Review of data on the prevalence of rape shows variations

in different national level studies. According to a study in 2010 on seven regions of Ethiopia, it was shown that around 25 percent of sexually experienced women in Ethiopia (19 percent in urban and 29 percent in rural areas) experienced forced first sexual initiation/ rape. 17 percent of these women reported insistence, while 11 percent reported partner threats, and 6 percent said they were beaten. While 92 percent of the perpetrators were husbands, 6 percent were boyfriends or fiancés, and 2 percent were acquaintances or classmates¹⁹³. In the case of young adults (those aged 15 to 24) another survey in 2010 indicates that 15 percent of young adults experiencing forced sexual contact/rape¹⁹⁴.

Socio-cultural factors coupled with limited awareness of their rights make many of the victims accept the blame for rape leading to stigmatization. Hence, this results in an overall limited reporting and numbers of women seeking legal assistance. In 2010, a study showed that 15 percent of women believed that they are to blame for the rape, while only 9 percent told anyone about the experience¹⁹⁵. The study further shows that only 3 percent sought medical assistance and 2 percent legal assistance.

A study reveals that 16 percent of the rural and 12 percent of urban girls have been forced into having sex, as well as 2 percent of boys at the national level. It was also noted that 38 percent of the young adult survivors in the urban areas blame themselves for the act and 14 percent of rural survivors¹⁹⁶. The study also indicated that the urban youth were more likely than the rural to seek assistance. Hence 6 percent of the rural and 25 percent of the urban young women told someone about the experience, and 15 percent of the urban and 7 percent of the rural young women received medical care. The proportion of those who received legal assistance was 22 percent for the urban and less than 1 percent for the rural young women. These findings indicate some of the reasons behind the low number of cases reported to the police and handled by the courts.

6.4. Harmful Traditional Practices

Given the low status of women in society and unequal power relationships between men and women in the country, there are various forms of GBV and Harmful Traditional Practices (HTPs) inflicted on women and girls. The HTPs listed in Ethiopia in 1988 are about 88 practices that are harmful some to both gender and some to women only. Among the HTPs that are inflicted on women, Female Genital Mutilation or cutting (FGM/C), early marriage and marriage by abduction are the most common ones.

188 UNFPA and Population Council (2010), Ethiopia Gender Survey: A Study in Seven Regions, Population Council Inc.

189 EDHS (2011)

190 EDHS (2005)

191 Population Council and UNFPA (2010), Ethiopia Young Adult Survey: A Study in Seven Regions

192 EDHS (2011)

193 UNFPA and Population Council (2010), Ethiopia Gender Survey: A Study in Seven Regions, Population Council Inc.

194 Population Council and UNFPA (2010), Ethiopia Young Adult Survey: A Study in Seven Regions

195 UNFPA and Population Council (2010), Ethiopia Gender Survey: A Study in Seven Regions, Population Council Inc.

196 Population Council and UNFPA (2010), Ethiopia Young Adult Survey: A Study in Seven Regions

Millions of women and children are victims of harmful traditional practices in Ethiopia and the practices are still present in the country in varying degrees¹⁹⁷. It is worth noting, however, that the practice of most HTPs has declined between 1997 and 2008¹⁹⁸. The 2008 Survey on the HTPs also highlights a remarkable increase in the knowledge about the harmful effects of HTPs¹⁹⁹. Multiple factors have contributed to increased awareness on HTPs, among which the legislative measure against violation of women's rights was pivotal. Regardless of this, the prevalence of HTPs is still high, requiring concerted effort by all actors involved.

6.4.1 Female Genital Mutilation or Cutting (FGM/C)

FGM/C is a traditional practice and a result of gender inequality that is "deeply entrenched in the social and economic structures of the countries and communities where it is practiced"²⁰⁰.

FGM/C data is rarely available and the EDHS 2011 omitted FGM. As a result, many number on FGM/C are estimates that draw upon various sources. Nevertheless, research indicates the proportion of women in Ethiopia that have undergone FGM/C is very high, with varying degrees of prevalence by regions²⁰¹. In 1997, the prevalence of all forms of FGM according to Government statistics was reported to be 73 percent with much lower numbers in 2007 where the prevalence of FGM/C was stated to be 57 percent,²⁰² a significant decrease compared to 74 percent in 2005 and 80 percent in 2000²⁰³. The prevalence appears to have decreased by 24 percent nationally since 1997. In regions that were considered "strongholds" of the practice – Tigray, Amhara, and Oromia – the 2007 rates were down to 53.4 percent, 22.4 percent, and 26.7 percent, respectively²⁰⁴.

A comparison of prevalence across ethnic lines and age groups indicates great variations on FGM/C prevalence amongst these groups. The prevalence is as high as 87.5 percent in Afar and 'as low' as 10.4 percent in Gambella. Other FGM/C high prevalent regions include Dire Dawa, Somali, and Harari, which is 82.1 percent, 71.9 percent and 69.4 percent respectively²⁰⁵. Tigray has registered the greatest decline in the last decade and currently has a relatively low incidence, at 23.2 percent.²⁰⁶

Table 7: Prevalence rate and Percent decrease in prevalence of Early Marriage by region

Regions	Baseline	Current	Difference	% Decrease
Tigray	53.0	34.1	18.9	35.6
Afar	36.6	26.9	9.7	26.5
Amhara	61.8	44.9	17.0	27.5
Oromia	31.6	23.1	8.5	26.9
Somali	4.1	4.0	0.1	2.4
Benishangul/G	50.1	31.1	18.2	36.1
SNNPR	18.7	9.9	8.8	47.1
Gambella	20.5	17.3	3.2	15.6
Harari	25.4	20.1	5.3	20.9
Addis Ababa	50.9	32.3	18.6	36.5
Dire Dawa	-	16.7	-	-
All	33.1	21.4	11.7	33.2

About 23 percent of girls aged 0-14 years²⁰⁷ and 32 percent of women aged 15 to 19 years have undergone FGM/C, compared to 78 per cent of women aged 45 to 49²⁰⁸. In 2005, the percentage of same aged group that underwent FGM/C was 62 and 81 percent respectively, indicating a decline of the practice among the younger generation²⁰⁹.

The type of FGM/C practiced also varies across regions and ethnic lines and ranges from excision to infibulation. According to UNFPA and Population Council Gender survey, carried out in 2010, the highest performed FGM type at 65 percent is clitoridectomy. 29 percent of women do not know the type of FGM/C they have undergone²¹⁰. The young adult survey carried out by UNFPA and Population Council, in 2010, also indicates that 33 percent of girls in Afar are infibulated²¹¹. FGM/C is more commonly practiced in rural areas (24 percent) than urban areas, 15 percent²¹². Age of circumcision varies across regions and ranges from in the first ten days to six and nine years. In some places it is performed right before marriage at the age of 15 between 17 years²¹³.

Though FGM/C is criminalized in the new Family Code, under regional autonomy, the adoption of this has not been replicated in all the regions. There are numerous reasons attached to performing the practice, notably associated with cultural norms, which include for instance to regulate women's sexual drive and preserve her chastity before marriage

197 UNICEF (2010). The Dynamics of social Change: Towards the Abandonment of female Genital Mutilation/Cutting in Five African Countries.

198 The National Base Line Survey carried out by EGLDAM was in 1997 and the follow up in 2008.

199 ODWaCE, (2013). Compendium of EGLDAM/Partners Publications.

200 UNICEF (2010) The Dynamics of Social Change: Towards the Abandonment of Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting in Five African Countries.

201 Owing to lack of data this report does not address FGM rates in the Somali region, where the most severe form of FGM remains the common practice.

202 As per the aligned data of 2005 EDHS and 2007 EGLDAM National Follow Up survey on HTPS.

203 EDHS, 2005 and 2000.

204 CSA and EGLDAM (2013). Prevalence of FGM in Ethiopia: Based on the Aligned Data of 2005 EDHS and 2007 EGLDAM National Follow up Survey on HTPS- citing Follow Up Survey on HTPs at National Level.

205 Ibid.

206 According to EGLDAM survey

207 Welfare and Monitoring Survey, 2011.

208 Ibid.

209 UNICEF (2010). The Dynamics of social Change: Towards the Abandonment of female Genital Mutilation/Cutting in Five African Countries.

210 UNFPA and Population Council (2010). Ethiopian Gender Survey: A study of Seven Regions

211 UNFPA and Population Council (2010). A Study of Young Adult Survey in Seven Regions.

212 Welfare and Monitoring Survey. 2011

213 MoFED and UNICEF (2012). Investing in Boy and Girls in Ethiopia: past, present and future

and which subsequently broadens her marriage prospect. Circumcised women are also viewed as 'clumsy' and tend to break household goods and are therefore prevented from serving food and drinks for guests as well as respected persons²¹⁴. Religion is another reason given.

Apart from being an infringement of the human right of women and girls, there are various negative implications and risks associated with FGM/C. FGM/C can lead to physical and psychological harm, such as fistulas of the bladder or colon, which can lead to death as well as severe disability. The fact that FGM/C is usually performed with un-sterile equipment also leads to infection and hemorrhage. Citing the UN, the 2011 Welfare and Monitoring Survey noted the high vulnerability of circumcised women with up to 70 per cent suffering from potential fatal bleeding after delivery²¹⁵.

6.4.2 Early Marriage

The revised Family Law raised girls' minimum age of marriage from 15 to 18 years, making any marriage before the age of 18 defined as child marriage. Nevertheless, the practice of child marriage is widespread in Ethiopia and reasons range from economic pressures, strengthening ties between the marrying families, and loss of virginity, prior to marriage, amongst others²¹⁶. The UNFPA Gender Survey found that the majority of marriages, about 70 per cent, were arranged and in majority of the cases (82 per cent) by families²¹⁷.

Early marriage usually takes place during girls' early adolescence of about 15 years²¹⁸. According to EDHS 2011, the median age for marriage is 16.5 years while it is 23.2 years for men²¹⁹. The same survey and a UNFPA survey of 2010 stressed the decrease in the proportion of women married by the age of 15, from 59 percent amongst women aged 45 to 49, to 8 percent amongst women aged 15 to 19, which suggests a decline of the practice amongst the younger population²²⁰. Studies also outlined the highest rates of very early marriage, by age 15, occurring in Amhara, Benishangul and Tigray regions, at 52, 31 and 22 percent, respectively²²¹. The 2008 survey of HTPs in Ethiopia (EGLDAM), indicates an overall decline of early marriage of 32 percent between 1997 and 2007²²².

Women aged 25 to 49 in urban areas marry two years later than women in rural areas (18.1 years and 16.3 years respectively)²²³. Whereas the median age for marriage is highest in Addis Ababa at 21.4 years and the lowest in Amhara at 14.7 years²²⁴. According to the 2008 follow up survey, the highest prevalence rate of early marriage is recorded in Amhara (44.8 percent) followed by Tigray (34.1 percent) and Benishangul-Gumuz (31 percent)²²⁵. The lowest prevalence is in Somali, at 4 percent, which is followed by SNNPR and Dire Dawa (9.9 and 16.7 percent respectively). SNNPR and Addis Ababa have registered the highest decline in early marriages, at 47.1 percent and 36.5 percent respectively. Prevalence rates also indicate a significant decrease of 64.7 percent for respondents aged 15 to 19 years, and 63.9 percent, for respondents aged 20 to 24 years, indicating the decline amongst the younger generation²²⁶.

Early marriage often results in earlier first sexual intercourse and it is more often than not co-related with early childbearing resulting in higher fertility. The median age at first intercourse among urban women aged 25-49 is 17.8 years and among rural women in that age group at 16.4 years.²²⁷ According to the EDHS 2011, 38 percent of women had given birth by age 18 while 9 percent of women aged 25 to 49 had given birth by age 15. The median age at first birth ranges from 18.1 years in Amhara to 23.0 years in Addis Ababa, suggesting higher birth rates in rural areas.

The negative implications of child marriage, early sexual intercourse and early childbearing are several, including high risks of complications during child birth and fistula²²⁸. Due to awareness raising the negative impact of early marriage is known increasingly and the 2008 survey indicates awareness of about 89 percent of the population.

6.4.3 Marriage by Abduction

Marriage by abduction or kidnapping is another harmful traditional practice that takes place in many parts of the country, affecting women and girls. About 8 percent of women have been married through abduction, nationally²²⁹.

Despite the fact that the prevalence of marriage by abduction has decreased, the 2008 survey indicates that about 17.5 percent, 13.2 percent and 11.5 percent of women in SNNPR, Oromia and Gambella have been married by abduction. Afar has the lowest registered rate (4.6 percent),

214 Ibid.

215 Welfare and Monitoring Survey. 2011

216 Ibid.

217 UNFPA and Population Council (2010), Ethiopian Gender Survey: A Study of Seven Regions.

218 UNFPA and Population Council (2010), Ethiopian Gender Survey: A study of Seven Regions

219 EDHS 2011

220 Ibid.

221 UNFPA and Population Council, 2010. Ethiopian Gender Survey: A study of Seven Regions. Addis Ababa

222 EGLDAM (2008). Follow up National Survey on the Harmful Traditional Practices in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa.

223 EDHS 2011.

224 Ibid.

225 EGLDAM (2008). Follow up National Survey on the Harmful Traditional Practices in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa.

226 Ibid.

227 EDHS (2011)

228 EGLDAM (2008), Follow up National Survey on the Harmful Traditional Practices in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa.

229 Ethiopia Federal Ministry of Women's Affairs: To be counted is to be included: Women and men in Ethiopia in National Statistics.

followed by Amhara (5.5 percent) and Tigray (5.9 percent)²³⁰. Regions that have registered substantial decrease, above 50 percent, include Benishangul-Gumuz (58 percent), Tigray (58 percent) and Somali (53 percent).

In general, abduction is usually immediately followed by rape, with potential exposure to HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases²³¹. It furthermore contributes to dropout rates for girls, unwanted pregnancies, and domestic violence. The negative consequences of abduction vary but often abduction results in rape which may lead to marriage due to stigmatization of the survivor, although some families will reclaim their daughters by any means necessary, no matter what may have happened.

Justification given for the practice often include anticipated refusal of marriage proposal either by the girl or by parents as well as economic reasons, such as an inability to pay excessive dowry and wedding expenses. The 2008 survey suggested a significant level of relationship between high level of abduction to low level of education attainment in boys and girls, as well as low levels of knowledge on the harmful effects of the practice. Most of the data on abduction and early marriage dates back to the 2011 and new data on HTPs must be collected in a sensitive way.

230 EGLADAM follow up survey.

231 Ibid.



Way Forward

One of the objectives of this Preliminary Gender Profile is to provide key gender equality challenges identified and to outline areas for further research in order to develop a comprehensive study and Gender Profile of Ethiopia. In light of this, the following key findings on the gaps are presented along with the recommended action points as a way forward.

Institutional Mechanisms: The capacity of Women's Directorates and the civil service in general to act as a catalyst for the advancement of women's rights and the promotion of gender awareness has improved in the course of the last decade. Sector-specific gender mainstreaming guidelines, gender budgeting and gender audits have been developed and implemented which has significant potential for holding each sector accountable in regards to the implementation and development of gender sensitive policies and mechanisms.

All the above initiatives indicate progress made mainstreaming gender in the policies, plans and programs of their respective ministries, but also within the structures of the institutions itself. This includes the move from a Women in Development (WID) to the Gender and Development (GAD) approach, challenging gender relations and power imbalances. Overall, implementation of policies and decisions that promote gender equality is key, through, for instance the development of implementation plans along with the appropriate budget.

In efforts to strengthen institutional mechanisms of gender mainstreaming, MOWCYA should encourage and

technically support the remaining ministries to create their sector specific gender mainstreaming guidelines, including implementation plans. To support inter-ministerial gender mainstreaming the establishment of departmental gender focal points within the Ministry of Agriculture to ensuring gender mainstreaming is a development that should be replicated in the other ministries. A comprehensive study should therefore assess the capacity of women's departments in the regions as well as the implementations of Gender Mainstreaming manuals and Gender Audits, among others. Other issues to be reviewed include the understanding of mandates, uniformity of structures and mandates, accountability functions within government agencies, and capacities of staff members at all levels on the understanding of gender inequalities in their own local conditions. Duty-bearers and civil servants need the right personal skills, tools, and support to respond to the challenges from a policy and programmatic point of view.

Coordination Mechanisms: Coordinating the work of the women's civil service horizontally and vertically, is a promising start in terms of joint planning, progress monitoring, identifying challenges, and learning lessons from each other's challenges and best practices. The coordination mechanism could be further strengthened through joint strategic planning and joint development of indicators for monitoring, to enhance its efficiency and effectiveness. The Donor's Group for Gender Equality (DGGE) is playing a key role in supporting MOWCYA in this regards, for example in the development of gender indicators in the preparation of the GTP. The coordination mechanism

also assisted in harmonizing donors' work and in order to avoid the duplication of efforts. While there is a forum that brings government and NGOs together, it was found that there is no coordination mechanism that brings together donor groups and NGOs, or donor groups and government agencies working on gender issues.

Legal and Policy Frameworks: Harmonization of the family law at the regional level is among the challenges identified. Regions that have yet to adopt and develop their region-specific family laws should be encouraged to do so which would require certain technical assistance in order to ensure that legal frameworks are harmonized. A comprehensive study could furthermore look at the implementation capacity of legal bodies at the regional and sub-regional level to ensure the various gender sensitive laws are being implemented and gaps are identified. Awareness creation on human right instruments like CE-DAW should also be intensified for the public in general, and civil servants and women in particular this would include mechanisms to ensure implementation of such frameworks and the recommendations received (i.e. CE-DAW Committee) through periodic reports.

Women in Leadership and Decision-Making: The participation of women in decision making bodies and branches of government has significantly increased over the course of the last decade and a half. However, women's representation in the legislative assembly has not yet reached either the level of parity or a critical mass of 30 percent with even lower levels of representation at the regional level. It is therefore worth reiterating that most countries in Africa that have achieved gender parity in legislative assemblies and other decision-making bodies had adopted some sort of affirmative action i.e. women quota to ensure enhanced representation of women. Hence, it is recommended to learn from those countries and establish affirmative action as well as to strengthen the women's standing committee as well as the women's caucus.

Education: Though there have been achievements in girls access to education, some challenges remain, especially in secondary and tertiary levels and girls and young women's lower performances which limits their ability to gain further education. . With regards to TVET and higher-level education, females are underrepresented and in particular in certain fields, most specifically technology and science. The findings indicate that the low number of female teachers compounded with socio-cultural factors contributes to the existing gender disparity. A higher dropout rate among males than females, especially where both parents were dead, was noted as an emerging trend. This might be attributed to the social and economic pressure on males to provide for their family.

In addition to challenges in formal education channels that need to be addressed, special attention should also be given to literacy programmes for women, especially

in rural communities. Furthermore, root causes of gender disparities in education have to be addressed. Other issues that hinder progress are the financial capacity of parents, distances to schools, societal values about girls' and boys' education, early marriage, and the prevalence of gender-based violence in the communities. Ongoing national efforts to increase girls' enrollment, to implement affirmative action and prepare tutorial classes should be intensified. This should include efforts to improve female completion rates in different levels of education, and strengthen initiatives to improve the performance of girls in secondary level education, focusing on grade 10 national examinations. This scheme must be an integral part of the Educational Sector Development Policy, not an initiative based on a few one-off support projects of limited scope and application.

Additionally, actions should be taken to reduce the high repetition rates among students at different levels, especially among male students; to identify and execute strategies to improve female representation in science and technology; to promote strategies for addressing the high dropout of students, especially that of male children who are most affected by the incidence of the death of parents; and use scholarship programs among others to strengthen female participation in long term TVET programs including science and technology fields. Efforts should also include services to connect women with the job market. It is also imperative to increase female teachers' representation in primary, secondary and in TVET level education and especially in higher-level institutions where the number of female teachers has declined in recent years. Efforts should focus on encouraging women to pursue their education and to become teachers, especially in the fields of science, math and technology.

Women and Health: Overall, recommended actions to improve women's health should focus on strengthening national efforts towards reducing maternal mortality rates, improving access to contraception, along with measures to enhance women's decision making power on method of contraceptive use. It is also important to strengthen ongoing efforts on reducing the prevalence of HIV in Ethiopia, with a focus on the group with the highest prevalence of HIV/AIDS, i.e. women aged 30-34. This should include efforts for enhanced knowledge about prevention of mother to child transmission for the whole community with particular emphasis on women.

National efforts should seek to improve the nutritional status of children and women, which would include initiatives to change women's health seeking behavior. It is recommended that a new national health survey is undertaken to gather up to date and regional information on maternal mortality, morbidity, as well as the prevalence of HIV/ AIDS, TB and malaria and information on health care facilities, amongst other things. As part of this process it

is recommended to integrate information on women's access to contraceptives their overall decision-making power related to their health and health seeking behavior.

Agriculture: A lack of sex and gender disaggregated data in general, and specifically in the agricultural sector persists. This includes sex-disaggregated data on women and livestock production, women and extension services (both for livestock and crop production), women's access to credit and other financial resources; women's access to fertilizers, pesticides, and improved farm implements. Furthermore, there is a need for information on women in managerial occupation in the agriculture sector, which results in inadequate recognition of women's work and central roles in agriculture and food production. In order to address these constraints, ongoing efforts to assign inter-departmental gender focal points within MoA and to integrate gender within various departments, should be encouraged and supported. The knowledge and capacities of the focal persons on gender must be improved, and taken to the regional level. This would include training on the collection of sex-disaggregated data to field practitioners/development assistants (DAs) who are engaged in collection of data. It is essential that indicators/checklists for data collection and gender sensitive reporting are developed in a participatory manner in order to ensure ownership and take advantage of local expertise. Agriculture is a knowledge-intensive activity with high local variations and disaggregated data will need to be interpreted in the light of local conditions.

Women in Industry and Trade: The information gaps on gender and women's roles in particular indicate the need for more comprehensive assessment of women's different roles, activities, and decision making powers in administrative, technical, clerical and office work in the public or private sectors. However, the data we have, suggests that enhancing women's participation in industry and trade can only benefit the country. Emphasis could be placed on sales and services, and on professional, technical, and managerial occupations where they are least represented. Studies we cite call for improvements to opportunities for education, acquiring and improving skills, and employment for women throughout the industry, agriculture and trade sectors. Special emphasis should be placed on creating better market linkages between women producers and national and foreign markets. Overall, strengthening women's employment opportunities through improving their negotiating and decision-making skills alongside their technical capacities should be a priority at the national level.

In addition, further studies are required on current levels of women's participation in various industries, for example, the textile industry.

Mining: Given that the mining sector is male dominated, the likelihood of overlooking women's role and contribu-

tion in the sector is high. There are considerable numbers of women engaged in the mining sector and in particular in Artisanal and Small Scale Mining (ASM) but they often remain invisible to the providers of capacity and skill-development programs organized within the sector. Women must be included in capacity development, and in programs to support marketing of the product and should be supported in the organization of women's cooperatives to facilitate financial support, education, and access to materials and equipment. This could raise women's bargaining power to negotiate for further benefits, credit services, among others. There should also be special measures to ensure the protection of women from sexual exploitation and abuse.

The gender department in the Ministry of Mines has established mechanisms towards sensitizing the sector on gender issues, this includes the development of a gender audit and a gender-mainstreaming manual. However, effort should be made to popularize and implement these instruments in the regions and to address the identified in the gender gaps. Further studies should also be carried out on the environmental impact of mining and exploration of minerals on women's health in general and their reproductive health in particular in order to tailor interventions accordingly.

Infrastructure Development: While gender disaggregated information is available on micro and small enterprises engaged in the infrastructure sector sex-disaggregated data on access and use of different services by various segments of the population is needed. For example, the consulted reports indicate that using a quota system in low-cost urban housing projects improves the benefit to women of infrastructure expenditure, which should be further investigated and used as a good practice shown can be scaled up throughout the infrastructure development project portfolio: roads, establishment of new factories, water projects, and provision of electricity. In the housing sector, next steps should be to identify the extent of women's use of and benefit from local housing.

In general, national infrastructure development initiatives should be strengthened with due attention to women's needs and constraints on accessing food markets, schools, health services, and trade routes. Government plans for improving women's access to roads require geographical analysis of current levels of access, and how to target infrastructure projects to improve the mobility and the safety of women. Efforts being made by the Ministry of Water, Irrigation and Energy in addressing constraints to women's access to sources of energy and lighting, (especially electricity and firewood) are very encouraging and should be strengthened. In the water sector, more women need to also be trained as artisans in the service delivery and maintenance of water related handy work.

Ongoing efforts on creating employment opportunities

for women in the infrastructure sector through their engagement in Micro and Small Enterprises (MSEs) should be strengthened along with provision of training on entrepreneurship, business management and other technical issues.

ICT is a growth area throughout Africa. Ethio Telecom, academic partners, and civil society organizations may wish to consider collaborating to investigate the opportunities and constraints on women's access to and use of ICT, and to analyze women's participation and professional development in the field.

Women and Migration: General assessments of the state of women's migration are reported, however, national studies are lacking information on the impact of migration on the lives of migrant women as well as their families. In order to address the drivers, or "push factors" that cause women to seek work abroad, actions should be geared towards strengthening initiatives for economic empowerment of women in Ethiopia. Further studies are required on the situation of women migrants and reasons behind the high rates of migration as well as causes for choosing irregular channels. In addition to this, national surveys should reflect internal migration trends.

Gender Based Violence: This sensitive, "Hard to Touch" part of Ethiopian life needs to be addressed in ways that are both educational and investigative. Collecting comprehensive, accurate information at the national level is challenging but without some instruments such as a national level household survey, it will be difficult to develop a national strategy to comprehensively address and end GBV.

Another important aspect will be awareness raising using different strategies. Mass media (television, radio, billboards, mobile phone texts, and awareness and reporting applications) and a more consistent integration of women's human rights education in school curricula are intended to soften and eventually eliminate the widespread social acceptance of violence against women. Further actions are needed in the development of strategies for the prevention of sexual violence especially amongst young adults. Other recommendations include strengthening of on-going initiatives to improve access and utilization of services for survivors, including legal and medical assistance and by setting up one-stop centers and the establishment of safe houses in different regions., provision of gender sensitive trainings to judiciary, police, health care providers, and replicating good practices. Strategies that worked well in prevention should also be explored and replicated in regions that are strongholds in the various types of HTPs. In line with this, best practices on HTPs should be well documented and distributed. Government must encourage the harmonization of family laws across the country.

Annex

Table 1a: List of organizations and Individuals contacted for the preliminary gender profile

	Name	Organization	Date contacted
1	Berhanu Legesse	UNFPA, Assistant Representative	April 28, 2014
2	Ellen Alem	UNICEF, Gender and Development Specialist	May 1, 2014
3	Ali Hassan	EGLDAM	April 30, 2014
4	Zenaye Tadesse	Ethiopian Women Lawyers Association (Director)	April 30, 2014
5	Tesfaynesh Lemma	MOWCYA, Gender Mainstreaming Directorate Director	May 13, 2014
6	Meselu Fikre	Ministry of Civil Service (Women's Affairs Directorate gender expert)	May 14, 2014
7	Biratu Yigezu	Central Statistics Agency	May 14, 2014
8	Ehete Bekele	Central Statistics Agency	
9	Surafel Mekonnen	MOFED, Gender Expert	May 15, 2014
10	Caroline Ngonze	UNECA	May 16, 2014
11	Dassa Bulcha	UNDP, Programme Analyst - Governance	May 16, 2014
11	Temesgen Kebebew	Ministry of Education, Gender Directorate, Senior Gender Expert	May 16, 2014
12	Almaz W/Medhin	Ministry of Urban Development, Housing and Construction, Gender Mainstreaming Department, Senior Gender Expert	May 18, 2014
13	Meaza Teferra	MOLSA, Gender Directorate Head	May 21, 2014
14	Stéphanie Carette	EU, Governance and Civil Society Section, Program Manger	May 21, 2014
15	Wesenyesh Admassu	Ministry of Justice, Women Children and Youth Coordination Office, Head	May 22, 2014
16	Yehualawork Eshete	Ministry of Industry, Women's Affairs Directorate Head	May 22, 2014
17	Aida Awel	ILO, CTA Labour Migration	May 23, 2014
18	Haileleul Siyoum	MOWCYA, Women, Youth and Children Mobilization and Participation Secretariat Director	May 23, 2014
19	Tenagne Kidane	Ministry of Agriculture, Senior gender Expert	May 27, 2014
20	Alemayehu Bogale	Ministry of Health, Gender Directorate, Assistant Director	May 30, 2014
21	Seblewongel Deneke	ATA, Gender Program, Director	May 30, 2014
22	Sofia Mohammed	Ministry of Mines, Gender Directorate, Director	June 2, 2014
23	Messelech Assefa	MOLSA, Employment Services, Director	June 3, 2014
24	HE Aster Amare	House of People's Representatives, Deputy Director, Women, Children and Youth Affairs Standing Committee	June 9, 2014

Table 1b. List of organizations that participated in the inception meeting

Name	Organization
Asmaro Berihun	Ethiopian MR, Communication
Berhanu Tesfaye	UNECA, Research Ass.
Caroline Hgonze	UNECA-ACG , SAO
Ellen Alem	UNICEF, Gender and Development Specialist
Ehete Bekele	CSA, Gender mainstreaming Directorate
Etagegnehu Getachew	UEWCA, Project Officer
Getenesh Tefera	MOJ, Public Prosecutor
Maria Munir	AWSAD, directress
Mulumebet Merhatsidik	AFOB, Sr. Socio Economist
Surafel Mekonnen	MoFED, Gender Expert
Tenagne Kidane	MOA, R/C/Case team coordinator
Tesfaynesh Lema	MoWCYA, Mainstreaming Directorate Director
Tsehay Gette	UNFPA, Programme Officer
Yehualawork Eshete	MOI, Women's Affairs Directorate Head
Funmi Balogun	UN Women, Deputy Representative
Yelfigne Abegaz	UN Women, National Programme Coordinator
Misrak Tamiru	UN Women, Program Specialist
Desset Abebe	UN Women, Programme Officer
Yollanda Iriarte	Consultant, UN Women

Table 1c. List of Organizations that participated in the Consultation workshop

Name	Organization
Abebu Dessalegn	MoCSC
Aberash G/egziabher	MUDHCo
Addisalem Abebe	MoFA
Aster Tefera	WISE
Asteway Samuel	MOND
Azeb Kelemework	UEWCA
Belaynesh G/Silasie	FCA
Dagne Assefa	MCIT
Demeke Asfaw	Doba Int. Development organization
Girma Tadesse	Ministry of federal Affairs
Ehete Bekele	CSA
Ellen Alem	UNICEF
Elisabeth Beyene	MOT
Enanu Hussein	DANFE
Endale Assefa	GCAO
Etshehiwot Sereke	Human rights commission
Fitsum Yehualashet	WSA
Gula Gaconua	Italian Develp. Corp.
Glory Blasio	AfDB
Haile Girma	Irish Aid

Hailu Moges	CEP
Helen Legesse	Ministry of Mines
Hirut Delebo	Ministry of Federal Affairs
Jordan Rief	Pathfinder International
Julie Lillejord	RCO
Lakech Haile	Ministry of Water, irrigation and energy
Lelisa Amente	MoST
Letebirihan Kahsay	MOND
Meaza Tefera	MOLSA
Mekdes Haile Mekuria	World Women Trade fair Africa
Meseret Yeshanew	MUDHCo
Misrak Sinishaw	GCAO
Mulugeta Tamene	FeMSEDA
Mulumebet Merhatsidk	AfDB
Neteru Wondwossen	MoFED
Roman Hamid	MOT
Sara Demsis	AfDB
Selam Alemu	MoST
Shewaye Wondi	MoTAC
Sofia Mohammed	MOM
Surafel Mekonen	MOFED
Taye Estifanos	MoICT
Tenagne Kindane	MOA
Teal Griffey	Techno-serve
Teshome Zeleke	Ethiopian T.I.D.I
Tesfaye Kumsa	MoCS
Yehualawork Eshete	MOI
Yemisirach Seifu	Taya
Yitaktu Tibebe	CCRDA
Yohannes Sisay	TCECA
Yordanos Abraham	MoT
Yosef Akalu	COSAP
Letty Chiwara	Country Rep. to Ethiopia, AU and ECA, UN Women
Funmi Balogun	Deputy Representative , UN Women
Yelfigne Abegaz	National Programme Coordinator, UN Women
Misrak Tamiru	Programme Specialist – WEE, UN Women
Simegn Kuma	Programme Officer – WEE, UN Women
Desset Abebe	Programme Officer, GEWE JP and Governance, UN Women
Heran Ayele	Programme Specialist – HR and EAWG, UN Women

Table 2: Gross Enrollment rate at Primary level, by sex

Year	Primary 1st cycle (1-4) (%)			Primary 2nd cycle (5-8) (%)			Primary (1-8) (%)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
2001 EC (2008/09)	126.7	118.4	122.6	65.6	60.5	63.1	97.6	90.7	94.4
2002 EC (2009/10)	123.2	114.3	118.8	67.4	63.5	65.5	96.6	90.1	93.4
2003 EC (2010/11)	128.8	119.1	124.0	67.4	64.8	66.1	99.5	93.2	96.4
2004 EC (2011/12)	127.0	118.1	122.6	65.9	65.3	65.6	97.9	92.9	95.4
2005 EC (2012/13)	129.7	119.8	124.9	63.5	62.2	62.9	98.2	92.4	95.3

Source: Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

Table 3: Net Enrollment Rate (NER) Trends at Primary level, by sex

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
2001 E.C. (2008/09)	84.6	81.3	83.0
2002 E.C. (2009/10)	83.7	80.5	82.1
2003 E.C. (2010/11)	87.0	83.5	85.3
2004 E.C. (2011/12)	86.8	83.9	85.4
2005 E.C. (2012/13)	87.7	84.1	85.9

Source: Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

Table 4. Percentage of Certified Primary Teachers by sex

Level/ Year	% of qualified teachers Diploma and Above				
	2001 E.C. (2008/09)	2002 E.C. (2009/10)	2003 E.C. (2010/11)	2004 E.C. (2011/12)	2005 E.C. (2012/13)
1st Cycle (1-4)	89.4*	15.5	20.9	30.4	43.8
Male	90.8*	14.6	19.1	27.3	38.9
Female	92.3*	16.6	23.3	34.7	50.3
2nd Cycle (5-8)	71.6	77.8	84.5	90.8	92.0
Male	69.6	82.4	84.2	89.3	90.7
Female	76.8	76.8	85.2	93.8	95.1

* Teachers with Certificates from Teacher Training Institutions (TTI) were considered qualified until 2001 E.C (2008/09)

Source: Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

**Table 5: Small Scale Manufacturing Industries Survey:
Number of persons engaged by sex and type of worker (2007/2008)**

Type of worker	Sex of workers					
	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Unpaid family worker	47,337	37.90	8,013	56.98	55,350	39.83
Unpaid apprentices	3,773	3.02	576	4.10	4,349	3.13
Paid apprentices	4,713	3.77	218	1.55	4,931	3.55
Permanent paid employees	61,520	49.26	5,257	37.38	66,777	48.06
Seasonal and temporary workers*	7,547	6.04	-	-	7,547	5.43
Total	124,890	100.00	14,064	100.00	138,954	100.00

* All seasonal and temporary workers are taken as male

Source: CSA (2010), Report on Small Scale Manufacturing Industries Survey, Addis Ababa

Table 6: Size of bond disbursed from 2006/07- 2007/08

	Region	Number of Housing Units Constructed	Number of housing units transferred		Number of women beneficiaries	
			Number of housing units	In percent	Number of housing units	In percent
1	Oromia	8995	6068	68%	2246	37%
2	Amhara	7100	6320	89%	2149	34%
3	SNNPR	5301	3520	66%	1197	34%
4	Tigray	4076	2170	53%	868	40%
5	Harari	1100	1100	100%	451	41%
6	Dire Dawa	966	966	100%	406	42%
	Total	27,538	20,144	73%	7,317	37%

Source: MWUD (2010), Housing Development Program 2006 – 2010 Plan Implementation Report

Table 12: Number of women and men employed in different positions in Ethio Telecom, (unpublished data from Ethio Telecom, 2014)

Job Level	Male	Female	Total	Percentage of female
A-(Support)	284	42	326	13%
B-(Support)	1619	396	2015	20%
C -(Administrators)	4412	2012	6424	31%
D- (Supervisor and/ or specialist)	1179	215	1394	15%
E- (Manager/ Section Head)	245	29	274	11%
F- (Officer)	43	5	48	10%
G-(Chief Officer)	15	1	16	6%
Total	7797	2700	10497	26%

Table 7: Aligned or adjusted rate of FGM by region

Region	EGLDAM 2007	EDHS 2007	Aligned
Tigray	21.2	26.7	23.2
Afar	87.4	88.8	87.5
Amhara	62.9	64.0	63.8
Oromia	58.5	86.2	58.4
Somalia	70.7	96.3	71.9
Benishangul/G	43.3	65.2	53.6
SNNP	30.8	70.7	52.4
Gambella	0.0	20.8	10.4
Harari	67.2	81.4	69.4
AA	52.2	60.1	52.3
Dire Dawa	78.2	91.2	82.1
	56.0		57.03

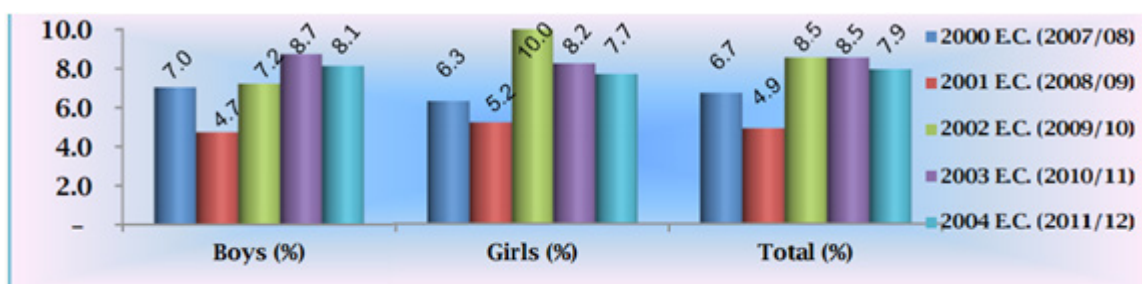
Source: CSA and EGLDAM (2013) aligned

vTable 8: Prevalence rates and Decrease in the Prevalence of Early Marriage by age

Age	Baseline	Current	Decrease	% Decrease
15-19	30.3	10.7	19.6	64.7
20-24	31.0	11.2	19.8	63.9
25-29	29.5	18.6	10.9	37.0
30-34	29.5	22.5	7.0	23.7
35-39	31.0	21.7	9.3	30.0
40-44	33.7	22.8	10.9	32.3
45-49	33.8	22.2	11.6	34.3
50-54	37.1	31.1	6.0	16.2
55-59	36.3	34.1	2.2	6.1
60+	36.6	34.9	2.3	6.3
All	33.1	21.4	11.7	35.5

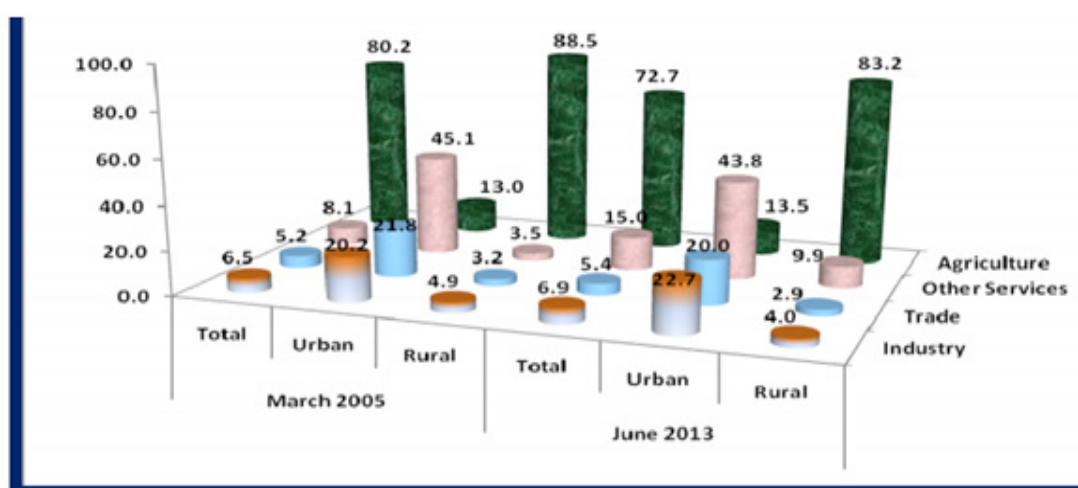
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Figure 2: Repetition rate trends by sex for grades 1-8



Source: Ministry of Education and EMIS (2013), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2005 E.C. (2012/2013)

Figure 3: Percentage share of national employed population by major industrial divisions (comparison of 2005 and 2013 labor survey data)



Source: CSA (2014), Key findings on the 2013 National Labor Force Survey, March 2014

